

Interfacial self-assembly of a bacterial hydrophobin

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The majority of bacteria in the natural environment live within the confines of a biofilm. The Gram-positive bacterium *Bacillus subtilis* forms biofilms that exhibit a characteristic wrinkled morphology and a highly hydrophobic surface. A critical component in generating these properties is the protein BslA, which forms a coat across the surface of the sessile community. We recently reported the structure of BslA, and noted the presence of a large surface-exposed hydrophobic patch. Such surface patches are also observed in the class of surface-active proteins known as hydrophobins, and are thought to mediate their interfacial activity. However, although functionally related to the hydrophobins, BslA shares no sequence nor structural similarity, and here we show that the mechanism of action is also distinct. Specifically, our results suggest that the amino acids making up the large, surface-exposed hydrophobic cap in the crystal structure are shielded in aqueous solution by adopting a random coil conformation, enabling the protein to be soluble and monomeric. At an interface, these cap residues refold, inserting the hydrophobic side chains into the air or oil phase and forming a three-stranded β -sheet. This form then self-assembles into a well-ordered 2D rectangular lattice that stabilizes the interface. By replacing a hydrophobic leucine in the center of the cap with a positively charged lysine, we changed the energetics of adsorption and disrupted the formation of the 2D lattice. This limited structural metamorphosis represents a previously unidentified environmentally responsive mechanism for interfacial stabilization by proteins.

BslA | interfacial self-assembly | bacterial hydrophobin | *Bacillus subtilis* | biofilm

In the natural environment the majority of bacteria live within the confines of a structured social community called a biofilm. Residence offers bacteria multiple advantages over their free-living cousins that cannot be explained by genetics (1). Many of these benefits are conferred by production of an extracellular matrix, the hallmark feature of biofilms. The biofilm matrix largely consists of proteins, polysaccharides, and DNA. It provides a source of water and nutrients, and confers structural integrity (1–4). Biofilms formed by the Gram-positive bacterium *Bacillus subtilis* are characterized by a highly wrinkled morphology and a hydrophobic surface. The biofilm matrix is composed of a large exopolysaccharide synthesized by the products of the *epsA-O* operon, and the TasA/TapA proteins that form fibrous aggregates (5). Assembly of the matrix requires the small, secreted surface-active protein called BslA (formerly YuaB). BslA is found as a discrete layer at the surface of the biofilm despite uniform transcription of the coding region by the entire biofilm population (6–9). It achieves its surface hydrophobicity due to its striking amphiphilic structure, which we recently elucidated by X-ray crystallography (10). The structure of BslA consists of a canonical Ig-like domain, to which is appended a three-stranded “cap” that is highly hydrophobic in character, rich in leucine residues as well as isoleucine, valine, and alanine (10). In the crystal structure, this cap comprises a surface-exposed hydrophobic patch of $\sim 1,620$ Å that we have previously proposed to mediate adsorption to the air/water interface.

The large surface-exposed hydrophobic patch exhibited by BslA is a characteristic shared by the unrelated family of fungal

proteins known as the hydrophobins (11). Hydrophobins are a conserved family of surface-active proteins that, among other functions, lower the surface tension of growth medium, allowing fungal hyphae to penetrate the air–water interface. The hydrophobins are divided into class I and class II; class I proteins form robust amyloid-like rodlets at the air–water interface, whereas class II proteins reduce surface tension by forming ordered lattices of native-like protein at the interface. In both classes, eight canonical cysteine residues form a highly conserved series of disulfide bridges that provide a rigid framework that restricts the mobility of the polypeptide chain (12, 13). In the class II hydrophobins, this framework is thought to stabilize the surface exposure of the large hydrophobic patch that mediates interfacial assembly (14). The presence of a large hydrophobic patch on the surface of BslA, combined with its biological function, caused us to classify BslA as a bacterial hydrophobin; however, it shares neither sequence nor structural similarity. An outstanding question remains, therefore: in the absence of a stabilizing disulfide-bonded network, how is the large surface-exposed hydrophobic patch of BslA stabilized sufficiently in aqueous environments to mediate the surface activity of the protein?

