

Taylor Dispersion Analysis and Atomic Force Microscopy Provide a Quantitative Insight into the Aggregation Kinetics of A*β* **(1–40)/A***β* **(1–42) Amyloid Peptide Mixtures**

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17 ABSTRACT

18 Aggregation of amyloid β peptides is known to be one of the main processes responsible for 19 Alzheimer's disease. The resulting dementia is believed to be due in part to the formation of 20 potentially toxic oligomers. However, the study of such intermediates and the understanding of 21 how they form is very challenging because they are heterogeneous and transient in nature. 22 Unfortunately, few techniques can quantify, in real time, the proportion and the size of the different 23 soluble species during the aggregation process. In a previous work (Deleanu *et al.* Anal. Chem. 24 2021), we showed the potential of Taylor dispersion analysis (TDA) in amyloid speciation during 25 the aggregation process of $\text{AG}(1-40)$ and $\text{AG}(1-42)$. The current work aims at exploring in detail 26 the aggregation of amyloid $\text{AG}(1-40)$: $\text{AG}(1-42)$ peptide mixtures with different proportions of each 27 peptide (1:0, 3:1, 1:1, 1:3 and 0:1), using TDA and atomic force microscopy (AFM). TDA allowed 28 for monitoring the kinetics of the amyloid assembly and quantifying the transient intermediates. 29 Complementarily, AFM allowed the formation of insoluble fibrils to be visualized. Together, the 30 two techniques enabled to study the influence of the peptide ratios on the kinetics and the formation 31 of potentially toxic oligomeric species.

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33 KEYWORDS. Taylor dispersion analysis; AFM; peptide aggregation; oligomers; amyloid beta 34 peptides; diffusion coefficient; hydrodynamic radius.

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37 Introduction

38 Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common primary dementia. It usually presents a 39 progressive course and characteristically affects different cognitive and behavioral functions. 40 Perhaps the cardinal, most frequently observed symptom of disease onset is memory \cos^1 , which 41 results from initial lesions in the hippocampus (which lies in the medial temporal lobes of the brain 42 and is responsible for long-term memory) further extending to the rest of the brain. At later stages, 43 the degeneration of other cognitive and behavioral areas is observed which will clearly indicate 44 the type of dementia.

45 The brains of Alzheimer's patients present a series of characteristic hallmarks. First, 46 neurofibrillary tangles composed of hyperphosphorylated tau protein are observed in neurons. 47 Then, extracellular fibrillary structures called neuritic (or senile) plaques, that are due to the deposition of amyloid β peptides (Aβ), are observed². In the 1990's, it was believed that the senile 49 plaques were the most pathogenic forms of the $\mathbf{A}\beta^{3,4}$, which resulted from the self-assembly of the 50 two major amyloid peptides Aβ(1-40) and Aβ(1-42). During this self-assembly, species are formed 51 with evolving morphology and size from oligomers, to protofibrils and finally to fibrils and 52 plaques, through a highly complicated process.

53 More recent studies suggested that the main factor of AD pathogenesis was the formation of 54 soluble oligomers of Aβ, which are believed to be more toxic than plaques because they are able 55 to spread across neuronal tissue and bind to membrane receptors, including the prion protein, 56 promoting neurotoxicity and synaptic $loss⁵⁻⁷$. However, in contrast to fibrils, which are highly 57 stable and can be observed by microscopy, the soluble oligomers are more difficult to detect and 58 to study in real time⁸, since they are metastable, transient⁸ and highly polydisperse in size. Studies 59 have shown that Aβ(1-40) does not quantitatively form small oligomers during the aggregation

60 process but rather goes from monomers to fibrils following a direct pathway^{9, 10}. On the other hand, 61 Aβ(1-42) goes through the formation of intermediate species with diverse sizes and shapes^{11, 12}. 62 Although these two amyloid peptides coexist in vivo^{13, 14}, most of the in vitro studies on Aβ were 63 focused on the study of pure peptide solutions and only a small proportion of the vast AD literature 64 was dedicated to mixtures of these peptides¹⁵⁻¹⁸. Many of the studies dealing with the mixtures 65 were directed toward the kinetics of the aggregation process and more particularly the study of the 66 amyloid fibers^{15-17, 19-21} and very few toward the oligomeric structures¹⁸. The aggregation process 67 in such mixtures was already studied by Thioflavin T fluorescence^{17, 21}, sedimentation¹⁵, atomic 68 force microscopy $(AFM)^{16, 19}$, nuclear magnetic resonance $(NMR)^{22, 23}$ or electron paramagnetic 69 resonance¹⁸ to name few methods. The results from these studies indicated that both Aβ(1-40) and 70 Aβ(1-42) interact during the aggregation process, with cross seeding between peptides. However, 71 some authors claimed that the fibrils are homomolecular¹⁷ while others stated that 72 heteromolecular¹⁸ fibrils are obtained. In all cases, it was observed that the presence of $\text{A}\beta(1-42)$ 73 accelerated the aggregation of Aβ(1-40) and vice versa. To our knowledge, an in-depth study on 74 the species present during the early stages of the aggregation of amyloid peptide mixtures does not 75 exist to date. For that reason, and to help develop drug candidates targeting the toxic oligomers, 76 new analytical methodologies are required to monitor and size the different species in real time. 17 In this context, Taylor dispersion analysis²⁴⁻²⁶ (TDA) appears as a very promising alternative 78 analytical method. In our previous report²⁷, we showed the ability of TDA to follow the

