

1 Polymer-lipid hybrid membranes as a model  
2 platform to drive membrane-cytochrome c  
3 interaction and peroxidase-like activity

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9 ABSTRACT

10 Controllable attachment of proteins to material surfaces is very attractive for many applications  
11 including biosensors, bioengineered scaffolds or drug screenings. Especially, redox proteins have  
12 received considerable attention as a model system not only to understand mechanism of electron  
13 transfer in biological systems but also development of novel biosensors. However, current research  
14 attempts suffer from denaturation of the protein after its attachment to solid substrates. Here, we  
15 present how lipid, polymer and hybrid membranes based on mixtures of lipids and copolymers on solid  
16 support provide more favourable environment to drive selective and functional attachment of a model  
17 redox protein, cytochrome c (cyt c). Polymer membranes provided chemical versatility to support

18 covalent attachment of cyt c, whereas lipid membranes provided flexibility and biocompatibility to  
19 support insertion of cyt c through its hydrophobic part. Hybrid membranes combined the most  
20 promising characteristics of both lipids and polymers and allow attachment of cyt c with both covalent  
21 attachment and insertion driven by hydrophobic interactions. We then investigated the effect of  
22 different attachment strategies on the accessibility and peroxidase like activity of cyt c, in presence of  
23 the different membranes. The real-time combination of cyt c with the planar membranes was  
24 investigated by quartz crystal microbalance with dissipation (QCM-D). It was possible to selectively drive  
25 the insertion of the cyt c into a specific lipid domain of hybrid membranes. In addition, protein  
26 accessibility and its functionality were dependent on the specificity of the combination strategy:  
27 covalent conjugation of cyt c to polymer and hybrid membranes promoted higher accessibility and  
28 supported higher peroxidase-like activity. Taking together, the combination of biomolecules with planar  
29 membranes can be modulated such to improve the accessibility of the biomolecules and their resulting  
30 functionality for development of efficient “active surfaces”.

## 31 Introduction

32 Cell membranes consist of phospholipids, glycolipids and a large variety of proteins, responsible for  
33 active or passive transport and signalling<sup>1</sup>. One strategy to understand how biological membranes are  
34 associated with proteins, to support biological processes, is to utilize model membrane platforms. To  
35 date, naturally occurring or synthetic phospholipids and amphiphilic block copolymers have been used  
36 to create model membrane platforms<sup>2-4</sup> in combination with a variety of different biomolecules  
37 including proteins, peptides and receptors. So far, synthetic membranes have been characterized in a  
38 three-dimensional assembly (e.g. liposomes, polymersomes, giant vesicles), which has been not always  
39 straightforward, due to the challenges associated with characterization of vesicular model systems.  
40 Therefore, supported membrane formation by single component (e.g. lipids or polymers) emerged<sup>5-9</sup>.

41 Deposition of planar membrane on solid support present as advantages compared vesicular  
42 membranes<sup>10</sup>; (i) a higher amenability for characterization by surface sensitive analytical tools (e.g.  
43 atomic force microscopy(AFM), quartz crystal microbalance with dissipation (QCM-D), and surface  
44 plasmon resonance (SPR)) and thus the investigation of protein-membrane interaction kinetics in real-  
45 time, *in situ* and label-free format<sup>11</sup> and (ii) the possibility to pattern the surface to monitor membrane  
46 phase separation<sup>12</sup> and selective molecular binding<sup>13</sup>.

47 In addition to single component membrane platforms, phospholipids and block copolymers have been  
48 mixed to form hybrid membranes<sup>5-6,12</sup>. Within hybrid membranes, amphiphilic block copolymers provide  
49 improved mechanical and structural stability while phospholipids can provide a better environment for  
50 integration of biomolecules<sup>12, 14-16</sup>. Depending on how lipid and polymer chains are distributed within  
51 hybrid membranes, an enhanced control of membrane functionalization with different biomolecules  
52 (e.g. proteins) can be achieved<sup>17-20</sup>. In fact, hybrid membranes can undergo phase domain separation  
53 when the fluid phase polymer and gel phase lipids are used to prepare them and this significantly affects  
54 proteins-membrane interaction<sup>21</sup>. Additionally, phase domains in hybrid membranes have been created  
55 by changing the molar ratio of each component and molecular parameters of lipids and block  
56 copolymers, such as phase transition temperature and composition<sup>12, 22-24</sup>. The control over the  
57 membrane-protein combination is essential for the development of “active surfaces” with desired  
58 properties. Although most of the hybrid membrane studies have been focused on the mixing of lipids  
59 and block copolymers in vesicles, only a few studies have explored the properties of the hybrid  
60 membranes on solid supports and their combinations with proteins (e.g. P-glycoprotein) and peptides  
61 (e.g. gramicidin A and valinomycin)<sup>21, 25-27</sup>.

62 Planar membranes on solid support are obtained by either substrate mediated vesicle fusion<sup>28-29</sup> or  
63 Langmuir Blodgett transfer method<sup>19, 28</sup>, while their characterisation is achieved by a combination of  
64 surface methods including QCM-D, AFM and ellipsometry<sup>12</sup>. Due to the capability of lipids and

65 copolymers to re-arrange the membrane architecture and generate domains, hybrid membranes  
66 represent ideal candidates for understanding protein-membrane interactions<sup>30</sup>. These domains facilitate  
67 the interaction with proteins, in a way similar to the so-called “lipid-rafts” found in cell membranes<sup>15, 30</sup>.  
68 For example, when the DPPC lipids (phase transition temperature of 41°C) were mixed with the PMOXA-  
69 *b*-PDMS block copolymer at room temperature, proteins selectively inserted only into the polymer  
70 domains because the lipid domains were in gel-phase and they did not support insertion of the proteins  
71 <sup>12</sup>. The advantage of combining proteins with synthetic planar membranes relies in preserving protein  
72 activity, which can be prohibited when a protein is directly attached to a bare substrate surface, such as  
73 gold, silica or glass<sup>31-35</sup>. Attachment of proteins with different solid substrates are mainly based on  
74 noncovalent interactions, such as ionic or hydrogen bonds and often induces a protein denaturation. For  
75 example, it is well known that functional properties of cytochrome c (cyt c) was hampered because it  
76 adsorbed strongly on electrodes (e.g. Pt, Hg, Au and Ag) since this adsorption caused large  
77 conformational changes and denaturation<sup>36-38</sup>. Moreover, direct electron transfer between cytochrome  
78 c and unmodified electrode surface is slow due to undesired contact between the prosthetic group and  
79 the electrode<sup>39</sup>. So far, in order to provide a better environment for cyt c to function, different  
80 electrodes which are mainly based on nanomaterials (e.g. carbon nanotubes, graphene and  
81 nanoparticles) have been used<sup>40-45</sup>. Nevertheless, these attempts might not be sufficient to preserve the  
82 whole cyt c activity. By forming planar membranes on solid support as a mean of electrode surface  
83 modification, (i) a natural biocompatible means of cyt c-substrate interactions, and (ii) effective, highly  
84 dynamic platform to host biomolecules can be achieved<sup>46-47</sup>. Such system improves the protein-  
85 membrane-substrate communication for development of highly sensitive and efficient biosensors.