Here we use WT-BslA and a targeted mutation in the cap domain (L77K) to determine the mechanism that enables BslA to partition from the aqueous phase to the interface, where it decreases the interfacial tension and self-assembles to form an ordered rectangular 2D protein lattice. We chose the L77K mutation for further investigation as it exhibits one of the most dramatic changes in interfacial activity both in vivo and in vitro (10), thus enabling us to determine the mechanism of action. We show that BslA undergoes an environmentally responsive conformational change: the cap is stabilized in aqueous solution by

Significance

In the natural environment the majority of bacteria live within the confines of a structured social community called a biofilm. The stability of biofilms arises from the extracellular matrix, which consists of proteins, polysaccharides, and extracellular DNA. One of these proteins, BslA, forms a hydrophobic “rain-coat” at the surface of the biofilm. We have uncovered the mechanism that enables this protein to function, revealing a structural metamorphosis from a form that is stable in water to a structure that prefers the interface where it self-assembles with nanometer precision to form a robust film. Our findings have wide-ranging implications, from the disruption of harmful bacterial biofilms to the generation of nanoscale materials.

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burying the hydrophobic side chains in a random coil conformation, but switches to a surface-exposed hydrophobic β -sheet at an interface. This switch gives rise to a small energy barrier to adsorption, and both structural forms are represented in the decameric crystal structure. By mutating a single residue in the cap, we abolish the energy barrier, and although the cap region of the mutant protein still undergoes a coil-to- β -sheet transition at an interface, formation of the organized 2D lattice is disrupted. Taken together, our findings represent a previously undiscovered structural metamorphosis that enables interfacial stabilization by proteins.

Results

Here we address the question of how the large surface-exposed hydrophobic patch of BslA is stabilized in aqueous environments to mediate the surface activity of the protein. One possible trivial mechanism is the formation of higher order oligomers, such as the decamer observed in the BslA crystal structure, or the tetramer observed for the class II fungal hydrophobin HFB II (15). However, although size exclusion chromatography indicated that purified BslA forms a mixture of monomers, dimers, and higher order oligomers (SI Appendix, Figs. S1 and S2), addition of a reducing agent such as dithiothreitol or β -mercaptoethanol yielded a sample containing purely monomeric protein (SI Appendix, Figs. S2 and S3) stable on the timescale of days. BslA contains two closely spaced cysteine residues, and the role of these residues in biofilm formation and/or maturation is as yet unclear. That said, here we show that the oxidation state of the cysteine residue is not important to the *in vitro* biophysical properties of the protein; dimeric BslA gives equivalent results to that of monomer if we assume that the concentration of surface-active species comprises 50% of the protein in the sample (i.e., only one subunit of the disulfide-bonded dimer is available for surface activity; SI Appendix, Fig. S4). We have therefore established that the monomeric protein is stable and soluble over a timescale of days, suggesting that the large hydrophobic cap we observed in the crystal structure must be shielded in aqueous solution, likely through some form of structural rearrangement. All experiments presented here used monomeric protein unless otherwise stated.