79 aggregation process of amyloid peptides, using an extensive data treatment that revealed a 80 complete picture of the aggregation process and allowed to size the transient structures. As 81 described elsewhere, TDA allows to determine the molecular diffusion coefficient, D, and 82 hydrodynamic radius, R_h , of a solute, including for mixtures, without any bias in size as compared

83 to other sizing methods²⁸, since the small and the large solutes contribute proportionally to their 84 mass abundance in the mixture²⁹. The use of TDA in the field of protein aggregation presents several advantages³⁰⁻³³. It offers low sample consumption (less than 1 μ L for the whole aggregation 86 process), short analysis time allowing a high number of sampling points and real time monitoring 87 of the aggregation, a wide range of sizing (from angstrom to sub-micron) allowing to size the 88 monomers, oligomers and higher size soluble prefibrillar structures, together with a direct analysis 89 without any sample pretreatment or filtration $34-36$.

90 In this work, we used TDA to study peptide mixtures of $\text{AB}(1-40)$ and $\text{AB}(1-42)$ with the aim of 91 revealing the size of the transient structures formed during the aggregation process. The results for 92 selected time points were compared with those obtained by AFM to correlate the observations 93 from these two independent techniques. AFM also allowed to study non-soluble fibrils, which 94 cannot be sized or directly observed by TDA.

95 Materials and methods

96 Materials

97 Amyloid beta (1-40) (denoted $\text{AG}(1-40)$ in this work) was prepared by fast conventional solid 98 phase peptide synthesis (SPPS) using a *Fmoc* orthogonal strategy as described elsewhere²⁷. 99 Amyloid beta (1-42) (Aβ(1-42), batch number 100002591, >95%) was purchased from Bachem 100 (Bubendorf, Switzerland). Sodium dihydrogen phosphate, tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane, 101 hydrochloric acid fuming 37%, sodium chloride and sodium hydroxide were purchased from 102 Sigma Aldrich (France). The ultrapure water used for all buffers was prepared with a MilliQ 103 system from Millipore (France).

104 Peptide pretreatment

105 Both Aβ(1-40) and Aβ(1-42) were first pretreated independently as described elsewhere^{37, 38}. 106 Briefly, Aβ(1-40) and Aβ(1-42) were dissolved in a 0.10 % (m/v) and 0.16 % (m/v) NH₄OH 107 aqueous solution respectively to reach a final peptide concentration of 2 mg/mL. The peptide 108 solutions were then incubated at room temperature for 10 min, separated into several aliquots and 109 freeze-dried. The aliquot volume was calculated in order to obtain 10 nmol of peptide in each 110 Eppendorf tube. The lyophilized peptide aliquots were stored at -20 °C until further use.

111 Peptide aggregation study by Taylor dispersion analysis

112 Briefly, and as described thoroughly elsewhere^{25, 29, 30, 39}, Taylor dispersion analysis allows for the 113 determination of the molecular diffusion coefficient of a solute which can be obtained from the 114 band broadening resulting from the combination of the Poiseuille parabolic flow and the molecular 115 diffusion by quantifying the temporal variance (σ^2) of the elution profile. For that, a Gaussian 116 function is used to fit the experimental elution peak allowing to obtain the peak variance σ^2 and 117 thus calculate the molecular diffusion coefficient, D, and consequently the hydrodynamic radius, 118 R_h . When more than one size populations are present, a sum of Gaussian functions can be used to 119 fit the experimental trace, or Constrained Regularized Linear Inversion $(CRLI)^{40}$ can be used to 120 get the size distribution. For more details, the reader may refer to the supporting information for 121 the theoretical aspects, equations and more details on the data processing.

