

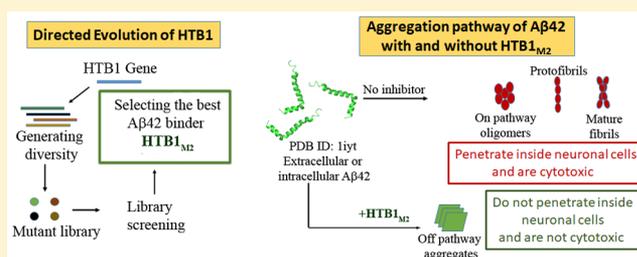
An Engineered Variant of the B1 Domain of Protein G Suppresses the Aggregation and Toxicity of Intra- and Extracellular A β 42

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Intra- and extraneuronal deposition of amyloid β ($A\beta$) peptides have been linked to Alzheimer's disease (AD). While both intra- and extraneuronal $A\beta$ deposits affect neuronal cell viability, the molecular mechanism by which these $A\beta$ structures, especially when intraneuronal, do so is still not entirely understood. This makes the development of inhibitors challenging. To prevent the formation of toxic $A\beta$ structural assemblies so as to prevent neuronal cell death associated with AD, we used a combination of computational and combinatorial-directed evolution approaches to develop a variant of the HTB1 protein ($HTB1_{M2}$). $HTB1_{M2}$ inhibits *in vitro* self-assembly of $A\beta$ 42 peptide and shifts the $A\beta$ 42 aggregation pathway to the formation of oligomers that are nontoxic to neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y cells overexpressing or treated with $A\beta$ 42 peptide. This makes $HTB1_{M2}$ a potential therapeutic lead in the development of AD-targeted drugs and a tool for elucidating conformational changes in the $A\beta$ 42 peptide.

KEYWORDS: $A\beta$ 42 peptide, Alzheimer's disease, amyloids, directed evolution, neurodegeneration, neuronal cell toxicity, protein aggregation



INTRODUCTION

Alzheimer's disease (AD), affecting tens of millions worldwide, is the most common pathological state leading to dementia.¹ Amyloid β ($A\beta$) peptides, the proteolytic cleavage products of the amyloid precursor protein (APP), are associated with AD due to their presence in senile plaques (extracellular $A\beta$ amyloid deposits), a pathological hallmark of AD.^{2,3} Recurring evidence has also revealed the presence of intraneuronal $A\beta$ peptides in several AD patients and AD mouse models.^{4–8} The primary origin of such intraneuronal $A\beta$ is believed to be the uptake of $A\beta$ from the extracellular matrix.^{7,9–17} Even though the role of intracellular $A\beta$ in AD pathology is still not completely clear, it has been shown that accumulation of $A\beta$ in mitochondria diminishes the activity of this organelle in neuronal cells, which would explain the mitochondrial defects seen in AD patients and mouse models of the disease.^{18,19} Intraneuronal $A\beta$ also disrupts the ubiquitin–proteasome system (UPS) and alters synaptic function in AD mouse models.^{20,21} Studies have further shown that clearance of extracellular $A\beta$ by immunotherapy lowers the intraneuronal load of $A\beta$.^{7,22} This suggests that a dynamic equilibrium between intra- and extraneuronal $A\beta$ exists. While both affect

neuronal cell structure and function, the molecular mechanism by which intraneuronal $A\beta$ does so is still not fully understood.

Of $A\beta$ peptides, $A\beta$ 40 and $A\beta$ 42 are the most abundant in senile plaques and within neurons.^{4,5,23} The two peptides exist as monomers, as a heterogeneous population of oligomers and as highly structured fibrils.¹ It has been shown that different $A\beta$ fibril structures correlate with distinct clinical and pathological features of AD.^{24,25} Similarly, examples were found for tau fibrils, namely, that AD patient-derived tau fibrils adopt a C-shaped fold and Pick's disease patient-derived tau fibrils adopt a J-shaped fold.^{26,27} These studies imply that different oligomeric structures affect neurons differentially and suggest that “on-pathway” oligomeric $A\beta$ structures (such as immature $A\beta$ fibrils) or certain $A\beta$ fibril conformations are more toxic to neurons than are “off-pathway” $A\beta$ oligomers (such as amorphous aggregates) or different $A\beta$ fibril conformations. Hence, specifically inhibiting the formation of both intra- and

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extraneuronal on-pathway fibril forms may provide a potential treatment strategy for AD.

It is thus not surprising that most approaches taken to prevent AD pathogenesis are linked to inhibiting $A\beta$ oligomerization into fibril structures (on-pathway toxic oligomers), and largely involve the development of $A\beta$ aggregation inhibitors, immunotherapy to neutralize $A\beta$ on-pathway toxic oligomers, and β - and γ -secretase inhibitors to control the overexpression and accumulation of $A\beta$ peptides.¹ Several small molecules and peptide-based antiaggregation agents have been shown to reduce the cell toxicity of extracellular fibrils in cultured cell lines, and some of these agents also have been shown to reduce extracellular $A\beta$ plaque load in an AD mouse model.^{1,28–34} β - and γ -secretase inhibitors (i.e., AZD3293) have also been used as potential drug candidates for AD therapy,³⁵ although they may possess serious side effects.³⁶ Anti- $A\beta$ antibodies, namely, crenezumab, gantenerumab, solanezumab, aducanumab, and intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIG), have also shown promising results in preclinical and clinical trials.^{37–42} However, the use of full-length antibodies as AD therapeutics is not ideal due to the risk of inflammatory responses in the brain and poor penetration through the blood–brain barrier (BBB).^{43–45} Engineered smaller protein scaffolds lack such limitations and provide better alternatives to antibodies.^{45–47} Indeed, various engineered protein scaffolds show relatively high affinity and specificity toward $A\beta$ peptides, while also inhibiting the aggregation and toxic effects of extracellular $A\beta$ peptides.^{45,48–52} Nonetheless, none of these inhibitors inhibited the toxic effects of intracellular $A\beta$ peptides.^{45,48–52}

