

Electric Birefringence Study of an Amyloid Fibril System: the Short End of the Length Distribution

Salman S. Rogers¹, Paul Venema², Jacques P. M. van der Ploeg³, Leonard M. C. Sagis², Athene M. Donald¹, and Erik van der Linden²

¹ Department of Physics, Cambridge University, Cavendish Laboratory, Cambridge, CB3 0HE, UK

² Laboratory of Food Physics, Wageningen University, P.O. Box 8129, 6700 EV Wageningen, The Netherlands

³ Leiden Institute of Chemistry, Leiden University, P.O. Box 9502, 2300 RA Leiden, The Netherlands

Revised: 18 July 2005

Abstract. In this article, a system of amyloid fibrils, based on the protein β -lactoglobulin, is studied by transient electric birefringence. Single pulses of an electric field were applied to the solution, and the initial rise and subsequent decay of birefringence analysed. The decay takes place on a range of relaxation times, and therefore contains information about the length distribution of fibrils in the system. The information can be extracted using theories of the electric polarisability of polyelectrolyte rods, since the fibrils are an example of these. Despite the long-standing complications of such theories, useful quantitative information about the system can still be obtained. Using the Fixman model of polyelectrolyte polarisability, we obtain a measurement of the short end of the length distribution which shows the fibril concentration as a function of length rising linearly from 0.02–2 μ m. The short end of the length distribution was unobtainable in our previous study using rheo-optics (Rogers S. S. et al., *Macromolecules* **38**, 2948 (2005), Iss. 8), but reasonable agreement between the two techniques shows they are complementary.

PACS. 82.35.Pq Biopolymers, biopolymerization – 82.35.Rs Polyelectrolytes – 83.85.Ns Data analysis – 87.14.Ee Proteins – 87.15.Nn Properties of solutions; aggregation and crystallization of macromolecules – 87.15.Vv Diffusion

1 Introduction

Various proteins are known to misfold and aggregate in mildly denaturing conditions, into rod-like structures known as amyloid fibrils. Some of these systems are interesting medically, being associated with various degenerative diseases [1–4]. Others may find useful application in food or biomaterials [5,6]. The structures involved are also interesting from the more fundamental viewpoint of protein physical chemistry [7]. Thus, considerable work has been dedicated to these systems over recent years, and aspects of their structure and formation have been studied by a range of techniques [8,9].

One characteristic of these systems, about which relatively little is known, is their length distribution. Knowledge of this would provide a means to test the various candidate models of fibril assembly kinetics, which otherwise remain largely qualitative and speculative [10]. Moreover, it would provide significant information on the potential utility of these fibrils in a biomaterial or food gel, since the

mechanical properties would crucially depend on length, just as for traditional polymer systems [11].

Techniques for measuring particle sizes or lengths are similarly important in the study of other systems of particles in solution. Electro-optics has been applied for this purpose before [12,13] since its utility in measuring relaxation of many systems is well established. It has previously been applied to systems of rod-like particles in aqueous solution such as: DNA fragments [14], filamentous viruses [12,15], and rod-like colloids of latex [16], gold [17] and clay [18]. For a monodisperse fibril system, only a theory linking rotational diffusion to length is required to extract a length from the relaxation of birefringence or dichroism. However, new and unresolved complications arise in studying a polydisperse fibril system with electro-optics, which we address in this article. Importantly, a theory of electric polarisability as a function of length is required for a detailed quantitative analysis.

In our previous article [19], we studied the length distribution of amyloid fibrils based on bovine β -lactoglobulin (β -lg), by applying rheo-optics: using a macroscopic optical measurement of the solution under flow as a probe of its microscopic dynamics. In the present article, we present complementary results and analysis on an identically prepared system, but using electric rather than flow fields

Correspondence to:

E. van der Linden, e-mail: erik.vanderlinden@wur.nl,
or Athene M. Donald, e-mail: amd3@phy.cam.ac.uk

20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44

to align the fibrils. β -lg solutions form amyloid fibrils under prolonged heating at low pH and low ionic strength [20,21]. These fibrils are polydisperse in length (with an average length of the order of $1\mu\text{m}$) and monodisperse in cross-section, with a width of about 4nm [20,22]. The persistence length, is approximately $1.6\mu\text{m}$ — of the same order of magnitude as the length [23]. At conditions of pH2, 5mg/ml concentration, no added salt and heating at 80°C , transparent solutions of fibrils are produced without macroscopic aggregates [23,24]. The fibrils show a twisted strand structure, one or two protein monomers across in cross-section [22,24]. The line density of molecules in the fibril (i.e. molecules per unit length) is 0.28nm^{-1} according to neutron scattering measurements [24].

Far from the isoelectric point, β -lg fibrils, like many other biopolymers, have a high electric polarisability. This is understood to be due to the counterion cloud which surrounds each fibril and moves in response to an electric field. With an ionic charge of around $+21$ per molecule at pH2 [24,25], and hundreds or thousands of molecules per fibril, β -lg gives a good example of this effect. Describing the polarisability of these ‘polyelectrolyte’ rods is a fundamental but formidably difficult problem, and has been studied theoretically [26–32], and experimentally [14,31,33,34] over the past 45 years.

In this article, we apply two different theories of the polarisability of rod-like polyelectrolytes, the sophisticated theory of Fixman [29] and the more archaic theory of Mandel-Manning [28], to our measurements. These theories are well known, but also attractive because of their lack of arbitrary parameters. From each, a very different length distribution is extracted from the measurements, but only the outcome of the Fixman theory is consistent with previous results. Using this theory, some useful and quantitative information is extracted about the short end of the fibril length distribution, which was inaccessible using rheo-optics [19].

2 Experimental Section

2.1 β -lg fibril preparation

All experiments were performed on bovine β -lg obtained from Sigma (L-0130-5G, batch 033K7003, a mixture of genetic variants A and B). The protein was dissolved in dilute hydrochloric acid at pH2, and extensively dialysed with the same pH2 hydrochloric acid to remove traces of calcium ions and obtain a solution with the same ionic strength as the solvent. The solution was centrifuged at $22600g$ for 30 min and filtered through a $0.45\mu\text{m}$ filter to remove aggregates and undissolved protein. A UV spectrophotometer was used to measure the concentration of this stock solution, using a calibration curve from known β -lg concentrations, determined at a wavelength of 278nm . The stock solution was used to make a 15ml sample which was made up to 5mg/ml concentration, in pH2 HCl with no added salt. It was heated in a glass vessel for 24 hrs at 80°C using a water bath, during which it was stirred constantly with a magnetic stirrer. Sodium azide (200ppm)

was added to the resulting fibril solution to prohibit microbial growth, and the solution refrigerated at 4°C before measurements were made. This preparation is identical to that used previously for the rheo-optics study [19].

2.2 Electro-optical experiments

Transient electric birefringence experiments were performed with a conventional setup [18] as follows: light from an 8mW helium-neon laser (632.8nm wavelength) travels through a high-quality Glen Thompson polariser. This polariser is oriented in such a way that linearly polarised light is obtained with its axis of polarisation at $\pi/4$ with respect to the electric field, while its axis of propagation is perpendicular to the field. After passing through a cell containing the solution, the beam travels first through a polariser (analyser) before its intensity is converted to a voltage by a photomultiplier tube. The presence of a quarter-wave device increases the sensitivity and makes it possible to distinguish the sign of the birefringence. The voltage of this tube and the voltage applied on the solution are measured simultaneously by a digital oscilloscope (LeCroy 9450). The voltage of the tube is calibrated to obtain the birefringence signal $\Delta n(t)$. The solution is contained in a quartz cuvette with two parallel, rectangular platinum electrodes. The electrodes are held apart at a fixed distance of 1.89mm . The optical path length is 49.05mm , the length of the electrodes. The temperature is kept constant at 21°C by circulating water from a thermostated bath through a jacket which holds the cell. The voltage to be applied across the electrodes is supplied by a function generator (WaveTek 29) in combination with a high-speed power amplifier (NF Electronic Instruments 4020, Bandwidth 500KHz , max 250V) or a very high speed pulse generator (Cober Model 606, rise/fall time $< 100\text{ns}$, max 2500V). In this way, single pulses of variable voltage and time were generated. The response time of this setup is better than $1\mu\text{s}$. Computer control of the function generator and oscilloscope allows pulses to be repeated and averaged, leaving a lag time for the system to relax between pulses. This lag time is judged to be long enough when the optical response to successive pulses stays the same, within the noise of measurement.

