An ancient lysozyme in placozoans

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Lysozymes are an essential part of nutrition and antibacterial immunity in metazoans, executing the breakdown of bacterial cell walls via the hydrolysis of peptidoglycan. Although various lysozymes have been reported for several bilaterian phyla, the origin of metazoan lysozymes remains elusive as they seem to be lacking in non-bilaterian animals. In this study, we investigated a putative goose-type lysozyme (PLys, glycoside hydrolase family 23, GH23) of the placozoan *Trichoplax* sp. H2 which we localized to gland cells of the ventral epithelium. N-terminal of the conserved GH23 lysozyme domain, PLys contains a non-conserved cysteine-rich domain. We could show a truncation of this N-terminal domain in the maturation process of PLys and a drastic increase in enzymatic activity at the cost of stability using recombinantly expressed physiological proteoforms of PLys. Phylogenetic analysis of GH23 lysozymes from all domains of life revealed a monophyletic radiation in animals. Based on structural comparisons and their distribution in the animal tree of life, metazoan g-type GH23 lysozymes appear to have originated from a horizontal gene transfer event from bacteria to an early pre-bilaterian ancestor. GH23 lysozymes have then been retained and expanded in many phyla, including Porifera, Cnidaria, Placozoa and chordates, acting as key component in the antibacterial arsenal since early metazoan evolution.

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Main:

Animals are always associated and interacting with bacteria. These interactions can range from beneficial mutualism between host and microbe to one side taking advantage, e. g. bacterial pathogens or bacterivorous animals[1]. For killing and digestion of bacteria, animals feature a variety of molecular processes and effector proteins. A key group of such antibacterial proteins are lysozymes, glycoside hydrolases (GHs) that attack the peptidoglycan layer by cleaving the β-1,4-glycosidic bond between its main building blocks N-acetylmuramic acid (MurNAc) and N-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc). Lysozymes have been traditionally grouped into different classes, named after the organisms in which they were first discovered[2]. A more consistent naming convention for enzymes with a glycoside hydrolase activity categorizes them into families based on their fold and substrate specificity. For example, goose-type (g-type) lysozymes, first discovered in the egg white of the graylag goose *Anser anser* and found later in many vertebrates, , belong to the glycoside hydrolase family 23 (GH23), together with bacterial lytic transglycosylases[3].

Lysozymes appear to be very unevenly distributed in the animal tree of life, with most early branching clades such as Ctenophora and Cnidaria apparently lacking *bona fide* lysozymes[2]. While protostomian invertebrates as well as early branching deuterostomes such as echinoderms predominantly feature invertebrate-type (i-type) lysozymes of GH22i, chordates primarily possess g-type (GH23) and chicken-type (c-type) lysozymes (GH22c)[2,4]. Sparse reports of c-type lysozymes in Arthropoda and g-type lysozymes in mollusks, however, challenge the evolutionary argument that these two lysozyme families are limited to Chordata[2]. In addition, a short report of a putative g-type in placozoans, called PLys, suggests that the evolution of major lysozyme groups in animals was not a relatively late innovation in the lineages leading to bilaterians and then chordates[5,6]. The existence of a potential g-type lysozyme in some of arguably the simplest metazoan animals points instead to a much earlier occurrence and diversification of lysozymes in the animal tree of life (ATL). The position of Placozoa in the ATL is under ongoing discussion, but recent bioinformatic analyses consistently

place placozoans among the pre-bilaterian lineages and as the sister taxon to the clade

formed by Cnidaria and Bilateria[7,8]. With such an interesting position in animal phylogeny,

placozoans are increasingly used as a model organism to study the origin of

multicellularity, developmental biology and neurophysiology[5,9,10]. As millimeter-sized and

disk-shaped grazers of marine biofilms, placozoans continually interact with bacteria,

and also harbor endosymbiotic bacteria in a cell-type specific symbiosis[11,12]. The basic

body plan of the placozoans is very simple and consists of three layers. The ventral

columnar epithelium has a mainly digestive function, whereas a thin dorsal epithelium

has primarily a barrier function. A densely packed mesenchyme-like layer consists of

fiber-cells, which form many cell-to-cell connections with other cell types in both

epithelia[13]. In addition, fiber cells contain endosymbiotic bacteria, and have been

highlighted as central immune cells in placozoa, as they are the only cells capable of

phagocytosis and apoptosis[11,14]. During feeding, placozoa form a temporary gastric

cavity between the ventral epithelium and the substrate, into which gland cells and

lipophilic cells secrete digestive enzymes[15]. Comparative single-cell transcriptomics data

of diverse placozoan lineages showed *plys* to be almost exclusively transcribed in gland

cells of the ventral epithelium, from where PLys could be secreted into the gastric cavity

(Fig. S1)[7].

To elucidate the role of PLys in *Trichoplax* sp., we identified the mature natural

proteoforms of the lysozyme, produced the two lysozyme variants recombinantly,

characterized them *in vitro* and determine their cellular distribution in whole animals.

Using evolutionary analyses, we show that the highly active lysozyme PLys represents a

broad radiation of G-type lysozymes across the animal tree of life that arguably were

among the earliest antibacterial effectors in metazoan evolution.

