# Guanidination of notexin alters its membrane-damaging activity in response to sphingomyelin and cholesterol

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To elucidate the contribution of phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> (PLA<sub>2</sub>) activity of notexin to its ability to perturb membranes, comparative studies on the interaction of notexin and guanidinated notexin (Gu-notexin) with egg yolk phosphatidylcholine (EYPC), EYPC/egg yolk sphingomyelin (EYSM) and EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles were conducted. EYSM notably reduced the membrane-damaging activity of notexin against EYPC vesicles, but had an insignificant influence on that of Gu-notexin. Unlike the effects noted with notexin, inactivation of PLA<sub>2</sub> activity by EDTA led to a reduction in the ability of Gu-notexin to induce EYPC/EYSM vesicle leakage and to increase Gu-notexin-induced membrane permeability of EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles. The geometrical arrangement of notexin and Gu-notexin in contact with either EYPC/EYSM vesicles or EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles differed. Moreover, global conformation of notexin and Gu-notexin differed in either Ca<sup>2+</sup>-bound or metal-free states. These results indicate that notexin and Gu-notexin could induce membrane permeability without the involvement of PLA<sub>2</sub> activity, and suggest that guanidination alters the membrane-bound mode of notexin on damaging phospholipid vesicles containing sphingomyelin and cholesterol.

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## 1. Introduction

Notexin, a presynaptic phospholipase  $A_2$  (PLA<sub>2</sub>) neurotoxin purified from the venom of *Notechis scutatus scutatus*, is a basic protein with 119 amino acids and 7 disulphide bridges (Westerlund *et al.* 1992). Apart from its presynaptic neurotoxicity, which blocks neuromuscular transmission by affecting the release of acetylcholine, notexin exhibits PLA<sub>2</sub> activity and myotoxicity (Rigoni *et al.* 2004; Plant *et al.* 2006). X-ray crystallographic analyses reveal that notexin is structurally homologous to PLA<sub>2</sub> enzymes from the mammalian pancreas and snake venom (Westerlund *et al.* 1992). As presynaptic PLA<sub>2</sub> neurotoxins show both PLA<sub>2</sub> activity and presynaptic neurotoxicity (Harris 1991), it is important to clarify the role of enzymatic activity in inducing the toxic effect. There is considerable evidence in favour of the essential role of PLA<sub>2</sub> activity involved in presynaptic neurotoxicity (Harris 1991; Rigoni *et al.* 2005). Nevertheless, there is no quantitative relationship between PLA<sub>2</sub> activity and presynaptic potency (Wilson and Nicholson 1997; Rosenberg 1997; Rigoni *et al.* 2004; Paoli *et al.* 2009). Chemical modification studies with presynaptic PLA<sub>2</sub> neurotoxins show a dissociation of enzymatic activity from lethal toxicity (Yang 1997). Taken together, it is likely that a catalytic activity-independent mechanism contributes

Keywords. Cholesterol; guanidination; membrane-damaging activity; notexin; phospholipase A,; sphingomyelin.

Abbreviations used: CD, circular dichroism; EYPC, egg yolk phosphatidylcholine; EYSM, egg yolk sphingomyelin; FTIR, Fourier transform infrared; PLA<sub>2</sub>, phospholipase A<sub>2</sub>

at least in part to the cytotoxicity and pharmacological activities of presynaptic neurotoxins.

The outer-membrane leaflet of mammalian cells is composed mainly of phosphatidylcholine, sphingomyelin and cholesterol (Gurr et al. 2002). Previous studies indicated that the presence of sphingomyelin inhibits the enzymatic activity of human-secreted PLA, against phosphatidylcholine (Koumanov et al. 1998; Gesquiere et al. 2002). Moreover, packing sphingomyelin and cholesterol relieves the inhibitory effect of sphingomyelin on PLA, activity (Koumanov et al. 1998). Noticeably, Paoli et al. (2009) found that the PLA, activity of presynaptic neurotoxins on cultured neurons was at least 100-fold lower than their activity on synthetic substrate, the 1,2-dithio analogue of di-heptanoyl phosphatidylcholine. Moreover, their studies suggest that the main site of action of notexin and other presynaptic PLA, neurotoxins is the outer layer of the plasma membrane. Thus, studies on the interaction of notexin with phosphatidylcholine/sphingomyelin and phosphatidylcholine/sphingomyelin/cholesterol vesicles may provide clues to elucidate the contribution of PLA, activity to damage membrane. Guanidination of notexin caused a reduction in its PLA, activity (Yang and Chang 1990). Investigation into the ability of guanidinated notexin (Gu-notexin) to induce membrane permeability should throw more light on the PLA, activity association with membrane-damaging activity. Our data revealed that the ability of notexin and Gu-notexin to damage phospholipid vesicles was affected in different ways by sphingomyelin and cholesterol. This suggested that PLA, activity, membranebound mode and phospholipid compositions contributed unequally to the membrane-damaging activity of notexin and Gu-notexin.

