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7	2	Animal Cellulases with a Focus on Aquatic Invertebrates
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## 20 Abstract

21	Cellulose is utilized as a nutritional source by various organisms. It had been long believed that only
22	protozoa, bacteria and fungi, in addition to plants and photo-synthetic bacteria, are able to synthesize
23	cellulases encoded by their own genes. However, the wide spread distribution of cellulases throughout the
24	animal kingdom has been recently recognized. Conventionally, animals digest cellulose by utilizing
25	cellulases derived from symbiotic bacteria in the digestive organs. However, recent molecular biological
26	studies have shown that some cellulase genes are actually encoded on animal chromosomes. In addition,
27	the homologous primary structure of cellulases obtained from various phyla of invertebrates indicates the
28	possible vertical transfer of the cellulase gene from ancient organisms that are now extinct. Studies on
29	cellulase with unique enzymatic properties are expected to be applied to bioethanol production and
30	aquaculture. In the present review, we describe cellulases, with a primary focus on aquatic invertebrates
31	in which both endogenous and exogenous cellulases are involved in the breakdown of cellulose in the
32	digestive organs.
33	
34	Keywords
35	$Breakdown \cdot Cellulase \cdot Cellulose \cdot Endo-\beta-1, 4-glucanase \cdot Endogenous \cdot GHF9 \cdot Invertebrate \cdot Symbiosis$

### 36 Introduction

Cellulose synthesized by plants and phototrophic bacteria is the most abundant organic substance on	37
the earth. Cellulose is chemically stable, and thereby plays an important role as a major component in the	38
cell wall of plants and bacteria by providing physical strength [1]. This physical strength is attributed to	39
the primary structure of cellulose, which consists of monomeric chains of D-glucopyranose bound by	40
$\beta$ -1,4-glycoside linkages that form cellulose microfibrils interconnected with hydrogen bonds (Fig. 1) [2].	41
In addition to cellulose, the cell wall contains lignin and various hemicelluloses, including mannan, xylan,	42
and laminarin. The contents of the hemicelluloses differ across plant species [3].	43
Enzymes that degrade cellulose are collectively called cellulases, and are classified according to a	44
range of characteristics. First, cellulases are classified according to the cleavage site on cellulose;	45
comprising (1) $\beta$ -1,4-endoglucanase (EC 3.2.1.4.), which cleaves cellulose at random sites, and (2)	46
$\beta$ -1,4-exocellobiohydrolase (EC 3.2.1.91.), which cleaves off glucose dimers from the terminal end of	47
cellulose. Subsequently, $\beta$ -glucosidase (EC 3.2.1.21.) cleaves glucose from the breakdown products	48
formed by $\beta$ -1,4-endoglucanase and $\beta$ -1,4-exocellobiohydrolase (Fig. 2).	49
Second, cellulases are classified by the presence of the carbohydrate-binding module (CBM) within	50
their molecules. Some carbohydrate degrading enzymes have a CBM that is independent of the catalytic	51
site, which binds to substrates and stabilizes the enzymatic reaction. For example, cellulases that have a	52
cellulose-binding domain (CBD) on a CBM constantly bind to cellulose, with the enzyme molecules	53
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54 continuously moving to a subsequent cleavage site after each reaction. In comparison, cellulases that do 55 not have a CBD detach from the cellulose after every cleaving reaction, and search for the cleaving site of 56 the next hydrolytic reaction [2]. Cellulases that have a CBD are assumed to hydrolyze cellulose more 57 efficiently than those that do not have (Fig. 3).

Third, cellulases are classified according to their primary structure. For instance, glycoside hydrolases are classified into the glycoside hydrolase family (GHF) by Henristatt et al., according to the amino acid sequence [4, CazyWeb: http://www.cazy.org/ "Accessed 6 May 2012".]. At present, 130 families are registered, with cellulases being classified into families 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 19, 26, 30, 44, 45, 48, 51, 61, 74, 116, and 124 (Table 1).

Cellulose is utilized as a nutritional source by various organisms. It has long been believed that only protozoa, bacteria, and fungi, in addition to plants and photo-synthetic bacteria, are able to synthesize cellulases encoded by their own genes [1, 5-7]. Before 1998, it was assumed that metazoans degraded cellulose using cellulases derived from symbiotic protozoa and bacteria in their digestive organs [1]. However, a novel gene encoding cellulase (GHF9;  $\beta$ -1,4-endoglucanses) was identified in *Reticulitermes* speratus (Arthropoda, Insecta) in 1998 [7]. Subsequently, the presence of endogenous β-1,4-endoglucanses, belonging to various GHF families, has been reported in various insects, crustaceans, mollusks, echinoderms, and nematodes [8-16].

The origin of cellulase in metazoans may be explained by two alternative hypotheses [15, 16]. The

72	first hypothesis is the horizontal transfer of cellulase genes from symbiotic protozoa. The second
73	hypothesis is the vertical transfer of cellulase genes from ancient organisms that are now extinct. In this
74	second hypothesis, cellulase genes have been inherited for a long period of time from the ancestor to the
75	offspring. According to the reports on GHF9 [15, 16], which is the most intensively studied cellulases,
76	vertical transfer is considered more likely. The amino acid sequence of GHF9 is very similar in several
77	organisms, indicating the presence of a shared common cellulase ancestor, from which the GHF9 gene
78	has been inherited for a hundred million years (Fig. 4). Unfortunately, evolutionary evidence of other
79	GHFs is not available, and information about their primary structures remains fragmentary [15].
80	Table 2 classifies cellulases according to origin (endogenous or exogenous) and habitat (terrestrial or
81	aquatic). Endogenous origin means that the cellulase gene is encoded on the chromosomes of the
82	organisms, whereas an exogenous origin means that the cellulase gene is encoded on the chromosomes of
83	symbiotic microorganisms. As shown in Table 2, enzymes from archaea, eubacteria, fungi, and plants are
84	all classified as endogenous, whereas cellulases of both endogenous and exogenous origin are found in
85	invertebrates. The exogenous origin of cellulases in invertebrates is assumed to compensate for cellulases
86	of endogenous origin. In contrast, cellulases of endogenous origin have yet to be reported in vertebrates.
87	In the present review, we describe cellulases, with a primary focus on aquatic invertebrates in which
88	both endogenous and exogenous cellulases contribute to the breakdown of cellulose in the digestive
89	organs.
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#### 91 Cellulases derived from symbiotic microorganisms in terrestrial organisms

