Accepted Manuscript

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PII: S0308-8146(17)31210-4

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2017.07.066

Reference: FOCH 21450

To appear in: Food Chemistry

Received Date: 2 March 2017 Revised Date: 21 June 2017 Accepted Date: 13 July 2017



Please cite this article as: Minic, S., Stanic-Vucinic, D., Radomirovic, M., Radibratovic, M., Milcic, M., Nikolic, M., Cirkovic Velickovic, T., Characterization and effects of binding of food-derived bioactive phycocyanobilin to bovine serum albumin, *Food Chemistry* (2017), doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2017.07.066

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1 Characterization and effects of binding of food-derived bioactive

phycocyanobilin to bovine serum albumin

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Abstract

Phycocyanobilin (PCB) is a blue tetrapyrrole chromophore of C-phycocyanin, the main protein of the microalga Spirulina, with numerous proven health-related benefits. We examined binding of PCB to bovine serum albumin (BSA) and how it affects protein and ligand stability. Protein fluorescence quenching and microscale thermophoresis demonstrated high-affinity binding ($K_a = 2 \times 10^6 \,\mathrm{M}^{-1}$). Spectroscopic titration with molecular docking analysis revealed two binding sites on BSA, at the inter-domain cleft and at subdomain IB, while CD spectroscopy indicated stereo-selective binding of the *P* conformer of the pigment to the protein. The PCB protein complex showed increased thermal stability. Although complex formation partly masked the antioxidant properties of PCB and BSA, a mutually protective effect against free radical-induced oxidation was found. BSA could be suitable for delivery of PCB as a food colorant or bioactive component. Our results also highlight subtle differences between PCB binding to bovine νs , human serum albumin.

- **Key words:** Spirulina, phycocyanobilin, bovine serum albumin, binding, stability, antioxidant.
- **Abbreviated (running) title:** Phycocyanobilin binding to BSA.

1. Introduction

Arthorspira platensis or Spirulina, a filamentous cyanobacteria (blue-green microalga), has commonly been used in human and animal nutrition for centuries. Spirulina contains many components of an ideal superfood: a considerable proportion of easily digested complete

proteins, carbohydrates, essential fatty acids, pigments, bioavailable vitamins, as well as macroand micro-elements (**Buono**, **Langellotti**, **Martello**, **Rinna**, & **Fogliano**, **2014**). C-phycocyanin
(C-PC), its most abundant single component (14% by dry weight), is a blue biliprotein with
proven antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, immune-modulatory, and anti-cancer effects on the
human body, primarily due to phycocyanobilin (PCB), a covalently bound linear tetrapyrrole
chromophore (**Fernández-Rojas**, **Hernández-Juárez**, & **Pedraza-Chaverri**, **2014**). Both C-PC
and PCB show great potential for applications in biotechnology, medicine, and the food industry
(as food colorants) (**Eriksen**, **2008**; **McCarty**, **2007**).

Bovine serum albumin (BSA) is the major protein of bovine blood plasma, as well as a dietary protein found in beef and cow's milk (Fuentes Aparicio, Sanchez Marcen, Perez Montero, Baeza, & de Barrio Fernandez, 2005). BSA is an α-helicoidal globular protein composed of a single polypeptide chain with 583 amino acid residues, organized into three homologous domains (I, II, and III), each of which contains two subdomains, termed A and B (Bujacz, 2012; Peters, 1995). It is one of the most extensively studied proteins and has applications in various life science disciplines and as a model system for studying protein-ligand interactions. Due to its emulsifying properties, BSA is used as a food additive (Ofori & Hsieh, 2012). BSA is also a versatile carrier for various drugs and nutraceuticals (Livney, 2010).

Bilirubin and biliverdin, bioactive PCB tetrapyrrole analogs found in animals, have a high propensity to interact with serum albumins (**Peters**, **1995**). Our research group recently demonstrated that PCB binds with high affinity to human serum albumin (HSA) (**Minic**, **Milcic**, **Stanic-Vucinic**, **Radibratovic**, **Sotiroudis**, **Nikolic**, **et al.**, **2015**), increasing protein thermal and

proteolytic stability (Radibratovic, Minic, Stanic-Vucinic, Nikolic, Milcic, & Velickovic, 2016). Bioactive ligand binding may affect the flexibility and stability of a food protein, changing its folding and digestion (Celej, Montich, & Fidelio, 2003; Stojadinovic, Radosavljevic, Ognjenovic, Vesic, Prodic, Stanic-Vucinic, et al., 2013), as well as ligand bioavailability and bioactive properties, such as antioxidant activity (Jakobek, 2015). Therefore, examination of the interactions between food-derived proteins and bioactive molecules can yield valuable information about their distribution, stability, and activities *in vivo*.