#### 2. Materials and methods

Notexin was purified from Notechis scutatus scutatus venom according to the procedure described previously (Chang 1996). Guanidination of notexin with O-methylisourea was prepared according to the procedure described in Yang and Chang (1990). Calcein, cholesterol, EDTA, egg yolk phosphatidylcholine (EYPC) and egg yolk sphingomyelin (EYSM) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Inc., and 10, 12-tricosadiynoic acid was obtained from Fluka. 1,2-bis-(1pyrene- decanoyl)-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (bisPy-PC) and N-(fluorescein-5- thiocarbamoyl)-1,2-dihexadecanoylphosphatidylethanolamine (FPE) were the products of Molecular Probes, and 1-palmitoyl-2-(6,7-dibromostearoyl) phosphatidylcholine (6,7-Br,PC), 1-palmitoyl-2-(9,10dibromostearoyl) phosphatidylcholine (9,10-Br,PC) and 1-palmitoyl-2-(11,12-dibromostearoyl) phosphatidylcholine (11,12-Br,PC) were from Avanti Polar Lipids. Sepharose 6B was obtained from Amersham Biosciences. All other reagents were products of analytical grade.

PLA, activity was measured by a fluorescence assay, using vesicles that contained 5 mol% bisPy-PC. The vesicles were prepared by extrusion through 100 nm polycarbonate membrane. A fluorescence spectrum of vesicles with bisPy-PC was measured between 360 and 500 nm using an excitation wavelength at 347 nm. All measurements were conducted under constant stirring. The emission spectrum of monomeric pyrene had two peaks around 378 and 396 nm, whereas the proximity of pyrene moieties resulted in a strong excimer peak around 470 nm (Ray et al. 2007). Lipid hydrolysis by notexin caused a decrease in the excimer signal at 470 nm and increase in the monomer signal at 378 nm and 396 nm because of the two pyrene moieties separated from each other. The activity was calculated as  $R/R_0$  -1, where  $R_i$  is the ratio of fluorescence intensities at 378 and 470 nm at time t,  $R_i = (F_{378}/F_{470})_i$ , and  $R_0$  is  $R_i$  before addition of notexin.

# 2.2 Release of entrapped fluorescent markers from liposomes

Membrane-damaging activity was determined by measuring the release of the liposome-entrapped, self-quenching fluorescent dye calcein according to the procedure described by Kao et al. (2007). Loss of liposome membrane integrity results in dilution of the fluorophore, with a consequent increase in the fluorescence signal. Lipid mixtures with indicated compositions were dissolved in chloroform/ methanol (v/v, 2:1) at a molar ratio of 9:1 and dried by evaporation. Buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.5, with 5 mM CaCl, or 5 mM EDTA) containing 50 mM calcein was added to the film of lipids, and after hydration the suspension was shaken vigorously. The multilamellar vesicles obtained in this way were extruded 10 times, above the transition temperature, through a 100 nm polycarbonate filter and applied to a Sepharose 6B column ( $2 \times 15$  cm) to separate the liposome from the free calcein. Leakage was induced by adding aliquots of toxin to a vesicle suspension directly in the cuvette used for fluorescence determination at 30°C. The kinetics of membrane damage was monitored by the increase in fluorescence with emission at 520 nm and excitation at 490 nm, and the signal was expressed as percentage of total calcein release after the addition of 0.2% Triton X-100.

### 2.3 Lipid-binding experiments

FPE was incorporated at 2 mol% into EYPC/EYSM or EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles, which were prepared by extrusion through 100 nm pore size polycarbonate filters.

Excitation was at 490 nm, and emission intensity at 515 nm was monitored. Binding of notexin with phospholipid vesicles (8.14  $\mu$ M) caused an increase in fluorescence emission intensity ( $\Delta F$ ) of FPE.

