

Computational Characterisation of Amyloid- β 40 and 42 in Alzheimer's Disease

Overview. I spent 6 weeks in the Extreme Dynamics and Therapeutics Laboratory led by Dr Gabriella Heller, where I performed multi-scale simulations of Amyloid- β ($A\beta$), which aggregates within the brain tissue of patients with Alzheimer's disease and is considered a defining hallmark of the illness. $A\beta$ exists in two forms: a toxic, aggregation-prone 42-residue variant ($A\beta_{42}$, Figure 1) found in brain tissue of patients with Alzheimer's and a C-terminally truncated 40 residue variant, which aggregates more slowly ($A\beta_{40}$, Figure 1). The aim of my research was to determine whether differences in the monomeric forms of the two peptides contribute to their varying aggregation rates, as changes in aggregation can be detected from the earliest stages of the self-association process, beginning with the pure monomeric species (1). This would allow a better understanding of which residues play a crucial role in $A\beta$ aggregation and subsequently drive rational drug design efforts to block this process.



Figure 1. A. Sequence of $A\beta_{42}$ and AB_{40} with histidine residues highlighted.

All atom molecular dynamics simulations (MD). I employed all atom metadynamics simulations using GROMACS (version 2022.5) patched with the PLUMED library (version 2.9.0) and the CHARMM22* (2) force field and TIP3P water model as these agree well with experimental data for $A\beta_{42}$ (3). To enhance sampling, parallel bias metadynamics was used which involves deposition of artificial gaussian biases along a set of defined collective variables (CVs), encouraging the system to sample previously unexplored conformations more quickly. Six identical CVs were used for both peptides, namely the α -helical content, the β -sheet content, the radius of gyration, the correlation between dihedral angles, the amount of hydrophobic contacts, and the amount of salt bridges (3). After collapsed structures of $A\beta_{40}$ and $A\beta_{42}$ were obtained using energy minimization simulations of linear peptides created using PyMol, the structures were simulated at 600 K using the NVT ensemble and 100 conformationally diverse replicas of each variant were extracted for production MD. The replicas were solvated with >10,000 water molecules, NaCl (0.137 M) and KCl ions (0.0027 M) were added, and a temperature of 278 K was used for subsequent simulations (to match experimental conditions). Charges in ionizable residues were set using a pH of 8. The replicas were energy minimized and equilibrated in the NVT and NPT ensembles for 1,000 nanoseconds each. Subsequently, production MD was started in the NPT ensemble using a timestep of 4 femtoseconds based on Hydrogen Mass Repartitioning (4). To date, around 15 μ s worth of data has been collected for each AB_{40} and $A\beta_{42}$, but not all CVs have reached convergence. Based on previous simulations of similar size, I expect to need around 30 μ s. During the academic year, I plan to continue these simulations and monitor their convergence before final analysis.

Coarse grained MD. It has been previously reported that ionizable residues play a significant role in the conformations, binding, and phase behaviour of IDPs (5). I was curious to see if this could explain differences in aggregation propensities of AB_{40} and $A\beta_{42}$ monomers. Only histidine residues, (with a pK_a of ~ 6.3), can undergo a significant change in charge state populations in a physiologically relevant pH range of 6 to 8.5. $A\beta$ has three histidine residues (positions 6, 13, and 14) that could potentially lead to a change in conformational properties of the peptide. These residues can take on a charge of either 0 or +1, leading to 8 different charge states and hence 16 simulations in total for both peptides (Figure 2). Simulating all systems with all-atom MD was prohibitively computationally expensive for my summer project. Thus, to test this hypothesis, I turned to CALVADOS2, a coarse-grained MD model optimized to predict the conformational properties and phase behaviour of IDPs at different charge states, salt concentrations, and temperatures (6, 7). I explored the ability of CALVADOS distinguish between the conformational ensembles of different histidine charge states for $A\beta_{40}$ and $A\beta_{42}$. CALVADOS2 is a C_α -based model that treats each residue in a protein sequence as a single bead with a given mass and charge. Additionally, a stickiness parameter termed 'lambda' is assigned to each residue which is utilized in a Leonard-Jones like potential to model hydrophobic interactions between residues. Salt-screened electrostatic interactions are modelled using the Debye-Huckel potential and the solvent is treated implicitly.

	H6	H13	H14
	0	0	0
	0	0	1
	0	1	0
AB40/AB42	0	1	1
	1	0	0
	1	0	1
	1	1	0
	1	1	1

Figure 2. Charge states of A β 40 and A β 42 based on permutations of histidine charges.

