

# Matrix metalloproteinases outside vertebrates

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## ABSTRACT

The matrix metalloproteinase (MMP) family belongs to the metzincin clan of zinc-dependent metalloproteinases. Due to their enormous implications in physiology and disease, MMPs have mainly been studied in vertebrates. They are engaged in extracellular protein processing and degradation, and present extensive paralogy, with 23 forms in humans. One characteristic of MMPs is a ~165-residue catalytic domain (CD), which has been structurally studied for 14 MMPs from human, mouse, rat, pig and the oral-microbiome bacterium *Tannerella forsythia*. These studies revealed close overall coincidence and characteristic structural features, which distinguish MMPs from other metzincins and give rise to a sequence pattern for their identification. Here, we reviewed the literature available on MMPs outside vertebrates and performed database searches for potential MMP CDs in invertebrates, plants, fungi, viruses, protists, archaea and bacteria. These and previous results revealed that MMPs are widely present in several copies in Eumetazoa and higher plants (*Tracheophyta*), but have just token presence in eukaryotic algae. A few dozen sequences were found in *Ascomycota* (within fungi) and in double-stranded DNA viruses infecting invertebrates (within viruses). In contrast, a few hundred sequences were found in archaea and >1000 in bacteria, with several copies for some species. Most of the archaeal and bacterial phyla containing potential MMPs are present in human oral and gut microbiomes. Overall, MMP-like sequences are present across all kingdoms of life, but their asymmetric distribution contradicts the vertical descent model from a eubacterial or archaeal ancestor.

**Keywords:** zinc metalloproteinase; metzincin; MMP; invertebrates; catalytic domain; structure-based sequence motif

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**1. Molecular characteristics of matrix metalloproteinases** — The matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) are a widespread family of zinc-dependent metalloproteinases (MPs), which either broadly degrade extracellular matrix components or selectively activate or inactivate other proteins through limited proteolysis [1-3]. MMPs were discovered in 1962 as an active principle in frog metamorphosis [4], and they contain a central zinc-dependent catalytic domain (CD) of ~165 residues, which is mostly furnished at its N-terminus with a ~20-residue signal peptide for secretion and an ~80-residue zymogenic pro-domain (PD). Some MMPs possess a "furin recognition motif" (R-X-R/K-R; [5]) for proteolytic activation between the PD and the CD. Into this minimal configuration, distinct MMPs have inserted extra segments and domains, such as fibronectin-type-II inserts within the CD and C-terminal unstructured linker regions, ~200-residue hemopexin domains (HDs) and other domains, as well as glycosyl phosphatidylinositol (GPI) anchors and transmembrane segments [1, 3, 6]. Overall, this variability divides human MMPs into subfamilies: archetypal MMPs, gelatinases, matrilysins and furin-activatable MMPs, which include membrane-type MMPs [6, 7].

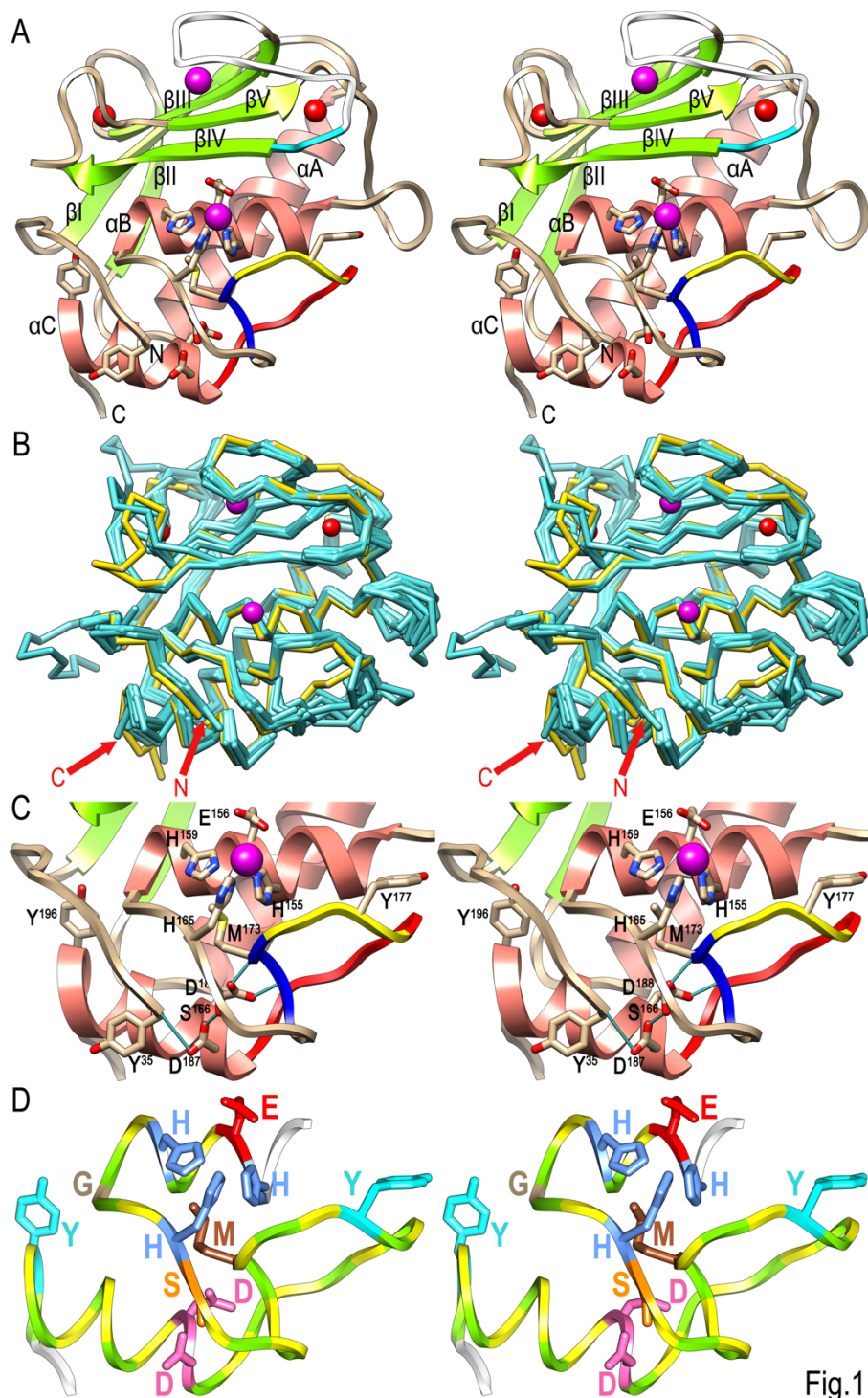
MMPs belong to the metzincin clan of MPs, which currently comprises twelve structurally characterized families with common features [8-12]. However, this structural similarity is not reflected at sequence level, because

pairwise identities are typically <20%, which is below the twilight zone of relevant sequence similarity (25–35%; [13]). Overall, metzincins share a globular CD of ~130–270 residues, which is split into a structurally conserved N-terminal sub-domain (NTS) and a diverging C-terminal sub-domain (CTS) by a horizontal active-site cleft. This cleft contains the catalytic zinc ion and accommodates protein or peptide substrates for catalysis (Figure 1A). NTSs contain a mostly five-stranded  $\beta$ -sheet, whose strands ( $\beta$ I– $\beta$ V) parallel the active-site cleft. The lowermost strand  $\beta$ IV shapes the upper rim of the cleft and runs antiparallel to the other strands and to a bound substrate, thus establishing inter-main-chain interactions to fix it. NTSs also possess a "backing helix" ( $\alpha$ A) with structural functions and an "active-site helix" ( $\alpha$ B) with an extended "zinc-binding motif", **H-E-X-X-H-X-X-G/N-X-X-H/D- $\Phi$** . This motif includes the general base/acid glutamate required for catalysis and three metal-binding protein residues (in **bold**), as well as a "family-specific residue" ( $\Phi$ ; [8-10]). Some families further comprise an additional "adamalysin helix", which was first identified in the adamalysin/ADAM family [12, 14]. In contrast to this structural conservation, CTSs largely deviate in length and structure but share the "Met-turn" [15], a loop with a methionine placed just below the catalytic zinc, and a "C-terminal helix" ( $\alpha$ C) that terminates the CD. Into this common minimal scaffold, specific molecular elements decorate each metzincin family in the form of loops, ion-binding sites, additional regular secondary structure elements, extra domains, etc. [8-12].

