

# **T.C. CANAKKALE ONSEKIZ MART UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

## **DEPARTMENT OF MOLECULAR BIOLOGY AND GENETICS**

# **A NOVEL IN-VITRO DIGESTION MODEL DESIGNED BY INTEGRATION OF MICROBIOME ASSOCIATED ENZYMES**

### **MASTER OF SCIENCES THESIS**

### **MERVE KAPLAN**

**Thesis Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. SERCAN KARAV**

**ÇANAKKALE – 2022**





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This study has been supported by TÜBİTAK 1001 – Supporting Scientific and Technological Research Projects Program. Proje No: 120z517

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The study titled "**A Novel In-Vitro Digestion Model Designed by Integration of Microbiome Associated Enzymes"**, prepared by **Merve Kaplan** under the direction of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Sercan KARAV and presented to the following jury members on **01/06/2022** was unanimously accepted as **a MASTER THESIS** at Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, School of Graduate Studies, **Department of Molecular Biology and Genetics.**



Thesis No : 10464096 Thesis Defence Date :01/06/2022

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### **ETİK BEYAN/ ETHICAL STATEMENT**

Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü Tez Yazım Kuralları'na uygun olarak hazırladığım bu tez çalışmasında; tez içinde sunduğum verileri, bilgileri ve dokümanları akademik ve etik kurallar çerçevesinde elde ettiğimi, tüm bilgi, belge, değerlendirme ve sonuçları bilimsel etik ve ahlak kurallarına uygun olarak sunduğumu, tez çalışmasında yararlandığım eserlerin tümüne uygun atıfta bulunarak kaynak gösterdiğimi, kullanılan verilerde herhangi bir değişiklik yapmadığımı, bu tezde sunduğum çalışmanın özgün olduğunu, bildirir, aksi bir durumda aleyhime doğabilecek tüm hak kayıplarını kabullendiğimi taahhüt ve beyan ederim.

I declare that the data, information, and documents in the thesis were obtained within the framework of academic and ethical rules, I have presented all information, documents, evaluations, and results according to following scientific ethics and ethical rules, and I cited all the reference studies that I used in my thesis by making an appropriate citation. I declare that this thesis study I presented is original, otherwise I accept all the loss of rights that may happen.

> (İmza) Merve KAPLAN (Tarih) ../../20..

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

 I have been incredibly fortunate to have had the encouragement of my supervisor, colleagues, friends, and family. I would like to thank the following people who have notoriously helped me undertake this thesis research:

 Firstly, and most importantly, I would like to express my deepest appreciation to my supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Sercan Karav, for letting me be a good scientist by teaching all critical aspects of the science. My success and the completion of this thesis would not have been possible without the support and nurturing of Dr. Karav. He always provided me with patience, guidance, thoughtful comments, recommendations, and practical suggestions that cannot be underestimated. Dr. Karav's expertise in this research field significantly improved my thesis. Furthermore, I am very grateful for his friendly and personal support in my academic endeavors. I firmly maintain that the extensive knowledge that I learned from Dr. Karav will shed light on my career path in this science journey.

 I opine that friendship and its support are crucial to being motivated in academic life. I am grateful to my dear friend, Ayşenur, for motivating me with her smiling face all the time wherever we are. Besides, I very much thank her for being a good friend, labmate, neighborhood, and more. I would also like to extend my sincere thanks to my other teammates Hatice, Melda, Eda, Burcu, Hasan, Taner, Ayşe, and Berfin who gave noticeable contributions to me. They considerably helped me with their collaborative effort during data collection. I cannot leave the acknowledgment part without mentioning Samet who has been instrumental during my master term. Samet always attentively listened to me and took the time to proofread the earlier drafts of my studies even though he did not understand them well. I very much appreciate him for his support, never-ending encouragement, and always being there for me.

 Finally, yet importantly, I would like to express my gratitude to my family for their unfailing love, and unconditional support throughout my life. They nurtured me and my success with their unlimited love, trust, and endless patience. I very much appreciate my family's encouragement which entertained and helped me get through this difficult time most positively and efficiently.

# **MİKROBİYOM KAYNAKLI YENİ ENZİMLERİN ENTEGRE EDİLDİĞİ İN-VİTRO SİNDİRİM MODELİNİN TASARIMI**

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Moleküler Biyoloji ve Genetik Anabilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans Tezi

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01/06/2022, 118

 İnsan mikrobiyotası, milyonlarca sayıda mikroorganizma içermektedir ve bu mikroorganizmalar beyin bağırsak etkileşimi ve enerji metabolizması gibi birçok önemli biyolojik fonksiyonda görev almaktadır. Özellikle, birçok komensal bakteri sahip oldukları özel enzim sistemi ile sindirim işleminde önemli roller oynamaktadır. Glikan diye isimlendirilen prebiyotik bileşenler, insan enzimleri tarafından sindirilemediklerinden bağırsağa kadar denatürasyona uğramadan ulaşmaktadırlar. Bağırsakta ise bazı bakteriler sahip oldukları enzimler (glikozidazlar vb.) sayesinde glikanları karbon kaynağı olarak kullanabilmektedir. Glikanlar gibi prebiyotiklerin sindirilme mekanizmasını daha iyi anlamak için *in-vitro* sindirim modelleri kullanılmaktadır. Fakat, kullanılan *in-vitro* sindirim modellerinde sadece insan kaynaklı enzimlerin yer alması bu modellerin mikroorganizmaların sindirimdeki etkisini inceleyen çalışmalarda kullanılmasını engellemektedir. Bu yüzden, mikrobiyal enzimlerin yer aldığı yeni sindirim modellerinin tasarımı glikan çalışmaları için kritik öneme sahiptir.

 Bu tez kapsamında, öncelikle insan sindirim sisteminin farklı bölgelerinde baskın olarak bulunan mikroorganizmalar ve bu mikroorganizmalara ait glikozidaz enzimleri biyoinformatik yöntemler kullanılarak belirlenmiştir. Belirlenen ve seçilen 32 glikozidaz

rekombinant olarak uygun bir moleküler klonlama sistemi ile klonlanmış ve üretilmiştir. Üretilen rekombinant enzimler, sadece insan kökenli sindirim enzimlerini içeren standart bir *in-vitro* sindirim modeline entegre edilmiştir ve bir glikoprotein kaynağı olan whey üzerinde test edilmiştir.

**Anahtar sözcükler:** Mikrobiyal Enzimler, Sindirim, Glikan Metabolizması, Mikrobiyota



### **ABSTRACT**

## **A NOVEL IN-VITRO DIGESTION MODEL DESIGNED BY INTEGRATION OF MICROBIOME ASSOCIATED ENZYMES**

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01/06/2022, 118

 The human microbiota consists of much more microbial cells than human cells and they are associated with a myriad of biological functions ranging from gut-brain signaling to energy metabolism. Importantly, most gut commensals are involved in the human digestion process using their carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes) like glycosidases, which are used to cleave polysaccharide chains, also called glycans, into monomers to benefit both themselves and the host. Glycans cannot be digested by human-derived enzymes due to the lack of specific enzymes. Therefore, glycans reach the colon where some bacteria can metabolize them by their unique enzymes. To better understand glycan digestion by microbial metabolism, in-vitro digestion models could be a great way to study the interaction between microbial enzymes and glycans in laboratory conditions. However, current in-vitro digestion models are not available for glycan studies due to the lacking the human enzyme specificity. Thus, the design of novel models including host and microbiome-associated enzymes is critical to paving the way for glycan research.

 Within the purpose of this thesis, novel glycosidases were examined from different microorganisms, which predominate in the human digestive system, using bioinformatic tools. Then, 32 unique enzymes were recombinantly cloned with a cloning and expression system and produced. The selected enzymes were integrated into a conventional in-vitro digestion model which includes only human-associated digestion enzymes. Finally, the new

digestion model designed by recombinant microbial enzymes integration was tested on a glycoprotein source, whey.

**Keywords:** Microbial Enzymes, Digestion, Glycan Metabolism, Microbiota



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#### **CHAPTER 1**

#### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1. Human Gastrointestinal System and Microbiota**

 The gastrointestinal (GI) system is a long and complex system covering the oral cavity, stomach, intestines, anus, and other connected organs. The major function of the GI system is to absorb food components through mechanical as well as chemical digestion. In addition, it also takes a significant role in many systems including the immunity. GI system and its functions have been studied for long years (Corinaldesi et al., 1987; Hawkey et al., 1992). Furthermore, the population of microorganisms symbiotically habiting in the GI system and do not cause any pathogenic disease has attracted particular interest in last couple of years (Hillman et al., 2017). With new studies and data, microbiota and its functions related to many pathways in the human body has become a hot topic amongst many fields (O'Hara & Shanahan, 2006). The microbiota is commonly defined as the collective microorganisms including bacteria, fungi, viruses, archaea, as well as eukaryotes. A massive number of microorganisms reside in the human intestinal tract, which is called gastrointestinal or gut microbiota (Turnbaugh et al., 2007). The gastrointestinal microbiota plays an important role in the regulating basic physiology in the human body due to its wide range of enzyme abilities (Figure 1). It helps the production of vitamins, mineral absorption, protection against pathogens, and immune system enhancement (Hillman et al., 2017).



Figure 1. Functions of gut microbiota (Hillman et al., 2017).

 The gastrointestinal microbiota considerably depends on a number of factors such as age, gender, health situation, as well as nutrition style (Ursell et al., 2012). Microbial variety also varies across the GI system (Figure 2) due to factors including pH, peristalsis, redox potency, adhesion, secretion of mucin, availability of nutrients, as well as bacterial antagonism (Tannock & Savage, 1974). Whilst Streptococcus is one of the most prevalentgenera in the oral cavity, some other populations such as Neisseria, Gemella, Granulicatella Veillonella, and Prevotella also exist (Aas et al., 2005). In addition to the bacterial population, some virus and fungal species are also found in the human oral phase. Bacteriophages, for instance, are the most common virus population, whereas Candida is a fungi species mostly found in this region (Dupuy et al., 2014). The esophagus is the first part where food reaches during its passage to the stomach after chewing. Despite the limited study related to esophageal microbiota, similar results to oral microbiota have been encountered in some studies. As for the stomach, it has a unique microbiota due to its acidic environment, Proteobacteria constitute the majority of the microorganisms in the stomach. In addition, the population of Streptococcus and Prevotella is also found in similar to oral and esophageal microbiota (Bik et al., 2006). The last phase of the digestive tract is the intestines which include three subparts: duodenum, jejunum, and ileum. Bacteroides, Clostridium and Streptococcus reside in these parts, which can also vary across these three subparts (Leimena et al., 2013). The large intestine contains 70% of bacteria in the entire human body and consists of mainly Bacteroides, Prevotella, and Ruminoccocus. In general, phyla, Bacteroides, Firmicutes, Proteobacteria, and Actinobacteria are four major phyla that predominantly belong to the gut. The gut, in particular, is the most predominantly populated by about 1,000 different species of known bacteria, which includes both resident and transient bacteria in a complex environment. The gut microbiota is considered to be a diverse and complex array of microbial ecosystems, which considerably affect human health in many aspects. This wide variety in the gut is caused by slow intestinal motility and lower redox potential. Gut microbiota changes significantly based on the age, diet, and lifestyle of the host (Davenport et al., 2015).



