

African Journal of Virology Research ISSN 3421-7347 Vol. 11 (4), pp. 001-006, April, 2017. Available online at www.internationalscholarsjournals.org © International Scholars Journals

Author(s) retain the copyright of this article.

Full Length Research Paper

Expression of melanin and insecticidal protein from *Rhodotorula glutinis* in *Escherichia coli*

Julius K. Oloke¹* and Bernard R. Glick²

¹Department of Biology, Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, P. M. B. 4000, Ogbomoso, Nigeria. ²Department of Biology, University of Waterloo, Waterloo, Ontario, Canada N2L 3G1.

Accepted 24 November, 2016

Both the salmon/red melanin and the insecticidal producing genes of *Rhodotorula glutinis* was successfully expressed in *Escherichia coli* using plasmid pZErO -1. This work suggests that in *Rhodotorula* species melanin and insecticidal toxin are co-expressed and therefore possibly co-evolved.

Key words: Rhodotorula glutinis, Escherichia coli, Melanin, Insecticidal Protein.

INTRODUCTION

It has been shown that Rhodotorula glutinins produces salmon/red melanin and proteinaceous crystal toxic to insect just like Bacillus thuringienses (Oloke and Glick, 2005). produce Various strains of Bacillus thuringiensis proteinaceous crystals toxic to different insect larvae (Bulla et al., 1977; Holmes and Monro, 1965; Lawbaw, 1964), making these organisms candidates for use on a large scale as biological insecticides. Unfortunately, although numerous formulations of B. thuringiensis have been used as a bioinsecticide (Armstrong et al., 1985; Goldberg and Margalit, 1977; Viseser et al., 1986), these preparations generally have low efficacies (Beeker et al., 1992; Mulla, 1985; Mulligan et al., 1980) . One of the major factors affecting the stability and thus the efficacy of B. thuringiensis is photoinactivation (Ignoffo et al., 1977) although other factors such as heat, dessication and pH may also play some role (Leong et al., 1980).

Several attempts to achieve photoprotection of the *B. thuringiensis* insecticidal toxin have included encapsulation (Dunkle and Shasha 1988), granular formulation (Ahmed et al., 1973), and the addition of a variety of UV absorbing compounds (Morris 1983; Margulies et al., 1985; Cohen et al., 1991). Although synthetic UV chemical photostabilizers offer *B. thuringiensis* some protection, their use in the environment may introduce ecological problems related to

*Correspondence author. E-mail: jkoloke@skannet.com

soil and water pollution. The black melanin isolated from another soil bacterium has been found to provide photoprotection to the *B. thuringiensis* toxin (Liu et al., 1993). In this paper, the isolation of *E. coli* transformants capable of producing both the *Rhodotorula glutunis* insecticidal toxin and salmon/red pigment are described.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plasmid DNA was prepared from *Rhodotorula glutinis* by the procedure of Krostad et al. (1983). For preferential isolation of plasmids 50 megadaltons (mD) in size and smaller cultures were grown in 500 mL of L broth (Difco Laboratories, Detroit, MI) supplemented with glucose to give a final concentration of 0.1% in a 2.8 L Fernback flask with shaking at 37°C; cells were harvested at an optical density at 600 nM of 0.8. For the preferential isolation of plasmids 30 mD and larger, cells were grown separately in two types of media: in 500 mL coconut water (Oloke and Glick, 2005) supplemented with glucose and in 500 mL of SPY medium (Spizizen medium; 20) supplemented with 0.1% yeast extract and 0.1% glucose in a 2.8 L Fernback flask with shaking at 37°C; cells were harvested at an optical density at 600 nM of 0.7.

Total cell DNA was prepared from *Rhodotorula glutinis* as described by Kronstad et al. (1983). Cells grown in coconut water medium were harvested by centrifugation, washed with a solution containing 100 mM NaCl, 10 mM Tris (pH 7.9), and 10 mM EDTA (pH 7.9 before being lysed by the addition of lysozyme. The isolated DNA was dissolved in 10 nM Tris pH 7.9.

Restriction enzymes were used as recommended by the supplier (New England Biolabs), and recombinant DNA procedures were carried out as described by Sambrook et al., 1989. A genomic DNA library of *Rhodotorula glutinis* was prepared in plasmid pZErO-1 (Invitrogen Corp., San Diego, CA) using the conditions suggested by the manufacturer. Two L aliquots of the ligation mixture were used to transform *E. coli* TOP10F cells (Invitrogen Corp., San Diego, CA). The transformants were plated on Low Salt LB-Zeocin-IPTG medium (1% Tryptone, 0.5% Yeast Extract, 0.5% NaCl, 1 mM IPTG and 500 g/L Zeocin.).

