DOI 10.1007/s12275-014-3601-7

Characterization of Recombinant β-Glucosidase from *Arthrobacter chlorophenolicus* and Biotransformation of Ginsenosides Rb₁, Rb₂, Rc, and Rd

Myung Keun Park¹, Chang-Hao Cui¹, Sung Chul Park², Seul-Ki Park³, Jin-Kwang Kim³, Mi-Sun Jung⁴, Suk-Chae Jung^{1,2}, Sun-Chang Kim^{1,2,3}, and Wan-Taek Im^{5*}

¹Department of Biological Sciences, Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology, Daejeon 305-701, Republic of Korea
²Intelligent Synthetic Biology Center, Daejeon 305-701, Republic of Korea
³KAIST Institute for Biocentury, Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology, Daejeon 305-701, Republic of Korea
⁴Youngdong University, 310, Chungbuk 370-701, Republic of Korea
⁵Department of Biotechnology, Hankyoung National University, Kyonggi-do 456-749, Republic of Korea

(Received Nov 18, 2013 / Revised Dec 24, 2013 / Accepted Dec 24, 2013)

The focus of this study was the cloning, expression, and characterization of recombinant ginsenoside hydrolyzing β -glucosidase from Arthrobacter chlorophenolicus with an ultimate objective to more efficiently bio-transform ginsenosides. The gene bglAch, consisting of 1,260 bp (419 amino acid residues) was cloned and the recombinant enzyme, overexpressed in Escherichia coli BL21 (DE3), was characterized. The GST-fused BglAch was purified using GST-Bind agarose resin and characterized. Under optimal conditions (pH 6.0 and 37°C) BglAch hydrolyzed the outer glucose and arabinopyranose moieties of ginsenosides Rb₁ and Rb₂ at the C20 position of the aglycone into ginsenoside Rd. This was followed by hydrolysis into F₂ of the outer glucose moiety of ginsenoside Rd at the C3 position of the aglycone. Additionally, BglAch more slowly transformed Rc to F2 via C-Mc1 (compared to hydrolysis of Rb1 or Rb2). These results indicate that the recombinant BglAch could be useful for the production of ginsenoside F2 for use in the pharmaceutical and cosmetic industries.

Keywords: biotransformation, β -glucosidase, recombinant enzyme, minor ginsenoside, *Arthrobacter chlorophenolicus*

Introduction

Ginseng (*Panax ginseng* C.A. Meyer) is an important herbal medicine that has been widely used for thousands of years in East Asia and has been popularized in the West during recent decades (Cho, 2012; Park *et al.*, 2012). Ginsenosides

are the major active components of ginseng, and they appear to be responsible for the principle pharmacological activities of ginseng, including anti-fatigue, anti-neoplastic, anti-diabetic, anti-inflammation, and anti-oxidant effects (Leung and Wong, 2010; Lee et al., 2011; Yuan et al., 2011). After oral intake of ginseng, the major ginsenosides are hydrolyzed through human intestinal digestion into the more active minor ginsenosides, which are easily absorbed. For instance, ginsenoside Rb₁ is converted to ginsenosides Rd, F₂, compound K, and aglycone by intestinal micro-flora (Akao et al., 1998; Tawab et al., 2003; Choi et al., 2011). Therefore, converting the major ginsenosides, which account for more than 80% of the total ginsenosides (Attle et al., 1999; Christensen, 2009), to highly active minor ginsenosides such as F₂, Rg₃, Rh₂, C-K, Rh₁, and F₁ is highly significant for the pharmaceutical industry (Park et al., 2008; Choi et al., 2009; Leung and Wong, 2010; Lee et al., 2011; Mai et al., 2012; Shin et al., 2012).

The minor ginsenosides can be produced by hydrolyzing sugar moieties from the major ginsenosides such as Rb₁, Rb₂, Rc, Rd, Re, Rg₁ (Park *et al.*, 2010). To date, several methods to produce pure ginsenosides have been developed (e.g., heating, acid treatment, and enzymatic transformation). The enzymatic methods are considered the most promising as they have the advantages of fewer byproducts, superior environmental protection, and better stereo-specificity (An *et al.*, 2010; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Kim *et al.*, 2012; Cui *et al.*, 2013a). In particular, the recombinant enzymes exhibit higher selectivity and efficiency than those isolated and purified from cultivated microorganisms (Hong *et al.*, 2012; Cui *et al.*, 2013b). Large-scale (100 g) production of particular ginsenosides is now available using enzymatic transformation methods (Kim *et al.*, 2013).

In this study, we report the cloning of a new gene encoding ginsenoside-hydrolyzing β -glucosidase (BglAch) from *Arthrobacter chlorophenolicus*, which was isolated from soil (Westerberg *et al.*, 2000). It possesses 72 kinds of glycoside hydrolases within 31 glycoside hydrolase families in its genomic DNA [Carbohydrate-Active enZymes (CAZY) database (http://www.cazy.org)]. The enzymatic properties and substrate specificities of a recombinant enzyme belonging to glycoside hydrolase family 1 was thoroughly investigated.

Materials and Methods

Chemicals

Ginsenosides Rb₁, Rb₂, Rc, Rd, Re, Rg₁, Rg₃(S), F₂, Rh₂(S),

^{*}For correspondence. E-mail: wandra@kaist.ac.kr; Tel.: +82-42-3504451; Fax: +82-42-3504450

and C-K were purchased from Nanjing Co. Ltd. and gypenoside XVII, compound O (C-O), compound Mc_1 (C- Mc_1) were obtained by our group as described by Wang *et al.* (2011). All the chemicals used in this study were at least analytical reagent grade, and the sources are noted individually in the Methods section.

