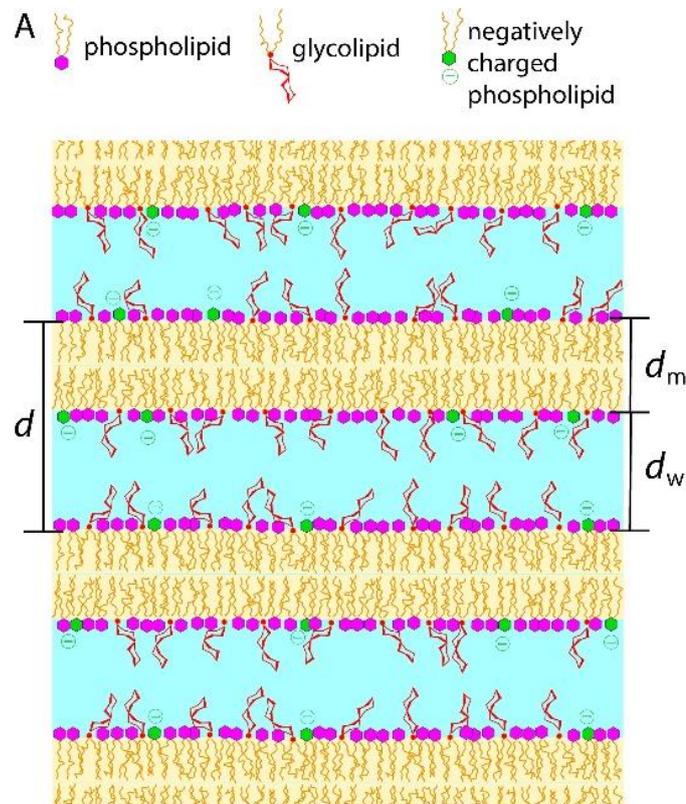


Published in final edited form as:

Latza, V. M., Demé, B., & Schneck, E. (2020). Membrane adhesion via glycolipids occurs for abundant saccharide chemistries. *Biophysical Journal*, 118(7), 1602-1611.  
doi:10.1016/j.bpj.2020.02.003.

## Membrane adhesion via glycolipids occurs for abundant saccharide chemistries

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# Membrane adhesion via glycolipids occurs for abundant saccharide chemistries

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## Keywords:

biological membranes, glycolipids, SAXS, WAXS, neutron diffraction, off-specular scattering

**Running head:** “Membrane adhesion via glycolipids”

**Abstract:** Membrane-bound oligosaccharides with specific chemistries are known to promote tight adhesion between adjacent membranes via the formation of weak saccharide bonds. However, in the literature one can find scattered evidence that other, more abundant saccharide chemistries exhibit similar behavior. Here, the influence of various glycolipids on the interaction between adjacent membranes is systematically investigated with the help of small- and wide-angle x-ray scattering (SAXS/WAXS) and complementary neutron diffraction (ND) experiments. Added electrostatic repulsion between the membrane surfaces is used to identify the formation of saccharide bonds and to challenge their stability against tensile stress. Some of the saccharide headgroup types investigated are able to bind adjacent membranes together, but this ability has no significant influence on the membrane bending rigidity. Our results indicate that glycolipid-mediated membrane adhesion is a highly abundant phenomenon and therefore potentially of great biological relevance.

**Statement of Significance:** Biological membranes can contain considerable amounts of glycolipids. However, surprisingly little is known about the influence of glycolipids on the interaction between neighboring membranes, apart from few special cases. Here, we find that various glycolipids with abundant types of saccharide headgroups are able to induce tight membrane adhesion even against repulsive forces, a phenomenon presumably playing important roles in cell biology.

## 1. Introduction

Biomembranes are vital components of all living organisms. They form the boundaries between the various compartments of cells and act as platforms for essential biochemical processes. But biomembranes do not only act alone, their functions being dependent on interactions with other membranes in their physiological environment. Membrane surfaces are formed by the headgroups of lipids and by membrane-bound saccharides, polypeptides, and other biomacromolecules (1). The interaction between membranes in their congested physiological surroundings is sensitive to this composition and affects structural organization and function of membrane systems like organelles, as well as membrane adhesion, vesicle release, or the formation of lamellar structures (2). Strikingly,

naturally stacked membrane systems like myelin sheaths (3) or photosynthetic membranes (thylakoids) in plants (4) contain high fractions of glycolipids. This correlation points towards a significant role of glycolipids in membrane adhesion. Indeed, early in-vitro experiments with thylakoid lipid extracts (5) and glycolipids with a di-galactose headgroup (*DGDG*) revealed spontaneous vesicle aggregation and membrane stack formation (6). Later on, the so-called hydration repulsion, i.e., the dehydrating pressure required to bring adjacent membranes to close proximity, was found to decay much more rapidly with the membrane separation for glycolipids (7, 8) than for commonly studied phospholipids with phosphatidylcholine (PC) headgroups (9). These results are in agreement with an earlier study by Marra, who found that the adhesion energies between glycolipid bilayers are up to six times higher than for PC lipid bilayers (10, 11). In contrast, Ricoul et al. reported that the addition of an uncharged glycolipid with a lactose headgroup appears to enhance the short-range repulsion between cationic surfactant lamellae (12). Wood et al. (13) investigated the interaction between PC lipid surfaces loaded with negatively charged glycolipids (sialo-gangliosides). Their results suggested repulsive saccharide interactions but favorable interactions between the saccharides and PC. Recently, Kanduč et al. quantitatively reproduced the interaction characteristics of glycolipid and PC lipid membranes in solvent-explicit atomistic molecular dynamics simulations (14). The study revealed that the repulsion mechanisms responsible for the comparatively longer hydration repulsion range of PC lipid membranes are inoperative for the glycolipid membranes. On the basis of an interplay between long-range van der Waals attraction and hydration repulsion (15, 16), the adhesion energy for the glycolipid was thus estimated to be enhanced by a factor of approximately six with respect to PC lipids (14), in excellent agreement with the results of Marra (10, 11). Within this picture, the tight cohesion between glycolipid membranes is rationalized solely on the basis of a shorter-ranged hydration repulsion. In other words, it does not explicitly invoke attraction between the saccharide groups belonging to the opposing membrane surfaces. Other studies have, however, demonstrated that already small fractions of glycolipids can induce pronounced cohesion between lipid membranes. For example, attractive forces were measured between lipid vesicles displaying low surface densities of membrane-bound *LewisX* (17), a trisaccharide motif known to be involved in cell adhesion processes during embryonic development (18). Later on, neutron diffraction (ND) on membrane multilayers showed that *LewisX* lipids effectively crosslink adjacent membranes via favorable carbohydrate-carbohydrate interactions (in the following termed “saccharide bonds”) even against repulsive membrane interactions (19). It was found that *LewisX* lipids lead to a strong confinement of the membrane separation around a value dictated by the lipids’ saccharide headgroups. However, in the literature one also finds indication that not only the specific trisaccharide motif *LewisX*, but also other motifs are able to crosslink membranes. Surprisingly strong attractive interactions were observed, for instance, for PC lipid membranes containing a glycolipid with a lactose disaccharide headgroup (N-hexadecanoyl-lactosylceramide, *LacCer-sat*) at  $\approx 10$  mol% (20). This finding is consistent with the observation that membrane-bound lactose has a similar effect on membrane adhesion as membrane-bound *LewisX* (17).