86 Here we combine different solid-supported membranes based on lipids, copolymers and mixtures of  
87 lipids and copolymers with cytochrome c, a model protein in order to understand which molecular  
88 factors are playing a crucial role in its accessibility and functionality. We attached the cyt c by two

89 different approaches, one based on insertion mediated by hydrophobic interactions and a second one  
90 by covalent conjugation of the cyt c with specific functional groups of the copolymer. More specifically,  
91 cyt c is a critical signalling molecule, leading to activation of enzymes in the intrinsic pathway of  
92 apoptosis upon permeabilization of upper layer of mitochondrial membrane<sup>48-51</sup>. It has a relatively small  
93 size of 12 kDa with globular shape and it is known that its binding to the membranes can be driven by  
94 either ionic interactions or small hydrophobic domains which drives the spontaneous insertion<sup>51-52</sup>.  
95 Moreover, the presence of amine groups of two specific external lysines (Lys72 and Lys73) supports cyt c  
96 to be covalently conjugated to the carboxylic groups of the copolymer in the membranes. To date, the  
97 combination of cyt c with the biologic membranes mainly takes places through electrostatic interaction  
98 with negatively charged surfaces, due to two residual lysines, partial insertion via hydrophobic  
99 interaction or complete incorporation into the membrane<sup>52-53</sup>. Both electrostatic and hydrophobic  
100 interactions plaid a role on cyt c combination with membranes based on anionic lipids<sup>54-56</sup>. The  
101 contribution of the hydrophobic interaction on cyt c insertion has been studied by using zwitterionic  
102 lipid membranes and the results indicated that cyt c induced the disruption of the membrane<sup>57</sup>. To  
103 preserve membrane integrity, another approach to combine cyt c with membranes has to be taken into  
104 account. In this respect, the covalent conjugation of cyt c to carboxylated nanoparticles, provides a  
105 strong binding, leading to an improved stability for biosensing applications<sup>58</sup>. However, up to now, there  
106 is no report regarding the effect of combination strategies of cyt c with planar membranes to distinguish  
107 its accessibility and the resulting peroxidase-like activity at different membranes.

108 Towards this goal, we first explored the formation of lipid, polymer and hybrid monolayers at the air-  
109 water interface to determine the surface pressure at which densely packed films were formed, before  
110 transferring them onto silica wafers with the Langmuir-Blodgett method. Then, we characterized  
111 integrity, topography and morphology of resulting supported membranes before and after the  
112 combination with cyt c by AFM and confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM), respectively. QCM-D

113 was used to quantify the amount of cyt c combined with each type of planar membrane and how it  
114 affected the viscoelastic properties thus providing insights into the accessibility of cyt c. After  
115 combination with different membranes, we assessed indirectly the peroxidase-like activity of cyt c by an  
116 Amplex red (AR)-based fluorimetric assay. These different approaches to combine a protein with planar  
117 membranes together with the differences in the composition, morphology and properties of these  
118 planar membranes serve to indicate, which are the essential factors for equipping different membranes  
119 with proteins in order to produce of efficient “active “surfaces”.

120

121 Materials and methods

122 Materials

123 1,2-dipalmitoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DPPC) and 1,2-dipalmitoyl-sn-glycero-3-  
124 phosphoethanolamine-N-(lissamine rhodamine B sulfonyl) (ammonium salt), rhodamine B labeled DPPC,  
125 were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids (Alabaster, AL). Cytochrome c from bovine heart ( $\geq 95\%$ ) was  
126 obtained from Sigma-Aldrich and reconstituted to a concentration of 500  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$  with phosphate buffer  
127 (PB) solution. The phosphate buffer was prepared by using the  $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and  $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4$  which  
128 were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. N-(3-Dimethylaminopropyl)-N'-ethylcarbodiimide (EDC), sulfo-N-  
129 hydroxy-sulfosuccinimide sodium salt (sNHS) and all reported organic solvents were obtained from  
130 Sigma-Aldrich. The silica slides (Ultrapak 100 mm thin wafer box) were purchased from Entegris Inc.  
131 (Germany) and used for layer deposition.

132

133 Polymer synthesis

134 The amphiphilic diblock copolymer poly(dimethyl siloxane)<sub>90</sub>-block-poly(2-methyl-2-oxazoline)<sub>10</sub> with a  
135 carboxylic functional group at the end of the hydrophilic domain (PDMS<sub>90</sub>-b-PMOXA<sub>10</sub>-COOH) was  
136 synthesized according to the following protocol: monocarbinol-functionalized PDMS-OH was

137 synthesized by anionic ring-opening polymerization of hexamethylcyclotrisiloxane and end-group  
138 modification with 2-allyloxyethanol. Afterwards, PDMS-OH was activated with trifluoromethanesulfonic  
139 anhydride and chain-extended by cationic ring-opening polymerization with 2-methyl-2-oxazoline  
140 monomer. Quenching with triethylamine/water in order to obtain hydroxy-functionalized PDMS-b-  
141 PMOXA-OH was followed by end-group modification with succinic anhydride, leading to the final  
142 carboxy-functionalized PDMS-b-PMOXA-COOH.

143 The molecular weight of the copolymer was estimated as 8400 g/mol by nuclear magnetic resonance  
144 (<sup>1</sup>H-NMR) (Figure S1A). The dispersity of the copolymer was 2.09 according to gel permeation  
145 chromatography (GPC) (Figure S1B). In order to confirm the presence of the COOH end group, Fourier-  
146 transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) was performed, showing the characteristic COOH stretching at  
147 1730 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Figure S1C).

148

#### 149 Area-surface pressure isotherms

150 The area-dependent surface pressure isotherms of lipid, copolymer and mixtures of lipid and  
151 copolymer were measured by Langmuir Teflon mini-trough (KSV Instruments, Finland). The trough was  
152 equipped with two movable, computer-controlled Delrin barriers for variation of the area per molecule  
153 and a Wilhelmy plate made of filter paper for measuring the surface pressure. The trough and barriers  
154 were cleaned with high purity chloroform (HPLC grade, Sigma-Aldrich) and ethanol (≤99.8%, Fluka)  
155 before each measurement, and the trough was filled with ultrapure water. A fresh Wilhelmy paper was  
156 mounted and fully wetted with ultrapure water every time. The copolymer, lipid and hybrid mixtures in  
157 chloroform were diluted with chloroform to a concentration of 1 mg/mL. An aliquot was spread onto  
158 the ultraclean water subphase with a glass Hamilton microsyringe and left untouched for 10 min to  
159 allow for chloroform evaporation. Then, the lipid, copolymer or hybrid monolayers at the air-water

160 interface were compressed with a constant rate of  $10 \text{ mm min}^{-1}$ . During all measurements, a constant  
161 temperature of  $23 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  was maintained. All reported data represent triplicate measurements.

162

#### 163 Brewster angle microscopy

164 Brewster angle microscopy (BAM) experiments were performed with the EP3SW system  
165 (Nanofilm Technologie GmbH, Göttingen, Germany) equipped with a Nd:YAG laser ( $\lambda = 532 \text{ nm}$ ),  
166 a long distance objective (Nikon,  $20\times$ ), and a monochrome CCD camera. The size of the BAM  
167 image corresponds to  $220 \times 250 \text{ }\mu\text{m}^2$ , with a resolution of  $1 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ . The microscope was installed  
168 over the KSV Langmuir trough equipped with two movable barriers that lead to a symmetrical  
169 compression. The BAM measurements were done in triplicate in order to obtain the best  
170 representation of the images.

171

#### 172 Preparation of silica wafers

173 Silica wafers were cut into slides of  $1 \text{ cm}^2$  that were rinsed with ethanol and dried. Before using, slides  
174 were placed in a UV ozone cleaner (Jelight Company Inc, Irvine, USA) for 20 min to remove contaminants  
175 from the surface. The cleaned slides were immediately used for layer deposition.