Figure 2. Distribution of gastrointestinal bacteria through the GI system (Aas et al., 2005; Dupuy et al., 2014).

 Studies regarding human microbiota and its relationship with human physiology have noticeably increased in recent years with the Human Microbiome Project. This interest in human microbiota is mainly because it takes a significant part in human physiology and related diseases (various types of allergies, asthma, intestinal-related disorders, etc.) (Hillman et al., 2017). With new applied techniques, human microbiota, which was previously difficult to study and understand, has become easier and clearer to study. The relationship between humans and microbiota is comprehensively studied with developed technology including several techniques such as next-generation sequencing, total DNA characterization, and 16S gene region sequencing (Ursell et al., 2012). Within this perspective, the differences between healthy and unhealthy human microbiota have been distinguished and new treatment methods have been developed against microbiota-related diseases using the data in these hot studies (Shafquat et al., 2014).

#### **1.2. Gastrointestinal Microbiota and Nutrition**

 One of the most significant roles of gastrointestinal microbiota is its role in digestion and metabolism. The density of the microbiota population generally increases from the stomach to the small intestine and from the small to the colon. This indicates a progressive increment of pH and variable digestive functions. In the colon, for instance, a very dense and diverse microbiota ferment undigested food. The gastrointestinal microbiota is efficiently involved in processing foods such as starch and dietary fiber. As a symbiotic hostmicrobe relationship, microbes can utilize indigestible nutrients as a carbon source to grow, whereas absorption of byproducts and the enhancement of nutrient bioavailability provides considerable benefits to the human body. Short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), for example, are byproducts such as lactic acid, butyric acid formed after utilization of undigested poly or oligosaccharides as a carbon source by microbes. SCFAs can easily be absorbed and utilized as a source of energy by a human host, and they are responsible for 10% of human energy requirements (Gerritsen et al., 2011; Wopereis et al., 2014). In the same manner, this relationship exists between unique components of breast milk and infant gut microbiota in early life development (Bode, 2012; Karav et al., 2016).

#### **1.3. Early Development of Microbiota and Its Interaction with Human Milk**

 Early colonization progress in terms of microbiota is critical to both early and lifelong human health, which influences immune development, maturation of gut, physiological functions, and metabolism (Wopereis et al., 2014). Microbial colonization in infants occurs immediately after birth from mother (vertical) and environment (horizontal) transfers (Townsend & Moore, 2019). Some pioneering bacteria enter infants' bodies and establish a new microbial ecosystem within their gut. Furthermore, initial colonization of the infant's gut mainly results from microbes in the environment covering the maternal vaginal, skin, and fecal microbiota (Wopereis et al., 2014).

 The development of human microbiota in the first three months is closely dependent on some factors such as feeding type, antibiotic usage, and delivery type. For instance,

cesarean-born infants showed less diversity of the bacterial population in comparison to vaginally delivered ones (Clarke et al., 2014). Feeding type is a critical factor that affects human health in the long term since human milk includes so significant components lacking in formulas. Human milk provides optimal nutrition for infants in their early development, as it has rich nutritional content providing all the energy, bioactive components which are essential for infant growth. Breast milk composition is very dynamic and has evolved to meet optimal nutrition for infants. It includes protein, lipids, lactose, and bioactive components, which take different roles in infant health (Ballard & Morrow, 2013). In addition to this content of human milk, the third major but non-nutritional component is human milk oligosaccharides which are also called HMOs (Bode, 2012).



Figure 3. Human milk composition (Ballard & Morrow, 2013).

 As HMOs are functional and complex carbohydrates, they play crucial roles in the infant body from innate defense to neural development, and in particular gut health (Bienenstock et al., 2013; Bode, 2012; Wiciński et al., 2020). These complex carbohydrate molecules are indigestible by human-associated enzymes, so they can reach the colon as an intact form. In the colon, they are considered to be a prebiotic and shape the gut microbiota in the infant GI tract (Walsh et al., 2020).



Figure 4. Functions of human milk oligosaccharides (Bienenstock et al., 2013; Bode, 2012).

### **1.4. Glycans and Their Interactions with Gastrointestinal Microbiota**

Human milk includes not only free oligosaccharides, HMOs, but also consists of significant conjugated glycans to proteins or lipids. Most of the proteins (70%) are found as glycoprotein form in human milk such as lysozyme, lactoferrin, casein, and secretory IgA (SIgA). Protein glycosylation is a post-translational modification which takes part in crucial roles in such biological mechanisms as recognition, protein folding, and enzyme protection (Moremen et al., 2012; van Berkel et al., 1995). Protein glycosylation is found as *N*glycosylation and *O-*glycosylation in eukaryotes; *N-*glycosylation takes place when *N*glycans make covalent bonds with proteins at carboxamide group in asparagine (Asn) side chain residue of Asn-X-Ser / Thr via N-glycosidic bond. On the other hand, *O-*glycosylation formed when O-linked ones attached to the OH group at the side chain of serine or threonine amino acid (Varki et al., 2009). N-linked glycans include three different forms as high mannose, hybrid, and complex according to their monosaccharide sequence and branch type, whereas *O-*linked ones have eight different core structures (Parc et al., 2015). Conjugated glycans are involved in several biological mechanisms including protein folding, cell-cell or cell-host communication, antimicrobial, antiviral, and prebiotic effects (Karav et al., 2017). Furthermore, they decline leukocyte binding to endothelial cells, hinder pathogen binding to epithelial cells, inhibition rotavirus related to diarrhea in infants, and development of the cognitive ability of infants (Kunz et al., 2000; Morgan & Winick, 1980).



Figure 5. Glycan structures (Varki et al., 2009; Parc et al., 2015).

 Conjugated glycans are similar to HMOs regarding structure including composition of monosaccharides and link type. *N-*glycans, in particular, can form complex structures and this increases the specificity of these molecules. *N-*glycans released from bovine and human milk are considered to be bifidogenic compounds, which can shape gastrointestinal microbiota like HMOs. A unique function of these conjugated glycans is that released glycans from glycoproteins are used also as a carbon source by Bifidobacteria species in the human gut due to their genomic capability (Karav et al., 2018). *Bifidobacterium infantis* (*B. infantis)* that is a probiotic extensively found in the gut of infants can release breast milk glycans from glycoproteins by Endo-*ß-N*-acetylglucosaminidase enzyme and then these released free glycans are used as a carbon source for *B. infantis* (Karav et al., 2016). Moreover, these molecules cause a selective growth in the microbial ecosystem, for instance, released *N-*glycans from bovine milk glycoproteins stimulate *B. infantis* adapted to the infant's gut. However, *Bifidobacterium animalis* (*B. animalis*) cannot utilize these structures. In an *in-vivo* study, pathogens cannot utilize these oligosaccharides, whereas they can degrade glycans found on the infant gastric mucosa (Karav et al., 2018). Another study showed that nineteen different *N-*glycans conjugated to lactoferrin as well as immunoglobulins enhance the *B. infantis* growth (Karav et al., 2019). *N-*glycans are also fermented to SCFAs like HMOs, this positively affects the microbial environment and lowers the pH which creates a resistance to pathogen colonization since they preferentially

grow at nearly neutral pH like 6-7 (Koropatkin et al., 2012). As the fermentation process of conjugated *N-*glycans forms end-products like acetate and lactate, this creates a disfavored environment for pathogens which degrade gastrointestinal mucin structures and significantly reduces the pathogen population (Duar et al., 2020). With these important functions, conjugated glycans shape the gut microbiota providing colonization resistance, reducing inflammation and virulence factors (Duar et al., 2020; Olin et al., 2018).



Figure 6. HMO metabolism by *B. infantis* (Chichlowski et al., 2020)*.*

 Both conjugated and free oligosaccharides are named prebiotics which are significant compounds for gut health. Prebiotics are indigestible food components which selectively enhance the activity and/or growth of certain bacteria in the GI microbiota (Gibson & Roberfroid, 1995). They exert a myriad of beneficial effects on the human body, however, interactions between prebiotics, probiotics, and pathogens make the definition of prebiotics more complex. Robert W. Hutkins indicated that many prebiotics do not show an actual prebiotic effect on the gut (Hutkins et al., 2016). This is mainly related to some metabolites formed during prebiotic fermentation in the gut, which is readily utilized by pathogens in their first colonization. Even though prebiotics show incredible beneficial effects for the

human body, they can allow the growth of pathogens related to different strategies to transfer oligosaccharides into the cell (LoCascio et al., 2009). For instance, *B. bifidum* and *B. infantis* are two bacteria that are genomically adapted to metabolize HMOs, whereas *B. breve* and *B. longum* have more strain-specific phenotypes and degrade certain HMOs (LoCascio et al., 2009; Sela et al., 2012). On the other hand, some adult-type Bifidobacteria including *B. animalis* and *B. adolescentis* cannot metabolize HMO structures. Such different utilization situations are strongly dependent on bacterial genomes and strategy. *B. infantis* has different glycosyl hydrolase enzymes and firstly takes complex oligosaccharides into its cell and then utilizes them, so there are not any metabolites formed in the microbial environment. This considerably reduces the cross-feeding potency for pathogens as the whole hydrolysis process takes place in the cell. However, *B. bifidum* firstly cleaves the linkages in oligosaccharides by using its enzymes and converting complex molecules to monosaccharides outside. Then, it takes monomers through its cell which promotes the pathogen colonization by cross-feeding process (Chaplin et al., 2015).



Figure 7. Two different HMO utilization mechanisms by *B. infantis* and *B. bifidum* (LoCascio et al., 2009).

 Conjugated glycans can be released from glycoproteins by some chemical as well as enzymatic methods to better understand and study their functions and prebiotic activity related to gastrointestinal microbiota. Chemical methods are commonly used to release glycans because of their advantages including easy application, lower cost, and activity on different substrates (Sojar & Bahl, 1987). Hydration and β-elimination are the most common chemical methods in alkaline conditions (Dwek, 1993). Though sodium borohydride as a reducing agent is preferred to prevent the chemical structure of oligosaccharides, peeling action may negatively affect the structure and remaining protein structure (Carlson, 1968). In addition, a loss of glycan takes place during the salt removal which is used in βelimination (Turyan et al., 2014). Hydration is a more effective process in comparison to the β-elimination in terms of both effectiveness and released glycans variety.

 The releasing of glycans by chemical methods affects both glycans and the remaining part. Moreover, the mass spectrometry analysis of released glycans is so difficult because of the high amount of salt in glycans related to the chemical method. As for enzymatic techniques, glycans are released from glycoproteins using Peptidyl-N-glycosidases (PNGases) (Altmann et al., 1995). These enzymes can release all glycans, but they cannot show activity if there is fucose linked to the N-acetylglucosamine with a 1,3 bond (Tretter et al., 1991). Furthermore, glycoproteins are denatured using detergent and high temperatures for enzyme activity. Other enzymes including Endoglycosidase F1, F2, and F3 also exert the activity regardless of any substrate denaturation. However, these enzymes are active on a so limited number of glycans (Trimble & Tarentino, 1991). Considering all these chemical and enzymatic techniques, novel enzymes are essential and of utmost importance to release glycans from glycoproteins. To further study the interaction between food components, prebiotics, and gastrointestinal microbiota, novel enzymes and models are a critical requirement in this field.

