

Chapter 4

Unfolding CspB by means of biased molecular dynamics

4.1 Introduction

Understanding the mechanism of protein folding has been a major challenge for the last twenty years, as pointed out in the first chapter. To this end, the study of energetics and structures of the intermediates of folding and unfolding is of crucial importance. A wide experimental work has been dedicated to the analysis of the transition state of simple protein folding reactions. Small proteins, folding with a two-state mechanism, are particularly suited for such studies [93, 94].

Theory can generally be a useful complement to experiments [95]. While simulation of the protein folding process with conventional molecular dynamics (MD) is practically unfeasible due to computational limitations [96, 41], the unfolding process can be simulated by applying suitable unfolding conditions that can be elevated temperatures, changes of pH and ionic strength but also other artificial unfolding mechanisms [97, 98]. Partial unfolding can be simulated by MD trajectories at elevated temperatures, the most natural way of providing the necessary energy to push the protein across energetic barriers in phase space [99, 100]. However, MD simulations at elevated temperatures have the drawback that for too high temperatures the free energy landscape is no longer comparable to the situation at room temperature whereas at moderate temperatures the sampling of non-native conformations may still be rather limited. Thus, it is generally difficult to obtain statistically reliable results in that way.

Recently, Paci and Karplus [101, 102] applied in the framework of MD with CHARMM [29] an unfolding method called biased MD (BMD), originally proposed by Marchi and Ballone [103], which allows pushing a protein towards unfolded states characterized by a large radius of gyration or large root mean square (RMS) deviation with respect to the native structure. From the equilibrium fluctuations of the protein the bias selects the fluctuations that lead to extended structures, and accelerates in this way the exploration of more extended unfolded states.

Although this unfolding mechanism is rather mild, the protein can easily unfold completely and the amount of energy the protein can gain by folding back to the compact native state is usually small (less than 5 kcal/mol, see section Results). One of the frequently studied model systems for protein folding is the cold shock protein CspB, a bacterial protein whose crystal structure is available from *Bacillus Caldolyticus* (Bc-CspB, 66 residues) and from *Bacillus Subtilis* (Bs-CspB 67 residues). With the homologous proteins from *Escherichia coli* and from *Thermotoga maritima* these small five-stranded β -barrel proteins share a two-state folding mechanism and a native-like transition state [104], but they differ significantly in stability [105, 106]. For instance, the difference in the Gibbs free energy of denaturation at pH 7 between the cold shock protein Bc-CspB, biologically active in *Bacillus Caldolyticus*, a thermophilic organism, and its homologous Bs-CspB (from *Bacillus Subtilis*, a mesophilic organism) is about 15.8 KJ/mol [107]. For both proteins extensive data on structure, stability and kinetics are available [107, 104, 105, 108]. Moreover, they have been studied by systematic mutagenesis and some mutants of Bc-CspB have been crystallized and characterized in terms of folding and stability properties [109].

In this work, we apply a variant of the BMD method to study the unfolding of the thermophilic protein Bc-CspB (see Fig. 1) and its mutants R3E and E46A, which share the native structure with the wild type. We are interested in gaining insights into possible mechanisms of unfolding, which will be discussed in comparison with experimental results.

4.2 Methods

We present a set of MD simulation data that were performed by using the Langevin dynamics algorithm implemented in the program CHARMM [29] with friction constant $\beta = 2 \text{ ps}^{-1}$, which maintains the protein at a constant temperature. Each one of the generated trajectories covers several nanoseconds of dynamics. In order to save computer time and memory, we used an implicit solvent model, namely the EEF1 model introduced by Lazaridis and Karplus [65] that is available in CHARMM27 and was discussed in chapter 3.

The crystal structure of the cold shock protein (PDB code 1C90) [105] exhibits two molecules in the unit cell whose RMS deviation for all atoms is 1.17 Å. For our computations, we took chain B (fig. 4.1). The side chains were positioned according to the most frequent occupied conformers. We added hydrogen atoms with the HBUILD tool from CHARMM and optimized their coordinates by minimizing the energy with fixed positions for all other atoms. To get different initial coordinates for the MD simulations of unfolding we ran an MD simulation of 1 ns at T= 300K from which we extracted 10 snapshots, one after each 100 ps simulation time. The same procedure was applied to the two mutants, R3E and E46A, whose crystal structures were published in [109].

The RMS deviation for all atoms in the crystal structure is 1.4 Å for the mutant R3E and 1.27 Å for E46A.