122 TDA was performed on an Agilent 7100 (Waldbronn, Germany) capillary electrophoresis system 123 using bare fused silica capillaries (Polymicro technologies, USA) having 40 cm \times 50 µm i.d. 124 dimensions and a detection window at 31.5 cm. New capillaries were conditioned with the 125 following flushes: 1 M NaOH for 30 min; ultrapure water for 30 min. Between each analysis, 126 capillaries were rinsed with 20 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.4 (2 min). Samples were injected 127 hydrodynamically on the inlet end of the capillary (44 mbar, 3 s, injected volume was about 7 nL 128 corresponding to 1% of the capillary volume to the detection point). Experiments were performed 129 using a mobilization pressure of 100 mbar. The temperature of the capillary cartridge was set at 130 37 °C. The vial carrousel was thermostated using an external circulating water bath 600F from 131 Julabo (Germany). The solutes were monitored by UV absorbance at 191 nm. The mobile phase 132 was a 20 mM, pH 7.4 phosphate buffer (viscosity at 37 \degree C is 0.7×10⁻⁴ Pa.s). To prepare the 133 mixtures, freeze-dried mixed peptide aliquots were prepared so that the final sample would contain 134 13 nmol of total peptide except for the pure samples where the amount of peptide was of 10 nmol. 135 First, each of the required stock aliquots (see previous section) were dissolved in 100 µL of 0.16% 136 (m/v) NH4OH to avoid aggregation during this step, and appropriate volumes were used to obtain 137 the desired mixtures. The final aliquots were immediately subjected to freeze-drying and then 138 stored at -20°C until further use. The resulting peptide powders were dissolved in 20 mM 139 phosphate buffer at pH 7.4 to reach a final total peptide concentration of 133 μ M : *i*) 100 % A β (1-140 40) contained 10 nmol of Aβ(1-40) dissolved in 75 µL of buffer; *ii*) 75 % Aβ(1-40) and 25 % 141 Aβ(1-42) mixture contained 10 nmol of Aβ(1-40) and 3.33 nmol of Aβ(1-42) dissolved in 100 µL 142 of buffer; iii) 50 % Aβ(1-40) and 50 % Aβ(1-42) mixture contained 6.67 nmol of each peptide and 143 was dissolved in 100 µL of buffer; iv) 25 % A β (1-40) and 75 % A β (1-42) mixture contained 3.33 144 nmol of Aβ(1-40) and 10 nmol of Aβ(1-42) dissolved in 100 μ L of buffer and finally v) 0 % Aβ(1-145 40) contained 10 nmol of Aβ(1-42) dissolved in 75 µL of buffer. After dissolution, the mixtures 146 were immediately transferred to a capillary electrophoresis vial and incubated at 37°C in the 147 capillary electrophoresis instrument carrousel. Aggregation was monitored by injecting the sample 148 (V_{inj} \approx 7 nL) every 7 min in the case of pure Aβ(1-42) and the Aβ(1-40): Aβ(1-42) 1:3 mixture (25 149 % Aβ(1-40)), while it was injected every 20 min for the Aβ(1-40): Aβ(1-42) 1:1 mixture (50 % 150 Aβ(1-40)) and every 30 min in the case of pure Aβ(1-40) and the Aβ(1-40): Aβ(1-42) 3:1 mixture

151 (75 % Aβ(1-40)). During the monitoring of the aggregation process, each sample was injected for 152 100 to 125 TDA runs, corresponding to a total injected sample volume between 700 nL and 875 153 nL. To avoid sample evaporation, the vial cap was changed three times a day. The taylorgrams 154 were recorded with the Agilent Chemstation software, then exported to Microsoft Excel for 155 subsequent data processing. In general, the obtained elution profiles were not Gaussian, meaning 156 that the sample was polydisperse in size. All taylorgrams were fitted on the basis of the right-side 157 elution profile (*i.e.* $t > t_0$, with t_0 the peak time) to remove the spikes present on the left side as 158 described elsewhere²⁷.

159 Atomic force microscopy (AFM)

160 For atomic force microscopy characterisation, 5 µL aliquots of the peptide solutions collected at 161 different aggregation times were dried on silicon substrates freshly cleaned with piranha solution, 162 before gently rinsing with ultrapure water and drying in a flow of nitrogen gas. An Agilent 5500 163 AFM system with MSNL-F cantilevers $(f = 110-120 \text{ kHz}, k = 0.6 \text{ N/m},$ average tip radius of 2-12 164 nm) was used for topographical imaging in intermittent contact mode. The AFM topography 165 images were levelled, line-corrected and analysed using Gwyddion⁴¹, a free and open-source SPM 166 (scanning probe microscopy) data visualization and analysis program. Maxima analysis was 167 performed using Image J^{42} .

168 Results and discussion

169 Taylor Dispersion Analysis and data processing

170 One main objective of this work is to show the influence of the relative proportion of Aβ(1-40) 171 with respect to $\text{A}\beta(1-42)$ on the aggregation process. The aggregation of the peptides in the 172 different mixtures was followed at 37°C. Figure 1 shows the taylorgrams recorded at selected 173 incubation times for Aβ(1-40), Aβ(1-40):Aβ(1-42) mixtures (with molar ratio of Aβ(1-40) in the 174 mixture of 25%, 50% and 75% corresponding to 3:1, 1:1 and 1:3 mixtures), and Aβ(1-42). The 175 total peptide concentration in each solution was set at 133.3 µM. All experimental taylorgrams, 176 for all incubations times t_{ag} , are shown in Figures SI.1 to SI.5. Figure 1 allows for a visual 177 comparison of the aggregation kinetics between the different amyloid peptide ratios. The 178 absorbance decrease of the elution profile with t_{ag} , which is due to the decrease in concentration 179 of the soluble species, was faster when increasing the $\text{A}\beta(1-42)$ content in the mixture, as 180 . previously observed for pure peptide solutions²⁷.