#### **1.5.** *In-Vitro* **Digestion Models**

 GI system and its mechanism related to food digestion are highly complex since a variety of factors can affect it. However, the GI system is a major focus for many foods and health studies as nutrition is important part in human health (Bornhorst et al., 2016). Ingested foods during the human digestion process are converted to nutrients that are of utmost importance for the human body in terms of growth, energy as well as repair. The digestion of food consists of two key steps: mechanical process in which larger food components are broken down into smaller components, begins in the oral phase and continues through the gastric phase; an enzymatic process where various enzymes transform macromolecules to small ones which can be easily absorbed through bloodstream, begins in the oral phase and continues through the intestinal phase (Alminger et al., 2014; Guerra et al., 2012). In vivo approaches are used to study food digestion, which generally include feeding and the acquisition of samples of digested food from the gastric part and small intestine. However, *in-vivo* systems to study digestion have noticeable drawbacks including technical issues, ethical difficulties, high cost, and physiological differences between individuals. Therefore, *in-vitro* models are maintained to be good alternative models for GI system and digestion studies (Ménard et al., 2014). Even though the GI system is difficult to study since it has complex interactions with other physiological systems in the human body*, in-vitro* digestion models are successfully used to understand the digestion process further (Marcano et al., 2015; Minekus et al., 2014). The *in-vitro* digestion model is used firstly by DeBaun and Connors (Debaun & Connors, 1954). These models can vary regarding the GI system phase (Sek et al., 2001). Generally, common *in-vitro* digestion models try to mimic the whole digestion process of food components along with oral, gastric, and small intestine parts of the GI tract. These *in-vitro* models may vary as static, or dynamic based on the complexity.



Figure 8. Categorization of *in-vitro* digestion models (Ménard et al., 2014).

#### **1.5.1. Static** *In-Vitro* **Digestion Models**

 Static gastric models (SGM) are basic models which include a system that all components of phases are incubated at each one with appropriate enzymes and gastric juices mimicking pH, temperature, and time (Minekus et al., 2014). Food is introduced into a reaction tube which could be a beaker, test tube, or an Erlenmeyer flask). When the food is added to the test tube, digestive fluids, as well as enzymes, are also introduced to each GI phase. The temperature and pH are maintained according to the phase conditions, the pH could be in an uncontrolled situation or kept stable with a pH-stat system. To cite an instance, 1 g food sample is introduced into a test vessel and then 1 mL of simulated salivary fluid is added to the mix. The pH is 7 and the temperature is 37°C for the oral phase and it takes 2 minutes. In the same manner, 2 mL of simulated gastric fluid, as well as pepsin enzyme (2000 U/mL), are added to the test tube, and pH is adjusted to 3 using HCl (final volume is 4 mL). The gastric phase takes 120 min, after that pH is adjusted to 7 with NaOH to mimic intestinal conditions. 4 mL of simulated intestinal fluid with pancreatin and bile salts is added and incubated through 120 min. The final volume of this last phase is 8 mL, and trypsin activity is 100U/mL (Brodkorb et al., 2019).

 An international network INFOGEST consists of multidisciplinary applications' professions from 32 different nations. Within the perspective of INFOGEST, an *in-vitro* digestion protocol, also named as INFOGEST methods, is well simulated to human digestion process (Brodkorb et al., 2019; Minekus et al., 2014). In addition to INFOGEST, some other static models are also used, for instance, United States Pharmacopoeia methods and Unified BARGE methods, but they do not fix for assessment of food products as they are developed for pharmaceuticals and soil or food contaminants (Brodkorb et al., 2019).



Figure 9. The basic principle of the *in-vitro* digestion model (Minekus et al., 2014).

 SGMs are easy to perform and can investigate physiological processes at the molecular level (Ménard et al., 2014). Its simplicity offers that it is well-suited for *in-vitro* digestion works with the number of food samples. Static models, in particular, are commonly used to determine the food process' effect on nutrient bioaccessibility, bioavailability, and/or allergenic peptides. On the other hand, even though static *in-vitro* digestion models are easy and fast, they cannot mimic thoroughly *in-vivo* digestion process due to some reasons such as pH changes uncontrolling, lacking gradual addition of gastric fluids, and emptying (Brodkorb et al., 2019).

### **1.5.2. Dynamic** *In-Vitro* **Digestion Models**

 Dynamic *in-vitro* digestion models are computer-controlled models, so they have the capacity to simulate complex digestion. Dynamic digestion models are stated as monocompartmental as well as multi-compartmental models. Many mono- compartmental ones simulate gastric digestion with its gastric contraction, mechanism of fluids, the gradual addition of enzymes, and emptying. All models generally have a main chamber with an elastic material and incorporated adding gradually gastric juice and pH controlling (Ji et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021). They can have a variety of apparatus to simulate gastric contraction including water pressure, pistons, ropes, and rollers. Even more, some models mimic the Jshaped human stomach using 3D printing. Elastic annulus, mesh filter, and a more structural design are also used to simulate opening the pyloric valve and emptying (Ji et al., 2021).

Dynamic models can mimic gastric mixing, gradual secretion of enzymes, emptying, as well as absorption, in contrast to static models. Dynamic *in-vitro* digestion models can mimic gastric mixing, gradual secretion of enzymes, emptying, and absorption, in contrast to static models. They are preferred to study digestion in detail covering emulsion of lipidsproperties for lipid-soluble nutrients, food and/or drug encapsulation techniques, kinetic changes, the release of proteins, and/or lipid oxidation during digestion (Corstens et al., 2018; Qazi et al., 2021). Dynamic models have not only a better accuracy rate but also provide kinetic parameters for the digestion process. Although they have critical advantages for digestion studies, they are time-consuming, so complex, even more need expensive enzymes. Dynamic models are less accessible than a static digestion model due to these reasons.

 In general, both *in-vitro* digestion models; dynamic and static ones are preferred to study a wide variety of subjects such as analysis of antioxidant effects of bioactive molecules and assessing these molecules with nano properties at digestion system. Vitamins A, C, D, E, polyphenolic compounds, and carotenoids are widely studied using these models for a better understanding of their effects on human health or pharmacological activities. Furthermore, milk proteins' degradation prediction is also studied by *in-vitro* digestion models just mimicking appropriate pH and incubation conditions (Egger et al., 2019; Wada & Lönnerdal, 2015). However, an important point which is the contribution of microorganisms, and their enzymes is missed in both models. Food digestion is a complex process that considerably interacts with gastrointestinal microbiota. Especially, the digestion of complex carbohydrates including prebiotics is dependent on gastrointestinal microbiota activity as they are indigestible by human-associated digestion enzymes. Therefore, microbiota-associated enzymes are a requirement for *in-vitro* models to mimic the digestion process precisely.

#### **1.6. Aim of the Thesis**

 The overall purpose of the thesis is to integrate microbiota-associated enzymes through the *in-vitro* digestion model. Within this perspective, the integration of microbial enzymes into a convention digestion model creates a novel *in-vitro* model to simulate a proper digestion process with four GI phases (oral, gastric, small, and large intestine). Current *in-vitro* digestion models are not available for significant glycan studies because of lacking microbial enzymes specificity, they only consist of human-associated enzymes. Therefore, the design of this novel model including host and microbial enzymes is extremely critical to paving the way for studies of complex carbohydrates such as glycans. With the thesis, recombinantly cloned glycosidases of target microorganisms were integrated into the conventional *in-vitro* digestion model. This model helps better understand glycan metabolism and leads to further studies to determine the impact of glycans on GI microbiota.

Within the thesis:

- Target microorganisms in the GI tract parts including oral, gastric, small, and large intestine were determined with deeper literature research.
- Glycosidases as microbial enzymes of target microorganisms were examined.
- Determined microbial enzymes were recombinantly cloned using an appropriate cloning and expression system (Expresso® Rhamnose SUMO Cloning and Expression System).
- Recombinant enzymes were purified using immobilized metal affinity chromatography and their kinetic parameters were determined.
- Recombinant enzymes were integrated through the conventional *in-vitro* model which was also performed within the thesis.
- The novel model was tested on a glycoprotein.

### **CHAPTER 2**

#### **PREVIOUS STUDIES**

 Glycosylation is a significant post-translation process that takes place in various cellular mechanisms. Most eukaryotic proteins are glycosylated form, and their glycan parts are involved in several biological mechanisms related to human health. Many studies have already indicated that glycans take a significant role in cell adhesion and activation of receptors, which explains the glycoprotein structure linked with the protection function by the host against pathogen attacks. Furthermore, they also take roles in the recognition and connection of microorganisms through cell membranes. Protein folding, conformation, immunogenicity, solubility as well as capacity to proteolysis resistance are also mechanisms in which glycans considerably take part.

 Recently, glycans are also considered to be prebiotics since they selectively promote some bacteria in the human microbiota. Human milk glycans are utilized as a carbon source by Bifidobacteria which are beneficial microorganisms associated with healthy infant microbiota and selectively metabolized by probiotics (Karav et al., 2016; Karav, Bell, et al., 2015). A study by Karav et al., presented that *B. infantis* has a unique enzyme which is named Endo-B-N-acetylglucosaminidase (EndoBI-1) of the Blon\_2468 gene, and this enzyme cleaves glycans from glycoproteins (Karav, Parc, et al., 2015). An *in-vivo* study showed that pathogen microorganisms cannot utilize these human milk glycans, however; can degrade glycans on the gastric mucin layer. Moreover, the study also showed that microbiota predominated by Bifidobacteria (especially *B. infantis*) utilize mainly human milk glycans, whereas in control groups' infants the focus is mucin layer glycans (Karav et al., 2018). In 2019, it was shown that *B. infantis* in healthy infant microbiota can utilize glycans conjugated to glycoproteins such as lactoferrin and glycoproteins (Karav et al., 2019). Therefore, different microorganisms use different enzymes to release glycans from glycoproteins and then utilize them as a carbon source. Within this perspective, human nutrition is so critical to shaping microbiota with undigestible carbohydrates.

 Studies covering nutrients and digestion are critical to understanding the mechanism of digestion and their relationship with human microbiota. GI system, therefore, is a common
focus for many food and health studies (Bornhorst et al., 2016). *In-vivo* studies including the digestion process generally include the feeding and acquisition process, which are generally considered to be more precise to study complex human digestion. Even though *in-vivo* digestion models are preferred in some studies, they have some disadvantages such as ethical problems, high cost, and technical issues. *In-vitro* models are another commonly used to study complex digestion processes in laboratory conditions. They are generally preferred due to their simplicity, and applicability (Ménard et al., 2014). These models include three simulated phases of the GI system including oral, gastric, and small intestine. *In-vitro* digestion models are widely used in a variety of applications such as analysis of the antioxidant effect of bioactive molecules, nano properties at digestion system, pharmacological activities, and milk proteins' degradation (Marcano et al., 2015; Minekus et al., 2014; Qazi et al., 2021). Models basically use human-associated enzymes and appropriate conditions such as pH, temperature, as well as incubation duration which are mimicked to human digestion. A food component is basically integrated through the system and its *in-vitro* digestion process takes place under appropriate conditions like *in-vivo*. On the other hand, glycans and glycan-rich foods, which are indigestible by human enzymes, were not studied within studies of these models. *In-vitro* digestion models depend on only human-associated enzymes. However, in addition to those enzymes, microbial enzymes from millions of microorganisms in human gastrointestinal microbiota have a crucial role in the digestion (Karav et al., 2018, 2019).

