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1 Research Paper

2 Membrane interactions accelerate the self-aggregation of 3 huntingtin exon 1 fragments in a polyglutamine 4 length-dependent manner

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Abstract: The accumulation of aggregated protein is a typical hallmark of many human neurodegenerative disorders including polyglutamine-related diseases such as chorea Huntington. Misfolding of the amyloidogenic proteins gives rise to self-assembled complexes and fibres. The huntingtin protein is characterized by a segment of consecutive glutamines, which when exceeding ~ 37 residues results in the occurrence of the disease. Furthermore, it has also been demonstrated that the 17-residue amino-terminal domain of the protein (htt17), located upstream of this polyglutamine tract, strongly correlates with aggregate formation and pathology. Here we demonstrate that membrane interactions strongly accelerate the oligomerization and β -amyloid fibril formation of htt17-polyglutamine segments. By using a combination of biophysical approaches the kinetics of fibre formation has been investigated and found to be strongly dependent to the presence of lipids, the length of the polyQ expansion and the polypeptide-to-lipid ratio. Finally, the implications for therapeutic approaches are discussed.

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1. Introduction

At least nine different hereditary diseases that are related to the expansion of a polyglutamine (polyQ) domain are known to date [1]. These so-called CAG repeat pathologies are all related by the propensity of their associated polypeptide to form insoluble β -sheet rich amyloid fibrils. Polyglutamine expansion promotes the self-assembly of fibrils and other types of aggregates that accumulate in inclusions found for example in the brain tissues of patients. By using modern imaging techniques these have been described as dynamic phase separated gel-like structures or as coexisting liquid / solid condensates [2,3]. Chorea Huntington is one of the best studied polyglutamine-related diseases. In this case it has been shown that the age of development and the severity of the disease correlate with the length of the polyQ stretch which is located within the amino-terminal domain of huntingtin, a protein encompassing about 3500 amino acids [1,4]. Symptoms of the disease develop when the polyQ expansion exceeds a critical length of ~ 37 glutamines [5,6]. Although the genetics of Huntington's disease (HD) are well studied, the exact biological functions of huntingtin remain speculative and the exact mechanism of pathogenic peptide aggregation remains a controversial topic [7].

It has been suggested that polyglutamines perturb neuronal membranes, result in their disruption concomitant with calcium dysregulation [8,9] thereby causing Huntington's or other amyloidogenic diseases [10-12]. Huntingtin or fragments of the protein have been shown to be involved in intracellular vesicle trafficking [12-14]. They associate with the ER, the Golgi-apparatus and endosomal vesicles [8,13,15-17]. Notably endosomal vesicle rupture has been shown to be a common mechanism in the redistribution between cells of large assemblies of α -synuclein, tau protein and huntingtin [18]. Furthermore, the length of the polyglutamine tract of huntingtin affects the redistribution of these polypeptides between the cytoplasm and the nucleus [19-21]. Finally, mitochondrial malfunction has also been associated with the pathogenesis of Huntington's disease [22,23]. Indeed, when fusion proteins of GST with exon 1 of huntingtin encompassing either 20 or 51 glutamines have been studied in association with brain lipid membranes protein oligomerization in the presence of long polyglutamine tracts is observed [24].

Studies on the various factors influencing the rate of aggregation include polyQ length, flanking sequences, posttranslational modification, protease activities on huntingtin and the presence of chaperones [1]. On the one hand, the macromolecular assembly of huntingtin or its fragments through polyQ interactions is modulated by association of the protein with membranes [12,25,26]. On the other hand, the length of the polyQ has an influence on these lipid interactions and the resulting membrane disruption [12,25]. Furthermore, the polyproline segment downstream of the polyQ domain has the opposite effect by reducing both the kinetics of aggregation and the formation of β -sheets by the polyQ region [25,27].

Importantly, the first 17 amino acids of huntingtin exon 1 (htt17, also abbreviated N17 or htt^{N17} by other authors), directly preceding the polyQ tract, and posttranslational modifications within this region have been shown to have a strong effect on the cellular localization of huntingtin and the propensity of the protein to aggregate [8,27-32]. Thus, disease pathogenesis in transgenic mice can be inhibited by mutations of serine 13 and 16 within this htt17 domain [33]. Furthermore, the htt17 sequence carries phosphorylation, SUMOlation and nuclear export sequences [1,30,34-38]. Membrane interactions of huntingtin *in vivo* require this htt17 domain [8,15]. Furthermore, it has been shown that htt17 enhances polyglutamine oligomerization [8,15,26,39-41] and is involved in the seeding and fibre maturation processes [26,42].

Recent structural investigations reveal high conformational plasticity of htt17 and the subsequent polyQ domain where htt17 association [26], its interactions with the membrane [43-47] or with other polypeptide domains are associated with random coil-helix structural transitions [48,49]. A recent NMR study has shown that in solution the htt17 sequence associates in a dimer of dimers preaggregation state [50,51]. By using EPR labels positioned at different locations along the exon 1 sequence made up with 46 Qs it was shown that the aggregation process is initiated by the N-terminal domain forming helical structures, followed by the polyQ adopting β -sheet conformations [26]. Membranes or seeds accelerate the aggregation process of this exon 1-Q46 construct. Notably in solution oligomers of 7-11 subunits have been observed [26] while it has been shown that a transition from helical coiled-coil to β -sheet can be part of the aggregation process of polyQ proteins in general [52]. Molecular dynamics calculations indicate that β -hairpin containing conformers of polyQ probably act as templates for subsequent fibril formation [53,54]. The membrane-associated structure of the non-aggregating exon 1-Q25 variant has been investigated using EPR and ODNP approaches [44]. In the presence of membranes, the structuration reaches till residue 22, in agreement with a helical conformation covering much of the htt17 domain [55], while from residue 30 on the protein is water exposed and dynamic [44]. The htt17 domain insertion is shallow and reversible with the helix axis parallel to the membrane surface [43,44,55,56].

