Designing Peptide Inhibitors for Oligomerization and Toxicity of Alzheimer's β -Amyloid Peptide[†]

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ABSTRACT: Convergent biochemical and genetic evidence suggests that the formation of β -amyloid (A β) deposits in the brain is an important and, probably, seminal step in the development of Alzheimer's disease (AD). Recent studies support the hypothesis that A β soluble oligomers are the pathogenic species that prompt the disease. Inhibiting A β self-oligomerization could, therefore, provide a novel approach to treating the underlying cause of AD. Here, we designed potential peptide-based aggregation inhibitors containing A β amino acid sequences (KLVFF) from part of the binding region responsible for A β self-association (residues 16–20), with RG-/-GR residues added at their N- and C-terminal ends to aid solubility. Two such peptides (RGKLVFFGR, named OR1, and RGKLVFFGR-NH2, named OR2) were effective inhibitors of A β fibril formation, but only one of these peptides (OR2) inhibited A β oligomer formation. Interestingly, this same OR2 peptide was the only effective inhibitor of A β toxicity toward human neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y cells. Our data support the idea that A β oligomers are responsible for the cytotoxic effects of A β and identify a potential peptide inhibitor for further development as a novel therapy for AD.

Alzheimer's disease (AD)1 is the most common cause of dementia in the elderly. One of the defining neuropathological features of AD is the occurrence of senile plaques containing insoluble, aggregated proteins, the main constituent of which is β -amyloid protein (A β). A β is a 39–43residue peptide that plays a central role in disease progression and is derived from the proteolytic processing of the much larger amyloid precursor protein (for reviews, see refs 1 and 2). Mutations in the genes encoding the amyloid precursor protein and the presenilins segregate with some forms of autosomal dominant familial AD. These mutations elevate the secretion of $A\beta$, especially the longer peptide $A\beta 42$ (1, 2). There is now substantial evidence from molecular genetics, transgenic animal studies, and aggregation/toxicity studies with synthetic $A\beta$ (and various synthetic peptide fragments derived from it) to suggest that the conversion of this peptide from soluble monomers to aggregated, insoluble forms in the brain is a key event in the pathogenesis of AD (3-5). It seems increasingly likely that early soluble oligomers are actually the toxic species responsible for neurodegeneration and neuronal cell death (6-18), and the inhibition of $A\beta$ oligomerization is an attractive therapeutic target for AD. Tjernberg et al. reported that the central region (amino acid residues 16-20) of $A\beta$ is responsible for its self-association and aggregation (19). Recently, it has been demonstrated that modified synthetic peptides based on the sequence of this central region of $A\beta$ are able to prevent its conversion to β -sheet-rich aggregated structures (20-24). However, these reported inhibitors were designed to block the formation of the late aggregates rather than the early aggregates of $A\beta$, and therefore, they were only able to partially reverse the toxicity of $A\beta$ aggregates. The aim of the work reported here was to design short synthetic peptides that are capable of inhibiting the early aggregation of $A\beta$ into toxic oligomeric species.

Recently, we successfully designed peptide inhibitors that can block the oligomerization and toxicity of the α -synuclein protein associated with Parkinson's disease (PD). Premised on the fact that $A\beta$ has obvious parallels with the aggregation of α -synuclein, in this study, peptide inhibitors of $A\beta$ aggregation were developed based on the same strategy that we have described for the design of α -synuclein inhibitors (25). The peptides were tested for their ability to inhibit the formation of $A\beta$ oligomers and fibrils. Finally, the effect of the peptide inhibitors on the toxicity of $A\beta$ toward human neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y cells was also investigated and correlated with their effects on $A\beta$ oligomerization.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Peptide Synthesis. All fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl-protected amino acids, fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl PAL-PS resin, Fmoc-

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 $^{^1}$ Abbreviations: A β , β -amyloid protein; AD, Alzheimer's disease; DMEM, Dulbecco's modified eagle medium; MTT, 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide; PBS, phosphate buffered saline; TEM, transmission electron microscopy.

L-Val-PEG-PS resin, N-[(dimethylamino)-1H-1,2,3-triazolo-[4,5-b]pyridine-1-ylmethylene]-hexafluorophosphate N-oxide, di-isopropylethylamine, dimethylforamide, N-methylpyrrolidone piperidine, and dichloromethane, were purchased from PE Applied Biosystems (Cheshire, U.K.).

Peptides were synthesized at a 0.2 mmol scale using Milligen 9050 peptide synthesizer (PE Applied Biosystems Ltd. Cheshire, U.K.), using standard fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl chemistry as described recently (26). In brief, a 4-fold excess of amino acid was used, and coupling was achieved using N-[(dimethylamino)-1H-1,2,3-triazolo[4,5-b]pyridine-1-ylmethylene]hexafluorophosphate N-oxide. Cleavage of the peptides was carried out over a 2 h incubation at room temperature with a mixture of thioanisole, ethanedithiol, triisopropylsilane, water, and trifluoroacetic acid (2:1:1:1: 95 v/v/v/v/v).

