Three Histidine Residues of Amyloid- β Peptide Control the Redox Activity of Copper and Iron

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ABSTRACT: Zinc, iron and copper are concentrated in senile plaques of Alzheimer disease. Copper and iron catalyze the Fenton—Haber—Weiss reaction, which likely contributes to oxidative stress in neuronal cells. In this study, we found that ascorbate oxidase activity and the intensity of ascorbate radicals measured using ESR spectroscopy, generated by free Cu(II), was decreased in the presence of amyloid- β (A β), the major component of senile plaques. Specifically, the ascorbate oxidase activity was strongly inhibited (85% decrease) in the presence of A β 1–16 or A β 1–42, whereas it was only slightly inhibited in the presence of A β 1–12 or A β 25–35 (<20% inhibition). Ascorbate-dependent hydroxyl radical generation by free Cu(II) decreased in the presence of A β 1 in the identical order of A β 1–42, A β 1–16 > A β 1–12 and was abolished in the presence of 2-fold molar excess glycylhystidyllysine (GHK). Ascorbate oxidase activity and ascorbate-dependent hydroxyl radical generation by free Fe(III) were inhibited by A β 1–42, A β 1–16, and A β 1–12. Although Cu(II)–A β shows a significant SOD-like activity, the rate constant for the reaction of superoxide with Cu(II)–A β was much slower than that with SOD. Overall, our results suggest that His6, His13, and His14 residues of A β 1–42 control the redox activity of transition metals present in senile plaques.

The hallmark lesion of Alzheimer disease (AD)¹ is the senile plaque, which mainly consists of amyloid- β (A β), a peptide of 40–42 amino acids in length. A β , whether extracellular as senile plaques or intracellular as oligomeric A β , is thought to subsequently cause the formation of neurofibrillary tangles and neuronal death. Although many hypotheses have been postulated concerning the pathogenesis of AD, the exact mechanism remains to be solved (1, 2). Along with A β , one of the earliest events in AD is oxidative damage to vulnerable neurons (3–6), marked by 8-OHG (7), hydroxynonenal (8), nitrotyrosine (9), and myeloperoxidase.

Recent progress has shown that $A\beta$ contributes to the initiation and progression of AD. Yankner et al. indicate that the trophic and toxic responses of neurons to $A\beta1-40$

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depend on the stage of neuronal differentiation and the concentration of peptides (10). Toxicity of $A\beta$ to neuronal cells is ascribed to the nature of $A\beta$ (11, 12). $A\beta1-42$ forms aggregates spontaneously through the formation of dimer and oligomers. Recent findings indicate that a dimer of $A\beta1-42$ interacts with the terminal oxidase of mitochondria, which causes the dysfunction of mitochondria leading to the generation of oxygen radicals (13). It has been demonstrated that $A\beta1-42$ binds equimolar copper with very high affinity (14) and the resulting $Cu(I)-A\beta$ produces H_2O_2 through the reaction of $Cu(I)-A\beta$ complex with O_2 (15-17). The resulting H_2O_2 contributes to the neurotoxicity of the peptides in primary neuronal cultures. The source of the reducing equivalents for the conversion of $Cu(II)-A\beta$ to $Cu(I)-A\beta$ is still uncertain.

A number of in vivo studies have shown that metal ions such as copper, iron, and zinc can cause oxidative damage to neuronal cells (18-20). These observations are significant in view of the fact that senile plaques in AD contain elevated concentrations of copper, iron, and zinc (19). Surprisingly, although Cu(II) $-A\beta$ is more toxic to cultured neurons than $A\beta$ alone, these complexes are less toxic than copper alone (21). Consistent with this, $A\beta$ has been reported to prevent the copper-induced lipid peroxidation of low-density lipoproteins (22), and iron-induced cell death is also reduced in the presence of $A\beta1-42$ (23). On the other hand, specific interaction of $A\beta1-42$ with oxidatively damaged membranes

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¹ Abbreviations: A β , amyloid- β peptide; AD, Alzheimer disease; SOD, superoxide dismutase; HRP, horseradish peroxidase; GHK, glycylhystidyllysine; ESR, electron spin resonance; PBN, *N-tert*-butyl-α-phenylnitrone; DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide; MCLA, 2-methyl-6-(4-methoxyphenyl)-3,7-dihydroimidazo[1,2-α]pyrazin-3-one; ABTS, 2,2'-azinobis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid).

is suggested to cause $A\beta 1-42$ to form fibrils (24) and lead to neurotoxicity. Given these conflicting ideas, it is perhaps not surprising that it is unclear whether $A\beta 1-42$ is a prooxidant or an antioxidant (25, 26).

