

Computing the stability diagram of the Trp-cage miniprotein

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We report molecular dynamics simulations of the equilibrium folding/unfolding thermodynamics of an all-atom model of the Trp-cage miniprotein in explicit solvent. Simulations are used to sample the folding/unfolding free energy difference and its derivatives along 2 isochores. We model the $\Delta G_u(P,T)$ landscape using the simulation data and propose a stability diagram model for Trp-cage. We find the proposed diagram to exhibit features similar to globular proteins with increasing hydrostatic pressure destabilizing the native fold. The observed energy differences ΔE_u are roughly linearly temperature-dependent and approach $\Delta E_u = 0$ with decreasing temperature, suggesting that the system approached the region of cold denaturation. In the low-temperature denatured state, the native helical secondary structure elements are largely preserved, whereas the protein conformation changes to an “open-clamp” configuration. A tighter packing of water around nonpolar sites, accompanied by an increasing solvent-accessible surface area of the unfolded ensemble, seems to stabilize the unfolded state at elevated pressures.

folding | free energy | hydrostatic pressure | simulations

The stability of natively folded proteins in solution is determined by the competition of many effects that reach a balance near physiological conditions. As a consequence, the stability of a protein can be affected in many different ways (1–5). High-temperature denaturation is mostly accompanied by a dramatic loss of protein secondary structure (6). However, elevated pressures (2, 3), changing pH (2), and cosolvents such as salts (7) and osmolytes (4) also affect the stability of the native state, often destabilizing in character but under certain conditions also significantly stabilizing (4). In addition, many globular proteins are also destabilized at low (subzero) temperatures, a process known as “cold denaturation” (8). Cold denaturation is experimentally accomplished with the help of elevated pressures (2), leading to a characteristic tongue-shaped P,T -stability diagram, found for many globular proteins (9–15). Hydrophobic forces play a key role in the protein folding process (16–18), but it is the balance of hydrophilic and hydrophobic forces that determines the conformational equilibrium. The notion that proteins under native conditions are only “marginally stable” (7) seems to be an important requirement for their ability to explore different conformational substates (19) and hence for protein function. The application of high hydrostatic pressure (20) has been shown to be able to shift the equilibrium of conformational states (21, 22), promoting denaturation (23) but also altering the native state (24) and modifying protein–protein interaction (20). Pressure effects on protein structure appear to be determined mostly by changing the balance between hydrophilic and hydrophobic interactions (25–27).

Model peptides and proteins have long been sought as templates for understanding protein structure and function. The Trp-cage miniprotein (28) is a relatively well-characterized system, designed to shed light on protein folding pathways and understanding stability of globular proteins. Trp-cage is a 20-residue protein (28), exhibiting a cooperatively folded tertiary structure (29). Its structure has been determined by NMR

[Protein Data Bank (PDB) ID code 1L2Y], and its melting behavior has been characterized using CD (28, 30, 31), changes in chemical shifts, fluorescence quenching (30), fluorescence correlation (32), and UV-resonance Raman spectroscopy (33). The small size and the rapid kinetics of Trp-cage have made it an attractive target for computer simulation studies using implicit (34–40) and explicit solvent models (41–44). The specific virtue of an explicit water solvent is that it can model the different contributions stabilizing both the native and the unfolded state, such as hydrophobic and hydrophilic hydration effects, better than implicit solvent models. Of particular importance is the correct balance of enthalpic and entropic solvation effects and their temperature and pressure dependence. However, due to the large computational burden, the folding/unfolding equilibrium of even small biomolecules still represents a major computational challenge. Here, we present a previously undescribed unbiased computation of the P,T -stability diagram of an atomic detail model of a computer simulated protein starting from an unfolded initial structure. The P,T -stability diagram has been calculated for small peptides (45, 46) and an RNA oligomer (47). Our simulations demonstrate that the Trp-cage, although small in size, exhibits essential thermodynamic features also found in globular proteins (5, 12, 31, 48). Replica-exchange molecular dynamics simulations are performed on the Trp-cage protein. To study the effect of volume changes on protein hydration, we study the folding/unfolding thermodynamics on 2 different isochores.

Results and Discussion

Replica exchange simulations at 2 different densities are used to compute the folding/unfolding equilibrium thermodynamics of the Trp-cage. Time series of the number of replicas that have reached the folded state at least once during the simulation [number of folded replicas (NFR)] and the total number of folded replicas (rmsd ≤ 0.22 nm) are shown in Fig. 1. A single exponential fit of the NFR gives folding times of 8.5 and 10.5 ns in the replica ensemble for the 0.966 and 1.064 gcm⁻³ isochores, respectively. The number of folded states for both isochores have reached steady states after ≈ 40 ns. Consequently, the final 60 ns of the simulation runs are used for analysis.

