

RSC Advances

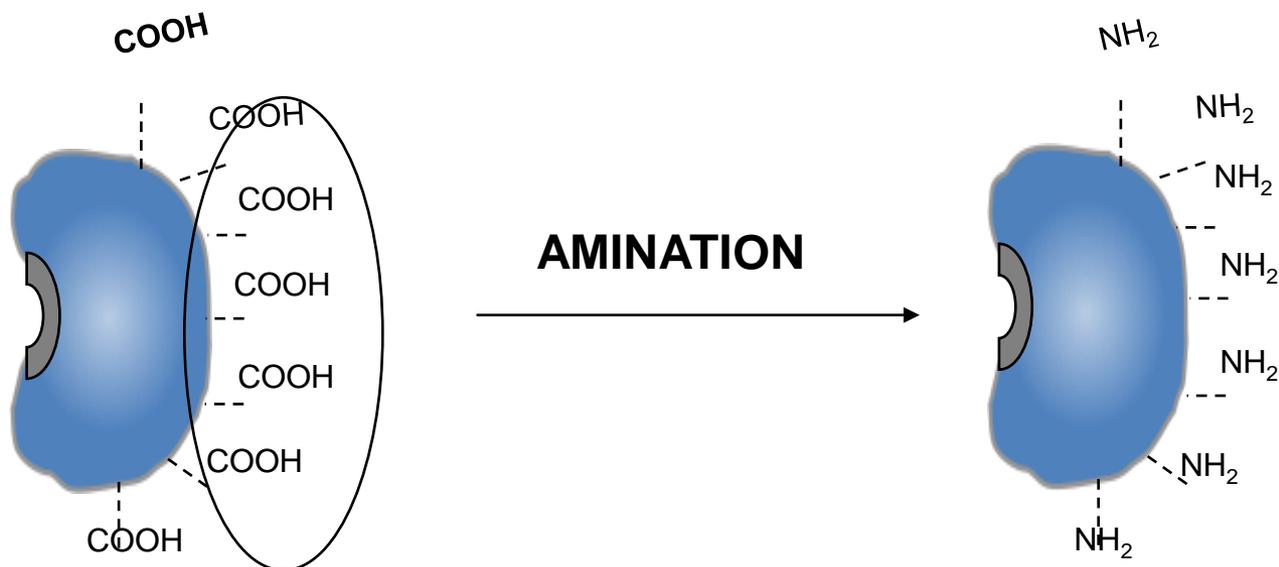


This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. This *Accepted Manuscript* will be replaced by the edited, formatted and paginated article as soon as this is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



IMPROVED CATALYTIC FEATURES??
IMPROVED IMMOBILIZATION
IMPROVED CHEMICAL MODIFICATION
IMPROVED ADSORPTION BY CELLS

25 **Abstract**

26

27 Improvement of the features of an enzyme is in many instances a pre-requisite for the
28 industrial implementation of these exceedingly interesting biocatalysts. To reach this goal, the
29 researcher may utilize different tools. For example, amination of the enzyme surface produces
30 an alteration of the isoelectric point of the protein along with its chemical reactivity (primary
31 amino groups are the most widely used to obtain the reaction of the enzyme with surfaces,
32 chemical modifiers, etc) and even its “*in vivo*” behavior. This review will show some
33 examples of chemical (mainly modifying the carboxylic groups using the carbodiimide route),
34 physical (using polycationic polymers like polyethyleneimine) and genetic amination of the
35 enzyme surface. Special emphasis will be put on cases where the amination is performed to
36 improve subsequent protein modifications. Thus, amination has been used to increase the
37 intensity of the enzyme/support multipoint covalent attachment, to improve the interaction
38 with cation exchanger supports or polymers, or to promote the formation of crosslinkings
39 (both intra-molecular and in the production of crosslinked enzyme aggregates). In other cases,
40 amination has been used to directly modulate the enzyme properties (both in immobilized or
41 free form). Amination of the enzyme surface may also pursue other goals not related with
42 biocatalysis. For example, it has been used to improve the raising of antibodies against
43 different compounds (both increasing the number of haptamers per enzyme and the
44 immunogenicity of the composite) or the ability to penetrate cell membranes. Thus, amination
45 may be a very powerful tool to improve the use of enzymes and proteins in many different
46 areas and a great expansion of its usage may be expected in the next future.

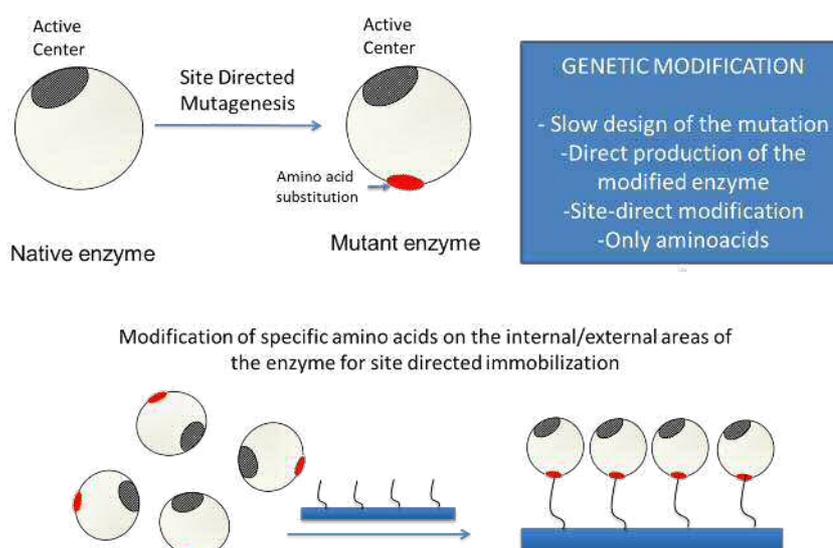
47 **Key words:** enzyme chemical amination, enzyme genetic amination, polymer coating of
48 enzymes, polyethylenimine, enzyme multipoint covalent attachment, crosslinking, enzyme
49 stabilization, enzyme modulation.

50

51 Introduction

52

53 Enzyme features, such as specificity, selectivity and activity under mild conditions,
 54 have attracted the attention of researchers on these molecules as catalysts for industrially
 55 relevant reactions.¹ However, together with the positive properties, enzymes also have some
 56 features that are in opposition with their use as industrial catalysts: e.g., enzymes are soluble,
 57 unstable, inhibited by substrates, products and other compounds, and the good catalytic
 58 properties are only optimized towards the physiological substrate.² In nature enzymes are
 59 submitted to strict regulations in complex metabolic routes to give a rapid response to changes
 60 in the medium. However, now we intend to use the enzymes in an industrial reactor, where
 61 they are no longer required to have this regulative behavior.



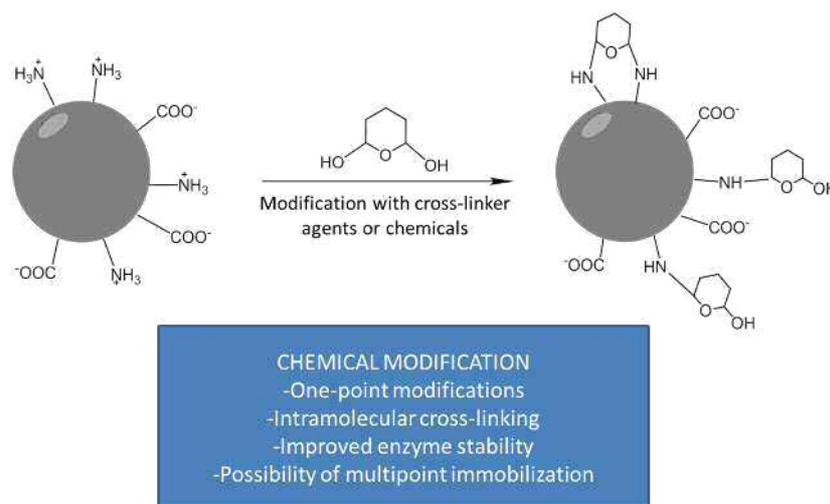
62

63

64

Figure 1. Site-directed mutagenesis in biocatalysts design

65 Genetic tools have permitted us to obtain more stable and efficient biocatalysts using
 66 site-directed mutagenesis or directed evolution.³ This strategy may be more or less complex
 67 and time-consuming to produce the desired enzyme (Figure 1), but once the variant enzyme is
 68 ready, the large scale production will not be more expensive than using a native enzyme (it
 69 may actually become cheaper if enzyme overproduction is achieved).



70

71

72

Figure 2.- Chemical modification of enzymes in biocatalysts design.

73 Another tool to improve enzyme properties is the chemical modification of enzymes.^{4,5}

74 (Figure 2) Chemical modification may pursue one-point modifications (the effect of the

75 modification on the enzyme features may be hard to predict)^{6,7} or the introduction of

76 intramolecular crosslinkings to increase the enzyme rigidity and thus, enzyme stability may be

77 enhanced.⁸ On one hand, the modification may be performed quite rapidly, but the enzyme

78 will need to be modified each time the biocatalyst is prepared. On the other hand, it is not

79 necessary to be restricted to natural amino acids and it is not limited to enzymes with available

80 genes.⁵

81 Immobilization also is used to improve enzyme properties.^{9,10,11} This technique

82 needs to be used to solve the water-soluble nature of enzymes.^{12,13} (Figure 3) Immobilization

83 consists in the confinement of the enzyme molecules in a limited space, and permits to have a

84 heterogeneous catalyst, easy to separate from the reaction medium, and to reuse it, if the

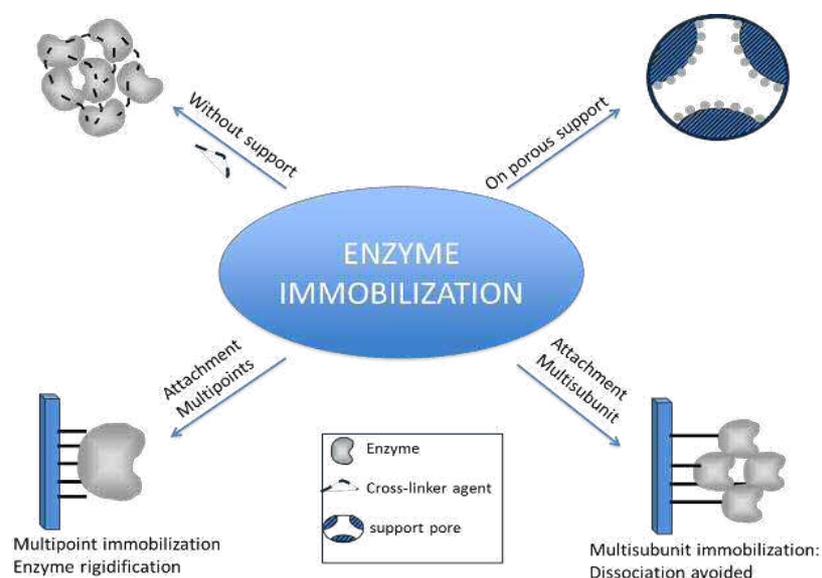
85 enzyme is stable enough. There are many immobilization techniques,¹⁴ more or less adequate

86 for each specific case depending on the enzyme and the process (e.g., substrate size).¹⁵

87 However, as this immobilization step is almost compulsory in the preparation of an industrial

88 biocatalyst, many authors are trying to solve other enzyme limitations during

89 immobilization.^{9,10,11} Thus, immobilization inside porous structures avoids the interaction of
90 the enzyme molecules with other enzyme molecules (preventing enzyme aggregation) or with
91 interfaces such as gas bubbles, able to inactivate enzymes¹¹ (Figure 3). Rigidification of the
92 enzyme three-dimensional structure may be achieved via multipoint covalent attachment⁹,
93 while the multisubunit immobilization of multimeric enzymes prevents their inactivation via
94 dissociation (Figure 3).¹⁶ In some cases, the generation of favorable environments may permit
95 the stabilization of the enzyme under certain conditions.^{17,18}
96



97

98

99

100

101 With a handful of exceptions, these three tools are used in an individual way to
102 design a biocatalyst, without considering that all of them may (or even must) be used
103 simultaneously to have a biocatalyst with enhanced properties.¹⁹⁻²¹ This becomes especially
104 relevant considering, as previously discussed, that the enzymes must be finally used in an
105 immobilized form.¹²

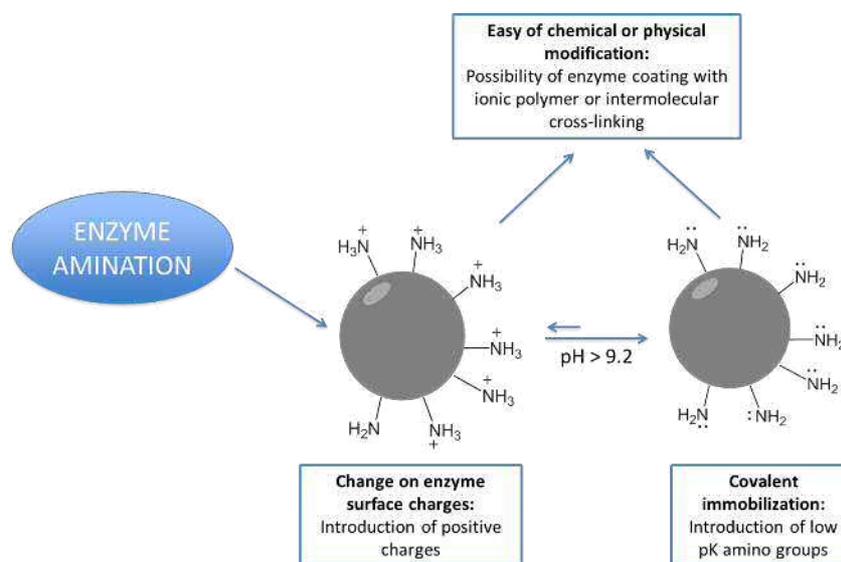
106 In this review, we will focus on the amination of the enzyme molecule surface, using
107 physical, chemical or genetic strategies, to improve its properties, such as stability, but also
108 activity or selectivity. Special emphasis will be paid to the coupled use of amination to
109 improve the immobilization, chemical or physical modifications of the enzyme.

110 The amination of the surface of a protein may fulfill many different objectives (Figure
111 4). For example, it may alter the existing interactions between the groups in the enzyme
112 surface to tune the enzyme properties.¹⁹ This is easily obtained using chemical modification
113 because chemical amination is usually based on the amidation of carboxylic acids (see section
114 below).^{22,23} This modification produces a clear alteration of the ionic interactions on the
115 protein surface: ionic bridges may be broken and changed by repulsion forces. These changes
116 may affect the conformation of the enzyme, and thus its stability, activity, specificity or
117 selectivity.^{24,25}

118 This alteration of the sign in the ionic character of areas of the protein surface may
119 facilitate the use of cation exchangers to purify the enzyme that does not naturally have a
120 tendency to become adsorbed on these supports (e.g., using poly-Lys tags).²⁶⁻²⁸

121 Amination may also increase the enzyme chemical reactivity versus a support used
122 for covalent immobilization.²¹ Most of the supports used to immobilize proteins are designed
123 to involve the primary amino groups of the protein. That is because the amino group of the
124 Lys is a nucleophile, relatively frequent in enzyme sequences, usually placed on the protein
125 surface due to its hydrophilicity and can directly react with a broad diversity of groups that
126 may be introduced in the support (epoxyde,²⁹ vinyl sulfone,³⁰ glutaraldehyde,^{31,32} cyanogen
127 bromide,³³ tosyl chloride,³⁴ tresyl chloride,³⁵ glyoxyl,³⁶ etc.). An enrichment of the enzyme
128 surface in primary amino groups will produce an increase in the immobilization rate. Site-
129 directed introduction of Lys residues may also permit the immobilization/purification of the

130 enzyme, using supports such as glyoxyl, which require immobilizing the enzyme via several
 131 enzyme/support attachments.^{37,38}



132 **Figure 4. Chemical amination in biocatalysts design.**

135 Amination increases the possibility of achieving a higher interaction between
 136 enzyme and activated supports,^{19,21} that is, a higher number of covalent attachments that
 137 increase enzyme stabilization, or even controlling the immobilization area.^{39,40}

138 If the amino groups are chemically introduced using ethylenediamine, the new
 139 amino groups present a lower pK value than that of the Lys (9.2 versus 10.7 without
 140 considering alterations caused by the local environment),⁴¹ being thus more reactive and
 141 permitting both, immobilization and multipoint covalent attachment under milder conditions.¹⁹
 142 This may be very important when the enzyme is unstable at alkaline pH values.⁴² However,
 143 this modification will be uncontrolled along the whole protein surface, while the site directed
 144 mutagenesis permits to introduce reactive groups just in the desired area of the protein, not
 145 altering the other areas of the protein.

146 The increase of amino groups on the enzyme surface may also facilitate some further
 147 chemical or physical modification of the enzyme. For example, it may simplify the coating of
 148 the enzyme with anion exchangers.^{43,44} The increase on primary amino groups has also been

149 used in certain cases to improve the prospects of achieving intra (to stabilize enzymes)⁴⁵ or
150 intermolecular covalent attachments (to prepare crosslinked enzyme aggregates, CLEAs).⁴⁶
151 The lower pK value of the chemically introduced amino groups using ethylenediamine has
152 also permitted to have a more general chemical modification of protein surfaces with other
153 molecules via modification of these amino groups under milder conditions than that required
154 by the unmodified enzyme.⁴⁷

155 The physical coating of the enzyme surface with poly-amine polymers, such as
156 polyethylenimine or polyallylamine, may have many positive effects on enzyme properties,
157 effects that are derived from the physical and chemical features of the polymer^{48,49}. Among
158 these, we can point out the partition effect, keeping away from the enzyme environment some
159 deleterious hydrophobic compounds (oxygen,^{50,51} hydrophobic organic cosolvents,^{52,53}), the
160 prevention of interaction with inactivating interfaces,⁵⁴ and stabilization of multimeric
161 structures.^{54,55}

162 However, in the context of this review, it be remarked that the coating with poly-amine
163 polymers of the enzyme surface permits, in an indirect way, the enzyme ionic exchange on a
164 cation exchanger, even though initially the enzyme had no tendency to become adsorbed to
165 this cation exchanger.⁵⁴

166 In the next sections of this review, we will present and discuss in a deeper way all
167 these general ideas, supplying some of the available examples.