176

#### 177 Langmuir-Blodgett transfer

178 The Langmuir monolayers formed at the air-water interface were deposited on the solid substrate  
179 (silica wafer or silicon dioxide sensor QSX 303  $\text{SiO}_2$ ) by a vertical dipping method. The dipping speed was  
180  $0.5 \text{ mm/min}$  for downstroke and upstroke, maintaining the surface pressure at  $35 \text{ mN/m}$ . The bilayer  
181 films were transferred to the silica substrate by immersing the dipper downstroke for deposition of the  
182 first layer and lifting it upstroke for deposition of the second layer.

183

184 Confocal laser scanning microscopy

185 For confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM), 1-2 volume % of rhodamine B-labeled lipid (Liss Rhod  
186 PE) was added to the lipid/copolymer mixture before the LB transfer to the solid support. The supported  
187 hybrid bilayer was transferred to a glass slide and imaged within 1 h after the LB deposition. CLSM  
188 images were recorded on a Zeiss 880 LSM equipped with a 40x water-immersion objective (C-  
189 Apochromat 40x/1.2 W Korr FCS M27). A DBSS 561-10 laser ( $\lambda = 561$  nm) with laser power at 2% was  
190 used for the excitation of Liss Rhod PE. The fluorescence intensities of the images were analyzed by  
191 ImageJ (v. 1.52r).

192

193 Atomic force microscopy

194 Atomic force microscopy (AFM) was performed with a JPK NanoWizard 3 AFM (JPK Instruments AG).  
195 AC mode topography images were obtained in air, using silicon cantilevers (Tap150 Al-G, Budget  
196 Sensors) with a nominal spring constant of  $10\text{--}130$   $\text{Nm}^{-1}$  and a resonance frequency of 150 kHz. Images  
197 were analyzed with the data analysis software JPK Data Processing (v. 5.0).

198

199 Quartz crystal microbalance with dissipation

200 Quartz crystal microbalance with dissipation (QCM-D) with Q-Sense E1 (Biolin Scientific, Sweden) set  
201 up was employed to characterize the combination of cyt c to the membrane on silicon dioxide sensors.  
202 Changes in the resonance frequency ( $\Delta F$ ) and energy dissipation ( $\Delta D$ ) of the oscillating sensor chip (QSX  
203 303  $\text{SiO}_2$ ) as a function of time were simultaneously recorded at multiple odd overtones (3rd, 5th, 7th,  
204 9th and 11th). All data shown represent recordings at the 7th overtone. In order to estimate the mass of  
205 protein attached to the different membranes, the Sauerbrey equation was applied. This equation  
206 converts the frequency shift into mass by using simple relation;  $\Delta m = -C\Delta f$ , where  $\Delta m$  is the mass, C is  
207 the proportionality constant ( $17.7$   $\text{ng cm}^{-2} \text{Hz}^{-1}$ ) and  $\Delta f$  is the frequency shift. After establishing a

208 baseline in aqueous buffer solution, QCM-D measurements were conducted under continuous flow  
209 conditions. A flow rate of 50  $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$  for protein addition and washing processes was delivered by a  
210 Reglo Digital peristaltic pump (Ismatec, Glattbrugg, Switzerland). The temperature of the flow cell was  
211 fixed at  $24.0 \pm 0.5$  °C.

212 Activation of the carboxylic end group of copolymers in the membranes by EDC/NHS

213 For the covalent combination of cyt c to the copolymers in the solid-supported membranes, the  
214 functional carboxylic end groups were first activated to amine-reactive NHS esters by submerging the  
215 membranes in 3 mL of EDC solution (10 mg/ml in PB) for 10 min under gentle agitation. After washing  
216 with Phosphate buffer (PB) for 30 minutes to remove the unbound molecules, the membranes were  
217 submerged into sNHS solution (10 mg/ml in PB) for 10 min and washed again with buffer.

218

219 Fluorimetry

220 Fluorimetry was performed with a Spectramax M5e microplate and cuvette reader (Molecular  
221 Devices, USA) using a 10 mm light path quartz cuvette (Hellma, Germany), an excitation wavelength of  
222 570 nm, and an emission wavelength of 595 nm. All specimens were measured immediately after QCM-  
223 D. The silica substrate was placed standing upright in the cuvette, facing the light source. Amplex red  
224 (AR) and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  were added to a final concentration of 3.3 mM and 0.66 mM, respectively, and the final  
225 volume adjusted to 3 mL with 100 mM PB.

226

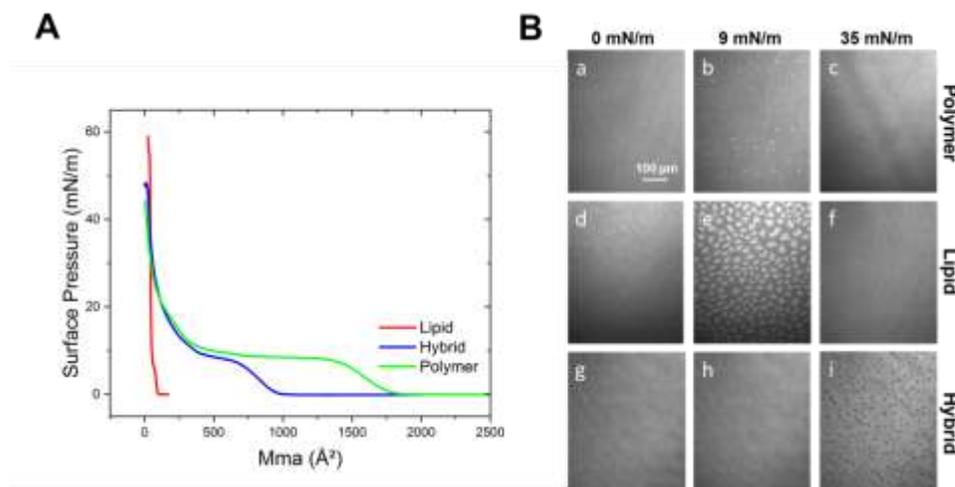
227 Results and Discussion

228 Monolayers at air-water interfaces

229 We measured the changes in the surface pressure of 1,2-dipalmitoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine  
230 (DPPC) lipid, PDMS90-b-PMOXA10-COOH copolymer and the mixture of both with weight ratio 50:50 wt.  
231 % as a function of the mean molecular area occupied by a molecule (Figure 1 A). Above the surface