The fibril solution, as prepared above, was diluted 20–200 times in distilled water or low concentration HCl before electro-optical measurements were made. This was necessary to reduce the ionic conductivity and relaxation time of the system, thereby allowing shorter duration pulses of higher fields to be used, while avoiding the effects of heating and electrode reactions. It was not possible to reach steady birefringence, even with these dilutions under weak fields. Applying longer duration pulses resulted in a noticeable artifact due to sample heating, before any steady state could be reached. (This artifact consists of a negative contribution to the birefringence, due to the density change caused by uneven heating — an analogous effect to an atmospheric mirage.) Therefore, we measured the opposite extreme: short pulses of the field, during which the birefringence was still very far from the steady

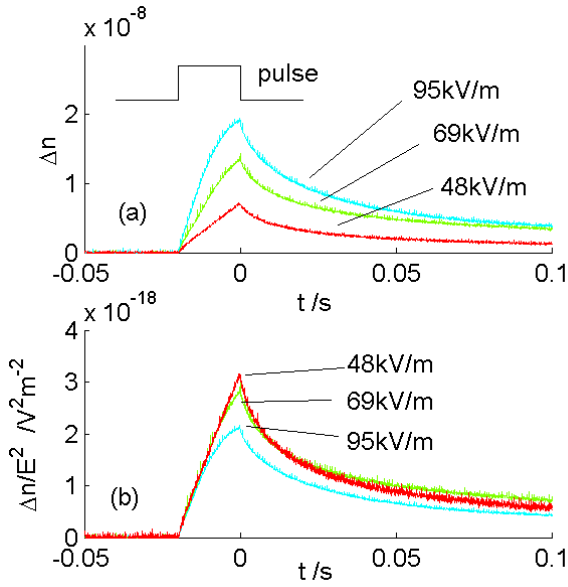


Fig. 1. Birefringence response (a) from 20ms pulses across the fibril solution, at $\nu = 50$, with various field strengths. These are divided by E^2 in (b), showing the scaling of the initial rise gradient.

158 state. This is an apparently novel development of the tran-
159 sient electric birefringence technique.

160 3 Results

161 Fig. 1a shows measurements of the birefringence response
162 from pulses of field $E = 48\text{--}95\text{kVm}^{-1}$ for duration $\Delta t =$
163 20ms , on a sample of the prepared fibril solution diluted
164 50 times in water (dilution $\nu = 50$). This dilution takes it
165 to a pH of 3.7. Sixteen consecutive pulses were averaged
166 to give each signal, with a delay of 45s between pulses
167 to allow the system to equilibrate. It was found that the
168 system did not degrade under any of the combinations of
169 E and Δt present in this article, since within the noise of
170 measurement, the response did not change after successive
171 pulses. The graph shows an increase in birefringence with
172 time during the pulse, this increase being nearly linear at
173 early times, and followed by a slow decay. The standard
174 interpretation of this signal, in terms of initial orientation
175 of the fibrils followed by subsequent orientational decay,
176 is due to Benoit [35,36] and O’Konski & Zimm [37], and
177 is detailed in Appendix A.

178 It is clear from this graph that the diffusion of the sys-
179 tem is far too slow to allow us to reach a steady state
180 of birefringence for pulses of this duration, even at this
181 dilution. However, averaging the signals from consecutive
182 pulses, as we have done, reduces the noise sufficiently so
183 that the initial gradient of birefringence increase at the
184 start of the pulse can be determined and analysed. As
185 detailed in Appendix A, this ‘rise gradient’, $\Delta\dot{n}_{\text{init}}$, de-
186 pends on the polarisability $\Delta\alpha$, length concentration c_L
187 and rotational diffusivity D_r , of the fibrils, each as a func-

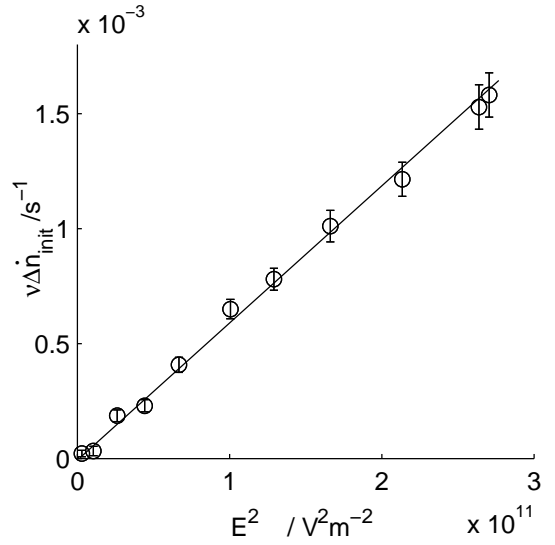


Fig. 2. Dependence of the initial birefringence rise gradient $\Delta\dot{n}_{\text{init}}$, on field, for the solution at $\nu = 50$, showing the dependence $\Delta\dot{n}_{\text{init}} \propto E^2$.

tion of fibril length, as well as the field strength E . (Note
188 c_L is the number of fibrils, per unit volume, times their
189 length.) We therefore begin by examining the dependence
190 of $\Delta\dot{n}_{\text{init}}$ on E and ν to check the applicability of Benoit’s
191 interpretation, which predicts (see Appendix A):
192

$$\Delta\dot{n}_{\text{init}} = \frac{2ME^2}{k_B T} \int_0^\infty c_L \Delta\alpha D_r dL, \quad (1)$$

193 where k_B is Boltzman’s constant, T is the absolute tem-
194 perature, and M , the optical anisotropy per unit length
195 concentration, is $1.74 \times 10^{-20}\text{m}^2$ (determined in our pre-
196 vious study, Ref. [19]). It must be stressed that this value
197 of M , which depends on a measurement of the total con-
198 version of $\beta\text{-lg}$ monomers to fibrils, is of questionable ac-
199 curacy [19]. However, by using the same value of M as in
200 our previous study, our results for the length distribution
201 (which are proportional to $1/M$) should still be mutually
202 consistent, even if they deviate from the absolute value
203 by some factor. Note that in Eq. 1, the initial rise of bire-
204 fringence is independent of any permanent dipole moment
205 which the fibrils might have. This is explained in Appendix
206 A.

207 Fig. 2 shows the dependence of the initial rise on the
208 field strength, again in a sample of $\nu = 50$, diluted in
209 water. Voltages of up to 1000V were applied across the
210 electrodes. $\Delta\dot{n}_{\text{init}}$ is proportional to E^2 in the full range
211 of field strengths, as predicted by Eq. 1, which is analogous
212 to the Kerr law [33]. (Likewise, in Fig. 1b, the measure-
213 ments of Fig. 1a are divided by E^2 , which scales them
214 onto a single straight line at early times, after which they
215 deviate.)

216 Next we investigated the dependence of the initial rise
217 on concentration ($1/\nu$), as shown in Fig. 3, where for each
218 ν in the range 20–200, the prepared solution was diluted
219 by a factor of ν in water or dilute hydrochloric acid so that
220 the final concentration of HCl was made up to 0.5mM.