168

169 **2. Chemical amination**

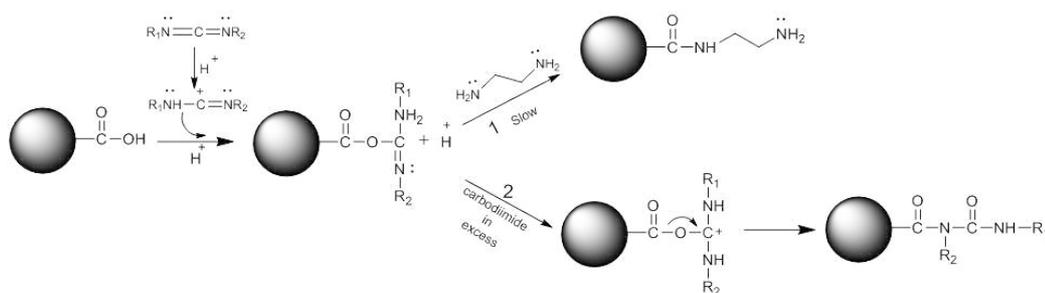
170 **2.1. Chemical amination of enzymes using the carbodiimide route**

171 This is the most used strategy to achieve the chemical amination of protein surfaces.
172 The use of water-soluble carbodiimides in conjunction with reactive nucleophilic species, as a
173 technique for the modification of carboxyl groups in enzymes and other proteins, was

174 introduced many years ago.^{56,57} Proteins have many reactive groups that can react with
 175 carbodiimides in the same fashion as with simple nucleophiles.⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰

176 Ethyl-di-methyl-amino-propyl carbodiimide (EDC) allows the modification of amino
 177 acid side chains thereby generating “new” enzymes via covalent modification of existing
 178 proteins. For this reason it has been used extensively for the chemical modification of
 179 proteins.^{22,58,60}

180 Using carbodiimides and nucleophiles such as primary amines it is possible to modify
 181 carboxyl groups from different proteins. The nature of the current chemical reactions involved
 182 in carboxyl group modifications using water-soluble carbodiimides has been previously
 183 described.^{57,61} This chemistry is summarized in Figure 5. In the first step of the reaction, the
 184 carboxyl group is added to the carbodiimide, forming a very labile O-acyl-iso-urea
 185 intermediate. As a result of the re-protonation at the site of the Schiff’s base, the intermediate
 186 will change into a carbocation, followed by reaction with nucleophilic species such as
 187 ethylenediamine at high concentrations in order to give a stable amide bond (Figure 5, route
 188 1).



189

190 **Figure 5. Reactions between carbodiimide and carboxylic groups of proteins.**

191

192 On the other hand, the O-acyl-iso-urea intermediate can form N-acyl-urea via an
 193 intramolecular acyl transfer mechanism. If the nucleophile is water, the carboxyl group will be
 194 regenerated with the conversion of 1 molecule of carbodiimide into its corresponding urea
 195 (Figure 5, route 2).^{57,61} However, kinetic studies on the modeling of carbodiimide-carboxyl-

196 nucleophile system have shown that the rearrangement can be slow compared to the
 197 nucleophilic attack if the concentration of nucleophile is sufficiently high.⁵⁷ Therefore, the
 198 coupling reaction of carboxyl and nucleophile groups can be driven essentially to completion
 199 in the presence of excess of both carbodiimide and the nucleophilic reagent.

200 In aqueous solutions at acidic pHs, carbodiimides may react also with free sulfhydryl
 201 groups from side chains of cysteine,⁶² as well as accessible phenolic groups of tyrosines.⁶³
 202 Indeed, it has been reported that the carbodiimide activated O-acyl-iso-urea on one molecule
 203 may undergo displacement by the slightly nucleophilic hydroxyl of tyrosine (Figure 6).^{60,63,64}
 204 Kinetic studies have shown that reaction rates of sulfhydryl and carboxyl groups with EDC are
 205 approximately equal, while tyrosine reacts more slowly. Carraway and Koshland⁶³ have
 206 shown that EDC converts accessible tyrosine residues in proteins to O-arylisourea derivatives,
 207 which are resistant towards acid hydrolysis. However, they have also shown that
 208 hydroxaminolysis of the modified protein quantitatively reverses this tyrosine modification.

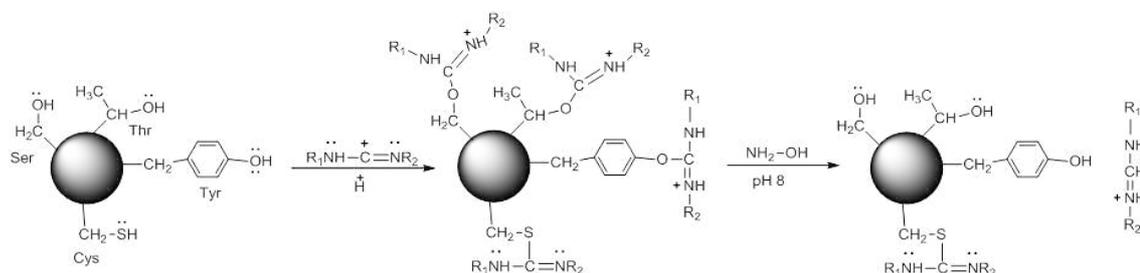
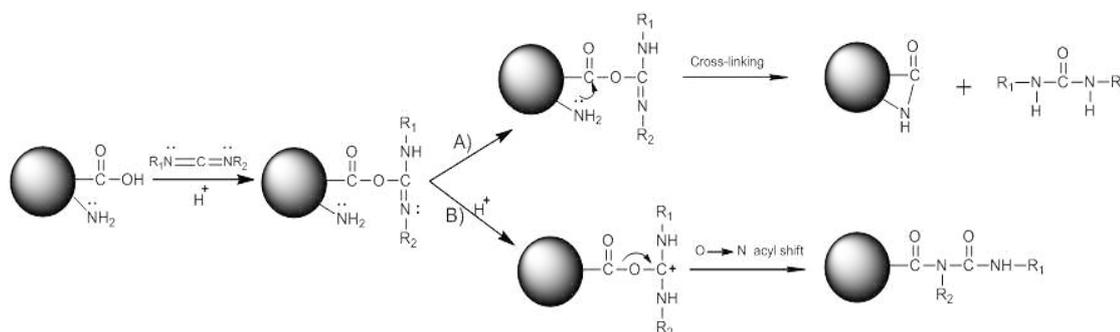


Figure 6. Side reactions during protein modifications with carbodiimide.

212 The reaction of carbodiimides with the carboxyl group in proteins can lead to
 213 inhibition; this can be caused by interaction of neighboring nucleophiles that could generate
 214 intramolecular crosslinkings (Figure 7, route A). For example, erythrocyte membrane ATPase
 215 is inhibited by the carbodiimide. The mechanism of the inhibition is thought to be via
 216 formation of the O-acyl-iso-urea species followed by the attack of an adjacent nucleophile
 217 causing the loss of urea, covalent binding of the nucleophile with the binding site to produce
 218 crosslinking. Protection of the enzyme by using methyl glycinate only occurs when this

219 nucleophile is added simultaneously with the carbodiimide; subsequent addition to the
 220 nucleophile does not cause regeneration of the O-acyl-iso-urea.^{58,65}



221
 222 **Figure 7. Rearrangement of proteins following treatment with carbodiimide.** A)
 223 intramolecular crosslinkings. B) O-N-acyl shift rearrangements.
 224

225 Furthermore, another cause of enzymatic inhibition by use of carbodiimides can be
 226 attributed to O-N-acyl shift rearrangements (Figure 7, route B). The O-acyl-iso-urea is
 227 relatively labile to hydrolysis, which causes regeneration of the active enzyme. However,
 228 residues partially shielded from solvolysis are susceptible to the stable N-acyl-urea
 229 rearrangement. Functionally important acid groups may frequently be found shielded in active
 230 sites and this type of chemical modification becomes now feasible.^{58,64}

231 If properly performed, this route may permit the simple amination of the enzyme
 232 surface in a very controlled way.

233

234 2.1. Chemical amination of free enzymes

235 The first interest of, the amination of enzymes via the carbodiimide route was the
 236 modification of the carboxylic acids of the protein to discriminate the existence of essential
 237 carboxylic groups for the function of the proteins, and that was performed with diamines,⁵⁹ but
 238 also with just mono amine compounds^{60,66} as the final goal was not the amination of the
 239 enzyme surface but the modification of the carboxylic residues.

Table 1. Effect of chemical amination on biochemical properties of free enzymes

Enzyme	Source	EC Number	Type of Modification	Effect of amination on enzyme properties	Reference
Alpha-Chymotrypsin	Bovine Pancreas	3.4.21.1	Succinylation of the enzyme followed by carbodiimide activation and ethylenediamine cross-linking	Increase in thermostability from 3- to 21-fold	67
Glucoamylase	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	3.2.1.4	Modification of three carboxyl groups available in the enzyme with carbodiimide and ethylenediamine activation	Increase on thermostability	68
Lysozyme	Hen egg white	3.2.1.17	Carbodiimide route activation of the enzyme followed by modification with athenolamine, ethylenediamine, methylamine, or 4(5)-(amino-methyl)-imidazole	Specific modification of Asp-101 decreases enzyme activity (83-52% of the native enzyme)	69
Beta-glucosidase	<i>A. niger</i> NIAB280	3.2.1.21	Modification of the enzyme with 1-ethyl-3(3-dimethylaminopropyl) carbodiimide in presence of glycnamide or ethylenediamine	Increase of half-lives at high temperatures (64 and 67 °C), with better results using ethylenediamine	70
Carboxymethyl-cellulase	<i>A. niger</i>	3.2.1.4	Modification of the enzyme with 1-ethyl-3(3-dimethylaminopropyl) carbodiimide in presence of dimethylamine hydrochloride and ethylenediamine dihydrochloride as nucleophile	Improving catalytic efficiency (V_{max}/K_m) from 0.16 to 1	71
Glucoamylase	<i>Fusarium solani</i>	3.2.1.3	Chemical Amination of the enzyme using ethylenediamine	Increase on activity and stability depending on the modification degree improving catalytic efficiency from 136 to 225	72
Xylanase	<i>Scopulariosis</i>	3.2.1.8	Carbodiimide activation and	Decrease on catalytic efficiency and	

	sp.		ethylenediamine modification of the enzyme	obtaining of two optimal pHs	73
Serine protease	<i>Bacillus lentus</i>	3.4.21.-	Combined use of chemical modification and site-directed mutagenesis of the enzyme	Modification of enzyme selectivity allowing catalyzing coupling reactions of both L- and D-amino acid esters.	74
Invertase	NA	3.2.1.26		Increase of stability to temperature of the enzyme around 10 °C, to pH below 3.0 by 20% and denaturing compounds such as urea by 2 h.	75
Invertase	NA	3.2.1.26	Pectin was attached to ethylenediamine-activated carbohydrate moieties of the enzyme using Modification with 1-ethyl-3(3-dimethylaminopropyl) carbodiimide.	Increase of optimal temperature by 8 °C and thermostability by 7.3 °C. Improving on half-life at 65 °C from 5 min to 2 days, enzyme stability at pH 2 by 33% and pH 12 by 27%.	76
Trypsin	Pancreas	3.4.21.4	Modification of the enzyme with polysaccharides derivatized with 1,4-diaminobutane through a transglutaminase-catalyzed reaction .	Shift of the optimal pH to alkaline values. Increase of thermostability around 22- to -48 fold in the range 50-60 °C. Increase of half-life time ranging from 9- to -68 fold in presence o 0.3%(w/v) sodium dodecylsulfate (SDS)	77

NA: Not Available

240 However, some examples may be found where the objective was to aminate the
241 enzyme surface and check the effects of this modification on the enzyme performance. Table
242 1 shows a resume of the main examples⁶⁷⁻⁷⁷. The objectives could be enzyme crosslinking
243 (analyzing the effect of the crosslinking size)⁶⁷, or just to check the effect of the general
244 modifications. Stabilities or activities could be improved in some cases. In a quite
245 sophisticated strategy, several polysaccharides were derivatized with 1,4-diaminobutane and
246 covalently attached to bovine pancreatic trypsin through a transglutaminase-catalyzed
247 reaction.⁷⁷

248 Thus, amination of free enzymes, even although not very utilized, has been used in
249 diverse examples with good results.

250

251 **2.3. Chemical amination of enzymes to improve its immobilization**

252 **2.3.1. Increase of the number of the enzyme/support covalent attachments**

253 One of the goals that may be pursued by amination of the enzyme surface is to
254 increase the amount of reactive groups on the enzyme surface and thus improve the prospects
255 of getting an intense multipoint covalent attachment during immobilization. This approach is
256 effective if the support (e.g., glyoxyl-agarose,³⁶ epoxy,³¹ etc) and immobilization protocol are
257 chosen in a way that may permit to get this multipoint covalent attachment. Table 2 shows a
258 resume of the main examples.

259 Initially, the enzymes were aminated in solution, requiring extensive dialysis to
260 eliminate the excess of ethylenediamine⁷⁸⁻⁸⁵. Most results used glyoxyl-agarose supports.
261 Results pointed that the aminated enzymes were more rapidly immobilized and permitted
262 higher stabilization factors. Interestingly, immobilization could be performed now under
263 milder pH conditions on glyoxyl supports, a key feature when the enzyme was unstable at pH
264 10⁷⁸. Immobilization at different pH values permitted to alter the rea involved in the

Table 2. Chemical amination of enzymes to improve their immobilization

Enzyme	Source	EC Number	Type of modification and Immobilization	Effect of amination on enzyme properties	Reference
Penicillin acylase	<i>E. coli</i>	3.5.1.11	Aminated enzyme immobilized on glyoxyl agarose by multipoint covalent attachment	Improvement of enzyme immobilization at pH 9 by multipoint covalent attachment. Increase of thermostability by a 4 –fold factor compared to the unmodified enzyme	78, 79
Glutaryl acylase	NA	3.5.1.93	Aminated enzyme immobilized on glyoxyl agarose by multipoint covalent attachment	Improvement of enzyme immobilization at pH 9 by multipoint covalent attachment Increase of thermostability by a 20–fold factor compared to the unmodified enzyme	80
Glucoamylase	<i>A. niger</i>	3.2.1.3	Aminated enzyme immobilized on glyoxyl agarose by multipoint covalent attachment	Improvement of enzyme stability by 500-fold factor, keeping 50% of the initial activity of the immobilized enzyme	81
Laccase	<i>Trametes versicolor</i>	1.10.3.2	Aminated enzyme immobilized on glyoxyl agarose by multipoint covalent attachment	Stabilization of the enzyme 280-folds with a 60% of the initial activity. The biocatalyst can be used for 10 cycles in oxidation of phenyl compounds without detecting decrease in enzyme activity	82,83
Lipase	<i>Candida rugosa</i>	3.1.1.3	Aminated enzyme immobilized on electrochemically PANI activated with glutaraldehyde	Higher specific activity (52%) and thermal stability (3-times) after immobilization compared to immobilized unmodified enzyme. Increase of reuse of the enzyme at pH 10.	84
Invertase	Baker's Yeast	3.2.1.26	Different aminated	Higher yields of immobilization, and	

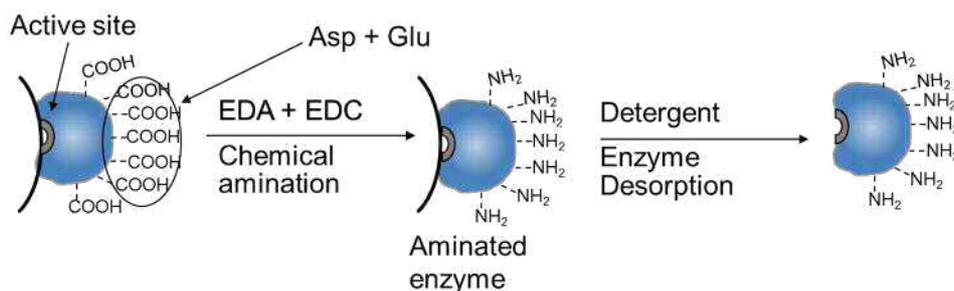
			enzymes (periodate and ethanolamine-treated enzyme, periodate and ethylenediamine-treated enzyme and TNBS followed by periodate and ethylenediamine-treated enzyme) were immobilized on Sepharose	improvements on thermal and storage stability of the enzyme	85
Lipase	<i>Bacillus thermocatenuatus</i>	3.1.1.3	Enzyme immobilized on octyl-agarose, aminated and then desorbed, and finally immobilized on Glyoxyl agarose	Stabilization of the enzyme around 1200-fold compared to enzyme immobilized on CNBr and further aminated	88
Lipase	<i>Thermomyces lanuginosus</i>	3.1.1.3	Enzyme immobilized on octyl-agarose, aminated and then desorbed, and finally immobilized on Glyoxyl agarose	Immobilization of the enzyme without inactivation can be performed at pH 9 or 10. Enzyme activity is kept at 70% and stability is improved 5-fold compared to the non-aminated enzyme	42
Lipase	<i>Rhizomucor miehei</i>	3.1.1.3	Enzyme immobilized on octyl-agarose, aminated and then desorbed, and finally immobilized on Glyoxyl agarose and CNBr	Improvement in enzyme immobilization rates at pH 9.1	95
Penicillin G acylase	<i>E. coli</i>	3.5.1.11	Amination of the enzyme by ethylenediamine and carbodiimide	Immobilization of the enzyme on carboxymethyl or dextran sulphate-coated supports is facilitated. Significant increase in enzyme stability to organic solvents are achieved	43
Invertase	<i>Saccharomyces</i>	3.2.1.26	Introduction of chitin	High yields and enzyme recovery	

	<i>cerevisiae</i>		enzyme structure	during immobilization of alginate-coated chitin supports. Optimal temperature is increased by 10 °C and thermostability enhanced around 9 °C (4 –fold more resistant to thermal treatment at 65 °C than native enzyme)	107
Invertase	<i>S. cerevisiae</i>	3.2.1.26	Modification of the enzyme on pectin-coated chitin support via polyelectrolyte complex formation	High enzyme recovery (97%) and immobilization yield (85%). Optimal temperature is increased by 10 °C and its thermostability enhanced by about 10 °C after immobilization (4 –fold more resistant to thermal treatment at 65 °C than native enzyme)	108
Invertase	<i>S. cerevisiae</i>	3.2.1.26	Modification of the enzyme on hyaluronic-acid-modified chitin	Optimal temperature for sucrose hydrolysis is increased by 5 °C and thermostability enhanced by about 10 °C after immobilization (4 –fold more resistant to thermal treatment at 65 °C than native enzyme)	109

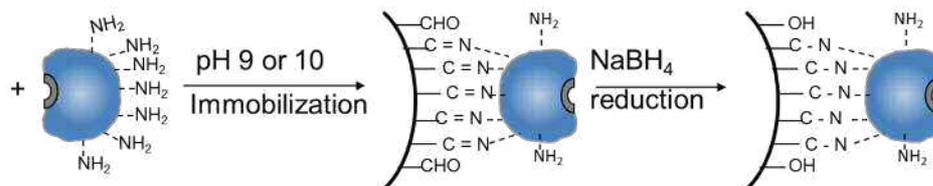
265 immobilization and different stabilizations could be obtained (after incubation at pH 10 of the
266 already immobilized enzyme). Immobilization of lipase from *Candida rugosa*
267 electrochemically synthesized PANI activated with glutaraldehyde was improved via chemical
268 amination.⁸⁴ Aminated lipases exhibited higher specific activity (52%) and thermal stability
269 (3-times) after immobilization, compared with the immobilized unmodified lipase. Also,
270 reusability of the immobilized enzyme was significantly increased with amination, especially
271 when immobilization was performed at pH 10, this biocatalyst retained 91% of activity after
272 15 reaction cycles.⁸⁴

273 To solve the problem of elimination of the excess of ethylenediamina and also to
274 beneficiate of the solid phase modification of proteins, the previous reversible immobilization
275 of enzymes seems advantageous. Using lipases, this could be accomplished by reversibly
276 immobilized on octyl-agarose,⁸⁶ a support that did not produce any cross-reaction with
277 carbodiimide. These immobilized enzymes were aminated, washed in a very simple fashion to
278 eliminate the residual ethylenediamine, desorbed from the octyl-agarose beads using a
279 detergent, and immobilized on glyoxyl-agarose (Figure 8).¹⁹ The presence of detergent during
280 the covalent immobilization was useful to avoid the risk of lipase/lipase aggregation.⁸⁷ Results
281 were similar to the described aminating free enzymes: higher immobilization rates, possibility
282 of immobilization at lower pH values on glyoxyl agarose, higher stabilization factors^{42,88,95}.