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90 Interestingly, the htt17 and the polyQ domains mutually influence each other and their con-
 91 formational properties are coupled [57,58]. More recent investigations using electron microscopy
 92 and molecular dynamics calculations reveal tadpole like structures of exon 1 where htt17 together
 93 with polyQ forms a globular head domain increasing in size as the number of glutamines increases
 94 and where the polyproline extends as the tail [42,59,60]. The htt17 domain plays an important role
 95 in the polyQ aggregation and *de novo*, seeded or membrane-driven mechanisms have been dis-
 96 tinguished [26]. Depending on the conditions, different aggregate sizes of globular or fibrous
 97 morphologies have been described and correlated to toxicity [17,61,62].

98 Aggregation, oligomer and/or fibril formation which are the causative events for the devel-
 99 opment and progression of Huntington's disease [17,61,62] require that polyglutamines are
 100 brought in contact with each other. This can occur by protein-mediated interactions of polygluta-
 101 mines [1,63,64], by seeding or by local accumulation of polyglutamines at bilayer surfaces
 102 [26,43,65]. Notably, the reversible membrane interactions of the amphipathic helical htt17 domain
 103 have been characterized in a quantitative and lipid-dependent manner [43] and the importance of
 104 this domain to enhance polyglutamine aggregation has been shown *in vitro* and *in vivo*
 105 [8,15,39-41]. Another huntingtin domain mediating membrane interactions has been identified
 106 within residues 171-371, a region bearing an overall high cationic character [12]. Furthermore,
 107 biochemical and cell biological assays demonstrate the potential role of these anchoring domains in
 108 disease development [12,24,45,46,56,66].

109 Membrane surface induced conformational changes in proteins play a critical role in the ag-
 110 gregation process, for example, by concentrating and aligning polyglutamines in such a manner to
 111 promote nucleation of amyloid formation [25,26,43,67,68]. Furthermore, membranes could alter
 112 aggregate morphology to specific toxic species or stabilize potentially toxic, transient aggrega-
 113 tion intermediates [10,69-71]. Therefore, investigations of how amyloid fibrils as well as their
 114 intermediate and protofibrillar states interact with membranes is of considerable importance
 115 [25,72]. In the case of huntingtin and synuclein it has been shown that fibrils are toxic to the cells
 116 [73] and that the docking of extra-cellular aggregates to the cell membranes is a key step of the
 117 vicious propagation-amplification cycle [74]. However, hardly any of these publications provide
 118 quantitative structural and biophysical data about interactions of huntingtin domains with mem-
 119 branes.

120 This prompted us to investigate in more detail the role of the membrane in the polyQ asso-
 121 ciation kinetics. To this end we prepared constructs involving the membrane-anchoring htt17
 122 domain followed by polyglutamines of different length. The structural changes were characterized
 123 in a time-dependent manner using CD spectroscopy and the supramolecular complexes formed by
 124 dynamic light scattering and ThT fluorescence. By investigating htt17 in the presence of polyQ
 125 domains as short as 9 glutamines the slower aggregation kinetics allow for a more controlled
 126 evaluation of the processes involved in aggregation and fibril formation similar to the use of
 127 htt17-polyQ constructs used in previous biophysical studies (e.g. [45,46,51,59,66,75]). The poly-
 128 glutamine was then successively extended in small steps to measure the effect of polyQs on the
 129 aggregation dynamics. The results reveal a pronounced dependence of the htt17-driven aggregation
 130 rates on the presence of lipid bilayers, the length of the polyglutamine tract, and polypeptide
 131 concentration.
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133 2. Results

134 The aggregation of huntingtin exon 1-derived peptides was studied by a combination of biophysical
 135 assays. The peptides encompass the first 17-residue amphipathic sequence known to reversibly
 136 interact with membranes [43] and polyglutamine stretches of variable length (Table 1).
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139 able	htt17-Q17	MATLEKLMKAFESLKSF QQQ QQQ QQQ QQQ QQQ QQ
140 1:	htt17-Q12	MATLEKLMKAFESLKSF QQQ QQQ QQQ QQQ

141 Ami

142 no

143 acid sequences of huntingtin exon 1-related peptides.

htt17-Q9

MATLEKLMKAFESLKSFQQQ QQQ QQQ

2.1. CD spectroscopy

To test if membranes can increase the speed of polyglutamine aggregation and at the same time to get insight into their secondary structure, we recorded CD spectra of the polyQ peptides htt17-Q9, htt17-Q12 and htt17-Q17 as a function of time. Their structural changes were monitored in solution in the absence (Figure 1A-C) and in the presence of phospholipid vesicles (Figure 1D-F) in 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7 at a concentration of 0.1 mg/mL (about 30 μ M). The spectra were recorded between 260 and 194 nm where the spectral line shape correlates with the secondary structure composition of the peptides. Measurements were performed every 24.5 minutes and more than 18 spectra were recorded for each polypeptide sequence.

In aqueous solution the three peptides all adopt predominantly random coil conformations, without any significant spectral changes over the time period of the experiment (Figure 1A-C). When fitting the data using the DicroProt analysis software [76] 64% of the signal were associated with random coil conformations.