# 2.4 Colorimetric phospholipid/polydiacetylene membrane assay

The penetration of notexin into phospholipid/polydiacetylene (PDA) vesicles was detected according to the methods described by Kolusheva et al. (2008). EYPC/EYSM/10,12tricosadiynoic acid (4.9:2.1:3 molar ratio) or EYPC/EYSM/ cholesterol/10,12-tricosadiynoic acid (3.43:1.47:2.1:3 molar ratio) was dissolved in chloroform/ethanol (1:1, v/v) and dried together in vacuo followed by addition of de-ionized water and sonication at 70°C. The vesicle solution was then cooled to room temperature and kept at 4°C overnight. The vesicles were then polymerized using irradiation at 254 nm for 30–40 s, with the resulting phospholipid/PDA solution exhibiting an intense blue colour. Vesicle samples for experiments were prepared at a concentration of 0.5 mM (total lipid) in 10 mM Tris-HCl-100 mM NaCl (pH 7.5) containing 5 mM Ca<sup>2+</sup> or 5 mM EDTA. Following the addition of notexin, the changes in absorbance at 500 nm and 640 nm of vesicle solution were measured.

A quantitative value for the extent of blue-to-red colour transitions within the vesicle solutions is given by the colorimetric response (%CR), which is defined as follows: %CR =  $[(PB_0 - PB_1)/PB_0] \times 100$ , where  $PB = A_{640}/(A_{640} + A_{500})$ ,  $A_{640}$  and  $A_{500}$  are the absorbance measured at 640 nm and 500 nm, respectively.  $PB_0$  is the  $A_{640}/A_{500}$  ratio of the control sample (before the addition of notexin), and  $PB_1$  is the value obtained for the vesicle solution after the addition of notexin. All reported %CR values were averages of six independent measurements.

### 2.5 Circular dichroism measurement

Circular dichroism (CD) spectra were obtained on a Jasco J-810 spectropolarimeter with a cell path-length of 0.5 mm. The CD spectra were measured from 260 nm to 190 nm, and CD spectra were obtained by averaging the signals of five scans.

# 2.6 Analyses of Fourier transform infrared spectra of notexin and Gu-notexin

Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra were measured using a 66 v/s FTIR spectrometer (Bruker Optics). Notexin and Gu-notexin were dissolved in D<sub>2</sub>O-based buffer containing 10 mM HEPES–100 mM NaCl (pH 7.5) with 5 mM CaCl, or 5 mM EDTA. Then, the samples were transferred to a demountable cell composed of two  $\text{CaF}_2$  windows separated by a 25  $\mu$ m Teflon spacer clamped together in a brass holder. The FTIR spectra were recorded at a spectral resolution of 2 cm<sup>-1</sup> for 200 scans, and then inverted to second-derivative spectra.

#### 2.7 Fluorescence measurement

The fluorescence intensity was measured by a Hitachi model 4500 spectrophotofluorometer using a 5 nm slit width. All measurements used a 1 cm path-length and were performed in a total volume of 2 ml of 10 mM Tris-HCl–100 mM NaCl (pH 7.5) containing 5 mM Ca<sup>2+</sup> or 5 mM EDTA. An excitation wavelength at 295 nm was employed to selectively excite the Trp residues.

# 2.8 Quenching of Trp residues by brominated phosphatidylcholines

The depth of membrane insertion of notexin and Gu-notexin was determined by using differential quenching of Trp fluorescence by  $Br_2PCs$  brominated at the 6,7-, 9,10- or 11,12-positions of sn-2 acyl chain. Trp fluorescence spectra of toxins were measured in the presence of EYPC/EYSM and EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles with and without 20 mol%  $Br_2PCs$  in 10 mM Tris-HCl–100 mM NaCl (pH 7.5). In the distribution analysis, the depth of the Trp residues was calculated by fitting the data to the following equation (Zhao and Kinnunen 2002):

$$\ln F_0/F = [S/\sigma(2\pi)^{1/2}] \cdot \exp[-(h-h_m)^2/2\sigma^2].$$

Where  $F_{o}$  and F represent the fluorescence intensities without and with the quencher, S is the area under the distribution curve (a measurement of the effectiveness of quenching),  $\sigma$ is the dispersion (the half-width at half) of the distribution curve,  $h_{\rm m}$  is the most probable location of the fluorophore (Trp residues) with respect to the membrane center and h is the average bromine distances from the bilayer center, taken to be 11.0, 8.3 and 6.5 Å for 6,7-, 9,10- and 11,12-Br<sub>2</sub>PCs, respectively (McIntosh and Holloway 1987; Ladokhin 1997).