Here, we investigate how generic the phenomenon of membrane-crosslinking by glycolipids is, i.e., to what extent it really depends on the chemical details of the saccharide headgroups. For this purpose, we study the interaction of stacked phospholipid membranes (Fig. 1A) containing defined mole fractions of commercially-available glycolipids with various types of uncharged saccharide headgroups. The headgroups feature a systematic increase in their length from mono- to tetrasaccharides (see Fig. 1B) and comprise abundant monosaccharides (such as glucose and galactose) as their building blocks. Moreover, the glycolipid types investigated somewhat reflect the abundance and biological



## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Chemicals

Unless stated otherwise the utilized chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Luis, MO, USA) and used without further purification. Ultrapure water was used for all purposes (MilliQ®-grade). The phospholipids 1,2-Dimyristoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DMPC), 1,2-Dipalmitoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DPPC), 1-Palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (POPC), 1,2-Dimyristoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phospho-(1'-*rac*-glycerol) (Sodium Salt) (DMPG), 1,2-Dipalmitoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phospho-(1'-*rac*-glycerol) (Sodium Salt) (DPPG), 1-Palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phospho-L-serine (Sodium Salt) (POPS) and the glycolipids Digalactosyl-diacylglycerol unsaturated (*DGDG-unsat*) and Monogalactosyl-diacylglycerol unsaturated (*MGDG-unsat*) were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids (Alabaster, USA). The glycolipids Digalactosyl-diacylglycerol saturated (*DGDG-sat*), Monogalactosyl-diacylglycerol saturated (*MGDG-sat*), N-Pentadecanoyl-psycho-sine (*Psyc-sat*), N-Hexadecanoyl-lactosyl-ceramide (*LacCer-sat*), N-Hexadecanoyl-ceramide-trihexoside (*Trihexo-sat*), and Gangliotetraosyl-ceramide (*TetraG-sat*) were purchased from Matreya LLC. (State College, PA, USA). The chain-melting temperatures of the phospholipids used as matrix are summarized in Table 1.

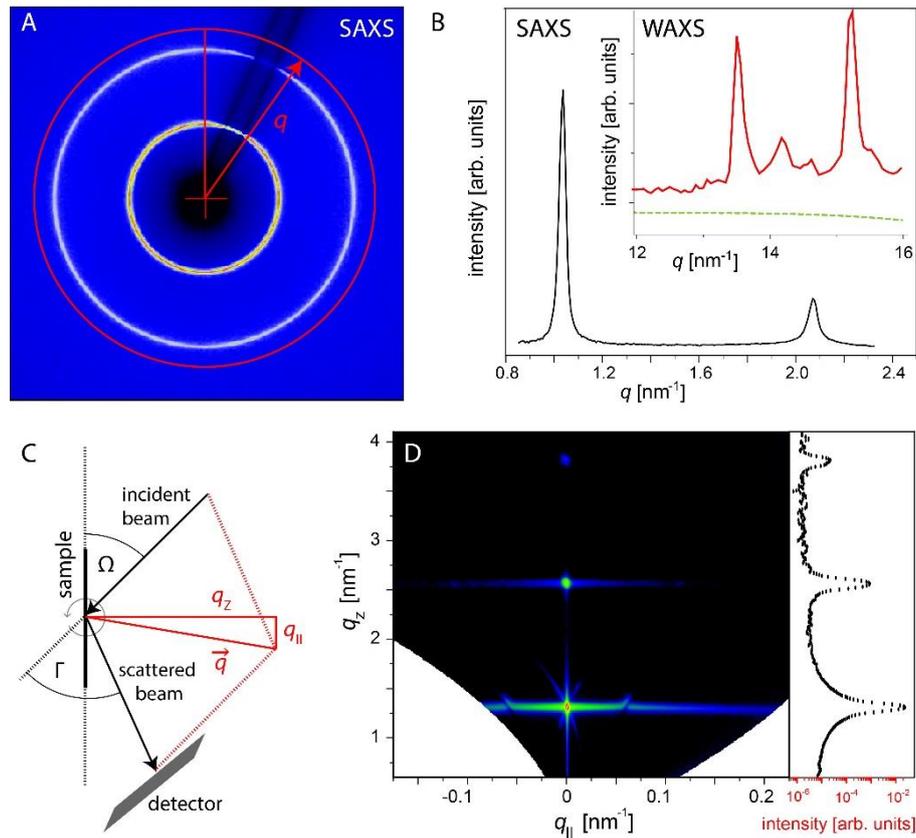
**Table 1:** Phase transition temperatures of the phospholipids used in this study(27)

phospholipid	transition temperature (°C)
POPC	-2
POPS	14
DMPC	24
DMPG	23
DPPC	41
DPPG	41