283 The solid phase amination produces a clear simplification of the process, new
284 methods for the reversible immobilization of enzymes on supports that did not interfere with
285 the amination reaction may open the opportunity of extending this strategy to any other
286 enzyme or protein.



Second step: Immobilization of aminated lipase on glyoxyl support



287

288

289

290

Figure 8. Solid-phase amination of lipases and its further immobilization on glyoxyl supports.

291

2.3.2. Improved production of crosslinked enzyme aggregates

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

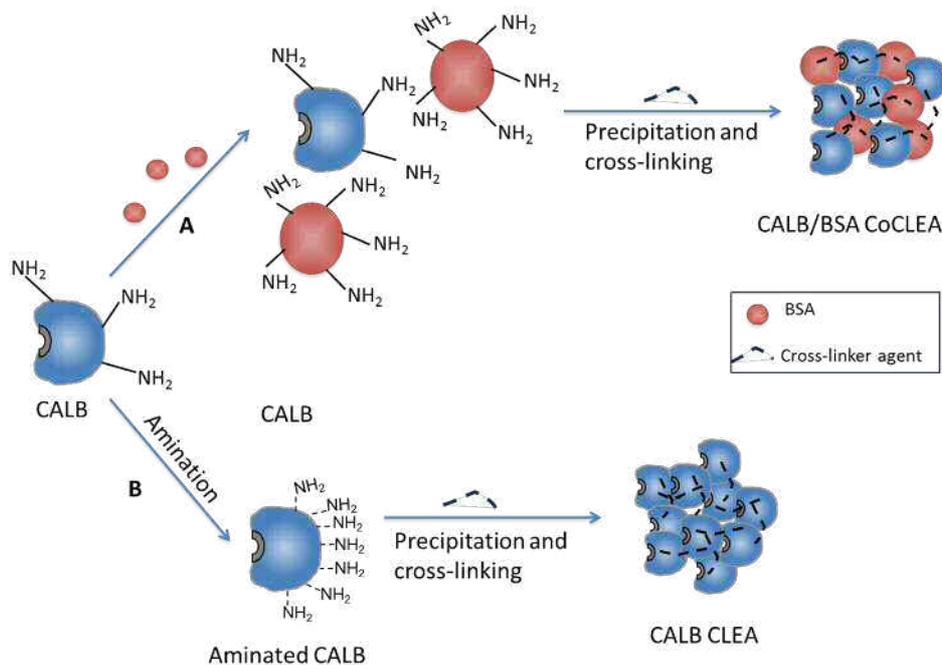
303

304

305

The preparation of crosslinked enzyme aggregates (CLEAs) is a relatively recent enzyme immobilization technique developed in the group of Prof Roger Sheldon.⁹⁷ The strategy is relatively simple, consisting on the precipitation of the enzyme in an active form and the physical stabilization of the aggregate particles via chemical crosslinking to prevent re-dissolution when the aggregation reagent is eliminated.⁹⁸ However, in some instances, the crosslinking step of the enzyme may not be simple, e.g., if the enzyme has few reactive groups on its surface.⁹⁹ The amino groups tend to be the most utilized groups for the crosslinking step.^{113, 114} Co-aggregation of the enzyme with other Lys rich proteins (Figure 9) is one of the possible solutions,¹⁰⁰ as well as the use of PEI (see section 4 of this review).^{101, 102} However, both strategies reduce the volumetric loading of the target protein on the final biocatalyst. The amination of the enzyme may be a simple solution to solve this problem. Lipase B from *Candida antarctica* presents a low amount of Lys on the surface.¹⁰³ Although the precipitation step is easy using different precipitants, the crosslinking step becomes a problem due to the low amount of Lys residues in this enzyme.⁴⁶ The enzyme surface was enriched in amino

306 groups by chemical amination of the enzyme using ethylenediamine and carbodiimide (Figure
 307 9). Using this aminated enzyme, precipitation is also effective and the crosslinking step is no
 308 longer a problem. Stability of this CLEA was higher in both thermal and cosolvent
 309 inactivation experiments than that of the coCLEA produced by co-aggregation of BSA and
 310 enzyme;⁴⁶ another alternative to produce a CLEA of this interesting enzyme.¹⁰⁴

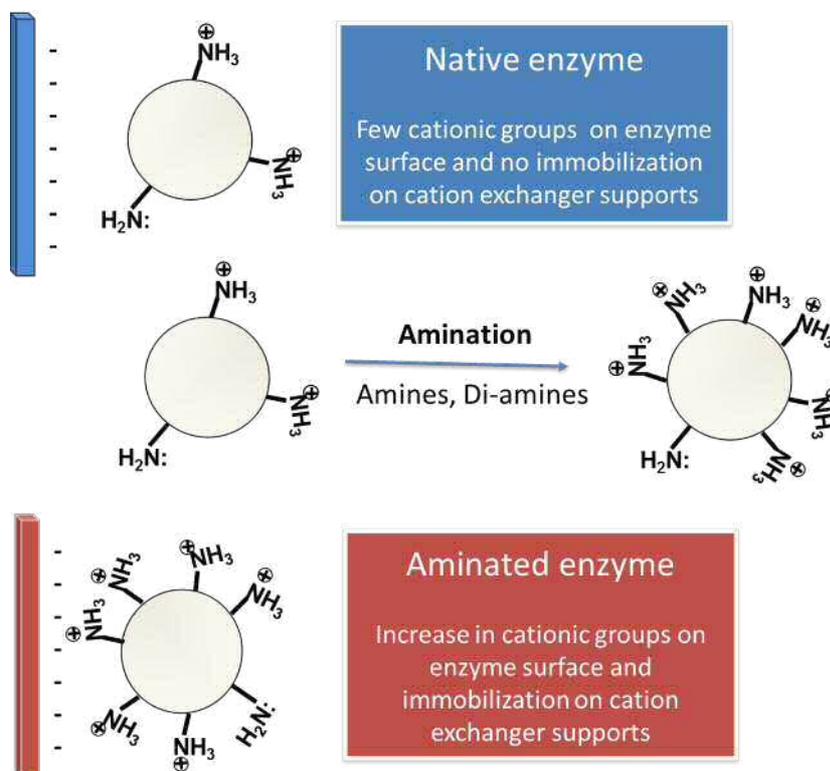


311
 312 **Figure 9. Strategies to crosslink enzyme aggregates with glutaraldehyde when the**
 313 **enzyme is poor on external amino groups. A) Mixture with BSA. B) Chemical amination.**
 314

315 2.3.3. Improved enzyme immobilization on cation exchangers

316 Immobilization of proteins on ion exchangers requires the simultaneous
 317 establishment of several enzyme-support interactions.^{105,106} Most enzymes have an isoelectric
 318 point ranking from 4 to 5, and this makes that most enzymes can hardly become adsorbed on
 319 cation exchangers under a wide range of pH values. Table 2 shows examples where the
 320 enzyme was aminated using ethylenimine⁴³ or cationic polymers like chitosan¹⁰⁷⁻¹⁰⁹.
 321 Immobilization via cation exchange could be only successfully employed using the modified
 322 enzymes. The use of ionic polymers on the support and/or on the enzyme permitted to

323 improve the enzyme stability in the presence of organic solvents. Thus, amination seems to be
 324 a powerful tool to prevent one of the problems of immobilizing enzymes via ion exchange, the
 325 risk of enzyme desorption.



326

327 **Figure 10. Improved ionic exchange of aminated proteins on anion exchangers.**

328

329 2.4- Chemical amination of immobilized enzymes to improve their catalytic 330 performance

331 The chemical modification of enzymes in the solid phase has many advantages¹⁹:
 332 prevention of aggregation, possibility of using stabilized enzymes, easy performance and
 333 control, etc. Most of the examples found using the chemical amination of the immobilized
 334 enzymes are quite recent. Table 3 summarizes the main results^{24,24,110-114}. The amination of
 335 immobilized enzymes, mainly lipases, has permitted to improve their activity, stability, tuning
 336 selectivity and specificity. The results are not easy to predict, and depend on the
 337 immobilization protocol. However, due to the rapid way this modification may be

Table 3. Improvement of immobilized enzyme properties via chemical amination.

Enzyme	Source	EC Number	Type of Modification	Effect of amination on enzyme properties	Reference
Lipase	<i>Candida antarctica</i> (B), <i>T. lanuginosus</i> and <i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>	3.1.1.3	Modification with ethylenediamine via carbodiimide	Activity and enantioselectivity of the enzymes can be modulated, and it is possible to obtain high enantiomeric excess (ee) in the kinetic resolution of (\pm)-2-hydroxyphenylacetic acid methyl ester.	110
Lipase	(Novozyme 435) <i>C. antarctica</i> B in immobilized form	3.1.1.3	Modification by amino-ethyl-amidation of the enzyme	Improvement in enzyme activity against 3-phenylglutaric dimethyl diester (Two-fold)	111
Lipase	<i>T. lanuginosus</i>	3.1.1.3	Modification of the enzyme immobilized on octyl-agarose with ethylene-di-amine of carboxylic groups previously activated with carbodiimide at different extensions (10, 50 and 100%)	Improvement in enzyme activity against p-nitrophenyl-propionate (p-NPP). Fully aminated and hydroxylamine-treated enzyme exhibits higher thermostability (at pH 5 almost 30-fold factor compare to unmodified enzyme)	25
Lipase	<i>C. antarctica</i> B, <i>T. lanuginosus</i> , <i>R. miehei</i>	3.1.1.3	Amination of the enzyme immobilized on CNBr-activated Sepharose via a mild covalent immobilization or adsorbed onto octyl-Sepharose	Alteration of enzyme performance on the selective hydrolysis of sardine oil to produce both eicosapentanoic and docosahexaenoic acid.	112
Lipase	<i>C. antarctica</i> B	3.1.1.3	Modification with	Activity on p-nitrophenylbutyrate (p-	

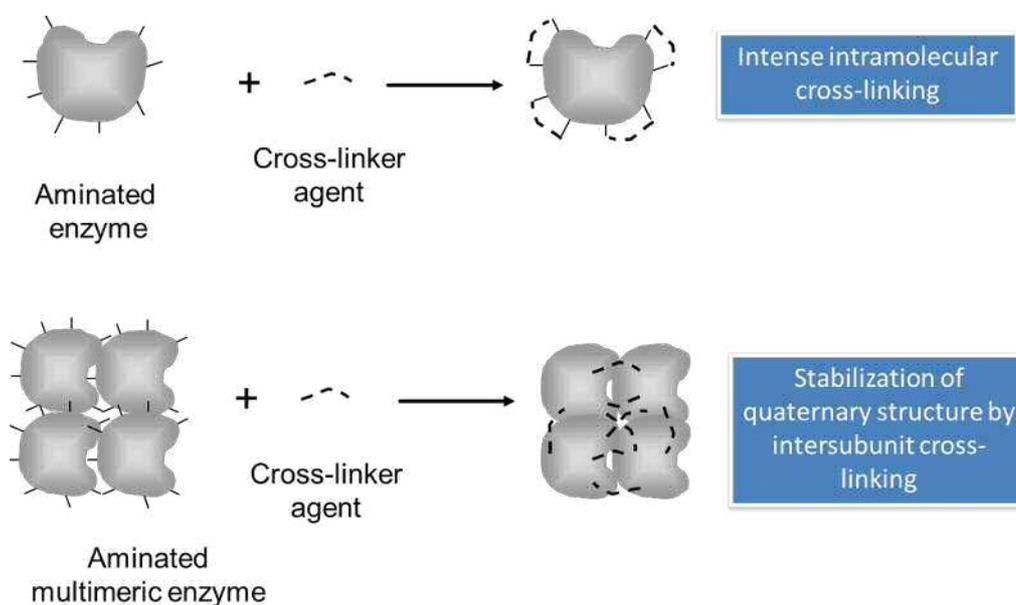
			ethylenediamine (EDA) or 2,4,6-tri-nitro-benzen-sulfonic acid (TNBS) by different strategies (by single or sequential mode) of the enzyme covalently immobilized on CNBr-activated Sepharose or adsorbed onto octyl-Sepharose	NPB) is improved by 2-fold factor. Significant changes in activity/pH profiles and enzyme specificity are observed	24
Phospholipase (Lecitase Ultra)	<i>Artificial enzyme (Novozymes)</i>	3.1.1.4	Modification of the enzyme by different individual or cascade chemical modifications (amination, glutaraldehyde or 2,4,6-trinitrobenzensulfonic acid)	Most of the modifications presented a positive effect on some enzyme properties at least under certain conditions, and a negative effect under other conditions. For instance, glutaraldehyde modification of immobilized or aminated immobilized enzyme permitted to improve enzyme stability of both immobilized enzymes at pH 7 and 9 (around a 10-fold factor)	113
Lipase	<i>Geobacillus thermocatanulatus</i>	3.1.1.3	Modification of the enzyme by site directed amination by thiol-disulfide exchange with pyridyldisulfide poly-aminated-dextran and then immobilized by colvanet attachment in BrCN or Glyoxyl-agarose	Increase of enzyme activity on aliphatic carboxylic esters	114

338 accomplished, may be a simple way to increase the library of biocatalyst when looking for an
339 optimal biocatalyst for a particular process.

340

341 2.5. Chemical amination to improve the crosslinking of immobilized enzymes

342 Chemical crosslinking of enzymes is a way to greatly increase their structure
343 rigidity, and thus, their stability.^{6,8,115,116} Here we will focus on the crosslinking, using bi or
344 multifunctional molecules, of previously immobilized enzymes. Intermolecular crosslinking is
345 a quite complex process, as it must compete with the one-point modifications (if using homo-
346 bifunctional reagents), and most important, only if there are reactive groups located on the
347 appropriate distance (similar to the crosslinking reagent) the crosslinking will take place. This
348 strategy is also valid to stabilize multimeric enzymes, if it involves all enzyme subunits.¹⁶ The
349 majority of the most widely used and effective crosslinkers are based on reaction with amino
350 groups, as is the case of the glutaraldehyde.^{32,117} Thus, amination of the enzyme surface could
351 be a proper tool to achieve an intense intramolecular or intersubunit crosslinking (Figure 11).



352

353

354

Figure 11. Increased prospects of crosslinking via amination.

355 However, although there are many reports on crosslinking of immobilized proteins,¹⁹
356 we have been able to find just one example where the amination was performed on previously
357 immobilized enzyme before the crosslinking. This example was on penicillin G acylase
358 previously multipoint-immobilized on glyoxyl-agarose.⁴⁵ After amination, the enzyme was
359 submitted to full modification with glutaraldehyde, the excess of reactive was eliminated by a
360 simple washing, and the modified enzymes were long term incubated to permit an intense
361 crosslinking (crosslinking is a quite slow process, as it requires the reaction between two
362 groups attached to a rigid structure, a protein surface). Stabilization factors of more than 40
363 were achieved.⁴⁵ Using formaldehyde, stabilization did not take place, suggesting that this
364 reactive may have a most complex crosslinking behavior.⁴⁵ However, leaving an excess of
365 formaldehyde, similar stabilization factors were found,¹¹⁸ indicating that formaldehyde
366 required to form some multi-formaldehyde structures to give some crosslinking.¹¹⁹

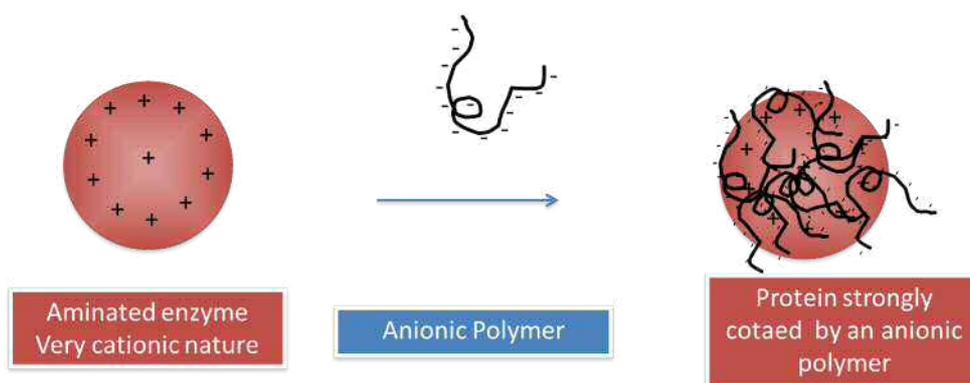
367

368 **2.6. Chemical amination to improve the physical coating with anionic polymers**

369 The coating of enzymes with polymers has been reported as an efficient way to
370 improve the enzyme stability versus interaction with interfaces, such as gas bubbles, subunit
371 dissociation,¹²¹ organic solvents by generating a certain partition, etc.¹⁹ The use of ionic
372 polymers may be a simpler solution than the covalent modification.

373 One requirement to use this strategy is that the polymer must coat the enzyme
374 surface, and the enzyme-polymer interaction must be strong enough to enable the use of this
375 composite under a wide range of pH values without breaking the composite. In fact, in some
376 instances, this stabilization of the polymer-enzyme composite has been achieved by using a
377 chemical crosslinker,⁵⁴ but in other cases this may not be possible, e.g., if the enzyme is
378 inactivated by this treatment.⁵⁵

379 Most of the examples dealing with coating enzymes with ionic polymers use
380 polyethylenimine (see section 3 of this review) because most enzymes have too low isoelectric
381 point to become coated using polyanionic polymers at neutral pH values. This coating with
382 anionic polymers may be easily achieved using previously chemically aminated enzyme: the
383 protein will have a cationic nature in pH values as high as 12 if total amination is achieved,²⁴
384 permitting to get a very stable enzyme-anionic polymer composite (Figure 12). Although this
385 strategy should work, we have been unable to find an example where aminated enzymes are
386 coated using poly-ionic polymers, the only examples we have found are related to
387 immobilization of enzymes on anionic supports (see section 2.3.3).^{43,107-109} However, as we
388 thought that this application should work properly, we have decided to include this possibility
389 in the present review.



