Water Distribution, Dynamics, and Interactions with Alzheimer’s -Amyloid Fibrils Investigated by Solid-State NMR

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<tr>
<td>Publisher</td>
<td>American Chemical Society (ACS)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Version</td>
<td>Author's final manuscript</td>
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<tr>
<td>Accessed</td>
<td>Tue Feb 19 07:43:09 EST 2019</td>
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Water Distribution, Dynamics and Interactions with Alzheimer’s β-Amyloid Fibrils Investigated by Solid-State NMR

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Abstract

Water is essential for protein folding and assembly of amyloid fibrils. Internal water cavities have been proposed for several amyloid fibrils, but no direct structural and dynamical data have been reported on the water dynamics and site-specific interactions of water with the fibrils. Here we use solid-state NMR spectroscopy to investigate the water interactions of several Aβ40 fibrils. ¹H spectral lineshapes, T₂ relaxation times, and 2D ¹H-¹³C correlation spectra show that there are five distinct water pools: three are peptide-bound water while two are highly dynamic water that can be assigned to interfibrillar water and bulk-like matrix water. All these water pools are associated with the fibrils on the nanometer scale. Water-transferred 2D correlation spectra allow us to map out residue-specific hydration, and give evidence for the presence of a water pore in the center of the three-fold symmetric wild-type Aβ40 fibril. In comparison, the loop residues and the intramolecular strand-strand interface have low hydration, excluding the presence of significant water cavities in these regions. The Osaka Aβ40 mutant shows lower hydration and more immobilized water than wild-type Aβ40, indicating the influence of peptide structure on the dynamics and distribution of hydration water. Finally, the highly mobile interfibrillar and matrix water exchange with each other on the timescale of seconds, suggesting that fibril bundling separates these two water pools, and water molecules must diffuse along the fibril axis before exchanging between these two environments. These results provide insights and experimental constraints on the spatial distribution and dynamics of water pools in these amyloid fibrils.
Introduction

Water plays a critical role in protein folding, function, and thermodynamic stability. Solid-state NMR spectroscopy has been used extensively to investigate site-specific hydration of globular proteins, membrane-bound proteins, and biomolecular assemblies such as bacteriophages, plant cell walls, and bones. In comparison, water interactions with amyloid fibrils, β-sheet rich protein aggregates that occur in both functional proteins and pathologically misfolded proteins, have not been studied in detail. Early analysis of X-ray diffraction patterns of polyglutamine fibrils led to the proposal that many amyloids may be water-filled nanotubes, but subsequent analysis of the diffraction patterns and experimental data cast doubt on this conclusion. Instead, both anhydrous and water-encapsulating amyloids have been reported. For example, crystal structures of microcrystals formed by Gln- and Asn-rich peptides derived from the yeast prion Sup35p showed anhydrous steric-zipper interfaces, suggesting that the β-sheet structure may be entropically stabilized by exclusion of water. However, to date, crystallographic structures have been limited to very short fragments of the full amyloid-forming region of proteins, hence primarily provide insight into the packing motifs that can be propagated in a crystal lattice, and presumably also within the most packed regions of a fibril. Application of high hydrostatic pressure to α-synuclein, a major component of the Lewy bodies of Parkinson’s disease, caused fibril dissociation, suggesting that the hydrophobic core of the protein is dry until water is pushed into the core. Dry and hydrated α-synuclein fibrils showed no NMR chemical shift differences, also suggesting an absence of internal water in these fibrils. On the other hand, internal water cavities have been proposed for other amyloid fibrils. For example, comparison of the SSNMR determined structure of transthyretin fibrils with the reconstructed cryo-EM density maps led to the conclusion of large water cavities inside the fibrils, presumably hydrating the polar sidechains. X-ray fiber diffraction analysis has been conducted on three-fold symmetric fibrils formed by the Alzheimer’s β-amyloid peptide. Comparison of the experimental equatorial diffraction intensities with the simulated patterns for various structural models led to the proposal that the three-fold fibrils contain a “hollow”, water-filled, core at the trimer interface, which enlarged the volume of the original SSNMR structural model. Molecular dynamics simulations of Aβ(9-40) fibrils suggest that there may be multiple small internal hydration pockets in Aβ fibrils, which solvate a salt-bridge stabilized loop and the C-terminus. Apart from these diffraction, microscopy, and simulation studies, direct site-specific experimental data about the spatial distribution, dynamics and protein interactions of the hydration water of amyloid fibrils has not been reported.

