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## <sup>1</sup> Fluid domain patterns in free-standing membranes captured on a solid support

Q1 Tripta Bhatia a,b, Peter Husen a,1, John H. Ipsen a,b, Luis A. Bagatolli a,c, Adam Cohen Simonsen a,b,\*

<sup>a</sup> MEMPHYS - Center for Biomembrane Physics, University of Southern Denmark, 5230 Odense M, Denmark

**04** b Department of Physics Chemistry and Pharmacy, Denmark

Q5 C Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Denmark

### 7 article info abstract

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### 3536 1. Introduction

 The conundrum of cholesterol-rich membrane-domains as carriers of biological activity is facing a number of challenges related to the length and time-scale of such domains. The initially proposed raft- hypothesis [\[1\]](#page--1-0) based on static sphingolipid–cholesterol domains as plat- forms for GPI-anchored proteins found a justification in membrane bio-42 physics as a realization of thermodynamic phase separation between  $l_0$ 43 and  $l_d$  phases of cholesterol-containing bilayers and monolayers [2,3]. However, while large macroscopic domains are not observed in the plasma membrane, the evidence for a crucial role of cholesterol and sphingolipids in multiple membrane functions is mounting [4,5]. If such lipid-mediated effects are associated with membrane domains, their size must be small, well below the optical diffraction limit of ~200 nm. Here spectroscopic techniques like NMR and ESR [6] provide the main source of information and thus indirect evidence about the lateral membrane structure. Recent experimental studies of rafts, using stimulated emission depletion (STED) far-field fluorescence

E-mail address: [adam@memphys.sdu.dk](mailto:adam@memphys.sdu.dk) (A.C. Simonsen).

<sup>1</sup> Now at: EmaZys Technologies ApS, Vejle, Denmark.

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2013<br>
We device an etherdology We devise a methodology to fixate and image dynamic fluid domain patterns of giant unilamellar vesicles (GUVs) 19 at sub-optical length scales. Individual GUVs are rapidly transferred to a solid support forming planar bilayer 20 patches. These are taken to represent a fixated state of the free standing membrane, where lateral domain struc- 21 tures are kinetically trapped. High-resolution images of domain patterns in the liquid-ordered  $(l_0)$  and liquid- 22 disordered  $(l<sub>d</sub>)$  co-existence region in the phase-diagram of ternary lipid mixtures are revealed by atomic force 23 microscopy (AFM) scans of the patches. Macroscopic phase separation as known from fluorescence images is 24 found, but with superimposed fluctuations in the form of nanoscale domains of the  $l_0$  and  $l_d$  phases. The size of 25 the fluctuating domains increases as the composition approaches the critical point, but with the enhanced spatial 26 resolution, such fluctuations are detected even deep in the coexistence region. Agreement between the area- 27 fraction of domains in GUVs and the patches respectively, supports the assumption that the thermodynamic 28 state of the membrane remains stable. The approach is not limited to specific lipid compositions, but could poten- 29 tially help uncover lateral structures in highly complex membranes. 30

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microscopy, claim presence of 20 nm domains in the plasma membrane 53 where proteins reside for 10–20 ms [7]. Such small-scale structures are 54 local and short lived, which impose a challenge for their experimental 55 observation, and only few tools for their imaging are available. For ex- 56 ample, AFM and STED microscopy are promising techniques for imaging 57 of nanoscale membrane structures. These high-resolution imaging 58 methods require membrane fixation either by a solid support or by 59 a chemical cross-linking. However, it is well known that solid- 60 supported membranes are subject to perturbations from the substrate. 61 Concrete manifestations of such effects may be a reduction in the lipid 62 diffusion coefficient [8], an increased phase transition temperature [\[9\],](#page--1-0) 63 different domain-size distributions and slower coarsening dynamics in 64 membranes with phase separation [10]. This may also influence the or- 65 ganization of membrane curvature active components [\[11\]](#page--1-0) and protein 66 organization mediated by membrane conformational fluctuations [\[12\].](#page--1-0) 67 Therefore, results on membrane domains obtained on a supported 68 membrane cannot implicitly be assumed to represent the equivalent 69 free standing membrane [\[3, 13](#page--1-0)–15]. In fact, the very purpose of 70 membrane fixation is to decrease membrane fluctuations, both in- 71 plane and out of plane. The dilemma has been that available high- $Q6$ resolution imaging techniques are often only applicable to supported 73 membranes while information on the free-standing analog is wanted. 74 In this work we aim to resolve this dilemma by avoiding the solid sub- 75 strate during sample preparation and instead explore the support as a 76 tool to rapidly immobilize domain features in free-standing membranes 77

<sup>⁎</sup> Corresponding author at: MEMPHYS — Center for Biomembrane Physics, University of Southern Denmark, 5230 Odense M, Denmark.

