

PROTEIN-LIPID INTERACTIONS

C. MONTECUCCO, E. PAPINI and R. BISSON

Centro CNR per le Biomembrane e Laboratorio di Biologia e Patologia molecolare, Istituto di Patologia generale della Università degli Studi, Padova, Italy

Summary. - *The structural basis of lipid-protein interactions are outlined with emphasis on the different classes of proteins present on membranes. The different kinds of lipid requirements are discussed with relevant examples together with the important kinetic advantage for the rate of reactions occurring on membranes.*

Riassunto (Interazioni lipide-proteina). - *Le basi strutturali delle interazioni lipide-proteina sono descritte in relazione alle classi differenti di proteine presenti nelle membrane. Con esempi inerenti sono discusse le differenti modalità dei requisiti lipidici insieme al corrispondente guadagno cinetico per la velocità delle reazioni che avvengono nella membrana.*

Many cellular proteins are membrane proteins

The large fraction of cell proteins that is associated with membranes controls the exchange of ions and metabolites across the plasma membrane and organelles such as mitochondria, chloroplasts and sarcoplasmic reticulum. Moreover in this way specific functions such as recognition and trasmission of signals can be performed and localized in restricted areas of the cell. An important and often underevaluated aspect of the membrane localization of enzymes is the large increase in the local concentration and orientation factor with a consequent enhancement of the rate of enzymatic reaction when the two partners of the reaction are confined on the same membrane which is a two rather than a three dimensional solvent [1]. This is relevant to the function of chains of oxidoreductive reactions that occur on the mitochondrial, chloroplast and microsomal membranes. Nearly all aspects of membrane structure and function are covered in an extensive series of articles recently collected [2].

Depending on their function, we can distinguish different groups of membrane proteins.

Transport proteins. - This group includes proteins that translocate objects as different as sugars, amino acids, ions and electrons. Moreover in several cases

transport is coupled to enzymatic or binding activities. Despite these different functions, the available evidence reveals several common structural features in their hydrophobic domain, that part of the protein embedded in the lipid bilayer which interacts directly with lipids. This sector is generally large comprising several peptide stretches trasversing the bilayer. These segments are generally organized as α -helices perpendicular or slightly tilted [3] with respect to the membrane plane as outlined in Fig. 1; a very common feature of these transmembrane segments is their lenght and structure that has to meet the thickness and spatial organization of the lipid bilayer [4, 5]. As a consequence they are formed by a central region of 20-25 residues that in an helical organization form a segment of around 30 Å designed to match the hydrophobic core of the lipid bilayer. The central part is frequently flanked at its two ends by short segments (5-6 polar residues) interacting with the polar head groups of phospholipids as depicted in Fig. 1 [4, 5].

The presence in the hydrophobic domain of helices both perpendicular and tilted with respect to the membrane plane responds to the need of a best fitting of the lateral residues between themselves to generate a highly compact structure.

The external surface of the helices is made of hydrophobic residues to meet the requirement of interacting with the hydrocarbon chain of lipids while the other faces involved in protein-protein contacts or in carrier functions may also be polar [3]. No detailed three-dimensional structure of any membrane protein channels is at the present available but there is a general consensus on the idea that they are formed by the proper alignment of hydrophilic residues. It is expected that these aminoacid residues and those involved in protein-protein contacts are strongly conserved in evolution while for those residues interacting with lipids the only constraint is to be hydrophobic and hence they show within this limit a large fluctuation [6].

Several primary structures of membrane transport proteins have been deduced from the DNA sequence of their cloned genes [7-15]. One feature which emerges from the analysis of the distribution of hydrophobic-