The peptide purity was ascertained by reversed phase HPLC using a C4 reversed phase 250 mm × 4.6 mm column (Phenomenex, Torrance, CA). The peptide identity was verified using a Finnigan LCQ ion trap mass spectrometer.

Preparation of $A\beta$ Solutions. $A\beta40$ was dissolved in sterilized distilled water, and then a 50% volume sterilized in 20 mM phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) [150 mM NaCl (pH 7.4)] was added to give a 100 µM concentration of $A\beta 40$, $A\beta 42$ (1.3 mg) was dissolved in 10 mM NaOH (32) μ L), and sterilized distilled water was added, followed by a 50% volume of sterilized 2X PBS (pH 7.4) to obtain a 100 μ M concentration of A β 42. These solutions were aged either alone or with the peptide inhibitors at various molar ratios of A β /peptide inhibitor. The samples were placed in Parafilm-sealed, 1.5 mL polypropylene tubes and were incubated at 37 °C. Samples were collected at various points, and thioflavin T (Th-T) assays were carried out immediately, while the rest of the samples were stored at -80 °C until they were tested by the ELISA assay for A β oligomers.

Th-T Assay. A β fibril formation was monitored by a Th-T binding assay. Th-T is a fluorescent dye that interacts with fibrils containing a β -sheet structure. The process was accompanied by a characteristic increase in fluorescence intensity in the vicinity of 480 mm. A 10 µL sample of each peptide solution was diluted into 190 µL of Th-T in PBS. Fluorescence was measured in 96-well black plates (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark) using a Victor² 1420 (PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA) microplate reader, with excitation at 440 nm and emission at 490 nm. To allow for background fluorescence, the fluorescence intensity of a blank PBS solution was subtracted from all readings.

ELISA to Measure $A\beta$ Oligomers. This assay depends on the use of the same anti-A β monoclonal antibody for capture and detection (6E10 and biotinylated 6E10, respectively) in a sandwich format (13, 25). A 96-well microtiter plate (Maxisorb plates; Nunc) was coated with 100 μ L/well A β mouse monoclonal IgG antibody 6E10 (Signet Pathology Systems Inc., Dedham, MA), which recognizes amino acid residues 6-10 of A β . 6E10 was diluted (1 μ g/mL) in 200 mM NaHCO₃, pH 9.6. The plate was then covered with a plate sealer and stored at 4 °C overnight. The next day, the plate was washed 4 times with 20 mM PBS, pH 7.4 containing 0.05% Tween 20 (PBST). Blocking solution was then added to the plate (200 μ L/well), and after a 2 h incubation at 37 °C, the plate was washed 4 times with PBST. A β with or without inhibitor samples diluted in PBS

to a final A β concentration of 1 μ M was added (100 μ L/ well), and the plate was incubated at 37 °C. At the end of the 2 h incubation period, the plate was washed 4 times with PBST and biotinylated 6E10 (diluted in blocking buffer, 1 μ g/mL) was added to the plate (100 μ L/well). The plates were incubated for 2 h at 37 °C and then washed 4 times with PBST, prior to the addition of 100 μL/well ExtrAvidinalkaline phosphatase (Sigma-Aldrich Company Ltd., Dorset, U.K.) diluted 3:5000 in blocking buffer, and incubated for 1 h at 37 °C. The wells were then washed 4 times with PBST, before adding the enzyme substrate Yellow "pNPP" (Sigma-Aldrich Company Ltd., Dorset, U.K.) (100 μL/well), and the color was left to develop for 30 min at room temperature. Absorbance values, at 405 nm, were determined using a Victor² 1420 (Wallac) microplate reader.

Size Exclusion Chromatography. At various time points, aliquots (100 μ L) of incubated solutions of A β at 460 μ M in PBS alone or with the peptide inhibitors (at 460 μ M) were loaded on a Superdex 75 gel filtration column (10 mm × 270 mm) in 0.1 M Tris-HCl (pH 7.4) with a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min. Elution was monitored at 215 nm.

Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM). Electron micrographs were produced from aged $A\beta$ solutions with or without inhibitors. The samples were deposited on Formvar coated 400 mesh copper grids, fixed with 0.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde, negatively stained with uranyl acetate, and examined on a JEOL JEM-1010 transmission electron microscope.

Tissue Culture of SH-SY5Y Human Neuroblastoma Cells. SH-SY5Y cells (European Collection of Cell Cultures, Porton Down, U.K.) were routinely cultured in Dulbecco's MEM/ Nutrient Mix F-12 (1:1) (Gibco BRL, Rockville, MD) containing 1% penicillin-streptomycin, 15% fetal calf serum, 1% minimal essential medium amino acid supplement, and 2 mM freshly prepared glutamine (Gibco BRL, Rockville, MD) and maintained at 37 °C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO₂/95% room air. Cells were used for a maximum of 20 passages.

