
FOR THE RECORD

BPPred: A Web-based computational tool for predicting biophysical parameters of proteins

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(RECEIVED June 5, 2006; FINAL REVISION September 17, 2006; ACCEPTED September 18, 2006)

Abstract

We exploit the availability of recent experimental data on a variety of proteins to develop a Web-based prediction algorithm (BPPred) to calculate several biophysical parameters commonly used to describe the folding process. These parameters include the equilibrium m -values, the length of proteins, and the changes upon unfolding in the solvent-accessible surface area, in the heat capacity, and in the radius of gyration. We also show that the knowledge of any one of these quantities allows an estimate of the others to be obtained, and describe the confidence limits with which these estimations can be made. Furthermore, we discuss how the kinetic m -values, or the Beta Tanford values, may provide an estimate of the solvent-accessible surface area and the radius of gyration of the transition state for protein folding. Taken together, these results suggest that BPPred should represent a valuable tool for interpreting experimental measurements, as well as the results of molecular dynamics simulations.

Keywords: protein denaturation; urea; guanidine hydrochloride; guanidinium chloride; protein folding; m -values; SASA; radius of gyration; heat capacity; transition state; unfolded state; denatured state

The possibility of interpreting quantities readily measurable experimentally in terms of descriptors of protein structure has contributed very significantly to our understanding of the folding process. In a seminal work, Myers et al. (1995) considered an earlier suggestion by Schellman

(1978) and showed that the change in solvent-accessible surface area (Δ SASA) upon unfolding is related linearly to the experimental m_{D-N} -value (Pace 1986), which describes how the stability ΔG_{D-N} of the native state of a protein decreases linearly with the concentration of denaturant (Tanford 1968, 1970):

$$\Delta G_{D-N} = \Delta G_{D-N}^{\text{water}} - m_{D-N}[\text{denaturant}] \quad (1)$$

The relationship between m -values and Δ SASA is extremely useful because it gives important insights into the determinants of protein stability and the equilibrium properties of proteins. In order to establish such a relationship, however, one needs an estimate of the value of SASA of the unfolded state. Despite recent advances (Mok et al. 2005), it is still very challenging to measure SASA directly in the denatured state. Myers et al. (1995) derived it from a tripeptide model (Shrake and Rupley 1973; Rose

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Abbreviations: SASA, Solvent-accessible surface area; Δ SASA, change in solvent-accessible surface area upon unfolding; C_p , heat capacity; ΔC_p , change in heat capacity upon unfolding; R_g , radius of gyration; ΔR_g , change in radius of gyration upon unfolding; GdmCl, guanidinium chloride; SAXS, small angle X-Ray scattering; FRET, Förster resonance energy transfer; TS, transition state; N , number of residues; R , Pearson correlation coefficient; β_T , Beta Tanford.

Article published online ahead of print. Article and publication date are at <http://www.proteinscience.org/cgi/doi/10.1110/ps.062383807>.

et al. 1985; Miller et al. 1987; Lesser and Rose 1990); later it was shown that this procedure may overestimate it by $\sim 25\%$ (Creamer et al. 1995, 1997).

In this study, we establish an approximate relationship between the changes in the radius of gyration (ΔR_g) upon protein folding and the m -values. Such a relationship is useful as ΔR_g is readily measurable experimentally by using small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) (Lipman et al. 2003) or Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET) (Schuler et al. 2002). Moreover, since we can also show that a relationship exists between ΔR_g and $\Delta SASA$, we provide a method that in principle can provide an estimate of the latter independent from any model for the unfolded state.

Furthermore, we use the extensive body of experimental data that has become available since the original work of Myers et al. (1995) on the thermodynamics of protein unfolding to reanalyze a series of relationships between m -values, $\Delta SASA$, ΔC_p , and the number N of amino acids in the protein; we also present new relationships between these quantities and ΔR_g . We show that knowledge of any of these variables can be used to estimate all the others and present appropriate equations for making these estimates. A Web-based tool that allows users to use the equations that are presented here was developed, Bio-Physical PREDictions (BPPred, <http://www.clarke.ch.cam.ac.uk>). In addition to estimating several biophysical parameters for any given protein, the results are also visualized graphically, as is illustrated below. For example, if two properties are known, for example, the chain length N and the equilibrium m -value, their values can be entered through a Web-based interface and both the predicted and the actual properties are compared graphically against the values available for the other proteins present in the database. The BPPred Web server therefore enables users to verify whether any unusual behavior is displayed by a particular protein upon unfolding, for example, as a consequence of the presence of disulfide bridges.

A further motivation for the present study is given by the current challenge in protein folding to benchmark simulation against experiment (Dinner et al. 2000; Vendruscolo and Paci 2003; Sato et al. 2004). We have been particularly interested in using experimentally derived restraints to determine structures of transition states and other transient species on folding pathways. Transition state structures can be derived from restrained molecular dynamics using experimental Φ -values as restraints (Vendruscolo et al. 2001; Paci et al. 2002, 2003; Geierhaas et al. 2004), or extracted from molecular dynamics unfolding simulations at high temperatures (Daggett 2002; Gsponer and Caflisch 2002; Beck and Daggett 2004). In this case, S - or Φ -values calculated for the resulting structures are compared to experimental Φ -values to

validate the results of the simulations (Daggett et al. 1996).

