

Bioseparation of papain from *Carica papaya* latex by precipitation of papain–poly (vinyl sulfonate) complexes

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ABSTRACT

The formation of insoluble complexes between enzymes and polyelectrolytes is a suitable technique for isolating these biomolecules from natural sources, because it is a simple and rapid technique that allows the concentration of the protein. This technique can be used in most purification protocols at the beginning of the downstream process.

The aim of this investigation is to isolate papain from *Carica papaya* latex by precipitation of insoluble complexes between this enzyme and poly (vinyl sulfonate).

The papain–poly (vinyl sulfonate) complex was insoluble at pH lower than 6, with a PVS/PAP stoichiometric ratio of 1:279. Ionic strength affected the complex formation. The presence of the polymer increased the enzymatic activity and protected the enzyme from autodegradation. The optimal conditions for the formation of insoluble papain–polyelectrolyte complex formation were applied to *C. papaya* latex and a high recovery was obtained (around 86%) and a purification factor around 2. This method can be applied as an isolation method of papain from *C. papaya* latex or as a first step in a larger purification strategy.

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Introduction

The latex of *Carica papaya* is a rich source of cysteine endopeptidases, including papain (PAP),¹ glycol endopeptidase, chymopapain and caricain, which constitute more than 80% of the whole enzyme fraction [1]. Papain (EC 3.4.22.2) is a minor constituent (5–8%) among the papaya endopeptidases [2,3]. It is a monomeric protein of 23.4 kDa; with a pI around 6.7 and a temperature of maximum activity of 37 °C. This enzyme is widely used as meat tenderizer, and also has several other applications, e.g. defibrinating wounds, treatment of edemas, shrink proofing of wool, etc.

Purification of papain from papaya latex has been traditionally achieved by precipitation methods [4–6]; however, the purified enzyme still remains contaminated with other proteases. An alternative purification strategy involves the use of various chromatographic techniques including ion exchange, covalent, or affinity chromatography [7], but in these cases the initial processing of

the latex is essential before samples can be applied on chromatography [8,9].

Precipitation as a product concentration step offers several advantages since it is easy to scale up, uses simple equipment and can be based on a large variety of alternative precipitants [10]. When a protein–polyelectrolyte complex is specifically formed with one of the proteins in the crude extract followed by a phase separation, the process can be used as a convenient strategy for the isolation and purification of the target protein [11].

A wide variety of synthetic and natural polyelectrolytes can interact with globular proteins to form stable protein–polyelectrolyte complexes that result in the formation of soluble or insoluble complexes. The insoluble complex can be easily separated by simple decantation [12,13].

The interaction between proteins and polyelectrolytes has been extensively studied, in particular for the analysis of living processes, immobilization or stabilization of enzymes, modification of substrate affinity, changing properties of food products, and for the development of many pharmaceutical applications [14–16].

Here, we used spectroscopic techniques to obtain information about the molecular mechanism of interaction between papain and a negatively charged polyelectrolyte poly (vinyl sulfonic acid). The aim of this work is to apply this information to the formation of protein–polyelectrolyte complexes as a tool for papain separation from natural sources.

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¹ Abbreviations used: PAP, Papain; BAPNA, d-N-benzoyl DL-Arginine-p-nitroaniline; PF, purification factor; PVS, poly (vinyl sulfonic acid, sodium salt).

Materials and methods

Chemicals

Papain (PAP) from *C. papaya*, d-N-benzoyl-DL-Arginine-p-nitroaniline (BAPNA), cysteine and HCl were purchased from Sigma Chem. Co. (USA) and the polymer poly (vinyl sulfonic acid, sodium salt) (PVS) 25% w/w, $d = 1.267$, sol. in water, molecular average mass 170 kDa, was purchased from Aldrich and used without further purification. Sodium phosphate and Tris-HCl buffer solutions of different pH were prepared at a concentration of 50 mM. The pH was adjusted with NaOH or HCl.

Fresh latex was collected from locally grown *C. papaya*. Initially, four to six longitudinal incisions were made on the unripe fruit using a stainless steel knife. The exuded latex was allowed to run down the fruit and drip into collecting devices attached around the trunk. After collection, the latex was transferred to a glass bottle and stored at -20°C . Total protein and nucleic acid concentrations were quantified by Warburg method [17].

Phase diagrams of the PAP–PVS complex

To study the effect of the pH on the formation of the insoluble PAP–PVS complex at 25°C , three solutions containing PAP and PVS were prepared at different molar ratios (1:46; 1:183 and 1:279) with 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 5.00, and titrated with alkali and acid in order to cover the whole pH range. The absorbance was measured at 420 nm (turbidity) every 0.50 units of pH using a Jasco 520 spectrophotometer with a thermostated cell of 1 cm of path length. Finally, turbidity was plotted vs. pH. These phase diagrams show the pH range where the PAP–PVS complex is soluble or insoluble.

