

# Seeding of A $\beta$ Fibril Formation Is Inhibited by All Three Isotypes of Apolipoprotein E

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**ABSTRACT:** Apolipoprotein E is immunochemically localized to amyloid plaque in Alzheimer's brains, and the allelic distribution of ApoE in individuals is associated with a disposition toward Alzheimer's disease. We show here that all three ApoE isotypes exhibit a strong and specific ability to inhibit both nucleation and seeding of fibril formation by the A $\beta$  peptide *in vitro*. A $\beta$ (1–40) depleted of aggregates requires long incubation times before the onset of fibril formation, but addition of very low levels of A $\beta$  fibrils to such reactions is sufficient to reduce or eliminate this lag time. ApoE added to such seeded reactions extends the lag time in a dose-dependent manner, so that higher levels of seeding require higher levels of ApoE to achieve a given delay time to reaction onset. This effect is observed with all three isotypes produced in *Escherichia coli*, as well as with plasma-derived ApoE and the N-terminal domain of ApoE3 produced in *E. coli*. In contrast, bovine serum albumin and the four-helix bundle protein interleukin-4 are poor inhibitors of seeding. ApoE3 can also inhibit fibril formation by A $\beta$ (1–42). The three full-length isotypes of ApoE produced in *E. coli* are equipotent at inhibition. It is therefore possible that the genetics of ApoE and AD may fundamentally depend on the ability of ApoE to inhibit seeding but that the trends in the genetics must be related to something other than the specific activities of the native ApoE isoforms used in these studies. The data show ApoE to be the first member of a new class of fibril formation inhibitor that acts by blocking the seeding of fibril growth.

Following initial reports that apolipoprotein E (ApoE)<sup>1</sup> is immunochemically located to amyloid plaques in brain tissue of Alzheimer's disease (AD) victims (Namba et al., 1991; Wisniewski & Frangione, 1992), a strong relationship was observed between ApoE isotype profile and susceptibility to early onset AD in humans (Corder et al., 1993). The genetic link between the ApoE4 allele and increased risk of AD, coupled with the association of ApoE with amyloid plaques, supports speculations that fibril formation by the peptide A $\beta$  plays a causative role in the development of AD (Selkoe, 1991; Price et al., 1992). Pathology studies further support a biochemical linkage between ApoE and fibril formation, in showing increased A $\beta$  amyloid loads in ApoE4 individuals with Alzheimer's disease (Ohm et al., 1995; Gomez et al., 1996), cerebral amyloid angiopathy (Greenberg et al., 1995), and inclusion body myositis (Garlepp et al., 1995).

Given the initial suggestions of an ApoE connection to amyloid plaques, a number of laboratories have investigated the interactions between ApoE and A $\beta$  *in vitro* (Strittmatter et al., 1993a,b; Wisniewski et al., 1993, 1994; LaDu et al., 1994, 1995; Ma et al., 1994; Sanan et al., 1994; Castano et al., 1995; Evans et al., 1995). Literature reports on this interaction are greatly inconsistent, however, with some labs reporting stimulation of fibril growth (Ma et al., 1994; Wisniewski et al., 1994) while others report inhibition (Evans et al., 1995). The disparate results may reflect differences

in experimental methods for managing and measuring fibril formation, or the source of materials used.

Amyloid formation by A $\beta$  has been shown to take place by a nucleated growth mechanism (Evans et al., 1995). When aggregate is absent, a nucleus<sup>2</sup> must be generated *in situ* in a process that requires relatively high peptide concentrations and significant time delays; when an aggregation seed is present—either due to contamination or due to seeding with exogenous aggregate—the nucleation phase of the reaction is obviated and the fibril extension phase is more quickly engaged (Evans et al., 1995). Using stirred reactions monitored by turbidity, Lansbury's group observed that addition of ApoE extends the time lag to onset of aggregation in an unseeded incubation of A $\beta$  (Evans et al., 1995). They interpret their results to suggest that ApoE acts by interfering with the formation of the nucleus.

In this paper, we extend these findings and report important controls that demonstrate a strong and selective ability of all three ApoE isoforms to inhibit both endogenous nucleation and exogenous seeding of A $\beta$  fibril growth.