CALVADOS2 simulations of all permutations of histidine charge states of A β 40 and A β 42 were carried out at 278K with an ionic strength of 0.1397 M for 1,000 ns using a timestep of 10 fs (8). After convergence was reached, conformational properties of the peptides for each simulation were analysed (Figure 3). All coarse-grained simulations predict the radius of gyration (R_g) for A β 40 and A β 42 to be ~ 1.7 nm with A β 42 having a slightly larger R_g (Figure 3A). I plan to compare this with my all-atom simulations once convergence is reached. Distributions of end-to-end distance (Figure 3B), number of salt bridges (Figure 3C) and number of hydrophobic contacts (Figure 3D) in the monomeric peptides were also calculated but no differences between charge states were observed, as indicated by almost identical distributions and mean values. The only difference observed was A β 42 having a higher number of hydrophobic contacts on account of having two extra C-terminal hydrophobic residues (Figure 3D, 3E). Similarly, there were no differences observed between charge states in the number of histidine-hydrophobic contacts and histidine-salt bridges (Figures 3F and 3G) using the CALVADOS model. We also assessed solvent accessibility of residues within the peptides but no significant differences between charge states were observed.

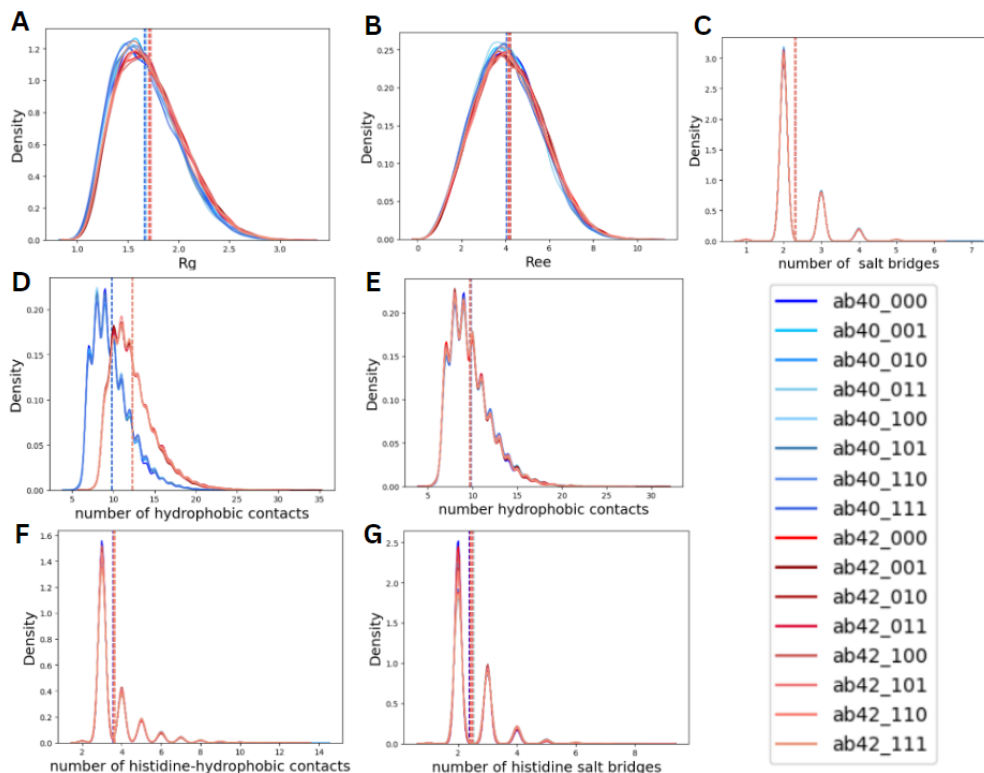


Figure 3. Summary of results for CALVADOS2 simulations of all histidine charge states of A β 40 and A β 42 monomers. Kernel density estimation distributions of radius of gyration (R_g , A), end-to-end distance (R_{ee} , B), number of salt bridges (C), number of hydrophobic contacts for all residues in A β 40 and A β 42 (D), number of hydrophobic contacts considering all residues of A β 40

and only the first 40 residues of A β 42 (E), number of histidine-salt bridges (F), and number of histidine-hydrophobic contacts (G). The dashed lines represent the means of the distributions.

Next steps. While my internship is over, I am continuing the MD simulations and hope to obtain converged trajectories results soon. Insights gained from these simulations would provide valuable information regarding A β 42 aggregation mechanism which may direct rational drug design approaches to target monomeric A β 42 and prevent its aggregation. The internship allowed me to learn about performing all-atom and coarse-grained MD simulations, enhanced sampling techniques, the physics behind these simulations, analysis of convergence using blocking, and general analysis of simulation trajectories using different software. Moreover, I learned about the rigour needed for good science and improved my science communication skills. Additionally, I experienced an interdisciplinary research laboratory environment, observed how Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) experiments are designed and carried out, and attended research symposiums and journal clubs which sparked further research ideas that I am excited to pursue. Overall, the experience made me realize that I would enjoy a research-based career and am planning to apply for PhD programmes. I am extremely grateful to the Biochemical Society to have provided me this opportunity.

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