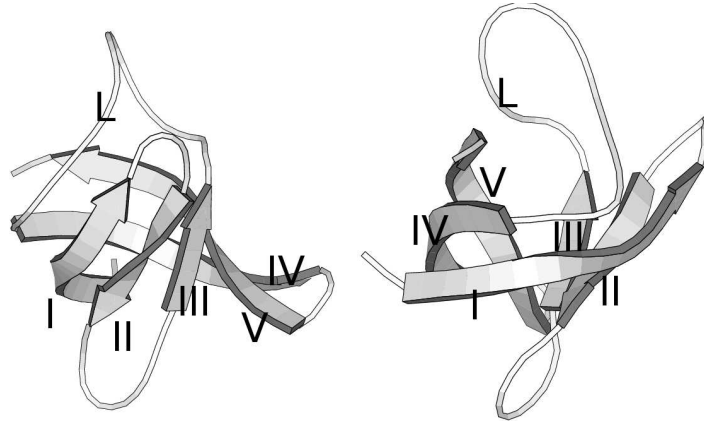


Figure 4.1: Two views of the crystal structure (chain B) of Bc-Csp, view on the right rotated by 90° relative to view on the left. The three-stranded beta sheet (I-II-III, residues 1 to 30) is connected to the two-stranded beta sheet (IV-V, residues 45 to 66) via a flexible loop region (L). Important non local contacts are those between strands I (residues 1 to 10) and IV (residues 45 to 57) and those between strand III/loop L (residues 30 to 44) and strand V (residues 59 to 66).

4.2.1 Biased unfolding

The protein unfolding procedure in this study is based on the BMD method introduced and implemented in CHARMM28 by Paci et al. [101, 102]. In ref. [101] the BMD method was formulated using the distance ρ_{NC} between the N- and C-terminal C_α atoms to characterize the state of unfolding. In ref. [102] and in the present study a more general global coordinate ρ is used, which is a function of all or a selection of atomic coordinates of the protein. It serves to characterize the distance of an actual protein structure from a reference structure, which is generally chosen to be the native structure. This global coordinate ρ can be considered to be the reaction coordinate for protein unfolding. It is related to the conventional radius of gyration of the protein (eq. 4.4) or more generally refers to the RMS deviation with respect to the native structure.

To force the protein to explore regions of phase space where the reaction coordinate $\rho(t)$ is large corresponding to extended, unfolded conformations, with increasing t , time of MD simulation, an energy perturbation term is added to the molecular force field. It has the form of a one-sided harmonic potential in the reaction coordinate $\rho(t)$, with force constant A :

$$W(\rho(t)) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}A (\rho(t) - \rho_M(t))^2 & \rho < \rho_M(t) \\ 0 & \rho \geq \rho_M(t) \end{cases} \quad (4.1)$$

where $\rho_M(t)$ is the maximum value of $\rho(t)$ reached during the previous time steps of the MD trajectory, namely

$$\rho_M(t) = \max_{t' < t} \rho(t') \quad (4.2)$$

As a consequence, the fluctuations of the considered protein are biased such that the protein moves freely (unbiased) if it increases its value of $\rho(t)$, whereas motions that lead to lower values of $\rho(t)$ are hindered by transforming the corresponding kinetic energy in potential energy. The potential energy is subsequently released again in kinetic energy and used to increase the reaction coordinate $\rho(t)$. We define the reaction coordinate of unfolding $\rho(t)$ as follows

$$\rho(t) = \left[\frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{i,j=1}^N (r_{i,j} - r_{i,j}^{\text{ref}})^\alpha \right]^{\frac{1}{\alpha}} \quad (4.3)$$

where $\alpha > 0$, $r_{i,j}$ are the distance vectors between atoms i and j at time t and $r_{i,j}^{\text{ref}}$ are the distance vectors that belong to the reference structure. The sum runs over a selection of atom pairs $i, j = 1, \dots, N$ of the protein. In the present case, the subset of C_α atoms is used for the sum over atom pairs. If the $r_{i,j}^{\text{ref}}$ are set to zero in eq. (4.3), we obtain the definition of a generalized radius of gyration, where the variable $\rho(t)$ increases when any of the atom pairs moves further apart.

We modified the original definition of $\rho(t)$ of ref. [102] with respect to two features. We applied a root to obtain an expression that has dimension of length. This renders the bias forces derived from the energy expression in eq. 4.1 to be harmonic, i.e. linear with respect to the reaction coordinate $\rho(t)$. A second and more important generalization is that we substituted the exponent of power 2 from the conventional definition of the radius of gyration (eq. 4.4) by an exponent α ($\alpha > 0$) that can be set by the user. This introduces a control over the strength of the bias forces acting at the atomic level. If α is greater than 1 the distances of atoms that are far from each other in the initial state will increase more strongly and if α is smaller than 1 a stronger force will be applied to atom pairs that are at distances close to the reference value. In our present study, we set $\alpha = 1$ to achieve that the bias forces are evenly applied to all atom pairs, regardless of their initial mutual distances. In the subsequent analysis of the results, the standard radius of gyration is also used as a conventional measure for the degree of unfolding of the molecule. It is defined as:

$$R_{\text{gyr}} = \left[\frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{i,j=1}^N (r_{i,j})^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (4.4)$$

The sum runs over the C_α atom pairs $i, j=1, \dots, N$ of the protein and the $r_{i,j}$ are the distances between them.