To date, structural studies on MMP CDs are restricted to mammals (human, mouse, rat and pig), with the notable exception of bacterial karilysin ([12]; see also Section 6). These structures revealed that MMPs are very similar (Figure 1B), have much longer NTSs (~127 residues) than CTSs (~37 residues), and include an "S-shaped double loop", which connects the third and fourth strands of the NTS  $\beta$ -sheet (Figure 1A). This loop binds essential structural zinc and calcium cations, after which the polypeptide forms a prominent bulge ("bulge-edge segment") that protrudes into the active-site groove and assists in substrate specificity. A further hallmark of MMPs is a second calcium site within the NTS and that the family-specific residue is a serine or threonine [3, 10]. This residue makes a strong hydrogen bond between side chains with the first of two consecutive aspartates at the beginning of helix  $\alpha$ C (Figure 1C). This aspartate is also engaged in fixing the N-terminus of the mature CD upon proteolytic activation. In turn, the second aspartate participates in a double electrostatic interaction with main-chain atoms of the Met-turn (Figure 1A,C). This intricate electrostatic network is structured around the "connecting segment", which links the third zinc-binding histidine with the Met-turn methionine and spans only seven residues; thus, it is the shortest of the metzincins [10]. Further typical of MMPs are two tyrosines, respectively four positions downstream of the Met-turn methionine and featuring the penultimate residue of the CD. Finally, the Met-turn and helix  $\alpha$ C are connected by a loop subdivided into the "S<sub>1</sub>'-wall-forming segment" and the downstream "specificity loop" (Figure 1A). Taken together, all these characteristic structural features yield an extended sequence pattern, H-E-2X-H-2X-G-2X-H-S/T-6X-M-3X-Y-9X-D-D-7X-Y-X (Figure 1D), which distinguishes the C-terminal segment of MMP CDs from other metzincin families and MPs in general [12].

In addition to the CD, a further hallmark of MMPs is that latency is maintained through the PD [3], which together with transcriptional regulation and dedicated protein inhibitors regulates physiological MMP activity [16]. In most MMPs, zymogenicity is exerted by a "cysteine-switch" mechanism centered on a cysteine within a consensus motif at the end of the PD, P-R-C-G-X-P-D [17], which is found in all human MMPs except MMP-23B. Structurally, the polypeptide chain spanning these residues shields the active-site cleft by adopting a U-shaped conformation mediated by a double salt bridge between the arginine-aspartate pair and by the glycine, whose missing side chain prevents collision with upper-rim strand  $\beta$ IV [3]. In addition, the cysteine S<sub>γ</sub> atom coordinates and thus blocks the catalytic zinc (see Fig. 3B in [3]). MMP activation entails PD removal to free access to the cleft.

**2. Matrix metalloproteinases in invertebrates** — MMPs have been extensively studied in vertebrates, particularly in mammals, due to their widespread implications in human health and disease [6, 16, 18, 19]. However, they are also widely present in invertebrates, where they participate in tissue turnover processes such as dendritic remodeling, regeneration, tracheal growth, axon guidance, histolysis and matrix degradation during hatching. They also participate in cancer processes [20]. Studied organisms belong to the phyla Arthropoda, including insects (dipterans, lepidopterans, hymenopterans and coleopterans) and crustaceans; Echinoderma, including sea urchins and sea cucumbers; Mollusca, including mussels and snails; Nematoda, Annelida and Planaria; invertebrate Chordata, including sea squirt and lancelet; and Cnidaria, including hydra and jellyfish (see Table 1). In addition, we found MMP-like sequences in the genomes of organisms as primitive as starlet sea anemone (*Nematostella vectensis*; UniProt database [www.uniprot.org] access code [UP] A7RJ22), which is also from the phylum Cnidaria, and sea gooseberry (*Pleurobrachia pileus*; GenBank database [www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank] access code [GB] FQ005948) from the phylum Ctenophora, i.e. MMPs are present across the subkingdom Eumetazoa. In contrast, MMPs are apparently absent from the genomes of the sponge *Amphimedon queenslandica* (phylum Porifera; [21]) and of *Trichoplax adherens* (phylum Placozoa; [22]), which belong to the basalmost clades of metazoans.



**Figure 1 — MMP catalytic domain structure.** (A) Cross-eye stereographic Richardson-plot of the catalytic domain of *T. forsythia* karilysin (Y<sup>35</sup>-P<sup>200</sup>; PDB 2XS3; [23]) in standard orientation [24] as a representative of MMP catalytic domains (see [3]). Green arrows represent  $\beta$ -strands (labeled  $\beta$ I- $\beta$ V), brown ribbons stand for  $\alpha$ -helices ( $\alpha$ A- $\alpha$ C). The two zinc cations found across MMPs are shown as magenta spheres, the calcium cations found in most MMPs but missing in karilysin are depicted in red. Relevant chain segments are shown in distinct colors and labeled (Met-turn in blue, specificity loop in red, S<sub>1</sub>'-wall-forming segment in yellow, S-loop in white, and bulge-edge segment in cyan). The side chains of the zinc-binding histidines, the general base/acid glutamate, the Met-turn methionine, the family-specific serine, and the two tyrosines and aspartates further included in the extended signature characteristic of MMPs are shown as stick models. (B) Superposition of the  $C\alpha$ -traces of the catalytic domains of bacterial karilysin (in yellow) and human MMP-1 (PDB 966C; [25]), MMP-3 (PDB 1CIZ; [26]), MMP-7 (PDB 1MMQ; [27]), MMP-8 (PDB 1JAN; [28]), MMP-9 (4H3X; [29]), MMP-10 (PDB 1Q3A; [30]), MMP-11 (PDB 1HV5; [31]), MMP-12 (PDB 1Y93; [32]), MMP-13 (PDB 2D1N; [33]) and MMP-16 (PDB 1RM8; [34]), all in cyan. The two consensus zinc and calcium cations are shown as magenta and red spheres, respectively; the consensus N- and C-termini are indicated by red arrows. (C) Close-up view of (A) highlighting the structural features of the C-terminal subdomain characteristic for MMPs. The hallmark electrostatic interactions within the CTS are shown as cyan lines, residues included in the extended sequence pattern are depicted for their side chains and labeled. (D) Color-coded mapping of the MMP extended sequence pattern (H-E-2X-H-2X-G-2X-H-S/T-6X-M-3X-Y-9X-D-D-7X-Y-X) onto the karilysin polypeptide chain. Each residue type is shown in one color and labeled, random residues (X) are alternatively in light green and yellow.

Fig.1

Eumetazoans are animals comprised of tissues organized into germ layers, with a gastrula stage during embryogenesis. Primitive animals of this lineage up to the emergence of the clade Bilateria likely had few MMP copies within their genomes, as currently found in several *Drosophila* species (two copies) and other insects such as red flour beetle, silkworm or malaria mosquito (three copies) [6, 20, 35-38]. In contrast, higher animals show gene polyplication, which likely arose during early vertebrate evolution and led to the substantial paralogy that is currently found, e.g., in humans (24 genes), mice (23 genes) and zebrafish (26 genes). However, development of this complexity was not linear: while seven genes are found in the sea squirt *Ciona intestinalis* and nine in the mosquito *Aedes aegypti*, the sea urchin *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* has 26 [6, 20, 39-44].

**Table 1** — MMPs reported from invertebrates

<b>Phylum Annelida</b>	
<b>Class Polychaeta</b>	
Boneworm ( <i>Osedax japonicus</i> )	[45]
<b>Phylum Arthropoda</b>	
<b>Class Branchiopoda</b>	
Water flea ( <i>Daphnia pulex</i> )	[46]
<b>Class Insecta</b>	
Yellow-fever mosquito ( <i>Aedes aegypti</i> )	[44]
Malaria mosquito ( <i>Anopheles gambiae</i> )	[47]
Honeybee ( <i>Apis mellifera</i> )	[48]
Silkworm ( <i>Bombyx mori</i> )	[49]
Fruitfly ( <i>Drosophila melanogaster</i> )	[20, 35, 36]
Greater wax moth ( <i>Galleria mellonella</i> )	[50]
Tobacco hornworm ( <i>Manduca sexta</i> )	[51]
Red flour beetle ( <i>Tribolium castaneum</i> )	[37]
Cabbage looper ( <i>Trichoplusia ni</i> )	[52]
<b>Phylum Chordata</b>	
<b>Class Ascidiacea</b>	
Sea squirt ( <i>Ciona intestinalis</i> )	[41]
<b>Class Leptocardii</b>	
Lancelet ( <i>Branchiostoma japonicum</i> )	[53]
<b>Phylum Cnidaria</b>	
<b>Class Hydrozoa</b>	
Common hydra ( <i>Hydra vulgaris</i> / <i>Hydra magnipapillata</i> )	[54, 55]
<b>Class Scyphozoa</b>	
Nomura's jellyfish ( <i>Nemopilema nomurai</i> )	[56]
<b>Phylum Echinodermata</b>	
<b>Class Echinoidea</b>	
Asian sea urchin ( <i>Hemicentrotus pulcherrimus</i> )	[57]
Mediterranean purple sea urchin ( <i>Paracentrotus lividus</i> )	[58]
Pacific purple sea urchin ( <i>Strongylocentrotus purpuratus</i> )	[40]
<b>Class Holothuroidea</b>	
Japanese sea cucumber ( <i>Apostichopus japonicus</i> )	[59]
Rock sea cucumber ( <i>Holothuria glaberrima</i> )	[60]
<b>Phylum Mollusca</b>	
<b>Class Bivalvia</b>	
American oyster ( <i>Crassostrea virginica</i> )	[61]
Mediterranean mussel ( <i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> )	[62]
<b>Class Gasteropoda</b>	
Giant African snail ( <i>Achatina fulica</i> )	[63]
Bloodfluke planorb ( <i>Biomphalaria glabrata</i> )	[64]
Many-colored abalone ( <i>Haliotis diversicolor</i> )	[65]
Red abalone ( <i>Haliotis rufescens</i> )	[66]
Korean common dogwhelk ( <i>Thais clavigera</i> )	[67]
<b>Phylum Nematoda</b>	
<b>Class Secernentea</b>	
Rat lungworm ( <i>Angiostrongylus cantonensis</i> )	[68]
Roundworm ( <i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i> )	[69-71]
Yellow potato cyst nematode ( <i>Globodera rostochiensis</i> )	[72]
Parasitic nematode ( <i>Gnathostoma spinigerum</i> )	[73]
Soybean cyst nematode ( <i>Heterodera glycines</i> )	[72]
<b>Phylum Platyhelminthes</b>	
<b>Class Rhabditophora</b>	
Freshwater planarian flatworm ( <i>Dugesia japonica</i> )	[74]
Freshwater planarian flatworm ( <i>Schmidtea mediterranea</i> )	[74]