<sup>2</sup> In this paper, we discuss aspects of the nucleated growth mechanism using terms according to the following definitions. We refer to peptides that have been freshly exposed to denaturing solvent conditions capable of removing peptide aggregates that can seed fibril formation as being 'disaggregated'. Fibril formation reactions consisting of disaggregated peptide and with no additions of peptide aggregates are 'unseeded'. In such a reaction, the 'nucleus' is the earliest identifiable peptide aggregate which is stable enough to resist dissociation and which therefore serves as the basis for fibril growth. Aggregates transferred into a solution of disaggregated peptide which are capable of initiating fibril growth are called 'seeds' and are characterized as being 'seeding-competent', and experiments involving the use of such seeds are referred to as 'seeded'. Fibril formation reactions conducted in unperturbed solutions are 'unstirred' to distinguish them from fibril formation under 'stirred' conditions.

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<sup>1</sup> Abbreviations: ApoE, apolipoprotein E; AD, Alzheimer's disease; HFIP, 1,1,1,3,3,3-hexafluoro-2-propanol; V<sub>L</sub>, immunoglobulin light chain variable domain; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**General Materials and Methods.** A $\beta$ (1–40) and A $\beta$ (1–42) were obtained from Bachem. Human mixed isotype ApoE was purchased from CalBiochem. Purified human ApoE isotypes 2, 3, and 4 were produced in *E. coli* by secretion into the periplasmic space, and the protein was purified by heparin–Sephacrose chromatography as described (Chan et al., 1996a). These proteins were isolated and purified as soluble proteins, without the use of denaturing agents, and appear to be well-behaved in aqueous solution. The production and purification of an N-terminal domain of ApoE3 consisting of amino acids 1–191 have been described (Chan et al., 1996a). Bovine serum albumin was purchased from Sigma. Murine interleukin-4 was obtained from M. Blackburn (SmithKline Beecham). Wild-type REI V<sub>L</sub> was prepared by secretion into the periplasm of *E. coli* and purified as described (Chan et al., 1996b). Hexafluoroisopropanol (HFIP) was purchased from Sigma.

**Preparation of Seed Stocks.** A batch of A $\beta$  fibrils was prepared for the purpose of seeding fibril formation reactions. Three milligrams of A $\beta$ (1–40) (Bachem; lot ZK-600) was solubilized in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) to a final A $\beta$  concentration of 1 mg/mL. This mixture was incubated at 37 °C and monitored for fibril content over time using Congo red analysis (Wood et al., 1996b). After 2 days, when the Congo red signal reached a maximum, plateau value, fibril formation was considered complete. [The time to maximum Congo red signal can vary, depending on a number of factors: manufacturer of the A $\beta$ , solvent used to solubilize the A $\beta$ , and the amount of preexisting fibrillar aggregates (Howlett et al., 1995) present.] After it was determined that fibrillization was complete, the mixture was vortexed and serially diluted into PBS to prepare stocks of different fibril concentrations, which were then aliquoted into individual Eppendorf tubes and stored at –80 °C. Aliquoting the seed stocks into individual tubes avoids repetitive freeze–thawing of stocks, which might be expected to change the quality of the fibrils.

We have no data on the molar concentration of fibril particles in the seed stocks. We assume, based on previous experience (Wood et al., 1996b), that 100% of the A $\beta$  in this fibrillization reaction was incorporated into fibrils. No attempt was made to fracture the fibrils by sonication or other means to increase seed potency, although this has been reported to be possible (Jarrett & Lansbury, 1992). Since the size and molar concentration of fibrils cannot be determined, we used weight concentrations, or molar equivalents of monomeric A $\beta$ , to characterize the seed stocks. To describe seeding levels of fibril formation reactions, we refer to the weight fraction of A $\beta$  in the added seed compared to A $\beta$  in the reaction.

**Fibril Formation Reaction and Detection.** For most experiments, A $\beta$  was disaggregated by HFIP treatment as described previously (Wood et al., 1996b). Dried peptide was freshly dissolved in PBS, pH 7.4, and incubated, with or without added seeds, at room temperature.