Due to its low cost and acceptance in the food and pharmaceutical sector, BSA is widely used as delivery vehicle for drugs and bioactive compounds (e.g. polyphenols), based on its noncovalent interactions with low molecular mass molecules. There are only few studies dealing with interactions of PCB with proteins, reporting binding to HSA (Minic, et al., 2015; Radibratovic, et al., 2016). Numerous studies demonstrated that interactions with proteins can protect redox sensitive bioactive nutriceuticals, but literature data on effects of PCB-protein interactions on the PCB stability and antioxidative activity of the PCB-protein complex are still missing. Therefore, in this study we characterized for the first time the binding of PCB to BSA, compared our findings with those from the HSA-PCB complex, and then examined the effects of binding on the thermal and oxidative stability of both protein and ligand. Binding parameters, established by fluorescence quenching, spectrophotometric titration, and microscale thermophoresis (MST) experiments, revealed high-affinity PCB binding to BSA. CD spectroscopy indicated stereo-selective *P*-conformer ligand binding. Molecular docking analysis identified two specific ligand binding sites on the protein, different from those on HSA, as well

as a potential interaction pattern. The consequences of binding were analyzed by far-UV CD spectroscopy, in antioxidant assays, and by monitoring of free radical-induced oxidation. Increased stability of both interacting partners suggest that BSA can serve as suitable delivery system for bioactive PCB.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

Essentially globulin free BSA (≥99%) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (USA) and used without further purification. BSA concentration was determined spectrophotometrically using the extinction coefficient of 43 824 M⁻¹cm⁻¹ at 279 nm. PCB was purified from commercial Hawaiian *Spirulina pacifica* powder (Nutrex, USA) and then quantified from stock solutions in DMSO as previously described (**Minic, Milcic, Stanic-Vucinic, Radibratovic, Sotiroudis, Nikolic, et al., 2015**). All experiments (except for antioxidant assays, see below) were done in 20 mM Tris buffer, pH 7.2. Final concentrations of DMSO in BSA-PCB mixtures did not exceed 1% (v/v). Reagents for MST measurements were generous gift from NanoTemper, Germany. All other chemicals were of analytical reagent grade and Milli-Q water (Millipore, France) was used as a solvent.

2.2. Fluorescence quenching measurements

The fluorescence spectra were recorded with a FluoroMax®-4 spectrofluorometer (HORIBA Scientific, Japan). Experimental details and fluorescence quenching analysis are given in Supplementary data (Appendix A).

2.3. Microscale thermophoresis measurements

Lysine residues in BSA were covalently labeled with fluorescent dye NT-547 using the MonolithTM NT.115 Protein Labeling Kit GREEN-NHS (NanoTemper Technologies GmhH, Germany) according to the supplied labeling protocol. PCB was serially diluted over five orders of magnitude (between 200 μM and 6 nM) in MST buffer containing 0.05% Tween-20. Labeled BSA was mixed 1:1 (vol/vol) with pigment dilutions. The final concentration of labeled protein in BSA-PCB mixtures was 1.5 μM. The samples were loaded into the MonolithTM NT.115 premium coated capillaries (NanoTemper Technologies), and incubated at ambient temperature for 30 min. Capillaries were then placed in the Monolith NT.115 instrument (NanoTemper Technologies). Typically, LED and MST power were set to 20 and 40%, respectively, and green LED-filter was used. Obtained data were plotted as the relative fluorescence versus the logarithm of PCB concentrations. The dissociation constant (*K*_d) was estimated using the NanoTemper analysis software version 1.5.41 (NanoTemper Technologies).

2.4. UV/VIS absorbance measurements

UV/VIS absorption spectra were recorded on a NanoDrop 2000c spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, USA) in a quartz cuvette with 1.0 cm path length. The measurements of 20 μM PCB in the absence and presence of BSA (10, 20 and 40 μM) were made in the range of 300-750 nm at room temperature. Stoichiometry determination of PCB binding to BSA was determined by titration of 20 μM PCB solution with 1 mM BSA stock solution in order to obtain the BSA/PCB molar ratios between 0 and 1.5. After absorbance measurements, plot of absorbance dependence at 365 nm on BSA/PCB molar ratio was constructed. The reciprocal

value of intersection point between the linear part of the curve and plateau phase gives the number of ligand moles bound per mole of protein.

2.5. CD spectroscopy measurements

All CD measurements were carried out on Jasco J-815 spectropolarimeter (Jasco, Japan) under thermostated conditions. For the measurements in the near-UV and visible region (250-700 nm), concentration of BSA was 10 μ M, while concentrations of PCB varied from 0 to 30 μ M. All spectra in the near-UV and visible region were recorded at 25°C. BSA thermal denaturation experiment was performed at the temperature range 37-93°C, with temperature increasing rate 2°C/min. Equilibration time for each temperature was set to 1 min. Ellipticity was measured in far-UV region at 222 nm with pathlength cells of 1 cm. Concentration of BSA was 0.5 μ M, while PCB concentrations were 0.5 and 1 μ M. Results were expressed as dependence of percentage of the initial ellipticity (at 37°C), taken as 100%, on temperature. Obtained plots were fitted with a sigmoidal function. The inflection point in the plot was taken as melting temperature (T_m) of BSA.

2.6. Molecular docking

The crystal structure of the BSA was downloaded from the Protein Data Bank (PDB ID: 3v03) and the AutoDockVina program (**Trott & Olson, 2010**) was used for performing molecular docking study on BSA-PCB complex. The details of the docking study are presented in Supplementary data (Appendix A).

