



Research Article

Molecular characterization and functional analysis of scavenger receptor class B from black tiger shrimp (*Penaeus monodon*)

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ABSTRACT

Background: Scavenger receptor class B (SRB) is a multifunctional protein in animals that participates in physiological processes, including recognition of a wide range of ligands. Astaxanthin is a major carotenoid found in shrimp. However, the molecular mechanism of astaxanthin and SRB protein binding has not been reported.

Results: In the present study, a member of the SRB subfamily, named *PmSRB*, was identified from the transcriptome of black tiger shrimp (*Penaeus monodon*). The open reading frame of *PmSRB* was 1557 bp in length and encoded 518 amino acids. The structure of *PmSRB* included a putative transmembrane structure at the N-terminal region and a CD36 domain. Multiple sequence alignment indicated that the CD36 domain were conserved. Phylogenetic analysis showed four separate branches (SRA, SRB, SRC, and croquemort) in the phylogenetic tree and that *PmSRB* was clustered with SRB of *Eriocheir sinensis*. Quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction showed that the *PmSRB* gene was widely expressed in all tissues tested, with the highest expression level observed in the lymphoid organ and brain. Subcellular localization analysis revealed that *PmSRB*-GFP (green fluorescent protein) fusion proteins were predominantly localized in the cell membrane. The recombinant proteins of *PmSRB* showed binding activities against astaxanthin *in vitro*.

Conclusions: *PmSRB* was identified and characterized in this study. It is firstly reported that *PmSRB* may take as an important mediator of astaxanthin uptake in shrimp.

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1. Introduction

Carotenoids are a group of fat-soluble, plant-derived pigment molecules that mostly animals cannot synthesize *de-novo*, and therefore must be obtained exclusively from their diet [1]. In mammals and birds, carotenoids are first released from the food matrix in the gut, solubilized into mixed micelles and absorbed by intestinal mucosal cells [2]. Then, carotenoids were transported in the circulation, and delivered to target tissues (such as retina, epidermal tissue), and finally, in some cases, metabolized [2,3]. In Atlan-

tic salmon *Salmo salar*, carotenoids are ingested in midgut and deposited in flesh [3]. In silkworm *Bombyx mori*, carotenoids are absorbed into the midgut epithelium, transferred to hemolymph lipoprotein, lipophorin, and deposited in the middle silk gland [4]. In crustaceans, carotenoids such as canthaxanthin, lutein or zeaxanthin could be metabolized into astaxanthin in internal organ [5]. However, there has been very little progress on the biochemical pathway of carotenoid metabolism in crustaceans [5]. Carotenoids are highly hydrophobic and therefore require special transport by lipoproteins through plasma (or hemolymph) to tissues for deposition [6]. The process of carotenoids accumulated in the retina is likely supported by zeaxanthin-binding protein [7]. In addition, scavenger receptors (SRs) may recognize carotenoids and facilitate the movement of it into the cell [3].

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Scavenger receptors are a large superfamily of membrane-bound receptors that can bind to and endocytose a vast range of ligands, modified low-density lipoproteins, bacteria, and apoptotic cells [8]. SRs are comprised of a diverse array of integral membrane proteins and soluble secreted extracellular domain isoforms [9]. In recent years, SRs have been classified into 10 eukaryote families (i.e., A–J) based on their structure and biological function [10]. Seven classes, from A to H (excluding C), have been recognized in mammals, whereas only two discrete classes, SRB and SRC, have been characterized in *Drosophila* [11]. Gene products from SRBs contain a central domain of ~400–450 residues that are glycosylated. SRBs have two transmembrane regions located close to the N- and C-terminals, which play regulatory roles in signal transduction and trafficking [9]. In mammals, four SRB members have been identified, including SRB1, SRB2, SRB3, and lysosomal integral membrane protein 2 (LIMP2). SRBs have been implicated as carotenoid transporters in lower species and in various tissues of higher animals [12–15]. In humans, three SRBs (SRB1, SRB2, and CD36) are capable of binding and transporting macular xanthophyll carotenoids [12]. In silkworm *B. mori*, SCRB15 is involved in selective β-carotene movement and Cameo2 (homologous to mammalian SCARB1) can enhance selective lutein transport [13]. In *Drosophila melanogaster*, NinaD (homologous to CD36 and SRB1 in vertebrates) is essential for cellular uptake of carotenoids [16]. In addition, SRB1 is an important mediator of carotenoid-based coloration [3]. For example, genetic variation screening in Atlantic salmon (*S. salar*) identified a novel paralog of SRB1 (i.e., SCARB1) in a region containing a putative quantitative trait locus (QTL) for flesh color [17]. Transcriptome analysis of noble scallop also revealed a novel scavenger receptor (SRB-like-3), which is likely associated with orange scallop carotenoid content. Lei et al. [18] found that SRB may be involved in the absorption of carotenoids in the pearl oyster.

