

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com





Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications 330 (2005) 111-116

www.elsevier.com/locate/ybbrc

Preformed β -amyloid fibrils are destabilized by coenzyme Q_{10} in vitro

Kenjiro Ono a, Kazuhiro Hasegawa b, Hironobu Naiki b, Masahito Yamada a,*

^a Department of Neurology and Neurobiology of Aging, Kanazawa University Graduate School of Medical Science, Kanazawa 920-8640, Japan
 ^b Department of Pathology, Fukui University, Fukui 910-1193, CREST of Japan Science and Technology Corporation, Kawaguchi 332-0012, Japan

Received 2 February 2005

Abstract

Inhibition of the formation of β -amyloid fibrils (fA β), as well as the destabilization of preformed fA β in the CNS, would be attractive therapeutic targets for the treatment of Alzheimer's disease (AD). We reported previously that nordihydroguaiaretic acid (NDGA) and wine-related polyphenol, myricetin (Myr), inhibit fA β formation from A β and destabilize preformed fA β in vitro. Using fluorescence spectroscopic analysis with thioflavin T and electron microscopic studies, we examined the effects of coenzyme Q₁₀ (CoQ₁₀) on the formation, extension, and destabilization of fA β at pH 7.5 at 37 °C in vitro. We next compared the anti-amyloidogenic activities of CoQ₁₀ with NDGA and Myr. CoQ₁₀ dose-dependently inhibited fA β formation from amyloid β -peptide (A β), as well as their extension. Moreover, it destabilized preformed fA β s. The anti-amyloidogenic effects of CoQ₁₀ were slightly weaker than those of NDGA and Myr. CoQ₁₀ could be a key molecule for the development of therapeutics for AD. © 2005 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Alzheimer's disease; Coenzyme Q₁₀; β-Amyloid fibrils; Thioflavin T; Electron microscopy

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common cause of dementia in aged humans, affecting ~200 million people worldwide [1]. The disease is characterized by extracellular deposition of amyloid β-peptide (Aβ) in senile plagues, intracellular appearance of neurofibrillary tangles, and synaptic and neuronal loss [2]. Considerable effort is currently directed toward the development of anti-amyloid therapeutics as possible strategies to prevent or treat AD. Using a nucleation-dependent polymerization model to explain the mechanism of the formation of Alzheimer's β-amyloid fibrils (fAβ) in vitro [3,4], we previously found that nordihydroguaiaretic acid (NDGA) and rifampicin (RIF) inhibit fAβ formation dose-dependently in vitro [5]. Moreover, we reported that they also destabilize $fA\beta(1-40)$ and $fA\beta(1-42)$ in a concentration-dependent manner, based on fluorescence spectroscopic analysis with thioflavin T (ThT) and electron microscopic studies [6].

A large number of studies indicate that oxidative injury may play a role in the development of AD [7]. Many antioxidant compounds, such as vitamin E [8], NDGA [9], and nicotine [10], have been demonstrated to protect the brain from in vitro Aβ toxicity. Recently, we showed that the wine-related polyphenols such as myricetin (Myr), and the lipophilic antioxidant, vitamin A, dose-dependently inhibit formation and extension of $fA\beta(1-40)$ and $fA\beta(1-42)$, as well as destabilizing preformed fAβs in vitro [11,12]. As similar to vitamin A, coenzyme Q₁₀ (CoQ₁₀) is well known to be an important lipid-soluble antioxidant [13]. Soderberg et al. [14] found increased levels of CoQ₁₀ in most regions of the brains of patients with AD. A recent study by Bustos et al. [15] found no significant difference in plasma CoQ₁₀ levels between patients with AD and controls. Although Imagawa et al. [16] reported a marked improvement in mental state of two sisters with genetically confirmed AD after a combined therapy with CoQ₁₀, iron, and vitamin B6, no large clinical studies assessing the cognitive effect of oral supplementation of CoQ₁₀ in AD have

^{*} Corresponding author. Fax: +81 76 234 4253.