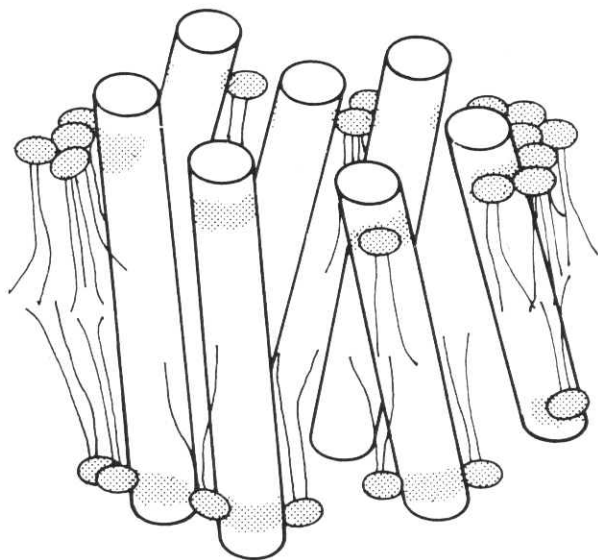


Fig. 1. - Schematic drawing of an integral membrane protein showing an array of helices crossing the lipid bilayer. The surface of these segments exposed to lipids is thought to be formed by a central hydrophobic part matching the hydrocarbon chains of lipids surrounded at both its ends by two short segments (dotted portions) of hydrophilic residues designed to meet the polar head groups of phospholipids (dotted in the figure). The water exposed part of the protein is not shown.

hydrophilic residues (hydropathic plots) is the above-mentioned presence of mainly apolar stretches of 20-25 residues. A second relevant aspect is that a large fraction of the protein mass of those transport protein possessing an enzymatic activity appears to be external to the lipid bilayer while this is not the case for some proteins involved only in ion transport such as bacteriorhodopsin, rhodopsin and partially the anion channel.

Membrane anchored proteins. - Under this title we can group an heterogeneous set of proteins with the common feature of possessing a single transmembrane segment arranged in an α -helical conformation. These proteins, localized on the plasma membrane, are involved in the binding of hormones, growth factors, antigens, connective tissue proteins and other cells [16-18]. Binding may be followed by a conformational change that transfers a message inside the cell. It is difficult to envisage how this can occur through such a highly rigid structure as an α -helix in a hydrophobic milieu. This opens the possibility that the message may be transmitted via a clustering of receptors induced by the binding of the ligand.

In other cases these proteins serve as a mean to bring a ligand or an ion inside the cell through the endosome-lysosome or endosome-Golgi pathways as in the case of lipoproteins (cholesterol) and transferrin (iron) [19].

Membrane anchoring serves sometimes the need to localize a certain enzymatic activity to a particular intracellular membrane or organelle such as in the case of the

cytochrome P-450 family bound to microsomes or of cytochrome c1 bound to the inner mitochondrial membrane [20, 21].

In some cases fatty acids are conjugated to the Cys, Ser and Thr residues of the membrane sector [22]. Their role is unclear; however the presence of additional hydrocarbon chains surely increases the hydrophobicity and hence the membrane anchoring capability of the membrane embedded protein segment. This is less likely for the bulky hydrophobic sectors of transport proteins such as the acetylcholine receptor.

Periplasmic proteins. - These proteins are localized at the membrane surface where from they can be solubilized by addition of appropriate salts or chelating agents or pH treatments [23]. They vary for the modality of attachment to the membrane. A first group, including hydroxy butyrate dehydrogenase, interacts with the polar heads of lipids and they may display different selectivity for the various lipid classes [24]. A second group is bound to the membrane via interactions with integral proteins as in the case of spectrin [25]. Recently it has been shown that a large group of proteins, including acetyl choline esterase and 5'-nucleotidase, is covalently bound to the inositol ring of phosphatidylinositol via a Cys residue and a glycan and glucosamine moieties [26]. This peculiar mode of membrane binding may offer a rapid and simple method of releasing the protein when needed by the cell. This process may be relevant for the antigenic variation of *Trypanosoma* whose major surface antigen is also bound to the membrane via phosphatidylinositol.

Transient lipid protein interaction. - A particular case of lipid-protein interaction is represented by complement, perforins, several viruses and proteic toxins that are water soluble and yet under certain conditions become able to penetrate into the hydrophobic core of the lipid bilayer [27-29]. This phenomenon involves a gross conformational rearrangement of their structure that can be triggered in different ways such as proteolysis, reduction or pH changes [28-32]. This kind of process may be at the basis of the import of nuclear coded proteins into the matrix of mitochondria and chloroplasts [33, 34]. In fact it has been recently found that several signal sequences directing nuclear coded proteins to mitochondria and chloroplasts are surface active and it was suggested that their ability to perturb the lipid bilayer organization is functional to their role in the actual process of protein translocation across the organelle membranes [35, 36].

