

The Conformational Stability of Nonfibrillar Amyloid- β Peptide Oligomers Critically Depends on the C-Terminal Peptide Length

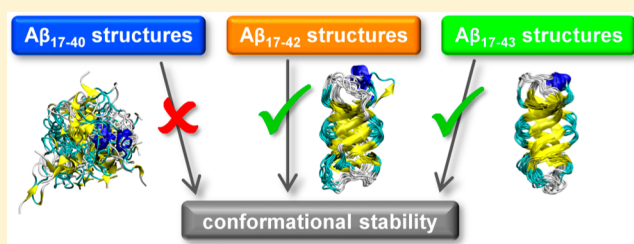
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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: The amyloid- β ($A\beta$) peptide is one key molecule in the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease. We investigated the conformational stability of a nonfibrillar tetrameric $A\beta$ structure by molecular dynamics (MD) simulations revealing that the stability of the $A\beta$ tetramer depends critically on the C-terminal length. In contrast to the $A\beta_{17-40}$ tetramer, which proved to be unstable, the simulations demonstrate structural integrity of the $A\beta_{17-42}$ and $A\beta_{17-43}$ tetramers. These differences in stability can be attributed to an extension of the middle strand of a three-stranded antiparallel β sheet through residues 41–43, only present in the longer $A\beta$ species that aggregate faster and are more neurotoxic. Additional MD simulations demonstrate that this higher stability is also present in the monomers forming the tetramer. In conclusion, our findings suggest the existence of a nonfibrillar oligomer topology that is significantly more stable for the longer $A\beta$ species, thus offering a structural explanation for their higher neurotoxicity.

KEYWORDS: Alzheimer's disease (AD), amyloid- β ($A\beta$) peptide, Abeta43, tetramer, oligomer, molecular dynamics (MD) simulations



The amyloid- β ($A\beta$) peptide is one key molecule in the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease (AD), which is the most common neurodegenerative disorder.¹ AD is characterized by progressive dementia and the global loss of cognitive abilities. One histological hallmark is the increased presence of extracellular senile plaques, composed primarily of insoluble $A\beta$ fibrils, which can be observed in the brain of affected patients.^{2,3}

The amyloid- β peptide exists in several length variants differing at the C-terminus, for instance, as $A\beta_{40}$, $A\beta_{42}$, and $A\beta_{43}$. $A\beta_{40}$ is the most abundant form.⁴ The longer species $A\beta_{42}$, the second most abundant form, is more hydrophobic and more prone to polymerize into aggregates. Additionally, $A\beta_{42}$ is more neurotoxic than $A\beta_{40}$.⁵ The longer variant $A\beta_{43}$ shows an even higher potent neurotoxicity in a dose-dependent manner as compared with $A\beta_{40}$ and $A\beta_{42}$.⁵ Despite its lower abundance, $A\beta_{43}$ is deposited more frequently than $A\beta_{40}$ in the brain of affected AD patients.^{4,5}

$A\beta$ fibrils were postulated for a long time to be the neurotoxic agents. Recent studies, however, showed a higher cytotoxicity for small $A\beta$ oligomers than for $A\beta$ fibrils, so that these soluble $A\beta$ oligomers are now moving to the center of interest.^{6–11} However, the structural characterization of small soluble $A\beta$ oligomers is a challenging task due to their unstable and noncrystalline nature.¹²

In this context, computational simulations are valuable tools to study the initial steps of the $A\beta$ aggregation process. Some of these simulations start from a disordered and flexible conformation of the individual $A\beta$ building blocks and study the initial steps of oligomer formation.^{13–18} However, these

studies are computationally very expensive and it is yet not possible to sample the entire conformational space accessible to $A\beta$ oligomers. Alternatively, MD has been used to assess the stability of $A\beta$ oligomers. Most of these studies start from experimentally determined topologies and investigate features like oligomer length,^{19,20} number of $A\beta$ chains,²¹ alternative interfaces,^{22–27} effects of mutations,²⁸ or interaction with membranes.²⁹

In addition, $A\beta$ oligomers have been studied by biophysical methods. Solid-state NMR spectroscopy, for example, revealed that some $A\beta$ oligomer species already contain preformed long strands as in the mature fibrils.^{30,31} But there is also experimental evidence from infrared spectroscopy for the presence of antiparallel β -strands in $A\beta$ oligomers,¹¹ demonstrating the existence of structural features clearly distinct from that of the fibril. In summary, all studies above demonstrate that $A\beta$ oligomers are conformationally heterogeneous, which renders a characterization of their structural properties difficult.