In this report, we measured redox activity of Cu(II) bound to $A\beta$ ($A\beta 1-12$, 1-16, 1-28, 1-40, 1-42, 25-35) compared with free Cu(II). Using ascorbate oxidation as a sensitive indicator of redox activity, we found a marked reduction of ascorbate oxidation by Cu(II) or Fe(III) in the presence of $A\beta 1-40$ or $A\beta 1-42$.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials. A β 1-16, A β 1-28, A β 25-35, A β 1-40, and A β 1-42 were purchased from the Peptide Institute Inc. (Minoh-shi, Osaka). A β 1-12 was obtained from Biosource (Camarillo, CA). All peptides were analyzed for purity using MALDI-MS before use. Xanthine oxidase from buttermilk, SOD from bovine erythrocytes, horseradish peroxidase (HRP), glycylhystidyllysine (GHK), and *N-tert*-butyl-α-phenylnitrone (PBN) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). 2-Methyl-6-(4-methoxyphenyl)-3,7-dihydroimidazo[1,2-α]pyrazin-3-one hydrochloride (MCLA) and 2,2'-azinobis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid) diammonium salt (ABTS) were obtained from Tokyo Kasei Kogyo Co. and Nacalai Tesque, respectively. Other reagents used were of analytical grade. Reactions were carried out at 25 °C.

Effects of $A\beta$ on the Ascorbate Oxidation by Copper or Iron. Oxidation of ascorbate was followed optically at 265 nm with a Shimadzu MPS 2000 spectrometer (Kyoto). Reaction mixture contained 100 μ M ascorbic acid, 20 μ M CuCl₂ or Fe(NO₃)₃, and 50 μ M A β in 20 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.0). Oxidation of ascorbate was started by the addition of ascorbate to a solution containing CuCl₂ or Fe(NO₃)₃ and A β .

Effects of $A\beta$ on the Formation of Ascorbate Radicals by Copper or Iron. The formation of ascorbate radicals by copper or iron was observed with a JEOL JES-TE300 ESR spectrometer (Tokyo) with 100 kHz modulation. Reaction mixtures in the flat cell contained 1 mM ascorbic acid, 20 μ M CuCl₂ or Fe(NO₃)₃, and 50 μ M A β in 10 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.0). Reactions were started by the addition of ascorbic acid. Relative intensity of ascorbate radicals in the steady state has compared with the intensity of the peak of doublet at higher magnetic field (Figure 3). Instrumental conditions were as follows: gain, 250; power, 10 mW; modulation amplitude, 0.1 mT; time constant, 0.1 s; scan rate, 5 mT min⁻¹.

Determination of H_2O_2 Concentrations. A solution containing 100 μM ascorbic acid and 20 μM CuCl₂ in the absence or presence of 50 μM A β in 10 mM HEPES (pH 7.0) was incubated for 1 h and then subjected to the ABTS/HRP system. After incubation, the solution was mixed with ABTS (100 μM) and 40 nM HRP. The concentration of H_2O_2 was calculated from the increase of absorbance at 414 nm using molar absorption coefficient $\epsilon = 36\,000$ cm⁻¹ at 414 nm (27).