In our research, we used a combination of computational and combinatorial approaches to develop a protein that inhibits *in vitro* formation of toxic $A\beta_{42}$ fibrils and lowers the cytotoxic effects of both extra- and intracellular $A\beta_{42}$. We evolved non-IgG scaffold HTB1, the hyperthermophilic variant of protein G,⁵³ into an $A\beta_{42}$ -binding protein. Since $A\beta$ aggregation is a nucleation-dependent process,^{54,55} the seed for the formation of toxic fibrils appears much earlier than do the actual toxic fibrils. Hence, binding of the engineered protein to $A\beta_{42}$ at an early stage of nucleation (i.e., the monomeric or prefibrillar stage) may prevent the nucleation process and subsequent formation of the toxic fibrillar structures. Accordingly, an HTB1 variant was evolved via affinity maturation to target soluble $A\beta_{42}$ monomers using a yeast surface display system. We demonstrated that an HTB1 variant named HTB1_{M2} prevented the aggregation of $A\beta_{42}$ into fibrillar structures *in vitro*. Moreover, HTB1_{M2} modified the aggregation pathway of $A\beta$ peptides, redirecting it into an alternative pathway leading to the formation of oligomeric $A\beta$ forms of $A\beta_{42}$, which are less toxic. In the absence of inhibitor HTB1_{M2}, fibrillar $A\beta_{42}$ peptide was internalized into the SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cells. In contrast, HTB1_{M2}-induced $A\beta_{42}$ aggregation pathway products (i.e., off-pathway oligomers) could not penetrate SH-SY5Y cells. The presence of HTB1_{M2}, therefore, helps prevent expansion of the intracellular $A\beta$ peptide pool. Moreover, in SH-SY5Y cells that stably express $A\beta_{42}$ peptide fused to GFP, externally applied HTB1_{M2} increased cell viability as compared to untreated cells. We thus conclude that HTB1_{M2} significantly reduces the toxicity of both extracellular and intracellular $A\beta$ peptides and thus may serve as a potential lead in AD drug development.

RESULTS

Affinity Maturation of the Focused HTB1 Mutant Library. To develop molecular agents able to specifically target amyloid β peptides, we employed a combinatorial affinity maturation technique using yeast surface display (YSD).^{56,57} In YSD, a combinatorial library of a protein of interest is mutagenized at random or at specified positions and then expressed on the surface of yeast as a C-terminal fusion to the yeast Aga2p protein.⁵⁸ Surface-expressed clones are then screened for improved target affinity using fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS), with decreasing concentrations of the target protein in each subsequent round of sorting.⁵⁹

In our previous study, we used YSD in combination with a focused HTB1 mutant library to identify misfolded SOD1 binders and SOD1 aggregation inhibitors.⁶⁰ In that study, the HTB1 surface was mapped for the presence of “stability patches”, namely, surface areas with the increased potential to evolve into efficient protein–protein interfaces.⁶¹ Residues K6, I8, A26, E27, E29, K30, I31, K33, Y35, E44, K52, and T55 appeared to constitute the surface stability patches of HTB1. Of these, five residues (K6, I8, E44, K52, and T55) belong to the β -sheet region of HTB1, while the rest reside within the α -helix region of the protein. These residues were subjected to randomization using an assembly PCR technique, yielding a stability-patch-focused library with a diversity of about 3×10^5 clones.⁶⁰ The stability-patch-focused library is a universal library, in which the amino acid positions that possess an elevated potential for protein–protein interaction were randomized to optimize the enthalpy contribution of the respective side chains to the stability of the protein complex.⁶¹ As such, this library could be employed with various target proteins, such that target specific variants would be enriched over the course of the selection process.

Wild-type HTB1 (HTB1) or the mutated HTB1 library was expressed on the yeast surface as cMyc–HTB1 fusion proteins. The high level of HTB1 surface expression was confirmed using anti-cMyc antibodies, and the protein's proper folding was confirmed using human IgG antibodies that naturally bind HTB1.⁶⁰ In our study, we evolved the stability-patch-focused HTB1 library using monomeric $A\beta_{42}$ as target protein. The rationale behind this approach was that an HTB1 variant would bind to $A\beta_{42}$ monomers and modulate or prevent $A\beta_{42}$ aggregation in a manner that may prevent the formation of on-pathway oligomers and toxic fibrils. Initial sorting of the HTB1-focused library was based on the expression of the C-terminal c-Myc epitope, thus generating the S_0 library, which comprises only clones that express in-frame intact proteins at high level.⁶⁰ The S_0 library was then subjected to four sequential rounds of sorting to retrieve high-affinity binders of $A\beta_{42}$, starting with 10 μ M fluorescently labeled $A\beta_{42}$ (Figure 1A) and decreasing the concentration of the soluble $A\beta_{42}$ protein in each subsequent sorting step (Figure 1A–D). Single clones selected from the final sort were propagated, and genomic DNA was extracted and sequenced, yielding a single HTB1 mutant clone, designated HTB1_{M2}. Interestingly, the HTB1_{M2} mutant is a deletion mutant of HTB1 (residues 19–23 were deleted) that contains three additional mutations at positions 19, 49, and 53 (relative to the predesigned library; residue numbering is based on HTB1) (Figure 1E).

