

# Influence of the Lamellar Phase Unbinding Energy on the Relative Stability of Lamellar and Inverted Cubic Phases

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**ABSTRACT** Based on curvature energy considerations, nonbilayer phase-forming phospholipids in excess water should form stable bicontinuous inverted cubic ( $Q_{II}$ ) phases at temperatures between the lamellar ( $L_{\alpha}$ ) and inverted hexagonal ( $H_{II}$ ) phase regions. However, the phosphatidylethanolamines (PEs), which are a common class of biomembrane phospholipids, typically display direct  $L_{\alpha}/H_{II}$  phase transitions and may form intermediate  $Q_{II}$  phases only after the temperature is cycled repeatedly across the  $L_{\alpha}/H_{II}$  phase transition temperature,  $T_H$ , or when the  $H_{II}$  phases are cooled from  $T > T_H$ . This raises the question of whether models of inverted phase stability, which are based on curvature energy alone, accurately predict the relative free energy of these phases. Here we demonstrate the important role of a noncurvature energy contribution, the unbinding energy of the  $L_{\alpha}$  phase bilayers,  $g_u$ , that serves to stabilize the  $L_{\alpha}$  phase relative to the nonlamellar phases. The planar  $L_{\alpha}$  phase bilayers must separate for a  $Q_{II}$  phase to form and it turns out that the work of their unbinding can be larger than the curvature energy reduction on formation of  $Q_{II}$  phase from  $L_{\alpha}$  at temperatures near the  $L_{\alpha}/Q_{II}$  transition temperature ( $T_Q$ ). Using  $g_u$  and elastic constant values typical of unsaturated PEs, we show that  $g_u$  is sufficient to make  $T_Q > T_H$  for the latter lipids. Such systems would display direct  $L_{\alpha} \rightarrow H_{II}$  transitions, and a  $Q_{II}$  phase might only form as a metastable phase upon cooling of the  $H_{II}$  phase. The  $g_u$  values for methylated PEs and PE/phosphatidylcholine mixtures are significantly smaller than those for PEs and increase  $T_Q$  by only a few degrees, consistent with observations of these systems. This influence of  $g_u$  also rationalizes the effect of some aqueous solutes to increase the rate of  $Q_{II}$  formation during temperature cycling of lipid dispersions. Finally, the results are relevant to protocols for determining the Gaussian curvature modulus, which substantially affects the energy of intermediates in membrane fusion and fission. Recently, two such methods were proposed based on measuring  $T_Q$  and on measuring  $Q_{II}$  phase unit cell dimensions, respectively. In view of the effect of  $g_u$  on  $T_Q$  that we describe here, the latter method, which does not depend on the value of  $g_u$ , is preferable.

## INTRODUCTION

Although their basic building elements are liquid crystalline lipid bilayers, biomembranes also contain a large fraction of lipids able to form inverted nonlamellar phases under physiological conditions (1,2). For example, the phosphatidylethanolamines (PEs), which are a common, widely spread membrane lipid class, easily transform from lamellar,  $L_{\alpha}$ , into inverted hexagonal,  $H_{II}$ , or, occasionally, into inverted bicontinuous cubic,  $Q_{II}$ , phase in aqueous dispersions (3). Many glycolipids can also form nonlamellar phases (4). Under specific conditions, such as low pH or the presence of divalent cations, inverted nonlamellar phases can also be induced in phosphatidylserines, cardiolipins, and phosphatidic acids. Moreover, it has been shown recently that total and polar lipid extracts and membrane-mimicking lipid compositions also readily form nonlamellar phases at close to physiological temperatures (5). Several different types of inverted nonlamellar phases have been found to form in fully hydrated dispersions of membrane lipids, all of them appearing at temperatures above the existence range of the lamellar liquid crystalline phase  $L_{\alpha}$ . In a hypothetical “full”

phase sequence, these phases arrange in the following order with increase of temperature:

$$L_{\alpha} \rightarrow Q_{II} \rightarrow H_{II} \rightarrow Q_{II}^M \rightarrow M_{II}.$$

$L$ ,  $Q$ ,  $H$ , and  $M$  refer to lamellar, cubic, hexagonal, and micellar phases, respectively.  $Q_{II}$  denotes a set of three inverted bicontinuous (bilayer) cubic phases,  $Im3m$ ,  $Pn3m$ , and  $Ia3d$ , each of which may appear depending on lipid type and specific conditions.

In this work we address a problem related to the relative stabilities of the  $L_{\alpha}$  and  $Q_{II}$  phases. It is known from a number of studies that dispersions of double-chain nonlamellar membrane lipids most frequently display a direct lamellar-inverted hexagonal,  $L_{\alpha} \rightarrow H_{II}$ , phase transition, omitting the intermediate  $Q_{II}$  phase. The  $L_{\alpha} \rightarrow Q_{II}$  transitions, followed by  $H_{II}$  formation at higher temperature, are relatively rare, and they are typically observed for short-chain PEs and glycolipids (6,7). Similarly, mixtures of saturated phosphatidylcholines (PCs) and fatty acids with shorter lauric and myristic acyl chains can form intermediate  $Q_{II}$  phase, whereas mixtures with longer chains (palmitic, stearic) again display direct  $L_{\alpha} \rightarrow H_{II}$  transitions (8). However, it was shown for several PEs, which display direct  $L_{\alpha} \rightarrow H_{II}$  phase transitions, that they can be converted into the intermediate  $Q_{II}$  phase when the temperature is cycled repeatedly across

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the  $L_\alpha/H_{II}$  phase transition (9–13). In these cases, traces of  $Q_{II}$  phase were found to form on cooling from the  $H_{II}$  range and to gradually replace the initial lamellar  $L_\alpha$  phase over the whole range of its existence (11). These observations suggest that the bilayer  $Q_{II}$  phases are metastable with respect to  $L_\alpha$  in PEs with intermediate chain lengths of 16–18 carbon atoms such as dielaidoyl PE (DEPE), dipalmitoyl PE (DPPE), dihexadecyl PE (DHPE), dipalmitoleoyl PE (DPoPE), and dioleoyl PE (DOPE).