Astaxanthin is a major carotenoid found in a variety of aquatic animals, including crustaceans [19]. Astaxanthin is used as feed additives in shrimp farming to ensure a bright red or pink appearance in crustacean and salmonidae species, with such animals considered to be of higher quality [2,20]. In crustaceans, astaxanthin plays a role in pigmentation, antioxidation, and photoprotection, and is a source of provitamin A [20]. Astaxanthin is reported to be the predominant carotenoid in five commercial shrimp species (*P. monodon*, *Fenneropenaeus chinensis*, *Litopenaeus vannamei*, *Exopalaemon carinicauda* and *Trachypenaeus curvirostris*) [21]. In addition, Zhang et al. [22] found high concentrations of free astaxanthin in a new variety of ridgetail white prawn. However, the mechanisms of carotenoid uptake and transport are not well understood in animals. At present, only a few proteins that can bind to astaxanthin have been reported [23,24]. For example, within the exoskeleton and hypodermal tissue of crustaceans, two crustacyanin (CRCN) proteins are known to bind with two astaxanthin molecules, which then dimerize to form β-crustacyanin [24]. Lower CRCN-A and CRCN-C expression and total astaxanthin levels are found in albino shrimp (*F. merguensis*) than in light or dark shrimp [25]. Lipocalin (a CRCN homologue) knock-down in freshwater shrimp (*Macrobrachium rosenbergii*) results in a body color change from blue to orangish red [26]. Furthermore, lipocalin can bind to astaxanthin *in vitro* [26]. Several SRB genes have been discovered in crustaceans, which play important roles in host defense against microbial pathogens [27,28]. However, the role of SRBs in astaxanthin uptake has not been reported.

P. monodon is an economically important aquacultural species, with a global production of 739,426 tons and output value of \$US5.6 billion [29]. Carotenoid content in *P. monodon* (32.23 mg/kg fresh muscle) is higher than that in *L. vannamei* (2.12 mg/kg) and *F. chinensis* (2.22 mg/kg) [21]. More than 80% of carotenoid content in *P. monodon* muscle is astaxanthin [21]. Astaxanthin is

easily absorbed through the digestive tract and is preferentially deposited in the flesh [30]. However, the molecular mechanism of astaxanthin and protein binding remains poorly understood.

In the present study, the cDNA sequence of the SRB gene (*PmSRB*) in *P. monodon* was cloned and characterized. Sequence alignment was performed, and a phylogenetic tree was constructed. To elucidate *PmSRB* function, we examined mRNA expression profiles in various tissues, investigated the binding ability of *PmSRB* recombinant protein to astaxanthin *in vitro*, and detected its cellular localization. Our results provide some insight into the functions and molecular mechanisms of *PmSRB* in astaxanthin binding. Astaxanthin is an important antioxidant in humans, and target breeding and consumption of shrimp with high astaxanthin content may be of benefit.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Experimental animals

Ten adult tiger shrimp (weight 200 ± 2 g) were purchased from the Huangsha Aquaculture Market, Guangzhou, Guangdong Province, China. The shrimp were cultured in a tank (500 L) with aerated seawater for 3 d before experimental analyses. The temperature and salinity of the sea water were maintained at $26 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ and 3.3‰, respectively. Two-thirds of the seawater was changed every day. The shrimp were fed commercial pellets (Xiaoduokang, HAID, Guangdong, China) until 24 h prior to the experiment. Five healthy shrimp were chosen randomly. Tissue samples, including gill, stomach, muscle, hepatopancreas, brain, lymphoid organ, and intestine, were dissected with sterilized scissors, then collected in sterile tube and stored in liquid nitrogen and frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C until use.

2.2. Total RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis

Total RNA was extracted from tissues using a TRIzol RNA isolation kit (Invitrogen, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Total RNA quality was examined by 1.0% agarose gel electrophoresis and a NanoDrop-2000 (Thermo Fisher, USA). The first strand cDNA synthesis was carried out using 1 µg of total RNA from muscle and a Prime Script II 1st strand cDNA synthesis kit (TaKaRa, Japan). For quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR), total RNA from tissue samples such as muscle, hepatopancreas, brain et al, were used as the template for the RT-reaction based on a PrimeScript™ RT reagent kit with gDNA Eraser (TaKaRa, Japan), respectively.

2.3. Sequence analysis of *PmSRB* cDNA

Full-length cDNA of *PmSRB* was obtained from the transcriptome of *P. monodon* (data not published). Sequence accuracy was confirmed by PCR using a pair of primers SRB-F/R (Table 1). PCR was performed in a 20 µl reaction volume, containing 2 µl $10 \times \text{Ex Taq}$ buffer (Mg²⁺ plus) (TaKaRa), 0.8 µl of each primer (10 µM), 0.2 µl ExTaq (5 U/µl), 1.6 µl dNTP mixture (2.5 mM each), 1.0 µl cDNA, and 13.6 µl ddH₂O. The PCR program was 1 cycle at 95°C for 5 min, 35 cycles at 95°C for 30 s, 60°C for 30 s, and 72°C for 30 s, and finally 1 cycle at 72°C for 5 min. The obtained DNA fragments were purified with SanPrep Column DNA Gel Extraction Kit (Sangon, China), cloned with pMD™ 18-T Vector Cloning Kit (TaKaRa, Japan), and finally sequenced by the dideoxy method of Sanger in Sangon Biotech Company in Shanghai, China.

The similarity between *PmSRB* and other genes was analyzed using the BLAST algorithm in the NCBI database (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast/>). The ORF Finder (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/orf/>)

Table 1
Primers used in this research.

