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Direct measurement of lipid membrane disruption connects kinetics and toxicity of Aβ42 aggregation Patrick Flagmeier^{1,*}, Suman De^{1,*}, Thomas C. T. Michaels^{1,2,*}, Xiaoting Yang¹, Alexander J. Dear^{1,2}, Cecilia Emanuelsson³, Michele Vendruscolo^{1,*}, Sara Linse³, David Klenerman^{4,5,**}, Tuomas P. J. Knowles^{1,6,**} and Christopher M. Dobson¹ ¹Centre for Misfolding Diseases, Department of Chemistry, University of Cambridge, Cambridge CB2 1EW, United Kingdom ²Paulson School of Engineering and Applied Science, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138, United States of America ³Department of Chemistry, Division for Biochemistry and Structural Biology, Lund University, 221 00 Lund, Sweden ⁴Department of Chemistry, University of Cambridge, Cambridge CB2 1EW, United Kingdom ⁵UK Dementia Research Institute, University of Cambridge, Cambridge CB2 0XY, United Kingdom ⁶Cavendish Laboratory, University of Cambridge, J J Thomson Avenue, Cambridge CB3 OHE, United Kingdom * Equal contribution ** dk10012@cam.ac.uk, tpjk2@cam.ac.uk Abstract The formation of amyloid deposits within human tissues is a defining feature of more than

24 25 fifty medical disorders, including Alzheimer's disease. Strong genetic and histological 26 evidence links these conditions to the process of protein aggregation, yet it has remained 27 challenging to identify a definitive connection between aggregation and pathogenicity. Using 28 time-resolved fluorescence microscopy of individual synthetic vesicles, we show for the 29 Aβ42 peptide implicated in Alzheimer's disease that the disruption of lipid bilayers correlates 30 linearly with the time course of the levels of transient oligomers generated through secondary 31 nucleation. These findings suggest a specific role of oligomers generated through the 32 catalytic action of fibrillar species during the protein aggregation process, in driving

deleterious biological function, and establish a direct causative connection between amyloidformation and its pathological effects.

Main text

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37 Neurodegenerative conditions including Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases [1-5] have 38 emerged as major challenges to the health and social systems of the modern world as a result 39 of their increasing prevalence in our ageing populations. A substantial body of data indicates 40 that protein aggregation is a key factor underlying these disorders [6-14]. Recent progress in 41 understanding the molecular mechanisms of aggregation has revealed that these processes 42 typically involve a primary nucleation step, followed by the growth of the initial aggregates 43 through an elongation process (Fig. 1a) [15-18]. Once a critical quantity of fibrils is formed, 44 however, the aggregation reaction can be accelerated dramatically by secondary processes in 45 which fibrils formed during the aggregation reaction promote the formation of further 46 aggregates (Fig. 1a) [17,18]. A prominent example of such secondary processes is surface-47 catalysed secondary nucleation, which is particularly significant for the AB peptides 48 associated with Alzheimer's disease, and has been linked to a variety of mechanisms of 49 neuronal damage [4,5,17,18]. Indeed, the disruption of the lipid bilayer within cellular membranes by oligomeric protein aggregates, and the consequent loss of Ca²⁺ homeostasis, 50 51 has been proposed as a general mechanism of neurotoxicity [19-21].

52 In the context of Alzheimer's disease, a key objective is to connect the time 53 dependence of lipid bilayer permeability to that of the aggregation reaction and to the 54 resulting distribution of aggregated forms of A β 42, the 42-residue A β peptide that has been 55 most strongly linked to neurological damage. Such data would serve to establish the species 56 and processes associated with an ongoing A β 42 aggregation reaction that are primarily 57 responsible for causing lipid bilayer permeability. This information would be particularly 58 useful for elucidating the mechanisms of pathological protein aggregation, which still remain 59 poorly understood, a possible reason for the heterogeneous outcome of clinical trials aimed at 60 targeting amyloid formation [22-24].

