

Stereochemistry of family 52 glycosyl hydrolases: a β -xylosidase from *Bacillus stearothermophilus* T-6 is a retaining enzyme

Tsafir Bravman^a, Gennady Zolotnitsky^b, Smadar Shulami^a, Valery Belakhov^c,
Dmitry Solomon^c, Timor Baasov^{c,d}, Gil Shoham^e, Yuval Shoham^{a,d,*}

^aDepartment of Food Engineering and Biotechnology, Technion Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa 32000, Israel

^bInterdepartmental Program in Biotechnology, Technion Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa 32000, Israel

^cDepartment of Chemistry, Technion Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa 32000, Israel

^dInstitute of Catalysis Science and Technology, Technion Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa 32000, Israel

^eDepartment of Inorganic Chemistry and The Laboratory for Structural Chemistry and Biology, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Jerusalem 91904, Israel

Received 26 February 2001; revised 19 March 2001; accepted 21 March 2001

First published online 3 April 2001

Edited by Pierre Jolles

Abstract A β -xylosidase from *Bacillus stearothermophilus* T-6 assigned to the uncharacterized glycosyl hydrolase family 52 was cloned, overexpressed in *Escherichia coli* and purified. The enzyme showed maximum activity at 65°C and pH 5.6–6.3. The stereochemistry of the hydrolysis of *p*-nitrophenyl β -D-xylopyranoside was followed by ¹H-nuclear magnetic resonance. Time dependent spectrum analysis showed that the configuration of the anomeric carbon was retained, indicating that a retaining mechanism prevails in family 52 glycosyl hydrolases. Sequence alignment and site-directed mutagenesis enabled the identification of functionally important amino acid residues of which Glu337 and Glu413 are likely to be the two key catalytic residues involved in enzyme catalysis. © 2001 Published by Elsevier Science B.V. on behalf of the Federation of European Biochemical Societies.

Key words: β -Xylosidase; Nuclear magnetic resonance; Retaining mechanism; Glycosyl hydrolase family 52; Catalytic residue; *Bacillus stearothermophilus*

1. Introduction

β -D-Xylosidases (1,4- β -D-xylan xylohydrolase, EC 3.2.1.37) are hemicellulases that hydrolyze xylooligosaccharides (mainly xylobiose) to xylose and are essential for the complete utilization of xylan. This heteropolysaccharide is composed of β -1,4-linked xylopyranosyl units carrying side chain moieties such as arabinofuranose, methyl glucuronic acid and acetyl. The branching and variability of the xylan structure requires the concerted action of several hemicellulolytic enzymes [1,2] including endo-1,4- β -xylanases (EC 3.2.1.8) that hydrolyze the xylan backbone, and β -xylosidases that cleave the resulting xylooligomers into xylose monomers. Hemicellulases in general, and xylan-degrading enzymes in particular, have attracted much attention owing to their industrial potential in paper pulp biobleaching [3,4]. Hemicellulases are also used for the bioconversion of lignocellulose material to fermentative products, for the improvement of animal feedstock digestibil-

ity, and have recently been suggested as glycosynthases for oligosaccharide synthesis [5].

β -Xylosidases are currently classified into families 39, 43 and 52 of glycosyl hydrolases, based on their amino acid sequence similarities [6,7]. β -Xylosidases, as do all glycosidases, hydrolyze the glycosidic bond by one of two major mechanisms, giving rise to either an overall retention or an overall inversion of the configuration of the anomeric substrate carbon [8]. Inverting glycosidases use a direct displacement mechanism in which a water molecule directly displaces the aglycone through the direct involvement of two carboxylic amino acids of the enzyme. In this general mechanism, one of these carboxylic side chain acts as a general base while the other carboxylic side chain acts as a general acid [9]. In a similar way, catalysis by retaining glycosidases proceeds via a two-step double-displacement mechanism involving a glycosyl-enzyme intermediate [9]. During the first step of this reaction (glycosylation), the acid–base catalyst protonates the glycosidic oxygen concomitantly with bond cleavage and the nucleophile attacks at the anomeric center of the substrate sugar to form a covalent glycosyl-enzyme intermediate. In the second step (deglycosylation), the acid–base catalytic group deprotonates the incoming water molecule, which then attacks at the anomeric center of the substrate while displacing the sugar [9].