Figure 1D-F exhibits the time evolution of the peptide spectra in the presence of SUVs made of POPC/POPS at a 3/1 molar ratio. The same mass of peptides (0.1 mg/mL) was mixed with a suspension of vesicles at a lipid concentration of 0.5 mg/mL in 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7, giving final peptide-to-lipid (P/L) molar ratios of 1/19.6, 1/22 and 1/26 for htt17-Q9, htt17-Q12 and htt17-Q17, respectively. Interestingly, the structure of htt17-Q9 remains unchanged over time since all the spectra overlap almost perfectly (Figure 1D). An estimate of the secondary structure of the peptide at the beginning of the experiment gives 33 % α -helix, 22% β -sheet and 45% random-coil structures [76]. In contrast, the CD spectra shown in Figure 1E exhibit a significant increase in ellipticity over time in particular between 194 and 220 nm. Whereas the initial structure of the htt17-Q12 peptide resembles that of htt17-Q9 the β -sheet content of the Q12 sequence increases gradually, at the expense of α -helix and random-coil contributions. This effect is even more pronounced for htt17-Q17 where the whole spectrum changes over time to ultimately converge to positive ellipticity values over the whole spectral range (Figure 1F).

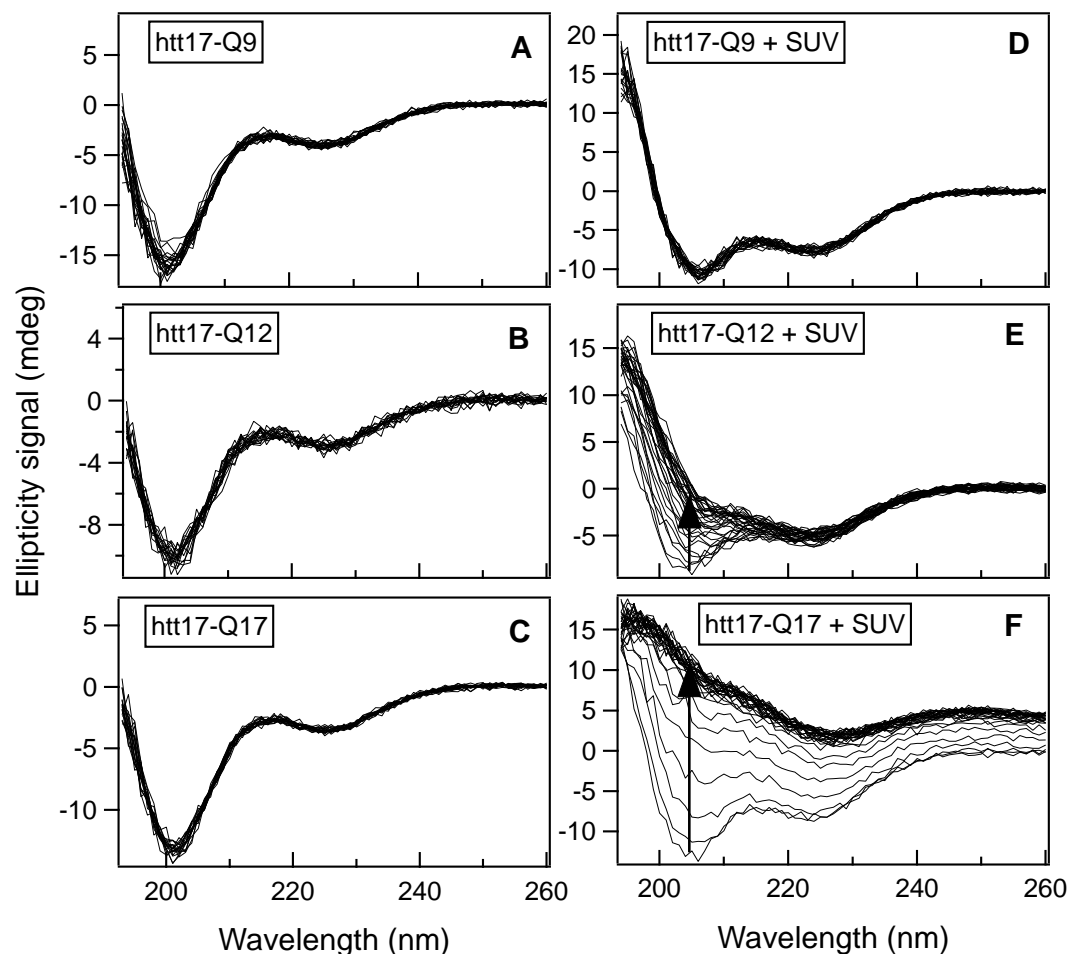


Figure 1: Time-dependent structural changes measured by circular dichroism. CD spectra of htt17-Q9, htt17-Q12 and htt17-Q17 ($C = 9.1 \cdot 10^{-2}$ mg/mL) in 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7 (A to C), and in presence of SUVs made of POPC/POPS 3/1 mole/mole ($C = 0.45$ mg/mL) (D to F) were recorded every 24.5 minutes. The progress of the spectral changes with time is depicted by arrows in panels E and F. Thereby the peptide-to-lipid ratios are 1/19.6, 1/22 and 1/26 for htt17-Q9, htt17-Q12 and htt17-Q17, respectively.

In order to characterize the kinetics of the peptide structural changes, we quantitatively analysed the time-dependent changes of ellipticity at 208 nm (Figure 2). The intensity at this wavelength is related to the helix secondary structures [77] but also affected by vesicle aggregation processes [78]. A mono-exponential function of the form $A + B \cdot (1 - \exp(-t/\tau))$, where A and B are fitting parameters and τ is the exponential time constant, describes well the intensity increase over time. The resulting fits are displayed in Figure 2. Although it should be noted that the absolute values are influenced by a number of environmental effects such as the stirring efficiency and the rate of dichroism increase, the aggregation rate $1/\tau$ follows $\text{htt17-Q17} > \text{htt17-Q12} > \text{htt17-Q9}$ (Fig. 2). This is confirmed by observations from longer polyglutamine peptides which aggregate too fast to be investigated by the techniques employed in this paper (not shown). Furthermore, the peptides investigated here only aggregate in the presence of lipids within the time frame of the experiments.

