Conserved Repeat Motifs and Glucan Binding by Glucansucrases of Oral Streptococci and \textit{Leuconostoc mesenteroides}

Deepan S. H. Shah, 1, 2 Gilles Joucla, 3 Magali Remaud-Simeon, 3 and Roy R. B. Russell 1*

Oral Biology, School of Dental Sciences, University of Newcastle, Newcastle upon Tyne NE2 4BW, 1 and Nanotechnology Centre, Orla Protein Technologies Ltd., Newcastle upon Tyne NE1 7RU, 2 United Kingdom, and Centre de Bioingenierie Gilbert Durand, UMR CNRS 5504, UMR INRA 5792, INSA, 31077 Toulouse Cedex 4, France 3

Received 29 June 2004/Accepted 3 September 2004

Glucansucrases of oral streptococci and \textit{Leuconostoc mesenteroides} have a common pattern of structural organization and characteristically contain a domain with a series of tandem amino acid repeats in which certain residues are highly conserved, particularly aromatic amino acids and glycine. In some glucosyltransferases (GTFs) the repeat region has been identified as a glucan binding domain (GBD). Such GBVs are also found in several glucan binding proteins (GBP) of oral streptococci that do not have glucansucrase activity. Alignment of the amino acid sequences of 20 glucansucrases and GBP showed the widespread conservation of the 33-residue A repeat first identified in GtfI of \textit{Streptococcus downei}. Site-directed mutagenesis of individual highly conserved residues in recombinant GBP of GtfI demonstrated the importance of the first tryptophan and the tyrosine-phenylalanine pair in the binding of dextran, as well as the essential contribution of a basic residue (arginine or lysine). A microplate binding assay was developed to measure the binding affinity of recombinant GBVs. GBP of GtfI was shown to be capable of binding glucans with predominantly \( \alpha-1,3 \) or \( \alpha-1,6 \) links, as well as alternating \( \alpha-1,3 \) and \( \alpha-1,6 \) links (altcan). Western blot experiments using biotinylated dextran or alternan as probes demonstrated a difference between the binding of streptococcal GTF and GBP and that of \textit{Leuconostoc} glucansucrases. Experimental data and bioinformatics analysis showed that the A repeat motif is distinct from the 20-residue CW motif, which also has conserved aromatic amino acids and glycine and which occurs in the choline-binding proteins of \textit{Streptococcus pneumoniae} and other organisms.

The glucansucrases (E.C. 2.4.1.5; commonly named glucosyltransferases [GTF] or dextranases) are extracellular enzymes from oral streptococci, \textit{Leuconostoc mesenteroides}, and certain lactobacilli that catalyze the transfer of glucosyl units from the cleavage of sucrose to a growing glucan chain (11, 13, 26, 34). The enzymes are capable of synthesizing \( \alpha-1,2 \), \( \alpha-1,3 \), \( \alpha-1,4 \), and \( \alpha-1,6 \) linkages between the glucose units and are sometimes given trivial names according to their product, e.g., dextranase, mutansucrase, and alternase. The streptococcal glucans are a key factor in the sucrose-dependent accumulation of mutans group streptococci on tooth surfaces and subsequent human dental caries formation (11), while dextranase from \textit{Leuconostoc} has an important industrial application in the manufacture of dextran and other products with commercial potential (23, 37).

All glucansucrases possess a common pattern of structural organization. They are of high molecular mass, ranging from 160 to 313 kDa, and have a signal sequence followed by a variable stretch of approximately 200 amino acids and a highly conserved catalytic core region of about 900 amino acids that is a cyclically permuted version of the \((\beta/\alpha)_8\) barrel found in the amylase superfamily (33). Most glucansucrases have a C-terminal domain comprising about one-third of the protein, which characteristically contains a series of tandem amino acid repeats. The exception is DsrE, which has a repeat domain located centrally between two catalytic domains (8). A number of different types of repeating units have been identified in the primary sequence of glucansucrases and are termed A, B, C, and D repeats (5). These vary in length from 20 to 48 amino acids, but in all cases certain residues are highly conserved, particularly aromatic amino acids and glycine. However, the 33-residue A repeat, first identified in GtfI of \textit{Streptococcus downei} by visual inspection of aligned sequences (16), was the only repeat found in all GTF (34, 44). Its existence as a distinctive motif was recently confirmed by analysis of 16 glucansucrase sequences with the MEME/MAST motif discovery tool, which uses statistical modeling techniques to automatically find and describe repeated motifs in a set of sequences (42).