Primer	Sequence (5'→3')	Purpose	Product size (bp)
SRB-F	ATGCGCAGAATACAGTGTGC	cDNA cloning	1557
SRB-R	TCATGCTGCATCTTTATCCC	cDNA cloning	
qSRB-1-F	GTGTAGGAGGTCCACCATGC	qRT-PCR	144
qSRB-1-R	GGTCTGGCTTCATTCCGACA	qRT-PCR	
EF-1 α -F	AAGCCAGGTATGGTTGTCAACTTT	qRT-PCR	73
EF-1 α -R	CGTGGTGCATCTCCACAGACT	qRT-PCR	
O-SRB-F	CGCGGATCCgaattcGATTTTATCAACCAATCAT	Recombinant protein expression	1233
O-SRB-R	TGCGGCCGCaagcttTTTGTACCTCTGGTACAT	Recombinant protein expression	
GFP-SRB-F	CTCGAGCTCaagcttATGCGCAGAATACAGTGTGC	Subcellular location	1554
GFP-SRB-R	GCGACCGTggatccCGTGTGCATCTTTATCCCCGT	Subcellular location	

Note: Lower case letters represent restriction enzyme sites. F, forward; R, reverse.

nih.gov/gorf/gorf.html) and Translate programs (<http://web.expasy.org/translate>) were used to obtain the open reading frames (ORFs) and to predict the coding protein sequence, respectively. The physical and chemical properties of proteins were predicted by ProtParam (<http://web.expasy.org/protparam/>). SMART (<http://smart.embl-heidelberg.de/smart/>) was used for analysis of the functional domains of the deduced protein sequences. TMHMM (<http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TMHMM-2.0/>) and SignalP (<http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/SignalP/>) were used to predict the transmembrane structure and signal peptide of the deduced protein, respectively. Potential N-linked glycosylation sites were predicted according to the Asn-X-Ser/Thr rule (<http://cbs.dtu.dk/services/NetNGlyc/>). Multiplex sequence alignment was performed using Clustalw2 software. A phylogenetic tree was created with MEGA 6.06 based on amino acid sequence alignments using the neighbor-joining (NJ) algorithm, with branching reliability evaluated by the bootstrap method with 1000 pseudoreplicates.

2.4. Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR)

The relative expression levels of *PmSRB* in different tissues were analyzed using qRT-PCR. cDNA was diluted to 1:10 with ddH₂O and stored at −20°C. Specific primers were designed using the *PmSRB* cDNA sequence, and elongation factor-1 α (*EF-1 α*) (GenBank No. DQ021452.1) was selected as the reference gene [24] (Table 1). qRT-PCR was conducted using the LightCycler[®] 480II RT-PCR System (Roche, America). PCR was performed in a 13- μ L reaction volume, containing 6.5 μ L of 2 \times TB Green Premix Ex Taq (Tli RNaseH Plus) (TaKaRa, Japan), 0.5 μ L of each primer (10 μ M), 1.0 μ L of cDNA, and 4.5 μ L of RNase-free water. The PCR cycling program consisted of denaturation at 95°C for 30 s, 40 cycles at 95°C for 5 s and 60°C for 40 s. To assess the specificity of the PCR amplification, a melting curve step (95°C for 1 s, 60°C for 20 s and 95°C for 1 s) was obtained at the end of the reaction, and a single peak was observed. Each assay was performed in triplicate. The qRT-PCRs were repeated in a minimum of three independent experiments. The comparative C_T method (2^{− $\Delta\Delta$ CT}) was used to analyze relative expression levels [31]. The amplification efficiencies of the target and reference genes were verified and found to be approximately equal.

2.5. Recombinant expression and purification of CD36 domain of *PmSRB*

The fragment encoding the CD36 domain was amplified with primers O-SRB-F and O-SRB-R (Table 1). PCR was performed in a 20 μ L reaction volume, containing 2 μ L 10 \times Ex Taq buffer (Mg²⁺ plus) (TaKaRa, Japan), 0.8 μ L of each primer (10 μ M), 0.2 μ L ExTaq (5 U/ μ L), 1.6 μ L dNTP mixture (2.5 mM each), 1.0 μ L cDNA, and 13.6 μ L ddH₂O. The PCR program was 1 cycle at 95°C for 5 min, 35 cycles at 95°C for 30 s, 56°C for 30 s, and 72°C for 1 min, and

finally 1 cycle at 72°C for 7 min. For the convenience of cloning, an *Eco*R I site was added to the 5' end of primer O-SRB-F and a *Bam*H I site was added to the 5' end of primer and then inserted into the same restriction enzyme sites of expression vector pET-28a (Invitrogen, USA). The recombinant plasmid (pET-28a-PmSRB) was transformed into *Escherichia coli* Rosetta (DE3) (TransGen, China), and the positive clones were collected and sequenced.

The positive transformants were incubated overnight (37°C, 200 rpm) in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium (50 μ g/mL kanamycin). An aliquot of the culture (400 μ L) was transferred to 40 mL of fresh LB medium. When the OD₆₀₀ of the culture reached 0.6, isopropyl β -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) was added to the LB medium at a final concentration of 0.1 mmol/L for 8 h (30°C, 130 rpm). Bacteria were harvested by centrifugation at 10,000 g for 10 min at room temperature. The resulting cell pellet was resuspended in NTA-0 (12.11 g Tris base, 146.1 g NaCl, 500 mL glycerinum, 6 mL concentrated hydrochloric acid, added ddH₂O to final volume 5 L), followed by the addition of lysozyme (10 mg/ml) on ice for 30 min. After breaking by ultrasound, the bacterial lysate was centrifuged at 16,000 rpm for 50 min at room temperature.