E-mail address: m-yamada@med.kanazawa-u.ac.jp (M. Yamada).

been performed. Here, we examined the effects of CoQ_{10} to inhibit the formation, extension of $fA\beta(1-40)$ and $fA\beta(1-42)$, as well as to destabilize $fA\beta$ s at pH 7.5 at 37 °C in vitro, using fluorescence spectroscopy with ThT and electron microscopy. We also compared its anti-amyloidogenic and fibril-destabilizing effects with those of NDGA and Myr.

Materials and methods

Preparation of A β and fA β solutions. A β (1–40) (a trifluoroacetate salt, Peptide Institute, Osaka, Japan) and A β (1–42) (a trifluoroacetate salt, Peptide Institute) were dissolved by brief vortexing in a 0.02% ammonia solution at a concentration of 500 μ M (2.2 mg/mL) and 250 μ M, respectively, in a 4 °C room and stored at -80 °C before assaying (fresh A β (1–40) and A β (1–42) solutions). fA β (1–40) and fA β (1–42) were formed from the fresh A β (1–40) and A β (1–42) solutions, respectively, sonicated, and stored at 4 °C as described elsewhere [17].

Fresh, non-aggregated $fA\beta(1-40)$ and $fA\beta(1-42)$ were obtained by extending sonicated $fA\beta(1-40)$ or $fA\beta(1-42)$ with fresh $A\beta(1-40)$ or $A\beta(1-42)$ solutions, respectively, just before the destabilization reaction [6,11,12,18]. The reaction mixture was $600~\mu L$ and contained $10~\mu g/m L$ $fA\beta(1-40)$ or $fA\beta(1-42)$, $50~\mu M$ $A\beta(1-40)$ or $A\beta(1-42)$, 50~m M phosphate buffer, pH 7.5, and 100~m M NaCl. Measurement of the fluorescence of ThT showed that the extension reaction proceeded

to equilibrium after incubation at 37 °C for 3–6 h under non-agitated conditions. In the following experiment, the concentration of $fA\beta(1-40)$ and $fA\beta(1-42)$ in the final reaction mixture was regarded as 50 μ M.

Fluorescence spectroscopy, electron microscopy, and polarized light microscopy. A fluorescence spectroscopic study was performed on a Hitachi F-2500 fluorescence spectrophotometer as described elsewhere [19]. Optimum fluorescence measurements of $fA\beta(1-40)$ and $fA\beta(1-42)$ were obtained at the excitation and emission wavelengths of 445 and 490 nm, respectively, with the reaction mixture containing 5 μ M ThT (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Osaka, Japan) and 50 mM glycine—NaOH buffer, pH 8.5. Electron microscopic and polarized light microscopic studies of the reaction mixtures were performed as described elsewhere [17].

Polymerization assay. Polymerization of Aβ with or without fAβ added as seeds was assayed as described elsewhere [5]. Briefly, the reaction mixture contained 50 μM Aβ(1–40), or 25 or 50 μM Aβ(1–42), 0 or 10 μg/mL fAβ(1–40) or fAβ(1–42), 0–50 μM CoQ₁₀, NDGA, or Myr (Sigma Chemical, St. Louis, MO), 1% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.5, and 100 mM NaCl.

Thirty-microliter aliquots of the mixture were put into oil-free PCR tubes (Takara Shuzo, Otsu, Japan). These tubes were then put into a DNA thermal cycler (PJ480, Perkin-Elmer Cetus, Emeryville, California). Starting at 4 °C, the plate temperature was elevated at maximal speed, to 37 °C. Incubation times ranged between 0 and 8 days as indicated in each figure. The tubes were not agitated during the reaction. Five microliter aliquots from each tube in triplicate were subjected to fluorescence spectroscopy and the mean of the three measurements was determined. In the ThT solution, the concentration of CoQ_{10} , NDGA, and Myr examined in this study was diluted up to