Fibril formation was monitored by quantifying the red shift observed for the binding of Congo red to fibrils, as described elsewhere (Wood et al., 1996b). It is not possible to use turbidity measurements to follow A $\beta$  fibril formation in unstirred reactions, since such reaction mixtures—which are

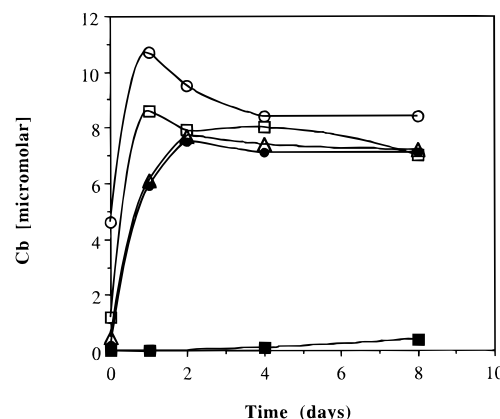


FIGURE 1: Fibril formation initiated with endogenous A $\beta$  aggregate. Fibril formation was quantified by monitoring the red shift in the Congo red spectrum upon binding to fibrils, and is expressed as C<sub>b</sub>, the concentration of Congo red bound (see Materials and Methods). Reactions were carried out with 1 mg/mL A $\beta$ (1–40) (Bachem, lot ZK-600) in PBS, pH 7.4 at 37 °C. One reaction was conducted with ZK-600 A $\beta$  directly from the vial, without any disaggregating HFIP pretreatment (○). The other reactions were with ZK600 material that had undergone disaggregation with HFIP (Materials and Methods), and to which was added at time zero either nothing (■) or varying amounts of aggregate-containing ZK600 A $\beta$  direct from the vial [333 μg/mL (□), 100 μg/mL (Δ), or 33 μg/mL (●)].

clearly fibrillar by EM and dye-binding criteria—are transparent both to the eye and to the spectrophotometer (Wood et al., 1996b).

## RESULTS

Contaminating A $\beta$  aggregate in commercial preparations of the peptide greatly influences the course of fibril formation reactions. Figure 1 shows that material suspended from the vial contains considerable aggregate, as detected by Congo red binding, and that such samples undergo rapid fibril formation reactions under unstirred conditions at room temperature. Exhaustive disaggregation by HFIP treatment eliminates the Congo red signal at time zero and also eliminates fibril formation for up to 8 days. When small amounts of freshly dissolved, aggregate-rich, A $\beta$ (1–40) are added to a reaction set up with disaggregated A $\beta$ (1–40), rapid fibril formation is restored. Thus, the aggregate present in the vial from the manufacturer is capable of seeding fibril formation reactions, consistent with its fibril-like appearance of contaminating aggregates in electron micrographs of fresh commercial peptide (Howlett et al., 1995).

Aggregation seeds not only can be obtained directly from manufacturer's lot of A $\beta$  but also can be generated from *in vitro* fibril formation reactions. Addition of small amounts of such previously generated A $\beta$ (1–40) fibrils to reactions containing disaggregated A $\beta$  also stimulates initiation of fibril formation, with the time to onset of aggregation reduced in a dose-dependent manner (Figure 2A). The seeding efficiency of particular dilutions of such fibril reactions is highly reproducible (Figure 2B).

We have found the fundamental activity of apolipoprotein E in its A $\beta$  interactions *in vitro* is to retard fibril growth by inhibiting seeding. In agreement with previously published results (Evans et al., 1995), small amounts of ApoE3 added to unseeded incubations of disaggregated A $\beta$ (1–40) extend the time lag to onset of aggregation by at least 3 days (Figure 3). In a significant extension of previously published results,