The sediment was suspended in STET buffer (100 mM Sodium Chloride; 10 mM Tris-HCl; 1 mM EDTA; and 5% Triton X-100), with dithiothreitol (DTT) then added at a final concentration of 1 mmol/L. The solution was broken by ultrasound and centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. The sediment was suspended in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). After again breaking by ultrasound and centrifugation at 10,000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C, the sediment was suspended in 3 mL of guanidine hydrochloride, with DTT added at a final concentration of 5 mmol/L. The inclusion body was dissolved by shaking at 10,000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C and then diluted with guanidine hydrochloride (3 M). This solution was added by drops and then stirred into refolding buffer (40 mL, 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0 containing 0.15 M NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.5 M L-arginine, 2 mM reduced glutathione, 1 mM oxidized glutathione, and 5% (v/v) glycerol) for 24 h. The resulting solution was dialyzed against a TE buffer and then concentrated using polyethylene glycol (PEG) 20,000 to 10–20 mL. All procedures were performed at 4°C. The recombinant PmSRB (rPmSRB) protein was purified using a Ni-NTA Sepharose column (Invitrogen, USA). The resulting concentrations of the PmSRB protein were measured using a modified BCA protein assay kit (Sangon Biotech, China). The purified recombinant proteins were stored at −80°C for subsequent experiments.

2.6. Western blotting analysis to detect *PmSRB* protein

In western blot analysis, rPmSRB was separated by SDS-PAGE (15% separation gel and 5% concentrated gel) and electrophoretically transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes. The membranes were blocked by incubation in 5% skim milk powder solution at 37°C for 2 h. After washing in PBST (0.05% Tween 20 in PBS) three

bility of the transmembrane region appearing in the C-terminal was above 70%. The CD36 domain, a characteristic domain of the SRB protein family, was observed from the N-terminal region to C-terminal region (14–429 aa) of PmSRB. In addition, six Asn-Xaa-Ser/Thr sequons and four predicted N-linked glycosylation sites were detected in the amino acid sequence of PmSRB (Fig. 1). The NCBI BLASTP program revealed that the predicted amino acid sequence showed a homology match with a variety of SRBs previously registered to GenBank. BLASTP analysis of PmSRB showed 61% and 34% identity with *Eriocheir sinensis* SRB (GenBank No. AUM57516.1) and *Homo sapiens* SRB (GenBank No. NP_001076428.1), respectively. Multiple sequence alignment showed that all 41 single conserved residues (denoted as “*”) and 92.65% strong conserved residues (denoted as “:”) were found in the CD36 domain (Fig. 2). Three N-linked glycosylation sites (the 67th, 104th and 209th amino acid in PmSRB protein sequence) located in CD36 domain were conserved and shaded in yellow (Fig. 2). These results show that CD36 domain is conserved.



Fig. 2. Multiple alignment of PmSRB amino acid sequences with those of SRB from other species. Accession numbers of SRB genes from GenBank are as follows: RnSRB (*Rattus norvegicus* BAA14004.1); PmSRB (*Penaeus monodon* MN298530); EsSRB (*Eriocheir sinensis* AUM57516.1); SiSRB (*Solenopsis invicta* XP_025994337.1); SsSRB (*Salmo salar* NP_001117084.1); PtSRB (*Portunus trituberculatus* AMY96569.1); PpSRB (*Penaeus penicillatus* QCQ82556.1); SpSRB (*Scylla paramamosain* SKB10748.3); MmSRB (*Mus musculus* XP_017176253.1); DrSRB (*Danio rerio* XP_017213429.1); PjSRB (*Penaeus japonicus* BAJ10664.1); BmSRB (*Bombyx mori* NP_001164650.1); CcSRB (*Cyprinus carpio* QFZ79187.1); CD36 domain is represented with an underline. Three conserved N-linked glycosylation sites are shaded in yellow. Markers “*”, “:”, and “.” indicate positions with single, strong, or weakly conserved residues, respectively.

A phylogenetic tree was constructed using the deduced amino acid sequences of SRA, SRB, SRC, and croquemort in invertebrates and vertebrates (Fig. 3). The amino acid sequences from different species were clustered into four separate branches (i.e., SRA, SRB, SRC, and croquemort). Furthermore, based on the phylogenetic tree, the PmSRB and *E. sinensis* SRB protein showed a close relationship.

3.2. Tissue expression of PmSRB transcripts

The tissue distribution pattern of PmSRB mRNA is shown in Fig. 4. The qRT-PCR results indicated that the PmSRB gene was expressed in all examined tissues, with relatively high levels observed in the lymphoid organ and brain and relatively low levels detected in the gill, muscle, hepatopancreas, stomach, and intestines (Fig. 4). The expression of PmSRB in lymphoid organ was 20-fold of that in the muscle, 23-fold, 82-fold, 130-fold and 138-fold of that in the hepatopancreas, stomach, gill and intestine, respectively. The expression of PmSRB in brain was 18-fold of that in the muscle, 20-fold, 72-fold, 114-fold and 121-fold of that in the hepatopancreas, stomach, gill and intestine, respectively.

3.3. PmSRB localization in cell membrane

Subcellular localization of PmSRB was investigated by green fluorescent protein (GFP) fusion protein expression in HEK293T cells. In the PmSRB-GFP fusion protein-transfected HEK293T cells, green fluorescence signals were predominantly observed in the cell membrane (Fig. 5, upper row). In the pEGFP-N1-transfected cells, fluorescence signals were primarily observed in the cytoplasm and nucleus (Fig. 5, lower row).