We next monitored binding of YSD HTB1_{M2} to synthetic soluble biotin-labeled $A\beta_{42}$ by flow cytometry. The apparent K_D for the HTB1_{M2}– $A\beta_{42}$ interaction was 6.6 μ M

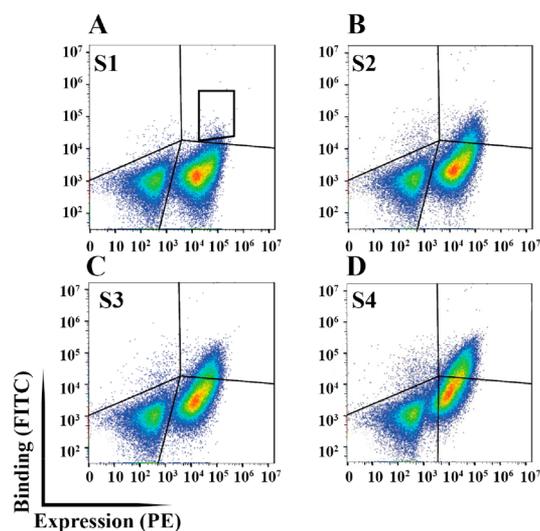


Figure 1. Affinity maturation of an HTB1 library with decreasing concentrations of $A\beta 42$. FACS dot plots of dual-labeled yeast cell populations for monitoring both expression and binding. S_1 designates the first sorting of a cell population from the HTB1 library using $10 \mu\text{M}$ purified $A\beta 42$ as target. The sorting gate is marked in red. The S_1 library was further sorted using $5 \mu\text{M}$ $A\beta 42$, which resulted in the S_2 library which was also analyzed by flow cytometry. The S_2 library was sorted using $3 \mu\text{M}$ $A\beta 42$, yielding the S_3 library. Finally, the S_3 library was sorted using $1 \mu\text{M}$ $A\beta 42$ to give S_4 HTB1-sorted clones. Double staining analysis using $10 \mu\text{M}$ $A\beta 42$ in libraries (A) S_1 , (B) S_2 , (C) S_3 and (D) S_4 is shown. (E) The sequences of HTB1 and HTB1_{M2}. Mutations at expected positions are marked in red, while mutations at unexpected positions are marked in blue.

(Supporting Information Figure S1). However, when flow cytometry was used to assess the binding interaction between YSD HTB1 and soluble $A\beta 42$, no appreciable binding was observed up to $10 \mu\text{M}$ of $A\beta 42$ (data not shown).

Affinity Analysis of the Interaction of Purified HTB1_{M2} with $A\beta 42$. To evaluate the interaction between the soluble proteins, the thermodynamic parameters for the binding between the soluble synthetic forms of $A\beta 42$ and HTB1_{M2} were measured using isothermal titration calorimetry.⁶² The interaction between HTB1_{M2} and $A\beta 42$ is endothermic in nature, which is evident from its positive change in enthalpy (Figure 2, Supporting Information Table S1). Such analysis also showed that $A\beta 42$ presents two binding epitopes for HTB1_{M2}, with an overall K_D value of $8.8 \pm 1.6 \mu\text{M}$, which correlates well with the YSD binding data (Figure 2 and Supporting Information Figure S1 and Table S1). Interestingly, even though $A\beta 40$ is only two amino acids shorter than $A\beta 42$, HTB1_{M2} did not show any measurable affinity for $A\beta 40$ (Supporting Information Figure S2A). In addition, the interaction of HTB1 with either $A\beta 42$ or $A\beta 40$ was statistically insignificant (Supporting Information Figure S2B,C), which further demonstrates the power of the YSD method to achieving target binding specificity. Control buffer experiments involving the titration of HTB1 and HTB1_{M2} with buffer were conducted to subtract the heat of dilution from the sample titration value (Supporting Information Figure S3A–D). Since HTB1_{M2} only interacts with the more aggregation-prone $A\beta 42$

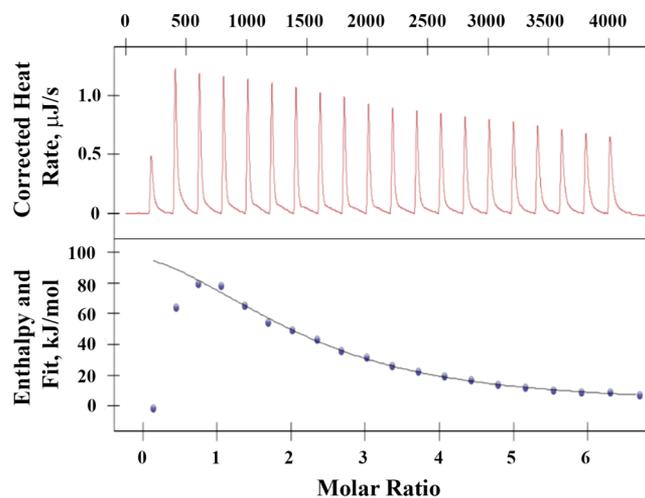


Figure 2. ITC data for the titration of $10 \mu\text{M}$ $A\beta 42$ with $200 \mu\text{M}$ HTB1_{M2}. Heat flow versus time during the injection of HTB1_{M2} at 25°C is shown on top. Heat evolved per mole of added HTB1_{M2} (corrected for the heat of HTB1_{M2} dilution) against the molar ratio (HTB1_{M2} to $A\beta 42$) for each injection is shown in the bottom panel. Control buffer experiments (i.e., titration of HTB1 and HTB1_{M2} with buffer) were conducted to subtract the heat of dilution in the sample titration.