 Investigation of novel microbial enzymes and integration of them through an *in-vitro* model is so significant to further study digestion and microbiota development. The novel model within the scope of this thesis aims to contribute to several studies in this field. With this model, many glycoproteins or glycan-rich nutrients would be studied to better understand their digestion and interaction with human microbiota.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **MATERIAL & METHOD**

### **3.1. Materials**

# **3.1.1. Chemicals, Kits, Culture Media, and Essential Items**

All kits, chemicals and other items used in this thesis are listed below (Table 1).

Table 1. List of chemicals, kits, and other items



Table 1 (continues)



### **3.1.2. Substrates**

 Bacterial strains used in the thesis for the recombinant molecular cloning were provided from The Belgian Coordinated Collections of Microorganisms (BCCM/LMG) and The Global Bioresource Center (ATCC). Whey from bovine colostrum was used in the novel model as glycoprotein source. Other enzymes and chemicals (amylase, pepsin, trypsin, and chemicals) used in the conventional model digestion model were also supplied from Sigma-Aldrich.

### **3.1.3. Laboratory Equipment**

 All laboratory equipment used in this thesis is listed below (Table 2). For these, the research lab of the Molecular Biology and Genetics Department at Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University (COMU) was used.



Table 2. Laboratory equipment list and brand information

#### **3.2. Method**

The general method scheme is shown below (Figure10).



Figure 10. General method scheme.

# **3.2.1. Determination of Target Microorganisms and Molecular Cloning of Their Specific Enzymes for Novel** *In-Vitro* **Digestion Model**

### **Determination of Target Microorganisms**

 All enzymes used in this thesis were searched using Carbohydrate-Active enZYmes (CAZy) and National Center for Biotechnology Information (BLAST). The information about microorganisms and target genes is shown in Table 3.

# **3.2.2. Primer Design and In-Silico Analysis of Target Genes Prior to Molecular Cloning**

### **In-Silico Signal Peptide/Transmembrane Domain Analyses**

 Signal peptides and transmembrane domains of target genes were analyzed before the molecular cloning experiment to increase protein expression. The determined signal peptides and transmembrane domains in target genes were excluded from sequences of genes. The amino acid sequences of target genes determined from the Integrated Microbial Genomes and NCBI database were used in Signal 5.0, and TMHMM 2.0 program for the signal peptide and transmembrane domain analysis, respectively.

### **Primer Design**

The design of primers was performed by excluding some amino acid sequences according to the results of signal peptide and transmembrane domain analysis from online tools. All primers used in this method were designed based on sticky ends for each fusion tag and continue with the specificity to interest genes. Primer sequences' specificity is shown below. Primers were designed to produce different genes used in this thesis. Primer concentration was prepared as 100 μM using sterile water, whereas new stocks were prepared as 10 μM for the PCR amplification step.

Fusion to an N-terminal 6xHis tag (pRham™ N-His Kan Vector): Forward primer (defined vector sequence includes 6 His codons): 5'-CAT CAT CAC CAC CAT CAC XXX2 XXX3 XXX4 XXX5 XXX6 XXX7 XXX8 (XXX<sub>2</sub>-XXX<sub>8</sub> represents codons 2 through 8 of the target coding region). Reverse primer (defined vector sequence includes Stop anticodon): 5'-GTG GCG GCC GCT CTA TTA XXX<sub>n</sub> XXX<sub>n-1</sub> XXX<sub>n-2</sub> XXX<sub>n-3</sub> XXX<sub>n-4</sub> XXX<sub>n-5</sub> XXX<sub>n-6</sub> (XXX<sub>n</sub> - XXX<sub>n-6</sub> represents the sequence **complementary** to the last 7 codons of the target coding region).

Fusion to a C-terminal 6xHis tag (pRham C-His Kan Vector):

Forward primer (defined vector sequence includes Start codon): 5'-GAA GGA GAT ATA CAT ATG XXX2 XXX3 XXX4 XXX5 XXX6 XXX7 XXX8 (XXX<sub>2</sub>-XXX<sub>8</sub> represents codons 2 through 8 of the target coding region). Reverse primer (defined vector sequence includes 6 His anticodons): 5'-GTG ATG GTG GTG ATG ATG XXX<sub>n</sub> XXX<sub>n-1</sub> XXX<sub>n-2</sub> XXX<sub>n-3</sub> XXX<sub>n-4</sub> XXX<sub>n-5</sub> XXX<sub>n-6</sub> (XXX<sub>n</sub> - XXX<sub>n-6</sub> represents the sequence **complementary** to the last 7 codons of the target coding region).

Fusion to a N-terminal SUMO 6xHis tag (pRham N-his SUMO Kan Vector): Forward primer (defined sequence includes the last 6 codons of SUMO): 5'- CGC GAA CAG ATT GGA GGT XXX<sub>2</sub> XXX<sub>3</sub> XXX<sub>4</sub> XXX<sub>5</sub> XXX<sub>6</sub> XXX<sub>7</sub> XXX<sub>8</sub>  $(XXX<sub>2</sub>-XXX<sub>8</sub>$  represents codons 2 through 8 of the target coding region).

Reverse primer (vector sequence includes Stop anticodon):

5'-GTG GCG GCC GCT CTA TTA XXX<sub>n</sub> XXX<sub>n-1</sub> XXX<sub>n-2</sub> XXX<sub>n-3</sub> XXX<sub>n-4</sub> XXX<sub>n-5</sub> XXX<sub>n-6</sub>

XXX<sub>n</sub> - XXX<sub>n-6</sub> represents the reverse complement of the sequence of the last 7 codons of

the target coding region. XXX<sub>n</sub> is the reverse complement of the final codon of the protein.<br>The stop codon of the target gene need not be included, as the vector encodes stop codons.

Figure 11. Primer design according to molecular cloning kit A) Fusion to an N-terminal 6xHis tag, B) Fusion to a C-terminal 6xHis tag (Lucigen).

### **3.2.3. Molecular Cloning**

 The molecular cloning experiment was performed using an advanced kit which is Expresso Rhamnose Cloning and Expression System (Lucigen). This molecular cloning kit helps to achieve faster and more reliable results in comparison to other molecular cloning methods. Expresso Rhamnose Cloning and Expression System is also named an *in-vivo* cloning system since all process takes place in cells. There is not any enzymatic ligation process, amplified gene and vector in the kit can be easily mixed with competent cells. The vector in the kit is 18 nucleotides long and has sticky ends on both sides. Primers used in this method were designed based on sticky ends, which provides a strong binding of primers to the template. When molecular cloning is performed, protein production can be increased with a promoter; rhamnose. In addition, the protein purification method was conducted by immobilized metal affinity chromatography (IMAC) using NTA-Ni charged columns with 6xHistidine in three distinct vectors including pRhamTM N-His SUMO, pRhamTM N-His, and pRhamTM C-His).



Figure 12. Molecular cloning steps.



Figure 13. Molecular cloning kit (Expresso Rhamnose Cloning and Expression System) technology and its vectors (Lucigen).

### **PCR Amplification**

 The interest genes were amplified using PCR. The amplification step was performed in 50 μL containing 2 μL template DNA, 1 μL forward primer, 1 μL reverse primer, 0.2 μM, 25 μL Master Mix, 21 μL DNase/RNase free distilled water. Once the mixture was ready, PCR tubes were placed into a thermal cycler. PCR steps was as shown below:





Figure 14. PCR stages.

### **Agarose Gel Electrophoresis**

 Agarose gel electrophoresis was used to control PCR products. Firstly, Safe Red loading dye was mixed with PCR products as well as DNA ladder (the ratio was 1:5). The experiment was run on 1% agarose gel at 100 V for 60 min using 1X TBE buffer. After gel electrophoresis, PCR products were visualized using a gel documentation system ST4 1100 (Vilber Lourmat, France). All PCR products' concentrations were measured with Qubit 3 Fluorometer using its dsDNA assay kit.

### **Preparation of Lysogeny Broth (LB) Media**

To prepare LB agar media for the molecular cloning step, 6 g agarose and 12.5 g LB were mixed with 500 mL dH<sub>2</sub>O and autoclaved at 121 °C during 20 min. After autoclaving, 15 mg kanamycin (30 μg/mL) was dissolved in 1 mL  $dH_2O$  and transferred into the bottle containing 500 mL LB agar media. Then, the media was poured into plates. To prepare LB medium for colony PCR step, 10 g LB was mixed with 400 mL distilled water and autoclaved at 121 °C for 20 min. 12 mg kanamycin (30 μg/mL) was dissolved in 1 mL distilled water and transferred into the bottle containing 400 mL LB medium. The media was stored at 4 °C until the colony PCR step.

#### **Heat Shock Transformation**

 First, the recovery medium in the kit which is used to heal cells rapidly after transformation was taken from -80°C and placed into 37°C before the cloning of E. cloni 10G cells at -80°C thawed at the ice. His-tagged PCR products' concentration was mixed with 2 μL of pRhamTM Vector DNA and mixed with 40 μL of E. cloni 10G cell. The prepared mixture was introduced to falcon tubes (15 mL) which were put on ice for 30 min. The thermal shock process was in a 42 °C water bath for 45 seconds for vector insertion and PCR product into the cell. Samples were taken to the ice for 2 min to close competent cell pores. After 2 min, 960 μL recovery medium was introduced into each tube, and tubes were incubated at 37 °C during 1 hour at 250 rpm. Then, all samples were firstly spread as 100 μL to LB agar plates and remained parts centrifugated at 4000 rpm for 10 min. The pellet part of the samples was dissolved with 100 μL recovery medium by pipetting then spread

into LB agar plates. E. cloni cells were used as a negative control on a different LB agar plate and all were incubated at 37°C overnight.



Figure 15. Heat shock steps.

### **Colony PCR**

 Colony PCR was performed to confirm the transformants whether take the recombinant genes or not. After overnight incubation of cells on LB agar plates, colonies were selected randomly. Target genes were amplified by PCR with the sequencing primers in the Expresso molecular cloning kit. The half part of each colony was transferred into a PCR tube as well as used as a template for PCR amplification, while the other part was inoculated to LB kanamycin liquid media (5 mL) and incubated at 250 rpm 37 °C overnight. PCR process was performed as previously mentioned in step 3.2.5, the only difference was primers were sequencing primers provided with the kit.