3.4. Expression, purification, and western blotting of rPmSRB protein

The CD36 domain of PmSRB was expressed in *E. coli* Rosetta with the pET28a system. The recombinant expressed protein was induced by IPTG and detected by 15% SDS-PAGE and western blot analysis. In contrast to non-induced *E. coli* (Fig. 6, lane 2), a thick band (Fig. 6, lane 1) was observed at the molecular weight of 49 kDa, indicating that rPmSRB was expressed successfully. rPmSRB was detected in the inclusion body (Fig. 6, lane 4), but not in the supernatant (Fig. 6, lane 3). rPmSRB was purified (Fig. 6, lane 5). Through stepwise dialyses, rPmSRB was refolded and obtained successfully (Fig. 6, lane 6). Western blot analysis showed that one specific target protein (Fig. 6, lane 7), which showed that it was consistent with the predicted molecular mass.

3.5. In vitro ligand binding assay

The rPmSRB was incubated with astaxanthin, with the resulting complex then analyzed by HPLC. Results showed that rPmSRB was specifically associated with astaxanthin (Fig. 7). The astaxanthin peak was observed at 7.42 s in each group. In the astaxanthin standard group, the peak area was 1717.4 and the peak height was 90.7 mAU. In the rPmSRB-astaxanthin complex group, the peak area and the concentration of astaxanthin and rPmSRB, 1 mol of PmSRB could bind to 0.48 mol of astaxanthin.

4. Discussion

SRBs are type III transmembrane receptors, which consist of a transmembrane region, CD36 domain, and cytoplasmic tail [8]. SRBs participate in the recognition of a broad range of polyanionic ligands, including those found in high/low-density lipoproteins,

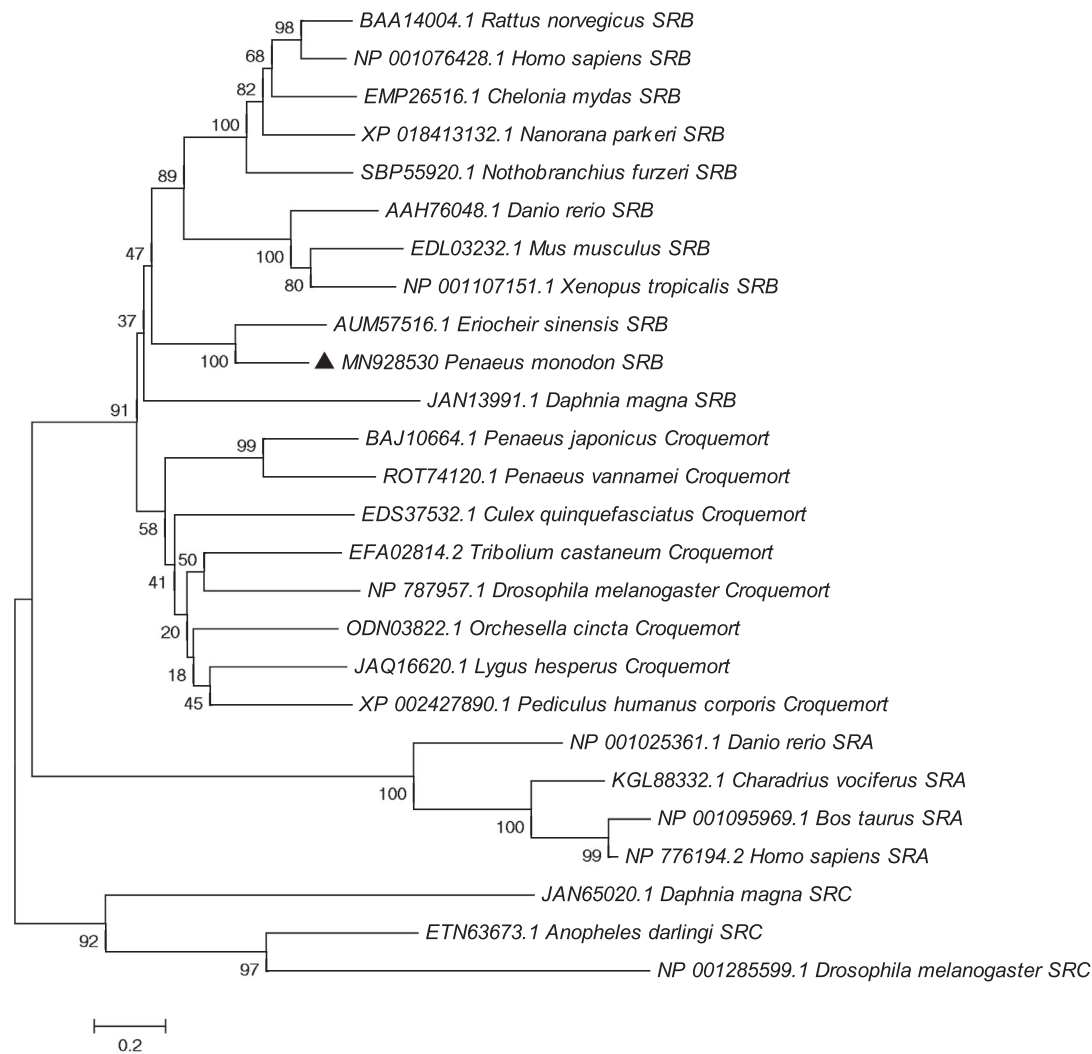


Fig. 3. Phylogenetic tree of SR proteins. SRB, SRA, SRC, and Croquemort molecules from various species were included for phylogenetic analysis. The black triangle (▲) indicates *Penaeus monodon* SRB.