Measurement of Cell Viability. The effect of $A\beta$ peptides on cell viability was assessed by measuring cellular redox activity with 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) (Sigma-Aldrich Company Ltd., Dorset, U.K.) as previously described (27). SH-SY5Y cells were plated at a density of 15 000 cells/well in 96-well plates in 100 µL of fresh medium. After 24 h, the medium was replaced with 200 µL of OPTI-MEM (Gibco BRL) serumfree medium and freshly prepared or aged solutions of A β alone or with inhibitors that were diluted in OPTI-MEM to give the required concentration of peptides. Cells were incubated at 37 °C in 5% CO₂ for 24 h. A total of 20 µL of stock MTT (6 mg/mL) was added to each well, and the plate was incubated at 37 °C for 4.5 h. The medium-MTT solution was removed, cell lysis buffer (100 μ L per well; 15% (w/v) SDS/50% (v/v) N,N-dimethylformamide, pH 4.7) was added, and the plate was incubated overnight at 37 °C. Absorbance values at 570 nm were determined with an automatic plate reader.

RESULTS

Designing Peptides as Inhibitors of A β Oligomerization. Tiernberg and co-workers demonstrated that the central region of A β (residues 16–20) is the main binding region responsible for the self-association and consequent aggregation of A β (19). Our strategy to design compounds to inhibit $A\beta$ aggregation was based on small peptides from this binding region (which should interact specifically with A β monomeric molecules and interrupt their self-aggregation) linked to further solubilizing amino acid residues. The hydrophobic residues 16-20 of A β (KLVFF) were selected as the most appropriate region for designing our peptide inhibitors. However, solubility is a major problem with hydrophobic peptides, which have a tendency to aggregate from solution and so can act as seeds for further aggregation. Therefore, it was essential to design peptides that are soluble and do not aggregate or have any tendency to selfoligomerize. In the case of peptide inhibitors of α -synuclein aggregation, we overcame this problem by adopting a strategy involving the addition of a cationic Arg as a solubilizing residue at both the N- and the C-terminus of the hydrophobic peptides (25). However, the addition of Arg could decrease the interaction between the peptides and the monomeric $A\beta$ molecules, as the native sequence for the binding region of $A\beta$ does not contain any Arg residues. This potential problem was overcome by the addition of Gly as a spacer. Gly is also a hydrophilic residue and is the most conformationally unrestrained amino acid and generally breaks secondary structure. By placing Gly residues as spacers between Arg and the binding residues, we hoped to prevent Arg from participating in the interaction between the peptide and the native sequence of $A\beta$. On the basis of the previous criteria, RG-/-GR residues were added at the N- and C-terminal ends, respectively, of the KLVFF peptide, giving rise to peptide inhibitor OR1. The second peptide inhibitor to be synthesized (OR2) consisted of the amino acids RGKLVFFGR with an amide group at its C-terminus, to render the peptide less charged. Since the OR peptides were designed from the region of A β 40 covering amino acid residues 16–20 (KLVFF), the unmodified fragment of A β 40 corresponding to residues 16-20 (KLVFF-NH₂) was also included as a control in our studies on A β 40 aggregation.

Effect of the OR Peptides on $A\beta$ Fibril Formation. To investigate the effect of OR1 and OR2 peptides on $A\beta$ 40 aggregation, it was first necessary to identify the best conditions (i.e., $A\beta$ 40 concentration and time of incubation) for the aggregation of this batch of $A\beta$ 40 peptide. Incubation of $A\beta$ 40 solutions at 25, 50, and 100 μ M for 12 days at 37 °C in PBS (pH 7.4) led to aggregation of the peptide and the formation of amyloid fibrils, as confirmed by negative stain electron microscopy. Amyloid fibril formation by $A\beta$ 40 was monitored over 12 days by the Th-T binding assay (Figure 1). It is clear that the best $A\beta$ 40 concentration is 100 μ M and that 12 days of incubation resulted in full aggregation of this batch of peptide, as shown by the Th-T results (Figure 1).

Prior to investigating the effects of the OR1 (RGKLVFF-GR) and OR2 (RGKLVFFGR-NH₂) peptides on $A\beta$ 40 aggregation, the peptides were first tested alone to determine if they had any tendency to self-aggregate. All of the peptide solutions were aged at 100 μ M in PBS (pH 7.4) for 12 days at 37 °C. A Th-T binding assay was carried out on the peptide samples every day to assess the presence of any amyloid aggregates. Under these conditions, none of the peptides showed any tendency to aggregate. However, the KLVFF-

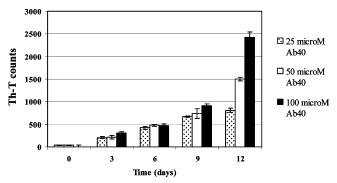


FIGURE 1: Effect of concentration and time of incubation on A β 40 aggregation. A β 40 samples were incubated for 12 days at 37 °C. A β 40 aggregation was measured by a Th-T binding assay (see Experimental Procedures for details). The assays were performed in triplicate, and mean \pm standard deviations are shown.