Taxonomy according to the Catalogue of Life (<http://www.catalogueoflife.org/col/>; [75]).

The complex evolution of MMPs in Eumetazoa is also reflected by the presence of several ancillary domains in the full-length enzymes (see Section 1 and Fig. 1 in [6]). It can be speculated that primitive MMPs consisted of standalone CDs or possibly PD+CD tandems, which underwent duplication, gene fusion and exon shuffling to result in multi-domain architectures [6, 39, 76, 77]. However, in some instances evolution progressed in the opposite direction, i.e. multi-domain enzymes underwent truncation to yield proteins of fewer domains, even in mammals. This is the case for matrilysins, which span only a signal peptide, a PD with a cysteine-switch motif and a CD [6, 78, 79]. This minimal architecture is also predominant across invertebrates [6], although many MMP sequences in insects—e.g. in *Drosophila* [20]—further comprise a furin recognition sequence, an HD and a GPI anchor.

**Table 2** — MMPs referenced from plants and selected sequences within genomes

**Phylum Tracheophyta**

**Class Liliopsida**

Barley (*Hordeum vulgare*): F2DC11, F2D2W1, F2DGF5, F2D593 [81]

Rice (*Oryza sativa*): A2X9G3, A2YB49, A2ZA53, A2ZA54, A2ZA55, A2ZA56, A2ZA53, A2ZA53 [81]

Sugar cane (*Saccharum hybrid cultivar*): A0A059Q041 [82]

Corn (*Zea mays*): B6U4D1, B4FZU1 [81]

Eelgrass (*Zostera marina*): A0A0K9P9J4\*, A0A0K9PG73\*, A0A0K9PXQ4\*, A0A0K9PK10\*, A0A0K9PLB4\*, A0A0K9PY38\*, A0A0K9PBG9\*, A0A0K9P805\*

**Class Magnoliopsida**

Lyre-leaved rock cress (*Arabidopsis lyrata*): D7LBU9\*

Mouse-ear cress (*Arabidopsis thaliana*): At1/2/3/4/5-MMP (O23507, O04529, Q5XF51, Q8GWW6, Q9ZUJ5) [83-88]

Sugar beet (*Beta vulgaris*): A0A0J8F9H7, A0A0J8B8R0, GB XP\_010692448, GB XP\_010695895 [89]

Cucumber (*Cucumis sativus*): Cs1-MMP (Q9LEL9) [90]

Soybean (*Glycine max*): Gm1/2-MMP, Gm-Slti114-MMP (C6TNN5, Q93Z89, B6CAM2) and C6TNN5 [81, 91-96]

Tree cotton (*Gossypium arboreum*): A0A0B0ME77\*

Barrel medic (*Medicago truncatula*): Mt1-MMP (Q9ZR44) [97]

Tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*): Nt1-MMP (C3PTL6) [98, 99]

Western balsam poplar (*Populus trichocarpa*): B9I3X8\*

Castor bean (*Ricinus communis*): B9RUG7\*

Tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*): S11/2/3/4/5-MMP (I7JCM3, I7KJ40, K4BWG3, K4CNL4, A0A0G3ZAU2, K4CYZ6) [81]

Cocoa (*Theobroma cacao*): A0A061DVV2\*, S1S448\*

**Class Pinopsida**

Loblolly pine (*Pinus taeda*): Pta1-MMP (B7TVN4) [100]

All sequence codes are from UniProt (UP; [www.uniprot.org](http://www.uniprot.org)) or GenBank (GB; [www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank)).

Taxonomy according to the Catalogue of Life (<http://www.catalogueoflife.org/col>; [75]).

Nomenclature of validated plant MMPs according to [101].

\* Sequences annotated in UniProt as "matrix metalloproteinases" and manually curated.

Searches completed on 10 January, 2017.

**3. Matrix metalloproteinases in plants and algae** — In addition to Eumetazoa, MMPs have been reported from higher plants (phylum Tracheophyta), where they are generally present in lower copy numbers than in animals. Enzymes were described from soybean, mouse-ear cress, cucumber, barrel medic, tobacco, loblolly pine and tomato (see Table 2). In addition, sequences were referenced from sugar beet, rice, corn, sugar cane and barley (Table 2). Moreover, MP activity attributable to an MMP was also described for the jack bean *Canavalia ensiformis*, though validation is still pending [80]. Finally, current sequence similarity searches identified several hundreds of potential hits in higher plants, Table 2 provides a curated selection of them.

Plant MMPs localize to the plasma membrane or the extracellular space and have been found to be involved in remodeling of the extracellular matrix during plant growth and development processes, such as germination, programmed cell death and senescence, as well as in biotic and abiotic stress responses [86, 101-103]. Sequence analyses revealed that plant MMPs have a homogenous domain distribution and mostly comprise a signal peptide, a PD with a cysteine-switch motif that occasionally diverges from the consensus (see Section 1 and [102]), and a CD. Within the latter, some sequences have the general base/acid glutamate mutated to glutamine [102], a change that in mammalian MMPs leads to ablation or strong reduction of proteolytic activity [104]. Uniquely, plant MMPs

encompass a specific consensus sequence, D-L-E-S/T, two residues upstream of the zinc-binding motif [81, 84, 101]. In addition, the loop that connects strand  $\beta$ V with helix  $\alpha$ B is up to 10 residues longer in plant MMPs than in mammalian counterparts. In the absence of experimental structures, these two combined features point to a specific structural element of plant MMPs, putatively an extra cation-binding site. Downstream of the CD, plant MMPs only contain ~40-residue C-terminal GPI anchors or transmembrane segments for localization to the plasma membrane [81].

The unicellular green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* encodes two MPs dubbed gametolysins (also known as gamete lytic enzymes, MMP1 and MMP2, and autolysins), which are engaged in cell-wall turnover and have been recurrently associated with the MMP family [101, 102, 105-108]. Similarly to MMPs, these ~635-residue enzymes comprise a signal peptide and a putative PD with a cysteine-switch-like motif. These enzymes are similar to four enzymes from the multicellular green alga *Volvox carteri* (VMP1-VMP4), in which the first zinc-binding histidine is replaced with glutamine [109-111]. Current sequence similarity searches identified new potential paralogues of these MPs in *C. reinhardtii* and *V. carteri*, as well as in the green algae *Gonium pectorale* and *Chlorella variabilis*. However, in the absence of three-dimensional structures, the primary sequences of these MPs deviate from the extended sequence pattern of MMPs (see Section 1). Consequently, they belong to a separate metzincin family, which was tentatively dubbed gametolysins in the past [10, 12, 108]. This is consistent with their adscription to a family separate from MMPs within the MEROPS peptidase database (M11 vs. M10; see merops.sanger.ac.uk; [112]). Of note, searches for true MMPs within eukaryotic algae revealed six potential relatives, two in phytoplankton *Emiliana huxleyi* (UP R1DV14 and R1E2E0/R1EHE7) and one each in *G. pectorale* (UP A0A150GPR5), *Symbiodinium minutum* (KEGG Gene symbB.v1.2.029330.t2; see www.genome.jp), *Aureococcus anophagefferens* (UP F0Y382) and *V. carteri* (UP D8UD00). This restricted presence of MMPs within algae is consistent with recent genome-wide analyses of the secretomes of nine brown algae belonging to the phylum Phaeophyceae, which revealed no potential MMP ortholog [113]. Furthermore, no other sequences were presently found in other Protista/Chromista.