Results and Discussion:

Identification and localization of native placozoan lysozyme

As a putative g-type lysozyme has been reported for placozoans (PLys)[6] and the homolog is transcribed across placozoan diversity, we screened for the activity of lysozymes using placozoan total protein extract from *Trichoplax* sp. H2. On a lysoplate, both placozoan total protein extracts in two concentrations (0.24 mg/mL and 1.24 mg/mL) produced zones of lysis after 24 h (Fig. 1A). Following this first indication of endogenous lysozyme activity, we validated the identity of the potential lysozymes by mass spectrometry and Western blotting of a reverse-phase chromatography fractionated *Trichoplax* proteome. The Western blot revealed two protein double bands, which correspond to molecular masses of about 30 kDa and 20 kDa (Fig. S2)[6]. We therefore used fractions with the strongest signals in the western blot for mass spectrometry to characterize these two potential proteoforms in a combination of proteomic analyses of intact proteins without digestion (top-down) and of digested proteins (peptide-based; bottom-up). In top-down experiments, the most abundant proteoform was lacking the N-terminus and started at amino acid position S100 (Fig. 1B). Based on the structural model of the full length PLys predicted by ColabFold, the N-terminal domain that is missing in this most abundant protein form consists of two repeated beta-sheets, is stabilized by 6 disulphide bonds and is connected to the active g-type lysozyme domain by a loop. N-terminomics (Bottom-up proteomics) experiments detected peptides specific to this N-terminal domain of the full-length PLys. The N-terminus (S100) of the shorter form of PLys is located in the connective loop region between the N-terminal domain and the lysozyme domain (Fig. 1C), which likely constitutes a cleavage site for specific proteolytic processing during protein maturation (limited proteolysis). We therefore differentiate between the truncated and likely mature PLys (mPLys) and the full-length precursor PLys (pPLys) in the later experiments.

Following the identification of the two forms of PLys in the *Trichoplax* sp. H2, we applied immunohistochemical labeling of PLys for cellular localization of the enzyme. Lysozymes are usually either secreted for extracellular lysis of bacteria or act on phagocytosed

bacteria in lysosomes[2]. As fiber cells have been indicated as the only cell type in

Trichoplax capable of engulfing bacteria[14], we predicted that PLys would be detectable

either in lysosomes of fiber cells or in exocytotic vesicles of secretory cells of the ventral

epithelium (gland cells or lipophilic cells). To be able to differentiate these cell types by

ultrastructural features, we opted for optimal tissue and subcellular preservation using

high pressure freezing (HPF) followed by freeze substitution (FS) and resin embedding.

The ventral epithelium features several groups of mucus-secreting gland cells, which we

visualized using rhodamine-coupled wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) to label mucus and

glycocalyces[16]. The signal of the specific PLys antibody was colocalized with WGA-

labeled mucus or glycocalyces and largely confined to vesicles. Most of these vesicles

were in cells of the ventral epithelium and to minor extent in cells of the interepithelial

layer, most likely corresponding to fiber cells (Fig. 2A-D). Our antibody staining is

consistent with the single-cell expression data of Najle *et al.* who reported *plys*

expression predominantly in gland cells[7]. We observed signals in digestive vacuoles of

fiber cells only occasionally, and the single cell transcriptomics data likewise shows no

substantial expression of *plys* in fiber cells[7]. It remains unclear, whether fiber cells are

able to import gland-cell secreted lysozyme, or if expression of lysozyme in fiber cells is

inducible by bacterial components. While the genome of the closely related *Trichoplax*

adhaerens showed a high variety of scavenger receptors and parts of Toll-like and NOD-

like signaling pathways that may detect molecular bacterial patterns, complete signaling

pathways from receptor to transcription factor that induce and regulate the synthesis of

innate immunity factors such as PLys have yet to be identified[17].

147   PLys proteoforms show high lysozyme activity under acidic conditions

Given the contrasting domain architecture of the two forms of PLys, we wanted to

understand the role of the cleaved N-terminal domain that characterizes pPLys. We

therefore heterologously expressed both pPLys and mPLys recombinantly, where

mPLys consisted of the g-type lysozyme domain starting at amino position 112 (M112)

of pPLys (mPLys_M112). A comparison of pPLys and mPLys_M112 lysozyme activity at

room temperature against freeze-dried and deactivated *Micrococcus lysodeicticus*

revealed high specific activities for both variants compared to hen egg white lysozyme
(HEWL) at pH 5.0 (21°C; pPLys = 9 U/pmol; mPLys_M112 = 11 U/pmol; HEWL
0.5 U/pmol) (Fig. 3B). Both variants had maximum activity under low ionic strength
(<50 mM) and at a pH between 5.0 and 5.5 (Fig. 3C-D). The specific activity of
mPLys_M112 at its pH optimum (pH 5.5) was 3-times higher than that of pPLys at its
respective optimum (pH 5.0) (Fig. 3E). At 21°C, which is the ambient temperature for our
long-term placozoan cultures, and their optimal pH, both proteoforms had a strong
bactericidal activity against viable gram-positive *Bacillus subtilis*. However, we found no
activity against the tested gram-negative *E. coli* strain (Fig. 3F and S3). The lack of
activity against gram-negative bacteria is contrary to the results of PLys by Bam and
Nakano[6] but consistent with most metazoan lysozymes being inactive towards gram-
negative bacteria[2].
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pPLys has a much higher optimal temperature and is active at a much broader
range of temperatures.
Since the N-terminal domain of PLys is stabilized by six disulphide bonds, we
hypothesized that enzyme performance could strongly deviate under heat stress. Our
screens across a broad temperature range indeed revealed that the specific lysozyme
activity of pPLys increased until 60 °C and was still detectable at 70 °C, while
mPLys_M112 activity peaked at 30 °C and decreased proportional to the increase in
temperature (Fig. 3E). Following the strong difference in heat tolerance, we assessed the
denaturing dynamics (melting temperatures) for both variants. mPLys_M112 denatured
between 25 °C and 35 °C, whereas pPLys denatured between 50 °C and 60 °C,
consistent with their temperature-activity profiles (Fig. S4). Overall, the pPLys N-terminal
domain appears to have a strong stabilizing effect under physiologically relevant
temperatures, at the cost of activity. G-type lysozymes typically contain two disulphide
bonds, whereas the PLys lysozyme domain only contains one[18]. The increased structural
flexibility introduced by the loss of a disulphide bond could explain both increased
activity at low temperatures due to an induced-fit type of substrate binding, and
decreased stability at higher temperatures[19]. In pPLys, the cysteine-rich N-terminal