To address this question, we have combined recent advances in the mechanistic analysis of experimental measurements of protein aggregation kinetics in vitro [15,25] with the development of a single molecule optochemical approach able to quantify the degree of membrane permeability resulting from the aggregation reaction at any point in time [26]. Using this platform, we reveal the dominant role of transient A β 42 oligomers generated by secondary nucleation [27] in driving membrane permeation. 68 Results

69 Link between aggregation of Aβ42 and lipid bilayer permeability

70 We first monitored the extent of membrane disruption by measuring the time dependence of 71 the permeability of the lipid bilayers of synthetic vesicles when monomeric A β 42 was 72 incubated at concentrations between 2 and 4 μ M under solution conditions where the kinetics 73 of amyloid fibril formation have been shown to be highly reproducible [28] (Extended Data 74 Figure 1 and Online Methods). We also added 2.5% molar monomer equivalents of pre-75 formed Aβ42 fibrils (seeds) to a solution of 2µM monomeric Aβ42 (Online Methods). 76 Addition of such seed fibrils accelerates the aggregation reaction by bypassing the primary 77 nucleation step, providing a convenient and robust way to disentangle secondary nucleation 78 from primary nucleation [17-18]. In each case, at specific time points, aliquots were removed from the aggregating solutions, added to lipid vesicles, and the extent of Ca^{2+} influx measured 79 using the optochemical method [26]. We found that the ability of the aggregation reaction 80 81 mixture to induce bilayer permeability increased with time, reaching a maximum value in the 82 growth phase that is clearly observable in bulk measurements, and then decreased during the 83 remainder of the aggregation reaction (Figs. 1b,c).

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Since membrane permeation is directly linked in our assay to the aggregation process, we 86 utilised a chemical kinetics approach to describe the time evolution of Ca^{2+} influx. $\Phi(t)$, in 87 88 terms of the concentrations c(t) at time t of different types of aggregate species that could 89 give rise to membrane permeability [16] (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Note 1). In particular, due to the transient nature of Ca²⁺ influx, these aggregate species include intermediate 90 91 oligomers generated either by primary nucleation (primary oligomers) or by secondary nucleation (secondary oligomers) [27]. We used the law of mass action to represent Ca^{2+} 92 influx very generally as a power-law of the concentration of oligomers, $\Phi(t) \propto c(t)^{\gamma}$, where 93 94 $\gamma \geq 1$ is the reaction order of membrane permeation with respect to the concentration of 95 oligomers (Supplementary Note 1). γ is a measure of the cooperativity between oligomers in 96 causing membrane permeation. We then described the time evolution of the concentrations of 97 primary and secondary oligomers during aggregation using a master equation 98 (Supplementary Note 1, Eq. 1). Using approaches drawing on self-consistent field theory 99 [16,27], we derived explicit mathematical expressions for the time course of fibril formation

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100 and for the concentrations of oligomers in these two specific mechanistic scenarios 101 (Supplementary Note 1), and then compared each of them to the experimental data describing the extent of Ca^{2+} influx over time (Fig. 1b,c). Specifically, we first fitted globally the 102 103 different kinetic traces of amyloid fibril formation to our kinetic model (Supplementary Note 104 1, Eq. 2) to determine combined rate parameters associated with primary and secondary 105 nucleation (Supplementary Table 1). These parameters were then implemented in the 106 theoretical oligomer concentration curves (Supplementary Note 1, Eqs. 5 and 6), leaving the 107 combined rates of oligomer dissociation and conversion, the proportionality constant between oligomer concentrations and the extent of Ca^{2+} influx, and the reaction order γ as fitting 108 parameters (Supplementary Table 2 and Supplementary Note 1). 109

110 This global analysis reveals that the membrane permeation data are well described by 111 a scenario in which the large majority of the species causing lipid bilayer permeability is 112 generated by secondary nucleation (Fig. 1c) but not by primary nucleation (Fig. 1b). Note 113 that the former scenario (Fig. 1c) explicitly considers contributions from both primary and 114 secondary oligomers (Supplementary Note 1, Eq. 8), even though the primary oligomers are a 115 significant proportion of the oligomer population only during the initial stages but are 116 otherwise outnumbered by secondary oligomers for the rest of the reaction (Extended Data 117 Figure 2). We also note that in comparing the different mechanistic scenarios, we consider fit 118 quality globally across a variety of conditions (concentration, seeds), since fits to individual 119 kinetic traces are insufficient to accept or reject a particular mechanism [16]. In particular, 120 the inability of the primary oligomer model to describe the membrane permeation data stems 121 from the fact that the primary nucleation pathway for Aβ42 is negligible in the presence of 122 pre-formed fibrils (Extended Data Figure 3) [17,18]. To provide further support to the 123 hypothesis that secondary nucleation generates the majority of species responsible for 124 membrane permeation, we performed a set of additional experiments, where the rate of 125 secondary nucleation was modulated by removing fibrils during aggregation through 126 centrifugation (Online Methods). Specifically, an aggregation reaction starting with 2 μ M 127 AB42 (lag time close to 1 hour) was stopped after 40 minutes. The aggregation mixture was 128 then centrifuged for 15 minutes to remove fibrils and reduce secondary nucleation. We also 129 performed a control experiment where the aggregation was stopped at 40 minutes and 130 restarted at 60 minutes without any centrifugation. In both cases, membrane permeation was 131 measured at 2 hours. We found that membrane permeation is significantly reduced when the 132 mixture is centrifuged, but there is no significant change when aggregation is only interrupted 133 (Fig. 1d). This result is in line with the prediction that this protocol would significantly