4.2.2 Contact analysis

Monitoring the time course of residue pair contacts by creating the so called "disappearance plots"[110] is a useful tool in the structural analysis of the unfolding process of proteins. A sample of snapshots is extracted from different trajectories, belonging to the same ensemble of simulations where we used the same unfolding conditions, but different initial structures.

For each structure obtained in that way the residue pair contacts are counted. Two residues are considered to be in contact if the distance between their C_α atoms is less than 6.5 Å. By projecting the contact map of one of these structures onto the native contact map (shown in fig. 4.2) one gets the number of conserved contacts for that considered structure. The structures are then classified according to the relative number of residual native contacts into four groups with 0-25%, 25-50%, 50-75% and 75-100% of maintained native contacts. Thus, each group represents a specific stage of the unfolding process. Within one group of structures, the average occupancy of each native contact is computed, in order to distinguish between robust, i.e. highly conserved, native contacts and the ones that disappear more promptly.

4.3 Results and discussion

For the wild type protein two sets of unfolding simulations were performed: one with bias potential at room temperature (300 K), the other unbiased at elevated temperature (400 K). The results of the former dataset were compared to the latter, given by pure thermal unfolding simulations. All data were analyzed in terms of disappearance of native contacts. The aim of this analysis is double: on one hand, we are interested in comparing the biased unfolding to the standard thermal unfolding, in order to exclude distortion effects due to the bias; on the other hand, by outlining the common features of the results, we would like to derive structural properties of the unfolding process. The biased unfolding simulations were applied with a bias force constant $A = 50 \text{ kcal}/\text{Å}^2$ (see eq 4.1) on the set of ten initial structures. Since the bias changes the thermal fluctuations, unfolding is exceedingly accelerated at higher temperatures. To speed up unfolding at lower temperature, a larger value of A is required. But, since we are interested in determining the properties of the first unfolding steps, near to the transition state, that in experiments was found to be very native-like [94, 108], a small bias force was preferred. This required to enlarge the simulation time, in order to reach completely extended protein conformations. The comparison between biased and unbiased simulations is presented in the next subsection. Under the same conditions as for the wild type protein ($T=300\text{K}$, force constant $A = 50 \text{ kcal}/\text{Å}^2$), biased unfolding simulations were also performed for the two mutants E46A and R3E of Bc-CspB. The three native molecules are stable in the EEF1 potential at room temperature, as we checked by running a control unbiased MD simulation of 10 ns. The RMS deviation of C_α atoms from the crystal structure is 1.72 Å for the wild type protein, 1.59 Å for mutant E46A, 1.53 Å for mutant R3E. The average radius of gyration (taking only C_α atoms into account) is respectively 10.4 Å, 10.4 Å and 10.3 Å.

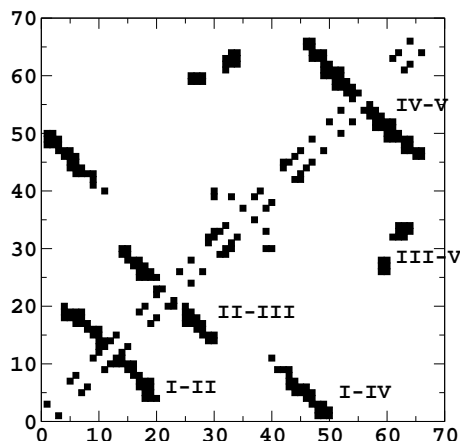


Figure 4.2: The native contact map of Bc-Csp, according to the definition in section 4.2.2. The anti-diagonals refer to contacts involving antiparallel beta strands and are correspondingly labeled.

4.3.1 Wild type protein: biased unfolding at room temperature

4.3.1.1 Early phase of unfolding

Ten trajectories at 300K each one 5 ns long were simulated with a bias force constant of $A=50$ kcal/Å². Under these conditions a partial unfolding can generally be achieved within a few nanoseconds, although the protein cannot reach a completely extended structure (see fig. 4.3).

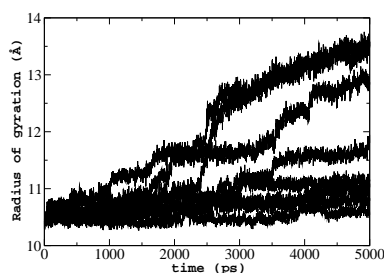


Figure 4.3: Increase of the radius of gyration R_{gyr} (eq. 4.4) with time. Ten trajectories of length 5 ns were generated with biased unfolding simulations at $T = 300$ K as described in text.

However, by enlarging the simulation time or by increasing the force constant A we could easily obtain a completely unfolded protein structure (see fig. 4.5 a, whose RMS deviations demonstrate that some of the trajectories result in an almost complete unfolding of the protein after 12 ns simulation time of BMD). We will come back to this point in the next subsection. In this section, we focus on the properties of the partially unfolded states of the protein. After 5 nanoseconds, in six out of ten trajectories, the protein reaches a partially unfolded state where

the protein structure is still rather compact with a radius of gyration below 14 Å, as compared to the value of 10.5 Å for the crystal structure (only C_α atoms are taken into account). Visualizing the trajectories one can extract qualitative properties of the initial unfolding steps. These are summarized here and illustrated in fig. 4.4.