On the other hand, the  $L_\alpha \rightarrow Q_{II} \rightarrow H_{II}$  sequence of phases can be obtained theoretically if the free energy differences between these phases are assumed to be due only to differences in their curvature energies (e.g., Siegel and Kozlov (14) and Siegel (15)). Thus the absence of  $Q_{II}$  phase on the heating of most PEs, in particular those with intermediate and longer chains, raises the question of to what extent theoretical descriptions of the curvature energies of  $Q_{II}$  and  $H_{II}$  phases are sufficient to predict the relative stability of these phases, especially the thermodynamic stability of a  $Q_{II}$  phase with respect to the neighboring  $L_\alpha$  and  $H_{II}$  phases.

Here we show that the apparent discrepancy between experimental observations and curvature energy considerations can be resolved by taking into account a noncurvature energy contribution, the unbinding energy,  $g_u$ , of the  $L_\alpha$  phase, which stabilizes the lamellar phase relative to the  $Q_{II}$  and  $H_{II}$  phases. The planar  $L_\alpha$  phase bilayers must separate for  $Q_{II}$  phase to form and it turns out that the work of their unbinding can be larger than the curvature energy reduction upon formation of  $Q_{II}$  from the  $L_\alpha$  phase. Using  $g_u$  values and values of elastic constants typical of unsaturated PEs, we show that  $g_u$  is sufficiently large to shift the temperature  $T_Q$  of the  $L_\alpha \rightarrow Q_{II}$  transition to values above the temperature  $T_H$  of the  $L_\alpha \rightarrow H_{II}$  transition. Such systems with  $T_Q > T_H$  would display direct  $L_\alpha \rightarrow H_{II}$  transitions, and a  $Q_{II}$  phase might only form as a metastable phase upon cooling from the  $H_{II}$  phase region.

These results have important implications for the choice of methods that can be used to determine the Gaussian curvature elasticity modulus. This modulus has a substantial effect on the energy of intermediates in the process of membrane fusion and fission, and the contribution of the Gaussian curvature elastic energy to the energy of fusion intermediates is on the same order of magnitude as the contribution of the bending energy (16).

## THEORY

### Curvature energy differences between lamellar and nonlamellar phases

If the free energy differences between lamellar and nonlamellar phases are assumed to be due only to curvature energy, one would obtain that a lipid system exhibits an  $L_\alpha \rightarrow Q_{II} \rightarrow H_{II}$  sequence of phases with increasing temperature (14,15). This is because the spontaneous curvature of lipid monolayers,  $J_s$ , becomes more negative with increasing temperature. Respectively, the  $L_\alpha$  phase should give way to a  $Q_{II}$  phase where the monolayers can adopt more negative mean curvatures while adopting slightly unfavor-

able Gaussian curvature. At still higher  $T$ , the  $H_{II}$  phase has a more negative mean curvature energy than  $Q_{II}$ . In the  $H_{II}$  phase, the monolayer curvature becomes  $\approx J_s$ , although at the penalty of overcoming unfavorable interstices-packing energies at the boundaries between the  $H_{II}$  phase cylinders.

As is known, the quadratic terms in the Helfrich phenomenological membrane curvature energy equation are insufficient to explain the bicontinuous  $Q_{II}$  phase stability (Discussion). We therefore use here a previously derived expression for the curvature energy per lipid molecule in the  $Q_{II}$  phase with respect to planar bilayers, which is accurate to fourth order in curvature (15). Here we delineate its derivation. The model in Siegel (15) is based on the Helfrich model for the curvature energy (17), complemented with the third- and fourth-order curvature terms as formulated by Mitov (18). The curvature energy of the lipid monolayers is then given by

$$f_i = A_i \left[ \frac{k_m}{2} (J_i - J_s)^2 + \kappa K_i + \eta_1 J_i^3 + \eta_2 J_i K_i + \eta_3 J_i^4 + \eta_4 J_i^2 K_i + \bar{\kappa} K_i^2 \right], \quad (1)$$

where the subscripts  $i$  are labels for the two monolayers of the bilayer, and  $A_i$  is the area of each monolayer;  $k_m$  and  $\kappa$  are the bending (splay) modulus and the Gaussian (saddle splay) modulus of the lipid monolayers, respectively;  $J_i$ ,  $J_s$ , and  $K_i$  are the mean curvature at the monolayer neutral plane, the spontaneous curvature at the neutral plane, and the Gaussian curvature of the monolayers, respectively; and finally,  $\eta_j$  and  $\bar{\kappa}$  are the elastic moduli of the respective third- and fourth-order curvature terms.

Assuming a constant displacement  $\delta$  of the monolayer neutral planes from the bilayer midplanes, and using a mathematical relationship between the curvatures of parallel surfaces (19),  $J_i$ ,  $K_i$ , and  $A_i$  of the monolayers can be expressed in terms of mean curvature, Gaussian curvature, and area ( $J$ ,  $K$ , and  $A$ , respectively) of the bilayer midplane. Since the bilayer midplanes of bicontinuous  $Q_{II}$  phases lie on minimal surfaces,  $J = 0$ . It is found that the values of  $J_i$  and  $K_i$  for the two monolayers are equivalent, and

$$J_i = \frac{2\delta K}{(1 + \delta^2 K)}; \quad K_i = \frac{K}{(1 + \delta^2 K)}; \quad A_i = A(1 + \delta^2 K). \quad (2)$$

The curvature energy per unit area of the bilayer can then be expressed in terms of  $f_i$ . Expressing  $(1 + \delta^2 K)^{-1}$  as a series of powers of  $\delta^2 K$  and collecting terms with the same powers of  $K$ , the curvature energy per unit area of bilayer to fourth order in curvature ( $K^2$ ) is

$$f_B = (1 + \delta^2 K)(2f_i) = \kappa_1 K + \kappa_2 K^2, \quad (3)$$

where

$$\kappa_1 = 2\kappa - 4\delta k_m J_s + \delta^2 k_m J_s^2, \quad (4)$$

and

$$\kappa_2 = 4\delta^2 k_m + 4\delta \eta_2 + 2\bar{\kappa}. \quad (5)$$

The area average of Eq. 3 is the energy per unit area of the bilayer in the  $Q_{II}$  phase. The integrals of  $K^N$  over the unit cells of the different  $Q_{II}$  phases are

$$\int_{\text{unit cell}} K^N dA = \frac{S_N}{c^{(2N-2)}}, \quad (6)$$

where  $c$  is the cell constant of the  $Q_{II}$  phase and the coefficients  $S_N$  are geometric constants that have been calculated numerically for each of the infinite periodic minimal surfaces corresponding to the different  $Q_{II}$  phases (20,21). The area-averaged curvature energy is then

$$\langle f_B \rangle = \kappa_1 \left( \frac{S_1}{S_0} \right) \left[ \frac{1}{c^2} \right] + \kappa_2 \left( \frac{S_2}{S_0} \right) \left[ \frac{1}{c^4} \right]. \quad (7)$$