391 **Figure 12. Physical coating of aminated enzymes with anionic polymers.**

392

393 3.7. Chemical amination to improve their further modification with other 394 compounds

395 In some instances, the researcher may intend to introduce some molecules on the
396 enzyme surface to alter its physical properties, or alter its catalytic efficiency. The reaction
397 with amino groups of the protein used to be one of the most applied strategies due to the good
398 reactivity of these groups with many reagents.¹²² However, if we really desire a massive
399 modification of the protein surface, this may not be so simple, as the pK of the amino group in

400 the lateral chain of Lys is 10.5, and this pK will be quite similar on all residues exposed to the
401 medium, that are the ones that we can modify. The terminal amino groups may have a lower
402 pK value, but this group only permits a one-point modification. The massive modification of
403 an enzyme surface with an amino-reactive compound was the goal of a recent paper.⁴⁷ While
404 immobilized native lipase B from *Candida antarctica* cannot be massively modified with
405 succinic polyethyleneglycol via the carbodiimide route, the aminated enzyme can be modified
406 with 14-15 PEG molecules could be introduced per enzyme molecule. The effects on enzyme
407 feature depended on the immobilization protocol.⁴⁷

408

409 **2.8. Chemical amination of proteins to improve their uses “*in vivo*”**

410 Amination of enzymes has not only been used *in vitro*, but it has also been used to
411 improve the enzyme and proteins performance *in vivo*. Covalently aminated enzymes, using
412 polymers such as polyethylenimine or small amines attached to the carboxylic groups, have
413 been used *in vivo* due to several advantages.

414 Regarding the preparation of antibodies versus small compounds, the use of
415 aminated carrier proteins have two main advantages. First, the modified protein has usually a
416 more potent immunogenicity than unmodified protein.^{123,124} Second, and related to the point
417 2.6 of this review, the larger amount and higher reactivity of the aminated enzymes, may
418 permit to introduce a higher number of antigen molecules per molecule of carrier protein.¹²⁵

419 Regarding the use of proteins as medicament, the cationized protein is able to
420 penetrate membranes in a more efficient way than the unmodified proteins.^{126,127}

421 Now we will make a rapid overview on some examples of these *in vivo* uses of
422 amination of proteins.

423

424 **2.8.1. Use of aminated proteins to raise antibodies versus small molecules.**

425 To raise antibodies versus small molecules, it is necessary to attach these small
426 haptens to large proteins, because if the size is under 5000, the immunologic response is very
427 low or inexistent.

428 In the late 1980s, it was shown that a cationized form of bovine serum albumin
429 produced by substituting the anionic side chain carboxylic groups with aminoethylamide
430 groups possesses unique immunologic properties.¹²⁴ It was possible to use 500-fold lower
431 amount of cationized protein to reach the same immunogenic response. Moreover, antibodies
432 were produced in response to the administration of cationized protein but not using
433 unmodified enzyme unless an adjuvant was used. An inverse correlation between the degree
434 of cationization and the amounts of antigen needed for optimal T cell reactivity was observed.
435 The results suggested that native albumin enters the cell by fluid phase pinocytosis, whereas
436 the aminated protein enters by a nonspecific adsorptive mechanism.¹²³ Ethylenediamine
437 modified bovine albumin was modified with aflatoxin B1 using a Mannich-type protocol, and
438 utilized to raise antibodies versus aflatoxin B1, achieving a quicker immunological
439 response.¹²⁸ Later, a similar strategy was used to raise antibodies versus bisphenol A.¹²⁹
440 Compared with the non-aminated protein, the aminated bovine serum albumin improved the
441 efficiency of coupling and enhanced the immune response against the target antigen.¹²⁹ In a
442 third research, dichlorvos was coupled to cationized bovine serum albumin using also a
443 method based on Mannich-type reaction, and utilized to produce a monoclonal antibody
444 versus diclorvos.¹³⁰ In a nice report, it was shown that combining double-chemically modified
445 carrier proteins and hetero-functional crosslinkers allowed preparing tailor-made hapten-
446 protein carrier conjugates.¹²⁵ The protein was aminated and further modified by different
447 crosslinkers (hyper-reactive proteins) at different conditions in order to control the
448 conjugation ratio from 1 to > 12 molecules of hapten per carrier protein. Finally, this novel
449 strategy has been successfully used to develop antibodies against a short specific peptide

450 corresponding to a one point mutation (D816V) of cKIT, which is a clinically relevant
451 mutation related to mastocytosis and gastrointestinal stroma tumor.¹²⁵

452

453 **2.8.2. Improving the protein function *in vivo* via chemical amination**

454

455 **2.8.2.1. Improved function *in vivo* of aminated antibodies**

456 Proteins and enzymes may be used as medicaments. In other cases, enzymes are
457 used as a way to make some studies on their effect on cells. In most cases, the enzymes need
458 to be inside the cells to be useful, or to penetrate complex barriers, such as the brain barrier. It
459 has been demonstrated that proteins artificially cationized by chemical conjugation show
460 efficient intracellular delivery via adsorptive-mediated endocytosis and then may exert their
461 biological activity inside cells.¹²⁶ As the mammalian cell membrane possesses an abundance
462 of negatively charged glycoproteins and glycosphingolipids, amination of proteins is a
463 reasonable choice to endow them with the ability for intracellular delivery.¹²⁷

464 One of the applications of the amination of proteins has been the improvement of
465 antibody penetration on cells and different tissues. Owing to the poor transport of monoclonal
466 antibodies across either capillary or cell membrane barriers, drug delivery strategies are
467 needed to target monoclonal antibodies to intracellular sites where proteins function.
468 Aminated antibodies may be therapeutic and allow for intracellular immunization because
469 their better penetration in cells. For example, the improved issue uptake of aminated
470 immunoglobulin G was shown after intravenous administration relative to the uptake of native
471 protein.¹³¹ Polyclonal antibodies directed against a 16-amino acid synthetic peptide
472 corresponding to amino acids 35-50 of the 116-amino acid rev protein of human
473 immunodeficiency virus type 1 were used as a model of the effect of the amination on protein
474 cell uptake.¹³² The study demonstrated that cationization resulted in enhanced endocytosis of

475 the antibody and enhanced inhibition of HIV-1 replication, consistent with intracellular
476 immunization of the rev protein. The amination of a monoclonal antibody prepared against a
477 synthetic peptide encoding the Asp₁₃ point mutation of the ras proto-oncogenic p21 protein
478 permitted to improve the uptake *in vitro*.¹³³ The *in vivo* pharmacokinetics and efficacy of
479 cationized human immunoglobulins in the human-peripheral blood lymphocytes-severe
480 combined immune deficiency mouse model were evaluated using the severe combined
481 immunodeficient mouse transplanted with human lymphocytes and infected with human
482 immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-1.¹³⁴ The aminated immunoglobulins have a markedly reduced
483 mean residence time and a marked increase in organ uptake compared to the native
484 immunoglobulins.¹³⁴ The amination of humanized 4D5 monoclonal antibody directed against
485 the p185(HER2) oncogenic protein permitted to improve its cell uptake.¹³⁵ Native antibody
486 was confined to the periplasma membrane space with minimal endocytosis into the cell. In
487 contrast, robust internalization of the cationized 4D5 antibody by the SK-BR3 cells was
488 demonstrated.¹³⁵ Aminated goat colchicine-specific polyclonal immunoglobulin G and antigen
489 binding fragment decreased more rapidly in plasma than the non-modified counterparts.¹³⁶

490

491 **2.8.2.1. Improved function in vivo of aminated enzymes**

492 In other instances, the objective of the amination was to achieve that exogenous
493 enzyme may perform their function inside the cells to solve some problems, that is, to use the
494 enzymes as medicaments. Table 4 shows a resume of the most significant examples. In
495 general, aminated enzymes can penetrate better inside the cells, and exert inside the function,
496 making that this strategy may be very useful to use enzymes to treat illness related to cell
497 metabolic failure. Aminated Catalase is used in some these studies to prevent hydrogen
498 peroxide-induced damage¹³⁷⁻¹³⁸, aminated glucose oxidase is used for the treatment of
499 metabolic deficiencies¹³⁷, but most examples are related to ribonucleases. Ribonucleases are

Table 4. Chemical amination of free enzymes to improve *in vivo* biological properties of enzymes

Enzyme	Source	EC Number	Type of modification and/or Immobilization	Effect of amination on enzyme properties	Reference
Catalase	NA	1.11.1.6	Enzyme is aminated with ethylenediamine	Significant protection against Fe(II)/H ₂ O ₂ and ascorbic acid/copper ion-mediated damage is obtained	137
Glucose oxidase	NA	1.1.3.4	Enzyme is aminated with ethylenediamine	Treatment of pathological processes in the intestine is suggested	137
Catalase	NA	1.11.1.6	Enzyme is aminated with ethylenediamine or hexylenediamine	Aminated enzymes show increased binding capacities to HepG2 cells, and rapidly are taken up by the liver. Hydrogen peroxide induced cytotoxicity in HepG2 cells is significantly prevented by preincubation of the cells with aminated enzyme	138
RNAase	NA	3.1.27.-	Enzyme is aminated by ethylenediamine by the carbodiimide route	Improvement in ability to digest intracellular RNA, endocytosis and decreased affinity to the endogenous RNase inhibitors is achieved	140
RNAase	<i>Streptomyces aureofaciens</i>	3.1.1.27.-	Enzyme is aminated by ethylenediamine by the carbodiimide route	Toxic effects of the enzyme are enhanced	141
RNAase A	Bovine	3.1.27.5	Enzyme is modified by ethylenediamine by the carbodiimide route	Modified RNases are cytotoxic toward 3T3-SV-40 cells despite their decreasing on ribonucleolytic activity	142,143
RNAase 1	Human	3.1.27.3	Enzyme is modified by ethylenediamine by the carbodiimide route	Modified RNases are cytotoxic toward 3T3-SV-40 cells despite their decreasing on ribonucleolytic activity	142
RNAase	NA	3.1.27.-	Enzyme is modified with	Enzyme is efficiently uptaken and	147

			polyethyleneimine (PEI)	functioned into the cytosol	
Glutathione S-transferase	<i>Schistosoma japonicum</i>	2.5.1.18	Enzyme is fused with green fluorescent protein and cationized by forming a complex with a polycationic polyethylenimine-glutathione conjugate	Increase on both penetrability and enzyme delivery into CHO cells	148
RNAase	NA	3.1.27.5	Enzyme is biotinylated and mixed with PEI-streptavidin	Inhibition of cell growth of 3T3-SV-40 cell lines	150

500 potential anti-tumor drugs due to their potential cytotoxicity. A general model for the
501 mechanism of the cytotoxic action of RNases includes the interaction of the enzyme with the
502 cellular membrane, internalization, translocation to the cytosol, and degradation of ribonucleic
503 acid.¹³⁹ The cytotoxic properties of naturally occurring or engineered RNases correlate well
504 with their efficiency of cellular internalization and digestion level of cellular RNA. Aminated
505 RNases are considered to be adsorbed on the anionic cellular surface by Coulombic
506 interactions, and then become efficiently internalized into cells by an endocytosis-like
507 pathway.¹⁴⁰⁻¹⁴³ Although chemically modified cationized RNases showed decreased
508 ribonucleolytic activity, improved endocytosis and decreased affinity to the endogenous
509 RNase inhibitor improve their ability to digest intra-cellular RNA.

510 Another application *in vivo* of aminated proteins is their use as carrier proteins for
511 different drugs or peptides towards target tissues. For example, rat albumin was cationized
512 with hexamethylenediamine, and the isoelectric point of the protein was raised from 5.5 to
513 approximately 8.¹⁴⁴ The aminated rat serum albumin was taken up by isolated rat or bovine
514 brain microvessels, whereas native protein was not taken up by the capillaries *in vitro*.
515 Therefore, cationized rat albumin may be used in future studies that use the repetitive
516 administration of aminated rat albumin chimeric peptides for the evaluation of the transport of
517 these substances through the blood-brain barrier *in vivo*.¹⁴⁴

518
519 Bovine serum albumin was aminated with hexamethylenediamine or
520 ethylenediamine to obtain cationized proteins and study the relation between physical
521 properties and hepatic delivery.¹⁴⁵ Aminated albumins were rapidly taken up by liver, but the
522 protein modified using hexylenediamine showed a faster uptake than when using
523 ethylenediamine, with a similar number of free NH₂ groups, suggesting that the diamine

524 reagent with a longer carboxyl side chain results in more efficient hepatic targeting. A low
525 degree of amination is sufficient for efficient hepatic targeting of proteins.¹⁴⁵

526 The use of aminated β -lactoglobulin (11 carboxylic groups were modified with
527 ethylenediamine) as carrier protein improved the bioavailability for poorly absorbed bioactive
528 compounds.¹⁴⁶

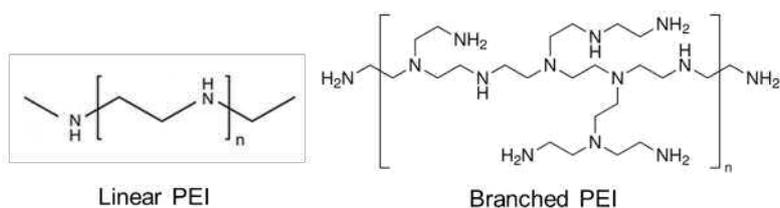
529 In other cases, amination of enzymes and proteins has been used to facilitate the
530 study of proteins in living cells. In the post-genomic era, there is interest for developing
531 methodologies that permit protein manipulation to analyze functions of proteins in living cells.
532 For this purpose, techniques to deliver functional proteins into living cells are of great
533 relevance and protein amination seems to be an obvious option. Table 4 shows some of the
534 most relevant examples. In some examples, the modification is performed using polymers like
535 polyethylenimine.¹⁴⁷⁻¹⁴⁹ An original approximation shows the indirect protein amination using
536 non-covalent interaction using PEI-cationized avidin, streptavidin and protein G were used to
537 deliver biotinylated proteins and antibodies into living cells.¹⁵⁰

538 Finally, amination has been proposed to improve the activity recovery of proteins
539 expressed as inclusion bodies opening a novel method to deliver a denatured protein into cells
540 and simultaneously let it fold to express its function within cells.¹⁵¹

541

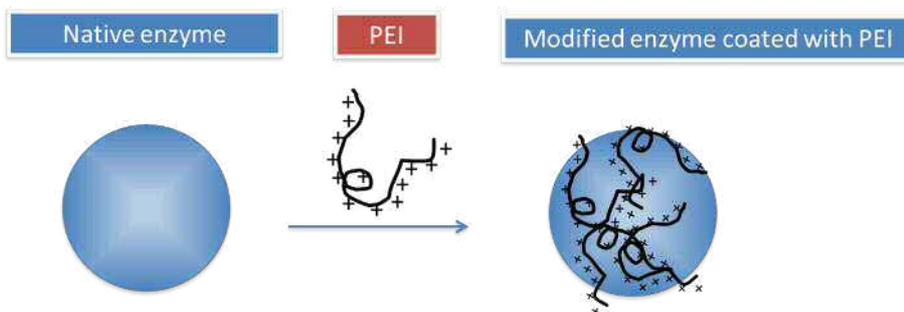
542 **3. Physical amination of enzymes using aminated polymers**

543 In the section 2, we have shown many examples where a protein was chemically
544 attached to a poly-aminated polymer, usually chitosan or polyethyleneimine (PEI). This
545 section will focus on the coating of the protein surface by polycationic polymers, but not in a
546 covalent way, but simply by physical ionic exchange (Figure 13). The polymers may be quite
547 large, even millions of Da, and that may facilitate the multipoint adsorption that is require to
548 keep the polymer/enzyme interaction.^{105,106}



COATING OF ENZYMES BY POLYETHYLENEIMINE:

A LARGE INCREASE ON CATIONIC CHARACTER OF ENZYME SURFACE IS ACHIEVED



549

550

551

Figure 13. Physical coating of proteins with cationic polymer.

552 PEI has been described to present some stabilizing effect on diverse proteins due to
 553 diverse causes: prevention of enzyme aggregation, prevention of loss of secondary structure,
 554 reduction of metal oxidation, prevention of multimeric enzyme dissociation, avoiding
 555 inactivation by deleterious substrates, etc.^{49,53,55,152} Some reports pointed that the stability-
 556 effect of poly-ionic polymers did not really depend on their cationic or anionic nature of the
 557 polymer, stating that perhaps a direct electrostatic enzyme/polymer interaction was not
 558 required.⁴⁸ However, considering that most enzymes may be adsorbed under the same
 559 conditions on PEI and dextran sulfate coated supports¹⁵³; it is not clear that this electrostatic
 560 interaction may be discarded.

561 Table 5 shows some of the most relevant examples. In some cases the effects of the
 562 coatings were negative¹⁵⁴, but usually some positive effects were described: stabilization
 563 being the most usual,¹⁵⁵⁻¹⁵⁶ but also improvement of detection limit ion biosensors may be
 564 found¹⁵⁷.

Table 5. Effects of physical coating of enzymes with poly cationic polymers; effect on enzyme properties and immobilization performance

Enzyme	Source	EC Number	Type of modification (and immobilization)	Effect of amination on enzyme properties	Reference
Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase	NA	1.2.1.9	Enzyme is modified with quaternized polyamines (poly-N-alkyl-4-vinylpyridinium bromides)	Modification suppresses the thermoaggregation of glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase but not thermodenaturation of the enzyme	154
Lactate deshydrogenase	NA	1.1.1.27	Enzyme is coated with polyethylenimine (PEI)	Protection of the enzyme against oxidative stress	155
Chloroperoxidase	<i>Caldariomyces fumago</i>	1.11.1.10	Enzyme is coated with polyethylenimine (PEI)	Improvement in the stability of the enzyme towards peroxide dependent inactivation	156
L-glutamate oxidase	NA	1.4.3.11	Enzyme is modified with polyethylenimine and o-phenylenediamine	Increase in detection limit of glucose	157
Glutamate dehydrogenase	<i>Thermus thermophilus</i>	1.4.1.2	Enzyme is coated with PEI and subsequently treated with glutaraldehyde	Subunit dissociation is prevented and adsorption on cationic exchangers facilitated	158
Formate dehydrogenase	<i>Pseudomonas sp.</i>	1.2.1.2	Enzyme is coated with PEI and subsequently treated with glutaraldehyde	Subunit dissociation is prevented and adsorption on cationic exchangers facilitated	158
Glucose oxidase	<i>A. niger</i>	1.1.3.4	Enzyme is microencapsulated in PEI before immobilization in paper substrates	Improvement in thermal stability at temperatures up to 60 °C	159
Laccase	<i>Trametes versicolor</i>	1.10.3.2	Enzyme is microencapsulated in PEI	Improvement in activity retention at room temperature. Reduction in	159, 160

			before immobilization in paper substrates	thermal stability due to increased coordination between PEI and copper atoms present in the active site of the enzyme	
Lysozyme	NA	3.2.1.17	Enzyme is coated with PEI and then immobilized on layered titanates	High yields of immobilization and reuse of the composite	162
Lipase	<i>C. rugosa</i>	3.1.1.3	Enzyme is coated with PEI and then immobilized on layered titanates	High yields of immobilization and reuse of the composite	162

565 However, the most interesting examples are when the enzyme coating with the
566 polymer is a simple step in the development of a more complex strategy to prepare an
567 immobilized biocatalyst, as are some of the examples listed below.