The very first unfolding event results in a change of protein conformation that usually occurs in the loop region between strands III and IV. Due to its flexibility, the loop can easily be stretched applying the bias potential. This is observed for all ten trajectories. Strand III is often involved in the next structural change. In four out of the six trajectories, in which significant unfolding events can be observed, strand III diverges from strand II (see for instance fig. 4.4 a and b). In one trajectory the first conformational change involves the two-stranded beta-sheet (strands IV and V, 4.4 part c), whose hydrogen bonds get disrupted within the first two nanoseconds. In another trajectory neither the two-stranded, nor the three-stranded beta-sheet is destroyed, instead the beta-barrel opens up and the contact between strand I and strand IV is strongly reduced (fig. 4.4 d).

Four trajectories, where no major structural changes occurred, exhibit larger RMS fluctuations in the strands III and IV, next to the loop region.

4.3.1.2 Later phase of unfolding

The MD simulation of three trajectories from the previous simulations was continued for another 5 ns; two trajectories were prolonged for 7 ns, to investigate the subsequent unfolding events. As mentioned before, the unfolding process needs much more time at room temperature than at elevated temperature, however increasing the force constant A of the bias potential would have a similar effect as raising the temperature. The expansion of R_{gyr} is correlated with the loss of native C_α contacts in Fig. 4B. We note that at the early stages of unfolding some native contacts are lost before the protein starts to expand.

We observed (fig. 4.3) that in the time dependence of the radius of gyration (eq.4.4) at least two extended plateau regions are present for all trajectories after which rapid unfolding continues. The first plateau region is at a radius of gyration of about 11.5-12 Å, the second plateau is at higher values, namely 13.5-14 Å. These plateaus correspond to a phase of unfolding where the protein structure does not change and the protein tries to overcome an energy barrier. When the second barrier is surmounted, i.e. at the end of the second plateau, the protein unfolds rapidly. This event corresponds to the disruption of the non-local contacts primarily between strands I and IV. At this point, the non-local contact between strand III and strand V is disrupted as well. In one case, even after 12 ns the protein practically did not unfold (fig. 4.5). Here, the structure obtained after 5 ns was conserved for the remaining simulation time. This structure is shown in fig. 4.4. This means that the non-local contacts between strands I and IV and between strand V and the strand III, whose disruption would lead to an increase of the radius of gyration, are indeed very stable.

Our observations are confirmed by the analysis of the disappearance of contacts (see Fig. 6).

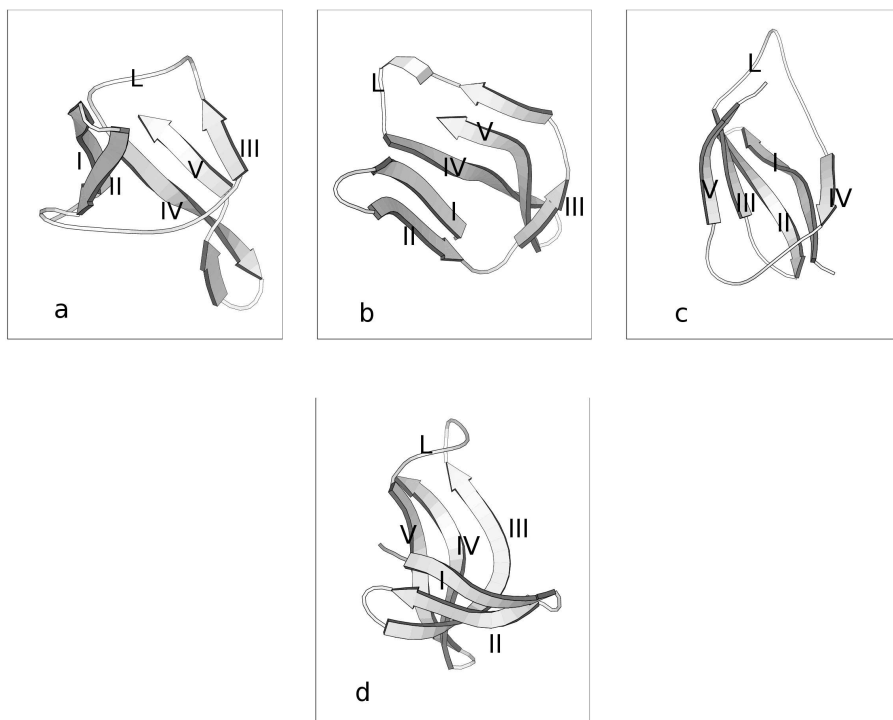


Figure 4.4: Snapshots from four different trajectories at 5 ns simulation time with biased potential at room temperature. In four out of ten trajectories the major change involves strand III, which separates from strand II (partially in a, completely in b). Only in one case the two-stranded beta sheet (IV-V) is disrupted at 5ns of biased simulation at room temperature (c). In d the protein is extended at 5ns, the non local contacts between strand I and IV is reduced, but no secondary structure is disrupted yet.