 Agarose gel electrophoresis was performed to control PCR products after colony PCR using Safe Red loading dye, PCR products, as well as DNA ladder. The gel was run at 1% agarose at 100 V during 60 min using 1 X TBE buffer. ST4 1100 (Vilber Lourmat, France) was used to visualize samples. According to the results, successful transformants including recombinant genes were determined and their cultures in 5 mL LB were used to prepare glycerol stocks. 500 μL 60% glycerol and 1500 μL culture were mixed in cryotubes to prepare 15% glycerol stocks. All stocks were stored at -80°C.



Figure 16. Colony PCR.

### **3.2.4. Protein Production and Purification**

### **L-Rhamnose Induction**

Firstly, a preculture was prepared by inoculating bacterial stocks into an 8 mL LB medium prepared. To prepare 20 % L-rhamnose, 0.5 g L-rhamnose was dissolved in 2.5 mL  $dH_2O$  and stored at -20 $^{\circ}$ C before use. Prepared cultures were incubated at 37  $^{\circ}$ C overnight at 160 rpm. The following day, 2.5 mL culture was transferred to 250 mL fresh LB medium (1:100). Then, cultures in the fresh medium were incubated at 37 °C, 160 rpm about 4-5 hours (until OD reaches 0.5-0.6). The optical density of cells was measured at 600 nm with a spectrophotometer. When it was reached to 0.5-0.6, 2.5 mL 20% rhamnose as final concentration 0.2% were added into 250 mL LB. Cultures were incubated overnight under the conditions of 160 rpm, 24°C. Following the incubation, they were centrifugated at 4000 rpm, 4 °C for 20 min. Pellet parts were stored at -20°C.

#### **Cell Lysis**

The pellets were placed to -80°C to freeze and taken to room temperature to thaw. Then, they were washed with five mL  $dH_2O$  and centrifugated at 4000 rpm, 4 °C for 15 min. Pellet parts after centrifugation were dissolved with 6300 μL lysis buffer and 63 μL protease inhibitor (1:100) for each 50 mL culture pellet. The prepared samples were incubated on ice during 30 min by vortexing in every 10 min. After 30 min, samples were sonicated with a sonicator; the pulse mode of a sonicator was cycled on 10 s and cycled off 59 s, and the amplitude was 37%. The sonication was performed as six pulses for 10 s with a one min cooling step. After that, samples were centrifugated at 4000 rpm, 4  $\degree$ C for 30 min. Supernatant parts after centrifugation were used in protein purification and taken 100 μL for SDS-PAGE. Cell lysates' concentration was measured with a Qubit 3 Fluorometer.

### **Protein Purification**

1 mL Ni-NTA resin was used in the protein purification steps, it was centrifugated at 700 g for 2 min and its buffer was removed. 2 mL equilibration buffer was mixed with the resin and centrifugated at 700 g during 2 min and again süpernatant part were discarded. Cell lysates were also mixed with equilibration buffer (1:1) and added to the falcons containing resin. Prepared samples were incubated at room temperature, 150 rpm for 30 min. After that, samples were centrifugated at 700 g for 2 min, and süpernatant parts were removed. The remained resin parts were washed with 5 mL wash buffer and centrifugated at 700 g for 2 min, this step was repeated until the samples' concentrations decrease to the baseline so there are no potential contaminants. When it comes to elution steps, 1 mL elution buffer was added to tubes and centrifugated at 700 g for 2 min. The elution was repeated three times and each one was taken into sterile tubes. 100 μL of each was taken for the SDS-PAGE experiment and their concentrations were measured with a Qubit 3 Fluorometer. Eluted samples were collected in an Amicon Centrifugal Tube based on their molecular weight, and they were concentrated. Purified samples were stored at -80°C.



Figure 17. Protein purification steps.

### **SDS-PAGE Analysis**

SDS-PAGE was performed according to the Laemmli protocol and Bio-Rad protein gel system. First of all, 4% (stacking) and 12% (separating) gels were prepared. Stacking gel (4%) was prepared using 40% Acrylamide/Bisacrylamide, 1 M Tris pH 6.8, 10% SDS, 10% Ammonium Persulfate, TEMED, distilled water) and separating gel (12%) was prepared using 40% Acrylamide/Bisacrylamide, 1.5 M Tris pH 8.8, 10% SDS, 10% Ammonium Persulfate. SeeBlue™ Pre-stained Protein Standard (Invitrogen) was used as the standard ladder. 10  $\mu$ L of each sample was mixed with 10  $\mu$ L of Laemmli Sample Buffer (2X) was added. After the prepared samples were incubated at 95°C for 5 minutes, they were loaded into the prepared gel. Tris-Gly SDS Running Buffer was the running buffer as well as samples were run at 80-120 V conditions. Proteins separated based on their molecular weights were incubated with Coomassie Brilliant Blue at 50 rpm for 30 minutes. Then, the gel was destained with the Destaining solution (50% distilled water, 40% Methanol, 10% Glacial Acetic Acid) and gel images were taken.

# **3.2.5. Integration of Obtained Microbiome-Based Enzymes to a Conventional**  *In-Vitro* **Digestion Model**

For a conventional model, i*n-vitro* digestion protocol was prepared according to the INFOGEST model (Minekus et al., 2014). 2 μL of each recombinant enzyme was integrated into appropriate phases during *in-vitro* digestion. The last colon part where the microbial mechanism of digestion takes place included only microbial enzymes and performed at 37 °C, pH 8. For the experiment, three groups were planned; first was experimental group including whey, human digestion fluids, enzymes, and microbial enzymes, second group was control 1 consisting of human digestion fluids and enzymes, no microbial enzymes, and third group was control 2 including only digestion fluids, no enzyme.



Figure 18. Design of the novel model by integrating microbial enzymes through a conventional *in-vitro* digestion system.



Figure 19. Experiment and control groups that are used in the test of the novel system on a glycoprotein source.

# **3.2.6. Digestion of a Glycoprotein Source by Using Novel** *In-Vitro* **Digestion Model**

Whey from bovine colostrum (1 g) which was filtered using 10 kDa Amicon tube to remove contaminants including free oligosaccharides and lactose was used as a glycoprotein source that includes a high concentration of glycans. All digestion solutions including simulated salivary fluid (SSF), simulated gastric fluid (SGF), and simulated intestinal fluid (SIF) were prepared based on the content given Appendix 3). All digestion fluids and enzymes were preincubated at 37 °C before the experiment. 2mL of sample were removed after each phase and kept at -20 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$  until the next usage. In general, in the oral phase, a 1 g whey from bovine colostrum which does not contain lactose and free oligosaccharides, was added to a 3.5 mL SSF stock solution and mixed. Then, human salivary a-amylase (EC 3.2.1.1, 15000 U mL<sup>-1</sup>) and 25  $\mu$ L, 0.3 M CaCI<sub>2</sub> were added to the mixture. Finally, 975  $\mu$ L distilled water was added to the mixture and mixed well. The incubation time for the oral phase took 2 minutes at 37°C shaking by hand. In the gastric phase, the final ratio of food to SGF solution was at 50:50 (v/v) after adding other components. A 10 mL liquid sample was added to a 7.5 mL SGF solution and then 1.6 mL pepsin (from porcine gastric mucosa 3200- 4500 U mg<sup>-1</sup>) was mixed with the mixture. 5  $\mu$ L, 0.3 M CaCI<sub>2</sub>, and 1 M HCI for keeping pH at 3.0 and 0.695 μL distilled water were added to the final mixture. The incubation time for the gastric phase was 2 hours at 37°C, 100 rpm. In the intestinal phase, the final ratio of gastric chyme to SIF stock solution was at 50:50 (v/v) after adding other chemicals and distilled water. 1 M NaOH was required to adjust pH at 7. 20 mL of gastric chyme from the previous phase was mixed with 11 mL of SIF solution. 5 mL pancreatin solution (from porcine pancreas, 800 U mL<sup>-1</sup>), 2.5 mL, 160 mM fresh bile, 40  $\mu$ L, and 0.3 M CaCI<sub>2</sub> were added to the mixture. Finally, 0.15 mL of 1 M NaOH was added to adjust pH at 7.0 and 1.31 mL of distilled water was mixed with the final solution. The incubation time for intestinal digestion took 2 hours at 37°C, 100 rpm. During experiment, 2 μL of each recombinant enzyme was integrated into appropriate phases. The last colon part where the microbial mechanism of digestion takes place includes only microbial enzymes and it was incubated overnight under the conditions of 37°C, pH 8, and 100 rpm.





Figure 20. Flow of novel *in-vitro* digestion model.

The samples taken from each phase  $(1 \text{ mL})$  was mixed with cold ethanol (1:4) incubated at -20°C for 1 h to precipitate proteins. After the incubation, samples were centrifugated during 30 min under the conditions of 4°C and 4000 rpm. The supernatant parts were removed and dried using a vacuum evaporator machine. The dry samples were dissolved with 600 μL dH<sub>2</sub>O and used in phenol sulphuric acid assay to be quantified. As

for the phenol-sulphuric acid assay, each  $25 \mu L$  sample was mixed f (1:1;  $v/v$ ) and then 125 µL sulphuric acid in a plate. After the 20 conditions, concentrations were measured at OD<sub>490nm</sub>. Data wa according to the one-way ANOVA variance analysis along comparisons statistical test to assess the statistical significance of the data at  $p$ NCSS 12 statistical software.





### **CHAPTER 4**

# **RESEARCH FINDINGS**

# **4.1. Bioinformatic Analysis for the Determination of Target Genes**

Table 3. Microorganisms and their genes are recombinantly cloned and produced











Figure 22. Neighbor-Joining (A) and Maximum Likelihood (B) phylogenetic trees of target enzymes from the oral phase.



Figure 23. Neighbor-Joining (A) and Maximum Likelihood (B) phylogenetic trees of target enzymes from the gastric phase.



Figure 24. Neighbor-Joining (A) and Maximum Likelihood (B) phylogenetic trees of target enzymes from the small intestine phase.



Figure 25. Neighbor-Joining (A) and Maximum Likelihood (B) phylogenetic trees of target enzymes from the colon phase.



**4.2. PCR Amplification of Target Genes**

Figure 26. Agarose gel electrophoresis results after PCR amplification of target genes.

## **4.3. Signal Peptide/Transmembrane Domain Analysis and Primer Information of Each Target Enzyme**

#### **1. ATP38112.1 – CR531\_08240**

*Lactobacillus salivarus subsp. Salivarius (Ligilactobacillus salivarius)* **ATCC 11741** 

### **TMHMM** result

# WEBSEQUENCE Length: 745 # WEBSEQUENCE Length: 743<br># WEBSEQUENCE Number of predicted TMHs: 0<br># WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAs in TMHs: 0.01569 # WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAS In This. 0.01303 # WEBSEQUENCE Total prob of N-in:<br># WEBSEQUENCE Total prob of N-in:<br>WEBSEQUENCE TMHMM2.0 ou 0.00103 ..<br>outside WEBSEQUENCE 745  $\mathbf{1}$ 



 $\bf$ Protein type $\bf$ Signal peptide (Sec/SPI) $\bf TAT$  signal peptide (Tat/SPI) $\bf L$ ipoprotein signal peptide (Sec/SPII) $\bf |$ Other $\bf |$ Likelihood 0.0029 0.0004 0.0006 0.996



SignalP-5.0 prediction (Gram-positive): Sequence



TMHMM posterior probabilities for WEBSEQUENCE



## *-Primer*



Figure 27. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ATP38112.1.