This transient lipid interaction of proteins has been studied in details in the case of influenza and Semliki Forest viruses and of certain microbial proteic toxins such as diphtheria toxin. It has been shown that the acidic pH reached in the endosomes, where these proteins are collected via receptor-mediated endocytosis, induces a structural change with exposure of hydrophobic surfaces. Thus the protein penetrates into the endosomal

lipid bilayer and, in the case of the viruses, induces the fusion of the viral and endosomal membranes.

A particular group of lipid interacting proteins is exemplified by melittin, the major component of the bee venom, and the toxin of *Staphylococcus aureus* [37]. These are small polypeptides (around 25 residues) arranged as a single helix characterized by a C-terminal cluster of few charged residues linked to an amphipathic helix i.e. a helix with an hydrophilic and hydrophobic face. Figure 2 shows a possible arrangement of a cluster of melittin molecules with the hydrophobic face oriented towards lipids and the hydrophilic face forming a water filled region [38-40]. The perturbation of the lipid bilayer structure that is effected in this way is thought to be the cause of the cell lysis.

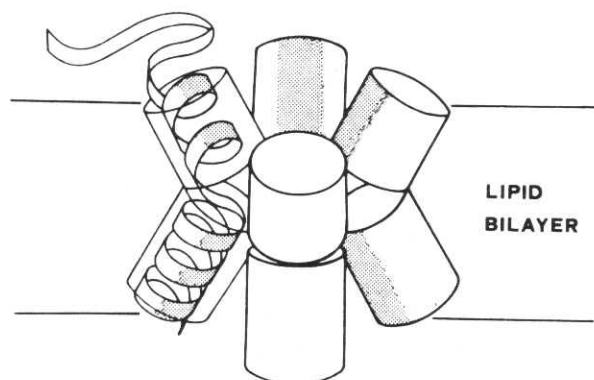


Fig. 2. - A possible arrangement of melittin molecules in the membrane with the hydrophobic face of the helices exposed to lipids and the hydrophilic central part (dotted) likely to be filled by water.

Lipid requirements

Integral proteins interact both with the polar head group of phospholipids and with their fatty acid chain while peripheral proteins are thought to be involved in a interaction with the polar head group only and are not expected to perturb significantly the hydrophobic region of the lipid bilayer [23]. Despite their large non homogeneity due to the presence of a variable number of double bonds in different positions, hydrocarbon chains are expected, for the very nature of the forces involved, not to show any particular specific interaction with any membrane protein. They simply provide a plastic, dynamic and water repelling structure and seal the membrane around integral proteins by hydrophobic interactions with the central surface of the hydrophobic sector formed by non polar amino acid lateral residues.

Figure 3 depicts schematically three extreme situations that can be defined for the interaction of a protein with the polar head groups of lipids. Case 1 refers to an aspecific binding of lipids to a protein mediated via the

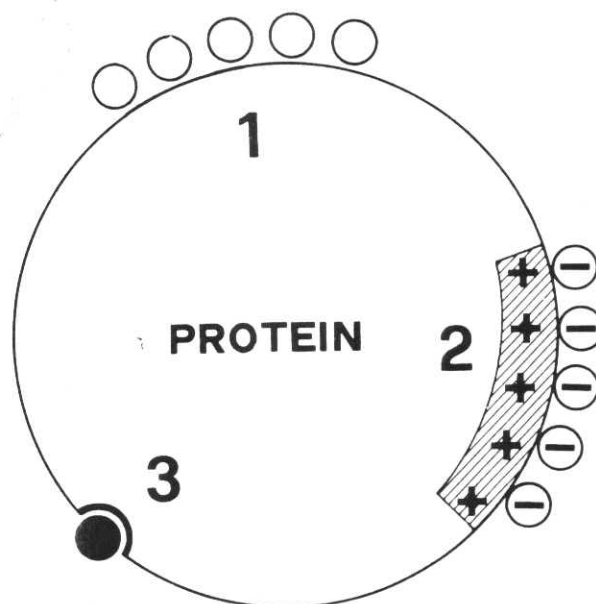


Fig. 3 - Schematic drawing of three prototype cases of lipid-protein interactions: 1) refers to an unspecific interaction in the sense that any lipid class can occupy site 1 on the protein; 2) refers to an interaction specific for negative lipids meaning that site 2 is most of the time occupied by a negative phospholipid; 3) illustrates the case of an absolutely specific interaction of a certain protein site for a defined lipid; the presence of the particular lipid is required for the physiological function of the protein. It should be noted that all the intermediate affinities and hence specificity situations are expected to occur in any biological membrane.

two collars of polar residues flanking the central hydrophobic region of the membrane embedded sector of an integral protein [4, 5, 41, 42]. This interaction is short-lived i.e. a single lipid molecule can be easily substituted by a similar one belonging to the same lipid class [43]. Phospholipids such as phosphatidylcholine, sphingomyelin and phosphatidylethanolamine constituting the larger share of membrane phospholipids are expected to fall in case 1.