Transmission electron microscopy was carried out as described by Bechtel and Bulla, 1976. E. coli transformants were suspended in 4% glutaraldehyde in 0.01 M phosphate-buffered saline at pH 7.2 for 5 min at 4°C then pelleted and suspended in 2% agar at 55°C. The agar was immediately cooled to 4 °C, cut into 1 mm cubes, and placed into fresh cold glutaraldehyde for 1 h. Samples were washed four times in cold 0.01 M phosphate buffer for a total of 80 min. After washing, the yeasts were postfixed in 1% OsO4 at 4 °C for 1 h. Samples were rinsed in double-distilled water for 30 min and then stained overnight in 0.5% aqueous uranyl acetate. The yeasts were dehydrated by passing them through a graded acetone series and then embedded in Epon 812. Samples were cut with a diamond knife on a Porter-Blum MT -2b ultramicrotome, stained with lead citrate, and examined in a Philips EM 201 electron microscope operated at 60 kV. Serial sections, 150 nM thick were placed on slotted grids previously coated with Formvar and carbon.

Scanning electron microscopy was carried out as described by Calabrese et al., 1976. A drop of each culture suspension (~106 cells/mL) was placed on a Formvar coated grid and excess liquid drawn off with Whatman No. 50 filter paper. The dried grid was then shadowed with a 63.5 mm Pt-Pd wire at 20 A for 20 sec in the tungsten basket of a Varian PS10E vacumn evaporator.

The pigments isolated from the transformants were purified as described by Liu et al., 1993 and characterized as described by Fuqua et al., 1991. The photoprotective effect of the pigment was assessed as described by Liu et al., 1993.

The crystals of the transformant were obtained by sucrose gradient centrifugation (Aronson et al., 1991) and solubilized in 0.3 M Na₂CO₃- - mercaptoethnol, pH 9.7 (Calabrese and Nickerson, 1980). The solubilized crystals were dialyzed at 4° C against several changes of 0.03 M NaHCO₃, pH 8.5. Inclusions were suspended in the latter buffer and used for bioassay against fourth instar larvae of *Aedes aegypti* as described (Aronson et al., 1991; Ingle et al., 1993), and the LC₅₀ was calculated.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Agarose gel electrophoresis of plasmid DNA extracted from *Rhodotorula glutinis* indicates the presence of a single large plasmid whose size is equal to or greater than about 50 kb (Figure 1). Since it was not known whether the gene encoding the biosynthesis of the salmon/red melanin was presented within the plasmid or the chromosomal DNA, total cellular DNA was used to construct a clone bank of *Rhodotorula glutinis* DNA in the *E. coli* plasmid pZErO-1.

The crystal protein gene is located on the chromosome as well as on a plasmid in a strain of *Bacillus thuringiensis* subspecies *kurstaki* (Khawalled et al., 1990) and in subspecies *thuringiensis* strain berliner 1715 (Held et al., 1982). *E. coli* cells transformed with this clone bank were plated on low salt LB medium containing zeocin as the selective antibiotic and colonies that produced a red or yellow colour following five days of growth at 37^oC were isolated and characterized. Of the five thousand colonies that were plated on this medium, three were selected for further study. One of these three colonies was coloured

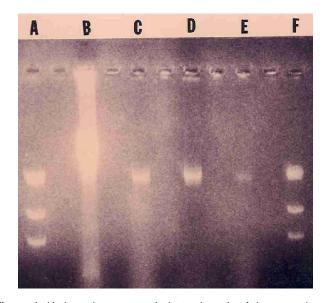


Figure 1. Horizontal agarose gel electrophoresis of the genomic and plasmid DNA of *Rhodotorula glutinis*. A and F = HindIII-digested DNA;B= *R. glutinis* DNA; C-E = plasmid DNA isolated from *R. glutinis* cultured on coconut water, SPY medium and Luria broth, respectively.

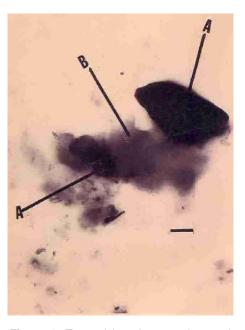


Figure 2. Transmision electron micrograph of *Rhdotorula glutinis* A = inclusion bodies; B = cellular debris. Bar = 0.1 m.

salmon/red while the other two were yellow.