diminish the observed membrane permeation from secondary oligomers, which are now present at lower concentrations, but leave unaffected the toxicity from primary oligomers. The best global fit of the permeation data to the secondary oligomer model yields an exponent $\gamma \sim 1.0 \pm 0.1$ (Fig. 2a). This finding implies that the time course of Ca²⁺ influx correlates with the concentration of secondary oligomers, suggesting that membrane permeation is a first order reaction with respect to the population of secondary oligomers and is thus independent of interactions between oligomers (Fig. 2b and Extended Data Figure 4a).

- 142 We next investigated the question of whether the secondary oligomers are able to exert their 143 damaging effects directly on their formation or if they have first to convert into species that 144 are distinct from those that propagate the aggregation reaction and which possess more 145 specific deleterious activity ('lethal oligomers') analogous to events described for prion 146 diseases [29]. To this end we considered a scenario in which oligomers generated initially 147 through secondary nucleation were assumed not to be toxic but to induce bilayer permeation 148 only after a conversion step to such lethal oligomers over timescales comparable to, or longer 149 than, that of the overall aggregation process (Supplementary Note 1, Eq. 9). The comparison 150 between the model predictions and the experimental time course of membrane permeation 151 shows, however, that this model is not able to capture the kinetics of the observed behaviour 152 (Fig. 2c,d and Extended Data Figure 4b), implying that the oligomers generated on the 153 surfaces of fibrils drive membrane permeation without the need for a structural 154 reorganization that is slow relative to the overall aggregation process. As such, this finding 155 establishes a direct connection between the process of amyloid fibril formation and the toxic 156 effects associated with protein oligomers.
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158 Molecular chaperones modulate lipid bilayer permeation by Aβ42 aggregation

159 We then carried out a series of additional experiments in which the rates of key microscopic 160 steps in the A β 42 aggregation mechanism were modulated selectively by molecular 161 chaperones [30,31] (Fig. 3) in order to test further the conclusion that secondary oligomers 162 are correlated with lipid bilayer permeation. We performed experiments in the presence of 163 the chaperone DNAJB6 (0.01% molar equivalents to monomeric A β 42), which at this 164 concentration has been shown to inhibit mainly primary nucleation [31] (Extended Data 165 Figure 5), and the Brichos domain (10% molar equivalents to monomeric A β 42), that has 166 been shown to suppress secondary nucleation [30] (Extended Data Figure 6). The 167 experiments were performed at low concentrations of the chaperones in order still to be able

to detect a measurable degree of Ca^{2+} influx, as these chaperones are able to inhibit very effectively the levels of oligomers generated by nucleation processes. In each case, we recorded the effect of each chaperone on the total aggregate mass concentration, as well as on the extent of Ca^{2+} influx (Fig. 3).

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173 The alterations of the rate constants for primary and secondary nucleation in the presence of 174 the chaperones were determined by fitting the aggregate mass measurements to the analytical 175 expression for the time course of amyloid fibril formation (Supplementary Note 1, Eq. 2 and 176 Supplementary Table 3). These rate parameters were then used to simulate the effects of the 177 chaperones on the population of secondary oligomers over time (Supplementary Note 1, Eq. 178 4, solid lines), without the introduction of any additional fitting parameters. In the presence of 179 DNAJB6 (Fig. 3a), we observed a retardation of membrane permeation that is in agreement 180 with the reduction of the rate of primary nucleation as shown by the theoretical prediction (solid line). In the presence of Brichos, the rate and total extent of Ca^{2+} influx were observed 181 182 to be reduced, in agreement with the theoretical prediction for the inhibition of secondary 183 nucleation (Fig. 3b). Moreover, turning off secondary nucleation increases the relative importance of oligomers generated by primary nucleation shifting the predicted peak of Ca²⁺ 184 185 influx to earlier times, in agreement with the experiments. We also studied the effect on 186 membrane permeation of a mutational variant of DNAJB6, M3 (Online Methods). M3 has 187 been found to leave the overall aggregation reaction of A β 42 unchanged (Extended Data Figure 7a) [31], and indeed, we find here that M3 has no detectable effect on the extent of 188 Ca²⁺ influx (Extended Data Figure 7b). Overall, therefore, the results of this study 189 demonstrate that the oligomers generated by secondary nucleation during the aggregation of 190 191 AB42 are the major species responsible, at least in vitro, for disrupting lipid bilayers and permitting an influx of Ca²⁺ ions into vesicles. 192