181 In order to elucidate the aggregation process in these solutions, an extensive data treatment was 182 realized on all the obtained taylorgrams. As already observed in our previous report²⁷, sharp peaks 183 or spikes, sometimes appear on the left side of the elution peak because of the presence of large 184 fibrils in suspension which are out of the Taylor regime^{43, 44} and/or due to specific hydrodynamic 185 behavior for suspended large aggregates⁴⁵. The presence of these spikes imposes a data treatment 186 on the right side of the elution profile. Two different approaches were used to treat the 187 experimental elution profiles. First, the fitting with a finite number of Gaussian functions ($n = 4$ in 188 this work), leads to the classification of the obtained size populations into four categories: (i) small 189 unidentified molecules (R_h < 0.9 nm), (*ii*) monomers and small oligomers (0.9 nm < R_h < 5 nm), 190 (iii) higher mass oligomers (5 nm < R_h < 50 nm) and finally (iv) soluble protofibrils (50 nm < R_h 191 < 300 nm). The second approach is based on the Constrained Regularized Linear Inversion (CRLI) 192 which aims at finding the probability density function $P_D(D)$ that fits the taylorgram without any 193 hypothesis on the number of populations⁴⁰.

194 Aggregation process of pure and mixed solutions of Aβ peptides by TDA and AFM

195 In the case of Aβ(1-40) alone, the first sign of spikes (fibrils) appears at $t_{\text{ag}} \sim 12$ h (Figure SI.1). 196 However, the spike intensity remained relatively low and did not increase drastically over the 197 whole aggregation process (see gray data points in Figure 2). In parallel, the monomer peak 198 intensity remained constant until $t_{\alpha g} \sim 20$ h ("lag phase"), and then decreased rapidly to reach a 199 lower plateau after $t_{ag} \sim 48$ h (red squares in Figure 2). This suggests an initial slow aggregation 200 step followed by a rapid fibrillization catalyzed by the formation of large aggregates (seeds) that 201 do not enter the capillary upon injection⁴⁶, in accordance with our previous report where another 202 concentration (100 μM) of Aβ(1-40) was used²⁷.

203 On the contrary, $\text{A}\beta(1-42)$ alone did not show any lag phase and a fast decrease of this population 204 was observed with a complete disappearance after less than 2 h (red squares in Figure 2). 205 Meanwhile, when mixed together, $\Delta \beta(1-42)$ seemed to increase the kinetics of aggregation, with 206 the monomer population decreasing after 15 h, 8 h and 6 h for the 75%, 50% and 25% $\mathcal{AB}(1-40)$ 207 mixtures respectively, without any visible lag phase (red squares in Figure 2).

208 With the aim of verifying hypotheses formulated from TDA, we also performed AFM imaging for 209 key times of the fibrillization process. The findings by TDA correlated well with AFM 210 observations for A β (1-40) alone (Figure 3), which showed the number of fibrils rise only at t_{ag} = 211 28.10 h. In AFM images, the substrate remained covered with spherical objects in the 10 nm 212 diameter range (including eventual tip convolution effects) that can be attributed to monomers and 213 oligomers. The coverage by these species only decreased significantly, exposing portions of the 214 bare substrate, for $t_{ag} = 28.10$ h, which demonstrates the consumption of these objects by the 215 fibrillization process.

216 In the case of Aβ(1-42) alone, the kinetics of aggregation were much faster than that of Aβ(1-40), 217 as demonstrated by the taylorgrams (Figure 1) and the monomer consumption (red squares in 218 Figure 2). The first spikes were observed only after $t_{\alpha g} \sim 10$ min (Figure SI 5), in agreement with 219 AFM showing fibrils for the shortest incubation times, and a complete disappearance of the soluble 220 peptide species was observed after $t_{ag} \sim 7$ h (Figure 3). Similarly, only few monomeric/oligomeric 221 species remained visible after 48 min in AFM images, which showed from this time onward mainly 222 the substrate and fibrils. The decrease in the number of fibrils observed by microscopy for the 223 longest incubation times is likely due to the tangling of fibrils and compaction of these aggregates, 224 that have less affinity for the substrate and are more easily removed during the rinsing and drying 225 steps, as observed for other amyloid systems⁴⁷.