We find the equilibrium value of  $c$  in excess water,  $c_{eq}$ , by minimizing Eq. 7 with respect to  $c$  at constant  $J_s$  (constant temperature). This yields

$$c_{eq} = \sqrt{-\frac{2\kappa_2 S_2}{\kappa_1 S_1}} = \sqrt{-\left(\frac{\kappa_2}{k_m}\right)\left(\frac{S_2}{S_1}\right)\frac{1}{(M-x)}}, \quad (8)$$

where, in the second equality, we have inserted Eq. 4 and simplified notation by making the substitutions

$$x = 2\delta J_s - \frac{\delta^2 J_s^2}{2}; \quad M = \frac{\kappa}{k_m}. \quad (9)$$

The result of Eq. 8 is a real number because  $S_1 < 0$ , and  $\kappa_1$ ,  $\kappa_2$ , and  $S_2$  are all positive in the range of application of this expression (see below). Substituting Eqs. 8 and 9 into Eq. 7 and dividing by the number of lipid molecules per unit area of bilayer yields the equilibrium curvature energy per lipid molecule in the Q<sub>II</sub> phase in excess water:

$$\mu_Q^c = -\frac{a}{2} \left( \frac{S_1^2}{S_0 S_2} \right) \frac{k_m (M-x)^2}{(\kappa_2/k_m)}. \quad (10)$$

$S_1^2/S_0 S_2 = 0.820545$  for all three Bonnet-related Q<sub>II</sub> phases (Im3m, Pn3m, and Ia3d).  $\delta$  is  $\sim 1.3$  nm for phospholipids with oleoyl chains, and  $a$  is the area per lipid molecule at the neutral surface. The values of  $M$  and the ratio  $\kappa_2/k_m$  can be determined experimentally from the temperature dependence of the Q<sub>II</sub> unit cell constant in excess water using Eqs. 8 and 9 if the values of  $\delta$ ,  $J_s$ , and  $k_m$  are known over the relevant range of temperature (see below). For *N*-monomethylated dioleoylphosphatidylethanolamine (DOPE-Me), using the data in (22),  $M = -0.90 \pm 0.09$  and  $\kappa_2/k_m = 2.4 \pm 0.3$  nm<sup>2</sup> (15).

An important feature of the Q<sub>II</sub> curvature energy model in Eq. 10 is that it predicts the existence of a threshold temperature,  $T_K$ , limiting from below the range of Q<sub>II</sub> stability.  $J_s$  decreases with increasing temperature, and  $T_K$  is the temperature at which  $x = M$  (Eq. 9). Above  $T_K$ , the curvature energy is always negative ( $\mu_Q^c < 0$ ), rendering the Q<sub>II</sub> phase more stable than L <sub>$\alpha$</sub> . At  $T_K$ ,  $\mu_Q^c$  becomes equal to 0 and the Q<sub>II</sub> phase unit cell constant diverges to infinity. No finite equilibrium values for the Q<sub>II</sub> unit cell constant exist below that temperature (15).  $T_K$  is the lowest temperature at which formation of stable structures with negative Gaussian curvature, like Q<sub>II</sub> phases, is still possible in the given lipid system. The value of  $T_K$  is determined by the balance of elastic constants and spontaneous curvature of the lipid membrane, through the temperature dependence of  $J_s$  and Eq. 9. For supercooled Q<sub>II</sub> phases at  $T < T_K$ , the curvature energy is positive and is not given by Eq. 10. Its value and the nonequilibrium value of the Q<sub>II</sub> unit cell constant depend on the temperature history of the lipid sample and will not be discussed further here.

The curvature energy per lipid molecule in the H<sub>II</sub> phase in excess water with respect to planar bilayers is (14)

$$\mu_H^c = \frac{ak_m}{2} ((J_s(T_H))^2 - (J_s(T))^2). \quad (11)$$

Here  $J_s(T_H)$  is the value of  $J_s$  at the observed L <sub>$\alpha$</sub> /H<sub>II</sub> transition temperature,  $T_H$ .

In the absence of other contributions, the free energy differences between the L <sub>$\alpha$</sub>  phase and the Q<sub>II</sub> and H<sub>II</sub> phases are given by the curvature energies  $\mu_Q^c$  and  $\mu_H^c$ , respectively. In Fig. 1 A,  $\mu_Q^c$  and  $\mu_H^c$  are plotted as a function of temperature using parameters determined for DOPE-Me (15). The values for  $k_m$  and  $\delta$  are  $10 k_B T$  and  $1.3$  nm, respectively, and  $a = 0.6$  nm<sup>2</sup>. The values of  $J_s(T)$  are taken from Siegel and Kozlov (14), and the calculated threshold temperature,  $T_K$ , is  $50^\circ\text{C}$  (15). The observed value of  $T_H$  for DOPE-Me is  $62^\circ\text{C}$  (22). The curvature energy plots in Fig. 1 A should be representative also for DOPE and mixtures of DOPE with 5–30 mol % DOPC at temperatures near the respective  $T_H$ , because of similar H<sub>II</sub> phase lattice constants as a function of temperature (23,24) and similar values of  $k_m$  for DOPE and DOPC (25). This means that  $J_s$  in the temperature range of the bilayer/nonbilayer phase transitions and  $k_m$  of these lipids should be similar to those of DOPE-Me. The same can also be said for PEs with effective chain lengths of 18 carbons and a variety of acyl chain structures including *cis*- and *trans*-