and not with the less aggregation-prone $A\beta 40$, we used $A\beta 42$ for subsequent aggregation and toxicity experiments.

HTB1_{M2} Alters the Aggregation Kinetics of $A\beta 42$. We next tested the ability of HTB1_{M2} to inhibit aggregation of the $A\beta 42$ peptide using thioflavin T, a dye that specifically stains amyloid fibrils. $A\beta 42$ was incubated with HTB1_{M2} at different molar ratios, and the kinetics of aggregation was monitored by measuring thioflavin T fluorescence (Figure 3A). The kinetic traces showed a sigmoidal profile corresponding to the $A\beta$ nucleation, elongation, and saturation phases.^{45,55} The data were fitted to an autocatalytic model that allowed us to quantitate the nucleation and elongation rate constants of $A\beta 42$ aggregation.⁵⁵

Our results show that HTB1_{M2} suppressed the extent of aggregation of $A\beta 42$ and decreased the nucleation and elongation rate constants of $A\beta 42$ aggregation (Figure 3A and Table 1). Notably, at 1:1 and a higher molar ratio of HTB1_{M2} to $A\beta 42$, the lag phase of $A\beta 42$ aggregation was increased by 10 and 20 h, respectively, as compared to that of untreated $A\beta 42$, which was 8 h (Figure 3A). It is of note that the presence of HTB1_{M2} did not suppress the oligomerization of $A\beta 42$ as evident from light scattering results (Supporting Information Figure S4). However, the $A\beta 42$ oligomers formed in the presence of HTB1_{M2} did not bind A11 antibody, which recognizes toxic on-pathway $A\beta$ oligomers (Figure 3B).^{63,64} See methods section of Supporting Information for approach used for light scattering and dot blot analysis of A11 antibody binding. These results imply that HTB1_{M2} modifies the aggregation pathway of $A\beta 42$, and thus, $A\beta 42$ oligomers formed in the presence of HTB1_{M2} have different structural properties than do aggregates of untreated $A\beta 42$. Accordingly, TEM images show a smaller number of fibrils present in the $A\beta 42$ samples incubated with HTB1_{M2} for 60 h, as compared to $A\beta 42$ alone (Figure 3C,D). In addition, $A\beta 42$ fibrils formed in the presence of HTB1_{M2} are of narrower width than $A\beta 42$ fibrils formed in the absence of HTB1_{M2} (Figure 3C,D). Importantly, HTB1, which is the parental protein, did not

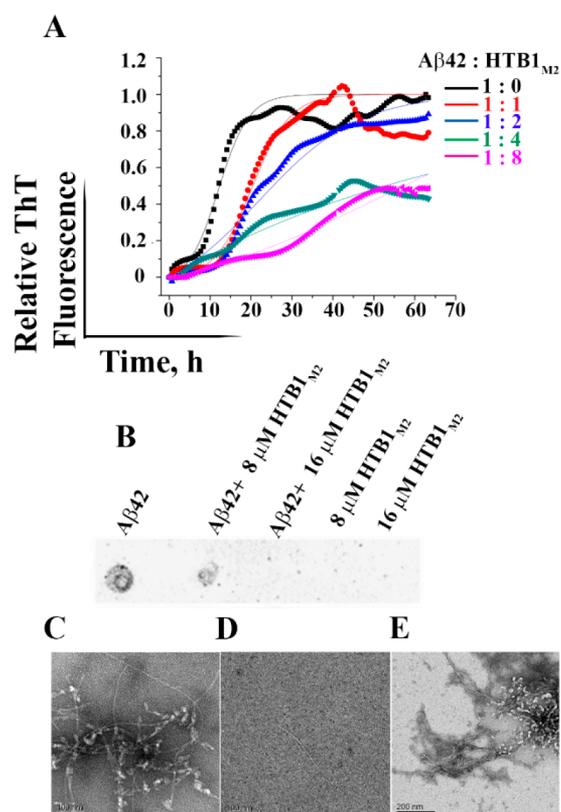


Figure 3. HTB1_{M2} affects the kinetics of A β peptide aggregation and the amount of ThT-binding material formed. (A) ThT fluorescence was monitored over the course of A β 42 aggregation in the presence of HTB1_{M2}. Black, red, blue, cyan, and magenta dots represent samples of A β at molar ratios of 1:0, 1:1, 1:2, 1:4, and 1:8 (A β /HTB1_{M2}), respectively. ThT fluorescence was monitored over the course of aggregation at 37 °C with continuous shaking. Values are normalized to the maximal ThT intensity elicited by A β peptides measured by the plate reader. All results are expressed as an average of assays performed in triplicate in a representative experiment. Standard deviations of the kinetic traces were within 20% of the signal. (B) A β 42 (4 μ M) incubated for 18 h in the presence or absence of HTB1_{M2} (16 μ M) was assessed in a dot blot experiment using A11 antibodies. TEM images of (C) A β 42, (D) A β 42 with HTB1_{M2} (1:4 molar ratio), and (E) A β 42 with HTB1 (1:4 molar ratio) after incubation at 37 °C with continuous shaking for 60 h.