It had long been doubted as to whether herbivorous terrestrial animals actually digest cellulose and utilize it as a nutritional source. For instance, there have been substantial efforts to validate whether herbivorous mammals utilize cellulose during digestion [1]. Studies on symbiotic microorganisms in the ruminant stomach of herbivorous animals, which are involved in cellulose breakdown, are documented in Table 3. In 1942, Hungate reported the ability of the genera Diplodinium and Entodinium to breakdown protozoan cellulose, and the possible implication of these microorganisms in the breakdown of cellulose in the lumen of herbivorous mammals [17]. Various microorganisms in the digestive organs of sheep have also been investigated. For example, in 1982, Wood et al. isolated an anaerobic symbiotic microorganism Ruminococcus albus from the sheep lumen that was able to degrade cellulose, and successfully purified the cellulase from the extracts [18]. In 1986, Coleman et al. recorded the cellulose-degrading ability of the protozoa Entodinium caudatum in the sheep lumen [19]. Subsequently, in 1992, Bernaler et al. reported the cellulose-degrading ability of the anaerobic fungus Neocallinastix frontalis in the sheep lumen [20]. In addition to sheep, Varel et al. reported the cellulase degrading ability of the gram-positive bacillus Bacteroides succinogenes and the gram-negative coccus Ruminococcus flavefaciens in the porcine colon [21].

In addition to herbivorous mammals, there have been extensive studies of symbiotic bacteria

108	implicated in the breakdown of cellulose in herbivorous insects. The cellulose-degrading ability of
109	symbiotic bacteria in the termite Reticulitermes flavipes was first reported in 1924 [22]. Subsequently, in
110	1932, Trager et al. reported the cellulase activity of flagellates in the digestive organs of the wood roach
111	[23]. Recently, Delalibera et al. found symbiotic cellulose-degrading bacteria and fungi in the digestive
112	organs of the wood borer and bark beetle [24]. The presence of symbiotic microorganisms has been
113	extensively studied in termites. For example, Wenzel et al. successfully isolated symbiotic aerobic and
114	anaerobic bacteria from damp wood termites (Zootermopsis angusticollis; Arthropoda, Insecta) in 2002
115	[25]. In 2006, Watanabe et al. isolated archaebacteria exhibiting cellulase activity from the digestive tract
116	of the giant northern termite (Mastotermes darwiniensis; Arthropoda, Insecta) [26]. Interestingly, Martin
117	et al. detected cellulase activity in the midgut extract of the fungus-growing termite, Macrotermes
118	natalensis (Arthropoda, Insecta) in 1978 [27]. This termite species cultures cellulose-degrading bacteria
119	in its hive, and obtains cellulase from these bacteria. A similar example was reported for another termite,
120	Macrotermes mulleri (Arthropoda, Insecta) [28]. Hence, there are a large number of terrestrial animals
121	that are associated with symbiotic microorganisms, allowing them to effectively utilize cellulose.
122	
123	Cellulases derived from symbiotic microorganisms in aquatic organisms
124	The shipworm (Bivalvia, Teredinidae) is a major pest that bores holes in the hulls of wooden ships
125	and other wooden marine structures, occasionally resulting in the sinking of ships. Symbiotic bacteria
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were first found in granules of "the Gland of Deshayes" from one shipworm species Bankia australis (Mollusca, Bivalvia) in 1973 [29]. In 1983, Waterbury et al. found some species of bacteria that had both cellulose-degrading activity and nitrogen-fixing ability in shipworms, indicating that this species of shipworm utilizes cellulose and fixes nitrogen as carbon and nitrogen sources, respectively [30]. In 1991, the authors also reported the presence of a symbiotic bacteria belonging to Proteobacteria in various species of shipworm [31]. This was the first report demonstrating the widespread distribution of symbiotic bacteria belonging to the same phylum being present in a variety of shipworm species. After 2002, Teredinibacter turnerae classified into Proteobacterium, was found to be distributed in 24 species belonging to 9 distinct genera out of the total 14 genera of shipworm [32]. This observation indicates the ubiquitous distribution of specific bacteria among various species of shipworm. Studies on symbiotic bacteria with cellulase activity have extended to the deep sea ecology of animals inhabiting wood that has fallen to the ocean floor at the sea bottom. In 1997, bacteria morphologically resembling those found in shipworms were discovered in the digestive organs of a bivalve species Xylophaga washingtona (Mollusca, Bivalvia), which belongs to the same class as the shipworm [33]. New symbiotic bacteria were also found in the gills of a sunken wood-associated mussel (Mytilidae) in 2008 using the fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) technique, which employs specific molecular probes to identify different species of bacteria [34]. In 2010, another species of symbiotic bacteria was found in the gills and digestive organs of *Pectinodonta* sp., belonging to the

Gastropoda [35]. On the basis of these findings, the mechanism of cellulose breakdown in the woodecological system of the deep sea is gradually being revealed.