One approach to tackle the problem of structural heterogeneity is to stabilize a particular defined oligomer conformation to facilitate its characterization. To achieve this goal, parts of the $A\beta$ peptide are frequently complexed or fused with other proteins for crystallization.^{32–34} In 2011, this approach resulted in the crystal structure containing the amylogenic residues 18–41 of the $A\beta$ peptide, which were genetically engineered into the CDR3 loop region of a shark antigen receptor (IgNAR) single variable domain antibody

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(PDB code: 3MOQ).¹² In this crystal structure, the $A\beta$ -IgNAR molecules form a tight tetramer through interactions mediated by the inserted $A\beta$ part (Figure S1, Supporting Information) and the authors suggest that this structure can be used as a potential model system for nonfibrillar oligomer formation in AD.¹²

To assess the stability of this $A\beta$ -IgNAR crystal structure in solution, we performed a 200 ns MD simulation of this chimeric tetramer. The results showed a stable behavior of the individual subunits and the tetramer interface, although we could detect large hinge motions of the IgNAR parts with respect to each other (Figure S2, Supporting Information).

This conformational rigidity of the $A\beta$ part in the context of the IgNAR scaffold prompted us to investigate whether $A\beta$ exhibits a similar stability in the absence of this scaffolding protein. In the isolated $A\beta$ part, every single chain has a triple-stranded antiparallel β sheet and neighboring sheets of two chains form a six-stranded β sheet (Figure 1).

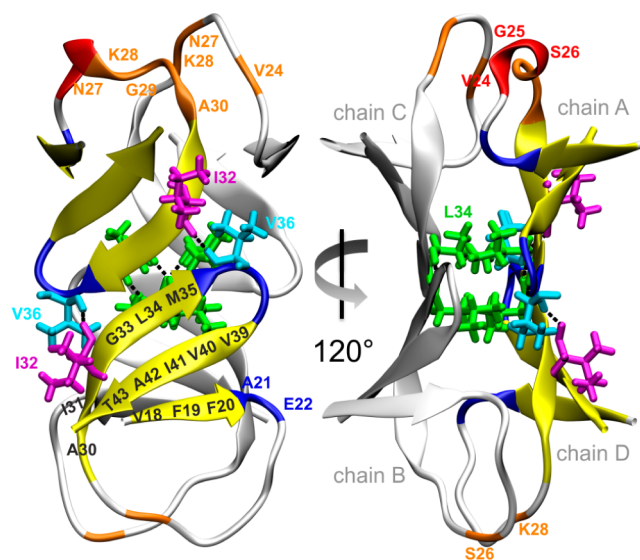


Figure 1. Starting structure of the $A\beta_{17-43}$ tetramer. The secondary structure elements of chain A and D are colored: antiparallel β sheet in yellow, 3_{10} helix in red, and the turn in blue. The hydrophobic side chains of the Leu34 residues (green, drawn as sticks) oppose each other in the tetramer and form intermolecular backbone hydrogen bonds (black dashed line). The Ile32 (magenta) and Val36 (cyan) residues, which also form intermolecular hydrogen bonds, are shown as sticks. In contrast to Leu34, which is buried in the interface, Ile32 and Val36 expose 20–30% of their molecular surface to the solvent. For better orientation, several residues of the loop regions are colored in orange.

Since the physiologically detected $A\beta$ species differ in the lengths of their C-termini, we performed 400 ns MD simulations for three different tetramers: $A\beta_{17-40}$, $A\beta_{17-42}$, and $A\beta_{17-43}$.

The respective tetrameric structures showed a clearly distinct dynamic behavior over the simulation time. The tetramers of the longer $A\beta$ variants had much lower and more constant values of the root-mean-square deviation (RMSD) than the $A\beta_{17-40}$ variant (Figure 2).