Colonies of the salmon/red-colour transformant are similar in colour to the parent *Rhodotorula* strain and also appear to produce visible inclusion bodies (Figures 2 and 3).However, this transformant grows very poorly, producing Only small colonies, in comparison

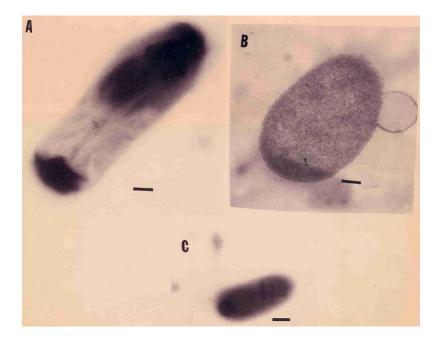


Figure 3. Transmission electron micrograph of *E. Coli* transformants carrying DNA from *Rhodotorula glutinis* A = red transformant; B = large yellow transformant; C = small yellow transformant; Bar = 0.1 m.

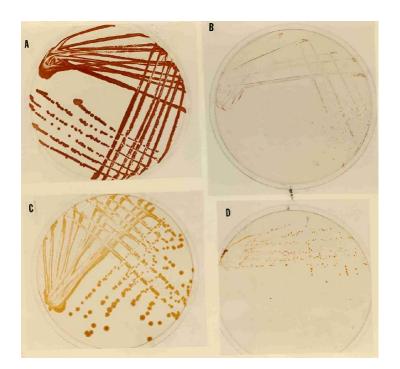


Figure 4. Colony morphology of *Rhodotorula glutinis* and *E. coli* transformats. A = *Rhodotorula glutinis*, B = red transformant; C = large yellow transformant; D = small yellow transformant.

with the parent *Rhodotorula* strain which produces large colonies on rich media (Figure 4). The differences between the parent *Rhodotorula* strain and the salmon/red *E. coli*

transformant are best seen when these two are examined by scanning electron microscopy (Figure 5). Cells from the parent *Rhodotorula* strain are approximately 5.2 by 2.2 m

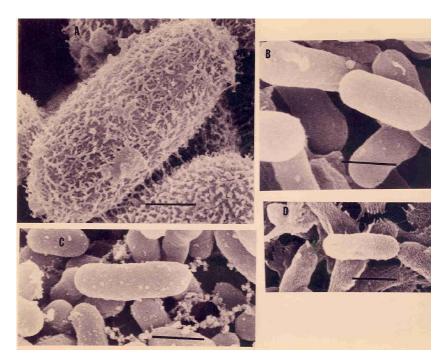


Figure 5. Scanning electron micrograph of *Rhodotorula glutinis* and *E. coli* transformants. A = *Rhodotorula glutinis* B = red transformant; C = large yellow transformant; D = small yellow transormant, Bar = 1 m.

in size while the *E. coli* transformant cells are approximately 1.8 by 0.8 m in size (Figure 5). In addition, the surface of the parent *Rhodotorula* cells appears coarse and fibrous while the surface of the salmon/red *E. coli* transformant cells is smooth (Figure 5).

When they were plated on low salt LB Zeocin-IPTG medium, the colonies of one of the yellow transformants were significantly larger (colony diameter of approximately 3 mm) than the colonies of the salmon/red transformants (colony diameter < 1 mm) (Figure 4). The large yellowcoloured transformants colonies grow faster than either the salmon/red transformants or the other yellow-coloured E. coli transformant (colony diameter < 1 mm). The colony size of each of these E. coli transformants is inversely correlated with the size of the inclusions found within the transformed cells. That is, the cells from the large yellow-coloured transformant colonies have only one inclusion while the cells from the small vellow-coloured as well as the salmon/redcoloured transformant colonies have about three or four inclusions (Figure 3). Furthermore, scanning electron microscopic results suggest that individual cells from the large yellow-coloured transformant colonies are actually larger (2.3 by 0.7 m) than cells from the small yellowcoloured transformant colonies (1.6 by 0.6 m). Taken together, these data are consistent with the notion that transformed E. coli cells that produce the greatest amount of foreign protein (as indicated by the amount of inclusion body formation) are much more likely to be debilitated in

their normal physiological functioning than are nontransformed cells (Klier et al., 1982). Based on observations with a number of different microorganisms, the sorts of physiological impairments that can result from a metabolic load being placed on transformed cells expressing high levels of foreign protein include alterations in cells size and growth rate (Glick 1995; Glick et al., 1985; Hong et al., 1995; Della-Gioppa et al., 1990).