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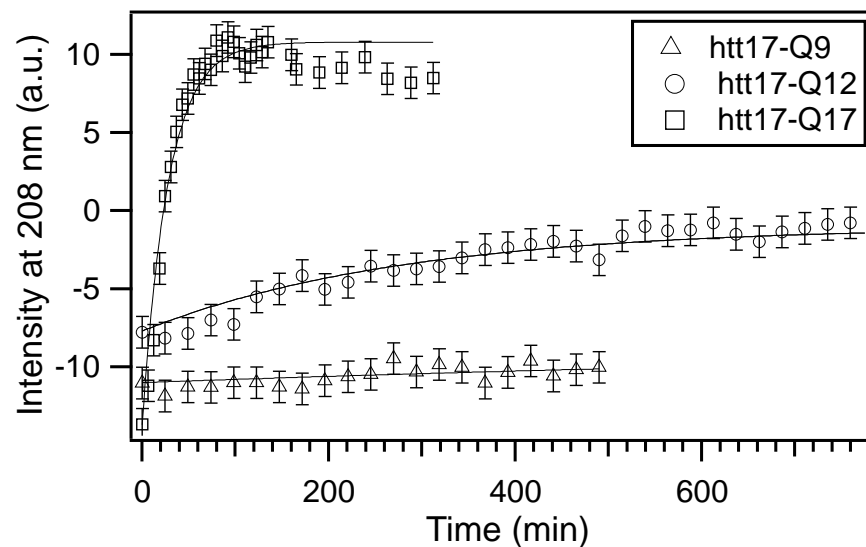


Figure 2: Aggregation kinetics by circular dichroism. The time-dependent intensity of the CD signal measured at 208 nm is shown for htt17-Q9, htt17-Q12 and htt17-Q17 in the presence of 0.45 mg/mL SUVs made of POPC/POPS 3/1 mole/mole in 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7. The results of least square fits with a mono-exponential function are displayed as solid lines. An error of ± 1 was estimated from the signal-to-noise ratio of the spectra.

2.2. Thioflavin T fluorescence

To follow the kinetics of htt17-polyQ β -sheet formation changes in the Thioflavin T (ThT) fluorescence were monitored in the presence of phospholipid bilayers. ThT is a popular reporter of amyloid aggregation because it demonstrates a strong shift and enhanced intensity of fluorescence emission upon binding to β -sheet rich fibrils [79,80]. The dye has been used to visualize and quantify the presence of misfolded protein or peptide aggregates *in vitro* and *in vivo* [81].

Figure 3 displays three sets of measurements performed at the same ThT concentration where a spectrum has been recorded every 2 minutes over a time interval of up to about one hour. The intensity of the fluorescence emission spectra in 10 mM Tris-HCl buffer at pH 7 increases with time in the presence of both $\approx 14.5 \mu\text{M}$ htt17-Q17 and SUVs made of POPC/POPS 3/1 (Figure 3A). In contrast, the fluorescence measured in control experiments with peptides only (Fig. 3B) or with SUVs only (Fig. 3C) remains unchanged. In the presence of liposomes alone an increase in the ThT fluorescence background suggests an interaction of the fluorophore with membranes (Fig. 3C). The spikes observed in the presence of protein are suggestive of light diffraction when aggregates pass through the light beam.

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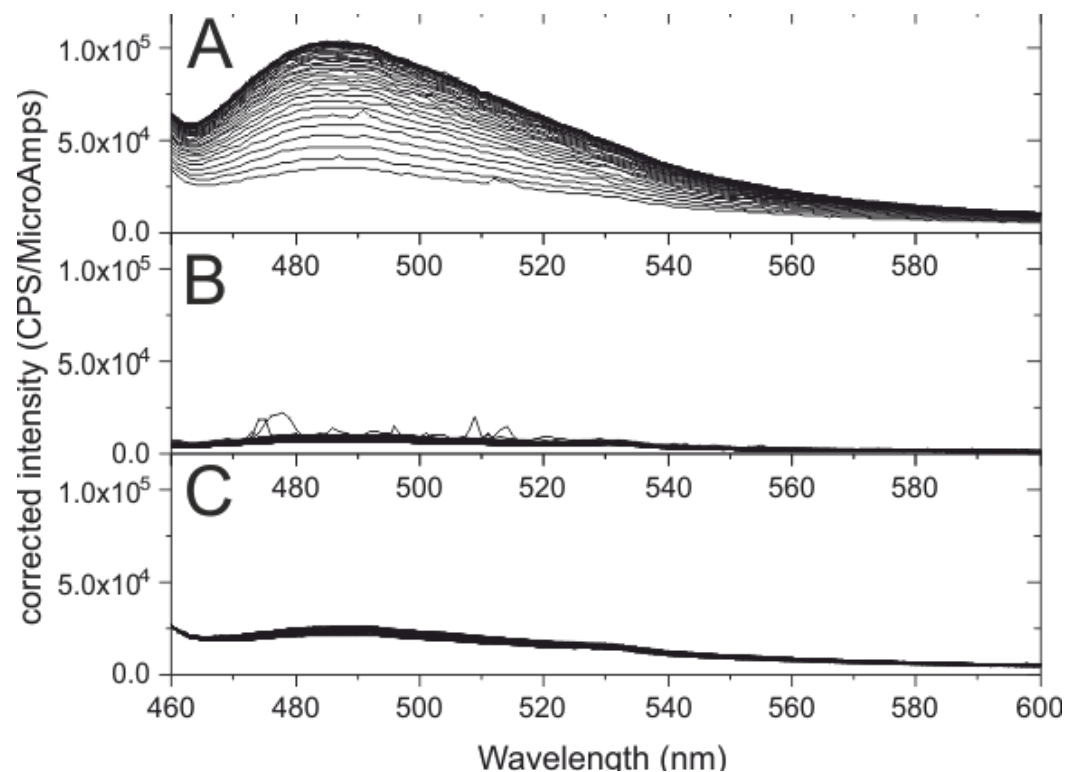


Figure 3: Time-dependent amyloid formation of htt17-Q17. The thioflavin T fluorescence is shown in the presence of 14.5 μM htt17-Q17 and SUVs made of 320 μM POPC/POPS 3/1 mole/mole in 10 mM Tris-HCl buffer, pH 7 (A). The peptide-to-lipid molar ratio was 1/22 and a spectrum was recorded every 2 min. The control experiments show almost no changes in thioflavin T fluorescence when exposed to the same amount of htt17-Q17 only (B) or SUVs only (C). The thioflavin T concentration was 5 μM in all recordings.