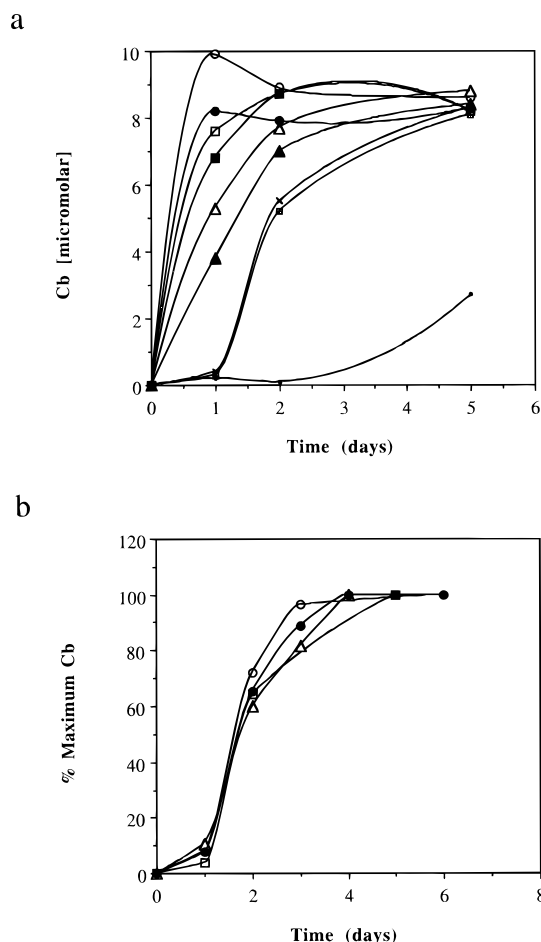


FIGURE 2: Fibril formation with A $\beta$ (1–40) seeded with previously grown fibrils. Fibrils were grown as described under Materials and Methods. A $\beta$  was treated with HFIP and dissolved in PBS to 250  $\mu$ M, and then incubated at 37  $^{\circ}$ C. (a) Unseeded ( $\bullet$ ) or seeded with 25  $\mu$ M ( $\circ$ ), 5  $\mu$ M ( $\bullet$ ), 2.5  $\mu$ M ( $\square$ ), 1.0  $\mu$ M ( $\blacksquare$ ), 0.5  $\mu$ M ( $\triangle$ ), 0.25  $\mu$ M ( $\blacktriangle$ ), 0.1  $\mu$ M ( $\times$ ), or 0.05  $\mu$ M (open square with plus sign) fibril seed stock. (b) Reproducibility of seeding of 250  $\mu$ M disaggregated A $\beta$  and 0.05  $\mu$ M fibril on 3 different days ( $\circ$ ,  $\triangle$ , and  $\square$ ) and their average ( $\bullet$ ).

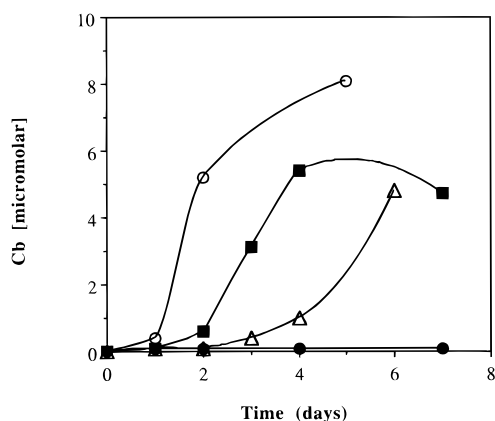


FIGURE 3: Inhibition of seeded and unseeded A $\beta$  fibril formation by ApoE3. For unseeded reactions, A $\beta$ (1–40) was treated with HFIP, then dissolved in PBS at 250  $\mu$ M, and incubated alone ( $\triangle$ ) or with 200 nM ApoE3 ( $\bullet$ ). For seeded reactions, fibrillar A $\beta$ (1–40) (Materials and Methods) was added to 250  $\mu$ M HFIP-treated A $\beta$ (1–40) to give 0.02 wt % of the total A $\beta$  (i.e., aggregated A $\beta$  was at 0.05  $\mu$ M), and the mixture was incubated alone ( $\circ$ ) or with 30 mM ApoE3 ( $\blacksquare$ ).

we also found that small amounts of ApoE3 are capable of extending the time to onset of aggregation in fibril

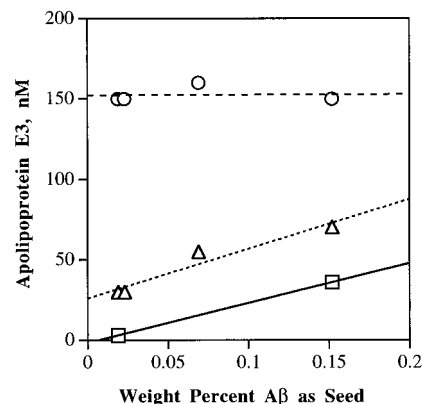


FIGURE 4: Interplay between seeding levels and ApoE3 levels in inhibition of fibril initiation. Reactions contained 58  $\mu$ M HFIP-treated A $\beta$ (1–40) in PBS at 37  $^{\circ}$ C. Seeding levels are expressed as the weight percent of total A $\beta$  in the reaction which had been supplied as preformed fibril. ApoE3 concentration is of the tetramer. Maximum ApoE3 concentration which produces no delay of onset of aggregation at various seeding levels ( $\square$ ). Concentration of ApoE3 which produces a 1 day delay of onset of aggregation ( $\triangle$ ). Minimum concentration of ApoE3 which produces a delay in onset of aggregation of 4 days or more ( $\circ$ ).