WT-BslA Has a Barrier to Adsorption to an Air–Water Interface, Whereas BslA-L77K Does Not. We know that the hydrophobic patch identified in the BslA crystal structure is important for interfacial activity, because mutations in this region affect both biofilm phenotype and partitioning to an oil–water interface (10). That BslA is stable as a monomer in aqueous solution suggests that the hydrophobic residues of the cap are not surface exposed, and there must be a conformational change to expose the hydrophobic patch, with a corresponding energy barrier to adsorption. To investigate this experimentally, pendant drop tensiometry with drop shape analysis was performed on BslA solutions at concentrations between 0.01 and 0.1 mg·mL⁻¹. In this technique, the shape of a drop is fitted to the Young–Laplace equation to measure the interfacial tension (IFT) at the droplet surface (16, 17), which decreases as the interface is populated by surface-active species (18). An increase in the error of the fit to the Young–Laplace equation indicates that a viscoelastic film has formed at the interface, and because a solid layer now separates the two liquid phases the concept of interfacial tension no longer applies (19). At low protein concentrations, the IFT initially remains unchanged for a lag time that is designated regime I (20, 21). During this period, the interface becomes occupied by protein to a critical surface coverage above 50% (20), and provides a measure of the rate at which the protein partitions to the interface. During regime II, the IFT decreases steeply until the interface is saturated with adsorbed protein, following which the IFT levels off (regime III), although a shallow gradient often indicates rearrangement of the protein layer. These characteristics can be seen in typical BslA dynamic interfacial tension response curves, however the fit error of the

Young–Laplace equation to the droplet increased at some point during most experiments, indicating the formation of a viscoelastic layer (19).

The time (t) it takes for a particle to adsorb onto an interface via diffusion can be predicted by Eq. 1 (22):

$$\Gamma(t) = 2C_b \sqrt{\frac{Dt}{\pi}}, \quad [1]$$

where Γ is surface concentration, C_b is bulk concentration, and D is the diffusion coefficient of the particle. Eq. 1 assumes that C_b is unchanging and that there is no back diffusion from the interface (22). We can estimate Γ_{\max} (for 100% surface coverage) to be 1.57 mg·m⁻² from transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of the BslA 2D lattice (*vide infra*; Fig. 3A), while D was measured to be 9.87 × 10⁻⁷ cm²·s⁻¹ for monomeric BslA using dynamic light scattering (SI Appendix, Fig. S5). In cases where the error of the Laplace fit increased before a decrease in IFT was observed, then the onset time of any increase in the error of the Laplace fit was used (SI Appendix, Fig. S6).

Fig. 1 shows a plot of regime I time against BslA concentration for WT-BslA as well as the “ideal” regime I times calculated from Eq. 1 (Fig. 1, dashed line). The results clearly demonstrate that WT-BslA is slower to decrease the interfacial tension of a droplet (or increase the error of Laplace fit) in air than would be expected for a system that did not exhibit an adsorption barrier or back diffusion. If, however, we introduce a mutation into the cap region that replaces Leucine at position 77 with Lysine (L77K), the mutant showed no adsorption barrier, reducing the interfacial tension of the droplet within the maximum calculated time for particles of equivalent size (Fig. 1). Under diffusion-limiting conditions (Eq. 1) BslA at a concentration of 0.03 mg·mL⁻¹ should take 22 s to reach a surface concentration of 1.57 mg·m⁻². As the IFT will begin to decrease at a surface coverage below 100%, BslA should require less than 22 s to reduce the IFT of a droplet. At 0.03 mg·mL⁻¹ the regime I time for WT-BslA was 97 ± 18 s, compared with 12 ± 4 s for BslA-L77K, confirming that BslA-L77K adsorption is purely diffusion limited, whereas WT-BslA faces an additional barrier to adsorption. This finding is consistent with the hypothesis that the WT protein undergoes a conformational change before adsorption. This energy barrier is not high, as dimensional analysis suggests that it is in the order of ~10 $k_B T$ (SI Appendix, Fig. S8), consistent with a limited structural rearrangement. We infer that introducing the positively charged lysine disrupts the conformation in aqueous solution so that not all of the hydrophobic groups pack optimally, and their partial exposure facilitates the interaction with the interface, abolishing the barrier to adsorption.