2.7. BSA and PCB oxidation by free radicals

BSA oxidation induced by free radicals, obtained by the decomposition of 2,2'-azobis(2-amidinopropane) dihydrochloride (AAPH), was monitored using protein intrinsic fluorescence as a probe. BSA solutions (1 µM) in the absence (blank) and presence of PCB (1 and 2 µM) or standard antioxidant Trolox (2 µM) were pre-incubated at 37°C during 15 min. Reaction was initiated by addition of AAPH stock solution (500 mM) to obtain 25 mM final concentration mixture. Excitation and emission wavelengths were of 280 and 340 nm, respectively, and slits were set to 5 nm. Fluorescence decay was recorded during 30 min. Fluorescence contribution of PCB was subtracted. Protective effect (PE) of PCB against BSA oxidation was quantified in arbitrary units (a.u.) using equation:

$$PE(a.u) = AUC_{BSA+PCB} - AUC_{freeBSA}(1)$$

Where PE represents PCB protective effect, while AUC represents area under curve for respective samples.

PCB oxidation, induced by free radicals obtained by the decomposition of AAPH, was monitored using pigment absorbance as a probe. PCB solutions (50 μ M) in the absence (blank) and presence of BSA (25, 50 and 250 μ M) were pre-incubated at 37°C during 5 min. Reaction was initiated by addition of AAPH stock solution (500 mM) to obtain 28 mM final concentration mixture. Reaction mixtures were incubated at 37°C. UV/VIS absorption spectra were recorded in the range of 300-750 nm at 0 (samples without AAPH), 10 and 30 min after initiation of reaction. In order to monitor absorbance changes at 620 and 560 nm during time, samples with the same concentrations of BSA, PCB and AAPH were prepared as previously described. Absorbances were recorded during 30 min at 37°C.

2.8. Antioxidant assays

Oxygen radical absorbance capacity (ORAC) assay was performed as described (**Ou, Hampsch-Woodill, & Prior, 2001**) with some modifications (**Minic, Stanic-Vucinic, Mihailovic, Krstic, Nikolic, & Velickovic, 2016**). Briefly, stock solutions of fluorescein (5 µM), free radical generator AAPH (500 mM) and various samples were made in 75 mM potassium phosphate buffer, pH 7.4. 250 µL of sample solutions (BSA, PCB and BSA-PCB complexes) or Trolox were mixed with 1485 µL and 15 µL of buffer and fluorescein solution, respectively. The reaction was initiated by adding 250 µL of AAPH solution. Excitation and emission wavelengths were 485 and 511 nm, respectively, and slits were set to 2 nm. The relative sample ORAC value was expressed as Trolox equivalents (TE).

The reducing power of BSA, PCB and BSA-PCB complex samples was measured according to modified original method (**Oyaizu, 1986**). 40 μ L of sample solution was added to 100 μ L of 0.2 M phosphate buffer, pH 6.6 and 100 μ L of 1% potassium hexacyanoferrate(III). After incubation at 50°C during 20 min, 50 μ L of 20% trichloroacetic acid was added to the reaction mixture, followed by centrifugation at 10000xg during 15 min. A 100 μ L of supernatant was mixed with 100 μ L of Milli-Q water and 12 μ L of 0.1% FeCl₃. After 10 min incubation on room temperature absorbance was measured at 670 nm.

For both assays, masking effect (ME) of the PCB antioxidant capacity was calculated using equation:

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$$ME (\%) = 100\% - \left(100 * \frac{AC_{BSA-PCB}}{AC_{BSA} + AC_{PCB}}\right)\% (2)$$

Where, AC_{BSA-PCB}, AC_{BSA} and AC_{PCB} represent antioxidant capacities of BSA-PCB

complexes, free BSA and free PCB, respectively.

3. Results

3.1. Detection and characterization of PCB binding to BSA

3.1.1. PCB quenches BSA intrinsic fluorescence

Ligand binding often induces quenching of protein intrinsic fluorescence. The presence of two tryptophan residues in BSA produces strong protein emission upon excitation at 280 nm. Addition of PCB in gradually increasing concentrations induced a significant decrease in BSA fluorescence, followed with a blue shift of the emission maximum, from 342 to 335 nm (**Fig. 1A**). **Fig. 1B** shows the Stern-Volmer (SV) plot for quenching of BSA fluorescence by PCB. The slope of this curve indicates an SV quenching constant of $1.7 \times 10^6 \,\mathrm{M}^{-1}$, with a bimolecular quenching rate constant of $1.7 \times 10^{14} \,\mathrm{M}^{-1} \mathrm{s}^{-1}$, which is four orders of magnitude higher than the diffusion rates of biomolecules ($10^{10} \,\mathrm{M}^{-1} \mathrm{s}^{-1}$). These data suggest that static (contact) quenching of BSA fluorescence by PCB occurs. The calculated binding constant of $2.3 \times 10^6 \,\mathrm{M}^{-1}$ at $25^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$ (**Fig. S1**) indicates high-affinity binding site(s) for PCB on BSA.