Another experimental parameter that reports on the properties of transition states is the Beta Tanford value (β_T), which is the ratio of equilibrium and kinetic m -values:

$$\beta_T = \frac{m_{D-TS}}{m_{D-N}} \text{ or } \beta_T = 1 - \frac{m_{TS-N}}{m_{D-N}} \quad (2)$$

β_T is commonly used to infer the $\Delta SASA$ between the denatured state and the transition state (Vendruscolo and Dobson 2005). We show here that relationships between β_T , $\Delta SASA$, and ΔR_g can be used to verify the overall structural properties of transition state structures or, alternatively, β_T might provide an additional experimental restraint for simulations.

Results and Discussion

Database

We compiled a database that includes experimental measurements of m -values in GdmCl and urea for a set of 30 disulfide-free, two-state proteins (see Table 1), which included several of the 22 proteins with similar characteristics considered by Myers et al. (1995). We used molecular dynamics (MD) simulations to calculate changes upon unfolding in structural properties (ΔR_g and $\Delta SASA$) of these proteins in order to assess their relationship to the corresponding experimental quantities. Simulations were carried out using the CHARMM 19 force field (Brooks et al. 1983) at 573 K and excluded volume interactions, following a procedure similar to that described by Dedmon et al. (2005) and Kristjansdottir et al. (2005), in which only the repulsive part of the Lennard-Jones potential was used in the molecular dynamics simulations. Each protein was simulated for 100 nsec, and usually the protein was already unfolded within the first few nanoseconds. The results of the MD simulations are, within the statistical errors, in agreement with the experimental values of ΔR_g (Millett et al. 2002; Kohn et al. 2004) in the cases in which the latter are available (Fig. 1A).

Reassessment of the relationships between equilibrium m -values, ΔC_p , $\Delta SASA$, and N

Equilibrium m -values are related to the changes in heat capacity (ΔC_p) upon unfolding (Livingstone et al. 1991; Spolar et al. 1992; Myers et al. 1995). Myers et al. (1995) also showed that the m -values are correlated linearly with $\Delta SASA$, ΔC_p , and N . We have reassessed here these relationships by considering the new data that have become

Table 1. Database

| Protein | PDB | <i>N</i> | $\Delta SASA$ (\AA^2) | ΔR_g (\AA) | GdmCl <i>m</i> (cal mol ⁻¹ M ⁻¹) | Urea <i>m</i> (cal mol ⁻¹ M ⁻¹) | ΔC_p (cal mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹) |
|--|------|----------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|--|---|--|
| Engrailed homeodomain | 1ENH | 54 | 4400 ± 200 | 13.8 ± 4.0 | | 800 ^a | |
| IgG binding domain of protein G | 1PGB | 56 | 4100 ± 200 | 13.4 ± 4.1 | 1800 ^b | | 600 ^b |
| SH3 domain of α -spectrin | 1SHG | 57 | 4500 ± 200 | 14.5 ± 4.1 | 1900 ^c | 800 ^d | 800 ^d |
| Chymotrypsin inhibitor 2 | 2CI2 | 65 | 4800 ± 200 | 15.4 ± 4.7 | 1900 ^e | | 700 ^f |
| Cold shock protein B (<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>) | 1NMG | 67 | 4700 ± 200 | 15.4 ± 4.6 | 1800 ^g | 800 ^g | |
| Cold shock protein A (<i>E. coli</i>) | 3MEF | 69 | 4800 ± 200 | 15.6 ± 4.7 | 2200 ^h | 700 ^h | |
| Calbindin D9K | 1B1G | 75 | 5900 ± 200 | 17.6 ± 5.1 | | 1100 ⁱ | |
| Ubiquitin | 1UBI | 76 | 6050 ± 200 | 17.7 ± 5.3 | 1800 ^j | 1100 ^k | 1400 ^l |
| Rfa RBD | 1RFA | 78 | 6500 ± 300 | 18.4 ± 5.3 | | 1000 ^m | |
| λ -Repressor | 1LMB | 80 | 6500 ± 300 | 18.3 ± 5.4 | 2400 ^m | 1100 ⁿ | |
| ADAh2 | 1O6X | 81 | 5500 ± 200 | 16.2 ± 5.5 | | 900 ^m | |
| Acyl-coenzyme A binding protein | 1NTI | 86 | 6800 ± 200 | 18.3 ± 5.4 | 3500 ^o | | |
| HPr (<i>B. subtilis</i>) | 2HPR | 87 | 7000 ± 300 | 19.6 ± 5.6 | 2200 ^p | 1100 ^q | 1200 ^r |
| Barstar | 1BTA | 89 | 7500 ± 300 | 20.0 ± 5.5 | 2400 ^s | 1300 ^s | 1500 ^s |
| TI I27 (human) | 1TIT | 89 | 6600 ± 300 | 19.0 ± 5.9 | 2500 ^t | | 1400 ^u |
| TNfn3 (human) | 1TEN | 89 | 7200 ± 300 | 19.2 ± 6.0 | 2600 ^v | 1400 ^w | 1200 ^w |
| CTL9 | 1DIV | 92 | 7200 ± 300 | 18.4 ± 6.0 | | 1100 ^m | |
| L23 | 1N88 | 96 | 7400 ± 300 | 19.3 ± 6.1 | | 800 ^m | |
| U1A | 1URN | 96 | 8100 ± 300 | 21.3 ± 6.3 | 2100 ^m | | |
| mAcP | 1APS | 98 | 8350 ± 300 | 21.0 ± 6.2 | | 1300 ^m | |
| Src SH3 | 1SPR | 103 | 8800 ± 300 | 21.7 ± 6.3 | 1600 ^m | | |
| FK binding protein (human) | 1FKD | 107 | 8900 ± 300 | 22.5 ± 6.7 | | 1400 ^x | |
| Barnase | 1RNB | 109 | 9400 ± 300 | 22.7 ± 6.8 | 4400 ^y | 1900 ^y | 1700 ^z |
| Che Y (<i>E. coli</i>) | 3CHY | 128 | 11300 ± 300 | 26.9 ± 7.9 | 2300 ^{aa} | 1600 ^{bb} | |
| Fatty acid binding protein (rat) | 1IFC | 131 | 11900 ± 300 | 27.2 ± 7.8 | 4500 ^{cc} | 1800 ^{cc} | |
| Interleukin 1- β | 5I1B | 151 | 13500 ± 400 | 30.1 ± 8.7 | 5500 ^{dd} | | 1900 ^{cc} |
| Ribonuclease H | 2RN2 | 155 | 13500 ± 400 | 29.4 ± 8.3 | 4500 ^{ff} | 1900 ^{ff} | |
| Dihydrofolate reductase (<i>E. coli</i>) | 4DFR | 159 | 13950 ± 400 | 30.7 ± 8.5 | | 2000 ^{gg} | |
| T4 lysozyme | 1L63 | 162 | 14800 ± 400 | 29.8 ± 8.6 | 5500 ^{hh} | 2000 ^{hh} | 2600 ⁱⁱ |
| Adenylate kinase (<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>) | 2AKY | 218 | 19650 ± 400 | 38.6 ± 10.6 | 7300 ^{jj} | | 2100 ^{jj} |