### 2.2. Sample preparation

Before use, glassware was cleaned by 30 min immersion in chloroform, acetone, ethanol, water, and again ethanol, and finally dried with a stream of nitrogen or argon. Aqueous buffers (based on H<sub>2</sub>O or D<sub>2</sub>O) contained 100 mM NaCl and 5 mM HEPES and were adjusted to pH 7 by addition of 1 mM NaOH solution. Organic lipid solutions were prepared by weighing the lipid powder and adding solvent, resulting in a lipid concentration of 2 mg/mL. Phospholipids were dissolved in chloroform and glycolipids in chloroform/methanol mixtures (4:1 or 2:1 v/v). Mixed lipid solutions were prepared by mixing defined volumes of the respective single-component lipid solutions. The mixtures were then dried in their original glass containers with a nitrogen stream for at least 3 h and subsequently exposed to vacuum overnight. To prepare suspensions of multilamellar lipid aggregates, aqueous buffer was added to the dry lipid mixtures. The suspensions were then first bath sonicated for 7 min, heated to ≈ 50 °C for 1 h, and then stored at 5 °C. Before the transfer into the measurement capillaries for SAXS/WAXS, the samples were again bath sonicated for 15 min. Each capillary was filled with 100 μL suspension and stored at 5 °C overnight. For the preparation of solid-supported membrane multilayers, silicon wafers (size: 25 mm x 65 mm) were cleaned with the same protocol as the glassware. Shortly before deposition of the sample solution, the wafers were treated in an UV-ozone chamber for 20 min, in order to activate the surface. A 0.5 mL volume of a 2 mg/mL lipid organic solution was placed on the polished side of the chip on a petri dish. In order to generate a homogenous

multilayer covering most of the wafer surface, the petri dish was then manually rocked until all solvent was evaporated. The samples were then exposed to vacuum overnight to remove residual solvent and subsequently incubated for 3 h at 50 °C and high D<sub>2</sub>O humidity ( $h_{\text{rel}} \gtrsim 87\%$  (28), achieved by addition of 40  $\mu\text{L}$  of a 1 M BaCl<sub>2</sub>-solution in D<sub>2</sub>O to the bottom of the falcon tubes) for further annealing of the lamellar structures. Afterwards, they were stored in dry falcon tubes at 5 °C.



**Figure 2:** Small-angle x-ray scattering (SAXS) and neutron diffraction (ND) experiments (A) Representative 2D SAXS pattern featuring first and second order Bragg peaks in the form of concentric rings. (B) Radial plot of the integration in azimuthal direction of SAXS pattern with first and second order Bragg peaks. Inset: Wide-angle (WAXS) region exhibiting peaks only for exceptional samples in the chain-ordered  $L_{\beta}$ -phase (here: *Psyc-sat*  $f_{\text{gly}} = 1.0$  in DMPC; 50 °C; solid red curve). For typical samples in the fluid  $L_{\alpha}$ -phase (here: *LacCer-sat*  $f_{\text{gly}} = 0.1$  in DMPC; 50 °C; dashed green curve) no WAXS peaks are observed. (C) Schematic illustration of the experimental geometry for ND in top view. (D) Typical ND reciprocal space map,  $S(q_z, q_{\parallel})$ , featuring three Bragg sheet orders (here: *DGDG-sat*  $f_{\text{gly}} = 0.5$  in DMPC; 50 °C,  $h_{\text{rel}} = 95\%$ ). Plot on the right: Specular intensity ( $q_{\parallel} \approx 0$ ) as a function of  $q_z$ .

### 2.3 Small angle and wide angle x-ray scattering (SAXS and WAXS)

Combined SAXS and WAXS measurements were performed at the  $\mu\text{Spot}$  beamline (29) at Synchrotron Bessy II (Helmholtz-Zentrum Berlin, Germany) with a beam energy of 15 keV corresponding to a wavelength of  $\lambda = 0.0826$  nm. The beam was collimated with a set of pinholes with diameters of 100  $\mu\text{m}$  and 150  $\mu\text{m}$ , respectively. The x-ray scattering patterns were recorded with a position sensitive 2D-detector, either MarMosaic 225 (Rayonix Inc., Evanston, USA) or Eiger X 9M (Dectris Ltd., Baden-

Daetwil, Switzerland). The sample-to-detector distance was 480 mm. Measurements were conducted above the matrix lipid phase transition temperature (Table 1), either at 21 °C (for samples based on POPC) or 50 °C (for samples based on DMPC or DPPC). For this purpose, a home-made capillary holder with temperature control was used. The 2D scattering patterns obtained with the isotropically oriented multilamellar membrane aggregates (see Fig. 2A for an example) are radially symmetrical to good approximation (powder limit), and were thus integrated in azimuthal direction in order to obtain one-dimensional intensity profiles as a function of the magnitude  $q$  of the scattering vector (radial plot),  $q = (4\pi/\lambda) \sin(\Gamma/2)$ , associated with the scattering angle  $\Gamma$ . This procedure was performed with the software DPDAK (30), which also provides a precise  $q$ -axis calibration based on silver behenate ( $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_{20}\text{COOAg}$ ) as calibration standard. The intensity profiles  $I(q)$  exhibit a number of Bragg peaks in the small angle range (see Fig. 2B), whose  $q$ -positions are related to the lamellar period  $d$  of the membrane multilayers according to Bragg's law,  $q_{\text{peak}} = 2\pi n/d$ , where  $n$  ( $= 1, 2, \dots$ ) is the diffraction order. The precise peak positions were determined via Gaussian fits including an adjustable flat background. As shown in the inset of Fig. 2B, additional peaks in the wide angle region (at  $q \approx 15 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ ) occur for membranes in the chain-ordered  $L_\beta$ -phase (31). Conversely, the absence of these peaks in most of the measurements confirms that the membranes investigated are in the fluid  $L_\alpha$ -phase.