Synchronous fluorescence is a useful approach to separate the contribution of Trp and Tyr residues to total protein intrinsic fluorescence. From Figs. 1C and 1D, it is clear that the binding of PCB induced greater Trp residues fluorescence quenching, in comparison to the decrease in fluorescence arising from Tyr residues, with no significant shifts of emission maxima, indicating that bound PCB was situated closer to Trp residues. Therefore, the blue shift seen in basic BSA fluorescence spectra (Fig. 1A) is due to preferential quenching of the Trp residues by PCB binding, while the relative contribution of Tyr residues to protein fluorescence

increases upon ligand binding.

3.1.2. PCB changes the thermophoretic mobility of BSA

MST is a relatively new method for characterization of ligand-macromolecule binding. It is a fluorescence-based technique, in which an infrared laser generates a microscopic temperature gradient in sample capillaries. Protein mobility across a temperature gradient differs following ligand binding due to changes in its surface area, effective charge, and hydration entropy (Wienken, Baaske, Rothbauer, Braun, & Duhr, 2010). As can be seen from Fig. 2A, fluorescently labeled BSA moves from a locally heated region to the outer cold region until a steady-state is reached (up to 30 s). Addition of PCB decreased protein thermophoretic mobility and consequently increased the normalized fluorescence. A K_d value of 0.738 μ M was calculated from the obtained binding curve (Fig. 2B), whereas the binding constant is 1.4×10^6 M⁻¹ ($K_a=1/K_d$), a value comparable to that obtained from the fluorescence experiments.

3.1.3. Addition of BSA changes absorption and CD spectra of PCB

The binding of PCB to proteins was monitored based on changes in chromophore UV/VIS spectra. Remarkably, addition of BSA to the PCB solution induced an instant color change, visible to the naked eye, from blue to green, indicating complex formation (**Fig. 3A**). Absorption spectra confirmed the BSA-induced red shift in the near-UV and VIS spectra of PCB, from 365 to 369 nm and from 602 to 606 nm, respectively (**Fig. 3B**). It was also observed that BSA decreased PCB absorbance across the entire range of the measured values, with the exception of the appearance of a peak ("shoulder") at 405 nm. As yellow chromophores absorb at 405 nm, the appearance of this peak shoulder, together with the contribution of the red shift of

the peak at 602 nm, is responsible for shifting the blue color toward the green observed in the PCB-BSA complex. The ability of BSA to significantly decrease the absorbance of PCB at 365 nm was used to determine the stoichiometry of the BSA-PCB binding complex. The two-phase profile was obtained after spectrophotometric titration of PCB with BSA (**Fig. 3C**). At lower BSA/PCB ratios, the decrease in pigment absorbance was linear, while at higher BSA concentrations a plateau was obtained. Intersection between these two phases at a BSA/PCB ratio of 0.553 yielded 1.81 moles of PCB per mole of BSA, indicating a binding stoichiometry of 2:1 (two moles of PCB per mole of BSA).

In aqueous solutions, free PCB does not show optical activity, due to equilibrium between right-hand (*P*) and left-hand (*M*) conformers. BSA addition induced a negative peak at 376 nm, while a positive peak appeared at 630 nm in the near-UV/VIS CD spectra (**Fig. 3D**). This pattern is called the positive Cotton effect. Similar to UV/VIS spectra, a new (negative) peak (the "shoulder") was observable at 405 nm. In PCB/BSA samples with molar ratio of 2:1 the Cotton effect is markedly higher than in equimolar mixture. In contrast, in samples with 3:1 PCB/BSA molar ratio the observed Cotton effect was only negligible higher in comparison with that of 2:1, confirming two specific, high-affinity binding sites for PCB on BSA (**Fig. 3D**). Increasing the PCB concentration in the mixture decreases the ratio between ellipticities at 376 and 405 nm, suggesting that the two binding sites have different chirooptical properties.

3.1.4. Molecular docking reveals the position of binding sites for PCB on BSA

We conducted a molecular docking study to determine the BSA binding sites for PCB (Fig. 4A). We identified two high-affinity binding sites (Fig. 4B), expanding the obtained

experimental results. The first binding site for PCB (binding score = -9.7 kcal/mol) was identified between protein domains I and III, named the inter-domain cleft (**Figs. 4C** and **S2A**). Several polar and charged amino acid residues (Thr-183, Glu-186, Arg-427, Arg-435) are involved in the formation of salt bridges/hydrogen bonds with the propionic, pyrrole, and lactam groups of PCB, while residue Tyr-451 is involved in π - π stacking interaction. Residues involved in anion/cation- π electrostatic interactions (Arg-435 and Glu-186) may provide additional stabilization of the PCB-BSA complex (**Figs. 4C** and **S3A**). The second PCB binding site is located at the protein IB subdomain (**Figs. 4D** and **S2B**), with a binding score of -9.6 kcal/mol. Three hydrogen bond/salt bridge interactions exist between the backbone of Leu-115 and the lactam ring, Lys-136 and the lactam ring, and Tyr-160 and the propionic group of PCB (**Figs. 4D** and **S3B**).