^aMayor et al. (2000); ^bO'Neil et al. (1995); ^cViguera et al. (1994); ^dViguera et al. (1994); ^eItzhaki et al. (1995); ^fJackson et al. (1993); ^gPerl et al. (1998); ^hReid et al. (1998); ⁱAkke and Forsen (1990); ^jBenitez-Cardoza et al. (2004); ^kIbarra-Molero et al. (1999); ^lWintrode et al. (1994); ^mMaxwell et al. (2005); ⁿHuang and Oas (1995); ^oBurton et al. (1996); ^pKragelund et al. (1999); ^qVan Nuland et al. (1998); ^rPeterson et al. (1999); ^sScholtz (1995); ^tAgashe and Udgaonkar (1995); ^uWright et al. (2003); ^vWright et al. (2004); ^wRounsevell et al. (2005); ^xClarke et al. (1997); ^yMain et al. (1999); ^zClarke and Fersht (1993); ^{aa}Griko and Privalov (1994); ^{ab}Filimonov et al. (1993); ^{bb}Munoz et al. (1994); ^{cc}Ropson et al. (1990); ^{dd}Covalt et al. (2001); ^{ee}Makhatadze et al. (1994); ^{ff}Dabora and Marqusee (1994); ^{gg}Ionescu et al. (2000); ^{hh}Zhang et al. (1993); ⁱⁱHu et al. (1992); ^{jj}Spurgin et al. (1995).

available since the work of Myers et al. (1995). In Figure 1B, we present the scatterplot between $\Delta SASA$ and *N* for the database of 30 proteins that we considered. The existence of such a strong correlation enables us to estimate $\Delta SASA$ from *N*:

$$\Delta SASA = (-1520 \pm 40) + (98 \pm 1)N \quad R = 0.99 \pm 0.01 \quad (3)$$

The correlations for GdmCl and urea *m*-values with $\Delta SASA$ (Myers et al. 1995) are shown in Figure 2, A and B, respectively, for our database of 30 proteins. The linear fits are given by, respectively,

$$m_{GdmCl} = (10 \pm 50) + (0.36 \pm 0.01)\Delta SASA \quad R = 0.89 \pm 0.01 \quad (4)$$

$$m_{urea} = (270 \pm 20) + (0.13 \pm 0.01)\Delta SASA \quad R = 0.89 \pm 0.01 \quad (5)$$

The slope is ~ 2.7 times as large for GdmCl as for urea, in agreement with the fact that GdmCl is a stronger denaturant than urea (Myers et al. 1995).

Figure 2C shows the linear fit of the change in heat capacity upon unfolding with $\Delta SASA$:

$$\Delta C_p = (130 \pm 60) + (0.16 \pm 0.01)\Delta SASA \quad R = 0.94 \pm 0.03 \quad (6)$$

This equation can be used to estimate ΔC_p from the change in solvent-accessible surface area.