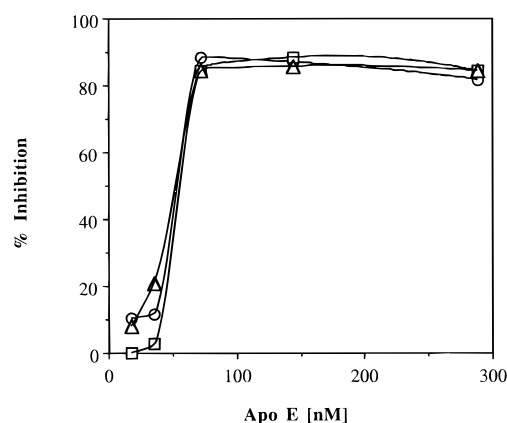


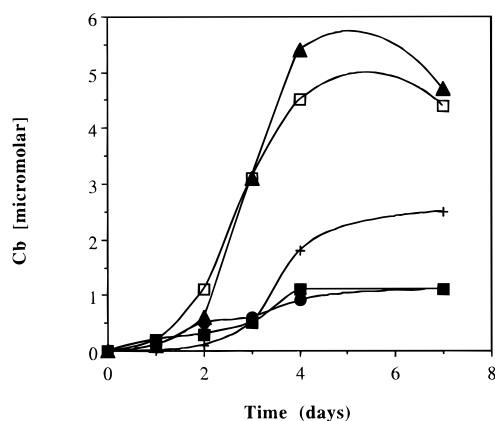
FIGURE 5: Inhibitory activities of ApoE isotypes. A $\beta$ (1–40) was treated with HFIP, and then incubated in PBS at 250  $\mu$ M at 37  $^{\circ}$ C with 0.02% fibrillar A $\beta$ (1–40) as seed and varying amounts of apolipoprotein E, subtype E2( $\circ$ ), E3( $\square$ ), or E4( $\triangle$ ). After 1 day, the Congo red signal of ApoE-containing reactions was compared to an ApoE-minus control and the amount of fibril formation suppressed in the ApoE-containing reactions expressed as percent inhibition.

formation reactions seeded by the addition of preformed fibrils (Figure 3).

The amount of ApoE required to produce a given effect on the time course of a seeded fibril formation reaction depends on the seeding level. Figure 4 shows that as one increases the weight percent of aggregated A $\beta$ (1–40) added as seed to a fibril formation reaction, the amount of ApoE3 required to produce a 1 day lag in onset of aggregation also increases. In addition, the maximum amount of ApoE3 that can be added without producing an observed effect also increases as seeding dose increases. However, ApoE3 levels of 150 nM seem capable of fully shutting down fibril formation regardless of the seeding dose—at least in the range of seeding levels explored in these experiments.

The three isoforms of human ApoE produced in *E. coli* are equipotent in their abilities to inhibit seeding of A $\beta$ (1–40) fibril formation reactions. Figure 5 shows that, in fibril formation reactions using 250  $\mu$ M A $\beta$ (1–40), and seeded with 0.02 wt % aggregated A $\beta$ (1–40), equivalent concentra-