The repeat domain is not required for the catalytic activity of glucansucrases, though in a number of instances it has been shown to influence the rate of reaction, possibly by removing the growing glucan chain from the active site (25, 30, 32). In a number of the streptococcal GTF, the repeat domain has been experimentally demonstrated to bind glucans such as dextran and has been identified as a glucan binding domain (GBD) (1, 16, 24, 28, 46). The A repeat motif is also found in several proteins that do not have glucansucrase activity: the GbpA glucan binding protein of \textit{Streptococcus mutans} (4), the GbpD glucan binding lipase of \textit{S. mutans} and \textit{Streptococcus sobrinus} (42), and the Dei dextranase inhibitor of \textit{S. sobrinus} (43), all of which bind dextran. It has also recently been identified near the N termini of some glucansucrases (22). However, it is not yet clear whether all proteins with a repeat-containing region really bind glucans, even though the term GBD has been widely used. In addition, there are unanswered questions about the relationship of the A repeat motif to the CW, or cell wall...
binding motif, which also has conserved aromatic amino acids and glycine and which is found in the choline-binding proteins of *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, the toxins of *Clostridium difficile*, and some other surface-associated proteins (17, 47). There is a lack of information on how the similarities in sequence reflect the specificity of these putative binding domains. This paper examines the distribution of A repeats in a range of glucansucrases and characterizes the glucan binding by representative recombinant proteins. The critical importance of conserved aromatic residues is demonstrated, and the specificity of binding is discussed with regard to the relationship between A and CW repeats.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Bacterial strains and growth conditions.** *S. mutans* strain UA159 was grown in Todd-Hewitt broth (Oxoid Ltd., Hampshire, United Kingdom) supplemented with 5% yeast extract. The cultures were incubated at 37°C in candle jars. *L. mesenteroides* NRRL B-3355, B-512F, and B-1290 strains were provided by the National Center for Agricultural Utilization Research stock culture collection in Peoria, Ill. Cells were grown at 30°C on standard medium as previously described (14). *E. coli* XL1Blue was used in all cloning and protein expression procedures. *E. coli* cultures were grown in Luria-Bertani or 2× yeast extract-trypstatine (YT) broth containing ampicillin (100 μg/ml) where required. For solid media, bacteria were spotted on agar (agar no. 1; Oxoid Ltd.) and added at a final concentration of 1.5%.

**Bioinformatics.** Sequences were retrieved from the GenBank database. Sequences examined (accession numbers are in parentheses) were those for *S. mutans* GtfB (AA88588), GtfC (AA88589), GtfD (AA26895), GbpA (A37184), and GbpD (AAN58492); *Streptococcus gordonii* GtfD (AAC35835); *S. downei* GtfA (AAC41142) and Gfs (AA63803); *Streptococcus sobrinus* GtfA (D13928), GftU (AB008348), and Dei (L3406); *Streptococcus salivarius* GtfT (CAA77900), GftK (CAA77901), GtfL (AAC41412), and GtfM (AAC41413); *Streptococcus oralis* GtfR (BA95201); and *L. mesenteroides* Asr (CAB76565). Data were kindly provided by H. Mukasa (36).