domain could compensate for the loss of the disulphide bond and stabilize the protein
until maturation to prevent a fast physiological turn-over. We hypothesize that *Trichoplax*
likely uses this trade-off between stability and activity by cleaving the N-terminus from
pPLys before secretion. The cysteine-rich repeats (CRRs) which constitute the N-
terminus are widely distributed across eukaryotes and were linked to horizontal gene
transfer (HGT) events from prokaryotes[20,21]. Those CRRs are abundant in proteins
associated with antimicrobial activity, where one or multiple CRRs constitute the N-
terminus. Temperature-dependent activity studies on full-length and truncated variants
of other proteins with this N-terminal CRR domain structure could elucidate if the
stabilizing effect is conserved and promotes the selection of this domain architecture.
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The puzzle of low pH and low ionic strength for optimal pLys activity
Placozoans only form a temporary gastric cavity (feeding groove) when moving onto their
feeding substrate. As we primarily localized the lysozyme to vesicles of the ventral
epithelium, mPLys is presumably secreted to attack gram-positive bacteria and to
decompose accumulating peptidoglycan in this temporary feeding groove. Due to the
strong dependency of PLys activity on acidic conditions, we assume that placozoans
can acidify this gastric cavity despite its temporary nature. Previous studies on the
feeding behavior of *Trichoplax* sp. indicated gland cells and lipophilic cells as primary
secretory cells in the feeding process, in which gland cells largely contribute digestive
enzymes and lipophilic cells may contribute to the acidification with a secretory burst of
vesicles stainable with acidophilic dyes[15]. Release of the acidic content of those vesicles
in vast amounts might facilitate acidification of the gastric cavity, potentially down to the
physiologically optimal conditions for PLys activity at pH 5.0 to 5.5. However, how
placozoans lower ionic strength to less than 10% of the surrounding seawater medium
remains enigmatic. One possible mechanism could involve the mucus, which is secreted
by gland cells in the ventral epithelium. Mucins, the main component of metazoan
mucus, are complex proteoglycans which often carry negatively charged building blocks
such as carboxy groups, sulfate groups or sialic acid residues[22]. It has already been
shown that the negatively charged components of mucins can bind sodium ions and

their hydrate shells, causing swelling of the mucus and formation of a biogel[23]. Similarly,
in placozoans, the nascent mucus in the gastric cavity could potentially take up inorganic
cation species from the seawater medium, which is dominated by sodium ions, and lead
to a decrease of ionic strength in the aqueous phase inside the gastric cavity. Depending
on the pH inside the mucus-loaded exocytotic vesicles of the gland cells, carboxy-
groups in the mucus may be initially protonated and lead to proton-sodium exchange
between mucus and seawater after secretion, which would also cause a decrease of pH
in the gastric cavity. Experimentally, pH and conductivity microsensors with high
sensitivity and spatial resolution will possibly reveal the physicochemical dynamics
during the feeding process. Chemical analysis of placozoan mucus would be necessary
to characterize the molecular function of mucus in these early branching metazoans.
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Evolution of metazoan g-type lysozymes
Placozoa are one of the earliest branching animal phyla, and their physiologically relevant
synthesis of g-type lysozymes with a two-step maturation suggested that related
lysozymes may be more widespread across the animal tree of life. To elucidate the
evolution of PLys and all other metazoan g-type lysozymes in the GH23 subfamily I, we
hence constructed a database of all GH23_I members including a set of closely related
bacterial lytic transglycosylases that possess the specific sequence motif of the GH23_I.
Amino acid sequences were obtained from the carbohydrate active enzyme (CAZY)
database, BLAST searches with PLys against nr, and the manual addition of a curated
group of GH23_I orthologs detected in metazoan genome assemblies without previously
annotated g-type lysozymes[24] (Fig. 4 and S5). In our phylogenetic analysis, out of the
131 metazoan g-type lysozymes included in the dataset, 129 clustered in a single clade
(clade support: 99.3) that is monophyletic except for a single bacterial sequence from
Saprospira grandis (acc. num. WBM73135.1). While the molecular evolution trajectory of
most g-type lysozyme orthologues was consistent with the phylogenetic relationships of
the respective organisms, we occasionally observed the clustering of orthologues from
phylogenetically distant species. This could be due to gene duplication and different
evolutionary trajectories of the resulting paralogues or the horizontal gene transfer

between different metazoan ancestors. The prevalence of g-type lysozymes in all early branching animals (Porifera, Cnidaria and Placozoa) except Ctenophora suggests that g-type lysozymes originated during early metazoan evolution[25]. The g-type lysozyme appears to be an innovation of the lineage split from ctenophores and supports the ctenophore first hypothesis of early animal evolution[26]. The gene was then lost in most of the Protostomia except mollusks and brachiopods, while it was retained in most chordate lineages (Fig. 5). All early branching animals lack homologues of any other lysozyme subfamily, except a description of an i-type lysozyme in the sponge *Suberites domuncula*[25]. In a previous phylogenetic analysis of i-type lysozymes, we showed the *Suberites* lysozyme to be most similar to deuterostomian i-type lysozymes[27]. As all other analyzed Porifera lack i-type lysozymes, this could either be a contamination or a secondary acquisition of the i-type lysozyme by an ancestor of *Suberites*.