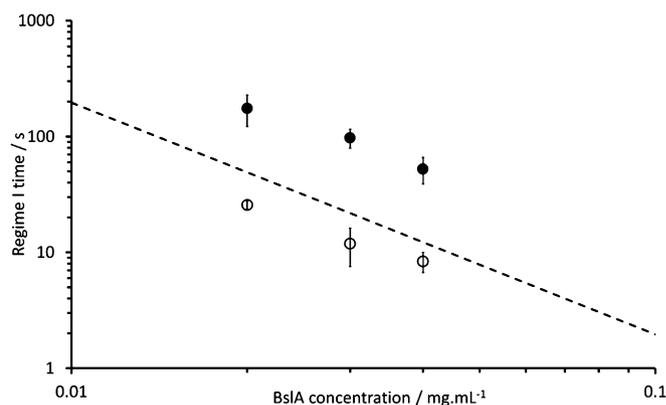


Fig. 1. A plot of regime I times versus concentration of WT-BslA (closed circles) and BslA-L77K (open circles). The dashed line represents the predicted time to reach a surface coverage of 1.57 mg·m⁻² using Eq. 1.

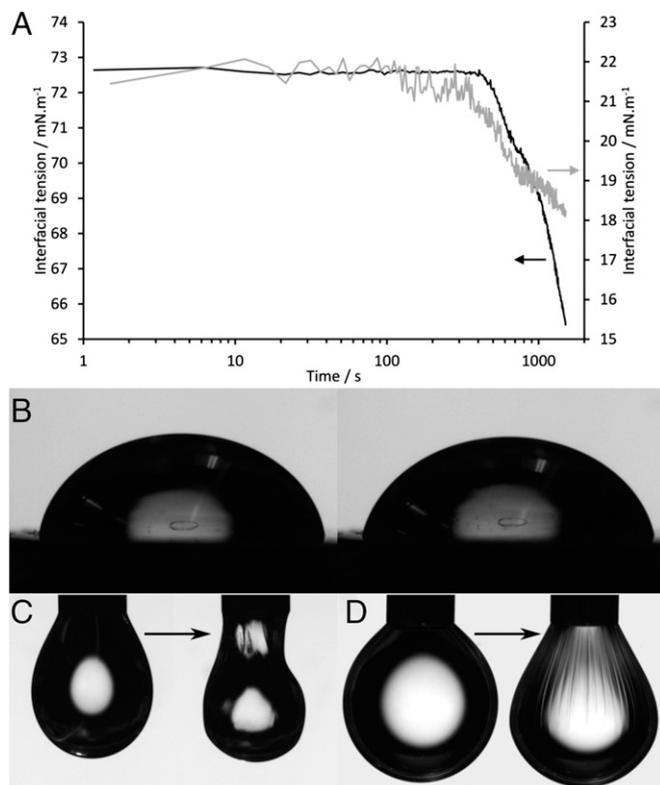


Fig. 5. (A) Interfacial tension profiles of a droplet of unfractionated WT-BsIA ($0.02 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$) in air (black line) and in glyceryl trioctanoate (gray line). (B) A $50\text{-}\mu\text{L}$ droplet of WT-BsIA ($0.03 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$) on highly ordered pyrolytic graphite after 0 (Left) and 30 (Right) min. (C) A $25\text{-}\mu\text{L}$ droplet of WT-BsIA ($0.02 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$) in air before and after compression. (D) A $40\text{-}\mu\text{L}$ droplet of WT-BsIA ($0.2 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$) in glyceryl trioctanoate before and after compression.

and the resulting films, although very stable, have an elastic modulus that does not deform the droplet shape. Such elasticity may enable BsIA to uniformly coat the highly wrinkled morphology of the native *B. subtilis* biofilm.