Table 1. Parameters for the Nucleation Rate, k_n , and Fibril Elongation Rate, k_e , from a Fit to an Autocatalytic Reaction of Time-Dependent A β 40 and A β 42 Aggregation in the Presence of HTB1_{M2}, as Probed by ThT Fluorescence

reaction sample	k_n (μ M ⁻¹)	k_e (h ⁻¹)
A β 42	$(1 \pm 0.15) \times 10^{-2}$	$(6.45 \pm 0.52) \times 10^{-2}$
A β 42 + HTB1 _{M2} (4 μ M)	$(2.6 \pm 0.17) \times 10^{-2}$	$(5.3 \pm 0.41) \times 10^{-2}$
A β 42 + HTB1 _{M2} (8 μ M)	$(1.2 \pm 0.14) \times 10^{-2}$	$(1.7 \pm 0.12) \times 10^{-2}$
A β 42 + HTB1 _{M2} (16 μ M)	$(1.16 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{-3}$	$(1.32 \pm 0.08) \times 10^{-3}$
A β 42 + HTB1 _{M2} (32 μ M)	$(4.7 \pm 0.32) \times 10^{-3}$	$(8.3 \pm 0.52) \times 10^{-3}$

affect the aggregation properties of A β 42 (Supporting Information Figure S5 and Figure 3E).

HTB1_{M2} Induces Oligomeric forms of A β 42 That Are Less Toxic than A β 42 Fibrils. Recent studies have shown

that different A β fibril conformations are linked to different phenotypes of AD and that not all A β fibril conformations contribute to neuronal toxicity.^{24,25} In the previous section, we showed that upon treatment with HTB1_{M2}, A β 42 followed different oligomerization kinetics and equilibria, resulting in different structures for the A β 42 oligomers and fibrils (Figure 3B,C,D and Table 1). We thus hypothesized that the oligomers and fibrils formed in this alternative kinetic pathway might also result in different degrees of cell toxicity. To test this hypothesis, we monitored the viability of SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cells incubated with externally added A β 42 aggregates (oligomers and fibrils), formed in the presence or absence of HTB1_{M2}. Incubation of the cells in the presence of A β 42 aggregates (oligomers and fibrils formed from 1.3 μ M A β 42 monomers present in the incubation mixture) for 2 days reduced cell viability by 30%, as compared to untreated cells (Figure 4A). On the other hand, A β 42 aggregates (oligomers

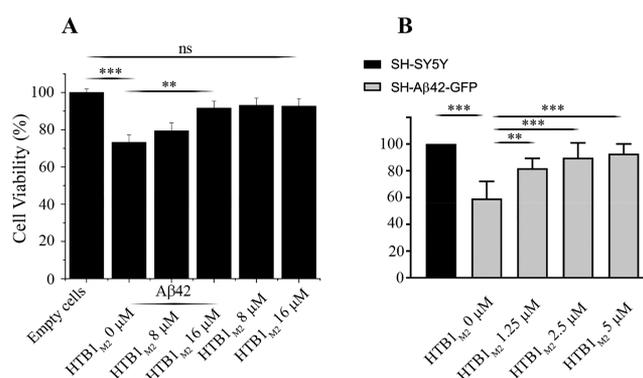


Figure 4. Effect of HTB1_{M2} on the extracellular and intracellular toxic effect of A β 42. (A) A β 42 peptides (4 μ M) were incubated in the presence or absence of HTB1_{M2} for 18 h with continuous shaking at 37 °C. The samples (diluted by a third in PBS before adding DMEM) were then incubated with SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cells for 18 h, and cell viability was monitored using an XTT kit according to the manufacturer's protocol. To check the effect of HTB1_{M2} alone on cell viability, cells were treated with 8 and 16 μ M HTB1_{M2}, and viability was monitored using an XTT kit. (B) SH-SY5Y cells stably expressing A β 42-GFP were incubated with different concentrations of HTB1_{M2} for 36 h. The viability of these cells was assayed using an XTT kit according to the manufacturer's protocol. Quantitative analysis ($n = 3$) was performed by Student's t -test; *** $P < 0.001$. Error bars indicate standard deviation (SD) of independent experiments performed in triplicate.

and fibrils) formed in the presence of 8 or 16 μ M HTB1_{M2} (the concentration and the molar ratio of HTB1_{M2} and A β 42 were kept the same in both the cell-based and *in vitro* aggregation assays) showed significantly reduced toxicity in the SH-SY5Y cells (Figure 4A). We therefore concluded that A β 42 oligomers and fibrils formed in the presence of HTB1_{M2} are off-pathway products of the A β 42 aggregation.

As A β 42 is known to induce apoptosis in neuronal cells,⁶⁵ we tested whether HTB1_{M2} can decrease the induced apoptotic effect of A β 42. Our results show that treating SH-SY5Y cells with A β 42 aggregates resulted in 27% apoptotic cells, as detected by double staining with annexin V and propidium iodide using FACS (Supporting Information Figure S6). However, when A β 42 was aggregated in the presence of HTB1_{M2}, the induced apoptotic effect of A β 42 was decreased and only 12% of the cells were detected as being apoptotic.

