Journal of Yeast and Fungal Research

Volume 5 Number 3, April 2014

ISSN 2141-2413



ABOUT JYFR

The Journal of Yeast and Fungal Research (JYFR) (ISSN 2141-2413) is published Monthly (one volume per year) by Academic Journals.

Journal of Yeast and Fungal Research (JYFR), provides rapid publication (monthly) of articles in all areas of the subject such as Yeast physiology, fermentation and biotechnology, Bioremediation, Ethanol fermentation, economic importance of yeast etc.

The Journal welcomes the submission of manuscripts that meet the general criteria of significance and scientific excellence. Papers will be published shortly after acceptance. All articles published in JYFR are peer-reviewed.

Submission of Manuscript

Please read the **Instructions for Authors** before submitting your manuscript. The manuscript files should be given the last name of the first author

Click here to Submit manuscripts online

If you have any difficulty using the online submission system, kindly submit via this email jyfr@academicjournals.org.

With questions or concerns, please contact the Editorial Office at jyfr@academicjournals.org.

Editor

Prof. Viroj Wiwanitkit, M.D.

Wiwanitkit House, Bangkhae, Bangkok Thailand 10160. Visiting Prof. Tropical Medicine, Hainan Medical College, Hainan China.

Associate Editors

Dr. Wolfram Siede, Department of Cell Biology and Anatomy University of North Texas Health Science Center.

Dr. Mohsen Asker *Microbial Biotechnology Dept. National Research Centre Cairo, Egypt.*

Prof. Chester R. Cooper, Jr.

Youngstown State University One University Plaza Youngstown, Ohio.

Prof. Fukai Bao

Department of Microbiology and immunology, Kunming Medical University Yunnan, P. R. of China

Dr. Raviraja N Seetharam

Department of Oncology, Montefiore Medical Center / Albert Einstein Cancer Center, Hofheimer Room No. 413, E 210th St, Bronx, NY.

Dr. Linghuo Jiang

Tianjin Medical University, Tianjin Research Center of Basic Medical Sciences, China.

Editorial Board

Dr. Jose Guedes de Sena Filho

Federal University of Paraiba State Brazil/ University of Oklahoma.

Dr. Fabien C.C. Hountondji

Agriculture and Livestock Research/Ministry of Agriculture, Salalah, Oman.

Dr. Zhenjia Chen

Instituto de Tecnologia Química e Biológica (ITQB), Universidade Nova de Lisboa, Oeiras, Portugal.

Dr. Bankole Munir Akinwale

Ministry Of Health Lagos State, Nigeria.

Dr. Yiguang Wang

Institute of Medicinal Biotechnology, CAMS&PUMC

1 TiantanXili, Beijing, China.

Dr. Shobha D. Nadagir

Dept of Microbiology. Karnatak Institute of Medical Sciences, Hubli. Karnatak State, India.

Isaiah Masinde Tabu

Egerton University, Egerton, Kenya.

Instructions for Author

Electronic submission of manuscripts is strongly encouraged, provided that the text, tables, and figures are included in a single Microsoft Word file (preferably in Arial font).

The **cover letter** should include the corresponding author's full address and telephone/fax numbers and should be in an e-mail message sent to the Editor, with the file, whose name should begin with the first author's surname, as an attachment.

Article Types

Three types of manuscripts may be submitted:

Regular articles: These should describe new and carefully confirmed findings, and experimental procedures should be given in sufficient detail for others to verify the work. The length of a full paper should be the minimum required to describe and interpret the work clearly.

Short Communications: A Short Communication is suitable for recording the results of complete small investigations or giving details of new models or hypotheses, innovative methods, techniques or apparatus. The style of main sections need not conform to that of full-length papers. Short communications are 2 to 4 printed pages (about 6 to 12 manuscript pages) in length.

Reviews: Submissions of reviews and perspectives covering topics of current interest are welcome and encouraged. Reviews should be concise and no longer than 4-6 printed pages (about 12 to 18 manuscript pages). Reviews are also peer-reviewed.

Review Process

All manuscripts are reviewed by an editor and members of the Editorial Board or qualified outside reviewers. Authors cannot nominate reviewers. Only reviewers randomly selected from our database with specialization in the subject area will be contacted to evaluate the manuscripts. The process will be blind review.

Decisions will be made as rapidly as possible, and the journal strives to return reviewers' comments to authors as fast as possible. The editorial board will re-review manuscripts that are accepted pending revision. It is the goal of the AJFS to publish manuscripts within weeks after submission.

Regular articles

All portions of the manuscript must be typed doublespaced and all pages numbered starting from the title page.

The Title should be a brief phrase describing the contents of the paper. The Title Page should include the authors' full names and affiliations, the name of the corresponding author along with phone, fax and E-mail information. Present addresses of authors should appear as a footnote.

The Abstract should be informative and completely selfexplanatory, briefly present the topic, state the scope of the experiments, indicate significant data, and point out major findings and conclusions. The Abstract should be 100 to 200 words in length.. Complete sentences, active verbs, and the third person should be used, and the abstract should be written in the past tense. Standard nomenclature should be used and abbreviations should be avoided. No literature should be cited.

Following the abstract, about 3 to 10 key words that will provide indexing references should be listed.

A list of non-standard **Abbreviations** should be added. In general, non-standard abbreviations should be used only when the full term is very long and used often. Each abbreviation should be spelled out and introduced in parentheses the first time it is used in the text. Only recommended SI units should be used. Authors should use the solidus presentation (mg/ml). Standard abbreviations (such as ATP and DNA) need not be defined.

The Introduction should provide a clear statement of the problem, the relevant literature on the subject, and the proposed approach or solution. It should be understandable to colleagues from a broad range of scientific disciplines.

Materials and methods should be complete enough to allow experiments to be reproduced. However, only truly new procedures should be described in detail; previously published procedures should be cited, and important modifications of published procedures should be mentioned briefly. Capitalize trade names and include the manufacturer's name and address. Subheadings should be used. Methods in general use need not be described in detail. **Results** should be presented with clarity and precision. The results should be written in the past tense when describing findings in the authors' experiments. Previously published findings should be written in the present tense. Results should be explained, but largely without referring to the literature. Discussion, speculation and detailed interpretation of data should not be included in the Results but should be put into the Discussion section.

The Discussion should interpret the findings in view of the results obtained in this and in past studies on this topic. State the conclusions in a few sentences at the end of the paper. The Results and Discussion sections can include subheadings, and when appropriate, both sections can be combined.

The Acknowledgments of people, grants, funds, etc should be brief.

Tables should be kept to a minimum and be designed to be as simple as possible. Tables are to be typed doublespaced throughout, including headings and footnotes. Each table should be on a separate page, numbered consecutively in Arabic numerals and supplied with a heading and a legend. Tables should be self-explanatory without reference to the text. The details of the methods used in the experiments should preferably be described in the legend instead of in the text. The same data should not be presented in both table and graph form or repeated in the text.

Figure legends should be typed in numerical order on a separate sheet. Graphics should be prepared using applications capable of generating high resolution GIF, TIFF, JPEG or Powerpoint before pasting in the Microsoft Word manuscript file. Tables should be prepared in Microsoft Word. Use Arabic numerals to designate figures and upper case letters for their parts (Figure 1). Begin each legend with a title and include sufficient description so that the figure is understandable without reading the text of the manuscript. Information given in legends should not be repeated in the text.

References: In the text, a reference identified by means of an author's name should be followed by the date of the reference in parentheses. When there are more than two authors, only the first author's name should be mentioned, followed by 'et al'. In the event that an author cited has had two or more works published during the same year, the reference, both in the text and in the reference list, should be identified by a lower case letter like 'a' and 'b' after the date to distinguish the works.

Examples:

Abayomi (2000), Agindotan et al. (2003), (Kelebeni, 1983), (Usman and Smith, 1992), (Chege, 1998;

1987a,b; Tijani, 1993,1995), (Kumasi et al., 2001) References should be listed at the end of the paper in alphabetical order. Articles in preparation or articles submitted for publication, unpublished observations, personal communications, etc. should not be included in the reference list but should only be mentioned in the article text (e.g., A. Kingori, University of Nairobi, Kenya, personal communication). Journal names are abbreviated according to Chemical Abstracts. Authors are fully responsible for the accuracy of the references.

Examples:

Chikere CB, Omoni VT and Chikere BO (2008). Distribution of potential nosocomial pathogens in a hospital environment. Afr. J. Biotechnol. 7: 3535-3539.

Moran GJ, Amii RN, Abrahamian FM, Talan DA (2005). Methicillinresistant Staphylococcus aureus in community-acquired skin infections. Emerg. Infect. Dis. 11: 928-930.

Pitout JDD, Church DL, Gregson DB, Chow BL, McCracken M, Mulvey M, Laupland KB (2007). Molecular epidemiology of CTXM-producing Escherichia coli in the Calgary Health Region: emergence of CTX-M-15-producing isolates. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 51: 1281-1286.

Pelczar JR, Harley JP, Klein DA (1993). Microbiology: Concepts and Applications. McGraw-Hill Inc., New York, pp. 591-603.

Short Communications

Short Communications are limited to a maximum of two figures and one table. They should present a complete study that is more limited in scope than is found in full-length papers. The items of manuscript preparation listed above apply to Short Communications with the following differences: (1) Abstracts are limited to 100 words; (2) instead of a separate Materials and Methods section, experimental procedures may be incorporated into Figure Legends and Table footnotes; (3) Results and Discussion should be combined into a single section.

Proofs and Reprints: Electronic proofs will be sent (email attachment) to the corresponding author as a PDF file. Page proofs are considered to be the final version of the manuscript. With the exception of typographical or minor clerical errors, no changes will be made in the manuscript at the proof stage. **Fees and Charges**: Authors are required to pay a \$550 handling fee. Publication of an article in the Journal of Yeast and Fungal Research is not contingent upon the author's ability to pay the charges. Neither is acceptance to pay the handling fee a guarantee that the paper will be accepted for publication. Authors may still request (in advance) that the editorial office waive some of the handling fee under special circumstances

Copyright: © 2014, Academic Journals.