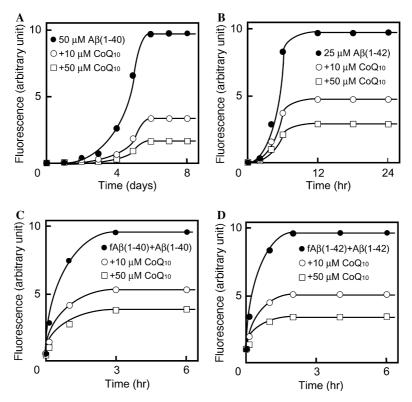


Fig. 1. CoQ_{10} inhibits the formation of $fA\beta$. Effects of CoQ_{10} on the kinetics of formation of $fA\beta(1-40)$ (A) and $fA\beta(1-42)$ (B) from fresh $A\beta(1-40)$ and $A\beta(1-42)$, respectively. The reaction mixtures containing 50 μ M $A\beta(1-40)$ (A) or 25 μ M $A\beta(1-42)$ (B), 50 μ M phosphate buffer, pH 7.5, 100 μ M NaCl, and 0 (\bullet), 10 (\circ), or 50 μ M (\circ) of CoQ_{10} were incubated at 37 °C for the indicated times. Each figure shows a representative pattern of three independent experiments. (C,D) Effects of CoQ_{10} on the kinetics of $FA\beta(1-40)$ and $FA\beta(1-42)$ extension. The reaction mixtures containing 10 μ g/mL sonicated $FA\beta(1-40)$ (C) or $FA\beta(1-40)$ (D), 50 μ M AB(1-40) (C) or $FA\beta(1-40)$ (D), 50 μ M NaCl, and 0 (\bullet), 10 (\circ), or 50 μ M (\circ) of $FA\beta(1-40)$ of $FA\beta(1-40)$ (D), 50 μ M has a representative pattern of three independent experiments.

1/200 of that in the reaction mixture. We confirmed that these compounds did not quench ThT fluorescence at the diluted concentration (data not shown).

Measurement of fibril-destabilizing activity. Destabilization of fAβ was assayed as described elsewhere [6]. Briefly, the reaction mixture contained 25 μM fresh fAβ(1–40) or fAβ(1–42), 0–50 μM CoQ₁₀, NDGA, or Myr, 1% DMSO, 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, and 1%(wt/vol.) polyvinyl alcohol (Wako Pure Chemical Industries) to avoid the aggregation of fAβ and the adsorption of fAβ onto the inner wall of the reaction tube during the reaction

After being mixed by pipetting, triplicate 5- μ L aliquots of the reaction mixture were subjected to fluorescence spectroscopy and 30- μ L aliquots were put into PCR tubes. The reaction tubes were then transferred into a DNA thermal cycler. Starting at 4 °C, the plate temperature was elevated at maximal speed to 37 °C. Incubation times ranged between 0 and 6 h as indicated in each figure. The reaction tubes were not agitated during the reaction. Five microliter aliquots from each tube in triplicate were subjected to fluorescence spectroscopy and the mean of the three measurements was determined. At the diluted concentration, CoQ_{10} , NDGA, and Myr did not compete with ThT for fA β at either 4 °C or 37 °C for 1 min (data not shown).

Other analytical procedures. Protein concentrations of the supernatants of the reaction mixtures after centrifugation were determined by the method of Bradford [20] with a protein assay kit (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA). The A β (1–40) solution quantified by amino acid analysis was used as the standard. The statistical significance of the data was analyzed by the linear least squares fit. The effective concentration EC₅₀ was defined as the concentration of CoQ₁₀, NDGA, or Myr to inhibit the formation or extension of fA β s to 50% of the control value, or the concentration to destabilize fA β s to 50% of the control value. EC₅₀ was calculated by the sigmoidal curve fitting of the data, using Igor Pro ver.4 (WaveMetrics, Lake Oswego, OR, USA).