In general, a complete description of the packing of amyloid fibrils requires consideration of a large number of potential water environments – each reflecting the hierarchic assembly of amyloid fibrils and each with distinct properties: 1) the most ordered waters are expected to play structural roles and help stabilize polar sidechains within tightly packed regions of the fibril, similar to crystallographic waters within native proteins; 2) voids may occur within fibrils, e.g., near the central three-fold axis of Aβ fibrils; 3) protofibrils and fibrils assemble along partially or fully hydrated interfaces to form the morphologies seen by electron microscopy; 4) fibrils form hydrogels, which are expected to have large regions of water with properties approaching that of bulk water; 5) finally, amyloids such as those formed by tau and PrP have only a fraction of their sequences within the well-ordered amyloid, the remainder being either disordered or folded into small, poorly oriented folded domains. Aβ is noteworthy among proteins implicated in neurodegeneration in that the majority of its sequence lies within the amyloid-forming region, minimizing the contribution from extraneous domains that can complicate the understanding of the various classes of water.
We therefore investigated residue-specific water interactions with the fibrils formed by three Aβ peptides, wild-type (WT) Aβ40, the Osaka (E22Δ) mutant and the Arctic (E22G) mutant. Specifically, we probe the different types of water environments within a suspension of fibrils, and examine whether water molecules associated with amyloid fibrils deviate significantly from waters of hydration seen in other biomolecules, and whether the molecular structure differences among the Aβ40 subtypes correlate with differences in water dynamics and distribution. High-resolution structures of wild-type and Osaka Aβ40 fibrils have been determined, which provide a framework for describing the site-specific hydration of these assemblies. WT Aβ40 can exhibit at least three different molecular structures depending on the experimental conditions, while the E22Δ mutant is monomorphic and has a different structure from any of the WT Aβ40 polymorphs. The structure of Arctic Aβ40 is still unknown, and Arctic Aβ40 is highly polymorphic; however, a recent chemical shift analysis suggested that one of the main polymorphs of Arctic Aβ40 resembles wild-type Aβ42, whose high-resolution structure was determined recently. In this study, we focus on the three-fold symmetric polymorph of the WT Aβ40 fibril and the monomorphic Osaka fibril. Using direct and indirect detection of water ¹H magic-angle spinning (MAS) NMR spectra and 2D correlation experiments, we have identified five water pools associated with these fibrils. We present data on the volumes, dynamics, protein interactions, and spatial locations of these different water pools. Our data indicate that the hydration water of amyloid fibrils is more heterogeneous and has different macromolecular interactions from the hydration waters associated with lipid membranes, cell walls, and microcrystalline proteins. These differences reflect the unique molecular environments presented by the hierarchic assembly of amyloids, and inform strategies for approaching the early detection and therapeutic intervention of protein misfolding diseases.

Material and Methods

Peptide synthesis

¹³C, ¹⁵N-labeled Aβ40 peptides were synthesized using a microwave peptide synthesizer (Alstra – Initiator, 0.2 mmol scale) with preloaded Chemmatrix-HMPB-Val resin (substitution level - 0.5 mmol/g). Fmoc deprotection was performed by treatment with 0.1 M HOBt in 20% 4-methyl piperidine in DMF for 5 min at 70°C. The coupling was performed twice with Fmoc amino acids (5 eq), HCTU (4.98 eq), and DIPEA (10 eq) for 5 min at 75°C. For ¹³C, ¹⁵N-labeled residues, labeled Fmoc amino acid (1.5 eq), HCTU (1.49 eq), and DIPEA (3 eq) were used in the first coupling while the second coupling was performed using unlabeled Fmoc amino acid (5 eq), HCTU (4.98 eq), and DIPEA (10 eq). His residues were double-coupled at room temperature for 30 min and Arg5 was triple-coupled. After coupling with Ala at residue 21, N-capping was performed with Ac₂O (10 eq) and DIPEA (20 eq) for 1 h. Cleavage was performed in a cocktail of TFA: TIPS: DTT (95:2.5:2.5) for 3 h, and the peptide was precipitated by cold ether and purified by reverse-phase HPLC using a Vydac C4 column at 60°C. The fraction containing the desired peptide was pooled and lyophilized.

The Osaka and Arctic Aβ40 peptides contain ¹³C, ¹⁵N-labeled residues at F19, A21, I32, L34, V36 and G38. Two WT Aβ40 peptides were synthesized. The first contains the same ¹³C, ¹⁵N-labeled residues as the Osaka and Arctic peptides while the second peptide contains labeled residues at V12, F19, A21, V24, A30, I32, L34 and M35, giving a total of ten labeled residues in this sequence.

Fibrillization

Purified and lyophilized peptide was dissolved in HFIP (5 mg/mL). 40 µL of this peptide solution was transferred to a 1.5 mL polypropylene eppendorf tube (VWR 87003-294) using a glass
A total of 20 tubes were prepared in this way for 4 mg of lyophilized peptide to ensure that each tube contains 0.2 mg of Aβ40. HFIP was then removed by evaporation overnight, and residual solvent was further removed by Speedvac for 30 min. The peptide film in the tube was diluted with 20 µL of DMSO via a glass syringe to make a 10 mg/mL solution. The solution was briefly vortexed for 5-10 seconds and sonicated in a water bath for 5 min. 4 or 5 tubes were sonicated in one batch, and each tube was mixed with 980 µL of 10 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH = 7.2) and slowly pipetted 2-3 times to ensure mixing. The tube was then placed in the shaker at 37˚C, 900 rpm for 72-74 hrs. After shaking, the tube contents were carefully removed by pipet and transferred to a polycarbonate thick-wall centrifuge tube. A small amount (100-200 µL) of fresh buffer was used to transfer the residual fibril in the eppendorf tube. Each thick-wall centrifuge tube contains the contents from two eppendorf tubes. The samples were ultracentrifuged at 95,000 rpm for 1 h at 4˚C, giving clearly visible fibrils as opaque pellets. The supernatant was removed by a syringe and the fibril solution from another two eppendorf tubes was added to the same tube and spun at 95,000 rpm for 1 h at 4˚C. The supernatant was again discarded by a syringe. The pellet was suspended in a small amount of phosphate buffer (500 µL) and the suspension was combined into an eppendorf tube by a pipette. The suspension in the eppendorf tube was spun again at 16,100 RCF for 1 h at 4˚C, and the supernatant was removed using a syringe to obtain the pellet.