226 When mixed together, aggregation/fibrillization observed by both TDA and AFM accelerated with 227 the proportion of A β (1-42). In the case of the 75% A β (1-40) mixture, the first spikes in TDA 228 appeared after t_{ag} -6.5 h (Figure SI.2), while they were observed after only ~1.5 h and ~1 h for the 229 50 % and 25 % Aβ(1-40) mixtures respectively (Figures SI.3 and SI.4 respectively). In the case of 230 the mixture with the highest amount of $\text{AG}(1-40)$, the spikes intensity increased with time and 231 remained visible even after 60 h of aggregation suggesting that the formed fibrillary structures are 232 smaller in size than those formed with $\Delta \beta(1-40)$ alone, and can enter more easily in the capillary 233 during the injection step. These observations were also conveyed in the AFM images, with fibers 234 appearing increasingly early during the aggregation process, and the spherical objects attributed to 235 monomers and oligomers being consumed faster upon raising the proportion of $\mathcal{A}\beta(1-42)$. Indeed, 236 these small species remain predominant on the substrates up to 28.10, 8.15, 3.05 and 0.27 h 237 respectively for 0, 25, 75 and 100% $\text{A}\beta(1-42)$.

238 As mentioned earlier, the Taylorgrams were treated by fitting a sum of Gaussian functions to 239 extract the abundance of size populations present under each elution peak during the aggregation 240 process. Figure 4 shows the hydrodynamic radii of the populations in the studied mixtures as a 241 function of incubation time, while Table 1 shows the average hydrodynamic radii values for the 242 size populations and the different peptide mixtures. As can be seen in Figure 4, the size of each 243 population was relatively constant during the aggregation process. The population called 244 'monomer' corresponds to the monomers and small oligomers with an average size of about 2 nm 245 in all mixtures. However, the statistical analysis showed that the monomer populations in $\Delta \beta$ (1-246 40) and in the 25 % Aβ(1-40) mixture were significantly smaller at a 95% confidence level than 247 for the other three mixtures, based on the average hydrodynamic radii obtained over the whole 248 aggregation study for each mixture (see Table 2 and Figure SI.6). Further, $\mathcal{A}\beta(1-40)$ alone showed 249 the lowest 'monomer' population size average value of 1.81 ± 0.11 nm, while the 25 % A β (1-40) 250 mixture showed the highest average value of 2.42 ± 0.20 nm. While the other three mixtures, 75 251 % Aβ(1-40) mixture, 50% Aβ(1-40) mixture and Aβ(1-42) alone were not statistically different 252 (see R_h values in Table 2). These results suggest that when the mixture contained an excess of 253 Aβ(1-42) as compared to Aβ(1-40), the formed oligomers were larger in size than those obtained 254 for Aβ(1-42) alone and for the mixtures with a higher amount of Aβ(1-40). To explain this 255 observation, the following hypothesis is proposed. First, it was already shown that $\mathcal{A}\beta(1-40)$ 256 mainly forms fibrils directly from the monomeric state without passing through intermediate 257 species^{9, 10}. The presence of the first fibrils of Aβ(1-40) catalyzed by the presence of Aβ(1-42) may 258 play the role of seeds for the A β (1-42) peptide²¹, and thus, oligomers with a higher molar mass are 259 formed. When the amount of $\text{A}\beta(1-42)$ decreases, the aggregation process tends to follow the 260 pathway characteristic of Aβ(1-40) (direct formation of fibrils), and thus, the smallest oligomeric

261 species tend to remain monomeric with a lower average size. For AFM, in the presence of 262 biomolecules, the lateral dimensions are often affected by tip convolution, leading to unpredictable 263 broadening of surface features^{48, 49}. We therefore measured the average heights of the various 264 objects, which gave a good estimation of radii. The results obtained on the different mixtures of 265 the radii (at times enabling to measure isolated objects) for small spherical objects attributed to 266 monomers/oligomers, and the derived half-widths for the fibers are gathered in Table 2. The radii 267 of monomers/oligomers are in good agreement between TDA and AFM, although values measured 268 for monomers, oligomers and fibers with AFM are not significantly different between ratios.

269 Table 2: Average hydrodynamic radius in nm obtained by TDA over the whole aggregation process 270 of each mixture. Average heights in nm obtained by AFM on the small spherical objects and on 271 the fibrils for the different $\mathbf{A}\beta$ mixtures and at different aggregation times.