Therefore, all the relationships that Myers et al. (1995) observed for $\Delta SASA$ estimated using the glycine-tripeptide model (Shrake and Rupley 1973; Rose et al. 1985; Miller et al. 1987; Lesser and Rose 1990) are also valid if the change in solvent-accessible surface area is calculated from the present molecular dynamics simulations. These equations can be used to quantify, for example, $\Delta SASA$ from

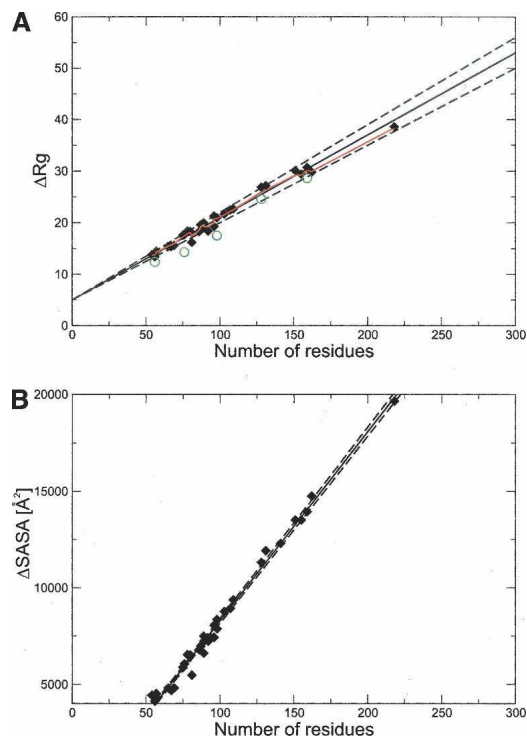


Figure 1. (A) Correlation between the change in radius of gyration upon unfolding (ΔR_g) and N for the 32 proteins in Table 1. The red line represents the nonlinear fit of ΔR_g to N (Flory 1988). For comparison, experimental values of ΔR_g are indicated with green circles; data for protein G, ubiquitin, Che Y, mACP, and DHFR (Millett et al. 2002; Kohn et al. 2004). (B) Correlation between the change in solvent-accessible surface area ($\Delta SASA$) and the number of residues N (Myers et al. 1995). Solid lines are the linear fits, and dashed lines represent the statistical deviation, estimated using the jackknife method (Miller 1974).

m -values, and thus determine the SASA of the denatured state of a protein, since the SASA of the native state can be determined from the native structure.

Additional relationships between N , m -value, and ΔC_p

In addition to the correlations determined by Myers et al. (1995), we also analyzed the correlations between N , m -values, and ΔC_p . We thus defined the following relationships (Fig. 3A, Equation 7; Fig. 3B, Equation 8; Fig. 3C, Equation 9):

$$m_{\text{GdmCl}} = (-580 \pm 50) + (36 \pm 1)N \quad R = 0.88 \pm 0.06 \quad (7)$$

$$m_{\text{urea}} = (70 \pm 20) + (13 \pm 1)N \quad R = 0.88 \pm 0.05 \quad (8)$$

$$\Delta C_p = (-130 \pm 70) + (16 \pm 1)N \quad R = 0.94 \pm 0.03 \quad (9)$$

Relationships involving ΔR_g

We investigated whether the correlations provided by Myers et al. (1995) for $\Delta SASA$ are also valid for ΔR_g . The

correlation for the proteins in Table 1 between GdmCl and urea m -values and the change of R_g is shown in Figure 4, A and B:

$$m_{\text{GdmCl}} = (-1720 \pm 100) + (225 \pm 5)\Delta R_g \quad R = 0.86 \pm 0.08 \quad (10)$$

$$m_{\text{urea}} = (-260 \pm 30) + (76 \pm 1)\Delta R_g \quad R = 0.86 \pm 0.08 \quad (11)$$

The knowledge of m -values (GdmCl or urea) can thus be used to estimate the values of ΔR_g by inverting these relationships. The slope of the linear regression is about three times larger for GdmCl than for urea ($225 \pm 5 \text{ cal mol}^{-1} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ compared to $76 \pm 1 \text{ cal mol}^{-1} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ \AA}^{-1}$), again reflecting the fact that GdmCl is a stronger denaturant than urea (Myers et al. 1995).