The magnitude of the RMSD indicates that the tetramers $A\beta_{17-42}$ and $A\beta_{17-43}$ are rather stable. The only larger-scale motion is the detachment of one β -strand (V18–F20) in chain A of $A\beta_{17-42}$ after 245 ns. The strand attaches again to the

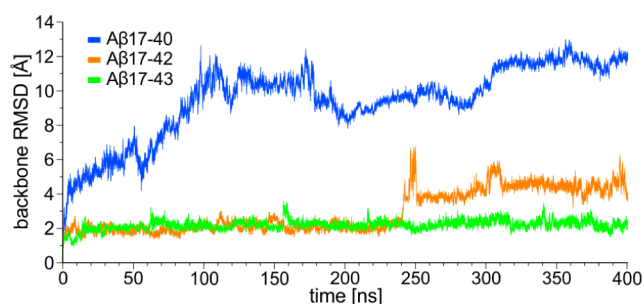


Figure 2. RMSD values over time for the tetrameric structures of $A\beta_{17-40}$, $A\beta_{17-42}$, and $A\beta_{17-43}$. While the tetramers $A\beta_{17-42}$ and $A\beta_{17-43}$ are stable, the tetramer $A\beta_{17-40}$ is unstable over the simulation time and shows the largest deviations from the starting structure.

remaining parts of the β -sheet after 250 ns but in a slightly different orientation. These motions explain the peak at 245–250 ns in the RMSD plot (Figure 2) and the slightly increased RMSD for the remaining simulation time (see also Supplementary Movie, Supporting Information). The respective motion is a rare event, which is only observed once for one of the chains of the tetramer over the simulation time. In a 300 ns control simulation of $A\beta_{17-42}$, no loss of secondary structure is observed (Figure S3, Supporting Information). In contrast to the stability detected for $A\beta_{17-42}$ and $A\beta_{17-43}$, the $A\beta_{17-40}$ tetramer is unstable over the simulation time and deviates significantly from the starting structure. These significant differences in structural stability are also confirmed by control simulations that were performed for all three tetramers (Figure S3, Supporting Information).

In the next analysis, the root-mean-square fluctuations (RMSF) were calculated for each single residue in the different chains. This analysis of the $A\beta_{17-40}$ tetramer revealed high fluctuations for the terminal residues indicative of local unfolding (Figure 3A). In contrast to this, the longer $A\beta$ variants exhibited much smaller RMSF values. In particular, the N- and C-terminal ends showed smaller fluctuations with increasing peptide length (Figure 3B and C).

To investigate and explain this in more detail, we determined the secondary structure evolution over time for the tetramers. The respective analysis (Figure 4) showed that the stability of the secondary structure elements of the tetramer increased with $A\beta$ chain length and that most of the secondary structure elements in the $A\beta_{17-40}$ were unstable. In particular, the β -strands at the N- and the C-terminus, which were detected in the starting structure, were not stable over 400 ns. Only the central β -strand Gly33–Met35 was retained in each chain (Figure 4A). Despite the stability of this central β -strand, the tetramer interface is significantly disrupted in $A\beta_{17-40}$, as evidenced by the increase of the solvent accessibility of Leu34, which constitutes the central hydrophobic residue of the interface (Figure S4, Supporting Information).

In contrast to the findings for the $A\beta_{17-40}$ tetramer, the secondary structure elements and the tetramer interface of $A\beta_{17-42}$ were mainly stable. Thereby, the central β -strand (Gly33–Met35) was again the most stable structure. Additionally, the C-terminally located β -strands and most of the N-terminally located β -strands were also retained. The turn Val36–Gly38, which connects the middle β -strand (Gly33–Met35) with the C-terminal β -strand (Val39–Ala42), belonged also to the stable secondary structures (Figure 4B). In the $A\beta_{17-43}$ tetramer, all three β -strands and the two turns (Ala21–Glu22