We plotted three disappearance plots, that are average contact maps corresponding to three groups of structures with increasing degree of unfolding, characterized by 100-75%, 75-50%, and 50-25% similarity with the crystal structure in terms of C_{α} - C_{α} contacts (see section 4.2.2). Each contact map contains the relative occupancy of contacts occurring in the corresponding group. For comparison, the native contact map was reported in Fig. 2. The four anti-diagonal lines are the contacts between the antiparallel beta strands. Following the diagonal from lower left to upper right, there are contacts between strands I and II, strands II and III, strands I and IV and finally strands IV and V. The contacts between strands IV and V are the most stable ones. They maintain a high probability of occupancy even in the group with the smallest degree of similarity with the native structure (25-50% conserved native contacts) characterizing the later phase of unfolding. The off diagonal contacts between strands I and IV (residues 1-10 and 45-57) are less stable, as can be deduced from the drastically reduced relative occupancy in the group with 25-50% conserved native contacts. Furthermore, we can see that the contacts

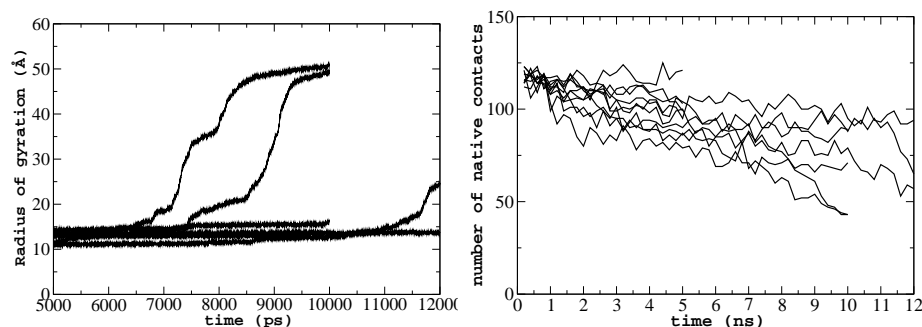


Figure 4.5: Left: increase of radius of gyration R_{gyr} from data of five trajectories between 5 ns and 12 ns simulation time with bias potential at $T=300\text{K}$; Right: A set of structures was extracted by picking out one snapshot each 200 ps from all simulated trajectories at room temperature. The number of native C_{α} - C_{α} contacts of each structure is plotted here as a function of the radius of gyration R_{gyr} .

between strand II and III (residues 11-22 and 23-30), and those between strand III and V (residues 23-29 and residues 59-66) are disrupted first during the unfolding process, since they begin to disappear already in the second group with 50-75% conserved native contacts.

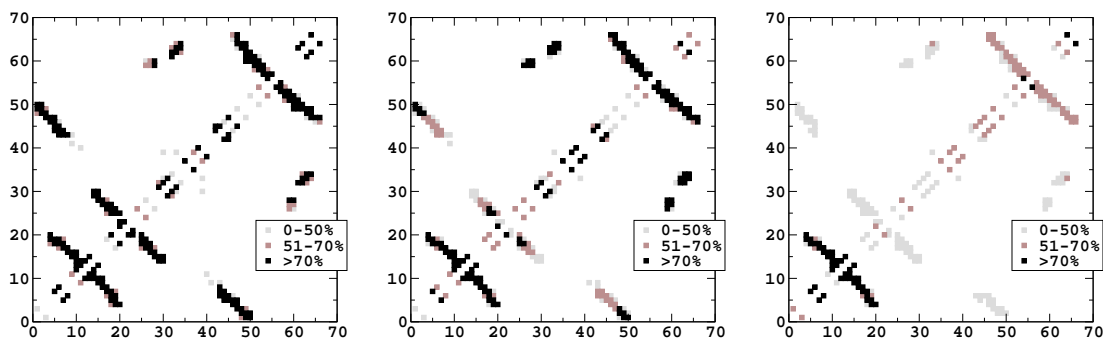


Figure 4.6: Biased simulations at $T=300\text{K}$. Left, occupancy in the group containing more than 75% conserved native contacts; center, between 50% and 75% conserved contacts; right, less than 50% conserved contacts.