## 2.4 Neutron diffraction

Neutron diffraction (ND) measurements with solid-supported membrane multilayers were performed on the high-resolution diffractometer D16 at Institut Laue-Langevin (ILL, Grenoble, France). Figure 2C shows the geometry of the experiment in a view from the top. The incident beam with a wavelength of  $\lambda = 0.4518 \text{ nm}$  hits the sample plane with an adjustable angle of incidence  $\Omega$ , and is scattered into various directions at angles  $\Gamma$  with respect to the incident beam. For each  $\Omega$ , the  $\Gamma$ -dependent intensity is recorded with a position-sensitive  $^3\text{He}$  detector (MILAND) with a distance of 950 mm to the sample. By rotating the sample stage, and thus by stepwise variation of  $\Omega$ , 2-dimensional maps of the intensity as a function of  $\Gamma$  and  $\Omega$  are recorded. During this procedure, the intensity is normalized to the intensity of the incident beam (via an in-beam monitor), the detector channel sensitivity, and the illuminated sample area. Further details of the ND measurements are reported elsewhere (19). The angles  $\Gamma$  and  $\Omega$  are associated with the reciprocal space coordinates  $q_z$  and  $q_{||}$ , i.e., the scattering vector components perpendicular and parallel to the sample plane, respectively, according to the geometrical relations  $q_z = (2\pi/\lambda)[\sin(\Gamma - \Omega) + \sin(\Omega)]$  and  $q_{||} = (2\pi/\lambda)[\cos(\Gamma - \Omega) - \cos(\Omega)]$ , see Fig 2C. The main panel of Fig. 2D shows a typical reciprocal space map, i.e., a map of the intensity as a function of  $q_z$  and  $q_{||}$ , termed  $S(q_z, q_{||})$  in the following. It features the characteristic horizontal "Bragg sheets" of planar membrane multilayers (32). While the scattering intensity along the specular line ( $\Gamma = 2\Omega$ ,  $q_{||} = 0$ , see Fig. 2D right) contains information on the structure perpendicular to the surface (notably the lamellar periodicity as encoded in the Bragg peak positions and the scattering length density profile as encoded in the peak intensities), the diffuse scattering intensity ( $\Gamma \neq 2\Omega$ ,  $q_{||} \neq 0$ ) along the Bragg sheets additionally contains information on the in-plane structure, notably the membrane fluctuations in terms of their spatial self- and cross-correlation functions. Within the framework of a *Discrete Smectic Hamiltonian* of interacting multilayers, these correlation functions are in turn governed by the mechanical properties of the interacting membranes in terms of the membrane bending modulus  $\kappa$  and the inter-membrane compression modulus  $B$  (33). As we have shown earlier, the experimentally obtained reciprocal space maps within this framework can be

satisfactorily modeled solely based on the underlying mechanical parameters  $\kappa$  and  $B$ , and on an empirical cut-off parameter termed  $R$  (8, 19, 34). In practice, this procedure relies on the *kinematic approximation* (KA) of wave scattering, because application of the more accurate *distorted-wave Born approximation* (35) would require detailed additional knowledge of the sample structure, which is unavailable. As a consequence, our KA-based treatment, which is only valid wherever the intensity is weak compared to the incident beam, does not correctly capture the specular maximum of the first Bragg sheet, where this condition is typically violated. While in the past, we therefore ignored the first Bragg sheet and relied on the second one (8, 19, 34), we here combine information from the first two Bragg sheets (see Fig. 4): while the Caillé parameter

$$\eta = \pi k_B T / (2d^2 \sqrt{\kappa B/d}) \quad (1)$$

is obtained from the specular/diffuse scattering intensity ratio in the second Bragg sheet, the de Gennes parameter

$$\Lambda = \sqrt{\kappa/(Bd)} \quad (2)$$

is obtained from the decay of the off-specular intensity in the first Bragg sheet along  $q_{||}$ , excluding the specular intensity which violates the KA. The best-matching values of  $\eta$ ,  $\Lambda$ , and  $R$  are then determined by their systematic variation in the model until the best agreement with the experimental data is achieved. Finally, the mechanical parameters are obtained by solving Eqs. 1 and 2 for  $\kappa$  and  $B$ .

ND measurements were conducted above the matrix lipid phase transition temperature (Table 1), either at 30 °C (for samples based on POPC) or 50 °C (for samples based on DMPC or DPPC). For measurements at controlled osmotic pressure, the beamline humidity chamber was used (36) providing simultaneous control of temperature and relative humidity ( $h_{rel}$ ). The corresponding osmotic pressure is given as

$$\Pi = \frac{k_B T}{v_w} \ln(h_{rel}), \quad (3)$$

where  $v_w = 0.03 \text{ nm}^3$  denotes the molecular volume of water and  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann constant. For measurements under bulk water conditions a “sandwich” cell, composed of two parallel chips was used (34). To achieve optimal scattering length density contrast, the samples were measured with  $D_2O$  vapor or in  $D_2O$ -based buffers.

### 3. Results and discussion

Fig. 1A schematically illustrates self-assembled multilayers of lipid membranes interacting in an aqueous environment. The membranes are composed of up to three lipid components with molar fractions  $f$ , where  $f = 1$  corresponds to 100 mol%. Phosphatidylcholine (PC) lipids POPC, DMPC and DPPC are used as matrix with mole fraction  $f_{PC} = 1 - f_{gly} - f_{neg}$  accommodating glycolipids (see Fig. 1B) with mole fraction  $f_{gly} \in \{0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5\}$  and negatively charged lipids (with phosphatidylserine (PS) or phosphatidylglycerol (PG) headgroups) with mole fraction  $f_{neg} \in \{0, 0.01, 0.02, 0.05\}$ . The negatively charged lipids are introduced in order to exert defined repulsive electrostatic forces between neighboring membranes (see further below). For each glycolipid species the PC lipid and negatively charged lipid species were chosen to match the alkyl chain length of the glycolipid and the respective

number and position of double bonds in the chain (see Table 2), in order to assure miscibility of all three lipid components.

**Table 2:** Investigated glycolipids together with the corresponding matrix lipids and negatively charged lipids (if applicable).

glycolipid	abbrev.	matrix lipid	neg. charged lipid
N-hexadecanoyl lactosyl-ceramide	<i>LacCer-sat</i>	DMPC	DMPG
N-Pentadecanoyl psychosine	<i>Psyc-sat</i>	DMPC	DMPG
Monogalactosyldiacylglycerol saturated	<i>MGDG-sat</i>	DMPC	DMPG
Monogalactosyldiacylglycerol unsaturated	<i>MGDG-unsat</i>	POPC	POPS
Digalactosyldiacylglycerol saturated	<i>DGDG-sat</i>	DMPC	DMPG
Digalactosyldiacylglycerol unsaturated	<i>DGDG-unsat</i>	POPC	POPS
N-hexadecanoyl-ceramide trishexoside	<i>Trihexo-sat</i>	DMPC	DMPG
Gangliotetraosyl-ceramide	<i>TetraG-sat</i>	DPPC	DPPG