Results and discussion

As shown in Figs. 1A and B, when fresh $A\beta(1-40)$ or A β (1–42) was incubated at 37 °C, the fluorescence of ThT followed a characteristic sigmoidal curve. This curve is consistent with a nucleation-dependent polymerization model [3]. When $A\beta(1-40)$ was incubated with 10 and 50 μ M CoQ₁₀, the final equilibrium level decreased dose-dependently (Fig. 1A). A similar effect of CoQ_{10} was observed with A $\beta(1-42)$ (Fig. 1B). As shown in Figs. 1C and D, when fresh $A\beta(1-40)$ or $A\beta(1-42)$ was incubated with $fA\beta(1-40)$ or $fA\beta(1-42)$, respectively, at 37 °C, the fluorescence increased hyperbolically without a lag phase and proceeded to equilibrium much more rapidly than without seeds (compare Figs. 1A and B with C and D). This curve is consistent with a first-order kinetic model [19]. When $A\beta(1-40)$ and $fA\beta(1-40)$ were incubated with CoQ_{10} , the final equilibrium level decreased (Fig. 1C). A similar effect of CoQ₁₀ was observed for the extension of $fA\beta(1-42)$ (Fig. 1D). We observed that $50 \,\mu\text{M}$ CoQ₁₀ inhibited the extension of sonicated fA β (1–40) and fA β (1–42) electron-microscopically (data not shown).

As shown in Figs. 2A and B, the fluorescence of ThT was almost unchanged during the incubation of fresh

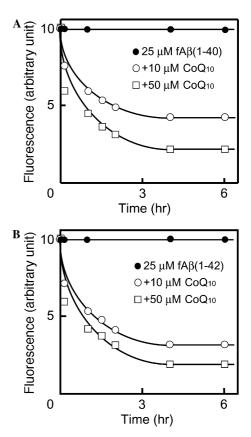
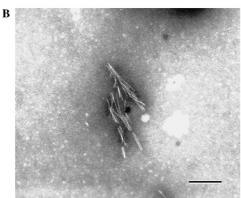


Fig. 2. Effects of CoQ_{10} on the kinetics of destabilization of $fA\beta(1-40)$ (A) and $fA\beta(1-42)$ (B). The reaction mixtures containing 25 μ M $fA\beta(1-40)$ (A) or $fA\beta(1-42)$ (B), 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, and 0 (\bullet), 10 (\bigcirc), or 50 μ M (\square) of CoQ_{10} were incubated at 37 °C for the indicated times. Each figure shows a representative pattern of three independent experiments.

fAβ(1–40) or fAβ(1–42) at 37 °C without additional molecules. On the other hand, the ThT fluorescence decreased immediately after addition of CoQ_{10} to the reaction mixture. After incubation of 25 μM fresh fAβ(1–40) with 50 μM CoQ_{10} for 1 h, many short, sheared fibrils were observed (Fig. 3B). At 6 h, the number of fibrils was reduced markedly, and small amorphous aggregates were occasionally observed (Fig. 3C). Similar morphology was observed when 25 μM fresh fAβ(1–42) was incubated with 50 μM CoQ_{10} (data not shown).

After incubation with 50 μ M CoQ₁₀ for 6 h, fA β (1–40) and fA β (1–42) were stained with Congo red much more weakly than fresh fA β (1–40) and fA β (1–42). However, they all showed orange-green birefringence under polarized light. This means that a significant amount of intact fA β (1–40) and fA β (1–42) still remains in the mixture after the reaction. When the protein concentration of the supernatant after centrifugation at 4 °C for 2 h at 1.6×10^4 g was measured by the Bradford assay, no proteins were detected in the supernatant. This implies that although these agents could destabilize fA β (1–40) and fA β (1–42) to visible aggregates (Fig.





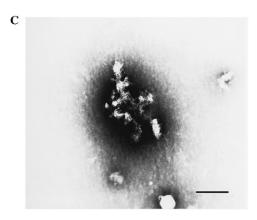


Fig. 3. Electron micrographs of destabilized fA β (1–40). The reaction mixture containing 25 μ M fA β (1–40), 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, and 50 μ M CoQ₁₀ was incubated at 37 °C for 0 h (A), 1 h (B) or 6 h (C). Scale bars indicate a length of 250 nm.

3C), they could not depolymerize $fA\beta(1-40)$ and $fA\beta(1-42)$ to monomers or oligomers of $A\beta(1-40)$ and $A\beta(1-42)$. When fresh 50 μ M $A\beta(1-40)$ or $A\beta(1-42)$ was incubated with the pellet at 10 μ g/mL, no increase in the fluorescence was observed for 6 h. This implies that destabilized $fA\beta(1-40)$ and $fA\beta(1-42)$ could not function as seeds.

