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Lipid nanodiscs for high-resolution NMR studies of membrane proteins

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Lipid nanodiscs for high-resolution NMR studies of membrane proteins

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Abstract:

Membrane proteins (MPs) play essential roles in numerous cellular processes. Since around 70 % of the currently marketed drugs target MPs, a detailed understanding of their structure, binding properties and functional dynamics in a physiologically relevant environment is crucial for a more detailed understanding of this important protein class. We here summarize the benefits of using lipid nanodiscs for NMR structural investigations and provide a detailed overview on the currently used lipid nanodisc systems as well as their application in solution-state NMR. Despite the increasing use of other structural methods for the structure determination of MPs in lipid nanodiscs, solution NMR turns out to be a versatile tool to probe a wide range of MP features, ranging from the structure determination of small to medium-sized MPs to probing ligand and partner protein binding as well as functionally relevant dynamical signatures in a lipid nanodisc setting. We will expand on these topics by discussing recent NMR studies with lipid nanodiscs and work out a key workflow for optimizing the nanodisc incorporation of a MP for subsequent NMR investigations. With this, we hope to provide a comprehensive background to enable an informed assessment on the applicability of lipid nanodiscs for NMR studies of a particular MP of interest.

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1. Introduction

Membrane proteins (MPs) are essential players in a large number of cellular processes including intra- and inter-cellular signaling, transport of metabolites and proteins across the lipid bilayer membrane, enzymatic reactions, membrane fission-fusion, cell-cell interaction and energy production¹⁻⁵. About 30 % of the human proteome are MPs^{6,7} and, due to their strategic location at membrane interfaces, account for 70 % of the targets of currently marketed drugs⁸, emphasizing the importance of MPs in human health. Despite an ever-growing body of information on MPs on a cellular level, the acquisition of structural data of this protein class turns out to be a major bottleneck in obtaining a deeper understanding on a molecular and atomistic level. This can be readily seen by looking at the amount of MP structures in the protein data bank, where only ~5 % of all entries are classified as MPs. In addition to enhancing our knowledge of this protein class on a mechanistic level, high-resolution structures of MPs are in particular helpful to guide rational approaches in drug design⁸⁻¹³.

MPs are diverse, and can be classified as integral and peripheral MPs. While integral membrane proteins are exposed to both sides of the membrane by traversing it with one or more transmembrane secondary structure elements (α -helices or multiple β -strands), peripheral membrane proteins are associated with one side of the membrane surface via non-covalent interactions, covalently-bound aliphatic membrane anchors or transmembrane helices¹⁴⁻¹⁷. Unlike soluble proteins, MPs require the presence of a lipid bilayer environment, often comprised of a large variety of individual membrane lipids. The lipid composition of cellular membranes varies among different membrane compartments, individual bilayer leaflets and even locally on the same leaflet¹⁸⁻²⁰. Lipid bilayer membranes have the unique property of adopting different structural states, depending on the lipid structure, composition of the membrane, temperature, pressure, ionic strength and pH²¹⁻²³. The most relevant states are the lamellar liquid crystalline phase, where lipid molecules are disordered and flexible, allowing high inter- and intra- molecular motions, and the gel phase, where the lipid hydrocarbon chains are in a more rigid, extended and *trans* conformation, restricting motions of the lipids²⁴ as well as the embedded MPs²⁵⁻²⁷. Bulk biological membranes under ambient temperatures

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3 and pressure only exist in the liquid crystalline phase, since their heterogeneity prevents the formation
4 of a gel phase²⁸. This feature is essential for allowing conformational changes of MPs to occur²⁹, even
5 though this is unlikely to be the main regulatory mechanism for MP function³⁰. Apart from the bulk
6 liquid crystalline properties of a biological membrane, ordered gel-like patches can exist
7 predominantly in the cell membrane, called lipid rafts^{23, 31-33}. Lipid rafts are formed by liquid-liquid
8 phase separation of lipids driven by lipid-lipid and protein-lipid interactions. These lateral lipid
9 domains are rich in cholesterol, leading to a stiffening of the membrane as well as to the clustering of
10 various integral and anchored MPs, facilitating their interactions. Not only the phase properties but
11 also the physical properties of membranes such as bilayer thickness, compression, curvature and
12 bending can affect the conformational landscape and function of MPs^{19, 34}. In brief, conformation and
13 function of MPs may be regulated by this complex, local, macro structural, collective behavior non-
14 specifically or through specific direct chemical interactions between lipids and the proteins^{19, 21, 34-36}.
15 In contrast, the presence of MPs can also affect and alter the local behavior and shape of lipid bilayers
16 by perturbing surrounding lipid molecules^{35, 37-39}. This multifaceted, reciprocal relationship between
17 membranes and MPs and their hydrophobic nature introduce multiple layers of complexity in studying
18 the structure and function of MPs. In addition to a generally low protein production level of MPs as
19 well as their high tendency to form aggregates during overexpression⁴⁰⁻⁴², the selection of a suitable
20 membrane mimetic environment is essential for preparing MPs for structural studies.

43 **1.1. Membrane mimetics for structural studies of membrane proteins**

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45 Over the last decades, a large selection of membrane mimetics has been developed⁴³⁻⁴⁸.
46 Among those, detergent micelles can be considered as the most common and easy to use systems for
47 MP research⁴⁹. Although a large variety of detergents is available with a wide range of physical
48 properties, detergents generally represent the least native membrane environment and might interfere
49 with the MP structure leading to reduced stability or even MP misfolding⁴⁸. Furthermore, detergents
50 often bind to functionally important hydrophobic cavities and may cause dissociation of partner
51 proteins and structurally important lipids^{25, 50, 51}. Thus, in order to improve the native properties of
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3 membrane mimetics, lipid/detergent bicelles, amphipols, phospholipid nanodiscs and liposomes have
4 been used for structural and functional studies of MPs as discussed in recent reviews^{43, 44, 52-54}. Among
5 these more advanced membrane mimetics, lipid nanodiscs and liposomes provide the most native-like
6 membrane system due to the presence of a detergent-free lipid environment of a desired lipid
7 composition. While liposomes are the system of choice for biochemical and biophysical assays⁵⁵⁻⁶² as
8 well as solid-state NMR⁶³⁻⁶⁶, nanodiscs, due to their controllable size and homogeneity^{67, 68}, gained
9 considerable popularity for structural studies by cryo-EM⁶⁷⁻⁷⁷ and solution-state NMR⁷⁸⁻⁸³.

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19 In this review, we will provide a comprehensive overview of the characteristic features of the
20 existing lipid nanodisc systems and their use for the investigation of MP structure and dynamics by
21 solution-state NMR. We will compare the advantages and drawbacks of the lipid nanodisc systems
22 that are currently used and actively developed for NMR applications and highlight the advantages of
23 nanodiscs over traditional detergent micellar systems. Finally, we will present a selection of recent
24 examples on the application of lipid nanodiscs for solution-state NMR and highlight the specific
25 insights obtained in these studies that contribute to a better mechanistic and functional understanding
26 of MPs that cannot be obtained by other structural methods.

37 38 **1.2. Drawbacks of detergent micelles for structural studies of membrane proteins**

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40 Detergents are amphiphilic molecules with water-soluble polar head groups and hydrophobic
41 hydrocarbon groups, similar to the properties of lipids. However, their solubility in water is much
42 higher and they cannot form bilayers due to their conical molecular shape. Instead, they tend to form
43 micelles above the critical micellar concentration (CMC). In contrast, many lipid molecules have a
44 roughly cylindrical overall shape since the cross sections of the polar head group and the hydrophobic
45 tails are similar in size, leading to the formation of bilayer structures above the CMC. While the CMC
46 value for detergents is in μM to mM range, this value is in nanomolar range or less for lipids⁸⁴⁻⁸⁶.
47 Detergents can be used in a relatively straightforward manner for the solubilization of lipid
48 membranes and the extraction of MPs⁴⁹. A large variety of different detergents is available. However,
49 a suitable detergent for a given MP system needs to be screened individually^{48, 87, 88}. Structurally,
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detergents are classified as ionic (cationic or anionic), zwitterionic and non-ionic. Non-ionic detergents, such as *n*-dodecyl β -D-maltoside (DDM) and Triton X-100, are considered milder compared to ionic ones such as cholate and sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) while zwitterionic detergents like 3-[(3-cholamidopropyl)dimethylammonio]-1-propanesulfonate (CHAPS) and Foscholines are roughly in between the two latter classes in terms of solubilization strength and harshness^{84, 89}. Commonly used detergents in MP research are listed in **Tab. 1** together with their CMC and micellar molecular weights.

Table 1. Commonly used detergents used for MP solubilization for nanodisc incorporation^{68, 84, 89}. *CMC at 20-25 °C

Type	Detergent	CMC (mM)*	Micelle size (kDa)
Ionic	Sodium cholate ⁹⁰	9-15	0.9-1.3
	Sodium deoxycholate ⁹¹	2-6	1.2-5
	CTAB	1	62
	<i>N</i> -lauroylsarcosine ⁹²	14.6	0.6
	SDS ⁹³	7-10	18
Zwitter-ionic	LysoPC	0.007	92
	CHAPS ⁹⁴	6	6.15
	Dodecyl-phosphocholine (DPC) ⁷⁸	1.5	19
	LDAO ⁹⁵	1-2	17
Non-ionic	Digitonin ⁹⁶	<0.5	70
	Triton X-100 ⁹⁷	0.2-0.9	80
	Cymal-5	2.4-5	32.6
	Cymal-6	0.56	32
	<i>n</i> -Dodecyl- β -D-Maltoside (DDM) ⁹⁸	0.15	50
	Decyl- β -D-Maltoside (DM) ⁹⁹	1.6	-
	Octyl- β -D-glucopyranoside ¹⁰⁰	23-25	25

Mild detergents are generally preferred for multi-pass integral MPs since intra- and inter-molecular protein-protein interactions are largely retained preserving the structural integrity and consequently the functionality of MPs and their complexes while lipid-lipid and lipid-protein interactions are dissolved. Consequently, harsher detergents may interfere with the MP fold disrupting their 3D structure. However, the definition of a harsh or mild detergent is always dependent on the MP of interest. In case of MP complexes, a harsh detergent might dissociate individual subunits. In line with this notion, it has been reported that individual subunits of a MP complex even require different detergent solubilization conditions^{13, 101}. Furthermore, if a MP needs to be extracted from the membrane, the lipid composition of a particular membrane is another factor in choosing a suitable

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3 detergent, simply because not all membranes can be solubilized with all types of detergents^{102, 103}. For
4 instance, the inner membrane of gram-negative bacteria but not the outer membrane can be
5 solubilized in Triton X-100^{104, 105}. Thus, it can be concluded that the selection process for finding a
6 convenient detergent, taking into account the required solubilization conditions, MP stability issues as
7 well as the compatibility with downstream applications for a MP of interest, is a time-consuming trial
8 and error problem^{48, 106, 107} and requires considerable experience in handling MPs. For high-quality
9 solution-state NMR experiments, detergents that form relatively small micelles (20- 25 kDa) are
10 preferred, limiting the number of suitable systems in this process⁴⁷.

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20 Despite these difficulties, it is possible to find a suitable detergent for a particular MP that
21 fulfills all mentioned criteria. However, even a good detergent cannot perfectly mimic a real lipid
22 bilayer membrane, leading to problems and limitations when it comes to studying labile MPs and their
23 complexes. In addition, when surrounded by a detergent micelle, MPs may not be able to sample the
24 conformational space required for a proper functionality. Moreover, the presence of detergents may
25 result in reduced thermal stability, misfolding or complete unfolding^{48, 50, 51, 108}. Detergents may insert
26 into functionally important hydrophobic cavities and remove structurally important lipid molecules
27 from the MP^{25, 50, 51}. When it comes to complexes between different MPs, it is very likely that a
28 detergent that has been optimized for one MP is not suitable for the other one, and *vice versa*. This
29 discrepancy is even more pronounced when complexes between MPs and soluble partner proteins,
30 that are often highly sensitive to detergents, are investigated. Due to the various reasons mentioned
31 above^{50, 86, 109-112}, even the mildest detergents can be considered harsher than a true lipid bilayer
32 membrane. Therefore, efforts have been made to design lipid-based membrane mimetics, such as
33 phospholipid bicelles, a mixture of phospholipids and a detergent or short-chain lipid¹¹³⁻¹¹⁵, where a
34 patch of lipid bilayer is stabilized by a rim formed by the short-chain lipid or detergent. The size of
35 bicelles can be fine-tuned by adjusting the ratio ($q = [\text{lipid}]/[\text{detergent}]$) of the two components, which
36 is very convenient for solution-state NMR experiments. In fact, it has been found that bicelles with a
37 q -value of 0.5 are small enough for solution-state NMR and appear to provide a sufficiently large
38 planar lipid bilayer surface to enclose small to medium-sized MPs¹¹⁶. However, even though this
39 system represents a large improvement as compared to pure detergent micelles, the presence of a
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3 detergent or a rather harsh short-chain lipid can still be disadvantageous in cases where detergents
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5 need to be avoided.
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7 A readily available and detergent-free membrane system are liposomes, providing a native-
8 like environment for MPs. However, unilamellar liposomes are quite large (> 50 nm) and
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10 heterogeneous, rendering solution-state NMR experiments of incorporated MPs difficult if not
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12 impossible. In order to improve this situation, the property of amphipathic proteins, peptides and
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14 polymers has been exploited to replace the short-chain lipids in bicelles for a more native component.
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16 Such detergent-free lipid particles have been generally termed lipid nanodiscs. In the next chapter, we
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18 will introduce the most common nanodisc systems and will describe their suitability for solution
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20 NMR studies of MPs.
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27 28 **2. Lipid nanodiscs – a lipid-based and native-like membrane mimetic**