This result was in agreement with the results of our XTT experiments.

HTB1_{M2} Reduces Cellular Uptake of A β 42 Aggregates and the Cytotoxic Effects of Intracellular A β 42. There is evidence that intracellular and extracellular A β peptide pools are at equilibrium and that both contribute to AD pathogenesis.^{7,22} The extracellular A β oligomers interact better with the cell membrane, as compared with monomeric A β peptides, and internalize into cells, increasing the intraneuronal pool of A β .⁶⁶ Internalized A β peptides hamper the functions of the Golgi apparatus, mitochondria, and endoplasmic reticulum and induce cell apoptosis.^{67,68} As expected, we have observed the internalization of fluorescently labeled A β 42–488 aggregates (oligomers and fibrils formed from 500 nM fluorescently labeled A β 42–488 monomers present in the incubation mixture) into SH-SY5Y cells (monomer equivalent, see SI section for experimental details) (Figure 5A,B). On the other

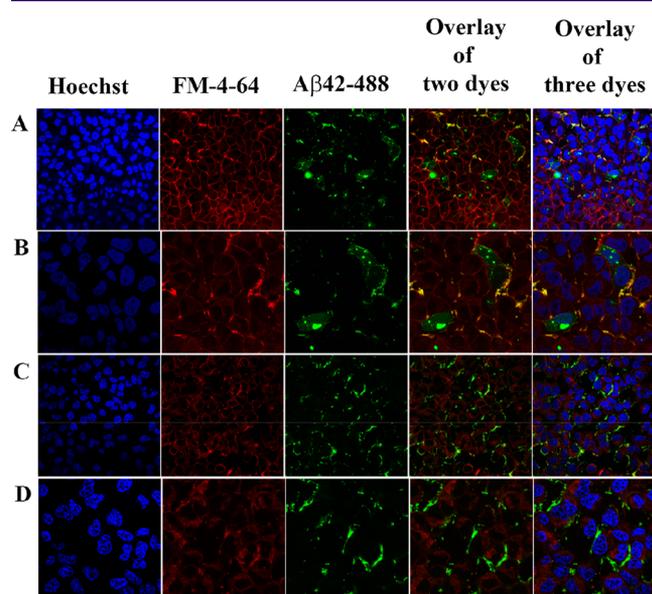


Figure 5. HTB1_{M2} blocks A β 42 oligomer and fibril internalization into SH-SY5Y cells. Hoechst and FM-4-64 dyes were used to label the nucleus and cell membrane, respectively. Hylight 488-labeled A β 42 was used to monitor the internalization of A β 42 using a 60 \times oil immersion inverted laser scanning confocal microscope. (A) Confocal image of the A β 42–488 sample. (B) The same confocal image of an A β 42–488 sample highlighting the cells and indicating internalization of A β 42. (C) Confocal image of the A β 42–488 + HTB1_{M2} sample. (D) The same confocal image of an A β 42–488 + HTB1_{M2} sample showing A β 42 localized to the cell membrane.

hand, A β 42 aggregates (oligomers and fibrils) formed in the presence of HTB1_{M2} mostly remained attached to the membrane (Figure 5C,D). The amount of internalized A β 42–488 was quantified using the Operetta high-content imaging system (See Supporting Information). In the cytosol, the fluorescence intensity of A β 42–488 aggregate-treated cells was found to be 22% higher than the intensity of cells treated with A β 42 aggregates formed in the presence of HTB1_{M2} (Supporting Information Figure S7A). Notably, HTB1_{M2} also remained attached to the cell surface in the presence of A β 42 oligomers (Supporting Information Figure S7B), as demonstrated by monitoring fluorescently labeled HTB1_{M2} using confocal microscopy.

To further elucidate the effect of HTB1_{M2} on intracellular A β 42 toxicity, we generated cells stably expressing A β 42 fused to GFP (designated as SH-A β 42–GFP) (see Supporting Information). SH-A β 42–GFP cells were inoculated with different concentrations of synthetic HTB1_{M2}, and cell viability was compared to that of untreated naive SH-SY5Y cells. Figure 4B shows that SH-A β 42–GFP cells showed \sim 40% reduced viability, relative to the naive SH-SY5Y cells, whereas cells inoculated with 2.5 or 5 μ M of HTB1_{M2} showed near 90% viability (Figure 4B). The results also show a dose-dependent prevention of the toxic effect of intracellular A β 42 by HTB1_{M2} (Figure 4B). Internalization of the fluorescently labeled HTB1_{M2} inhibitor into SH-SY5Y cells was monitored by confocal microscopy and FACS (Supporting Information Figure S8A,B). The confocal images and FACS results show HTB1_{M2} internalized into the SH-SY5Y cells (Supporting Information Figure S8A,B).

DISCUSSION

In the present study, we employed a combination of rational and combinatorial approaches to evolve HTB1 into a variant, HTB1_{M2} that binds to A β 42 peptide. We investigated the effects of HTB1_{M2} on the aggregation kinetics of A β 42 peptide and the toxicity of extracellular and intracellular A β 42 peptide aggregates. Owing to differences in the conformation of A β 40 and A β 42,^{69,70} the designed inhibitor HTB1_{M2} binds only to A β 42. HTB1_{M2}, furthermore, suppressed the aggregation A β 42 and reduced the toxic effect of A β 42 aggregates on neuroblastoma cells in a dose-dependent manner upon co-incubation of HTB1_{M2} and A β 42. HTB1_{M2} prevented the uptake of preformed A β 42 aggregates (oligomers and fibrils) into the neuroblastoma cells and increased the viability of the cells that genetically express A β 42 peptide.