**Determination of binding affinity.** Cleared lysates from cells induced for expression of binding domains of GtfL and Gfs and full-length GbpA and GbpD were prepared as described above. A control lysate from *E. coli* containing pQE30 was also prepared. Fifty microliters of cleared lysate was added to Ni-NTA-coated 96-well HiSorb plates (QIAGEN) and the plates were incubated overnight at 4°C. Two wells were coated with pQE30 lysate, and each of the protein expression lysates was used to coat 12 wells. The protein solutions were mixed, and washed four times with PBSI. Two hundred microliters of PBS-0.2% BSA containing biotin-dextran solution (Fluka) at 100 μM, 10 μM, 1 μM, 100 nM, 10 nM, or 1 nM was added to the sample wells. Two wells per protein were treated with each concentration of biotin-dextrin. Two hundred microliters of biotin-dextran at 100 μM only was added to the wells treated with the control pQE30 lysate. These wells were used as the zero control. After incubation for 10 min at room temperature and washing with PBSI as before, wells were incubated with 200 μl of a 1/20,000 dilution of Extravidin–alkaline phosphatase conjugate (Sigma) in PBS-0.2% BSA for 30 min and washed again. One hundred microliters of phosphatase substrate solution (1 mg of *p*-nitrophenylphosphate Sigma 104 substrate/ml, 28 mM NaHCO3, 22 mM NaCO3, 5 mM MgCl2) was added, and color change was monitored by readings at 405 nm in a Titertek Multiskan MCC100 plate reader. Points were fitted to a one-site binding model using Graphpad Prism 3.0. Table 1 shows the binding parameters as as shown in Fig. 3, 200 μl of competitor solution at 100 μM was added and the plates were incubated at room temperature for 10 min prior to the addition of 200 μl of biotin-dextrin at 1 μM. Isosmolatoasaccharides (3 to 5 glucose units, α-1,6 linked) were from commercial sources, and nigerooligosaccharides (3 to 5 glucose units, α-1,3 linked) were kindly provided by H. Mukasa (36).

**Electroblotting and detection with biotin-dextran.** Mutagenesis was performed with Site-directed mutagenesis of GBD1A. The critical importance of conserved aromatic residues is demonstrated, and the specificity of binding is discussed with regard to the relationship between A and CW repeats.
nitrocellulose membranes. The membranes were kept overnight in 20 mM PBS, pH 7.3, containing 3% (wt/vol) BSA (initial heat shock fraction; Sigma) to block nonspecific binding and washed three times for 15 min in PBST. One hundred micrograms of biotin-dextran (Fluka)/ml in PBS–0.2% BSA was then added. After incubation at room temperature with shaking, the membranes were washed in PBST for 45 min with three buffer changes and then incubated for 1 h at room temperature with a 1:20,000 dilution of Extravidin-alkaline phosphatase conjugate (Sigma) in PBS–0.2% BSA. Proteins that bound to dextran were revealed by a 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolylphosphate–nitroblue tetrazolium color reaction with reagents supplied by Zymed (San Francisco, Calif.) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. In some experiments, dextran T70 or alternan was labeled with biocytin hydrazide (7).

RESULTS

Identification of a consensus A repeat. The 20 proteins examined are all concerned with the synthesis or binding of 
\[\beta(1,3)\] and/or \[\beta(1,6)\]-linked glucans. As determined by the MEME program, they contain a total of 96 copies of a conserved 33-amino-acid motif corresponding to the A repeat. Seventy-six of these motif units can be directly aligned without gaps by CLUSTALW, and the consensus is shown in Fig. 1, which also illustrates the extent of conservation of the individual residues. Most striking are the almost universally conserved glycines and the aromatic residues tryptophan, tyrosine, and phenylalanine. The remaining 20 A repeats also contain these highly conserved residues but have 1 to 3 additional residues in the positions shown as having least conservation in Fig. 1. The consensus sequence is WYYFDANGKAVTGAQTINGQTLYFDQDGKQVKG.

The A repeat can be presented in Prosite notation as [WYFTLR][YFLARGQV][YFRGQVAML]x (4, 5)[GYVFT]x (4)-G-x (9)[YLFHA][FY]x (3, 4)[GS]-x[QMAELY][VIALMTF][KRYVTL][GNDEAHS].

Binding affinity of streptococcal GBD. The GBD of \textit{S. downei} GtfI and GtfS, as well as GbpA and GbpD of \textit{S. mutans}, were expressed in \textit{E. coli} as recombinant proteins with N-terminal six-His tags, which allowed them to be immobilized on Ni-NTA-coated microtiter trays and used in an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay-type assays to measure binding of biotinylated dextran. Figure 2 shows the equilibrium binding by the GBD from GtfI (GBD0), with a linear plot over a 1,000-fold concentration range. The other proteins tested also gave linear plots. Assays using biotin-dextran concentrations covering a range of 1 nM to 100 
\mu\text{M} allowed calculation of the dissociation constant \(K_d\) for the GBD from GtfI as \(5.9 \times 10^{-7}\) M. The corresponding values for the GBD from GtfS, GbpA, and GbpD were \(11.2 \times 10^{-7}\), \(4.5 \times 10^{-7}\), and \(3.2 \times 10^{-7}\) M, respectively. Addition of unlabeled dextran T70 to compete with the biotinylated dextran showed a stoichiometric relationship (i.e., an equimolar concentration of competitor gave a 50% reduction in the absorbance reading). This indicated that the biotin moieties had little or no effect on interaction of the dextran moiety with the binding domain and that biotin-dextran competes for the same sites as unlabeled dextran.