232 pressure of 15 mN/m, all isotherms showed a transition from liquid expanded to liquid condensed  
233 phase, irrespective of the composition. Isotherm of PDMS<sub>90</sub>-*b*-PMOXA<sub>10</sub>-COOH copolymer showed a  
234 lift-off around 1750 Å, a larger plateau and a breaking point higher than 40 mN/m, indicating highly  
235 flexible monolayers at the air-water interface, already observed for other PMOXA-PDMS copolymers  
236 38. Isotherm of the DPPC lipid exhibited a lift-off at circa 100 Å with a steep slope and a breaking point at  
237 60 mN/m. Isotherm of the mixture of the DPPC lipid and PDMS<sub>90</sub>-*b*-PMOXA<sub>10</sub>-COOH copolymer, called  
238 hybrid, displayed an intermediate profile compared to the isotherms obtained from single components,  
239 with a lift-off lower than 1000 Å and a breaking point at 49 mN/m. During the recording of the Langmuir  
240 isotherms at air-water interface, the changes in morphology of the lipid, copolymer and hybrid  
241 monolayers were real-time monitored by BAM (Figure 1B). During the compression of the copolymers  
242 (Figure 1B (a-c)), lipids (Figure 1B (d-f)) and copolymers-lipids mixture (Figure 1B (g-i)) at three  
243 representative surface pressure (0, 9 and 35 mN/m, respectively). Initially, when no surface pressure  
244 was applied, no film was observed. At the surface pressure of 15 mN/m, the copolymers formed  
245 micelles at the air-water interface and then they changed their micellar architecture to a homogenous  
246 copolymer monolayer at the surface pressure of 35 mN/m (Figure 1B b-c), in agreement to previous  
247 reports for block copolymers<sup>59</sup>. In the case of lipids, flower like assemblies with sizes of approximately  
248 10 µm were observed at a surface pressure of 9 mN/m, which transformed to planar lipid monolayers at  
249 air water interface for a surface pressure of 35 mN/m (Figure 1 e-f). The lipid-copolymer mixture did not  
250 show any assemblies at the intermediate surface pressure of 9 mN/m, and micron sized domains were  
251 observed at the surface pressure of 35 mN/m due to separation of lipids from the copolymers (Figure 1  
252 h-i). It is important to mention that polymer-lipid phase separation does not completely occur, and each  
253 domain is not pure, presenting partially the other component. The lipid domains were found to be  
254 embedded into the continuous polymer rich phase, as already observed elsewhere<sup>12</sup>.

255



256

257 **Figure 1.** Langmuir isotherms of lipid, copolymer and hybrid (50:50 wt.%) (A) and BAM images of lipid,  
258 polymer and hybrid (B) at surface pressure of 0, 9 and 35 mN/m.

259

260 Formation of different model membranes on solid support

261 Monolayers of polymer, lipid and hybrid mixture were transferred to solid support using Langmuir  
262 Blodgett method, to create supported polymer, lipid and hybrid bilayer membranes, respectively. First,  
263 the monolayers at the air-water interface were deposited to the solid support through an upstroke at  
264 a constant surface pressure of 35 mN/m<sup>8, 17, 26, 60</sup>, resulting in solid-supported monolayers (Figure S2).  
265 AFM images showed that the solid-supported polymer monolayer was not homogenous and self-  
266 assembled into micellar structures with sizes of 20 nm on solid support, which is in agreement with  
267 literature reports (Figure S2A)<sup>48, 61</sup>. In contrast, the hybrid monolayer was uniform on solid support, with  
268 lipid and polymer domains, which had a height difference of 6-8 nm (Figure S2B). This difference was  
269 caused by the molecular mismatch between lipids and block copolymers.

270 The supported bilayer membranes were prepared by LB transferring, on a silica support, of two  
271 consecutive monolayers, one deposited via an upstroke and a following via a down-stroke<sup>62</sup>. The  
272 surface morphology and topography of the resulting bilayer membranes were analyzed by AFM phase

273 and height imaging (Figure 2). Phase profile was necessary to observe the domain separation, whereas

274 the height profile showed the mismatch between the polymer and the lipid phase domains in the hybrid

275 membranes. Surface topography of supported polymer membrane was planar and homogenous (Figure

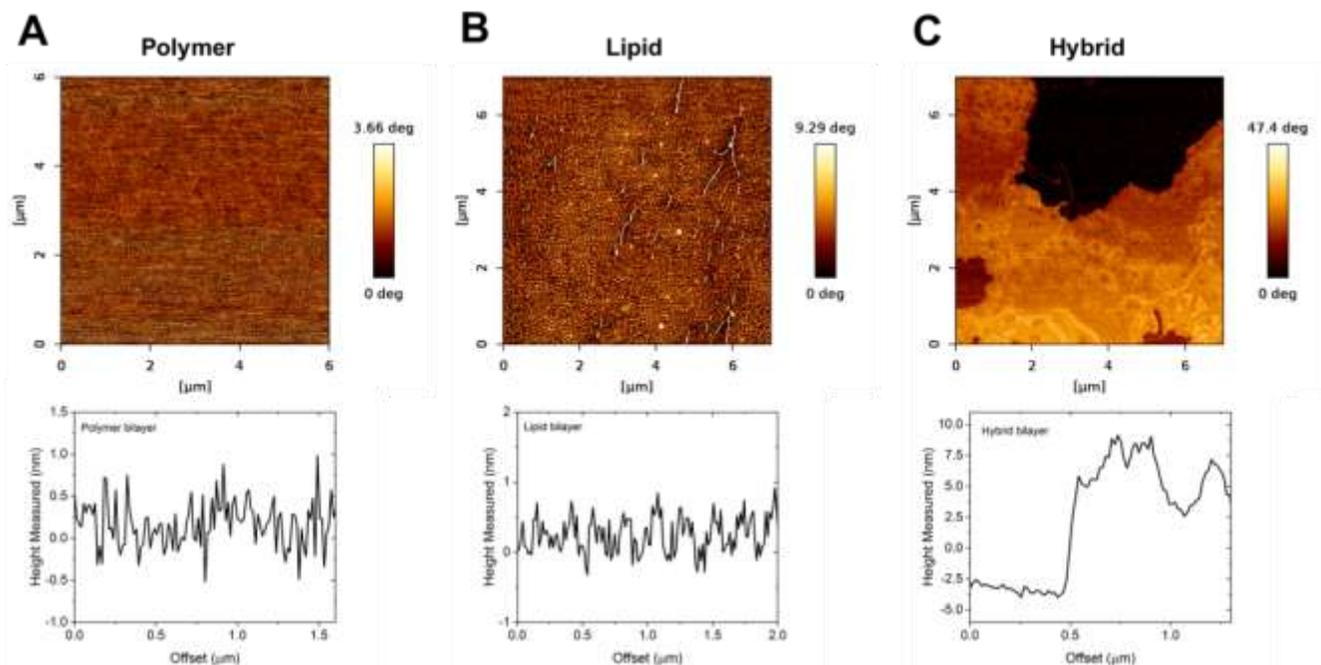
276 2A and S3A), indicating that the deposition of a second layer induced the formation of a stable planar

277 architecture. After drying, there were no micellar structures on the supported polymer membranes, in

278 contrast to the polymer monolayer). As confirmed by AFM profiles, the supported DPPC lipid

279 membranes contained several defects (Figure 2B and S3B), due to the possible overturning mechanism

280 that occurred during the deposition<sup>61</sup>. Moreover, supported hybrid membranes showed clear separation  
 281 of lipid and polymer domains (Figure 2C and S3C). The height difference between lipid and polymer  
 282 domains in hybrid membrane was approximately of  $11 \pm 1$  nm. The AFM phase image shows dark that  
 283 represent the lipid domains and bright spots that represent the polymer domains. Domain enrichment  
 284 was also observed: small polymer clusters were present in lipid-rich phase while small lipid clusters were  
 285 present in polymer-rich domains. As the size of the lipid or polymer domains are tens of micron, there is  
 286 no limit for size of proteins, which are either inserted or conjugated to the membranes as long as they



287 have specific characteristics (e.g. surface charge or hydrophobic part for insertion, functional group for  
 288 conjugation). Therefore, any hydrophilic peripheral proteins can be inserted or conjugated to hybrid  
 289 membranes after necessary adjustments of the membrane composition. For example, extracellular  
 290 matrix (ECM) proteins (e.g. collagen with molecular weight of approximately 300 kDa or fibronectin with  
 291 molecular weight of approximately 220 kDa) have been attached to the polymer domains through  
 292 covalent conjugation and their effect on cell adhesion, proliferation and function have been investigated  
 293 for development of cell-based diagnostics, tissue engineering, medical implants and biosensors<sup>63</sup>.