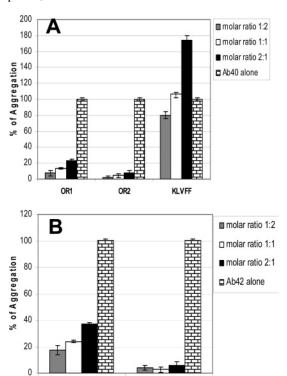


FIGURE 2: Effect of the peptide inhibitors on $A\beta$ fibrillogenesis. Samples of $A\beta40$ (A) were incubated for 12 days and $A\beta42$ (B) for 2 days at 37 °C (see Experimental Procedures for details) in the presence of various concentrations of peptides. The amyloid fibril formation was then measured by the Th-T binding assay. Data were collected and presented as a percentage of the signal obtained from $A\beta$ incubated in the absence of the peptide inhibitors. The assays were performed in triplicate, and mean \pm standard deviations are shown.

OR₂

OR1

 NH_2 peptide did aggregate when it was incubated at high concentration (5 mg/mL) as revealed by the Th-T assay. The effects of the OR peptides on A β 40 aggregation over 12 days were then investigated using the Th-T assay.

When the $A\beta40$ solution was incubated with the OR2 peptide at 1:2; 1:1, and 2:1 ($A\beta40$ /peptide) molar ratios with a constant $A\beta40$ concentration of 100 μ M, complete inhibition of amyloid fibril formation was achieved (Figure 2A). OR1 also showed complete inhibition at 1:2 and 1:1, but to a less extent at 2:1, on $A\beta40$ fibril formation (Figure 2A). Under the same conditions, the KLVFF-NH₂ peptide showed no inhibition of $A\beta40$ fibrillogenesis (Figure 2A), and at

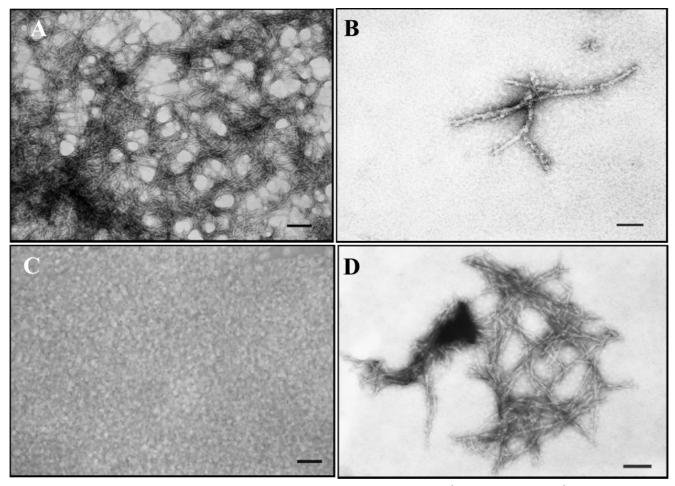


FIGURE 3: Electron microscopic examination of the effect of OR and control peptides on A β 40 fibril formation. A β 40 samples at 100 μ M were incubated alone or in the presence of peptides at a 1:2 molar ratio ($A\beta40$ /peptide) for 12 days at 37 °C (see Experimental Procedures for details). The figure shows negatively stained samples: (A) $A\beta40$ alone; (B) $A\beta40$ incubated with OR1, (C) $A\beta40$ incubated with OR2, and (D) A β 40 incubated with KLVFF-NH₂. Scale bar = 100 nm.

higher concentrations, this peptide even seemed to accelerate the rate of A β 40 aggregation (Figure 2A). The inhibitors were then tested against A β 42 aggregation (at 100 μ M in PBS (pH 7.4) over 2 days of incubation at 37 °C) to determine their effect on this more amyloidogenic peptide. A complete inhibition of amyloid fibril formation by the OR2 peptide was observed at molar ratios of 1:2; 1:1, and 2:1 $(A\beta42/peptide)$ (Figure 2B). However, OR1 was less effective on A β 42 aggregation and showed inhibition of A β 42 aggregation by 82, 76, and 63% at molar ratios of 1:2; 1:1, and 2:1, respectively (Figure 2B). Again, the KLVFF-NH₂ peptide showed no effect on A β 42 fibril formation at any concentrations tested (data not shown). Thus, only the designed OR peptides had the potential to act as inhibitors of A β 40 and A β 42 aggregation.