**Solid-state NMR spectroscopy**

Hydrated Aβ40 fibrils in the form of homogeneous translucent gels were centrifuged into 3.2 mm MAS rotors. All fibrils contain excess water relative to the peptide mass. We quantified the peptide and water masses of the samples by comparing the ¹H and ¹³C spectral intensities together with gravimetric measurement of one of the fibrils after full lyophilization. Multiple WT Aβ40 samples were prepared and all have hydration levels in a narrow range of 80-84% (w/w). The Osaka and Arctic Aβ40 fibrils have moderately lower hydrations of 64% and 74%, respectively. Direct inspection after spinning the samples at 10.5 kHz for extended periods of time indicates that there is no separate pool of supernatant water in the middle of the MAS rotors. Thus, at the hydration levels and MAS frequencies used in this study, water is well mixed with the fibrils and does not separate under the centrifugal force of MAS.

Most solid-state NMR spectra were measured on a Bruker Avance II 800 MHz (18.8 Tesla) spectrometer using a 3.2 mm triple-resonance HCN probe. Typical radiofrequency (rf) field strengths were 50-71 kHz for ¹H, 50-63 kHz for ¹³C, and 36 kHz for ¹⁵N. 0.5 mg DSS was added to the samples to allow water ¹H chemical shifts to be referenced internally to the DSS signal at 0 ppm. ¹³C chemical shifts were externally referenced to the adamantane CH₂ signal at 40.48 ppm on the DSS scale. ¹⁵N chemical shifts were externally referenced to the Met amide signal (127.88 ppm) of N-formyl-Met-Leu-Phe-OH² on the liquid ammonia scale. For variable-temperature 1D ¹H MAS experiments, all samples were equilibrated for at least twenty minutes between different temperatures. Long recycle delays of 4-10 s were used to minimize heating by radiofrequency pulses. The sample temperatures indicated here are thermocouple-reported values, which refer to the bearing gas temperature. At the MAS frequency of 10.5 kHz used in this work, the actual sample temperature is about 5 K higher than the thermocouple-reported values, as shown by the fact that at the thermocouple-reported temperature of 298 K, the water ¹H chemical shift corresponds to a sample temperature of 303 K based on the equation δ(H₂O) = 7.83 – T/96.9 ppm³. At low temperatures, the same temperature differential is expected, although the water ¹H lineshapes broaden and become more complex, so that the equation cannot be used to estimate the sample temperature.
1D $^1$H MAS spectra of hydrated Aβ40 fibrils were measured from 298 K to 255 K under 10.5 kHz MAS. The spectra were deconvoluted using Dmfit. $^1$H MAS spectra were also measured for several non-fibril samples as controls. A POPC membrane containing the transmembrane peptide of the parainfluenza virus 5 (PIV5) fusion protein F was measured at 263 K on the 800 MHz spectrometer. A Brachypodium cell wall sample was measured at 263 K on a 600 MHz spectrometer.

Directly detected $^1$H T$_2$ relaxation times were measured using a Hahn echo experiment with total echo delays of 0 to 280 ms. $^{13}$C-detected $^1$H T$_2$ relaxation was measured by adding a 1 ms $^1$H-$^{13}$C Hartmann-Hahn cross polarization (CP) step after the $^1$H Hahn echo period (Fig. S1a). All relaxation data were fit using a single exponential function.

2D $^1$H-$^1$H exchange experiments were conducted at 263 K with $^1$H mixing times of 0.1 s, 1.0 s and 2.2 s and recycle delays of 4-10 s. 2D $^1$H-$^{13}$C heteronuclear correlation (HETCOR) experiments were conducted to probe site-specific water interactions of the Aβ fibrils (Fig. S1b). A $^1$H T$_2$ filter was first applied to suppress the peptide $^1$H magnetization. The filter times were 0.57 ms × 2 for the WT peptide and 0.29 ms × 2 for the Osaka peptide. Water $^1$H chemical shift was then encoded during the t$_1$ evolution period, after which the magnetization was transferred to peptide protons during a z-mixing period. The $^1$H mixing times were 4 ms and 1.0 s to measure the chemical shifts of closely peptide-associated water versus remote water, respectively. After the $^1$H mixing period, a 1 ms $^1$H-$^{13}$C CP step allows detection of the $^{13}$C chemical shifts to provide site-resolved information about the water environments.

To determine the water accessibilities of peptide residues with site resolution, we measured water-edited 2D $^{13}$C-$^{13}$C and $^{15}$N-$^{13}$C correlation spectra of WT Aβ40 fibrils at 263 K under 10.5 kHz $^1$H MAS spectra were also measured for Brachypodium cell wall sample. The latter two conditions were chosen to minimize $^1$H spin diffusion and maximize site-specificity of the detected water contact with the peptide residues. A control 2D spectrum with full intensities was measured without the $^1$H T$_2$ filter but with the same $^1$H-$^1$H mixing time as the water-edited spectra. Most residues in WT Aβ40 fibrils retained less than 4% of the intensities under these conditions, thus requiring a large number of scans, 1536 and 3712, for the water-edited $^{13}$C-$^{13}$C and $^{15}$N-$^{13}$C correlation experiments, respectively.

**Results**

**Temperature-dependent $^1$H spectra reveal multiple water pools in Aβ40 fibrils.**

We measured the $^1$H spectra of wild-type, Osaka (E22Δ) and Arctic (E22G) Aβ40 fibrils as a function of temperature from 298 K to 255 K (Fig. 1). At 298 K, all three samples show a single water peak at 4.7 ppm. Interestingly, with decreasing temperature, the single water $^1$H peak splits into two sharp peaks that sandwich a broad component. These multiple water peaks are observed between 278 K and 263 K and indicate multiple water pools in slow exchange. At 278 K, all three Aβ fibrils show the two narrow peaks at ~5.00 ppm and ~4.95 ppm. The downfield displacement of the $^1$H peaks with decreasing temperature is consistent with the known water $^1$H chemical shift trend with increasing hydrogen bonding. The temperature dependence of the 5.00-ppm peak (at 278 K) is larger than that of the 4.95-ppm peak, and the $^1$H T$_2$ relaxation times are also longer (vide infra), indicating that the downfield signal corresponds to more mobile water. The integrated water intensity is constant from 298 K to 263 K for the WT and Osaka Aβ40 fibrils, but at 255 K the water signals broaden to a single
peak with a 0.5-ppm linewidth, whose integrated intensity represents only 7-17% of the high-
temperature intensity. Thus, the majority of water is frozen by 255 K, leaving only a small percentage
of water that experiences significant freezing-point depression due to tight association with the peptide.