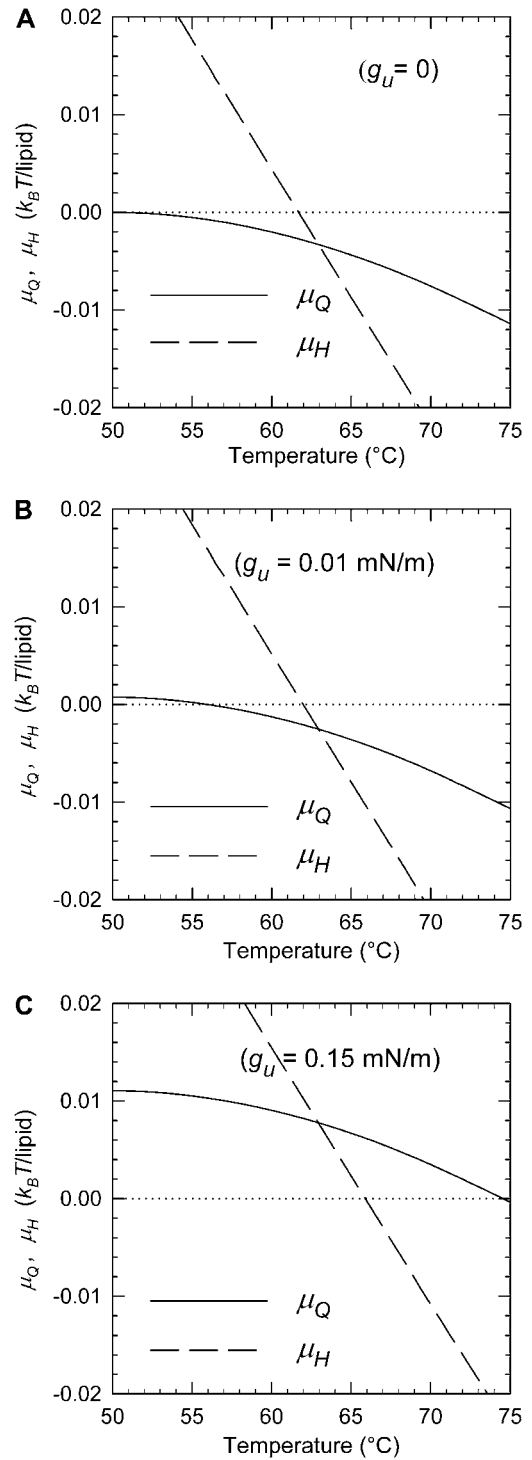


FIGURE 1 Free energy per lipid molecule of the Q<sub>II</sub> ( $\mu_Q$ ) and H<sub>II</sub> ( $\mu_H$ ) phases relative to the L <sub>$\alpha$</sub>  phase as functions of the temperature for a lipid with the curvature energy parameters of DOPE-Me for different values of the L <sub>$\alpha$</sub>  phase unbinding energy,  $g_u$ . (A)  $g_u = 0$  (i.e.,  $\mu_Q$  and  $\mu_H$  are determined only by curvature elastic energy via Eqs. 10 and 11, respectively). (B)  $g_u = 0.01$  erg/cm<sup>2</sup>, a value typical of methylated PEs and mixtures of PEs with small mole fractions of PC (Table 1). (C)  $g_u = 0.15$  erg/cm<sup>2</sup>, a value typical of pure PEs (Table 1). The curvature elastic energy parameters for DOPE-Me are from Siegel and Kozlov (14) and Siegel (15).

monounsaturated chains and saturated chains with methyl, dimethyl, ethyl, or cyclohexyl substitution near the methyl terminals (23,26–28). Based on curvature energy considerations alone, lipids with these values of the elastic constants should form stable  $Q_{II}$  phases in a temperature range below  $T_H$ , except for lipids with a value of  $\kappa/k_m$  that is very close to  $-1$  (14,15). However, the few measurements of  $\kappa$  to date indicate that  $\kappa$  is significantly less negative (closer to zero) than this (14,15,29).

## Unbinding energy of lamellar phases

Bilayers in lamellar phases interact across the interlamellar water spaces by a combination of attractive and repulsive forces (van der Waals, hydration, and electrostatic and bilayer undulation forces; see Nagle and Tristram-Nagle (30) for a recent review). In addition, PE bilayers may bind to each other by formation of hydrogen bonds between phospholipid headgroups in adjacent interfaces at separations of  $<1$  nm (31). The interplay of these forces generates an interbilayer potential typically with a minimum at a given interbilayer distance (water layer thickness). For lamellar phases in excess water, the bilayers adopt the interbilayer separation corresponding to this minimum. The unbinding energy,  $g_u$ , is the work per unit area required to separate these bilayers to infinite separation from the equilibrium interbilayer separation. In separating the bilayers, most of  $g_u$  is expended in increasing the interbilayer separation by the first several nanometers.

The unbinding energy can be evaluated through analysis of x-ray diffraction experiments on osmotically stressed multilamellar liposomes (32) or determined more directly by optically measuring the deformation of adhering giant unilamellar vesicles as a function of membrane tension applied by pipette aspiration (33,34). Values of the unbinding energy for a number of lipid systems are summarized in Table 1 (32,35,36).

## Contributions of the unbinding energy to the free energies of the $Q_{II}$ and $H_{II}$ phases relative to the $L_\alpha$ phase

The bilayers in a lamellar phase must separate by several nanometers to form a bicontinuous  $Q_{II}$  phase. This is necessary because the typical distances between lipid/water interfaces in bicontinuous  $Q_{II}$  phases, which are composed of labyrinths of bilayers, are significantly greater than those in the  $L_\alpha$  phase. The average separation is given by twice the average water channel radius,  $r_w$  (37):

$$r_w = Bc_{eq} - l, \quad (12)$$

where  $B$  is a geometric constant specific to the space group of each  $Q_{II}$  phase, and  $l$  is the lipid monolayer thickness, typically  $\sim 2$  nm.  $B$  is 0.305 for the  $Im3m$ , 0.391 for the  $Pn3m$ , and 0.248 for the  $Id3d$  cubic phases. Since the  $Q_{II}$  unit cell constants for PEs can be  $>20$ – $25$  nm (11), the average bilayer separations in these  $Q_{II}$  phases exceed 10–15 nm and are far larger than the typical  $L_\alpha$  interlamellar separations of  $\sim 2$  nm or less.

**TABLE 1** Unbinding energies of the lamellar  $L_\alpha$  phase of lipid systems

Lipid system	$g_u$ (erg/cm <sup>2</sup> )	Reference
POPE	$>0.15$	(36)
POPE (30°C)	0.14	(32)
Egg-PE	0.14	(32)
<i>N</i> -monomethylated egg-PE	0.01	(32)
POPE/SOPC = 9/1	0.06	(36)
POPE/SOPC = 4/1	0.04	(36)
DOPE/DOPC = 3/1	0.03	(32)
SOPC, egg-PC, and DMPC	0.01–0.015	(34)
Egg-PC/cholesterol = 1/1	0.003	(32)

Unless otherwise noted, the measurement temperature was 22°C.