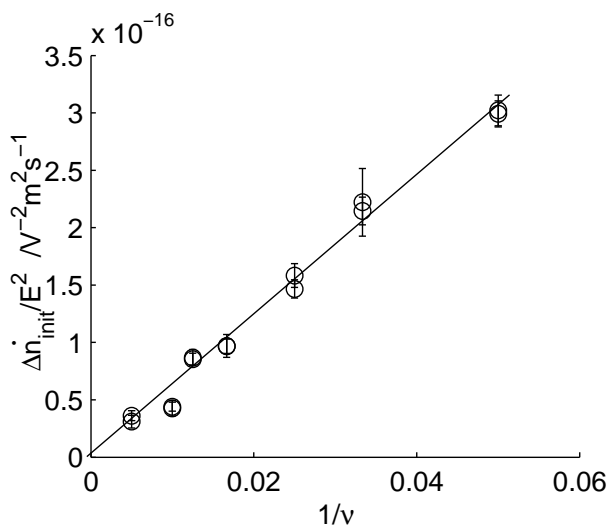


Fig. 3. Dependence of the rise gradient $\Delta\dot{n}_{\text{init}}$, on concentration, for the solution diluted in the range $20 \leq \nu \leq 200$. $\Delta\dot{n}_{\text{init}}/E^2 \propto 1/\nu$, indicative of the dilute diffusion regime.

221 This was done so that the ionic conditions would be constant
 222 at all concentrations, thus keeping polarisability constant
 223 for each fibril. Within the noise of measurement, a
 224 linear dependence of $\Delta\dot{n}_{\text{init}}/E^2$ on $1/\nu$ is maintained over
 225 the full range of concentration. Since the fibrils are un-
 226 damaged by dilution, as found previously [19], the length
 227 concentration c_L of the system scales with dilution as:

$$c_L \rightarrow c_L/\nu. \quad (2)$$

228 Because of this scaling, Eq. 1 predicts that $\Delta\dot{n}_{\text{init}}$ has at
 229 least a linear dependence on $1/\nu$, due to the c_L factor, as
 230 well as any implicit dependence on D_r . Such an implicit
 231 dependence will occur if D_r varies with concentration due
 232 to entanglement effects. In Fig. 3 we observe only a linear
 233 dependence, and therefore conclude that D_r is constant
 234 with respect to concentration. This point will be discussed
 235 in Section 4.1.

236 Benôit's model gives us a standpoint with which to
 237 study the length distribution, at least at its short end, as
 238 we will discuss. After the pulse, the birefringence decays
 239 on a spectrum of relaxation times, since the diffusion of
 240 long rods is slower than that of short rods. The resulting
 241 decay curve can be analysed to extract the length distribu-
 242 tion of the fibrils, within limitations set by measurement
 243 noise and the assumptions necessary in describing their
 244 behaviour (Section 4). Birefringence decays are shown in
 245 Fig. 4a for the sample diluted to $\nu = 50$ and $\nu = 100$ in
 246 water, with the HCl concentration of the latter made up
 247 to 0.2mM so that the ionic conditions would match the
 248 former, and only the fibril concentration would vary be-
 249 tween them. Pulses of $E = 423\text{kVm}^{-1}$ (800V across the
 250 electrodes) and $\Delta t = 240\mu\text{s}$ were applied. We chose a large
 251 field so that the pulse duration could be made as small as
 252 possible, to ensure that the alignment during the pulse re-
 253 mains far from a steady state for as wide a range of lengths
 254 as possible in the system (see Appendix A). Making the

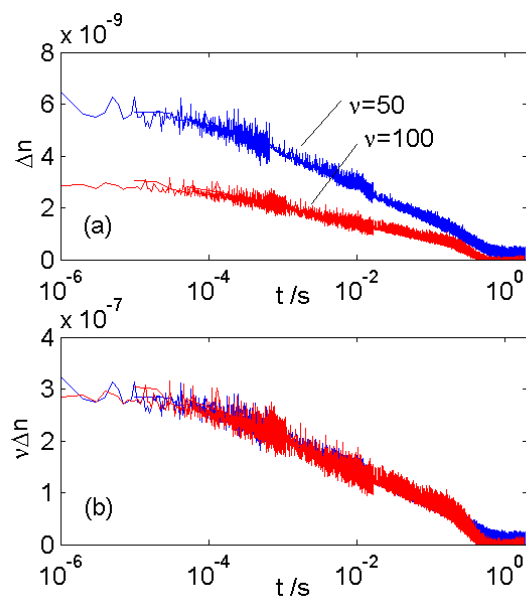


Fig. 4. Birefringence decays (a) from $240\mu\text{s}$ pulses of $E = 423\text{kVm}^{-1}$, at $\nu = 50$ and $\nu = 100$, both at $[\text{HCl}] = 0.2\text{mM}$. Measurements at different sampling rates have been overlaid. In (b) the curves are scaled by concentration, showing good agreement and complementing the concentration dependence of Fig. 3.

255 pulse short has the effect of reducing, as much as possible,
 256 the effect of any permanent dipole moment which the fib-
 257 rils might have, thus simplifying our analysis in the next
 258 section.

259 In Fig. 4a, each line comprises three collected at differ-
 260 ent sampling rates, each the mean of 32 consecutive mea-
 261 surements, with delays of 60s between pulses. In Fig. 4b,
 262 these decays are scaled by concentration. A remarkably
 263 good superposition is seen, in agreement with the con-
 264 centration dependence we observed in Fig. 3, except for
 265 a slight deviation at the long-time end of the decays, on
 266 which we comment in the following section.

267 The two scaled decays of Fig. 4b are averaged into
 268 a master decay, and resampled onto 100 logarithmically
 269 sampled points of time. Logarithmic resampling is most
 270 appropriate since it can adequately describe the decay,
 271 which takes place across 6 orders of magnitude of time.
 272 Next, we take a discrete inverse Laplace transform of this
 273 master decay (Fig. 5), to obtain the spectrum of decay
 274 times present in the system's response, corresponding to
 275 a range of fibril lengths. 8 discrete components of the bi-
 276 refraction G_j (where $j = 1, 2, \dots, 8$), are taken, sampled log-
 277 arithmically with decay time τ . After taking an initial
 278 estimate, $\{G_j\}$ is adjusted until the decay curve calcu-
 279 lated from it converges with the measured decay curve (see
 280 Appendix B). This kind of fitting procedure can produce
 281 ambiguous results, so we must check how robust it is. By
 282 varying our initial estimate, we check whether the same
 283 distribution $\{G_j\}$ is obtained. As seen in Fig. 5, a smooth
 284 distribution of $\{G_j\}$ is obtained with fairly low variation
 285 between the fits from different initial estimates, showing

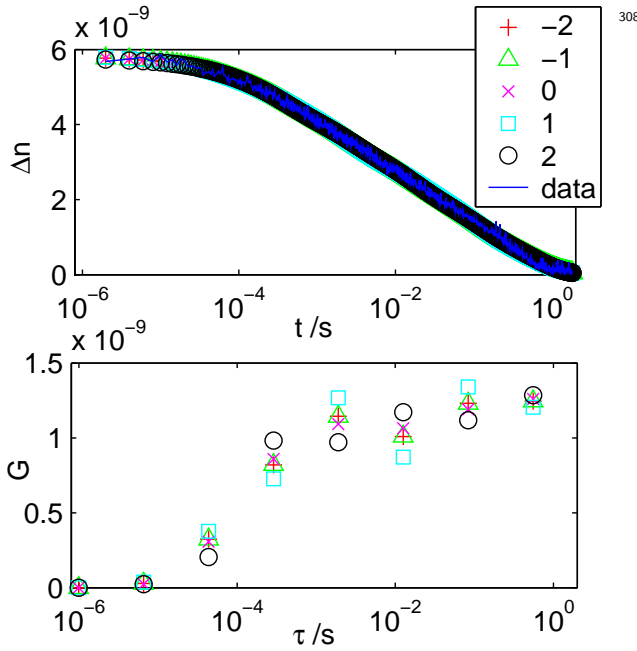


Fig. 5. Discrete inverse Laplace transform of the mean of the decays in Fig. 4. Discrete components of the birefringence G_j are taken, logarithmically sampled in decay time, τ . The components are adjusted from initial estimates in both directions of τ (labelled -2, -1, 0, 1, 2) to provide an estimate of fitting error due to noise (see Appendix B).

that the fit is robust. The mean and maximum deviation of each G_j in these fits are used to give an estimate of the ambiguity of fitting due to noise. The maximum deviations are used in all following figures to plot error bars due to noise.