At the interface BsIA undergoes an environmentally responsive structural metamorphosis. Thus, the mechanism of stabilization of the hydrophobic patch in BsIA is fundamentally different to that observed for the fungal hydrophobins: instead of the network of conserved disulfide bonds required to stabilize the energetically unfavorable surface exposure of hydrophobic amino acids observed in the hydrophobins, BsIA has evolved structural plasticity in the three-stranded cap that allows conformational rearrangement. Only once the protein adsorbs to the interface do the residues within the cap refold to reach a free energy minimum in which the hydrophobic residues protrude into the nonaqueous phase. This structure–function relationship may be important for the function of BsIA *in vivo*. As the BsIA coding region is expressed throughout the entire *B. subtilis* biofilm population (8), the molecule needs to diffuse through the extracellular matrix to the surface of the biofilm without hindrance. A cap that becomes significantly more hydrophobic after adsorption would be a useful mechanism to help prevent unwanted interactions leading to retention of BsIA within the body of the biofilm community. It should however be noted that this does not preclude other potential transport mechanisms to the biofilm interface such as the involvement of a chaperone protein. Moreover, these findings open up the possibility that the alternative conformational form of BsIA has additional functions within the confines of the biofilm unrelated to its function in conferring hydrophobicity at the biofilm surface.

Discussion

Details of the components that make up the biofilm matrix have been elucidated for several species of bacteria (1, 4). However, information at the molecular and biophysical level regarding how these molecules contribute to biofilm stability, and how they assemble in the three dimensions of the bacterial community is largely lacking. Here we have illuminated the mechanism by which BsIA, a protein made by all members of the *B. subtilis* biofilm community, selectively assembles at the interface of the biofilm. This mechanism is summarized in Fig. 6 where a schematic for the adsorption of WT-BsIA compared with BsIA-L77K is depicted. In both cases, the monomeric protein adsorbs to the interface, although our data show that the rate of adsorption of BsIA-L77K is greater as it experiences no barrier. After adsorption, both WT-BsIA and BsIA-L77K refold into structures enriched in β -sheet, but only WT-BsIA can organize into an extensive, highly ordered 2D rectangular lattice. It is the high free energy of adsorption, combined with formation of a stable lattice structure that enhances the stability of WT-BsIA interfacial films, so that introducing a small amount of compression is insufficient to remove WT-BsIA from the interface (10). This is in contrast to BsIA-L77K, which has a lower free energy of adsorption and does not form an organized lattice over the entire droplet surface, and is thus easily removed upon compression of the interface.

We performed all experiments on monomeric BsIA, and moreover complementary experiments with dimeric BsIA indicated that it is the monomeric unit that mediates the observed interfacial activity (SI Appendix, Fig. S4). Native BsIA contains two cysteine residues toward the C terminus in a “CXC” motif, and we cannot rule out an additional stabilizing contribution