Bacterial strains, vectors and media

Arthrobacter chlorophenolicus KACC 20538^{T} , used as a source for cloning of the β -glucosidase gene, was cultivated on R2A agar (BD, USA) under aerobic conditions at 30°C. *Escherichia coli* BL21 (DE3) and the pGEX 4T-1 plasmid (GE Healthcare, USA) for gene cloning and expression was cultivated in a Luria-Bertani (LB) medium with ampicillin (100 mg/L).

Phylogenetic analysis of BglAch

A database homology search was performed with the BLAST program provided by NCBI. Sequences of the characterized glycosyl hydrolases were obtained from the CAZY database, and multiple alignments were performed using the CLUSTAL_X program (Thompson *et al.*, 1997). Gaps were edited in the BioEdit program (Hall, 1999), and a phylogenetic tree was constructed using the neighbor-joining method (Saitou and Nei, 1987) with a poisson model and pairwise deletion in the MEGA5 Program (Tamura, 2011), and with bootstrap values based on 1000 replicates (Felsenstein, 1985).

Molecular cloning, expression and purification of recombinant BglAch

Genomic DNA of Arthrobacter chlorophenolicus KACC 20538¹ was extracted by using a genomic DNA extraction kit (Solgent, Korea). The gene, termed *bglAch*, encoding β glucosidase was amplified from the genomic DNA as a template via a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using Pfu DNA polymerase (Solgent). The sequences of the oligonucleotide primers used for the gene cloning were based on the DNA sequence of β -glucosidase (GenBank accession number: ACL 38420). Forward (5'-G GTT CCG CGT GGA TCC ACC AAC CAG TTT CCG CAG GAC TTC-3') and reverse (5'-G ATG CGG CCG CTC GAG TCA GGC GGG TTG GGC CAC CTG GGA-3') primers were designed as primers to introduce the BamHI and XhoI restriction sites (underlined), respectively, and were synthesized by Bioneer Co. Ltd. (Korea). The amplified DNA fragment obtained from the PCR was purified and inserted into the pGEX 4T-1 GST Glutathione S-transferase (GST) fusion vector digested with BamHI and XhoI using an EzCloning Kit (Enzynomics Co. Ltd., Korea). The resulting recombinant pGEX-bglAch was transformed into E. coli BL21(DE3). The E. coli BL21(DE3) harboring the recombinant plasmid was grown in an LBampicillin medium at 37°C until the culture reached an OD₆₀₀ of 0.6, at which point protein expression was induced through the addition of 0.1 mM isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG). The bacterial cells were incubated for a further 18 h at 25°C and were then harvested by centrifugation at 12,000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. The cells were washed twice with 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH

7.0, 5 mM EDTA, and 1% Triton X-100) and then resuspended in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0). The cells were disrupted by ultrasonication (Vibra-cell; Sonics & Materials, USA) and the intact cells and debris were removed by centrifugation at 12,000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. The GST-tagged fusion protein was purified by GST-Bind agarose resin (Elpis Co. Ltd., Korea). The GST-Tag sequence was removed from the GST-Bind agarose resin after being incubated with thrombin. The purified recombinant protein used for the assay has an extra two residues (Arg-Ser) at the N-terminus of wild type BglAch. The final buffer is 50 mM sodium phosphate (pH 7.0). The homogeneity of the protein was assessed by 10% SDS-PAGE and EZ-Gel staining solution (Daeillab Co. Ltd., Korea). Protein concentrations were determined using the bicinchoninic acid (BCA) protein assay (Pierce, USA), with bovine serum albumin (Sigma) as the standard. All assays were performed in triplicate.

Characterization of recombinant BglAch

The specific activity of purified BglAch was determined by using *p*-nitrophenyl- β -D-glucopyranoside (PNPG) as substrate in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 6.0) at 37°C. The release of *p*-nitrophenol was immediately measured using a microplate reader at 405 nm (Bio-Rad Model 680, USA). One unit of activity was defined as the amount of protein required to generate 1 µmol of *p*-nitrophenol per minute. To check the optimum condition for the specific enzyme activity, pH, temperature, metals and chemical reagents were investigated as previously described by An et al. (2010). The effect of pH on enzymatic activity was determined in the following buffers (each at 50 mM): KCl-HCl (pH 2.0), glycine-HCl (pH 3.0), sodium acetate (pH 4.0 and 5.0), sodium phosphate (pH 6.0 and 7.0), Tris-HCl (pH 8.0, and 9.0) and glycine-sodium hydroxide (pH 10.0). The results are expressed as a percentage of the activity obtained at the optimum pH. Substrate preference was examined by using chromogenic *o*-nitrophenyl (ONP) and *p*-nitrophenyl (PNP). A kinetic study was performed with freshly purified enzymes using PNP-β-D-glucopyranoside (pNPGlc) at concentrations from 1.0 mM to 20 mM. One unit of activity was defined as the amount of protein required to generate 1 µmol of *p*-nitrophenol per minute. All assays were performed in triplicate.

Enzymatic hydrolysis of ginsenosides

To investigate the biotransformation ability of recombinant β -glucosidase, BglAch, 6 different ginsenosides [Rb₁, Rb₂, Rc, Rd, Re, and Rg₁] were evaluated as substrates. The initial biotransformation experiments using ginsenoside Rb₁ as the substrate revealed that having GST fused to the BglAch did not affect the activities of BglAch. The crude enzyme solutions at concentrations of 0.1 mg/ml in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 6.0) were reacted with an equal volume of Rb₁, Rb₂, Rc, and Rd solution at a concentration of 0.1% (wt/vol) in 50 mM of sodium phosphate buffer (pH 6.0) at 37°C. Samples were withdrawn at regular intervals. An equal volume of water-saturated *n*-butanol was added to stop the reaction, and the reactant present in the *n*-butanol fraction

was analyzed by TLC after pretreatment. For the HPLC analyses, an equal volume of methanol was added to stop the reaction. After centrifugation at $15,000 \times g$ for 10 min, the supernatant was used for the sample analyses.