4 Data Analysis

4.1 Measured birefringence as a function of length

In the previous section, we found that the initial rise gradient of birefringence had a linear dependence on $1/\nu$, which shows D_r is constant with respect to concentration. This result is, at first, surprising. In our previous study on the rheo-optics of an identically prepared system [19], we found that the diffusivity of the fibrils was proportional to ν^2 , in the way predicted by Doi and Edwards [38] for rods which overlap and hinder each other's motion (the semidilute regime). By contrast, we find here that the diffusivity is independent of concentration, for the same system. The only simple explanation for this is that under the electric field, we are preferentially orienting and observing the short end of the length distribution: the fibrils which are short compared to the entanglement length [19]:

$$L^* = \left(\int_0^\infty c_L dL \right)^{-1/2}. \quad (3)$$

For this system $L^* = 52\text{nm} \times \sqrt{\nu}$ as determined previously [19]. In the case of $\nu = 50$, $L^* = 0.37\mu\text{m}$. We therefore argue that the birefringence response to the electric field is dominated by fibrils below this length, and therefore in the dilute diffusion regime [39]. The consistency of this picture will be verified below, and explained in terms of diffusivity and polarisability.

Fibril lengths corresponding to the different decay times in Fig. 5 may be calculated using the well known diffusivity of thin rigid rods of length L in the dilute regime:

$$D_r = \frac{k_B T}{3\pi\eta L^3} \ln(L/d). \quad (4)$$

This diffusivity was originally calculated by Kirkwood et al. [40,41], developed by Broersma [42] and Tirado & Garcia de la Torre [43] for end effects, reviewed by Tracy & Pecora [39] and experimentally verified for many systems of stiff polymers in dilute solution, (see e.g. Ref. [14].) The relation has a slight dependence on diameter d , which we take as 4nm [22]. Using Eq. 4, the discrete contributions to the birefringence decay, $\{G_j\}$ can be recalculated into the form of a continuous distribution g , according to Eq. 24 (Appendix B). Fig. 6 shows the result. This distribution of contributions to the decay g , is a weighted version of the length distribution $c_L(L)$:

$$g = c_L S(L, \Delta t), \quad (5)$$

where $S(L, \Delta t)$ is the alignment parameter for fibrils of length L at the end of the electric field pulse. We must calculate $S(L, \Delta t)$ in order to find c_L . As can be seen in Fig. 6, the peak of the weighted distribution g is below the entanglement length $L^* = 0.37\mu\text{m}$ calculated above, and confirms that our earlier hypothesis is consistent: that the electric field is preferentially aligning the short end of the length distribution within the dilute regime. At lengths somewhat higher than L^* , we expect the diffusivity to rapidly decrease with length, as the rods enter the semidilute regime and become entangled. Hence the alignment during the pulse, $S(L, \Delta t)$ would also decrease rapidly, since it is approximately proportional to D_r (see Appendix A). It is likely that the slight discrepancy at the long-time end of the superposed decay curves in Fig. 4b, as noted above, is caused by the slight alignment of fibrils at the 'edge' of entanglement. Pecora et al. [44,45] found the onset of entanglement to occur at about $4L^*$.

This idea may be compared with our measurements. Fig. 6 has an upper cut-off at $L = 1.9\mu\text{m}$, which has come about because no components of relaxation time greater than 0.55s were required to fit the decay curve in Fig. 5. In other words, no alignment of fibrils of length much greater than $1.9\mu\text{m}$ was detected within the noise of measurement, and the distribution of contributions to the decay (Fig. 6) drops abruptly to zero, somewhere between $L = 1.9\mu\text{m}$ and $L = 3.5\mu\text{m}$ where the next exponentially sampled point was due. Since previous results have shown the c_L is still far from zero in this range, this is likely to be due to the onset of semidilute behaviour. In terms of entanglement length, $1.9\mu\text{m} - 3.5\mu\text{m}$ is the range $5.2L^* - 9.5L^*$,

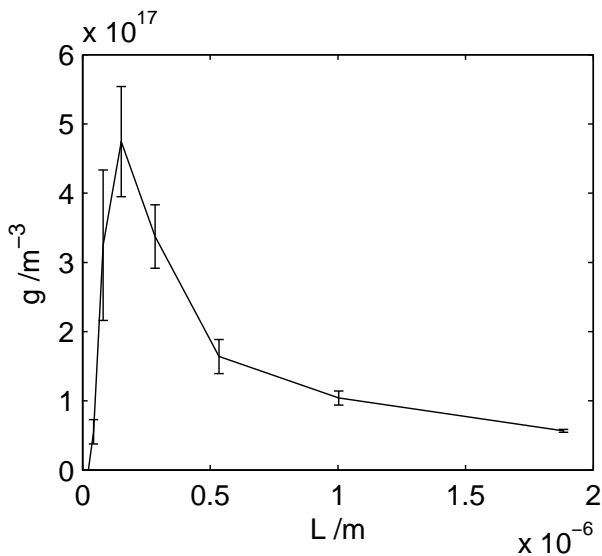


Fig. 6. Plot of g , the distribution of contributions to the master decay curve, as a function of L , where Eq. 4 has been used to relate decay times with L .

which agrees approximately with the results of Pecora et al.

4.2 Polarisability of polyelectrolyte rods

An important piece of information necessary to calculate $S(L, \Delta t)$ is $\Delta\alpha$, the electric polarisability anisotropy of the fibril, which we model as a polyelectrolyte rod. This has been studied theoretically by a range of authors, (recent reviews in Refs. [31,32]) yet it remains a formidable theoretical problem. Early studies considered only the contribution of ‘bound’ counterions, which remain close to the surface of the polyelectrolyte rod because of electrostatic attraction, but are free to move along the length of the rod. This freedom of movement leads to a polarisability which is large for such systems and thought to be the major contribution to $\Delta\alpha$. Mandel provided the prototypical model [26], which was successively developed by Oosawa [27] and Manning [28]. The latter predicts:

$$\Delta\alpha^{(\text{Manning})} = \frac{\phi z^2 e^2 L^3}{12k_B T b} [1 - (2|z|Qb^{-1} - 1)\ln\kappa b]^{-1}, \quad (6)$$

where z is the counterion valency, e is the electronic charge, b is the mean spacing of charges on the polyion, $Q = e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0\epsilon k_B T$ is the Bjerrum length, κ^{-1} is the Debye length, where

$$\kappa^2 = \frac{2I \times 10^3 N_A e^2}{\epsilon\epsilon_0 k_B T}, \quad (7)$$

I is the molar ionic strength (of small ions), N_A is Avogadro’s number, ϕ is the fraction of counterions bound to the polyion as calculated by Manning’s condensation theory [28]:

$$\phi = 1 - \frac{b}{Q}, \quad (8)$$

and the relative permittivity of water, $\epsilon = 80.1$. Manning’s theory, like all the related theories, predicts $\Delta\alpha$ to be proportional to L^3 .