4.3.2 Simulation of unfolding at elevated temperature

Ten trajectories were generated at $T = 400\text{K}$ without bias potential with a length of 12-15 ns that lead to a partial unfolding of the protein. The loss of native C_{α} contacts is only in a few cases larger than 50% (see fig. 4.7, right). In comparison to the biased trajectories (fig. 4.5) we observe that the thermal simulation data present a much weaker correlation between degree of expansion and loss of native contacts, which could be expected. Nevertheless, the analysis of contact disappearance plots, limited to three groups (over 75%, between 50-75%, between

25-50% conserved native contacts) leads to results that do not differ substantially from the ones obtained with the bias potential at room temperature (Fig. 8). Good agreement between the data obtained with the two different simulation conditions for unfolding is reached with respect to the three-stranded β -sheet (strands I, II, III). Both in the thermal and in the biased simulations the third strand is destabilized in the early stages of unfolding. Also, the non-local contacts between strands I and IV and between III and V are about to be disrupted at the later stage of unfolding where only 25-50% native contacts remain conserved.

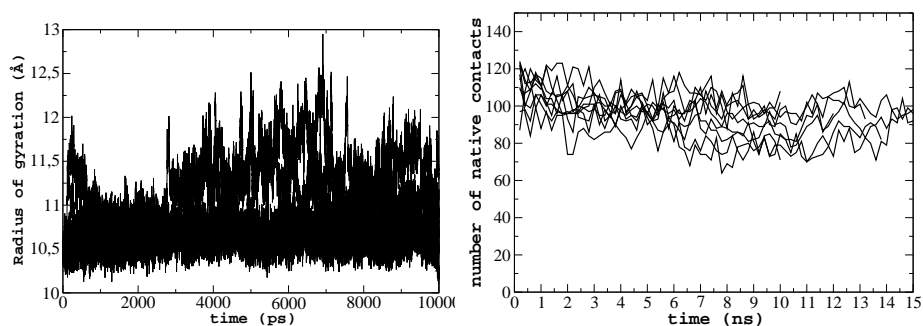


Figure 4.7: Left: Increase of the radius of gyration R_{gyr} with time in thermal unfolding simulations. Ten trajectories of length 10 ns were generated without bias potential at $T=400K$. B: As for the biased simulations, a set of structures was extracted by picking out one snapshot each 200 ps from all simulated trajectories at elevated temperature. The number of native C_{α} - C_{α} contacts of each structure is plotted here as a function of the radius of gyration R_{gyr} .

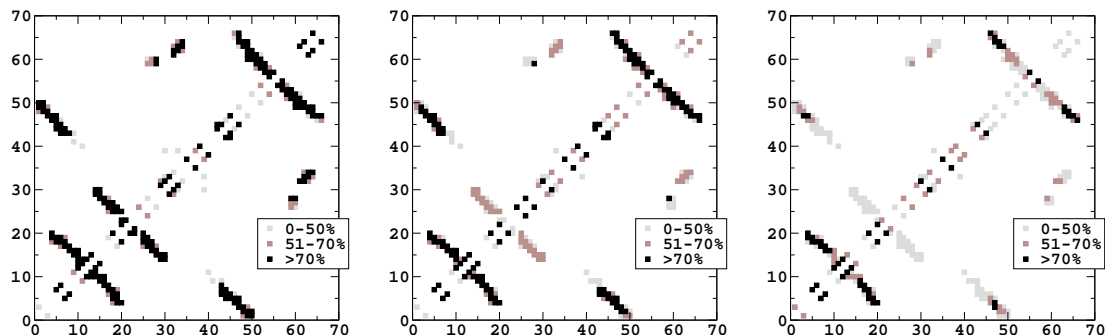


Figure 4.8: Contact disappearance plots for unbiased simulations at $T=400K$. Left, occupancy in the group containing more than 75% conserved native contacts; center, between 50% and 75% conserved contacts; right, less than 50% conserved contacts.

4.3.3 Biased unfolding of mutants

The biased unfolding of the mutants E46A and R3E of Bc-Csp was simulated using the same bias conditions as for the wild type protein ($T = 300K$, bias force constant $A = 50 \text{ kcal}/\text{\AA}$). For

each mutant ten trajectories of 5 ns length were produced, starting with ten structures that were generated from an unbiased simulation at room temperature. For both mutants, an advanced unfolded state (corresponding to a radius of gyration of about $R_{\text{gyr}} = 20 \text{ \AA}$) is reached within 5 ns only in few cases (one in R3E, two in E46A, see fig. 4.9), but the initial unfolding steps are analogous to the ones characterizing the wild type protein. Again, the first unfolding events involve strand III and its contacts to strand II and V. The contact between strand I and IV is preserved in the initial stages of unfolding but is disrupted later on, like the unfolding of the wild type protein, although the mutation affects in both cases (E46A and R3E) an ion pair formed by R3 in strand I and E46 in strand IV. Thus, no significant changes in the unfolding pathway seem to be induced by the mutation. These results are confirmed by the contact disappearance analysis shown in fig. 4.10 and fig. 4.11. Since the statistics of the third unfolding stage (group with 25-50% conserved native contacts) is poor for mutant R3E, only the first two disappearance plots (groups with 75-100% and 50-75% conserved native contacts) are reported in fig. 4.10.