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30 Lipid nanodiscs have been first introduced almost 20 years ago by the lab of Steven Sligar
31 based on truncated versions of human apolipoproteinA-I (ApoA-I^{117,118}), or membrane scaffold
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33 protein (MSP). In lipid nanodiscs, lipid molecules assemble into a patch of a lipid bilayer membrane
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35 that is surrounded and stabilized by amphipathic molecules such as lipid binding proteins, peptides,
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37 polymers or nucleic acids, generating nanometer scale, discoidal lipid bilayer particles^{43, 52, 119-124} (**Fig.**
38
39 **1a**). This versatile membrane mimetic gained increasing popularity for the structural and functional
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41 investigation of MPs in the past almost two decades, as evident from the rising number of publications
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43 per year on this topic (**Fig 1b**). In the next section, we will provide a compilation of all currently
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45 available lipid nanodisc systems and briefly summarize their use in NMR.
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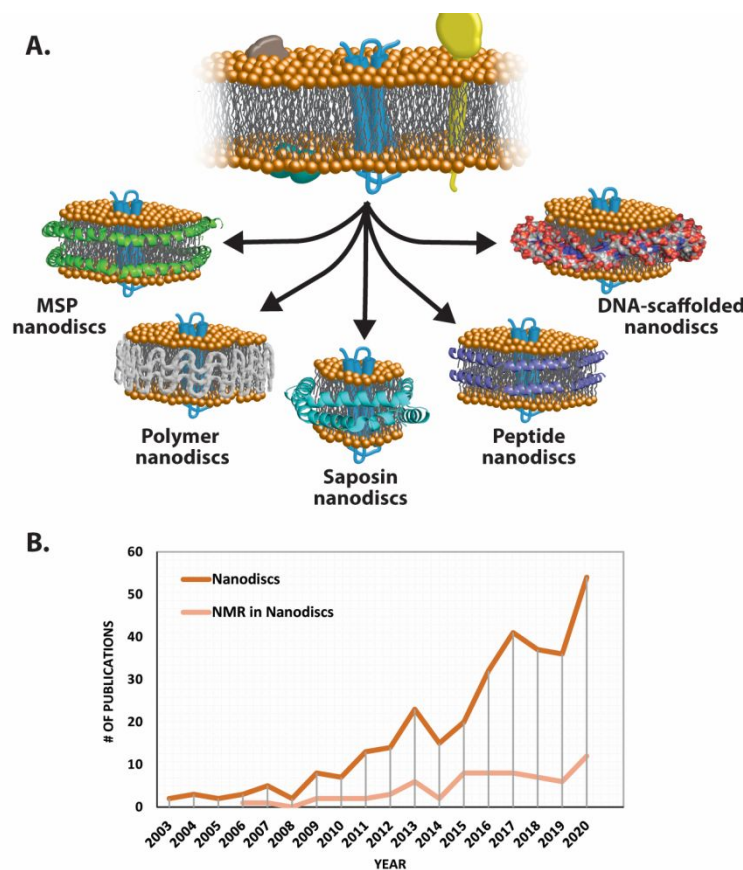


Fig. 1. Commonly used lipid nanodisc systems for NMR studies. (A) Lipid based nanodiscs systems can be used to mimic a native membrane environment for NMR structural studies. (B) Number of publications on the search terms “membrane protein” and “nanodiscs” with or without “NMR”.

2.1. Membrane scaffold protein (MSP) nanodiscs

MSP nanodiscs were designed based on apolipoproteinA-I (ApoA-I) which is the main protein component of human high-density lipid (HDL) particles required for the transport of lipids and cholesterol in the blood stream^{125, 126}. MSP proteins fold into amphipathic α -helical structures and two copies of the MSP protein wrap around the discoidal lipid bilayer patch in an anti-parallel orientation stabilizing the hydrophobic rim of the membrane (**Fig. 2A**). The diameter of MSP nanodiscs depends on the length of the MSP protein construct used for assembly. The initial MSP1 construct was designed by removal of the N-terminal globular domain (the first 43 residues) of ApoA-I. MSP1 is comprised of 10 amphipathic α -helical segments generating nanodiscs of about 10 nm in diameter¹²⁷. A further removal of the next 20 N-terminal amino acids resulted in the generation of the

most commonly used MSP construct, MSP1D1. The size of MSP1D1 nanodiscs is very similar to MSP1 discs, suggesting that the deleted peptide stretch is not involved in lipid binding and nanodisc formation⁹⁰. Engineering of MSP1D1 by internal deletions⁷⁸ or insertions⁹⁰ of helical segments and N-⁹⁰ or C-terminal truncations¹²⁸ allowed the design of nanodiscs with various diameters commonly ranging from 6.3 to 12.8 nm. A schematic representation of MSP proteins for the assembly of nanodisc of small to medium size is shown in **Fig. 2B**.

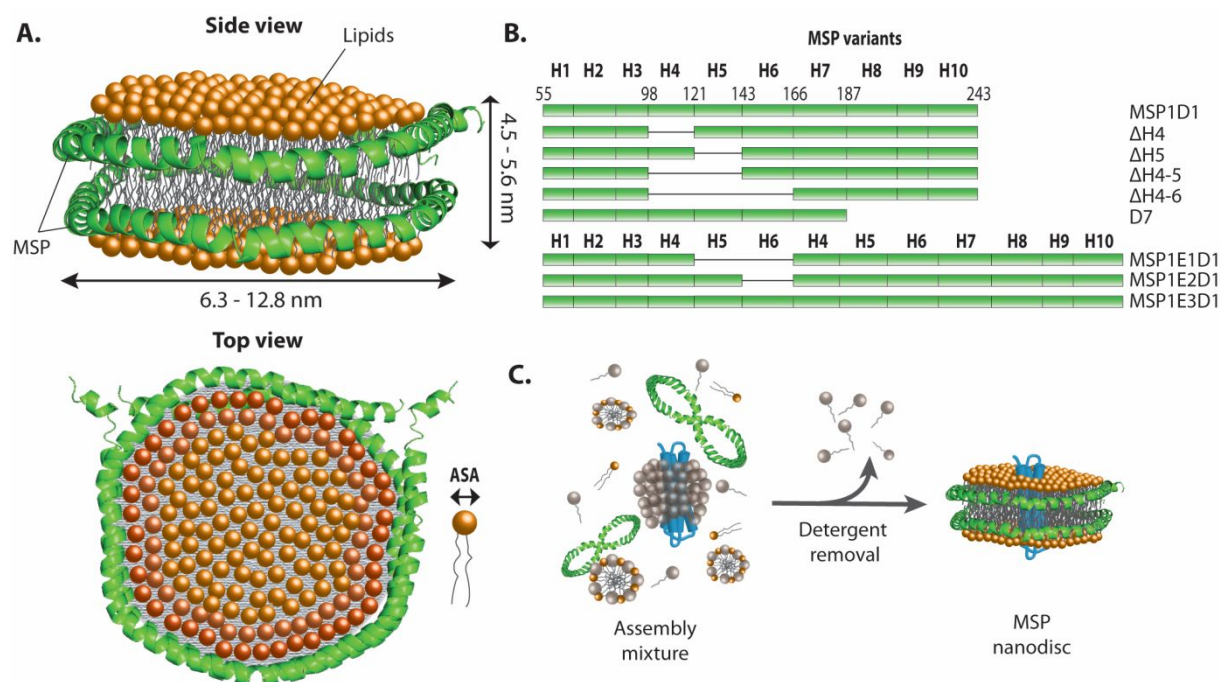


Fig. 2. MSP lipid nanodiscs. (A) Structure of an MSP lipid nanodiscs with two copies of the MSP (green) surrounding a patch of lipid bilayer membrane of tunable size (orange). (B) Available MSP constructs that have been used for solution NMR studies. In particular the truncated versions are attractive for NMR due to their smaller size. (C) Nanodisc assembly is typically done with a mixture of detergent, lipids and the MSP and a to be inserted MP, followed by removal of the detergent, which initiates the self-assembly process.

As mentioned above, MSP1D1 assembles into nanodiscs of 10 nm in diameter, corresponding to a molecular mass of about 150 kDa, representing a considerable challenge for NMR studies. Thus, in order to enable NMR structural studies of MPs in nanodiscs, the use of smaller particles is crucial. Among a larger set of truncated MSP variants, deletions of helices 4 and 5 (MSP1D1 Δ H4-5) or H4 or H5 alone (MSP1D1 Δ H4, MSP1D1 Δ H5) resulted in stable nanodiscs with a diameter of about 7.1 nm

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3 and 8.4 nm (66 and 95 kDa mass), respectively⁷⁸. MSP1D1ΔH5 was successfully used for the NMR
4 structure determination of the MSP protein in empty nanodiscs¹²⁹, the bacterial outer membrane
5 protein OmpX^{78, 79} and the outer membrane protein Ail of the plague causing pathogen *Y. pestis*^{83, 130,}
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More recently, the introduction of covalently circularized MSP versions by Nasr et al.¹³² using
a SortaseA-mediated protein ligation approach resulted in more stable and homogeneous nanodiscs
with defined sizes. This was enabled by the formation of a covalent bond between the two termini of
the MSP protein. In this study, MSP circularization was achieved by the addition of a SortaseA
recognition sequence (LPXTG) to the C-terminus of the MSP and the exposure of at least one glycine
residue at the N-terminus, which could be done by treatment with TEV protease¹³³. Since the yield of
circularized MSP strongly depends on the completeness of the ligation reaction as well as the amount
of unwanted oligomeric MSP products, this step could be further optimized by the addition of
detergents to the ligation reaction¹³⁴ or by using engineered and more soluble MSP variants¹³⁵.
Recently, it was shown that the efficiency of the SortaseA dependent ligation method can be increased
by using SortaseA variants with enhanced activity¹³⁶. In a complimentary approach, MSP
circularization could be achieved in living *E. coli* cells using a split-intein-based method⁶⁷, where
DnaE C- and N- split inteins from *Nostoc punctiforme*¹³⁷ were fused to the N- and C-termini of the
MSP construct, respectively. This method enabled the direct purification of circularized MSPs from
E. coli culture at high yields without the need for a downstream enzymatic ligation step. Even very
short MSP variants (MSP1D1ΔH4-5, ΔH4-6) that are suitable for NMR could be obtained in a
circularized form. MSP variants and their diameters, which are suitable for solution NMR, are listed
in **Tab. 2**.

Table 2. Suitable MSP variants for solution NMR measurements and their diameters

Construct	Nanodisc diameter (nm)	Ref.
MSP1D1 (D10)	9.7	⁹⁰
MSP1D1ΔH4	8.2	⁷⁸

MSP1D1 Δ H5	8.4	78
MSP1D1 Δ H4-5	7.1	78
MSP1D1 Δ H4-6	6.3	78
MSP1D1 Δ H8-10 (D7)	7	128
cMSP1D1 (cNW11)	11	67, 132
cMSP Δ H4-6	7.6	67
cMSP Δ H4-5	8.7	67
cMSP Δ H5 (cNW9)	8.5	67, 132
MSP1E1D1	10.5	90
MSP1E2D1	11.3	90
MSP1E3D1	12.8	90

MSP nanodiscs are formed via a self-assembly process by gradual removal of detergents from a solubilized mixture of the MSP variant, phospholipids and the MP of interest using hydrophobic adsorbent media, such as Biobeads SM-2 and Amberlite XAD-2, or by dialysis^{81, 117, 138}. Alternatively, nanodisc reconstitution can be directly initiated by washing off the detergent while the MP is still bound to an affinity resin¹²⁸. The self-assembly process is thermodynamically reversible and starts when the detergent concentration drops below the CMC. Further reduction in the amount of the detergent results in coalescence of MSP, lipids and the MP, and ultimately in the formation of nanodisc particles¹³⁹. If required, additives such as specific substrates, metal ions or co-solvents can be supplemented to the assembly mixture at amounts that are compatible with the assembly reaction⁵². The stoichiometry between the MSP and the lipids is defined by the size of the final nanodisc and the accessible surface area (ASA) of the used lipids and can be reliably estimated using geometric considerations to obtain monodisperse nanodisc populations^{68, 90}. While too few lipids cause deformations in the nanodisc structure¹⁴⁰⁻¹⁴², excess of lipids results in larger particles with a broad size distribution⁹⁰ or even lipid aggregates. In addition, the assembly conditions need to be adapted for each MP of interest, in particular considering the size and oligomeric state of the MP. When reconstituting MPs, the amount of lipid molecules, which will be replaced by the MP, must be subtracted from the amount of lipid molecules required to assemble nanodiscs without the MP. In this case, the surface areas of the lipid molecules and the transmembrane part of the MP from a known structure or a prediction based on the number of transmembrane segments can be considered a good starting point for further optimization.

Furthermore, the lipid composition should be adapted to the specific MP of interest. Most commonly, lipids with a phosphatidylcholine (PC) head group, which constitute the major portion of the plasma membrane, are used for nanodisc preparations. However, some MPs might require anionic lipids such as phosphatidylglycerols (PG), phosphatidylethanolamines (PE) and phosphatidylserines (PS)¹⁴³. Commonly used phospholipids for nanodisc preparation, their phase transition temperatures and surface area are shown in **Tab. 3**. In addition to the use of pure lipids and their defined mixtures, commercially available natural lipid blends extracted from different sources such as *E. coli*, chicken egg, yeast, soybean, brain can be used for nanodisc assembly¹⁴⁴⁻¹⁴⁸. Alternatively, assembly of nanodiscs is also possible directly by addition of an MSP protein to detergent-solubilized membranes of cells of the heterologous expression systems or native cells or tissues¹⁴⁹⁻¹⁵³. Even though this method reduces the time of exposure to detergents, it requires a high amount of MSP protein¹⁴³. In addition to the possibility to incorporate defined lipids, other important components of a biological membrane, such as cholesterol can be added¹³⁸. Among other MPs in the cell membrane, G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) have been shown to be more stable in the presence of cholesterol¹⁵⁴.

Table 3. Commonly used lipids for nanodisc preparations, their phase transition temperatures (T_m) and surface area (SA).