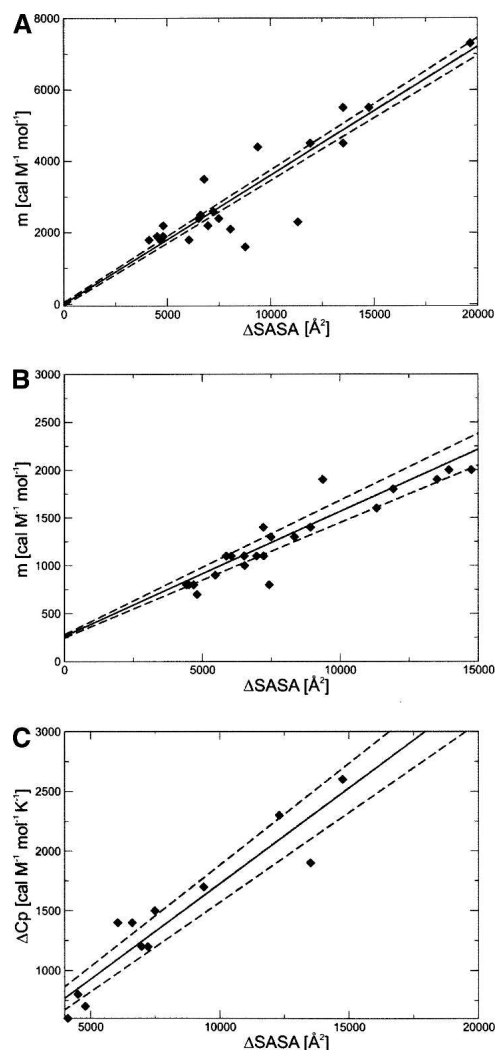


Figure 2. Correlation between $\Delta SASA$ and (A) GdmCl equilibrium m -values, (B) urea equilibrium m -values, and (C) ΔC_p . The solid line is the linear fit, and the dashed lines represent the statistical deviation, estimated using the jackknife method (Miller 1974).

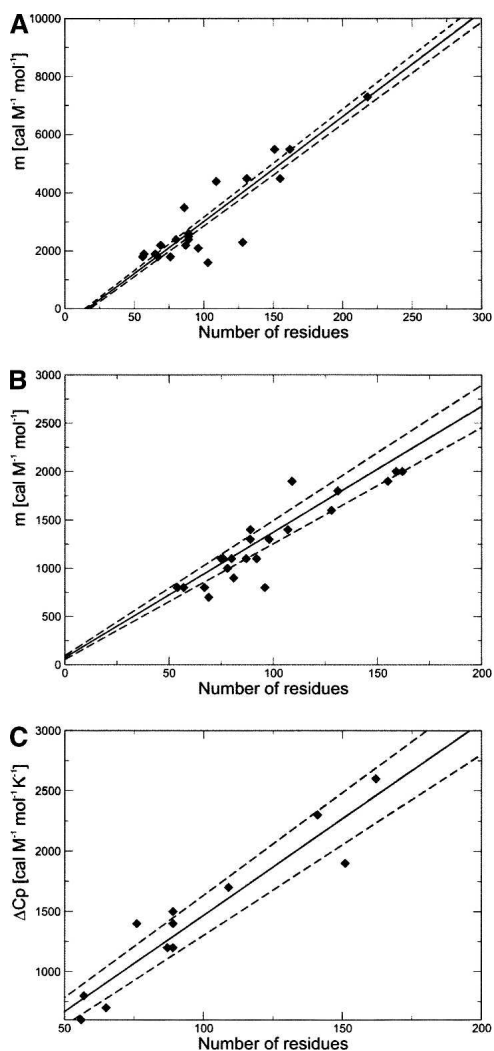


Figure 3. Correlation between the chain length N and (A) GdmCl equilibrium m -values, (B) urea equilibrium m -values, and (C) ΔC_p . These relations can be used to estimate m -values and ΔC_p from N . The solid line is the linear fit, and the dashed lines represent the statistical deviation, estimated using the jackknife method (Miller 1974).

Although the correlation between m -values and ΔR_g is statistically significant, there are considerable deviations for proteins with a similar number of residues or a similar ΔR_g . The major outliers for GdmCl are src SH3 and CheY (*Escherichia coli*), and for urea, barnase. These deviations can be attributed to the presence of residual structure in the denatured state. For example, barnase has been shown to exhibit residual structure in the denatured state (Bond et al. 1997). The value of the total charge of the protein can also affect the value of ΔR_g . A highly charged protein will be more expanded in the unfolded state, compared to a neutral protein because of electrostatic repulsions. These effects are a likely reason for the observed pH dependence of the m -values for RNase A,

RNase T1, and barnase (Pace et al. 1990, 1992). Electrostatic effects can be influenced by GdmCl, which is dissociated in solution (Monera et al. 1994). The comparison of m -values and ΔR_g values represents therefore a useful tool for detecting persistent residual structure in the denatured state of proteins.

Furthermore, we find a linear correlation between ΔR_g and ΔC_p (Fig. 4C):

$$\Delta C_p = (-630 \pm 110) + (100 \pm 6)\Delta R_g \quad R = 0.94 \pm 0.04 \quad (12)$$

Therefore, the change in heat capacity and the m -values does not only correlate to the amount of buried surface