294

295 **Figure 2.** AFM characterization of solid-supported bilayers. Phase profile (up) and cross section (down)  
296 of polymer (A), lipid (B) and hybrid (C) membranes. Corresponding height images are reported in Figure  
297 S3.

298

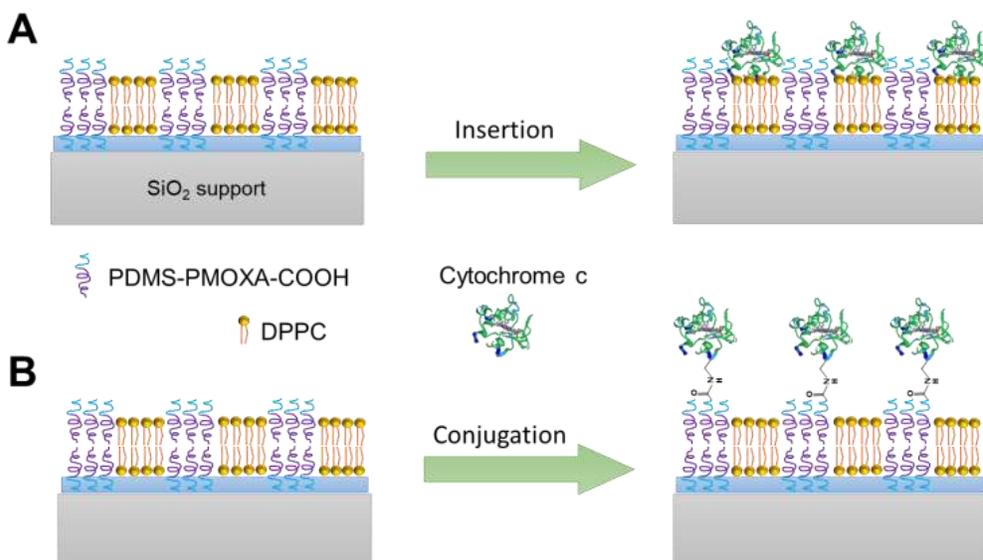
299 We then investigated the presence of lipid-rich or polymer-rich domains in hybrid bilayers, by CLSM  
300 (Figure S4A). Rhodamine B labelled lipid was added (1 wt. %) into the solution of the hybrid mixture  
301 before deposition onto silica support. The Rhodamine B lipid diffused only into the polymer-rich  
302 domains, as indicated by red colour, because they are both in a fluid phase. The blend of a small fraction  
303 of lipids with polymers into hybrid bilayers was due to similarity of the phases of the labeled lipid with  
304 the polymer. On the contrary, dark domains are specific for DPPC lipids, and are similar in shape and size  
305 when compared to BAM images<sup>62, 64</sup>. To further explore the uniformity of supported model membranes,  
306 we evaluated the adsorption of bovine serum albumin (BSA), a globular protein which has been  
307 previously used to determine membrane surface coverage<sup>61-62, 64-65</sup>. BSA adsorption was appreciable on  
308 silicon dioxide compared to the planar bilayer membranes made of DPPC lipids or PMOXA-PDMS  
309 copolymers<sup>65</sup>. In principle, BSA adsorption is expected to be negligible on the defect-free membranes  
310 deposited on silicon dioxide, whereas it increases with increasing amount of defects found in a  
311 membrane, e.g. the availability of bare silicon oxide for BSA. We quantified the BSA adsorption onto  
312 polymer, lipid and hybrid membranes by QCM-D and compared them with bare silicon dioxide support  
313 (Figure S5). A solution of BSA ( $C = 500 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ) was injected onto bare silica or supported membranes  
314 after baselines were established in PB. BSA adsorption on silicon dioxide led to a frequency shift of  $-24 \pm$   
315  $1 \text{ Hz}$  whereas on supported polymer membrane of  $-2 \pm 1 \text{ Hz}$  which resulted in an appreciable reduction  
316 in amount of BSA adsorbed. We calculated a membrane surface coverage higher than  $92 \pm 4 \%$ ,  
317 indicating that the polymer membrane did not contain major defects. By contrast, the frequency shift

318 was  $-6 \pm 2$  Hz for the BSA adsorption on supported lipid membranes, leading to a reduction of  
319 membrane coverage to  $75 \pm 3$  %. Thus, there were more defects in supported lipid membranes  
320 compared to hybrid or polymer counterparts. These results were in agreement with AFM data. In the  
321 case of BSA adsorption onto supported hybrid membranes, the frequency shift to  $-4 \pm 2$  Hz, was  
322 associated with a membrane surface coverage of  $83 \pm 4$  %. The presence of defects on the membranes  
323 on silica was also compensated by covering the defects with BSA adsorption, which is expected to  
324 prevent nonspecific interactions of cyt c with bare silicon oxide.

325 Combination of cytochrome c with supported model membranes

326 After depositing the membranes, we monitored the real-time combination of cyt c with the lipid,  
327 polymer and hybrid membranes. We employed two different strategies: i) cyt c insertion into the  
328 membrane through hydrophobic interactions, and ii) covalent conjugation (Figure 3) of cyt c to the  
329 membranes by binding the accessible lysine of cyt c to COOH functionalized polymer through EDS/sNHS  
330 coupling chemistry<sup>52, 66-67</sup>. The conjugation provides stability to cyt c, preventing the loss of its heme or  
331 denaturation. Because cyt c is normally found in the inner cell membranes, the covalent bond provides  
332 the needed stability for cyt c when located on the outer membrane<sup>67-68</sup>.

333



334

335 **Figure 3.** Schematic representation of hybrid supported bilayer and their combination with model  
 336 protein cytochrome c through (A) insertion and (B) covalent conjugation by EDC/sNHS coupling.

337  
 338 We compared the insertion of cyt c into solid supported membranes by QCM-D (Figure 4A). The QCM-  
 339 D measurement baseline signals were stabilized in phosphate buffer. After 5 min of baseline  
 340 stabilization, a solution of 500 µg/ml of cyt c was injected. First, we monitored cyt c combination onto  
 341 silica surface (Figure S6), resulting in a frequency shift of  $-16.4 \pm 5.8$  Hz and a cyt c mass of  $290 \pm 103$   
 342  $\text{ng}/\text{cm}^2$ . The combination here consisted in an irreversible and not selective process, since it was driven  
 343 by either attractive electrostatic interaction between positively charged cyt c and negatively charged  
 344 silica and , which could result in protein denaturation. Moreover, cyt c insertion into supported polymer  
 345 and hybrid membranes led to a similar frequency shift of  $-8.0 \pm 0.9$  Hz and  $-7.5 \pm 2.1$  Hz, respectively,  
 346 while it led to small frequency shift of  $-2.4 \pm 2.3$  Hz for the supported lipid membranes. The mass of the  
 347 inserted cyt c was estimated by using the Sauerbrey equation (Table 1). The mass of inserted cyt c on  
 348 the supported polymer bilayer was  $142 \pm 16$   $\text{ng}/\text{cm}^2$ ,  $133 \pm 38$   $\text{ng}/\text{cm}^2$  for hybrid bilayer and only  $42 \pm 40$   
 349  $\text{ng}/\text{cm}^2$  for lipid bilayer. The frequency shifts obtained from cyt c adsorption in the presence of polymer-,  
 350 lipid- and hybrid-based layers were lower than the one obtained from bare silica substrate because  
 351 PMOXA-PDMS block copolymer has antifouling characteristics and cyt c combination was driven by  
 352 specific interactions<sup>69</sup>.