3.2. Effects of BSA-PCB complex formation

3.2.1. PCB binding increases the thermal stability of BSA

The decrease in BSA ellipticity at 222 nm following heating, as a consequence of α -helical loss, is useful for studying protein stability. Representative melting curves of BSA in the presence and absence of PCB are shown on **Fig. 5A**. Although the shape of the free protein curve is similar to that of BSA-PCB complexes, it can be seen that PCB inhibits BSA unfolding, especially above 60°C. Indeed, the obtained T_m values suggest thermal stabilization of BSA by PCB binding: the T_m value for free BSA was 73.7°C, the T_m for the BSA-PCB 1:1 molar complex was 75.7°C, and the T_m for the BSA-PCB 1:2 molar complex was the highest, 76.2°C.

3.2.2. PCB binding protects BSA from free radical-induced oxidation

Oxidative modification of BSA was monitored by measuring protein intrinsic fluorescence over time. Fluorescence of BSA exponentially decreases upon addition of AAPH, a generator of free (peroxyl) radicals. In the presence of PCB or Trolox the protein fluorescence decay is slower, and an initial lag phase is detectable (**Fig. 5B**), suggesting a protective effect against protein oxidation. Interestingly, PCB showed higher protective effect than Trolox at the same concentration (**Fig. 5B**). In the presence of 1 μ M BSA, the calculated protective effect of 1 μ M PCB was 79.4 a.u., whereas that of 2 μ M PCB was 4.2-fold higher (330.8 a.u.), suggesting non-linear concentration activity dependence.

3.2.3. BSA protects bound PCB from free radical-induced oxidation

To evaluate the protection against PCB oxidation conferred by complexation with BSA, we tested AAPH-induced PCB oxidation without or with BSA at molar ratios of (protein/pigment) 0.5:1, 1:1, and 5:1. During oxidation, free PCB shows a gradual decrease in absorbance maxima at 620 nm and 360 nm, with simultaneous appearance and increase of two new peaks, at 560 nm and 330 nm. As the concentration of oxidant becomes higher, absorption at 560 nm and 330 nm starts to decrease, and with the further oxidation it is nearly abolished, and PCB becomes completely bleached (**Bhat & Madyastha, 2001**). As can be seen in **Fig. 6A**, without AAPH addition PCB maximum at 620 nm is lower due to formation of PCB-BSA complex, in accordance to **Fig. 3B**. However, 10 min after addition of AAPH, maximum of the BSA-PCB complex at 560 nm was higher than the maximum at 620 nm in non-oxidized complex. In contrast, maximum of 10 min oxidized free PCB at 560 nm is of similar intensity as

maximum at 620 nm in non-oxidized free pigment. After 30 min of oxidation (**Fig. 6B**), the 560 nm maximum of the oxidized free PCB is decreased, while it is almost preserved in the BSA-PCB complex. The slower decrease of 560 nm maximum in BSA-PCB samples, in comparison to free PCB, suggests that BSA protects bound PCB from further oxidation.

To gain further insight into the protective effect of BSA we monitored the percentage of initial absorbance at 620 nm after AAPH addition (**Fig. 6C**). The presence of BSA slowed the decrease in the initial absorbance at 620 nm, suggesting that BSA presence delays PCB oxidation. **Fig. 6D** clearly shows that in free PCB, after AAPH addition, a peak at 560 nm appears, reaches its maximal intensity after 500 s, and then decreases as oxidation proceeds, until it becomes bleached. The presence of BSA delays the start of PCB bleaching to 750 s when bound at a ratio of 0.5:1, and to 950 s at a ratio of 1:1. These results suggest that BSA and PCB protect each other from free radical attack.

3.2.4. BSA-PCB complex formation masks antioxidant activities of PCB and BSA

The reducing power assay evaluates the ability of antioxidants to reduce potassium hexacyanoferrate(III) to Fe²⁺ ions, and the resulting increase in the absorbance of the reaction mixture is directly proportional to the reducing power of the compound. BSA exhibited much lower reducing power than the equivalent concentration of PCB, whereas BSA-PCB complexes showed lower reducing power than the sum of the free PCB and free BSA (**Fig. 6E**), indicating that PCB binding masked the antioxidant capacity. The calculated masking effect of the reducing power of BSA-PCB complexes with molar ratios 1:1 and 1:2 was similar, at 19% and 18%, respectively.

PCB shows high activity in the ORAC assay (Minic, et. al., 2016), which measures the capacity of antioxidants to delay peroxyl radical-induced fluorescein degradation. In contrast to the reducing power test, we found that BSA showed higher ORAC values than PCB. Similar to the reducing power test, the sum of the free BSA and free PCB activities was found to be higher than the activity of the corresponding BSA-PCB complex (Fig. 6F). The masking effect of the ORAC values of BSA-PCB complexes was 17% and 13%, for molar ratios of 1:1 and 1:2, respectively.

Discussion

We have shown that the highly bioactive food-derived pigment PCB stereo-selectively binds to BSA with high affinity at a molar stoichiometry of 2:1. PCB binding increased the stability of BSA against thermal denaturation and oxidative damage. Complex formation partly masked the antioxidant potential of PCB and BSA. In addition, BSA protects bound PCB from oxidative degradation.