Previously, we used a similar combination of rational and combinatorial approaches to develop HTB1_M, a selective inhibitor of aggregation of misfolded SOD1, a pathogenic protein in ALS.⁶⁰ That platform served as a proof of concept for the current study in which A β 42 served as target. We built our stability-patch-focused library as a universal collection of HTB1 variants with elevated potential to form stable protein–protein complexes (interfaces). The use of different target proteins was supposed to affect the selection of a variant best fitted for interaction with a particular target. This principle was demonstrated in the current study and resulted in the selection of an HTB1 variant, HTB1_{M2}, that is selective for A β 42 peptide and does not interact with SOD1^{G93A} (Supporting Information Figure S9A,B), whereas HTB1_M is selective for SOD1 mutants and does not bind A β peptides.⁶⁰

A recent study showed that certain A β fibril conformations are predominantly localized to specific brain regions in different familial AD cases.²⁵ Differences in fibril conformation are also associated with different AD phenotypes.^{24,25} Qiang et al. showed qualitative differences between A β 40 and A β 42 fibrils in AD patient brain tissue and address how this may correlate to the different phenotypes of AD.²⁴ Hence, a single drug may not suffice for treating all types of AD. As such, tailored selective inhibitors designed to target and prevent the formation of specific types of A β fibrils and oligomeric structures are key to the development of effective drugs for different types of AD. Another challenge in the development of AD therapeutics is the need to deliver the therapeutic agent to the affected regions of the brain. *In situ* expression of anti-A β scFv using an adeno-associated virus (AAV) gene delivery

system in an AD mouse model decreased $A\beta$ deposition by 25–50%.⁷¹ However, such approaches may also have their drawbacks, such as increased risk of cerebral hemorrhage, as demonstrated in a recent study.⁷² Having said that, with the advancement of different AAV-mediated vectors,^{73,74} this kind of gene delivery system will, in future, likely be very useful for sustained and controllable expression of the protein of interest in the CNS for efficient crossing of the blood–brain barrier^{73–76} and represents our choice of vehicle for testing HTB1_{M2} as a therapeutic.

To date, technological barriers have limited our ability to elucidate the structure of specific conformers linked to the different AD phenotypes in the heterogeneous pool of $A\beta$ aggregates detected in AD patient samples. To circumvent these limitations, we assumed that cell toxicity could serve as a potential marker to monitor the potential of HTB1_{M2} in reducing the formation of toxic $A\beta$ 42 species. Since both intra- and extraneuronal $A\beta$ 42 contribute to AD pathogenesis, with the latter being more documented, we evaluated the effects of HTB1_{M2} on the toxicity of both intra- and extracellular $A\beta$ 42. The HTB1_{M2} appears to modulate the aggregation kinetics of $A\beta$ 42 by altering its nucleation and elongation rate constants (Table 1), as it was previously shown for derivatives of anticalin,⁴⁵ and the oligomeric forms adopted by $A\beta$ 42 in the presence of HTB1_{M2} were less toxic to SH-SY5Y cells than those from untreated $A\beta$ 42 (Figure 4A).

Cellular uptake of extraneuronal deposits of $A\beta$ 42 is the primary source of the intraneuronal $A\beta$ 42 pool. We found that the $A\beta$ 42 aggregates (oligomers and fibrils) formed in the presence of HTB1_{M2} are less permeable to the cells, thus reducing the toxic effect of intraneuronal $A\beta$ 42 by preventing its intracellular accumulation (Figures 4B and 5C,D). We further showed that HTB1_{M2} inhibits the toxicity caused by genetically expressed intracellular $A\beta$ 42 (Figure 4B).

In summary, we have developed an inhibitor of $A\beta$ 42 aggregation and toxicity, HTB1_{M2}, that promotes the formation of $A\beta$ 42 off-pathway oligomers and fibrils that are less toxic to neuroblastoma cells, as compared to $A\beta$ 42 on-pathway oligomers and fibrils. To date, several low- to high-affinity binders of $A\beta$ peptides have been identified or developed, such as affimers, TJ10, anticalin-based scaffolds, TTR peptide and its mimetics, and others. These agents were, however, only tested against extracellular $A\beta$ aggregates; none addressed the issue of the toxicity of intracellular $A\beta$ peptides.^{45,48–52,77,78} As emerging evidence suggests that both intra- and extracellular $A\beta$ peptides contribute to neuronal death, it is important to develop inhibitors that target both $A\beta$ populations.^{19,21,22} Moreover, binding of HTB1_{M2} to $A\beta$ 42 may stabilize the unique ensemble of $A\beta$ 42 conformational states, thereby facilitating studies of these conformers by more advanced structural methods, such as cryo-EM spectroscopy, ssNMR, and X-ray crystallography. We believe that HTB1_{M2} may offer a lead compound in the development of drugs designed to inhibit both the intra- and extraneuronal toxicity of $A\beta$ peptides by stabilizing nontoxic conformations. In addition, HTB1_{M2} can serve as a tool for studying the mode of action of intra- and extracellular $A\beta$ peptides and their mechanisms of cytotoxicity in AD.