Case 2 describes the situation of a protein showing a preference for a particular lipid class. Electrostatic forces appear to be involved in the well documented requirement of negative lipids for a maximal activation of the (Na⁺, K⁺)-ATPase. Hydrogen bonding could be involved in binding particular classes of lipids such as gangliosides. The stronger lipid-protein interaction of case 2 has two consequences. First, the mean residence time of such lipids around the protein is higher than that of type 1 lipids; they can be substituted only by lipids of the same class or charge and not by other lipids of the membrane [43]. Second, the proteins cause a lateral phase segregation of lipids enriching the first lipid shell around it of the preferred lipids.

Case 3 refers to the possibility of an absolute requirement of a certain specific lipid for the activity of the protein as shown by bovine heart cytochrome c oxidase for cardiolipin [44] and the adrenergic receptor for a glyco-

lipid [45]. Presumably in this case the protein forms a specific binding site for the lipid and the residence time of the lipid in this site is very long. It should be noted that a specific lipid-protein binding in a membrane does not require necessarily affinities as high as those of most enzyme-substrate interactions because of the intrinsic

concentrated nature of the two-dimensional membrane solvent [1].

Review submitted on invitation by the Editorial Board of the *Annali*. Accepted for publication: 18 February 1987.

REFERENCES

- GRASBERGER, B., MINTON, A.P., DELISI, C. & METZGER, H. 1986. Interaction between proteins localized in membranes. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* **83**: 6258-6252.
- Membrane and Transport*. 1982. Martonosi, A. (Ed.). Plenum Press, New York. Vols. 1-4.
- BISSON, R. & MONTECUCCO, C. 1985. Helical packing in the hydrophobic sector of cytochrome c oxidase. *J. Inorg. Biochem.* **23**: 177-182.
- JOHANSSON, A., KEIGHTLEY, C.A., SMITH, G.A., RICHARDS, C.D., HESKETH, T.R. & METCALFE, J.C. 1981. The effect of bilayer thickness and n-alkanes on the activity of the ATPase of the sarcoplasmic reticulum. *J. Biol. Chem.* **256**: 1643-1650.
- MONTECUCCO, C., SMITH, G.A., DABBENI-SALA, F., JOHANSSON, A., GALANTE, Y.M. & BISSON, R. 1982. Bilayer thickness and enzymatic activity in the mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase and ATPase complex. *FEBS Lett.* **144**: 145-148.
- von HELJNE, G. 1981. Membrane proteins: the amino acid composition of membrane-penetrating segments. *Eur. J. Biochem.* **120**: 275-280.
- OVCHINNIKOV, Yu.A., ABDULAEV, N.G., FEIGINA, M.Yu., KISELEV, A.V. & LOBANOV, N.A. 1979. The structural basis of the functioning of bacteriorhodopsin: an overview. *FEBS Lett.* **100**: 219-224.