We calculated EC_{50} , the concentrations of NDGA, Myr, or CoQ_{10} to inhibit the formation or extension of fA β s to 50% of the control value, or the concentrations to destabilize fA β s to 50% of the control value, by the sigmoidal curve fitting of the data as shown (Table 1). The overall activity of the molecules examined was in the order of: NDGA = Myr > CoQ_{10} .

In this study, we showed that CoQ_{10} dose-dependently inhibited fA β formation from fresh A β , as well as destabilizing preformed fAβ in vitro. The anti-amyloidogenic and fibril-destabilizing effects of CoQ₁₀ were slightly weaker than those of NDGA and Myr. Our previous systematic in vitro study indicated that the overall activity of the anti-amyloidogenic molecules may be in the order of: NDGA = wine-related polyphenols (Myr, morin, and quercetin) \gg RIF = tetracyclines (TC) \geq poly(vinylsulfonic acid, sodium salt) = 1,3-propanedisulfonic acid, disodium salt $> \beta$ -sheet breaker peptides $(iA\beta5) > nicotine [6,11,18]$. Tomiyama et al. [21] suggested that RIF binds to AB by hydrophobic interactions between its lipophilic ansa chain and the hydrophobic region of $A\beta$, thus blocking the association between $A\beta$ molecules that lead to $fA\beta$ formation. The anti-amyloidogenic activity of NDGA, TCs, small-molecule anionic sulfonates or sulfates, melatonin, iAβ5, and nicotine may also be related to the propensity to bind to the specific sites of A\(\beta\) [6,22–26]. Recently, we also showed that lipophilic vitamin, vitamin A, dose-dependently inhibits formation and extension of fA β (1–40) and $fA\beta(1-42)$, as well as destabilizing preformed $fA\beta$ s in vitro [12]. The overall activity of vitamin A and β -carotene was in the order of retinol = retinal $> \beta$ -carotene > retinoic acid [12]. We speculated that the decrease in lipophilicity might reduce the binding affinity of retinoic acid to Aβ and/or fAβ to exhibit antiamyloidogenic and fibril-destabilizing effects in vitro

Table 1 The effective concentrations (EC₅₀) of NDGA, Myr, and CoQ₁₀ for the formation, extension, and destabilization of $fA\beta(1-40)$ and $fA\beta(1-42)$

Compounds	Formation ^a		Extension ^b		Destabilization ^c	
	fAβ(1-40)	fAβ(1-42)	fAβ(1-40)	fAβ(1-42)	fAβ(1-40)	fAβ(1-42)
NDGA	0.21 μΜ	1.1 μΜ	0.22 μΜ	0.11 μΜ	0.99 μΜ	0.93 μΜ
Myr	0.37	0.51	0.17	0.16	1.8	0.95
CoQ_{10}	1.8	5.5	13	9.3	5.3	4.9

^a The reaction mixtures containing 50 μ M A β (1–40) or 25 μ M A β (1–42), 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, and 0, 0.01, 0.1, 1, 10, and 50 μ M NDGA, Myr, or CoQ₁₀ were incubated at 37 °C for 7 days and 24 h, respectively.

^b The reaction mixtures containing 10 μ g/mL (2.3 μ M) sonicated fAβ(1–40) or fAβ(1–42), 50 μ M Aβ(1–40) or Aβ(1–42), 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, and 0, 0.01, 0.1, 1, 10, and 50 μ M NDGA, Myr, or CoQ₁₀ were incubated at 37 °C for 1 h.

 $^{^{\}circ}$ The reaction mixtures containing 25 μM fAβ(1–40) or fAβ(1–42), 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, and 0, 0.01, 0.1, 1, 10, and 50 μM NDGA, Myr, or CoQ₁₀ were incubated at 37 $^{\circ}$ C for 6 h.