a



b

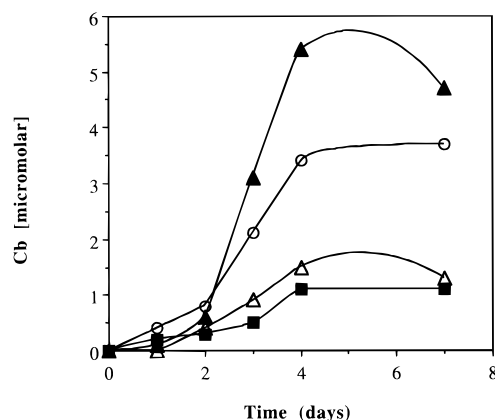


FIGURE 6: Influence of various forms of ApoE on fibril formation monitored by Congo red binding. Reactions (PBS, 37 °C) contained 58  $\mu$ M A $\beta$ (1–40) and 0.02 wt % A $\beta$  fibril as seed, conditions which consistently produce a 1-day time lag (Figures 2 and 3). (a) Effect of source of ApoE. Tested were full-length *E. coli* ApoE3 ( $\blacktriangle$ , 30 nM;  $\blacksquare$ , 150 nM), plasma-derived full-length mixed subtype ApoE ( $\square$ , 70 nM), and delipidated (see Materials and Methods and Results) *E. coli*-produced, full-length ApoE3 ( $\bullet$ , 150 nM). Also shown is a nonseeded control (+). (b) Effect of truncation of ApoE. Tested were full-length *E. coli* ApoE3 ( $\blacktriangle$ , 30 nM;  $\blacksquare$ , 150 nM) and *E. coli*-produced N-terminal domain of ApoE3 ( $\circ$ , 600 nM;  $\triangle$ , 3  $\mu$ M).

tions of the three isoforms are required to produce equivalent levels of inhibition of seeding.

The activity of ApoE isoforms observed here does not seem to be influenced by the fact that it was produced in *E. coli*. Mixed isotype ApoE isolated from human plasma exhibits similar inhibitory activity (Figure 6a). The fact that this *E. coli* material has not been exposed to the delipidation protocol normally carried out in extractions of blood-derived ApoE (Rall et al., 1986) also does not appear to be biasing our results: a mock-delipidation carried out on the *E. coli* ApoE3 leaves its inhibitory activity unchanged (Figure 6a). The monomeric, N-terminal domain of ApoE has been previously reported to be capable of extending the time lag to onset of aggregation in an unseeded fibril formation reaction (Evans et al., 1995), and we show here that the domain produced in *E. coli* can also inhibit seeded reactions (Figure 6b).

The seeding phenomenon and the inhibitory activity of ApoE are also observed in reactions of the more hydrophobic, more aggregation-prone 1–42 version of A $\beta$ . Figure 7 shows that the disaggregation protocol generates a peptide

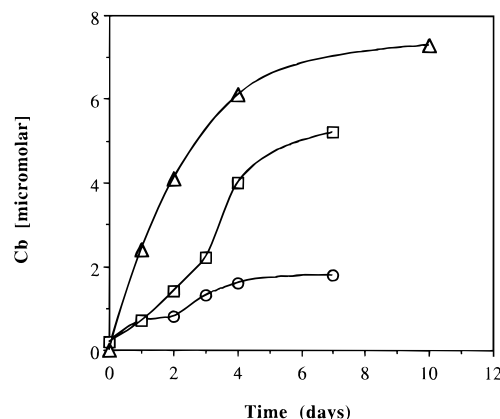


FIGURE 7: Effect of ApoE3 on seeding on A $\beta$ (1–42) fibril formation by A $\beta$ (1–42) fibrils. Seed fibrils and HFIP-disaggregated peptide was obtained as described under Materials and Methods. The reactions contained 55  $\mu$ M A $\beta$  in PBS at 37 °C. Unseeded disaggregated A $\beta$ (1–42) alone ( $\square$ ) or with seed ( $\triangle$ , 1.0 wt %) or seed plus ApoE3 ( $\circ$ , 1.0 wt % A $\beta$  fibril plus 300 nM ApoE3).

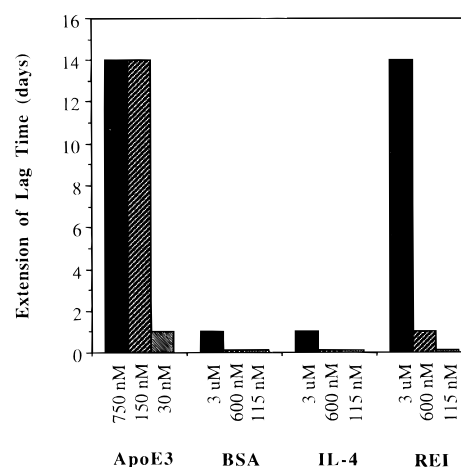


FIGURE 8: Ability of other proteins to delay onset of aggregation seeded by A $\beta$  fibrils. Fibril formation reactions contained 58  $\mu$ M HFIP-treated A $\beta$ (1–40) and 0.02% of the total weight of A $\beta$  in the reaction volume as preformed fibril. Reactions were monitored for up to 2 weeks by the Congo red assay, and reactions were considered to have initiated when the C<sub>b</sub> surpassed 20% of the value reached by a noninhibited control after 2 days. The number of days transpired to reach this stage of the reaction were recorded and ultimately compared to the time to onset of aggregation of a seeded, noninhibited control.

preparation that undergoes a 1–2 day lag before reaching a maximal aggregation rate, and that seeding with previously prepared A $\beta$ (1–42) fibrils abrogates that lag time. Addition of ApoE3 to the seeded reaction delays onset of aggregation by at least 7 days.