Lipid	T_m (°C) ^{68, 90}	SA (Å ²)
DLPC	-2	63.2 ¹⁵⁵
DMPC	24	57 ¹⁵⁶
DOPC	-17	72.4 ¹⁵⁷
DPPC	41	52 ¹⁵⁶
POPC	-2	69 ¹⁵⁶
DLPG	-3	65.6 ¹⁵⁸
DMPG	23	65.1 ¹⁵⁸
DOPG	-18	70.8 ¹⁵⁸
POPG	-2	66.1 ¹⁵⁸
DOPE	-16	60 ¹⁵⁹
POPE	25	56.6 ¹⁵⁹
DMPS	35	40.8 ¹⁶⁰
DOPS	-11	64.1 ¹⁶⁰
POPS	14	62.7 ¹⁶¹
DOPA	-4	53 ¹⁶²

The possibility to include lipids with various different head groups and acyl chain lengths allows for the optimization of the lipid bilayer properties for any MP of interest. Some MPs might require the presence of anionic lipids for their stability and function^{143, 163}. In addition to the lipid head

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3 groups, the thickness of the lipid bilayer can be adjusted by choosing lipids bearing longer or shorter
4 acyl chain lengths. This aspect is highly relevant, since hydrophobic mismatch between the lipid
5 bilayer thickness and the hydrophobic region of the MP may cause defects in the nanodisc assembly²⁷
6 and might affect the functionality of the MP. In extreme mismatch conditions, exclusion of MPs from
7 the bilayer¹⁶⁴ or non-bilayer assemblies by the lipids^{165, 166} may occur. As a recent example, the
8 activity of the membrane bound protease, FtsH, has been shown to be strongly influenced by the lipid
9 bilayer thickness in nanodiscs¹⁶⁷.

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18 Lipid molecules in nanodiscs show similar, but slightly higher, phase transitions as compared
19 to pure lipid systems^{168, 169}. In order to allow for efficient mixing of the components in the nanodisc
20 assembly mixture, the temperature must be kept above the liquid-crystalline phase transition
21 temperature^{43, 138}. Most likely, the minimization of lamellar lipid phase interactions at this temperature
22 facilitates the homogeneous formation of lipid-detergent micelles and the efficient incorporation of
23 the lipids into the nanodisc during the self-assembly reaction. In line with this assumption, the
24 formation of a lamellar phase was associated with poor nanodisc assembly yields and the formation of
25 lipid-less particles¹¹⁷. Interestingly, the biophysical properties of lipid molecules are not homogenous
26 within a nanodisc particle but depends on the position in the bilayer. Lipids in the central region of the
27 nanodisc are less dynamic compared to the peripheral, MSP-bound lipids and even form a thicker
28 bilayer region¹⁷⁰⁻¹⁷². Due to the presence of a lower number of lipids in small nanodiscs, these effects
29 are more pronounced than in larger nanodiscs, where MSP binding effects are weaker¹⁷¹. Recently,
30 MSP nanodiscs were shown to exchange monomeric lipid molecules between different particles and
31 the observed exchange rate was reduced if supercharged MSP variants were used, possibly due to
32 enhanced repulsion between the nanodisc particles or increased electrostatic interactions between
33 MSP belt and lipid head groups¹⁷³. These engineered MSP variants harbor a larger degree of charges
34 at positions oriented toward the solvent, leading to favorable features such as increased stability and
35 decreased aggregation and fusion tendencies^{135, 173}.

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56 In summary, if MSP nanodiscs are used as a membrane mimetic system for a MP of interest,
57 essential parameters such as MSP construct, amount and type of lipid molecules, specific supplements
58 required for the MP of interest, and assembly conditions need to be carefully optimized. With this, a
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3 native-like lipid membrane environment for MPs can be established, leading to marked improvements
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5 in MP thermodynamic and long-term stability. Furthermore, the native-like environment enables the
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7 MP to adopt a wider and more realistic conformational space, which is important for executing
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9 functional (allosteric) structural changes upon binding to ligands or partner proteins.
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11 12 13 14 **2.2. Polymer nanodiscs**

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16 In addition to protein-based nanodisc membrane scaffolds, amphipathic styrene-maleic acid
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18 (SMA) copolymers have been described to form discoidal lipid particles, also called SMALPs or
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20 Lipodisq^{174, 175}. Remarkably, these polymers have the ability to solubilize membranes efficiently and
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22 thus directly extract MPs into SMALPs together with the bound lipid molecules¹⁷⁴⁻¹⁷⁸ from cellular
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24 membrane fractions. Moreover, the bilayer patch within SMALPs was reported to retain the
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26 composition and physical properties of the parent membranes and the solubilization yield is
27
28 independent of the lipid content of the membranes^{179, 180}. Since detergent solubilization is not required
29
30 for the formation of SMALPs, unwanted effects of detergents on MP structure can be avoided¹⁸¹.
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32 Hydrophobicity and solubilization properties of SMA copolymers can be adjusted by changing the
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34 ratio of styrene to maleic acid during synthesis of the polymers¹⁸². Typically, a styrene to maleic acid
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36 ratio is chosen between 2:1 and 3:1¹⁸³. The solubilization kinetics also depends on the polymer chain
37
38 length, where shorter polymers appears to solubilize faster than the longer ones¹⁸⁴. Similar to other
39
40 nanodisc systems, SMA polymers form lipid particles by wrapping around the hydrophobic rim of
41
42 lipid bilayer, stabilizing it via the hydrophobic properties of the aromatic styrene phenyl rings, while
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44 the negatively charged maleic acid moiety mediates the water solubility of these nanodiscs¹⁸⁰.
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49 Even though SMA copolymers offer impressive advantages, they also have limitations to be
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51 considered. Due to protonation of the maleic acid carboxylate moiety, classical SMA polymers are not
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53 soluble at acidic pH¹⁷⁹. Therefore, experiments need to be performed above pH 6.5, preferably above
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55 7.0. Related to this issue, the maleic acid carboxylate moieties are good metal ion chelators, leading to
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57 incompatibility with the presence of divalent metal ions, such as Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺. Chemical
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59 modification efforts of the maleimide carboxylate have addressed this limitation, resulting in various
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3 SMA derivatives. Zwitterionic SMA (zSMA), positively charged SMA quaternary ammonium (SMA-
4 QA), DIBMA (diisobutylene/maleic acid), poly-styrene-co-maleimide (SMI), SMA-ethanolamine
5 (SMA-EA), SMA-ethylenediamine (SMA-ED), and the covalently modifiable cysteamine derivative
6 (SMA-SH) show better solubility at lower pH and are compatible with divalent metal ions^{119, 124, 185-189}.
7
8 DIBMA, in which polystyrene is replaced by aliphatic diisobutylene units, offers the advantage that
9 the polymer does not adsorb UV light, which facilitates the UV quantification of the inserted MP¹⁸⁸.
10
11 More recently, a non-ionic, inulin-based polysaccharide, which is stable at a wide range of pH values
12 and compatible with the presence of divalent metal ions was reported to form nanodisc and also does
13 not form electrostatic interactions with the inserted MP¹⁹⁰. However, these synthetic copolymers, like
14 any other polymer, are polydisperse. Polydispersity of polymers is defined by the polydispersity index
15 (PDI), which is around 2.5 for SMA, which indicates that SMA polymers have a quite broad
16 distribution of polymer chain lengths with the difference between the longest and the shortest
17 polymers being more than one order of magnitude¹⁷⁸. In contrast to the well-understood size of
18 monodisperse MSP nanodiscs, the diameter of SMALPs is less clear. Likely parameters are the MP
19 content¹⁷⁹ and the ratio of the SMA polymer to lipids^{185, 191}.
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35 Taken together, SMALPs provide great advantages for the handling and structural biology
36 applications of MPs at more native conditions since no detergent is required for MP extraction¹⁹².
37 Especially the increasing number reports where SMALPs have been used for cryo-EM studies shows
38 their convenience for structural studies following direct solubilization from different membrane
39 sources such as bacteria, yeast, insect and mammalian cells¹⁹³⁻²⁰². Although SMALPs have been
40 shown to be suitable for solid-state NMR^{203, 204} as well, the successful application of solution-state
41 NMR with an integral MP in polymer nanodiscs seems to be limited, most likely by their size
42 inhomogeneity⁴³. In addition to their direct usage as a membrane mimetic, SMA polymers have been
43 reported to be suitable as a carrier system for subsequent lipid cubic phase crystallization and X-ray
44 diffraction of MPs²⁰⁵.
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2.3. Saposin nanodiscs

Another protein-based system to generate nanodiscs utilizes the lipid-binding properties of the saposin family proteins (saposin A-D). Saposins are small, lipid-binding proteins involved in lysosomal degradation pathways of sphingolipids²⁰⁶. They are comprised of four amphipathic α -helical segments in which helices 1, 4 and 2, 3 are linked via disulfide bridges forming a V-shaped hairpin structure, as evident from the crystal structures of individual saposins²⁰⁷⁻²¹⁰. Although different saposins display different affinities for different lipids, SapA seems to be less restrictive compared to the other members. This feature makes SapA a suitable candidate for nanodisc assembly using a wide range of lipids²¹¹. In the absence of lipids at neutral pH, the hydrophobic surfaces of the helices in SapA collapse into a hydrophobic core forming the “closed” conformation. The addition of lipids or detergents at low pH results in the “open” conformation enabling the formation of discoidal lipid particles²¹⁰. However, stable SapA nanodiscs can be also formed by gradual removal of detergents at neutral pH²¹²⁻²¹⁴. In contrast to MSP nanodiscs, one SapA monomer is sufficient to cover the entire hydrophobic thickness of the lipid bilayer. The hydrophobic rim of a lipid nanodisc is saturated by multiple SapA monomers that are arranged in a head-to-tail orientation. At least two SapA molecules are required to form the smallest version of a saposin nanodisc. The size of these nanodiscs can be tuned by changing the molar ratio of lipids to SapA, leading to larger discs comprised of three or more monomers^{211, 215}.

The increasing number of successful applications of saposin nanodiscs in cryo-EM^{213, 216-219} shows its suitability for the structural analysis of MPs in addition to biophysical and biochemical applications^{211, 220-222}. However, the applications in solution-state NMR are very sparse with only one available study where a 2D-TROSY spectrum of ¹⁵N-labeled OmpX could be obtained in SapA nanodiscs containing DMPC lipids²¹². However, the quality of the OmpX 2D-NMR spectrum is markedly lower than the one in MSP nanodiscs⁷⁸. This scenario might be caused by the rather low lipid content in SapA nanodiscs, as shown in a recent cryo-EM structure²¹³, which could also lead to unwanted protein-protein interactions between SapA and the incorporated MP⁸¹. Additionally, due to

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3 absence of a continuous belt around the particle, SapA nanodiscs are likely to offer a less stringent
4 control of MP oligomerization.
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10 **2.4. Peptide nanodiscs**

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12 Small amphipathic peptides, most commonly the ApoA-I-derived α -helical peptide 18A (Ac-
13 DWLKAFYDKVAEKLKEAF-NH₂), have been shown to form discoidal lipid particles²²³ similar to
14 MSP nanodiscs. While one side of the peptide is mainly comprised of hydrophobic residues for
15 stabilization of the hydrophobic rim of the bilayer, charged residues dominate the other side of the
16 peptide with positively charged residues at the polar/nonpolar boundary and negatively charged
17 residues towards the center²²⁴. Positively charged residues interact with negatively charged lipid head
18 groups stabilizing the rim of the discoidal particles. This property allows these peptides to penetrate
19 into the bilayer solubilizing membranes directly without the need for detergents²²⁵. At the rim of the
20 bilayer, two peptides oriented in an antiparallel manner are required to provide hydrophobic match, as
21 it is the case for MSP nanodiscs^{224, 226, 227}.
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35 Similar to polymer and saposin nanodiscs, the size of nanodiscs can be adjusted by changing
36 the molar ratio of lipid to peptide^{228, 229}. However, the length of the peptide, and its bendability for
37 longer peptides, seems to be an important factor for the adjustability of the lipid-to-peptide ratio²³⁰.
38 Since they do not form a continuous belt around the lipid bilayer, peptide nanodiscs are
39 polydisperse^{230, 231}, dynamic and relatively instable. Exchange of lipids and cargo between nanodiscs
40 can take place during collisions²²³. However, it has been shown that stability problems can be resolved
41 by use of chemically modified bifunctional peptides which can covalently self-polymerize after
42 nanodisc assembly²²⁹. Recently, it was reported that peptide nanodiscs change their biophysical
43 properties and increase their size above the phase transition temperature of the lipids due to
44 translocation of the peptides into the liquid-crystalline bilayer phase of the membrane²³².
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57 Since these peptides have the ability to solubilize membranes, they can replace detergents as
58 an intermediate platform to extract MPs for subsequent incorporation into MSP nanodiscs²³¹.
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3 Similarly, they can be used to profile the MP interactome in a more native-like environment without
4 the need for detergents²³³. By using peptides for MP extraction, unwanted effects of detergents are
5 avoided even though the requirement for custom peptide synthesis is rather costly. Interestingly, it has
6 been shown that peptide nanodiscs around 30 nm in diameter (termed “macrodiscs”) align with the
7 magnetic field and can serve as an alignment medium for the measurement of residual dipolar
8 couplings (RDC) (see section 3.1) of MPs in the absence of detergents²²⁸.
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19 **2.5. DNA scaffolded nanodiscs**

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21 The concept of generating nanoscale molecular shapes using DNA, also called “DNA
22 origami²³⁴”, is known for about 15 years. The high specificity of the base pairing in DNA allows the
23 design of specific 2D and 3D shapes^{234, 235}. With the same concept, nanodisc scaffolds made of DNA
24 can be constructed. In 2018, two different approaches were published for making nanodiscs using
25 DNA strands. In one approach, a DNA barrel scaffold is hybridized to non-circularized MSPs to
26 generate larger discs up to ~70 nm diameter via lipid supplementation²³⁶. The DNA scaffold ensures
27 positioning of protein-based MSP scaffolds rather than stabilizing lipid bilayer directly. However,
28 since these scaffolds are designed to generate very large nanodiscs which are convenient to study
29 larger assemblies such as MP oligomerization and early stages of viral entry, they are not compatible
30 with solution-state NMR, and so, not in the scope of this review. Thus, the interested reader is referred
31 to recent reviews^{121, 237}.
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45 The other approach is based on a more direct method, which requires selective alkylation of
46 DNA, also called DNA-encircled lipid bilayers (DEBs)²³⁸. Unlike the latter approach, the hydrophobic
47 rim of the bilayer is stabilized directly by alkylated DNA without the need for a protein scaffold. The
48 size of DEBs is strictly dependent on the length of the DNA strand. A 147 nucleotide long DNA circle
49 results in nanodiscs of about 14.7 nm in diameter²³⁸. A recent molecular dynamics simulation study
50 suggests that covering the inner surface of the DNA scaffold with a high number shorter alkyl chains
51 will provide better bilayer properties compared to longer but fewer alkyl chains²³⁹. Additionally,
52 neutralization of charges on the DNA scaffold seems to be an important improvement for these
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3 nanodiscs²³⁹, probably due to electrostatic repulsion between the lipid head groups and the backbone
4 of the DNA. Supplementation with divalent cations might be an alternative solution for this²⁴⁰.
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6 Despite the absence of reports using this method in structural analysis of MPs so far, the presence of
7 DNA as a scaffold material might be advantageous for structural applications due to their high
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9 homogeneity and the wide range of design opportunities as well as possible chemical modifications.
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17 **2.6. Comparison of the currently used nanodisc systems**