Significant quenching of the intrinsic fluorescence of BSA by increasing the amount of PCB indicates strong binding interactions between protein and pigment. Indeed, the measured binding constant $(2.3 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1})$ corresponds to that obtained for the HSA-PCB system $(2.2 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1})$ (Minic, et al., 2015). The binding affinity of bilirubin $(5 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1})$ for BSA is also comparable (Chen, Song, He, & Yan, 2007). Further evidence of the binding affinity was obtained from MST experiments. The calculated association constant was slightly lower $(1.4 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1})$, probably because labeling of Lys residues during preparation of BSA samples for MST analysis influenced PCB binding. Synchronous spectra of BSA-PCB complexes did not reveal

shifts in the emission maxima of Trp and Tyr residues to indicate their altered microenvironment upon ligand binding. The same pattern was reported for binding of biliverdin to BSA (Wei, Li, Dong, Shuang, Liu, & Huie, 2006). Strong static quenching of the intrinsic fluorescence of BSA, combined with a much greater contribution of Trp residues in this process, indicates PCB binding near Trp residues of the protein. BSA contains two tryptophan residues: Trp-212 in a hydrophobic binding pocket and Trp-134 on the surface of the molecule (Bujacz, 2012). Our docking study has revealed a high-affinity binding site for PCB on the BSA molecule at subdomain IB in close proximity to the Trp-134 residue, but not in subdomain IIA where Trp-212 is located. Indeed, it appears that binding site at subdomain IIA of BSA is more suitable for binding polyphenolic ligands (Skrt, Benedik, Podlipnik, & Poklar Urlih, 2012).

Rotation around the exocyclic single bond of methine bridges allows PCB to assume various conformations. The cyclic SSS conformation is the most stable, with right-hand (P) and left-hand (M) conformers in equilibrium (Goller, Strehlow, & Hermann, 2001). Binding of PCB to BSA induces optical activity of the pigment, and a positive Cotton effect was observed in the CD spectra of the complexes, suggesting that the P conformer is bound to the protein. In contrast, using a similar approach in a previous study, we found that PCB binds to HSA as the M conformer (Minic, et al., 2015). These differences are not surprising, as previously reported data showed that bilirubin binds to HSA as the P conformer, but to BSA as the M conformer (Goncharova, Orlov, & Urbanova, 2013). Therefore, BSA and HSA have different chiroptical binding properties. Comparison of the near-UV/VIS CD spectra of BSA-PCB complexes at various PCB concentrations showed that saturation of induced ellipticity is reached after addition

of two moles of ligand per mole of protein, indicating two sites for binding of PCB to BSA. Subtle differences in the shape of the CD spectra of BSA-PCB between samples, with one or two moles of PCB per mole of BSA, suggested non-equivalence of these two binding sites.

Addition of BSA to the PCB solutions caused a visible color change, supporting BSA-PCB complex formation. Changes in the PCB spectra may have been induced by changes in chromophore conformation, protonation state, or polarity (**Dietzek, Maksimenka, Hermann, Kiefer, Popp, & Schmitt, 2004; Homoelle & Beck, 1997; Radibratovic, at al., 2016**). Binding of PCB to HSA is followed by a blue shift of the visible spectral band, indicating that bound PCB has a more extended conformation than the free form (**Radibratovic, at al., 2016**). Red shifts of both the UV and VIS maxima of PCB upon BSA addition implied protonation of the basic nitrogen atom of ring B (**Dietzek, et al., 2004**) probably as a consequence of shifting of the pK_a of pyrrole nitrogen to a higher value, due to protein binding. The US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has recently approved C-PC from *Spirulina* as a blue food colorant. As PCB is already in use in some parts of the world as a natural food dye (**Mortensen, 2006**), our results predict that addition of both pigment and BSA (protein in general) to food will alter its color in comparison to protein-free products.

The results of spectrophotometric titration confirmed binding of approximately two moles of PCB per mole of BSA. The computational (docking) analysis revealed two high-affinity sites on BSA for binding of the mono-anionic form of PCB, one at the inter-domain cleft and the second at the subdomain IB. HSA also binds two PCB molecules, but instead of the inter-domain cleft between domains I and III, one of the binding sites is the cavity of subdomain IIA (**Minic**,

et al., 2015). This discrepancy is not surprising. Quantitative estimation of changes in the induced CD showed differences between the binding of natural polyphenol (-)-epigallocatechin gallate to BSA and HSA (Nozaki, Hori, Kimura, Ito, & Hatano, 2009). Subtle differences between the tertiary structures of the two albumins are the most likely explanation for the partial divergence in the binding location of the tetrapyrrole ligand. Indeed, in the crystal structures of HSA (PDB ID: 1BM0, 4K2C, 4LB9, 5IJF, 3JRY) the distance between the Lys-519 (domain III) and Asp-187 (domain I) residues is too small (0.49-1.28 nm) to accommodate PCB in the interdomain cleft, as the Lys-519 residue is oriented toward the cleft (**Fig. S4A**). The corresponding distance in the BSA molecule (PDB ID: 3V03, 4JK4, 4F5S, 4OR0) between Lys-520 (domain III) and Glu-186 (domain I) is several times larger (1.92–2.40 nm), with Lys-520 oriented in the opposite direction, therefore allowing PCB to bind deep in this cleft (Fig. S4B). The PCB binding site at subdomain IB is highly similar to the binding site of 1-hydroxypyrene, a typical polycyclic hydrocarbon metabolite with four aromatic rings (Zhang, Chen, Tang, Zhang, Chen, Duan, et al., 2016), and the binding site at the inter-domain cleft is similar to the binding site of Sudan IV, an azo dye that also contains four aromatic rings (Lu, Zhao, Zhang, Geng, et al., 2011).