All rights Reserved. In accessing this journal, you agree that you will access the contents for your own personal use but not for any commercial use. Any use and or copies of this Journal in whole or in part must include the customary bibliographic citation, including author attribution, date and article title.

Submission of a manuscript implies: that the work described has not been published before (except in the form of an abstract or as part of a published lecture, or thesis) that it is not under consideration for publication elsewhere; that if and when the manuscript is accepted for publication, the authors agree to automatic transfer of the copyright to the publisher.

Disclaimer of Warranties

In no event shall Academic Journals be liable for any special, incidental, indirect, or consequential damages of any kind arising out of or in connection with the use of the articles or other material derived from the JYFR, whether or not advised of the possibility of damage, and on any theory of liability.

This publication is provided "as is" without warranty of any kind, either expressed or implied, including, but not limited to, the implied warranties of merchantability, fitness for a particular purpose, or non-infringement. Descriptions of, or references to, products or publications does not imply endorsement of that product or publication. While every effort is made by Academic Journals to see that no inaccurate or misleading data, opinion or statements appear in this publication, they wish to make it clear that the data and opinions appearing in the articles and advertisements herein are the responsibility of the contributor or advertiser concerned. Academic Journals makes no warranty of any kind, either express or implied, regarding the quality, accuracy, availability, or validity of the data or information in this publication or of any other publication to which it may be linked.

Journal of Yeast and Fungal Research

Table of Contents: Volume 5 Number 3 April, 2014

ARTICLES

Effect of co-culturing of cellulolytic fungal isolates for degradation of lignocellulosic material

K. Mohanan, R.R. Ratnayake, K. Mathaniga, C. L. Abayasekara and N. Gnanavelrajah

The Lap3p aminopeptidase is not solely responsible for bleomycin resistance in *Candida albicans*

Alexandra R. Rogers, Stephanie M. Graves and Fernando Gonzalez

academicJournals

Vol. 5(3), pp. 31-38, April 2014 DOI: 10.5897/JYFR2014.0134 Article Number: 174824644316 ISSN 2141-2413 Copyright © 2014 Author(s) retain the copyright of this article http://www.academicjournals.org/JYFR

Journal of Yeast and Fungal Research

Full Length Research Paper

Effect of co-culturing of cellulolytic fungal isolates for degradation of lignocellulosic material

K. Mohanan¹, R.R. Ratnayake¹*, K. Mathaniga², C. L. Abayasekara³ and N. Gnanavelrajah²

¹Institute of Fundamental Studies, Hantana Road, Kandy, Sri Lanka. ²Department of Botany, University of Peradeniya, Peradeniya, Sri Lanka. ³Faculty of Agriculture, University of Jaffna, Sri Lanka.

Received 10 March, 2014; Accepted 10 April, 2014

This study intended to compare the efficiency of fungal monocultures and co-cultures in the simultaneous delignification and saccharification of kitchen waste and *Eichhornia crassipes* in order to subject the hydrolysate into biofuel production. Three fungal isolates of genus *Trichoderma, Aspergillus, Pycnoporus* and an unidentified strain (F113) were grown in mono and co-cultures and the extracted enzymes were used for the degradation. Co-culture of *Trichoderma* spp with the other fungi improved its enzyme activity while the other co-cultures did not show significantly improved enzymatic degradation compared to monocultures. The highest percentage of saccharification (over total dry weight) achieved were 11.9% with kitchen waste after seven days and 9.8% with *E. crassipes* after 4 days. The drop in degradation rate normally seen after complete digestion of amorphous cellulose was not apparent probably due to the grinding of the substrates to fine particle size.

Key words: Fungal co-culture, biofuel, cellulase, kitchen waste, invasive weeds.

INTRODUCTION

Fossil fuel resources are limited and their usage leads to environmental problems. Hence, it is imperative to utilise alternative energy sources that are renewable and ecofriendly. Biofuels are promising in this regard. Second generation biofuels are produced from non-edible biomass, through degradation and fermentation.

Enzymes degrading lignocelluloses in nature include cellulases, xylanases and lignin degrading enzymes. The activity of lignin degrading enzyme is too slow for application in biofuel production (Lu et al., 2010). Thus, thermo-chemical pre-treatment is needed to overcome the recalcitrance (Margeot et al., 2009). Pre-treatment also results in degradation of hemicelluloses. Therefore, cellulases are the major enzymes involved in subsequent enzymatic hydrolysis.

Pre-treatment requires energy input and chemicals which adds up to a major component of the cost of production. The cost of enzymes also contributes significantly (Shi et al., 2009). Among microbes, some aerobic filamentous fungi are known to secrete high

*Corresponding author. E-mail: renukar@ifs.ac.lk. Tel: + 94-81-2232002. Fax: + 94-81-2232131.

Author(s) agree that this article remain permanently open access under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0</u> International License amounts of cellulases. Such strains are found in the genera Trichoderma, Aspergillus, Pencillium and many others (Lynd et al., 2002). The factors affecting the expression and secretion of fungal cellulases include induction, repression, metal ions, inorganic nutrients, surfactants and culture conditions (Gremel et al., 2008; Mandels and Reese, 1957; Reese and Maguire, 1969; Schmoll et al., 2005; Suto and Tomita, 2001). Cellulases belong to three classes, namely endoglucanases, exoglucanases and β -glucosidases, which act in synergy (Lynd et al., 2002). The right balance of the cellulases is crucial for optimal degradation of lignocelluloses. In *Trichoderma reesei*, large proportions of β-glucosidase remain cell-wall bound through a polysaccharide and gets released when treated with cellulase from Aspergillus niger (Messner et al., 1990). Endoglucanases and exoglucanases of T. reesei are inhibited by cellobiose whereas its β-glucosidases was inhibited by glucose (Philippidis et al., 1993). In contrast, A. niger secretes high amounts of β-glucosidase which is tolerant to high levels of glucose (Decker et al., 2000). For these reasons, a combination of cellulases from T. reesei and A. niger is used in the biofuel industry (Reczey et al., 1998). Co-culture of T. reesei and Aspergillus sp has been shown to result in better yield of cellulases (Ahamed and Vermette, 2008; Duff, 1985). Better utilization of substrates and formation of strong inducers for *T. reesei* cellulases by β-glucosidase of Aspergillus are thought to be the reasons for the increased yield (Ahamed and Vermette, 2008).

Disposal of household waste is a problem in the urban areas of Sri Lanka. Current practice is to dump the waste in the suburbs, causing unpleasant odours and health problems in those areas. Composting has been attempted in an industrial scale but has been abandoned due to operational problems (Premachandra, 2006). A possible solution to this problem could be the utilization of household waste for biofuel production. Another potential substrate is the invasive aquatic weed Eichhornea crassipes. Invasive weeds are probable raw materials for cellulosic biofuel production. These are non-indigenous "non-native" plants which adverselv or affect the habitats and bioregions they invade economically, environmentally, and ecologically (Westbrooks, 1998). E. crassipes is one of a common aquatic invasive weed and another potential substrate for biofuel production. The fast growing nature of these weeds can provide raw materials in abundance for biofuel industries. Since it is less lignified, its utilisation would require low pretreatment. If effective technologies can be developed to drive commercial products from these weeds it will be beneficial both economically and ecologically. Although a large number of microorganisms (fungi, bacteria and actinomycetes) are capable of degrading cellulose, only a few of them produce significant quantities of cell-free enzyme fractions capable of complete hydrolysis of cellulose in vitro. Cellulases obtained from compatible

mixed cultures of fungi appear to have more enzyme activity as compared to their pure cultures and other combinations (Jayant et al., 2011).

The objective of this study was to compare the efficiency of fungal monocultures and co- cultures in the simultaneous delignification and saccharification of kitchen waste and *E. crassipes* in order to subject the hydrolysate into biofuel production.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Isolation of cellulolytic fungi

Samples of decaying plant material, ruminant dung, decaying kitchen waste and soil were suspended in sterile normal saline, serially diluted to obtain 10^{-1} , 10^{-2} and 10^{-3} dilutions. 100 µl of each dilution was plated on potato dextrose agar (with gentamicin 50 mg/L and chloramphenicol 50 mg/L) by spread plate technique and incubated at 25°C up to a week. The fungal isolates were inoculated on Czapek dox agar without sucrose and with 1% cellulose and those showing good growth were presumed to be potential cellulose degraders and added to the culture collection. The isolates in the culture collection were screened for cellulase production by growing them without replicates as described in measurement of enzyme activities part of the work. The isolates which showed at least 0.01 FPU of cellulase activity were then tested in replicates and those with the highest enzyme activities from different genera were chosen for further study.

Measurement of enzyme activities

Production of enzymes

Fungal isolates were grown on PDA slants for 7 days. Spore suspensions were made in sterile saline, spore concentrations were adjusted to $10^7 - 10^8/ml$ and 100 µl of the suspensions were inoculated into 20 ml of a minimal medium (Mandels and Reese, 1957). Co-cultures were made by inoculating 100 µl of spore suspension from each of the relevant strain. The cultures were incubated at 28°C on a rotary shaker at 100 rpm. For initial screening, the isolates were cultured without replicates with an incubation period of 3 days. At the end of incubation, the cultures were used as crude enzymes for the assays.

Total cellulase assay

Total cellulase assay was carried out using Whatmann No.1 filter paper as the substrate (Mandels et al., 1976; Ghose, 1987). Reducing sugars formed were measured by using di-nitro salicylic acid reagent (Sumner, 1921; Miller, 1959), with glucose as standard. The total cellulase activity is expressed as filter paper units/ml (FPU/ml).

Xylanase assay

Xylanase activities were measured by a method modified from Gottschalk et al. (2010) using 1% (w/v) beech wood xylan (Sigma) as the substrate. Reducing sugars formed were measured using dinitro salicylic acid (DNS) reagent (Sumner, 1921; Miller, 1959), with xylose as standard.

β-glucosidase activities were measured by using cellobiose as the substrate (Ghose, 1987; Sternberg et al., 1977). Glucose formed during the assay was measured using a commercial blood glucose meter (*One Touch Ultra 2*) based on glucose oxidase, calibrated with glucose standards in 0.05 M citrate buffer (pH = 4.8). Positive results of β-glucosidase activities were verified by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) as described in enzymatic degradation of lignocellulosic materials part of this work.