In comparison, Cary et al. reported the vertical transfer of symbiotic bacteria from "mother to baby" in related species of Calyptogena (cold-seep clams) and Solemya reidi [36]. In a later study of Bankia setacea, a type of shipworm, Sipe et al. reported the vertical transfer of symbiotic bacteria from "mother to baby" via the eggs [37]. Since the cellulose-degrading activity of these bacteria has yet to be demonstrated, further studies on the occurrence of cellulase activities in these bacterial species are required. The gribble worm is an isopod that bores holes in wooden ships, similar to shipworm. The presence of symbiotic bacteria in the gribble worm has long been disputed [38]; however, in 2010, one gribble worm species, Limnoria quadripunctata (Arthropoda, Malacostracea), was confirmed to have endogenous cellulases, the genes of which are encoded on the chromosomes of the species [39].

#### 157 Endogenous cellulases in terrestrial and aquatic animals

158 Table 3 summarizes the reported endogenous  $\beta$ -1,4-endoglucanses belonging to GHF9 from 159 terrestrial and aquatic invertebrates. Most species containing endogenous cellulases belong to the 160 Arthropoda and Nematoda. The first species reported to have endogenous cellulase was the termite 161 *Reticulitermes speratus*, which is widely distributed across Japan, and has been studied intensively as a harmful insect that decomposes wooden houses [7]. In 1998, Watanabe et al. succeeded in cloning the cDNA of  $\beta$ -1,4-endoglucanse from *R. speratus*, and the enzyme was classified as GHF9, according to the deduced amino acid sequence. The authors confirmed its endogenous origin by using PCR and Southern blot analysis of DNA extracted from termites. These procedures revealed the presence of an intron in the gene of  $\beta$ -1,4-endoglucanse. Later, the cDNA of another cellulase was cloned from *Coptotermes* formosanus (Arthropoda, Insecta), a termite species related to R. speratus, with it being classified as an endogenous GHF9 cellulase [40]. This cellulase was expressed in the foregut and midgut, with a symbiotic flagellate expressing a GHF7 cellulase in the hindgut [40]. These findings indicate that C. formosanus first degrades cellulose in the foregut and midgut via endogenous cellulases, and then the degraded products of cellulose are further digested by cellulases from the symbiotic flagellate in the hindgut, facilitating the effective digestion of cellulose. The presence of endogenous cellulases was subsequently reported for herbivorous arthropods, including the cockroach, which inhabits forests [41], and the well-known flour beetle Tribolium castaneum (Arthropoda, Insecta), which has a worldwide distribution [42]. In addition to arthropods, cellulases from Nematoda have been studied intensively. In 1998, the cDNA of cellulase was cloned from the plant-pathogenic cyst nematodes Globodera rostochiensis and Heterodera glycines (Nematoda, Tylenchida), and was classified as an endogenous GHF5 family enzyme [11]. In addition to cellulase, Heterodera glycines has endogenous genes encoding chitinase [43]. 

Cellulase genes were assumed to be horizontally transferred from bacteria or fungi to the ancestors of these two nematodes [44]. These nematodes infest the roots of host plants through an aperture that is formed by using their cellulases to degrade the plant cell walls [45]. In Japan, the gene of endogenous β-1.4-endoglucanase belonging to GHF45 was found in a major pine wood nematode Bursaphelenchus xylophilus (Nematoda, Tylenchida) which is parasitic to pine trees, causing pine tree death. These nematodes are assumed to bore into pine trees by degrading the cell wall in a similar way to the other two described nematode species. The  $\beta$ -1,4-endoglucanase gene of this nematode was demonstrated to be horizontally transferred from fungi. Thus, this species may have acquired the ability to degrade cellulose independently from other plant parasitic nematodes [46]. A small number of aquatic invertebrate species with endogenous cellulases have been reported. However, the phylum of the species found to have cellulases is diverse: Arthropoda, Mollusca, Annelida, Echinodermata, and Chordata. In aquatic animals, endogenous cellulase ( $\beta$ -1,4 endoglucanase) was first identified in Cherax quadricarinatus (common crayfish: Arthropoda, Crustacea). The primary structure of their cellulases shows homology with those of the termite, a terrestrial arthropod [47]. Although this finding indicates that cellulases distribute widely in arthropod, further studies on the distribution of cellulases among the other subphylums as Cheliceriformes, Myriopoda, or Trilobitomorpha is needed to confirm the widespread distribution of cellulases in arthropods. The presence of cellulases has been most intensively studied in mollusks. At present, GHF9 