In order to follow the β -sheet formation, we measured the time-dependent fluorescence intensity of ThT in the presence of the three peptides at the fixed wavelength of $\lambda_{fluo} = 485$ nm, while the dye was continuously excited at $\lambda_{exc.} = 440$ nm. To quantify the effect of increasing peptide concentrations, for each htt17-polyQ sequence three measurements were performed, namely at P/L ratios of 1/88, 1/44 and 1/22. Under most experimental conditions, an increase of the signal was measured over time, indicating peptide aggregation. In some cases, the signal first increased and then decayed, which is due to sedimentation of the peptides, aggregated and/or associated with the vesicles [82]. Indeed, in these samples, precipitates were detected by visual inspection (Fig. S1A) and fibrous structures made of peptide and associated lipids were observed by electron microscopy (Fig. S1B-D).

As illustrated in Figure 4, the P/L ratio has a direct effect on the efficiency of the aggregation process as well as on its kinetics. For all three peptides, increasing the P/L ratio makes the aggregation process more efficient. Therefore, the fluorescence intensities measured at P/L=1/22 are higher than for P/L=1/44 or P/L=1/88, while the kinetics (i.e. the τ values of the corresponding exponentials) are surprisingly similar when htt17-polyQ is investigated. Whereas for P/L ratios 1/22 a mono-exponential signal increase describes the signal increase reasonably well, additional processes initially cause negative slopes in the ThT fluorescence when htt17-Q9 is investigated at P/L ratios of 1/44 or 1/88, and for htt17-Q12 at P/L=1/88.

In order to test the reproducibility the aggregation kinetics of htt17-Q17 in the presence of lipids (P/L 1/22) was tested 5 times by two different investigators and two different techniques. The τ values were 21 ± 3 min (n=5) when determined by ThT fluorescence (Figs. 3 and 4C) and 29 min when the CD spectral changes were analyzed (Figs.

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1F and 2). For htt17-Q12 the time evolution was an order of magnitude slower (251 ± 83 min, $n=3$; Figs. 1E, 2 and 4B).

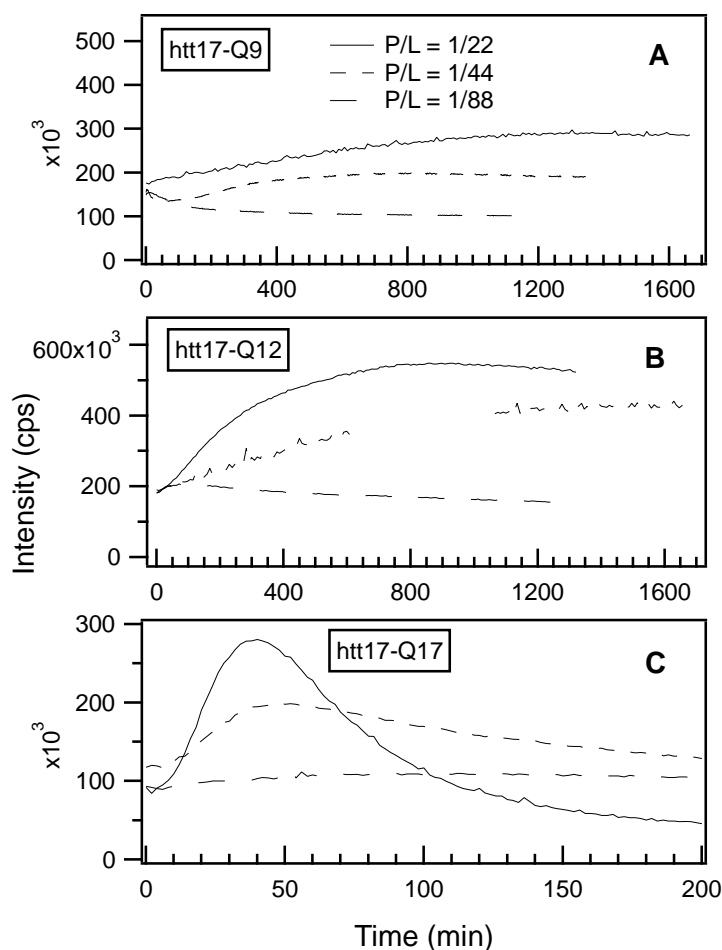
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Figure 4: Time-dependent thioflavin T fluorescence as a function of polypeptide concentration. The thioflavin T fluorescence was continuously measured at 485 nm in the presence of SUVs and htt17-Q9 (A), htt17-Q12 (B) or htt17-Q17 (C), in 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH7. The peptide-to-lipid molar ratios are 1/22, 1/44 and 1/88, displayed as solid, short-dashed and long-dashed lines, respectively. The lipid concentration was kept constant ($C \approx 320 \mu\text{M}$) while the amount of peptide was adjusted to obtain the P/L ratios indicated. The ThT concentration was $\approx 5 \mu\text{M}$ in all the recordings.