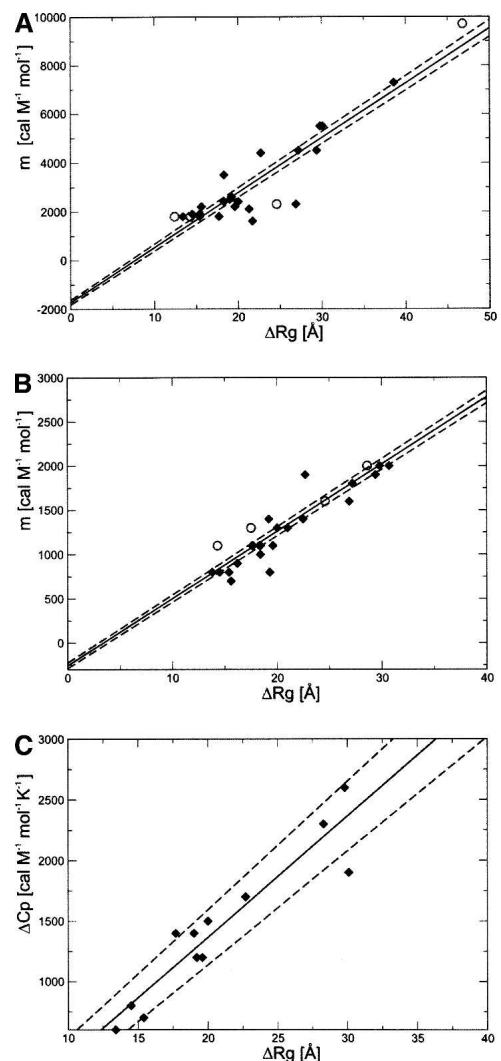


Figure 4. Correlation between ΔR_g and (A) GdmCl equilibrium m -values, (B) urea equilibrium m -values, and (C) ΔC_p . The solid line is the linear fit, and the dashed lines represent the statistical deviation, estimated using the jackknife method (Miller 1974). For comparison, we have also included the experimental values of ΔR_g for protein G, ubiquitin, Che Y, mACP, DHFR, and yPGK (open circles in A and B) (data from Millett et al. 2002).

that is exposed during unfolding but also to the expansion of the molecule.

We find that N also correlates with ΔR_g (Fig. 1A). Therefore, an estimate for ΔR_g of a given protein with N residues can be obtained from

$$\Delta R_g = (5.0 \pm 0.1) + (0.16 \pm 0.01)N \quad R = 0.99 \pm 0.01 \quad (13)$$

Kohn et al. (2004) and Millett et al. (2002) recently presented an extensive analysis of chemically and thermally unfolded proteins. They showed that the R_g of unfolded proteins can be related to N by using a random-coil model (Flory 1988):

$$R_g = R_0 N^\nu \quad (14)$$

where R_0 is a constant related to the persistence length of the protein and ν is an exponent that describes how R_g scales with the length N of the protein. By fitting data from a database of 28 chemically denatured, disulfide-free proteins, Kohn et al. (2004) obtained $R_0 = 2.08 \pm 0.19 \text{ \AA}$ and $\nu = 0.598 \pm 0.029$, in agreement with both the theoretical values of $\nu = 0.6$ (Flory 1988) and of $\nu = 0.588$ calculated for excluded-volume polymers in a good solvent (LeGuillou and Zinn-Justin 1977). In our case, a similar type of fitting provided values of $R_0 = 2.07$ and $\nu = 0.61$, both compatible with the results of Kohn et al. The apparent existence of a linear relationship between ΔR_g and N (Equation 13) is surprising as R_g grows with $N^{0.6}$ in the unfolded state and with $N^{1/3}$ in the folded state. However, this result can be explained by the small range of values for N considered in our database, for which ΔR_g can be approximated by a linear relationship (Fig. 1A).

It has been shown that the R_g values of proteins represented by using a repulsive hard-sphere potential should obey the random-coil model (Creamer et al. 1995, 1997; Goldenberg 2003). These results, however, do not necessarily imply the complete absence of residual structure. Fitzkee and Rose (2004) showed that a ‘‘rigid-segment model,’’ in which known protein structures are partitioned alternately into rigid segments linked by individual flexible residues, gives values for R_0 and ν similar to those of Kohn et al. (2004) and Millett et al. (2002), despite the presence of native-like structural elements. The apparent discrepancy between the SAXS experimental results, which are consistent with a random-coil behavior, and other studies that indicate the presence of residual structure can be explained if the proportion of conformers exhibiting residual structure in the unfolded state is rather low (Lindorff-Larsen et al. 2004). These conformers may not affect the result of ensemble-averaged measurements, as the SAXS technique

is most sensitive to large values of R_g (Kohn et al. 2004). With these considerations in mind, we decided to use molecular dynamics simulations to estimate ΔR_g in the cases in which experimental measurements are not yet available. The relations between the number of residues N and either ΔR_g or $\Delta SASA$ (Equations 13 and 3, respectively) suggest a correlation between the change in radius of gyration and the change in surface-accessible area upon unfolding. Indeed, there is a significant linear correlation between ΔR_g and $\Delta SASA$ (Fig. 5). As already mentioned, it is very difficult to measure $\Delta SASA$ of a protein directly; in contrast, ΔR_g can be obtained from experiments (Millett et al. 2002; Kohn et al. 2004). We suggest that $\Delta SASA$ can be estimated from R_g measurements according to the relationship

$$\Delta SASA = (-4500 \pm 70) + (610 \pm 3)\Delta R_g \quad R = 0.99 \pm 0.01 \quad (15)$$

Estimation of R_g and SASA of the transition state for folding

One of the motivations for this work was to establish convenient criteria to benchmark the properties of transition states for protein folding obtained from molecular dynamics simulations. A kinetic m -value analysis not only provides information about the R_g and SASA of the unfolded state, but also about the R_g and SASA of the transition state for folding. The knowledge of equilibrium and kinetic m -values allows the value of R_g^{TS} of the transition state of the protein folding reaction to be estimated

$$\beta_T = \frac{a_r + b_r(R_g^D - R_g^{\text{TS}})}{a_r + b_r(R_g^D - R_g^N)} \quad (16)$$

where R_g^D is the radius of gyration in the denatured state, a_r and b_r are the constants of the linear correlation between m -values and R_g (Equations 10 and 11), where we assumed