While all metazoan g-type lysozymes cluster together and diverge from bacterial lytic transglycosylases, the exact relationship between these ancient and very similar protein folds, which show low sequence but a substantial structural conservation, are difficult to resolve from primary structure analyses. We therefore used a tertiary structure-based phylogenetics approach to reconstruct their deeper relationships, and included c-type and i-type lysozymes as well as the most closely related GH-families to elucidate the start of the g-type lysozyme radiation[4,28]. The g-type lysozyme branch separates from all other metazoan lysozyme families and branches within bacterial GH23 clades (Fig. 6 and S6). This is further strengthened from previous structural biology studies, which showed GH23 enzymes to be more similar to the putative common molecular ancestor of chitinases and murein-active-glycosidases than c-type lysozymes (GH22c) and i-type lysozymes (GH22i) in terms of active center organization, reaction mechanism and fold[4,29]. As our sequence- and structure-based phylogenetic analyses indicate, a bacterial lytic transglycosylase could have been horizontally transferred to a metazoan or pre-metazoan ancestor in an ancient event and evolved into the metazoan g-type lysozymes. To reconstruct the evolutionary trajectories of lysozymes in even higher detail, future genomic analyses of early-branching metazoans and metazoan-related holozoans may allow to provide more comprehensive databases and to identify novel

glycoside hydrolase orthologues. Moreover, detailed studies on the abundance and
mechanisms of horizontal-gene transfer events involving eukaryotes and prokaryotes are
certainly needed to account for the impact of horizontal gene transfer on metazoan
evolution.

Materials and Methods:

Trichoplax **sp. H2 culture and collection**

Organisms of *Trichoplax* sp. H2 strain "Panama" were cultivated at room temperature in
petri dishes in 34 PSU filtered sea water (FSW) and fed with *Rhodomonas* sp. Water was
changed every two weeks and every culture was discontinued after six weeks. For
protein extraction, individuals were picked and transferred into clean reaction tubes with
FSW. After transfer of 50 to 100 individuals, the tube was shortly centrifuged to sediment
the animals at the bottom. Following the removal of the supernatant, the pellets were
stored at -20 °C until use.

Trichoplax **sp. H2 lysis and protein detection**

Sample pellets comprising 500 individuals of *Trichoplax* sp. H2 in total were lysed using
a total volume of 500 µL of 8 M urea, 50 mM sodium bicarbonate buffer, 300 mM NaCl,
pH 7.4. The pellets were suspended and pipetted up and down until the lysate appeared
homogenous. The lysate was centrifuged at 15,000 x *g* at 4 °C for 15 min to remove
insoluble debris. The supernatant was diluted with 50 mM sodium bicarbonate buffer,
300 mM NaCl, pH 7.4 to a final urea concentration of 1.5 M. Subsequently, the sample
was subjected to reversed phase fast protein liquid chromatography (FPLC) using a GE
ÄKTA Purifier 100 FPLC system (Amersham Biosciences). The sample was loaded on a
Hamilton PRP-3 microbore column and subsequently eluted in a linear gradient from
0.1% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) to 80% acetonitrile (ACN) in 0.1% TFA in 20 column
volumes (CV). The eluate was collected in fractions of 1 mL by an autosampler. The
fractions were split in two aliquots each and lyophilized. One aliquot of every fraction
was subjected to a Western blot analysis.

For protein separation using Tricine-SDS-PAGE, 50 µg of extracted protein were loaded

onto a polyacrylamide gel consisting of a 5% stacking gel and a 13% separation gel[30].

After electrophoresis, proteins were electroblotted onto a PVDF membrane following a

standard semi-dry blotting protocol. Successful blotting was verified by staining with

Ponceau S. The membrane was washed with Tris-buffered saline (TBS) and TBS with

0.05% Tween 20 (TBST) and afterwards blocked using 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA)

in TBST. The membrane was afterwards incubated overnight with a custom polyclonal

antibody mix (0.88 µg/mL) against PLys, generated in two rabbits (Eurogentec). One

rabbit was immunized with the peptide C-TKEQQMQGGVAAYNF (Res. 239-253), the

other one with the peptide C-PYSSTHISQATNILI (Res. 211-225) corresponding to two

putatively surface-exposed alpha helices in the lysozyme domain of PLys following

protein structure prediction. Antibodies were enriched and purified using affinity

chromatography after final bleeding of the animals. After incubation with the primary

antibodies, the membrane was washed three times with TBST for 15 min each and

incubated afterwards with a monoclonal antibody against rabbit IgG coupled to

horseradish peroxidase (HRP) (BioCat) for 1 h. Following three washes with TBST for 15

min, the membrane was developed using the Amersham ECL Advanced Western

Blotting Detection kit (GE Healthcare) and a luminescence detector (GE Healthcare) with

an exposure time of 5 s. Based on the results of the Western blot, the remaining aliquots

of fractions containing putative proteoforms of PLys were subjected to mass

spectrometry.

Top-down proteomics

Lyophilized fractions from the reversed-phase FPLC fractionation (A9, A10) were

dissolved in 50 µL 3% acetonitrile (ACN), 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) and centrifuged

at 20,000 g for 25 min at 4°C. 10 µL of the supernatant was either reduced by 5 mM

TCEP for 1 hr at 25°C, or analyzed in its non-reduced form by LC-MS. Chromatographic

separation was performed on a Dionex U3000 nanoHPLC system equipped with an

Accucore C4 column (50 cm × 75 µm, 2.6 µm, 150 Å) coupled online to a Fusion Lumos

Tribrid mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) equipped with the High-Field-