Figure 1. $^1$H MAS spectra of water associated with (a) wild-type Aβ40, (b) Osaka Aβ40 and (c) Arctic
Aβ40 fibrils as a function of temperature. The $^1$H chemical shifts and $^1$H-detected $T_2$ relaxation times
are indicated. Red dashed lines in the Arctic Aβ40 spectra indicate the expected chemical shift change
of the two sharp water peaks with decreasing temperature. A small peak that is ~0.35 ppm upfield from
the highest water peak is due to residual magnetic field inhomogeneity and is not considered further.

$^1$H spin echo experiments indicate that the water associated with the Osaka Aβ40 fibril has 6-9
fold shorter $^1$H $T_2$ relaxation times than the hydration water for WT and Arctic Aβ fibrils, indicating
that water interaction with the Osaka Aβ is stronger than with the two other fibrils. This is consistent
with the recently observed more rapid polarization transfer from water to Osaka peptide than to the other Aβ peptides. The water $^1$H $T_2$ relaxation times are relatively constant between 278 K and 263 K for the WT and the Osaka Aβ fibrils, indicating small activation energies of water rotational diffusion. In comparison, the Arctic Aβ40 fibrils show different water dynamics: the downfield 5.0 ppm peak at 278 K is broadened beyond detection below 268 K, indicating that this mobile water component has a larger activation energy than in the other fibrils. The 4.93-ppm water peak persisted to 268 K but broadened by 263 K. Thus, the energetics of the water reorientational motion differs for different water pools within each fibril as well as for water associated with different fibrils.

To quantify the relative amounts of the various water pools, we analyzed in detail the “double-horn” $^1$H spectra at 263 K for WT and Osaka Aβ fibrils and at 278 K for the Arctic Aβ fibrils. Spectral deconvolution confirms that the two sharp water peaks indeed sandwich a central broad resonance (Fig. 2a). This central component resonates at 5.15 ppm for WT Aβ40, has a full width at half maximum (FWHM) of 64 Hz, and represents 52% of the total spectral intensity (Table 1). The two mutants exhibit a similar broad water peak. We assign this broad water peak to peptide-associated water, as verified below by 2D $^1$H-$^1$H correlation spectra (Fig. 4). Comparison of the apparent $^1$H linewidths with the echo-detected homogeneous linewidths indicates that all water peaks are inhomogeneously broadened (Table 1).

**Figure 2.** Comparison of the water $^1$H MAS spectra of hydrated amyloid fibrils (a-c, f) and other systems (d, e). (a) WT Aβ40 fibrils. (b) Osaka Aβ fibrils. (c) Arctic Aβ40 fibrils. Fine features in the water peaks are resolved by deconvolution to give the $^1$H chemical shifts, intensity fractions, and apparent linewidths of each component (Table 1). (d) Water $^1$H signals of POPC membranes containing the TMD of the parainfluenza virus 5 fusion protein at 263 K. The WT Aβ40 water $^1$H
spectrum is overlaid for comparison. (e) Water $^1$H spectrum of *Brachypodium* cell walls. (f) Water $^1$H spectra of Aβ40 fibrils at various hydration levels. The peptide mass is 5 mg.

**Table 1.** Water $^1$H chemical shifts, linewidths, and populations from $^1$H MAS spectra of Aβ40 fibrils. The apparent linewidths (FWHM) and populations are obtained by spectral deconvolution. $^1$H-detected $T_2$ relaxation times yield the homogeneous linewidths $\Delta$ according to $\Delta = 1/\pi T_2$.

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<th>Peptide</th>
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<td>Wild-type</td>
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<td>22±2</td>
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<td>5.08</td>
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<td>Arctic Aβ40, 278 K</td>
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<td>10, 13</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>193±11</td>
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$^1$Two components are needed to fit the downfield water peak.
$^2$The peptide-bound water includes both tightly and loosely bound water.