Since the only attractive interaction at bilayer separations above 1 nm is the van der Waals interaction, the bilayer interaction energy in a  $Q_{II}$  phase can be approximated with the van der Waals term for flat bilayers at the average interbilayer separation. The van der Waals energy of two parallel bilayers is given by (30)

$$g_{vdW} = -\frac{A_H}{12\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{d^2} - \frac{2}{(d+h)^2} + \frac{1}{(d+2h)^2} \right], \quad (13)$$

where  $A_H$  is the Hamaker constant,  $d$  is the distance between the bilayers, and  $h$  is the bilayer thickness. The distance dependence of  $g_{vdW}$  is more complicated in  $Q_{II}$  phases because the bilayers are bent into complex shapes and it is not straightforward to calculate their van der Waals energy. However, in nonplanar geometries the potential between objects like slabs, cylinders, and spheres is still generally proportional to  $d^{-n}$ , with  $n > 1$  (38). With  $Q_{II}$  interbilayer separations five or more times larger than the separation between bilayers in the  $L_\alpha$  phase, the van der Waals attraction in the  $Q_{II}$  phase must be at least 5–10 times smaller than  $g_u$  of the  $L_\alpha$  phase. To a good approximation, we can assume that all of  $g_u$  is expended in separating the bilayers to the distances within  $Q_{II}$  phases. The sum of the curvature and unbinding energy difference per lipid molecule between the  $Q_{II}$  and  $L_\alpha$  phases,  $\mu_Q$ , would then become

$$\mu_Q = \mu_Q^c + ag_u/2. \quad (14)$$

In Eq. 14,  $\mu_Q^c$  is given by Eq. 10,  $a$  is the area per lipid molecule at the neutral planes of the monolayers, and the factor of 1/2 accounts for the presence of two monolayers per adhering bilayer.

In  $H_{II}$  phases of PEs and methylated PEs in excess water conditions, the interfacial separations, approximated as the  $H_{II}$  aqueous tube diameter, are typically 3.5–4 nm (23,26),  $\sim 2$ – $3$  times larger than the typical  $L_\alpha$  interlamellar separation. This implies that the residual van der Waals attraction in the  $H_{II}$  phase is again significantly smaller than that in the  $L_\alpha$  phase. We have not found expressions for van der Waals interactions in an  $H_{II}$  phase, but fortunately our argument concerning the relative effects of the unbinding energy  $g_u$  on  $T_Q$  and  $T_H$  turns out to be rather insensitive to the actual magnitude of the residual van der Waals term in the  $H_{II}$  phase. As an approximation, we assume that there is no residual interaction of the lipid monolayers in the  $H_{II}$  phase, similarly to our assumption for the  $Q_{II}$  phase. Then we can write an expression for the total energy difference between  $H_{II}$  and  $L_\alpha$  per lipid molecule,  $\mu_H$ , which is analogous to Eq. 14:

$$\mu_H = \mu_H^c + ag_u/2. \quad (15)$$

However, as shown below, the final result would be nearly the same even if we assumed that the van der Waals interaction energy per lipid molecule in the  $H_{II}$  phase has not changed and has remained equal to that of the  $L_\alpha$  phase, so that Eq. 15 reduces to  $\mu_H = \mu_H^c$ .

## Effects of the unbinding energy on $T_Q$ and $T_H$

As is evident from Fig. 1 A, the curvature energy  $\mu_Q^c$  initially decreases very slowly with increasing temperature, whereas the decline of  $\mu_H^c$  is much steeper. If there is an additional positive free energy term besides the curvature energies that translates the free energy versus temperature curves upward, it is obvious that  $T_Q$  will increase by much more than  $T_H$ , because of the different slopes of  $\mu_Q$  and  $\mu_H$ . Below we consider the role of unbinding energy  $g_u$ , and Fig. 1, B and C, illustrates the effects on  $T_Q$  and  $T_H$  of  $g_u$  values typical of phospholipids.

In Fig. 1 B,  $\mu_Q$  and  $\mu_H$  are plotted using the same curvature energy parameters, but with  $g_u = 0.01$  erg/cm<sup>2</sup>. This is a relatively small value, typical for methylated PEs, PCs, and PC-cholesterol mixtures (Table 1). Relative to Fig. 1 A, where  $g_u = 0$ ,  $T_Q$  increases by  $\sim 6$  K to 56°C, whereas  $T_H$  increases by  $<0.3$  K.  $T_H$  is still higher than  $T_Q$ , but the temperature range between  $L_\alpha$  and  $H_{II}$  phases, where  $Q_{II}$  is the stable phase, has decreased from 12 K to only 6 K.

In Fig. 1  $C$ ,  $g_u$  is set at  $0.15 \text{ erg/cm}^2$ , which is typical of PEs in the  $L_\alpha$  phase at room temperature (Table 1). Such a value results in a 25 K increase in  $T_Q$  to  $\sim 75^\circ\text{C}$ , whereas  $T_H$  increases by only 4 K to  $66^\circ\text{C}$ . Notably,  $T_Q$  is now substantially higher than  $T_H$  and in such a system the  $H_{II}$  phase would form before the  $Q_{II}$  phase. Indeed, Fig. 1  $C$  indicates that the  $Q_{II}$  phase would not become stable at any temperature. In summary, Fig. 1,  $A-C$ , shows that unbinding energies typically found in PEs can make  $T_Q \geq T_H$ . Elevating  $T_Q$  to above  $T_H$  effectively eliminates the  $Q_{II}$  phase from the sequence  $L_\alpha \rightarrow Q_{II} \rightarrow H_{II}$  and reduces it to a direct  $L_\alpha \rightarrow H_{II}$  phase transition. This effect explains the apparent absence of  $Q_{II}$  phases upon direct heating of PEs, whereas  $Q_{II}$  can be observed upon heating of monomethylated PEs (22) and PE mixtures with small amounts of PCs (39–42), which have much smaller values of  $g_u$  (Table 1). In some of these studies the presence of  $Q_{II}$  phases was inferred from observation of isotropic  $^{31}\text{P}$ -NMR resonances and was not demonstrated by x-ray diffraction (39,40,42). However, the presence of isotropic  $^{31}\text{P}$ -NMR resonances has been associated with  $Q_{II}$  phase formation in DOPE-Me (22,23,39), temperature-cycled DEPE (10,11) and DOPE (9,12), and soy PE/egg-PC (41).