The potent activity of ApoE isoforms in inhibiting seeding of fibril formation is a property not found in most other proteins. To produce a 1 day delay in onset of aggregation from a seeded reaction with A $\beta$ (1–40) requires a 100-fold higher molar concentration of bovine serum albumin or interleukin-4 compared to the amount of ApoE required (Figure 8). The only control protein tested capable of generating a delay in onset of aggregation of greater than 1 day, the immunoglobulin V<sub>L</sub> domain REI, requires a molar concentration 20-fold higher than ApoE3 to produce an equivalent effect (Figure 8). Other apolipoproteins were not tested, however.

## DISCUSSION

Devising reproducible and physiologically relevant conditions for the formation and detection of amyloid fibrils is a challenge in the *in vitro* study of any amyloid system. For example, the contamination of batches of A $\beta$  with seeding-competent (Figure 1) A $\beta$  aggregate (Howlett et al., 1995) clearly presents problems in the study of a nucleated growth system such as fibril formation. As is clear from the results presented here, the inhibitory effect of ApoE can easily be masked if the level of contaminating aggregate is high enough to overwhelm the ApoE (Figure 4). In addition, we have shown elsewhere that turbidity measurements are much more sensitive to nonfibrillar, pH 5.8, A $\beta$  aggregates than to the fibrils produced in unstirred aggregation reactions at neutral pH, while Congo red is more sensitive to *bona fide* fibrils (Wood et al., 1996b). Differences in the aggregation state of A $\beta$  starting material and in methods for monitoring fibril growth may account for some of the differences between our results and previously published studies of the interactions of ApoE and A $\beta$ .

When A $\beta$ (1–40) is exhaustively disaggregated, solutions must be incubated 4 days or more before significant fibril formation begins (Figures 1–3). Amounts of A $\beta$  fibrils equivalent in weight to as little as 0.01% of the total A $\beta$  in the reaction can induce a much more rapid fibril formation (Figure 2). Lansbury's group previously reported the ability of plasma-derived ApoE to extend the time lag to onset of aggregation of an unseeded fibril formation reaction (Evans et al., 1995), and the work reported here for *E. coli*-produced ApoE confirms this result (Figure 3). Significantly, we also show here that ApoE can inhibit the seeding of fibril growth by exogenous A $\beta$  fibrils for both the 1–40 (Figure 3) and 1–42 (Figure 7) versions of A $\beta$ . If this inhibition is based on a direct molecular interaction between ApoE and fibril seeds, it might be expected that the inhibition would be ApoE dose-dependent, and that the required dose for different inhibitory effects would depend on the amount of fibril added as seed. Both effects are observed (Figure 4).

Elsewhere we have reported that all three isoforms of ApoE bind equally well to A $\beta$  in the solution phase, and that this binding proceeds through three distinct phases (Chan et al., 1996a). Within minutes of mixing 20  $\mu$ M ApoE with 20  $\mu$ M A $\beta$ , one observes formation of a complex of the ApoE tetramer with about four molecules of A $\beta$ . On further incubation, soluble, high molecular weight complexes are formed which contain about 100 molecules of A $\beta$  per ApoE tetramer. On still further incubation, especially at very high A $\beta$  concentrations, coprecipitates are formed exhibiting about the same A $\beta$ :ApoE ratios as the soluble, high molecular weight aggregates. These high molecular weight aggregates bind thioflavin T as effectively as A $\beta$  fibrils, but are relatively poor seeds of A $\beta$  fibril formation (W. Chan, S. J. Wood, and R. Wetzel, unpublished observations). Thus, at relatively high ApoE levels, aggregates are observed, but these are ApoE-A $\beta$  co-aggregates that are functionally different from mono-component A $\beta$  fibrils. In contrast, at intermediate ApoE concentrations such as those explored in this paper, inhibition of A $\beta$  fibril formation is observed.