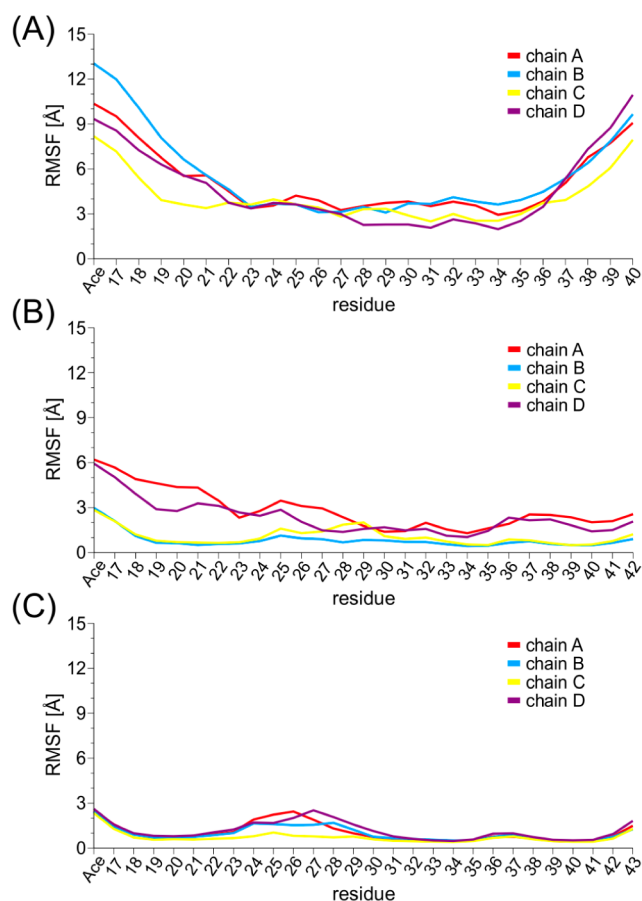


Figure 3. Fluctuation values of the backbone (RMSF) plotted as a function of the residue number for the tetrameric structures of (A) $A\beta_{17-40}$, (B) $A\beta_{17-42}$, and (C) $A\beta_{17-43}$. The longer and more hydrophobic $A\beta$ variants showed smaller fluctuations, especially at the N- and C-terminus.

and Val36-Gly38) were stabilized over the whole simulation through the C-terminal extension with residue Thr43 (Figure 4C).

We also investigated whether the present topology might be capable of pore formation, which is considered as one mechanism to confer toxicity.^{35,36} Due to their tight packing, no water channels exist in the interior of the $A\beta_{17-42}$ and $A\beta_{17-43}$ structures. We did not investigate the location of water molecules for $A\beta_{17-40}$ in detail, because the entire fold is unstable, resulting in a solvation of large parts of the peptide chain.

The observed conformational stability was quantified further with an analysis of the relative β sheet content over the simulation time (Figure 5). In accordance with the high stability of the antiparallel β sheets in the $A\beta_{17-43}$ tetramer, this tetramer also had the highest amount of antiparallel β sheets, whereas the $A\beta_{17-40}$ tetramer showed the lowest relative β sheet content (Figure 5A). The decrease in β sheet content observed for $A\beta_{17-42}$ during the second half of the simulation results from the detachment of one β -strand in subunit A as described above. The increase of the β sheet content observed for $A\beta_{17-40}$ during the second half of the simulation (Figure 5A) results from the formation of alternative β sheet structures that differ from those of the starting topology. These structural rearrangements are also reflected in the number of hydrogen bonds, which is generally smaller and exhibits fluctuations for $A\beta_{17-40}$