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78 of equilibrated GUVs. With this approach we characterize fluid domain

 patterns in collapsed GUVs using high resolution imaging with AFM. An additional challenge for membrane biophysics is to establish a framework for explaining the prevalence of small-scale membrane do-**Q7** mains. It has been proposed that  $l_0$  and  $l_d$  critical point fluctuations may provide such a framework [\[16\]](#page--1-0). But true critical fluctuations re- quire finely tuned thermodynamic conditions, which are delicate to maintain in a biomembrane. The results presented here point to the ex-**Q8** istence of a previously undetected population of microscale and nano- scale domains in ternary membranes. If such small domains are also present in a free-standing membrane they may represent thermal fluc- tuations characterized by formation of small minority phase domains deep inside the coexistence region and far from the critical point. The 91 observations are similar to the findings for the related main transition 92 of one and two-component PC-lipid bilayer systems [17-19], where lat- eral density and compositional fluctuations give rise to dynamic mem- brane heterogeneity in a wide range of system conditions around the 95 phase transition/coexistence. The presence of a nearby  $l_0$  and  $l_d$  co- existence is a much less restrictive thermodynamic condition to fulfill than proximity to a critical point.

### 98 2. Materials and methods

istence region and anti-formation of the most constrained in the most constra 1,2-Dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DOPC), cholesterol and 1,2-dipalmitoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DPPC) were pur- chased from Corden-Pharma. The fluorescence probes, N-Lissamine rhodamine B 1,2-dihexadecanoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine, triethylammonium salt (RhPE) and Napthopyrene (NaP) were pur- chased from Molecular Probes and Sigma respectively. Chloroform was of HPLC grade quality purchased from Rathburn (Micro-lab, Aarhus, Denmark). 1 mM stock solutions in chloroform of each lipid and each dye are prepared separately. Phosphorous analysis of the lipid samples was performed. Ternary mixtures with molar ratio of DOPC:DPPC:cho- lesterol (3:5:2), (3.5:3.5:3) and (4:2:4), corresponding to the composi- tions I, II, and III respectively, were prepared using the 1 mM stock solutions. The dye solutions were added to the ternary mixtures such that the dye/lipid molar fraction is 0.8%. We have tested for the possible influence of the probe on domain patterns by using a separate control with a probe concentration of 0.4%. No discernible differences were found in this case. The lipid dyes RhPE and NaP prefer respectively the  $l_d$  and  $l_o$  phases, as checked by independent Laurdan GP experiments. 117 Glucose, sucrose and MgCl<sub>2</sub> were from Sigma. Ultra-pure MilliQ water (18.3 M Ohm cm) was used in all steps involving water. A mica sheet 119 (Plano GmbH, Wetzlar, Germany) of size 1 cm  $\times$  1 cm was glued on a round glass coverslip of diameter 24 mm using a biocompatible silicon glue (NuSil Technology, Carpinteria CA, USA). These substrate samples were used for membrane fixation and in AFM and epi-fluorescence im- aging. The osmolarity of solutions was checked using an osmometer (Osmomat 030, Gonotec GmbH, Berlin, Germany).

125 2.1. Preparation of giant unilamellar vesicles (GUVs)

 Electroformation is a widely known method for the preparation of GUVs [\[20\].](#page--1-0) We use a home-made electroformation chamber consisting of two parallel Pt-wires, connected to an external AC power-supply. We coat each of the two Pt-wires with 2 μl of the lipid solution (1 mM, in chloroform) using a Hamilton syringe. The chamber is then stored overnight in vacuum. To form vesicles by electroformation, the chamber is filled with 200 mM sucrose (400 μl) and an AC-voltage is ap- plied at 55 °C in the following sequence: 10 Hz (0.2 VPP (peak-to-peak voltage) for 5 min, 0.5 VPP for 10 min, 1 VPP for 20 min, 1.5 VPP for 20 min, 2 VPP for 30 min), 4 Hz (2 VPP for 30 min). Finally, the temper-136 ature of the chamber is decreased to 23 °C at a rate of 0.02 °C/min before experiments at room temperature.