198	cellulases have, for example, been reported in Halliotis discus hannai (Mollusca, Gastropoda) [48],
199	Halliotis discus discus (Mollusca, Gastropoda) [49], Corbicula japonica (Mollusca, Bivalvia) [12],
200	Ampullaria crossean (Mollusca, Gastropoda) [50], and Mizuhopecten yessoensis (Mollusca, Bivalvia)
201	[CazyWeb: http://www.cazy.org/ "Accessed 6 May 2012".]. In addition, GHF45 cellulase has been
202	reported in Mytilus edulis (Mollusca, Bivalvia) [51], Corbicula japonica [52], and Ampullaria crossean
203	[53]. There are species differences in the feeding habits of these mollusks. For instance, <i>H. discus hannai</i>
204	and H. discus discus feed on diatoms in the larval stage and macroalgae in the adult stage. M. edulis is an
205	epifaunal suspension feeder in coastal marine areas. C. japonica preferentially feeds on terrestrial
206	particulate organic matter over phytoplankton in brackish waters [49, 54-58]. To the best of our
207	knowledge, the diet of A. crossean has not been reported. Nevertheless, Pomacea canaliculata, which
208	belongs to the same family as A. crossean, is known to digest fresh leaves. In 2011, Qiu et al. reported
209	that P. canaliculata (Mollusca, Gastropoda) feeds on both fresh and decayed leaves of a variety of
210	macrophytes [59]. Qiu et al. also mentioned that several species of Ampullariidae (Pomacea) eat leaves of
211	macrophytes in wetlands [59].
212	The widespread distribution of cellulases among various mollusks with different feeding habits may
213	also indicate the importance of this enzyme in biochemical cellulose breakdown, particularly for $C$ .
214	japonica, which is thought to feed on detritus, including decaying plants. The detritus that accumulates on
215	the substrate of brackish areas includes a large amount of plant fragments, mainly composed of cellulose,
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and is considered an important food resource for estuarine benthos [60, 61]. A recent study revealed that C. japonica contains endogenous  $\beta$ -glucosidase, which degrades the digested products of cellulose formed by  $\beta$ -1,4-glucanase into free glucose [62]. In addition, immunological analysis using an antibody GHF9 endo-β-1,4-glucanase from C. japonica confirmed the production of GHF9 to endo- $\beta$ -1,4-glucanase in the digestive gland [63]. Because of the synergistic action of  $\beta$ -1,4-glucanases [12, 52] and  $\beta$ -glucosidase, *C. japonica* is assumed to utilize cellulose efficiently as a nutritional resource. Furthermore, C. japonica is also able to degrade hemicellulose. Sakamoto et al. revealed that C. japonica contains xylanase, which degrades xylan, one of the hemicellulases [64]. A comparative study of cellulase and hemicellulase activities in bivalves confirmed that C. japonica exhibits significantly higher mannanase activity than other bivalves [65]. Hence, C. japonica appears to be well adapted to brackish environments rich in plant-derived detritus. Furthermore, recent studies have confirmed that other mollusks also utilize multiple enzymes. For example, *H. discus hannai* contains mannanase,  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase, and alginate lyase [66-68], and *M.* edulis contains mannanase [69]. More recently, Kumagai and Zahura found that Aplysia kurodai (Mollusca, Gastropoda), which is a sea hare that eats seaweed, contains  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanases and mannanase [70, 71]. The presence of endogenous cellulose-degrading enzymes, including  $\beta$ -1,4-endoglucanase, in these studied species indicates that these enzymes are widespread among mollusks. Cellulase activity has also been well documented in other aquatic invertebrates, such as polychaetes

and crabs inhabiting a wide range of environments. Niiyama recorded high cellulase and hemicellulase activities in a variety of temperate region macrobenthos [72]. Toyohara et al. suggested that either meiobenthos (small annelids or nematodes) or sediments in temperate areas exhibit cellulase activity [73]. Furthermore, Yamada and Toyohara confirmed the presence of cellulase activity in the meiobenthos and sediments of the subantarctic region, which was dependent on climatic and sediment features [74]. A recent study by Liu and Toyohara proposed that sediment complexes harbor enzymes including cellulase [75], and it is suggested that plant-degrading enzymes are widely distributed in sediments and the environment. β-1,4-Endoglucanases of GHF9 have been reported in the echinoderm Storongylocentrotus nudus (Echinodermata, Echinoidea), which typically feeds on macroalgae [10], and Ciona intertinalis (Chordata, Ascidiacea) [76], for which the genome structure has been intensively studied. Although C. intertinalis belongs to the Chordata, which also includes humans, it is known to synthesize cellulose to protect its body. Genomic analyses have shown that the genome of this species harbors endogenous enzymes that synthesize cellulose, which were horizontally transferred from bacteria 530 million years ago. This species has evolved a specific biochemical system to synthesize cellulose that is distinct from that of plants [77]. While the  $\beta$ -1,4-endoglucanases of this species share a homologous structure with other GHF9 cellulases that have been reported in various aquatic invertebrates, they have a distinct function [76]. C. intertinalis contains cellulases to degrade cellulose in the tunic, not to degrade cellulose ingested 

into the digestive organs. Hence, *C. intertinalis* may serve as a good model to study the horizontal gene transfer mechanism from prokaryotes to eukaryotes, although supplementary genetic information must be collected for other sea squirts.

256 Utilization of animal cellulases

Cellulose is the most abundant organic material on the earth. A variety of animals that have flourished on this planet are dependent on this widespread resource. Cellulose is even essential for humans as an industrial material for generating paper and clothes, as well as nutritional food fiber materials. The degradation and reconstitution of cellulose has been extensively studied with the aim of producing desirable industrial materials or food, in addition to synthesizing various cellulose derivatives. The modification of cellulose has been studied intensively, and cellulase is probably one of the most industrially utilized enzymes [2, 78, 79]. Recently, cellulases have attracted attention as potential energy sources, such as bioethanol. Bioethanol is synthesized from glucose derived from plant cellulose and hemicellulose. Bioethanol differs from conventional fossil fuels, such as petroleum and coal, in that it is a carbon-neutral fuel, which does not increase the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> in the air. This is because the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> released into the air when consuming bioethanol is equal to that fixed by plants used for bioethanol production [80]. An important aspect of bioethanol production is to reduce energy expenditure when degrading cellulose. At present,