Within a specific glycosyl hydrolase family these catalytic residues and the stereochemical course of reaction have shown to be completely conserved [10,11]. The β -xylosidase from *Butyrivibrio fibrisolvens*, a member of family 43, was shown to cleave the glycosidic bond with an inversion of the anomeric configuration [12], whereas the *Thermoanaerobacterium saccharolyticum* β -xylosidase of family 39 was shown to proceed via retention of the anomeric configuration [13].

We have recently cloned and sequenced a 23.5 kb chromosomal segment from *Bacillus stearothermophilus* T-6 containing a cluster of xylan utilization genes. This region includes a partial open reading frame of a β -xylosidase (*xynB2*) gene showing homology to family 52 glycosyl hydrolases [14]. To date, no information is available on the mechanism by which this family cleaves its target substrate, and the two corresponding catalytic residues have not been identified. In this paper, we described the cloning, expression, purification and biochemical characterization of the β -xylosidase (*XynB2*) from *B. stearothermophilus* T-6. We investigated its stereo-

*Corresponding author. Fax: (972)-4-8320742.
E-mail: yshoham@tx.technion.ac.il

chemical course of hydrolysis and identified its key catalytic amino acids.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Cloning of the *xynB2* gene

The gene encoding XynB2 from *B. stearotheophilus* T-6 was cloned via PCR. The N-terminal primer (5'-GAGGAATTCA-CCATGGCAACCAATCTATTTTCAACGCCACC-3') was designed based on the *xyIA* DNA sequence from *B. stearotheophilus* 21 [15], and contained an ATG translational start codon inside a *NcoI* restriction site (CCATGG). The C-terminal primer (5'-CGATCTA-GATCTTCAATCCCCCTCTCCAACC-3') was designed based on the partial sequence available for the carboxy-terminal segment of *xynB2* from *B. stearotheophilus* T-6 [14]. This primer also contained a stop codon (TAG) and a *BglII* restriction site (AGATCT) at the end of the gene. Following amplification, the PCR product was purified, digested with *NcoI* and *BglII*, and then cloned into the *NcoI* and *BamHI* sites of the T7 polymerase expression vector pET9d (Novagen), resulting in a plasmid pET9d-*xynB2*.

2.2. Protein production and purification

Cultures (*Escherichia coli* BL21(DE3) (pET9d-*xynB2*)) were grown overnight on Terrific Broth [16] with kanamycin (25 µg ml⁻¹) without induction (500 ml in a 2 l shake flasks shaken at 230 rpm and 310 K). The overnight cultures (2 l) were harvested, resuspended in 60 ml of 50 mM Tris-HCl and 100 mM NaCl pH 7.0, and disrupted by two passages through a French press at room temperature. The cell extract was centrifuged, and the soluble fraction was then heat-treated (333 K, 30 min) and centrifuged again at room temperature. The enzyme was further purified by gel filtration at room temperature on a Superdex 200 26/10 column (Pharmacia), running at 2.5 ml min⁻¹ with 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer pH 7.0, 100 mM NaCl and 0.02% NaN₃. Enzyme purity was estimated by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) [17] and by gel filtration.

2.3. Kinetic studies

The substrate used for the kinetic studies was *p*-nitrophenyl β-D-xylopyranoside (PNPX) (Sigma). Steady state kinetic studies were performed by following the spectroscopic absorbance changes in the visible range, using a Biochrom 4060 spectrophotometer (Pharmacia) equipped with a temperature-stabilized water circulating bath. Initial hydrolysis rates were determined by incubating solutions with different substrate concentrations in 100 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) at 40°C within the spectrophotometer until thermal equilibration was achieved. Reactions were initiated by the addition of appropriately diluted enzyme, and the release of the phenol product was monitored at 420 nm. The extinction coefficient of *p*-nitrophenyl was Δε = 7.61 mM⁻¹ cm⁻¹. Values of *K_m* and *k_{cat}* were determined by non-linear regression analysis using the program GraFit 3.0 [18]. In some cases, reactions were carried out under stopped assay conditions at 50°C, and terminated by the addition of Na₂CO₃ to a final concentration of 0.3 M. Under these conditions, the extinction coefficient of *p*-nitrophenyl was Δε = 18 mM⁻¹ cm⁻¹. For pH dependence studies, the buffers were citric acid-Na₂HPO₄ (pH 4.0–6.5) and phosphate buffer (pH 6.0–8.0). The effect of temperature on the reaction rate was determined by performing the standard reaction in phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) for 10 min at different temperatures ranging from 45 to 75°C. Thermoinactivation experiments were performed by incubating the enzyme (1.86 µg ml⁻¹ in phosphate buffer, pH 7.0) at 65, 70 and 75°C, and removing samples at various times. The residual enzymatic activity in each tube was determined by the standard assay.