**4. Matrix metalloproteinases in fungi** — Although some MPs were described from fungi [114-116], none has yet been confirmed to be an MMP. We thus performed a database search, which revealed several potential sequences in the phylum *Ascomycota* but not in other phyla (Table 3). These hypothetical proteins span between 255 and 659 residues, some have their catalytic glutamate replaced with glutamine (see Sections 1 and 3), and most comprise N-terminal extensions with a potential cysteine-switch-like motif. Those lacking this motif possess potential NTSs that are significantly shorter than in standard MMPs, so they may correspond to incomplete sequences or truncated variants. Several sequences also contain large N- and/or C-terminal extensions that could correspond to additional domains. Hit fungal species contain only one sequence each, with the exception of *Arthrotrichum oligospora* and *Dactylella haptotyla*, with five sequences each, and all but two species are fungal pathogens of higher plants, nematodes, insects and animals—including humans—or endophytic fungi. Accordingly, their lifestyle entails very intimate contact with organisms that contain MMPs.

**5. Matrix metalloproteinases in viruses** — In 2000, the functional characterization of an MMP from *Xestia c-nigrum* granulovirus was reported [117]. In the absence of structural information, analysis of its amino acid sequence reveals an MMP CD. The upstream N-terminal segment lacks the canonical cysteine-switch motif, but shows sequence stretch C<sup>42</sup>-G-G-G-N-H-R-R-T-K-R<sup>52</sup> immediately before the predicted mature N-terminus, which includes a cysteine-glycine pair reminiscent of those motifs, as well as a recognition sequence characteristic of furin-activatable MMPs (see [6] and Section 1). This notwithstanding, the full-length protein was active, thus suggesting it was in an at least partially competent state without hypothetical activation [117]. Threading calculations (see the legend to Figure 2A) with the protein segment downstream of the CD of *Xestia* MMP indicated that it most likely contained an HD (Figure 2A), preceded by an intermediate "threonine-rich region". More recently, *Cydia pomonella* granulovirus was also shown to express a functional MMP, the only other viral family member studied to date [38]. Like the *Xestia* ortholog, it contained a CD preceded by a potential furin-recognition sequence. However, it lacked any cysteine in the N-terminal fragment, so its function and/or activation mechanism might diverge from *Xestia* MMP. In contrast to previous hypotheses [38] but in agreement with the prediction for *Xestia* MMP, threading calculations indicated that a threonine-rich region and an HD are present in the C-terminal part of the protein (Figure 2B).

Granuloviruses belong to the genus *Betabaculovirus* within the family Baculoviridae and all species sequenced to date within this genus contain putative MMP homologs (see Suppl. Table 1 and [38]). In contrast, MMPs are absent from the other Baculoviridae geni, viz. Alphabaculovirus, Deltabaculovirus and Gammabaculovirus. In addition to Baculoviridae, we also found MMP sequences in the families Iridoviridae, Nudiviridae, Poxviridae (subfamily Entomopoxvirinae) and Ascoviridae (Suppl. Table 1) but not in any other viruses or viroids. Collectively, all these virus families are double-stranded DNA viruses with no RNA stage, which infect invertebrates (arthropods, lepidoptera, hymenoptera, diptera and decapods), i.e. organisms that contain MMPs. The potential viral MMPs vary in length, some contain a signal peptide, a potential cysteine-switch-like motif, a

putative furin-cleavage site, a predicted HD and a threonine-rich region as in *Xestia* and *Cydia* MMPs, but others do not.

**Table 3** — Fungal MMP sequences

<b>Phylum Ascomycota</b>		
<b>Class Dothideomycetes</b>		
<i>Bipolaris oryzae</i>	388 residues	GB XP_0077684757 / UP W6ZMI0
<i>Bipolaris victoriae</i>	388 residues	GB XP_014556326 / UP W7EIS0
<i>Bipolaris zeicola</i>	388 residues	GB XP_007709037 / UP W6YG21
<i>Cochliobolus heterostrophus</i>	388 residues	GB XP_014075121 / UP N4X7I4, UP M2V381 **
<i>(Bipolaris maydis)</i>		
<i>Cochliobolus sativus</i>	320 residues	GB XP_007696738 / UP M2TCL8
<i>(Bipolaris sorokiniana)</i>		
<i>Paraphaeosphaeria sporulosa</i>	411 residues	GB XP_018039150 / UP A0A177CMM7
<i>Phaeosphaeria nodorum</i>	326 residues	GB XP_001794978 / UP Q0UUK1
<i>(Parastagonospora nodorum)</i>		
<i>(Septoria nodorum)</i>		
<i>Pyrenochaeta</i> sp.	565 residues	UP A0A178DJW7
<i>Stagonospora</i> sp.	393 residues	UP A0A178BDB5
<i>Stemphylium lycopersici</i>	563 residues	UP A0A0L1HKC2
<b>Class Eurotiomycetes</b>		
<i>Aspergillus calidoustus</i>	290 residues	UP A0A0U5G9D2
<i>Aspergillus flavus</i>	274 residues	GB XP_002379978 / UP B8NI13, UP A0A0D9MRC7 **
<i>Aspergillus lentulus</i>	311 residues	UP A0A0S7DKQ5
<i>Aspergillus udagawae</i>	282 residues	UP A0A0K8L198
<i>Endocarpon pusillum</i>	306 residues	GB XP_007803399 / UP U1HKZ8
<i>Exophiala aquamarina</i>	282 residues	GB XP_013264742 / UP A0A072PQX4
<i>Neosartorya fischeri (Aspergillus fischerianus)</i>	616 residues	GB XP_001261124 / UP A1DIM0
<b>Class Leotiomycetes</b>		
<i>Pseudogymnoascus</i> sp.	255 residues	UP A0A094DQI1, UP A0A094ITE6 *
<b>Class Orbiliomycetes</b>		
<i>Arthrobotrys oligospora</i>	609 residues	GB XP_011127847 / UP G1XU64
<i>Arthrobotrys oligospora</i>	599 residues	GB XP_011127846 / UP G1XU63
<i>Arthrobotrys oligospora</i>	290 residues	GB XP_011126672 / UP G1XQB0
<i>Arthrobotrys oligospora</i>	315 residues	GB XP_011126207 / UP G1XNZ5
<i>Arthrobotrys oligospora</i>	232 residues	GB XP_011120912 / UP G1X8V0
<i>Drechslerella stenobrocha</i>	210 residues	UP W7IFU4
<b>Class Sordariomycetes</b>		
<i>Dactylellina haptotyla</i>	659 residues	GB XP_011116834 / UP S7ZXB5
<i>Dactylellina haptotyla</i>	308 residues	GB XP_011114406 / UP S8A464
<i>Dactylellina haptotyla</i>	292 residues	GB XP_011112095 / UP S8AFF5
<i>Dactylellina haptotyla</i>	268 residues	GB XP_011113422 / UP S8BTL0
<i>Dactylellina haptotyla</i>	246 residues	GB XP_011107496 / UP S8AU63
<i>Metarhizium anisopliae</i>	619 residues	UP A0A0B4G9D2
<i>Metarhizium anisopliae</i>	607 residues	UP A0A0D9NZH8
<i>Metarhizium brunneum</i>	619 residues	GB XP_014544223 / UP A0A0B4FXN2
<i>Metarhizium robertsii</i>	619 residues	GB XP_007825075 / UP E9F9D7, A0A014N9M3 **
<i>Pochonia chlamydosporia</i>	636 residues	GB XP_018148437 / UP A0A179G3B6
<i>Purpureocillium lilacinum</i>	627/629 residues	GB XP_018174930 / UP A0A179GT13, A0A179GDA3 *

All sequence codes are from UniProt (UP; [www.uniprot.org](http://www.uniprot.org)) or GenBank (GB; [www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank)).

Sequence searches were performed with structurally validated MMP CDs within UniProt ([www.uniprot.org](http://www.uniprot.org)) or the National Center for Biotechnology Information ([blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi](http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi)) using standard parameters.

Taxonomy according to the Catalogue of Life (<http://www.catalogueoflife.org/col>; [75]).

\* These sequences have only minimal differences.

\*\* These entries are identical.

Searches completed on 19 January, 2017.

Moreover and consistent with the host specificity of the harboring viruses, sequences cluster closely with insect MMPs [38], which possess a similar domain architecture (see Section 2 and [20]). In insects, housekeeping MMPs participate in physiological remodeling of the basal lamina, which lines the midgut to prevent systemic infections [126]. In turn, as part of the infective process, ingested viral particles reach the midgut of target insects and breach the basal lamina, a task that might be carried out by viral MMPs [126].