The “double-horn” patterns of the water $^1$H MAS spectra of these fibrils are unusual, since hydrated lipid membranes and many other biomolecular assemblies typically exhibit either a single water $^1$H peak or two resolved peaks with drastically different linewidths. To illustrate the former case, [Fig. 2d-e](#) show representative water $^1$H MAS spectra of a phospholipid membrane and a plant cell wall at 263 K. The membrane sample $^{35}$ shows a single water $^1$H peak with a linewidth of 0.18 ppm, which spans the range of the multiple water peaks of the Aβ fibrils ([Fig. 2d](#)), while the *Brachypodium* cell wall sample exhibits a single water $^1$H peak with a 0.10-ppm linewidth, similar to other plant cell walls $^{10, 36}$. For cases where two water peaks have been resolved, the sharp upfield $^1$H signal can be readily assigned to supernatant water that is separated from the protein by centrifugal forces under MAS, while the broad downfield $^1$H peak can be assigned to protein-bound water $^{9, 33}$. To determine if one or both sharp peaks in the Aβ fibrils’ water $^1$H spectra results from such supernatant water, we reduced the hydration level of one of the fibril samples from five-fold excess to three-fold excess water, and found the same $^1$H spectral lineshape, indicating that no water can be easily separated from the peptide ([Fig. 2f](#)). This is consistent with the fact that the Osaka and Arctic fibrils show similar double-horn water $^1$H spectra even though they contain less water (two- and three-fold excess) than the WT sample (four- to five-fold excess water). Only when the water mass is reduced to be comparable to the peptide mass does the $^1$H spectrum change qualitatively, with the intensities of both sharp peaks decreasing significantly. Therefore, all water in these fibril samples are well associated with the peptides on the nanometer scale, and cannot be separated by centrifugal forces under the MAS frequencies used here. This is consistent with visual inspection of the samples after extended periods of MAS, which found no separate water pool in the middle of the rotor, unlike water of microcrystalline proteins.
Figure 3. Representative $^1$H-detected and $^{13}$C-detected water T$_2$ relaxation time of WT Aβ40 fibrils at 263 K under 10.5 kHz MAS. (a) $^1$H-detected water $^1$H T$_2$ relaxation decays and best-fit relaxation times with error bars in brackets. The $^{13}$C-detected $^1$H T$_2$ decay of F19a is shown for comparison (red). (b) $^{13}$C-detected $^1$H T$_2$ relaxation decays of several Cα sites. A $^1$H-$^1$H mixing time of 4 ms was used for all the measurements.

The multiple water pools have distinct relaxation times

$^1$H T$_2$ relaxation times give insight into the dynamics of water in the different environments (Fig. 3). At 263 K for the WT sample, the $^1$H T$_2$ is the longest for the 5.20-ppm peak (260 ms), intermediate for the 5.10-ppm peak (150 ms), and the shortest for the 5.15-ppm peak (93 ms) (Fig. 3a), suggesting that peptide-water interactions increase in the order of 5.20 ppm, 5.10 ppm and 5.15 ppm. To detect the $^1$H T$_2$ of water molecules that are adjacent to the peptide, we measured T$_2$ through $^{13}$C detection, by adding a 4 ms $^1$H mixing period and a 1 ms $^1$H-$^{13}$C CP step after the $^1$H spin-echo period (Fig. S1a). The resulting Cα-detected $^1$H T$_2$’s range from 5 to 8 ms (Fig. 3b), which are an order of magnitude shorter than the $^1$H detected T$_2$ values. These short water $^1$H T$_2$ relaxation times indicate that some water molecules directly interact with and are significantly immobilized by the peptide. These tightly bound water molecules likely give rise to the substantial freezing-point depression (Fig. 1). For all labeled residues between V12 and G38 in WT Aβ40, the $^{13}$C-detected $^1$H T$_2$ values are relatively uniform, indicating no significant dynamical gradient of the bound water molecules along the two β-strands. Together, these relaxation data resolved four dynamically distinct water pools, with $^1$H T$_2$ relaxation times ranging from 260 ms to 5 ms. The Arctic mutant has very similar water $^1$H T$_2$’s as the WT peptide, while the Osaka peptide has significantly shorter T$_2$’s.

$^1$H-$^{13}$C 2D correlation spectra reveal site-specific water-peptide interactions

To determine residue-specific hydration, we measured 2D $^1$H-$^{13}$C correlation spectra of WT and Osaka Aβ40 at 263 K. After $^1$H chemical shift encoding in $t_1$, a $^1$H mixing time of 4 ms was used before cross polarization to $^{13}$C for detection (Fig. S1b). Unexpectedly, these fibrils exhibit several resolved water $^1$H frequencies even for closely spaced residues. Within a small $^1$H spectral range of 0.10 ppm, at least three $^1$H chemical shifts can be resolved (Fig. 4a). This high water $^1$H resolution stands in contrast to the water that hydrates membrane proteins and polysaccharide-rich cell walls, and indicate that water molecules associated with different residues of the peptide undergo slow exchange. For WT Aβ40, F19, L34 and V36 exhibit a predominant water correlation peak at 5.15 ppm, while A21, A30, and I32 exhibit two water cross peaks, suggesting a more heterogeneous water environment at the loop (Fig. 4c-d). The $^1$H projection of the 2D spectrum shows a maximum at 5.15 ppm.
ppm, confirming the assignment of this chemical shift to peptide-bound water. The water $^1$H chemical shifts differ between WT and Osaka fibrils for the same residues (Fig. 4b). For example, F19 Cα shows a water cross peak at 5.15 ppm in the WT sample but 5.08 ppm in the Osaka Aβ fibril. I32 Cα correlates with two resolved water cross peaks (5.20 ppm and 5.10 ppm) in WT Aβ40, while in the Osaka Aβ fibril I32 has a predominant water $^1$H cross peak at 5.08 ppm. Thus, at the moderate low temperature used in these experiments, we can resolve distinct residue-specific water environments, and the water structure and dynamics are influenced by the molecular structures of the peptides.

**Figure 4.** Site-specific water-interactions of amyloid fibrils from 2D $^1$H-$^1$C correlation spectra of (a) WT and (b) Osaka Aβ40 at 263 K. The spectra were measured with 4 ms $^1$H-$^1$H mixing time (c-d) $^1$H cross sections for various residues in WT (black) and Osaka (red) Aβ40 fibrils extracted from the 4 ms 2D HETCOR spectra. The $^1$H projections of the 4 ms 2D spectrum (black) are compared with the $^1$H projection of the 1.0 s 2D spectrum (blue), which shows a 5.10 ppm cross peak, indicating exchange with interfibrillar water.