Analysis of ginsenosides by thin-layer chromatography (TLC)

TLC was performed using $60F_{254}$ silica gel plates (Merck, Germany) with CHCl₃-CH₃OH-H₂O (65:35:10, vol/vol/vol, lower phase) in the solvent system. The spots on the TLC plates were detected through spraying with 10% (vol/vol) H₂SO₄, followed by heating at 110°C for 5 min.

Analysis of ginsenosides by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)

The HPLC analysis of the ginsenosides was performed using an HPLC system (Younglin Co. Ltd, Korea) with a quaternary pump, automatic injector, single wavelength UV detector (model 730D), and Younglin's AutoChro-3000 software for peak identification and integration. The separation was performed on a Prodigy ODS(2) C_{18} column (5 µm, 150 × 4.6 mm i.d.; Phenomenex, USA) with a guard column (Eclipse XDB C_{18} , 5 µm, 12.5 × 4.6 mm i.d.). The mobile phases were A (acetonitrile) and B (water). The gradient elution started with 32% solvent A and 68% solvent B, and was changed according to the following schedule: from 0-8 min, A was increased from 32 to 65%; from 8-12 min, A was increased from 65 to 100%; from 12-15 min, A was constant at 100%; from 15-18 min, A was decreased from 100 to 32%; from 18-18.1 min, A was constant at 32% from 18.1–28 min. The flow rate was 1.0 ml/min, and the detection was performed by monitoring the absorbance at 203 nm, with an injected volume of 25 µl.

Results and Discussion

Phylogenetic analysis of the BglAch sequence

The β -glucosidase gene (*bglAch*) consists of 1,260 bp encoding 419 amino acids with a molecular mass of 45.8 kDa and a

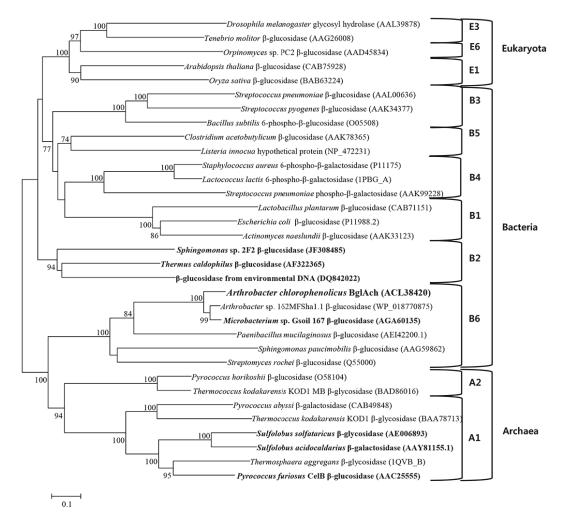


Fig. 1. Phylogenetic analysis of the characterized glycoside hydrolase family 1 (GH1). Amino acid sequences were obtained from the NCBI/EMBL database and CAZY database (accession numbers are indicated on the tree). This tree was made using the neighbor-joining method with a poisson model and pairwise deletion. Bootstrap values expressed as percentages of 1000 replications greater than 65% are shown at the branch points. The bar represents 10 amino acid residue substitutions per 100 amino acid residues. Bold means ginsenoside hydrolyzing β -glycosidases.

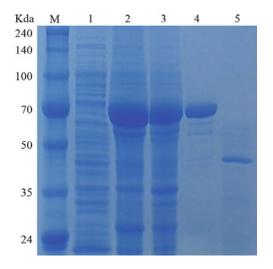


Fig. 2. SDS-PAGE analysis of purified BglAch: 1, uninduced crude extract (5 μ l of 20 mg/ml); 2, soluble fraction in crude extract of BL21(DE3) carrying pGEX-BglAch after induction (5 μ l of 20 mg/ml); 3, precipitated fraction in crude extract of BL21(DE3) carrying pGEX-BglAch after induction (5 μ l of 20 mg/ml); 4, GST-BglAch enzyme fraction after purification by GST-Bind agarose resin (10 μ l of 10 mg/ml); 5, purified BglAch (10 μ l of 0.2 mg/ml).

theoretical pI value of 4.88 (http://web.expasy.org/compute_ pi/). Analysis of the amino acid sequences of BglAch indicated that it was most similar (86.6%) to the glycoside hydrolase of *Arthrobacter* sp. 162MFSha1.1 (GenBank number WP_018770875) followed by that of *Microbacterium* sp. Gsoil 167 (86.2%) (GenBank number AGA60135), which both belong to the glycoside hydrolase family 1 (GH1). Furthermore, the enzymatic activity of the *Microbacterium* sp. Gsoil 167 has been reported to have ginsenoside conversion activity. BglAch has homology to the protein domain of GH1. The CAZY database describes more than 5,000 uncharacterized and 270 characterized GH1 members that are widespread among numerous organisms. Glycosyl hydrolases are classified according to amino acid sequence similarities, which reflect the structural features and substrate

Table 1. Effects of metal ions and chemical agents on the activity of purified BglAch