Effect of Copper upon the Intrinsic Fluorescence of $A\beta$. Cu²⁺-dependent quenching of the fluorescence assigned to Tyr residue of $A\beta$ and the restoration by the addition of chelators has been reported (28). The fluorescence spectra

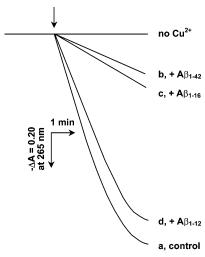


FIGURE 1: Ascorbate oxidation by copper in the absence or presence of A β . Concentrations were 100 μ M ascorbic acid, 20 μ M CuCl₂, and 50 μ M A β in 20 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.0). Reactions were carried out in the absence (a, control) or presence of A β 1–42 (b), A β 1–16 (c), and A β 1–12 (d).

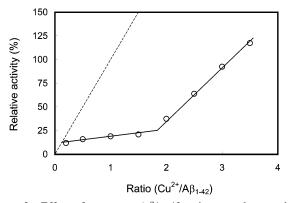


FIGURE 2: Effect of copper to $A\beta1-42$ ratio upon the ascorbate oxidation of copper. Concentrations were 100 μ M ascorbic acid, 21 μ M $A\beta1-42$, and various concentrations of $CuCl_2$ in 20 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.0). Reactions were started by the addition of ascorbic acid to a solution that contained copper and $A\beta1-42$ that had been incubated for 10 min; 100% denotes the ascorbate oxidase activity in the absence of $A\beta1-42$ (dotted line).

(excitation at 280 nm) of 10 μ M Tyr or A β were obtained in the absence or presence of varied concentrations of CuCl₂ with an RF-5300PC spectrofluorometer. Each point represents the mean \pm SD of three experiments.

Effects of $A\beta$ on the Formation of Hydroxyl Radicals by Copper or Iron in the Presence of Ascorbic Acid and Hydrogen Peroxide. A reaction mixture comprised of 1 mM ascorbic acid, 1 mM H_2O_2 , 20 μ M $CuCl_2$ or $Fe(NO_3)_3$, and 50 μ M $A\beta$ in 25 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) was freshly prepared. Hydroxyl radicals produced in the solution were detected with an ESR double-trapping method using 0.1 M PBN and 1 M DMSO (29). Relative intensity of the spin-adduct was compared with the intensity of the peak of the sextet at the highest magnetic field. Instrumental conditions were as follows: gain, 10; power, 5.0 mW; modulation amplitude, 0.1 mT; time constant, 0.3 s; scan rate, 2.5 mT min⁻¹.

Estimation of Rate Constant for the Reaction of Cu(II)— $A\beta$ with Superoxide. Reaction mixtures containing 100 μ M xanthine, 40 nM xanthine oxidase, 4.9 μ M MCLA, 21 μ M $A\beta$, and various concentrations of CuCl₂ in 20 mM HEPES

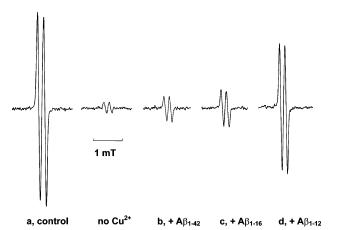


FIGURE 3: Effect of $A\beta$ upon the formation of ascorbate radicals by copper. Concentrations were 1.0 mM ascorbic acid, 20 μ M CuCl₂, and 50 μ M $A\beta$ in 20 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.0). Reactions were carried out in the absence (a, control) or presence of $A\beta$ 1–42 (b), $A\beta$ 1–16 (c), or $A\beta$ 1–12 (d). ESR spectra were obtained at 2 min after reactions had been started. Instrumental conditions are described in Materials and Methods.

(pH 7.0) were freshly prepared. The velocity of superoxide generation by the xanthine oxidase system was $2.1 \,\mu\text{M min}^{-1}$ (30). Chemiluminescence of MCLA was observed with an Aloka BLR-301 luminescence reader. The rate constant for the reaction of Cu(II) $-A\beta$ with superoxide is calculated kinetically based on the rate constant for the reaction of MCLA with superoxide (31).