**Different water pools of wild-type Aβ40 undergo exchange on the timescale of seconds**

To gain insight into the locations and mutual interactions of the different water pools, we measured 2D $^1$H-$^1$H exchange spectra of the WT and Osaka Aβ40 fibrils at 263 K (Fig. 5). At the shortest $^1$H mixing time of 0.1 s, both spectra show a diagonal ridge, confirming the inhomogeneous nature of the water peaks. With 1.0 s and 2.2 s $^1$H mixing, extensive cross peaks are observed for the WT fibrils. The cross peaks occur between all three water components, and by 2.2 s, the exchange is complete, exhibiting a square-like pattern (Fig. 5a), indicating that both the dynamic water pools and the peptide-bound water are well mixed. The exchange occurs first between the 5.15-ppm peptide-bound water and the two narrow water peaks at 5.10 and 5.20 ppm, then between the two narrow peaks (Fig. 5b). To confirm that the water that gives rise to the narrow peaks in the $^1$H spectra is indeed in...
close proximity to the peptides, we measured a 2D $^1$H-$^{13}$C correlation spectrum with a long $^1$H mixing time of 1 s (Fig. 4c). An additional $^1$H cross peak appeared at 5.10 ppm, which was absent in the 4 ms 2D spectrum. Thus, the 5.15-ppm peptide-bound water indeed exchanges with the mobile water at 5.10 ppm. Compared to the WT fibrils, the Osaka Aβ40 fibrils show much weaker cross peak intensities, indicating that the water pools are more separated in this fibril.

**Figure 5.** 2D $^1$H-$^1$H MAS exchange spectra of (a) WT Aβ40 and (c) Osaka Aβ40 fibrils as a function of $^1$H mixing time at 263 K. The $\omega_1$ cross sections of the two sharp peaks (dashed lines) are extracted in (b) and (d). All 2D spectra are plotted using a minimum level that is 10% of the highest peak, a level increment of 1.15 and 16 contour levels. The spectra were measured at 10.5 kHz MAS.

**Water-edited 2D correlation spectra indicate a water-filled pore in the center of the three-fold WT Aβ40 fibrils**

The multiple water $^1$H correlation signals with the peptide in the 2D $^1$H-$^{13}$C correlation spectra suggest that hydration levels may differ for different residues. To test this, we measured water-edited 2D $^{13}$C-$^{13}$C and $^{15}$N-$^{13}$C correlation spectra and compared them with control spectra with full intensities (Fig. 6). A short $^1$H mixing time of 1.5 ms and Lee-Goldburg CP were used to minimize $^1$H spin diffusion and restrict our detection only to water that is closely associated with each residue. Out of the eight detected residues in the WT Aβ40 sample, V12 shows the highest residual Cα-Cβ and N-Cα cross peaks in the water-edited 2D spectra (Fig. 6a, b), indicating that the unstructured N-terminal segment is the best hydrated segment of the peptide. For comparison, V24, which is resolved from the V12 signals in the 2D $^{15}$N-$^{13}$C correlation spectrum, shows much weaker water-transferred intensity (Fig. 6c), indicating low hydration of the inter-strand loop. I32 and L34, which are located in the hydrophobic core of the peptide, also do not exhibit strong water-transferred intensities, indicating that the C-terminal β-strand is poorly hydrated. In contrast, M35, which has relatively weak cross peaks in the full-intensity control spectra, exhibits significant residual Cα-Cβ, Cα-Cγ, and N-Cα cross peaks in the water-edited 2D spectra.
Figure 6. Water-edited 2D correlation spectra of WT Aβ40 fibrils. (a, b) Water-edited $^{13}$C-$^{13}$C 50 ms DARR and $^{15}$N-$^{13}$C correlation spectra. Preferential retention of M35 cross peaks indicates the presence of a water cavity in the core of WT Aβ40 fibrils. (c, d) Control $^{13}$C-$^{13}$C 50 ms DARR and $^{15}$N-$^{13}$C correlation spectra. (e, f) Representative $^{13}$C cross sections from 2D water-edited (red) and control (black) spectra. The spectra were normalized by V12 signals (asterisk). The plotted cross sections are the sum of corresponding $\omega_1$ and $\omega_2$ cross sections for both control and water-edited 2D $^{13}$C-$^{13}$C DARR spectra.

Fig. 7 quantifies the residual intensities of the water-edited spectra for different residues and different polymorphs of WT Aβ40. The intensity ratios between the water-edited and control spectra are normalized by the Ca-Cβ and Na-Cα intensities of the best hydrated V12 (Table S1). V12 has the highest water-transferred intensities (63-100%), which are more than two-fold higher than the intensities of other residues. The second highest water transfer is found for M35, with an average intensity of 32%. Since M35 sidechain points to the center of the three-fold symmetric fibril, the hydration water must come from the center of the triangular fibril cross section, away from the hydrophobic β-strands. This is supported by the fact that residues adjacent to M35, including L34, I32 and A30, have much lower residual intensities of 18%, 11%, and 19%, respectively. Moreover, F19 and A21 on the N-terminal β-strand also show limited water-transferred intensities (24% and 20%). Taken together, these results indicate that the hydrophobic strand-loop-strand region of the WT peptide...
are relatively dry, in qualitative contrast to the well hydrated disordered N-terminus and the center of the three-fold fibril.