Metaliana	Relative activity \pm SD (%)		
Metal ions or reagents –	1 mM	10 mM	
KCl	97.4 ± 4.6	142.2 ± 3.1	
$MgCl_2$	93.5 ± 8.9	95.0 ± 2.0	
$MnCl_2$	89.9 ± 7.5	109.8 ± 0.4	
$CaCl_2$	95.1 ± 5.3	157.8 ± 3.2	
$ZnCl_2$	92.7 ±0.9	56.9 ± 0.4	
CoCl ₂	96.2 ± 5.9	105.0 ± 6.0	
CuCl ₂	24.0 ± 1.4	4.5 ± 1.0	
$HgCl_2$	18.2 ± 5.3	2.6 ± 1.4	
SDS	10.0 ± 0.7	2.7 ± 0.8	
EDTA	68.4 ± 0.7	28.5 ± 1.3	
β -Mercaptoethanol	102.1 ± 4.9	96.9 ± 12.0	
DTT	99.9 ± 3.1	97.8 ± 12.0	
Control	100.0 ± 2.7	100.0 ± 6.5	

specificities of the enzymes from the CAZY database. GH1 has also been subdivided into several subfamilies (Marques et al., 2003). In order to determine the evolutionary position of BglAch within the characterized enzymes in GH1, phylogenetic analysis was conducted using the neighbor-joining method in the MEGA5 Program with bootstrap values based on 1,000 replications. The resulting consensus tree is presented in Fig. 1. BglAch clustered within Bacterial Subfamily 6 (B6) and formed a separate, well-supported clade (bootstrap of 100) with amino acid sequences close to those of both enzymes. Several ginsenoside-hydrolyzing β -glycosidases in GH1 have previously been cloned, including β glucosidase (BglA) from Environmental DNA (Kim et al., 2007), Thermus caldophilus (Son et al., 2008), Sulfolobus solfataricus (Noh et al., 2009), Sulfolobus acidocaldarius (Noh and Oh, 2009), another β -glucosidase (BglSp) from Sphingomonas sp. 2F2 (Wang et al., 2011), and a β -glycosidase from Pyrococcus furiosus (Yoo et al., 2011). The relationship between BglAch and these ginsenoside-hydrolyzing β-glucosidases is presented in Fig. 1.

Cloning, expression, and purification of recombinant BglAch

The GST-BglAch fusion gene was expressed in E. coli BL21

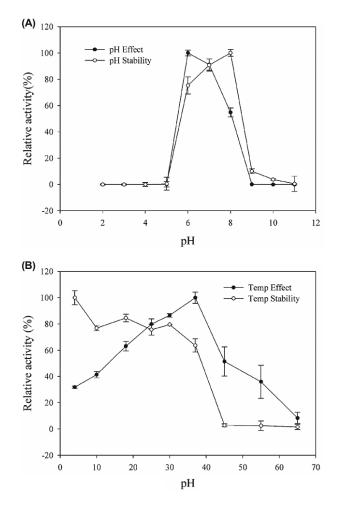
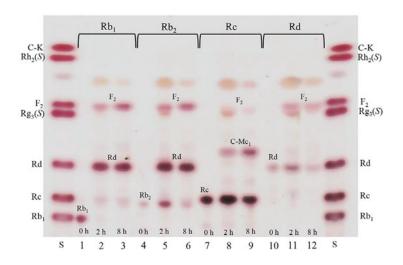


Fig. 3. Effects of pH (A) and temperature (B) on the stability and activity of BglAch.



(DE3) followed by the induction of 0.1 mM IPTG and incubated at 25°C for 18 h. The GST-BglAch fusion protein was purified using GST·Bind agarose resin and then the GST·Tag sequence was removed by thrombin at room temperature during a 12 h incubation period. Though the predicted molecular mass of the BglAch by amino acid sequences was 45.8 kDa, the estimated molecular weight of BglAch from SDS-PAGE analysis was 43.7 kDa (Fig. 2).

Enzyme characterization

BglAch was active over a narrow pH range (6.0 to 7.0) at 37°C. The optimum pH was 6.0 in sodium phosphate buffer (Fig. 3A). The enzyme lost its optimal activity below pH 5.0 and more than 40% of its optimal activity within 30 min when pH was above 8.0. The β -glucosidase from *Paecilo*-

Table 2. Relative activity of the purified recombinant BglAch on various chromogenic substrates as measured by ONP or PNP release at 37° C

Substrate ^a	Relative activity \pm SD (%) ^b
PNP-α-D-glucopyranoside	ND ^c
PNP-α-D-mannopyranoside	ND ^c
PNP-a-D-xylopyranoside	ND ^c
PNP-α-L-arabinofuranoside	ND ^c
PNP-α-L-arabinopyranoside	6.6 ± 0.2
PNP-α-L-D-fucopyranoside	ND ^c
PNP-α-L-rhamnopyranoside	ND ^c
PNP-β-D-fucopyranoside	81.2 ± 2.5
PNP-β-D-galactopyranoside	7.5 ± 0.2
PNP-β-D-glucopyranoside	18.4 ± 0.3
PNP-β-D-glucosaminide	ND ^c
PNP-β-D-mannopyranoside	ND ^c
PNP-β-D-xylopyranoside	ND ^c
PNP-β-L-arabinopyranoside	ND ^c
ONP-α-D-galactopyranoside	ND ^c
ONP-β-D-fucopyranoside	100.0 ± 3.1
ONP-β-D-galactopyranoside	18.2 ± 1.2
ONP-β-D-glucopyranoside	55.2 ± 0.3

^a Final concentration, 2.0 mM

 $^{\rm b}$ Activity toward ONP- β -D-fucopyranoside was set as 100%. $^{\rm c}$ Not detected.