2.3. Dynamic light scattering

Dynamic light scattering measurements (DLS) were performed to obtain a more detailed view of the vesicle-vesicle interactions and the subsequent sedimentation processes that was suspected to occur in some of the fluorescence and CD spectroscopy experiments. In these experiments the three htt17-polyQ peptides were exposed to suspensions of SUVs made of POPC/POPS 3/1 mole/mole (0.45 mg/mL, i.e. 580 μM) in 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7 buffer (Figure 5). To start with, the htt17-Q9 concentration was 29 μM and the hydrodynamic diameter of the molecular assemblies and their corresponding polydispersity indexes (PDI) were measured every 18.7 minutes for more than 7 hours. Related experiments were performed in the presence of 25.9 μM htt17-Q12 and 22.9 μM htt17-Q17, respectively, i.e. the same concentrations by weight. This corresponds to the same experimental conditions also used for the CD measurements. When vesicles and htt17-Q17 are mixed the DLS data indicate a rapid initial increase in polydispersity indicating fast aggregation and/or vesicle agglutination within 90 min. The changes of the PDI in the

presence of htt17-Q12 occur at about half the pace. At the same time the apparent hydrodynamic radius of the two systems also increases but it should be kept in mind that the absolute value of this parameter is unreliable when the polydispersity approaches 1 (not shown). While the PDI and apparent hydrodynamic radii of htt17-Q12 and htt17-Q17 increase, the htt17-Q9 peptide left the light scattering unaffected (Figure 5). Thereby, the apparent changes in ellipticity were assigned to light scattering processes induced by supra-wavelength sized systems like vesicle and/or peptide clusters.

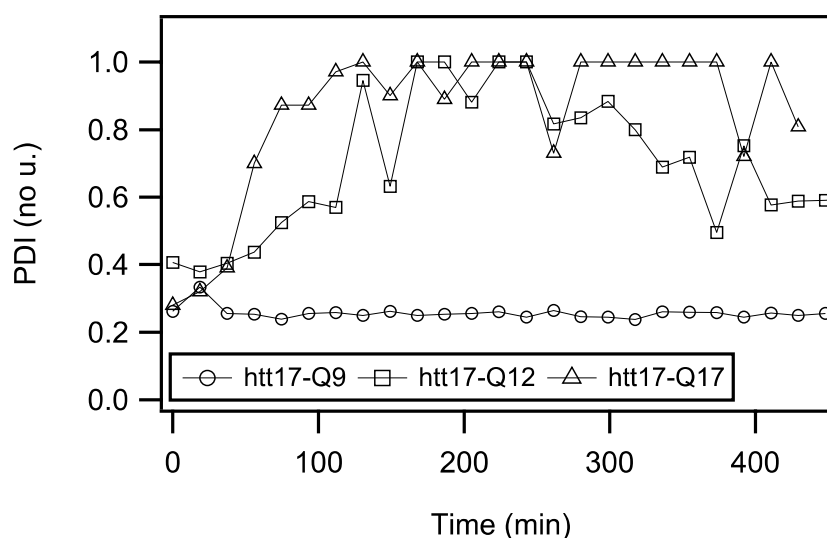


Figure 5: Time-dependent changes of polydispersity. The polydispersity index (PDI) is as a function of time for SUVs in the presence of htt17-Q9 (circles), htt17-Q12 (squares) or htt17-Q17 (triangles) in 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH7. Measurements were performed by dynamic light scattering in the absence of mechanical stirring. The same concentrations of lipids and peptides were used as in the CD experiments presented in Figures 1 and 2. Data points were recorded every 19-20 min.

3. Discussion

Previously it has been shown that huntingtin carries domains before and after the poly-Q tract that promote its reversible membrane association and it has been suggested that this membrane-association helps in polyQ aggregation [12,26,29,43]. In particular, the N-terminal 17 amino acids preceding the polyQ tract of huntingtin (usually abbreviated htt17 or N17 or htt^{N17}) are involved in the regulation of the spatio-temporal distribution of huntingtin or fragments thereof. Their association with membrane components and with different cellular compartments has been shown important for the development of symptoms of Huntington's disease [8,12,15,19-23,29,33,39-41]. Here we show that htt17-polyQ membrane association indeed strongly accelerates polypeptide aggregation in a manner that is dependent on the number of glutamines. A series of sequences was investigated with htt17 as a membrane anchor and various polyQ extensions (Table 1).

In order to quantitatively measure the aggregation kinetics biophysical experiments were performed at polypeptide concentrations of 3 to 30 μ M. This relatively low concentration is still suitable for spectroscopic analysis, but longer polyQ constructs tend to aggregate at very short time scales (not shown). Therefore, quantitative studies of the speed of aggregation were performed with constructs carrying a limiting number of glutamines (see also [83]). It should be noted that in their natural context the solubility of the full-length protein or its exon 1 domain is increased by the polyproline flanking se-

325 quence following the polyQ domain [31,32,40,48]. Therefore, as an alternative, exon 1
326 fragments were investigated where the carboxy-terminal proline-rich domain slows
327 down the aggregation process probably through interactions with polyQ and htt17 (e.g.
328 [26,42,84]). Because such additional interactions add an additional layer of complexity
329 to the system here we have chosen to investigate the role of htt17 membrane interactions
330 in polyglutamine aggregation using shorter constructs that aggregate at a rate still ac-
331 cessible to biophysical investigation. Furthermore, in the cellular environment, interac-
332 tions with other proteins, chaperones and proteases, as well as other domains of the
333 full-length protein assure that healthy cells are protected from huntingtin aggregation
334 [85,86]. Therefore, it takes many years to develop the disease even when much longer
335 polyQ mutants are present [1].