Fixman [29] took a more sophisticated approach to the problem, considering also the electric field of the counter- and co-ions and their flux through the double layer surrounding the cylindrical polyion, which were ignored by the previous theories. The main qualitative change from the earlier theories is that the flux of ions leads to a screening of the induced dipole at longer rod lengths. Thus, $\Delta\alpha^{(\text{Fixman})}$ has an L^3 dependence at small L which gradually changes to a linear L dependence at large L , and is given by:

$$\Delta\alpha^{(\text{Fixman})} = \frac{4\pi\epsilon\epsilon_0 L K z_1}{\gamma^2(z_1 - z_2)} \left(1 - \frac{\tanh(\gamma L/2)}{\gamma L/2}\right), \quad (9)$$

where z_1 and z_2 are the valencies of the counter- and co-ions, γ^{-1} is the characteristic ‘screening length’ given by:

$$\gamma^2 = \frac{4\pi c_1 K b}{\phi}, \quad (10)$$

c_1 is the bulk concentration of counterions and K is a numerical factor given by:

$$K = (2\ln(2L/d) - 14/3)^{-1}. \quad (11)$$

The fraction of bound counterions, ϕ , is given by the Manning condensation theory as above. Several authors [31,30,46] consider the Fixman theory to be the most useful model of rod-like polyelectrolyte electric polarisation. Other models have been published, based on similar physics and reaching similar results, and applying to particles with various geometries. Most are discussed in Ref. [31] or stem from work reviewed therein.

The Manning and Fixman theories have been compared with experimental results for DNA fragments by Elias & Eden [14], and polystyrene-sulphonate chains by Tricot & Houssier [34], each using various lengths. The two studies confirm an L^3 dependence of polarisability at small L , which decreases to an approximately linear dependence at large L , although the data at large L was limited. The absolute values predicted by both theories were found to give useful, though not accurate, values approximately within a factor of 2 of the experimental results.

In Fixman’s derivation, it was assumed that the diameter of the polyion is large compared to the double layer of counterions around it. In our case, at $I = 0.4\text{mM}$, $\kappa^{-1} = 15\text{nm}$ compared to $d = 4\text{nm}$. This value of κ^{-1} is similar to those of both of the experimental studies mentioned above, but here d is larger by a factor of about 2 (compared to DNA and polystyrene-sulphonate). Therefore, while the assumption may be regarded as crude for our system, it is in fact similar or at least as good as in the previous studies.

I	0.4mM	472
b	$1/(7.9 \times 0.28\text{nm}^{-1}) = 0.45\text{nm}$	473
κ^{-1}	15nm	
ϕ	0.35	

Table 1. Electrostatic parameters for the fibril solution at $\nu = 50$

When diluted to $\nu = 50$ in water, the pH of our prepared fibril solution becomes 3.7. In order to calculate b , we need a value of the net charge per monomer, for which we take $+7.9 \pm 0.5$ at pH3.7¹. $\Delta\alpha$ is rather sensitive to the charge according to both theories, so it is appropriate to take this measured value rather than the commonly used ‘ideal’ value, which equals the sum of charges of each isolated residue as a function of pH [47]. (For β -lg, the ‘ideal’ charge is $+15.9$ at pH3.7.) We have calculated the relevant parameters for both theories, for our system at pH3.7. The results are shown in Table 1.

4.3 Extracting the length distribution

Using the polarisability of the Fixman and Manning theories, $S(L, \Delta t)$ is calculated numerically according to Benoît’s model (Appendix A). One additional parameter must be considered, and this is the permanent electric dipole moment of the fibril μ , as yet unknown. Since the fibril has a net charge, formally we should describe this moment as the first moment of the charge distribution around the rotational centre of drag [48]. However, because it is commonly referred to as the dipole moment, and is more easily referred to and visualised as such, we will also refer to it as the dipole moment. For μ , we will model a linear dependence on the fibril length:

$$\mu = \mu' L. \quad (12)$$

where μ' is then the dipole moment per unit length. This is a reasonable approach because the fibril is a chain of monomers, and therefore the charge distribution of the whole fibril is the sum of the charge distributions of the monomers. If there is any order in the arrangement of monomers in the fibril, we would expect a dipole moment of this form. (If there is no order in the arrangement of monomers, we would expect a dipole moment of zero.) μ' is then the only free parameter in the calculation — the others are controlled directly, or modelled by the theories of polarisability and diffusion.

We can see how this uncertainty in μ' affects the length distribution by calculating $S(L, \Delta t)$ with various values of μ' . The results are shown in Fig. 7 according to the Fixman theory. A realistic estimate for the upper limit to μ' is the ratio between the monomer’s dipole moment and its diameter, so that the dipole moment of the fibril is

¹ The ionisation of β -lg as a function of pH was measured by titration in Ref. [25], and is quoted as the charge per 40kDa, the approximate mass of a dimer. We have recalculated the charge according to the monomer mass of 18.6kDa.

the sum of the moments of its monomers oriented ‘head-to-tail’. The dipole moment of the β -lg molecule has been studied by dielectric measurements [49], yielding a value of 730D, which compares well with a calculation of the dipole moment of 625D according to the X-ray crystal structure [50]. (In S.I. units, $1\text{D} = 3.3 \times 10^{-30}\text{Cm}$). Taking the radius of gyration as 1.7nm [50] allows us to estimate that μ' lies in the range $0-7 \times 10^{-19}\text{C}$. In the corresponding calculations of c_L (Fig. 7), it can be seen that this range causes an ambiguity which is significant below about $L = 0.5\mu\text{m}$, but negligible for larger lengths, i.e. lengths corresponding to relaxation times longer than Δt . We see therefore, that making Δt as small as possible, as we have done, reduces the permanent dipole moment from being an important parameter to being a modest source of quantifiable error. We will investigate the permanent dipole moment in more detail in a forthcoming article.

In Fig. 8, the predictions of c_L using the Fixman and Mandel-Manning theories are compared, with error bars due to fitting error and uncertainty in μ' .

Using the Fixman theory, c_L increases steadily with L in the range $0.02-1.9\mu\text{m}$. By contrast, the Manning theory predicts a peak at around $L = 200\text{nm}$, and steadily decreasing c_L thereafter. This large qualitative difference between them is due to the significant disagreement between the theories at $L > 1/\gamma$, i.e. $L > 34\text{nm}$ in our system. The alignment $S(L, \Delta t)$, is approximately proportional to $D_r \Delta\alpha$ in Benoît’s model (see Appendix A). Therefore $S(L, \Delta t) \propto L^{-2}$ according to the Fixman theory, which predicts $\Delta\alpha \propto L$ in this range, but $S(L, \Delta t)$ is constant according to the Manning theory, which predicts $\Delta\alpha \propto L^3$. Comparing the two predictions with our previous results on the system, using rheo-optics and TEM, which show a peak at around $5\mu\text{m}$ [19], it can be seen that only the one using Fixman’s theory is consistent with the previous results. In terms of absolute value, the c_L according to Fixman is approximately twice the previous results, while according to Manning, it is a factor of 10 too small.

In Fig. 9, the length distribution according to the Fixman theory is divided by 2.5 to match it with the length distribution according to rheo-optics/TEM. The gradients match very well.