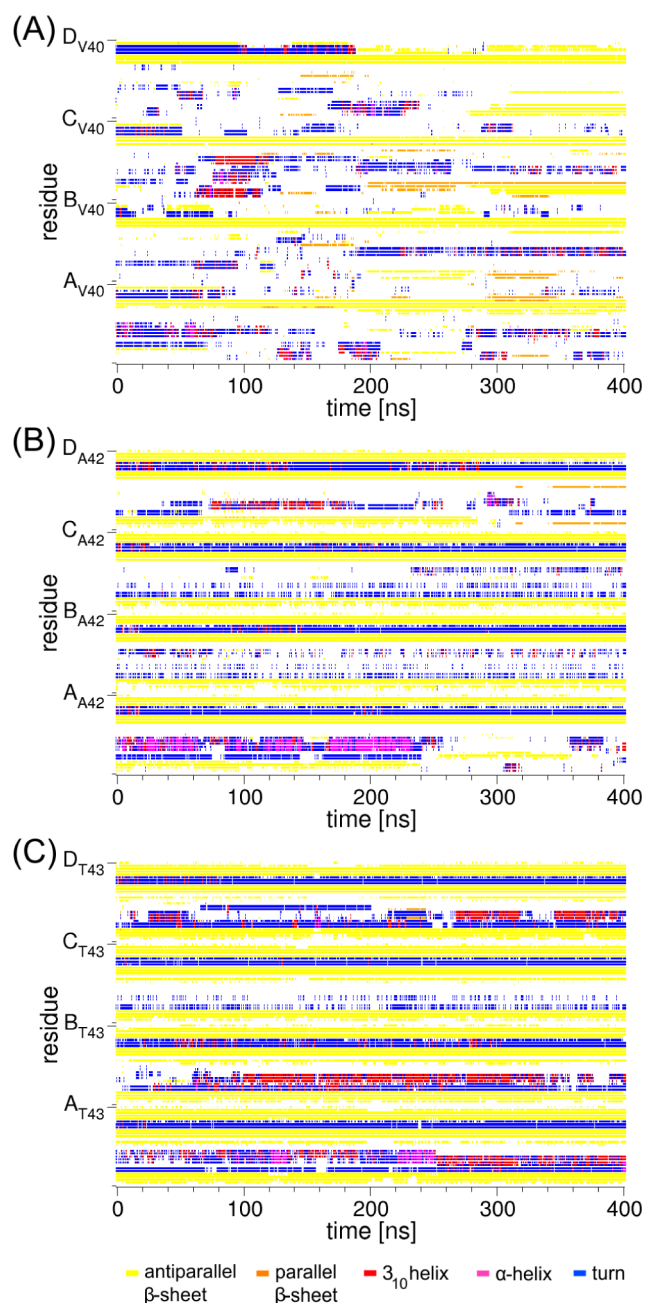


Figure 4. Secondary structure evolution of the tetramers over simulation time. The results are shown for the tetramer (A) $A\beta_{17-40}$, (B) $A\beta_{17-42}$, and (C) $A\beta_{17-43}$. Major ticks on the y-axis indicate the last residue of each chain, while minor ticks mark the first residues. While the secondary structure in the $A\beta_{17-40}$ tetramer lost the initial fold, the secondary structure of the starting topology could be maintained in the longer $A\beta$ variants.

compared to the longer tetramers (Figure 5B). This is also exemplified by the overlay of several structures collected over the simulation time (Figure 6) and the movies provided in the Supporting Information.

Interestingly, lower stability of $A\beta_{17-40}$ is also independently detected in an alternative analysis of the stabilizing residues using SRide that was performed for the initial model structures (Table S4, Supporting Information). This analysis reveals that residues Val40 and to a lesser extent also Ala42 are the key stabilizing residues in the longer $A\beta$ oligomers. Although present in $A\beta_{17-40}$, Val40 does not represent a stabilizing

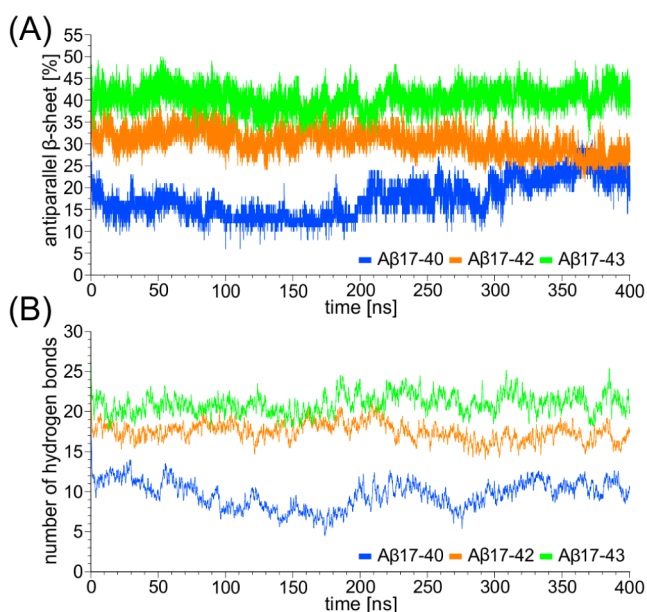


Figure 5. The β sheet content and the total number of hydrogen bonds of the tetramers versus simulation time. The longer the $A\beta$ variant, the higher is the relative antiparallel β sheet content and the number of hydrogen bonds during simulation time.