We use the rmsd from the NMR structure (backbone atoms of frame 1 of PDB ID code 1L2Y) as a measure to distinguish between folded and unfolded configurations. The rmsd distributions shown in Fig. 2A exhibit a narrow peak, representing the folded configurations, centered at ≈ 0.18 nm. With increasing temperatures, the narrow peak diminishes at the expense of the appearance of a broad distribution of rmsds between 0.3 and 0.8

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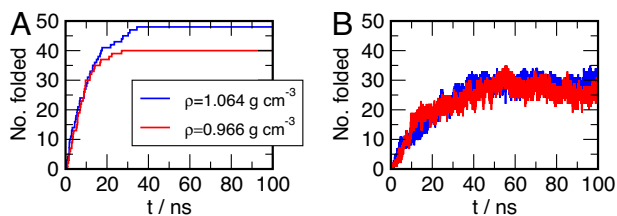


Fig. 1. Convergence of the REMD simulations. (A) Time history of the number of replicas that have folded ($rmsd \leq 0.22$ nm) at least once in the simulation (NFR). (B) Number of replicas sampling the folded state as a function of time. The total number of replicas sampling the 0.966 $g\ cm^{-3}$ and 1.064 $g\ cm^{-3}$ isochores is 40 and 48, respectively. After 40 ns all replicas have reached folded state at least once.

nm, representing unfolded configurations. The system apparently shows a 2-state folding behavior, as proposed for Trp-cage from fluorescence quenching data (30), but recently has been taken into question according to an extensive fluorescence correlation spectroscopy study (32).

The fraction of folded states with $rmsd \leq 0.22$ nm as a function of temperature has a quasisigmoidal shape, indicating transition temperatures of 445 and 425 K for 0.966 and 1.064 $g\ cm^{-3}$, respectively. Alternatively, we have also determined the equilibrium of folded and unfolded states using principal component analysis (PCA) based the entire replica exchange molecular dynamics (REMD) ensemble of configurations. The largest eigenmode m_1 describes a clamp-like opening of the cage, as suggested by the representative low-temperature configurations shown in Fig. 3. A quantitative analysis based on the projection of the configurational density on the largest PCA-eigenmode m_1 is given in Fig. 3 A–C. Similar to the rmsd distributions given in Fig. 2A, the projection of density of states on m_1 is represented by a large narrow peak at low temperatures, which is decreasing at the expense of a broad distribution at higher temperatures. Employing a threshold of $m_1 > 0.3$ nm to separate the “folded” basin from the “unfolded” configurations, we obtain a similar temperature dependence of the fraction of folded states as due to the rmsd distributions, as shown in Fig. 3B.

We would like to emphasize that our simulations differ in certain aspects from the simulations of Trp-cage reported recently by Juraszek and Bolhuis (43). Their extensive simulation study using the OPLS-AA forcefield model with explicit simple point charge model (SPC) water suggests the existence of 2 different folding pathways: One in which the helix forms first (i), and 1 in which a contact between Trp-6 and a polyproline forms before the helix (ii). The latter pathway is found to be ≈ 4 times more likely in their study. It is not unlikely, however, that the formation of a Trp-6-polyproline contact could represent a kinetic bottleneck, hampering the formation of the helices and

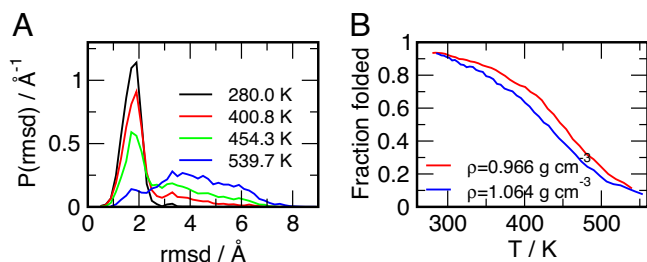


Fig. 2. Folding/unfolding equilibrium of trp-cage. (A) Backbone atom rmsd distributions obtained from the 0.966 $g\ cm^{-3}$ -isochores for 4 selected temperatures. (B) Fraction of folded configurations ($rmsd \leq 0.22$ nm) as a function of temperature for both studied isochores.

therefore reaching the fully folded state. In our simulations, pathway i is observed almost exclusively, with the cage opening and the helix melting having roughly the same transition temperature (44). The restriction to path i apparently allows the molecule to reach the folded state (and the folding/unfolding equilibrium) more quickly, also suggesting that the ff94-model has a less rugged, more funnel-like free energy landscape, which is enabling our REMD simulations to equilibrate within a 40 ns time-window.