### **2. ATP36889.1 – CR531\_01355**

*Lactobacillus salivarus subsp. Salivarius (Ligilactobacillus salivarius***) ATCC 11741** 

### **TMHMM** result





Figure 28. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ATP36889.1.

#### **3. ATP37244.1 – CR531\_03290**

*Lactobacillus salivarus subsp. Salivarius (Ligilactobacillus salivarius)* **ATCC 11741** 

### **TMHMM** result

# WEBSEQUENCE Length: 552 # WEBSEQUENCE Number of predicted TMHs: 0 # WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAs in TMHs: 0.00944999999999998 # WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAS In Thus. 0.000444<br># WEBSEQUENCE Exp number, first 60 AAs: 0.0077 # WEBSEQUENCE Total prob of N-in:<br>WEBSEQUENCE TMHMM2.0 ou 0.00583 ..<br>outside WEBSEQUENCE 552  $\mathbf{1}$ 





Download: PNG / EPS / Tabular

SignalP-5.0 prediction (Gram-positive): Sequence



**PHMMER Results** 



#### *-Primer*



Figure 29. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ATP37244.1.

### **4. SQH52440.1 – NCTC11324\_01490** *Streptococcus intermedius* **ATCC 27335**

#### **TMHMM** result





# *-Primer*



Figure 30. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of SQH52440.1.

#### **5. ATP38122.1 – CR531\_08290**

*Lactobacillus salivarus subsp. Salivarius (Ligilactobacillus salivarius)* **ATCC 11741** 

#### **TMHMM** result





Download: PNG / EPS / Tabular

SignalP-5.0 prediction (Gram-positive): Sequence





### *-Primer*



Figure 31. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ATP38122.1.

### **6. ATP37586.1 – CR531\_05275**

*Lactobacillus salivarus subsp. Salivarius (Ligilactobacillus salivarius)* **ATCC 11741**

### **TMHMM** result

# WEBSEQUENCE Length: 731

- # WEBSEQUENCE Number of predicted TMHs:  $\theta$
- # WEBSEQUENCE Number of Preacted IPMHs: 0.0059099999999999<br>
# WEBSEQUENCE Exp number, first 60 AAs: 0.0059099999999999<br>
# WEBSEQUENCE Total prob of N-in: 0.00035<br>
WEBSEQUENCE TMHMM2.0 outside 1 731
- 
- 

#### TMHMM posterior probabilities for WEBSEQUENCE





## *-Primer*



Figure 32. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ATP37586.1.

#### **7. SQH51076.1 – NCTC11324\_00070** *Streptococcus intermedius* **ATCC 27335**

# **TMHMM** result

# WEBSEQUENCE Length: 601 # WEBSEQUENCE Number of predicted TMHs: 0 # WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAs in TMHs: 0.03563 # WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAS in this crossos<br># WEBSEQUENCE Exp number, first 60 AAs: 0.00442<br># WEBSEQUENCE Total prob of N-in: 0.00075 WEBSEQUENCE TMHMM2.0 1 601 outside



			Protein type  Signal peptide (Sec/SPI)  TAT signal peptide (Tat/SPI)  Lipoprotein signal peptide (Sec/SPII)  Other	
$\ $ Likelihood $\ $ 0.0073		0.0006	0.0006	0.9915
$\mathbf{R}$ $\mathbf{I}$ $\mathbf{N}$ $\mathbf{N}$ $\mathbf{R}$ $\mathbf{R}$ $\mathbf{R}$ $\mathbf{R}$ $\mathbf{I}$ $\mathbf{I}$				

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SignalP-5.0 prediction (Gram-positive): Sequence



**PHMMER Results** .<br>Search Ags Domain Download Sequence Matches and Features . **Pfam**  $-601$  $\overline{Q}$  disorder  $\overline{Q}$  coiled-coil  $\overline{Q}$  tm & signal peptide  $\overline{Q}$ 

### *-Primer*



Figure 33. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of SQH51076.1.

#### **8. SQH51655.1 – NCTC11324\_00672** *Streptococcus intermedius* **ATCC 27335**

# **TMHMM** result

```
# WEBSEQUENCE Length: 627
# WEBSEQUENCE Number of predicted TMHs: 0
# WEBSEQUENCE Number of predicted TMRS: 0<br># WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAs in TMRs: 0.00692999999999999<br># WEBSEQUENCE Exp number, first 60 AAs: 0<br># WEBSEQUENCE Total prob of N-in: 0.00038
WEBSEQUENCE
                             TMHMM2.0
                                                                                        627
                                                           outside
                                                                                   \mathbf{1}
```


#### TMHMM posterior probabilities for WEBSEQUENCE



**PHMMER Results** 



Search Again

# *-Primer*



Figure 34. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of SQH51655.1.

# **9. CAR86329.1 — LGG 00434**

*Lactobacillus rhamnosus GG* 

# **TMHMM** result







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SignalP-5.0 prediction (Gram-positive): Sequence



### *-Primer*







Figure 35. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of CAR86329.1.

**10. AAO77566.1 – BT\_2459** *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* **ATCC 29148**

## **TMHMM** result

 $\pmb{0}$  $\mathbf 0$ 



100

transmembrane -



200

300

inside -

400

500

outside

600


**PHMMER Results** 



Search Again

# *-Primer*



Figure 36. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of AAO77566.1.

#### **11. ABR41745.1 -- BVU\_4143** *Bacteroides vulgatus* **ATCC 8482**

# **TMHMM** result









SignalP-5.0 prediction (Gram-negative): Sequence



**PHMMER Results** 



## *-Primer*



Figure 37. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ABR41745.1.

# **12. AAO75562.1 - BT\_0455**  *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* **ATCC 29148**







*-Primer* 



Figure 38. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of AAO75562.1.

#### 13. ACD04858.1 - Amuc 1032 Akkermansia muciniphila  $ATCC$ BAA-835

#### **TMHMM** result



TMHMM posterior probabilities for WEBSEQUENCE









*-Primer* 



Figure 39. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ACD04858.1.

#### **14. BAQ98211.1 – BBBF\_1004** *Bifidobacterium bifidum* **ATCC 29521**

## **TMHMM** result







Figure 40. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of BAQ98211.1.

### 15. BAQ97897.1 - BBBF\_0690

Bifidobacterium bifidum ATC $\overline{C}$ 29521

# **TMHMM** result







**PHMMER Results** Download Domain om Sequence Matches and Features . a<br>... 428 Pfam dro\_3 428 tm & signal peptide - $\hfill \text{C} \text{ disorder} \quad \hfill \text{C} \text{ coiled-coil} \quad \hfill \text{V} \text{ tm} \text{ & signal peptide} \quad \hfill \text{C}$ Load coverage and identity heatmap Show hit details

### *-Primer*



Figure 41. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of BAQ97897.1.

# **16. ERK41518.1 – HMPREF0495\_02198** *Levilactobacillus brevis (Lactobacillus brevis)* **ATCC 148**

#WEBSEQUENCE Length: 517<br>#WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of predicted TMHs: 0<br>#WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAs in TMHs: 0.08967<br>#WEBSEQUENCE Exp number, first 60 AAs: 0.00316<br>#WEBSEQUENCE TOtal prob of N-in: 0.00400<br>WEBSEQUENCE TMHM 517





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Saflastirma

**DSLT** 

A260

48.2

SignalP-5.0 prediction (Gram-positive): Sequence



**PHMMER Results** Search Aga Domain Download axonomy Sequence Matches and Features . Pfam  $\boxed{\circ}$  disorder  $\boxed{\circ}$  coiled-coil  $\boxed{\checkmark}$  tm & signal peptide  $\boxed{\circ}$ *-Primer*  #1, HMPREF0495 02198 FS 5'-CGC GAA CAG ATT GGA GGT GCA ACG ATT CAA AAT CCA-3' - 36 bp Oligo No 220330-1-57  $c\bar{c}$  $0.47$ Tm(Basic) 65.58°C Total nmol 38,66nmol  $50 \text{ nmol}$ Skala 11111.30 **Total ng MW** Cone 1534.29ng/ul 429600.11mg Saflastirma DSLT A260 50.1 on  $14.0$ 100 µM stok - µI TE 386.6 #2. HMPREF0495\_02198\_RS  $5^{\circ}-676$  GCG GCC GCT CTA TTA TCG CGT TAC TTT ATA GGA-3' - 36 bp Oligo No 220330-1-58 GC  $%50$ Tm(Basic 66.72°C **Total nmol** 39.86nmol Skala 50 nmol MW 11073.24 1576.29ng/ul **Total** og 441360.32ng Cone

Figure 42. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ERK41518.1.

 $\overline{OD}$ 

 $13,5$ 

100 µM stok - pFTE

398.6

#### 17. ACJ51836.1 - Blon\_0732

Bifidobacterium longum subsp. infantis ATCC 15697

# **TMHMM** result







#### 63

**PHMMER Results** 



Figure 43. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ACJ51836.1.

100 µM stok - µl TE

#### **18. ACJ53413.1 – Blon\_2355** *Bifidobacterium longum subsp. infantis ATCC 15697***TMHMM** result







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**PHMMER Results** 



Search Again

## *-Primer*



Figure 44. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ACJ53413.1.

#### 19. QQA29671.1 - I6G58 17045 Bacteroides uniformis FDAARGOS 901 ATCC8492

# **TMHMM** result

# WEBSEQUENCE Length: 778 # WEBSEQUENCE Number of predicted TMHs: 0 # WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAs in TMHs: 0.00176<br># WEBSEQUENCE Exp number, first 60 AAs: 0<br># WEBSEQUENCE Total prob of N-in: 0.00003 WEBSEQUENCE TMHMM2.0 outside 1 778





Protein sequence

 $rac{1}{40}$ 

 $60$ 

 $\frac{1}{20}$ 



# *-Primer*



Figure 45. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of QQA29671.1.

### **20. BAQ30021.1 - BBKW\_1886** *Bifidobacterium catenulatum subsp. kashiwanohense JCM 15439***TMHMM** result





TMHMM posterior probabilities for WEBSEQUENCE





## *-Primer*



Figure 46. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of BAQ30021.1.

#### 21. ABR38247.1 - BVU 0537 **Bacteroides vulgatus ATCC 8482**

# **TMHMM** result

# WEBSEQUENCE Length: 771 # WEBSEQUENCE Number of predicted TMHs: 0 # WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAs in TMHs: 4.740509999999997 WEBSEQUENCE Exp number, first 60 AAs: 4.73833<br># WEBSEQUENCE Exp number, first 60 AAs: 4.73833 WEBSEQUENCE **TMHMM2.0** outside  $1771$ 





**PHMMER Results** Download De<sup>1</sup> Sequence Matches and Features . FS EU DIGHTC = 771 

## *-Primer*



Figure 47. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ABR38247.1.