Fig. 4. Thin layer chromatography (TLC) analyses of biotransformation of ginsenosides Rb_1 , Rb_2 , Rc, and Rd by recombinant BglAch. The sampling times were 2 h and 8 h. Developing solvent: CHCl₃-CH₃OH-H₂O (65:35:10, v/v/v, lower phase). S, saponin standards; C-K, compound K; reaction mixture of 1.0 mg/ml Rb_1 : 1, 2, 3; reaction mixture of 1.0 mg/ml Rb₂: 4, 5, 6; reaction mixture of 1.0 mg/ml Rd: 10, 11, 12; Reaction time: 1, 4, 7, 10: 0 h; 2, 5, 8, 11: 2 h; 3, 6, 9, 12: 8 h.

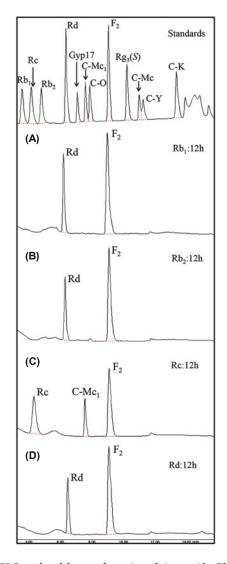
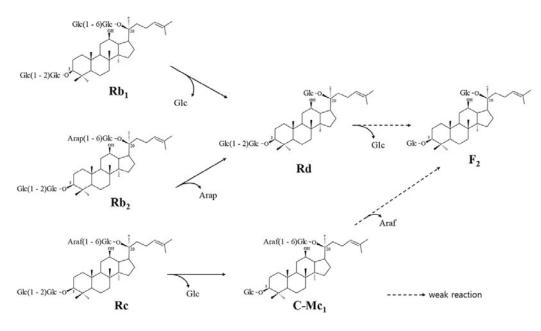
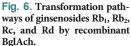


Fig. 5. HPLC results of the transformation of ginsenosides Rb₁, Rb₂, Rc, and Rd by recombinant BglAch. The sampling time was 12 h. (A) bio-transformation of ginsenoside Rb₁, (B) Biotransformation of ginsenoside Rb₂, (C) biotransformation of ginsenoside Rc; D, biotransformation of ginsenoside Rd.





myces Bainier sp. 229 (Yan et al., 2008), Thermus caldophilus (Son et al., 2008), and Sphingomonas sp. 2F2 (Wang et al., 2011) had optima at pH 3.5, 5.0, and 7.0, respectively. The optimal temperature for BglAch activity was 37°C and the enzyme was stable at lower than 25°C. The enzyme lost 49% of its activity at 45°C, and 65% of its activity at 55°C. It was relatively tolerant to heat when it was derived from a mesophilic strain (Westerberg et al., 2000; see Fig. 3B). However, the purified β -glucosidase from *Paecilomyces Bainier* sp. 229 (Yan et al., 2008), *Thermus caldophilus* (Son et al., 2008), and *Sulfolobus solfataricus* (Noh et al., 2009) had optimal temperatures of 55, 75, and 90°C, respectively.

The effects of metal ions, EDTA, β -mercaptoethanol, and SDS on BglAch activity were investigated (Table 1). BglAch activity was not affected by DTT or β -mercaptoethanol, which is a well-known thiol group inhibitor. K⁺ or Ca²⁺ had

positive effects on the activity of the enzyme, while enzyme activity was inhibited in the presence of both 1 mM and 10 mM Cu^{2+} or Hg^{2+} . The chelating agent EDTA, and sodium dodecyl-sulfate (SDS), also inhibited BglAch activity.

The substrate specificity of BglAch was tested using 2.0 mM of *p*-nitrophenyl (PNP) and *o*-nitrophenyl (ONP)-glycosides with α and β configurations (total of 18 kinds), as reported previously (An *et al.*, 2010). BglAch was maximally active against ONP- β -D-fucopyranoside, followed by PNP- β -D-fucopyranoside (81.2% compared to ONP- β -D-fucopyranoside), and ONP- β -D-glucopyranoside (55.2% compared to ONP- β -D-fucopyranoside). Some other substrates, including PNP- α -L-arabinopyranoside, PNP- β -D-galactopyranoside; were hydrolyzed a little (Table 1). This explained why BglAch has catalytic activity against ginseno-

Glycoside hydrolase name	Subfamily	Microorganism	Ginsenoside conversion pathway	Reference
β-Glucosidase (BglAch)	B6	Arthrobacter chlorophenolicus $A6^{T}$	$Rb_1 \rightarrow Rd \rightarrow F_2$ $Rb_2 \rightarrow Rd \rightarrow F_2$ $Rc \rightarrow C - Mc_1 \rightarrow F_2$	This study
β -Glucosidase (BglA)	B2	Environmental DNA	Rb₁→Rd	Kim <i>et al.</i> (2007)
β -Glucosidase	B2	Thermus caldophilus	Rb₁→Rd	Son et al. (2008)
β -Glucosidase	A1	Sulfolobus solfataricus	Rb₁→Rd→F₂→C-K, Rb₂→Rd→F₂→C-K, Rc→C-Mc→C-K	Noh <i>et al.</i> (2009)
β-Glycosidase	A1	Sulfolobus acidocaldarius	Rb₁→Rd→C-K, Rb₂→CY→C-K, Rc→C-Mc	Noh and Oh (2009)
β-Glucosidase (BglSp)	B2	Sphingomonas sp. 2F2	$\begin{array}{l} Rb1 \! \rightarrow \! Gyp \ XVII \! \rightarrow \! F_2 \\ Rb_2 \! \rightarrow \! C \! - \! O \! \rightarrow \! F_2 \\ Rc \! \rightarrow \! C \! - \! Mc_1 \! \rightarrow \! F_2 \\ Rd \! \rightarrow \! F_2 \end{array}$	Wang <i>et al</i> . (2011)
β -Glycosidase	A1	Pyrococcus furiosus	Rb₁→Rd→C-K, Rb₂→Rd→C-K, Rc→Rd→C-K, C-K→PPD	Yoo et al. (2011)

Table 0 M		11
anie 3 Maior ginsenoside	transformations by the clone	d glycoside hydrolase Family 1

side Rb₂, which had an outer arabinose moiety at the C-20 position of the glycone.