### 3. Results and discussion

The fluorescence intensity of FPE is sensitive to the ionization state of the carboxyl group of fluorescein, and the emission intensity increases with increasing deprotonation (Wall *et al.* 1995). Absorption of cationic protein to the membrane reduces the negative surface charge of the membrane and causes deprotonation of the carboxyl group of fluorescein, leading to an increase in FPE fluorescence intensity (Qin *et al.* 2005). Once the protein comes into

contact with the membrane, changes in FPE fluorescence intensity also report the protein reorganization events that arise from a modification of the charged profiles present at the membrane–water interface (Wall *et al.* 1995). As shown in figure 1, the FPE fluorescence intensity increased with increasing notexin or Gu-notexin concentrations. The FPE fluorescence enhancement by notexin or Gu-notexin binding with FPE/EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles was different from that with FPE/EYPC/EYSM vesicles regardless of the presence of Ca<sup>2+</sup>. This indicated that the geometrical arrangement of notexin and Gu-notexin in contact with EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol was different from that with EYPC/EYSM. Moreover, the fluorescence intensity enhancement of FPE/EYPC/EYSM or FPE/EYPC/EYSM/ cholesterol vesicles by notexin and Gu-notexin was not the same, suggesting that conformation and/or orientation of Gu-notexin on the water–lipid interface were different from those of notexin.

Previous studies have indicated that lipid/PDA vesicles mimic the cellular membrane environment and provide information on the binding of pore-forming peptides with the membrane (Kolusheva *et al.* 2000a,b). The blue-to-



**Figure 1.** The binding of notexin and Gu-notexin with FPE/EYPC/EYSM and FPE/EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles enhanced the fluorescence intensity of FPE. The experiments were performed in 10 mM Tris-HCl–100 mM NaCl (pH 7.5) containing 5 mM Ca<sup>2+</sup> (**A**, **C**) or 5 mM EDTA (**B**, **D**). (**A**, **B**) EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol (mol/mol/mol, 49/21/30) and (**C**, **D**) EYPC/EYSM (mol/mol, 70/30) vesicles were used in the present experiments. The abbreviation Chol represents cholesterol. The symbols • and  $\circ$  represent the binding of phospholipid vesicles with notexin and Gu-notexin, respectively.

red transformation in lipid/PDA vesicles depended on the disruption of the lipid interface by membrane-interacting compounds and on their penetration depth into the lipid bilayer (Kolusheva *et al.* 2000b). Peptides that preferably disrupted the lipid head-group region induced more pronounced color transitions (Kolusheva *et al.* 2000b, 2008). Thus, a higher colorimetric response (%CR) reflected a greater lipid–surface interaction. As shown in Figure 2, notexin or Gu-notexin binding with lipid/PDA vesicles

resulted in increased %CR. Compared with notexin, Gunotexin induced a notable increase in color transition of EYPC/EYSM/PDA or EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol/PDA vesicles either in the absence or presence of Ca<sup>2+</sup>. The colorimetric response (%CR) of EYPC/EYSM/PDA vesicles upon binding with Ca<sup>2+</sup>-bound or metal-free toxins was different from that of EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol/PDA vesicles, implying distinctive modes of interactions between notexin and Gu-notexin with the vesicle interface. To



Figure 2. Colorimetric dose–response curve of EYPC/EYSM/PDA and EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol/PDA vesicles titrated with notexin and Gu-notexin. The experiments were conducted essentially according to the procedure described in Materials and Methods section. All reported %CR values were averages of six independent measurements.