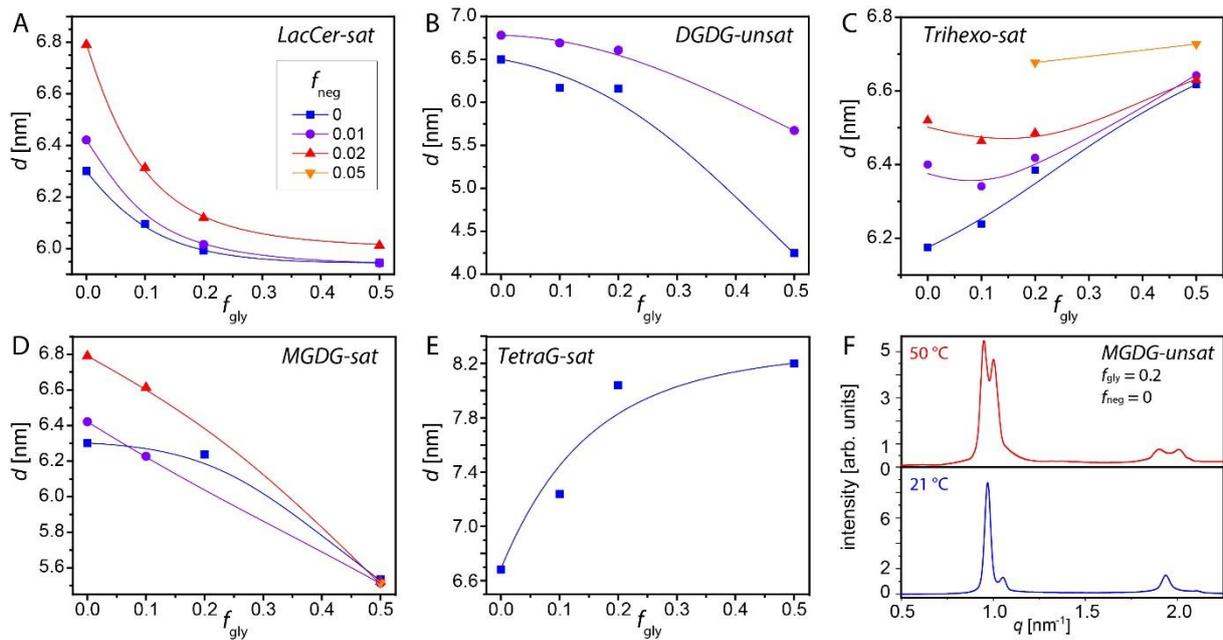
The configuration illustrated in Fig. 1A equally applies to the multilayered membrane aggregates investigated by SAXS/WAXS and to the solid-supported aligned multilayers investigated by ND. The separation between the surfaces of neighboring membranes, i.e., the water layer thickness  $d_w$ , is encoded in the lamellar period  $d$  of the multilayers, according to  $d = d_m + d_w$ , where  $d_m$  denotes the membrane thickness.

The plots in Fig. 3 show  $d$  as a function of the glycolipid mole fraction for selected glycolipid types. The values of  $d$  are obtained from the  $q$ -positions of the Bragg peaks, as  $d = 2n\pi/q_{\text{peak}}$ , where  $n$  ( $= 1, 2, \dots$ ) is the order of the peak (see Methods section). It should be noted that the lipid membranes are in the biologically relevant fluid  $L_\alpha$ -phase, indicated by the absence of a chain-ordering peak in the WAXS region (31) (see Fig. 2B). When neglecting variations in the membrane thickness, a reduction in  $d$  upon addition of glycolipids indicates that the contribution of the glycolipids to the membrane interaction is attractive, while an increase indicates a repulsive contribution. Similarly, the observed increase in  $d$  upon addition of negatively charged lipids reflects their repulsive electrostatic contribution to the membrane interaction. For weakly charged surfaces in a monovalent electrolyte the pressure  $\Pi_{el}$  associated with the electrostatic repulsion is given as (37):

$$\Pi_{el}(d_w) \cong 2k_B T \rho_0 [\cosh(e\psi_m(d_w)/k_B T) - 1], \quad (4)$$

where  $\rho_0$  is the number density of monovalent ions according to their bulk concentration of  $c_0 = 100$  mM,  $e$  is the electron charge, and  $\psi_m$  is the electric potential at the midplane (i.e., the center of the water layer), which depends on the charge density of the surfaces (see SI) and is thus determined by  $f_{\text{neg}}$ . Note that the strength of the repulsion may be affected in general by charge regulation when the charged groups are protonable (38). The repulsion associated with the incorporation of negatively charged lipids is seen most prominently for interacting PC membranes without glycolipids ( $f_{\text{gly}} = 0$ , see Fig. 3), where  $d$ , and thus the membrane separation  $d_w$ , considerably increases with increasing  $f_{\text{neg}}$ . The extent of this increase is governed by a subtle balance of interfacial forces acting between the membranes, namely van der Waals attraction on one side versus hydration repulsion (9, 39), undulation repulsion, and electrostatic repulsion on the other side (16). For DMPC bilayers with

$f_{\text{neg}} = 0.02$  in 100 mM monovalent salt at  $d = 6.3$  nm (see Fig. 3A),  $d_w = 2.8$  nm (as follows from  $d_m = 3.5$  nm (40)), and Eq. 4 yields  $\Pi_{\text{el}} \approx 4 \cdot 10^3$  Pa, comparable to the hydration repulsion and the van der Waals attraction at the same separation, both on the order of  $10^3 - 10^4$  Pa (41). It should be noted that when introducing charged lipids one strictly does not only introduce charge but may also induce other changes, albeit the former can be considered to be the dominant effect. Varying the electrostatic repulsion alternatively by variation of the salt concentration must be considered problematic because ions can influence the saccharide binding (42, 43) and lead to effective surface charges due to preferential interactions with PC lipids (19, 44) or glycolipids (45).