Because we can distinguish folded and unfolded ensembles, we can calculate the free energy of unfolding according to $\Delta G_u(T, P) = G_{\text{unfolded}} - G_{\text{folded}} = -RT \ln [(1-x_{\text{folded}})/x_{\text{folded}}]$, where x_{folded} is the fraction of folded states obtained from the REMD at each T , and P is the average pressure, $\langle P \rangle_V$. In a similar fashion we can determine the energy and volume changes associated with unfolding according to $\Delta E_u = E_{\text{unfolded}} - E_{\text{folded}}$ and $\Delta V_u = V_{\text{unfolded}} - V_{\text{folded}}$. All 3 properties (ΔG_u , ΔE_u , and ΔV_u) were sampled for the states along the 2 isochores and are shown in Fig. 4 A–C. ΔE_u is directly available via the average potential energies obtained for the folded and unfolded ensembles sampled by the REMD simulation. ΔV_u is not directly available due to the application of constant volume conditions during the REMD simulation. However, the free energy change associated with volume changes becomes evident by observing slightly differing average pressures for the folded and unfolded ensembles following $V\Delta P \approx P\Delta V$. To determine the associated volume changes directly and not rely on the observed pressure differences only, we performed *a posteriori* additional short (80 ps) constant-pressure simulation runs at the average pressures obtained for each of the statepoints. The simulations were performed under isobar isothermal conditions using a Nosé–Hoover (49, 50) thermostat and a Rahman–Parrinello barostat (51, 52) with coupling times of $\tau_T = 0.5$ ps and $\tau_P = 1.0$ ps, using a molecular dynamics timestep of $\Delta t = 2.0$ fs. Exactly 200 NPT simulations were conducted for each statepoint: 100 simulations representing the folded and 100, the unfolded ensemble. The starting configurations for these simulations (in total: 17,600 simulation runs) were sampled randomly from the set of REMD configurations obtained from the final 60 ns. The length of the simulations was chosen such that a volume relaxation was feasible, whereas the configuration of the protein stayed in sufficiently close proximity to the initial configuration. The calculated ΔE_u obtained from the NPT simulations are within the errorbars of ΔE_u obtained from REMD, and the observed volume changes were found to be consistent with the calculated pressure difference for the subensembles. The data shown Fig. 4 depict the data according the NPT simulations.

Having traced the free energy and 2 of its derivatives along the 2 isochores, both of them effectively crossing a large portion of the experimentally accessible P - and T -ranges, we are able to construct the stability diagram of the Trp-cage in terms of ΔG_u as a function of temperature and pressure by fitting the calculated data to a Hawley-type (9, 12, 13) free energy surface $\Delta G_u(P, T) = \Delta\beta/2 (P-P_0)^2 + \Delta\alpha(P-P_0)(T-T_0) - \Delta C_P [T(\ln T/T_0 - 1) + T_0] + \Delta V_0(P-P_0) - \Delta S_0(T-T_0) + \Delta G_0$. Here, $\Delta\beta$, $\Delta\alpha$, and ΔC_P are the changes in compressibility, expansivity, and heat capacity, and ΔV_0 , ΔS_0 , and ΔG_0 are the unfolding volume, entropy, and free energy at the reference state ($T_0 = 331$ K, $P_0 = 0$ MPa), correspondingly. All coefficients in this expansion are assumed to be constant with temperature and pressure. The fitted values are given in Table 1. First, we would like to emphasize that the independently calculated isochores shown in Fig. 4A directly demonstrate the destabilizing effect of an increasing hydrostatic pressure. In addition, the fitted free energy landscape $\Delta G_u(P, T)$, shown in Fig. 4D, indicates that simulated Trp-cage is very likely to exhibit a ellipse shaped stability diagram, similar to globular proteins. The condition for an elliptical phase diagram, $\Delta\alpha^2 > \Delta C_P \Delta\beta/T_0$, is satisfied here

We have demonstrated that, with present existing computer simulation techniques, it is possible to obtain reasonable rigorous thermodynamic data for the temperature- and pressure-induced folding/unfolding of proteins based on atomic detail models. Together with the constantly increasing computing power, experimental P, T data might thus be used to significantly improve current forcefield models in the future.

Simulation Methods. We use REMD simulations (60) to study the unbiased equilibrium folding of the Trp-cage miniprotein, using the Amber (ff94) (61) forcefield and TIP3P water (62). We perform calculations of 2 isochores at densities of 0.966 gcm^{-3} and 1.064 gcm^{-3} , effectively scanning the (P, T) -plane in a range between -100 and 800 MPa and 280 K and 280 K 550 K using 40 and 48 replicas. The densities were chosen to obtain average pressures of 0.1 MPa (1 bar) and 200 MPa at 330 K for the low- and high-density simulations, respectively. Simulations extending over 100 ns per replica provide a total of $8.8 \mu\text{s}$ worth of trajectory data. The entire simulation of the 2 isochores represents $\approx 10^5$ CPU hours (2.2 GHz AMD Opteron) on the Linux clusters at Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute and Technische Universität Dortmund.