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194 Secondary Aβ42 oligomers in different systems

Finally, we sought to investigate whether or not the predictions from our model would also allow us to rationalise the role of secondary oligomers in driving toxicity in cellular and animal models (Fig. 4). To this end, we compared our lipid bilayer permeation data with the reduction of viability of cells in culture and with the reduction of gamma oscillations in mouse brain slices, each representing a different readout of the toxic effects of aggregation in vivo [30]. In particular, we measured the maximal extent of lipid bilayer permeation in the presence of increasing concentrations of Brichos to reduce the rate of secondary nucleation and hence to reduce the production of secondary $A\beta 42$ oligomers. We then used our theoretical model (Supplementary Note 1, Eq. 11 and Extended Data Figure 8) to predict quantitatively the concentrations of secondary oligomers in the presence of different concentrations of Brichos.

The resulting solid line in Fig. 4 is able to capture the experimentally measured extent of bilayer permeation in vitro. In addition, however, the reduction in the degree of membrane disruption in the presence of Brichos correlates qualitatively with our previous in vivo experimental measurements of cell death and the impairment of gamma oscillations in mouse brain slices [30] (Fig. 4).

211

212 DISCUSSION

213 Overall, our results suggest a dominant deleterious role of secondary oligomers resulting 214 from the aggregation of A β 42 in vitro and in vivo. While it is likely that there are additional 215 and more specific mechanisms of toxicity in vivo, such as interactions with receptors and 216 other cellular components [1-5,32], our study indicates that the A β 42 oligomers are able to 217 cause lipid membrane disruption, which is directly linked to cellular damage [19,20]. In this 218 context, a variety of results obtained previously can be rationalised in terms of secondary 219 oligomers populated during the aggregation process, since their generation requires the 220 presence of both monomeric and fibrillar forms of the protein. Thus, for example, the 221 presence of seed fibrils in addition to monomeric protein in animal models has been found to 222 induce the formation of aggregates of A β 42 associated with neurotoxicity within the brain 223 [33]. In addition, the concentration-dependent induction of Aβ aggregation, and its associated 224 detrimental effects in model organisms upon administration of pathological brain extracts 225 [34], correlate with the observations from in vitro studies.

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In conclusion, our study links directly the generation of secondary oligomers in the presence of monomeric and fibrillar forms of A β 42, to the disruption of lipid membranes. These results, therefore, show directly that aggregation of the A β 42 peptide is specifically linked to the evolution of membrane disruption that gives rise to the type of cellular damage that has been linked to Alzheimer's disease.

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Methods. Details of the experimental materials and methods, mathematical modelling, anddata fitting are available in the online version of the paper.

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243			
244	Author contributions. P.F. and S.D. performed the experiments; T.C.T.M. developed the		
245	theoretical model and performed the kinetic analysis; all authors participated in designing the		
246	study, interpreting the results and writing the paper. P.F., S.D. and T.C.T.M. contributed		
247	equall	y to this work.	
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Figure captions