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19 For solution NMR studies, the most important requirements for the lipid nanodisc system are
20 (long-term) stability, homogeneity and an as-small-as-possible size, while allowing for some layers of
21 lipids between the scaffold and the MP. A particular MP can be already markedly stabilized by a
22 suitable membrane environment containing a realistic lipid composition, regardless of the scaffold
23 material. However, the size and homogeneity of nanodisc samples can be controlled directly by the
24 choice of scaffold material. Interestingly, the available successful applications of nanodiscs for
25 solution NMR show that there is a predominant preference for MSP nanodiscs over the alternative
26 scaffolds mentioned in section 2. Considering the properties of all these systems, this preference is
27 quite intriguing and needs to be discussed.
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39 MSP nanodiscs are highly versatile regarding the incorporated lipid composition. Compared
40 to other systems, MSP nanodiscs are more stable and homogenous and allow for a rather strict control
41 of the nanodisc size simply governed by the length of the used MSP proteins. The continuous belt
42 around the lipid bilayer restricts the rate of lipid and MP exchange between individual nanodiscs. This
43 feature is even more pronounced in the circular versions of the MSPs. Furthermore, the oligomeric
44 state of a MP can be controlled by the use of MSP nanodiscs of defined and stable sizes^{67, 132}. Thus,
45 due to all of these properties, MSPs can be used to assemble homogeneous, stable and size-variable
46 nanodisc particles for long-term NMR experiments at elevated temperatures.
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57 Polymer, saposin and peptide nanodiscs are less rigid but the size of the nanodisc particles is
58 less homogenous^{211, 215, 230, 231, 241}. This is caused by a discontinuous saposin or peptide belt around the
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lipid nanodisc or by the polydispersity of the used polymers. Although the average size of these nanodiscs can be adjusted by changing the molar ratio of scaffold material and lipid molecules, the size control is less well understood than with MSP nanodiscs. Moreover, the rate of molecular exchange between individual nanodisc particles is higher, mediated by monomer diffusion exchange and/or fast collisional transfer^{223, 242}. Other points to consider are the more difficult production and handling properties of SapA proteins and the relative low stability of peptide nanodiscs. Thus, the resulting inhomogeneity and stability issues are most likely the main limitations for these nanodisc systems to be more widely used for high-resolution NMR spectroscopy.

DEBs²³⁸ might be a good alternative to MSP scaffolds. Similarly, the continuous belt around the lipid bilayer with a defined length of circular DNA resembles MSP nanodiscs in terms of stability and homogeneity. However, despite the vast design opportunities enabled by using DNA, this technology requires the chemical synthesis of the DNA scaffold as well as its alkylation, which is more expensive and time-consuming as compared to other nanodisc systems, especially considering the high amount of sample material that is required for NMR spectroscopy.

Currently, MSP nanodiscs can be considered the most widely used system for biochemical, biophysical and structural studies by NMR and electron microscopy, which is supported by a large body of publications involving MSP nanodiscs. Therefore, this review is focused on this particular nanodisc system with a strong focus on high-resolution NMR studies in solution.

2.7. Practical considerations of MSP nanodisc assembly for NMR

Important parameters with MSP nanodiscs for NMR structural investigations are their size homogeneity, structural integrity and long-term stability. As mentioned above, the size homogeneity and stability can be heavily improved by the use of circularized MSP nanodiscs^{67, 132, 135}. In particular the very small linear MSP nanodiscs (< 8 nm in diameter) tend to disassemble over time and form larger particles⁷⁸. This problem has been addressed by the use of small circularized MSP nanodiscs⁶⁷.

However, even without the use of circularization, most linear MSPs form homogenous nanodiscs if careful optimization of the assembly conditions is performed. For empty nanodiscs, this mostly requires the optimization of the MSP-to-lipid ratio, taking into account the diameter of the nanodisc (**Tab. 2**) as well as the surface area of the used lipids (**Tab. 3**). This situation becomes a bit more complicated if a MP needs to be inserted, requiring a more systematic screening procedure, outlined in **Fig. 3a**.

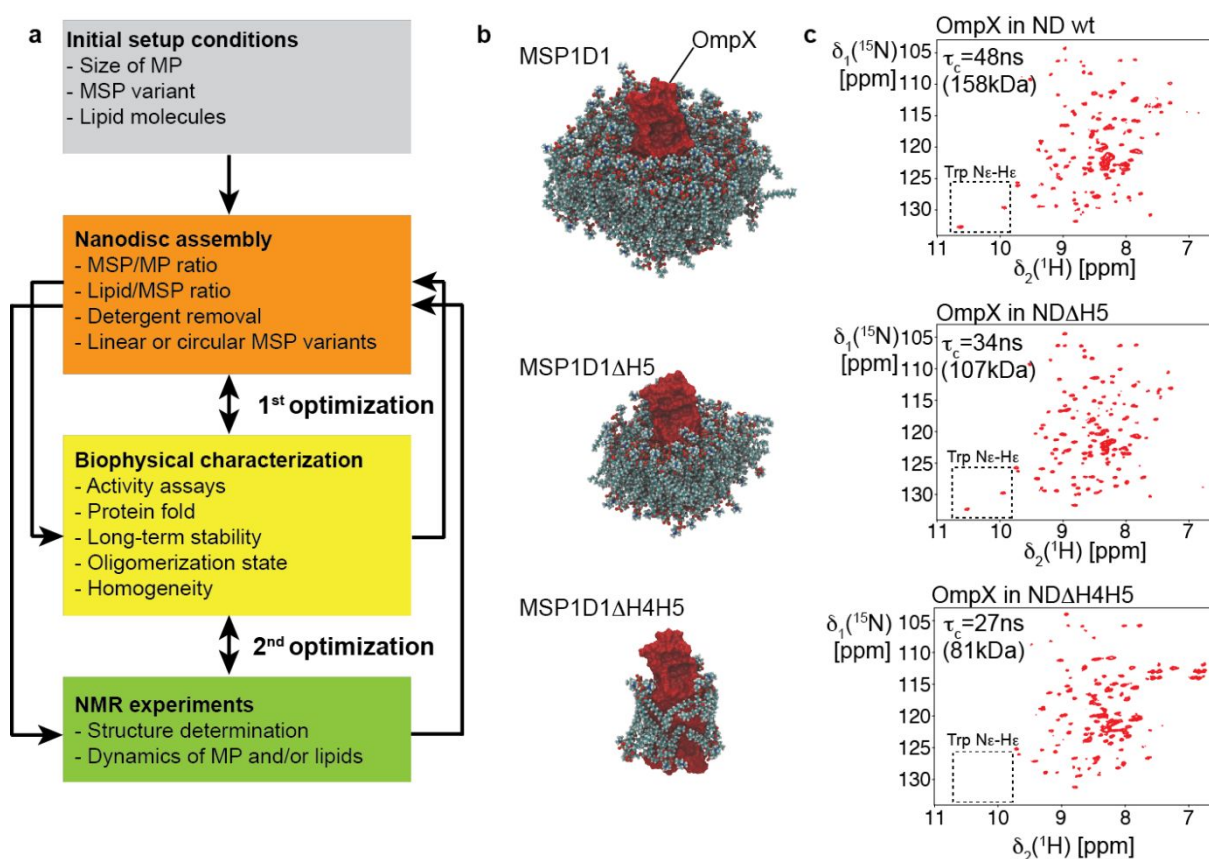


Fig. 3. Workflow for the optimization of nanodisc assembly and effect of nanodisc size on NMR spectral quality. Panels (b) and (c) are reproduced with permission from Ref. ⁷⁸. Copyright 2013 American Chemical Society.

As a first step, the approximate size of the folded MP needs to be estimated. This is a rather trivial task if the structure of the MP is already known. If this is not the case, homology modeling and secondary structure prediction can be used instead. For example, a single transmembrane helix (TMH) has a cross-section of approximately 6-10 Å, occupying a surface area of around 80 Å², whereas a 6-TMH protein would take up around 500 Å². Ideally, the outer surface of the MP should be surrounded

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3 by at least two layers of lipids, resulting in a fairly good estimation of the smallest-possible inner
4 diameter of the assembled nanodisc that can be selected for further trials. At this step, the type of
5 lipids that promote the structural integrity or activity of the MP needs to be considered, too. Lipid
6 blends can be used for nanodisc assembly but the heterogeneity of the acyl chains should be kept at a
7 minimum since this could lead to reduced NMR spectral quality.
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14 The next step in this procedure is the optimization of the molar ratios of lipid-to-MSP and
15 MSP-to-MP. Since the both ratios affect each other, both values need to be considered
16 simultaneously. For a MP that tends to form unspecific dimers or oligomers, a high ratio of MSP-to-
17 MP is recommended because the resulting excess of empty nanodiscs will facilitate the incorporation
18 of a monomer. Furthermore, the lipid-to-MSP ratio needs to be adjusted from the values for empty
19 nanodiscs since the MP occupies considerable space in the nanodisc. However, this adjustment
20 becomes less important if the ratio between MSP and MP is high because only a small fraction of
21 loaded nanodiscs is present in this scenario. Smaller nanodiscs are generally more selective for a
22 monomer since there is simply no space for accommodating the dimeric species. This selectivity can
23 be further enhanced by using covalently circularized MSP nanodiscs, due to their more stable size ⁶⁷,
24 ¹³². In addition to the mentioned ratios of nanodisc components, the speed and method for detergent
25 removal also plays an important role for successful nanodisc formation. Typically, hydrophobic beads
26 are used for this purpose since this is the most straightforward method. However, in some cases, small
27 MPs or TMHs interact with the beads, leading to a strong reduction in the nanodisc assembly yield. In
28 these cases, or if detergent removal has to take place relatively slow, dialysis of the assembly mixture
29 is recommended. Finally, if a suitable nanodisc stability or homogeneity cannot be achieved with
30 linear MSP nanodiscs, the use of the circularized counterparts might be beneficial. Using the VDAC1
31 anion channel, small circularized MSP nanodiscs and suitable assembly conditions, it has been shown
32 that homogenous oligomeric states can be selected, which could be analyzed by NMR ¹³².
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55 In parallel to the mentioned optimization procedure, the outcome of the nanodisc assembly as
56 well as the structural and functional state of the MP has to be determined by biophysical and
57 biochemical experiments. This is typically done by size exclusion chromatography, where a single
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3 symmetric peak would indicate successful assembly. Ideally, this step should be followed by a
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5 biochemical activity assay with the nanodisc-incorporated MP. However, in many cases, such assays
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7 are not available, rendering biophysical experiments on the folding state of the protein necessary,
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9 which can be done by thermal melting experiments by e.g., circular dichroism spectroscopy,
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11 fluorescence spectroscopy or differential scanning calorimetry. In these experiments, a high thermal
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13 melting point as well as a cooperative unfolding transition is desirable. The combination of these
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15 parameters indicates a stable and compactly folded MP structure. Long-term stability that is required
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17 for subsequent NMR experiments at high particle concentrations of $> 200 \mu\text{M}$ can be assayed by
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19 incubation at the required temperature followed by repeated thermal melting experiments and/or size
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21 exclusion chromatography runs. Finally, the oligomeric state of the MP in the nanodisc preparation
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23 needs to be monitored in order to optimize the assembly conditions to obtain a sample with a
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25 homogenous oligomeric state. This can be done by multi angle light scattering (MALS), mass
26
27 spectrometric or chemical crosslinking protocols²⁴³⁻²⁴⁵. More recently, fusion protein strategies were
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29 used to determine the number of MPs in nanodiscs, ranging from larger integral MPs to single TMHs
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33 ²⁴⁶⁻²⁴⁸.