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Serum albumins are very stable proteins under physiological conditions. Our CD melting curve data showed that the thermal stability of BSA increases following PCB binding. Previous studies have found that food-derived ligands such as fatty acids (Gumpen, Hegg, & Martens, 1979) or saponins (Ikedo, Shimoyamada, & Watanabe, 1996) could unambiguously induce thermal stabilization of BSA. PCB binding probably stabilized BSA by decreasing protein

flexibility, similar to its thermal stabilization of HSA (**Radibratovic**, at al., 2016). Indeed, it was found that BSA thermal stabilization induced by ligand binding correlates with changes in protein flexibility (**Celej**, et al., 2003).

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Oxidative modifications of serum albumins are responsible for their altered biological properties, including intrinsic antioxidant and binding properties (Oettl & Stauber, 2007). The strong antioxidant capacity of PCB was demonstrated in various model systems (Hirata, Tanaka, Ooike, Tsunomura, & Sakaguchi, 2000; Minic, et al., 2016). Our results indicate that efficient PCB binding inhibits peroxyl radical-induced BSA oxidation, confirming the ability of the chromophore to protect proteins from oxidative stress. The protective effect was estimated to be 4.2-fold higher with saturated binding then when only half of the BSA binding sites were occupied with PCB. The distance between the exposed Trp-134 and PCB is much shorter when ligand is bound at the IB subdomain than at the inter-domain cleft (0.63 nm vs. 2.13 nm, respectively). At a BSA/PCB molar ratio of 1:2, the second binding site is occupied and binding of PCB near Trp increases its ability to protect this residue from oxidation, compared to when only the first binding site is occupied. Taken together, these data indicate that PCB preferentially binds to the site in the cleft, protecting Trp residues, but when it saturates the IB site as well, closer to Trp, it provides more effective protection. This suggests that bound PCB could not only prevent protein oxidation, but also protect albumin-bound fatty acids from free radical oxidation, as shown for HSA-bilirubin complexes (Stocker, Glazer, & Ames, 1987).

Interestingly, the antioxidant capacity of PCB in complex with BSA is apparently lower than the sum of antioxidant capacities of the free pigment and free BSA. We found (Fig. 6) that

the reducing power and ORAC values of BSA-PCB complexes were consistently smaller (up to 20%) than the simple sum of the individual BSA and PCB activities. It is well known that binding of antioxidants to food proteins, including BSA, can mask their antioxidant capacity (Arts, Haenen, Voss, & Bast, 2001; Stojadinovic, et al., 2013) and consequently their *in vivo* activities (Serafini, Ghiselli, & Ferro-Luzzi, 1996). However, the masking effect should not be regarded as a decrease in the antioxidant potential of both complex actors, as proteolysis of BSA during digestion would release free PCB, with full antioxidant potential. The antioxidant activity of free antioxidant, such as quercetin, decreases over time due to degradation, whereas nanoencapsulation of antioxidant into BSA reduced its initial antioxidant activity, due to the masking effect of the protein matrix. However, over time the antioxidant activity of the trapped antioxidants increases due to its protection (Antonio, Khalil, & Mainardes, 2016).

We further demonstrated that the protective effect against free radical-induced oxidation is mutual, e.g. that BSA also protects PCB. Therefore, the results of this study relate to protection of PCB used as a food coloring, and especially as a bioactive component. It has been shown that BSA can substantially protect bound bilirubin from hydroxyl radical attack (Adhikari & Gopinathan, 1996). The binding of β-carotene to BSA efficiently protects the ligand against photo-oxidation, because the excitation energy is dissipated into the protein matrix rather than driving the photochemical reaction (Chang, Cheng, Han, Zhang, & Skibsted, 2016). As PCB is a highly conjugated system, similar to carotenoids and therefore photosensitive, BSA is also expected to protect bound PCB from photooxidation. The mutually protective effect of complexed PCB and BSA against free radical attack, by delay of oxidative

degradation, can be explained by the fact that interacting redox-active species, such as PCB and reactive amino acid resides in the protein, can transfer electrons and/or hydrogen atoms to each other, promoting mutual regeneration.

Conclusions

In this paper, we examined the binding of bioactive PCB from the dietary supplement Spirulina to BSA, using multiple spectroscopic methods and a molecular docking technique. Based on the results of the protein fluorescence quenching study and microscale thermophoresis, high-affinity binding of PCB to BSA was confirmed. Spectrophotometric titration data, supported by a computational (molecular docking) approach, revealed two PCB binding sites on BSA, and CD spectroscopy indicated that the *P* conformer of the pigment binds to the protein. Contrary to HSA, BSA has the ability to accommodate PCB into the inter-domain cleft, together with the IB subdomain. In the second part of this study, the effects of binding on selected protein and ligand features were examined. BSA in complex with PCB was more resistant to thermal denaturation than free protein, and complex formation partly masked the antioxidant properties of bound PCB and BSA. However, when in complex, the ligand and protein showed mutually protective effects against free radical-induced oxidation, reflected in delay of oxidative degradation of both species. In addition, our results indicated subtle differences between binding of PCB with bovine *vs.* human serum albumin.