568

569 **3.1. Immobilization of enzymes coated with cationic polymers on cation exchangers**

570 Modification of the enzyme using ionically exchanged poly-amines may permit to
571 further immobilize the enzyme on a cation exchanger, when the free enzyme may have very
572 low affinity by its anionic surface (in fact, the enzymes used in this strategy will be coated
573 with a cationic polymer, that way the unmodified enzyme should have also a anionic surface).

574 Up to date, there is only one published paper on this strategy, using glutamate
575 dehydrogenase from *Thermus thermophilus* and formate dehydrogenase from *Pseudomonas sp*
576 (Table 5). Both enzymes were coated with a large PEI to prevent subunit dissociation, treated
577 with glutaraldehyde to prevent enzyme/polymer dissociation at acidic pH value and adsorbed
578 to carboxymethyl agarose.⁵⁴

579

580 **3.2. Protection of enzymes from undesired interactions with a immobilization matrix via** 581 **coating with poly-amine polymers**

582 In other cases, the enzyme coating with the polymers was just a first step in a longer
583 immobilization strategy; the coating may increase the size of the enzyme, making their
584 trapping easier, or preventing the interaction with deleterious interfaces (see Table 5).
585 Trapping of enzymes in a paper matrix to be used in food packing is improved via physical
586 coating with PEI.¹⁵⁹⁻¹⁶⁰ Other material used to immobilize proteins after coating with PEI are
587 surface anionic surface titanates.¹⁶¹ The coating of enzymes with PEI permit the strong ion
588 exchange in this material, together to the spontaneous flocculation of the material: the bio-
589 molecules are incorporated within the interlayer space of layered structure.¹⁶²

590

591 3.3. Generation of artificial environments on immobilized enzymes

592 Polyaminated polymers, like PEI, chitosan, polyallylamine, etc. are quite hydrophilic,
593 their cationic nature may permit to cover the immobilized enzyme molecules surface of a very
594 hydrophilic shell that can produce some partition of hydrophobic compounds, like gases,
595 organic solvents, etc, enabling the preparation of biocatalysts with improved stability in these
596 media. The strategy may be used for enzymes immobilized on preexisting supports, or
597 enzymes to be immobilized via the crosslinked enzyme aggregates (CLEA) technology. Table
598 6 resumes some of the examples. The very useful penicillin G acylase¹⁶³ is one of the
599 examples, whose uses are reduced due to the low stability in organic media¹⁶⁴⁻¹⁶⁵ the strategy
600 permits to improve its stability versus organic solvents and use the enzyme in some interesting
601 reaction^{18, 166-169} The biocatalyst prepared by co-aggregation of enzymes and PEI¹⁷⁰ was most
602 stable the much more thermostable glyoxyl-agarose biocatalyst.¹⁷¹ This CoCLEAs permitted
603 also improve enzyme resistance to oxygen.⁵¹

604

605 3.4. Improved preparation of CLEAs by co-aggregation with aminated polymers

606 Polyaminated polymers have found several advantages in the preparation of
607 crosslinking enzyme aggregates (CLEAs). First, as commented in the point above, co-
608 aggregation with PEI (combined or not with sulfate dextran) is able to generate a hydrophilic
609 environment around the enzyme, producing partition of hydrophobic solvent or oxygen
610 molecules. In this point we will focus on the second advantage: it may be used to solve the
611 problems generated in the crosslinked step of proteins having just some few Lys superficial
612 residues, or it may just be used to have a more intensively crosslinked CLEA particle. Table 6
613 summarizes some relevant examples: the use of PEI permit the production of properly
614 crosslinked CLEAs of enzymes that did not give this result in unmodified form.^{99, 101, 172-173}

Table 6. Physical coating of immobilized enzymes with ionic polymers to improve enzyme performance.

Enzyme	Source	EC Number	Type of modification	Effect of amination on enzyme properties	Reference
Penicillin G acylase	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	3.5.1.11	Enzyme is co-immobilized with PEI and submitted to successive modifications with aldehyde dextran and PEI, and finally with sulphate dextran.	High stability to organic co-solvents (up to 95%) such as tetraglyme in synthesis reactions.	18, 166
Penicillin G acylase	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	3.5.1.11	Enzyme is co-aggregated with PEI and dextran sulphate for synthesis of cross-linked enzyme co-aggregates (co-CLEAs)	Improvement in enzyme properties in presence of organic solvents	170, 171
Nitrilase	<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>	3.5.5.1	Enzyme is modified and co-aggregated with PEI and cross-linked with glutaraldehyde for synthesis of co-CLEAs	Enzyme activity is retained upon exposition to oxygen for 40 h	51
Glutaryl acylase	<i>Pseudomonas sp</i>	3.5.1.93	Enzyme is co-aggregated with PEI and cross-linked with glutaraldehyde for synthesis of co-CLEAs	Enzyme maintains more than 60% of its initial activity after 72 h if incubation at 45 °C.	101
Lipases	<i>Alcaligenes sp.</i> <i>Candida antarctica B</i>	3.1.1.3	Enzyme is co-aggregated with PEI or PEI-sulfate dextran mixtures and cross-linked with glutaraldehyde for synthesis of CLEAs (Co-CLEAs)	Alteration of enzyme activity, enantioselectivity and specificity	99

Lipase	<i>Serratia marcescens</i>	3.1.1.3	Enzyme is co-aggregated with PEI and cross-linked with glutaraldehyde for synthesis of CLEAs (Co-CLEAs)	Optimum temperature is increased from 50 to 60 °C. Thermal stability is also significantly improved.	102
Lipase	<i>Geotrichum sp.</i>	3.1.1.3	Enzyme is co-aggregated with PEI and cross-linked with glutaraldehyde for synthesis of CLEAs (Co-CLEAs)	Enzyme maintains more than 65% of relative hydrolysis degree after incubation in the range of 50-55 °C for 4 h and more than 85% of relative hydrolysis degree after being treated by acetone, tert-butyl alcohol and octane for 4 h	172
L-aminoacylase	<i>Aspergillus melleus</i>	3.5.1.14	Enzyme is co-aggregated with PEI and cross-linked with glutaraldehyde for synthesis of CLEAs (Co-CLEAs)	Enzyme shows 75% activity recovery and 81% aggregation yield. Improvement of enzyme stability and enantioselectivity of amino acid amides is obtained hydrolysis of N-acetyl amino acid amides.	173
Lipase	<i>Candida antarctica B</i> (immobilized Novozym 435)	3.1.1.3	Enzyme is coated with different ionic polymers	Improvement in enzyme activity is achieved (3 fold factor)	111
Lipase	<i>Candida rugosa</i>	3.1.1.3	Enzyme is immobilized and coated with PEI	Improvement in enantioselectivity is achieved (enantiomeric ratio is increased from 8 to 20 after PEI coating)	174
Phospholipase	<i>Lecitase Ultra, a artificial enzyme from Novo</i>	3.1.1.4	Immobilized enzyme is coated with poly ionic polymers	Increasing in enzyme activity (more than 3 fold) factor.	175
Phospholipase	<i>Lecitase Ultra, a artificial enzyme</i>	3.1.1.4	Immobilized enzyme is coated with poly ionic	Increasing in enzyme activity (more than 3 fold) factor in absence of	177

	<i>from Novo</i>		polymers in the presence of SDS	detergent	
--	------------------	--	------------------------------------	-----------	--

615

616 **3.5. Tuning catalytic properties of immobilized enzymes by coating their** 617 **surfaces with poly-amine polymers**

618 Physical coating of enzymes with PEI has been used in some instances to improve
619 enzyme properties, mainly using lipases. The physical coating is far simpler than the chemical
620 modification, and in some instances may become as effective. Table 6 shows some of the most
621 relevant examples: enzyme activity or enantiospecificity versus certain substrates could be
622 improved^{111,17} While the coating of Lecitase in aqueous media did not increase the rate of
623 irreversible inhibition, suggesting that the open form has not been stabilized,¹⁷⁶ the physical
624 coating of Lecitase Ultra in the presence of SDS has permitted to “freeze” the open structure
625 induced by the presence of the detergent.¹⁷⁷

626

627 **4. Genetic amination of enzymes as a tool to improve their performance**

628

629 **4.1. Use of poly-Arg or poly-Lys tags to improve enzyme performance**

630 Protein fusion tags have been developed as indispensable tools for protein
631 expression, purification, and the design of functionalized surfaces or artificially bifunctional
632 proteins.¹⁷⁸ A recent review¹⁷⁹ has summarized how positively or negatively charged polyionic
633 fusion peptides with or without an additional cysteine can be used as protein tags for protein
634 expression and purification, for matrix-assisted refolding of aggregated protein, and for
635 coupling of proteins either to technologically relevant matrices or to other proteins.

636 Orientation of immobilized enzymes may play a critical role on the features of the
637 enzyme.¹⁸⁰ On one hand, this protein area will be the most involved one in the enzyme/support
638 interaction, being the most altered (improved/worsened) by the immobilization.¹⁸¹ On the

639 other hand, this may define the access of large substrates or ligands to this active center,^{182,183}
640 or the communication between the active center of the enzyme and an electrode.^{182,184,185}

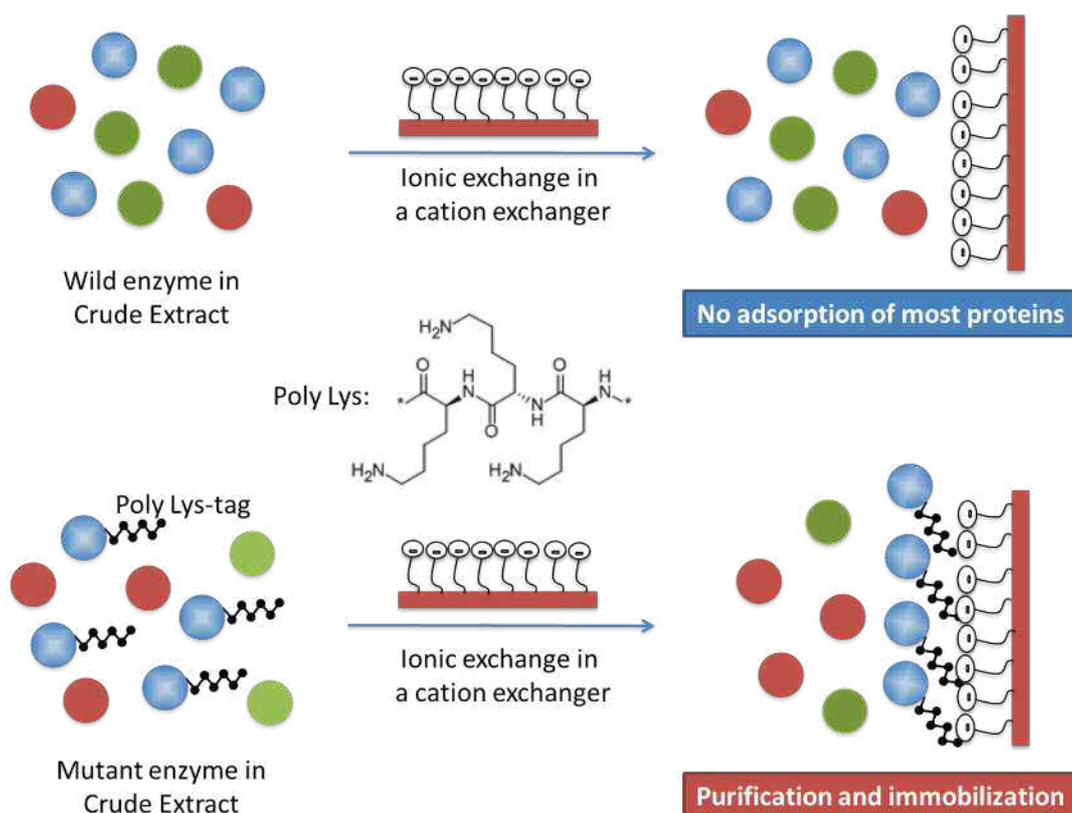
641 Site directed mutagenesis is the most efficient tool to achieve this site directed
642 immobilization, via introduction of specific groups on desired areas of the protein.²¹ Usually,
643 this orientation is achieved using a Cys inserted in the desired region, and immobilized on a
644 support bearing disulfide groups.¹⁸¹ Other popular strategy is the use of poly-His tags,^{185,186} or
645 generation of His pairs,¹⁸⁷ and immobilization the variant enzymes on immobilized metal
646 chelates matrices.

647 In this review, we will try to focus on how this Poly-cationic tags may be used for
648 protein immobilization.

649

650 **5.1.1. Purification/immobilization of enzymes and proteins using cationic tags and** 651 **cation exchangers**

652 Most enzymes have an ionic surface nature that makes them unable to become
653 adsorbed on cationic exchangers, and the adsorption of proteins on that matrices may be used
654 as a way to purify proteins that can be adsorbed on this kind of ionic exchangers. This may be
655 achieved by the introduction of cationic tags/domains on the target protein.^{179,188}



656

657 **Figure 14. One step purification/immobilization of poly-Lys tagged proteins.**

658

659 Thus, some examples on the usage of poly-Lys or poly-Arg may be found in the
 660 literature to obtain the one step purification and immobilization of enzymes on cationic
 661 exchangers (Figure 14). It has been shown that a poly-lysine tag facilitates protein purification
 662 and refolding processes. Table 7 resume some of the most relevant examples: immobilization
 663 of the poly-Lys or Arg tagged enzymes on cation exchangers is a specific way and used in
 664 diverse reactions^{28,27-191-193}

665

666 4.1.2. Improving covalent immobilization via addition of poly cationic tags to 667 the proteins

668 The addition of poly-Lys tags may be also advantageous to reach a further covalent
 669 immobilization of the peptide after ionic exchange. The idea would be similar to the use of
 670 heterofunctional supports: first the enzyme is adsorbed, second the covalent reaction takes
 671 place due to the very high apparent concentrations of reactive groups on both support and

Table 7. Effect of genetic amination to improve biocatalytical and biological properties of enzymes

Enzyme	Source	EC Number	Type of modification and/or Immobilization	Effect of amination on enzyme properties	Reference
Cyclodextrin glycosyltransferase	<i>Bacillus macerans</i>	2.4.1.19	Enzyme is tagged with poly-Lys (10 Lys residues) and immobilized on sulphopropyl–Sepharose	Enzyme activity is fully retained after reversible immobilization	28
Aminopeptidase II	<i>Bacillus stearothermophilus</i>	3.4.11.-	Enzyme is tagged C-terminally with either tri- or nona-lysines and immobilized in carboxylated iron oxide particles	Improvement in enzyme stability	190, 191
Protease	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	3.4.-.-	Enzyme is fused with a poly lysine tag containing 10 Lys residues at its C-terminus, purified, and immobilized on carboxyethyl chitosan magnetic nanoparticles	Enzyme is simply purified from cell extracts with very high purity in just one-step.	27
D-xylose isomerase	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	5.3.1.5	Enzyme is fused with a 10-Arg tag in its C-terminus, purified and immobilized by a single step of cation exchange chromatography	Enzyme is simply purified from cell extracts with very high purity in just one-step.	192
Penicillin G acylase	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	3.5.1.11	Enzyme is tagged with a poly-Lys and immobilized by directed	Enzyme keeps catalytic properties of the soluble enzyme on kinetically synthesis of cefamadol and cefonicid	11, 40, 196

			covalent immobilization		
Lipase	<i>Candida antarctica B</i>	3.4.19.12	Enzyme was fused with various polycationic amino acid tags	Solubility of the enzyme is increased by five- to nine fold during over expression	199
Penicillin G acylase	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	3.5.1.11	Enzyme is site-directed mutagenized with Lys several residues and covalently immobilized on glyoxyl-agarose	Improvement on enzyme and organic co-solvent stability ranging from 4 to 11	39
Peroxidase	<i>Horseradish</i>	1.11.1.7	Enzyme is mutated replacing Arg by Lys and immobilized by oriented immobilization a polyethersulfone matrix modified with aldehyde residues	Excellent retention of catalytic activity is achieved, also stabilization is improved	201
Penicillin G acylase	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	3.5.1.11	One residue of Cys was introduced on different regions of the enzyme by site directed mutagenesis. A second round of site directed mutagenesis, for enrichment in 4 additional lysine residues in the zone of Cys380, and then immobilized on an epoxy support	Enzyme stabilization was increased 1500-fold in the second round of site directed mutagenesis regarding to variant one point immobilized through Cys380.	202
Penicillin G acylase	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	3.5.1.11	Enzyme is enriched with Lys residues in the opposite area of the active center and immobilized	Improvement in the behavior of the enzyme in kinetically controlled synthesis of semi-synthetic β -lactam antibiotics	203

			onto glyoxyl agarose		
Penicillin G acylase	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	3.5.1.11	Enzyme is modified by site directed mutagenesis increasing carboxylic groups on the enzyme surface.	Improvement in its immobilization on anion exchangers	44

NA: Not available

672 adsorbed protein.³¹ Combination of cation exchangers and chemically reactive groups have
673 improved the immobilization of several enzymes, as shown in ¹⁹⁴⁻¹⁹⁵

674

675 **4.1.3. Modulation of enzyme properties via site-directed covalent** 676 **immobilization using poly-Lys tags**

677 It has been shown on some papers and recent reviews how the control of the area of
678 the protein involved in the reaction with the support may produce different changes on the
679 enzyme structure (or prevent some changes that should occur), being this tool a very powerful
680 strategy for improving enzyme performance in different reactions whose yield depend on the
681 catalytic performance of the catalyst.^{11,15,20}

682 The control of the immobilization of penicillin G acylase using a poly Lys tag is the
683 only example that we have been able to find regarding the use of poly Lys tag to reach this
684 goal (Table 7).^{11,196} The poly-Lys tagged and site directed immobilized enzyme on glyoxyl
685 permitted to improve enzyme performance in kinetically controlled synthesis of several
686 antibiotics compared to the results obtained using the free enzyme¹⁹⁶⁻¹⁹⁷

687

688 **4.1.4. Other uses of chimeric poly-Lys tagged enzymes**

689 Poly-Lysine tags may have some other applications. For example, this strategy was
690 used for the efficient production of the intact glucagon-like peptide-1 using a recombinant E.
691 coli system, avoiding degradation.¹⁹⁸

692 In other cases, poly-cationic tags have been used to improve the expression of a
693 hyper-expressed enzyme (Table 7).¹⁹⁹

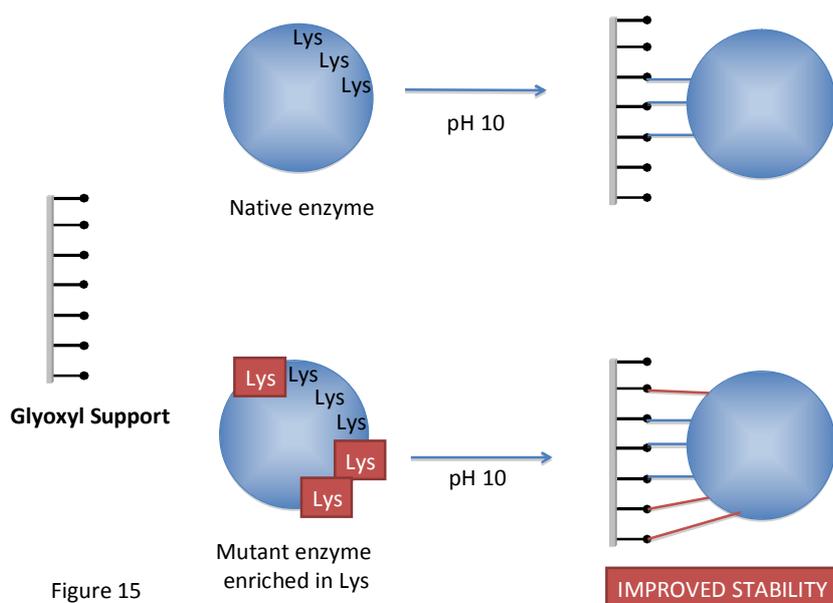
694

695 **5.2. Genetic amination of protein surface areas to improve enzyme multipoint covalent** 696 **attachment**

697 In other cases, the increase on Lys residues is not performed using a tag, but by
698 selecting different regions to increase the density of Lys groups in the specific region on
699 which we intend to use to immobilize the enzyme, or disperse along the protein surface, if we
700 just intend to increase the cationic groups on the surface. Such modifications are expected to
701 be more successful when based on a good quality 3D structure of the protein.