336 When diluted in aqueous buffer CD spectra of the peptides with short polyQ addi-
337 tions are indicative of predominantly random coil structure and some features of
338 α -helical/ β -sheet conformations. Upon addition of POPC/POPS 3/1 membranes the CD
339 spectra of htt17-polyglutamines carrying 12 or more glutamines change in appearance
340 over the next few hours (Fig 1). Notably, the CD spectra of htt17-Q17 exhibit similar
341 features when compared to htt(1-40), a construct carrying htt17, 17 glutamines and 6
342 prolines [52]. This observation suggests related structural changes in solution and in the
343 presence of membranes. Electron microscopic images indicate that liposomes aggluti-
344 nate with htt17-Q17 proteinaceous fibres (Fig. S1B-D). The increase in PDI observed by
345 DLS (Fig. 5), the thioflavin fluorescence (Figs. 3 and 4) and the EM pictures (Fig. S1) are
346 indicative that the peptides aggregate in the presence of membranes in a manner that
347 depends on the peptide-to-lipid ratio (Fig. 4). In the case of htt17-Q17 the changes in the
348 CD spectra obtained at concentrations of about 30 μ M peptide and 650 μ M lipid reach
349 saturation after about 1.5h (Figs. 1 and 2).

350 At longer incubation times CD- and ThT fluorescence spectra decrease in intensity
351 (Figs. 2 and 4C) because the larger peptide-lipid aggregates sink to the ground and/or
352 stick to the surface of the glass tubes (Fig. S1). The spectral changes are suggestive of an
353 increase in β -sheet conformation (Fig. 1) in agreement with other structural data
354 [44,49,52,75], when at the same time a continuous increase in hydrodynamic radius is
355 observed (Fig 5). Concomitant with this aggregation a quantitative analysis of the re-
356 sulting CD spectra is hampered by light diffraction artefacts (Figs. 1F, 2 and 5). Peptides
357 carrying a shorter polyQ segment aggregate more slowly or do not show spectral
358 changes at all (Fig. 1D,E). The degree of aggregation increases but also its kinetics accel-
359 erates with the number of glutamines.

360 Whereas under the conditions investigated the peptides studied in this work remain
361 in solution over many hours, even days in the absence of POPC/POPS vesicles, here we
362 show that the addition of membranes strongly catalyses the aggregation process. Indeed,
363 whereas aggregate formation *de novo* or through seeding are well established pathways,
364 membranes have been shown to provide a third aggregation mechanism [26,87]. The data
365 presented agrees with previous investigations where GDT-exon1 constructs have been
366 found associated with rat postsynaptic membranes and where brain lipid vesicles accel-
367 erate nucleation and thereby fibril formation upon trypsin cleavage of 3 μ M GST-exon 1
368 encompassing 51 glutamines [24]. In the same study the presence of zwitterionic DMPC
369 or of DOPC/SM/cholesterol slowed down this effect thereby being in-line with studies
370 where htt17 membrane interactions were weak or absent for zwitterionic and choles-
371 terol-rich membranes [43,88]. In a related manner a recent paper has revealed the im-
372 portance of electrostatic contributions to the membrane-association of htt17 within exon 1
373 and the possible interference of amino acid modifications introducing additional nega-
374 tive charges [44].

375 The N-terminal 17-residue sequence has been demonstrated to adopt a largely heli-
376 cal conformations when being membranes-associated [44-46,55,89], when part of a
377 htt17-polyQ fiber [42,49,57,90] or in aggregation intermediates [62,83]. Here we have
378 shown that the membrane interactions of the htt17 flanking region of the polyQ domain

379 promotes the polyglutamine aggregation process. In a related manner, Htt17 also plays a
380 leading role in catalysing the nucleation process during polyQ aggregation in solution.
381 The htt17 amphipathic helix has been shown to associate into small oligomeric structures
382 which serve as nucleation sites [26,62,83] from which polyQ fibrils elongate [26,90,91].
383 Furthermore, the flanking sequences play important additional roles in regulating the
384 proteolytic degradation of the protein and its aggregates where the toxicity depends in a
385 complex manner on the conformational subpopulation rather than the polyQ aggregation
386 propensity [30,32,62,92] .

387 Flanking regions of other polyQ proteins seem equally important in the regulation
388 of their aggregation and fiber formation [1]. In particular previous studies showed that
389 posttranslational modifications of flanking regions such as phosphorylation, SUMOyla-
390 tion or ubiquitination including of htt17 have an effect on polyQ aggregation [1,30,34-37].
391 This has been attributed to the changes of htt17 oligomerization being a consequence of
392 such modifications, as well as modifications of its interaction surface with chaperones.
393 The work presented here suggest that also its interactions with membranes should be
394 strongly modified when e.g. negative phosphates are attached to its serines [28], when
395 lysines are made unavailable for protein-protein and protein-lipid interactions [55,89,93]
396 or the overall positive charge of htt17 is neutralized or inverted by posttranslational
397 modifications thus abolishing the electrostatic attraction of the flanking regions to ani-
398 onic membranes [12,44,55]. The numerous possibilities to interfere with protein-protein
399 and protein-lipid interactions and thereby fibre formation explain why not all
400 polyQ-extension diseases follow the same pattern and why the age onset of Huntington
401 disease shows significant variation even for the same number of glutamines [1].

402 We suggest that the amphipathic htt17 helix, which reversibly associates with the
403 membrane interface [44,55,89], concentrates and aligns the polyQ chains in such a man-
404 ner to facilitate intermolecular interactions and fiber association [12,43]. Once the inter-
405 actions with the membrane are established the aggregation process is enhanced by high
406 peptide density (i.e. P/L ratio) and by extended polyQ chains but slowed down by the
407 presence of the polyproline stretch that follows the poly-Q domain [48,94]. The polyQ
408 length dependence may arise from the need to adopt an intermediate coiled-coil struc-
409 ture before transition into a β -sheet amyloid [52] as well as from interactions with other
410 proteins or polypeptide domains [1,25,27]. Thereby these and other biophysical observa-
411 tions provide a rationale for a number of biochemical and cell biological experiments
412 where huntingtin has been shown associated with membranes of intracellular organelles
413 [8,12,15,19-23,28] or where the membrane anchoring domain htt17 has been demon-
414 strated to promote the development of the disease [8,15,29,33,39-41].