RESULTS

Ascorbate oxidation was followed by the decrease of absorbance at 265 nm and initiated by the addition of copper (Figure 1). The 100 μ M ascorbate was exhausted in 4 min by $20 \,\mu\mathrm{M}$ Cu(II) under aerobic conditions. When the reaction was carried out both in the presence of copper and $A\beta$, the velocity of ascorbate oxidation decreased. When a molar ratio of A β to copper of 2.5 was used, the rank order of inhibitory effect $(A\beta 1-42, A\beta 1-40, A\beta 1-28, A\beta 1-16 > A\beta 25-$ 35, $A\beta 1-12$) was observed for ascorbate oxidation. Complete inhibition of ascorbate oxidation by copper was observed when a 2-fold molar excess of GHK over copper was added to the solution. Marked difference in the ascorbate oxidation was observed for $Cu(II)-A\beta 1-12$ and Cu(II)- $A\beta 1-16$. Ascorbate oxidation was performed using various molecular ratios of Cu(II) to $A\beta 1-42$ (Figure 2). These results indicate that $A\beta 1-42$ is able to inhibit the redox activity of 2 mol of Cu(II). Above 2 mol of Cu(II) to $A\beta 1$ 42, ascorbate oxidation increased with increasing concentration of Cu(II). The slope of the activity to Cu(II) concentration in the presence of $A\beta 1-42$ was slightly decreased compared with that in the absence of $A\beta 1-42$ (dotted line), which indicates that $A\beta 1-42$ potentially interacts with more than 2 mol of Cu(II).

One-electron oxidation of ascorbate by free Cu(II) and Cu-(II)— $A\beta$ was confirmed by ESR spectroscopy. Properties of ascorbate radicals are well documented (32). Relation of the concentration of ascorbate radicals ([Asc*]_s) in the steady state and initial velocities (Vi) in the oxidation of ascorbate by free Cu(II) and Cu(II)— $A\beta$ is expressed as follows. Ascorbate radicals decay only through dismutation reaction with a dismutation constant (Kd).

$$Vi = Kd[Asc^{\bullet}]_s^2$$

Steady-state concentration of ascorbate radicals decreased when the reactions were carried out in the presence of A β 1-42 or $A\beta 1-16$, whereas the intensity was reduced by 30% in the presence of $A\beta 1-12$ (Figure 3). It has been shown that transition metals, such as copper or iron, catalyze the Fenton-Haber-Weiss reaction in the presence of reductants and oxygen (33). Reduced copper reacts with oxygen to form H₂O₂ through the intermediate, 2Cu(I) complex and O₂ complex formation. The resulting H₂O₂ reacts with the Cu-(I) complex, generating hydroxyl radicals. Hydroxyl radicals rapidly react with DMSO to form DMSO radicals. In this reaction, hydroxyl radicals are detected as the PBN-CH₂-SOCH₃ adduct (Figure 4). The results are compatible with the observation that hydroxyl radical generation by Cu(II) was markedly inhibited by the coexistence of Cu(II) and $A\beta 1-42$ or $A\beta 1-16$ (Figures 1 and 3). With a 0.5 molecular ratio of copper to $A\beta 1-42$, there is no free Cu(II) (14). Figure 4b indicates that $Cu(II)-A\beta 1-42$ produces a significant amount of hydroxyl radicals in the presence of reductants.

An effect of Cu(II) concentration upon Tyr fluorescence of $A\beta$ was observed. The intensity of fluorescence decreased with increasing concentration of Cu(II) (Figure 5A), and the quenching of fluorescence was saturated at 2 mol of Cu(II) to $A\beta$. The quenched fluorescence with 0.3 mol of Cu(II) to $A\beta 1-12$, $A\beta 1-16$, and $A\beta 1-28$ was completely abrogated by the addition of 3-fold molar excess of GHK to $A\beta$. On the other hand, the reduced intensity of Cu(II) $-A\beta 1-42$ was unchanged by this 3-fold molar excess of GHK (Figure 5B). Bound copper to $A\beta 1-12$, $A\beta 1-16$, or $A\beta 1-28$ was removed by 3-fold molar excess of GHK to $A\beta$.