further examine the membrane-bound mode of notexin and Gu-notexin, intrinsic fluorescence quenching of notexin and Gu-notexin by bromine-labelled lipids was conducted Figure 3 shows that the Trp fluorescence of EYPC/EYSM/ cholesterol-bound or EYPC/EYSM-bound toxins was not equally quenched by bromine-labelled lipids. Upon binding with EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles, Trp fluorescence of notexin and Gu-notexin was more susceptible to quenching by 6,7-Br<sub>2</sub>PC and 9,10-Br<sub>2</sub>PC (figure 3A and 3B). Compared with that of Ca<sup>2+</sup>-bound notexin, the intrinsic fluorescence of Ca<sup>2+</sup>-bound Gu-notexin was notably quenched upon binding with EYPC/EYSM vesicles (figure 3C and 3D). The accessibility of Trp residues in Ca<sup>2+</sup>-bound Gu-notexin for 9,10-Br<sub>2</sub>PC and 11,12-Br<sub>2</sub>PC was higher than that for 6,7-



**Figure 3.** Quenching of Trp fluorescence of notexin and Gu-notexin by brominated lipids. The experiments were performed in 10 mM Tris-HCl–100 mM NaCl (pH 7.5) containing 5 mM Ca<sup>2+</sup> or 5 mM EDTA. Trp fluorescence of notexin and Gu-notexin were measured in the presence of unlabelled phospholipid vesicles ( $F_0$ ) and in the presence of phospholipid vesicles containing 20 mol% 6,7-, 9,10- or 11,12-Br<sub>2</sub>PCs (F). The concentration of toxins and phospholipid vesicles were 7.1  $\mu$ M and 213  $\mu$ M, respectively. (**A**, **B**) Quenching of Trp fluorescence of Ca<sup>2+</sup>-bound and metal-free toxins upon binding with EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles containing 6,7-, 9,10- or 11,12-Br<sub>2</sub>PCs. (**C**, **D**) Quenching of Trp fluorescence of Ca<sup>2+</sup>- bound and metal-free toxins upon binding with EYPC/EYSM vesicles containing 6,7-, 9,10- or 11,12-Br<sub>2</sub>PCs.

Br,PC in EYPC/EYSM vesicles, while that of metal-free Gu-notexin for 6,7-Br,PC and 9,10-Br,PC was higher than that for 11,12-Br,PC (figure 3C and 3D). From these data, the penetration depth  $(h_m)$  of Trp residues was calculated. Trp residues of Ca2+-bound notexin, Ca2+-bound Gu-notexin, metal-free notexin and metal-free Gu-notexin resided in EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles at distances of 9.81±0.02 Å, 9.65±0.03 Å, 9.54±0.04 Å and 9.33±0.02 Å, respectively, from the center of the bilayer. Alternatively, the bilayer penetration depth of Trp residues into EYPC/EYSM vesicles was 9.56±0.06 Å, 9.16±0.04 Å, 9.45±0.05 Å and 9.37±0.05 Å for Ca<sup>2+</sup>-bound notexin, Ca<sup>2+</sup>-bound Gu-notexin, metalfree notexin and metal-free Gu-notexin, respectively. Given that notexin and Gu-notexin exhibited significant penetration depth differences upon binding with EYPC/ EYSM/cholesterol vesicles and EYPC/EYSM vesicles, it again suggested distinctive modes of interactions between notexin and Gu-notexin with the vesicle interface. In view of that notexin contains two Trp residues at positions 20 and 110, the quenching of Trp fluorescence by brominated lipids could not conclusively delineate the depth of either Trp-20 or Trp-110 residing in EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles and EYPC/EYSM vesicles.

Conformation of  $Ca^{2+}$ -bound and metal-free toxins was further analysed using amide I band of the FTIR spectra. The amide I region (1600–1700 cm<sup>-1</sup>) in the FTIR spectrum contains contributions from the C=O stretching vibration of the amide group (about 80%) with a minor contribution from the C–N stretching vibration (Susi *et al.* 1985; Surewicz *et al.* 1993). Thus, alteration in secondary structure leads to a change in the amide I band of the FTIR spectrum. As shown in figure 4, the FTIR spectra of notexin and Gu-notexin differed regardless of the presence of  $Ca^{2+}$ . Moreover, the binding of  $Ca^{2+}$  caused a change in conformation of notexin and Gu-notexin distinct from their metal-free state. Obviously, global conformation of  $Ca^{2+}$ -bound toxin and metal-free toxin differed. Figures 5A–B show that intrinsic fluorescence intensity and emission maximum wavelength differed between  $Ca^{2+}$ -bound toxins and metal-free toxins, suggesting that  $Ca^{2+}$ -binding induced changes in the gross conformation of notexin and Gu-notexin. This suggestion was also supported by the findings that the CD spectra of  $Ca^{2+}$ -bound toxins significantly differed from those of metalfree toxins (figure 5C and 5D).