Asymmetric Waveform Ion Mobility Spectrometry (FAIMS) Pro Interface. The eluents used were: eluent A, 0.05% formic acid (FA); eluent B, 80% ACN, 0.04% FA. The separation was performed over a programmed 90-min run. Initial chromatographic conditions were 4% B for 5 min, then increased to 15% B over 2 min followed by a linear gradient from 15% to 50% B over 60 min then 50 to 90% B over 2 min, and 11 min at 90% B. Following this, an inter-run equilibration of the column was achieved by 10 minutes at 4% B. A constant flow rate of 300 nl/min was employed. Wash runs were performed between each sample injection. Full scan MS spectra were acquired (800-1300 m/z, resolution 120,000, 4 microscans) and fragment scans of the target ions were collected at CV of -15 or -10 (data dependent scans of 2, resolution 60,000) via CID activation at NCE 25. Target ions were chosen after a survey scan that identified the proteoform. Raw data were analyzed against a database containing a Uniprot *Trichoplax sp. H2* proteome (13.02.2023) (12,150 sequences), Uniprot *Rhodomonas* sp. proteins (374 sequences), and common contaminants (cRAP). The search was performed on Proteome DiscovererTM 3.0 using a ProSightPD 4.2 search engine with a High/High crawler Node (Max. RT difference 3 min and a precursor m/z tolerance of 0.5). Single proteoform search node with the sequence of the proteoform was performed with a precursor and fragment tolerances of 100 Da and 10 ppm, respectively.

Bottom-up proteomics (N terminomics)
Each 15 µL of the fractions 9 and 10 in 3% ACN, and 0.1% TFA were diluted to 100 µL with TEAB then reduced with 10 mM DTT for 30 min at 56°C. Samples were alkylated with 55 mM CAA at 25°C for 20 min in the dark. A first clean-up was performed using SP3 beads (1:25 w/w protein to beads ratio) and ethanol (EtOH) added to 80% (v/v) with mixing for 15 min at 25°C to induce protein binding. The supernatant was removed and beads were washed three times with 80% EtOH. Dimethyl labelling (reductive demethylation) of N-termini was performed by resuspending protein-bound beads in 200 mM HEPES (pH 7.0) and then mixing with formaldehyde (30 mM) and sodium cyanoborohydride (15 mM) at 37°C for 2 h. Formaldehyde (30 mM) and sodium cyanoborohydride (15 mM) was added again to each sample and kept mixing at 37°C

overnight. To quench the reaction, Tris buffer (pH 6.8) was added to 0.6 M for 5 h at 37°C. A second clean-up was done by adding EtOH to 80% for 15 min at 25°C. Then, the supernatant was removed and beads were washed three times with 80% EtOH. Beads were spun down to remove any remaining liquid and then reconstituted in 200 mM HEPES (pH 8). Digestion was performed with trypsin (1:50 enzyme to protein ratio) overnight at 37°. Supernatant containing peptides was vacuum dried, then resuspended in 3% ACN, 0.1% TFA and analysed by LC-MS. Chromatographic separation was performed on a Dionex U3000 nanoHPLC system equipped with an Acclaim pepmap100 C18 column (2 µm particle size, 75 µm × 500 mm) coupled online to a mass spectrometer. The same eluents as for the Top-down experiment were used. The 2separation was performed over a programmed 122-min run. After isocratic elution at 4% B for 2 min, a linear gradient from 4% to 50% B over 90 min then 50 to 90% B over 5 min, and 10 min at 90% B was utilized. A constant flow rate of 300 nl/min was employed. Wash runs were performed between each sample injection. Data acquisition following separation was performed on a QExactive Plus (Thermo). Full scan MS spectra were acquired (300-1500 m/z, resolution 70,000) and subsequent data-dependent MS/MS scans were collected for the 10 most intense ions (Top10) via HCD activation at NCE 27 (resolution 17,500). Dynamic exclusion (20 s duration) and a lock mass (445.120025) was enabled. Raw data were analyzed against a database containing a Uniprot *Trichoplax sp. H2* proteome (13.02.2023) (12,150 sequences), Uniprot *Rhodomonas* sp. proteins (374 sequences) and common contaminants (cRAP). The search was performed on Proteome DiscovererTM 2.5 using a SequestHT search engine with 10 ppm and 0.02 Da precursor and fragment ions tolerances, respectively. Digestion with Trypsin_R (semi) with a max of two missed cleavages. Oxidation (15.995 Da) of methionine and dimethylation (28.031 Da) and methylation (14.016 Da) at the peptide N-terminus were set as dynamic modifications. Carbamidomethylation (57.02146 Da) on cysteine and dimethylation on lysine was set as a static modification. Strict parsimony criteria have been applied filtering peptides and proteins at 1% false discovery rate estimation.

Lysoplate assay

For detection of lysozyme activity, 50 *Trichoplax* sp. H2 organisms were lysed with 500 µL of 50 mM MES buffer, 300 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, pH 5.5. Following lysis, the lysate was centrifuged for at 4 °C at 12,000 x *g* for 10 min to remove insoluble debris. Protein concentration was determined using a Micro BCA assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The lysate was concentrated using 10 kDa molecular weight cut-off (MWCO) ultrafiltration inlets (Merck) and 10 µL were loaded onto a lysoplate with 20 mM sodium acetate, pH 5.0, into 3 mm wells[31]. The raw extract was loaded onto the plate as well. The lysoplate was incubated at room temperature for 24 h. Ten µL of 2 mg/mL hen egg white lysozyme (Sigma-Aldrich) was used as positive control, lysis buffer as negative control.