**Figure 7.** Site-specific relative intensities of water-edited peaks versus the full peaks from 2D $^{15}$N-$^{13}$C (blue) and $^{13}$C-$^{13}$C (black) spectra of WT Aβ40. The relative intensities between the water-edited and control spectra first normalized by the number of scans and then further normalized by the V12Ca-Cβ or V12Na-Cα cross peaks. For each residue, the relative intensity of multiple $^{13}$C-$^{13}$C cross peaks are compared between water-edited and control spectra. Several residues have two polymorphs as denoted using superscripts I and II. The relative intensities for different cross peaks are summarized in Table S1. The error bars are obtained from standard deviations of cross-peak intensities.

**Discussion**

The above $^1$H chemical shifts, $T_2$ relaxation times, and water-protein correlation data identified a total of five water pools in WT Aβ fibrils, indicating significant heterogeneity of the hydration water. The double-horn $^1$H spectra of these fibrils at moderate low temperatures are not due to susceptibility effects or inhomogeneous magnetic fields, since high-temperature spectra show a narrow water peak and exchange cross peaks are observed between the different water pools. The two narrow peaks of the fibril water are also not due to supernatant water, as seen for microcrystalline proteins and filamentous bacteriophages $^3$, $^9$, $^{33}$, but are instead associated with the peptides based on 2D $^1$H-$^{13}$C correlation spectra (Fig. 4) and $^1$H-$^1$H exchange spectra (Fig. 5). The hydration water of these fibrils differs from water of other biomolecular mixtures such as lipid membranes and plant cell walls, which exhibit only a single averaged water $^1$H frequency at the same temperature. Therefore, the hydration waters of Aβ fibrils are separated and trapped into multiple distinct chemical and physical environments, among which they exchange only on the timescale of seconds.

**Fig. 8** shows the assignment and the proposed model of the different water pools in the three-fold WT Aβ40 fibrils. All indicated $T_2$ relaxation times are for 263 K, and the indicated water fractions are obtained from $^1$H spectral deconvolution. The hydration shells are depicted in approximate proportion to the volumes calculated based on the 80-84% hydration level of the WT Aβ40 fibrils. First, a small water pool is identified in the center of the three-fold WT fibril (Fig. 8a), based on the high water accessibility of M35 seen in the water-edited 2D $^{13}$C-$^{13}$C correlation spectra. This pore
water has a $^1$H chemical shift of 5.10 ppm (Fig. 4a, d) and a $T_2$ relaxation time of ~5 ms (Fig. 3b). The molecular structure of the three-fold fibril indicates that the central pore occupies less than 10% of the total area of the fibril cross section $^{23}$, which indicates that this pore water represents only about 1-2% of the total water at the hydration content of our samples.

**Figure 8.** Schematic of the proposed multiple water pools associated with the three-fold WT Aβ40 fibrils. (a) Top view of the fibril with the unstructured N-terminus indicated as dashed lines. $^{13}$C, $^{15}$N-labeled residues are shown in sticks, and the average hydration percentage per residue is indicated. M35 (yellow) shows a high hydration level, supporting the presence of a central water cavity. The hydration shell formed by the tightly bound and loosely bound water has a diameter that is about two times larger than the fibril triangular side length. (b) Top view of several laterally associated three-fold fibrils, creating an interfibrillar water pool. The $^1$H chemical shifts, $^1$H $T_2$ relaxation times and fraction of the various water pools are indicated. (c) Side view of three-fold WT Aβ40 fibrils (orange) and the associated water pools.

The presence of a water pore at the trimer interface of the three-fold fibril is consistent with recent $^2$H NMR data of *in vitro* WT Aβ40. These studies found that methyl motions of L17, L34 and L36 in the hydrophobic core are independent of fibril hydration, while M35 methyl motion is strongly dependent on the hydration level, with substantial line-narrowing in the wet state compared to the dry state $^{43}$. Moreover, M35 motion at high temperatures in the hydrated fibrils contains a diffusive component in addition to the fast methyl three-site jumps.

The second type of water has $^1$H chemical shifts of 5.05 – 5.20 ppm (peaked at 5.15 ppm), short $^1$H $T_2$ relaxation times of 5-8 ms, and rapid polarization transfer (within 4 ms) to the peptide, thus we assign this to tightly peptide-bound water. The tightly bound water, together with pore water, experiences significant freezing point depression and account for ~7% of the total water amount in our WT Aβ40 sample (Fig. 1a, bottom). This provides a 2-3 nm thick hydration shell. The third water pool has a similar $^1$H chemical shift of 5.15 ppm but exhibits a much longer $T_2$ relaxation time of 90 ms, indicating higher mobility. We assign this component to loosely peptide-bound water, specifically interacting with the unstructured N-terminus. Together, the pore water, the tightly bound water and the loosely bound water account for about half of the total water in the WT fibrils (**Table 1**). At the
hydration content of these samples, this corresponds to a hydration shell of ~14 nm total diameter, encompassing the triangular fibril with a side length of ~7 nm (Fig. 8a).

Previous MD simulations suggested that Aβ40 fibrils may contain multiple internal water cavities, including not only the pore at the center of the triangular fibril but also the loop and the C-terminus. The loop water is proposed to hydrate a D23-K28 salt bridge, which is present in a two-fold WT polymorph but absent in the three-fold fibril. Our current data on the three-fold fibril show low hydration of residues between A21 to I32 (Fig. 7), thus is consistent with this prediction. Our data indicate that the hydrophobic strand-loop-strand segment from F19 to V36 is poorly dehydrated, with the exception of M35.