Given that Ca<sup>2+</sup> is a co-factor for catalytic activity of PLA, enzymes and presynaptic PLA, neurotoxins, the binding of Ca<sup>2+</sup> with notexin or removal of Ca<sup>2+</sup> by EDTA either triggers or halts PLA, activity, respectively. It was found that the percentage of calcein released from EYPC vesicles caused by Ca2+-bound notexin and Gu-notexin were 19.0±1.3% and 13.8±0.3%, respectively (figure 6A). The membrane-damaging activity of metal-free notexin and Gu-notexin against EYPC vesicles were 4.7±0.2% and 1.5±0.2%, respectively. Increased EYSM content ranging from 10 mol% to 50 mol% in EYPC vesicles caused a marked reduction in calcein release induced by Ca2+-bound notexin, while the ability of Ca2+-bound or metal-free Gunotexin to damage EYPC vesicles and EYPC/EYSM vesicles was similar. Metal-free notexin showed similar activity toward EYPC and EYPC/EYSM vesicles, while metal-free Gu-notexin-induced permeability in EYPC/EYSM vesicles were higher than that in EYPC vesicles (figure 6B). These results suggested that guanidination of notexin promoted a preference for damaging EYPC/EYSM vesicles. To examine



**Figure 4.** Inverted second-derivative amide I spectra of notexin and Gu-notexin. The second-derivative of FTIR spectra in the amide I region of notexin and Gu-notexin were measured in the presence of 5 mM  $Ca^{2+}$  (solid line) and 5 mM EDTA (short line). The buffer composition was 10 mM HEPES–100 mM NaCl in D<sub>2</sub>O (pH 7.5).



**Figure 5.** Trp fluorescence spectra and CD spectra of  $Ca^{2+}$ -bound notexin, metal-free notexin,  $Ca^{2+}$ -bound Gu-notexin and metal-free Gu-notexin and Gu-notexin were dissolved in 10 mM Tris–100 mM NaCl (pH 7.5) containing 5 mM Ca<sup>+2</sup> or 5 mM EDTA. Trp fluorescence spectra of notexin (**A**) and Gu-notexin (**B**) were measured using an exciting wavelength of 295 nm. Circular dichroism spectra of notexin (**C**) and Gu-notexin (**D**) were measured from 260 nm to 190 nm.

the cholesterol effect on the membrane-damaging activity of notexin and Gu-notexin, comparative studies on EYPC/ EYSM (mol/mol, 70/30) and EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol (mol/mol, 49/21/30) vesicles were conducted. Notexin and Gu-notexin showed a notably higher PLA, activity on EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles than that on EYPC or EYPC/EYSM vesicles (figure 6C). This was in line with previous studies that showed that cholesterol relieved the inhibitory effect of EYSM on PLA, activity (Koumanov et al. 1998). Nevertheless, the percentage of calcein released from EYPC/EYSM vesicles induced by Ca2+-bound notexin and Gu-notexin was similar to or even greater than that from EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles (figure 6D). This indicated that PLA, activity did not exclusively elucidate the ability of notexin and Gu-notexin to disrupt phospholipid vesicles. Unlike that of notexin, the membrane-damaging activity of Gu-notexin toward EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles was

markedly enhanced by reducing its  $PLA_2$  activity (figure 6D). These findings suggested that guanidination promoted the ability of Ca<sup>2+</sup>-free notexin to damage EYPC/EYSM/ cholesterol vesicles.

Our data show that notexin and Gu-notexin could induce permeability in EYPC, EYPC/EYSM and EYPC/EYSM/ cholesterol vesicles without the involvement of PLA<sub>2</sub> activity. Previous studies revealed that membrane-damaging activity of *Naja naja atra* and *Naja nigricollis* cardiotoxins is mediated through oligomerization and pore formation on the membrane (Chiou *et al.* 2009; Kao *et al.* 2009). Kao *et al.* (2007) proposed that notexin forms oligomeric complexes upon absorption onto the water–lipid interface. This may suggest a mode of notexin and Gu-notexin for disrupting phospholipid vesicles without the involvement of PLA<sub>2</sub> activity. Noticeably, guanidination of Lys residues alters global conformation and the membrane-bound mode



