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### Structure and orientation study of Ebola fusion peptide inserted in lipid membrane models

#### Audrey Agopian, Sabine Castano \* 01

CBMN-UMR 5248 CNRS, Université de Bordeaux, IPB, Allée Geoffroy Saint Hilaire, 33600 Pessac, France 4

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### ABSTRACT

The fusion peptide of Ebola virus comprises a highly hydrophobic sequence located downstream from the 22 N-terminus of the glycoprotein GP2 responsible for virus-host membrane fusion. The internal fusion peptide of 23 GP2 inserts into membranes of infected cell to mediate the viral and the host cell membrane fusion. Since the 24 sequence length of Ebola fusion peptide is still not clear, we study in the present work the behavior of two fusion 25 peptides of different lengths which were named EBO17 and EBO24 referring to their amino acid length. The second-26 ary structure and orientation of both peptides in lipid model systems made of DMPC:DMPG:cholesterol:DMPE 27 (6:2:5:3) were investigated using PMIRRAS and polarized ATR spectroscopy coupled with Brewster angle microsco- 28 py. The infrared results showed a structural flexibility of both fusion peptides which are able to transit reversibly 29 from an  $\alpha$ -helix to antiparallel  $\beta$ -sheets. Ellipsometry results corroborate together with isotherm measurements 30 that EBO peptides interacting with lipid monolayer highly affected the lipid organization. When interacting with a 31 single lipid bilayer, at low peptide content, EBO peptides insert as mostly  $\alpha$ -helices mainly perpendicular into the 32 lipid membrane thus tend to organize the lipid acyl chains. Inserted in multilamellar vesicles at higher peptide con-33 tent, EBO peptides are mostly in  $\beta$ -sheet structures and induce a disorganization of the lipid chain order. In this 34 paper, we show that the secondary structure of the Ebola fusion peptide is reversibly flexible between  $\alpha$ -helical 35 and  $\beta$ -sheet conformations, this feature being dependent on its concentration in lipids, eventually inducing mem- 36 brane fusion. 37

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### 1. Introduction

The Ebola virus is one of the most virulent pathogens for humans 44 and primates. It has caused several outbreaks in central Africa in the 45past decade and currently no treatments or vaccines are approved yet. 46 47 Ebola virus is an enveloped virus that belongs to the *filoviridae* family. It causes severe hemorrhagic fever that is often lethal in humans. 48 Early target cells are monocytes, macrophages, dendritic cells and hepa-49tocytes then the infection rapidly spreads to the viral organs of the host. 5051Infection of a target cell by enveloped virus requires fusion between the viral enveloped and host cell membrane. The membrane fusion process 52is a common feature of enveloped viruses and is mediated by a glyco-53 54protein (GP) that acts as a membrane fusion protein. The Ebola GP is a class I fusion protein that forms trimeric spikes on the virion surface 55 [1]. During the maturation of the virion, GP is activated by proteolytic 5657cleavage into two parts: GP1 and GP2, connected by a disulfide bond.

E-mail address: s.castano@cbmn.u-bordeaux.fr (S. Castano).

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In all the class I fusion protein, the first subunit binds to the cell recep- 58 tors while the second subunit mediates the fusion between viral and 59 host cell membranes. For Ebola, the fusion process is mediated by the vi- 60 rally encoded glycoprotein GP2 that contains a highly hydrophobic se- 61 quence generally referred as the fusion peptide which initiates the 62 fusion event by anchoring glycoprotein GP2 to the cell membrane sur- 63 face. Unlike other class I fusion proteins, the Ebola fusion peptide is lo- 64 cated within the GP2 structure downstream from the N-terminus. This 65 conserved peptide sequence is absolutely required for the fusogenic ac- 66 tivity of the glycoprotein GP2 but its structural and functional determi- 67 nants remain unknown. Previous studies showed that endosome allows Q3 pH activating cathepsin L and B activities that is required for viral fusion 69 to occur where GP2 undergoes a subsequent conformational change ex- 70 posing the fusion peptide to the host membrane [2-4]. However, how Q4 Ebola fusion peptide binds to the membranes and induces fusion re- 72 mains poorly understood. 73

Several studies about Ebola fusion peptide have been done in differ-74 ent conditions and different mimetic membrane environments, partly 75 leading to inconsistent results. In general, Ebola fusion peptide can 76 adopt different structures depending on its environment. Moreover, 77 the exact peptide sequence involved in the fusion, which was initially 78 predicted by Gallaher et al. [5] is not well defined to date, as numerous 79 studies used different fusion peptide lengths. Freitas et al. [6] utilized 80 Ebola fusion peptide composed of 16 amino acids, EBO16 (524-539 81

Abbreviations: DMPC, dimyristoyl-phosphatidylcholine; DMPG, dimyristoylphosphatidylglycerol; DMPE, dimyristoyl-phosphatidylethanolamine; PMIRRAS, polarization modulation infra-red reflection absorption spectroscopy; ATR, attenuated total reflection spectroscopy; BAM, Brewster angle microscopy; Ri, lipid to peptide ratio

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author at: CBMN/University Bordeaux 1, Allée Geoffroy Saint Hilaire, F-33600 Pessac, France. Tel.: + 33 5 40 00 68 48; fax: + 33 5 40 00 22 00.