702 In immobilization, to take full advantage of this Lys enrichment, the immobilization
703 should be based on multipoint processes, that way the factor directing the immobilization will
704 be the density of reactive groups in one protein area and not the reactivity of a special residue
705 or its global amount. Among the support for covalent immobilization, glyoxyl supports fulfill
706 this requirement.^{36,37} For reversible immobilization, most of the supports follow this
707 multipoint interaction to fix the enzyme to the support.^{15,106}

709 4.2.1. Improved covalent attachment via enrichment in Lys residues in specific 710 areas of the enzyme surface



711

712 **Figure 15. Increase number of enzyme-support covalent attachments on aminated**
713 **proteins.**

714

715 Main examples are resumed in Table 7: important additional stabilization regarding
716 the use of the native enzyme was found using glyoxyl agarose³⁹ or a modified
717 polyethersulfone matrix presenting aldehyde residues.²⁰¹

718 A more directed strategy was later proposed. First, one Cys residue was introduced
719 on different regions of the enzyme penicillin G acylase, to find the area that was more
720 determinant for enzyme stability.²⁰² The immobilization was performed on an epoxy support,
721 because Cys was by far the most reactive amino group on a protein and that was enough to
722 direct the enzyme. The mutant enzyme where the Cys was in the position 380 of the β subunit
723 of the enzyme was the one that gave the highest PGA stabilization values. In a second round
724 of site-directed mutagenesis, that region was further enriched in 4 additional lysine residues,
725 and the resulting immobilized derivative was 1500-fold more stable than the same protein
726 variant uni-punctually immobilized through position β 380.²⁰² It is expected that in the near
727 future, this strategy may be extended to more enzymes.

728 In other cases, the objective was more to have a fully oriented immobilized enzyme
729 than to improve the multipoint covalent attachment or the enzyme stability (Table 7). This was
730 the case of the immobilization of mutant penicillin G acylase enzymes enriched in Lys areas
731 in the area opposite to the active center, which permitted to improve the behavior of the
732 enzyme in kinetically controlled synthesis of semi-synthetic β -lactam antibiotics.²⁰³⁻²⁰⁴

733

734 **4.2.2. Improvement of immobilization in anionic exchangers via Lys enrichment**

735 We have not been able to find a example using genetic amination to improve
736 immobilization on anionic supports. In fact, and this may serve as a proof of concept, there is
737 one example where a genetics-based increase on carboxylic groups of the surface of penicillin
738 G acylase improved its immobilization on anion exchangers.⁴⁴

739

740 4.2.3. Improvement of intermolecular crosslinking via enrichment in Lys residues

741 Again, we have not been able to find any papers concerning the use of enzymes with
742 enriched areas in Lys residues and the stabilization of this enzyme by using intermolecular
743 crosslinkers. However, in a similar way as that described when using chemical amination (see
744 section 2.5 of this review), this should permit to greatly improve the enzyme crosslinking by
745 increasing the prospects of having two residues of the protein at the right distance.⁴⁵ In fact,
746 this can be even more favorable than chemical amination, where it is only possible to get a
747 general enrichment on the enzyme surface of amino groups, using the carboxylic groups of the
748 enzyme. Now, using site-directed mutagenesis and if the enzyme has a well described
749 structure, it is possible to place the new Lys residues on the right position to permit the
750 enzyme crosslinking, a critical point to get an intramolecular crosslinking.¹¹⁶

751

**752 4.2.4. Improvement of coating with anionic polymers via enrichment on Lys
753 residues**

754 Again, we have not found examples where the enrichment in Lys residues of the
755 protein is used to facilitate the adsorption of cationic polymers on their surface. Using the
756 enzyme penicillin G acylase, there is, however, an example of enrichment on carboxy groups
757 of the enzyme surface to improve the adsorption of cationic polymers on the enzyme
758 surface,²⁰⁵ and in section 2.6 the chemical amination to this goal is presented.⁴³ Perhaps,
759 although this coating may have very good effects on enzyme performance (see section 3 of
760 this review), it has been considered too sophisticated for the researchers to improve the
761 interaction via site-directed mutagenesis.

762

763 4.2.5. Other uses of Lys enrichment of protein surface

764 Ribonuclease Sa (pI = 3.5) from *Streptomyces aureofaciens* and its 3K (D1K, D17K,
765 E41K) (pI = 6.4) and 5K (3K + D25K, E74K) (pI = 10.2) variants were tested for
766 cytotoxicity.²⁰⁶ The 5K mutant was cytotoxic to normal and v-ras-transformed NIH3T3 mouse
767 fibroblasts, while RNase Sa and 3K were not. The cytotoxic 5K mutant preferentially attacks
768 v-ras-NIH3T3 fibroblasts, suggesting that mammalian cells expressing the ras-oncogene are
769 potential targets for ribonuclease-based drugs.

770

771 6. Conclusion and future trends

772 This review has shown the high interest that the amination of enzymes and proteins has
773 with views towards improving their behavior *in vitro* as industrial biocatalysts, but also *in vivo*
774 when using proteins as carriers or even as medicaments.

775 Amination has proved to be very useful to improve enzyme immobilization via
776 multipoint covalent attachment or cation exchange, to improve intramolecular crosslinking, to
777 improve enzyme stability, or to improve intermolecular crosslinking, which is a critical step in
778 the preparation of CLEAs. The amination also increases the immunogenicity and potential to
779 penetrate cell walls, enabling the use of some enzymes as biocides, improving the production
780 of antibodies, or just permitting to study the role of certain proteins *in vivo* after introduction
781 in the cell.

782 In some cases, amination may produce drastic changes in enzyme stability, activity or
783 selectivity/specificity. Considering the change of ionic interactions on the enzyme surface, a
784 negative effect should be expected. However in many instances the effect is positive.

785 Most examples cited in this review use chemical or physical amination. This may be
786 derived from the rapid preparation of the modified enzymes using these techniques, and the
787 relatively simple preparation of a collection of enzymes having different modification degrees,
788 mainly if a solid phase modification may be performed. Perhaps this may be the best solution

789 to alter enzyme properties such as selectivity of specificity, because the current knowledge on
790 enzyme dynamics cannot give the exact groups to be modified to mimic the effects using site-
791 directed modification. Moreover, this may be a first and rapid step to evaluate if the amination
792 really permits to improve enzyme immobilization. However, these strategies in general will
793 produce a general modification of the enzyme surface, and that may not be the best solution in
794 some instances.

795 Site-directed mutagenesis is a slower technique, which requires expertise in fields
796 different from those required for the researches involved in enzyme chemical modification or
797 enzyme immobilization. However, together with the advantages derived from the fact that the
798 modified enzymes will be always produced in this way (once the mutation has been
799 introduced); this strategy may give some further possibilities. For example, only site directed
800 genetic amination may permit to get a site-directed immobilization of enzymes on supports
801 such as glyoxyl or cation exchangers, or to select the modified groups in a way that the
802 introduction of an intramolecular crosslinker may be facilitated.

803 This relative complexity of the preparation of a collection of mutant enzymes may be
804 an explanation of the relatively low amount of examples where genetic amination has been
805 used, even though these examples have shown the very high improvement that this amination
806 may have in the behavior of the final biocatalyst. In fact, it has never been used to improve the
807 chemical reactivity versus crosslinking reagents, although chemical amination has proved that
808 this may be a critical point to use this strategy.

809 Thus, we are before a clear example of the convenience of a close collaboration
810 between experts in scientific areas apparently quite far in the design of biocatalysts. If this
811 collaboration is achieved, it seems obvious that the genetic amination should be a future way
812 of improving enzymes and proteins to be used as biocatalysts, but also as medicaments or
813 protein carriers.

814

815 **Acknowledgements**

816 This work has been supported by grant CTQ2013-41507-R from Spanish MINECO, grant
817 no.1102-489-25428 from COLCIENCIAS and Universidad Industrial de Santander (VIE-UIS
818 Research Program) and CNPq and FAPERGS (Brazil). A. Berenguer-Murcia thanks the
819 Spanish Ministerio de Ciencia e Innovacion for a Ramon y Cajal fellowship (RyC-2009–
820 03813). The authors would like to thank Mr. Ramiro Martinez (Novozymes, Spain S.A) for
821 his kind support to our research.

822

823 References

- 824 1. M. T. Reetz, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2013, **135**, 12480-12496; C. M. Clouthier and J. N.
825 Pelletier, *Chem. Soc. Rev.*, 2012, **41**, 1585-1605; G. W. Zheng and J. H. Xu, *Curr.*
826 *Opin. Biotechnol.*, 2011, **22**, 784-792; R. N. Patel, *ACS Catalysis*, 2011, **1**, 1056-1074.
- 827 2. H. E. Schoemaker, D. Mink and M. G. Wubbols, *Science*, 2003, **299**, 1694-1697.
- 828 3. C. L. Windle, M. Müller, A. Nelson and A. Berry, *Curr. Opin. Chem. Biol.*, 2014, **19**,
829 25-33; A. Kumar and S. Singh, *Crit. Rev. Biotechnol.*, 2013, **33**, 365-378; T. Davids,
830 M. Schmidt, D. Böttcher and U. T. Bornscheuer, *Curr. Opin. Chem. Biol.*, 2013, **17**,
831 215-220; M. B. Quin and C. Schmidt-Dannert, *ACS Catalysis*, 2011, **1**, 1017-1021.
- 832 4. G. DeSantis and J. B. Jones, *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.*, 1999, **10**, 324-330; J. M.
833 Chalker, G. J. L. Bernardes, Y. A. Lin and B. G. Davis, *Chem.-Asian J.*, 2009, **4**, 630-
834 640; G. E. Means and R. E. Feeney, *Bioconjug. Chem.*, 1990, **1**, 2-12; E. Baslé, N.
835 Joubert and M. Pucheault, *Chem. Biol.*, 2010, **17**, 213-227.
- 836 5. A. Díaz-Rodríguez and B. G. Davis, *Curr. Opin. Chem. Biol.*, 2011, **15**, 211-219; B.
837 G. Davis, *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.*, 2003, **14**, 379-386.
- 838 6. C. ÓFágáin, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 2003, **33**, 137-149.
- 839 7. A. Marie O'Brien, A. T. Smith and C. O'Fágáin, *Biotechnol. Bioeng.*, 2003, **81**, 233-
840 240.
- 841 8. S. S. Wong and L. J. C. Wong, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 1992, **14**, 866-874.
- 842 9. A. S. Bommarius and M. F. Paye, *Chem. Soc. Rev.*, 2013, **42**, 6534-6565; C. Mateo, J.
843 M. Palomo, G. Fernandez-Lorente, J. M. Guisan and R. Fernandez-Lafuente, *Enzyme*
844 *Microb. Technol.*, 2007, **40**, 1451-1463; P. V. Iyer and L. Ananthanarayan, *Process*
845 *Biochem.*, 2008, **43**, 1019-1032.
- 846 10. D. Brady and J. Jordaan, *Biotechnol. Lett.*, 2009, **31**, 1639-1650; A. M. Klivanov,
847 *Anal. Biochem.*, 1979, **93**, 1-25; L. Gianfreda and M. R. Scarfi, *Mol. Cell. Biochem.*,
848 1991, **100**, 97-128.
- 849 11. R. C. Rodrigues, C. Ortiz, A. Berenguer-Murcia, R. Torres and R. Fernandez-
850 Lafuente, *Chem. Soc. Rev.*, 2013, **45**, 6290-6307.
- 851 12. R. A. Sheldon and S. Van Pelt, *Chem. Soc. Rev.*, 2013, **42**, 6223-6235.
- 852 13. W. Hartmeier, *Trends Biotechnol.*, 1985, **3**, 149-153; E. Katchalski-Katzir, *Trends*
853 *Biotechnol.*, 1993, **11**, 471-478.
- 854 14. A. A. Homaei, R. Sariri, F. Vianello and R. Stevanato, *J. Chem. Biol.*, 2013, **6**, 185-
855 205; B. M. Brena and F. Batista-Viera, in *Immobilization of Enzymes and Cells*, 2006,
856 vol. 22, pp. 15-30.
- 857 15. C. Garcia-Galan, A. Berenguer-Murcia, R. Fernandez-Lafuente and R. C. Rodrigues,
858 *Adv. Synth. Catal.*, 2011, **353**, 2885-2904.
- 859 16. R. Fernandez-Lafuente, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 2009, **45**, 405-418.
- 860 17. C. M. Moore, N. L. Akers, A. D. Hill, Z. C. Johnson and S. D. Minter,
861 *Biomacromolecules*, 2004, **5**, 1241-1247.
- 862 18. R. Fernandez-Lafuente, C. M. Rosell, L. Caanan-Haden, L. Rodes and J. M. Guisan,
863 *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 1999, **24**, 96-103.
- 864 19. R. C. Rodrigues, A. Berenguer-Murcia and R. Fernandez-Lafuente, *Adv. Synth. Catal.*,
865 2011, **353**, 2216-2238.
- 866 20. D. A. Cowan and R. Fernandez-Lafuente, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 2011, **49**, 326-
867 346.
- 868 21. K. Hernandez and R. Fernandez-Lafuente, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 2011, **48**, 107-
869 122.
- 870 22. K. L. Carraway and D. E. Koshland Jr, *Methods Enzymol.*, 1972, **25**, 616-623.
- 871 23. K. L. Carraway, P. Spoerl and D. E. Koshland Jr, *J. Mol. Biol.*, 1969, **42**, 133-137.

- 872 24. O. Barbosa, M. Ruiz, C. Ortiz, M. Fernández, R. Torres and R. Fernandez-Lafuente,
873 *Process Biochem.*, 2012, **47**, 867-876.
- 874 25. M. Galvis, O. Barbosa, R. Torres, C. Ortiz and R. Fernandez-Lafuente, *Process*
875 *Biochem.*, 2012, **47**, 460-466.
- 876 26. J. Li, Y. Dong, Y. Zhang and Y. Yang, *J. Chromatogr. B Analyt. Technol. Biomed.*
877 *Life. Sci.*, 2013, **917-918**, 30-35.
- 878 27. J. Li, Y. Zhang, F. Shen and Y. Yang, *J. Chromatogr. B Analyt. Technol. Biomed. Life.*
879 *Sci.*, 2012, **907**, 159-162.
- 880 28. D. H. Kweon, S. G. Kim, N. S. Han, J. H. Lee, K. M. Chung and J. H. Seo, *Enzyme*
881 *Microb. Technol.*, 2005, **36**, 571-578.
- 882 29. C. Mateo, V. Grazú, B. C. C. Pessela, T. Montes, J. M. Palomo, R. Torres, F. López-
883 Gallego, R. Fernández-Lafuente and J. M. Guisán, *Biochem. Soc. Trans.*, 2007, **35**,
884 1593-1601; E. Katchalski-Katzir and D. M. Kraemer, *J. Mol. Catal. B: Enzym.*, 2000,
885 **10**, 157-176; L. Hilterhaus, B. Minow, J. Müller, M. Berheide, H. Quitmann, M.
886 Katzer, O. Thum, G. Antranikian, A. P. Zeng and A. Liese, *Bioprocess Biosyst. Eng.*,
887 2008, **31**, 163-171.
- 888 30. M. Ortega-Muñoz, J. Morales-Sanfrutos, A. Megia-Fernandez, F. J. Lopez-Jaramillo,
889 F. Hernandez-Mateo and F. Santoyo-Gonzalez, *J. Mater. Chem.*, 2010, **20**, 7189-7196;
890 J. Morales-Sanfrutos, J. Lopez-Jaramillo, M. Ortega-Muñoz, A. Megia-Fernandez, F.
891 Perez-Balderas, F. Hernandez-Mateo and F. Santoyo-Gonzalez, *Org. Biomol. Chem.*,
892 2010, **8**, 667-675.
- 893 31. O. Barbosa, R. Torres, C. Ortiz, Á. Berenguer-Murcia, R. C. Rodrigues and R.
894 Fernandez-Lafuente, *Biomacromolecules*, 2013, **40**, 2433-2462.
- 895 32. O. Barbosa, C. Ortiz, A. Berenguer-Murcia, R. Torres, R. C. Rodrigues and R.
896 Fernandez-Lafuente, *RSC Advances*, 2014, **4**, 1583-1600.
- 897 33. J. Schnapp and Y. Shalitin, *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, 1976, **70**, 8-14.
- 898 34. K. Nilsson and K. Mosbach, *Eur. J. Biochem.*, 1980, **112**, 397-402.
- 899 35. K. Nilsson and K. Mosbach, *Methods Enzymol.*, 1987, **135**, 65-78.
- 900 36. C. Mateo, J. M. Palomo, M. Fuentes, L. Betancor, V. Grazu, F. López-Gallego, B. C.
901 C. Pessela, A. Hidalgo, G. Fernández-Lorente, R. Fernández-Lafuente and J. M.
902 Guisán, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 2006, **39**, 274-280.
- 903 37. C. Mateo, O. Abian, M. Bernedo, E. Cuenca, M. Fuentes, G. Fernandez-Lorente, J. M.
904 Palomo, V. Grazu, B. C. C. Pessela, C. Giacomini, G. Irazoqui, A. Villarino, K.
905 Ovsejevi, F. Batista-Viera, R. Fernandez-Lafuente and J. M. Guisán, *Enzyme Microb.*
906 *Technol.*, 2005, **37**, 456-462.
- 907 38. V. Grazu, L. Betancor, T. Montes, F. Lopez-Gallego, J. M. Guisan and R. Fernandez-
908 Lafuente, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 2006, **38**, 960-966.
- 909 39. O. Abian, V. Grazú, J. Hermoso, R. González, J. L. García, R. Fernández-Lafuente and
910 J. M. Guisán, *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2004, **70**, 1249-1251.
- 911 40. F. Scaramozzino, I. Estruch, P. Rossolillo, M. Terreni and A. M. Albertini, *Appl.*
912 *Environ. Microbiol.*, 2005, **71**, 8937-8940.
- 913 41. R. Fernandez-Lafuente, C. M. Rosell, V. Rodriguez, C. Santana, G. Soler, A. Bastida
914 and J. M. Guisan, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 1993, **15**, 546-550.
- 915 42. R. C. Rodrigues, C. A. Godoy, G. Volpato, M. A. Z. Ayub, R. Fernandez-Lafuente and
916 J. M. Guisan, *Process Biochem.*, 2009, **44**, 963-968.
- 917 43. T. Montes, V. Grazu, F. López-Gallego, J. A. Hermoso, J. M. Guisán and R.
918 Fernández-Lafuente, *Biomacromolecules*, 2006, **7**, 3052-3058.
- 919 44. T. Montes, V. Grazú, F. López-Gallego, J. A. Hermoso, J. L. García, I. Manso, B.
920 Galán, R. González, R. Fernández-Lafuente and J. M. Guisán, *Appl. Environ.*
921 *Microbiol.*, 2007, **73**, 312-319.