**Figure 6.** Effect of sphingomyelin and cholesterol on membrane-damaging activity of notexin and Gu-notexin. Notexin and Gu-notexin induced calcein release from vesicles comprising various molar ratios of EYPC and EYSM. The experiment was performed in 10 mM Tris-HCl-100 mM NaCl (pH 7.5) containing 5 mM Ca<sup>2+</sup>. Notexin and Gu-notexin were added at a final concentration of  $0.36 \,\mu$ M, and a lipid concentration of  $8.14 \,\mu$ M. Data are presented as mean±SD of six independent experiments. (**B**) Inactivation of PLA<sub>2</sub> activity on membrane-damaging activity of notexin and Gu-notexin. The experiment was performed in 10 mM Tris-HCl-100 mM NaCl (pH 7.5) containing 5 mM EDTA. (**C**) Cholesterol abolished inhibitory activity of EYSM on PLA<sub>2</sub> activity of notexin and Gu-notexin. The concentrations of protein and lipid vesicles used were  $0.36 \,\mu$ M and  $8.14 \,\mu$ M, respectively. The experiment was performed in 10 mM Tris-HCl-100 mM NaCl (pH7.5) containing 5 mM Ca<sup>2+</sup>. EYPC/EYSM (mol/mol, 70/30) and EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol (mol/mol, 49/21/30) vesicles were used in the present experiments. The abbreviation Chol represents cholesterol. (**D**) Notexin and Gu-notexin induced calcein release from EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol (mol/mol, 49/21/30) vesicles. The experiment was performed in 10 mM Tris-HCl-100 mM NaCl (pH7.5) containing 5 mM Ca<sup>2+</sup> or 5 mM EDTA. The concentrations of protein and lipid vesicles were 0.36  $\mu$ M, respectively.

of notexin. Compared with notexin, Gu-notexin is more effective in damaging EYPC/EYSM vesicles either in the absence or presence of Ca2+. Moreover, abolition of catalytic activity results in a marked increase in Gu-notexin-induced permeability of EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles. Taken together, these suggest that, in addition to catalytic activity, membrane-bound conformation plays a vital role in the membrane-damaging activity of Gu-notexin towards EYPC/ EYSM and EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles. Bakrac et al. (2008) suggested that specific binding of equinatoxin II with sphingomyelin is attributed to the presence of unique amido or hydroxyl groups on sphingomyelin, which is allowed to discriminate between sphingomyelin and phosphocholine below the head-group region. Alternatively, Schon et al. (2008) proposed that sphingomyelin functions as a specific receptor and as a promoter of membrane organization for the membrane-permeabilizing activity of equinatoxin II. The membrane-leakage action of notexin and Gu-notexin on EYPC/EYSM vesicles probably mediates partly through a similar mechanism. It is well known that packing sphingomyelin with cholesterol forms a lipid raft (Xu and London 2000). Nagahama et al. (2003) found that the cytotoxicity of Clostridium perfringens beta toxin is mediated through binding with the lipid raft, forming a functional oligomer. Moreover, the presence of membrane cholesterol in lipid raft is demonstrated to be essential for the pore formation and membrane-damaging activity of Clostridium perfringens beta toxin, Clostridium perfringens perfringolysin O, Streptococcus intermedius intermedilysin and Streptococcus pyogenes streptolysin O (Giddings et al. 2003; Nagahama et al. 2003; Heuck et al. 2007). Although cholesterol relieves the inhibitory effect of sphingomyelin on PLA, activity, notexin and Gu-notexin could induce the release of calcein from EYPC/EYSM/cholesterol vesicles underlying the deprivation of their PLA, activity. Thus, interaction with cholesterol or the lipid raft may be related to the membrane-permeabilizing activity of notexin and Gunotexin. In sum, the finding that the membrane-damaging activity of notexin and Gu-notexin could proceed in a PLA,activity-independent manner offers an interpretation for the lack of a strict correlation between PLA, activity and the pharmacological activities of presynaptic PLA, neurotoxins. The guanidination of notexin alters its gross conformation, membrane-interaction mode and preference for damaging vesicles with different compositions. Thus, in addition to PLA, activity, the membrane-bound mode and phospholipid compositions of the membrane bilayers affect the membranedamaging activity of notexin and Gu-notexin.

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