5 Discussion

Our method has predicted c_L for L below $1.9\mu\text{m}$. Using Fixman’s polarisability model, c_L compares favourably with previous results [19] except for a difference in absolute value — a factor of 2.5. If we are to consider the absolute value of the previous results to be correct, this means that Fixman’s $\Delta\alpha$ has the correct dependence on L , but is too small by a factor of about 2.5. Other experimental studies of Fixman’s theory [14, 34] also came to this conclusion, and it is possible that the difference is due to the contribution of free counterions to the polarisability [34]. Alternatively it may be due to the crudeness of our thin double layer approximation, in common with these other studies. It is also worth noting that the absolute value is proportional to the fraction of bound counterions ϕ , which

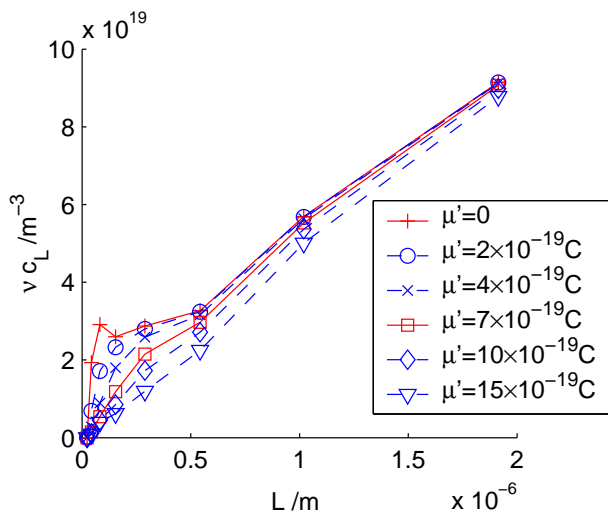


Fig. 7. Length distributions of fibrils in the sample, calculated using the Fixman model of polarisability for various values of the permanent dipole moment per unit length μ' .

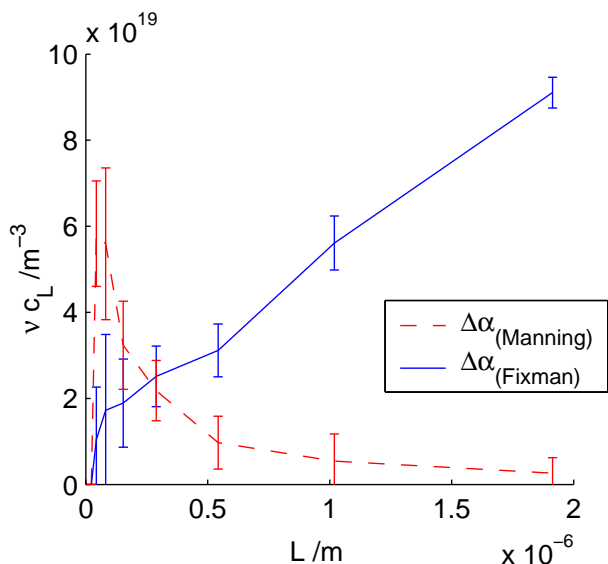


Fig. 8. Length distributions of fibrils in the sample, calculated using the Fixman and Mandel-Manning models of polarisability. The distributions differ considerably: only the Fixman model leads to a result complementary to previous results [19].

depends sensitively on the charge of the monomer and the line density.

531 The present result complements those of the rheo-optical
532 method on the same system [19] and shows that the Fix-
533 man theory describes the polarisation of the system bet-
534 ter than the archaic Mandel-Manning theory. In previous
535 studies on other systems mentioned above [14,34], mea-
536 surements of polarisability as a function of L showed a
537 transition from a cubic to an approximately linear depen-
538 dence on L , which is only predicted by the Fixman theory.
539 Therefore, it may generally be the case that the Fixman

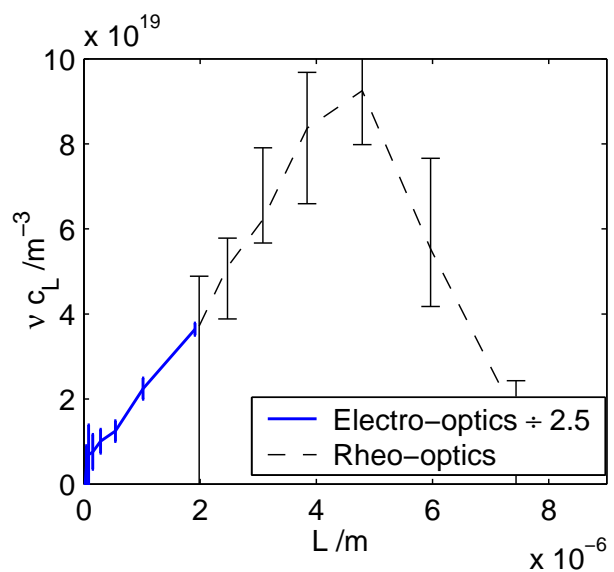


Fig. 9. Length distribution of fibrils in the sample according to the present electro-optical method using the Fixman theory compared with the previous rheo-optical method [19]. The former has been divided by 2.5 so that their absolute values match.

540 theory describes the polarisation of long polyelectrolyte
541 rods better than the Mandel-Manning theory.

542 It is interesting to compare our two relaxation meth-
543 ods, based on rheo- and electro-optics, as applied to the
544 same system. The rheo-optical method was able to mea-
545 sure undiluted samples; flow was applied in order to align
546 the fibrils completely, which led to complications due to
547 their stretching. The main experimental limitation in that
548 case was the finite time taken for the flow to stop, forbid-
549 ding the measurement of the shorter relaxation times, and
550 therefore the short end of the distribution. The present
551 electro-optical method required diluted samples in order
552 to reduce the ionic conductivity; short pulses of an elec-
553 tric field were applied to align the fibrils, which led to a
554 complication due to modelling the polarisability as a func-
555 tion of length. The main experimental limitation was the finite
556 duration of the pulse, which leads to errors in the analysis
557 of shorter relaxation times. The rheo-optical method was
558 able to measure the long end of the length distribution,
559 and the electro-optical method has been able to measure
560 the short end.

561 Considering the short end of the length distribution
562 (according to Fixman's theory), one striking observation
563 is made. The length distribution starts at or near zero
564 length concentration from $L = 0.02\mu\text{m}$ and increases lin-
565 early, within the error bars. Other authors, working on the
566 β -lg system [22,51], and on other amyloid fibril systems
567 [52,53] have written about the possible or observed forma-
568 tion of other species of protein aggregates, intermediate in
569 size between fibrils and monomers. If such intermediates
570 were present and rod-like in shape, we would expect to
571 see a peak in Fig. 9, if they were present in the system in
572 appreciable quantities compared to the fibrils. However,

there is no sign of any such peak in the measured range of the length distribution.

6 Conclusion

Using the technique of transient electric birefringence, we have investigated β -lactoglobulin fibrils, a highly polydisperse rod-like system. Interpretation of the results according to Benoît's model [36], and Fixman's theory of polarisability of polyelectrolyte rods [29], yields a measurement of the short end of the length distribution. This short end distribution complements results on the longer end of the distribution determined previously [19], but is too large by a factor of 2.5. This discrepancy can be explained if the polarisability according to Fixman has the right dependence on length, but is too small by a factor of approximately 2.5. (The Mandel-Manning theory of polarisability [28] was found to give a length distribution inconsistent with previous results.)

The short end of the β -lactoglobulin fibril length distribution shows an approximately linear dependence of length concentration on length. No sign of large rod-like intermediates is apparent.

Acknowledgements

We gratefully acknowledge funding from the BBSRC for SSR, and the European Commission for an IHP grant awarded to the Food Physics Group of Wageningen University for a Marie Curie Training Site Fellowship (contract HPMT-2000-00188).

Appendices

A Dynamics of anisotropic particles in a transient electric field

The interpretation of transient electric birefringence of anisotropic particles in terms of orientation and relaxation was developed by Benoît [35,36] and O'Konski and Zimm [37], and has remained in constant use, yet essentially unchanged for the past 50 years. The orientational distribution $f(\theta, \phi, L, t)$, of particles of length L , having a rotational diffusivity $D_r(L)$, obeys the equation of motion:

$$\nabla^2 f + \frac{1}{k_B T} \nabla \cdot (f \nabla w) = \frac{1}{D_r} \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}, \quad (13)$$

where k_B is Boltzmann's constant, T is the absolute temperature, θ and ϕ are spherical polar coordinates set up so that the electric field E is in the direction $\theta = 0$, and t is time. w is the potential energy of the particle:

$$\nabla w = -(\Delta\alpha E^2 \cos\theta - \mu E) \mathbf{e}_\theta, \quad (14)$$

where $\Delta\alpha(L)$ and $\mu(L)$ are the anisotropy of polarisability and the permanent dipole moment of the particle respectively, and \mathbf{e}_θ is the unit vector in the θ direction.