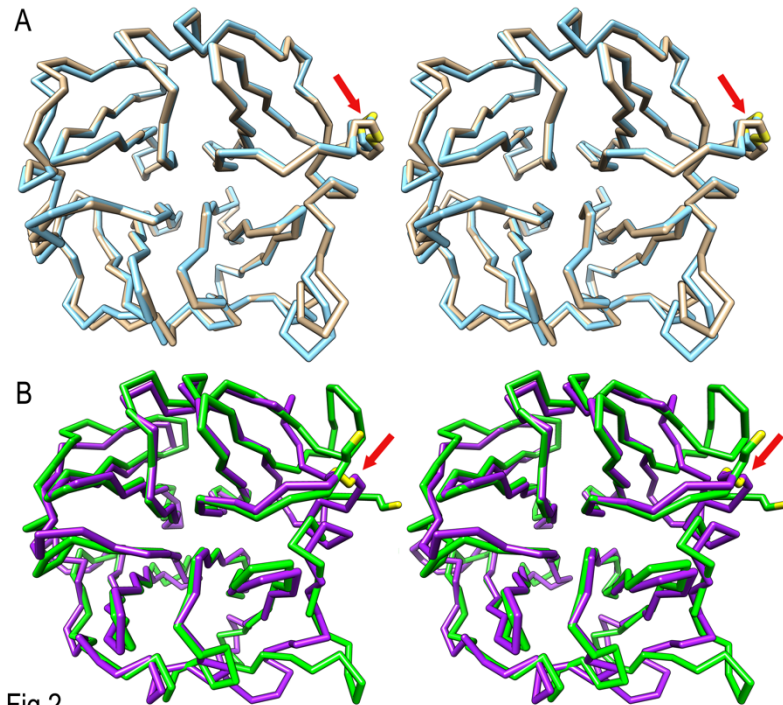


Fig.2

**Figure 2 — Predicted structure of baculoviral MMP C-terminal domains.** (A) Superposition in cross-eye stereo of the two top-ranked homology models (in tan and cyan respectively) of *Xestia c-nigrum* granulovirus MMP segment C<sup>280</sup>-C<sup>469</sup> (UP Q9PZ03) by threading calculations with the LOMETS meta-server using programs cdPPAS (Z-score 16.9; [118]) and SP3 (Z-score 36.6; [119]), respectively. Full-length modeling was automatically carried out with the program MODELLER [120]. The corresponding C $\alpha$ -traces and the critical disulfide bond linking the terminal  $\beta$ -leaflets (C<sup>280</sup>-C<sup>469</sup>; red arrow), which is usually found in fourfold  $\beta$ -propeller structures such as MMP hemopexin domains [121], are depicted. In both cases, the automatically selected template structure was that of the hemopexin domain of human MMP-14 (PDB 3C7X; [122]). (B) Same as (A) but for *Cydia pomonella* granulovirus MMP (UP Q91F09) segment C<sup>359</sup>-C<sup>545</sup>. The two top predictions (in purple and green, respectively) were obtained with the program HHSEARCH (Z-scores 29.6 and 35.9; [123]). Selected templates were the hemopexin domains of human MMP-2 (PDB 1GEN; [124]) and MMP-1 (PDB 1SU3; [125]). In the second automatic homology model, the two cysteines are not linked but close to each other in space.

**6. Matrix metalloproteinases in archaea and bacteria** — The only prokaryotic MMP characterized at the functional and structural level to date is karilysin from *Tannerella forsythia*. This is a human oral-microbiome bacterium from the phylum Bacteroidetes that is engaged in odontopathogenic infections [23, 127-135]. Karilysin comprises a CD flanked upstream by a signal peptide for secretion and a 14-residue PD, which does not proceed over a cysteine-switch mechanism but an "aspartate-switch" mechanism, as found in the otherwise unrelated astacin family within the metzincin clan [23, 128, 136, 137]. The CD is followed by two domains of unknown structure and function, collectively spanning 275 residues, which comprise the C-terminal residues K-L-I-K-K. A C-terminal domain similar to karilysin is found in other unrelated peptidases within *T. forsythia*, *Bacteroides* sp. and *Prevotella* sp., which have been collectively termed KLIKK proteases [138]

The CD of karilysin was characterized at the structural level (see [Figure 1A](#)), which revealed that it fulfilled all the structural criteria of MMP CDs of mammals [23] ([Figure 1B](#)). These studies also suggested that karilysin is evolutionary closer to forms from mosquitoes that are insect vectors of malaria (*Anopheles gambiae*), dengue fever, Chikungunya and yellow fever (*Aedes aegypti*), and West Nile virus and Zika virus infections (*Culex quinquefasciatus*) than to bacterial counterparts [23]. The lifecycle of these mosquitoes entails feeding on human blood and they are mostly found in poor countries, which have the highest incidence of odontopathogenic bacterial infections [139].

Further to karilysin in bacteria, a potential MMP ortholog in *Bacillus anthracis*, MmpZ, was shown to participate in the extracellular degradation of anthrax toxin components and anthrolysin O at the onset of the stationary growth phase of the bacterium [140]. However, detailed inspection of its protein sequence (UP Q81NM7) reveals that it deviates from the extended sequence pattern of MMP CTSS. Therefore, it cannot be assigned unambiguously to MMPs until its three-dimensional structure has been resolved. Moreover, there have been other reports postulating the existence of bacterial MPs, which were hailed as ancestral forms of MMPs [43]. In particular, *Bacteroides fragilis* toxins *alias* fragilysins were thought to accomplish this role [39, 141-143]. However, when the structures of profragilysin-3 and the closely-related metalloproteinase II were reported, it became obvious that fragilysins, which are present in enterotoxigenic *B. fragilis* strains but not commensal ones, represent a metzincin family on their own, which is closer to adamalysin/ADAMs than MMPs, if at all [12, 144-146].



To complete the picture of MMP distribution in prokaryotes, we conducted sequence similarity searches and identified several hundred potential MMP orthologs across archaeal and bacterial genomes, some of them with several copies. A representative selection of manually curated sequences is provided in [Suppl. Tables 2 and 3](#). Inspection of the archaeal sequences reveals that they cluster to phyla Euryarchaeota and Thaumarchaeota, which populate the human digestive tract together with Crenarchaeota [147]. The healthy gut microbiome is also dominated in humans by the bacterial phyla Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes, with Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria and Verrucomicrobia present in smaller proportions [148]. Upstream in the gastrointestinal tract, six major bacterial phyla populate the oral microbiome: Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria, Spirochaetes, and Fusobacteria [149]. Bacterial species that potentially contain MMPs also belong to these phyla, as does karilysin, with the notable exception of a few bacterial sequences from the phyla Planctomycetes, an aquatic phylum present in brackish and fresh marine waters, and Cyanobacteria, which also inhabit waters and moist soils ([Suppl. Table 3](#)). Accordingly, the distribution of archaeal and bacterial sequences is patchy and they are almost exclusively found in species of phyla highly represented in human microbiomes.

**7. Conclusion** — MMPs are arguably the best studied MPs at the molecular, functional, physiological and structural levels, but most reports are restricted to humans and a few other animals. However, a comprehensive review of the literature and current sequence similarity searches revealed that validated and potential MMP CDs are widespread. In general, most proteins possess common ancestors in Eubacteria or Archaea, so their presence within the latter indicates that inheritance follows the Darwinian tree-based pathway or vertical descent model [77, 150]. This is the case for ~60% of human protein domains, which have their origins in these kingdoms and eukaryotic nodes before the metazoan era [77]. However, some proteins originate at nodes that appeared later in evolution [151], as reported for the large, multi-domain pan-peptidase inhibitors of the  $\alpha_2$ -macroglobulin ( $\alpha_2$ M) family [152]. These >1,000-residue proteins are widely distributed across metazoans, but missing in all non-metazoan eukaryotic lineages. Unexpectedly, homologous proteins were found in several bacterial proteomes [153, 154], but their distribution was patchy and incompatible with vertical descent from a common ancestral eubacterium. As most of these bacterial species encoding  $\alpha_2$ Ms exploited higher eukaryotes as hosts, either as pathogenic invaders or commensal colonizers, it was proposed that they were acquired by eukaryotic-to-prokaryotic horizontal gene transfer [152], similarly to previously suggested for some metabolic enzymes [155, 156].

MMPs are likewise widespread, perhaps across all kingdoms of life, where they are possibly involved in extracellular processing of proteins. However, they only show a homogenous gene distribution that is probably consistent with a vertical descent model within animals of the subkingdom Eumetazoa, as they are absent from more primitive metazoans. Within plants, they have only been found in higher plants. Here, the domain architecture is reminiscent of invertebrate MMPs, which suggests that plant and invertebrate MMPs are more closely related to each other than to vertebrate MMPs. This, in turn, hints that they could be modern representatives of an ancient MMP ancestor, common to the three groups [6, 39]. In fungi, protists, viruses, bacteria and archaea, the presence of MMP sequences is reduced and patchy, which violates the vertical descent model. Generally, distribution is restricted to phyla with a lifecycle entailing intimate, direct or indirect, pathogenic or commensal, interaction with members of the subkingdom Eumetazoa. This suggests that MMPs in those kingdoms, like bacterial  $\alpha_2$ Ms, are xenologs coopted several times during evolution from eumetazoan hosts by independent horizontal gene transfer events (see e.g. [Suppl. Fig. 1](#)), which would include uptake of mRNA by competence or abiotic mechanisms [157], followed by subsequent spreading and polyplication within phyla.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study was supported in part by grants from European, Spanish, and Catalan agencies (grant references FP7-HEALTH-2012-306029-2 “TRIGGER”; BFU2015-64487R, MDM-2014-0435; BIO2013-49320-EXP; BIO2015-64216-P; BIO2013-49604-EXP; and 2014SGR9). The Structural Biology Unit ([www.sbu.csic.es](http://www.sbu.csic.es)) of IBMB is a “María de Maeztu” Unit of Excellence from the Spanish Ministry of Economy, Industry and Competitiveness.