340 Figure 1. Link between aggregation of Aβ42 and lipid bilayer permeability: secondary 341 nucleation generates the oligomers that are associated with the lipid bilayer permeation 342 induced by A β 42 aggregation. (a) Schematic illustration of the network of molecular steps 343 involved in A β 42 aggregation and the oligometric species with the potential to cause lipid 344 bilayer permeability (see Supplementary Note 1 for details) [17,27]. (b)-(c) Kinetic analysis of the time evolution of the extent of Ca^{2+} influx during A β 42 aggregation when monomeric 345 AB42 was incubated under quiescent conditions at concentrations of 2 µM (first row), 3 µM 346 (second row), 4 µM (third row), and 2 µM in the presence of 2.5% preformed seed fibrils 347 (fourth row). (b) Best fit of experimental Ca^{2+} -influx data to a kinetic model that assumes 348 349 only oligomers generated by primary nucleation to be responsible for lipid bilayer permeation 350 (Supplementary Note 1, Eq. 7, solid lines). Coefficient of determination for global fits 351 $R^2 = 0.91$. (c) Best fit of the same experimental data to a kinetic model that assumes oligomers generated through secondary nucleation to be responsible for Ca^{2+} influx 352 (Supplementary Note 1, Eq. 8, solid lines). The various measurements of Ca^{2+} influx at 353 354 different concentrations of $A\beta 42$ and in the presence of pre-formed fibrils are consistent with 355 a kinetic model where secondary nucleation generates the majority of oligomers that cause 356 lipid bilayer permeability. The fitting parameters, the derivation of the equations and a 357 detailed description of the analysis can be found in the Supplementary Note 1 and 358 Supplementary Tables 1 and 2. (d) Fibril spin down experiment. An aggregation reaction 359 starting with 2 μ M monomeric Aβ42 was taken out at 40 min and put back at 60 min following centrifugation to remove fibrils (purple data) or without centrifugation (green 360 data). The bar charts show the measured for the extent of Ca^{2+} influx at 2 hours. Error bars 361 362 indicate the standard error of the mean (SEM) over triplicates.

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Figure 2. Role of oligomer cooperativity and structural reorganization. (a)-(b) Best fit of experimental Ca²⁺-influx data to a secondary oligomer kinetic model with reaction order ($\gamma = 1$ (low oligomer cooperativity, (a)) and $\gamma > 1$ (high oligomer cooperativity, (b); fit shown here for $\gamma = 3$, see Extended Data Figure 4a). (c)-(d) Analysis of membrane 368 permeation measurements using a kinetic model that assumes that oligomers generated 369 initially through secondary nucleation are not damaging upon their formation, but are 370 required to convert into species that are able to induce bilayer permeation. The theoretical 371 predictions were generated assuming either fast $(1/\tau \ll \kappa, (c))$ or slow $1/\tau \gtrsim \kappa, (d)$; see 372 Extended Data Figure 4b) rate of toxic conversion compared to the characteristic 373 proliferation rate of the aggregation reaction (κ) [16]. This analysis shows that, in order to 374 describe the membrane permeation data, it is not necessary to invoke a slow conversion step 375 of oligomers into species that are able to induce bilayer permeation. If such a conversion step 376 exists, it must occur on a timescale that is faster than that of the overall aggregation process. 377 Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean (SEM) over triplicates.

378

379 Figure 3. Molecular chaperones modulate lipid bilayer permeation induced by the 380 aggregation of A β 42. (a)-(b) The effects of two different types of molecular chaperone on lipid bilayer permeability were measured as monomeric AB42 was incubated at a 381 382 concentration of 2 μ M under quiescent conditions in the presence of (a) DNAJB6 (0.01%) 383 molar equivalents to monomeric A β 42) or (b) Brichos (10% molar equivalents to monomeric A β 42). The plots show both the time evolution of amyloid fibril formation and of Ca²⁺ influx 384 385 in the absence and presence of the respective chaperone. We first fitted our measurements of 386 fibril mass formation to the analytical expression for the aggregation time course 387 (Supplementary Note 1, Eq. 2) to determine how the effective rates of primary and secondary 388 nucleation are affected by the chaperones (solid lines). The rate parameters extracted from 389 the analysis (Supplementary Table 3) were then implemented in the analytical expression for 390 the concentration of secondary oligomers (Supplementary Note 1, Eq. 4) to predict the 391 modulation of lipid bilayer permeability (solid lines). Except for the reduction of the rates of 392 primary and secondary nucleation, the parameters used for calculating the theoretical curves for Ca^{2+} influx were the same as in Fig. 1c. The data in (a) and (b) agree with a model in 393 394 which membrane permeation correlates with the levels of oligomers generated by secondary 395 nucleation. Indeed, in such a model, inhibiting primary nucleation using DNAJB6 delays the 396 build-up, but does not reduce significantly the total concentration of oligomers. Inhibiting 397 secondary nucleation using Brichos, however, reduces significantly the total level of oligomers. The bar charts show the relative maximal extent of Ca^{2+} influx induced by the 398 399 aggregation of 2 μ M A β 42 in the absence and presence of DNAJB6 and Brichos, 400 respectively. Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean (SEM) over triplicates.