Laccase assay

Laccase activities of *Pycnoporus cinnabarinus* was measured with ABTS (2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline- 6-sulphonic acid)) as the substrate (Bourbonnais et al., 1995).

Enzymatic degradation of lignocellulosic materials

Kitchen waste and mature leaves (to represent the most recalcitrant type for degradation, as they are the most lignified) of E. crassipes were dried in an oven at 50°C to a constant weight. The dried material was then ground in a plant grinder and sieved through 93 µm (kitchen waste) and 50 µm (E. crassipes) sieve. Powdered kitchen waste (500 mg) and E. crassipes (200 mg) were added separately into boiling tubes, to which 6 ml of 50 mM citrate buffer (pH 4.8) was added and autoclaved at 121°C for 15 min. To each tube, 3 ml of crude enzyme from fungal monoculture or co-culture was added and incubated in a water bath at 50°C with reciprocal shaking at 100 rpm for five to seven days. Samples were withdrawn daily and total sugar concentrations were determined using DNS reagent with glucose standards (Sumner et al., 1921). The sugar components of the hydrolysate of E. crassipes at the end of 4th day of degradation were measured by High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) using agilent Hi-plex H column (p/n PL1170-6830 300x7.7 mm) at 65°C with deionised water as the mobile phase (flow rate: 0.6 ml/min, injection volume: 10 µl). Sugars were detected with an RI detector. D-cellobiose, D-glucose, Dxylose and L-arabinose (Sigma Aldrich) standards were used for calibration. High-performance liquid chromatography was not performed on kitchen waste due to the highly variable nature of its content.

Data analysis

Statistical comparisons were made by ANOVA using Minitab software (version 14). α = 0.05 unless otherwise stated.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Isolation of cellulolytic fungi

A total of 145 fungal strains were isolated from different samples. During the initial screening for cellulase activity, 35 isolates were found to have greater than 0.01 FPU/ml of activity. The isolates which showed significant cellulase activities were shown in Table 1. Most of them belong to *Trichoderma* species, while strains of *Penicillium, Aspergillus* and an unidentified fungal strain were also present. Fungi were tentatively identified using macroscopic and microscopic morphological characteristics. Slide culture technique was used to aid the fungal identifications.

Co-culture of fungi

Fungal isolates belonging to genera of *Trichoderma* (F1, F16,F F118), *Penicillium* (F24) and an unidentified isolate (F113) were selected for co-culturing. The selection was made to include different genera and strains with β -glucosidase activity. The isolates were divided into two groups (F1, F16 and F118) and (F24, F80, F113) and co-cultures were made in all possible combinations within each group. Cellulase and xylanase activities of the co-cultures and corresponding mono-cultures were measured (Figures 1 and 2).

Among the group containing F1, F16 and F118, the cocultures showed lower cellulase activities compared to the corresponding monocultures. Among the group containing F24, F80 and F113, the co-culture F80 and F113 showed higher cellulase activity than F113, but the difference was statistically insignificant. The co-cultures F24/F113 and F24/F80/F113 showed significantly higher xylanase activities compared to the corresponding monocultures. Other co-cultures showed either no significant difference or reduced xylanase activity.

Degradation of kitchen waste

The isolates F24, F113 and F118 were selected for degradation of kitchen waste. The cumulative sugar contents measured at 1^{st} , 2^{nd} 3^{rd} and 7^{th} days of degradation of fresh kitchen waste was shown in Figure 3. At the end of seven days of degradation, the highest amount of sugars were released by enzymes from F24 (59.7 mg) followed by the co-culture F24/F113 (58 mg). Enzymes from the co-culture F113/F118 effected significantly higher degradation than F118 (*Trichoderma*) alone. This is probably due to the lack of secreted β -glucosidase activity by F118 being complemented by F113.

Degradation of E. crassipes

Enzymes from the fungal strains F24, F113, F118 and a woody mushroom from Sri Lanka (M21), identified as *Pycnoporus cinnabarinus*, were used for the degradation of *E. crassipes*. Screening revealed that some organisms were more efficient than the others. M21 was found to have a significant cellulase activity (0.21 FPU) and laccase activity (50 IU/ml). The cumulative sugar contents measured at 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th days of enzymatic degradation of *E. crassipes* was shown in Figure 4. The sugar contents at the 4th day was shown in Figure 5 for comparison. The component sugars as

Isolate no.	Total cellulase (FPU/ml)	Xylanase (IU/ml)	β-glucosidase (IU/ml)	Genus	
F118	0.21	4.31	Not detected	Trichoderma	
F80	0.16	2.03	Not detected	Trichoderma	
F1	0.15	5.48	Not detected	Trichoderma	
F16	0.14	5.22	0.11	Trichoderma	
F22	0.13	5.22	0.09	Trichoderma	
F24	0.12	4.98	Not detected	Penicillium	
F54	0.11	1.77	Not detected	Trichoderma	
F27	0.11	5.38	Not detected	Trichoderma	
F98	0.10	4.79	0.05	Trichoderma	
F10	0.09	2.14	Not detected	Trichoderma	
F56	0.08	5.62	0.05	Trichoderma	
F88	0.07	5.25	0.13	Trichoderma	
F40	0.06	3.35	0.07	Aspergillus	
F113	0.06	1.02	0.15	Unidentified	

Table 1. Fungal isolates with highest cellulase activities.



Figure 1. Cellulase activities of monocultures and co-cultures of selected fungi. Key: F1-*Trichoderma* spp., F16 - *Trichoderma* spp., F118-*Trichoderma* spp., Co1- F1 and F16, Co2-F1 and F118, Co3- F16 and F118, Co4- F1, F16 and F118, F24-*Penicillium* spp., F80-*Trichoderma* spp., F113-Unidentified, Co5- F24 and F80, Co6- F24 and F113, Co7- F80 and F113, Co8- F24, F80 and F113. Error bars indicate standard errors of the means.

measured by HPLC at the end of 4th day are shown in Figure 6. The amount of simple sugar produced and released to the medium can depend on activities of cellulase systems and physiological characteristics of particular species.

The highest quantity of total sugar content (19.6 mg) at the end of four days of degradation of *E. crassipes* was

obtained with enzymes from the co-culture F113/F118. However, the mono-cultures F24, F113 and co-cultures F24/F113, F24/F118 and F24/M21 gave slightly lower quantities and the differences are not statistically significant. F118 and F113/M21 and M21 showed significantly lower degradation rate. It was noted that while the amount of xylose formed by M21 was similar to



Figure 2. Xylanase activities of monocultures and co-cultures of selected fungi. Key: F1-*Trichoderma* spp., F16 - *Trichoderma* spp., F118-*Trichoderma* spp., Co1- F1 and F16, Co2-F1 and F118, Co3- F16 and F118, Co4- F1, F16 and F118, F24-*Penicillium* spp., F80-*Trichoderma* spp., F113-Unidentified, Co5- F24 and F80, Co6- F24 and F113, Co7- F80 and F113, Co8- F24, F80 and F113. Error bars indicate standard errors of the means.



Figure 3. Total sugar content (cumulative) released from un-decomposed kitchen waste by enzymes

other isolates, the amount of arabinose formed was much lower. The percentage of maximum sugar yield over total dry weight was 11.9 and 9.8% respectively from kitchen waste and *E. crassipes*. The percentages against total polysaccharide content should be higher.

Grinding the substrate to a very fine powder (93 and 50 μ m) would reduce the length of the polysaccharide chains and increase the number of free ends available for the

activity of exoglucanases. It would also increase the surface area of the substrate available for enzyme activity. During the enzymatic hydrolysis of cellulose, amorphous portions are quickly degraded followed by slow degradation of crystalline regions (Mandels, 1975). Thus a change in the rate of degradation, that is, slope of the degradation curve, indicates the end of degradation of amorphous portions. This change should occur roughly



Figure 4. Total reducing sugars measured at daily intervals during enzymatic degradation of *E. crassipes*



Figure 5. Total reducing sugar accumulated by degradation of *E. crassipes* by the end of 4^{th} day of degradation

at about the same percentage of degradation for different enzymes. However, in the present study, such change of rate did not seem to occur at roughly equal percentage of degradation. This could be because at low particle sizes, the effect of enzyme loading becomes more prominent.

Conclusions

Co-culturing of *Trichoderma* with other cellulolytic fungi improved the activity of lignocellulose degrading enzymes compared to monoculture of *Trichoderma*. The co-culture



Figure 6. Quantities of glucose, xylose and arabinose of the enzyme hydrolysate of *E. crassipes* at the end of 4^{th} day of degradation.

of other fungi did not result in significant improvement in the activity compared to corresponding monocultures. Significant percentage of degradation of kitchen waste and *E. crassipes* was achieved with the monoculture, without pre-treatment. Fine powdered material was used to eliminate the cost of pre-treatment. Enzyme from *Pycnoporus cinnabarinus* the laccase producing strain was found to be ineffective for lignocellulose degradation.

REFERENCES

- Ahamed A, Vermette P (2008). Enhanced enzyme production from mixed cultures of *Trichoderma reesei* RUT-C30 and *Aspergillus niger* LMA grown as fed batch in a stirred tank bioreactor. Biochem. Eng. J. 42: 41-46.
- Bourbonnais R, Paice MG, Reid ID, Lanthier P, Yaguchi M. (1995). Lignin oxidation by laccase isozymes from *Trametes versicolor* and role of the mediator 2,2'-azinobis (3-ethylbenzthiazoline-6-sulfonate) in kraft lignin depolymerization. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 61: 1876-1880.
- Decker CH, Visser J, Schreier P (2000). β-Glucosidases from five black Aspergillus species: study of their physico-chemical and biocatalytic properties. J. Agr. Food Cchem. 48: 4929-4936.
- Duff SJ, Cooper DG, Fuller OM (1985). Cellulase and beta-glucosidase production by mixed culture of *Trichoderma reesei* Rut C30 and *Aspergillus phoenicis*. Biotechnol. Lett. 7:185-190.
- Ghose T (1987). Measurement of cellulase activities. Pure Appl. Chem. 59:257-268.
- Gottschalk LMF, Oliveira RA, Bon EPS (2010). Cellulases, xylanases, β-glucosidase and ferulic acid esterase produced by *Trichoderma* and *Aspergillus* act synergistically in the hydrolysis of sugarcane bagasse. Biochem. Eng. J. 51: 72-78.
- Gremel G, Dorrer M, Schmoll M (2008). Sulphur metabolism and cellulase gene expression are connected processes in the filamentous fungus *Hypocrea jecorina* (anamorph *Trichoderma reesei*). BMC Mmicrobiol. 8: 174.
- Jayant M, Rashmi J, Shailendra M, Deepesh Y (2011). Production of cellulase by different co-culture of Aspergillus niger and Penicillium

chrysogenum from waste paper, cotton waste and baggase. J. Yeast Fungal. Res. 2:24-27.