### 2.2. Epi-fluorescence microscopy 138

A Nikon TE2000 inverted microscope with  $40\times$  long working dis-139 tance objective (Nikon ELWD, Plan Fluor,  $NA = 0.6$ ) was used for epi- 140 fluorescence observations. All experiments were done at room temper- 141 ature (22 °C). Fluorescence excitation of the RhPE probe was done at 142 540 nm using a Xenon lamp (Polychrome V, Till Photonics GmbH, 143 Grafeling, Germany) and a G-2A filter cube (Nikon) was used for imag- 144 ing. Fluorescence images were recorded with an em-CCD camera 145 (Sensicam em,  $1004 \times 1002$  pixels, PCO-imaging, Kelheim, Germany) 146 operated with TILLvision software (Till Photonics GmbH). Epi- 147 fluorescence images were analyzed with Matlab (Mathworks, Natick 148 MA, USA) and ImageJ (National Institute of Health, Bethesda MD, USA). 149

2.3. AFM imaging 150

Atomic force microscopy was performed using a JPK Nanowizard 151 AFM (JPK Instruments, Berlin, Germany) operated in intermittent con- 152 tact mode in fluid. The AFM was mounted on the epi-fluorescence micro- 153 scope described above. Silicon cantilevers for soft-tapping were used 154 (PPP-NCST-50, Nanosensors, Neuchatel, Switzerland), having a spring 155 constant of 1.2–29 mN/m and a resonance frequency of 76–263 kHz. 156 During scanning, the sample was located in a fluid cell (BioCell, JPK In- 157 struments), with freshly cleaved mica on round coverslips as the sub- 158 strate. The same cell was also used for epi-fluorescence imaging. AFM 159 images were processed and analyzed using the program SPIP (Image 160 Metrology, Horsholm, Denmark). 161

2.4. Confocal microscopy 162

For confocal microscopy, vesicles were transferred to an eight-well 163 microscopy chamber (Nunc Lab-Tek, Thermo Scientific, Waltham MA, 164 USA) and observed by a Zeiss LSM 510 Meta confocal laser scanning 165 fluorescence microscope (Carl Zeiss GmbH, Jena, Germany). Images 166 were obtained with a  $40\times$ , C-Apochromat, water immersion objective 167 with  $NA = 1.2$ . Two-channel image stacks were acquired using multi-  $168$ track mode, using Argon lasers of wavelengths 458 nm and 543 nm, 169 for NaP and RhPE excitation, respectively. The lasers were directed to 170 the sample using two dichroic mirrors (HFT 458/514, HFT 488/543/ 171 633) for exciting NaP and RhPE respectively. Fluorescence emission 172 was collected with photo-multiplier-tube (PMT) detectors. A beam 173 splitter was used to eliminate remnant scattering from the laser sources 174 (NFT 545) in a two-channel configuration. Additional filters were incor- 175 porated in front of the PMT detectors in the two different channels to 176 measure the fluorescent intensity, i.e. a long-pass filter  $(>560 \text{ nm})$  for 177 RhPE and a band-pass filter (500  $\pm$  20 nm) for NaP. The acquired inten- 178 sity images were checked to avoid PMT saturation and loss of offsets by 179 adjusting the laser power, the detector gain and the detector offset. The 180 image stacks were acquired above the Nyquist frequency. The raw con- 181 focal fluorescence image stacks were used for analysis without 182 deconvolution. All confocal experiments were performed at room 183 temperature. The state of t

### **3. Results** 185

We examine ternary DOPC/DPPC/cholesterol membranes in the  $l_0$  186 and  $l_d$  coexistence regions and characterize the domain patterns in 187 free-standing GUVs and in planar patches resulting from collapse of 188 the individual GUVs. We have opted for three different lipid composi- 189 tions: Two inside the liquid–liquid coexistence region (I and II) while 190 the third composition (III) is located close to the critical point [\[21\]](#page--1-0), as 191 shown schematically, in the phase diagram of [Fig. 1](#page--1-0)A. The area- 192 fraction of the two membrane phases is a sensitive indicator of the ther- 193 modynamic state of the membrane. For this reason we are quantifying 194 the domain area-fraction to test for changes in the membrane state 195

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