#### **22. SQF24907.1 – NCTC12958\_01101** *Streptococcus thermophilus* **ATCC 19258TMHMM** result







Figure 48. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of SQF24907.1.

#### 23. SQF25661.1 - NCTC12958 01892 Streptococcus thermophilus ATCC 19258

# **TMHMM** result







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SignalP-5.0 prediction (Gram-positive): Sequence



**PHMMER Results** 





Figure 49. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of SQF25661.1.

#### **24. SQF24918.1 – NCTC12958\_01112** *Streptococcus thermophilus* **ATCC 19258TMHMM** result







Figure 50. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of SQF24918.1.

#### 25. ACD04701.1 - Amuc 0868 Akkermansia muciniphila ATCC BAA-835

#### **TMHMM** result



TMHMM posterior probabilities for WEBSEQUENCE  $1.2$  $\mathbf{1}$  $0.8\,$ probability  $0.6\,$  $0.4$  $0.2$ 0 l 0 100 200 300 400 500 transmembrane inside outside





 $\ddot{=}$ 

### *Primer*



Figure 51. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ACD04701.1.

# **26. ACD04208.1 –Amuc\_0369** *Akkermansia muciniphila* **ATCC BAA-835**

# WEBSEQUENCE Length: 665 # WEBSEQUENCE Length: 655<br># WEBSEQUENCE Number of predicted TMHs: 0<br># WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAs in TMHs: 0.0344500000000001<br># WEBSEQUENCE Exp number, first 60 AAs: 0.03378<br># WEBSEQUENCE TMHWM2.0 outside 1 665 TMHMM posterior probabilities for WEBSEQUENCE  $1.2$ 1  $0.8$ probability  $0.6$  $0.4$  $0.2$ 0  $\mathfrak o$ 100 200 300 400 500 600 inside outside transmembrane -



Figure 52. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ACD04208.1.

### 27. BAQ97280.1 - BBBF 0073

Bifidobacterium bifidum  $ATCC$  29521

### **TMHMM** result

# WEBSEQUENCE Length: 440<br># WEBSEQUENCE Number of predicted TMHs: 0 WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAs in TMHs: 0.02262<br>
# WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAs in TMHs: 0.02262<br>
# WEBSEQUENCE Exp number, first 60 AAs: 0.00061<br>
# WEBSEQUENCE TOtal prob of N-in: 0.00627<br>
WEBSEQUENCE TMHMM2.0 outside 1 440



Protein type Signal peptide (Sec/SPI) TAT signal peptide (Tat/SPI) Lipoprotein signal peptide (Sec/SPII) Other Likelihood 0.0069 0.0008 0.0062 0.9861



SignalP-5.0 prediction (Gram-positive): Sequence





Figure 53. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of BAQ97280.1.

### **28. CAH09389.1 – BF9343\_3608** *Bacteroides fragilis* **ATCC 25285TMHMM** result



79



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Search



Figure 54. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of CAH09389.1.

### **29. ABR38963.1 - BVU\_1273**

*Bacteroides vulgatus 8482* 

### **TMHMM** result

# WEBSEQUENCE Length: 345 # WEBSEQUENCE Length: 343<br># WEBSEQUENCE Rumber of predicted TMHs: 0<br># WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAs in TMHs: 0.03031<br># WEBSEQUENCE Exp number, first 60 AAs: 0.01694 # WEBSEQUENCE Total prob of N-in: 0.00896 WEBSEQUENCE TMHMM2.0 outside  $1 \t345$ 





SignalP-5.0 prediction (Gram-negative): Sequence



**PHMMER Results** 



 $\sim$   $\sim$   $\sim$   $\sim$ 

## *-Primer*



Figure 55. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ABR38963.1.

# **30.AAO76145.1 – BT\_1038**

### *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* **ATCC 29148TMHMM** result





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### *-Primer*



Figure 56. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of AAO76145.1.

## **31. ACJ53522.1 -Blon\_2468**

*Bifidobacterium longum subsp. infantis ATCC 15697*

#### 32.ACJ51376.1 -Blon 0248

Bifidobacterium longum subsp. infantis ATCC 15697 **TMHMM** result

# WEBSEQUENCE Length: 449 # WEBSEQUENCE Length: 449<br># WEBSEQUENCE Number of predicted TMHs: 0<br># WEBSEQUENCE Exp number of AAs in TMHs: 0.0402500000000001<br># WEBSEQUENCE Exp number, first 60 AAs: 0.04002<br># WEBSEQUENCE Total prob of N-in: 0.00529<br>WEBS





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Figure 57. Transmembrane/Signal Peptide/Domain Analysis Results and Primer Information of ACJ51376.1.

**4.4.Transformation, Colony PCR, Induction and Purification of Each Target Enzyme**

**1. ATP38112.1 – CR531\_08240**

**Lactobacillus salivarus subsp. Salivarius (Ligilactobacillus salivarius) ATCC 11741 / DSM 20555 / JCM 1231 / LMG9477**



Figure 58. Transformation, colony PCR, induction, and purification results of ATP38112.1 respectively from left to right.

#### **2. ATP36889.1 – CR531\_01355**

**Lactobacillus salivarus subsp. Salivarius (Ligilactobacillus salivarius) ATCC 11741 / DSM 20555 / JCM 1231 / LMG9477**



Figure 59. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of ATP36889.1 respectively from left to right.

#### **3. ATP37244.1 – CR531\_03290 Lactobacillus salivarus subsp. Salivarius (Ligilactobacillus salivarius) ATCC 11741 / DSM 20555 / JCM 1231 / LMG9477**



Figure 60. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of ATP37244.1 respectively from left to right.

#### **4. SQH52440.1 – NCTC11324\_01490** *Streptococcus intermedius ATCC 27335/ DSM 20573/NCTC 11324*



Figure 61. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of SQH52440.1 respectively from left to right.

#### **5. ATP38122.1 – CR531\_08290 Lactobacillus salivarus subsp. Salivarius (Ligilactobacillus salivarius) ATCC 11741 / DSM 20555 / JCM 1231 / LMG9477**



Figure 62. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of ATP38122.1 respectively from left to right.

#### **6. ATP37586.1 – CR531\_05275 Lactobacillus salivarus subsp. Salivarius (Ligilactobacillus salivarius) ATCC 11741 / DSM 20555 / JCM 1231 / LMG9477**



Figure 63. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of ATP37586.1 respectively from left to right.

#### **7. SQH51076.1 – NCTC11324\_00070** *Streptococcus intermedius ATCC 27335/ DSM 20573/NCTC 11324*



Figure 64. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of SQH51076.1 respectively from left to right.
**8. SQH51655.1 – NCTC11324\_00672** *Streptococcus intermedius ATCC 27335/ DSM 20573/NCTC 11324*



Figure 65. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of SQH51655.1 respectively from left to right.

**9. CAR86329.1 — LGG 00434** *Lactobacillus rhamnosus GG* 



Figure 66. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of CAR86329.1 respectively from left to right.

#### **10. AAO77566.1 – BT\_2459** *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron ATCC 29148*



Figure 67. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of AAO77566.1 respectively from left to right.

**11. ABR41745.1 -- BVU\_4143** *Bacteroides vulgatus 8482* 



Figure 68. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of ABR41745.1 respectively from left to right.

#### **12. AAO75562.1 - BT\_0455**  *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron ATCC 29148*



Figure 69. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of AA075562.1 respectively from left to right.



Figure 70. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of ACD04858.1 respectively from left to right.

**13. ACD04858.1 – Amuc\_1032** *Akkermansia muciniphila ATCC BAA-835 / DSM 22959 / LMG 27907*

### **14. BAQ98211.1 – BBBF\_1004**



Figure 71. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of BAQ98211.1 respectively from left to right.

## **15. BAQ97897.1 – BBBF\_0690**



Figure 72. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of BAQ97897.1 respectively from left to right.

### **16. ERK41518.1 – HMPREF0495\_02198**



Figure 73. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of ERK41518.1 respectively from left to right.

**17. ACJ51836.1 – Blon\_0732** *Bifidobacterium longum subsp. infantis ATCC 15697*



Figure 74. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of ACJ51836.1 respectively from left to right.

### **18. ACJ53413.1 – Blon\_2355**

*Bifidobacterium longum subsp. infantis ATCC 15697*



Figure 75. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of ACJ53413.1 respectively from left to right.

### **19. QQA29671.1 – I6G58\_17045** *Bacteroides uniformis FDAARGOS\_901 ATCC8492*



Figure 76. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of QQA29671.1 respectively from left to right.

#### **20. BAQ30021.1 - BBKW\_1886**

*Bifidobacterium catenulatum subsp. kashiwanohense JCM 15439*



Figure 77. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of BAQ30021.1 respectively from left to right.

**21. ABR38247.1 – BVU\_0537** *Bacteroides vulgatus 8482* 



Figure 78. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of ABR38247.1 respectively from left to right.

### **22. SQF24907.1 – NCTC12958\_01101**

*Streptococcus thermophilus ATCC 19258/ DSM 20617* 



Figure 79. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of SQF24907.1 respectively from left to right.

### **23. SQF25661.1 – NCTC12958\_01892** *Streptococcus thermophilus ATCC 19258/ DSM 20617*



Figure 80. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of SQF25661.1 respectively from left to right.

#### **24. SQF24918.1 – NCTC12958\_01112** *Streptococcus thermophilus ATCC 19258/ DSM 20617*



Figure 81. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of SQF24918.1 respectively from left to right.

**25. ACD04701.1 – Amuc\_0868**  *Akkermansia muciniphila ATCC BAA-835 / DSM 22959 / LMG 27907*



Figure 82. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of ACD04701.1 respectively from left to right.

### **26. ACD04208.1 –Amuc\_0369**

*Akkermansia muciniphila ATCC BAA-835 / DSM 22959 / LMG 27907*



Figure 83. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of ACD04208.1 respectively from left to right.

**27. BAQ97280.1 – BBBF\_0073**



Figure 84. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of BAQ97280.1 respectively from left to right.

#### **28. CAH09389.1 – BF9343\_3608** *Bacteroides fragilis ATCC 25285*



Figure 85. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of CAH09389.1 respectively from left to right.

# **29. ABR38963.1 - BVU\_1273**

*Bacteroides vulgatus 8482* 



Figure 86. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of ABR38963.1 respectively from left to right.

### **30.AAO76145.1 – BT\_1038**

*Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron ATCC 29148*



Figure 87. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of AAO76145.1 respectively from left to right.

### **31.ACJ51376.1 –Blon\_0248**

*Bifidobacterium longum subsp. infantis ATCC 15697*



Figure 88. Transformation, colony PCR, induction and purification results of ACJ51376.1 respectively from left to right.

# **4.5. Measurement of Produced and Purified Enzymes' Concentration**



Table 4. The concentration of produced and purified enzymes





**4.6. Design of the novel system and test on a glycoprotein source**

Figure 89. *In-vitro* digestion experiment and samples after digestion in each phase.



Figure 90. Digested samples after protein precipitation.

### **4.7. Measurement of Concentration of Released Glycans from Novel In-Vitro Digestion**



Figure 91. Measurement of carbohydrate concentration with phenol sulphuric acid assay.