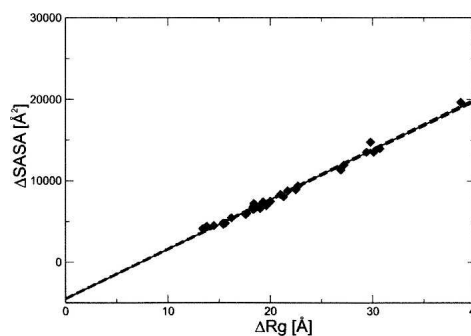


Figure 5. Correlation between $\Delta SASA$ and ΔR_g . The solid line is the linear fit, and the dashed lines represent the statistical deviation, estimated using the jackknife method (Miller 1974).

that the same relationships hold for the transition state, and β_T is the ratio of equilibrium and kinetic m -values (Equation 2). Given Equation 16, the radius of gyration of the transition state can be estimated from experimentally derived quantities, that is, if β_T is known and R_g^D is estimated from Equation 10 or Equation 11. Alternatively, R_g^D can be estimated from molecular dynamics simulations.

The statistical error on the estimate for R_g of the transition state can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} \delta R_g^{TS} = & \left| \left(-\frac{a_r}{b_r} + R_g^N - R_g^D \right) \delta \beta_T \right| + \left| \beta_T \delta R_g^N \right| \\ & + \left| (1 - \beta_T) \delta R_g^D \right| + \left| \left(\frac{1 - \beta_T}{b_r} \right) \delta a_r \right| \\ & + \left| \left(\frac{-a_r + a_r \beta_T}{b_r^2} \right) \delta b_r \right| \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

where $\delta \beta_T$ is the experimental error on β_T , δR_g^N and δR_g^D are the statistical deviations of the radius of gyration of the native state and of the denatured state, respectively, and δa_r and δb_r are the deviations of the constants in Equation 10 or 11.

An analogous relationship can be given for $\Delta SASA$:

$$\beta_T = \frac{a_s + b_s(SASA_D - SASA_{TS})}{a_s + b_s(SASA_D - SASA_N)} \quad (18)$$

where $SASA_D$ is the solvent-accessible surface area in the denatured state, a_s and b_s are the constants of the linear correlation (Equations 4 and 5), and $SASA_{TS}$ is the solvent-accessible surface area of the transition state for folding. The statistical error for the solvent-accessible surface area of the transition state is

$$\begin{aligned} \delta SASA_{TS} = & \left| \left(-\frac{a_s}{b_s} + SASA_N - SASA_D \right) \delta \beta_T \right| \\ & + \left| \beta_T \delta SASA_N \right| + \left| (1 - \beta_T) \delta SASA_D \right| \\ & + \left| \left(\frac{1 - \beta_T}{b_r} \right) \delta a_s \right| \\ & + \left| \left(\frac{-a_s + a_s \beta_T}{b_s^2} \right) \delta b_s \right| \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

where $\Delta SASA_N$ and $\Delta SASA_D$ are the statistical deviations of $SASA$ of the native state and of the denatured state, respectively, and δa_s and δb_s are the deviations of the constants in Equation 4 or 5.

We have previously determined the structures of the transition states of several proteins using experimental Φ -values as restraints in molecular dynamics simulations (Vendruscolo et al. 2001; Paci et al. 2002, 2003; Geierhaas et al. 2004). We applied the relationships to estimate $SASA$ and R_g in the transition states of four proteins, CI2, TNfn3, mACP, and TI I27 (see Table 2). These proteins have been chosen because their β_T values range from 0.6 to 0.95. Thus, the transition state structures range from being fairly heterogeneous to being very native-like. It is important to note that, although the values for a and b are different in Equations 16 and 18 depending on the choice of GdmCl or urea as denaturant to measure the m -values, the results for R_g and $SASA$ of the transition state are the same within the statistical error (Table 2). We compared the estimated values of R_g and $SASA$ of the transition state to those obtained from restrained simulations, finding a good agreement (Table 2) despite the fairly large statistical errors and the potential presence of residual structure in the denatured state, which was not accounted for in our simulations.

Table 2. Estimated values for ΔR_g and $SASA$ of the transition state for folding

| Protein | R_g simulation ^a (Å) | R_g GdmCl ^b (Å) | R_g urea ^c (Å) | $SASA$ simulation ^a (Å ²) | $SASA$ GdmCl ^d (Å ²) | $SASA$ urea ^e (Å ²) |
|---------------------|-----------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|--|---|--|
| TI I27 ^f | 12.9 ± 0.2 | 13.5 ± 1.1 | 13.7 ± 1.3 | 5500 ± 200 | 5500 ± 500 | 5600 ± 600 |
| TNfn3 ^g | 14.9 ± 1.4 | 15.3 ± 2.9 | 16.1 ± 3.0 | 7100 ± 600 | 6600 ± 800 | 7000 ± 1000 |
| CI2 ^h | 14.4 ± 2.3 | 14.5 ± 3.7 | 16.1 ± 3.5 | 6100 ± 750 | 6400 ± 750 | 7100 ± 900 |
| mACP | 14.0 ± 0.3 | 15.8 ± 3.0 | 16.7 ± 3.1 | 7200 ± 400 | 6900 ± 1000 | 7300 ± 1100 |

^a Obtained by ensemble-averaged molecular dynamics simulations restrained by Φ -values (Best and Vendruscolo 2006).