2.4. ¹H-nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) experiment

The enzyme (3.5 mg) was dialyzed against a 5 mM triethanolamine hydrochloride buffer, pH 6.0 and 30 mM NaCl, lyophilized and resuspended in 1 ml D₂O. PNPX was dissolved in a deuterated buffer (5 mM triethanolamine hydrochloride and 30 mM NaCl, pH 6.0). ¹H-NMR spectra were recorded at an ambient temperature in a Bruker AM-400 spectrometer operated at 400 MHz and equipped with a 5 mm ¹H/¹³C probe. After recording the spectrum of the substrate (0.56 ml of 2.8 mM), 40 µl of enzyme solution were added to the test tube and spectra were recorded at different time intervals. The ¹H-NMR spectrum of xylose was recorded under similar conditions at the

mutarotation equilibrium. The assignment of important resonance peaks was done on the basis of published data [13].

2.5. Mutagenesis

Mutagenesis was performed following the method of Meza et al. [19] with slight modifications. This modified strategy employs two flanking primers (N-terminal and C-terminal primers that were used for cloning the *xynB2* gene) and an internal mutagenic primer. The mutagenic and C-terminal primers were used to amplify a fragment of 0.55–1.1 kb (depending on the mutation) that overlapped with a linearized pET9d-*xynB2* (digested with *PauI* downstream to the locus of the target mutation). These overlapping fragments were then annealed and extended to produce the desired full-length *xynB2* gene. The flanking primers were then added to the reaction mixture, and the DNA was amplified by conventional PCR. Each mutagenic primer was designed to include the mutation and a restriction site that was then used for screening the appropriate mutant. The mutagenic primers were as follows (the mutated nucleotides are shown in bold and the restriction site is underlined): E335A (*HpaI*), 5'-CCGATTG-GGTCTGTTAAACGCAGGCGAGTACCG-3'; E337A (*HpaI*), 5'-GG-AAAGCCGATTTGGGTCTGTTAAACGAAGGCGCGTACCGG-3'; E413A (*MluI*), 5'-ACGTTCTCACGCCCGCATTACTCGTCATA-CGCGTATACGGGATCAGCGGTGCTTTTCACAT-3'; E427A (*SpeI*), 5'-GGCTGCTTTTCACATATGACGCACGCACAACCTAG-TCAACTGGGTGCTTTGCGCAGCG-3'; E522A (*NheI*), 5'-CCT-ATGTGGCGCTAGCAAAGTTGTTC-3'. All the mutations were confirmed by DNA sequencing.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Cloning and sequence analysis of *XynB2*

In the framework of studying the hemicellulolytic system in *B. stearotheophilus* T-6, we have recently cloned and sequenced a 23.5 kb chromosomal segment containing xylan degrading enzymes [14]. The segment contained a partial open reading frame of *xynB2* having a significantly high sequence homology to the *xyIA* gene, which encodes a β-xylosidase from *B. stearotheophilus* 21 [15]. This information was used to design PCR primers to amplify the entire *xynB2* gene from *B. stearotheophilus* T-6 chromosomal DNA and to clone it into the T7 polymerase expression vector, pET9d. The gene (AJ305327) was sequenced on both strands, and the confirmed full sequence indicated a protein consisting of 705 amino acids having a calculated molecular weight of 79 894 and a pI of 4.91. The amino acid sequence was scanned with the BLAST2 [20] program, and showed 94, 74, 60 and 51% identity to family 52 β-xylosidases from *B. stearotheophilus* 21, *Bacillus halodurans*, *Aeromonas caviae* and *B. stearotheophilus* 236, respectively (Fig. 1).