The problem is thus rotationally symmetric in ϕ , and $f(\theta, \phi, L, t)$ can be replaced with $f'(\theta, L, t)$.

For light propagating perpendicular to the field, the birefringence Δn is given by:

$$\Delta n = M \int_0^\infty c_L(L) S(L) dL, \quad (15)$$

where M is the optical anisotropy per unit length concentration, and $S(L)$ is the alignment parameter of the fibrils with length L , defined as:

$$S(L, t) \equiv \frac{5}{2} \int P_2(\theta) f'(\theta, L, t) \sin\theta d\theta \quad (16)$$

where $P_2(\theta) = (3\cos^2\theta - 1)/2$.

Since relaxation times in our system were long, in order to avoid heating and electrode effects we were forced to apply electric field pulses for times much shorter than would be required to reach a steady value of Δn . The initial linear rise of the birefringence can be calculated from Eqs. 13–16:

$$\Delta \dot{n}_{\text{init}} = \frac{2ME^2}{k_B T} \int_0^\infty c_L \Delta\alpha D_r dL. \quad (17)$$

This gives a proportionality to E^2 analogous to the Kerr law, but applying to the initial rise rather than the steady state at long times. Note that the initial rise of birefringence does not depend on μ , the permanent dipole moment. This can be explained simply: at the start of the pulse, the fibril orientational distribution is isotropic. The field puts a torque on all the fibrils due to their permanent dipole moment, but for every fibril pointing in a direction θ , there is another pointing in a direction $\theta + \pi$ which receives an equal but opposite torque. Of the pair, one is pushed towards alignment, and the other away from alignment, and the net contribution to the birefringence is zero.

To analyse the birefringence decays, we apply a short pulse of duration Δt , after which the electric field returns to zero. It is not the purpose of this article to determine μ , and therefore we can avoid complications in the analysis due to an unknown μ by making our pulse as short as possible. For all contributions to the birefringence which diffuse slower than Δt , this ensures that the birefringence rise during the pulse is independent of μ and follows Eq. 17. For contributions which relax faster, i.e. those of the shorter length fibrils, there will be an error due to the unknown μ which can be quantified (Section 4.3).

After the pulse, the birefringence decays according to:

$$\Delta n(t) = M \int_0^\infty c_L S(L, \Delta t) e^{-6D_r t} dL, \quad (18)$$

which is a Laplace transformation of the length distribution, weighted by the alignment $S(L, \Delta t)$ at the end of the pulse, as a function of length. Using this equation, the measured $\Delta n(t)$ can be inverted to find c_L (Appendix B).

$S(L, \Delta t)$ can be calculated from Eqs. 13–16. Benoît expanded f' in the first three Legendre polynomials, which is a valid approximation when $\Delta\alpha E^2/k_B T$ and $\mu E/k_B T$

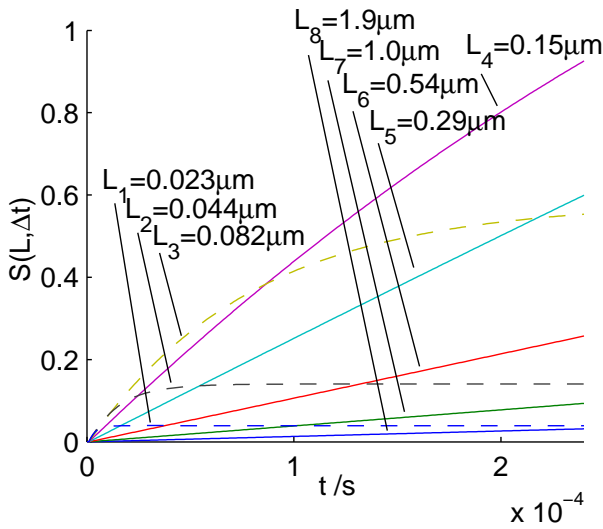


Fig. 10. Example calculations of $S(L, t)$ with a Runge-Kutta method for the sampled range of lengths, using $\Delta\alpha$ according to Fixman's theory, and taking $\mu = 0$.

663 are small. This is not generally true in our case, so we calculate
 664 $S(L, \Delta t)$ numerically using a Runge-Kutta method. Fig. 10 shows
 665 example calculations of $S(L, t)$ for the sampled range of lengths, using
 666 $\Delta\alpha$ according to Fixman's theory, and taking $\mu = 0$. It can be seen that
 667 S increases linearly for large L , but quickly reaches a steady state for
 668 small L .
 669

670 B Inverse Laplace transform analysis

671 The decay curve is transformed into a spectrum of relaxation times with the following method, following Ch. 18.5
 672 in Ref. [54]. The method is equivalent to that used in the popular program CONTIN [55]. First a solution is made
 673 by first order linear regularisation, solving the following equation by LU decomposition (see Ch. 2.3 in Ref. [54]):
 674
 675
 676

$$\sum_j \left(\sum_i e^{-(\tau_k^{-1} + \tau_j^{-1})t_i} + \lambda H_{kj} \right) G_j = \sum_i e^{-t_i/\tau_k} \Delta n(t_i), \quad (19)$$

677 which is a set of N equations in N unknowns, where G_j is
 678 the discrete contribution to the birefringence decay $\Delta n(t)$, with a decay time of τ_j , $H_{kj} = \sum_h B_{kh} B_{hj}$, where B_{hj} is the first difference matrix:

$$B_{hj} = \frac{\delta_{h,j-1} - \delta_{h,j}}{\sqrt{\tau_{h+1} - \tau_h}}, \quad (20)$$

and

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{ij} e^{-2t_i/\tau_j}, \quad (21)$$

where $j, k = 1, 2, 3 \dots N$ and $h = 1, 2, 3 \dots (N - 1)$. Second we apply the regularising condition that $G_j \geq 0$ by using the iterative equation:

$$G_k^{(p+1)} = \left| G_k^{(p)} - \epsilon \sum_j \left(\sum_i e^{-(\tau_k^{-1} + \tau_j^{-1})t_i} + \lambda H_{kj} \right) G_j^{(p)} + \epsilon \sum_i e^{-t_i/\tau_k} \Delta n_i \right|, \quad (22)$$

where we take the small adjustment parameter,

$$\epsilon = 2/\max \text{eigenvalue} \left(\sum_i e^{-(\tau_k^{-1} + \tau_j^{-1})t_i} + \lambda H_{kj} \right). \quad (23)$$

1000 iterations were enough to fit the curve within the noise.

In order to estimate the fitting error due to noise, we can adjust the result of Eq. 19 before applying Eq. 22 so that we fit the curve starting from estimates biased in the positive and negative directions of s . This was done by adjusting $G_j \rightarrow G_{j+n}$ for $n = -2, -1, +1, +2$. G_j is related to the continuous distribution g by:

$$G_j = Mg\Delta L_j, \quad (24)$$

where ΔL_j is the sampling interval, corresponding to τ_j via the diffusion relation (Eq. 4).