Histidine residues are ligated to Cu(II) in Cu,Zn–SOD. Because the reduction potentials ($E_{\rm m,7}$) for O₂/O₂•- and O₂•-/ H₂O₂ couple are -160 and 900 mV, respectively, the reduction potential of Cu(II) complexes, which show SOD-like activity, must lie between them (34). Huang et al. reported that the reduction potential for the Cu(II)–A β 1-42/Cu(I)–A β 1-42 couple is estimated to be +500 to +590 mV, a value much higher than that (-80 mV) for the Cu(II)/Cu(I) couple in phosphate (16). Rate constants for the reaction of superoxide with Cu(II) A β are shown in Figure 6 and summarized in Table 1. The rate constant for the reaction of superoxide with Cu(II)–A β 1-12 is the highest, being approximately 10^4 times slower than that with SOD (35).

Since the concentration of iron in the senile plaques is higher than copper (19), ascorbate oxidation by Fe(III) was compared with that by Cu(II). At the same concentration of Fe(III) (20 μ M), the velocity of ascorbate oxidation was 10% of that by Cu(II) (Table 2). Comparable to Cu(II), ascorbate oxidase activity and ascorbate-dependent hydroxyl radical generation by free Fe(III) were inhibited by A β 1-42, A β 1-16, and A β 1-12 (Figure 7, parts A and B).

DISCUSSION

One-electron oxidation of ascorbate by free Cu(II) and Cu-(II) $-A\beta$ has been confirmed by the formation of ascorbate radicals in the steady state (Figure 3). Kinetics of the reaction of Cu(I) complex with oxygen or H_2O_2 have been reported

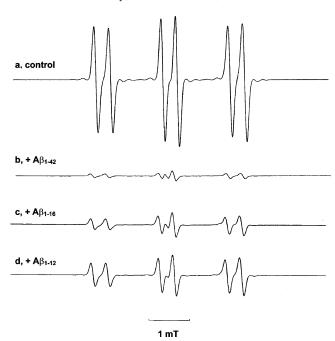


FIGURE 4: Effect of $A\beta$ upon the formation of hydroxyl radicals by copper. Concentrations were 1.0 mM ascorbic acid, 1.0 mM H_2O_2 , 20 μ M CuCl₂, 0.10 M PBN, 1.0 M DMSO, and 50 μ M $A\beta$ in 25 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.0). Reactions were carried out in the absence (a, control) or presence of $A\beta1-42$ (b), $A\beta1-16$ (c), and $A\beta1-12$ (d). Instrumental conditions are described in Materials and Methods.

(36, 37). In this reaction, oxygen is directly converted to H_2O_2 without forming superoxide. The present result indicates that ascorbate oxidation by $Cu(II)-A\beta$ proceeds in a similar manner.

Since H₂O₂ plays a role in the oxidative damage to neuronal cells, much attention has been paid to the generation of H_2O_2 by $Cu(II)-A\beta$ complex in the presence of reductants. The formation of H₂O₂ has been reported in the reaction of ascorbate with free Cu(II) or Cu(II) $-A\beta$ (15, 24). Almost 60% of reducing equivalents of ascorbate are found as H₂O₂ formed in the reaction (24). After ascorbate is consumed, we have determined the concentration of remaining H₂O₂ using the HRP/ABTS system. Less than 25% reducing equivalents of ascorbate were found as H₂O₂ for coincubation of free Cu(II) and ascorbate or Cu(II)- $A\beta 1-12$ and ascorbate. There is no significant amount of H₂O₂ observed for $Cu(II)-A\beta 1-16$ or $Cu(II)-A\beta 1-42$ system. Reaction of Cu(I) complex with H_2O_2 has been reported (36, 37). The present results show that hydroxyl radicals were generated during the reaction of Cu(II) – $A\beta$ with ascorbate (Figure 4) indicating that formed H₂O₂ was decomposed through the reaction with Cu(I) complex and through catalase reaction by $Cu(II)-A\beta$.

Although $A\beta$ is reported to spontaneously produce radicals (38), this was subsequently shown to be an artifact due to the presence of contaminating oxidant (39, 40). On the other hand, it is well-established that generation of H_2O_2 by ADrelated peptides, including $A\beta$, may be related to the pathogenesis of AD (7, 12, 15).