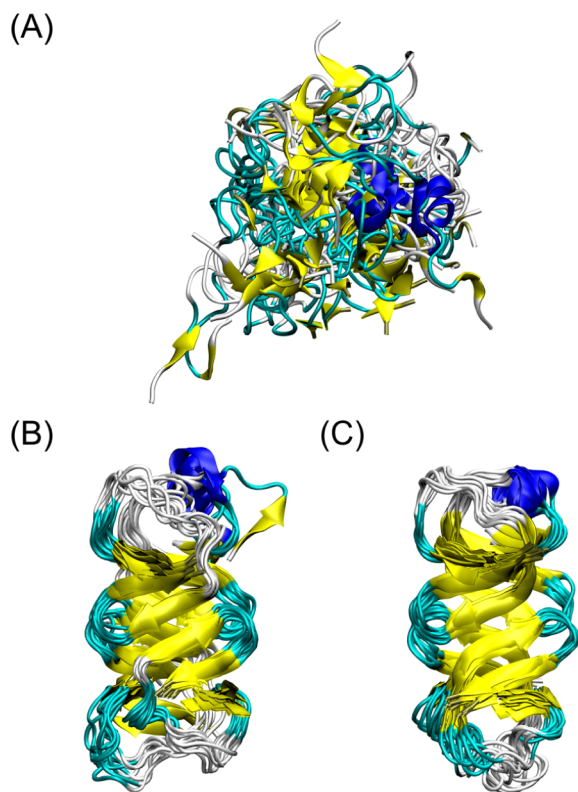


Figure 6. Overlay of every 50th nanosecond of the tetramer MD simulation of (A) $A\beta_{17-40}$, (B) $A\beta_{17-42}$, and (C) $A\beta_{17-43}$. The initial topology remained stable for the tetramers $A\beta_{17-42}$ and $A\beta_{17-43}$, but not for the shorter $A\beta_{17-40}$.

residue in this shorter variant (Table S4, Supporting Information), which is in line with the large structural changes detected over the MD simulation (Figure 6). In summary, all data above demonstrate that the tetramer topology present in the $A\beta$ -IgNAR crystal structure is stable for $A\beta_{17-42}$ and $A\beta_{17-43}$

but not for the shorter $A\beta_{17-40}$. The structural changes detected in $A\beta_{17-40}$ include the formation of alternative β -strands, for example, between residues 18–21 of chain C and D, which might indicate an ongoing progression toward fibrillar structures. However, fibril formation itself occurs on much longer time scales³⁷ not yet accessible to conventional MD simulations. Therefore, an investigation of the conversion to fibrillar structures was not the aim of the present study, which instead addressed the conformational stability of a nonfibrillar oligomer topology in dependence from the C-terminal $A\beta$ length.

Next, we investigated whether these differences in stability detected for the tetramers are also present in the monomeric building blocks. For each of the four monomers forming the tetramer independent 200 ns MD simulations were performed. This allows to assess the influence of the starting structure on the effects observed thereby avoiding an over interpretation of rarely sampled motions.