353

354 **Table 1.** Quantification of cytochrome c combined with polymer and hybrid membranes

Membrane type	Frequency Shift <sup>a</sup>		Mass <sup>a</sup>		Molecules of cyt c	
	Insertion	Conjugation	Insertion	Conjugation	Insertion	Conjugation

Polymer	$-8.0 \pm 0.9$	$-7.4 \pm 0.8$	$142 \pm 16$	$132 \pm 18$	$7.1 \pm 0.8$	$6.6 \pm 0.7$
Hybrid	$-7.5 \pm 2.1$	$-2.5 \pm 0.7$	$133 \pm 38$	$44 \pm 13$	$6.7 \pm 1.9$	$2.2 \pm 0.6$
Lipid	$-2.4 \pm 2.3$	n.a. <sup>b</sup>	$42 \pm 40$	n.a.	$2.1 \pm 2.0$	n.a.

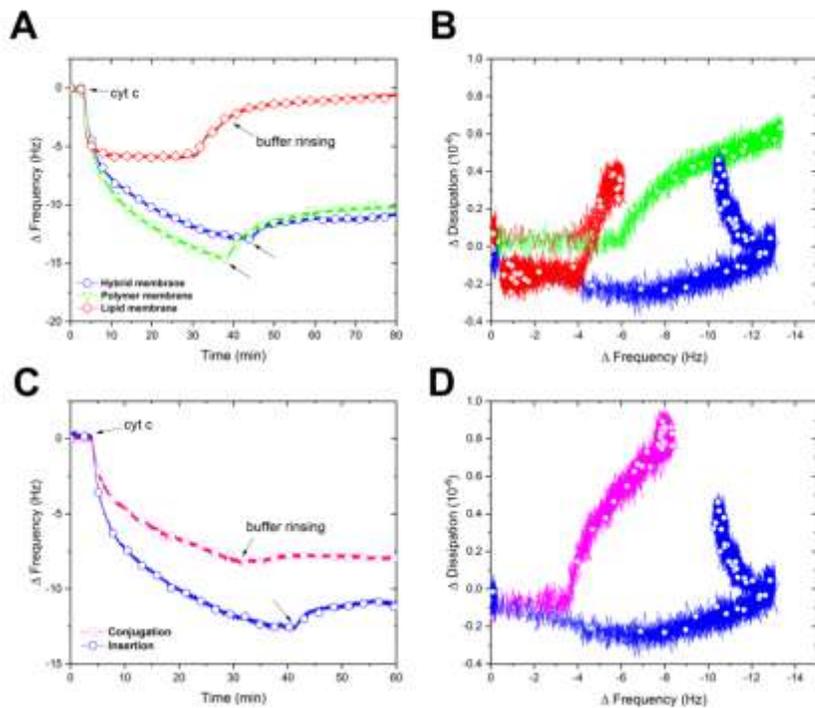
355 <sup>a</sup>The Frequency is reported in Hz, the mass is reported in  $\text{ng}/\text{cm}^2$ , the molecules of cyt c have to be  
356 multiplied by  $10^{12}$ . <sup>b</sup>Not available, the conjugation was not performed for the lipid because it has no  
357 carboxylic end group. The quantity of cyt c combined with the two strategies are compared.

358

359 To gain more insight into the viscoelastic properties of the combined cyt c on the different supported  
360 membranes, we used the correlation between dissipation and frequency (Figure 4B), which can be  
361 linked to accessibility of the protein on the membrane surface<sup>70</sup>. The dissipation value for the lipid  
362 membrane was around  $0.1 \cdot 10^{-6}$  and lower than the value determined for the polymer and hybrid  
363 membranes ( $0.7 \cdot 10^{-6}$  and  $0.5 \cdot 10^{-6}$ , respectively). The values for dissipation also indicate the difference  
364 in the overall flexibility of the different membranes: polymer and hybrid membranes present a higher  
365 degree of mobility due to their molecular structure and the resulting membrane packing, compared to  
366 lipid membrane 12. This is in agreement with the fact that the lipid is in the gel phase. Secondly, the cyt  
367 c was covalently conjugated to supported polymer bilayer and hybrid bilayer, based on the formation of  
368 a peptidic bond between the ending functional group of the functionalized polymer and the outer lysine  
369 of the cyt c (Figure S7)<sup>52</sup>.

370 The conjugation reaction was performed before the addition of cyt c to the bilayers. The carboxylic  
371 groups of the polymers were activated by injecting EDC/sNHS solution ( $C = 10 \text{ mg/ml}$ ) (Table S1) and  
372 then rinsed with buffer, before the injection of cyt c solution ( $C = 500 \mu\text{g/ml}$ ). Nevertheless, during the  
373 conjugation reaction a small amount of cyt c may have also inserted into the membrane. The  
374 conjugation of cyt c to the supported polymer bilayer led to a frequency shift of  $-7.4 \pm 0.8$  resulting in a  
375 mass of  $132 \pm 18 \text{ ng}/\text{cm}^2$ , while the conjugation of cyt c to the supported hybrid bilayer induced a

376 frequency shift of  $-2.5 \pm 0.7$  Hz, resulting in a mass of  $44 \pm 13$  ng/cm<sup>2</sup> (Table 1). The lower amount of cyt  
377 c conjugated to the hybrid membrane is mainly due to the lower number of carboxylic groups available  
378 compared to the polymer membrane, according to the molar ratio of 50% in the hybrid. No conjugation  
379 was performed for the lipid membrane, due to the absence of the carboxylic functionalization. When we  
380 compared the two combination strategies of cyt c for the supported hybrid bilayers, the frequency shifts  
381 for the insertion method was higher than for the conjugation (Figure 4C), while the dissipation shifts  
382 revealed to be higher for the conjugation, with the highest value of  $1.0 \cdot 10^{-6}$  (Figure 4D). The differences  
383 in the frequency/dissipation ratio suggest that cyt c has a different conformation when it is combined  
384 with the hybrid bilayers by using different combination strategies. The explanation relies on the higher  
385 degree of freedom cyt c has when it is conjugated to the membrane, standing away from it, instead of  
386 partially penetrating it with its hydrophobic part. Moreover, cyt c preferred a combination with the  
387 hybrid membrane through insertion rather than conjugation. However, neutral DPPC lipid cannot  
388 establish a strong attractive electrostatic interaction with the positive-charged cyt c. Instead, the  
389 presence of anionic lipids in the hybrid membrane may increase the insertion of the protein<sup>48, 71-74</sup>. The  
390 isoelectric point (pI) of cyt c is in the range of 10.0-10.5 and in condition of neutrality it presents a  
391 positive charge<sup>52</sup>, so by increasing the pH over this value it would be possible to inhibit the spontaneous  
392 insertion due to repulsive interactions between the membrane and the protein<sup>52</sup>. We kept here the  
393 system at neutral pH condition.