- Lu C, Wang H, Luo Y, Guo L (2010). An efficient system for predelignification of gramineous biofuel feedstock *in vitro*: Application of a laccase from *Pycnoporus sanguineus* H275. Process Biochem. 45:1141-1147.
- Lynd LR, Weimer PJ, van Zyl WH, Pretorius IS (2002). Microbial cellulose utilization: fundamentals and biotechnology. Microbiol. Mol. Biol. R. 66:506 577.
- Mandels M. (1975). Microbial sources of cellulase. In Biotechnol. Bioeng. Symp. 5, pp. 81-105.
- Mandels M, Andreotti R, Roche C (1976). Measurement of saccharifying cellulase. Biotechnology and Bioengineering Symposium (6)21 33.
- Mandels M, Reese ET (1957). Induction of cellulase in Trichoderma viride as influenced by carbon sources and metals. J. Bacteriol. 73:269.
- Margeot A, Hahn-Hagerdal B, Edlund M, Slade R, Monot F (2009)New improvements for lignocellulosic ethanol. Curr. Opin. Biotech. 20:372 380.
- Messner R, Hagspiel K, Kubicek C P (1990). Isolation of a βglucosidase binding and activating polysaccharide from cell walls of Trichoderma reesei. Arch. Microbiol. 154:150-155.
- Miller GL (1959). Use of Dinitrosalicylic acid reagent for determination of reducing sugar. Anal. Chem. 31:426 428.
- Philippidis GP, Smith TK, Wyman C E (1993). Study of the enzymatic hydrolysis of cellulose for production of fuel ethanol by the simultaneous saccharification and fermentation process. Biotechnol. Bioeng. 41: 846-853.
- Premachandra HS (2006). Household Waste Composting & MSW Recycling in Sri Lanka. In *Asia 3R conference, Tokyo (available from: www.env.go.jp/recycle/3r/en/asia/02_03-3/08.pdf* [Accessed 14 December 2013].
- Reczey K, Brumbauer A, Bollok M, Szengyel Z, Zacchi G (1998). Use of hemicellulose hydrolysate for β-glucosidase fermentation. In *Biotechnology for Fuels and Chemicals* (pp. 225-235). Humana Press.
- Reese ET, Maguire A (1969). Surfactants as stimulants of enzyme production by microorganisms. Appl. Microbiol. 17:242-245.
- Schmoll M, Franchi L, Kubicek C P (2005). Envoy, a PAS/LOV domain protein of Hypocrea jecorina (Anamorph Trichoderma reesei), modulates cellulase gene transcription in response to light.

Eukaryotic cell 4:1998-2007.

- Shi J, Ebrik M, Yang B, Wyman CE (2009). The potential of cellulosic ethanol production from municipal solid waste: a technical and economic evaluation. (available from: http://escholarship.org/uc/item/99k818c4 [Accessed 15 December 2013].
- Sternberg D, Vuayakumar P, Reese ET. (1977). β-Glucosidase: microbial production and effect on enzymatic hydrolysis of cellulose. Can. J. Microbiol. 23: 139-147.
- Sumner JB (1921). Dinitrosalicylic acid: a reagent for the estimation of sugar in normal and diabetic urine. J. Biol. Chem. 47: 5-9

Suto M, Tomita F (2001). Induction and catabolite repression mechanisms of cellulase in fungi. J. Biosci. Bioeng. 92:305-311.

Westbrooks R. (1998). Invasive plants, changing the landscape of America: Fact book. Federal Interagency Committee for the Management of Noxious and Exotic Weeds (FICMNEW), Washington, D.C. 03 pp. Available at http://digitalcommons.usu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1489&cont ext=govdocs

academicJournals

Vol. 5(3), pp. 39-49, April 2014 DOI: 10.5897/JYFR2014.0132 Article Number: 5AC3DDB44325 ISSN 2141-2413 Copyright © 2014 Author(s) retain the copyright of this article http://www.academicjournals.org/JYFR

Journal of Yeast and Fungal Research

Full Length Research Paper

The Lap3p aminopeptidase is not solely responsible for bleomycin resistance in *Candida albicans*

Alexandra R. Rogers¹, Stephanie M. Graves² and Fernando Gonzalez¹*

¹Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Arizona College of Osteopathic Medicine, Midwestern University, 19555 N. 59th Avenue, Glendale, AZ 85308 USA.

²College of Health Science, Midwestern University, 19555 N. 59th Avenue, Glendale, AZ 85308 USA.

Received 31 January, 2014; Accepted 2 April, 2014

Detoxification of the glycopeptide bleomycin is mediated by bleomycin hydrolase, a cysteine aminopeptidase identified in a variety of organisms. The opportunistic fungal pathogen *Candida albicans* is known to exhibit increased resistance to bleomycin when compared to other yeast. Presented here is the cloning of the *C. albicans* Lap3p aminopeptidase, predicted by sequence identity to be the *Candida* form of bleomycin hydrolase. *C. albicans* Lap3p is functionally capable to replace the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* Lap3p *in vivo*. Furthermore, the *Candida* enzyme was found to function as a cysteine aminopeptidase *in vivo*. It is shown here that upon introduction into a *lap3* deletion strain of *S. cerevisiae*, the *C. albicans* Lap3p aminopeptidase does not significantly alter the response of *Saccharomyces* to bleomycin. These results suggest that *C. albicans* Lap3p does not function as the sole factor involved in bleomycin detoxification, and may require an accessory protein or co-factor in order to efficiently mediate this process in *Candida*. This study provides the first evidence of a functional description of the *C. albicans* Lap3p cysteine aminopeptidase, and provides the foundation for further mechanistic studies of the role of this protein in the cellular processes of *Candida*.

Key words: Candida albicans, bleomycin detoxification, Lap3p aminopeptidase, cysteine protease.

INTRODUCTION

Candida albicans is a diploid yeast that is the most common fungal pathogen of humans (Wey et al., 1988; Pfaller, 1989; Beck-Sague et al., 1993). *Candida* species typically reside as commensals in humans, and are found

in over 50% of the population (Antley and Hazen, 1988). In immunocompromised patients however, mild to aggressive opportunistic infections can manifest from an imbalance of colonization. Coincident with this increase in

*Corresponding author. E-mail: fgonza@midwestern.edu. Tel: 623-572-3723. Fax: 623-572-3673.

Author(s) agree that this article remain permanently open access under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0</u> International License

Abbreviations: BCA, Bicinchoninic acid; E-64, trans-Epoxysuccinyl-L-leucyl-amido(4-guanidino)butane; H-Arg-AMC, Harginine-7-amino-4-methylcoumarin⁻2HCl; H-Cit-AMC, H-citrulline-7-amino-4-methylcoumarin⁻2HBr; YEP, yeast extract/peptone; YEPD , yeast extract/peptone/glucose; YEP-Gal, yeast extract/peptone/galactose; Ura (-), synthetic culture medium lacking uracil; PMSF, phenylmethanesulfonylfluoride; EDTA, disodium ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid; DTT, dithiothreitol; WCE, whole cell extract. pathogenicity is the transition of *C. albicans* from an innocuous yeast form to a more problematic mold form (Antley and Hazen, 1988). The transition of *C. albicans* from budding yeast to mold is induced by specific environmental and host factors (Muhlschlegal et al., 1998; Calderone and Fonzi, 2001; Hube, 2004). Invasive fungal infections such as candidemia results in high health care costs, and a mortality rate that approaches 50% (Wey et al., 1988). Effective treatment options for candidiasis are hindered by the lack of knowledge regarding the mechanistic basis of pathogenicity. Therefore it is imperative to more comprehensively understand fundamental biological processes of *C. albicans*.

Proteolysis is known to play a vital role in cellular metabolic processes. The Saccharomyces cerevisiae YCP1 (LAP3) gene is a cysteine aminopeptidase originally isolated based on a genetic approach in which mutant cells possessing a decreased ability to hydrolyze an aminopeptidase substrate were screened (Kambouris et al., 1992; Enenkel and Wolf, 1993). Subsequent work has provided evidence that Lap3p is widely distributed throughout nature, plays a role in numerous cellular processes, and has been given numerous names based on the function for which it was identified. Enekel and Wolf (1993) showed that LAP3 was identical to S. cerevisiae BLH1, a protein showing significant sequence homology to rabbit bleomycin hydrolase. The rabbit bleomycin hydrolase is responsible for inducing resistance to the anticancer glycopeptide bleomycin through a cysteine aminopeptidase activity (Sebti et al., 1987; Sebti et al., 1989; Sebti et al., 1989). Mutants in BLH1 (orthologous to LAP3) demonstrate a decreased ability to detoxify bleomycin (Enenkel and Wolf, 1993). Increased bleomycin resistance is observed following introduction of the wild type BLH1 gene in both S. cerevisiae (Pei et al., 1995) and mammalian cells (Wang and Ramotar, 2002). Furthermore, Xu and Johnston (1994) isolated the GAL6 cysteine aminopeptidase (identical to LAP3) bound and localized to GAL4p DNA binding sites. Although GAL6 deletion mutants are viable, Gal6p (Lap3p) is known to exert a modest negative effect on GAL promoter mediated transcription (Zheng et al., 1997). In humans, BLH1 is expressed in most tissue types (Takeda et al., 1996), and functions in protection against homocysteine toxicity (Zimny et al., 2006) and progression of atopic dermatitis. A correlative association with development of astrogliosis has also been attributed to abnormalities in BLH1 function (Montoya et al., 1998; Montoya et al., 2007). In order to provide clarity, the enzyme identified and described in the following work will be referred to as LAP3.