- STROUD, R.M. & FINER-MOORE, J. 1985. Acetylcholine receptor: structure, function and evolution. *Annu. Rev. Cell Biol.* **1**: 312-351.
- NODA, M., SHIMIZU, S., TANABE, T., TAKAI, T., KAYANO, T., IKEDA, T., TAKAHASHI, H., NAKAYAMA, H., KANAOKA, Y., MINAMINO, N., KANGAWA, K., MATSUO, H., RAFTERY, M.A., HIROSE, T., INAYAMA, S., HAYASHIDA, H., MIYATA, T. & NUMA, S. 1984. Primary structure of Electrophorus electricus sodium channel deduced from cDNA sequence. *Nature* **312**: 121-127.
- SHULL, G.E., SCHWARTZ, A. & LINGREL, J.B. 1985. Amino-acid sequence of the catalytic subunit of the (Na-K)ATPase deduced from a complementary DNA. *Nature* **316**: 691-695.
- KOPITO, R.R. & LODISH, H.F. 1985. Primary structure and transmembrane orientation of the murine anion exchange protein. *Nature* **316**: 234-238.
- SERRANO, R., KIELLAND-BRANDT, M.C. & FINK, G.R. 1986. Yeast plasma membrane ATPase is essential for growth and has homology with (Na-K) and Ca-ATPases. *Nature* **319**: 689-693.
- BRANDL, C.J., GREEN, N.M., KORZACK, B. & MacLENNAN, N.M. 1986. Two Ca-ATPase genes: homologies and mechanistic implications of deduced amino acid sequences. *Cell* **44**: 597-607.
- KUBO, T., FUKUDA, K., MIKAMI, A., MAEDA, A., TAKAHASHI, H., MISHINA, M., HAGA, T., HAGA, K., ICHIYAMA, K., KANGAWA, K., KOJIMA, M., MATSUO, H., HIROSE, T. & NUMA, S. 1986. Cloning, sequencing and expression of complementary DNA encoding the muscarinic acetylcholine receptor. *Nature* **323**: 411-415.
- MUEKLER, M., CARUSO, C., BALDWIN, S.A., PANICO, M., BLENCH, I., MORRIS, H.R., ALLARD, W.J., LIENHARD, G.E. & LODISH, H. 1985. Sequence and structure of a human glucose transporter. *Science* **229**: 941-945.
- ULLRICH, A., COUSSENS, L., HAYFLICK, J.S., DULL, T.J., GRAY, A., TAM, A.W., LEE, J., YARDEN, Y., LIBERMAN, T.A., SCHLESSINGER, J., DOWNWARD, J., MAYES, E.L.V., WHITTLE, N., WATERFIELD, M.D. & SEEBURG, P.H. 1984. Human epidermal growth factor receptor cDNA sequence and aberrant expression of the amplified gene in A431 epidermoid carcinoma cells. *Nature* **309**: 418-425.
- YAMAMOTO, T., DAVIES, C.G., BROWN, M.S., SCHNEIDER, W.J., CASEY, M.L., GOLDSTEIN, J.L. & RUSSEL, D.W. 1984. The human LDL receptor: a cysteine-rich protein with multiple Alu sequences in its m-RNA. *Cell* **39**: 27-38.
- ULLRICH, A., BELL, J.R., CHEN, E.Y., HERRERA, R., PETRUZZELLI, L.M., DULL, T.J., GRAY, A., COUSSENS, L., LIAO, Y.-C., TSUBOKAWA, M., MASON, A., SEEBERG, P.H., GRUNFELD, C., ROSEN, O.M. & RAMACHANDRAN, J. 1985. Human insulin receptor and its relationship to the tyrosine kinase family of oncogenes. *Nature* **313**: 756-761.
- MELLMAN, I., FUCHS, R. & HELENIUS, A. 1986. Acidification of the endocytic and exocytic pathways. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **55**: 663-700.