270	microbial cellulases with heat-stable and acid-stable properties are available for the breakdown of
271	cellulose. To date, anaerobic bacteria have been intensively studied for this purpose, as described in a
272	review by Demain, in which the co-culture of anaerobic bacteria was shown to be effective for producing
273	bioethanol under moderate conditions, and at low cost by using crude substrates [81]. Animal cellulases
274	are potential candidates for bioethanol production, because they are expected to be equipped with specific
275	enzymatic properties that are different to microbial cellulases. In 2011, Xu et al. reported that endogenous
276	$\beta$ -1,4 endoglucanase from a gastropod Ampullaria crossean showed acid and heat stability [82].
277	Yanagisawa et al. reported that drips containing cellulase and amylase from the mid-gut gland of scallops
278	sacchalified sea lettuce and suggested that these enzymes could be used to produce ethanol when
279	combined with yeast [83].
280	The digestive efficiency of termite enzymes is reported to be as high as 99 $\%$ for cellulose and 87 $\%$
281	for hemicelluloses, driving researchers to investigate potential industrial applications. It has been
282	suggested that the ability of chewing and biting plants led to the high efficiency of cellulose breakdown
283	by termites [2, 84]. Aquatic invertebrates, such as gastropods, also scrape plants using radula. Hence,
284	further studies on both insect and aquatic animal cellulases might contribute toward improving the
285	efficiency of bioethanol production.
286	Information about aquatic animal cellulases might also be beneficial for aquaculture. The
287	feeding habits of algae eaters that are important to fisheries, such as Haliotis discus hannai, Mytilus
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288	edulis, and Mizuhopecten yessoensis, have been intensively studied [54-56, 85]. For example, abalone is
289	known to feed on diatoms in the larval stage, and feeds on macroalgae in the adult stage. It has also been
290	reported that climatic events, such as tidal streams, may affect ecological circumstances by changing
291	levels of competition or predation stress [54, 55]. Hence detailed information about the feeding habits of
292	species important to fisheries may help in the development of efficient aquaculture systems. Other useful
293	studies in associated fields, including protoplast preparation [86] and improving fruit yields [87], are also
294	advancing.
295	Recent studies on cellulases have revealed that these enzymes are present in many organisms,
296	reflecting the widespread distribution of cellulose on the earth. Organisms, including bacteria, fungi, and
297	invertebrates, have developed a system to digest cellulose, which may originally have evolved in the
298	bacteria or plants for cell wall construction [2]. Compared to studies of cellulases in microorganisms,
299	such as bacteria and fungi, limited information is available about aquatic invertebrates. In conclusion,
300	further studies on the cellulases of aquatic invertebrates are anticipated; these will contribute toward
301	improving the efficient use of plants by human beings.
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3 4 5	559	Figure legends
6 7 8	560	Fig.1 Three types of cellulose hydrolysis enzymes collectively named cellulase (Exocellubiohydrolase,
9 10 11	561	Endo- $\beta$ -1,4-glucanase, and $\beta$ -glucosidase) are involved in the cellulose degradation process
12 13 14	562	Exocellubiohydrolases (exocellulase) cut cellulose from reducing (R) or nonreducing (NR) termini
15 16 17	563	to release cellubiose (dotted circle). Endo-β-1,4-glucanases cut the cellulose randomly from the internal
18 19 20	564	$\beta$ -1,4 linkages (broken circle). $\beta$ -Glucosidases hydrolyze cellubiose or cellu-oligomers from the reducing
21 22 23	565	temini to produce glucoses (double circle). Scissors represents the cutting site of each enzyme.
24 25 26 27	566	
28 29 30	567	Fig.2 Schematic view of the crystalline structure of cellulose chains
31 32 33	568	Glucose units are joined by $\beta$ -1,4 linkages. Different cellulose chains are linked by hydrogen bonds
34 35 36	569	(marked by dotted lines) to form cellulose crystals.
37 38 39	570	
40 41 42	571	Fig.3 Two different types of cellulase act on the cellulose binding domain (CBD); multi-domain
43 44 45 46	572	cellulases and single-domain cellulases
47 48 49	573	Multi-domain cellulases comprise a catalytic domain that is linked to a CBD by a peptide strand,
50 51 52	574	termed a linker. In this instance, CBDs are assumed to bind to cellulose, which improves the efficiency of
53 54 55	575	the hydrolytic process of multi-domain cellulases by continuing catalytic action on the cellulose surface,
56 57 58	576	while following CBD movement. In contrast, single-domain cellulases leave the cellulose surface after
59 60 61		33
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577	catalytic action is complete, and subsequently approach a new linkage to participate in another catalytic
578	action.
579	
580	Fig.4 Phylogenetic tree of GHF9 endo-\beta-1,4-glucanase based on a nucleotide sequence (CazyWeb:
581	http://www.cazy.org/ "Accessed 6 May 2012".)
582	This tree was prepared according to the method of Davidson et al. (2005) [16]. Please
583	note that this tree was prepared according to the nucleotide sequence of part of the endogenous
584	endo- $\beta$ -1,4-glucanases reported to date.
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#### 和文要旨