To date, the *C. albicans* Lap3p remains uncharacterized, and its function is largely inferred from sequence homology to Lap3p found in other organisms. *C. albicans* LAP3 is a gene that is positively regulated by Sfu1p, a transcription factor that upregulates gene expression in iron starvation conditions (Lan et al., 2004). Based on the distribution pattern of Lap3p throughout nature, as well as the varied functions attributed to this protein, we sought to identify LAP3 in C. albicans. Enzyme assays utilizing specific inhibitors demonstrated the presence of cysteine aminopeptidase activity in C. albicans. Using the genome sequence present in the Candida Genome Database (CGD), we have amplified the putative C. albicans LAP3 gene and expressed it in a cerevisiae strain deleted for the LAP3 gene. S. Incorporation of the Candida LAP3 gene resulted in no remarkable growth defects in S. cerevisiae. Additionally, cysteine aminopeptidase activity was restored in the transformants, suggesting that the C. albicans LAP3 is capable of functionally replacing the equivalent gene in baker's yeast. Introduction of the C. albicans LAP3 into S. cerevisiae did not increase the resistance to bleomycin, suggesting that Lap3p is not the sole factor involved in bleomycin detoxification in *Candida*. This work represents the first characterization of the C. albicans Lap3p aminopeptidase, and provides the basis for elucidating its role in Candida.

METHODOLOGY

Strains and culture conditions

The Escherichia coli Novablue cells (EMD Millipore, Billerica, MA) were used for plasmid amplification. Bacteria were cultured in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics. S. cerevisiae were obtained from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA) and were as follows: Sc001 (BY4741; MATa Ahis3 Aleu2 Amet15 Aura3), Alap3 (YNL239W; MATa Ahis3 Δleu2 Δmet15 Δura3 Δlap3::KAN). Candida albicans strains used in this study, Ca002 (Ca1001) and Ca004 (MYA2876). Yeast strains in either rich medium (YEP) or complete synthetic yeast culture medium (ura (-); 0.67% yeast nitrogen base without amino acids, 2 g/L yeast complete synthetic amino acid mix lacking uracil) supplemented with the appropriate carbon sources were grown at 30°C. Carbon sources glucose (D) and galactose (G) were prepared and sterilized separately from culture medium and added to a final concentration of 2% prior to use. Growth phenotypes of wild type and transformant strains were assessed by plating spot dilutions onto either rich medium or selective medium lacking uracil and supplemented with 200 µg/ml Geneticin (G418; Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) in order to maintain the lap3 deletion. Plates were incubated between 1-3 days at 30°C.

Cloning of Saccharomyces and Candida LAP3

The yeast Gateway destination expression vector pYES-DEST52 (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) was subjected to site directed mutagenesis using the oligonucleotide 5'CCGGTCATCATCACCATCACCATTGAGTAAAAACCCGCTGAT CCTAGAGGGCC3' (Integrated DNA Technologies, Coralville, IA) in order to remove a Pmel restriction site from the 3' end of the multiple cloning site. Mutagenesis was performed using the Change-IT site directed mutagenesis kit from Affymetrix (Santa Clara, CA). Following disruption of the Pmel restriction site, a novel

Pmel site was integrated into the vector in order to create an orientation in which the inserted open reading frame would ultimately be flanked on its 3' end by a V5 epitope, followed by a protease cleavage site and finally a 6-Histidine purification tag. This was accomplished using the oligonucleotide 5'CTCGGTCTCGATTCTACGCGTGGTTTAAACACCGGTCATCAT CACCATCAC3' (Integrated DNA Technologies, Coralville, IA). The Tobacco Etch Virus (TEV) protease cleavage site was inserted into the Pmel digested pYES-DEST52 via ligation of the duplexed oligonucleotide

5'AAACCTCGAGGAAAACCTGTATTTTCAGGGCTCCTTCGGTTT 3' (Integrated DNA Technologies, Coralville, IA), and the resultant plasmid was renamed pFG91.

C. albicans LAP3 was amplified by PCR from *Ca002* genomic DNA, using the oligonucleotide pair 5'CACCATGGGTTCCAACAC3'/5'AGCTAAAGCACCCATAGG3'

(Integrated DNA Technologies, Coralville, IA). The *LAP3* fragment was then ligated into the Gateway entry vector pENTR-D-TOPO (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA). The resultant plasmid was renamed pENTR-Ca LAP3. This plasmid possessed the *C. albicans LAP3* gene flanked by the *attL* recombination sequences to facilitate its transfer into the pFG91 destination vector (which contains the corresponding *attR* acceptor sites).

pFG91 was then mixed with pENTR-Ca LAP3 and a recombination event was carried out between the 2 plasmids using the LR clonase recombination enzyme (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA). Following recombination the generated plasmid contained the *C. albicans LAP3* gene immediately upstream and in frame with a V5 epitope, TEV cleavage site, and 6-Histidine tag. This plasmid was confirmed by sequencing (Genewiz, South Plainfield, NJ) and renamed pFG99.

Yeast transformations

The *S. cerevisiae* strain $\triangle lap3$ (ATCC #YNL239W), which is deleted for *LAP3*, was transformed with pFG99 in order to address the possibility of functional replacement of the *S. cerevisiae LAP3* gene with the orthologous gene from *C. albicans*. Transformations were carried out by a standard protocol that utilized lithium acetate and polyethylene glycol (Ito, et al., 1983). Transformed cells were plated on selective media and allowed to grow at 25°C for four to eight days.

Whole cell extracts and enzyme assays

Fungal whole cell extracts from Ca002, Sc001, and Sc/lap3, along with strains transformed with an empty vector or pFG99 were generated as described previously (Xu and Johnston, 1994) and quantitated by absorbance at 562 nm using the BCA Protein Assay kit (Pierce, Rockford, IL). Measurement of cysteine aminopeptidase activity in whole cell extracts was performed by modification of the protocol described in Xu and Johnston (1994). Briefly, 50 µg WCE was mixed with 25 µl 4X assay buffer (200 mM KH₂PO₄, 200 mM NaHPO₄, pH 7.5, 8 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), 40 mM DTT), and pre-warmed to 30°C. Sterile water was used to bring the final reaction volume to 100 µl. The reaction was initiated upon the addition of 5 µl of 0.5 mM H-Arg-7-amino-4-methylcoumarin hydrochloride (H-Arg-AMC; Bachem, Torrence, CA) or H-Citrulline-7-amino-4-methylcoumarin hydrobromic acid (H-Cit-AMC; Bachem, Torrence, CA). Reactions were performed in triplicate and allowed to progress at 30°C for 2 h.

Fluorescence of liberated AMC corresponded to aminopeptidase activity and was measured in a BioTek Synergy2 microplate reader, using excitation wavelength of 340 nm and emission wavelength of 465 nm. Specific protease inhibitors (Enzo Biosciences, Farmingdale, NY) were incubated with WCE for 15 min prior to the start of the reactions.

Bleomycin detoxification

To assess detoxification of bleomycin by different strains, cells were grown in the appropriate medium to mid logarithmic phase, pelleted and washed in cold sterile water. Ten-fold dilutions of each strain were spotted on culture plates containing 1, 2.5 or 5 μ g/ml bleomycin (Bleocin; EMD Millipore, Billerica, MA). Plates lacking bleomycin were used as positive controls for growth. Plates were incubated at 30°C for 24-72 h (depending on colony density) and bleomycin detoxification was scored by visual inspection of the colony survival following incubation.

Additionally, sensitivity to bleomycin was measured in liquid cultures. Cells in early logarithmic phase were washed in cold water and resuspended in an equal volume of medium supplemented with 1, 2.5, or 5 μ g/ml bleomycin (Bleocin; EMD Millipore, Billerica, MA). Cells were induced with 2% galactose containing medium for 2 h, and treated with the indicated concentrations of bleomycin for 2 h. Cells were plated on selective medium, ura (-), as previously described, with the exception that glucose was the sole carbon source. Plates were scored for survivors after 2 days of growth at 30°C.

Western blot analysis

A S. cerevisiae ∆lap3 strain harboring the C. albicans LAP3 overexpression plasmid pFG99 was used to visualize the expression pattern of Lap3p. Cells were grown to early log phase and either induced in ura (-) selective medium supplemented with 2% galactose or left uninduced in ura (-) medium with 2% glucose. Alternatively, YEP supplemented with either 2% glucose (uninduced) or 2% galactose (induced) was also used to address Lap3p protein expression.

Ten µg whole cell extract taken from each growth condition was run on 10% Tricine SDS-polyacrylamide gels and transferred to nitrocellulose (BioRad, Hercules, CA) using submerged blotting apparatus (Idea Scientific). *C. albicans* Lap3 was visualized by a standard immunoblot method using a mouse antibody generated against the V5 epitope (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO).

RESULTS

C. albicans LAP3 functionally replaces LAP3 in S. cerevisiae

Sequence analysis of the *C. albicans* genome predicted an open reading frame encoding a putative aminopeptidase possessing significant sequence homology to the *S. cerevisiae LAP3* gene (Candida Genome Database). The corresponding gene product, however has remained uncharacterized.

Using a SIM (Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics) amino acid sequence alignment, it was discovered that there is a 41% sequence identity (over 87% of the protein) with the *S. cerevisiae* Lap3p aminopeptidase (Figure 1). Of note is that essential active site amino acids found in *S. cerevisiae*, in particular the active site triad of Cysteine 73, Histidine 369 and Asparagine 392 (Joshua-Tor et al., 1995) are highly conserved in the *Candida* protein.