A plot of  $T_Q$  and  $T_H$  as a function of  $g_u$  for a lipid with the elastic constants of DOPE-Me is shown in Fig. 2.  $T_Q$  increases much faster with  $g_u$  than  $T_H$  does and becomes greater than  $T_H$  for  $g_u$  values  $> \sim 0.04 \text{ erg/cm}^2$ . Since the effect of  $g_u$  on  $T_H$  is much smaller than that on  $T_Q$ , the results are not sensitive to the assumption in Eq. 15 regarding the  $g_u$  difference between the  $L_\alpha$  and  $H_{II}$  phases. In the other limiting case, i.e., if we assume that  $g_u$  is the same in the  $L_\alpha$  and  $H_{II}$  phases so that  $\mu_H = \mu_H^c$ ,  $T_H$  would become independent of  $g_u$ , as indicated by the dotted line in Fig. 2. However, all conclusions of importance regarding the difference between  $T_Q$  and  $T_H$  as a functions of  $g_u$  would remain practically unaffected. The data in Table 1 and Fig. 2 suggest that addition of small amounts of PC to PE can reduce  $g_u$  to a level where there will be a direct  $L_\alpha \rightarrow Q_{II}$  transition.

The  $g_u$  values in Table 1, which we used for the calculations shown in Fig. 1,  $B$  and  $C$ , have been determined at room temperature. They should be somewhat smaller at higher temperatures due primarily to an increase in the strength of repulsive undulation forces, since short-range hydration repulsion

and van der Waals forces do not change appreciably with temperature (38,43). However, we are not aware of direct measurements of  $g_u$  in the temperature range above  $40^\circ\text{C}$ – $50^\circ\text{C}$ , where lamellar/nonlamellar phase transitions most often take place. A qualitative comparison of the unbinding energies of different lipids can sometimes be made on the basis of their lamellar spacings. For example, the lamellar spacing of DOPE-Me increases from 6.2 nm at  $20^\circ\text{C}$  to 6.4 nm at  $65^\circ\text{C}$ , whereas, in contrast, the lamellar spacing of DEPE decreases from 5.5 nm at  $40^\circ\text{C}$  to 5.2 nm at  $60^\circ\text{C}$  (44). Since the lamellar spacings in the methylated versus unmethylated PE are much larger at both low and high temperatures, and given the monotonic dependence of the attractive van der Waals forces between bilayers on interbilayer spacing, the unbinding energy of the PEs probably remains much larger than in methylated PE also at  $60^\circ\text{C}$ , similarly to the case at room temperature (Table 1). Thus, at least for temperatures up to  $60^\circ\text{C}$ , the temperature dependence of  $g_u$  should not affect our conclusions concerning the  $Q_{II}$  phase-forming propensities of these lipids.

## DISCUSSION

### Effect of unbinding energy on the inverted bicontinuous cubic phase stability

In this work we developed a simple argument that explains why dispersions of membrane lipids frequently display direct  $L_\alpha \rightarrow H_{II}$  transitions, omitting the intermediate bicontinuous  $Q_{II}$  cubic phase. This argument makes use of the circumstance that the lipid  $L_\alpha$  phase is stabilized relative to the  $Q_{II}$  phase by a noncurvature energy contribution, the unbinding energy  $g_u$ . Taking  $g_u$  into account shifts the temperature  $T_Q$  of the  $L_\alpha \rightarrow Q_{II}$  transition upward. Our principal result, shown in Fig. 2, is that  $T_Q$  increases much faster with  $g_u$  and may readily become higher than the temperature  $T_H$  of a potential direct, higher temperature  $L_\alpha \rightarrow H_{II}$  transition. Although an  $L_\alpha \rightarrow Q_{II} \rightarrow H_{II}$  sequence of phases can be expected on theoretical grounds if one considers only the curvature energy differences between the lamellar and nonlamellar phases, at least for the range of PE elastic constants measured to date, we show that values of  $g_u$  that are typical of PEs with intermediate chain lengths of 16–18 carbon atoms are sufficiently large to prevent the  $Q_{II}$  phase from appearing as a stable phase between the  $L_\alpha$  and  $H_{II}$  phases.

As can be seen in Fig. 2, for  $g_u$  values exceeding  $\sim 0.04 \text{ erg/cm}^2$ ,  $T_Q$  becomes greater than  $T_H$ , and  $Q_{II}$  becomes metastable with respect to the  $L_\alpha$  and  $H_{II}$  phases. Such lipids would display direct  $L_\alpha \rightarrow H_{II}$  transitions and eventually form some (trace) amount of metastable  $Q_{II}$  phase on cooling from the  $H_{II}$  range. Many PEs such as DEPE, DOPE, DPOPE, DPPE, and DHPE appear to conform to this type of phase behavior (Introduction). Moreover, dispersions of these lipids can be fully converted into  $Q_{II}$  phase by means of temperature cycling across the  $L_\alpha/H_{II}$  phase transition. In all cases studied, amounts of  $Q_{II}$  phase that increase with increasing numbers of cycles were invariably found to form only during the cooling stage of the temperature cycles (11). On the other hand, it is known that short-chain PEs and glycolipids exhibit the sequences of phases  $L_\alpha \rightarrow Q_{II} \rightarrow H_{II}$  (3,4,6,7). In the framework of this model, it may be that these lipids have smaller values of  $g_u$  than longer chain lipids and/

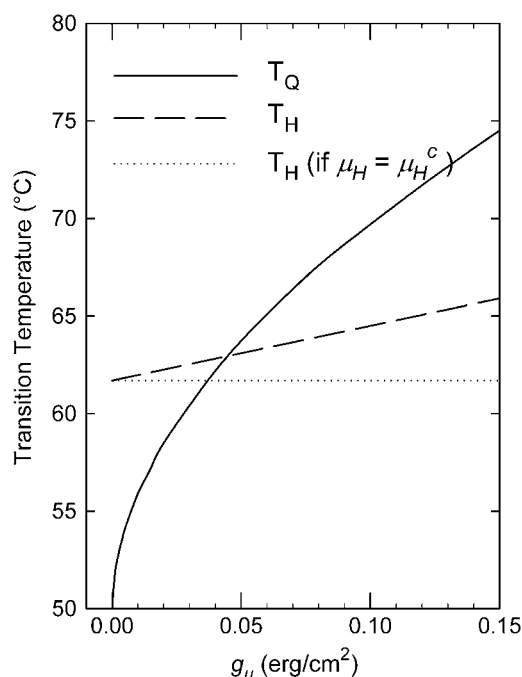


FIGURE 2 Dependence of the transition temperatures  $T_Q$  and  $T_H$  on the unbinding energy  $g_u$  for a lipid with the curvature elastic constants of DOPE-Me. The dashed horizontal line indicates the value of  $T_H$  if we assume that  $g_u$  in the  $H_{II}$  phase has remained equal to that of the  $L_\alpha$  phase (see text).

or a less negative value of  $M$  (Eqs. 9 and 10) that would allow a stable intermediate  $Q_{II}$  phase to form. It would be interesting to measure these quantities and see if this prediction is borne out.