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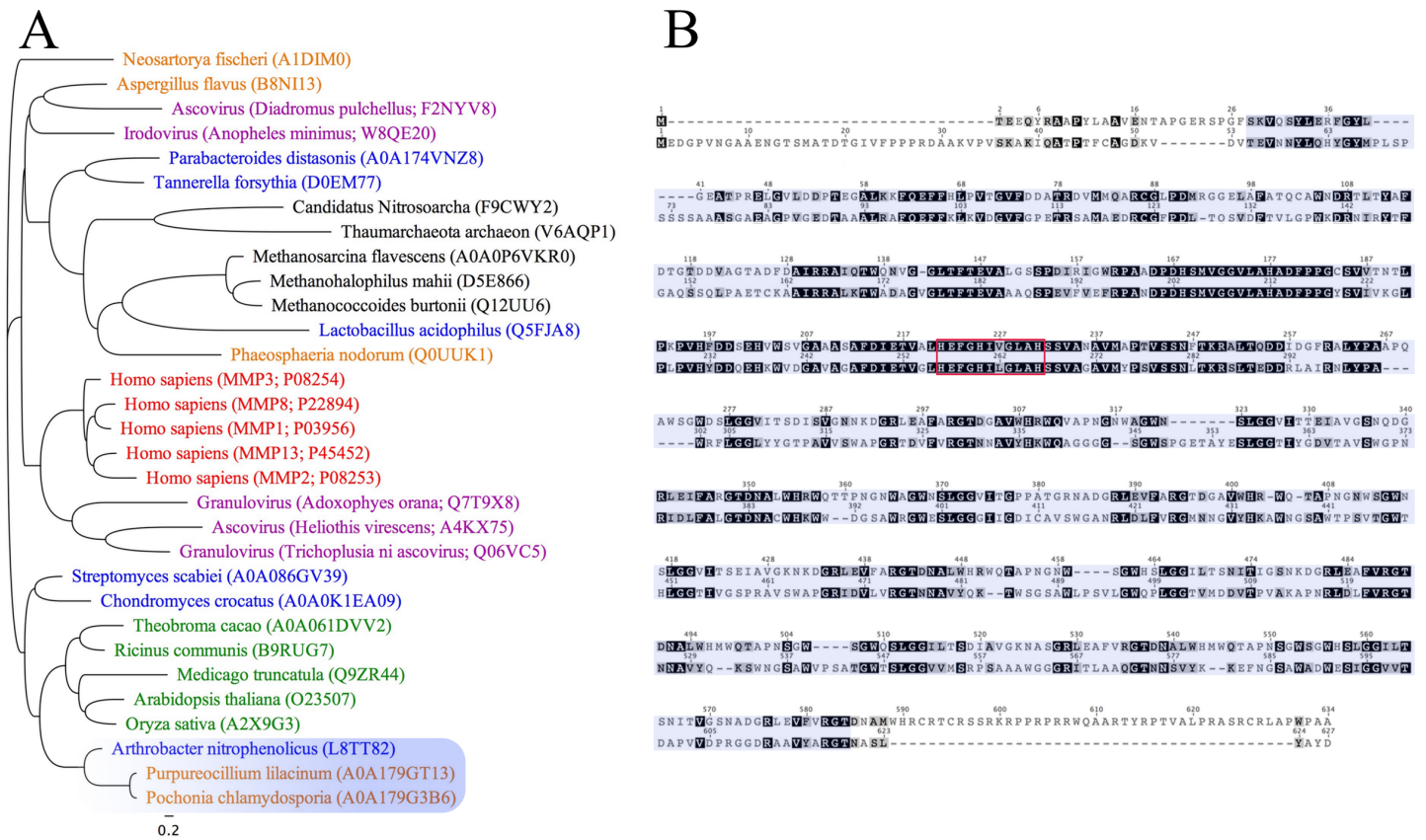
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**Supplementary Information**  
**of**  
**Matrix metalloproteinases outside vertebrates**

Laura Marino-Puertas, Theodoros Goulas and F. Xavier Gomis-Rüth



# Supplementary Figures



**Suppl. Fig. 1: Phylogenetic studies.** (A) Rooted phylogenetic tree reflecting evolutionary distances among selected protein sequences (in parenthesis the UniProt codes) of organisms from different kingdoms of life. Names in red are mammals, in green plants, in orange fungus, in lilac viruses, in blue bacteria and in black archaea. In blue background are highlighted proteins of different kingdoms (bacterial and fungal) that display high sequence similarity (see in B). This could be an indication of an eukaryotic-to-prokaryotic horizontal gene transfer event. The bar represents 0.2 substitutions per site. (B) Alignment of protein sequences from *Arthrobacter nitrophenolicus* (UniProt code: L8TT82) and *Purpureocillium lilacinum* (UniProt code: A0A179GT13) displaying more than 42% sequence identity in the blue backgrounded area. In red rectangle the zinc-binding motif (H-E-X-X-H-X-X-G/N-X-X-H/D) found in MMPs.

## Supplementary Tables

**Suppl. Table 1** — Viral MMP sequences

### Family *Ascoviridae*

#### Genus *Ascovirus*

<i>Heliothis virescens</i> ascovirus 3e	474 residues	GB YP_001110872 / UP A4KX75
<i>Heliothis virescens</i> ascovirus 3f	439 residues	GB AJP08985 / UP A0A171PVB2
<i>Heliothis virescens</i> ascovirus 3g	439 residues	GB AFV50272 / UP K4NY21
<i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i> ascovirus 1a	386 residues	GB YP_762369 / UP Q0E587
<i>Trichoplusia ni</i> ascovirus 2c	501 residues	GB YP_803380 / UP Q06VC5

#### Genus *Toursvirus*

<i>Diadromus pulchellus</i> ascovirus 4a	223 residues	GB YP_009220674 / UP F2NYV8
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### Family *Baculoviridae*

#### Genus *Betabaculovirus*

<i>Adoxophyes orana</i> granulovirus	395 residues	GB NP_872491 / UP Q7T9X8
<i>Cryptophlebia leucotreta</i> granulovirus	486 residues	GB NP_891890 / UP Q7T5P6
<i>Cydia pomonella</i> granulovirus #	546 / 545 residues	GB AIU36692 / UP A0A097P0M6 // GB NP_148830 / UP Q91F09 *
<i>Helicoverpa armigera</i> granulovirus	596 residues	GB YP_001649020 / UP A9YMN0
<i>Phthorimaea operculella</i> granulovirus	469 residues	GB NP_663206 / UP Q8JS18
<i>Plodia interpunctella</i> granulovirus	620 residues	GB YP_009330170 / UP
<i>Plutella xylostella</i> granulovirus	402 / 403 residues	GB NP_068254 / UP Q9DVZ7 // GB ANY57554 / UP A0A1B2CSG4 *
<i>Pseudalitia unipuncta</i> granulovirus	593 residues	GB YP_003422377 / UP B6S6Q7
<i>Trichoplusia ni</i> granulovirus LBIV-12	593 residues	GB AOW41373 / UP A0A1D8QL47
<i>Xestia c-nigrum</i> granulovirus #	469 residues	GB NP_059188 / UP Q9PZ03

#### Unclassified *Betabaculoviridae*

<i>Agrotis segetum</i> granulovirus	481 residues	GB YP_006303 / UP Q6QXG0
<i>Choristoneura occidentalis</i> granulovirus	488 residues	GB YP_654454 / UP Q1A4R3
<i>Clostera anachoreta</i> granulovirus	412 residues	GB YP_004376233 / UP F4ZKQ2
<i>Clostera anastomosis</i> granulovirus	412 residues	GB YP_008719974 / UP U5KB82
<i>Clostera anastomosis</i> granulovirus	486 residues	GB AKS25377 / UP A0A0K0WSE3
<i>Cnaphalocrocis medinalis</i> granulovirus	441 residues	GB ALN41975 / UP A0A0X9FQ45 // GB YP_009229958 / UP A0A109WW48 *
<i>Diatraea saccharalis</i> granulovirus	370 residues	GB YP_009182238 / UP A0A0R7EZ65
<i>Epinotia aporema</i> granulovirus	359 residues	GB YP_006908552 / UP K4ERV0
<i>Erinnyis ello</i> granulovirus	462 residues	GB YP_009091878 / UP A0A097DAI6
<i>Mocis</i> sp. granulovirus	580 residues	GB YP_009249873 / UP A0A162GWM9
<i>Pieris rapae</i> granulovirus	432 residues	GB YP_003429361 / UP D2J4K4
<i>Pieris rapae</i> granulovirus	444 residues	GB ADO85463 / UP E7BN22
<i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i> granulovirus	539 residues	GB YP_009121819 / UP A0A0C5B309
<i>Spodoptera litura</i> granulovirus	464 residues	GB YP_001256988 / UP A5IZN9