Ca	Lap3p	64	LSKWEDDFKSQTKNLLAQNALAKNAIVDVIAKNSVGKQSLKDRYLFNITVDTIGSPAHLN
Sc	Lap3p	10	INSWNKEFQSDLTHQLATTVL-KNYNADDALLNKTRLQK-QDNRVFNTVVSTDSTPVT
			* * * * * * * * * * * * *
Ca	Lap3p	124	NQKSSGRCw i Fa SSNVLRTHV i KNYNLKEDDFQ LSQSYLYFYDKLEKANFFLENIEDTSS
Sc	Lap3p	66	nqkssgrCwlfa atnqlrlnvlselnlkefelsqaylffydklekanyfldqivssad

Ca	Lap3p	184	EDLDSRLISYLFSNPVNDGGQWDMIVNLVNKYGVVPNEVFPDNAQSTNSS-KLNYVVTEK
Sc	Lap3p	124	QDIDSRLVQYLLAAPTEDGGQYSMFLNLVKKYGLIPKDLYGDLPYSTTASRKWNSLLTTK * **** ** * **** * *** * * * * * * * *
Ca	Lap3p	243	LREYGLKLRSLIA-KDAPKNVISSFKASAIKSIYKTIALALGTPP-KPTDEFLWEFIDKD
Sc	Lap3p	184	LREFAETLRTALKERSADDSIIVTLREQMQREIFRLMSLFMDIPPVQPNEQFTWEYVDKD *** ** * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *
Ca	Lap3p	301	GKYKSFKTNPLDFYKTHVRFDASEHFSLIHDPRNEYNKLYTVERLNNIFGGKPIEYINLE
Sc	Lар3р	244	KKIHTIKSTPLEFASKYAKLDPSTPVSLINDPRHPYGKLIKIDRLGNVLGGDAVIYLNVD * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *
Ca	Lap3p	361	IDEIKQVAIKMLKDNEPVFFGSDVGKFSDSKSGILDTTAYDYSTAFDFSLDITKSQRLKV
Sc	Lap3p	304	NETLSKLVVKRLQNNKAVFFGSHTPKFMDKKTGVMDIELWNYP-AIGYNLPQQKASRIRY * * * ***** ** * * * * * * * * * *
Ca	Lap3p	421	GSSQ mtHam vitgvhidpqtnkpvrwkieNswgedsg kgwfmmtdewfdevvfqivtnk
Sc	Lap3p	363	$\texttt{Hesl}{\textbf{mtHam}} \texttt{litgchvdetsklplryrve} \textbf{Nswg} \texttt{kdsg} \texttt{kdglyvmt} \texttt{g} \texttt{kyfeeycf} \texttt{givvdi}$
			* ** ** * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *
Ca	Lap3p	481	KYSGKKAYDIWKSKEFNTLPYYDPMGALA
Sc	Lар3р	423	NELPKELASKFTSGKEEPIVLPIWDPMGALA

Figure 1. Amino acid sequence analysis of *Candida albicans* Lap3p. Comparison of the *S. cerevisiae* and *C. albicans* Lap3p amino acid sequences was carried out using the SIM amino acid sequence alignment program (Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics). Data shown represents 87% of the *C. albicans* Lap3p amino acid sequence in which there is 41% identity to the well-characterized *S. cerevisiae* Lap3p sequence. Amino acids denoted with asterisks (*) indicate highly conserved amino acids between the 2 proteins. Enlarged amino acids are those found in the active site triad of the *S. cerevisiae* protein, and represent those amino acids necessary for peptidase activity. Note the highly conserved nature of the *Candida* amino acid sequence at these positions, as well as in the regions surrounding the active site triad (in bold).

Therefore, sequence analysis strongly suggests that the *Candida* Lap3p is orthologous to the *Saccharomyces* Lap3 protein.

To address its cellular functions in fungi, the *C. albicans LAP3* gene was cloned into a Gateway Destination (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) yeast expression vector. The resultant inducible expression plasmid (pFG99) was introduced into a *Saccharomyces*

strain deleted for *LAP3* ($\Delta lap3$), and verified for protein production by western blot analysis (Figure 2C). Transformation of pFG99 (*CaLAP3*) into $\Delta lap3$ demonstrated no measurable effects on yeast growth on a rich culture medium (Figure 2A). Similar results were obtained when transformants were selected on a uracil deficient culture medium, which was used to ensure expression of the *C. albicans LAP3* gene present on





Α





Figure 2. Candida albicans LAP3 serves as a functional equivalent of the Saccharomyces cerevisiae LAP3 gene. S. cerevisiae deleted for the LAP3 (Alap3) gene were transformed with either empty vector or an expression vector containing C. albicans LAP3. Following selection of transformants, cells were spotted in 10-fold serial dilutions on rich medium (A), or synthetic medium lacking uracil (B) supplemented with 200 µg/ml Geneticin. Untransformed *Alap3* cells, along with wild type S. cerevisiae (Sc001) and C. albicans (Ca002) were included on each plate. Panel B demonstrates representative data from spot dilutions on medium supplemented with either glucose or galactose. Plates were maintained at 30°C for two days prior to assessing growth patterns. (C) Western blot analysis was carried out in order to visualize the expression of C. albicans Lap3p in S. cerevisiae wild type and mutant strains. ⊿lap3::pFG99 cells were either grown for 2 h in uninducing conditions (2% glucose) or induced by washing the cell pellet and resuspending the cells in culture medium supplemented with 2% galactose. WCE generated from each cell pellet were used as the input in SDS polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. Following transfer to nitrocellulose, the expression of C. albicans Lap3p in S. cerevisiae was observed using an anti-V5 epitope antibody (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO).

pFG99 (Figure 2B). Additionally, upon overexpression of the *CaLAP3* (Figure 2B, galactose), growth patterns of the transformed strains appeared to be unaffected.

Lap3p orthologs are found in a number of eukaryotes (Sebti et al., 1987; Ferrando et al., 1996; Takeda et al., 1996; Schwartz et al., 1999) and are known to exhibit



Figure 3. Enzyme activity of *C. albicans* Lap3p in *S. cerevisiae.* Cleavage of a fluorogenic cysteine aminopeptidase substrate was measured by incubating H-Arginine-AMC with 50 µg whole cell extracts from *Sc001, Ca002,* Δ *lap3* and Δ *lap3::CaLAP3* strains. The yeast strain Δ *lap3::vector* was used as a control against transformation induced activation of peptidase activity in the *lap3* deletion strain. Cross-hatched bars represent WCE that were treated with the cysteine protease specific inhibitor E-64 for 5 min prior to initiation of the reaction. Reactions were conducted at 30°C for 2 h. Experiments were repeated 3 times, and results reflect the specific hydrolysis of the fluorogenic substrate in relative fluorescence units (RFU).

aminopeptidase activity against the fluorogenic substrate H-Arg-AMC, and to a lesser extent H-Citrulline-AMC. As demonstrated in Figure 3, a whole cell extract from a S. cerevisiae strain containing the Candida LAP3 gene as the only source of the Lap3p aminopeptidase exhibited activity against H-Arg-AMC comparable to the activity of wild type Saccharomyces and Candida strains. Importantly, transformation of the *Alap3* strain with the empty vector did not significantly affect aminopeptidase activity against H-Arg-AMC. Incubation of the yeast whole cell extracts with the cysteine protease specific inhibitor E-64 resulted in significant decrease of Lap3p activity in whole cell extracts. Similar results were obtained using the H-Cit-AMC substrate (data not shown), suggesting that the Candida Lap3p enzyme possesses general aminopeptidase properties similar to other characterized Lap3p orthologs.

Candida Lap3p functions as a member of the cysteine aminopeptidase family

In order to further characterize the *Candida* Lap3p aminopeptidase, a series of experiments were conducted in which inhibitors to different proteases were incubated with the *Candida* LAP3-expressing *S. cerevisiae* strain. As evidenced in Table 1, use of cysteine protease inhibitors either eliminated (E-64) or greatly reduced (leupeptin) detectable Lap3p activity. Interestingly, inhibitors directed against other types of proteases

demonstrated little to no effect against *C. albicans* Lap3p. More specifically, incubation of whole cell extracts with bestatin (inhibitor of metalloproteases and leucine aminopeptidases), pepstatin (inhibitor of aspartyl proteases) and PMSF (inhibitor of serine proteases) had little effect on *C. albicans* Lap3p activity. Additionally, extracts incubated with EDTA or MgCl₂ (factors involved in metalloprotease activity) are not affected in their Lap3p activity. Taken together, the results in Table 1 further support the hypothesis that Lap3p functions as a cysteine aminopeptidase.

Increased bleomycin sensitivity in *Candida* is not solely attributed to Lap3p function

In studying the effects of DNA repair components in *C. albicans*, Garcia-Prieto, et al. (2010) demonstrated that *Candida* is more sensitive than *Saccharomyces* to the anticancer glycopeptide bleomycin. In that study it was hypothesized that there may be a previously uncharacterized bleomycin hydrolase activity present in *C. albicans*. The Lap3p aminopeptidase is thought to be solely responsible for bleomycin detoxification in *S. cerevisiae* (Pei, *et al.*, 1995) and mammalian cells (Wang and Ramotar, 2002), which prompted a test of whether the *C. albicans* Lap3p was functionally distinct in such a way that it would impart increased bleomycin resistance in a $\Delta lap3$ *S. cerevisiae* strain. To address this possibility,

Inhibitor	Final	Activity (%)		
	Concentration	H-Arg-AMC	H-Cit-AMC	
None	-	100	100	
E-64	10 µM	0	0	
Leupeptin	10 µM	5	9	
Bestatin	10 µM	81	87	
Pepstatin	1 µM	73	72	
PMSF	1 mM	78	72	
EDTA	2 mM	103	120	
DTT	2 mM	109	108	
MgCl ₂	5 mM	101	107	

Table 1. Effects of protease inhibitors on Candida albicans Lap3p activity.