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36 Once a stable and homogenous nanodisc sample is at hand, the final validation step is to use
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38 isotope-labeled (typically $U\text{-}^2\text{H}, ^{15}\text{N}$) MP for the assembly reaction and read out the spectral quality
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40 and the rotational correlation time (τc) at different temperatures or in suitable nanodiscs of different
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42 sizes by 2D- $[^1\text{H}, ^{15}\text{N}]$ -TROSY²⁴⁹ and 1D- $[^1\text{H}, ^{15}\text{N}]$ -TRACT²⁵⁰ experiments, respectively. In general,
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44 the NMR spectral quality improves with temperature, unless the stability of the nanodisc or MP is not
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46 sufficiently high. Furthermore, the size of the nanodisc should be chosen to be as small as possible.
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48 Thus, the spectral quality of the 2D-NMR spectrum of a given MP needs to be assessed in different
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50 nanodiscs (**Fig. 3b,c**)⁷⁸. Ideally, the spectral quality as well as the rotational correlation time improves
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52 with smaller nanodisc size. However, in cases where the nanodisc is too small to accommodate
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54 several layers of lipids between the MP and the MSP, the transient contact between MP and MSP
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56 leads to reduced spectral quality and in particular to the disappearance of tryptophane side-chain
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58 resonances (**Fig. 3c**). In this case of the bacterial outer membrane protein X (OmpX), a nanodisc size
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3 of 8 nm (with MSP1D1ΔH5) was found to be optimal in terms of spectral quality and long-term
4 stability⁷⁸. In the next sections, we will provide an overview on solution NMR studies of MPs in MSP
5 nanodiscs and highlight the broad and versatile applications that became possible with this type of
6 nanodiscs, and in particular with smaller nanodiscs.
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11 12 13 14 15 **3. Solution NMR studies of MPs in nanodiscs**

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18 Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) spectroscopy is a powerful technique to obtain
19 structural and dynamical insights on biomolecules at atomic resolution²⁵¹⁻²⁵³. In contrast to other
20 structural techniques, solution-state NMR can probe structural and dynamical features of
21 biomolecules in a native soluble form²⁵¹⁻²⁵³. This also holds true for MPs, where the properties and
22 fluidity of the membrane environment is an important factor for functionality^{46, 54, 63, 241, 254}. However,
23 due to the inherent physical limitations of the method, structure determination by solution-state NMR
24 is currently limited to an approximate size range of 40-50 kDa²⁵⁵⁻²⁵⁹. Nonetheless, it has been shown
25 that solution-state NMR can be used to probe dynamics and conformational features of large
26 (membrane-) proteins²⁴¹ up to 100 kDa to 1 MDa in size, utilizing specific methyl labeling of the
27 proteins^{260, 261}. With such a strategy, NMR can be very efficiently used in a complementary manner in
28 concert with X-ray crystallography and cryo-EM. The specialty of NMR is the structure determination
29 of small and dynamic MPs, probing the dynamical features of MPs, as well as monitoring the
30 structural and dynamical effects of ligand binding. In the latter two cases, high-resolution structural
31 information is often already available and beneficial for data analysis.
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51 **3.1. Isotope labeling schemes to overcome the size limitation of NMR**

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53 The molecular weight of the protein system under investigation is a critical parameter for solution-
54 state NMR. The generally slow rotational tumbling properties of MPs and the resulting faster
55 transverse (T_2) relaxation rates lead to marked line broadening and consequently to poor spectral
56 resolution in combination with an increased number of overlapping signals. Isotope labeling of
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3 proteins with ^{13}C and ^{15}N in combination with high-level deuteration (^2H)²⁶² can remedy this situation
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5 together with more sensitive NMR instruments operating at high magnetic fields, cryogenic probes as
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7 well as advanced pulse sequences, such as transverse relaxation optimized spectrometry (TROSY)^{249,}
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9 ^{252, 263, 264}. TROSY experiments benefit from the cancellation between dipolar coupling and chemical
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11 shift anisotropy-induced transverse relaxation pathways, leading to sharper NMR line widths,
12
13 especially at high magnetic fields^{249, 265-267}. In addition, the sensitivity and resolution of
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15 multidimensional NMR experiments can be further improved by non-uniform sampling (NUS)
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17 strategies²⁶⁸⁻²⁷³.

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21 Since a membrane mimetic is required for MPs, the apparent size of the MP particle is further
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23 increased, depending on the dimensions of the chosen membrane system. An easy means to increase
24
25 the rotational tumbling rate and improve the spectral quality is to acquire NMR spectra at elevated
26
27 temperatures^{255, 274}. However, this strategy is only possible if the inherent MP stability is high enough
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29 – a parameter that can be significantly supported by choosing an appropriate membrane mimetic, such
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31 as a lipid nanodisc that supports long-term stability at elevated temperatures.

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34 Despite massive improvements in all technical aspects of the NMR spectrometer setup as well
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36 as advanced pulse programs in the last decades, the most noticeable enhancement in NMR spectral
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38 quality of large protein systems can be achieved by applying advanced isotope labeling methods of
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40 the protein sample. The most suitable isotope labeling scheme for large proteins is selective methyl
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42 group labeling in a perdeuterated background, pioneered by the lab of Lewis Kay^{261, 275, 276}. The free
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44 rotation of methyl groups around their symmetry axis provides intense peaks even if the overall
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46 tumbling rates are slower for the overall system^{275, 277}. Thus, protonated and ^{13}C -labeled methyl
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48 groups can serve as excellent probes to detect conformational changes using NMR chemical shift
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50 information as well as for extracting dynamical features of proteins that are well above 100 kDa in
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52 size. Since perdeuteration is required for NMR studies of large proteins²⁶², the selective introduction
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54 of proton-containing methyl sites is particularly essential for the NMR-based structure determination
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56 of α -helical MPs, where side-chain contacts define the tertiary structure. The six naturally-occurring
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58 methyl-bearing amino acids (Ala, Leu, Val, Ile, Thr, Met) account for up to 45 % of the amino acids
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3 in the TMHs of MPs ²⁷⁸, providing a multitude of distance information in multidimensional NOESY
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5 spectra if present in an NMR-visible form. Methyl labeling can be done in an amino-acid specific
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7 manner, using specifically isotope-labeled amino acid precursors for the labeling of leucine- $\delta_{1/2}$,
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9 isoleucine- δ_1 and valine- $\gamma_{1/2}$ methyl groups, either in a non-specific²⁷⁹⁻²⁸¹, stereospecific (pro-S or pro-
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11 R) ²⁸²⁻²⁸⁵ or even stereoselective form within a single methyl group (SAIL method ^{286, 287}). Alanine²⁸⁸,
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13 ²⁸⁹, threonine ^{290, 291} and methionine²⁹²⁻²⁹⁴ can be added to the culture medium in the desired labeling
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15 pattern. The main limitation of this high-level isotope labeling methodology is that it can only be fully
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17 realized in bacterial hosts that tolerate 100 % D₂O in the growth medium, such as *E. coli*, or in a cell-
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19 free setup ²⁹⁵. Even if the NMR spectral quality can be markedly improved by these protocols, the
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21 NMR resonance assignment of the methyl signals might still be challenging since the large molecular
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23 weight of MPs often prevents the establishment of connectivities between the side chains and the
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25 protein backbone using through-bond coherence transfer NMR experiments ²⁹⁶. NOE measurements
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27 have turned out to be helpful for the resonance assignment of methyl groups if a structural model of
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29 the protein is available ^{277, 297-299}. However, if only single methyl assignments need to be obtained, as
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31 is often the case for methionine residues, site-directed mutagenesis and the readout of the resulting
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33 spectral changes in a 2D-Methyl TROSY experiment turned out to be the method of choice ^{300, 301},
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35 which has been also applied to MPs, such as GPCRs ^{302, 303}.

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40 An alternative strategy to obtain site-specific information at high sensitivity is ¹⁹F-labeling.
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42 ¹⁹F can be incorporated into protein structures either post-translationally by chemical modification of
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44 amino acid side chains such via thiol groups, ϵ -amino groups and hydroxyl groups or by
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46 supplementing growth medium with fluorinated versions of amino acids such as Phe, Tyr, Trp, Met
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48 and Leu ^{54, 304-306}. Furthermore, the introduction of methyl groups by modification of cysteine
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50 sulfhydryl groups by ¹³C-methyl-methanethiosulfonate (MMTS) is another cost-efficient way to
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52 introduce methyl labels at specific positions of large soluble proteins as well as MPs without the need
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54 for expensive isotope labeling of the protein itself ^{307, 308}. This portfolio of isotope labeling methods
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56 provides the necessary toolset for the production of suitable MP samples for the successful conduction
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58 of high-resolution NMR experiments of MPs.
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3.2. NMR methods to obtain long-range structural information of MPs

Due to the inherent sparsity of NOE (nuclear Overhauser effect) contacts in an almost completely deuterated MP, other NMR-based distance restraints are often required to obtain high-resolution structural information of sufficient quality. Paramagnetic relaxation enhancement (PRE)^{309, 310} and residual dipolar couplings (RDC)^{311, 312} are used for MPs to obtain additional and orthogonal structural information. Compared to NOE information, the PRE effect is rather long range with detectable distances of up to 25 Å^{313, 314}. However, this method requires the introduction of a single nitroxide spin label at defined positions in the protein, which is most commonly achieved by the production of single-cysteine variants, which can be difficult due to stability issues caused by the removal of cysteine residues in the protein. Furthermore, due to the flexibility of the attached spin label, the error in the obtained distances is rather large³¹³. In addition to direct spin labeling of the MP, paramagnetically labeled lipids have been used to map the location of MPs in the membrane^{68, 313, 315-318}. RDCs provide orientational information on bond vectors relative to the external magnetic field^{311, 312}. In solution, this effect can only be measured if the protein is partially restricted in its rotational tumbling motion, which can be achieved by the addition of an anisotropic alignment medium³¹⁹. Thereby, valuable information, independent of the existence of pairwise protein-proton contacts can be obtained for improving the quality of NMR structures of MPs^{79, 320}. However, many commonly used alignment media cannot be used for MPs, and this situation is further complicated if detergents are used as a membrane mimetic. Alignment of MPs for the subsequent measurement of RDCs has been reported with Pfl phages (using nanodiscs)^{79, 129, 320}, DNA nanotubes^{321, 322}, bicelles^{323, 324} and with covalently attached lanthanide tags³²⁵⁻³²⁷. However, the suitability of the particular alignment medium for a given MP needs to be tested in each case. The use of lipid nanodiscs as a membrane mimetic markedly simplifies this selection process since the assembled nanodisc-MP particles behave like a soluble protein and do not heavily interfere with the alignment medium.

3.3. Membrane protein studies in nanodiscs by solution NMR

With the introduction of lipid bilayer nanodiscs as a novel membrane mimetic, their use in structural studies of MPs by solution NMR became possible. In particular, their small and defined size renders these particles very attractive for solution NMR with the additional benefit of providing a detergent-free planar lipid bilayer environment.

3.3.1. Initial low-resolution nanodisc-NMR studies with polytopic MPs

The rather small size of lipid nanodiscs as well as their good size homogeneity quickly attracted the attention of the NMR community. Since the introduction of MSP nanodiscs in 2004, a series of polytopic MPs that have been previously investigated in detergent micelles by NMR have been incorporated into nanodiscs.

Initial work on MPs in nanodiscs by solution NMR has been reported with a membrane-active peptide, Antiamoebin-I. This fungus-derived antibiotic was reconstituted in high-density lipoprotein (HDL) particles (MSP lipid nanodiscs)³²⁸ and analyzed by 2D-TROSY NMR experiments, emphasizing the applicability of nanodiscs for integral MPs. Shortly later, a 70 amino acid truncated and mutated version of CD4 (CD4mut), a core T cell receptor, comprised of the TMH segment and the cytoplasmic domain of CD4 showed similar 2D-¹H-¹³C heteronuclear single quantum coherence (HSQC) spectra in MSP nanodiscs filled with POPC lipids and in DPC micelles³²⁹. Even though these examples report on relatively small peptides and proteins, it did not take a long time to extend this list to polytopic, integral MP in lipid nanodiscs.

In a study from the Wagner lab, a 2D-[¹⁵N, ¹H]-TROSY spectrum of the 19-stranded β -barrel human mitochondrial voltage dependent anion channel (VDAC1) in MSP1D1 nanodiscs containing DMPC lipids showed nicely resolved but slightly broader peaks compared to LDAO micelles^{95, 329}. Although, due to the different environment provided by the lipid bilayer, the peak positions in nanodiscs changed enough to prevent a direct transfer of resonance assignments, the overall similar NMR spectral signature as well as the site-specific binding properties of NADH indicated that the