**Figure 3:** Lamellar periodicities  $d$  obtained by SAXS for of PC lipid membrane multilayers containing different fractions  $f_{\text{gly}}$  of glycolipids and  $f_{\text{neg}}$  of negatively charged lipids. (A) *LacCer-sat*, (B) *DGDG-unsat*, (C) *Trihexo-sat*, (D) *MGDG-sat*, and (E) *TetraG-sat*. Solid lines are guides to the eye. The measurements were conducted at 21 °C (B) or 50 °C (A, C, D, E). (F) Radial plots of the integration in azimuthal direction of the SAXS patterns of PC lipid membranes containing *MGDG-unsat* ( $f_{\text{gly}} = 0.2$ ,  $f_{\text{neg}} = 0$ ) at 21 °C (bottom) and 50 °C (top).

In the following, the influence of the glycolipid type and mole fraction on the interaction of PC lipid membranes is discussed. Fig. 3A shows  $d(f_{\text{gly}})$  for DMPC membranes loaded with *LacCer-sat*, a glycolipid with a disaccharide headgroup (see Fig. 1B). In the absence of negatively-charged lipids ( $f_{\text{neg}} = 0$ ),  $d$  assumes a value of  $\approx 6.3$  nm at  $f_{\text{gly}} = 0$ , in agreement with the literature (40). It decreases as a function of  $f_{\text{gly}}$  until it saturates at  $d \approx 6.0$  nm, a value that appears to be governed by this particular glycolipid. The  $f_{\text{gly}}$ -dependence of  $d$  is clearly non-linear: already low *LacCer-sat* fractions ( $f_{\text{gly}} = 0.1$ ) lead to a considerable reduction in  $d$ , which suggests that the glycolipids are able to pull the membranes closer together. Even more strikingly, the impact of negatively-charged lipids (DMPG) on  $d$  diminishes systematically with increasing  $f_{\text{gly}}$ . While the pure phospholipid membranes ( $f_{\text{gly}} = 0$ ) exhibit a response of as much as  $\Delta d \approx 0.5$  nm to the incorporation of 2 mol% negatively-charged lipids ( $f_{\text{neg}} = 0.02$ ), a much weaker response to the same level of electrostatic repulsion is observed when the membranes contain *LacCer-sat* ( $\Delta d \approx 0.15$  nm at  $f_{\text{gly}} = 0.2$ ;  $\Delta d \approx 0.08$  nm at  $f_{\text{gly}} = 0.5$ ). This result is very similar to what was

reported earlier for the special *LewisX* trisaccharide motif (19) and clearly indicates that *LacCer-sat* glycolipids with disaccharide headgroups hold the membranes together, even against electrostatic repulsion. The remaining variability in  $d$  even under crosslinked conditions reflects that the lipid tails anchoring the saccharides into the bilayers are not entirely rigid but can be partially pulled out of the bilayers when subject to tensile forces. Moreover, the binding between two saccharides itself must be considered “diffuse”, meaning that it can involve a number of different configurations with different “bond lengths” (46). In contrast, for a glycolipid with a different disaccharide headgroup (*DGDG-unsat*, incorporated in a POPC matrix, see Fig. 3B) there is no indication of such membrane crosslinking. Instead of observing a strong response of the periodicity already at low  $f_{\text{gly}}$ , followed by a saturation, pronounced changes only occur for high  $f_{\text{gly}}$  and without any indication of saturation. Moreover, the effect of negative charges remains pronounced even at high  $f_{\text{gly}}$ , in contrast to the case of *LacCer-sat*. The simplest explanation for this qualitatively different behavior is that the di-galactose headgroups of *DGDG-unsat* have a much weaker tendency to be engaged in homotypic inter-membrane “binding” than the lactose headgroups of *LacCer-sat*. Fig. 3C shows  $d(f_{\text{gly}})$  for DMPC membranes loaded with *Trihexo-sat*, a glycolipid with a trisaccharide headgroup (see Fig. 1B). The overall behavior is similar to that of *LacCer-sat*, but the value at which  $d$  saturates for high  $f_{\text{gly}}$  ( $d \approx 6.6$  nm), i.e., the membrane separation preferred by this saccharide headgroup, is larger than that of the pure PC membranes ( $d \approx 6.2$  nm), which can be attributed to the bulkier trisaccharide headgroups. As in case of *LacCer-sat*,  $d$  becomes rather insensitive to electrostatic repulsion for sufficiently high glycolipid fractions. In fact, for  $f_{\text{gly}} \geq 0.2$ , the adjacent membranes are still stably crosslinked by *Trihexo-sat* even at comparatively high fractions of negatively-charged DMPG lipids ( $f_{\text{neg}} = 0.05$ ), while for  $f_{\text{gly}} \leq 0.1$  the multilamellar architecture is not stable against the considerable electrostatic repulsion and no lamellar periodicity can be specified. When comparing the chemistries of *LacCer-sat* and *Trihexo-sat* (which are both found to hold membranes together) with that of *DGDG-unsat* (which does not hold membranes together), one apparent difference is that the former two comprise a lactose motif, while the latter does not. This correlation may suggest that lactose strongly contributes to preferential interactions favoring homotypic saccharide contacts. In fact, lactose is much less water-soluble ( $\approx 19$  g/dL) than other abundant disaccharides (47-49) like sucrose ( $\approx 200$  g/dL), maltose ( $\approx 110$  g/dL), or trehalose ( $\approx 70$  g/dL), reflecting favorable lactose-lactose interactions in water, in line with the above hypothesis.

Coming back to Fig. 3, panel D shows  $d(f_{\text{gly}})$  for DMPC membranes loaded with *MGDG-sat*, a glycolipid with a mono-galactose headgroup (see Fig. 1B). Independent of the fraction of negatively-charged lipids (DMPG),  $d$  decreases with increasing  $f_{\text{gly}}$  until it reaches a value of  $d \approx 5.5$  nm at  $f_{\text{gly}} = 0.5$ . As in case of *DGDG-unsat*, the decrease is approximately linear with  $f_{\text{gly}}$  and does not exhibit any tendency of saturation. However, in contrast to *DGDG-unsat*,  $d$  for *MGDG-sat* is less sensitive to electrostatic repulsion for high  $f_{\text{gly}}$ . This may indicate that the mono-galactose headgroups of *MGDG-sat* in principle have the tendency to engage into homotypic membrane binding, but are sterically hindered for low  $f_{\text{gly}}$  because they are “buried” within the PC headgroup layer due to their compactness. This interpretation is corroborated by the observation that also other glycolipids with monosaccharide headgroups are unable to crosslink PC lipid membranes at low  $f_{\text{gly}}$  (for example *Psyc-sat*, see SI). Fig. 3E shows  $d(f_{\text{gly}})$  for DPPC membranes loaded with *TetraG-sat*, a glycolipid with a linear tetrasaccharide headgroup (see Fig. 1B). It is seen that  $d$  strongly increases with  $f_{\text{gly}}$ , first rapidly until it saturates at  $d \approx 8.1$  nm. For these glycolipids with their comparatively bulky headgroups, steric repulsion appears to be dominating the membranes’ equilibrium separation, while the influence of electrostatic repulsion via incorporation of negatively charged lipids ( $f_{\text{neg}} \neq 0$ ) is insignificant (see Supporting