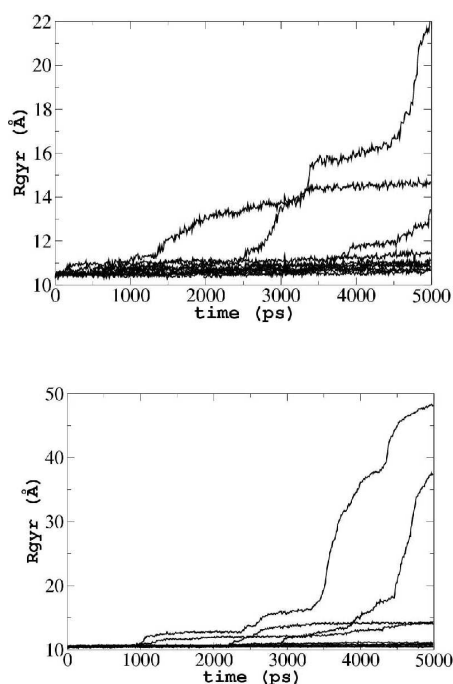


Figure 4.9: Increase of the radius of gyration R_{gyr} (eq. 4.4) with time for the unfolding of the two mutants considered. For each mutant ten trajectories of length 5 ns were generated with biased unfolding simulations at $T=300\text{K}$. Upper plot: mutant R3E. Lower plot: mutant E46A.

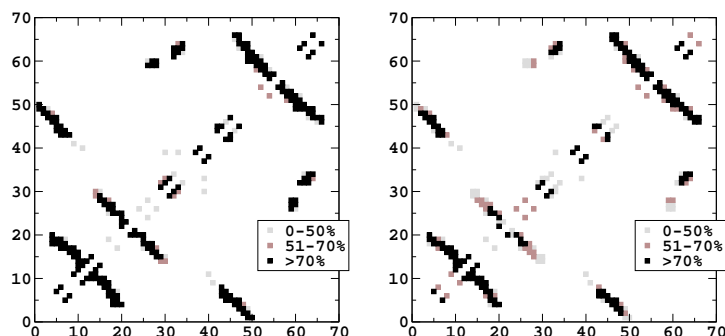


Figure 4.10: Contact disappearance plots of simulations with bias potential for mutant R3E at $T=300\text{K}$. Left, occupancy in the group containing more than 75% conserved native contacts; right, between 50% and 75% conserved contacts.

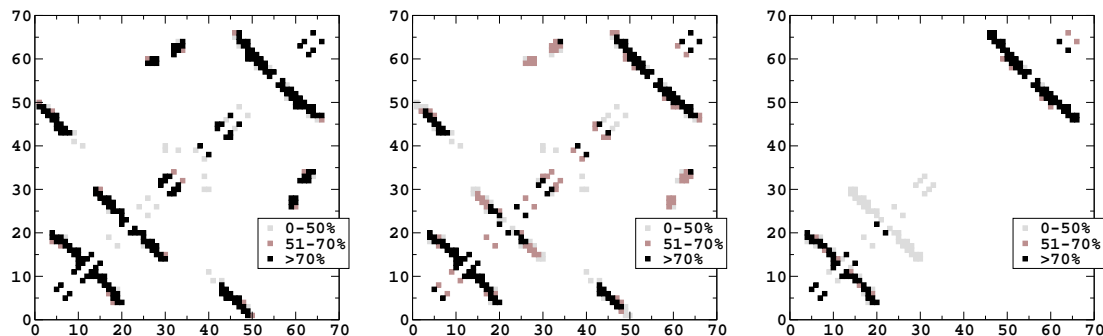


Figure 4.11: Contact disappearance plots of simulations with bias potential for mutant E46A at $T=300\text{K}$. Left, occupancy in the group containing more than 75% conserved native contacts; center, between 50% and 75% conserved contacts; right, less than 50% conserved contacts.

4.3.4 Energetics of unfolding for the wild type and mutant proteins

Several contributions to the total energy of the wild type protein and of the two mutants were recorded and analyzed during unfolding with a bias potential. The total energy is evaluated as the sum of all terms of the CHARMM energy function representing electrostatic, Van der Waals, all bonded energy terms and the solvation free energy accounting for solvent effects in the frame of the EEF1 solvent model [65], but excluding contributions from the bias potential. For each protein the ten initial trajectories of 5 ns length were analyzed. The total energy was evaluated in steps of one picosecond yielding a total of 50000 energy values for the ten trajectories from each of the three considered proteins (the native and the two mutants). The 50000 energy values were first ordered according to the corresponding value of the reaction coordinate ρ , eq. 4.3, that characterizes the degree of unfolding of the protein. From these data a histogram with bin size 0.1 \AA was created, which describes the sampling of the coordinate