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402 Figure 4. Common role of secondary AB42 oligomers in generating aggregation-403 associated damage in different systems. Common role of secondary Aβ42 oligomers in 404 generating aggregation-associated damage in different systems. The presence of increasing 405 concentrations of Brichos reduces the experimentally measured maximal levels of lipid 406 bilayer permeability (green triangles). These measurements are consistent with the theoretical 407 prediction of the reduction of A β 42 oligomers generated by secondary nucleation (solid line, 408 see Supplementary Note 1, Eq. 11). Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean (SEM) 409 over triplicates. Moreover, the reduction in lipid bilayer permeability in the presence of 50%410 molar equivalents of Brichos correlates broadly with the observed reduction of the viability 411 of cells in culture (blue circles) and the reduced loss in gamma oscillation in mouse brain 412 slices (pink squares). The cell and mouse brain slice data are taken from Ref. [30].

413

414 Online Methods

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416 **Preparation and purification of recombinant Aβ42**

417 The recombinant A β 42 (M1-42) peptide (MDAEFRHDSGYEVHHQKLVFF 418 AEDVGSNKGAIIGLMVGGVVIA), here called A β 42, was expressed in the Escherichia coli 419 BL21 Gold (DE3) strain and purified as described previously with slight modifications 420 [25,35].

421

422 Preparation of recombinant Aβ42 for kinetic experiments

Solutions of monomeric recombinant A β 42 were prepared as previously described by dissolving the lyophilised A β 42 peptide in 6 M GuHCl then purifying the protein using a Superdex 75 10/300 GL column (GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences AB SE-751 84 Uppsala, Sweden). The centre of the elution peak was collected, and the peptide concentration was determined from the absorbance of the integrated peak area using $\varepsilon_{280} = 1490$ L mol⁻¹cm⁻¹.

428

429 Measurement of aggregation kinetics of Aβ42

For kinetic experiments the A β 42 monomer was diluted with buffer and supplemented with 20 μ M ThT. All samples were prepared in low-binding Eppendorf tubes (Eppendorf AG, Hamburg, Germany) on ice. Each sample was then pipetted into multiple wells of a 96-well half-area, low-binding polyethylene glycol coating plate (Corning 3881, Kennebuck ME, USA) with a clear bottom, at 80 μ L per well. The 96-well plate was placed in a plate reader (Fluostar Omega, Fluostar Optima, or Fluostar Galaxy; BMG Labtech, Ortenberg, Germany) and incubated at 37° C under quiescent conditions using the bottom reading mode (440-nm excitation filter, 480-nm emission filter). For each new preparation of protein, the aggregation kinetics were checked by performing reactions at different concentrations of Aβ42.

440

441 Aβ42 aggregation

442 A β 42 aggregation reactions were performed in 20 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 8, 443 supplemented with 20 µM ThT and 200 µM EDTA. Samples were prepared in low-binding 444 Eppendorf tubes on ice by avoiding any introduction of air bubbles. All aggregation reactions 445 were performed in a 96-well half area, low-binding, clear-bottom PEG coated plate (Corning 446 3881, Kennebuck ME, USA). Plates were sealed to prevent any evaporation. Aggregation 447 assays were performed at 37°C under quiescent conditions. Aliquots for measurements of Ca^{2+} influx were then taken into low-binding tubes at the desired times after the plate was 448 449 placed in the incubator.

450

451 Seeded aggregation

452 Pre-formed fibrils of A β 42, which are used as seed, were prepared just before the experiment. 453 Fibrils were prepared by aggregating 4 μ M A β 42 for overnight in 20 mM sodium phosphate, 454 200 µM EDTA, pH 8.0 and 20 µM ThT. ThT fluorescence was monitored over time to ensure 455 that the fibrils were formed. Then samples were collected from the wells into low-binding 456 Eppendorf tubes and sonicated for 2 min in a sonicator bath at room temperature. Under this 457 condition, the final concentration of fibrils (4 μ M A β 42) was considered to be equal to the 458 initial concentration of the monomer, as there was negligible presence of free monomer left 459 in solution. Preformed A β 42 fibrils (2.5%) were subsequently added to the 2 μ M freshly 460 prepared monomer solution to perform seeded aggregation. This aggregation reaction was 461 also performed in 20 mM sodium phosphate, 20 µM ThT, 200 µM EDTA at pH 8.0at 37°C 462 under quiescent conditions.