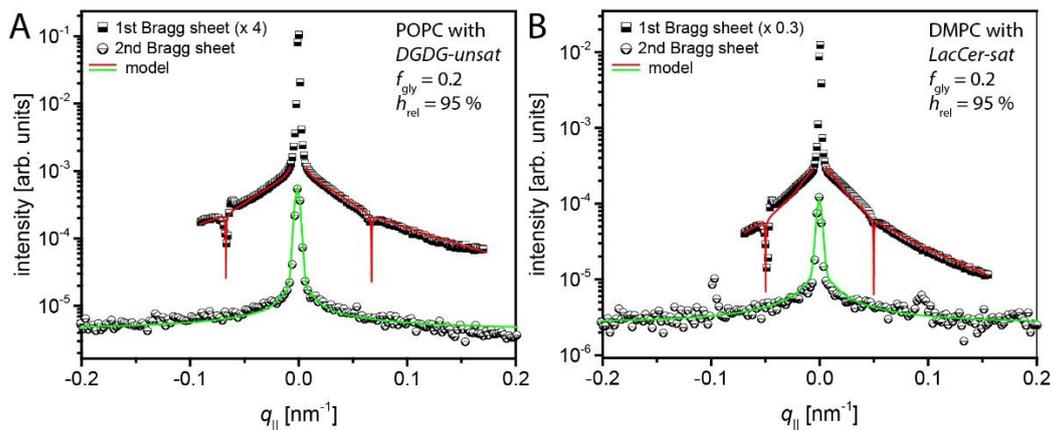
Information). The  $f_{\text{gly}}$ -dependence of  $d$  is reminiscent of that of DPPC membranes loaded with *LewisX* lipids, whose headgroups are of similar bulkiness (19).

Finally, it should be noted that incorporation of glycolipids into PC lipid membranes can affect the lamellar periodicity  $d$  also in an indirect way, via their influence on the membrane thickness  $d_m$  (see Fig. 1A). This effect, which can be assumed to be approximately linear in  $f_{\text{gly}}$ , however, does not impede the conclusions drawn here, because it does not affect the response of  $d$  to electrostatic repulsion.

As exemplified in Fig. 3F for *MGDG-unsat* at  $f_{\text{gly}} = 0.2$  and  $f_{\text{neg}} = 0$ , significant splitting of the SAXS Bragg peaks is observed in certain cases, indicating that phase separation into membrane multilayers with different lamellar periodicities occurs. This phase separation can be attributed to conflicting membrane separations preferred by the attraction-inducing membrane components (the glycolipids) and the more repulsive membrane components (the phospholipids). Interestingly, the separation is found predominantly for glycolipids with monosaccharide headgroups (*MGDG* and *Psyc*), which are unable to establish direct inter-bilayer-contacts under monophasic conditions, where they do not protrude from the headgroup layer of the PC lipid matrix (see above). This behavior is observed at low temperature (21 °C, Fig. 3F bottom) and high temperature (50 °C, Fig. 3F top). It is closely related to the results of earlier microscopy studies on solid-supported lipid membranes comprising lipopolymers inducing steric repulsion and biotin-lipids inducing strong binding via streptavidin, where the adhesion was found to be accompanied by lateral phase separation featuring domains of tight adhesion (50, 51). More recently, the adhesion of multicomponent membranes containing attraction-inducing and repulsion-inducing components was also studied theoretically (52). In that work it was shown that the segregation pattern depends on the strength of the repulsive component which opposes binding. In view of these experimental and theoretical reports we conclude that the observed phase separation constitutes additional evidence for the glycolipids' tendency to induce attraction between neighboring lipid membranes. Coming back to the SAXS data in Fig. 3F, the coexistence of two sets of Bragg peaks indicates that the different phases are aligned in registry in the multilayers. As proposed by Kollmitzer et al. (53), such behavior can result from the different strengths of hydration (14) and undulation forces in the glycolipid-rich and phospholipid-rich phases.

In order to explore to what extent the glycolipids' crosslinking abilities identified here by SAXS have their manifestation also with regard to the mechanical properties of interacting membranes, neutron diffraction (ND) on solid-supported membrane multilayers was carried out. In an earlier study (19) such measurements revealed a considerable influence of the density of *LewisX* lipids (see Section 1) on the inter-membrane compression modulus  $B$  (see Section 2.4), reflecting a rigidification through the formation of saccharide bonds. Fig. 4 shows the first two Bragg sheets recorded by ND with a system unable to form bonds (POPC membranes loaded with *DGDG-unsat* at  $f_{\text{gly}} = 0.2$  and  $f_{\text{neg}} = 0$ , panel A) and with system able to form bonds (DMPC membranes loaded with *LacCer-sat* at  $f_{\text{gly}} = 0.2$  and  $f_{\text{neg}} = 0$ , panel B). Plotted are the  $q_z$ -integrated Bragg sheet intensities [Footnote 1] as functions of  $q_{\parallel}$ , featuring the respective central specular maxima symmetrically flanked by the slowly decaying diffuse scattering intensity. The latter is locally decorated with minima at conditions of high absorption ( $\Omega \approx 0$  and  $\Omega \approx \Gamma$ ) and peaks arising from multiple scattering effects (19). Both data sets are from measurements at  $h_{\text{rel}} = 95\%$  (corresponding to a moderate dehydrating osmotic pressure of  $\Pi \approx 8 \cdot 10^6$  Pa, see Eq. 3) and not from measurements under bulk water conditions, where the intensities of the second Bragg sheets were found to be too weak to be analyzed (see SI). Reason for these low intensities is a minimum in the membrane form factor, which essentially coincides with the position of second Bragg sheets due

to near-identical thicknesses of the hydrogenous region (the alkyl chain layer) and the deuterated region (the hydrated headgroup layer). In fact, even under the slightly dehydrated conditions shown in Fig. 4, the information contained in the second Bragg sheets (primarily on the Caillé parameter,  $\eta$ ) needed to be complemented with that of the first Bragg sheets (on the de Gennes parameter,  $\Lambda$ ), as described in Section 2.4. The solid lines superimposed to the experimental data points represent simulated Bragg sheet intensities corresponding to the best-matching parameters  $\eta$  and  $\Lambda$  in the continuum-mechanical model simultaneously describing the first and second Bragg sheets. Absorption close to  $\Omega \approx 0$  and  $\Omega \approx \Gamma$  was modeled as described in the SI.