[13]. Interestingly, CoQ₁₀, NDGA, wine-related polyphenols, RIF, melatonin, nicotine, and vitamin A have all been reported to have antioxidant activity [9,13,21,24,27,28]. CoQ₁₀ with potent lipophilic and antioxidant motifs could bind specifically to AB and/ or fAβ, inhibit fAβ formation, and/or destabilize preformed fAβ. Moreover, CoQ₁₀ may prevent the development of AD, not only through scavenging reactive oxygen species, but also through directly inhibiting the deposition of $fA\beta$ in the brain. Although the exact mechanism of anti-amyloidogenic activity of CoQ_{10} is unclear, these compounds could be key molecules for the development of therapeutics for AD. Further studies, such as nuclear magnetic resonance experiments, are essential to reveal the exact structure-activity relationships for the antioxidants and other organic compounds which exhibit anti-amyloidogenic and fibril-destabilizing effects.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Drs. Souichi Okino and Kazuo Iwasa (Kanazawa University) for cooperation in the experiments. This work was supported in part by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (M.Y.), a grant for the 21st Century COE Program (on Innovative Brain Science for Development, Learning and Memory) (M.Y.), a grant for the Knowledge Cluster Initiative [High-Tech Sensing and Knowledge Handling Technology (Brain Technology)] (M.Y.) and a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research on Priority Areas (C)—Advanced Brain Science Project (H.N.) from the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan, and a grant to the Amyloidosis Research Committee from the Ministry of Health, Labour, and Welfare, Japan (M.Y.).

References

- [1] C. Haass, B. De Strooper, The presenilins in Alzheimer's diseaseproteolysis holds the key, Science 286 (1999) 916–919.
- [2] D.J. Selkoe, Alzheimer's disease is a synaptic failure, Science 298 (2002) 789–791.
- [3] J.T. Jarrett, P.T. Lansbury Jr., Seeding "one-dimensional crystallization" of amyloid: a pathogenic mechanism in Alzheimer's disease and scrapie?, Cell 73 (1993) 1055–1058.
- [4] H. Naiki, F. Gejyo, Kinetic analysis of amyloid fibril formation, Methods Enzymol. 309 (1999) 305–318.
- [5] H. Naiki, K. Hasegawa, I. Yamaguchi, H. Nakamura, F. Gejyo, K. Nakakuki, Apolipoprotein E and antioxidants have different mechanisms of inhibiting Alzheimer's beta-amyloid fibril formation in vitro, Biochemistry 37 (1998) 17882–17889.
- [6] K. Ono, K. Hasegawa, Y. Yoshiike, A. Takashima, M. Yamada, H. Naiki, Nordihydroguaiaretic acid potently breaks down preformed Alzheimer's beta-amyloid fibrils in vitro, J. Neurochem. 81 (2002) 434–440.