Effect of the OR Peptides on $A\beta$ Fibril Morphology. We used electron microscopy to examine negatively stained samples of $A\beta$ solutions that were prepared under the same conditions as those used for the Th-T binding assay and either aged alone or with OR peptides. The A β 40 solution incubated alone showed the classic appearance of amyloid fibrils, revealed as a dense network of fibrils averaging 10 nm in diameter and extending for several hundred nanometers in length (Figure 3A). The ultrastructural appearance of these fibrils was similar to that reported previously (3, 4). In contrast, when A β 40 was incubated with peptides OR1 or OR2, inhibition of fibril formation was achieved, especially

with OR2. As shown in Figure 3B, in the presence of the OR1 peptide, there were only very few fine, truncated fibrils, whereas in the presence of OR2, there were no fibrils at all (Figure 3C). Similar results were also obtained when A β 42 solutions were incubated in the presence of OR peptides. No fibrils were detected in the samples containing OR2, whereas samples containing OR1 had a thin scattering of irregular aggregates and truncated fibrils (data not shown). The appearance and distribution of the fibrils obtained in the presence of KLVFF-NH₂ appeared to be very similar to those seen with A β 40 alone (Figure 3D) or A β 42 alone (data not shown). These results are in agreement with the Th-T data and confirm that only the OR peptides were able to inhibit A β 40 and A β 42 fibril formation and not the KLVFF-NH₂ peptide.

Inhibition of $A\beta$ Oligomerization (Early Aggregates). The peptides were also tested for their effect on A β oligomerization and the formation of early aggregates. The same fresh and aged samples of $A\beta$ solutions that were used for Th-T and the TEM assays and were incubated alone, or with the inhibitor peptides, were tested by a novel ELISA developed by our laboratory for detecting $A\beta$ oligomers (Figure 4). The ELISA for oligomeric $A\beta$ is a sandwich ELISA, in which oligomeric $A\beta$ is captured by an anti- $A\beta$ antibody, namely, $A\beta$ mouse monoclonal antibody (6E10) and detected by the biotinylated form of the same antibody. The biotinylated 6E10 antibody was subsequently detected by Extr-

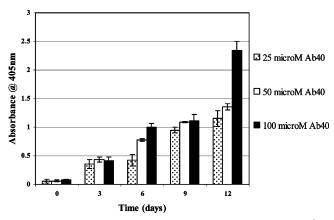


FIGURE 4: Effect of the concentration and incubation on A β 40 oligomerization. Solutions of A β 40 in PBS incubated at 37 °C at 25, 50, and 100 μ M were diluted to 1 μ M and transferred to a microtiter plate coated with immobilized 6E10. Additional epitopes formed by oligomerization of A β 40 during the preincubation step were measured by the subsequent binding of biotinylated 6E10. Measurements were taken in triplicate, and the results show the mean \pm standard deviation for each point.

Avidin alkaline phosphatase, followed by a colorimetric enzyme substrate. Monomeric $A\beta$ cannot produce a signal in this assay as the primary antibody occupies the only 6E10 antibody binding site (i.e., amino acid residues 6–10 of $A\beta$ sequence), and therefore, the biotinylated 6E10 antibody cannot subsequently bind. However, in the case of oligomeric forms of $A\beta$, there are multiple 6E10 antibody binding sites available, permitting both capture by the primary antibody and detection by the biotinylated secondary antibody (Figure 4).

Unlike OR2, which inhibited both late and early aggregates (as demonstrated by TEM and Th-T and ELISA, respectively) (Figure 5A,D), OR1 had some effect on the formation of A β 40 oligomers only when it was present at higher concentrations, but it did not have any effect at lower concentrations (Figure 5B,D). In contrast, KLVFF-NH₂ did not affect the A β 40 oligomerization at any concentration tested (Figure 5C,D).

The oligomeric ELISA showed that $A\beta42$ peptide forms soluble oligomers immediately in fresh solution (Figure 5E), in agreement with our previous reported results (13). Interestingly, when OR2 was added to freshly prepared $A\beta42$ solution at a molar ratio of 1:2, an immediate reverse (\sim 53%) of $A\beta42$ oligomers was observed (Figure 5E), and this effect was concentration dependent (Figure 5E). When $A\beta42$ solutions were aged in the presence of OR2 at different molar ratios, OR2 was also able to inhibit the formation of $A\beta42$ oligomers, and its effect was again concentration dependent (Figure 5E). In contrast, OR1 had a slight effect on the oligomers when added to fresh solutions or incubated solutions of $A\beta42$ (Figure 5E). The KLVFF-NH₂ peptide had no affect on $A\beta42$ oligomerization at any concentrations tested (data not shown).

Furthermore, we also investigated the effects of OR peptides on A β 40 oligomerization as detected by size exclusion chromatography. When we loaded 100 μ L of A β 40 solution, at 100 μ M concentration, onto a gel filtration column, only a very small peak was detectable, and therefore, we had to use a higher concentration of A β 40 (at 460 μ M) for the peak to be large enough to monitor accurately. Using

this higher concentration of A β 40 solution allowed us to investigate the effects of the peptide inhibitors on its oligomerization by the size exclusion assay. Since the oligomerization and fibril formation of A β are concentration dependent, this explains as to why the A β 40 solution (at 460 μ M) oligomerized within 24 h of incubation, whereas at 100 μ M, it took 12 days for the A β solution to aggregate.