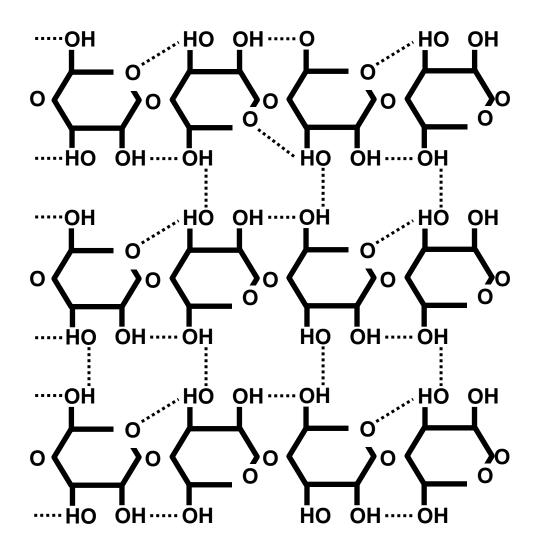
動物セルラーゼ ― 水生無脊椎由来酵素に注目して

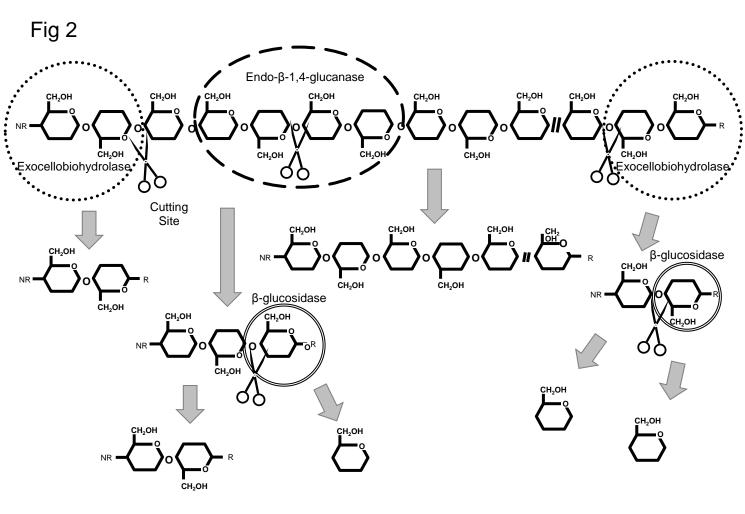
谷村 彩,劉 文,山田 京平(京大院農),岸田 拓士(京大霊長研),豊原 治彦(京 大院農)

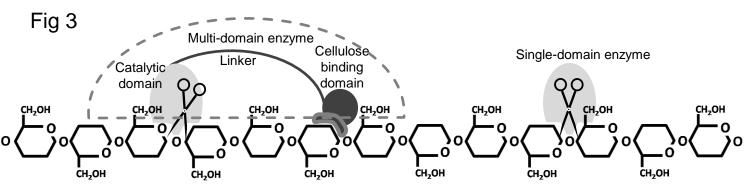
本総説では、動物セルラーゼに関する研究について 1900 年代半ばから最新のものに至る論 文を渉猟し、陸生と水生、共生と内源性の観点から分類した。特に自身の染色体 DNA 上に コードされる内源性セルラーゼについては詳述した。これらの酵素について、糖加水分解 酵素ファミリーにおける分類や一次構造上の類似性についても述べた。なかでも、近年著 しく研究が進んだ軟体動物、節足動物、棘皮動物などの水生生物については、それらの食 性や生態との関連について概説するとともに、水生生物由来のセルラーゼの今後の応用の 可能性についても論じた。

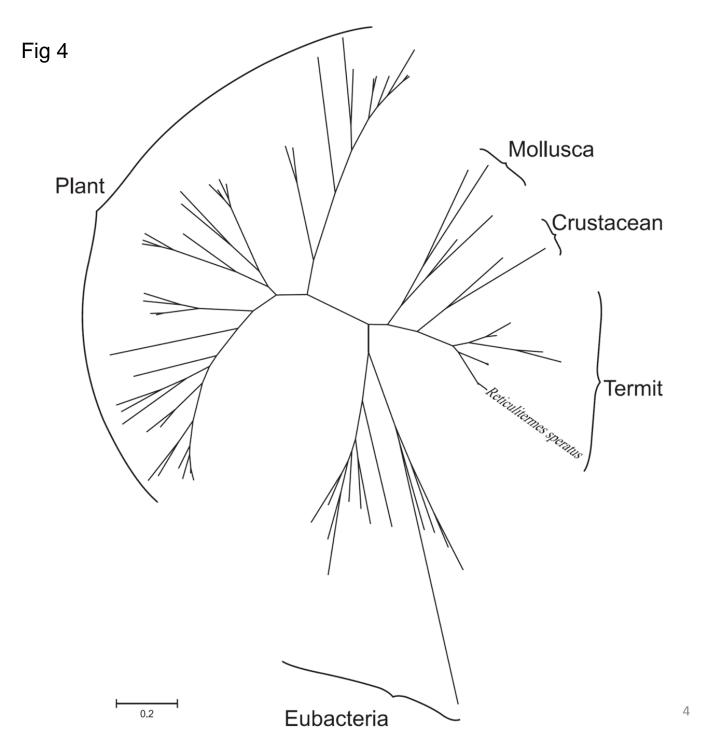
キーワード

エンド-β-1,4-グルカナーゼ, 共生, セルラーゼ, セルロース, 内源性, 分解, 無脊椎動物, GHF9 Fig 1









GHF	Cellulase Type	Archaea	Eukaryote			
			Eubacteria	Fungus	Plant	Animal(Invertebrate)
1	β-glucosidase	+	+	+	+	+
3	β-glucosidase	+	+	+	+	+
5	Endoglucanase, β-glucosidase	+	+	+	+	+
6	Endoglucanase, Cellobiohydrolase	-	+	+	-	-
7	Endoglucanase, Cellobiohydrolase	-	-	+	+	+
8	Endoglucanase	+	+	-	-	-
9	Endoglucanase, Cellobiohydrolase,		+	+	+	
9	β-glucosidase	+				+
10	Endoglucanase	-	+	-	-	-
12	Endoglucanase	+	+	+	+	-
19	Endoglucanase	+	+	-	-	-
26	Endoglucanase	_	+	-	-	-
30	β-glucosidase	+	+	+	+	+
44	Endoglucanase	_	+	-	-	-
45	Endoglucanase	_	+	+	-	+
48	Endoglucanase	-	+	+	-	-
51	Endoglucanase	+	+	+	+	-
61	Endoglucanase	-	-	+	+	-
74	Endoglucanase	_	+	+	-	-
116	β-glucosidase	+	+	+	+	+
124	Endoglucanase	_	+	-	-	-

Table 1 List of members of the Gglycoside Hhydrolase Ffamily (GHF)\*

\* The GHF includes comprises all of glycoside hydrolases, including cellulases. Cellulases are further classified into 20 families [CazyWeb: http://www.cazy.org/ "Accessed 6 May 2012".], most of which belongs to endo-β-1, 4-glucanase. Only GHF5, 9, 10, and 45 are found in metazoans, while and GHF9 and 45 are exclusively found in aquatic invertebrates. β-Glycosidases have beenare reported infrom most animal phyla phylum of animals, because since

this enzyme hydrolyzes various dimers of sugars besidein addition to cellubiose.