While the broad water resonance can be readily assigned to peptide-bound water, the two narrow water peaks that flank the peptide-bound water peak are more surprising. The upfield 5.10 ppm 1H signal has a slightly lower population and corresponds to less dynamic water than the downfield 5.20 ppm peak. The 5.10 ppm water is also better associated with the peptide based on 1H-13C and 1H-1H correlation spectra. We assign the upfield peak to interfibrillar water and the downfield peak to bulk-like matrix water. The proposal of interfibrillar water is guided by TEM images of these Aβ fibrils, which show regions with 3-4 strands laterally associated to give a combined width of 50-60 nm (Fig. S2). The peptide concentrations in the NMR samples are about three orders of magnitude higher than those used for EM measurements (0.2 mg/mL), thus fibril bundling should be extensive. We propose that the water molecules between fibrils are responsible for the 5.10 ppm peak, and the relatively long T2 relaxation time of 150 ms indicates that this interfacial water is highly dynamic. In comparison, the remaining ~30% of water in the WT Aβ fibrils can be assigned to bulk-like matrix water, since it has the narrowest linewidth, the longest 1H T2 of 260 ms, and the weakest interaction with the peptide, requiring the longest time to exchange with the other water (Fig. 8b, c). The preferential freezing of the downfield water peak in the Arctic Aβ sample, which is indicative of strong water-water hydrogen bonding, also supports the assignment of this downfield peak to bulk matrix water.

The 2D 1H exchange data provides important insight into the nature of diffusion between the interfibrillar or interfacial water and the bulk water. Complete exchange of the water pools of the WT Aβ40 fibrils is reached after ~2 s, which is slow for water translational diffusion in most chemical systems. The self-diffusion coefficients of water are 10^-6 cm^2/s at ambient temperature. Moderate cooling decreases this value by less than an order of magnitude, consistent with the low activation energy of water translational diffusion. Interactions with organic polymers such as Nafion also do not slow down this diffusion significantly. The fact that the 5.20 ppm and 5.10 ppm 1H signals of the WT Aβ40 water have narrow homogeneous linewidths of 1-2 Hz confirms the high mobility of water molecules in these environments. Thus, the exchange timescale of 1-2 s indicates a diffusion length scale of a few microns. Since our volume estimates and peptide-water correlation peaks indicate that the hydration shell that includes the peptide-bound water and interfibrillar water of a single fibril has a diameter of less than ~20 nm, the micron diffusion length can only be explained by translational diffusion of the interfibrillar water along the fibril axis for microns before equilibrating with the bulk matrix water (Fig. 8c). In other words, the two mobile water pools are compartmentalized by laterally aggregated fibrils and only exchange after traveling the length of the fibrils. This longitudinal water diffusion has some resemblance to the concept of water-filled nanotubes, where water was thought to
exit and enter the fibril at the two ends. But our data suggest that the mobile water that manifests such exchange is sequestered between multiple fibrils instead of within each fibril.

Finally, we comment on the differences between hydration water of the Osaka Aβ40 fibrils and the WT fibrils. The Osaka Aβ40 structure differs substantially from the three-fold WT Aβ40 structure: the E22Δ mutant dimerizes into a rectangular cinnamon roll shape with a 6 x 3 nm dimension for the fibril cross section 28. The N-terminal segment is well ordered and the fibril interior is densely packed with hydrophobic sidechains, with few detectable cavities for potential water permeation. Consistent with this more rigid and compact structure, the water associated with the Osaka fibrils has shorter $^1$H T$_2$ relaxation times, and the T$_2$ decreases more rapidly with temperature (Fig. 1), indicating higher activation energies of water motion. On the mesoscopic level, the interfibrillar water has limited exchange with the bulk matrix water (Fig. 5), indicating more complete separation of the two water pools. Based on the populations of the different water pools of the Osaka fibril (Fig. 2) and the total water content of this sample, we estimate that the hydration shell of the Osaka fibril has a dimension of about 8 x 4 nm, which is much smaller than the hydration shell of the three-fold WT fibrils.

Conclusions

The $^1$H and $^{13}$C solid-state NMR data shown here distinguished five water pools in wild-type Aβ40 fibrils, as characterized by different $^1$H chemical shifts, T$_2$ relaxation times, peptide interactions, and spatial locations. All water pools are well mixed with the peptides and cannot be phase-separated under moderate MAS and at moderate low temperature. Thus, water interacts with these fibrils more strongly than with globular proteins and lipid membranes. For the wild-type three-fold Aβ40 fibrils, water-protein correlation spectra indicate the presence of a long-proposed water pore at the trimer interface, but exclude significant water cavities at the loop and the two β-strands. The presence of a disordered N-terminus in the WT fibril and its absence in the Osaka Aβ40 fibril give rise to significantly different dynamics of peptide-bound water. Interestingly, for all three Aβ fibrils examined here, two highly mobile and spatially separate water pools are identified, and can be assigned to water trapped between laterally associated fibrils and bulk-like matrix water. The mobile water in these two environments exchanges with each other on the timescale of several seconds, indicating that the interfibrillar water travels the micron lengths of the fibrils before exchanging with external bulk water. These results indicate that amyloid fibrils, due to their morphology and molecular structures, cause highly heterogeneous water environments that are uncommon for hydration water of other biomolecular assemblies. Since the highly dynamic interfibrillar water appears to be unique to these amyloid fibrils 47 and is absent in non-fibrous proteins, it may provide an opportunity for early detection of fibrillar aggregates in tissues by magnetic resonance imaging and for design of small-molecule drugs that target these regions.

Acknowledgements

This work is supported by National Institutes of Health grants GM066976 and P01 AG002132.

Supporting Information Available:

- Table of water-transferred spectral intensities to quantify water accessibilities
- Summary of NMR pulse sequences for measuring water-amyloid interactions
- TEM images of Aβ40 showing lateral associations of fibrils

This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.
References


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Interfibrillar water