Specificity of binding domain of \textit{S. downei} GtfI. GtfI of \textit{S. downei} binds to dextran or to mutan, and these can be used as affinity absorbents to purify the enzyme (16). To explore the specificity of binding, a range of potential ligands were tested for the ability to compete with binding by biotinylated dextran.
to the recombinant GBD of GtfI, with the competitors in a 100-fold excess over the labeled dextran. Unlabeled dextran was an efficient inhibitor, and there was also some inhibition by oligosaccharides of the α-1,6-linked isomaltose series and the α-1,3-linked nigerose series (Fig. 3). It was not possible to test the α-1,3-linked polymer mutan in this assay, due to its insolubility. To investigate the perceived relationship between the A repeat and the choline-binding CW repeat, the ability of choline to compete with biotin-dextran for binding by the GtfI binding domain was tested (Fig. 4a). Choline was unable to displace biotin-dextran, even at concentrations 3 orders of magnitude higher. In contrast, alternan, which contains alternating α-1,3 and α-1,6 linkages, was able to compete with biotin-dextran (Fig. 4b). Thus proteins containing the A repeat have a specificity of binding distinct from that of proteins containing the CW repeat.

**Binding by Leuconostoc glucansucrases.** A sensitive method for detecting the ability to bind dextran is the use of biotinylated dextran to detect proteins electroblotted onto nitrocellulose (42). Figure 5A shows the migration of glucansucrases from three strains of *L. mesenteroides* and *S. mutans* UA159, detected by staining the glucan formed during incubation in sucrose. Probing with biotinylated dextran (Fig. 5B) showed that neither the alternansucrase and dextransucrases of strain B-1355 (234 and 165 kDa respectively; lane 1), nor the dextranucrase of B-512F (174 kDa; lane 2), nor the high-molecular-weight DsrE dextranucrase of B-1299 (313 kDa; lane 3) bound dextran. The only *Leuconostoc* enzyme to bind was the 194-kDa DsrB dextranucrase of B-1299, whereas strong binding was shown by the *S. mutans* GTF (lane 4). *S. mutans* glucan binding proteins GbpA and GbpD, which also bind biotin-dextran (42), are of lower molecular weight and are not shown on this gel. In a parallel experiment where the blot was probed with biotinylated alternan, alternansucrase and dextransucrases showed no labeling, whereas the *S. mutans* proteins did bind the label (not shown).

**Contribution of conserved amino acids to binding by GBD of *S. downei* GtfI.** The terminal A repeat of GBD1A (which corresponds to repeat A4 in GTFI) was selected as a target for site-directed mutagenesis because removal of this repeat results in a marked reduction in binding capacity (41). Figure 6a shows the residues that were altered, and Fig. 6b summarizes the results. Conversion of the first tryptophan to alanine (W1292A) or of either the conserved tyrosine or phenylalanine to alanine (Y1314A and F1315A) resulted in complete loss of binding capacity. Twenty-five percent of the binding was retained when the tryptophan was converted to another aromatic amino acid (W1292F), and the conserved tyrosine could also be replaced by phenylalanine without any loss of function (Y1314F). However, it was not possible to replace the conserved phenylalanine and retain function (F1315Y). A double-mutant protein where YF was changed to FY was also without binding activity, confirming the essential function of F1315. It is striking that this phenylalanine residue is conserved in all except one of the 94 repeats examined; in the single exception it was replaced by tyrosine. The two other highly conserved...
amino acids examined by mutagenesis were glutamine 1321 and lysine 1323. Despite the fact that the former is conserved in 89% of the aligned A repeats, it could be converted to alanine or asparagine (Q1321A and Q1321N) without affecting function. The lysine, however, could satisfactorily be replaced by arginine, but a basic residue seems to be essential because replacement by alanine (K1323A) gave a drop in binding. The functional importance of a basic lysine or arginine is supported by the fact that, in 91% of the A repeats, one or the other of these residues was present in this position.