METHODS

Flow Cytometry and Cell Sorting. The yeast-displayed HTB1 library (See Supporting Information) and individual HTB1 variants were grown in SDCAA (2% dextrose, 1.47% sodium citrate, 0.429%

citric acid monohydrate, 0.67% yeast nitrogen base, and 0.5% casamino acids) selective medium and induced for expression with galactose medium (like SDCAA but containing galactose instead of dextrose), according to established protocols.^{79,80} In the first step, approximately 1×10^8 cells were incubated with different concentrations of biotinylated $A\beta$ 42 for 2 h, together with a 1:100 dilution of chicken anti-c-Myc IgY antibodies (Abcam, Cambridge, MA, U.S.A.) in PBST buffer (PBS, 50 mM NaCl, 0.05% Tween 20). Thereafter, the cells were washed with PBST and incubated with a 1:800 dilution of FITC-conjugated NeutrAvidin (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Paisley, U.K.) and a 1:100 dilution of phycoerythrin (PE)-conjugated goat anti-chicken-IgY (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Heidelberg Germany) at 25 °C for 1 h. The cells were washed again and analyzed by dual-color flow cytometry (Accuri C6, BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA). Cell sorting was carried out with a BD FACSARIA III (Ise Katz Institute for Nanoscale Science & Technology, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev (BGU)). In brief, approximately 1×10^7 cells were first sorted to select for high-expressing $A\beta$ 42-binding clones (positive for anti-c-Myc antibodies and FITC-neutravidin). Sorted cells were then grown in selective medium, and several colonies were sequenced (DNA Microarray and Sequencing Unit (DMSU), National Institute for Biotechnology in the Negev (NIBN), BGU). Following each sort, the number of yeast cells used for the subsequent sort was at least 10-fold in excess of the number of sorted cells. Several clones from each round of sorting were sequenced (DMSU, NIBN, BGU) using a previously established protocol.⁸¹ Four rounds of sorting were done with decreasing concentration of $A\beta$ 42, starting from 10 μ M. The final sort was done with 1 μ M of $A\beta$ 42. After the final sort, the selected clone was purchased from GL Biochem, Shanghai, China as a purified peptide. The peptide was synthesized in a solid phase peptide synthesizer to a purity of 97%. The molar mass of the HTB1_{M2} is 6 kDa, as measured by MALDI-TOF, a value that well matches its theoretical molar mass.

ThT Aggregation Assay for $A\beta$ Peptides. $A\beta$ peptides (4 μ M) were incubated in 200 μ L of 20 mM Na⁺/phosphate buffer, pH 7.4, 0.15 M NaCl, in the presence of 10 μ M thioflavin T (Sigma-Aldrich, Rehovot, Israel) in a black 96-well plate at 37 °C with 250 rpm continuous orbital shaking using the Infinite M1000 plate reader (Männedorf, Switzerland; Cytometry and Proteomics unit, NIBN, BGU) with fluorescence excitation and emission wavelengths set at 440 and 485 nm, respectively. Each experiment was performed in triplicate. The kinetic curves were fitted with Origin 8 software, using the following equation based on the autocatalytic model:⁵⁵

$$f(t) = \frac{\rho \{ \exp[(1 + \rho)kt] - 1 \}}{\{ \rho \exp[(1 + \rho)kt] + 1 \}}$$

under the boundary conditions of $t = 0$ and $f(t) = 0$, where $\rho = k_c a$, and k represents the dimensionless value to describe the ratio of k_n to ρ . By nonlinear regression of $f(t)$ against t , values of k and ρ can be easily obtained, and from these, so are values for the rate constants, k_c and k_n .

Analysis of $A\beta$ Fibril Formation by Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM). Samples for TEM imaging were prepared as described elsewhere.^{82,83} Briefly, at the end of an aggregation assay, 2.5 μ L of samples was deposited on a carbon-coated copper 300 mesh. A min later, excess liquid was carefully blotted with filter paper, followed by 1 min drying at ambient temperature and addition of 5 μ L of 2% uranyl acetate. After 1 min, excess of the salt solution was carefully removed with filter paper. Imaging was performed using a Tecnai G2 12 BioTWIN (FEL, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Paisley, UK) transmission electron microscope with an acceleration voltage of 120 kV (Ise Katz Institute for Nanoscale Science & Technology). Depending on the aggregate size, different magnifications were used for sample visualization. Some 14–20 images from different fields were collected for each sample for statistical purposes. The visible features were sensitive to electron beam exposure, indicating their organic nature.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

📄 Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: [10.1021/acscchemneuro.8b00491](https://doi.org/10.1021/acscchemneuro.8b00491).

Supplemental method section, YSD saturation binding titration curve for HTB1_{M2}, ITC data, kinetic data for A β peptide aggregation, cell toxicity results, microscopy internalization images of A β in SH-SY5Y cells, binding of YSD HTB1_{M2} cells dot plots, and thermodynamic parameters of the interaction between HTB1_{M2} and A β 42 (PDF)

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Author Contributions

V.B. and N.P. designed the research; V.B., O.O., and B.D. performed the research; V.B., O.O., B.D., R.T., S.E., and N.P. analyzed the data; V.B. and N.P. wrote the paper. All authors edited the manuscript and approved the final version.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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