However, lipids and lipid mixtures with values of  $g_u$  smaller than  $\sim 0.04$  erg/cm<sup>2</sup> (Table 1) and with appropriate spontaneous curvatures and bending elastic moduli would still be able to form intermediate  $Q_{II}$  phases upon heating. The best studied example of this kind, considered here in more detail, is DOPE-Me, whose behavior is consistent with the  $g_u$  value for *N*-monomethylated egg-PE (Table 1). Using the experimentally determined DOPE-Me elastic constants and substituting the latter  $g_u$  value in Eq. 14, one calculates an  $L_\alpha \rightarrow Q_{II}$  transition temperature  $T_Q$  of 56°C. That is very close to the temperature of 55°C at which  $Q_{II}$  phase is first observed in DOPE-Me dispersions (22) (see also Fig. 3). Thus, the observed  $T_Q$  in DOPE-Me is consistent with the model for the  $Q_{II}$  curvature elastic energy in Eq. 10 and with the effect of  $g_u$  postulated in Eq. 14.

#### Fourth-order curvature energy expression for the $Q_{II}$ phase

The reason for the use of higher order curvature terms in the expression for the  $Q_{II}$  phase curvature energy (Eq. 10) is treated in detail in the derivation of this model (15). If one uses only quadratic terms in the expression for the  $Q_{II}$  phase curvature energy, one obtains the unphysical result that the  $Q_{II}$  phase unit cell should contract indefinitely, which is incompatible with experiment (45). Obviously something stops that contraction of the unit cell size. For  $Q_{II}$  phases with very small lattice constants, one might expect that their contraction could be stopped by steric/hydration repulsion, but not for the PE  $Q_{II}$  phases considered here, which have lattice constants typically of more than 20 nm. Similarly to previous authors (e.g., Seddon and Templer (45) and Ljunggren and Eriksson (46)), we suggest that higher order curvature energy terms explain the stabilization of  $Q_{II}$  phases with large values of the equilibrium unit cell constant. The close correspon-

dence noted above (within 1°) between observed and calculated values of  $T_Q$  indicates that the model developed in Siegel (15) is fairly accurate, at least in the temperature interval between  $T_K$  and  $T_Q$ . The  $Q_{II}$  phase is not the only system whose theoretical description requires a fourth-order curvature model. Such a model is also necessary to describe the prefission constriction of Golgi membrane tubules (47), for similar reasons.

#### Mechanisms of inverted bicontinuous cubic phase formation

Our low-angle x-ray diffraction measurements show that  $Q_{II}$  phases can form by two different pathways in DOPE-Me dispersions (Figs. 3 and 4). These measurements were made at the Advanced Photon Source, Argonne, using a low-angle x-ray setup described in detail elsewhere (48). The first pathway is the direct  $L_\alpha \rightarrow Q_{II}$  transition at constant temperature incubation (Fig. 3). It involves disordering (unbinding) of the  $L_\alpha$  phase with concomitant formation of  $Q_{II}$  phase (Im3m under the conditions here). The lattice parameter of the Im3m phase gradually decreases with time and reaches a final value of 33.0 nm after 5–6 h of incubation. A slow disordering of the DOPE-Me  $L_\alpha$  phase preceding the formation of the cubic phase in this lipid was also reported in previous work (23,49). Such a direct  $L_\alpha \rightarrow Q_{II}$  transition may also take place at very slow rates of temperature increase (22).

If the incubation is long enough or the heating rate slow enough, one will observe  $Q_{II}$  phase formation at  $T = T_Q$ , and the value of  $g_u$  should strongly affect this value, as shown above (Fig. 2). The second pathway is indirect conversion in a heating-cooling cycle  $L_\alpha \rightarrow H_{II} \rightarrow Q_{II}$  (Fig. 4). The heating rate of 1°C/min used in this cycle is obviously not slow enough to allow  $Q_{II}$  formation in the heating direction, and the dispersion first undergoes the  $L_\alpha \rightarrow H_{II}$  transition.

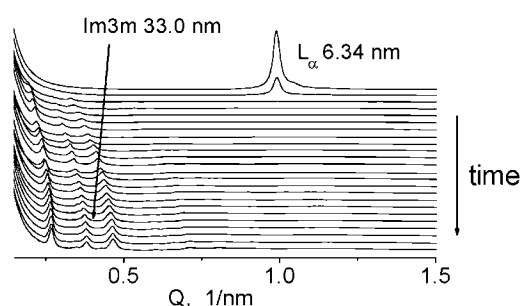


FIGURE 3 Direct transformation of the DOPE-Me lamellar  $L_\alpha$  phase into bilayer cubic Im3m phase upon incubation at 55°C. The final Im3m lattice constant is 33.0 nm. Consecutive diffraction frames of 1 s exposure were recorded every 15 min. The sample was a 16.7% (w/v) DOPE-Me dispersion in PBS pH 7.2.

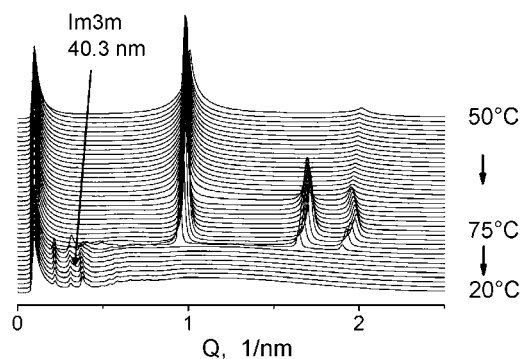


FIGURE 4 Complete conversion of the lamellar  $L_\alpha$  phase into Im3m cubic phase in DOPE-Me dispersion in a single heating-cooling cycle  $L_\alpha \rightarrow H_{II} \rightarrow \text{Im3m}$ . The Im3m lattice constant is 40.3 nm. Heating rate 1°C/min; cooling rate 5°C/min. Diffraction frames of 1 s exposure were recorded every 1 min.  $L_\alpha \rightarrow H_{II}$  transition onset at 67.5°C.  $H_{II} \rightarrow \text{Im3m}$  transition onset  $\sim$ 55°C. The sample was a 10% (w/v) dispersion of DOPE-Me in PBS pH 7.2.