**Figure 4:** Intensities of the first and second Bragg sheets of (A) POPC membranes loaded with *DGDG-unsat* at  $f_{\text{gly}} = 0.2$  and  $f_{\text{neg}} = 0$  and (B) DMPC membranes loaded with *LacCer-sat* at  $f_{\text{gly}} = 0.2$  and  $f_{\text{neg}} = 0$ , both at  $h_{\text{rel}} = 95\%$ . Solid lines: simulated intensities corresponding to the best-matching parameters  $\eta$  and  $\Lambda$  in the continuum-mechanical model (see main text).

The best-matching model parameters for both systems are summarized in Table 3, together with the mechanical parameters  $\kappa$  and  $B$  derived thereof according to Eqs. 1 and 2. For the membranes containing *DGDG-unsat* (unable to form saccharide bonds, see Fig. 3B) as well as for the membranes containing *LacCer-sat* (able to form saccharide bonds, see Fig. 3A) the obtained bending rigidities  $\kappa$  fall into the range of  $\approx 10^{-19}$  J (or  $\approx 25 k_B T$ ), consistent with earlier reports on membranes in the fluid  $L_\alpha$  phase (8, 19, 54, 55) and with the observation that  $\kappa$  is rather insensitive to the hydration level (8, 55). The similarity of the values obtained here with those reported earlier for glycolipid-free PC lipid membranes indicates that the saccharide headgroups at a lateral concentration of  $f_{\text{gly}} = 0.2$  do not influence the bending rigidity much, in line with our earlier work on *LewisX* lipids (19). Moving on to the compression moduli  $B$  in Table 3 we notice that their values differ considerably between the two investigated membrane systems. Surprisingly, the value is higher for the system unable to form saccharide bonds, in contrast to our earlier finding that  $B$  increases with increasing bond density, at least under bulk water conditions (19). This discrepancy suggests that under conditions of partial dehydration direct steric repulsion between the membrane surfaces rather than the bonds may be the dominant contribution to the compression modulus. Indeed, the moduli obtained here ( $B \geq 3$  MPa) are much higher than those obtained previously under bulk water conditions ( $< 1$  MPa) where the bonds were found to be the dominant contribution (19). Based on this notion we conclude that ND on

membrane multilayers in general is a promising approach to quantify the effect of saccharide binding on membrane mechanical properties, in particular when information from two Bragg sheets is exploited as introduced here. However, the detailed analysis of mechanical parameters under bulk water conditions requires avoiding unfavorably-placed form factor minima. In the future this can be achieved by the use of chain deuterated (matrix) lipids in combination with light water (H<sub>2</sub>O) or by the use of lipids with significantly longer or shorter tails.

**Footnote 1:** In practice, the integration is performed in  $\Gamma$ -direction (8, 19, 34).

**Table 3:** Best-matching parameters, as obtained by ND, of selected membrane multilayer systems containing glycolipids: Caillé parameter  $\eta$ ; De Gennes parameter  $\Lambda$ ; cut-off Radius  $R$  for the first two Bragg sheets (BS); membrane bending modulus  $\kappa$ ; inter-membrane compression modulus  $B$  (see Methods Section for definitions).

Sample: <i>glycolipid</i> /phospholipid	$h_{rel}$	$T$ [°C]	$\eta$	$\Lambda$ [Å]	$R$ [μm] for 1. BS/2. BS	$\kappa$ [J]	$\kappa$ [ $k_B T$ ]	$B$ [MPa]
<i>DGDG-unsat</i> /POPC, $f_{gly} = 0.2; f_{neg} = 0$	95 %	30	0.015	12	2.5 / 1.2	$1.1 \cdot 10^{-19}$	27	16
<i>LacCer-sat</i> /DMPC, $f_{gly} = 0.2; f_{neg} = 0$	95 %	50	0.029	25	1.1 / 1.1	$1.1 \cdot 10^{-19}$	25	3

## 4. Conclusions

With the help of x-ray and neutron scattering techniques we have studied the influence of various commercially-available glycolipids on the interaction between adjacent phospholipid bilayers, in order to test whether or not the glycolipids promote membrane adhesion via the formation of saccharide bonds. Some of the saccharide headgroup types investigated were found to be able to bind adjacent membranes together, even against repulsive forces generated by introducing defined fractions of negatively charged phospholipids. This finding indicates that glycolipid-mediated membrane adhesion is potentially highly abundant in biology and therefore merits further investigation in particular with regard to its biological role. In the present work, the cross-linking ability of glycolipids was not found to have any significant influence on the membrane bending rigidity. In certain cases, headgroup-driven phase separation into membrane multilayers with different lamellar periodicities occurs due to the conflicting membrane separations preferred by the glycolipids and the phospholipids.

### Associated content

### Supporting information

### Acknowledgements

We thank Helmholtz-Zentrum-Berlin (HZB) and Institut Laue-Langevin (ILL) for beam time allocation (<https://doi.ill.fr/10.5291/ILL-DATA.8-02-812>), the ILL/PSCM laboratories for support during sample preparation and pre-characterization, Stefan Siegel and Chenghao Li for support during the SAXS experiments, Giuseppe Rosario Del Sorbo for support during the ND experiments and Thomas Weikl for insightful comments. Financial support by the Max Planck Society and by the German Research Foundation (DFG) via Emmy-Noether grant (SCHN 1396/1) is gratefully acknowledged.

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