Figure 92. The concentration of released glycans from the novel *in-vitro* digestion model – A statistically significant difference between groups (except between the small intestine and colon groups) was determined by ANOVA, Tukey multiple comparison test ( $p<0.05$ ).



Figure 93. The concentration of released glycans by only microbial enzymes in each phase – A statistically significant difference between groups of oral – gastric and small intestine – colon was determined by ANOVA, Tukey multiple comparison test ( $p$ <0.05). No statistically significant difference was determined between oral and gastric groups as well as between small intestine and colon groups (p>0.05).



Figure 94. The concentration of released glycans from the standard *in-vitro d*igestion model - A statistically significant difference between the oral and other groups is determined by ANOVA, Tukey multiple comparison test  $(p<0.05)$ . No statistically significant difference was determined between the groups of gastric, small intestine, and colon  $(p>0.05)$ 



Figure 95. The comparison of released glycans from the novel and standard model - a,b: The differences between the data from the novel and standard model are significant for each phase separately  $(p<0.05)$ , except oral and gastric phase  $(p>0.05)$ .

### **CHAPTER 5**

#### **RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

 The thesis mainly includes three major sections regarding experiments performed. Whilst the first one covers the bioinformatic analysis for the determination of genes, design of primers, and molecular cloning; the second section is the protein production and purification steps, and the last section includes the design of the *in-vitro* digestion model by integrating recombinant enzymes produced in the first section.

 In the first section of the thesis, target genes from microorganisms abundant in different phases of the gastrointestinal tract were selected and analyzed using bioinformatics tools. Target microorganisms vary among digestion phases, for instance, mainly Lactobacillus strains are found in the oral phase, whereas the gastric phase includes Lactobacillus and Bacteroides strains. As a variety of microorganisms inhabit in the human intestinal microbiome, diverse microorganisms were selected for small intestine and colon parts including Akkermansia, Bifidobacteria, Bacteroides, as well as Streptococcus. In addition, to design an in-vitro model with the integration of microbial enzymes phylogenetic trees based on neighbor-joining and maximum likelihood were constructed for each phase of the digestion model by appropriate model and parameters. Another notorious point is that signal peptide and transmembrane domains were searched for each gene to be cloned before the molecular cloning step, which is important to increase the efficiency of protein production. In signal peptide analysis related to Hidden Markov algorithms, 0.4 and higher results were considered signal peptides and excluded from the amino acid residues recommended by the database. As for transmembrane domain analysis, possible regions (1- 1.2) were excluded from the amino acid sequence. HMMER (biosequence analysis using profile hidden Markov models) was used to determine and compare domain analysis. Regarding the results based on signal peptide and transmembrane domain analysis, identified regions were excluded from the sequence, and primers were designed based on the new gene sequence. This process was crucial to increase the yield of protein production in the following steps since transmembrane domain and signal peptides can cause the binding of recombinant protein to cells and therefore hardens the protein purification step.

 In the second section of this thesis, recombinantly cloned genes were expressed using L-rhamnose which is an inducer used in protein induction step. High temperature and high inducer concentration during protein expression under strong promoter systems often result in high expression, which weakens the bacterial protein quality control. Therefore, the partially folded or misfolded protein molecules aggregate as well as form inclusion bodies. The formation of inclusion bodies poses a noticeable challenge for the large-scale recovery of proteins. To prevent this problem, the expression of recombinant genes was significantly increased by optimization studies performed before the molecular cloning step. The lower temperature, lower optical density, as well as lower inducer (L-rhamnose) concentration affect positively the protein expression than the standard expression conditions recommended by the cloning kit.By using these approaches, 32 different glycosyl hydrolase enzymes (one of them was produced in previous studies; EndoBI-1) from distinct microorganisms of phases of the digestion system were produced with 95%, which enables the mimicking digestion system *in-vitro* conditions by integrating those enzymes through the model.

 In the third section of the thesis, to integrate recombinant enzymes through a conventional in-vitro digestion model, standard digestion solutions were prepared including simulated salivary fluid, simulated gastric fluid, as well as simulated intestinal fluid. All these fluids included only human-associated enzymes including amylase, pepsin, or trypsin. The point that needs to be taken into consideration is that  $CaCl<sub>2</sub>$  was lastly added to the solutions because it causes precipitation at the beginning. All appropriate chemicals, and enzymes (human-associated) were prepared for the *in-vitro* model. The temperature was adjusted to 37°C for all phases, in contrast, pH was adjusted to 7.5 for the oral and intestinal phase, 3 for the gastric phase, and 8 for the colon part. The new model designed in this thesis differs from conventional examples of *in-vitro* digestion models since it includes microbial enzymes in each phase. Moreover, conventional *in-vitro* digestion models mimic only three phases: oral, gastric, as well as intestinal for the small intestine. However, the colon part was also designed in this novel model by using only recombinant enzymes as there is no human digestion process in the colon part. The most significant point of the results of this thesis is the designing of a model with the contribution of microbial enzymes, besides, the mimicking of the colon part, which is essential to thoroughly mimicking human digestion. All reactions took place in one 50 mL falcon tube by the addition of the following enzymes and solutions based on the phase. The enzyme activities were stopped by adjusting pH while passing through the next phases of digestion. The same experiment was also conducted without microbial enzymes as the control of the experiment. At the end of reactions of the *in-vitro*  model on the model glycoprotein, released glycans at each phase were quantified by phenol sulphuric acid assay and compared with a control group to understand the contribution of microbiome-associated enzymes to human digestion. According to the findings from the novel model data, the concentration of released glycans significantly increase from the oral phase through colon, which means that microbial enzymes in intestinal and colon phase are more active on glycans. The significant difference was observed between phases, except between the small intestine and colon groups, was determined  $(p<0.05)$ . Especially, the concentration of glycans noticeably increased from about 8 mg/mL to almost 19 mg/mL from gastric to small intestine phase, respectively. This also supports the considerable activity of microbial enzymes in intestinal and colon phase in comparison to oral and gastric phases. As for the only microbial enzyme contribution in this new model, a statistically significant difference between groups of oral – gastric and small intestine – colon was determined (p<0.05). No statistically significant difference was determined between oral and gastric groups as well as between small intestine and colon groups (p>0.05). In contrast to the novel model, the results from the concentration of released glycans from the standard *invitro d*igestion model has shown that a statistically significant difference between the oral and other groups was determined ( $p<0.05$ ), however, no statistically significant difference was determined between the any groups of gastric, small intestine, and colon ( $p > 0.05$ ). The only increment from oral to gastric phase may be related to formation of peptides by pepsin enzyme which enables glycans on peptides more measurable in comparison to their form of on complex whey protein. When the data of both novel and standard model were compared, it has been shown that the differences between the data from the novel and standard models are significant for each phase separately  $(p<0.05)$ . Even though no significant difference between oral and gastric phase data for both models, it can be clearly seen that the novel model utilizes glycans at a higher concentration rate by microbial enzymes in intestinal and colon phases in comparison to the standard model. Regarding the summary of results from this section, microbial enzymes (glycosyl hydrolases produced in this thesis) considerably affect the digestion of glycans conjugated on proteins.

 In conclusion, this thesis is critical to giving a new perspective to different studies covering human digestion and glycan metabolism by microbial enzymes in a more appropriate and comprehensive way by integrating microbial enzymes into the conventional *in-vitro* digestion model. The human body carries a million microorganisms whose genes have incredible functions ranging from vitamin synthesis to digestion in the human body. As the glycans on glycoproteins are resistant to being metabolized by human-associated enzymes, they are utilized by some gut bacteria such as Bifidobacteria and Lactobacillus that use their carbohydrate-active enzymes (mainly glycosyl hydrolase enzymes) and transporters. Microorganisms and their glycosyl hydrolase enzymes which are active on prebiotics are incredibly abundant in the human host, evenly more than the number of host cells and genes. This indicates that in addition to human digestion enzymes, microorganisms and their carbohydrate-active enzymes take a noticeable part in human digestion. As the majority of microorganisms inhabit the human gut, which is related to the gut environment including pH, oxygen state, and mucus structure is suitable for the growth of many microorganisms. Therefore, the utilization of glycans massively takes place in the human gut and gut microorganisms express different carbohydrate-active enzymes to combat each other for the growth sources, glycans. As similar to the studies in the literature, the novel model in this thesis has shown that microbial enzymes from more diverse microorganisms in comparison to other phases release glycans at a higher concentration in intestinal phases. The integration of microbial enzymes is essential to combine both host and microbial enzymes in order to mimic human digestion at a higher rate and better study the digestion process in laboratory conditions. Thus, the design of a novel *in-vitro* model by integrating microbial enzymes will significantly contribute to the literature and studies related to digestion, glycans as well as the human microbiome. This novel *in-vitro* digestion model is of the utmost importance to comprehensively understand the digestion process by microbial enzymes and interactions between glycans and carbohydrate-active enzymes. A variety of scientific studies can be performed with this novel model in terms of glycans and their utilization by microbial enzymes, which would be a critical step in the glycobiology field and shed light on future studies in many other fields including the food industry, medicine, pharmacy, and even more personalized medicine.

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### **APPENDICES**

### **APPENDIX 1**

## **PROTEIN LADDER USED IN SDS-PAGE**



### **APPENDIX 2**

### **DNA LADDER USED IN AGAROSE GEL ELECTROPHORESIS**



### **APPENDIX 3**

### **BUFFERS USED IN THE THESIS**





### **APPENDIX 4**

### **ORAL PRESENTATION**



4th International Eurasian Conference on Biological and Chemical Sciences (EurasianBioChem 2021) November 24-26, 2021.<br>www.EurasianBioChem.org

#### > ORAL PRESENTATION

Novel In-Vitro Digestion Model Designed by Integration of Microbiome Associated Enzymes

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#### Abstract

The human microbiome includes around 100 trillion bacterial cells, which is 10 times more than human cells. Therefore, it is inevitable that bacteria play important roles in our body. One of the most important functions of bacteria is taken place in the digestion process in the human body. Human milk oligosaccharides (HMOs) and conjugated glycans, for instance, cannot be digested by humans due to the absence of specific glycosidase enzymes. Therefore, they reach the colon where they are used as a carbon source by some bacteria such as Bifidobacteria. Such compounds are called prebiotics which enhance the growth of beneficial bacteria. To better understand the digestion process, in-vitro digestion systems are used in many laboratories with their extensive advantages. However, current in-vitro digestion models are not available for significant glycan studies because of microbiome-based enzymes specificity. So, the design of novel models including both host and microbiome-based enzymes is critical to pave the way for glycan research. For this purpose, we studied to generate a novel model with recombinant microbial enzymes which have a role in digestion. Firstly, target microorganisms that predominate in the human GI system (four phases; oral, gastric, small intestine, and colon) were determined and specific glycosidases of these microorganisms were identified using bioinformatic methods. Then, these enzymes were cloned, produced, and integrated through a conventional in-vitro digestion model to study the prebiotic properties of a variety of sources

Keywords: Microbiome, Glycans, In-vitro Digestion Model