This is a clear indication for the existence of kinetic barriers that significantly slow down the formation of the  $Q_{II}$  phase even though it is the thermodynamically stable phase in the respective temperature range. On the other hand, an  $H_{II} \rightarrow Q_{II}$  transition in cooling turns out to be very fast, 1–2 orders of magnitude faster than the  $L_{\alpha} \rightarrow Q_{II}$  transition, and the DOPE-Me dispersion fully converts into  $Q_{II}$  phase (Im3m phase with lattice parameter of  $\sim 40$  nm in Fig. 4) without any traces of reappearing  $L_{\alpha}$  phase.

### Cubic phase formation in PEs

Although DOPE-Me readily forms  $Q_{II}$  phase in a single heating-cooling cycle, this is not the case for PE dispersions, which typically require several tens of cycles for complete conversion into the  $Q_{II}$  phase (11). We speculate that only a fraction of the lipid in the  $H_{II}$  phase enters the  $Q_{II}$  phase on each cooling cycle in PEs because the unbinding energy  $g_u$  is  $\sim 15$  times larger for PEs than for monomethylated PEs (Table 1). This would strongly favor recovery of the  $L_{\alpha}$  phase on cooling from the  $H_{II}$  range at the expense of  $Q_{II}$  formation. However, the  $Q_{II}$  fraction, once it forms, is stable upon supercooling into the  $L_{\alpha}$  phase region, even down to the chain-melting temperature of the dispersion (9,11), so  $Q_{II}$  phase accumulates during successive cycles until it completely replaces the  $L_{\alpha}$  phase.

In earlier work we found that salts ( $NaSCN$ ,  $NaCl$ ,  $NaH_2PO_4$ ,  $Na_2SO_4$ ) as well as sugars (sucrose, trehalose) substantially reduced the number of cycles necessary to convert PE dispersions into the  $Q_{II}$  phase (11). The relative efficacy of the Na salts in promoting  $Q_{II}$  phase formation did not appear to correlate with salt ordering in the lyotropic series. The data, rather, appeared to indicate that the accelerating solutes destabilize to some extent the  $L_{\alpha}$  phase and maintain some portion of the sample in a state of uncorrelated, single bilayers. We considered these disordered bilayers a more likely source for formation of cubic phases on the grounds elaborated in this work, i.e., that the attractive interactions in a well-stacked lamellar phase, which could be expected to impede the formation of a bicontinuous cubic phase, would be much weaker between bilayers separated by larger spaces (11). Recently it has been shown that monovalent salts and small carbohydrate molecules decrease the van der Waals attraction between electrostatically neutral bilayers in the  $L_{\alpha}$  phase (50,51). Therefore, it appears that these solutes are effective in accelerating  $Q_{II}$  phase formation because they decrease the unbinding energy  $g_u$  and thus facilitate the bilayer separation.

### Physiological relevance

Because of the effect of  $g_u$ , for lipid bilayers with elastic constants such that  $T_K < T_H$  and with  $g_u > 0$ , there is a range of temperatures in which the  $Q_{II}$  phase is metastable with respect to the  $L_{\alpha}$  phase, but represents the stable configura-

tion with respect to unbound, disordered bilayers for which  $g_u = 0$ . Consider two bilayers composed of lipid which is in this temperature range of metastable  $Q_{II}$  phase under the ambient conditions. The bilayers are maintained in the unbound state by some external factor, such as the presence of hydrated macromolecules between them. If the two bilayer interfaces are opposed over a small area, the lipids in this region might then be able to spontaneously form structures like fusion pores, which may be considered  $Q_{II}$  phase precursors (14,15). In these cases where unbinding factors are present, lipid compositions might be more fusogenic than indicated by their bulk phase behavior in the absence of such factors.

PCs are examples of membrane lipids that are effective in reducing  $g_u$  (Table 1). In model systems, lipid molecules with bulky headgroups such as polyethylene glycol (PEG)-conjugated phospholipids can be particularly effective in this. In previous work we have shown that 5 mol % of PEG-conjugated dimyristoyl PE (DMPE-PEG510) disorders the  $L_{\alpha}$  phase and promotes formation of stable intermediate  $Q_{II}$  phase in a temperature range between the  $L_{\alpha}$  and  $H_{II}$  phases in DEPE dispersions (44,52). Even at low concentrations, the PEG lipids appear to create steric hindrances that prevent the bilayer stacking into  $L_{\alpha}$  phase and thus favor formation of  $Q_{II}$  phases.

### Protocols for measuring the Gaussian (saddle splay) curvature elastic modulus

The big effect of the unbinding energy  $g_u$  on the temperature  $T_Q$  of the  $L_{\alpha}/Q_{II}$  transition has important implications for the choice of protocols for measuring the Gaussian curvature elastic modulus  $\kappa$  of membranes. Recently two such protocols were suggested based on observations of  $Q_{II}$  phase behavior (14,15). The method in Siegel and Kozlov (14) relies on a measurement of  $T_Q$ . The method in Siegel (15) is based on measurements of the  $Q_{II}$  phase unit cell constant as a function of temperature. The results of the latter protocol do not depend on the value of  $T_Q$  and, since  $T_Q$  is strongly affected by  $g_u$ , it is clear that the utility of the technique in Siegel and Kozlov (14) is more limited than the technique in Siegel (15). The techniques in Siegel and Kozlov (14) and Siegel (15) will yield measurements of similar accuracy limited by the accuracy of values of  $\delta$ ,  $k_m$ ,  $J_s$ , and their temperature dependences. However, for comparative measurements on a host lipid system with minor fractions of lipid or peptide additives, the precision of comparisons by the technique in Siegel (15) will be superior because of the lack of a  $g_u$  effect. This is significant for studies of the mechanism of membrane fusion and fission because the Gaussian curvature modulus has almost as large an effect on the curvature energy of the stalk fusion intermediate as the monolayer bending modulus (16). It would be important to measure the effects of lipid composition and of moieties of fusion- or fission-catalyzing proteins on this modulus.

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