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3 protein was correctly folded. Moreover, the spectral quality⁹⁵ appeared to be promising for
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5 conducting multidimensional NMR experiments to determine the structure and dynamics of VDAC1
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7 in this more physiological membrane environment. A similar study was published later by the same
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9 group with human VDAC2³³⁰, which has 68 % sequence identity to VDAC1. VDAC2 was more
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11 stable in MSP1D1 nanodiscs than in detergent micelles allowing the acquisition of a 3D-[¹H,¹H]-
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13 NOESY-¹⁵N-TROSY as well as a 3D-tr-HNCA experiments at 40 °C, demonstrating the feasibility of
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15 backbone resonance assignments in the lipid bilayer for VDAC2. However, backbone assignments for
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17 VDAC1 and VDAC2 in nanodiscs could not be obtained so far. On the other hand, a transfer of
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19 assignments for an *E. coli* outer membrane protein, OmpA, possessing a β -barrel fold, was possible
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21 since 2D-TROSY spectra of OmpA in MSP1D1 nanodiscs and in Fos-10 micelles were quite
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23 comparable³³¹. In case of BamA, the β -barrel subunit of the bacterial β -barrel insertase complex, 2D-
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25 [¹⁵N, ¹H]-TROSY spectra in MSP1D1 nanodiscs, in LDAO micelles and DMPC:DH₇PC bicelles
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27 showed similar resonance positions for the flexible loops and lid region. Importantly, the POTRA5
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29 domain of BamA was found to be unstructured in solution in the absence of detergents in contrast to
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31 available crystal structures³³². For the mentioned MP systems where an in-depth NMR
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33 characterization is already available in detergent micelles, a transfer of NMR resonance assignments
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35 is clearly the most straightforward strategy to obtain resonance assignments in nanodiscs without the
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37 need for challenging multidimensional NMR experiments. A detergent titration method using a
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39 stepwise addition of the detergent to a MP in lipid nanodiscs was shown to be useful in a few reported
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41 cases^{333, 334}, but might not be applicable in a wider context.
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46 Not only β -barrel but also α -helical MPs have been investigated in lipid nanodiscs. One of the
47
48 first attempts to record an NMR spectrum of a multi-pass α -helical MP in nanodiscs was performed
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50 on ¹⁵N-labeled KcsA, a tetrameric K⁺ channel from *Streptomyces lividans*, which is comprised of an
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52 N- and C-terminal α -helical soluble domains connected by two TMH segments³³⁵. Although the large
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54 tetrameric structure of KcsA does not seem to be compatible with solution NMR, specific labeling
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56 using methyl-protonation in a deuterated background provided information on the conformational
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58 states of the C-terminal domain of KcsA in MSP1D1 nanodiscs³³⁶. Therein, the chosen membrane
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3 mimetic affected the conformational equilibrium of this channel as revealed by methyl-TROSY
4 experiments^{336, 337}. More recently, KcsA was reported to be found as dimers of tetramers when
5 solubilized in polymer nanodiscs³³⁸. The TROSY spectrum of an α -helical voltage-sensing domain
6 (VSD) of another K⁺ channel, KvAP, containing four TMH segments, in DMPG MSP1D1 nanodiscs
7 was used as a reference medium for guiding the screening procedure for suitable detergents³³⁹. The
8 aim of this study was not to conduct a detailed NMR analysis in nanodiscs but rather find a detergent
9 that resembles the nanodisc environment best and continue with more detailed NMR studies in the
10 identified detergent system. According to the findings of this report, zwitterionic detergents provided
11 the most “nanodisc-like” environment for VSD of KvAP³³⁹. Furthermore, 2D-[¹⁵N, ¹H]-TROSY
12 spectra of VSD in DPC or DPC/LDAO micelles and in DMPC, DMPG or POPC/DOPG containing
13 nanodiscs exhibited similar μ -ms inter-helical motions suggesting that these motions are an inherent
14 property of the VSD independent of the membrane mimetic environment³⁴⁰. The comparison of
15 TROSY-HSQC spectra of the light activated proton pump bacteriorhodopsin (bR) in different
16 membrane environments revealed that MSP1D1 nanodiscs are suitable for 7-TMH MPs³⁴¹. NMR
17 spectra of bR displayed larger chemical shift perturbations for the regions that are exposed to the
18 different environments while the residues in the hydrophobic core of the protein showed smaller
19 shifts, indicating that the membrane mimetic environment does not affect the overall protein fold in
20 that case. Notably, the nanodisc environment provided the highest stability for a much longer time
21 allowing NMR data acquisition at 50 °C resulting in 209 resolved peaks³⁴¹. Likewise, MSP nanodiscs
22 improved the stability of Barttin, an accessory subunit of CIC-K chloride channels containing two α -
23 helical TMH segments, although LDAO micelles resulted in a better-resolved NMR spectrum,
24 presumably due to the smaller size of the detergent micelle. Nonetheless, a final assessment of the
25 functionally most suitable membrane environment for Barttin requires functional studies³⁴². In case of
26 the *E. coli* MP YgaP, comprised of two TMH segments and a cytoplasmic rhodanese domain, a 2D-
27 [¹⁵N, ¹H]-TROSY spectrum of the protein in deuterated *d*_{5,4}-DMPC MSP1D1 nanodiscs resolved about
28 80 % of the rhodanese domain with an additional ~40 peaks, possibly belonging to the TMH segment
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3 Of particular interest, nanodiscs have been used for the investigation of the conformational
4 landscape of various G-protein coupled receptors (GPCRs), a pharmacologically highly important
5 class of MPs. Notably, the conformational equilibrium of β_2 -adrenoceptor (β_2 AR) in nanodiscs was
6 found to be significantly different from the equilibrium in detergent micelles utilizing methyl labeled
7 methionine residues as probes in 2D methyl-TROSY NMR experiments ³⁴⁴. A similar strategy was
8 used by the same group for adenosine A_{2A} receptor (A_{2A} AR) to gain insight on the conformational
9 dynamics of the protein in the presence of ligand molecules in MSP1E1 nanodiscs containing
10 POPC/POPG lipids. It was found that the presence of acyl chains derived from docosahexaenoic (C_{22})
11 acid in a lipid bilayer affected the conformational states of the receptor, leading to enhanced G-protein
12 binding³⁴⁵. Similarly, the effect of the cholesterol analogue cholesteryl hemisuccinate (CHS) on the
13 conformational dynamics of the leukotriene B4 receptor, BLT2, was demonstrated in MSP1D1
14 nanodiscs ³⁴⁶. More recently, the intrinsically disordered C-terminal region of β_2 AR upon
15 phosphorylation and β -arrestin binding was studied in MSP1D1 nanodiscs using NMR ³⁴⁷. In this
16 report, an isotope-labeled C-terminal peptide was produced in *E. coli* cells and then ligated to the C-
17 terminally truncated GPCR expressed in insect cells via intein-mediated protein trans splicing ³⁴⁷
18 instead of labeling the entire protein.

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Despite the impressive advances demonstrated by these early studies of MPs in lipid
nanodiscs, a high-resolution structure determination of a MP appeared out of reach for some time. The
main reason for this situation was the still large particle size of the available nanodiscs that prevented
the successful recording of high-quality multidimensional NMR experiments that are commonly used
for backbone resonance assignment, even if cutting edge isotope labeling and TROSY-based NMR
experiments ³⁴⁸ were used. Consequently, this issue led to the idea of designing smaller nanodiscs for
NMR.

3.3.2. Smaller lipid nanodiscs for high-resolution NMR studies of MPs

Due to the above-mentioned size-related limitations in solution NMR studies of MPs, a
logical next step in the optimization process of nanodiscs for solution NMR was the design of smaller

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3 nanodiscs. Efforts from different labs in engineering the MSP1D1 construct resulted in the generation
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5 of smaller nanodiscs either by internal deletions ⁷⁸ or N- and C-terminal truncations ^{90, 128}.

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8 Notably, the Wagner group obtained NMR spectra of the *E. coli* outer membrane β -barrel
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10 protein OmpX with exceptional spectral quality in MSP1D1 Δ H5 (Δ H5) nanodiscs containing *d*₅₄-
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12 DMPC/DMPG (3:1 ratio) lipids. The deletion of helix 4 or 5 led to a stable MSP construct that
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14 assembled into nanodiscs of markedly smaller size (about 50 kDa reduction in molecular weight).
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16 Furthermore, in this system, 3D-TROSY-based triple resonance experiments were possible, which
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18 enabled an almost complete backbone resonance assignment of OmpX. In addition, an NOE-based
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20 structure determination was possible, leading to the first high-resolution structure of a MP in lipid
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22 nanodiscs ⁷⁸. This workflow was facilitated by the use of deuterated lipids and NMR non-uniform
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24 sampling (NUS) setup. Later, refinement of the structure was performed for OmpX in Δ H5 nanodiscs
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26 by the use of N-H RDCs in Pf1 phage medium ³²⁰, as well as utilizing side-chain NOE information
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28 and PRE restraints for positioning OmpX in the lipid bilayer membrane ⁷⁹. Likewise, in another study
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30 by a different group, Δ H5 nanodiscs allowed for the acquisition of improved NMR spectra of the
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32 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* outer membrane proteins OprG and OprH, as compared to spectra obtained
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34 in the larger MSP1D1 nanodiscs ⁸⁰. Eventually, the authors of this study chose to use lipid bicelles (*q*
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36 = 0.3 DHPC:DMPC:DHPS:DMPS) for subsequent NMR studies of these two proteins. However,
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38 shortening the long and flexible loops of the β -barrel protein OprH (OprH Δ L1 Δ L4) led to a strong
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40 improvement of the spectral quality in lipid nanodiscs ⁸⁰. Δ H5 nanodiscs were also used for the β -
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42 barrel outer membrane protein Ail from *Y. pestis* since the presence of detergents markedly impaired
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44 its ligand binding activity ¹³⁰. The NMR spectrum of Ail in nanodiscs was comparable to the one in
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46 detergent micelles but, due to the larger particle size, the peaks were broader indicating a similar
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48 overall fold in both membrane mimetics systems. Moreover, a backbone structure determination of
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50 Ail was possible with solution NMR in addition to binding studies with Δ H5 nanodiscs containing
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52 lipopolysaccharide (LPS) ¹³¹, in agreement with prior solid-state NMR experiments with LPS in
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54 liposomes ⁸³. Another smaller nanodisc, D7 MSP1D1, which leads to nanodiscs of similar size as with
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56 Δ H5 nanodiscs, provided markedly improved 2D-[¹⁵N, ¹H]-TROSY spectra for the integrin α _{IIb}
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3 fragment containing a single TMH and the cytoplasmic domain compared to the larger D13
4 (MSP1E3D1) nanodiscs¹²⁸. In addition, conformational changes of the C-terminal tail of integrin β_3 in
5 D7 nanodiscs upon phosphorylation by the kinase domain of Src kinase was studied by the same
6 group⁸¹, following up previous studies in detergent micelles³⁴⁹. Lastly, 2D- ^{15}N , ^1H -TROSY spectra
7 of a thermally stabilized version of human $\alpha_{1\text{B}}$ -adrenoceptor ($\alpha_{1\text{B}}$ -AR) in circularized ΔH5 nanodiscs
8 (cNW9) containing DMPG/DMPC was of almost comparable quality as in LMNG micelles³⁵⁰. The
9 corresponding 2D- ^{13}C , ^1H -HSQC spectra of specifically ILV methyl-labeled receptor showed quite
10 identical quality due to the advantageous relaxation properties of methyl groups.
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21 On the other hand, smaller nanodiscs have been shown to impact the conformational
22 landscape of the inserted MPs, as demonstrated recently with the isotope-labeled neurotensin receptor
23 subtype-1 (NTR1) in circularized cNW9 nanodiscs, where a higher G protein binding affinity was
24 observed, presumably due to a higher population of active receptor. In addition, 2D- ^{15}N , ^1H -TROSY
25 NMR spectra of ^2H , ^{15}N -labeled NTR1 in these nanodiscs were well dispersed and the protein was
26 stable for 15 days at 45 °C⁷⁷. In case of the p75NTR, a member of the tumor necrosis factor receptor
27 family and a single TMH MP harboring large soluble domains, a comparison of nanodiscs assembled
28 with different MSP constructs showed that smaller discs may not result in better NMR spectra if the
29 soluble domains artificially interact with the MSP in smaller nanodiscs³⁵¹. Therefore, it is important
30 to make use of the broad selection of available MSP variants and screen for the best lipid nanodisc
31 system using NMR guided by the size properties of the MP of interest.
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45 Evidently, size reduction in nanodisc particles containing MPs by generation of smaller
46 nanodiscs allows for the acquisition of better NMR spectra, enabling backbone resonance assignments
47 as well as the structure determination of MPs. As it becomes quickly evident from the above-
48 mentioned examples, ΔH5 or its circular derivative seem to be the general choice for small nanodiscs.
49 This intriguing preference is actually not surprising because ΔH5 construct is the most stable one
50 among other internal deletion constructs⁷⁸, which even enabled the NMR structure determination of
51 an empty nanodiscs containing DMPC lipids (PDB ID: 2N5E)¹²⁹. The structure reveals that in the
52 anti-parallel double ring formed by two MSP1D1 ΔH5 copies, helix 5 (H5) of one monomer of the
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3 original MSP1D1 construct would interact with H5 of the second monomer. Therefore, the deletion of
4 H5 does not perturb the overall packing of the MSP belt which is stabilized by about 30 salt bridges
5 and cation- π interactions in H4 and H6 ¹²⁹. In addition, the interaction between the N- and C-termini
6 of MSP proteins seems to be important for ring closure since the C-terminal truncation mutants, D6
7 and D5 ¹²⁸, had a stronger tendency for ring fusion.
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17 **3.3.3. NMR investigations of membrane-attached proteins**

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19 Nanodiscs present a particularly suitable environment to study interactions of membrane-
20 attached proteins with other proteins or small molecule compounds by NMR. A prominent example of
21 such a protein class is the Bcl2 protein family. Most Bcl2 proteins are composed of a compactly
22 folded α -helical domain and a C-terminal TMH that serves as a membrane anchor. Upon apoptotic
23 simulation, certain pro-apoptotic Bcl2 family members (so-called effectors) can insert into the outer
24 mitochondrial membrane and form pores that lead to the release of pro-apoptotic proteins. Since Bcl2
25 proteins are inherently unstable in a membrane environment ³⁵², the use of detergents can lead to their
26 unfolding, rendering structural studies difficult. It was recently shown that the anti-apoptotic Bcl2
27 protein BclxL can be transferred from detergent micelles into Δ H5 nanodiscs containing DMPC and
28 DMPG lipids, leading to good spectral quality as probed by 2D- $[^{15}\text{N},^1\text{H}]$ -TROSY NMR ³⁵³
29 experiments. Moreover, the transmembrane helix was found to be quite flexible within the membrane,
30 suggesting a potential functional role in apoptosis ³⁵⁴. In a later NMR study on full-length BclxL ³⁵²,
31 an alternative strategy based on SortaseA-mediated protein ligation was applied to obtain the full-
32 length protein to prevent the adverse effects of detergents on the soluble domain of BclxL. Therein,
33 the TMH and soluble domain of BclxL were produced and purified separately and, after nanodisc
34 insertion of the TMH, ligated in a detergent-free environment. This approach might be useful for the
35 production of membrane anchored proteins that cannot otherwise be produced or refolded in a full-
36 length context ³⁵² and where segmental isotope labeling for NMR is desirable. In a recent study, lipid
37 nanodiscs were used for the structural characterization of the pro-apoptotic Bcl2 protein Bak in a
38 membrane environment by NMR³⁵⁵. Therein, the use of nanodiscs of a defined size (MSP1D1 Δ H5)
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3 prevented the premature membrane incorporation and oligomerization of the Bak soluble domain,
4 which would lead to membrane pore formation. This setup enabled the defined activation of Bak
5 membrane incorporation by BH3-only proteins for a structural characterization by NMR³⁵⁵.
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9 Another well-studied membrane-associated protein system is the cytochrome P450 complex
10 and its partner protein *cytb₅*. The interaction between these proteins was studied in 22A peptide
11 nanodiscs containing DMPC lipids³⁵⁶. The use of lipid nanodiscs was critical for this study since the
12 presence of detergents caused partial unfolding of the α -helices of P450 2B4 (CYP2B4)³⁵⁷. Recently,
13 selective labeling of *cytb₅* with 5-fluoro-tryptophan containing ¹⁹F nuclei provided additional insights
14 on the interaction between *cytb₅* and full-length CYP2B4 within the lipid bilayer formed by 4F
15 peptide nanodiscs³⁵⁸. The same group also reported well resolved 2D-[¹⁵N,¹H]-TROSY spectra of the
16 FMN (flavin mononucleotide) binding domain (FBD) of CYP450-reductase alone and in complex
17 with CYP2B4 attached to 4F peptide nanodiscs containing DMPC lipids³⁵⁹. Moreover, ¹³C-methyl-
18 methanethiosulfonate (¹³C-MMTS) labeling of surface exposed cysteines on the full-length CYP450-
19 reductase in MSP1D1 nanodiscs containing DOPG/DOPC lipids allowed methyl-TROSY experiments
20 to be performed in the oxidized and reduced states of the protein to detect conformational transitions
21 without the need for perdeuteration³⁶⁰. By this approach, the interaction of the components in the
22 ternary complex in the absence or presence of substrates was possible, emphasizing the power of the
23 nanodisc technology in combination with NMR spectroscopy³⁶¹.
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27 Another prominent membrane-associated protein class are small GTPases³⁶². Using MSP1D1
28 nanodiscs, the membrane binding properties of Rheb, a GTPase belonging to the Ras superfamily of
29 proteins, was studied by NMR³¹⁷. NMR chemical shift perturbation experiments suggested that the
30 protein is not tightly associated with the lipid bilayer in the absence of a membrane anchor. Thus, the
31 authors established a stable membrane location by covalently linking Rheb, harboring a single
32 cysteine residue, to a cysteine-selective maleimide-headgroup-modified lipid incorporated into
33 nanodiscs. In that setup, the authors could elegantly probe the orientation of Rheb on the membrane
34 surface in complex with GDP or GTP using paramagnetic relaxation enhancement (PRE) experiments
35 in the presence of Gd³⁺-chelated lipids³¹⁷. In a similar workflow, the effector dependent membrane
36 interaction of K-RAS4B (Kirsten rat sarcoma viral oncogene homolog 4B) GTPase was observed by
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3 PRE experiments using MSP1D1 nanodiscs ³⁶³. Later, this approach was extended to an analysis of
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5 the K-RAS4B dimerization mechanism on the membrane surface ³⁶⁴, as well as its interaction with the
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7 small molecule compound Cmpd2, which stabilizes its membrane interaction and leads to impaired
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9 RAF kinase activation ³⁶⁵. In addition to GTPases, a similar strategy was used for the NMR
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11 investigation of the membrane bound metalloprotease MT1-MMP ³⁶⁶. A stabilized neurotensin
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13 receptor in MSP1D1 nanodiscs was used to study its interaction with an isotope-labeled inhibitory G α
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15 subunit by NMR and probe the impact of the GPCR on the conformational equilibrium of the G-
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17 protein ⁹⁹.