273 As for the higher mass oligomer population, the size remained relatively constant throughout the 274 aggregation process within a given mixture. However, it was observed that with an increase in the 275 A β (1-40) proportion, the average size for the oligomer population was higher than in the case of 276 an excess of A β (1-42) (~18 nm as compared to ~9 nm) (Figure SI.6). Moreover, a sudden increase 277 of the oligomer R_h from about 10 nm to \sim 30 nm can be observed when the "monomer" population 278 decreased in area (Figure 2 for the size and Figure 4 for the area) after \sim 2h for Aβ(1-42), 24 h for 279 the 75% A β (1-40) mixture and 32 h for A β (1-40). This effect was not observed for the 50% and 280 25% $\Delta \beta$ (1-40) mixtures. Further, Figure 2 shows that this oligomeric population reaches a 281 maximum in concentration at around 30 min for the $\text{A}\beta(1-42)$ sample, while this maximum is 282 shifted to higher times with the decrease in Aβ(1-42) proportion (1.3 h, 1.6 h, 5.5 h and 16 h for 283 25%, 50%, 75% and 100 % Aβ(1-40) mixtures, respectively). Recent studies suggested that 284 amyloid peptides can undergo liquid-liquid phase separation (LLPS) before the formation of 285 amyloid fibrils⁵⁰⁻⁵². The "high mass oligomers" population with R_h ranging from 5 to 50 nm found 286 in this work, might correspond to high-density protein condensates. The size increase of the species 287 over time can be explained by Ostwald ripening.

288 Regarding the protofibril population, the R_h values varied between 80 and 140 nm, for all the 289 mixtures independently of the peptide proportions (Figure 4).

290 Hydrodynamic radius distributions by CRLI

291 To get a deeper insight into the evolution of the species during the aggregation process, CRLI 292 analysis^{27, 40} was applied on the right part of the taylorgrams (i.e. for $t > t_0$). Figure 5 shows the 293 hydrodynamic radii distributions obtained by CRLI on TDA runs for selected aggregation times 294 for all studied samples, while Figures SI.7 to SI.11 show the distributions over the whole 295 aggregation process for the studied samples. From these distributions, one can note that for Aβ(1- 296 40) alone, only the monomer and small oligomer populations were observed throughout the 297 aggregation process without the notable appearance of intermediate species. On the contrary, 298 Aβ(1-42) aggregation led to intermediate oligomers having an average size around 10 nm 299 accompanied with a broadening and disappearance of the monomeric population in accordance 300 with our previous report²⁷. When mixed together, the presence of intermediate species became 301 more noticeable with the increase in Aβ(1-42) proportion. These results provide an explanation to 302 the increase in Aβ mixtures toxicity with an increase in the Aβ(1-42)/Aβ(1-40) ratio^{19, 23, 53}, 303 supporting the notion that this toxicity correlates with the amount of intermediate oligomeric 304 species.

305 Kinetic analysis of the aggregation process

306 One of the major advantages of using TDA combined with advanced data treatment is the 307 possibility to get the size distributions of the different populations with high throughput during the 308 whole aggregation process. These distributions allow gaining insight on the aggregation 309 mechanism, by modelling the data based on the chain of association and dissociation reactions 310 shown in Figure 6^{54} .

Monomer (M)
$$
\xleftarrow[k_{\text{EM}}]{k_{\text{M}}} \text{Oligomer (O) } \xleftarrow[k_{\text{PO}}]{k_{\text{OP}}} \text{Protofibrils (P) } \xleftarrow[k_{\text{FP}}]{k_{\text{FP}}} \text{Fibrils (F)}
$$

\n311

312 Figure 6. Scheme of the association and dissociation reactions of amyloid species used to model 313 the aggregation process (adapted from⁵⁴). The rate constant for each reaction is indicated close to 314 the respective reaction arrow.

315 The forward and backward reactions going from the monomer (M) population to the oligomers 316 (O), the protofibrils (P), and finally the fibrils (F), as shown in Figure 6, are modelled by the 317 following set of equations: tions going from the monomer (M) population to the oligomers

nally the fibrils (F), as shown in Figure 6, are modelled by the
 $-k_{MO}M(t) + k_{OM}O(t) + k_{PM}P(t) + k_{FM}F(t)$ (1)
 $\frac{(t)}{t} = -(k_{OP} + k_{OM})O(t) + k_{MO}M(t)$ (2)
 $\frac{(t)}{dt} = -(k_{PF} +$ tions going from the monomer (M) population to the oligomers

aally the fibrils (F), as shown in Figure 6, are modelled by the
 $k_{M_O}M(t) + k_{OM}O(t) + k_{PM}P(t) + k_{EM}F(t)$ (1)
 $\frac{dI}{dt} = -\left(k_{OP} + k_{OM}\right)O(t) + k_{M_O}M(t)$ (2)
 $\frac{dI}{dt} =$

318
$$
\frac{dM(t)}{dt} = -k_{MO}M(t) + k_{OM}O(t) + k_{PM}P(t) + k_{FM}F(t)
$$
 (1)

319
$$
\frac{dO(t)}{dt} = -(k_{OP} + k_{OM})O(t) + k_{MO}M(t)
$$
 (2)

320
$$
\frac{dP(t)}{dt} = -\left(k_{PF} + k_{OM}\right)P(t) + k_{OP}O(t) \tag{3}
$$