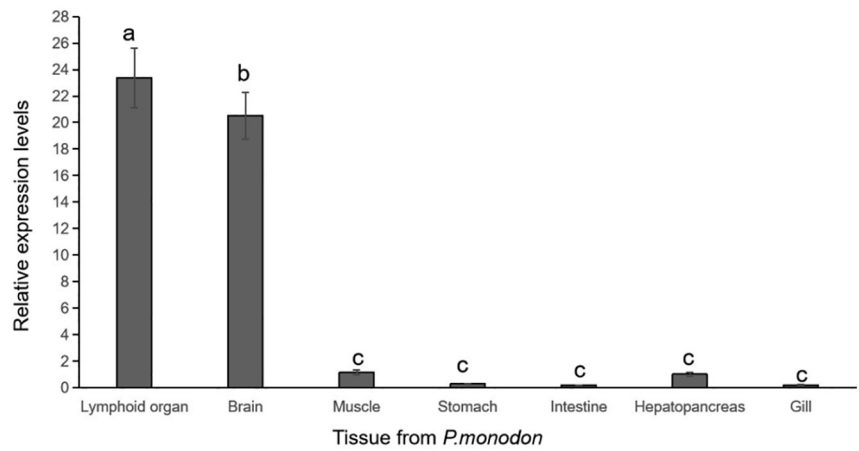


Fig. 4. Expression of *PmSRB* mRNA in different tissues of *P. monodon*. Significant differences are indicated by different letters ($P < 0.05$). Error bars correspond to mean + SE ($n = 5$).

bacteria, and apoptotic cells [12,32]. In this study, a novel SRB with the ability to bind to astaxanthin was cloned and characterized from *P. monodon*. As found in other SRBs from *Drosophila*, humans, birds, fish, and crustaceans, a CD36 domain was also predicted in the *PmSRB* protein [9,14,16,17,27,28]. Multiple sequence alignment showed that the CD36 domains of SRB are conserved in a

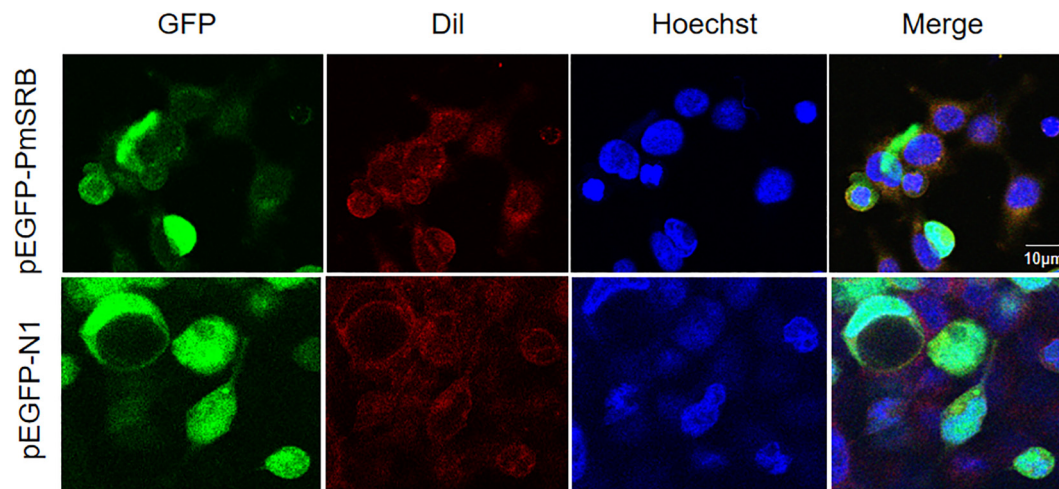


Fig. 5. Subcellular localization of PmSRB in HEK293T cells. Intracellular localization of PmSRB by fluorescence microscopy, 293T cells were transfected with pEGFP-PmSRB (upper row) or pEGFP-N1 (lower row). Localization of nucleus and cytomembrane are shown via Hoechst and Dil staining, respectively.