The freshly prepared A β 40 solution produced a single chromatographic peak with a retention time (35 min) equivalent to a monomer or dimer (Figure 6). The area of this peak declined by \sim 15% over 24 h. Protofibrils formed from A β 40 were detected as a peak at 19.4 min elution time that appeared after 24 h of incubation (Figure 6) and increased at 48 h incubation time. However, after 6 days of incubation, the protofibril peak height decreased (data not shown). For A β 40, this initial formation and subsequent decline in the protofibril peak area were consistent with the protofibrils being an intermediate on the pathway to the formation of A β 40 insoluble fibrils. In contrast, the A β 40 solution incubated in the presence of OR2 showed only a monomer/dimer peak that did not change as the incubation was prolonged, and no higher molecular weight peak was detected, consistent with the absence of oligomers (Figure 6). However, OR1 showed no effect on the peak area of protofibrils (Figure 6) when this was co-incubated with the A β 40 solution. These findings confirm the results obtained by the oligomeric ELISA assay (Figures 5).

Effect of the OR Peptides on A β 40 Toxicity. SH-SY5Y human neuroblastoma cells were treated with fresh and aged A β solutions at four different concentrations ranging from 3.125 —to 25 μ M, and the MTT assay was employed to assess toxicity. Aged A β solutions inhibited the reduction of MTT in a dose-dependent fashion (Figure 7B). As the MTT reduction is directly proportional to the number of surviving cells (28), it becomes clear that the higher the A β concentration, the less cells survived. It should also be also noted that the pre-aggregated A β 40 solutions, especially at low concentrations, had a more severe effect on the cells than the freshly prepared solutions (Figure 7A,B).

The effects of OR1, OR2, and KLVFF-NH₂ peptides on $A\beta$ 40 toxicity were then tested, and solutions of $A\beta$ 40 at 100 μ M were prepared in the presence of 100 μ M OR1, OR2, or KLVFF-NH₂. Half of each solution was aged, and the other half was frozen immediately at -80 °C and was tested as a fresh solution in the toxicity assay. Solutions of all the peptides alone were also prepared and used as controls.

Both OR1 and OR2 inhibited the toxicity of freshly prepared A β 40, as in the presence of 25 μ M of each of these peptides the percentages of viable cells were 70 and 82%, respectively, whereas in the presence of 25 μ M A β 40 alone, only 50% of the cells survived (Figure 7A). KLVFF-NH₂, on the other hand, did not have any inhibitory effect on the toxicity of A β 40 but actually promoted it (Figure 7A). In the presence of 25 μ M A β 40 and 25 μ M KLVFF-NH₂, less than 40% of the cells survived, as compared to approximately 50% survival when the cells were treated with A β 40 alone (Figure 7A). However, if the A β 40 solutions were preincubated in the presence of OR2 prior to their addition to the cell culture medium, the ability of the cells to metabolize MTT was dramatically restored to 80–100% of the controls without OR2 (Figure 7B), whereas OR1 showed only a

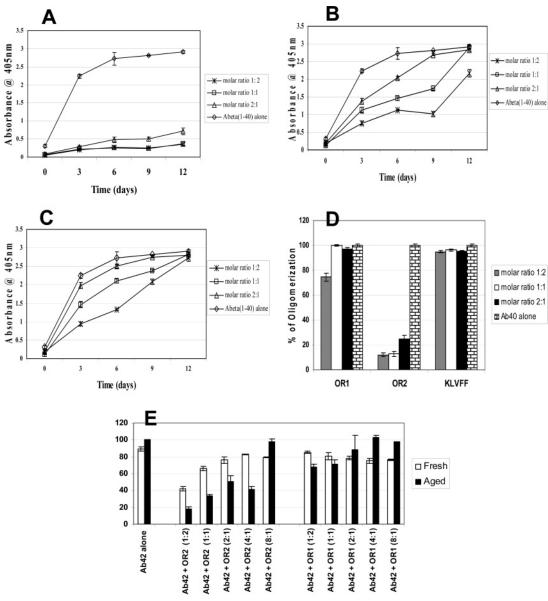


FIGURE 5: Effect of OR and control peptides on A β 40 oligomerization. A β 40 samples were incubated for 12 days at 37 °C in the presence of various concentrations of peptides, at the indicated molar ratios of $A\beta40$ /peptide, and $A\beta40$ oligomerization was measured by ELISA (see Experimental Procedures for details). The effect of OR2 (A), OR1 (B), and KLVFF-NH₂ (C) on $A\beta$ 40 oligomerization was monitored over 12 days by ELISA. In panel D, data were collected after 12 days from A β 40 samples, and in panel E, data were collected after 2 days from A β 42 samples incubated with OR and control peptides and presented as a percentage of the signal obtained from the A β sample incubated in the absence of inhibitors. The assays were performed in triplicate, and mean \pm standard deviations are shown.