Immunofluorescence of *Trichoplax* sp. H2

Trichoplax sp. H2 individuals were cryofixed using an EM ICE high pressure freezer (Leica) as described previously[11]. The animals were first transferred into planchets, covered with hexadecane as filler, and subsequently subjected to high pressure freezing. The vitrified samples were subjected to freeze substitution using a freeze substitution (FS) machine (Leica), following an adapted protocol from Mayorova et al.[16] Briefly, samples were freeze substituted in acetone with 0.5% uranyl acetate at -90 °C for 8 h, followed by incubation at -60 °C for 8 h and at -40 °C for 8 h. After washing with ethanol, samples were progressively infiltrated with medium hardness LOWICRYL HM20 resin at -40 °C (33%, 66%, 100%, each for 2 h), followed by 100% resin overnight. Samples were transferred to fresh resin in 0.2 ml PCR tubes and polymerized under indirect UV-radiation at -40 °C for 48 h, followed by direct UV irradiation for 12 h at room temperature in a nail polish lamp. The hardened samples were remounted and sectioned using a Leica UC7 ultramicrotome and a histo diamond knife (Diatome). Transverse 300 nm thin sections were transferred onto water drops on glow-discharged cover slips and heated until the water evaporated. Prior to immunofluorescence labelling, the sections were etched with 10% sodium ethoxide in ethanol for 5 min to increase antigen accessibility[32] For immunofluorescence labelling, the cover slips were first blocked with 0.5% fish skin

gelatin (Sigma-Aldrich) in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) for 30 min, followed by

overnight incubation with the primary antibody against PLys in a concentration of

25 µg/mL in blocking solution at 4 °C in a wet chamber. A negative control was incubated

in the blocking solution only. Afterwards, the cover slips were washed with multiple

changes of PBS and incubated with a FITC-coupled anti-Rabbit IgG, diluted 1:100 in

blocking buffer, together with Rhodamine-coupled wheat germ agglutinin (WGA), diluted

1:300, at room temperature in a wet chamber for 3 h. Subsequently, the cover slips were

washed with several changes of PBS and incubated in 1 µg/ml DAPI in ddH$_2$O, for

10 min. The cover slips were then washed in two quick changes of ddH$_2$O. Excessive

water was removed with a filter paper and the cover slips were mounted onto an 8-µL

drop of Mowiol (Carl Roth). The cover slips were stored for one day at room temperature

at a dark place to ensure hardening of Mowiol and subsequently stored at 4 °C until

image acquisition. Imaging was conducted with an LSM 900 with Airyscan confocal

microscope (Carl Zeiss) using a Plan-Apochromat 40x/1.4 Oil DIC M27 objective and

three laser excitation wavelengths (405/488/561). Images were acquired in the Airyscan

Multiplex mode with tiling and subsequently Airyscan processed and stitched using the

Zeiss ZEN v. 3.2 software.

Recombinant protein production and purification

cDNA of mPLys_M112 and pPLys, without a signal peptide predicted using SignalP v5.0,

was synthesized and inserted into pET-30-a(+) plasmids, codon optimized for *E. coli*

(BioCat)[33]. The sequence of mPLys_M112 was generated from Uniprot entry B3RIZ1,

while the sequence of pPLys was obtained from Uniprot entry A0A369RX22. The amino

acid sequence of the pPLys fusion protein (pPlys-FP) was

MHHHHHHSSGLVPRGSGMKETAAAKFERQHMDSPDLGTDDDDKAMKSVILLSAFVAVA

FAALNDDCNAGQGSCQYDSQCYTGTPASGLCPYDPSNVKCCPKVGQSCKSSTGNCML

TTHCGGTTYSGYCPGPSSVRCCVSSSGSGGSYPTKYGDFMRINPSGASSATARQDGLS

YSGVAASNKLASNDYNRCLRYKSQFQSASSSTQIPVGLITAIASRESRCGGALDSNGYGD

HGNGYGLMQVDKRYHSLQGGPYSSTHISQATNILISSINGVANNHRSWTKEQQMQGGV

AAYNFGVGNVQSIGGMDIGTTGNDYSNDVVARAQWFHNNGFN. The amino acid

sequence of the mPLys_M112-FP was

MHHHHHHSSGLVPRGSGMKETAAAKFERQHMDSPDLGTDDDDKAMGRINPSGASSAT

ARQDGLSYSGVAASNKLASNDYNRCLRYKSQFQSASSSTQIPVGLITAIASRESRCGGAL

DSNGYGDHGNGYGLMQVDKRYHSLQGGPYSSTHISQATNILISSINGVANNHRSWTKEQ

QMQGGVAAYNFGVSNVQSIGGMDIGTTGNDYSNDVVARAQWFHNNGFN.

Besides the lacking N-terminal domain, mPLys_M112 differed from pPLys only in a

single amino acid substitution from glycine to serine in amino acid position 256. As this

residue is located inside a loop, oriented towards the solvent, and does not form the

conserved substrate binding site or active site in the predicted protein structure, we

considered this amino acid substitution not to affect either lysozyme activity or protein

stability. A chemically competent *E. coli* Shuffle *LysY* strain, which is engineered for

cytoplasmic expression of disulphide-bond containing proteins, was transformed with

the respective plasmids and grown in LB medium (50 µg/mL Kanamycin) at 37 °C and

150 rpm overnight. The overnight culture was split into 500 µL aliquots and mixed 1:1

(V/V) with glycerol. The resulting glycerol stocks were stored at -80 °C until further use.