The $K_{\rm m}$ and $V_{\rm max}$ values for the hydrolysis of PNPGlc by BglAch were 3.19 ± 0.4 mM and 20.1 ± 0.84 µmol/min/mg of protein, respectively.

Biotransformation of ginsenosides

In order to verify the bioconversion pathway of the major ginsenosides using GST-BglAch, TLC and HPLC analyses were performed at regular intervals. Based on the R_f values (Fig. 4), it is clear that GST-BglAch could transform 4 kinds of protopanaxadiol type ginsenosides [Rb1, Rb2, Rc, and Rd]. The HPLC profiles of the reaction mixture of the four ginsenosides using GST-BglAch, after a 12 h incubation, are shown in Fig. 5. The identities of the transformed ginsenosides were determined by their retention times compared to standard compounds. GST-BglAch demonstrated the variety of ginsenoside hydrolyzing activity. The proposed biotransformation pathway (Fig. 6) for the PPD ginsenosides is: $Rb_1 \rightarrow Rd \rightarrow F_2$, $Rb_2 \rightarrow Rd \rightarrow F_2$, $Rc \rightarrow C-Mc_1 \rightarrow F_2$, $Rd \rightarrow F_2$. All of the Rb₁ was transformed to Rd in 2 h, but not all of the Rd was transformed to F_2 (Fig. 5A). This conversion speed was faster than that obtained using crude enzyme extracts from Paecilomyces Bainier sp. 229-7 (Yan et al., 2008) and Bifidobacterium sp. SH5 (Chi and Ji, 2005), which converted 1 mg/ml of ginsenoside Rb1 to Rd within 24 h. The biotransformation of all the Rb₂ to Rd occurred in 12 h, but again, not all the Rd was transformed to F_2 (Fig. 5B). This phenomenon was observed in the transformation of ginsenoside Rd as substrate (Fig. 5D). This means that the recombinant BglAch showed a tendency to hydrolyze the outer glucose or arabinopyranose at the C20 position quickly to produce Rd first, and then to hydrolyze the outer glucose moiety weakly at the C3 position into F₂. Consequently, ginsenoside Rd was not completely transformed to F2 during longer reaction times. Additionally, BglAch more slowly transformed Rc to F₂ via C-Mc₁ (compared to hydrolysis of Rb1 or Rb₂) (Fig. 5C). Although BglAch did not show any hydrolysis activity to PNP-arabinofuranoside (Table 1), it could bio-transform C-Mc₁ to F_2 cleaving the outer L-arabinofuranoside moiety attached at the C20 position. The conversion pathways for Rb1 Rb2, Rc, and Rd are unique and have not been reported previously.

 β -Glucosidases have been primarily classified in the glycosyl-hydrolase Families 1 and 3, which commonly form closely related subfamilies, with a wide range of activities. Some β -glucosidases in these subfamilies might not have only one specific activity. Furthermore, they might have a high specificity to only glucosides, or glucosides together with arabinosides; while β -galactosides, β -mannosides, and β -xylosides might also be hydrolyzed (Opassiri *et al.*, 2006). In addition, many enzymes in this group are able to hydrolyze various types of sugars from aglycones; for example, disaccharide acuminose, malonyl glucose (Chuankhayan et al., 2005), and isoflavone glycosides (Kaya et al., 2008). When ginsenosides were used as substrate; β -glucosidase hydrolyzed the inner and outer glucoses attached to ginsenosides at the C-3 and C-20 positions, and hydrolyzed the outer arabinoside at the C-20 site using various transformation pathways. With regard to GH1, where BglAch is included, there have been several reports on ginsenoside conversion (Table 3). For example, β -glycosidase derived from Pyrococcus furiosus initially hydrolyzed the outer glucose (*L*-arabinopyranoside and *L*-arabinofuranoside moiety at the C20 position). This was followed by hydrolysis of the inner and outer glucose moieties at the C20 site to make compound K (Yoo *et al.*, 2011). The other enzyme [β -glucosidase (BglSp) from Sphingomonas sp. 2F2] initially converted Rb₁, Rb₂, and Rc into gypenoside XVII, C-O, and C-Mc₁, respectively; by hydrolyzing the outer glucose at the C3 position; then into F₂ by hydrolyzing the C-20 glucose moiety (Wang et al., 2011). As a member of GH1, BglAch exhibited a similar ginsenoside-transforming pathway to that of β -glucosidase from Sulfolobus solfataricus (Noh et al., 2009); however, BglAch didn't exhibit $F_2 \rightarrow C$ -K transformation activity.