The question of whether all of the A repeats contribute to binding was not examined thoroughly, but mutations F1123A in repeat A1 and W1227A in repeat A3 resulted in a loss in binding whereas mutation W1163A in repeat 2 did not, suggesting that all the repeats do not contribute equally to the overall binding of dextran or that corresponding residues in different repeats may differ in their contributions.

DISCUSSION

The analysis of 20 proteins previously known to contain A repeats has allowed recognition of the 33-residue consensus sequence and information on the extent to which different residues are conserved. The A repeats occur in all of the glucansucrases from streptococci and Leuconostoc for which the sequences are available. However, not all glucansucrases have the A repeats because they are not found in glucansucrases of lactobacilli, although these may contain other repeat motifs (26), nor are they found in amylosucrase of Neisseria polysaccharea (12). The consensus motif will be of value in scanning genomes for related proteins, particularly for gene products that are not glucansucrases, and its use has led to the discovery of a novel glucan-binding lipase in S. mutans (42).

The phenomenon of glucan binding is considered to be an important feature that contributes to dental plaque formation and the virulence of the oral streptococci associated with dental caries (11). There has thus been interest in the molecular basis of binding, and it has repeatedly been shown that truncation of the C-terminal repeat-containing domain affects binding. Also, antibodies directed against the domain can inhibit attachment to surfaces and have the potential for preventing dental caries (5). The work presented here extends this by site-directed mutagenesis of specific conserved residues within the A repeat and shows the crucial importance of the aromatic residues that may be able to “stack” with sugar units.
and the conserved polar residues (K and R) that may allow hydrogen bonding with hydroxyl residues. It has been well established in other classes of proteins, such as cellulases and chitinases, that the disposition of aromatic residues is the main determinant of strength and specificity of binding to polysaccharides. The functional importance of the conserved glycines was not explored by mutagenesis, but these residues are thought to be responsible for the high content of the β-sheet and the flexibility of the repeat domain demonstrated by circular dichroism (20, 24, 31).

GtfS, GtfI, GbpA, and GbpD all had a $K_d$ for dextran binding in the $10^{-7}$ M range, similar to values from other reports (5) and indicating that the A repeats within these proteins have similar affinities for binding. However, these values were calculated assuming a simple, single-binding-site model. The data indicated that, in the binding domain of GtfS at least, there may be heterogeneity in the binding site. The cause of this heterogeneity is unknown but may be due to subtle differences in sequence and protein folding. The similarity in binding affinity, despite the fact that GtfS synthesizes α-1,6 linkages whereas GtfI synthesizes primarily α-1,3 links, is interesting.

Comparison of the primary sequences of streptococcal and Leuconostoc glucansucrases shows that they are very similar in the number and arrangement of A repeats within the C-terminal domain (34). Experiments in which this domain was truncated have also shown similar effects in all the glucansucrases examined, with a reduction in the rate of enzyme activity and a loss of stimulation by exogenous dextran, but no influence on the specificity of the catalytic reaction (1, 25, 27, 30, 32). There is, however, a great difference in the ability to bind glucan. We were unsuccessful in our attempts to express isolated GtfS, GtfI, GbpA, and GbpD under conditions when $S. mutans$ GTF bind strongly. This lack of binding by Leuconostoc dextranases and alternansucrase has been confirmed by a microtiter tray assay and by attempts to purify these enzymes by affinity chromatography on dextran or mutan by methods effective with streptococcal proteins (38; our unpublished observations). It can thus be concluded that, while A repeats are necessary for binding by the streptococcal GTF (and also GbpA, GbpD, and Dei), the mere presence of A repeats in a sequence may not justify its designation as a GBD.