Prior to recombinant protein expression, 100 mL LB medium was inoculated with 100 µL

glycerol stock and grown over night as described above. At the next day, 1 L TB medium

(50 µg/mL kanamycin) was inoculated with overnight culture to an OD600 of 0.1. When

the culture reached an OD600 of 0.4 to 0.6, protein expression was induced using 0.4

mM IPTG. For protein overexpression, the culture was incubated at 18 °C and 150 rpm

for 16 h. Bacteria were harvested by centrifuging at 14,500 x *g* at 4 °C for 30 min. The

resulting pellets were resuspended in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer, 300 mM NaCl,

pH 7.4. Bacterial cells were lysed using an MS-73 sonotrode (Bandelin) following the

manufacturer's instructions. The lysate was cleared by centrifuging at 35,000 x *g* at 4 °C

for 30 min. The pellet was resuspended in buffer and the lysing and centrifuging step

was repeated. The resulting supernatants were collected and subjected to immobilized

metal-ion affinity chromatography using HiTrap Talon Crude columns with a CV of 5 mL

(Cytiva) and a peristaltic pump (Pharmacia). After sample loading, the column was

washed with 10 CV sample buffer. Overexpressed fusion protein was eluted with sample

buffer containing 500 mM imidazole. All further chromatographic purification steps were

performed on an ÄKTA Purifier FPLC. The eluted fusion proteins were desalted into a 20

mM Tris-HCl buffer containing 50 mM NaCl, 20 % glycerol (w/V) and 2 mM $CaCl_2$, pH

6.8, using a HiPrep 26/10 desalting column (Cytiva). Enterokinase, light chain (New

England Biolabs) was added in a ratio of 15 ng Enterokinase per milligram fusion protein.

After two days of incubation at room temperature, the cleaved protein of interest (POI)

was purified using size exclusion chromatography (SEC). For SEC, a Superdex PG 75

16/600 column (Cytiva) was used. After sample loading, the sample was eluted with a

20 mM MES buffer containing 300 mM NaCl and 20% glycerol, pH 5.5, using a flow rate

of 0.75 mL/min. Eluted proteins were collected in 1-mL fractions. The purified proteins

were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C until use. Protein concentration

was determined measuring the absorbance at 280 nm and applying the calculated

extinction coefficient at this wavelength.

Lysozyme assay

For quantification of lysozyme activity, a turbidimetric assay after Shugar was used.[34]

Lyophilized *Micrococcus lysodeikticus* ATCC No. 4698 (Sigma-Aldrich) (0.2 mg/mL)

were suspended in reaction buffer. For standard measurements a 20 mM sodium acetate

buffer with varying pH values was used. Different ionic strengths were adjusted with

NaCl. To determine the optimal pH value for lysozyme activity, a modified buffer after

Ellis was used, containing 5 mM sodium carbonate, 5 mM 2-amino-2-methylpropan-1,3-

diol, 5 mM sodium dihydrogen phosphate and 5 mM citric acid[35]. For every

measurement, 20 μL of lysozyme solution were added to 730 μL *Micrococcus*

suspension. The decrease in extinction at a wavelength of 450 nm was measured

photometrically. For measurements at room temperature, an EasySpec UV-Vis

spectrophotometer (Safas) was used. Measurements at different temperatures were

performed with an UV2600i dual-beam absorption spectrophotometer equipped with a

CPS-100 temperature-controlled cuvette holder (Shimadzu). One U of lysozyme activity

was defined as a decrease of extinction at 450 nm of 0.001per minute[34].

Bacterial lysis assay

For assaying the lysing potential of pPLys and mPLys_M112, a membrane-permeabilization assay was used, described in detail by Bruhn et al.[36] . *Escherichia coli* K12 D31 YpCr[37] and *Bacillus subtilis* (ATCC 6051) were used as target cells in this assay. In brief, $1 \cdot 10^5$ CFU/well bacteria in mid-logarithmic growth phase were added to a dilution series of the protein of interest in a black flat-bottom 96-well plate (Sarstedt), together with the DNA binding dye SYTOX Green (Invitrogen). Fluorescence was measured with a Tecan Infinite M200 plate reader (Tecan) measuring emission at 538 nm, excited at 495 nm. Relative lysis was calculated by setting the offset fluorescence of unlysed bacteria as 0% and the fluorescence of totally lysed bacteria as 100%. For *E. coli*, total lysis was correlated to the fluorescence caused by 625 nM Melittin, for *B. subtilis*, total lysis was interpreted as the maximum fluorescence generated by mPLys_M112, as the fluorescence after Melittin treatment was drastically below the fluorescence plateau of the lysozyme treatment (Fig. S3). If possible, sigmoidal curves were fitted to the data in ORIGIN v2023 using the Boltzmann function.

Thermal shift assay

Stability of recombinant mPLys_M112 and pPLys in different buffers from the Durham pH Screen (Molecular Dimensions #MD1-101) was assessed by thermal shift assays[38]. Four µL of 5000x SYPRO Orange dye (Thermo Fisher) were added to 1 mL of protein solution in 100 mM sodium phosphate, 500 mM NaCl, pH 6.5. Ten µL of this mixture were distributed into a 96-well PCR plate (Sarstedt). Ten µL buffer concentrate was added and the plate sealed with a transparent foil (Carl Roth). Melting curves were recorded in an ABI7300 qPCR thermocycler (Thermo Fisher) through the TAMRA channel. The plate was first equilibrated at 21 °C for 2 min and then the fluorescence was measured for 1 min. Subsequently, the temperature was increased in 1-°C increments (0.25 min equilibration followed by 1 min measurement) up to 96 °C. Curves were inspected visually and then processed using *Excel* 16.69.1 (Microsoft) and *Prism* 9.4.1 (Graphpad) as previously described[38].