20. FUJII-KURIYAMA, Y., MIZUKAMI, Y., KAWAJIRI, K., SOGAWA, K. & MURAMATSU, M. 1982. Primary structure of a cytochrome P-450: coding nucleotide sequence cytochrome P-450 cDNA from rat liver. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* **79**: 2793-2797.
21. WIKSTROM, M., KRAB, K. & SARASTE, M. 1981. Proton-translocating cytochrome complexes. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **50**: 623-655.
22. WOLD, F. 1986. Fatty acylation of proteins. *Trends Biochem. Sci.* **11**: 58-59.
23. SINGER, S.J. 1974. The molecular organization of membranes. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **43**: 805-833.
24. NIELSEN, N.C., ZAHLER, W.L. & FLEISCHER, S. 1973. Mitochondrial D- β -Hydroxybutyrate Dehydrogenase. *J. Biol. Chem.* **248**: 2556-2562.
25. BENNET, V. 1985. The membrane skeleton of human erythrocytes and its implication for more complex cells. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **54**: 273-304.
26. LOW, M.C., FERGUSON, M.A.J., FUTERMAN, A.H. & SILMAN, I. 1986. Covalently attached phosphatidylinositol as a hydrophobic anchor for membrane proteins. *Trends Biochem. Sci.* **11**: 212-215.
27. E YOUNG, J.D., COHN, Z.A. & PODACK, E.R. 1986. The ninth component of complement and the pore-forming protein (perforin I) from cytotoxic T cells: structural, immunological and functional similarities. *Science* **233**: 184-190.
28. WHITE, J., KIELAN, M. & HELENIUS, A. 1983. Membrane fusion proteins of enveloped animal viruses. *Q. Rev. Biophys.* **16**: 151-185.
29. OLSNES, S. & SANDVIG, K. 1985. Entry of polypeptide toxins into animal cells. In: *Endocytosis*. I. Pastan & M.C. Willingham (Eds). Plenum Press, New York. pp. 196-234.
30. TOMASI, M. & MONTECUCCO, C. 1981. Lipid insertion of cholera toxin after binding to GM1-containing liposomes. *J. Biol. Chem.* **256**: 11177-11181.
31. MONTECUCCO, C., SCHIAVO, G. & TOMASI, M. 1985. pH-dependence of the phospholipid interaction of diphtheria toxin fragments. *Biochem. J.* **231**: 123-128.
32. MONTECUCCO, C., SCHIAVO, G., BRUNNER, J., DUFLLOT, E., BOQUET, P. & ROA, M. 1986. Tetanus toxin is labeled with photoactivatable phospholipids at low pH. *Biochemistry* **25**: 919-924.
33. WICKNER, W.T. & LODISH, H. 1985. Multiple mechanisms of protein insertion into and across membranes. *Science* **230**: 400-407.
34. DOUGLAS, M.C., McCAMMON, M.T. & VASSAROTTI, A. 1986. Targeting proteins into mitochondria. *Microbiol. Rev.* **50**: 166-178.
35. ROISE, D., HORVATH, S.J., RICHARDS, J.H., TOMICH, J.M. & SCHATZ, G. 1986. A chemically synthesized pre-sequence of an imported mitochondrial protein can form an amphiphilic helix and perturb natural and artificial phospholipid bilayers. *EMBO J.* **5**: 1327-1334.
36. von HEIJNE, G. 1986. Mitochondrial targeting sequences may form amphiphilic helices. *EMBO J.* **5**: 1335-1342.
37. ARBUTHNOTT, J.P. 1982. Bacterial cytolysins (membrane-damaging toxins). In: *Molecular action of toxins and viruses*. P. Cohen & S. van Heyningen (Eds). Elsevier Biomedical Press, Amsterdam. pp. 107-130.
38. TERWILLIGER, T.C., WEISSMAN, L. & EISENBERG, D. 1982. The structure of melittin in the form I crystals and its implication for melittin's lytic and surface activities. *Biophys. J.* **37**: 353-361.
39. STROM, R., PODO, F., CRIFO, C., BERTHET, M., ZULAUF, M. & ZACCAI, G. 1983. Structural aspects of the interaction of the bee venom peptide melittin with phospholipids. *Biopolymers* **22**: 391-397.
40. VOGEL, H. & JAHNIG, F. 1986. The structure of melittin in membranes. *Biophys. J.* **50**: 573-582.
41. BISSON, R., STEFFENS, G.C.M. BUSE, G. 1982. Localization of lipid binding domain(s) on subunit II of beef heart cytochrome c oxidase. *J. Biol. Chem.* **257**: 6716-6720.
42. HOPPE, J., MONTECUCCO, C. & FRIEDL, P. 1983. Labeling of subunit b of the ATP synthase from *Escherichia coli* with a photoreactive phospholipid analogue. *J. Biol. Chem.* **258**: 2882-2885.
43. MARSH, D. 1985. ESR studies of lipid-protein interactions. In: *Progress in protein-lipid interactions*. A. Watts & J.J.H.M. DePont (Eds). Elsevier, Amsterdam. pp. 143-172.
44. VIK, S.B., GEORGEVICK, G. & CAPALDI, R.A. 1981. Diphosphatidylglycerol is required for optimal activity of beef heart cytochrome c oxidase. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* **78**: 1456-1460.
45. BAR-SINAI, A., ALDOUBY, Y., CHOREY, M. & LEVITZKI, A. 1986. Association of turkey erythrocyte β -adrenoreceptors with a specific lipid component. *EMBO J.* **5**: 1175-1180.