394

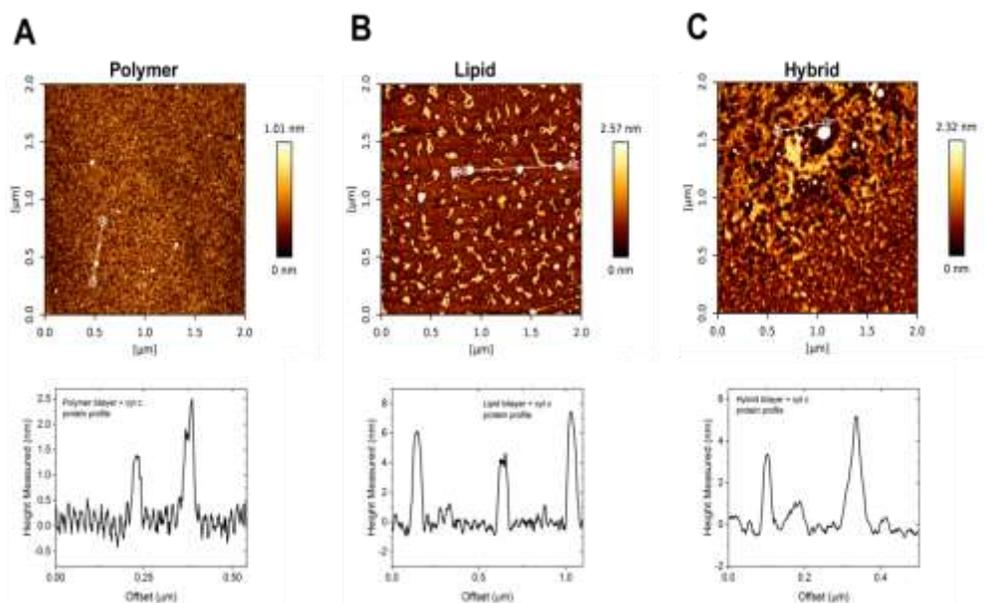
395 **Figure 4.** QCM-D plots of protein combination with supported membranes: protein insertion (A);  
 396 comparison of protein combination methods with hybrid membrane (C) and their corresponding  $\Delta D$  vs  
 397  $\Delta f$  plots (B and D). Solutions used are cytochrome c in PB (500  $\mu$ g/ml) and pure PB for rinsing steps.

398

399 After insertion of cyt c within the different membranes, we also monitored the changes in membrane  
 400 integrity by analysing AFM height and phase profiles. Because of the small size of cyt c (approximately 3  
 401 nm) compared to the domain sizes, we assume that each domain can accommodate more than one cyt  
 402 c. After the protein insertion, we observed that, in general, the protein aggregates in clusters (white  
 403 spots) of different sizes and average height of  $5 \pm 2$  nm. No modification of the polymer membrane  
 404 architecture was observed after cyt c insertion: the synthetic membranes preserved their planarity and  
 405 homogeneity, probably due to their robustness (Figure S8B). The low cyt c height ( $2 \pm 1$  nm) found in  
 406 polymer membrane, might be due to a deeper penetration of the protein into the bilayer, as compared  
 407 to lipid and hybrid membranes (Figure 5A). As the lipid bilayer was removed from the silica support,

408 similarly to other reports<sup>48, 57</sup>, it resulted in a discontinuous membrane (Figure S8A) with cyt c clusters  
 409 mainly located on the silica dark background (Figure 5B). Desorption of lipid bilayers from the silica after  
 410 addition of cyt c was also confirmed by QCM-D (Figure 4A): the decrease in mass observed before the  
 411 buffer-rinsing step indicated the removal of the membrane from the support. Interestingly, the  
 412 interaction of the cyt c with the hybrid bilayer indicated no bilayer removal, as expected for the lipid  
 413 phase, rather a bilayer reorganization took place, where the lipids self-assembled in the polymer matrix  
 414 and constituted rafts accommodating the protein (Figure 5C and S9). The copolymer preserved the  
 415 bilayer integrity due to its mechanical resistance while the lipid phase allowed the cyt c to insert due to  
 416 its fluidity<sup>22, 75</sup>. Therefore, the hybrid bilayer was suitable for achieving a selective combination of the  
 417 protein with a specific bilayer domain: the lipid domain allowed the insertion while the polymer one  
 418 served for the conjugation.

419



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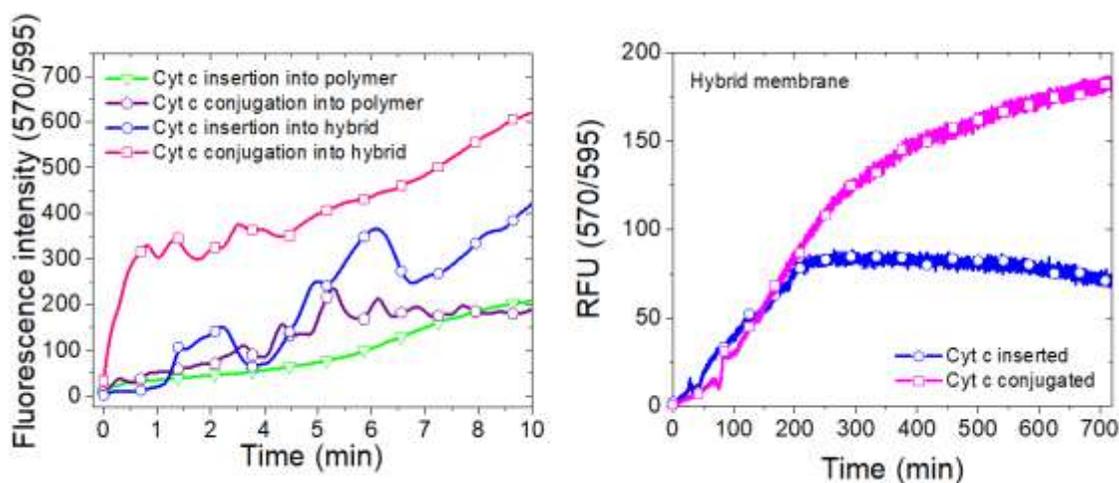
421 **Figure 5.** AFM height profile of different membranes after protein insertion: polymer (A), lipid (B) and  
 422 hybrid bilayers (C).

423 Assessment of peroxidase-like activity of cyt c on supported hybrid membranes

424 Cyt c plays an important role in the elimination of hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) from mitochondria and  
425 respiratory chain, leading to exhibited peroxidase-like activity<sup>76</sup>. The activity of cyt c is based on the  
426 reaction of its iron (III) porphyrin, which, in the presence of a cofactor, turns to an oxo-iron species that  
427 rapidly oxidize different substrates<sup>77</sup>. We evaluated the peroxidase-like activity of cyt c when combined  
428 with supported polymer and hybrid bilayers either by two different combination approaches: i) insertion  
429 or ii) conjugation. We did not evaluate solid-supported lipid membranes due to their instability after  
430 insertion of cyt c. We assessed indirectly the cyt c activity in the presence of the cofactor  $H_2O_2$ , with an  
431 Amplex red (AR) based fluorimetric assay. This colorless, non-fluorescent substrate can be oxidized by  
432 the  $OH^\cdot$  radicals, produced by cyt c, to the colored and fluorescent resorufin (Figure S10A). A first  
433 indication of a successful reaction was the color change of the solution (Figure S10B and S10C). Time-  
434 dependent kinetics of resorufin fluorescence intensity (in arbitrary units, a.u.) induced by the addition of  
435  $H_2O_2$  to cyt c serves to evaluate the peroxidase-like activity of cyt c after its combination with supported  
436 polymer and hybrid membranes (Figure 6). In order to eliminate the effects of amplex red auto-  
437 oxidation from the spontaneous dissociation of  $H_2O_2$  and avoid overestimating the peroxidase-like  
438 activity of cyt c, we used the AR auto-oxidation for background correction. We did not expect a  
439 degradation of hybrid membranes by the presence of  $H_2O_2$ , as experiments in similar conditions have  
440 been already tested for PDMS-b-PMOXA polymers, resulting that no significant membrane disturbance  
441 by  $H_2O_2$  were observed<sup>78-79</sup>. Moreover, a negligible oxidation of AR by  $H_2O_2$  was observed by the  
442 fluorometric measurements and AR here served as a scavenger and prevented a possible degradation of  
443 lipid domains. The activity of cyt c when combined with polymer or hybrid membranes, was always  
444 preserved in different degrees as compared with the free protein (Figure 6A), regardless from the  
445 combination method adopted. As expected, cyt c has a lower activity, which can be explained by two  
446 factors: i) a reduced conformational freedom of cyt c due to its interaction with the membrane, and ii)  
447 the fact that the enzyme only covers a bidimensional space, to which the substrates must diffuse,