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from GP2) and determined its secondary structure by circular dichroïsm 82 83 (CD) and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR). They showed a random coil-helix transition when they added SDS micelles to an insoluble 84 85 water-diluted EBO16 solution. The NMR structure of EBO16 showed that in the presence of mimetic membranes, the peptide adopts a cen-86 tral 310-helix structure stabilized by aromatic interaction between 87 amino acids Trp8 and Phe12. Suárez et al. [7] used a 17 amino acid se-88 quence as fusion peptide (EBO<sub>GE</sub>: 524–540 from GP2) and also showed 89 90 by UV CD spectroscopy structural transition between random-coil in 91 aqueous buffer and an  $\alpha$ -helix structure induced by increasing concen-92tration of TFE. Moreover, they demonstrated by IR spectroscopy that in association to PC/PI (1:2) vesicles, the fusion peptide undergoes a con-93 formational change from an  $\alpha$ -helix to an anti-parallel  $\beta$ -structure, pre-94sumably induced by the presence of calcium. In fact, the  $\alpha$ -helical 95structure seems to be related to the ability of the peptide to induce de-96 stabilization of the membrane while the presence of Ca<sup>2+</sup> provocated a 97 conformational transition of the peptide to a  $\beta$ -sheet structure [7–9]. In 98 a more recent study [10], Freitas et al. suggested that although their 99 EBO16 fusion peptide adopts a β-sheet structure, it was only able to in-100 duce PC:PE:SPM:Chol liposome aggregation but not fusion. They also 101 showed by experiments of raft aggregation and cell-cell fusion that 102 EBO16 fusion peptide is able to use lipid raft domains enriched in cho-103 104 lesterol [11] as a target for virus entry into cells. This suggests an important role of cholesterol since cholesterol depleted cells have impaired 105 EBO virus glycoprotein-pseudotype-virion entry and fusion [12]. They 106 also demonstrated that the fusion peptide EBO16 can induce lipid 107 mixing of the living Vero cells even in absence of Ca<sup>2+</sup>. In the same 108 109 study, EBO16 was proposed to lie parallel to the membrane anchored by the aromatic amino acids, Trp8 and Phe12. In another study 110 conducted by Adam et al. [13], they used a shorter peptide of 11 111 amino acid long (524 to 534) capable of liposome destabilization and 112 113 fusion. They also analyzed its behavior in a hydrophobic/hydrophilic en-114 vironment by molecular modeling. They proposed a mechanism where the peptide is obliquely inserted in the host membrane and further able 115to destabilize it. 116

The aim of the present work was to clarify the inconsistencies be-117 tween the previously published data and to improve our understanding 118 119 of the fusion mechanism by which the Ebola fusion peptide inserts into lipid membrane. The structural behavior of the individual Ebola fusion 120peptide as well as that bound to a lipid membrane model has thus 121been investigated using several infrared (IR) spectroscopy techniques: 122 123 PMIRRAS at the air/water interface of the peptides alone and inserted into lipid monolayers and ATR spectroscopy of peptides inserted in bi-124 and multi-bilayers. Investigations at the air/water interface were com-125bined with ellipsometric measurements to analyze the morphology of 126 the layers. The peptide orientation given by IR experimental results 127 128were analyzed using spectral simulation. Two peptide sequences were studied: the 17 (residues 524-540, EBO17) and the 24 (residues 524-129547, EBO24) amino acid consensus sequences. 130

### 131 **2. Materials and methods**

### 132 2.1. Lipids and peptides

Lipids (DMPC, DMPG, cholesterol and DMPE) were purchased from 133 Sigma. The Ebola fusion peptides EBO17: GAAIGLAWIPYFGPAAE 134and EBO24: GAAIGLAWIPYFGPAAEGIYTEGL were purchased from 135GenScript (Piscataway, USA). EBO17 and EBO24 were solubilized 136 in hexafluoroisopropanol (HFIP) from Sigma at micromolar con-137 centrations. Peptide concentrations were calculated from the absorbance 138 at 280 nm using a molar extinction coefficient  $\varepsilon_{280}$  of 7000 M<sup>-1</sup>·cm<sup>-1</sup> 139for EBO17 and  $\varepsilon_{280}$  of 8400 M<sup>-1</sup>·cm<sup>-1</sup> for EBO24. The molar extinction 140 coefficient of the peptides has been determined using the formula 141  $\epsilon_{280nm} = 5600 \times n_W + 1400 \times n_Y$  which takes into account the individ-142 143 ual extinction coefficient of the amino acids W and Y.