Although, as described above, there has been a focus on the oxidative properties of $A\beta$, there is also compelling evidence that $A\beta$ shows antioxidant activity (22, 23, 41). Hydroxyl radical generation by free Cu(II) is decreased in the presence of $A\beta$ (Figure 4). There is no difference in

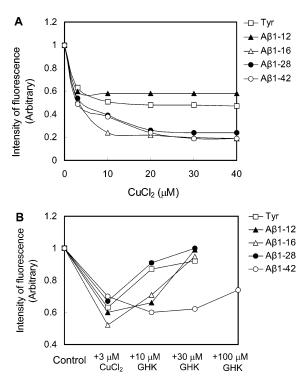


FIGURE 5: Effect of copper upon the fluorescence of $A\beta$. (A) Effect of copper concentrations upon the fluorescence of $A\beta$. Fluorescence spectra (excitation at 280 nm) of 10 μ M Tyr (open rectangle) or $A\beta1-12$ (closed triangle), $A\beta1-16$ (open triangle), $A\beta1-28$ (closed circle), and $A\beta1-42$ (open circle) in 25 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) were obtained in the absence or presence of various concentrations of CuCl₂. (B) Effect of GHK concentrations upon the fluorescence of Cu(II)- $A\beta$. Spectra were obtained by the addition of 10, 30, or 100 μ M GHK to a solution (25 mM phosphate, pH 7.0) containing 3.0 μ M CuCl₂ and 10 μ M Tyr (open rectangle) or $A\beta1-12$ (closed triangle), $A\beta1-16$ (open triangle), $A\beta1-28$ (closed circle), and $A\beta1-42$ (open circle).

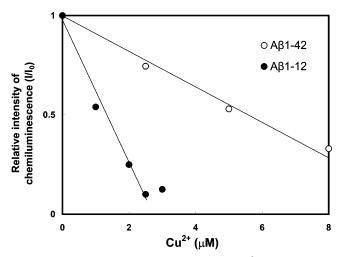


FIGURE 6: Reaction of superoxide with Cu(II)—A β . Concentrations were 100 μ M xanthine, 40 nM xanthine oxidase, 4.9 μ M MCLA, 21 μ M A β 1—42 (open circle) or A β 1—12 (closed circle) and various concentrations of CuCl₂ in 20 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.0). Intensity of chemiluminescence denotes the chemiluminescence of MCLA in the absence (I_0) or presence (I) of CuCl₂.

inhibitory effect of $A\beta 1-42$ and $A\beta 1-40$, and the effect of $A\beta$ was in the order $A\beta 1-42$, $A\beta 1-40$, $A\beta 1-16 > A\beta 1-12$. The ligands of Cu(II) are located in the N-terminus and are postulated to be 3N1O. The Cu(II) binding site consists of three histidine residues (His6, His13, His14) and the carboxyl group of N-terminus (28, 42). The results presented

Table 1: Rate Constant for the Reaction of Superoxide with Cu^{2+} Complex^a

Cu ²⁺ complex	rate constant $(M^{-1} s^{-1})$
GHK	1.1×10^{4}
$A\beta_{1-12}$	2.0×10^{5}
$\dot{A\beta}_{1-16}$	1.1×10^{5}
$A\beta_{1-42}$	3.1×10^{4}

^a Experimental conditions and calculation procedure for the rate constant are described in Materials and Methods.

Table 2: Effects of A β upon the Ascorbate Oxidation by Fe^{3+ a}

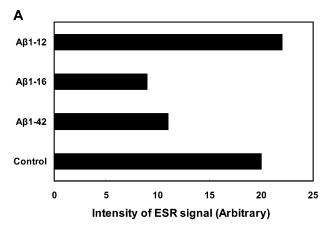
Cu ²⁺ complex	ascorbate oxidation $(\mu M/min)$	%
Cu ²⁺	39	975
Fe ³⁺	4.0	100
$+$ A β_{1-42}	0.4	10
$+A\beta_{1-16}$	0.8	20
$+ A\beta_{1-12}$	3.6	90

^a Experimental conditions are described in Materials and Methods. Rate of ascorbate oxidation is estimated from the initial decrease of absorbance at 265 nm.