448 instead of occupying the entire volume, underlying that diffusion is a fundamental parameter<sup>79</sup>. Besides,  
449 the presence of molecules nearby the bilayer interface, might cause further oxidation of the produced  
450 resorufin, before it diffuses back into the bulk of the solution, to non-fluorescent dihydroresazurin<sup>80-81</sup>,  
451 inducing a drop in the fluorescence signal detected in the initial non-linear kinetics. When the cyt c was  
452 covalently bound to supported polymer or hybrid membranes, a higher peroxidase-like activity was  
453 determined, compared to cyt c inserted into the membranes. This is due to a higher accessibility of the  
454 protein for the substrates when it is conjugated. When cyt c is inserted, a greater density of cyt c on the  
455 membrane than the previous case (per QCM-D measurements) does not translate into higher activity,  
456 likely because such technique does not ensure an easy accessibility of the enzyme's active site, which  
457 can end up buried towards the membrane, whereas the anchoring of cyt c prevents it from inserting  
458 with a wrong orientation<sup>82</sup>. Moreover, QCM-D overestimates the density of cyt c on the membranes  
459 since bound water was also taken into account when calculating the protein density. Therefore, when  
460 the bound water is subtracted, actual density of cyt c on the membranes might be smaller and directly  
461 correlated with activity. In order to obtain a rough estimation of the average activity of the protein,  
462 inserted and conjugated into polymer and hybrid membranes, the intensity of fluorescence after 10  
463 minutes was normalized by the number of cyt c molecules. It was found that cyt c inserted into the  
464 polymer membrane exhibits a low activity, with a fluorescence intensity of 30 a.u. The value slightly  
465 increased for the cyt c inserted into the hybrid membrane (50 a.u.). A high activity was instead found for  
466 the cyt c conjugated to the hybrid membrane, with the highest value of circa 300 a.u. Remarkably, in  
467 both cases the activity was increased if the protein was associated to a hybrid membrane, rather than  
468 the purely polymeric one, in this case the presence of lipid rafts might play an important role, increasing  
469 the flexibility of the protein and the mobility within the membrane and, consequently, improving its  
470 accessibility. To study the long-term activity of our hybrid membranes, we followed the enzymatic  
471 oxidation of Amplex red for 12 h, for inserted and conjugated cyt c (Figure 6B). Even though the

472 intensity profile is similar within the first 200 minutes, afterwards the activity of the conjugated cyt c  
473 drifts to higher values than the inserted cyt c, confirming the sustained and long-lasting activity of the  
474 protein with a proper accessibility. Further studies will evaluate in more details cyt c after insertion or  
475 conjugation with the hybrid membrane.



476  
477 **Figure 6.** Qualitative comparison of protein activity by fluorimetric assay after the combination with  
478 different membranes for 10 minutes (A), and with hybrid membrane through different methods for 12  
479 hours (B).

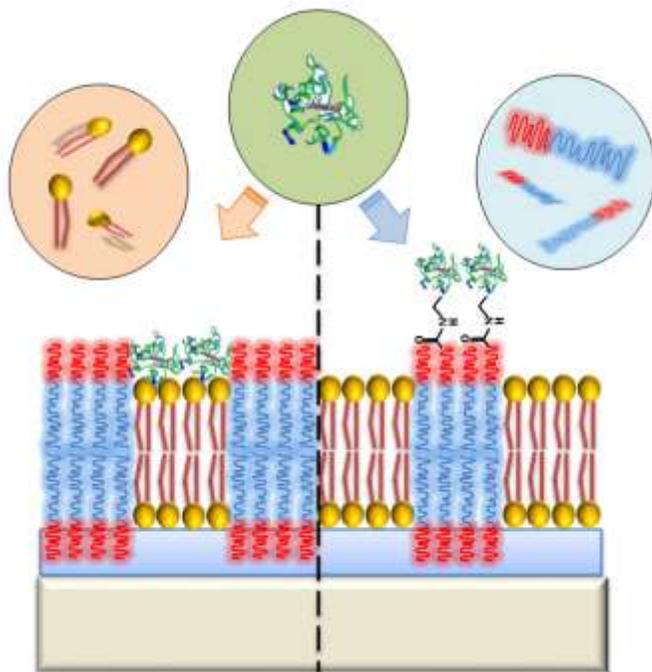
## 480 481 Conclusions

482 The combination of artificial planar membranes with biomolecules has high potential for development  
483 of efficient active surfaces where the functionality is given by the specificity of the biomolecules.  
484 Depending on the combination strategy adopted, it is possible to tune the protein distribution into a  
485 specific domain of hybrid membranes (polymer- or lipid-rich phase). Here we utilised two strategies –  
486 insertion and conjugation – for combining the peripheral membrane protein cyt c with a specific domain  
487 of the hybrid membranes based on mixture of PDMS-*b*-PMOXA diblock copolymers and DPPC lipid. The  
488 lipid in the hybrid membrane preferentially promoted the cyt c insertion into lipid domains, while the

489 copolymer allowed the conjugation with the cyt c into polymer domains through the carboxylic  
490 functionalization. The comparison between the hybrid and one-component membranes (e.g. polymer or  
491 lipid) revealed that the protein activity was higher in hybrid membranes, due to the combined  
492 properties of lipid and polymer. Moreover, the conjugation strategy resulted as the best approach for  
493 increasing the cyt c accessibility and stability, and consequently its activity. Our results open the  
494 possibility to extend the combination to different proteins, as for example Horseradish peroxidase  
495 (HRP), after proper adaption of the system. Taken together, our results support further development of  
496 complex and versatile hybrid bio-interfaces by indicating the molecular factors that are relevant when  
497 biomolecules are combined with planar synthetic membranes, especially when they are hybrid and thus  
498 contain both lipid- and polymer domains.

499

500 TABLE OF CONTENT



501

502

503 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

504 Supporting Information

505 Characterization of PDMS-*b*-PMOXA diblock copolymer with NMR, FTIR and GPC; schematic  
506 representation of protein conjugation strategy; AFM images of polymer mono and bilayer, hybrid and  
507 lipid bilayer after protein combination; Schematic representation of protein-bilayer conjugation; QCM  
508 data for quantification of EDC/sNHS conjugation for comparison of protein combination with and  
509 without BSA step; and comparison of polymer and fluorimetry study for protein activity.

510

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