3.2. Overexpression and purification of *XynB2*

Expression of the *xynB2* gene was highly efficient even without induction [21] (Fig. 2). The overall purification procedure included two steps, heat treatment and gel filtration, and resulted in about 0.5 g of purified enzyme (>95% purity by inspection) from a 1 l culture with an overall yield of 60% (Table 1, Fig. 2). The simplicity and high yield of this purification procedure makes XynB2 an excellent representative target of family 52 glycosyl hydrolases for both structural and functional studies.

3.3. Biochemical characterization of *XynB2*

The molecular weight of the native enzyme was estimated by gel filtration using a Superdex 200 26/10 column (Pharmacia) with known *M_r* protein markers. The retention coefficients were: 0.230, 0.305, 0.361, 0.596, and 0.600 for α-arabi-

Fig. 1. Sequence alignment of the known enzymes comprising family 52 glycosyl hydrolases. The consensus sequence is shown at the bottom of the alignment. The abbreviations used and the GenPept accession numbers are as follows: {BsteT-6}- β -xylosidase from *B. stearothermophilus* T-6 (AAC98122); {Bste21}- β -xylosidase from *B. stearothermophilus* 21 (BAA05667); {Bste236}- β -xylosidase from *B. stearothermophilus* 236 (AAA50863); {Acav}- β -xylosidase from *A. caviae* (BAA74507); {Bhalo}- β -xylosidase from *B. halodurans* (BAB05833). Conserved residues are in capital bold letters. The asterisks indicate the conserved residues that were subjected to site-directed mutagenesis.

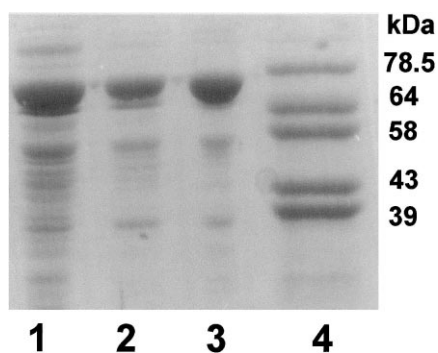


Fig. 2. SDS-PAGE of the different purification steps of XynB2. Lane (1): Crude extract. Lane (2): The soluble fraction after heat treatment (60°C for 30 min). Lane (3): After gel filtration. Lane (4): Molecular weight standards.

nofuranosidase T-6 [22] (M_r 228 864), XynB1 T-6 [23] (M_r 232 004), XynB2, XynA T-6 [24] (M_r 43 808) and XynA2 T-6 [25] (M_r 39 357), respectively, suggesting a M_r of about 157 000 for XynB2. Considering these results and the calculated M_r of a monomer of the enzyme (79 894), XynB2 is a dimer consisting of two identical subunits. The homologous β -xylosidase from *B. stearothermophilus* 21 is also a dimer [26].

XynB2 was shown to be most active at pH 5.6–6.3, and retained less than 40% of its activity at pH 5.0 and 7.3. The pH optima for the activity of other bacterial β -xylosidases are usually closer to pH 7.0, whereas fungal enzymes are active in more acidic conditions (< pH 5.0) [27,28]. The optimal temperature for XynB2 activity in a 10 min reaction was 65°C and is similar to the optimal temperature observed for the β -xylosidases from *B. stearothermophilus* 21 [26], *Trichoderma harzianum* [29], *Phanerochaete chrysosporium* [30], *Clostridium stercoararium* [31] and *Trichoderma reesei* RUT c-30 [32]. A much higher temperature optimum, 98°C, was observed for the β -xylosidase from *Thermotoga* sp. strain FjSS3-B.1 [33]. Thermoinactivation experiments for XynB2 revealed half-lives of 2.05, 0.83 and 0.036 h at 65, 70 and 75°C, respectively.