- 922 45. R. Fernandez-Lafuente, C. M. Rosell, V. Rodriguez and J. M. Guisan, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 1995, **17**, 517-523.
- 923
- 924 46. M. Galvis, O. Barbosa, M. Ruiz, J. Cruz, C. Ortiz, R. Torres and R. Fernandez-Lafuente, *Process Biochem.*, 2012, **47**, 2373-2378.
- 925
- 926 47. M. Ruiz, M. Galvis, O. Barbosa, C. Ortiz, R. Torres and R. Fernandez-Lafuente, *J. Mol. Catal. B: Enzym.*, 2013, **87**, 75-82.
- 927
- 928 48. T. M. Foreman, M. Khalil, P. Meier, J. R. Brainard, L. A. Vanderberg and N. N. Sauer, *Biotechnol. Bioeng.*, 2001, **76**, 241-246.
- 929
- 930 49. J. Bryjak, *Bioprocess Eng.*, 1995, **13**, 177-181; M. M. Andersson and R. Hatti-Kaul, *J. Biotechnol.*, 1999, **72**, 21-31.
- 931
- 932 50. A. M. Klibanov, N. O. Kaplan and M. D. Kamen, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, 1978, **75**, 3640-3643.
- 933
- 934 51. C. Mateo, B. Fernandes, F. Van Rantwijk, A. Stolz and R. A. Sheldon, *J. Mol. Catal. B: Enzym.*, 2006, **38**, 154-157.
- 935
- 936 52. L. Gianfreda, D. Pirozzi and G. Greco Jr, *Biotechnol. Bioeng.*, 1989, **33**, 1067-1071.
- 937 53. D. Costes, G. Rotčenkovs, E. Wehtje and P. Adlercreutz, *Biocatal. Biotransform.*, 2001, **19**, 119-130.
- 938
- 939 54. J. M. Bolivar, J. Rocha-Martin, C. Mateo, F. Cava, J. Berenguer, R. Fernandez-Lafuente and J. M. Guisan, *Biomacromolecules*, 2009, **10**, 742-747.
- 940
- 941 55. C. Garcia-Galan, O. Barbosa and R. Fernandez-Lafuente, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 2013, **52**, 211-217.
- 942
- 943 56. J. P. Riehm and H. A. Scheraga, *Biochemistry*, 1966, **5**, 99-115.
- 944 57. D. G. Hoare and D. E. Koshland Jr, *J. Biol. Chem.*, 1967, **242**, 2447-2453.
- 945 58. A. Williams and I. T. Ibrahim, *Chem. Rev.*, 1981, **81**, 589-636.
- 946 59. L. F. Matyash, O. G. Oglloblina and V. M. Stepanov, *Eur. J. Biochem.*, 1973, **35**, 540-545.
- 947
- 948 60. R. B. Perfetti, C. D. Anderson and P. L. Hall, *Biochemistry*, 1976, **15**, 1735-1743.
- 949 61. N. Nakajima and Y. Ikada, *Bioconjug. Chem.*, 1995, **6**, 123-130.
- 950 62. K. L. Carraway and R. B. Triplett, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta, Protein Struct.*, 1970, **200**, 564-566.
- 951
- 952 63. K. L. Carraway and D. E. Koshland Jr, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta, Protein Struct.*, 1968, **160**, 272-274.
- 953
- 954 64. R. Timkovich, *Biochem. J.*, 1980, **185**, 47-57.
- 955 65. D. V. Godin and S. L. Schrier, *Biochemistry*, 1970, **9**, 4068-4077.
- 956 66. M. H. Rashid and K. S. Siddiqui, *Biotechnol. Appl. Biochem.*, 1998, **27**, 231-237.
- 957 67. V. P. Torchilin, A. V. Maksimenko, V. N. Smirnov, I. V. Berezin, A. M. Klibanov and K. Martinek, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta*, 1978, **522**, 277-283.
- 958
- 959 68. O. Munch and D. Tritsch, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta, Protein Struct. Mol. Enzymol.*, 1990, **1041**, 111-116.
- 960
- 961 69. R. Kuroki, H. Yamada and T. Imoto, *J. Biochem. (Tokyo)*, 1986, **99**, 1493-1499; H. Yamada, T. Imoto, K. Fujita, K. Okazaki and M. Motomura, *Biochemistry*, 1981, **20**, 4836-4842.
- 962
- 963
- 964 70. M. H. Rashid and K. S. Siddiqui, *Process Biochem.*, 1998, **33**, 109-115.
- 965 71. K. S. Siddiqui, A. M. Shemsi, M. A. Anwar, M. H. Rashid and M. I. Rajoka, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 1999, **24**, 599-608.
- 966
- 967 72. H. N. Bhatti, M. H. Rashid, M. Asgher, R. Nawaz, A. M. Khalid and R. Perveen, *Can. J. Microbiol.*, 2007, **53**, 177-185.
- 968
- 969 73. A. J. Afzal, S. A. Bokhari and K. S. Siddiqui, *Appl. Biochem. Biotechnol.*, 2007, **141**, 273-297; A. J. Afzal, S. A. Bokhari and K. S. Siddiqui, *Appl. Biochem. Biotechnol.*, 2008, **150**, 113.
- 970
- 971

- 972 74. K. Matsumoto, B. G. Davis and J. B. Jones, *Chem.-Eur. J.*, 2002, **8**, 4129-4137.
- 973 75. L. Gómez, H. L. Ramírez and R. Villalonga, *Biotechnol. Lett.*, 2000, **22**, 347-350.
- 974 76. L. Gómez and R. Villalonga, *Biotechnol. Lett.*, 2000, **22**, 1191-1195.
- 975 77. M. L. Villalonga, R. Villalonga, L. Mariniello, L. Gómez, P. Di Pierro and R. Porta,
976 *World J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.*, 2006, **22**, 595-602.
- 977 78. F. López-Gallego, T. Montes, M. Fuentes, N. Alonso, V. Grazu, L. Betancor, J. M.
978 Guisán and R. Fernández-Lafuente, *J. Biotechnol.*, 2005, **116**, 1-10.
- 979 79. C. E. McVey, M. A. Walsh, G. G. Dodson, K. S. Wilson and J. A. Brannigan, *J. Mol.*
980 *Biol.*, 2001, **313**, 139-150.
- 981 80. J. K. Kim, I. S. Yang, S. Rhee, Z. Dauter, Y. S. Lee, S. S. Park and K. H. Kim,
982 *Biochemistry*, 2003, **42**, 4084-4093.
- 983 81. P. W. Tardioli, M. F. Vieira, A. M. S. Vieira, G. M. Zanin, L. Betancor, C. Mateo, G.
984 Fernández-Lorente and J. M. Guisán, *Process Biochem.*, 2011, **46**, 409-412.
- 985 82. V. Addorisio, F. Sannino, C. Mateo and J. M. Guisan, *Process Biochem.*, 2013, **48**,
986 1174-1180.
- 987 83. K. Piontek, M. Antorini and T. Choinowski, *J. Biol. Chem.*, 2002, **277**, 37663-37669.
- 988 84. D. Bezbradica, B. Jugovic, M. Gvozdenovic, S. Jakovetic and Z. Knezevic-Jugovic, *J.*
989 *Mol. Catal. B: Enzym.*, 2011, **70**, 55-60.
- 990 85. S. Husain, F. Jafri and M. Saleemuddin, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 1996, **18**, 275-280.
- 991 86. A. Bastida, P. Sabuquillo, P. Armisen, R. Fernández-Lafuente, J. Huguet and J. M.
992 Guisán, *Biotechnol. Bioeng.*, 1998, **58**, 486-493.
- 993 87. G. Fernández-Lorente, J. M. Palomo, M. Fuentes, C. Mateo, J. M. Guisán and R.
994 Fernández-Lafuente, *Biotechnol. Bioeng.*, 2003, **82**, 232-237; J. M. Palomo, M.
995 Fuentes, G. Fernández-Lorente, C. Mateo, J. M. Guisan and R. Fernández-Lafuente,
996 *Biomacromolecules*, 2003, **4**, 1-6.
- 997 88. G. Fernandez-Lorente, C. A. Godoy, A. A. Mendes, F. Lopez-Gallego, V. Grazu, B. de
998 las Rivas, J. M. Palomo, J. Hermoso, R. Fernandez-Lafuente and J. M. Guisan,
999 *Biomacromolecules*, 2008, **9**, 2553-2561.
- 1000 89. C. Carrasco-López, C. Godoy, B. de las Rivas, G. Fernández-Lorente, J. M. Palomo, J.
1001 M. Guisán, R. Fernández-Lafuente, M. Martínez-Ripoll and J. A. Hermoso, *J. Biol.*
1002 *Chem.*, 2009, **284**, 4365-4372.
- 1003 90. A. M. Brzozowski, H. Savage, C. S. Verma, J. P. Turkenburg, D. M. Lawson, A.
1004 Svendsen and S. Patkar, *Biochemistry*, 2000, **39**, 15071-15082.
- 1005 91. R. C. Rodrigues and M. A. Z. Ayub, *Process Biochem.*, 2011, **46**, 682-688; R. C.
1006 Rodrigues, B. C. C. Pessela, G. Volpato, R. Fernandez-Lafuente, J. M. Guisan and M.
1007 A. Z. Ayub, *Process Biochem.*, 2010, **45**, 1268-1273.
- 1008 92. M. Marciello, C. Mateo and J. M. Guisan, *Colloids Surf., B*, 2011, **84**, 556-560.
- 1009 93. S. Moreno-Perez, M. Filice, J. M. Guisan and G. Fernandez-Lorente, *Chem. Phys.*
1010 *Lipids*, 2013, **174**, 48-54.
- 1011 94. R. C. Rodrigues, J. M. Bolivar, A. Palau-Ors, G. Volpato, M. A. Z. Ayub, R.
1012 Fernandez-Lafuente and J. M. Guisan, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 2009, **44**, 386-393.
- 1013 95. Z. Habibi, M. Mohammadi and M. Yousefi, *Process Biochem.*, 2013, **48**, 669-676.
- 1014 96. J. M. Bolivar, F. López-Gallego, C. Godoy, D. S. Rodrigues, R. C. Rodrigues, P.
1015 Batalla, J. Rocha-Martín, C. Mateo, R. L. C. Giordano and J. M. Guisán, *Enzyme*
1016 *Microb. Technol.*, 2009, **45**, 477-483.
- 1017 97. R. A. Sheldon, *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.*, 2011, **92**, 467-477; L. Cao, F. Van
1018 Rantwijk and R. A. Sheldon, *Org. Lett.*, 2000, **2**, 1361-1364.
- 1019 98. S. Talekar, A. Joshi, G. Joshi, P. Kamat, R. Haripurkar and S. Kambale, *RSC*
1020 *Advances*, 2013, **3**, 12485-12511.

- 1021 99. L. Wilson, G. Fernández-Lorente, R. Fernández-Lafuente, A. Illanes, J. M. Guisán and
1022 J. M. Palomo, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 2006, **39**, 750-755.
- 1023 100. S. Shah, A. Sharma and M. N. Gupta, *Anal. Biochem.*, 2006, **351**, 207-213; J. J.
1024 Karimpil, J. S. Melo and S. F. D'Souza, *J. Mol. Catal. B: Enzym.*, 2011, **71**, 113-118;
1025 T. Dong, L. Zhao, Y. Huang and X. Tan, *Bioresour. Technol.*, 2010, **101**, 6569-6571.
- 1026 101. F. López-Gallego, L. Betancor, A. Hidalgo, N. Alonso, R. Fernández-Lafuente and J.
1027 M. Guisán, *Biomacromolecules*, 2005, **6**, 1839-1842.
- 1028 102. J. Pan, X. D. Kong, C. X. Li, Q. Ye, J. H. Xu and T. Imanaka, *J. Mol. Catal. B:
1029 Enzym.*, 2011, **68**, 256-261.
- 1030 103. J. Uppenberg, S. Patkar, T. Bergfors and T. A. Jones, *J. Mol. Biol.*, 1994, **235**, 790-
1031 792.
- 1032 104. J. Cruz, O. Barbosa, R. C. Rodrigues, R. Fernandez-Lafuente, R. Torres and C. Ortiz,
1033 *J. Mol. Catal. B: Enzym.*, 2012, **80**, 7-14.
- 1034 105. A. Kumar, I. Y. Galaev and B. Mattiasson, *J. Chromatogr. B Biomed. Sci. Appl.*, 2000,
1035 **741**, 103-113; B. C. C. Pessela, R. Munilla, L. Betancor, M. Fuentes, A. V. Carrascosa,
1036 A. Vian, R. Fernandez-Lafuente and J. M. Guisán, *J. Chromatogr. A*, 2004, **1034**, 155-
1037 159.
- 1038 106. M. Fuentes, C. Mateo, B. C. C. Pessela, P. Batalla, R. Fernandez-Lafuente and J. M.
1039 Guisán, *J. Chromatogr., B: Anal. Technol. Biomed. Life Sci.*, 2007, **849**, 243-250.
- 1040 107. L. Gómez, H. L. Ramírez, M. L. Villalonga, J. Hernández and R. Villalonga, *Enzyme
1041 Microb. Technol.*, 2006, **38**, 22-27.
- 1042 108. L. Gómez, H. L. Ramírez, A. Neira-Carrillo and R. Villalonga, *Bioprocess Biosyst.
1043 Eng.*, 2006, **28**, 387-395.
- 1044 109. L. Gomez, H. L. Ramirez, G. Cabrera, B. K. Simpson and R. Villalonga, *J. Food
1045 Biochem.*, 2008, **32**, 264-277.
- 1046 110. J. M. Palomo, G. Fernández-Lorente, J. M. Guisán and R. Fernández-Lafuente, *Adv.
1047 Synth. Catal.*, 2007, **349**, 1119-1127.
- 1048 111. Z. Cabrera, G. Fernandez-Lorente, R. Fernandez-Lafuente, J. M. Palomo and J. M.
1049 Guisan, *Process Biochem.*, 2009, **44**, 226-231.
- 1050 112. G. Fernández-Lorente, L. Betancor, A. V. Carrascosa, J. M. Palomo and J. M. Guisan,
1051 *J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc.*, 2012, **89**, 97-102.
- 1052 113. C. Garcia-Galan, J. C. S. d. Santos, O. Barbosa, R. Torres, E. B. Pereira, V. C.
1053 Corberan, L. R. B. Gonçalves and R. Fernandez-Lafuente, *Process Biochem.*, 2014,
1054 **49**, 604-616.
- 1055 114. C. A. Godoy, B. de las Rivas, M. Filice, G. Fernández-Lorente, J. M. Guisan and J. M.
1056 Palomo, *Process Biochem.*, 2010, **45**, 534-541.
- 1057 115. K. Martinek and V. P. Torchilin, in *Methods Enzymol.*, 1988, vol. 137, pp. 615-626; R.
1058 Tyagi and M. N. Gupta, *Biochemistry (Mosc.)*, 1998, **63**, 334-344.
- 1059 116. V. P. Torchilin, A. V. Maksimenko, V. N. Smirnov, I. V. Berezin and K. Martinek,
1060 *Biochim. Biophys. Acta, Enzymol.*, 1979, **568**, 1-10.
- 1061 117. I. Migneault, C. Dartiguenave, M. J. Bertrand and K. C. Waldron, *Biotechniques*,
1062 2004, **37**, 790-802.
- 1063 118. R. Fernandez Lafuente, PhD Doctoral Thesis, UAM, 1992.
- 1064 119. D. P. Kelly, M. K. Dewar, R. B. Johns, S. Wei-Let and J. F. Yates, in *Protein
1065 Crosslinking*, ed. M. Friedman, Springer US, 1977, vol. 86A, ch. 38, pp. 641-647.
- 1066 120. L. Betancor, M. Fuentes, G. Dellamora-Ortiz, F. López-Gallego, A. Hidalgo, N.
1067 Alonso-Morales, C. Mateo, J. M. Guisán and R. Fernández-Lafuente, *J. Mol. Catal. B:
1068 Enzym.*, 2005, **32**, 97-101; L. Betancor, F. López-Gallego, A. Hidalgo, N. Alonso-
1069 Morales, M. Fuentes, R. Fernández-Lafuente and J. M. Guisán, *J. Biotechnol.*, 2004,
1070 **110**, 201-207.