^b Obtained by inverting Equation 16 and using R_g of the denatured state from molecular dynamics simulations with excluded volume interactions, values of a_r and b_r from Equation 10 (GdmCl).

^c Obtained by inverting Equation 16 and using R_g of the denatured state from molecular dynamics simulations with excluded volume interactions, values of a_r and b_r from Equation 11 (urea).

^d Obtained by inverting Equation 18 and using $SASA$ of the denatured state from molecular dynamics simulations with excluded volume interactions, values of a_s and b_s from Equation 4 (GdmCl).

^e Obtained by inverting Equation 18 and using $SASA$ of the denatured state from molecular dynamics simulations with excluded volume interactions, values of a_s and b_s from Equation 5 (urea).

^f Transition state of TI I27 dominant at low concentrations of denaturant and at moderate temperatures, native-like transition state; $\beta_T = 0.95 \pm 0.05$ (Wright et al. 2003).

^g Transition state of TNfn3; $\beta_T = 0.7 \pm 0.07$ (Hamill et al. 2000).

^h Transition state of CI2; $\beta_T = 0.6 \pm 0.06$ (Itzhaki et al. 1995).

ⁱ Transition state of mACP; $\beta_T = 0.8 \pm 0.08$ (Chiti et al. 1999).

Deviations from a spherical form might also influence the predictions of R_g^{TS} (Geierhaas et al. 2004).

We also investigated whether it is possible to reduce the fairly large statistical error in the estimate of R_g from β_T by a simultaneous fitting of m -values, N , and ΔSASA or ΔR_g :

$$m = \alpha_r + \beta_r \Delta R_g + \chi_r N \quad (20)$$

$$m = \alpha_s + \beta_s \Delta\text{SASA} + \chi_s N \quad (21)$$

The statistical errors are, however, too large in this case to allow reliable predictions (data not shown). A more extensive database than the one we used (Table 1), which should become available through future experimental studies, should make this type of prediction possible.

Conclusions

We have presented BPPred, a Web-based tool to predict m -values and several other descriptors of the folding process. These predictions exploit the good accuracy provided by linear relationships between the change in radius of gyration upon unfolding and the m -values from GdmCl and from urea unfolding. Such relationships are analogous to those determined by Myers et al. (1995) between the change in the surface-accessible area upon unfolding and the m -values. The latter result requires a model for the unfolded state, from which the corresponding surface area can be calculated, as its experimental measurement is challenging. Instead, R_g can be readily measured experimentally and therefore the new relationships in principle do not depend on any assumption about unfolded states. However, as there is only a very limited number of proteins for which both ΔR_g and m -values are known, we used in this study estimates obtained from molecular dynamics simulations. When the comparison is possible, the obtained values for ΔR_g are compatible with experimental data within the statistical error. This relationship could be refitted and made completely independent from any particular model used to describe the unfolded state, when more systematic measurements of the R_g of unfolded states become available. In addition, we have also reported a linear correlation between the change in radius of gyration and the change in solvent-accessible surface area upon unfolding. This relationship provides an estimate of ΔSASA from the values of ΔR_g that can be obtained from experiments.

The linear correlations between m -values, the chain length N , and the change in R_g , SASA , and C_p upon unfolding that we discussed are summarized in Table 3. Such relationships can be used to estimate any one of these quantities from the knowledge of the other one. These

Table 3. Pairwise linear relationships between m -values, N , ΔR_g , ΔSASA , and ΔC_p

| | m -value (cal M ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹) | N | ΔSASA (Å ²) | ΔR_g (Å) | ΔC_p (cal M ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹) |
|--|---|------|--|------------------|---|
| m -value (cal M ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹) | — | 7, 8 | 4, 5 | 10, 11 | 22, 23 ^a |
| N | | — | 4 | 13 | 9 |
| ΔSASA (Å ²) | | | — | 15 | 6 |
| ΔR_g (Å) | | | | — | 12 |
| ΔC_p (cal M ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹) | | | | | — |

The numbers in the table indicate the equations that provide the relationships between pairs of quantities.

^a(Equation 22) $\Delta C_p = -336 + 0.66m_{\text{GdmCl}}$ $R = 0.87$; (Equation 23) $\Delta C_p = 117 + 1.1m_{\text{urea}}$ $R = 0.88$. Equations from Myers et al. (1995), Figure 4.

relationships should represent valuable tools for interpreting experimental measurements in terms of the structural properties of the unfolded and of the transition states, as well as providing new ways of enhancing the powerful synergy between experiment and theory in protein folding that has been developed over the last several years.

Acknowledgments

C.D.G. and A.A.N. hold a Wellcome Trust Prize Studentship. J.C. is a Wellcome Trust Senior Research Fellow. M.V. is supported by the Royal Society and the Leverhulme Trust.

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