Delivery and protection of sensitive redox-active health-promoting compounds is an important challenge. Although many biodegradable materials have been developed, BSA is widely used in drug delivery systems due to its easy purification, abundance, low cost, excellent

binding properties, and its wide acceptance in the food and pharmaceutical industries. Similar to other sensitive bioactive ligands, such as polyphenols (**Kumar, Meena, & Rajamani, 2016**), PCB shows potential for encapsulation into BSA-based nanoparticles, to improve PCB stability and protect its activity during prolonged storage. In addition, due to the demonstrated high-affinity binding of PCB to BSA, PCB encapsulated into a BSA matrix could be used as a functional food additive that provides color and as well as bioactivity.

Note: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

The authors are grateful to Dr. Marek Zurawski (NanoTemper Technologies GmbH, Germany) for assistance in obtaining and processing MST data. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia (Grant Number 172024) and FP7 RegPot project FCUB ERA GA No. 256716 supported this work. The EC does not share responsibility for the content of the article.

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Figure captions

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Figure 1. BSA fluorescence quenching by PCB. (A) Emission spectra (excitation at 280 nm) of 584 585 BSA (0.25 µM) in the presence of different concentrations of PCB (0, 0.05, 0.1, 0.15, 0.2, 0.25, 586 0.3, 0.35, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, and 0.8 µM, for curves a to m, respectively). Dot line represents 0.8 µM PCB; (B) Stern-Volmer plots of BSA fluorescence quenched by PCB. Error bars represent 587 the standard deviation (n = 3); Synchronous fluorescence spectra of BSA (0.25 μ M) with (C) $\Delta\lambda$ 588 = 60 nm (Trp) and with (**D**) $\Delta\lambda$ = 15 nm (Tyr) in the presence of increasing concentrations of 589 590 PCB (0–0.8 µM) for curves a to m, respectively. Figure 2. BSA-PCB microscale thermophoresis (MST). (A) MST time traces of fluorescently 591 labeled BSA (1.5 µM) in the presence of different concentrations of PCB (from 3 to 10⁵ nM, for 592 curves a to p, respectively); (B) MST binding curve for PCB interaction with BSA. Error bars 593 594 represent the standard deviation (n = 3). Figure 3. Monitoring of BSA-PCB binding. (A) Color change of concentrated PCB solution 595 upon addition of BSA (150 µM each); (B) Effect of BSA addition (0, 10, 20, and 40 µM, for 596 curves a to d, respectively) on the UV/VIS absorption spectra of 20 µM PCB. Dot line represents 597 40 µM BSA; (C) Determination of binding stoichiometry for BSA-PCB complex by monitoring

extrapolation to determine the intersection point. Error bars represent the standard deviation (n = 600 3); (**D**) Effect of PCB addition (10, 20, and 30 µM, for curves a to c, respectively) on the near 601 UV/VIS CD spectra of 10 µM BSA. The dotted line represents 10 µM PCB in the absence of 602 BSA. 603 Figure 4. Docking of the BSA-PCB complex. (A) Chemical structure of PCB; (B) The ribbon 604 605 model of the BSA protein (PDB ID: 3v03) with labeled subdomains. Bound PCB and Trp 606 residues are shown in purple and red in the space-filling representation, respectively; 2D diagram 607 with labeled interactions of docked PCB to BSA (PDB ID: 3V03) at two proposed binding sites: Inter-domain cleft (C) and subdomain IB (D). 608 Figure 5. Effects of BSA-PCB binding on protein stability. (A) Curves for temperature 609 610 dependence of 0.5 µM BSA ellipticity at 222 nm in the absence and presence of 0.5 and 1 µM PCB; (B) BSA (1 µM) fluorescence decay after addition of the free radical generator AAPH in 611 the absence and presence of PCB (1 or $2 \mu M$) and Trolox ($2 \mu M$). 612 Figure 6. Effects of BSA-PCB binding on ligand stability and antioxidant activity of PCB 613 and BSA. UV/VIS spectra of PCB with/without BSA after 10 min (A) and after 30 min (B) upon 614 AAPH addition (dash lines). The samples without AAPH are shown as solid lines on both 615 graphs: Monitoring of PCB oxidative degradation by AAPH, with and without BSA, as a 616 percentage of the initial absorbance at 620 nm after AAPH addition (C) and formation and 617 disappearance of the peak at 560 nm (**D**); Reducing power (absorbance) of free BSA, free PCB, 618 619 and BSA-PCB complexes (E); ORAC values (TE) of free BSA, free PCB, and BSA-PCB

decreasing PCB absorbance at 365 nm. Points colored in black and blue were used for

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620 complexes (**F**). Error bars represent the standard deviation (n = 3).

Highlights

Phycocyanobilin (PCB) from Spirulina binds to BSA with high affinity at two sites
 PCB stereo-selectively binds at the inter-domain cleft and at subdomain IB
 PCB binding increases the thermal stability of BSA
 PCB and BSA are mutually protective against free radical-induced oxidation
 BSA can serve as a suitable delivery system for PCB