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20 The membrane binding properties of α -synuclein (α -syn), a protein linked to Parkinson's
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22 disease, was investigated by solution NMR using nanodiscs containing a suitable lipid composition
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24 that was required for binding. 2D-[¹⁵N,¹H]-TROSY spectroscopy showed that α -syn preferentially
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26 binds to nanodiscs containing negatively charged lipids which stimulated the nucleation of amyloid
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28 fibril formation ³⁶⁷. More recently, the effect of cholesterol on fibrillation was investigated using
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30 polymer nanodiscs ³⁶⁸. In contrast, 4F peptide nanodiscs were shown to have an inhibitory effect on
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32 the formation of A β 40 fibers, a major player in Alzheimer's disease, suggesting a possible therapeutic
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34 potential of these nanodiscs in amyloidosis ³⁶⁹. MSP1D1 Δ H5 nanodiscs of different lipid
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36 compositions were also used to capture a human islet amyloid polypeptide (IAPP) aggregation
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38 intermediate, enabling its initial structural characterization by NMR ³⁷⁰ and the same type of
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40 nanodiscs have been used to probe the binding of the VDAC1 N-terminal helix to the membrane
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42 surface ³⁷¹. Recently, 2D-[¹⁵N,¹H]-HSQC spectra of different Pex14 constructs, a component of the
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44 peroxisomal translocon complex, in the presence of Δ H5 nanodiscs and bicelles were recorded to
45
46 investigate its membrane binding properties ³⁷².

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48
49 Similarly, nanodiscs allowed for the NMR characterization of the membrane binding
50
51 properties of membrane active peptides, such as the ion channel inhibitor VSTx1, the antimicrobial β -
52
53 hairpin peptide AA193 ³⁷³, the spider venom inhibitor Pn3a ³⁷⁴, the PI(4,5)P₂-mediated membrane-
54
55 targeting of the cytotoxin BteA from *Bordetella pertussis* ³⁷⁵, and the binding of the major
56
57 intracellular component of the epithelial adherent junctions pleckstrin homology domain containing
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3 family A member 7 (PLEKHA7) to phosphatidylinositol lipids (PIPs)³⁷⁶. Moreover, involvement of a
4
5 membrane environment in binding of peptides derived from the isoforms of the cytosolic domain of
6
7 the homotypic cell-adhesion receptor CEACAM1 with calcium-calmodulin (Ca²⁺/CaM) was
8
9 investigated using MSP1D1 nanodiscs containing DMPC lipids, revealing its stepwise interaction
10
11 with Ca²⁺/CaM and actin³⁷⁷.
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13
14 The above-mentioned examples demonstrate the benefits of nanodiscs for the NMR
15
16 investigation of membrane-associated proteins and peptides without the adverse effects of detergents
17
18 that often lead to structural alterations or even unfolding of its soluble parts. Thus, conformational
19
20 changes of these proteins in response to membrane/lipid interaction can be monitored in a realistic
21
22 environment. Moreover, effects of specific lipids can be analyzed due to compatibility of nanodiscs
23
24 with most the relevant lipid types.
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29 **3.3.4. Studying single-pass helical MPs in nanodiscs by NMR**

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31 Single-pass transmembrane-helical MPs are a large class of MPs with essential biological
32
33 functions³⁷⁸. The members of this highly relevant MP class are often too small and flexible to be
34
35 studied by X-ray crystallography or cryo-EM. This results in an excellent niche for the application of
36
37 solution-state NMR to investigate the structure and dynamics of TMHs in membrane environments.
38
39 Most solution NMR structural studies of TMHs have been conducted in detergent micelles, as
40
41 recently summarized in ref.³⁷⁹. A rather harsh detergent environment is commonly considered to be
42
43 compatible with TMH structure formation due to the lack of helix-helix interactions if single TMHs
44
45 are investigated. However, the use of lipid nanodiscs to study not only the structure but also the
46
47 functional dynamics of TMHs provides the opportunity to capture its functional properties. This topic
48
49 appears to be important since the conformational landscape of TMHs is most likely affected by the
50
51 surrounding membrane environment^{108, 380}.
52
53

54
55 So far, only a few high-resolution NMR structural studies of TMHs in lipid nanodiscs are
56
57 available. One of them is the TMH of the Alzheimer risk factor TREM2 (triggering receptor
58
59 expressed on myeloid cells 2)³⁸¹. The TMH of TREM2 is subjected to sequential intramembrane
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3 proteolysis by γ -secretase following initial cleavage at a C-terminal location within the TMH ^{382, 383}.
4
5 Therefore, the structural and dynamical properties of the TREM2 TMH can be used as a model
6
7 system to better understand the substrate recognition features of γ -secretase. NMR spectra of the
8
9 TMH in both DPC micelles and DMPC/DMPG MSP1D1 Δ H5 nanodiscs revealed an intrinsic
10
11 regulation mechanism that modulates the stability of the TMH upon exposure of a positively charged
12
13 lysine residue in the transmembrane region. This residue is normally protected from the hydrophobic
14
15 membrane environment by binding to its partner protein DAP12, which most likely dissociates from
16
17 TREM2 once proteolytic processing by other proteases is initiated. This study revealed that a dynamic
18
19 region within the TREM2 TMH is recognized and cleaved by γ -secretase. Charge removal of the
20
21 TREM2 TMH lead to structure formation in that region and to an altered processing pattern by γ -
22
23 secretase. Thus, γ -secretase appears to preferentially bind to flexible regions of a TMH leading to
24
25 proper proteolysis of the TREM2 fragment ³⁸¹.
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29
30 Another prominent example is the C-terminal TMH of anti-apoptotic BclxL, which serves as
31
32 a membrane anchor and is essential for its functionality ³⁸⁴. The BclxL-TMH was initially investigated
33
34 in a full-length context and in isolation using detergent micelles and lipid nanodiscs ^{353, 354}. Since the
35
36 soluble domain of BclxL is inherently instable in presence of detergent micelles, a different approach
37
38 utilized the modular structure of BclxL to omit detergent contact of this domain. The isotope labeled
39
40 TMH was first incorporated into lipid nanodiscs using SDS or DPC detergent for initial solubilization
41
42 ³⁵². After assembly, the detergent-free TMH in nanodiscs was ligated to the soluble domain of BclxL
43
44 as mentioned in section 3.3.3. In this study, the high-resolution structure of lipid-incorporated BclxL-
45
46 TMH was determined, as well as the membrane location of the soluble domain, enabling the
47
48 construction of a structural model of the full-length protein ³⁵². These initial examples further
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50 demonstrate the versatility of the nanodisc system which not only allows for high-resolution structural
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52 studies of TMHs but also the study of the corresponding full-length proteins containing detergent-
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54 sensitive soluble domains.
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3.3.5. Investigation of lipid and MP dynamics in nanodiscs

Due to the presence of a rather fluid lipid bilayer membrane, lipid nanodiscs are highly dynamic particles, which could be seen by the quite large alterations in the nanodisc shape in the NMR structural bundle of MSP1D1ΔH5 nanodiscs¹²⁹. Based on this study, the shape heterogeneity of a MSP lipid nanodisc was later confirmed by a combined NMR, SAXS/SANS and molecular dynamics simulation study, where various elliptical shapes were detected as well as different degrees of lipid ordering within the nanodisc¹⁷².

Due to the presence of the lipid-binding MSP, the lipid molecules in nanodiscs are somewhat more restricted than in a pure lipid membrane mimetic, such as liposomes. Thus, it is important to probe the dynamics of the lipids in nanodiscs. In a solid-state NMR study, it was shown that the dynamics of lipids in both the gel- and liquid crystalline phase is restricted as compared to lamellar liposome preparations. In turn, reduced dynamics in nanodiscs was also shown for the incorporated MP proteorhodopsin³⁸⁵. This finding was refined in another solid-state NMR study, reporting an almost abolished gel-to-fluid phase transition in nanodiscs caused by a higher degree of lipid fluidity, whereas the addition of cholesterol led to chain ordering³⁸⁶. Nonetheless, the reduction in nanodisc size or covalent circularization of the MSP did not have a marked effect on lipid dynamics in empty nanodiscs^{78, 132}.

These changes in lipid dynamics have implications on the dynamics of an incorporated MP. Ideally, the best membrane mimetic system is liposomes. However, due to the size limitations in solution-state NMR, smaller lipid-based membrane mimetics are required. Even though the above-mentioned solid-state NMR indicated restricted dynamics of a MP in nanodiscs as compared to liposomes³⁸⁵, it has been shown by a comparative solution state NMR study with OmpX in different membrane mimetics³⁸⁷ that nanodiscs still permit ns-ps and ms-μs motions within membrane-embedded areas that are absent in detergent micelles. Loop regions of OmpX outside the membrane were shown to exhibit similar dynamical features in the ns-ps time scale⁷⁸. Due to the ability to incorporate basically any lipid into nanodiscs, it could be shown that a modulation of lipid dynamics by the addition of cholesterol had an impact on the dynamics of the incorporated model protein

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3 OmpX³⁸⁸. Despite the minor restrictions in lipid dynamics, the native-like properties of lipid
4
5 nanodiscs required for a MP to adopt an active structural state was recently shown with the bacterial
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7 β -barrel assembly machinery (BAM), where the lipid surface of the nanodisc could be deformed by
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9 the ‘disruptase’ activity of BAM³⁸⁹. However, due to limitations in the membrane surface area, the
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11 MP insertase activity of the BAM complex was higher in larger nanodiscs or liposomes. Furthermore,
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13 the active G-protein-binding-competent state of a GPCR can still be adopted in smaller nanodiscs, as
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15 evident from recent complex structures^{77,390}.

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19 Taken together, as compared to liposomes, the MSP encircled structure of a nanodisc leads to
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21 a restriction in the lipid dynamics, in particular at the lipid-MSP interface. However, compared to
22
23 other membrane mimetics, nanodiscs can be considered the most native-like system. Due to the
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25 abundance of various MPs³⁹¹ as well as cholesterol in biological membranes^{20,392}, it appears likely
26
27 that lipid motion is already heavily restricted in living cells but the modulation of MP activity by the
28
29 surrounding lipids might represent an important level of regulation in cells. Apart from experimental
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31 approaches, state-of-the-art molecular dynamics (MD) simulations on lipid nanodiscs or other bilayer
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33 systems^{171,393-397} have the potential to provide valuable insights on this topic. The possibility to vary
34
35 the nanodisc size and lipid composition will be beneficial to mimic the native situation for structural,
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37 dynamical and functional investigations of MPs.