In conclusion, a recombinant ginsenoside hydrolyzing glycosidase (BglAch), belonging to the GH1 family, was constructed from *Arthrobacter chlorophenolicus* KACC 11414^T in an effort to obtain more effective biotransformation of major ginsenosides. This enzyme was expressed in *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) in a soluble form and was characterized. It had optimum activity at 37°C and pH 6.0. The recombinant BglAch could convert ginsenosides Rb₁, Rb₂, and Rc into F₂ via Rd, Rd, and C-Mc₁, respectively; through selective hydrolysis of the glucose or arabinoside moieties. Therefore, this report proposes a path to improve the functions of the genes of existing organisms and to selectively produce minor ginsenosides.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Intelligent Synthetic Biology Center through the Global Frontier Project funded by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (2011-0031967), Republic of Korea.

References

- Akao, T., Kida, H., Kanaoka, M., Hattori, M., and Kobashi, K. 1998. Drug metabolism: intestinal bacterial hydrolysis is required for the appearance of compound K in rat plasma after oral administration of ginsenoside Rb₁ from *Panax ginseng. J. Pharm. Pharmacol.* 50, 1155–1160.
- An, D.S., Cui, C.H., Lee, H.G., Wang, L., Kim, S.C., Lee, S.T., Jin, F., Yu, H., Chin, Y.W., Lee, H.K., Im, W.T., and Kim, S.G. 2010. Identification and characterization of a novel *Terrabacter gin*senosidimutans sp. nov. beta-glucosidase that transforms ginsenoside Rb₁ into the rare gypenosides XVII and LXXV. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. **76**, 5827–5836.
- Attele, A.S., Wu, J.A., and Yuan, C.S. 1999. Ginseng pharmacology: multiple constituents and multiple actions. *Biochem. Pharmacol.* 58, 1685–1693.
- **Chi, H. and Ji, G.E.** 2005. Transformation of ginsenosides Rb₁ and Re from *Panax ginseng* by food microorganism. *Biotechnol. Lett.* **27**, 765–771.
- Cho, I.H. 2012. Effects of *Panax ginseng* in neurodegenerative diseases. J. Ginseng Res. 36, 342–353.
- Choi, J.R., Hong, S.W., Kim, Y., Jang, S.E., Kim, N.J., Han, M.J., and Kim, D.H. 2011. Metabolic activities of ginseng and its

406 Park et al.

constituents, ginsenoside Rb₁ and Rg₁, by human intestinal microflora. *J. Ginseng. Res.* **35**, 301–307.

- Choi, S., Kim, T.W., and Singh, S.V. 2009. Ginsenoside Rh₂-mediated G1 phase cell cycle arrest in human breast cancer cells is caused by p15 Ink4B and p27 Kip1-dependent inhibition of cyclin-dependent kinases. *Pharm. Res.* 26, 2280–2288.
- Christensen, L.P. 2009. Ginsenosides chemistry, biosynthesis, analysis, and potential health effects. Adv. Food. Nutr. Res. 55, 1–99.
- Chuankhayan, P., Hua, Y., Svasti, J., Sakdarat, S., Sullivan, P.A., and Ketudat Cairns, J.R. 2005. Purification of an isoflavonoid 7-O-beta-apiosyl-glucoside beta-glycosidase and its substrates from *Dalbergia nigrescens* Kurz. *Phytochemistry* 66, 1880–1889.
- Cui, C.H., Kim, S.C., and Im, W.T. 2013a. Characterization of the ginsenoside-transforming recombinant β -glucosidase from *Actinosynnema mirum* and bioconversion of major ginsenosides into minor ginsenosides. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **97**, 649–659.
- Cui, C.H., Liu, Q.M., Kim, J.K., Sung, B.H., Kim, S.G., Kim, S.C., and Im, W.T. 2013b. Identification and characterization of a *Mucilaginibacter* sp. strain QM49 β -glucosidase and its use in the production of the pharmaceutically active minor ginsenosides (*S*)-Rh₁ and (*S*)-Rg₂. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **79**, 5788– 5798.
- Felsenstein, J. 1985. Confidence limits on phylogenies: An approach using the bootstrap. *Evolution* **39**, 783–791.
- Hall, T.A. 1999. BioEdit: a user-friendly biological sequence alignment editor and analysis program for Windows 95/98/NT. *Nucleic Acids Symp. Ser.* 41, 95–98.
- Hong, H., Cui, C.H., Kim, J.K., Jin, F.X., Kim, S.C., and Im, W.T. 2012. Enzymatic biotransformation of ginsenoside Rb₁ and gypenoside XVII into ginsenosides Rd and F₂ by recombinant β -glucosidase from *Flavobacterium johnsoniae*. J. Ginseng Res. **36**, 418–424.
- Kaya, M., Ito, J., Kotaka, A., Matsumura, K., Bando, H., Sahara, H., Ogino, C., Shibasaki, S., Kuroda, K., Ueda, M., and *et al.* 2008. Isoflavone aglycones production from isoflavone glycosides by display of β-glucosidase from *Aspergillus oryzae* on yeast cell surface. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **79**, 51–60.
- Kim, J.K., Cui, C.H., Liu, Q., Yoon, M.H., Kim, S.C., and Im, W.T. 2013. Mass production of the ginsenoside Rg₃(S) through the combinative use of two glycoside hydrolases. *Food Chem.* 141, 1369–1377.
- Kim, J.K., Cui, C.H., Yoon, M.H., Kim, S.C., and Im, W.T. 2012. Bioconversion of major ginsenosides Rg₁ to minor ginsenoside F₁ using novel recombinant ginsenoside hydrolyzing glycosidase cloned from *Sanguibacter keddieii* and enzyme characterization. *J. Biotechnol.* 161, 294–301.
- Kim, S.J., Lee, C.M., Kim, M.Y., Yeo, Y.S., Yoon, S.H., Kang, H.C., and Koo, B.S. 2007. Screening and characterization of an enzyme with β -glucosidase activity from environmental DNA. *J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **17**, 905–912.
- Lee, J.H., Ahn, J.Y., Shin, T.J., Choi, S.H., Lee, B.H., Hwang, S.H., Kang, J., Kim, H.J., Park, C.W., and Nah, S.Y. 2011. Effects of minor ginsenosides, ginsenoside metabolites, and ginsenoside epimers on the growth of *Caenorhabditis elegans*. J. Ginseng Res. 35, 375–383.
- Leung, K.W. and Wong, A.S. 2010. Pharmacology of ginsenosides: a literature review. *Chin. Med.* 5, 20–22.
- Mai, T.T., Moon, J., Song, Y., Viet, P.Q., and Phuc, P.V. 2012. Ginsenoside F₂ induces apoptosis accompanied by protective autophagy in breast cancer stem cells. *Cancer Lett.* **321**, 144– 153.
- Marques, A.R., Coutinho, P.M., Videira, P., Fialho, A.M., and Sa-Correia, I. 2003. *Sphingomonas paucimobilis* β -glucosidase *Bgl*1: a member of a new bacterial subfamily in glycoside hydrolase