3.4. Stereochemistry of the enzymatic hydrolysis

The stereochemical course of the hydrolysis reaction of PNPX as catalyzed by XynB2 was followed by ^1H -NMR spectroscopy. Fig. 3 shows the partial ^1H -NMR spectrum of the substrate, and several spectra recorded at several time intervals following the addition of the XynB2 enzyme.

In the spectrum of the PNPX substrate, the resonance at 5.09 ppm is assigned as the anomeric proton at the nitrophenylated carbon. 8 min after adding the enzyme, the reaction reached a completion as judged by the complete disappearance of this peak. Concomitantly, a new peak appeared at 4.43 ppm corresponding to the anomeric proton of β -xylose. After 45 min of the reaction, a new peak appears at 5.05 ppm, reflecting the anomeric proton of α -xylose that is formed due to mutarotation of the free sugar. The observed coupling constants, $^3J = 7.69$ Hz and $^3J = 4.64$ Hz, for the β - and α -anom-

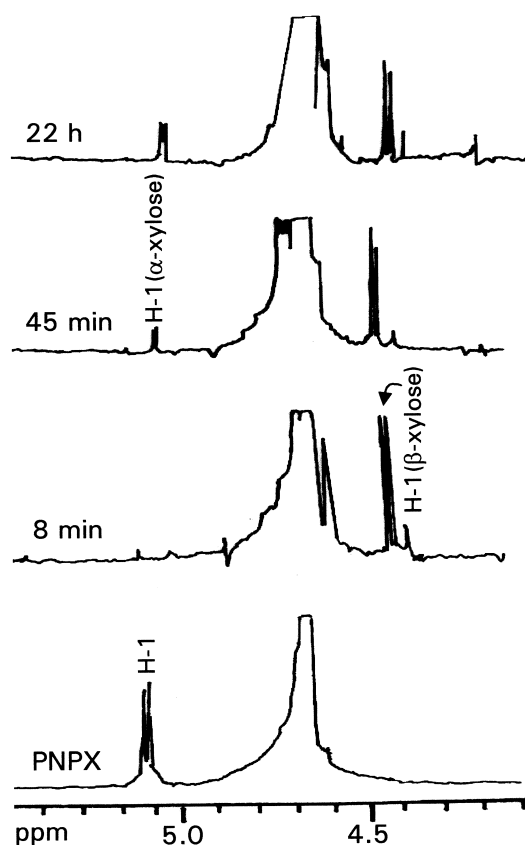


Fig. 3. ^1H -NMR spectra during the hydrolysis of PNPX by XynB2 after incubation for the times indicated. The assignments of the significant signals are indicated.

ers, respectively, provide further support for the assignment of these anomers. At this time, the ratio between the β - and the α -anomers was 1/0.17. After 22 h the reaction reached the equilibrium of free xylose with the anomeric ratio of 1/0.5. Since XynB2 initially produces β -xylose as the predominant anomer, this enzyme appears to operate with an overall retention of the anomeric configuration. Analysis of the stereochemical course of reactions catalyzed by a range of glycosyl hydrolases has shown that the mechanism of bond cleavage is conserved in enzymes belonging to the same glycosyl hydrolase family [11]. Thus, enzymes of family 52 act with retention of anomeric configuration.

3.5. Identification of the key catalytic residues in glycosyl hydrolases family 52

The two key catalytic carboxylates in retaining glycosidases were previously shown to be invariant in enzymes from the same glycosyl hydrolase family [10]. To identify the corresponding catalytic pair for XynB2 (and hence for glycosyl hydrolases family 52), five conserved acidic residues (E335, E337, E413, E427, E522) were mutated to alanine and their kinetic constants were determined (Table 2).