### 2.2. Film formation and surface pressure measurements

Monolayer experiments were performed on a computer-controlled 145 Langmuir film balance (Nima Technology, Coventry, England). The rectangular trough and the barrier were made of Teflon. The surface pressure 147 ( $\pi$ ) was measured by the Wilhelmy method using a filter paper plate. The trough was filled with a saline solution (150 mM NaCl, pH 5.6) using 149 ultra pure water (MilliQ, Millipore). The experiments were carried out 150 at 22  $\pm$  2 °C. Pure peptide films were obtained by spreading of few µl 151 of HFIP peptide stock solutions at the air/water interface. The mixed 152 lipids/peptides at the defined lipid to peptide ratio, Ri was obtained by 153 co-spreading of the lipid/peptide mixture at the water surface. The monolayer lipid composition used was DMPC:DMPG:cholesterol:DMPE 155 (6:2:5:3). After ~15 min of stabilization, the film was slowly compressed 156 up to 40 mN·m<sup>-1</sup> and decompressed at the same rate speed than during 157 the compression (8 Å<sup>2</sup>·molecule<sup>-1</sup>·min<sup>-1</sup>). 158

#### 2.3. PMIRRAS spectroscopy

PMIRRAS spectra were recorded on a Nicolet Nexus 870 spectrometer 160 equipped with a photovoltaic HgCdTe detector cooled at 77 K. Spectra 161 were obtained by performing 800 scans at a resolution of 8 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Briefly, 162 PMIRRAS combines FT-IR reflection spectroscopy with fast polarization 163 modulation of the incident beam between parallel (p) and perpendicular 164 (s) polarizations. The differential reflectivity spectrum is obtained using a 165 two-channel processing signal. To remove the contribution of liquid 166 water absorption and the dependence on Bessel functions, the monolayer 167 spectra are divided by that of the subphase. With an incidence angle of 168 75°, transition moments preferentially oriented in the plane of the interface give intense and upward oriented bands, while perpendicular ones 170 give weaker and downward oriented bands [14]. 171

### 2.4. ATR spectroscopy of the fusion peptide inserted in a lipid bilayer 172

Small unilamellar vesicles (SUV) composed of DMPC:DMPG: 173 cholesterol:DMPE (6:2:5:3) were prepared pure or mixed with the fusion 174 peptide at a defined molar ratio, Ri. For pure lipid SUV, lipids were first 175 dissolved in chloroform and mixed at the desired ratio. The solvent was 176 then evaporated giving a lipid film. SUV were then prepared by tip sonication after direct hydration of the lipid film with a solution of D<sub>2</sub>O containing 150 mM NaCl. For the preparation of the SUV containing the mixed fusion peptide/lipids, the fusion peptide powder is first dissolved in HFIP then mixed with the lipids in chloroform at the desired ratio. 181 Solvents were evaporated before hydration by D<sub>2</sub>O and tip sonication for SUV formation. SUV were then burst on a germanium ATR crystal to 183 form a single bilayer which is controlled by the measurement of the absolute IR intensity.

ATR spectra were recorded on a Nicolet 6700 spectrometer Thermo 186 Scientific equipped with a MCT detector cooled at 77 K. Since ATR spectroscopy is sensitive to the orientation of the structures [15–17], spectra 188 were recorded with parallel (p) and perpendicular (s) polarizations of 189 the incident light with respect to the ATR plate. 400 scans were recorded 190 at a resolution of 8 cm<sup>-1</sup>. All the orientation information is then 191 contained in the dichroïc ratio  $R_{ATR} = Ap/As$ , where Ai respectively represents the absorbance of the considered band at p or s polarization of 193 the incident light.

### 2.5. Ellipsometric measurements

The morphology of pure peptides or mixed lipids with the peptides 196 was observed at the air/water interface using an ellipsometer iElli2000 197 microscope (NFT, Göttinger, Germany) mounted on a Langmuir trough. 198 The microscope was equipped with a doubled frequency Nd:Yag laser 199 (532 nm, 50 mW), a polarizer, a compensator, an analyzer and a CCD 200 camera. The spatial resolution of the pictures with the  $10 \times$  magnification lens was about 2 µm and the image size was  $600 \times 450$  µm. For 202

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