- 1071 121. M. Fuentes, R. L. Segura, O. Abian, L. Betancor, A. Hidalgo, C. Mateo, R. Fernandez-
1072 Lafuente and J. M. Guisan, *Proteomics*, 2004, **4**, 2602-2607.
- 1073 122. P. Bailon and W. Berthold, *Pharm. Sci. Technol. To.*, 1998, **1**, 352-356; M. J. Hernáiz,
1074 J. M. Sánchez-Montero and J. V. Sinisterra, *Biotechnol. Bioeng.*, 1997, **55**, 252-260;
1075 M. J. Roberts, M. D. Bentley and J. M. Harris, *Adv. Drug Delivery Rev.*, 2002, **54**,
1076 459-476; Y. Kodera, A. Matsushima, M. Hiroto, H. Nishimura, A. Ishii, T. Ueno and
1077 Y. Inada, *Progress in Polymer Science (Oxford)*, 1998, **23**, 1233-1271.
- 1078 123. R. J. Apple, P. L. Domen, A. Muckerheide and J. G. Michael, *J. Immunol.*, 1988, **140**,
1079 3290-3295.
- 1080 124. A. Muckerheide, R. J. Apple, A. J. Pesce and J. G. Michael, *J. Immunol.*, 1987, **138**,
1081 833-837.
- 1082 125. R. Jara-Acevedo, M. Gonzalez-Gonzalez, M. Jara-Acevedo, J. Claros, A. Conde, R.
1083 López-Perez, A. Orfao and M. Fuentes, *J. Immunol. Methods*, 2012, **384**, 171-176.
- 1084 126. J. Futami, M. Kitazoe, H. Murata and H. Yamada, *Expert Opin. Drug Discov.*, 2007, **2**,
1085 261-269.
- 1086 127. J. Futami, *Seikagaku*, 2013, **85**, 21-25.
- 1087 128. Y. Zhou, J. Wu, W. Yu, Y. Xu, P. Wang, B. Xie and F. Chen, *J. Immunol. Methods*,
1088 2007, **328**, 79-88.
- 1089 129. Y. Feng, Y. Zhou, Q. Zou, J. Wang, F. Chen and Z. Gao, *J. Immunol. Methods*, 2009,
1090 **340**, 138-143.
- 1091 130. Q. Feng, Y. Xu, Y. Zhou, L. Lu, F. Chen and X. Wang, *J. Mol. Struct.*, 2010, **977**,
1092 100-105.
- 1093 131. D. Triguero, J. L. Buciak and W. M. Pardridge, *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.*, 1991, **258**,
1094 186-192.
- 1095 132. W. M. Pardridge, U. Bickel, J. Buciak, J. Yang and A. Diagne, *J. Infect. Dis.*, 1994,
1096 **169**, 55-61.
- 1097 133. W. M. Pardridge, Y. S. Kang, J. Yang and J. L. Buciak, *J. Pharm. Sci.*, 1995, **84**, 943-
1098 948.
- 1099 134. W. M. Pardridge, Y. S. Kang, A. Diagne and J. A. Zack, *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.*,
1100 1996, **276**, 246-252.
- 1101 135. W. M. Pardridge, J. Buciak, J. Yang and D. Wu, *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.*, 1998, **286**,
1102 548-554.
- 1103 136. G. Hong, M. I. Bazin-Redureau and J. M. G. Scherrmann, *J. Pharm. Sci.*, 1999, **88**,
1104 147-153.
- 1105 137. R. Kohen, A. Kakunda and A. Rubinstein, *J. Biol. Chem.*, 1992, **267**, 21349-21354.
- 1106 138. S. F. Ma, M. Nishikawa, H. Katsumi, F. Yamashita and M. Hashida, *J. Control.*
1107 *Release*, 2006, **110**, 273-282.
- 1108 139. U. Arnold and R. Ulbrich-Hofmann, *Biotechnol. Lett.*, 2006, **28**, 1615-1622.
- 1109 140. J. Futami and H. Yamada, *Curr. Pharm. Biotechnol.*, 2008, **9**, 180-184.
- 1110 141. O. N. Ilinskaya, A. Koschinski, V. A. Mitkevich, H. Repp, F. Dreyer, C. N. Pace and
1111 A. A. Makarov, *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, 2004, **314**, 550-554.
- 1112 142. J. Futami, T. Maeda, M. Kitazoe, E. Nukui, H. Tada, M. Seno, M. Kosaka and H.
1113 Yamada, *Biochemistry*, 2001, **40**, 7518-7524.
- 1114 143. J. Futami, E. Nukui, T. Maeda, M. Kosaka, H. Tada, M. Seno and H. Yamada, *J.*
1115 *Biochem. (Tokyo)*, 2002, **132**, 223-228.
- 1116 144. W. M. Pardridge, D. Triguero, J. Buciak and J. Yang, *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.*, 1990,
1117 **255**, 893-899.
- 1118 145. S. F. Ma, M. Nishikawa, H. Katsumi, F. Yamashita and M. Hashida, *J. Control.*
1119 *Release*, 2005, **102**, 583-594.

- 1120 146. Z. Teng, Y. Li, Y. Luo, B. Zhang and Q. Wang, *Biomacromolecules*, 2013, **14**, 2848-
1121 2856.
- 1122 147. J. Futami, M. Kitazoe, T. Maeda, E. Nukui, M. Sakaguchi, J. Kosaka, M. Miyazaki, M.
1123 Kosaka, H. Tada, M. Seno, J. Sasaki, N. H. Huh, M. Namba and H. Yamada, *J. Biosci.*
1124 *Bioeng.*, 2005, **99**, 95-103.
- 1125 148. H. Murata, J. Futami, M. Kitazoe, T. Yonehara, H. Nakanishi, M. Kosaka, H. Tada, M.
1126 Sakaguchi, Y. Yagi, M. Seno, N. H. Huh and H. Yamada, *J. Biochem. (Tokyo)*, 2008,
1127 **144**, 447-455.
- 1128 149. H. Murata, J. Futami, M. Kitazoe, M. Kosaka, H. Tada, M. Seno and H. Yamada, *J.*
1129 *Biosci. Bioeng.*, 2008, **105**, 34-38.
- 1130 150. M. Kitazoe, H. Murata, J. Futami, T. Maeda, M. Sakaguchi, M. Miyazaki, M. Kosaka,
1131 H. Tada, M. Seno, N. H. Huh, M. Namba, M. Nishikawa, Y. Maeda and H. Yamada, *J.*
1132 *Biochem. (Tokyo)*, 2005, **137**, 693-701.
- 1133 151. H. Murata, M. Sakaguchi, J. Futami, M. Kitazoe, T. Maeda, H. Doura, M. Kosaka, H.
1134 Tada, M. Seno, N. H. Huh and H. Yamada, *Biochemistry*, 2006, **45**, 6124-6132.
- 1135 152. J. D. Breccia, M. M. Andersson and R. Hatti-Kaul, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta, Gen. Subj.*,
1136 2002, **1570**, 165-173.
- 1137 153. M. Fuentes, B. C. C. Pessela, J. V. Maquiese, C. Ortiz, R. L. Segura, J. M. Palomo, O.
1138 Abian, R. Torres, C. Mateo, R. Fernández-Lafuente and J. M. Guisán, *Biotechnol.*
1139 *Prog.*, 2004, **20**, 1134-1139.
- 1140 154. I. N. Shalova, I. N. Naletova, L. Saso, V. I. Muronetz and V. A. Izumrudov,
1141 *Macromol. Biosci.*, 2007, **7**, 929-939.
- 1142 155. L. Mazzaferro, J. D. Breccia, M. M. Andersson, B. Hitzmann and R. Hatti-Kaul, *Int. J.*
1143 *Biol. Macromol.*, 2010, **47**, 15-20.
- 1144 156. M. Andersson, M. M. Andersson and P. Adlercreutz, *Biocatal. Biotransform.*, 2000,
1145 **18**, 457-469.
- 1146 157. C. P. McMahon, G. Rocchitta, S. M. Kirwan, S. J. Killoran, P. A. Serra, J. P. Lowry
1147 and R. D. O'Neill, *Biosens. Bioelectron.*, 2007, **22**, 1466-1473.
- 1148 158. J. M. Bolivar, F. Cava, C. Mateo, J. Rocha-Martín, J. M. Guisán, J. Berenguer and R.
1149 Fernandez-Lafuente, *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.*, 2008, **80**, 49-58; J. M. Bolivar, L.
1150 Wilson, S. A. Ferrarotti, R. Fernandez-Lafuente, J. M. Guisan and C. Mateo,
1151 *Biomacromolecules*, 2006, **7**, 669-673.
- 1152 159. Y. Zhang and D. Rochefort, *Process Biochem.*, 2011, **46**, 993-1000.
- 1153 160. M. P. Guerrero, F. Bertrand and D. Rochefort, *Chem. Eng. Sci.*, 2011, **66**, 5313-5320.
- 1154 161. Q. Wang, Q. Gao and J. Shi, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2004, **126**, 14346-14347; L. Zhang,
1155 Q. Zhang and J. Li, *Adv. Funct. Mater.*, 2007, **17**, 1958-1965.
- 1156 162. Z. P. Han, J. Fu, P. Ye and X. P. Dong, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 2013, **53**, 79-84.
- 1157 163. A. K. Chandel, L. V. Rao, M. L. Narasu and O. V. Singh, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*,
1158 2008, **42**, 199-207.
- 1159 164. R. Fernandez-Lafuente, C. M. Rosell and J. M. Guisan, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*,
1160 1991, **13**, 898-905.
- 1161 165. G. Volpato, R. C. Rodrigues and R. Fernandez-Lafuente, *Curr. Med. Chem.*, 2010, **17**,
1162 3855-3873.
- 1163 166. O. Abian, L. Wilson, C. Mateo, G. Fernández-Lorente, J. M. Palomo, R. Fernández-
1164 Lafuente, J. M. Guisán, D. Re, A. Tam and M. Daminatti, *J. Mol. Catal. B: Enzym.*,
1165 2002, **19-20**, 295-303; O. Abian, C. Mateo, G. Fernández-Lorente, J. M. Palomo, R.
1166 Fernández-Lafuente and J. M. Guisán, *Biocatal. Biotransform.*, 2001, **19**, 489-503.
- 1167 167. O. Abian, C. Mateo, G. Fernández-Lorente, J. M. Guisán and R. Fernández-Lafuente,
1168 *Biotechnol. Prog.*, 2003, **19**, 1639-1642.

- 1169 168. O. Abian, C. Mateo, J. M. Palomo, G. Fernández-Lorente, J. M. Guisán and R.
1170 Fernández-Lafuente, *Biotechnol. Prog.*, 2004, **20**, 984-988.
- 1171 169. O. Abian, C. Mateo, G. Fernández-Lorente, J. M. Guisán and R. Fernández-Lafuente,
1172 *Biotechnol. Prog.*, 2004, **20**, 117-121.
- 1173 170. L. Wilson, A. Illanes, O. Abián, B. C. C. Pessela, R. Fernández-Lafuente and J. M.
1174 Guisán, *Biomacromolecules*, 2004, **5**, 852-857.
- 1175 171. L. Wilson, A. Illanes, O. Romero, J. Vergara and C. Mateo, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*,
1176 2008, **43**, 442-447.
- 1177 172. J. Yan, X. Gui, G. Wang and Y. Yan, *Appl. Biochem. Biotechnol.*, 2012, **166**, 925-932.
- 1178 173. B. K. Vaidya, S. S. Kuwar, S. B. Golegaonkar and S. N. Nene, *J. Mol. Catal. B:*
1179 *Enzym.*, 2012, **74**, 184-191.
- 1180 174. Z. Cabrera, M. L. E. Gutarra, J. M. Guisan and J. M. Palomo, *Catal. Commun.*, 2010,
1181 **11**, 964-967.
- 1182 175. J. C. S. d. Santos, C. Garcia-Galan, R. C. Rodrigues, H. B. d. Sant'Ana, L. R. B.
1183 Gonçalves and R. Fernandez-Lafuente, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 2014, **60**, 1-8.
- 1184 176. G. Fernández-Lorente, J. M. Palomo, C. Mateo, R. Munilla, C. Ortiz, Z. Cabrera, J. M.
1185 Guisán and R. Fernández-Lafuente, *Biomacromolecules*, 2006, **7**, 2610-2615.
- 1186 177. J. C. S. d. Santos, C. Garcia-Galan, R. C. Rodrigues, H. B. d. Sant'Ana, L. R. B.
1187 Gonçalves and R. Fernandez-Lafuente, *Process Biochem.*, 2014, **accepted**.
- 1188 178. D. S. Waugh, *Trends Biotechnol.*, 2005, **23**, 316-320.
- 1189 179. H. Lilie, S. Richter, S. Bergelt, S. Frost and F. Gehle, *Biol. Chem.*, 2013, **394**, 995-
1190 1004.
- 1191 180. E. Steen Redeker, D. T. Ta, D. Cortens, B. Billen, W. Guedens and P. Adriaensens,
1192 *Bioconjug. Chem.*, 2013, **24**, 1761-1777.
- 1193 181. A. Schellenberger and R. Ulbrich, *Biomed. Biochim. Acta*, 1989, **48**, 63-67; J.
1194 Mansfeld, G. Vriendl, O. R. Veltman, B. Van Den Burg, G. Venema, V. G. H. Eijsink
1195 and R. Utbrich-Hofmann, *FASEB J.*, 1997, **11**; R. Ulbrich-Hofmann, U. Arnold and J.
1196 Mansfeld, *J. Mol. Catal. B: Enzym.*, 1999, **7**, 125-131; J. Mansfeld, G. Vriend, B. Van
1197 Den Burg, V. G. H. Eijsink and R. Ulbrich-Hofmann, *Biochemistry*, 1999, **38**, 8240-
1198 8245.
- 1199 182. C. Nowak, D. Schach, J. Gebert, M. Grosserueschkamp, R. B. Gennis, S. Ferguson-
1200 Miller, W. Knoll, D. Walz and R. L. C. Naumann, *J. Solid State Electrochem.*, 2011,
1201 **15**, 105-114.
- 1202 183. M. L. Jeong, K. P. Hyun, Y. Jung, K. K. Jin, O. J. Sun and H. C. Bong, *Anal. Chem.*,
1203 2007, **79**, 2680-2687; B. C. C. Pessela, R. Torres, M. Fuentes, C. Mateo, R.
1204 Fernandez-Lafuente and J. M. Guisán, *Biomacromolecules*, 2004, **5**, 2029-2033; J.
1205 Turková, *J. Chromatogr. B Biomed. Sci. Appl.*, 1999, **722**, 11-31; J. A. Camarero,
1206 *Biopolymers (Pept. Sci.)*, 2008, **90**, 450-458.
- 1207 184. J. R. Siqueira Jr, L. Caseli, F. N. Crespilho, V. Zucolotto and O. N. Oliveira Jr,
1208 *Biosens. Bioelectron.*, 2010, **25**, 1254-1263; L. S. Wong, F. Khan and J. Micklefield,
1209 *Chem. Rev.*, 2009, **109**, 4025-4053; J. M. Pingarrón, P. Yáñez-Sedeño and A.
1210 González-Cortés, *Electrochim. Acta*, 2008, **53**, 5848-5866; Z. Naal, J. H. Park, S.
1211 Bernhard, J. P. Shapleigh, C. A. Batt and H. D. Abruña, *Anal. Chem.*, 2002, **74**, 140-
1212 148.
- 1213 185. V. Balland, C. Hureau, A. M. Cusano, Y. Liu, T. Tron and B. Limoges, *Chem.-Eur. J.*,
1214 2008, **14**, 7186-7192.
- 1215 186. S. Andreescu, V. Magearu, A. Lougarre, D. Fournier and J. L. Marty, *Anal. Lett.*,
1216 2001, **34**, 529-540.
- 1217 187. J. Madoz-Gúrpide, J. M. Abad, J. Fernández-Recio, M. Vélez, L. Vázquez, C. Gómez-
1218 Moreno and V. M. Fernández, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2000, **122**, 9808-9817.

- 1219 188. J. M. Bolivar and B. Nidetzky, *Langmuir*, 2012, **28**, 10040-10049; J. M. Bolivar and
1220 B. Nidetzky, *Biotechnol. Bioeng.*, 2012, **109**, 1490-1498; J. Wiesbauer, J. M. Bolivar,
1221 M. Mueller, M. Schiller and B. Nidetzky, *ChemCatChem*, 2011, **3**, 1299-1303; S. M.
1222 Fuchs and R. T. Raines, *Protein Sci.*, 2005, **14**, 1538-1544; T. Gräslund, G. Lundin, M.
1223 Uhlén, P.-Å. Nygren and S. Hober, *Protein Eng.*, 2000, **13**, 703-709; T. Ikeda and A.
1224 Kuroda, *Colloids Surf., B*, 2011, **86**, 359-363; M. Hedhammar, T. Gräslund and S.
1225 Hober, *Chem. Eng. Technol.*, 2005, **28**, 1315-1325.
- 1226 189. C. S. Rha, D. H. Lee, S. G. Kim, W. K. Min, S. G. Byun, D. H. Kweon, S. H. Nam and
1227 J. H. Seo, *J. Mol. Catal. B: Enzym.*, 2005, **34**, 39-43.
- 1228 190. C.-L. Huang, W.-C. Cheng, J.-C. Yang, M.-C. Chi, J.-H. Chen, H.-P. Lin and L.-L.
1229 Lin, *J. Ind. Microbiol. Biotechnol.*, 2010, **37**, 717-725.
- 1230 191. C. L. Wu, Y. P. Chen, J. C. Yang, H. F. Lo and L. L. Lin, *J. Mol. Catal. B: Enzym.*,
1231 2008, **54**, 83-89.
- 1232 192. N. T. Hang, S. G. Kim and D. H. Kweon, *Korean J. Microbiol. Biotechnol.*, 2012, **40**,
1233 163-167.
- 1234 193. S. G. Kim, J. A. Kim, H. A. Yu, D. H. Lee, D. H. Kweon and J. H. Seo, *Enzyme
1235 Microb. Technol.*, 2006, **39**, 459-465.
- 1236 194. C. Ladavière, T. Delair, A. Domard, A. Novelli-Rousseau, B. Mandrand and F. Mallet,
1237 *Bioconjug. Chem.*, 1998, **9**, 655-661.
- 1238 195. C. Ladavière, C. Lorenzo, A. Elaïssari, B. Mandrand and T. Delair, *Bioconjug. Chem.*,
1239 2000, **11**, 146-152.
- 1240 196. V. Kasche, *Enzyme Microb. Technol.*, 1986, **8**, 4-16.
- 1241 197. I. Serra, D. A. Cecchini, D. Ubiali, E. M. Manazza, A. M. Albertini and M. Terreni,
1242 *Eur. J. Org. Chem.*, 2009, 1384-1389.
- 1243 198. S. G. Kim, S. Y. Shin, Y. C. Park, C. S. Shin and J. H. Seo, *Protein Expr. Purif.*, 2011,
1244 **78**, 197-203.
- 1245 199. H. J. Jung, S. K. Kim, W. K. Min, S. S. Lee, K. Park, Y. C. Park and J. H. Seo,
1246 *Bioprocess Biosyst. Eng.*, 2011, **34**, 833-839.
- 1247 200. G. Alvaro, R. Fernandez-Lafuente, R. M. Blanco and J. M. Guisán, *Appl. Biochem.
1248 Biotechnol.*, 1990, **26**, 181-195.
- 1249 201. B. J. Ryan and C. Ó'Fágáin, *BMC Biotechnol.*, 2007, **7**.
- 1250 202. V. Grazu, F. López-Gallego and J. M. Guisán, *Process Biochem.*, 2012, **47**, 2538-
1251 2541.
- 1252 203. D. A. Cecchini, I. Serra, D. Ubiali, M. Terreni and A. M. Albertini, *BMC Biotechnol.*,
1253 2007, **7**.
- 1254 204. I. Serra, D. Ubiali, D. A. Cecchini, E. Calleri, A. M. Albertini, M. Terreni and C.
1255 Temporini, *Anal. Bioanal. Chem.*, 2013, **405**, 745-753.
- 1256 205. T. Montes, V. Grazú, I. Manso, B. Galán, F. López-Gallego, R. González, J. A.
1257 Hermoso, J. L. García, J. M. Guisán and R. Fernández-Lafuente, *Adv. Synth. Catal.*,
1258 2007, **349**, 459-464.
- 1259 206. O. N. Ilinskaya, F. Dreyer, V. A. Mitkevich, K. L. Shaw, C. Nick Pace and A. A.
1260 Makarov, *Protein Sci.*, 2002, **11**, 2522-2525.
- 1261
1262