The molecular basis for the difference in binding between streptococcal and Leuconostoc glucansucrases remains unknown but is presumably due to as yet unrecognized subtle differences in sequence. We can only speculate as to the functional importance of the difference in binding. Insofar as it is possible to compare the catalytic properties of GTF and dextranases described in different reports, they seem to be remarkably similar (34). The difference may thus not relate to the involvement of the C-terminal repeat domain in glucan synthesis, but rather to benefits to streptococci of having GTF bound to the glucans dextran and mutan in dental plaque. GTF and the glucan binding proteins GbpA and GbpD bind to both these glucans (24, 38, 42). In this paper we show that both α-1,6- and α-1,3-linked oligosaccharides, as well as alteman, which contains both types of linkage, can compete with dextran for binding to GtfI of $S. downei$ (Fig. 4). The oligosaccharides compete poorly with dextran, presumably because they are below the optimal size for binding (25). The inherent flexibility of the domain thus allows recognition of different types of glucan; note, however, that no binding to other α-linked glucans, such as amyllose or amylopectin, is found. It is, however, important to recognize the possibility that other macromolecules that have not been experimentally investigated may be bound. It will be of particular interest to explore whether the repeat domains in Leuconostoc might be responsible for the surface location of these enzymes (50) and interaction with molecules such as lipoteichoic acid (LTA). For example, it is known that another class of repeat motif is involved in binding the internalin molecule to surface LTA in Listeria monocytogenes (9).

Repetitive CW motifs that resemble A repeats in having conserved glycines and aromatic residues are found in choline-binding proteins of $S. pneumoniae$ and its bacteriophages; toxins of Clostridium difficile and Clostridium sordellii that recognize carbohydrate targets in the gut epithelium (35); and surface-associated proteins from Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae, Clostridium acetobutylicum, Peptostreptococcus micros, and Lactococcus lactis (47). The best-characterized of these are the choline-binding proteins, so we investigated the capacity of the binding domain derived from $S. downei$ GtfI to bind choline. There is no evidence for any binding of choline whatever (Fig. 4). Furthermore, streptococcal GTF and GBP are not retained by DEAE-cellulose, a substrate commonly used for affinity purification of choline-binding proteins (40). Conversely, choline-binding proteins have not been reported to be retarded by chromatography on Sephadex, which serves as an affinity matrix for GTF and GBP. There is thus no experimental evidence for considering those proteins that contain A repeats to be functionally related to choline-binding proteins containing CW repeats. The similarity in sequence between glucan-binding and choline-binding proteins, as well as the toxins of $C. difficile$, originates from the observation that all contained tandem repeats with conserved glycines and aromatic residues and were believed to have binding functions. Evidence for structural similarity also came from immunological cross-reaction and the fact that an antibody against a synthetic peptide based on a consensus conserved motif could react with both $C. difficile$ toxin and $S. mutans$ GbpA (48). Numerous attempts have been made to align the various types of repeats, based on the conserved glycines and the critical YF dyad (18, 45, 47, 49). Automatic sequence alignment programs, such as those used to compile the Pfam and CDART (conserved domain architecture retrieval tool) databases (6, 29) also conflate proteins with A and CW repeats (PF01473 and COGS5263, respectively). We believe that the current database resources widely used for automated bioinformatics annotation of genomes thus have a clear potential to give rise to erroneous conclusions about the relationship and functional activity of repeat-containing domains because the analysis fails to take into account two crucial factors: (i) the consensus A repeat is 33 residues whereas the consensus CW repeat is 20 residues long and (ii) CW tandem repeats are almost always contiguous whereas A repeats have variable spacing but always have intervening nonconserved regions.

The structure of LytA autolysin of $S. pneumoniae$, which contains six CW repeats, has recently been elucidated (15). It has a novel solenoid fold with six β-hairpins, where the apex of
the hairpin is glycine and the aromatic residues interact with choline. This structure is dependent on the folding of the consecutive 20-residue CW repeats, and it is difficult to see how the larger, widely spaced A repeats could be constrained into the same fold. It has so far proved impossible to obtain crystals of an A repeat domain but comparison of a three-dimensional structural model with LytA would be extremely interesting and would provide valuable insights into the relationship between primary sequence, structure, and function of these intriguing molecules.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the Wellcome Trust Project grant 060993 and Biomedical Collaboration grant 056112/2/98/Z.

REFERENCES


GLUCAN-BINDING DOMAINS OF GLUCANSUCRASES 8307
for a modular structure of the homologous repetitive C-terminal carbohydrate-binding sites of *Clostridium difficile* toxins and *Streptococcus mutans* glucosyltransferases. J. Bacteriol. 174:6707–6710.