partial effect on A β 40 toxicity (Figure 7B). However, KLVFF-NH2 did not have any inhibitory effect on the toxicity of aged A β 40, but again, it enhanced the toxicity of $A\beta40$ (Figure 7). Finally, we tested $A\beta42$ solutions aged at 100 μ M in the presence of 100 μ M OR1, OR2, or KLVFF-NH₂. The solutions were then diluted in the culture media at four different concentrations ranging between 3.125 - and 25 μ M and then their toxicity was tested on SH-SY5Y cells using the MTT assay. Only OR2 showed dramatic inhibition of A β 42 toxicity between 72 and 100% as compared to control aged A β 42 alone (Figure 7C), whereas OR1 (Figure 7C) or KLVFF-NH₂ (data not shown) showed no inhibition on A β 42 toxicity. Our results clearly show that the OR2 peptide, which inhibits A β oligomer formation, also significantly reduced the toxicity of $A\beta$.

DISCUSSION

Accumulating evidence supports the hypothesis that $A\beta$ fibrillogenesis is a seminal pathogenetic event in AD (29-32). This suggests that inhibition of A β aggregation may be a viable strategy for therapeutic intervention in AD. However, recent studies on amyloid proteins including A β support the idea that nonfibrillar aggregates or soluble oligomers are the pathogenic components that drive neurodegeneration and neuronal cell death, rather than mature amyloid fibrils (6-18). Therefore, inhibiting and/or reversing the early stages of A β oligomerization is an attractive therapeutic approach for targeting the underlying disease progression of AD (29– 32). Considering the importance of soluble oligomeric forms of A β in AD pathogenesis, it is now clear that drug development in this area should focus on inhibitors of the

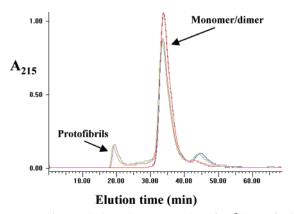


FIGURE 6: Size exclusion chromatography of $A\beta40$. A freshly prepared solution of $A\beta40$ (460 μ M) was prepared alone or with 460 μ M peptide inhibitor in PBS (pH 7.4) buffer. The solutions were fractionated on a Superdex 75 column after incubation for 24 h at 37 °C. Fresh $A\beta40$ alone (red), aged $A\beta40$ with OR1 (green), and aged $A\beta40$ with OR2 (blue) are shown. The gel-included peak elutes at \sim 30.5 min, while the gel-excluded peak elutes at \sim 19.4 min

oligomerization of $A\beta$ rather than inhibitors of fibril formation (18).

 $A\beta$ self-aggregation is driven by hydrophobic—hydrophobic interactions and is accompanied by conformational transition from the non-pathogenic random coil to the pathogenic β -sheet. Considerable progress has already been made in designing and discovering inhibitors of A β aggregation and toxicity (19-24). Several strategies have been employed to design peptide inhibitors of A β aggregation and toxicity. All of the peptides designed in these studies are based on the A β (16-22) fragment, which is responsible for the self-aggregation of A β (20–24). Soto and co-workers designed peptides, termed β -sheet breaker peptides, by incorporating proline residues into the peptide sequence (20). These β -sheet breaker peptides can bind to soluble A β and prevent its conversion into toxic aggregates. The second strategy reported recently uses N-methylamino acids of the A β (16–22) sequence (23, 24). The methylated peptides appear to act by binding to A β through one hydrogen bonding face and simultaneously blocking the propagation of the hydrogen bond array of the β -sheet with a nonhydrogen bonding face. Recently, Murphy and co-workers reported another strategy for designing peptides to inhibit A β toxicity (22). These peptide inhibitors were composed of residues 15-25 of A β , designed to function as the recognition element, linked to an oligolysine disrupting element. Interestingly, these inhibitors neither alter the apparent secondary structure of A β nor prevent its aggregation; rather, they cause a change in aggregation kinetics and the higher-order structural characteristics of the aggregate. However, most of the past studies have utilized techniques such as turbidity, TEM, Th-T, sedimentation, and Congo red binding assays to screen for inhibitors of A β aggregation. Although these methods have been useful for high-throughput screening, they can only identify the compounds that are capable of inhibiting the formation of $A\beta$ fibrils.

To identify inhibitors of $A\beta$ oligomerization as a potential new drug for AD, we made some new peptides and tested their effects on $A\beta$ oligomerization and toxicity. These peptides were designed from the region of $A\beta$ (KLVFF, residues 16–20) that is responsible for its self-association

(19, 33). The addition of RG-/-GR to the N- and C-terminal ends of this peptide gave rise to inhibitor OR1. The second peptide inhibitor, OR2, also contained the RG-/-GR amino acids but had an amide group at its C-terminus to render it less charged. The KLVFF peptide alone, containing an amide group at its C-terminus, was also synthesized and used as a control in our study. This attempt to design potential inhibitors of $A\beta$ aggregation follows the same rationale as that used successfully for peptide inhibitors of α -synuclein aggregation, which were based on the hydrophobic binding sequence of α -synuclein (residues 69–72) linked to a solubilizing component (RG-/-GR) (25).