As in the tetramers, the stability of the monomers proved also to be critically affected by the length of the C-terminus. The initial topology remained stable for all $A\beta_{17-43}$ monomers investigated, whereas none of the $A\beta_{17-40}$ monomers remained stable. $A\beta_{17-42}$ exhibits an intermediate stability as evidenced by the unfolding of two of the four monomers (Figure S5–S9, Table S3, Supporting Information). Although the present simulations are limited to a nanosecond time scale, these findings suggest that this topology can already be formed in the monomeric building blocks of the longer $A\beta$ variants and subsequently become stabilized by the formation of nonfibrillar tetramers or even larger oligomers. For $A\beta_{17-43}$, which is the most stable variant in this study, these results also support the suggestion that $A\beta_{43}$ could initiate the formation of oligomers and amyloid plaques and thereby be crucial for AD pathogenesis.³⁸

Thus, our study provides the first computational investigation of this novel $A\beta$ tetramer topology. One limitation of the template crystal structure,¹² which represents the only high-resolution structure of a nonfibrillar oligomer to date, is the absence of the N-terminus. We refrained from modeling the N-terminus for the following reasons: The N-terminus exerts multiple different functions as a phosphorylation site or metal ion binding site, and it exhibits a structural role in mature fibrils.^{39–42} Thus, the N-terminus can adopt multiple distinct conformations depending on the oligomerization state or environmental conditions, for example, the presence of metal ions. Therefore, it appears extremely difficult to model the correct state of the N-terminus in the absence of further experimental knowledge.

In addition, the present MD simulations indicate that the $A\beta_{17-42}$ and $A\beta_{17-43}$ oligomers are stable in the absence of the N-terminus, indicating that the latter is not required for maintaining the oligomer topology. Nevertheless, we are aware that the presence of the N-terminus might affect the overall stability of the tetramer. For this reason, the emphasis of the present work is not on the overall tetramer stability but rather on the relative stability of tetramers of differing in their C-terminal length. Therefore, we feel that the conclusions drawn from the present study remain also relevant for the full-length $A\beta$ -peptides.

The conducted MD simulations revealed that the investigated tetramers of the longer $A\beta$ variants were significantly more stable than the shorter $A\beta_{17-40}$ tetramer. Further, the structures of the longer variants were very similar to the starting

structure throughout the 400 ns long simulations, as reflected in low average RMSD values. As opposed to this, the tetramer $A\beta_{17-40}$ showed very high RMSD and RMSF values and no stable secondary structure elements, indicating a loss of the initial fold. The elongation of the C-terminus by the residues 41 and 42 or the residues 41–43 increases the stability of the investigated structures, because these additional residues elongate the middle strand of a three-stranded antiparallel β sheet (Figure 1). For that reason, the length of the C-terminus of the $A\beta$ fragment seems to be critical for the stability of this topology. This property is particularly remarkable, since $A\beta_{40}$ and $A\beta_{42}$ form quite similar U-shaped fibrillar topologies consisting of two stacks of parallel in-register β sheets.^{43,44}

Cross- β topologies have recently also been reported for toxic fibrillar oligomers that contain 19 ± 4 $A\beta$ -chains.⁴⁵ However, toxicity is also observed for much smaller oligomers like dimers and tetramers.^{6,37,46} These small oligomers exhibit a large conformational variability rendering an investigation of alternative nonfibrillar conformations highly relevant. In addition, an analysis of fibrillar topologies frequently offered only a limited explanation for the differences in aggregation tendency and neurotoxicity of different $A\beta$ species.

In this context, the present study suggests that the formation of nonfibrillar oligomers might be much more dependent on the length of the $A\beta$ C-terminus. The tetramer investigated here is entirely unstable for $A\beta_{17-40}$, indicating that this topology can exclusively be established for the longer $A\beta_{17-42}$ and $A\beta_{17-43}$, thus representing an $A\beta$ variant-specific conformation. Since the longer $A\beta$ variants are also the more neurotoxic agents,⁵ the present topology may help to explain some of the neurotoxic $A\beta$ effects. In addition, the existence of a nonfibrillar oligomeric fold that is particularly stable in the longer and more neurotoxic $A\beta$ species might also be helpful for antibody design or rational drug design aiming at the prevention of oligomer formation.