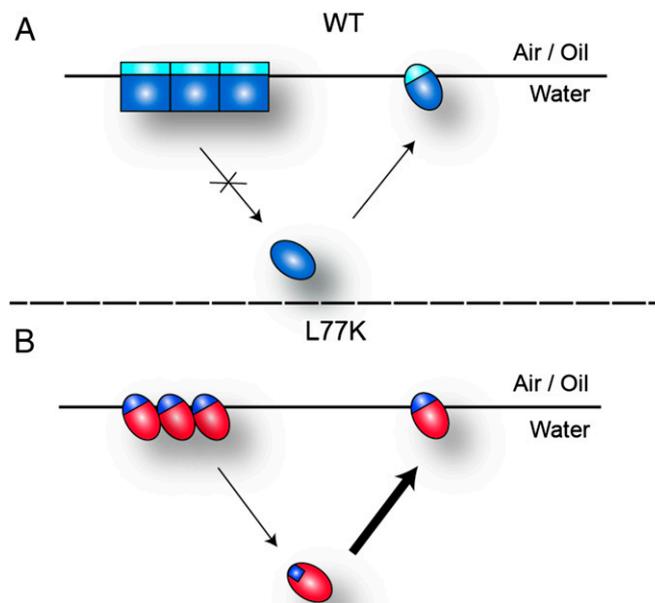


Fig. 6. Schematic of BsIA adsorption. When unbound, the conformation of the hydrophobic cap of WT-BsIA (A) orients the hydrophobic residues away from the aqueous medium, slowing the rate of adsorption (indicated by a small arrow). The L77K mutation (B) removes the adsorption barrier by exposing some or all of the hydrophobic residues within the hydrophobic cap, increasing the rate of adsorption (indicated by a bold arrow). Once adsorbed onto the interface, the surface-bound WT-BsIA refolds to a conformation rich in β -sheet and is able to form strong lateral interactions with adjacent molecules, forming an organized lattice that under normal circumstances will not be removed from the interface (indicated by the crossed arrow). Surface-bound BsIA-L77K forms a less well-organized lattice and can be removed from the interface with only minimal energy, such as droplet compression.

from disulfide formation at the elevated local protein concentrations present in the interfacial layer. This is unlikely to be the origin of the observed difference in stability of WT-BsIA and L77K-BsIA films under compression, however, because the cysteines are unchanged. Moreover, our simulations show that the wild-type and mutant proteins are inserted into the interface in similar orientations and with the same tilt angle, suggesting that there is unlikely to be any orientational barrier to disulfide bond formation by the mutant protein at the interface. Nonetheless, the CxC motif may have functional consequences in the biofilm, either mediating interactions between BsIA molecules, or interactions with other protein or polysaccharide components in the matrix. For example, the surface layer of BsIA observed in the biofilm is clearly more than a single protein layer thick (10); BsIA may function as a dimeric protein with one cap region interacting with the interface and the second mediating protein-protein interactions within the biofilm. One important consequence of the mechanism we have uncovered, however, is that if the protein is indeed dimeric, it is likely to be bifunctional: one of the caps may be β -sheet and hydrophobic and the second is random coil and stable in an aqueous or hydrophilic environment.

The amphiphilic nature of the fungal hydrophobins has led to suggestions for many potential applications, and these may be equally relevant to BsIA. Hydrophobins have been proposed for use as surface modifiers and coating agents (30), and as emulsifiers, foam stabilizers, and surfactants in many application areas including the food industry (31). The slow kinetics of adsorption will be an important factor to consider when attempting to use BsIA in any applications, particularly where other surfactants are present. It has been shown, for example, that class I hydrophobins adhere more strongly to interfaces than the class II proteins, but that the class II species can successfully compete to form a mixed interfacial membrane (32). Unlike BsIA, however, class II hydrophobins exhibit no barrier to interfacial adsorption, whereas the rapid adsorption of any competing species is likely

to modulate BsIA interfacial activity. Nonetheless, the structured self-assembly of BsIA offers many opportunities for surface modification with nanoscale control.

Materials and Methods

Full details of all methods used are provided in *SI Appendix*.

Protein Purification. BsIA was purified after expression as a GST fusion protein using standard techniques. See *SI Appendix* for full details.

Circular Dichroism Spectropolarimetry. CD was performed using a Jasco J-810 spectropolarimeter. Control samples were analyzed at a concentration of 0.1 mg·mL⁻¹ (6.7 μ M) in a 0.1-cm quartz cuvette. Refractive index matched emulsions were analyzed in a 0.01-cm demountable quartz cuvette. Measurements were performed with a scan rate of 50 nm·s⁻¹, a data pitch of 0.1 nm, and a digital integration time of 1 s.

Pendant Drop Tensiometry. Monitoring the kinetics of BsIA adsorption was achieved using pendant drop tensiometry with drop shape analysis. A Krüss Easydrop tensiometer (Krüss GmbH) was used in combination with Drop Shape Analysis software. See *SI Appendix* for full details.

Transmission Electron Microscopy. BsIA-WT and L77K samples were deposited onto carbon-coated copper grids (Cu-grid) (TAAB Laboratories Equipment, Ltd.) and imaged using a Philips/FEI CM120 BioTwin transmission electron microscope. See *SI Appendix* for full details.

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