- [7] D. Pratico, N. Delanty, Oxidative injury in diseases of the central nervous system: focus on Alzheimer's disease, Am. J. Med. 109 (2000) 577–585.
- [8] R. Subramaniam, T. Koppal, M. Green, S. Yatin, B. Jordan, J. Drake, D.A. Butterfield, The free radical antioxidant vitamin E protects cortical synaptosomal membranes from amyloid beta-peptide(25–35) toxicity but not from hydroxynonenal toxicity: relevance to the free radical hypothesis of Alzheimer's disease, Neurochem. Res. 23 (1998) 1403–1410.
- [9] Y. Goodman, M.R. Steiner, S.M. Steiner, M.P. Mattson, Nord-ihydroguaiaretic acid protects hippocampal neurons against amyloid beta-peptide toxicity, and attenuates free radical and calcium accumulation, Brain Res. 654 (1994) 171–176.
- [10] T. Kihara, S. Shimohama, H. Sawada, J. Kimura, T. Kume, H. Kochiyama, T. Maeda, A. Akaike, Nicotinic receptor stimulation protects neurons against beta-amyloid toxicity, Ann. Neurol. 42 (1997) 159–163.
- [11] K. Ono, Y. Yoshiike, A. Takashima, K. Hasegawa, H. Naiki, M. Yamada, Potent anti-amyloidogenic and fibril-destabilizing effects of polyphenols in vitro: implications for the prevention and therapeutics of Alzheimer's disease, J. Neurochem. 87 (2003) 172–181.
- [12] K. Ono, Y. Yoshiike, A. Takashima, K. Hasegawa, H. Naiki, M. Yamada, Vitamin A exhibits potent antiamyloidogenic and fibril-destabilizing effects in vitro, Exp. Neurol. 189 (2004) 380–392.
- [13] L. Ernster, G. Dallner, Biochemical, physiological and medical aspects of ubiquinone function, Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1271 (1995) 195–204
- [14] M. Soderberg, C. Edlund, I. Alafuzoff, K. Kristensson, G. Dallner, Lipid composition in different regions of the brain in Alzheimer's disease/senile dementia of Alzheimer's type, J. Neurochem. 59 (1992) 1646–1653.
- [15] F. de Bustos, J.A. Molina, F.J. Jimenez-Jimenez, A. Garcia-Redondo, C. Gomez-Escalonilla, J. Porta-Etessam, A. Berbel, M. Zurdo, B. Barcenilla, G. Parrilla, R. Enriquez-de-Salamanca, J. Arenas, Serum levels of coenzyme Q10 in patients with Alzheimer's disease, J. Neural. Transm. 107 (2000) 233–239.
- [16] M. Imagawa, S. Naruse, S. Tsuji, A. Fujioka, H. Yamaguchi, Coenzyme Q10, iron, and vitamin B6 in genetically confirmed Alzheimer's disease, Lancet 340 (1992) 671.
- [17] K. Hasegawa, I. Yamaguchi, S. Omata, F. Gejyo, H. Naiki, Interaction between A beta(1–42) and A beta(1–40) in Alzheimer's beta-amyloid fibril formation in vitro, Biochemistry 38 (1999) 15514–15521.
- [18] K. Ono, K. Hasegawa, M. Yamada, H. Naiki, Nicotine breaks down preformed Alzheimer's beta-amyloid fibrils in vitro, Biol. Psychiatry 52 (2002) 880–886.
- [19] H. Naiki, K. Nakakuki, First-order kinetic model of Alzheimer's beta-amyloid fibril extension in vitro, Lab. Invest. 74 (1996) 374– 382
- [20] M.M. Bradford, A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding, Anal. Biochem. 72 (1976) 248–254.
- [21] T. Tomiyama, A. Shoji, K. Kataoka, Y. Suwa, S. Asano, H. Kaneko, N. Endo, Inhibition of amyloid beta protein aggregation and neurotoxicity by rifampicin. Its possible function as a hydroxyl radical scavenger, J. Biol. Chem. 271 (1996) 6839–6844.
- [22] G. Forloni, L. Colombo, L. Girola, F. Tagliavini, M. Salmona, Anti-amyloidogenic activity of tetracyclines: studies in vitro, FEBS Lett. 487 (2001) 404–407.
- [23] R. Kisilevsky, L.J. Lemieux, P.E. Fraser, X. Kong, P.G. Hultin, W.A. Szarek, Arresting amyloidosis in vivo using small-molecule anionic sulphonates or sulphates: implications for Alzheimer's disease, Nat. Med. 1 (1995) 143–148.
- [24] M. Pappolla, P. Bozner, C. Soto, H. Shao, N.K. Robakis, M. Zagorski, B. Frangione, J. Ghiso, Inhibition of Alzheimer beta-fibrillogenesis by melatonin, J. Biol. Chem. 273 (1998) 7185–7188.

- [25] C. Soto, M.S. Kindy, M. Baumann, B. Frangione, Inhibition of Alzheimer's amyloidosis by peptides that prevent beta-sheet conformation, Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 226 (1996) 672–680
- [26] H. Zeng, Y. Zhang, L.-J. Peng, H. Shao, N.K. Menon, J. Yang, A.R. Salomon, R.P. Freidland, M.G. Zagorski, Nicotine and amyloid formation, Biol. Psychiatry 49 (2001) 248–257.
- [27] W. Linert, M.H. Bridge, M. Huber, K.B. Bjugstad, S. Grossman, G.W. Arendash, In vitro and in vivo studies investigating possible antioxidant actions of nicotine: relevance to Parkinson's and Alzheimer's diseases, Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1454 (1999) 143–152.
- [28] L. Tesoriere, M. Ciaccio, A. Bongiorno, A. Riccio, A.M. Pintaudi, M.A. Livrea, Antioxidant activity of all-trans-retinol in homogeneous solution and in phosphatidylcholine liposomes, Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 307 (1993) 217–223.