METHODS

Preparation of Starting Structures. The crystal structure of the $A\beta$ -IgNAR chimeric tetramer was used as a template for the preparation of the starting structures (PDB code: 3MOQ;¹² resolution: 2.05 Å). This construct contains residues 18–41 of $A\beta$ that are inserted between residues 87 and 112 of the antibody scaffold. For generating the starting structure of the tetrameric $A\beta$ -IgNAR, the C-terminal alanine residues were capped by *N*-methylamine (NME) in each chain. For generating the tetrameric $A\beta_{17-43}$ structure from the crystal structure, residues 1–86 and 114–126 that belong to the antibody moiety were deleted. The tyrosine at position 87 of the antibody was mutated to leucine to generate $A\beta$ residue Leu17, which is part of the central hydrophobic core and important for β sheet formation in fibril conformations.⁴⁷ Because the N-terminus of the present model is not the first residue of the naturally occurring $A\beta$, Leu17 was acetylated using SYBYL 7.3⁴⁸ to avoid artifacts by a nonphysiologically charged end group. Subsequently, residues 112 and 113 of the antibody were changed to alanine and threonine, respectively, resulting in the $A\beta_{17-43}$ structure. To obtain the $A\beta_{17-40}$ and $A\beta_{17-42}$ tetramers, the last one or last three residues at the C-terminus of the single chains of the $A\beta_{17-43}$ tetramer were deleted. All these C-termini were kept ionic. For the generation of the monomeric structures, the corresponding tetramer was used and the nonrequired chains were removed. For an easier comparison with previous studies of the amyloid- β peptide, the numbering scheme of the residues corresponds to that used for the full length $A\beta$: LVFF₂₀AEDVGS-NKGA₃₀IIGLMVGGV₄₀IAT.

Stabilizing residues in the tetrameric starting structures of $A\beta_{17-40}$, $A\beta_{17-42}$, and $A\beta_{17-43}$ were identified with SRide⁴⁹ (<http://sride.enzim.hu/>) using standard settings.

Molecular Dynamics Simulations. Molecular dynamics simulations were performed using version 11 of the AMBER Molecular Dynamics software package⁵⁰ (ambermd.org) and the ff99SB force field.^{51,52} With the AMBER tool LEaP, all systems were electrically neutralized with Na^+ or Cl^- ions and solvated with TIP3P⁵³ water molecules (Tables S1 and S2, Supporting Information).

At first, a minimization was carried out in three subsequent steps to optimize the geometry of the starting structures. In the first step of the minimization, the water molecules were minimized while all remaining atoms were restrained with a constant force of $10 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}\cdot\text{\AA}^{-2}$ to the initial positions. In the second step, additional relaxation of the sodium ions and the hydrogen atoms of the protein were allowed, while the remaining protein was restrained with $10 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}\cdot\text{\AA}^{-2}$. In the last step, no restraints were used, so that the whole protein, the ions, and the water molecules were minimized. All three minimization parts started with 2500 steps using the steepest descent algorithm, followed by 2500 steps of a conjugate gradient minimization.

After the minimization, the systems were equilibrated in two successive steps. In the first step, the temperature was raised from 10 to 310 K within 0.1 ns and the protein was restrained with a constant force of $5 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}\cdot\text{\AA}^{-2}$. In the second step (0.4 ns length), only the C α atoms of the protein were restrained with a constant force of $5 \text{ kcal}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}\cdot\text{\AA}^{-2}$. In both equilibration steps, the time step was 2 fs.

In the following, 100–400 ns long production phases were performed at 310 K, without any restraints and with a time step of 2 fs. For bonds involving hydrogen, the SHAKE algorithm was applied in the equilibration and production phase. Furthermore, the constant pressure periodic boundary conditions were used with an average pressure of 1 bar and isotropic position scaling. A Berendsen thermostat was used to maintain the temperature of the system at 310 K. The AMBER tool ptraj or the programs VMD⁵⁴ and DSSP (Define Secondary Structure of Proteins)⁵⁵ were used for structure analysis. All molecular illustrations were made with VMD.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

Additional as described in text. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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Author Contributions

E.S., H.S., and A.H.C.H. designed the study. E.S. performed the simulations and analyses. E.S., H.S., and A.H.C.H. wrote the manuscript. H.S. and A.H.C.H. supervised the project.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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ABBREVIATIONS

$A\beta$, amyloid- β peptide; MD, molecular dynamics; AD, Alzheimer's disease; RMSD, root-mean-square deviation; RMSF, root-mean-square fluctuations

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