43 **4. Summary and future directions**

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46 In this review, we aimed at providing a detailed overview on the currently used membrane
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48 mimetic systems for the structural and functional investigation of MPs, with a strong focus on lipid
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50 nanodiscs. We strongly believe that lipid nanodiscs have superior properties as compared to other
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52 membrane mimicking media. Lipid nanodiscs provide a native-like lipid bilayer environment
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54 containing any desired lipid composition, which generally facilitates MP stability and functionality.
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56 Furthermore, due to their realistic bilayer and non-denaturing properties, lipid nanodiscs are a perfect
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58 tool to investigate the (lipid-dependent) interaction of peripheral MPs with the lipid bilayer surface, as
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3 well as to study the structure and function of membrane-anchored proteins or complexes between
4 membrane-associated soluble proteins and integral MPs. Especially the introduction of small lipid
5 nanodiscs almost a decade ago was essential for making this membrane mimetic popular in the NMR
6 community, enabling structural studies of integral and peripheral MPs as well as investigations on the
7 dynamical features of the entrapped lipids as well as the incorporated MP.
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14 However, these clear advantages of lipid nanodiscs do not come without limitations. For
15 solution NMR, the still quite large size of the available lipid nanodiscs is challenging, requiring
16 cutting edge sample preparation methods as well as NMR methodology, including ultra-high-field
17 NMR magnets and cryogenic probes. Further truncation of the MSP to produce even smaller
18 nanodiscs is very difficult due to stability issues and the requirement for a certain amount of
19 incorporated lipids. By comparison, the use of detergent micelles often leads to a better NMR spectral
20 quality, simply due to the smaller size and possibly the lower tendency of MPs to form heterogenic
21 mixtures of monomers, dimers or oligomers in this harsher environment. In addition, detergent
22 micelles are very easy to use without the need for the production of additional components, such as
23 the MSP. Thus, in each particular case, it has to be carefully considered what membrane mimetic
24 would be the best choice for a particular application and sample situation. Initial NMR studies of a
25 MP in detergent micelles are often a good starting point to get an impression on the behavior of the
26 MP and to decide on the need for a more native nanodisc environment. As mentioned above, this is
27 very often the case for structurally labile MPs, and for any MP system where detergents are
28 unfavorable.
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46 With nanodiscs at hand that have a diameter of ~ 6 nm, the size limitations of the MSP lipid
47 nanodisc system are most likely reached. However, most integral MPs would anyway require a larger
48 membrane surface, thus the use of 8-10 nm nanodiscs or larger is required in many cases. The
49 improvement of the NMR spectral quality of MPs in nanodiscs has been shown to be still possible
50 with MSP circularization, leading to more homogenous and stable particles that are suitable for long-
51 term NMR experiments at elevated temperatures, which can compensate for their larger size. Since
52 the MSP is a protein that can be mutated, truncated, circularized or otherwise modified, we are very
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3 optimistic that the MSP nanodisc technology can be further developed and refined for specific
4 applications in structural biology as well as functional investigations of MPs in the future.
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10 11 **5. References**

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Biographies

Umut Günsel

Umut Günsel completed his B.Sc. in 2011 and M.Sc. in 2013 in the Department of Molecular Biology and Genetics in Istanbul Technical University, Turkey. He received his Ph.D. from the laboratory of Dr. Dejana Mokranjac in the Department of Physiological Chemistry, Ludwig Maximilian University of Munich, Germany in 2020. Since January 2021 he has been working as a postdoctoral scientist in the laboratory of Prof. Dr. Franz Hagn on structural biology of membrane proteins in Bavarian NMR Center (BNMRZ) at the Technical University of Munich. His journey in the field of protein structure and function relationship as his main area of interest starts with chaperone proteins during his M.Sc. and continues with protein translocation studies into mitochondria during his Ph.D. Currently, as the new member of the group of Prof. Hagn, he works on structure and dynamics of mitochondrial membrane proteins and GPCRs associated with metabolic diseases, neurological disorders and cancer.

Franz Hagn

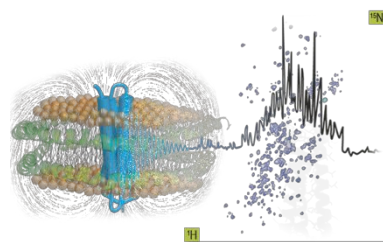
Franz Hagn studied biochemistry from 1998 to 2003 at the Universities of Bayreuth, Germany and Stockholm, Sweden. He worked in the lab of Astrid Gräslund and Lena Måler in Stockholm on the dynamics of a membrane-bound peptide in different membrane-mimicking media and with Jochen Balbach on using real-time NMR to follow protein folding processes. In 2004, funded by the Elite Network of Bavaria, he moved to the Technical University of Munich and conducted his doctoral research with Horst Kessler where he used NMR to determine the structure and dynamics of molecular chaperones, tumor suppressor and spider silk proteins. After graduation in 2009 with “*summa cum laude*” pursued postdoctoral research with Gerhard Wagner at Harvard Medical School in

1
2
3 Boston, USA, funded by EMBO and HFSP long-term fellowships. In the Wagner lab, he developed
4 and applied size-optimized lipid nanodiscs for structural studies of membrane proteins by solution-
5 state NMR and determined the first high-resolution structure of a membrane protein in lipid
6 nanodiscs. In 2014, he moved back to Munich and accepted a faculty position at the TUM as well as a
7 junior group leader position at the Helmholtz Center Munich, funded by the Helmholtz Young
8 Investigator's group program of the Helmholtz Society. In Munich he is still interested in the
9 development of lipid nanodiscs for NMR spectroscopy as well as in the structural investigation of
10 membrane proteins involved in signal transduction, metabolite transport and apoptosis. He has been
11 awarded the Friedrich-Weygand Award of the Max-Bergmann Kreis for peptide chemistry in 2011,
12 the Hans-Fischer Award of the Department of Chemistry of the TUM in 2011, the Arnold-
13 Sommerfeld Award of the Bavarian Academy of Sciences in 2012, and the Felix-Bloch-Lecture of the
14 Magnetic Resonance Division of the German Chemical Society in 2019, and was promoted to
15 associate professor at TUM in 2020.
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45 nanodiscs and their application to challenging membrane protein systems.
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TOC Figure



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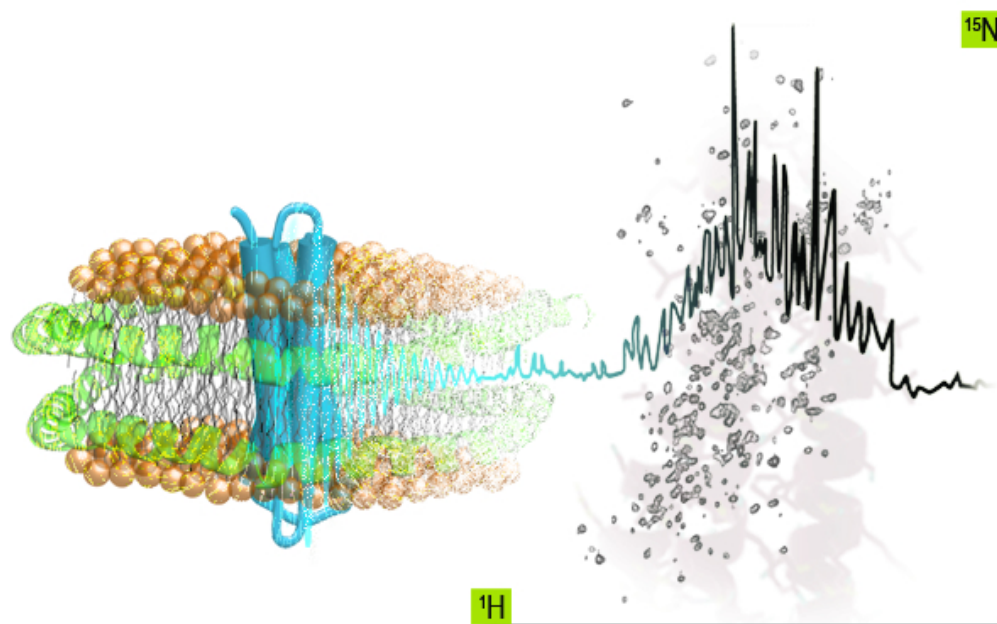


Table of Content Figure

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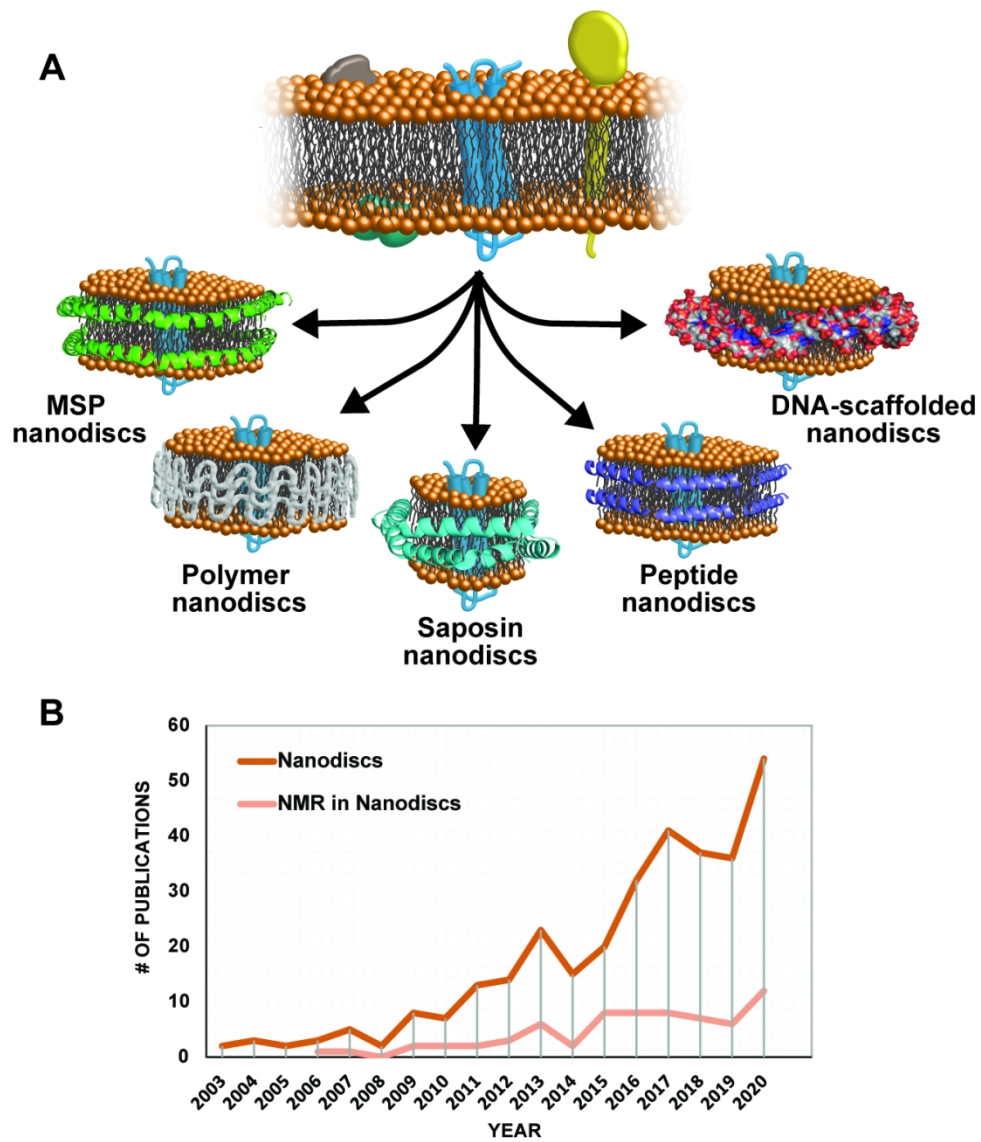


Figure 1

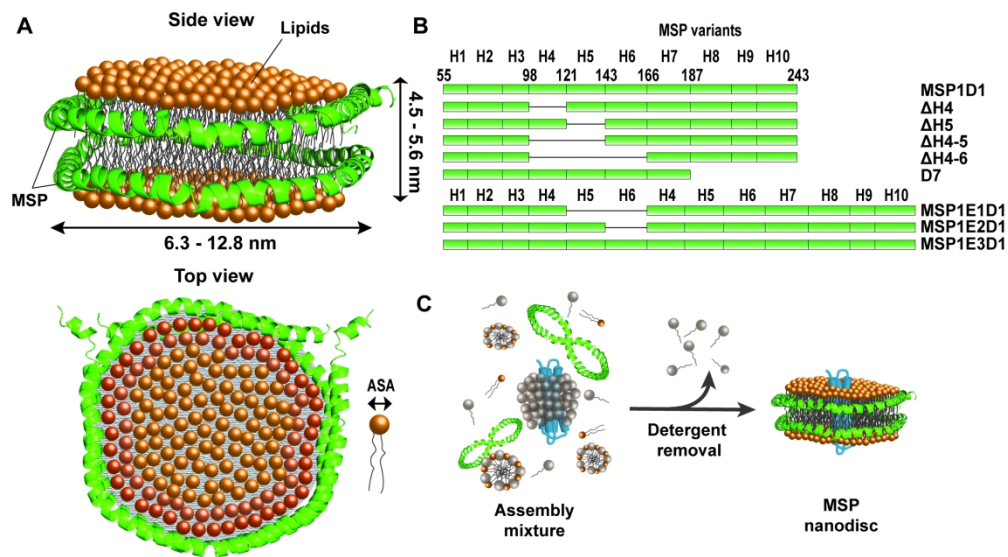


Figure 2

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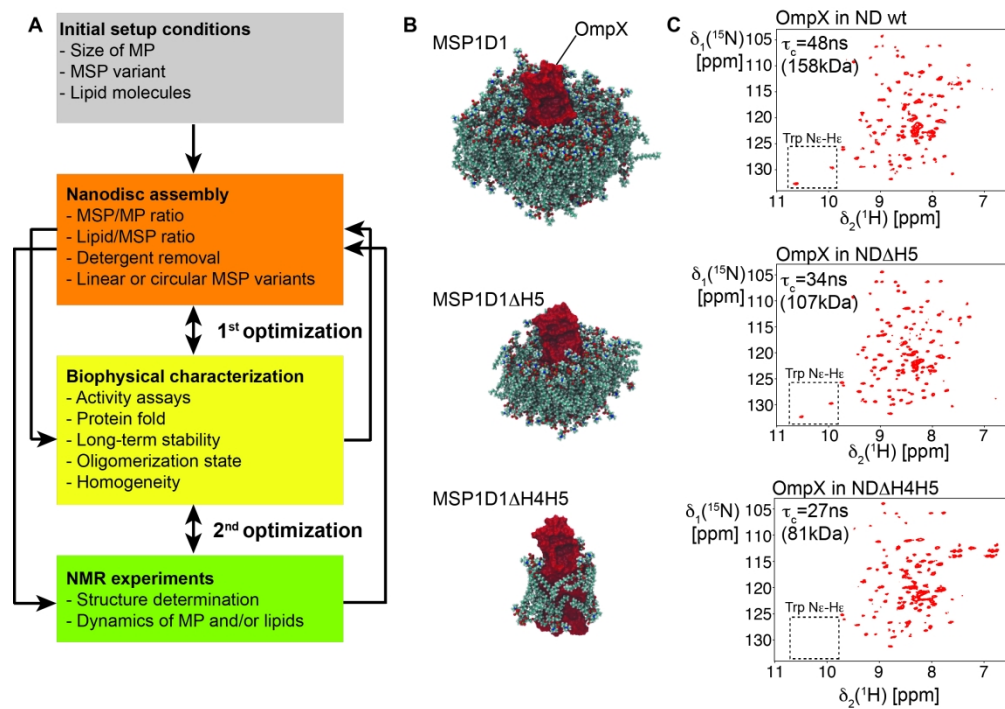


Figure 3