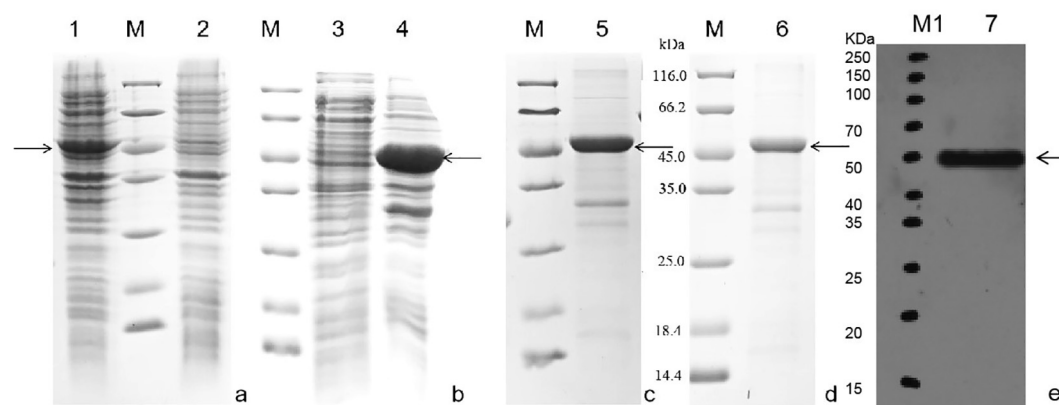


Fig. 6. Expression, purification and western blot analysis of rPmSRB protein. (a) Recombinant expressed protein from *E. coli*. (b) Induced rPmSRB proteins were released from *E. coli* by sonication. (c) Purified rPmSRB proteins from inclusion body. (d) SDS-PAGE of refolded rPmSRB. (e) Western blotting analysis of purified rPmSRB. Lane 1, induced cell-transformed recombinant of PmSRB; lane 2, non-induced cell-transformed recombinant of PmSRB; lane 3, proteins in supernatant; lane 4, proteins in inclusion body; lane 5, purified rPmSRB; lane 6, rPmSRB after renaturation; lane 7, purified rPmSRB with a 6 × His tag; lane M (26610, Thermo Scientific, USA) and M1 (P12103, helix, China) are the molecular mass standard. rPmSRB is indicated by arrow.

variety of species (Fig. 2), which suggested CD36 domain may play an important role in the long evolutionary process. Generally, the CD36 domain is responsible for ligand binding [8]. In mammals, the amino-terminus of CD36 is substantially shorter than the carboxyl-terminal tail, which is thought to be the site of signal transduction [33]. The presence of a putative CD36 domain in PmSRB suggests that it could act as a scavenger receptor to bind ligands. N-glycosylation consensus sites (e.g., Asn-Xaa-Ser/Thr) are another common feature of scavenger receptor family genes.

The number of N-linked glycosylation sites is various in varied species. In mammal, turtle, chicken and fish, 6–11 N-linked glycosylation sites were detected [34,35]. 7 and 9 N-linked glycosylation sites were detected in crab *Portunus trituberculatus* and sea cucumber *Apostichopus japonicus* [36,37], respectively. In this study, four N-linked glycosylation sites were detected in PmSRB. N-glycosylation is a common post-translational modification that mediates protein synthesis, metabolism and function [38]. N-linked glycosylation in SRB can influence the intracellular transport and lipid-transporter activity. When two N-linked glycosylation sites (Asn-108 or Asn-173) in SR-BI of murine were mutated, the protein failed to locate to the plasma membrane and has a marked reduction in the ability to transfer lipid from HDL to cells [39]. In

human CD36, glycosylation is necessary for trafficking to the plasma membrane [40]. However, no individual site was found to be necessary for surface expression and ligand binding. The double mutant (N102Q-N143Q and N143Q-N184Q) of N-glycosylation in human SR-AI decrease its activity on oligomeric amyloid- β peptide internalization [41]. It is unclear whether N-linked glycosylation site in PmSRB could influence the ability to bind astaxanthin. Further experimental work will be required to test.

In the current study, two transmembrane domains located in the N- and C-terminals have been reported in many CD36 family proteins from varied species. However, the existence of the N-terminal transmembrane region has been a matter of debate [42]. Some SRB1 proteins are similarly predicted to have single- or double-pass transmembrane structures at various ratios [4]. For example, the predicted rates for the existence of two or one transmembrane domains in the human SRB1 protein are 32% and 68%, respectively. In contrast, the predicted rates of two or one transmembrane domains in the mouse SRB1 protein are 35% and 65%, respectively. In addition, the cytoplasmic C-terminus and C-terminal trans-membrane region of human CD36 protein may be lacked because of some mutations (T1264G and G1439C), which may influence susceptibility to mild malaria cases [43]. In this