Turbidimetric titration curves at different ionic strengths

The formation of the insoluble PAP–PVS complex was followed by means of turbidimetric titration at different conditions of ionic strengths. PAP solutions ($27\ \mu\text{M}$) were prepared with sodium phosphate buffer solutions 50 mM pH 6.00 with different concentrations of NaCl (0–0.25 M). They were titrated at 25°C with a PVS solution (0.25 w/w%, aliquot volume $10\ \mu\text{L}$). The turbidity increase was used to follow the formation of the insoluble PAP–PVS complex. The absorbance was measured as described above and plotted vs. the PAP/PVS molar ratio.

To avoid changes in pH during titration, both the PAP and the PVS stock solutions were adjusted to the same pH value.

Kinetics of the formation of the PAP–PVS complex

The time needed to form the complex was evaluated measuring the time required to obtain the maximum turbidity. This experiment was performed mixing a PVS solution and a PAP solution in a PVS/PAP molar ratio of 1:46 [20]. The experiment was performed in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 6.00, and absorbance was measured at 420 nm.

Assays of enzymatic activity

PAP activity was determined with the substrate d-N-benzoyl DL-Arginine-p-nitroaniline (BAPNA) using a modified Gildberg and Overbo method. BAPNA was used at a final concentration of 0.85 mM in Tris-HCl buffer 100 mM pH 8.20 cysteine 4.2 mM. The reaction was followed by measuring the absorbance of the released reaction product, p-nitroanilide, at 400 nm (molar absorptivity of

$18,100\ \text{M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$) for 5 min. The enzymatic activity was calculated from the slope of the absorbance vs. time curve [21].

In order to evaluate the stability of the enzyme in the presence of a polymer excess, PAP was incubated with PVS and the activity was measured for 24 h. The selected PVS/PAP molar ratio was 1:46 and a PAP solution was incubated in the same condition without PVS as an activity control of the enzyme.

Precipitation of PAP with PVS

A solution of PVS was added to a PAP solution at a final molar ratio of 1:46 in sodium phosphate buffer 50 mM pH 6.00 (volume = $4.00\ \text{mL}$). The insoluble complex formed was incubated for 5 min at 25°C and centrifuged at $1000\times g$ for 10 min to separate the supernatant and the precipitate fraction. Then, the precipitate was redissolved by addition of $200\ \mu\text{L}$ of Tris-HCl buffer 100 mM pH 8.20 NaCl 0.5 M and $3.80\ \text{mL}$ of Tris-HCl buffer 100 mM pH 8.20. The enzymatic activity in the supernatant and in the redissolved precipitate was measured. Both values were compared with the activity of a PAP control (without PVS) at the same conditions.

Then, this protocol was applied to the *C. papaya* latex in order to isolate PAP from a natural source. The enzymatic activity in the supernatant and in the redissolved precipitate was measured. Total protein concentration was estimated by the Warburg and Christian method [17].

The purification factor (PF) was calculated by the ratio between the PAP specific activity in the supernatant (or in the redissolved precipitate) and the specific activity in the latex. PAP recovery percentage (%) was calculated as the ratio between the activity in the redissolved precipitate and the activity in the fresh latex [11].

Results and discussion

Phase diagrams of the PAP–PVS complex

Fig. 1 shows the plots of absorbance at 420 nm vs. pH obtained for three solutions containing PAP and PVS (PVS/PAP molar ratios = 1:46; 1:183 and 1:279). It can be seen that the formation of the PAP–PVS complex was highly influenced by the pH medium since proteins and polyelectrolytes mainly interact by electrostatic interaction. At pH lower than 6.00, PAP and PVS molecules possess opposite charges and so, the insoluble complex between the two is formed. pH values above 6.00 induced a large decrease in turbidity

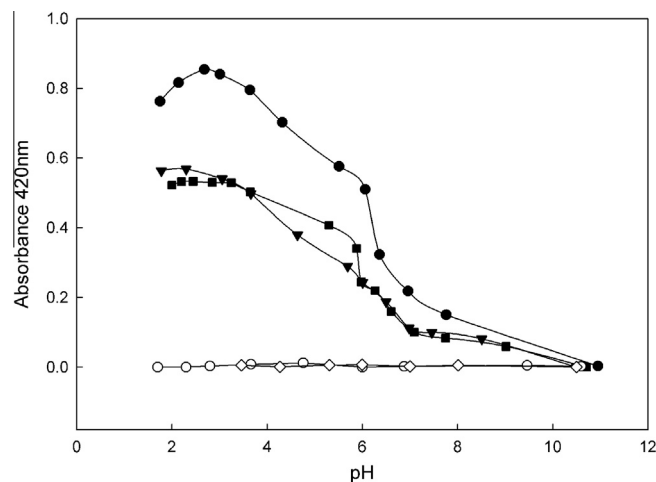


Fig. 1. Phase diagrams: absorbance at 420 nm vs. pH at three different PVS/PAP molar ratios = 1:46 (■); 1:183 (▼) and 1:279 (●). Controls: PAP $27\ \mu\text{M}$ (◇); PVS 0.018 w/w% (○). Temperature 25°C .

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