321
$$
\frac{dF(t)}{dt} = k_{PF}P(t) - k_{FM}F(t)
$$
 (4)

 322 where, M(t), O(t), P(t) and F(t) are the concentrations of the monomers, oligomers, protofibrils 323 and fibrils respectively. k_{MO} is the rate for the reaction transforming monomers into oligomers; 324 similar notations are used for the other rate constants. Note that TDA does not allow the fibrils 325 population to be directly measured, so only equations (1-3) were used. We fit Eqs. (1-3) to the 326 temporal evolution of the population distributions obtained by TDA, by assuming that the 327 (integrated) absorbance signal for each species is proportional to its concentration, and that the 328 same proportionality constant applies to all species. Equation (4) was not used since TDA does 329 not allow the direct quantification of the fibril concentrations. The fit is performed using custom 330 software based on the Scipy package⁵⁵, performing a least square minimization of the set of rate 331 constants, solving numerically Eqs. (1-3) at each iteration. The resulting fitting curves are shown 332 as dot-dashed lines in Figure 2 (see also Figures SI.12 to SI.16), while the fitting parameters are 333 reported in Table 1. Note that for most samples the monomer population asymptotically tends for 334 large t to a non-zero concentration value, due to the dissociation of the higher-order species. The 335 100 % Aβ(1-40) could not be fitted entirely, because of the presence of a lag phase at early times.

336 However, data for this sample could be fitted by excluding the monomer population data points 337 for $t < -20$ h. For all other sample mixtures, the fit allowed to extract the kinetics rate constants 338 reported in Table 1. From these values, it can be deduced that the reaction rates tend to decrease 339 with increasing amounts of $\text{AG}(1-40)$ in the mixture. For the 0% $\text{AG}(1-40)$ sample, the forward 340 reactions were dominant as compared to the backward ones, suggesting that the aggregation is 341 close to an irreversible reaction rather than to an equilibrium one. When a small amount of Aβ(1- 342 40) is added (25%), the reaction rates of forward and backward reactions become similar. These 343 results can explain the higher toxicity of this A β ratio observed in the literature¹⁹. Indeed, the 344 backward reactions correspond to the dissociation of higher order species into monomers or low 345 molar mass oligomers, which are known to be toxic. To our knowledge, this is the first time that 346 kinetic rates of the aggregation mechanism of Aβ peptides could be determined by measuring 347 directly the monomer and oligomer distributions. When combined with models proposed in the 348 literature, mainly based on measurements of the time-dependent aggregate mass $54, 56, 57$ (e.g. by 349 ThT fluorescence assay), or numerical simulations⁵⁸, TDA data as those presented here will help 350 reaching a comprehensive understanding of the aggregation process of these amyloid species, 351 potentially contributing to assess the effectiveness of drugs targeting the toxic oligomeric species.

352 Conclusion

353 This work demonstrated the interest of Taylor dispersion analysis to assist the study of complex 354 amyloid peptide mixtures and shed more light on the aggregation process in these systems. The 355 comparison of the results obtained in parallel by TDA and AFM showed the complementarity of 356 the two techniques, where TDA is able to quantify and size of small objects while AFM can size 357 the fibrillary structures not accessible by TDA. In addition, the results confirmed that the kinetics

358 of aggregation strongly depend on the nature of amyloid-forming peptides and their environment. 359 Under our working conditions, the more amyloid-prone $\text{A}\beta(1-42)$ aggregates more rapidly 360 (minutes scale) compared to Aβ(1-40), which aggregates in about 24h, in agreement with 361 previously published works^{27, 59}. When mixing together the two species, the aggregation rate was 362 highly influenced by the ratio of Aβ(1-40):Aβ(1-42). Indeed, Aβ(1-42) was found to accelerate the 363 aggregation rate of Aβ(1-40), probably by a cross-seeding mechanism. For example, the 364 disappearance of the monomeric species decreased from 48 h in the case of 100 % $\text{AG}(1-40)$ to 12 365 h when 25 % of $\text{AB}(1-42)$ were present in the sample.

366 In addition to the clear observation on the interplay between both Aβ peptides during the 367 aggregation process of mixtures and the influence of the $\Delta\beta$ ratio on the aggregation rate, this work 368 shows that this ratio modulates the formation of potentially toxic oligomers. In fact, when the 369 peptides were mixed together, intermediate oligomeric species were observed and tended to 370 increase in proportion upon increasing the Aβ(1-42) content. Modifying the Aβ ratio changed the 371 onset of the oligomeric species appearance and monomeric species disappearance (monomers and 372 small oligomers R_h lower than 5 nm), as well as the aggregation mechanism (direct formation of 373 fibrils or formation of intermediate species). These results support the importance of understanding 374 the mechanism of the aggregation process in the case of $\mathbf{A}\beta$ mixtures (in better accordance with 375 the *in vivo* conditions), to better direct research toward an AD therapy able to inhibit the formation 376 of intermediate species depending on the Aβ ratio. In this respect, TDA was shown to be a 377 straightforward method able to give with unprecedented detail new insight on the size and 378 distribution of the species formed during the aggregation process. Finally, the combination of TDA 379 with extensive data processing and highly resolved efficient methods such as AFM paves the way 380 for building a comprehensive picture of the speciation and growth processes, as illustrated here for

- 381 amyloid peptides, with potential applications to a wide range of biological, organic and inorganic
- 382 polymer systems.