C Symbols List

Here we list the symbols appearing in this paper, excluding those appearing only in the appendices. In order of appearance: Δn birefringence magnitude, t time, E electric field, Δt pulse duration, $\Delta\alpha$ anisotropy of electric polarisability of a fibril, D_r rotational diffusivity of a fibril, c_L length concentration of fibrils, L fibril length, ν dilution, M optical anisotropy of fibrils, G_j magnitude of discrete exponential component of birefringence decay curve, τ decay time, L^* entanglement length, η solvent viscosity, d diameter of fibril, g continuous interpolation of G_j , S alignment parameter, ϕ fraction of condensed counterions, z valence of counterions, b mean spacing of charges on polyelectrolyte rod, Q Bjerrum length, κ^{-1} Debye length, I molar ionic strength, γ^{-1} screening length of Fixman theory, K numerical factor in Fixman theory, z_1, z_2 valences of counter- and co-ions, c_1 concentration of counterions, μ dipole moment of a fibril, μ' dipole moment of a fibril per unit length.

References

1. J. W. Kelly, Curr. Opin. Struct. Biol **8** (1998), 101.

- 716 2. C. M. Dobson, Phil. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. B **356** (2001), 133. 779
- 717
- 718 3. J. A. Hardy, G. A. Higgins, Science **256** (1992), 184. 780
- 719 4. M. Bucciantini, E. Giannoni, F. Chiti, F. Baroni, 781
- 720 L. Formigli, J. Zurdo, N. Taffei, G. Ramponi, C. M. Dobson, M. Stefani, Nature **416** (2002), 507. 782
- 721
- 722 5. C. E. MacPhee, C. M. Dobson, J. Amer. Chem. Soc. **122** (2000), 12707. 783
- 723
- 724 6. C. Veerman, H. Baptist, L. M. C. Sagis, van der Linden E., 784
- 725 J. Agric. Food Chem. **51** (2003), 3880. 785
- 726 7. S. E. Radford, C. M. Dobson, Cell **97** (1999), 291. 786
- 727 8. M. R. H. Krebs, E. H. C. Bromley, S. S. Rogers, A. M. Donald, Biophys. J. **88** (2005), 2013. 787
- 728
- 729 9. C. M. Dobson, Methods **34** (2004), 4. 788
- 730 10. J. C. Rochet, P. T. Lansbury Jr, Curr. Opin. Struct. Biol **10** (2000), 60. 789
- 731
- 732 11. N. P. Cheremisinoff, *Handbook of polymer science and technology. Vol. 1: Synthesis and properties* (Dekker, 1989). 790
- 733
- 734 12. H. Kramer, M. Deggelmann, C. Graf, M. Hagenbtichle, 791
- 735 C. Johner, R. Weber, Macromolecules **25** (1992), 4325. 792
- 736 13. V. J. Morris, A. R. Foweraker, B. R. Jennings, Advances in Molecular Relaxation and Interaction Processes **12** (1978), 211. 793
- 737
- 738 14. J. G. Elias, D. Eden, Macromolecules **14** (1981), 410. 794
- 739 15. J. Newman, H. L. Swinney, Biopolymers **15** (1976), 301. 795
- 740 16. F. Mantegazza, T. Bellini, M. Buscaglia, V. Degiorgio, 796
- 741 D. A. Saville, J. Chem. Phys. **113** (2000), 6984. 797
- 742
- 743 17. B. M. I. van der Zande, G. J. M. Koper, H. N. W. Lekkerkerker, J. Phys. Chem. B **103** (1999), 5754. 798
- 744
- 745 18. P. A. Cirkel, G. J. M. Koper, Langmuir **14** (1998), 7095. 799
- 746 19. S. S. Rogers, P. Venema, L. M. C. Sagis, E. van der Linden, 800
- 747 A. M. Donald, Macromolecules **38** (2005), 2948. 801
- 748 20. W. S. Gosal, A. H. Clark, P. D. A. Pudney, S. B. Ross-Murphy, Langmuir **18** (2002), 7174. 802
- 749
- 750 21. E. H. C. Bromley, M. R. H. Krebs, A. M. Donald, Faraday Discuss. **128** (2005). 803
- 751
- 752 22. L. N. Arnaudov, R. de Vries, H. Ippel, C. P. M. van Mierlo, Biomacromolecules **4** (2003), 1614. 804
- 753
- 754 23. L. M. C. Sagis, C. Veerman, E. van der Linden, Langmuir **20** (2004), 924. 805
- 755
- 756 24. P. Aymard, T. Nicolai, D. Durrand, Macromolecules **32** (1999), 2542. 806
- 757
- 758 25. R. K. Cannan, A. H. Palmer, A. C. Kibrick, J. Biol. Chem. **142** (1941), 803. 807
- 759
- 760 26. M. Mandel, Mol. Phys. **4** (1961), 489. 808
- 761 27. F. Oosawa, Biopolymers **9** (1970), 677. 809
- 762 28. G. S. Manning, Biophys. Chem. **9** (1978), 65. 810
- 763 29. M. Fixman, Macromolecules **13** (1980), 711. 811
- 764 30. G. S. Manning, J. Chem. Phys. **90** (1989), 5704.
- 765 31. M. Mandel, T. Odijk, Annu. Rev. Phys. Chem **35** (1984), 75.
- 766
- 767 32. U. Mohanty, Y. Zhao, Biopolymers **38** (1996), 377.
- 768 33. E. Fredericq, C. Houssier, *Electric Dichroism and Electric Birefringence* (Oxford University Press, 1973).
- 769
- 770 34. M. Tricot, C. Houssier, Macromolecules **15** (1982), 854.
- 771 35. H. Benoît, Comptes Rendus Acad. Sci. Paris **228** (1949), 1716.
- 772
- 773 36. H. Benoît, Annales de Physique **6** (1951), 561.
- 774 37. C. T. O'Konski, B. H. Zimm, Science **111** (1950), 113.
- 775 38. M. Doi, S. F. Edwards, *Polymer Dynamics* (Oxford University Press, 1986).
- 776
39. R. Pecora, M. A. Tracy, Annu. Rev. Phys. Chem. **43** (1992), 525. 777
- 778
40. J. Riseman, J. G. Kirkwood, J. Chem. Phys. **18** (1950), 512. 779
41. J. G. Kirkwood, P. L. Auer, J. Chem. Phys. **19** (1951), 281. 780
42. S. Broersma, J. Chem. Phys **32** (1960), 1626. 781
43. M. M. Tirado, G. de la Torre, J. Chem. Phys. **73** (1980), 1986. 782
44. M. A. Tracy, R. Pecora, Macromolecules **25** (1992), 337. 783
45. K. M. Zero, R. Pecora, Macromolecules **15** (1982), 87. 784
46. C. Holm, M. Rehahn, W. Oppermann, M. Ballauff, Adv. Polym. Sci. **166** (2004), 1. 785
47. D. J. Winzor, Analytical Biochemistry **325** (2004), 1. 786
48. C. E. Felder, S. A. Botti, L. Lifson, I. Silman, J. L. Sussman, Journal of Molecular Graphics and Modelling **15** (1997), 318. 787
49. J. D. Ferry, J. L. Oncley, J. Am. Chem. Soc. **63** (1941), 272. 788
50. S. Brownlow, J. H. M. Cabral, R. Cooper, D. R. Flower, S. J. Yewdall, I. Polikarpov, A. C. T. North, L. Sawyer, Structure **5** (1997), 481. 789
51. D. Hamada, C. M. Dobson, Protein Sci. **11** (2002), 2417. 790
52. D. M. Walsh, D. M. Hartley, Y. Kusumoto, Y. Fezoui, M. M. Condron, A. Lomakin, G. B. Benedek, D. J. Selkoe, D. B. Teplow, J. Biol. Chem. **274** (1999), 25945. 791
53. H. A. Lashuel, D. M. Hartley, B. M. Petre, J. S. Wall, M. N. Simon, T. Walz, P. T. Lansbury, J. Mol. Biol. **332** (2003), 795. 792
54. W. H. Press, B. P. Flannery, S. A. Teukolsky, W. T. Vetterling, *Numerical Recipes in C, 2nd Ed.* (Cambridge University Press, 1993). 793
55. S. W. Provencher, Comput. Phys. Commun. **27** (1982), 229. 794