# **Table 2** Classification of cellulases based onhabitatliving area and enzyme genetic origin\*

Habitat type	Organism	Exogenous/Endogenous	
Terrestrial	Archaea	Endo	
	Eubacteria	Endo	
	Fungus	Endo	
	Plant	Endo	
	Invertebrate Animal	Exo/Endo	
	Vertebrate Animal	Exo	
Aquatic	Archaea	Endo	
	Eubacteria	Endo	
	Fungus	Endo	
	Plant	Endo	
	Invertebrate Animal	Exo/Endo	
	Vertebrate Animal	Exo	

\* Animals are classified asinto "aquatic" and" terrestrial.". Then, cCellulases are classified into "endogenous" and "exogenous.". Note, It should be noted that only exogenous cellulases have been so far reported forin vertebrates to date.

		1	1			
Terrestrial/	Organism					Reference
Aquatic	Phylum			Species	Common Name	Reference
	Platyhelminthe	Trematoda	Strigeidida	Schistosoma mansoni		[16]
	Annelida	Oligochaeta	Haplotaxida	Eisenia andrei		CazyWeb
				Eisenia andrei		CazyWeb
				Eisenia fetida	branding worm	CazyWeb
				Lumbricus rubellus	humus earthworm	[16]
				Pheretima hilgendorfi	earthworm	[88]
	Arthropoda	Insecta	Blattaria	Panesthia angustipennis	cockroach	[89]
				Panesthia cribrata	cockroach	[41]
				Salganea esakii	cockroach	[89]
			Coleoptera	Timarcha balearica	beetle	[16]
			Copelata	Tribolium castaneum	red flour beetle	[42]
			Hymenoptera	Apis mellifera	honeybee	[16]
			Isopoda	Glyptotermes sp. Wyong	termite	[90]
				Hodotermopsis sjoestdi	termite	[91]
				Sinocapritermes mushae	termite	[91]
To man at min 1			Isoptera	Coptotermes acinaciformis	termite	CazyWeb
s Terrestrial				Coptotermes formosanus	Formosan subterranean termite	[92]
				Coptotermes formosanus	Formosan subterranean termite	[93]
				Coptotermes formosanus Shiraki	termite	[40]
				Mastotermes darwiniensis	termite	[94]
				Nasutitermes takasagonesis	termite	[91]
				Nasutitermes takasagonesis	termite	[90]
				Nasutitermes walkeri	termite	[90]
				Neotermes koshunensis	termite	[91]
				Odontotermes formosanus	termite	CazyWeb
				Odontotermes formosanus	termite	[91]
				Reticulitermes flavipes	eastern subterrenean termite	[95]
				Reticulitermes speratus	termite	[7]
				Reticulitermes speratus	termite	[90]
				Reticulitermes speratus	termite	[96]
			Orthoptera	Teleogryllus emma	emma field cricket	[97]
		Malacostraca	Mysida	Neomysis intermedia		CazyWeb
	Terrestrial/ Aquatic	Aquatic       Phylum         Platyhelminthe         Annelida         Annelida         Arthropoda         Image: state	Aquatic       Phylum       Class         Platyhelminthe       Trematoda         Annelida       Oligochaeta         Annelida       Insecta         Arthropoda       Insecta         Arthropoda       Insecta         Insecta       Insecta         Inseta       In	Aquatic       Phylum       Class       Order         Platyhelminthe       Trematoda       Strigeidida         Annelida       Oligochaeta       Haplotaxida         Image: Strigeidida       Haplotaxida         Annelida       Oligochaeta       Haplotaxida         Image: Strigeidida       Haplotaxida         Arthropoda       Insecta       Blattaria         Image: Strigeidida       Insecta       Blattaria         Image: Strigeidida       Insecta       Blattaria         Image: Strigeidida       Insecta       Blattaria         Image: Strigeidida       Image: Strigeidida       Image: Strigeidida         Image: Strigeidida       Image: Strigeidida       Image: Strigeidida <td>AquaticPhylumClassOrderSpeciesPlatyhelminthe AnnelidaTrematodaStrigeididaSchistosoma mansoniAnnelidaOligochaetaHaplotaxidaEisenia andreiEisenia andreiEisenia andreiEisenia andreiEisenia fetidaLumbricus rubellusPheretima hilgendorfiPheretima hilgendorfiArthropodaInsectaBlattariaPanesthia angustipennisPanesthia cribrataSalganea esakiiColeopteraTriholium castaneumHymenopteraApis melliferaIsopodaGlyptotermes sp. WyongHodotermopsis sjoestdiSinocapritermes mushaeCoptotermes formosanusCoptotermes formosanusCoptotermes formosanusCoptotermes formosanusCoptotermes formosanusNasutitermes takasagonesisNasutitermes takasagonesisNasutitermes takasagonesisNasutitermes formosanusOdontotermes formosanusCoptotermes formosanusOdontotermes formosanusCoptotermes formosanusReticulitermes speratusReticulitermes speratusReticulitermes speratusCoptotermes formosanusOdontotermes formosanus</td> <td>Aquatic         Phylum         Class         Order         Species         Common Name           Platyhelminthe         Trematoda         Strigeidida         Schistosoma mansoni         Image: Schisto</td>	AquaticPhylumClassOrderSpeciesPlatyhelminthe AnnelidaTrematodaStrigeididaSchistosoma mansoniAnnelidaOligochaetaHaplotaxidaEisenia andreiEisenia andreiEisenia andreiEisenia andreiEisenia fetidaLumbricus rubellusPheretima hilgendorfiPheretima hilgendorfiArthropodaInsectaBlattariaPanesthia angustipennisPanesthia cribrataSalganea esakiiColeopteraTriholium castaneumHymenopteraApis melliferaIsopodaGlyptotermes sp. WyongHodotermopsis sjoestdiSinocapritermes mushaeCoptotermes formosanusCoptotermes formosanusCoptotermes formosanusCoptotermes formosanusCoptotermes formosanusNasutitermes takasagonesisNasutitermes takasagonesisNasutitermes takasagonesisNasutitermes formosanusOdontotermes formosanusCoptotermes formosanusOdontotermes formosanusCoptotermes formosanusReticulitermes speratusReticulitermes speratusReticulitermes speratusCoptotermes formosanusOdontotermes formosanus	Aquatic         Phylum         Class         Order         Species         Common Name           Platyhelminthe         Trematoda         Strigeidida         Schistosoma mansoni         Image: Schisto