Both the yellow and salmon/red pigments obtained from the transformants had chemical characteristics consistent with melanin including solubility in 1 M NaOH, precipitation in 1 M HCl and bleaching with 20% H₂O₂. The LC₅₀ of the solubilized crystals from the red and yellow transformants were 93 and 75 ng/mL respectively; this is compared to 50 ng/L obtained for the parent Rhodotorula glutinis strain. Melanin isolated from the large yellow cells exhibits a photoprotective effect on pigmentless B. thuringiensis subsp. kurstaki cells similar to the effect observed for the salmon/red melanin from Rhodotorulal cells. For example, when B. thuringiensis subsp. kurstaki cells were exposed to 50 J/m² of 253 nm light only 0.0001% of the cells survived while 0.036% of the cells survived when the cells were mixed with 75 g/mL of yellow melanin (Figure 6). Although the percentage of cell survival obtained with the yellow melanin is less than that previously obtained with the salmon/red melanin from the parent cell, the yellow pigmented cells seems to better tolerate higher UV dose than the parent cells. Thus, no viable cells were obtained

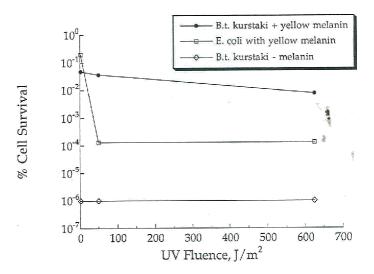


Figure 6. Survival of cells in the presence and absence of 75 g/mL of yellow melanin following irradiation with uv light.

when *Rhodotorula glutinis* cells were exposed to $1.23 \times 10^2 \text{ J/m}^2$ of 25 nm light; however, 0.000036% of the yellow coloured cells survived.

It is somewhat surprising to find that all three transformants contains both the melanin pigment and the insecticidal toxin. However, this observation is consistent with the possibility that the genes encoding these functions are proximal to one another and may in fact be part of a single operon. If this is the case, it suggests that, at least for the *Rhdotorula spp*, melanin and insecticidal toxin are co-expressed and may have co-evolved. Moreover, melanin production may be an essential component of the insecticidal activity of *Rhodotorula glutinis*.

If, as previously reported (Glick et al., 1985) the synthesis of the melanin polymer requires the functioning of the products encoded by two separate genes for its production, the salmon /red-coloured transformant may be produced when both of these genes are functional while the yellowcoloured transformants (where the yellow pigments also exhibit properties consistent with melanin) may reflect the fact that the transformants are producing only the first enzyme in this pathway. Experiments designed to resolve this are currently underway in our laboratory.

REFERENCES

- Ahmed SM, MV Nagamma, SK Majumder (1973). Studies on granular formulations of *Bacillus thuringiensis* berliner. Pestic. Sci. 4: 19-23.
- Armstrong JL., GF Rohrman, GS Beaurdeaw (1985). Delta endotoxin of *B. thuringiensis* subsp. israelensis. J. Bacteriol. 161: 39-46.
- Aronson AI, ES Han, W. Mcgaughey, D Johnson (1991). The solubility of inclusion proteins from *B. thuringiensis* is dependent upon protoxin composition and is a factor in toxicity to insects. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 57: 981-986.

Bechtel DB, Bulla LA Jr. (1976). Electron microscope study of sporulation

and parasporal crystal formation in *B. thuringiensis*. J. Bacteriol. 127: 1472-1481.