The Trp-cage sequence (Ac-NLYIQWLKDGPPSSGRPPPS-NME) is generated in an initially all-PPII conformation by the LEAP program distributed with AMBER 6.0. The N and C termini were capped with methyl groups, and the constructed model peptide consists of 313 atoms. The LEAP-generated structure is slightly compacted during a short 25-ps simulation in the gas phase at 300 K . This structure is solvated in a cubic box 2.637 by TIP3P (62) water molecules, and the system is equilibrated during a 100-ps constant pressure simulation at 330 K and 1 bar . The final structure obtained from this simulation is placed in cubic boxes of lengths 4.40562 nm and 4.20562 nm , and is used as a starting configuration for the constant volume REMD simulations for the 0.966 , and 1.064 gcm^{-3} isochores. The peptide is found to be completely unfolded with a (C, N, O) backbone rmsd of from the first NMR structure of 6.0 \AA . Moreover it lacks any regular secondary structure elements; in particular, it has none of the helical structure elements that are present in the native state. REMD (60) has been used to study the thermodynamics of the Trp-cage protein starting from this initial structure. REMD is an enhanced sampling technique based on the parallel tempering Monte Carlo method (63–65), where multiple copies (or replicas) of identical systems are simulated in parallel at different temperatures. Periodically, state-exchange moves are attempted, where 2 neighboring replicas exchange their thermodynamic state (their temperature). The acceptance rule for each state-exchange moves between 2 neighboring states i and j is chosen to be

$$P_{acc} = \min\{1, \exp[(\beta_i - \beta_j) \times (U(\vec{r}_i^N) - U(\vec{r}_j^N))]\}, \quad [1]$$

where $\beta = 1/k_B T$ and $U(\vec{r}_i^N)$ represents the configurational energy of the system in state i . The state-exchange acceptance probability P_{acc} has been shown to obey the detailed balance condition for an extended ensemble of canonical states (65).

Our simulations employ 40 and 48 replicas for distribution over a temperature range from 280.0 K to 539.7 K . The temperature spacing between each of the replicas was chosen such that the energy distributions overlap sufficiently, and state exchange attempts are (on average) accepted with a 20% probability. To initially set up the temperature spacings, energy distributions were obtained from a preceding series of non-coupled short (0.5 ns) constant volume MD simulations at similar density. Simulations are run at $\rho = 0.966 \text{ gcm}^{-3}$: $280.0, 284.1, 288.2, 292.4, 296.7, 301.1, 305.6, 310.2, 314.9, 319.7, 324.6, 329.6, 334.7, 340.0, 345.4, 351.0, 356.6, 362.5, 368.4, 374.6, 380.9, 387.3, 394.0, 400.8, 407.8, 415.1, 422.5, 430.1, 438.0, 446.0, 454.3, 462.8, 471.6, 480.6, 489.8, 499.3, 509.0, 519.0, 529.2, \text{ and } 539.7 \text{ K}$, and at $\rho = 1.064 \text{ gcm}^{-3}$: $285.0, 288.3, 291.7, 295.1, 298.5, 302.1, 305.7, 309.3, 313.0, 316.8, 320.7, 324.6, 328.7, 332.8, 337.0, 341.2, 345.6, 350.1, 354.6, 359.3, 364.1, 368.9, 373.9, 379.1, 384.3, 389.7, 395.2, 400.8, 406.6, 412.6, 418.7, 425.0, 431.4, 438.0, 444.8, 451.8, 459.0, 466.5, 474.1, 481.9, 490.0, 498.3, 506.9, 515.8, 524.9, 534.3, 544.0, \text{ and } 553.9 \text{ K}$.

State exchange attempts were undertaken with a probability of 0.05, leading to an average time of $\approx 1.6 \text{ ps}$ for each replica between 2 state exchanges. The time step used in the MD steps is 2 fs , and a Nosé–Hoover (49, 50) thermostat is used with a time coupling of $\tau_T = 0.5 \text{ ps}$. Solvent constraints were solved using the SETTLE procedure (66), whereas the SHAKE method was used to constrain the solute bond lengths (67). The simulations were carried out with the GROMACS (68) simulation program, modified by us to allow for state-swapping moves. The electrostatic interactions were treated by smooth-particle mesh Ewald summation (69) using a $36 \times 36 \times 36$ grid with fourth-order charge interpolation and a real-space cutoff of 0.9 nm . The Ewald convergence factor α was set to 3.38 nm^{-1} (corresponding to a relative accuracy of the Ewald sum of 10^{-5}). Appropriate Lennard–Jones long-range correction for energy and pressure were taken into account.

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