463

464 **Preparation and purification of the BRICHOS domain**

465 proSP-C Brichos was expressed in E. coli and purified as described previously [36].

466

467 Preparation and purification of the chaperone DNAJB6 and its mutational variant M3

468 Human DNAJB6b (isoform b, UniProt ID O75190-2) with a hexa-His tag was expressed

469 recombinantly in E. coli ER2566 and purified as described previously [31] but with an

additional washing step using 8 M urea during the affinity chromatography in order to
remove bound bacterial proteins [37]. Just prior to its use, DNAJB6 was dialysed into the
assay buffer (20 mm sodium phosphate buffer pH 8, 0.2 mm EDTA, 0.02% sodium azide)

473 using Slide-A-Lyser MINI (Thermo Scientific, Rockford, IL).

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475 **Preparation and purification of dye filled vesicles**

476 The dye filled vesicles were prepared as previously described [26]. Phospholipids 16:0-18:1 477 PC (catalogue no - 850457) and biotinylated lipids 18:1-12:0 Biotin PC (catalogue no -478 860563) were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids (Alabama, USA) in the form of powder 479 and chloroform solutions respectively. Chloroform stock solutions were mixed such that the 480 ratio between 16:0-18:1 PC and 18:1-12:0 biotin PC was 100:1, and the chloroform was then 481 removed under vacuum in a desiccator overnight. The samples were then dissolved in 482 HEPES buffer (pH 6.5) with 100 µM Cal-520 and five freeze-and-thaw cycles were 483 performed using dry ice and a water bath. The solution was passed at least 10 times through 484 an extruder (Avanti Polar Lipids, Alabama, USA) with a membrane of an appropriate size cut 485 off of 200 µm. The size of the vesicles was determined using a Zetasizer (Zetasizer Nano 486 ZSP, Malvern Instruments, Malvern, UK). To separate non-incorporated dye molecules from 487 the solution surrounding the vesicles, size-exclusion chromatography was performed [26].

488

489 Preparation of PEGylated slides and immobilization of single vesicles

490 We followed the previously described protocol for slide preparation to perform the 491 membrane permeabilisation assay [26]. Borosilicate glass coverslides (VWR International, 492 22x22 mm, product number 63 1-0122) were cleaned by subsequent sonication in 2% (v/v) 493 Hellmanex III (Hellma GmbH & Co. KG, Muellheim, Germany) in milliQ water, twice in 494 milliQ water, methanol and again in water for 10 min each. The glass slides were dried under 495 a nitrogen stream, and plasma-etched using an argon plasma cleaner (PDC-002, Harrick 496 Plasma, Ithaca, NY) for 20 minutes before Frame-Seal incubation chambers (9x9mm², Biorad, Hercules, CA, product number SLF-0601) were affixed to the glass slides. 50 µL of a 497 498 mixture of 100:1 PLL-g-PEG (SuSoS AG, Duebendorf, Switzerland) and PLL-g-PEG biotin 499 (SuSoS AG, Duebendorf, Switzerland) (1 g/L) in reaction buffer (50 mM Hepes, pH 6.5) was 500 added to the coverslide inside of the chamber and incubated for 30 min. Then the coverslides 501 were washed 3 times with filtered reaction buffer. 50 μ L of a solution of 0.1 mg/mL 502 Neutravidin (ThermoScientific, Rockford, IL 61105, USA) in reaction buffer was added to 503 the coverslide and incubated for 15 min, and washed 3 times with reaction buffer. Then, 50 504 μ L of the solution of purified vesicles was added to the coverslide and incubated for 30 min 505 before washing carefully at least 5 times with reaction buffer.