- Becker N, M Zgomba, M Ludwid, D Petric, F Pettich (1992). Fctors influencing the efficacy of the microbial control agent of *B. thuringiensis* israelensis. J. Am. Mosq. Control Assoc. 8: 285 - 289.
- Bulla LA. Jr. KJ Krammer, LT Davidson (1977). Characterization of the entomocidal parasporal crystal of *B. thuringiensis*. J. Bacteriol. 130: 375-383.
- Calabrese DM, KW Nickerson (1980). A comparison of protein crystal subunit sizes in B. thuringiensis. Can. J. Microbiol. 26: 1006-1010.
- Cohen E, H Rozen, T Joseph, S. Braun and L. Margulies (1991). Photo protection of *B. thuringiensis var. kurstaki* from ultraviolet iradiation. J. Invert. Pathol. 57: 343-351.]
- Della-Gioppa G, SJ Garger, GG Sverlow, TH Turpen, L Grill (1990). Melanin production in *Escherichia coli* from a cloned tyrosinase gene. Bio/Technology 8: 634-638.
- Dunkle RL, BS Shasha (1988). Starch encapsulated B. thuringiensis: A potential new method for increasing environmenal stability of entomopathogen. Environ. Entomol. 17: 120-126.
- Fuqua C, VE Coyne, DC Stein, CM Lin, RM Weiner (1991). Characterization of MeIA: a gene encoding melanin biosynthesis from the marine bacterium Shewanella colwelliana. Gene 109: 131-136.
- Glick BR (1995). Metabolic load and heterologous gene expression. Botechnol. Adv. 13: 247-261.
- Glick BR, HE Brooks, DJJ Pasternak (1985). Transformation of Azotobacter vinelandii with plasmid DNA. J. Bacteriol. 162: 276-279.
- Goldberg LJ, J Margalit (1977). A bacterial spore demonstrating rapid larvicidal activity against *Anopheles sergentii*, Urannotenial unguiculata, Gulex univitattus, *Aedes aegypt*i and *Culex pipens*. Mosq. News 37: 355-358. 15.
- Held GA, LA Bulla Jr, E Farrari, J Hoch, Al Aronson, SA Minnich (1982). Cloning and localization of the lepidopteran toxin gene of B. thuringiensis subpsp. kurstaki. Proc. Natl. Sci. USA 79: 6065-6069.
- Holmes KC, RE Monro (1965). Studies on the structure of parasporal inclusions from *B. thuringiensis*. J. Mol. Biol. 14: 572 581.
- Hong Y, JJ Pasternak, BR Glick (1995). Overcoming the metabolic load associated with the presence of plasmid DNA in the plant growthpromoting rhizobacterium *Pseudomonas putida* GR12-2. Can. J. Microbiol. 41: 624-628
- Ignoffo CM, DL Hostetter, PP Sikorowski, C Sutter, WM Brooks (1977). Inactivation of representative speecies of entomopathogenic viruses, a bacterium, fungus, and protozoan by an ultraviolet light source. Environ. Entomol. 6: 411-415.
- Ingle SS, KK Rao, HS Chatpar (1993). In vitro assay for testing the toxicity of *B. thuringiensis* subsp. israelensis delta endotoxin using blood agarose plates. J. Appl. Bacteriol. 74: 645-648.
- Khawalled K, E Ben-Dov, A Zaritsky, Z. Barak (1990). The fate of B. thuringiensis var. israelensis in *B. thuringiensis var. israelensis*-killed pupae of Aedes aegypti. J. Invert. Pathol. 56: 312-316.
- Klier A, F Fargette J Ribier, G Rapport (1982). Cloning and expression of the crystal protein genes from *B. thuringiensis* serotype 3a b var. kurstaki. J. Invert. Pathol. 31: 372-375.
- Kronstad, JW, HE Schnepf, HR Whiteley (1983). Diversity of location for *B. thuringiensis* cystal protein genes. J. Bacteriol. Vol ??? 54-428.
- Labaw LW (1964). The structure of *B. thuringiensis* Berliner crystals. J. Ultrastruct. Res. 10: 66 75.
- Leong KL., RJ Cano, AM Kubinski (1980). Factors affecting B. thuringiensis total field persistence. Environ. Entomol. 9: 593-599.
- Liu YT, MJ Sui, DD Ji, HI Wu, CC Chou, CC Chen (1993). Protection from ultraviolet light by melanin of mosquitocidal activity of *B. thuringiensis* var. *israelensis*. J. Invert. Pathol. 62: 131-136.
- Margulies L, H Rozen, E Cohen (1985). Energy transfer at surface of clays and protection of pesticides from photoinactivation. Nature 315: 658-659.
- Morris MS (1983). Protection of *B. thuringiensis* from inactivation by sunlight. Can. Entromol. 115: 1215-1227.
- Mulla MS (1985). Field evaluation and efficacy of bacterial agenst and formulation against Mosquito larvae. In: M Laird, JW Milels (eds);

Integrated mosquito control methdologies, Vol. 2, pp. 227-250. Academic Press, London

- Mulligan FS, CH Schaefer, WH Wilder (1980). Efficacy and persistence of *B. sphaericus* and *B. thuringiensis* H-14 against mosquitoes under laboratory and field conditions. J. Econ. Entomol. 73: 684-688.
- Oloke JK, BR Glick (2005). Production of Bioemulsifier by an unusual isolate of salmonIred melanin containing Rhodotorula glutinis. Afr. J. Biotechnol. Vol. 4(2):164-171.
 Sambrook J, EF Fritsch, T Maniatis (1989). Molecular cloning: a
- Sambrook J, EF Fritsch, T Maniatis (1989). Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual, 2nd edition. Old Spring Harbor Laboratory press, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- Spizizen J (1958). Transformation of biochemically defined strains of Bacillus subtilis by deoxytribonucleate. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 44: 1072-1078.
- Visser B, WM Van, A Dulleman, C Waalwick (1986). The mosquitocidal activity of B. thuringiensis subsp. israelensis is asociated with Mr. 230,000 and 130,000 crystal proteins. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 30: 211-214.