Phylogenetic analyses of g-type lysozyme amino acid sequences

The evolutionary relationships between PLys and other members of the GH23 subfamily I were inferred through Maximum Likelihood (ML) phylogenetics, using the amino acid alignment of the conserved g-type lysozyme domain. From the CAZY database[39], we obtained the list of all 120,967 GH23 annotated proteins (http://www.cazy.org/IMG/cazy_data/GH23.txt; accessed on the 1st of September 2023), and used the accession numbers to retrieve public sequences from the NCBI protein database. The dataset was filtered to keep sequences with a length between 100 and 1,000 residues and that contained both the motives Glu-Ser and Glu-Leu-Met-Gln that are conserved in GH23 subfamily I. Further downsampling was carried out in two steps, first by randomly selecting one sequence from each host species, and then by selecting one sequence per cluster at a 50% identity threshold using CD-HIT v. 4.8.1[40]. Additional metazoan g-type lysozyme sequences were added through rounds of BLASTp searches against the non-redundant sequences database (nr) to improve the representation of the group. Finally, lysozyme sequences from Porifera and Cnidaria from a g-type lysozyme orthogroup[24] were manually added to the dataset. A chitosanase sequence from *Bacillus subtilis* was included in the dataset as outgroup (acc. num. QHE14361.1). Multiple sequence alignment was carried out with Muscle v.5.1[41] and the resulting alignment was trimmed to keep residues only that aligned against the g-type lysozyme conserved domain which was determined for PLys sequence through the InterProScan web application[42]. The ML tree of the resulting alignment was calculated with IQ-TREE v.2.0.3[43], based on the general variable time matrix (VT), a FreeRate heterogeneity model with 10 categories (+R10) as selected by ModelFinder[44] and using the SH-aLRT test with 1,000 bootstrap replicates for branch support. Tree representation was obtained with iTOL[45]. To account for the simplification generated by the downsampling steps, all eukaryotic sequences removed from the initial dataset, which represented 0.1% of the complete dataset, were placed in the tree following an Evolutionary Placement Analysis (EPA) approach using MAFFT v.7.520[46] to add the sequences to the alignment and epa-ng v.0.3.8[47] to build the final tree.

Protein structure prediction and structure-based phylogenetics of the GH lysozyme superfamily

For protein structure prediction, we used ColabFold v1.5.5 which combines MMseqs2 with Alphafold 2, as previously described[48]. Out of five generated models, we chose the highest ranked model as predicted protein structure. Chimera v1.16 was used for molecular visualization[49]. Crystal structures of proteins from all GH families within the lysozyme superfamily were obtained from PDB database and included in an unrooted ML tree with the predicted protein structure of PLys. The software FoldTree[28] was used to both generate pairwise alignments between the three-dimensional structures and to derive an ML tree based on a local structural alphabets approach. We randomly subsampled the generated structure models three times and calculated a tree for every subsample. One tree is presented in the main text, the additional two trees in Fig. S7.

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Figures

Figure 1: PLys is an active lysozyme with a truncated mature proteoform.
A): Lysoplate assay with 8x concentrate of raw *Trichoplax* sp. H2 8x, unconcentrated
T. sp. H2 extract extract, 20 µg HEWL and lysis buffer. **B)**: Structure model of PLys as
ribbon diagram. The backbone of the mature proteoform of PLys is colored in light
blue, while the cysteine-rich N-terminal domain is colored in dark blue. Cysteine
residues forming disulphide bonds are highlighted and annotated. An arrow marks
S100, the apparent N-terminus of the physiologically mature proteoform.
C): Representative mass spectrum of the top-down proteomics experiment with the
identified mature PLys proteoform with charge states z=19 and z=20.

Figure 2: PLys is abundant across placozoan tissues with high local concentrations in peripheral gland cells. Immunofluorescence images of 300 nm sections of high pressure frozen and freeze substituted *Trichoplax* sp. H2 embedded in LOWICRYL HM20. Sections were etched with sodium ethoxide prior to labeling. Signals of different channels are shown in false colours. **A**): DAPI: blue. **B**): antiPLys: green **C**): WGA-Rhodamin: orange. **D**): Merged channels. Scale bars correspond to 20 μm.

Figure 3: PLys is a potent lysozyme under acidic conditions. A): SDS-PAGE gel of purified recombinant mPLys_M112 and pPLys. The SeeBlue Plus2 protein standard (Invitrogen) was used as molecular mass reference. **B**): Lysozyme assay of 32 pmol pPLys (closed triangles), 32 pmol mPLys_M112 (open triangles) and 32 pmol HEWL (closed squares) at pH 5.0. Reaction buffer consisted of 20 mM sodium acetate, pH 5.0 (I = 13 mM). **C,D**): Dependency of lysozyme activity of pPLys (closed triangles) and mPLys_M112 (open triangles) on ionic strength (C) and pH value (D) at room temperature. **E**): Lysozyme activity of pPLys (closed triangles), mPLys_M112 (open triangles) and HEWL (closed squares) at different temperatures. All measurements were performed in triplicates. **F**): Relative lysis of *B. subtilis* (triangles) and *E. coli* K12 D31 cells (squares) after treatment with pPLys (filled symbols) and mPLys_M112 (open symbols). The depicted values are the average of two replicate measurements.

Figure 4: Metazoan g-type lysozymes cluster predominantly into a single clade and are present in six animal phyla. A) Phylogenetic tree of 1410 glycoside hydrolase family 23 sequences from all domains of life and **B**) expanded tree branch containing all metazoan sequences. Colors indicate host groups, orange dots show phylogenetic support (aLRT).

Figure 5: G-type lysozymes are widely distributed over the animal tree of life and the only lysozyme of early all early branching metazoans except Ctenophores. Overview phylogram of metazoans based on Laumer et al.[8], that shows the distribution of the most abundant lysozyme families (closed circles). The status of lysozyme abundance is based on Callewaert and Michiels[2], Berndt et al.[27] and this study. As only one GH22i lysozyme has been reported for poriferans, the respective circle is dotted.

Figure 6: Structure-based phylogeny of GH families within the lysozyme superfamily. In **A**), the whole tree is depicted, in **B**), GH23 clades were collapsed. GH23 structures were randomly sampled from our working dataset (20%). Asteriscs indicate presence of structures from a phage host within the collapsed clade.