415 Such lipid interactions have been shown to be modulators of aggregation and fibril
416 formation also for α -synuclein [67,72,74], islet amyloid polypeptide [11] and β -amyloid
417 [68,95]. Within these studies the detailed membrane composition including the resulting
418 physico-chemical properties such as negative charge density, fluidity, saturation, curva-
419 ture or interactions with specific lipids all play important roles in the aggregation process
420 [11,43,44,66,88,96]. Thereby, the membrane interactions of polyQ flanking regions and
421 their modulation by posttranslational modifications provides a possible therapeutic in-
422 tervention site which has to our knowledge not been explored in greater detail.

423 4. Materials and Methods

424 4.1. Materials

425 All lipids were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids (Alabaster, AL, USA). Water (HPLC
426 grade), acetonitrile (99.8% HPLC grade), hexafluoro-2-propanol (99.5%), trifluoroacetic
427 acid (TFA) (99.5%) and thioflavin (ThT) were from Sigma (St. Quentin Fallavier, France).

428 4.2. Peptide synthesis and purification

429 The peptides with the sequences shown in Table 1 were prepared by solid-phase syn-
430 thesis using a Millipore 9050 automated peptide synthesizer and its standard Fmoc
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(9-fluorenylme- thyloxycarbonyl) chemistry. They were purified by semi-preparative reverse phase high-performance liquid chromatography (Gilson, Villiers-le-Bel, France) using a preparative C18 column (Luna, C18-100Å-5µm, Phenomenex, Le Pecq, France) and an acetonitrile/water gradient. Their identity and purity (> 90%) were verified by analytical HPLC and MALDI mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF Autoflex, Bruker Daltonics, Bremen, Germany). The fractions of interest were lyophilized for storage at -20°C.

4.3. Small unilamellar vesicles

The lipids were dissolved in chloroform/methanol (2/1 v/v). The solvent was evaporated under a flow of nitrogen gas in such a manner to form a homogeneous film on the walls of glass test tubes. The remaining solvent was removed by exposure for about 12 hours to high vacuum ($P < 100$ mPa). Subsequently, the lipids were hydrated in 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7 for more than an hour and subjected to several freeze-thaw cycles. Small unilamellar vesicles (SUV) were obtained after less than 1 min of tip sonication (Bandelin Sonopuls HD 200, Berlin, Germany). The lipid composition was chosen to represent the overall charge and main lipid components of the inner leaflet of the plasma membrane [97,98].

4.4. Circular dichroism spectroscopy

Circular dichroism (CD) spectra were recorded from 260 to 194 nm (spectral resolution: 1 nm, data pitch: 1 nm, scan speed: 100 nm/min) using a J-810 spectropolarimeter (Jasco, Tokyo, Japan). 20 µL of peptide solution (at 1 mg/mL, in 10 mM Tris-HCl buffer pH 7) were transferred into a quartz cuvette of 1 mm path length and mixed with 200 µL of SUVs ($C = 0.5$ mg lipid/mL) to reach the final concentration of peptide $\approx 9.1 \cdot 10^{-2}$ mg/mL (corresponding to 29, 26 and 22 µM for htt17-Q9, htt17-Q12 and htt17-Q17, respectively). The mixture was vortexed for ≈ 15 s prior to spectral acquisition. The secondary structure composition of the peptides was calculated from the spectra using a linear least-squares method implemented in the DicroProt analysis software [76].

4.5. Measurements of thioflavin-T fluorescence

A 100 mM stock solution of Thioflavin-T (ThT) was prepared in 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7 and stored in the dark at -20°C. The solution was thawed and diluted to 1 mM in the same buffer on the day of analysis. To prepare samples for fluorescence spectroscopy, peptide powders were suspended in some mL of mixed HFIP and TFA (1/1), dried and dissolved in the same solvent at least three times in order to obtain a clear solution. Thereafter, for each sample preparation an aliquot containing 0.3 mg of peptide, was taken and dried under a flow of N₂ gas for more than 30 minutes. A few mL of SUV suspension (at 0.25 mg/mL) was added to the dried peptide to reach the appropriate peptide-to-lipid ratio together with some µL of ThT solution to reach a 5 µM final concentration. The solution was then vortexed for about one minute. 1 ml of sample was rapidly transferred into a quartz cuvette and immediately placed in the sample holder of a Fluorolog 3-22 spectrometer (Horiba Jobin-Yvon, Longjumeau, France). The sample was excited at $\lambda_{exc} = 440$ nm while the dispersed fluorescence intensity was either recorded from $\lambda_{fluo} = 455$ to 651 nm or at the fixed wavelength of $\lambda_{fluo} = 485$ nm at a constant temperature of 25 °C. A resolution of $\Delta\lambda = 4$ nm was chosen for excitation as well as for analysis in order to obtain a good signal-to-noise ratio. The sample was constantly stirred at low speed with a small size rotated Teflon coated magnetic bar.

4.6. Dynamic light scattering

Measurements were performed on a Zetasizer Nano-S system (Malvern Instruments, Worcestershire, UK) equipped with a 4 mW He-Ne laser. Samples containing the mixture of peptides and vesicles were placed in a low volume quartz cell equilibrated at 25°C, and the light scattered backward was collected at an angle of $\theta = 173^\circ$. Data analysis was performed with the DTS Malvern software implemented on a personal computer.

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4.7. Data analysis

To analyse the kinetic data, *i.e.* fluorescence intensity of ThT at 485 nm or circular dichroism at 208 nm as a function of time, a standard least-square fit analysis was implemented numerically. A three parameter single exponential function, $I(t) = A + B \cdot (1 - \exp(-t/\tau))$ was found to describe well the intensity increase of the signals.

Supplementary Materials: The following are available online at www.mdpi.com/xxx/s1, Figure S1: Picture and TEM image of htt17-Q17 in the presence of 100 nm LUVs.

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Data Availability Statement: Data are available on request

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