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507 Imaging using Total Internal Reflection Fluorescence Microscope

508 Imaging was performed using a homebuilt Total Internal Reflection Fluorescence 509 Microscope (TIRFM) based on an inverted Olympus IX-71 microscope as previously 510 described in detail [26]. A 488 nm laser (Toptica, iBeam smart, 200 mW, Munich, Germany) 511 was used to excite the sample. The expanded and collimated laser beam was focused using 512 two Plano-convex lens onto the back-focal plane of the 60X, 1.49NA oil immersion objective 513 lens (APON60XO TIRF, Olympus, product number N2709400) to a spot of adjustable 514 diameter. The fluorescence signal was collected by the same objective and was separated 515 from the excitation beam by a dichroic (Di01-R405/488/561/635, Semrock). The emitted 516 light was passed through an appropriate set of filters (BLP01-488R, Semrock and FF01-517 520/44-25, Semrock). The fluorescence signal was then passed through a 2.5x beam expander 518 and imaged onto a 512 x 512 pixel EMCCD camera (Photometrics Evolve, E VO-512-M-FW-16-AC-110). Images were acquired with a 488nm laser (10 W/cm²) for 50 frames with a 519 520 scan speed of 20 Hz and bit depth of 16 bits. Each pixel corresponds to 100 nm. All the 521 measurements were carried out under ambient conditions (T=295K). The open source 522 microscopy manager software Micro Manager 1.4 was used to control the microscope 523 hardware and image acquisition.

524

525 Performing the Ca²⁺ influx assay using TIRFM

526 The imaging of the induced membrane permeability was performed as previously described 527 [26]. Single vesicles tethered to PLL-PEG coated borosilicate glass coverslides (VWR 528 International, 22x22 mm, product number 63 1-0122) were placed on an oil immersion 529 objective mounted on an inverted Olympus IX-71 microscope. Each coverslide was affixed to 530 Frame-Seal incubation chambers and was incubated with 50 μ L of HEPES buffer of pH 6.5. Just before the imaging, the HEPES buffer was replaced with 50 μ L Ca²⁺ containing buffer 531 532 solution L-15. 16 (4x4) images of the coverslide were recorded under three different 533 conditions (background, in the presence of A β 42 and after addition of ionomycin (Cambridge 534 Bioscience Ltd, Cambridge, UK), respectively). The distance between each field of view was 535 set to 100 µm, and was automated (bean-shell script, Micromanager) to avoid any user bias. 536 After each measurement the script allowed the stage (Prior H117, Rockland, MA, USA) to 537 move the field of view back to the start position such that identical fields of view could be 538 acquired for the three different conditions.

539

540 Data analysis to quantify the extent of Ca²⁺ influx

541 The fluorescence intensity of individual vesicles was determined as previously described 542 [26]. The recorded images were analysed using ImageJ to determine the fluorescence 543 intensity of each spot under the three different conditions, namely background ($F_{background}$), in 544 the presence of an aggregation mixture ($F_{aggregate}$), and after the addition of ionomycin 545 ($F_{ionomycin}$). The relative influx of Ca²⁺ into an individual vesicle due to aggregates of Aβ42 546 peptide was then determined using the following equation:

$$Ca^{2+} influx = \Phi = \frac{F_{aggregate} - F_{background}}{F_{ionomycin} - F_{background}}$$

547 The average degree of Ca^{2+} influx was calculated by averaging the Ca^{2+} influx into individual 548 vesicles.

549

550 Fibril spin down experiment

551 To check if the oligomers formed during secondary nucleation are the major source of 552 species causing membrane permeabilisation, we performed an aggregation where the rate of 553 secondary nucleation was substantially reduced by removing insoluble fibrils from the 554 aggregation reaction. We aggregated 2 μ M A β 42 in 20 mM sodium phosphate buffer at pH 8, 555 mixed with 20 µM ThT, 200 µM EDTA for 40 minutes in clear bottom 96 well plates (lag 556 phase ~ 1 hour) and then arrested the aggregation by putting it to the ice bath. Immediately 557 we then transferred the aggregation mixture into a low-binding Eppendorf and centrifuged for 558 15 minutes at 4°C to remove as many fibrils as possible. Then we transferred the supernatant 559 back into clear bottom 96 well plates for 60 minutes at 37°C and followed the aggregation. 560 We also performed a control experiment where the aggregation was stopped at 40 minutes 561 using ice bath and the aggregation restarted at 60 minutes at 37°C without any centrifugation. 562

Further information on experimental design is available in the Nature Research ReportingSummary linked to this article.

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566 Code availability All simulation and data analysis codes are included in this article and its
 567 Supplementary Information. Codes are available from the corresponding authors on request.

568			
569			
570	Data availability The authors confirm that all data generated and analysed during this study		
571	are included in this published article and its Supplementary Information. Source data for		
572	Figures 1,3 and 4 are available with the paper online.		
573			
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