On the basis of Th-T results and TEM micrographs, OR1 and OR2 inhibited the formation of $A\beta$ late aggregates, while the unmodified KLVFF-NH2 fragment had no inhibitory effect at any concentration tested (Figures 2 and 3). However, using the ELISA that detects $A\beta$ soluble oligomers, the results for the inhibition of $A\beta$ oligomerization revealed that OR2 (Figures 5 and 6) had the best inhibitory effect, with OR1 (Figures 5 and 6) having a slight blocking effect at higher concentrations. On the other hand, the unmodified KLVFF-NH2 had no effect at all (Figures 5 and 6). It is likely that OR2 inhibits oligomeric formation by binding to the monomeric $A\beta$ molecule, thereby blocking the formation of early soluble aggregates, as shown by size exclusion chromatography and oligomer specific ELISA.

Comparing OR2 (i.e., RGKLVFFGR-NH₂), which is a good inhibitor of A β 40 oligomerization, to OR1 (i.e., RGKLVFFGR), the difference between the two peptides is that OR1 lacks the amide (-NH₂) group at the C-terminus. As the peptide inhibitors arose from an internal $A\beta$ sequence (i.e., they did not arise from the natural N- or C-terminus of the protein), it was thought best to block the end of the peptide by having the C-terminus made as an amide. By using this design, the introduction of a charged group at a site where the native peptide does not contain any charged groups was avoided. Blocking the C-terminus with the amide group could be beneficial, as the peptides would then be more likely to behave like, or be recognized, as if they were a part of the whole protein from which the sequence was chosen. According to our results, the blocking of the C-terminus with the amide group has proven to be beneficial, as OR2 is overall a much better inhibitor than OR1.

Aged solutions of A β alone were active in reducing MTT metabolism in SH-SY5Y cells (Figure 7B). When we investigated the effect of our peptide inhibitors on $A\beta$ cytotoxicity, both OR peptides had the ability to prevent A β fibril formation as revealed by Th-T and electron microscopy, whereas OR2 was also shown to be a potent inhibitor of A β oligomerization. Interestingly, only OR2, which demonstrated complete inhibition for the early aggregates of A β (Figures 5 and 6), was able to protect the cells from A β toxicity (Figure 7). However, in the case of OR1, which showed only inhibition for the late aggregates, no neuroprotective effects were demonstrated (Figure 7). The results reported here provide clear evidence that the neuroprotective effects demonstrated by OR2 were due to the inhibition of formation of early aggregates rather than late aggregates of A β . This is consistent with previous reports showing that soluble nonfibrillar aggregates of A β are the toxic species (6–18), and it has been proposed that compounds that can block the formation of early aggregates of A β may serve as new drugs

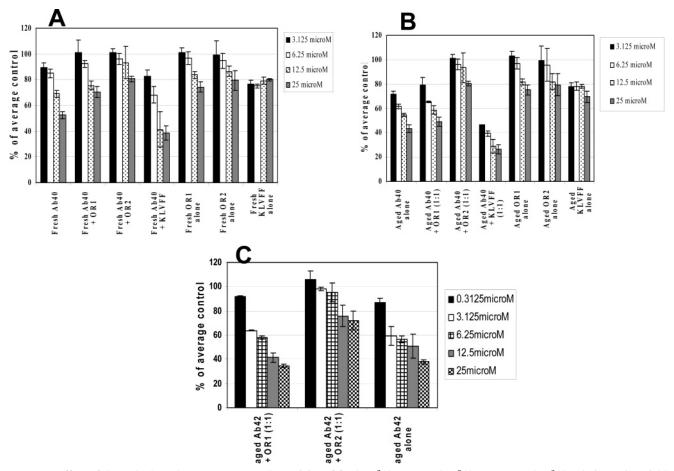


FIGURE 7: Effect of OR1, OR2, and KLVFF-NH₂ on the toxicity of fresh $A\beta$ 40 (A), aged $A\beta$ 40 (B), or aged $A\beta$ 42 solutions (C). Viable SH-SY5Y cells were detected using the MTT assay. The results are expressed as percentages of average control (i.e., untreated cells). The cells were treated with the peptides for 24 h prior to MTT addition (av of 6 wells \pm SD).

for the treatment of AD (29-32). Since the OR2 peptide identified here is relatively small, it could represent the starting point for designing peptidomimetic molecules more suitable for chronic therapy, which may be used as new drugs for the treatment of AD.

In summary, this study provides a new strategy for designing peptide inhibitors of A β oligomerization and toxicity. Using several methods, we tested the effect of our inhibitors on the early and late stages of $A\beta$ aggregation. Only the peptide that can inhibit the formation of early stages of A β aggregation was also capable of blocking its toxicity. Therefore, elucidation of the molecular events that initiate $A\beta$ oligomerization is crucial to understand the pathology and to develop potential therapeutics for AD.

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