### Family *Iridoviridae*

#### Genus *Iridovirus*

Invertebrate iridescent virus 6 (Chilo iridescent virus)	264 residues	GB NP_149628 / UP O55761
Invertebrate iridovirus 22	352 residues	GB YP_008357315 / UP S6DDP6
Invertebrate iridescent virus 22	365 residues	GB YP_009010779 / UP W8W1A0
Invertebrate iridovirus 25	362 residues	GB YP_009010550 / UP W8W2D9
Invertebrate iridescent virus 30	367 residues	GB YP_009010310 / UP W8W249
Wiseana iridescent virus (Insect iridescent virus type 9)	346 residues	GB YP_004732919 / UP G0T5G2

#### Genus *Chloriridovirus*

<i>Aedes taeniorhyncus</i> iridescent virus	363 residues **	GB ABF82125
Invertebrate iridescent virus 3 (IIV-3)	363 residues **	GB YP_654667 / UP Q196W5

(Mosquito iridescent virus)		
<b>Unclassified Iridoviridae</b>		
<i>Anopheles minimus</i> irodovirus	366 residues	GB YP_009021109 / UP W8QE20
<b>Family Nudiviridae</b>		
<b>Genus Betanudivirus</b>		
<i>Helicoverpa zea</i> nudivirus 2 (HzNV-2)	789 residues	GB YP_004956816 / UP G9I094
<i>Heliothis zea</i> nudivirus	792 residues	GB AAN04364 / UP Q8JKP2
<b>Family Poxviridae (Subfamily Entomopoxvirinae)</b>		
<b>Genus Alphaentomopoxvirus</b>		
<i>Anomala cuprea</i> entomopoxvirus	268 residues	GB YP_009001641 / UP W6JIV8
<b>Genus Betaentomopoxvirus</b>		
<i>Amsacta moorei</i> entomopoxvirus (AmEPV)	252 residues	GB AAG02776, GB NP_064852 / UP Q9EMX9 **
<i>Mythimna separata</i> entomopoxvirus 'L'	411 residues	GB YP_008003705 / UP R4ZFL1
<b>Unclassified dsDNA viruses, no RNA stage</b>		
<i>Apis mellifera</i> filamentous virus	830 residues	GB AKY03287, GB YP_009165969 / UP A0A0K1Y874 **
<i>Apis mellifera</i> filamentous virus	1354 residues	GB AKY03074, GB YP_009165756 / UP A0A0K1Y866 **
<p>All sequence codes are from UniProt (UP; <a href="http://www.uniprot.org">www.uniprot.org</a>) or GenBank (GB; <a href="http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank">www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank</a>).            Sequence searches were performed with MMP CDs within UniProt (<a href="http://www.uniprot.org">www.uniprot.org</a>) or the National Center for Biotechnology Information (<a href="http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi">blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi</a>) using standard parameters.            Taxonomy according to the International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses (<a href="http://ictvonline.org/virusTaxonomy.asp">ictvonline.org/virusTaxonomy.asp</a>), NCBI (<a href="http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/taxonomy">www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/taxonomy</a>) or the Catalogue of Life (<a href="http://www.catalogueoflife.org/col">http://www.catalogueoflife.org/col</a>; [1]).</p> <p># <i>Xestia</i> and <i>Cydia</i> MMPs are the only viral enzymes studied.            * These entries have only minimal differences.            ** These entries are identical.</p> <p>Searches completed on 10 January, 2017.</p>		

**Suppl. Table 2** — Selected archaeal MMP sequences**Phylum Euryarchaeota****Class Halobacteria**

<i>Haladaptatus</i> sp.	344 residues	GB WP_066144928 / UP A0A166SWC5
<i>Halomicrobium mukohataei</i> ( <i>Haloarcula mukohataei</i> )	392 residues	UP C7NZX4

**Class Methanomicrobia**

<i>Methanocalculus</i> sp.	177 residues	UP A0A101H2S1 *
<i>Methanococcoides burtonii</i>	231 residues	GB WP_011499923 / UP Q12UU6
<i>Methanococcoides methylutens</i>	233 residues	UP A0A099T1M7
<i>Methanoculleus</i> sp.	194 residues	UP A0A0Q1AIF2
<i>Methanohalobium evestigatum</i>	240 residues	GB WP_013195212 / UP D7EBD0
<i>Methanohalophilus mahii</i>	231 residues	GB WP_013038296 / UP D5E866
<i>Methanobolus tindarius</i>	241 residues	GB WP_023845349 / UP W9DPH7
<i>Methanobolus psychrophilus</i>	235 residues	GB WP_015053499 / UP K4MC96
<i>Methanomicrobiales archaeon</i>	177 residues	UP A0A117MHP9 *
<i>Methanomethylovorans hollandica</i>	242 residues	GB WP_015323622 / UP L0KWK3
<i>Methanoregula formicica</i>	179 residues	GB WP_015286272 / UP L0HJR6
<i>Methanosalsum zhilinae</i> ( <i>Methanohalophilus zhilinae</i> )	227 residues	GB WP_013899163 / UP F7XME3
<i>Methanosarcina acetivorans</i>	211 residues	UP Q8TIZ9
<i>Methanosarcina barkerii</i>	217 residues	UP A0A0E3R7C9
<i>Methanosarcina flavescens</i>	217 residues	GB WP_054299817 / UP A0A0P6VKR0
<i>Methanosarcina horonobensis</i>	210 residues	UP A0A0E3SB37
<i>Methanosarcina lacustris</i>	215 residues	GB WP_048124635 / UP A0A0E3RZU1
<i>Methanosarcina mazei</i> ( <i>Methanosarcina frisia</i> )	220 residues	GB KKG06863 / UP A0A0F8EZR8
<i>Methanosarcina siciliae</i>	211 residues	UP A0A0E3PQS9
<i>Methanosarcina vacuolata</i>	217 residues	UP A0A0E3L177

**Phylum Thaumarchaeota****Class — / Order Cenarchaeales**

<i>Cenarchaeum symbiosum</i>	345 residues	UP A0RWX1
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**Class — / Order Nitrosopumilales**

<i>Candidatus Nitrosoarchaeum koreensis</i>	253 residues	UP F9CWFY2
<i>Candidatus Nitrosoarchaeum limnia</i>	283 residues	GB WP_010190351 / UP S2E6F9
<i>Candidatus Nitrosopumilus adriaticus</i>	296 residues	UP A0A0D5C2T1
<i>Candidatus Nitrosopumilus koreensis</i>	238 residues	UP K0B4I4
<i>Candidatus Nitrosopumilus salaria</i>	269 residues	GB WP_008298808 / UP I3D381

**Class — / Order Nitrososphaeria**

<i>Candidatus Nitrososphaera evergladensis</i>	251 residues	UP A0A075MRP9
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**Unclassified Thaumarchaeota**

<i>Candidatus Nitrosotalea devanaterre</i>	423 residues	UP A0A128A209
<i>Thaumarchaeota archaeon</i>	540 residues	GB WP_048194249 / UP V6AQP1
<i>Candidatus Nitrosopelagicus brevis</i>	505 residues	UP A0A0A7V069

**Unclassified Archaea**

<i>Candidatus Pacearchaeota archaeon</i>	301 residues	UP A0A1F6ZFA3
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All sequence codes are from UniProt (UP; [www.uniprot.org](http://www.uniprot.org)) or GenBank (GB; [www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank)).

Sequence similarity searches were performed with karilysin CD (UP D0EM77) within UniProt using standard parameters. Only one representative from each species or genus (when sp.) was chosen.

All sequences were manually curated.

Taxonomy according to the Catalogue of Life (<http://www.catalogueoflife.org/col>; [1]) or, when absent, UniProt ([www.uniprot.org](http://www.uniprot.org)).

\* Identical sequences.

Searches completed on 23 January, 2017.