Effects of protease inhibitors on *Candida albicans* Lap3p activity. Characterization of the *C. albicans* Lap3p was performed by mixing 50 μ g WCE per reaction with 4X assay buffer (200 mM KH₂PO₄, 200 mM NaHPO₄, pH 7.5, 8 mM EDTA, 40 mM DTT), and pre-warmed to 30°C. Sterile water was used to bring the final reaction volume to 100 μ l. Specific protease inhibitors were incubated with WCE for 15 min prior to the start of the reactions and the reactions were initiated by addition of H-Arg-7-amino-4-methylcoumarin hydrochloride (H-Arg-AMC) or H-citrulline-7-amino-4-methylcoumarin hydrobromic acid (H-Cit-AMC). Reactions progressed at 30°C for 2 h. Fluorescence of liberated AMC corresponded to aminopeptidase activity and was measured by excitation at 340 nm and emission at 465 nm. 100% activity corresponds to cleavage of 1 nM substrate/min.

the yeast strains described above were used in spot dilution test on rich medium (YEPD) plates containing 1, 2.5 or 5 µg/ml bleomycin. As shown in Figure 4A (top left box), YEPD plates lacking bleomycin provided evidence that the strains do not exhibit noticeably different growth rates in this type of assay. Culture plates containing either 2.5 or 5 µg/ml bleomycin (Figure 4A, bottom panels) showed the varied response to bleomycin by S. cerevisiae and C. albicans. In these conditions, C. albicans retained robust growth characteristics, but the growth of S. cerevisiae was inhibited by the presence of bleomycin to the extent that no detectable colonies were present. Each of the S. cerevisiae strains, whether LAP3 was present or not, demonstrated the ability to grow in plates containing 1 µg/ml bleomycin (Figure 4A, top right panel).

Interestingly, introduction of the *C. albicans LAP3* into the $\Delta lap3$ strain did not impart a significant difference in resistance to bleomycin by *S. cerevisiae*. Expression of *C. albicans* Lap3p derived from the episomal expression is "leaky" on a glucose containing culture medium, as evidenced by western blot analysis (Figure 2C), but may not have reached a critical amount to exert any effect on bleomycin detoxification.

To address the possibility that there is simply not a sufficient quantity of recombinant *C. albicans* Lap3p produced in *S. cerevisiae* to adequately detoxify bleomycin, culture plates lacking uracil (supplemented with galactose as the sole carbon source) as the sole carbon source were used in a spot dilution assay. Under these conditions, overexpression of the *C. albicans* Lap3p is observed (Figure 2C).

In Figure 4B (top left panel), no apparent difference in growth pattern was obvious when comparing the *S. cerevisiae* and *C. albicans* strains. It should be noted that the lack of growth in the *Sc001* and Δ *lap3* lanes was expected due to the lack of a *URA3* producing plasmid in each of those uracil deficient strains.

As in Figure 4A, *S. cerevisiae* strains were incapable of growth in 2.5 or 5 μ g/ml bleomycin, regardless of *C. albicans LAP3* presence. Additionally, overexpression of recombinant *C. albicans LAP3* did not increase resistance to 1 μ g/ml bleomycin in *S. cerevisiae*, suggesting that *C. albicans* Lap3p is not the sole factor involved in bleomycin detoxification in *Candida*.

Based on the collection of evidence suggesting that bleomycin resistance *in vivo* is significantly increased following introduction of recombinant Lap3p (Pei et al., 1995; Wang and Ramotar, 2002), a liquid culture bleomycin resistance assay was employed.

Following exposure to 1, 2.5, or 5 μ g/ml bleomycin in liquid culture, yeast cells were plated on bleomycin-free agar plates. In this experimental design, a measure of yeast colony forming units following bleomycin exposure was determined.

As shown in Figure 5, wild type *C. albicans* exhibited ability to grow in up to 5 μ g/ml bleomycin. In stark contrast, growth of each of the *S. cerevisiae* strains was severely impaired. Surprisingly, presence of either *S. cerevisiae* Lap3p (*Sc001*) or recombinant *C. albicans* Lap3p (Δ *lap3::CaLAP3*) resulted in no detectable increase in bleomycin resistance when compared to strains deleted for the *LAP3* open reading frame. Even at the lower bleomycin concentrations (1 μ g/ml), no signi-



Figure 4. Sensitivity of *C. albicans* and mutant *S. cerevisiae* to bleomycin. Serial dilution assays were used to assess the relative sensitivity to bleomycin in *S. cerevisiae cells* expressing the *C. albicans LAP3* gene. Cells were spotted in 10-fold serial dilutions on rich medium (YEPD-Panel A) or synthetic medium lacking uracil (Panel B) supplemented with 2% galactose, 200 µg/ml Geneticin and either 1, 2.5 or 5 µg/ml of bleomycin in the molten agar. Untransformed $\Delta lap3$ cells, along with wild type *S. cerevisiae* (*Sc001*) and *C. albicans* (*Ca002*) were included on each plate. Plates were incubated at 30°C for 72 h. The data is representative of three independent assays.

ficant difference in growth patterns of the *S. cerevisiae* strains was observed. Taken together with the results shown in Figure 4, we conclude that the *C. albicans* Lap3p is not solely responsible for imparting bleomycin resistance in all fungal systems.

DISCUSSION

We have described the first experimental evidence regarding the cloning and functional analysis of the *Candida albicans* Lap3p aminopeptidase. The gene that encodes this protein (*LAP3*) is orthologous to the *S. cerevisiae LAP3* and mammalian *BLH1* genes, which encode a cysteine aminopeptidase that functions in detoxification of bleomycin *in vivo*. Utilizing a *S. cerevisiae lap3* deletion strain, we have provided evidence that *Candida* Lap3p aminopeptidase is capable of functionally replacing the proteolytic activity of the *Saccharomyces* Lap3p.

Enzyme inhibitor profile studies verified that *C. albicans* Lap3p does indeed function as a cysteine aminopeptidase. Introduction of the *Candida* Lap3p demonstrated no significant negative effects on growth of the organism. We have used *in vivo* cell survival assays to demonstrate the increased bleomycin resistance properties of *C.* *albicans* when compared to *S. cerevisiae*. Furthermore, introduction of the *Candida* Lap3p did not significantly influence bleomycin resistance in *S. cerevisiae*.

The Streptomyces vertillicus-derived glycopeptide bleomycin has long been used as an anticancer chemotherapeutic (Lazo, 1999). Shortly after the discovery of bleomycin-resistant cell lines (Lazo et al., 1989) the rabbit bleomycin hydrolase (*BLH1*) protein was identified as the responsible protein in this response (Sebti and Lazo, 1987). Identification of an orthologous protein in *S. cerevisiae* (*YCP1/BLH1/GAL6/LAP3*) prompted further genetic studies, but has yielded reports that differ in describing the response of *lap3*-deletion strains when compared to wild type strains. Upon deletion of the *BLH1* (Enenkel and Wolf, 1993) or *GAL6* (Xu and Johnston, 1994) gene, cells exhibited hypersensitivity to bleomycin.

It has also been reported that strains deleted for *yBLH1* exhibited an equivalent level of bleomycin resistance as did wild type strains (Kambouris et al., 1992; Wang and Ramotar, 2002). Deletion of *LAP3* in *Saccharomyces* does not significantly influence the response of those cells to bleomycin. Our findings were consistent in both culture plate-based tests of resistance as well as in liquid culture, and suggest that a second protein (aside from Lap3p) may exist that functions in bleomycin



BLM Concentration (µg/ml)

Figure 5. Cell survival of wild type and mutant yeast strains following exposure to bleomycin. Cells from the *Sc001*, *Ca002*, $\Delta lap3$, $\Delta lap3$::vector and $\Delta lap3$::CaLAP3 strains were grown to mid log phase in synthetic medium lacking uracil and supplemented with 2% glucose. Cell pellets were washed in cold water and induced using 2% galactose for 2 h, and resuspended in with 1, 2.5 or 5 µg/ml of bleomycin for 2 h. Two hundred µl from each condition were plated on culture medium lacking uracil and supplemented with 2% glucose. Plates were scored for survivors after 2 days of growth at 30°C.

detoxification in baker's yeast. Although a second bleomycin hydrolase has not been of identified in yeast. the Lap aminopeptidases represent a family of 4 aminopeptidases that were isolated from the same mutant screen (Trumbly and Bradley, 1983). Analysis of the Lap aminopeptidase family revealed that activity of Lap1p, 2p and 4p greatly decreases upon introduction of EDTA to the assay system. Reactivation aminopeptidase activity was observed following addition of various cations, suggesting that these 3 Lap enzymes function as metallopeptidases. Interestingly, Lap3p is not classified as a metallopeptidase and possesses very little amino acid similarity to the 3 other members of the Lap family, suggesting that it is unlikely that members of the Lap family other than Lap3p function in detoxification of bleomycin. Through the use of active site Gal6p mutants, Zheng and Johnston (2008) demonstrated that hydrolysis of bleomycin was linked to the cysteine aminopeptidase activity of the protein both in vivo and in vitro. Evidence has been presented that describes changes in the Gal6p/Lap3p substrate specificity based on the carboxyterminus of the enzyme (Zheng et al., 1998). It is possible that functional redundancy with regard to bleomycin resistance can exist with another cysteine aminopeptidase.

Conflicting reports also exist regarding the effect of Lap3p expression on bleomycin detoxification. Cells expressing high levels of Ycp1p demonstrate increased resistance to bleomycin than do those expressing normal levels of the protein (Kambouris et al., 1992). Additionally, introduction of yeast Ycp1p resulted in an increase in bleomycin resistance of mammalian cells (Pei et al., 1995).

Wang and Ramotar (2002), however presented data to show that addition of Blh1p imparts no additional resistance to bleomycin *in vivo*. This outcome was obtained when bleomycin hydrolase was either expressed at normal levels or over-expressed. Data shown in Figures 4 and 5 demonstrate that overexpression of *C. albicans* Lap3p in a *S. cerevisiae lap3* deletion strain does not significantly increase the bleomycin resistance properties of *Saccharomyces*. The *C. albicans* protein may require a secondary factor not present in *Saccharomyces* in order to exert its bleomycin detoxification effects. Alternatively, a possibility may arise in which *C. albicans* cells exhibit resistance to killing by bleomycin by physically excluding the drug from cells.

Jayaguru and Raghunathan (2007) used bleomycintreated cells to investigate the possibility of targeting the splicing machinery of *C. albicans* as a method by which to design new antifungals. Additionally, in studies of *Candida* DNA repair processes; it was found that bleomycin was capable of killing *C. albicans* cells at concentrations greater than 5 μ g/ml (Garcia-Prieto et al., 2010). We have also found that concentrations at or over 10 μ g/ml bleomycin serve to induce cell death of *C. albicans* (data not shown). Taken together, it would seem unlikely that *C. albicans* exhibits greater resistance to bleomycin simply by excluding it from the cell.