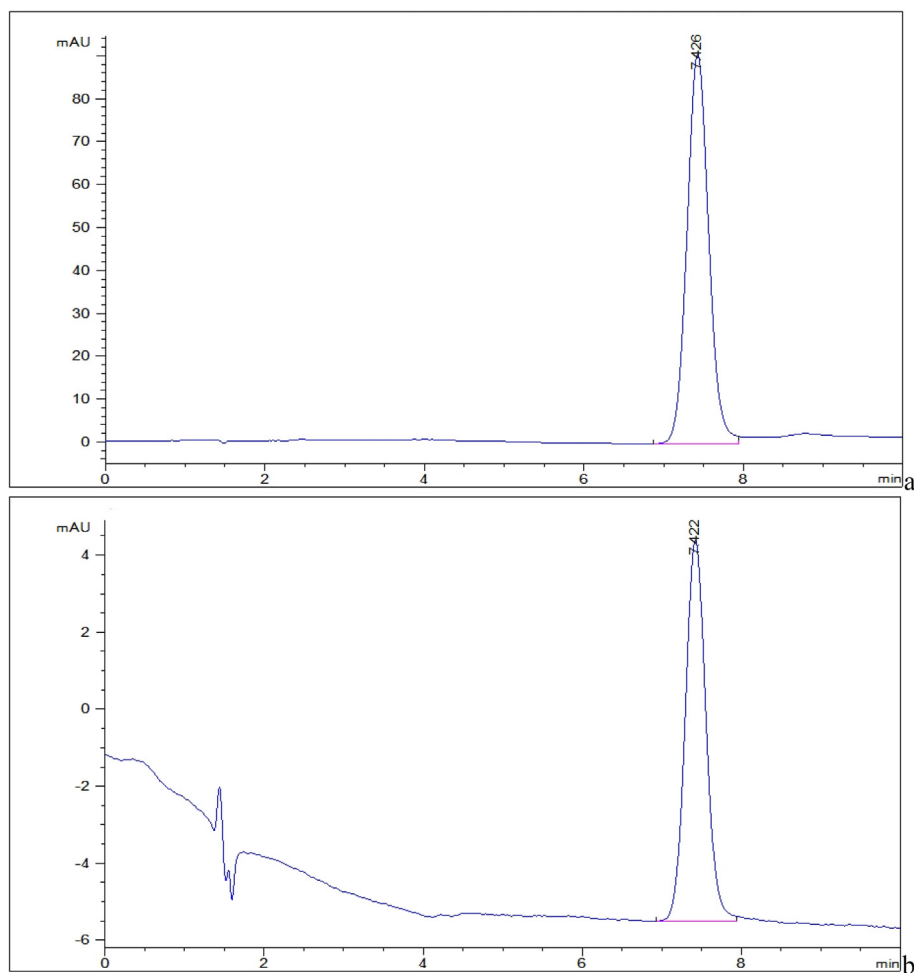


Fig. 7. *In vitro* ligand binding assay of PmSRB. a. Astaxanthin standard; b. As-rPmSRB complex.

study, only one transmembrane region located at the N-terminal was predicted for PmSRB. However, another two SRBs, screened from the transcriptome of *P. monodon* in our lab, demonstrated the existence of two transmembrane domains. In *L. vannamei*, two croquemort gene (named *Lvcroquemort* and *Lvcroquemort-S1*) were identified and characterized [44]. The *Lvcroquemort-S1* loses the cytoplasmic C-terminus and C-terminal trans-membrane region [44]. However, the expression of *Lvcroquemort-S1* post immune challenge was increased [44]. It is unclear whether the loss of C-terminal transmembrane region could influence the role of *Lvcroquemort-S1* [44].

Based on the SR proteins (SRA, SRB, SRC, and croquemort) and their homologues from many species, we constructed a phylogenetic tree. Results showed that all species belonging to the same class were clustered together. Thus, the phylogenetic tree relationships corresponded to the taxonomic classifications. PmSRB belongs to a subgroup of SRBs. Here, *PmSRB* mRNA was expressed at a high level in the brain and lymphoid organ. Previous studies have also found SRB to be highly expressed in the brains of mammals, fish, and kuruma shrimp [35,44,45]. SRBs are expressed by astrocytes and vascular smooth muscle cells in normal adult mouse and human brains, suggesting that SRBs may mediate interactions between astrocytes or smooth muscle cells and fibrillar beta-amyloid protein [45]. Neurons and glia are enriched in normal brains. Both express SRBs to bind to lipoproteins, such as apoE [46]. SR-B1, which is regulated by hormonal and nutritional stimuli in murine brains [47]. However, the function of SRBs in shrimp

remains unclear, although previous studies have indicated that SRBs may be involved in the innate immune system in crustaceans [27]. In this study, similarly, PmSRB was highly expressed in the lymphoid organ, which is a major site for the elimination of pathogens in shrimp [48].

SRBs and related homologs have been implicated as mediators of carotenoid uptake in fruit flies (*D. melanogaster*), silkworms (*B. mori*), birds (*Serinus canaria*), mice, and humans [13,14,16,49,50]. Mutation of a single nucleotide in canary SRB1 results in the recessive white phenotype [14]. In *Drosophila*, mutation of SRB1 can hinder cellular uptake of carotenoids, resulting in blindness [16]. In addition, feeding experiments on silkworm larvae have indicated that Cameo2 (a CD36 family member) has specificity for astaxanthin binding [13]. However, whether SRB can bind to astaxanthin is not fully clear. Previous study on Atlantic salmon identified a novel paralog of SRB1 (i.e., SCARB1) in a region containing a putative QTL for flesh color [17]. However, the functional role for SCARB1 in pigmentation remains unknown. In this study, binding assay and HPLC analysis confirmed that PmSRB can bind to astaxanthin *in vitro*, suggesting that PmSRB may be an important mediator of astaxanthin uptake in shrimp. When astaxanthin binds with protein, its absorbance or peak value will be changed. To date, only a few studies have reported on protein and astaxanthin binding in shrimp. For example, Yang et al. [26] incubated a recombinant lipocalin protein from *M. rosenbergii* with astaxanthin and found that 1 mol of lipocalin could bind to 0.29 mol of astaxanthin. In the current study, the astaxanthin to PmSRB binding ratio was 1:0.48.

However, this does not mean that the binding capacity of SRB is stronger than that of lipocalin. Non-properly folded recombinant proteins cannot bind to astaxanthin, which can influence the binding ratio. Ferrari et al. [51] obtained and incubated two recombinant proteins of crustacyanin subunits H1 and H2 from the American lobster (*Homarus americanus*) with astaxanthin, then analyzed the protein solutions for absorption spectra. Their results indicated that H1 and H2 with astaxanthin replicated the 85–95-nm bathochromic shift found in *H. gammarus* crustacyanin subunits in complex with astaxanthin. In Atlantic salmon, purified α -actinin protein can bind to astaxanthin at a molar ratio of 1.11:1.00 [52]. Though these reports suggest a binding ability of protein to astaxanthin, further study is required to determine details such as binding sites, spatial structures, and binding conditions.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, in the present study, *PmSRB* was identified and characterized in *P. monodon*. Transcription levels showed that *PmSRB* was highly expressed in the brain and lymphoid organ. The *PmSRB* protein was purified and could bind to astaxanthin *in vitro*. Furthermore, *PmSRB* was found in the cell membrane. However, the roles of *PmSRB* are not fully known and thus further investigations are required.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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