Suppl. Table 3 — Selected bacterial MMP sequences

<b>Phylum Acidobacteria</b>		
<b>Class Solibacteres</b>		
<i>Solibacter usitatus</i>	442 residues	GB WP_011688765 / UP Q02908
<b>Phylum Actinobacteria</b>		
<b>Class Acidimicrobiia</b>		
<i>Acidithrix ferrooxidans</i>	358 residues	UP A0A0D8HKH4
<b>Class Actinobacteria</b>		
<i>Pseudarthrobacter phenanthrenivorans</i> ( <i>Arthrobacter phenanthrenivorans</i> )	687 residues	GB WP_013599449 / UP F0M7V4
<i>Pseudarthrobacter siccitolerans</i>	686 residues	UP A0A024GZ92
<i>Streptomyces lincolnensis</i>	610 residues	GB WP_067438548 / UP A0A1B1MG04
<i>Streptomyces scabiei</i>	359 residues	UP A0A086GV39
<b>Class - / Order Actinomycetales</b>		
<i>Alloactinosynnema</i> sp.	556 residues	GB WP_054055428 / UP A0A0H5CVK8
<i>Arthrobacter nitrophenolicus</i>	634 residues	GB WP_009356397 / UP L8TT82
<i>Knoellia aerolata</i>	271 residues	GB WP_052113283 / UP A0A0A0JTC1
<i>Pseudonocardia dioxanivorans</i>	500 residues	GB WP_013678450 / UP F4CV22
<b>Phylum Bacteroides</b>		
<b>Class Bacteroidia</b>		
<i>Parabacteroides distasonis</i>	446 residues	UP A0A174VNZ8
<i>Tannerella forsythia</i> ( <i>Bacteroides forsythus</i> ) *	472 residues	UP D0EM77
<b>Class Cytophagia</b>		
<i>Cyclobacterium marinum</i> ( <i>Flectobacillus marinum</i> )	482 residues	GB WP_014022474 / UP G0J0B7
<b>Phylum Cyanobacteria</b>		
<b>Class Cyanophyceae</b>		
<i>Microcystis aeruginosa</i>	268 residues	GB WP_052734169 / UP A0A0F6U407
<i>Synechococcus</i> sp.	439 residues	UP B4WJ70
<b>Class - / Order Synechococcales</b>		
<i>Acaryochloris marina</i>	580 residues	GB WP_012164578 / UP B0CCT5
<i>Phormidesmis priestleyi</i> Ana	516 residues	UP A0A0P7ZK60
<b>Phylum Firmicutes</b>		
<b>Class Bacilli</b>		
<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	258 residues	GB WP_000775479 / UP R8XLTO
<i>Bacillus mycoides</i>	253 residues	UP A0A090ZAN4
<i>Halobacillus halophilus</i> ( <i>Sporosarcina halophila</i> )	390 residues	GB WP_014642607 / UP IOJKN6
<i>Lactobacillus acidifarinae</i>	228 residues	GB WP_057801390 / UP A0A0R1LQY6
<i>Lactobacillus acidophilus</i>	222 residues	GB WP_003548046, GB YP_194247 / UP Q5FJA8
<i>Lactobacillus apodemi</i>	193 residues	GB WP_035459587 / UP A0A0R1TU85
<i>Lactobacillus brevis</i>	223 residues	GB WP_011666964 / UP Q03TZ3
<i>Lactobacillus plantarum</i>	266 residues	GB WP_003643352 / UP M4KPC6
<i>Lactobacillus nodensis</i>	240 residues	UP A0A0R1KCP7
<i>Lactobacillus senmaizukei</i>	238 residues	UP A0A0R2DS50

<i>Lactobacillus sunkii</i>	233 residues	GB WP_057825587 / UP A0A0R1KWI9
<i>Leuconostoc kimchii</i>	226 residues	GB WP_013103335 / UP D5T391
<i>Paenibacillus terrae</i>	280 residues	GB WP_044649112 / UP A0A0D7WTR0
<i>Streptococcus suis</i>	231 residues	GB WP_044681537 / UP A0A0Z8JY51
<b>Phylum Nitrospirae</b>		
<b>Class Nitrospira</b>		
<i>Candidatus Magnetoovum chiemensis</i>	426 residues	UP A0A0F2J1S3
<b>Phylum Plantomycetes</b>		
<b>Class Plantomycetia</b>		
<i>Candidatus Brocadia fulgida</i>	418 residues	UP A0A0M2UXB6
<i>Candidatus Jettenia caeni</i>	420 residues	GB WP_007220894 / UP I3IJ81
<i>Candidatus Scalindua brodae</i>	382 residues	UP A0A0B0EQJ8
<b>Class Plantomycetacia</b>		
<i>Isoosphaera pallida</i>	435 residues	GB WP_013565370 / UP E8QY87
<i>Pirellula staleyi (Pirella staleyi)</i>	281 residues	GB WP_012911897 / UP D2R985
<i>Planctomyces</i> sp.	499 residues	GB WP_068412701 / UP A0A142YDV0
<i>Singulisphaera acidiphila</i>	538 residues	UP L0DHV3
<b>Phylum Proteobacteria</b>		
<b>Class Alphaproteobacteria</b>		
<i>Aurantimonas</i> sp.	321 residues	GB WP_055845852 / UP A0A0Q6EYY6
<i>Aureimonas</i> sp.	484 residues	GB WP_056689492 / UP A0A0Q6EFI8
<i>Bradyrhizobium elkanii</i>	454 residues	UP A0A1E3EYM1
<i>Bradyrhizobium jicamae</i>	318 residues	GB WP_057837259 / UP A0A0R3LGN7
<i>Bradyrhizobium lablabi</i>	324 residues	GB WP_057857189 / UP A0A0R3N9Q1
<i>Hyphomicrobium nitrativorans</i>	291 residues	GB WP_023788197 / UP V5SJS8
<i>Labrenzia alexandrii (Stappia alexandrii)</i>	378 residues	UP B9QV57
<i>Methylobacterium</i> sp.	470 residues	UP B0UC88
<i>Puniceibacterium</i> sp.	271 residues	GB WP_053078859 / UP A0A0J5QD38
<i>Rhizobium</i> sp.	404 residues	GB WP_062553422 / UP A0A0Q7YFP6
<i>Rhodomicrobium udaipurense</i>	248 residues	GB WP_037237908 / UP A0A037UYG6
<i>Rhodospirillaceae bacterium</i>	357 residues	UP A0A0F2S3S3
<i>Sphingomonas changbaiensis</i>	556 residues	UP A0A0E9MSC9
<i>Sulfitobacter geojensis</i>	501 residues	GB WP_064223228 / UP A0A196QSA6
<b>Class Betaproteobacteria</b>		
<i>Burkholderia gladioli (Phytomonas marginata)</i>	463 residues	UP A0A0M2QDA5
<i>Burkholderia vietnamiensis</i>	1065 residues	GB WP_059890570 / UP A0A132D6D9
<i>Paraburkholderia glathei</i>	1101 residues	UP A0A0J1D520
<i>Rubrivivax gelatinosus</i>	633 residues	UP I0HQ73
<b>Class Deltaproteobacteria</b>		
<i>Chondromyces apiculatus</i>	463 residues	UP A0A017SZ72
<i>Chondromyces crocatus</i>	433 residues	UP A0A0K1EA09
<i>Labilithrix luteola</i>	314 residues	UP A0A0K1Q883
<i>Sandaracinus amylolyticus</i>	588 residues	GB WP_053234042 / UP A0A0F6W3W9

<i>Sorangium cellulosum (Polyangium cellulosum)</i>	247 residues	UP A0A150T1A1
<i>Stigmatella aurantiaca</i>	477 residues	GB WP_002612142 / UP Q098Y1
<i>Vulgatibacter incomptus</i>	602 residues	GB WP_050725892 / UP A0A0K1PDK5
<b>Class Gammaproteobacteria</b>		
<i>Acinetobacter</i> sp.	205 residues	GB WP_005215616 / UP N9NAE2
<i>Methylophaga aminisulfidivorans</i>	237 residues	GB WP_007146704 / UP F5T331
<i>Methylothermaceae</i> bacteria	432 residues	UP A0A148N5W8
<i>Pseudoalteromonas luteoviolacea</i>	1466 residues	GB WP_065788537 / UP A0A1C0TT69
<i>Candidatus Tenderia electrophaga</i>	261 residues	UP A0A0S2TI48
<i>Thiolapillus brandeum</i>	387 residues	UP W0TNH9
<b>Unclassified Bacteria</b>		
<i>Dadabacterium bacterium</i>	302 residues	UP A0A0T5ZUN1
<i>Latescibacteria bacterium</i>	337 residues	UP A0A0S7XD53
<i>Parcubacteria bacterium</i>	310 residues	UP A0A0L0LDW4

All sequence codes are from UniProt (UP; [www.uniprot.org](http://www.uniprot.org)) or GenBank (GB; [www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank)).

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Taxonomy according to the Catalogue of Life (<http://www.catalogueoflife.org/col>; [1]) or, when absent, UniProt ([www.uniprot.org](http://www.uniprot.org)).

\* *T. forsythia* karilysin is the only bacterial MMP studied.

Searches completed on 27 January, 2017.



## Supplementary References

[1] Y. Roskov, L. Abucay, T. Orrell, D. Nicolson, N. Bailly, P. Kirk, T. Bourgoin, R.E. de Walt, W. Decock, A. de Wever, E. van Nieukerken, Species 2000 & ITIS Catalogue of Life., Species 2000, Leiden (The Netherlands), 2017.