Finally, the ability of the *C. albicans* Lap3p to bind DNA may be a key determinant in its activity against bleomycin. The Gal6p was originally identified bound to the *GAL1/10* promoter region (Xu and Johnston, 1994), and Zheng and Johnston (1998) demonstrated that *S. cerevisiae* strains housing a DNA binding mutant Gal6p were decreased in their capacity to neutralize bleomycin. The DNA binding properties of the *C. albicans* protein have yet to be determined.

Although the *Candida* Lap3p is predicted to have an overall more negative charge than the *Saccharomyces* enzyme (CGD), this does not appear to be the sole determinant to nucleic acid binding by Lap3p-orthologous proteins. As an example, although the rat bleomycin hydrolase enzyme is able to bind single stranded Gal4 binding site (Takeda et al., 1996), this enzyme does not associate with DNA cellulose.

In this study it was proposed by the authors that there may be an accessory factor required for localization onto DNA. In *Escherichia coli*, the LexA protein is also known to be a DNA binding protease, but its association with DNA demonstrates an absolute requirement for the cofactor RecA (Kim and Little, 1993). In either case, we believe it is imperative to fully characterize the nucleic acid binding properties of *Candida* Lap3p to further understand the implications of this activity in fungal cellular processes.

Numerous cellular functions other than bleomycin detoxification have been described for yeast Lap3p and its orthologs (Koldamova et al., 1998; Montoya et al., 1998; Zimny et al., 2006; Montoya et al., 2007; Kamata et al., 2011) Furthermore, cysteine proteases throughout nature have demonstrated a role in a large variety of processes, ranging from signaling pathways in many organisms to programmed cell death (Degterev et al., 2003). Our results presented here raise further questions regarding the nature of the function of the *Candida* protein. Our evidence presented here provides the first evidence of cloning and functional characterization of the *C. albicans* Lap3p, and opens the door for dissecting its function(s) in *Candida* physiology.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors wish to thank M. Rogers and O. Ahmed for technical assistance. This work was supported by intramural funds from Midwestern University to FG.

REFERENCES

Antley PP, Hazen KC (1988). Role of yeast cell growth temperature on Candida albicans virulence in mice. Infect. Immun. 56:2884-2890.

- Beck-Sague C, Banerjee S, Jarvis WR (1993). Infectious diseases and mortality among US nursing home residents. Am. J. Public Health. 83:1739-1742.
- Calderone RA, Fonzi WA (2001). Virulence factors of Candida albicans. Trends Microbiol. 9:327-335.
- Degterev A, Boyce M, Yuan J (2003). A decade of caspases. Oncogene. 22:8543-8567.
- Enenkel C, Wolf DH (1993). BLH1 codes for a yeast thiol aminopeptidase, the equivalent of mammalian bleomycin hydrolase. J. Biol. Chem. 268:7036-7043.
- Ferrando AA, Velasco G, Campo E, Lopez-Otin C (1996). Cloning and expression analysis of human bleomycin hydrolase, a cysteine proteinase involved in chemotherapy resistance. Cancer Res. 56: 1746-1750.
- Garcia-Prieto F, Gomez-Raja J, Andaluz E, Calderone R, Larriba G (2010). Role of the homologous recombination genes RAD51 and RAD59 in the resistance of Candida albicans to UV light, radiomimetic and anti-tumor compounds and oxidizing agents. Fungal Genet. Biol. 47:433-445.
- Hube B (2004). From commensal to pathogen: stage- and tissuespecific gene expression of Candida albicans. Curr. Opin. Microbiol. 7:336-341.
- Ito H, Fukuda Y, Murata K, Kimura A (1983). Transformation of intact yeast cells treated with alkali cations. J. Bacteriol. 153:163-168.
- Jayaguru P, Raghunathan M (2007). Group I intron renders differential susceptibility of Candida albicans to Bleomycin. Mol. Biol. Rep. 34:11-17.
- Joshua-Tor L, Xu HE, Johnston SA, Rees DC (1995). Crystal structure of a conserved protease that binds DNA: the bleomycin hydrolase, Gal6. Science. 269:945-950.
- Kamata Y, Yamamoto M, Kawakami F, Tsuboi R, Takeda A, Ishihara K, Hibino T (2011). Bleomycin hydrolase is regulated biphasically in a differentiation- and cytokine-dependent manner: relevance to atopic dermatitis. J. Biol. Chem. 286:8204-8212.
- Kambouris NG, Burke DJ, Creutz CE (1992). Cloning and characterization of a cysteine proteinase from Saccharomyces cerevisiae. J. Biol. Chem. 267:21570-21576.
- Kim B, Little JW (1993). LexA and lambda Cl repressors as enzymes: specific cleavage in an intermolecular reaction. Cell. 73:1165-1173.
- Koldamova RP, Lefterov IM, DiSabella MT, Lazo JS (1998). An evolutionarily conserved cysteine protease, human bleomycin hydrolase, binds to the human homologue of ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme 9. Mol. Pharmacol. 54:954-961.
- Lan CY, Rodarte G, Murillo LA, *et al.* (2004). Regulatory networks affected by iron availability in Candida albicans. Mol. Microbiol. 53:1451-1469.
- Lazo JS (1999). Bleomycin. Cancer Chemother. Biol. Response Modif. 18:39-45.
- Lazo JS, Braun ID, Labaree DC, Schisselbauer JC, Meandzija B, Newman RA, Kennedy KA (1989). Characteristics of bleomycinresistant phenotypes of human cell sublines and circumvention of bleomycin resistance by liblomycin. Cancer Res. 49:185-190.
- Montoya SE, Aston CE, DeKosky ST, Kamboh MI, Lazo JS, Ferrell RE (1998). Bleomycin hydrolase is associated with risk of sporadic Alzheimer's disease. Nat. Genet. 18:211-212.
- Montoya SE, Thiels E, Card JP, Lazo JS (2007). Astrogliosis and behavioral changes in mice lacking the neutral cysteine protease bleomycin hydrolase. Neuroscience. 146:890-900.
- Muhlschlegal F, Fonzi W, Hoyer L, Payne T, Poulet FM, Clevenger J,

- Latge JP, Calera J, Beauvais A, Paris S, Monod M, Sturtevant J, Ghannoum M, Nozawa Y, Calderone R (1998). Molecular mechanisms of virulence in fungus-host interactions for Aspergillus fumigatus and Candida albicans. Med. Mycol. 36 Suppl 1:238-248.
- Pei Z, Calmels TP, Creutz CE, Sebti SM (1995). Yeast cysteine proteinase gene ycp1 induces resistance to bleomycin in mammalian cells. Mol. Pharmacol. 48:676-681.
- Pfaller MA (1989). Infection control: opportunistic fungal infections--the increasing importance of Candida species. Infect. Control. Hosp. Epidemiol. 10:270-273.
- Schwartz DR, Homanics GE, Hoyt DG, Klein E, Abernethy J, Lazo JS (1999). The neutral cysteine protease bleomycin hydrolase is essential for epidermal integrity and bleomycin resistance. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 96:4680-4685.
- Sebti SM, DeLeon JC, Lazo JS (1987). Purification, characterization, and amino acid composition of rabbit pulmonary bleomycin hydrolase. Biochemistry. 26:4213-4219.
- Sebti SM, DeLeon JC, Ma LT, Hecht SM, Lazo JS (1989). Substrate specificity of bleomycin hydrolase. Biochem. Pharmacol. 38:141-147.
- Sebti SM, Lazo JS (1987). Separation of the protective enzyme bleomycin hydrolase from rabbit pulmonary aminopeptidases. Biochemistry. 26:432-437.
- Sebti SM, Mignano JE, Jani JP, Srimatkandada S, Lazo JS (1989). Bleomycin hydrolase: molecular cloning, sequencing, and biochemical studies reveal membership in the cysteine proteinase family. Biochemistry. 28:6544-6548.
- Takeda A, Masuda Y, Yamamoto T, Hirabayashi T, Nakamura Y, Nakaya K (1996). Cloning and analysis of cDNA encoding rat bleomycin hydrolase, a DNA-binding cysteine protease. J. Biochem. 120:353-359.
- Trumbly RJ, Bradley G (1983). Isolation and characterization of aminopeptidase mutants of Saccharomyces cerevisiae. J. Bacteriol. 156:36-48.

- Wang H, Ramotar D (2002). Cellular resistance to bleomycin in Saccharomyces cerevisiae is not affected by changes in bleomycin hydrolase levels. Biochem. Cell. Biol. 80:789-796.
- Wey SB, Mori M, Pfaller MA, Woolson RF, Wenzel RP (1988). Hospitalacquired candidemia. The attributable mortality and excess length of stay. Arch. Intern. Med. 148:2642-2645.
- Xu HE, Johnston SA (1994). Yeast bleomycin hydrolase is a DNAbinding cysteine protease. Identification, purification, biochemical characterization. J. Biol. Chem. 269:21177-21183.
- Zheng W, Johnston SA (1998). The nucleic acid binding activity of bleomycin hydrolase is involved in bleomycin detoxification. Mol. Cell. Biol. 18:3580-3585.
- Zheng W, Johnston SA, Joshua-Tor L (1998). The unusual active site of Gal6/bleomycin hydrolase can act as a carboxypeptidase, aminopeptidase, and peptide ligase. Cell 93:103-109.
- Zheng W, Xu HE, Johnston SA (1997). The cysteine-peptidase bleomycin hydrolase is a member of the galactose regulon in yeast. J. Biol. Chem. 272:30350-30355.
- Zimny J, Sikora M, Guranowski A, Jakubowski H (2006). Protective mechanisms against homocysteine toxicity: the role of bleomycin hydrolase. J. Biol. Chem. 281:22485-22492.

Journal of Yeast and Fungal Research

Related Journals Published by Academic Journals

African Journal of Agricultural Research
 African Journal of Environmental Science & Technology
 Biotechnology & Molecular Biology Reviews
 African Journal of Biochemistry Research
 African Journal of Microbiology Research
 African Journal of Food Science
 African Journal of Pharmacy & Pharmacology
 African Journal of Biotechnology
 Scientific Research and Essays

academicJournals