383 Table 1. Dependence of various parameters on the proportion of $A\beta(1-40)$ in the studied mixtures. 384 Populations' size: Average hydrodynamic radii of the monomer, oligomers and protofibrils size 385 populations obtained by the deconvolution of the taylorgrams with a finite number of Gaussian 386 functions. Kinetics parameters: values of the rate constants k obtained by fitting the peak areas 387 corresponding to the various populations with equations (1) to (3). The last two columns show the 388 time at which the oligomer population reaches its maximum, toligomers,max, and the initial 389 concentration of the monomer population, $M(t=0)$.

390
391 **Figure 1.** Overview of selected taylorgrams obtained during the aggregation process of $\text{A}\beta(1-40)$ 392 :Aβ(1-42) mixtures (Aβ(1-40) % of 100 %; 75%; 50%; 25% and 0%) at different common 393 incubation times. Experimental conditions: Sample: 133 µM of total peptide; 20 mM phosphate 394 buffer, pH 7.4. Incubation: quiescent conditions at 37 °C. Fused silica capillaries: 50 μ m i.d. \times 40 395 cm × 31.5 cm. Mobile phase: 20 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.4. Mobilization pressure: 100 mbar. 396 Injection: 44 mbar for 3 s, $V_i \approx 7$ nL (V_i / $V_d \approx 1$ %). Analyses were performed at 37 °C. UV 397 detection at 191 nm.

399 Figure 2. Peak area evolution of the different populations observed during the aggregation process 400 of Aβ(1-40):Aβ(1-42) mixtures and obtained using a fit with finite number of Gaussian functions. 401 Three size populations are represented: monomer and low molar mass oligomers (■), higher molar 402 mass oligomers (■), soluble protofibrils (■) and non-diffusing species ("spikes") (■). Experimental 403 conditions as in Figure 1. Black dashed-dotted lines are the kinetic fits obtained from equations 404 (1) to (3). The grey dashed line in $\mathsf{AB}(1-40)$ monomer distribution is a guide for the eye. The scale 405 of the vertical axis is the same in all graphs and is indicated on the bottom-left corner of the figure.

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408 Figure 3: AFM images taken in intermittent contact mode under dry conditions, for different key 409 times of the aggregation process in the presence of different peptide proportions. The Aβ(1- 410 40):Aβ(1-42) ratio is given on the left side of the panel, aggregation times in hours are overlayed 411 on the images. The scale bar on the bottom right corner is valid for all images and equals 1 μm.

413 Figure 4. Hydrodynamic radius evolution of the different populations observed during the 414 aggregation process of Aβ(1-40):Aβ(1-42) mixtures and obtained using a fit with finite number of 415 Gaussian functions. Three size populations are represented: monomer and low molar mass 416 oligomers $0.9 < R_h < 5$ nm (■), higher molar mass oligomers $5 < R_h < 50$ nm (●), and soluble 417 protofibrils $50 < R_h < 300$ nm (\triangle). Experimental conditions as in Figure 1.

419 Figure 5. Size distributions of $A\beta(1-40)$: $A\beta(1-42)$ mixtures obtained by CRLI analysis at selected 420 incubation times $t_{ag} = 0$ to 12 h. Experimental taylorgrams corresponding to these distributions are 421 shown in Figure 1, the experimental conditions are as in Figure 1.

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427 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

428 Conceptualization – HC and JC designed the experiments. Investigation – MD realized the TDA 429 experiments and treated the data. OD realized the AFM experiments. Methodology – LC and JC 430 fitted the data with the kinetic equations. Software $-$ LC developed the script for the kinetic 431 modelling and the CONTIN TDA data treatment. Supervision – JC and HC supervised MD for 432 TDA experiments. JFH supervised MD for peptide synthesis. Validation – JC and HC validated 433 and interpreted the TDA results. OD and CB validated and interpreted the AFM results. Writing 434 – original draft – JC wrote the first draft and made the figures. OD made figure 3. Writing – 435 review $\&$ editing – All authors read and edited the manuscript. All authors have given approval 436 to the final version of the manuscript.

437

438 Supporting information

439 Theoretical aspects of TDA, experimental elution profiles, average hydrodynamic radii over the 440 whole aggregation process of each population and for all mixtures; CRLI analysis for all mixtures, 441 and the kinetic fits.

442 References

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