here suggest that these three histidine residues strongly inhibit the redox activity of copper. It is important to note that Cu-(II) $-A\beta 1-42$ inhibits the activity of free Cu(II) by 90% and therefore is still able to generate small amounts of hydroxyl radicals in the presence of ascorbate (Figure 4). It has been noted that $A\beta 1-42$ shows a specific interaction with membrane phospholipid (24), where Cu(II) bound to $A\beta 1$ 42 accelerates oxidative damage to lipid membrane. Sitespecific hydroxyl radical generation by copper has been reported (43). When $Cu(II)-A\beta 1-42$ is incubated in the presence of H₂O₂ or ascorbate, the Cu(II) binding site is selectively modified (44, 45). When human $Cu(II)-A\beta 1-$ 16 is incubated in the presence of H₂O₂, conversion of His to 2-oxo His and decarboxylation and deamination of terminal aspartic acid residue have been confirmed. The resulting modified Cu(II) $-A\beta 1-16$ is suggested to be less reactive than native $Cu(II)-A\beta 1-16$ (45). However, our results indicate that modified $Cu(II)-A\beta 1-42$ may be more redox active than Cu(II)- $A\beta 1$ -42, because Cu(II) in modified $Cu(II)-A\beta 1-42$ is more loosely bound than that in native $Cu(II)-A\beta 1-42$.

It is important to note that about 60% of $A\beta$ in senile plaques is missing the N-terminal amino acids of $A\beta1-42$ (46). $A\beta$ activates phagocytic cells to elicit inflammation (47), which liberates cytokines and reactive oxygen species. Modification of the N-terminal aspartic acid of $A\beta1-16$ in the presence of Cu(II) and H_2O_2 has been reported (44). The present results (Figure 6, Table 1) indicate that Cu(II) $-A\beta$ scavenges superoxide and that resulting H_2O_2 modifies $A\beta$.

The copper- and iron-catalyzed hydroxyl radical generation, the Fenton–Haber–Weiss reaction, is described in detail elsewhere (33). Copper chelators present in tissues, such as histidine, GHK, and human serum albumin, strongly inhibit the reaction. On the other hand, iron-catalyzed hydroxyl radical generation may occur in vivo, since, except for iron-binding proteins, no such iron chelators are present. Our results (Figure 7 and Table 2) show that Fe(III)-catalyzed ascorbate oxidation and hydroxyl radical generation are inhibited in the presence of $A\beta1-16$ or $A\beta1-42$.



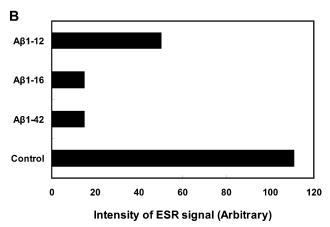


FIGURE 7: Effect of $A\beta$ upon the formation of ascorbate radicals (A) and hydroxyl radicals (B) by iron in the absence or presence of $A\beta$. (A) Concentrations were 1.0 mM ascorbic acid, 20 μ M Fe(NO₃)₃, and 50 μ M $A\beta$. Reactions were carried out in 20 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.0) in the absence (control) or presence of $A\beta$ 1–12, $A\beta$ 1–16, or $A\beta$ 1–42. Instrumental conditions are described in Materials and Methods. (B) Concentrations were 1.0 mM ascorbic acid, 1.0 mM H_2O_2 , 20 μ M $Fe(NO_3)_3$, 0.10 M PBN, 1.0 M DMSO, and 50 μ M $A\beta$ in 25 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.0). Reactions were carried out in the absence (control) or presence of $A\beta$ 1–12, $A\beta$ 1–16, or $A\beta$ 1–42. Instrumental conditions are described in Materials and Methods. The results are means of three experiments.

These data indicate a marked antioxidant face of $A\beta$ which is often considered a prooxidant protein. However, dependent upon the circumstances, such prooxidant or antioxidant aspects are a commonality among antioxidants but not prooxidants. Indeed, although not all prooxidants are antioxidants, all antioxidants are also prooxidants (25, 26). Therefore, $A\beta$ is likely an important antioxidant.

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