# Table 3 List of invertebrate cellulases\*

continued

Exogenous/	Terrestrial/	Organism					Deferreres
Endogenous	Aquatic	Phylum	Class	Order	Species	Common Name	Reference
		Annelida	Polychaeta	Aciculata	Perinereis nuntia brevicirris		[98]
		Mollusca	Bivalvia	Ostreoidea	Crassostrea virginica	eastern oyster	[16]
				Pectinoida	Argopecten irradians	bay scallop	[16]
					Argopecten irradians	bay scallop	[16]
					Mizuhopecten yessoensis	ezo giant scallop	CazyWeb
				Veneroida	Corbicula japonica		[12]
			Gastropoda	Architaenioglossa	Ampullaria crossean		[50]
				Pulmonata	Biomphalaria glabrata	bloodfluke planorb	[16]
					Lymnaea stagnalis	great pond snail	[99]
				Vetigastropoda	Haliotis corrugata	pink abalone	[100]
					Haliotis cracherodii	black abalone	[100]
					Haliotis discus discus	disc abalone	[49]
					Haliotis discus hannai	ezo abalone	[48]
	Aquatic				Haliotis fulgens	green abalone	[100]
					Haliotis kamtschatkana		[100]
Endogenous					Haliotis rufescens		[100]
-	-				Haliotis sorenseni	white abalone	[100]
					Haliotis walallensis	flat abalone	[100]
		Arthropoda	Branchiopoda	Diplostraca	Daphnia magna	water flea	[16]
			Insecta	Isoptera	Macrotermes barnevi		CazyWeb
			Malacostraca	Amphipoda	Gammarus pulex	shrimp	[16]
				Decapoda	Austrothelphusa transversa		CazyWeb
					Callinectes sapidus	blue crab	[16]
					Cherax quadricarinatus	crayfish	[47]
					Cherax quadricarinatus	crayfish	[101]
					Euastacus sp. SL-2005		CazyWeb
					Homarus americanus	American lobster	[16]
				Isopoda	Limnoria quadripunctata		[39]
					Porcellio scaber		[14]
		Echinodermata	Echinoidea	Echinacea	Strongylocentrotus nudus	sea urchin	[10]
					Strongylocentrotus purpuratus	purple sea urchin	[102]

continued

Exogenous/	Terrestrial/	Organism					Deference
Endogenous	Aquatic	Phylum	Class	Order	Species	Common Name	Reference
Endogenous		Chordata	Appendiculari	Copelata	Oikopleura dioica	sea squirt	[103]
	Aquatic				Oikopleura dioica	sea squirt	[104]
			Ascidiacea	Enterogona	Ciona intestinalis	sea squirt	[76]
					Ciona savignyi	sea squirt	[16]
				Stolidobranchia	Botryllus schlosseri	sea squirt	[16]
					Halocynthia roretzi	sea squirt	[16]
					Molgula tectiformis	sea squirt	[16]
Exogenous		Arthropoda	Insecta	Blattaria	Cryptocercus punctulatus	brown-hooted cockroach	[23]
				Coleoptera	Dendroctonus frontalis	southern pine beetle	[24]
					Ips pini	North American pine engraver	[24]
					Saperda vestita	Wood Borer	[105]
				Isoptera	Macrotermes mulleri	termite	[28]
					Macrotermes natalensis	termite	[27]
	Terrestrial				Mastotermes darwiniensis	Giant Northern Termite	[26]
					Reticulitermes flavipes	eastern subterrenean termite	[22]
					Zootermopsis angusticollis	Pacific dampwood termite	[25]
		Chordata	Mammalia	Artiodactyla	Sus sp.	pig	[21]
				Catartiodactyla	Bos primigenius	aurochs	[17]
					Ovis aries	sheep	[19]
					Ovis aries	sheep	[18]
					Ovis aries	sheep	[20]
		Mollusca	Bivalvia	Teredinidae	Bankia gouldi	shipworm	[30]
	1				Lyrodus pedicellatus	shipworm	[32]
	Aquatic				Psiloteredo healdi	shipworm	[30]
					Teredo bartschi	shipworm	[30]
					Teredo furcifera	shipworm	[30]
					Teredo navalis	shipworm	[30]
			Gastropoda	Patellogastropoda	Pectinodonta sp.		[35]

\* Invertebrate cellulases are classified according to the standard described in Table 2. Please note that endogenous cellulases include only GHF9, while exogenous cellulases include some of the cellulases reported to date. Animal classification and common names are presented according to the Species Dictionary: http://bm2.genes.nig.ac.jp/Integrated\_BodyMap/species.php "Accessed 6 May 2012". Endogenous GHF9s are summarized according to the CazyWeb: http://www.cazy.org/ "Accessed 6 May 2012". and Davison et al (2005) [16].