The results suggest that, as seeding-competent A $\beta$  aggregates form in reaction mixtures containing ApoE, the aggregates bind to ApoE in such a way that fibril extension is precluded. This phenomenon is identical to the ability of

ApoE to extend the time delay to onset of aggregation in an unseeded reaction, as reported here and by the Lansbury group (Evans et al., 1995). Our additional observations, that ApoE inhibits the ability of added fibrils to act as seeds for fibril formation, suggest that ApoE can bind at or near the extension sites of an amyloid fibril, and that these sites may be essentially identical to the binding site on the emerging nucleus in an unseeded reaction.

It might be argued that the disparate results reported previously on the effect of ApoE isoforms on A $\beta$  fibril formation could be attributable to the source of the ApoE, or the chemical form of the A $\beta$ , used in particular experiments. The controls reported here, however, suggest that these factors do not influence the nature of our results.

A large and growing number of studies now have confirmed a strong association between the 4 allele of ApoE and increased risk of AD, with the predominant allele E3 being relatively neutral and E2 perhaps somewhat protective (Katzman, 1994). There are a number of possible explanations for our finding that the specific activities of the ApoE isoforms in inhibiting fibril formation do not correlate with these genetic trends. As suggested previously (Evans et al., 1995), the correlation of risk with Cys content of the three ApoE isoforms suggests the possibility that disulfide-linked aggregates of ApoE (Weisgraber & Shinto, 1991) may be the relevant molecules *in vivo*. Another attractive possibility is that ApoE4 levels might be lower than E3 and E2 levels in the brain—as seems to be the case in the peripheral circulation (Gregg et al., 1986); examination of ApoE levels in cerebrospinal fluid does not support this, however (Lehtimäki et al., 1995).

It is also possible that binding to lipoprotein particles might modulate the ability of ApoE to interact effectively with A $\beta$  aggregates, as has been shown for other measures of the ApoE–A $\beta$  interaction (LaDu et al., 1995). Although there is no evidence that ApoE exists in the plasma as a free protein unassociated with lipid, the state of ApoE in the brain, especially when astrocytes produce large amounts in response to nerve injury (Ignatius et al., 1986), is unclear.

Compared to other control proteins investigated, REI V<sub>L</sub> is a relatively potent inhibitor of seeding of A $\beta$  fibril formation. This is intriguing given that immunoglobulin light chain variable domains serve as the basis for light chain amyloidosis (Buxbaum, 1992). Although wild-type REI V<sub>L</sub> itself does not seem to be capable of aggregate formation *in vitro*, the antiparallel  $\beta$ -sheet structure of this domain, plus the ability of this class of proteins to sometimes adopt a fibril structure, suggests the possibility that some proteins might be capable of inhibiting fibril extension by incorporating into a growing fibril while at the same time restricting further extension. Despite their high  $\alpha$ -helical structure, other apolipoproteins like serum amyloid A and apolipoprotein A1 can also form amyloid fibrils (Pepys, 1988); this suggests that ApoE might be able to inhibit A $\beta$  fibril extension in a manner analogous to the model proposed for REI, that is, to incorporate into the growing fibril but prevent further extension. Other mechanisms are possible, however. For example, an attractive possibility is that ApoE binds to the growing face of the fibril in a manner analogous to the model for the binding of apolipoproteins to lipoprotein particles (Weisgraber, 1994)—by unbundling of the four-helix bundle and subsequent association of the isolated amphipathic helices with the hydrophobic fibril growth face.

If the accumulations of A $\beta$  fibrils and plaques plays a key role in promoting Alzheimer's disease, suppression of amyloid formation may be a viable approach to AD therapeutics (Wetzel, 1996). One type of inhibitor of A $\beta$  fibril formation *in vitro* seems to function by titrating A $\beta$  molecules in solution, blocking their ability to form fibrils (Wood et al., 1996a); effective use of such an inhibitor would therefore require deployment of inhibitor in amounts equal in molar terms to the levels of solution phase A $\beta$  found at deposition sites. In contrast, ApoE inhibition of fibril formation requires only enough ApoE to block the growth sites on the preexisting fibrils or seeds in the system. This constitutes another class of fibril formation inhibitor which might be effective at lower concentrations compared to the "titration" type of inhibitor. Our recognition that ApoE can inhibit fibril extension suggests that inhibitory molecules which function in a similar way might be effective therapeutics, even on patients with established amyloid plaques.

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