family 1. Biochem. J. 370, 793-804.

- Noh, K.H. and Oh, D.K. 2009. Production of the rare ginsenosides compound K, compound Y, and compound Mc by a thermostable β-glycosidase from *Sulfolobus acidocaldarius*. *Biol. Pharm. Bull.* 32, 1830–1835.
- Noh, K.H., Son, J.W., Kim, H.J., and Oh, D.K. 2009. Ginsenoside compound K production from ginseng root extract by a thermostable β-glycosidase from *Sulfolobus solfataricus*. *Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem.* **73**, 316–321.
- **Opassiri, R., Pomthong, B., Onkoksoong, T., Akiyama, T., Esen, A., and Ketudat Cairns, J.R.** 2006. Analysis of rice glycosyl hydrolase family 1 and expression of Os4bglu12 β-glucosidase. *BMC Plant Biol.* **6**, 33.
- Park, M.W., Ha, J., and Chung, S.H. 2008. 20(S)-ginsenoside Rg₃ enhances glucose-stimulated insulin secretion and activates AMPK. *Biol. Pharm. Bull.* 31, 748–751.
- Park, H.J., Kim, D.H., Park, S.J., Kim, J.M., and Ryu, J.H. 2012. Ginseng in traditional herbal prescriptions. J. Ginseng Res. 36, 225–241.
- Park, C.S., Yoo, M.H., Noh, K.H., and Oh, D.K. 2010. Biotransformation of ginsenosides by hydrolyzing the sugar moieties of ginsenosides using microbial glycosidases. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 87, 9–19.
- Saitou, N. and Nei, M. 1987. The neighbor-joining method: a new method for reconstructing phylogenetic trees. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 4, 406–425.
- Shin, J.Y., Lee, J.M., Shin, H.S., Park, S.Y., Yang, J.E., Cho, S.K., and Yi, T.H. 2012. Anti-cancer effect of ginsenoside F₂ against glioblastoma multiforme in xenograft model in SD rats. *J. Ginseng Res.* 36, 86–92.
- Son, J.W., Kim, H.J., and Oh, D.K. 2008. Ginsenoside Rd production from the major ginsenoside Rb₁ by β -glucosidase from *Thermus caldophilus*. *Biotechnol. Lett.* **30**, 713–716.
- Tamura, K., Peterson, D., Peterson, N., Stecher, G., Nei, M., and Kumar, S. 2011. MEGA5: molecular evolutionary genetics analysis using maximum likelihood, evolutionary distance, and maximum parsimony methods. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 28, 2731–2739.
- Tawab, M.A., Bahr, U., Karas, M., Wurglics, M., and Manfred, S.Z. 2003. Degradation of ginsenosides in humans after oral administration. *Drug Metab. Dispos.* 31, 1065–1071.
- Thompson, J.D., Gibson, T.J., Plewniak, F., Jeanmougin, F., and Higgins, D.G. 1997. The CLUSTAL_X windows interface: flexible strategies for multiple sequence alignment aided by quality analysis tools. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **25**, 4876–4882.
- Wang, L., Liu, Q.M., Sung, B.H., An, D.S., Lee, H.G., and Im, W.T. 2011. Bioconversion of ginsenosides Rb₁, Rb₂, Rc and Rd by novel β-glucosidase hydrolyzing outer 3-O glycoside from *Sphingomonas* sp. 2F2: cloning, expression, and enzyme characterization. J. Biotechnol. 156, 125–133.
- Westerberg, K., Elvang, A.M., Stackebrandt, E., and Jansson J.K. 2000. Arthrobacter chlorophenolicus sp. nov., a new species capable of degrading high concentrations of 4-chlorophenol. Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol. 50, 2083–2092.
- Yan, Q., Zhou, W., Li, X.W., Feng, M.Q., and Zhou, P. 2008. Purification method improvement and characterization of a novel ginsenoside-hydrolyzing β -glucosidase from *Paecilomyces Bainier* sp. 229. *Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem.* 72, 352–359.
- Yoo, M.H., Yeom, S.J., Park, C.S., Lee, K.W., and Oh, D.K. 2011. Production of aglycon protopanaxadiol via compound K by a thermostable β -glycosidase from *Pyrococcus furiosus*. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* **89**, 1019–1028.
- Yuan, H.D., Kim, S.J., and Chung, S.H. 2011. Beneficial effects of IH-901 on glucose and lipid metabolisms via activating adenosine monophosphate-activated protein kinase and phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase pathways. *Metabolism* 60, 43–51.