Table 1

Purification of XynB2 from crude extract of recombinant *E. coli* BL21(DE3) pET9d-xynB2

Purification step	Volume (ml)	Total activity (U)	Total protein (mg)	Specific activity (U mg ⁻¹)	Yield (%)	Purification (fold)
Cell free extract	80	8840	5700	1.6	100	1.0
Heat treatment	80	6955	3250	2.1	79	1.3
Gel filtration	125	5114	958	5.3	58	3.3

Table 2

Kinetic parameters for the hydrolysis of PNPX by wild-type and mutant forms of XynB2

Enzyme	k_{cat} (s^{-1})	K_{m} (mM)	$k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{m}}$ ($\text{s}^{-1} \text{ mM}^{-1}$)
Wild-type	14.6	0.20	72.8
E335A	0.0047	0.86	0.0055
E337A	$< 1 \times 10^{-5}$	ND ^a	ND
E413A	$< 1 \times 10^{-5}$	ND	ND
E427A	0.79	11.9	0.07
E522A	14.1	0.18	78.3

^aND: not determined.

Of all of these mutations, only E522A retained significant activity, therefore it is unlikely that this residue is involved in catalysis and/or substrate binding. Elimination of E427 caused a relatively small reduction (18-fold) in k_{cat} but increased the K_{m} value, suggesting that this residue may be involved in substrate binding. The E335 residue was first suggested by us as the acid–base catalyst since it resides within a highly conserved region following an invariant asparagine [10]. Although the E335A mutation caused a large decrease in k_{cat} (over three orders of magnitude), surprisingly the K_{m} value increased (from 0.2 to 0.86 mM). In most reported studies, an acid–base mutation caused a decrease in K_{m} since the elimination of the acid–base should reduce the deglycosylation step [34]. In addition, the pH-activity profile of the E335A mutant was bell-shaped (results not shown), similar to that of the wild-type, suggesting that the two ionizable carboxylic acids remained intact. Thus, E335 does not appear to be the acid–base catalyst but is obviously important for activity. The E337A and E413A mutants caused the largest decrease in activity and were essentially inactive ($< 1 \times 10^{-5}$). This magnitude of decrease in activity was also found in other catalytic mutants of retaining glycosyl hydrolases [34].

Several approaches may be employed to identify the catalytic residues in glycosyl hydrolases including: kinetic analysis of the catalytic mutants using substrates bearing different leaving groups, azide rescue of activity for these mutants and their pH dependence compared with that of the wild-type enzyme [34]. In addition, a definite identification of the catalytic nucleophile is possible by using fluorinated substrates functioning as mechanism-based inactivators [35]. Although it is likely that both E337 and E413 are the catalytic pair of XynB2, it should be noted that the E337A and E413A mutants did not exhibit significant rate enhancement in the presence of 1.8 M azide (results not shown), as should be the case with such catalytic mutants [34]. This puzzling experimental result should be further clarified and additional supporting experiments should be performed in order to fully determine the catalytic residues of this enzyme and their exact role in catalysis. A number of these experiments are now in progress.

Acknowledgements: This study was supported by Grants from the Israel Science Foundation (administered by the Israel Academy of Sciences and Humanities, Jerusalem) (no. 676/00 to G.S. and Y.S.), and from the United States–Israel Binational Science Foundation (BSF) (no. 96-178 to Y.S.), Jerusalem, Israel. Additional support was provided by the Fund for the Promotion of Research at the Technion, and by the Otto Meyerhof Center for Biotechnology, established by the Minerva Foundation (Munich, Germany). V.B. acknowledges the financial support by the Center of Absorption in Science, the Ministry of Immigration Absorption and the Ministry of Science and Arts, Israel (Kamea Program).

References

- [1] Biely, P. (1985) *Trends Biotechnol.* 3, 286–290.
- [2] Eriksson, K.E.L., Blanchette, R.A. and Ander, P. (1990) in: *Microbial and Enzymatic Degradation of Wood and Wood Components*, pp. 181–397, Springer-Verlag, Berlin.
- [3] Suurnakki, A., Tenkanen, M., Buchert, J. and Viikari, L. (1997) *Adv. Biochem. Eng. Biotechnol.* 57, 261–287.
- [4] Viikari, L., Kantelinen, A., Sundquist, J. and Linko, M. (1994) *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* 13, 335–350.
- [5] Mackenzie, L.F., Wang, Q., Warren, R.A.J. and Withers, S.G. (1998) *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 120, 5583–5584.
- [6] Henrissat, B. and Bairoch, A. (1993) *Biochem. J.* 293, 781–788.
- [7] Henrissat, B. and Bairoch, A. (1996) *Biochem. J.* 316, 695–696.
- [8] Sinnott, M.L. (1990) *Chem. Rev.* 90, 1171–1202.
- [9] Zechel, D.L. and Withers, S.G. (2000) *Acc. Chem. Res.* 33, 11–18.
- [10] Henrissat, B., Callebaut, I., Fabrega, S., Lehn, P., Mornon, J.P. and Davies, G. (1995) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 92, 7090–7094.
- [11] Gebler, J., Gilkes, N.R., Claessens, M., Wilson, D.B., Béguin, P., Wakarchuk, W.W., Kilburn, D.G., Miller Jr., R.C., Warren, R.A. and Withers, S.G. (1992) *J. Biol. Chem.* 267, 12559–12561.
- [12] Braun, C., Meinke, A., Ziser, L. and Withers, S.G. (1993) *Anal. Biochem.* 212, 259–262.
- [13] Armand, S., Vieille, C., Heyraud, A., Zeikus, J.G. and Henrissat, B. (1996) *Eur. J. Biochem.* 236, 706–713.
- [14] Shulami, S., Gat, O., Sonenshein, A.L. and Shoham, Y. (1999) *J. Bacteriol.* 181, 3695–3704.
- [15] Baba, T., Shinke, R. and Nanmori, T. (1994) *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 60, 2252–2268.
- [16] Sambrook, J., Fritsch, E.F. and Maniatis, T. (1989) in: *Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual*, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, Cold Spring Harbor, NY.
- [17] Laemmli, U.K. (1970) *Nature* 227, 680–685.
- [18] Leatherbarrow, R.J. (1992), *Erithacus Software*, Staines.
- [19] Meza, R., Nunez-Valdez, M.E., Sanchez, J. and Bravo, A. (1996) *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* 145, 333–339.
- [20] Altschul, S.F., Madden, T.L., Schaffer, A.A., Zhang, J., Zhang, Z., Miller, W. and Lipman, D.J. (1997) *Nucleic Acids Res.* 25, 3389–3402.
- [21] Barik, S. (1997) *BioTechniques* 22, 112–118.
- [22] Gilead-Gropper, S. (1998), Ph.D. Thesis, Technion – Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa.
- [23] Zolotnitsky, G. (1999), M.Sc. Thesis, Technion – Israel Institute of Technology, Haifa.
- [24] Teplitsky, A., Shulami, S., Moryles, S., Shoham, Y. and Shoham, G. (2000) *Acta Crystallogr. D Biol. Crystallogr.* 56, 181–184.
- [25] Gat, O., Lapidot, A., Alchanati, I., Regueros, C. and Shoham, Y. (1994) *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 60, 1889–1896.
- [26] Nanmori, T., Watanabe, T., Shinke, R., Kohno, A. and Kawamura, Y. (1990) *J. Bacteriol.* 172, 6669–6672.
- [27] Hudson, R.C., Schofield, L.R., Coolbear, T., Daniel, R.M. and Morgan, H.W. (1991) *Biochem. J.* 273, 645–650.
- [28] Li, Y.K., Yao, H.J. and Cho, Y. (2000) *Biotechnol. Appl. Biochem.* 31, 119–125.
- [29] Ximenes, F.A., Silveira, F.Q.P. and Filho, E.X. (1996) *Curr. Microbiol.* 33, 71–77.
- [30] Copa-Patino, J.L. and Broda, P. (1994) *Carbohydr. Res.* 253, 265–275.
- [31] Sakka, K., Yoshikawa, K., Kojima, Y., Karita, S., Ohmiya, K. and Shimada, K. (1993) *Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem.* 57, 268–272.
- [32] Herrmann, M.C., Vrsanska, M., Jurickova, M., Hirsch, J., Biely, P. and Kubicek, C.P. (1997) *Biochem. J.* 321, 375–381.
- [33] Ruttersmith, L.D. and Daniel, R.M. (1993) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1156, 167–172.
- [34] Ly, H.D. and Withers, S.G. (1999) *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* 68, 487–522.
- [35] Withers, S.G. (1995) *Pure Appl. Chem.* 67, 1673–1682.