space explored by the unfolding simulations with bias potential, as a function of the reaction coordinate ρ . In order to obtain the dependence of the total energy versus ρ , averages of the energies were calculated within each bin of the histogram. Results are shown in fig. 4.12. By comparing the total energies of the three proteins near to the native state (small values of ρ), it turns out that the mutant E46A does not differ significantly from the wild type, whereas the mutant R3E exhibits higher energy values. The calculated variation in energy for the individual bins of the histogram, not shown in the plots, is on average below 20 kcal/mol for the total energy, and about 10 kcal/mol for the single energy contributions, for all three molecules. The energy difference between mutant R3E and wild type is mainly due to the electrostatic term, as shown in fig.4.12, whereas the differences in Van der Waals and solvation energies are less pronounced. This result agrees qualitatively well with the experimental data in ref. [106], where it is stated that the mutation R3E significantly reduces the stability of Bc-Csp, mainly because of electrostatic repulsion, whereas under the same conditions the mutation E46A leads only to a minor destabilization of the protein. This is another confirmation that the ion pair R3-E46 does not yield a significant stabilizing contribution to the wild type protein.

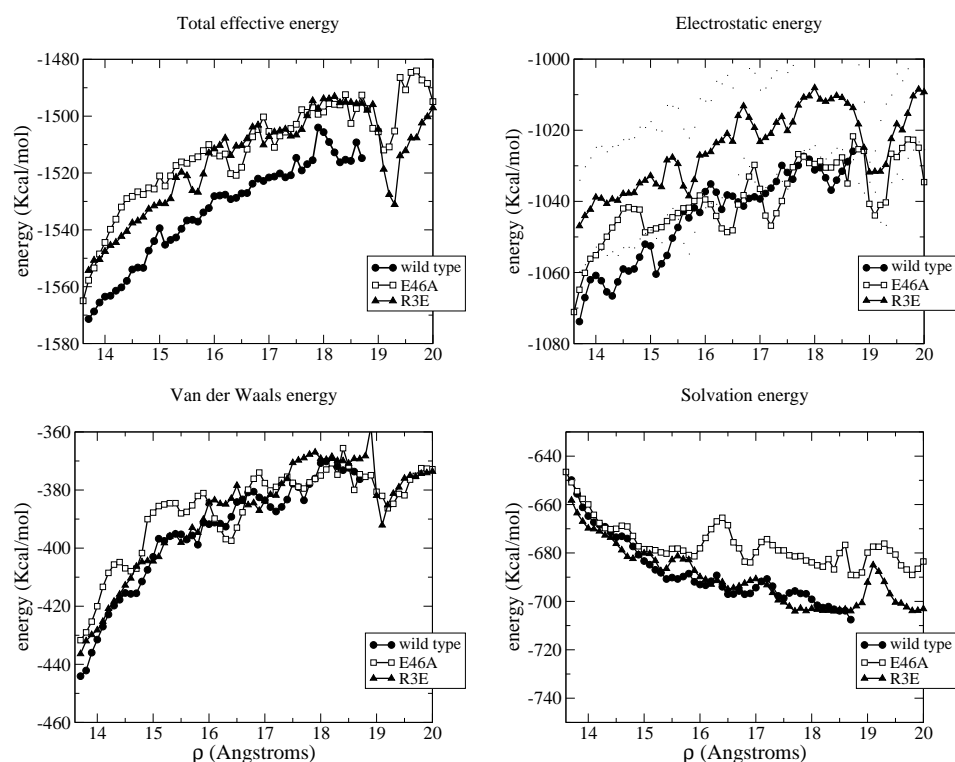


Figure 4.12: Upper left: Total effective energy (average enthalpy plus free energy of solvation) as a function of the reaction coordinate ρ during biased unfolding at room temperature for the wild type protein and for the mutants R3E and E46A. Upper right: Average electrostatic energy of the three molecules. Lower left: average Van der Waals energy. Lower right: average free energy of solvation.

4.4 Analysis of unfolding kinetics and energy barriers

The set of 50000 snapshots, produced as described in the previous section, was also ordered according to the corresponding value assumed by ρ_{\max} (see section 4.2.1). This analysis aims at finding the free energy barriers in a one-dimensional description of the phase space given by the reaction coordinate of unfolding ρ as explained in the following. If at a certain value of ρ_{\max} a larger number of structures is sampled, it means that the protein has to wait before it can pass beyond ρ_{\max} to reach larger values of ρ . This is due to a free energy barrier, which the protein has to overcome before it can continue to unfold. If the slope of the barrier becomes less steep, the protein will expand faster, which allows a faster update of ρ_{\max} and thus reduces the number of sampled structures at these values of ρ_{\max} . Once the protein has reached the top of the barrier, with the help of the bias potential, it can expand freely and fast towards larger values of ρ_{\max} . The trajectory will sample only a small number of conformations after reaching the top of the barrier. Hence, the minima appearing in the ρ_{\max} histogram of sampled structures correspond to a descending part of a free energy of unfolding and each maximum represents an ascending part of the free energy barrier. If this is true, a large value of the bias potential should be recorded at the peaks of the ρ_{\max} histogram, which can indeed be observed. In fig. 4.13, the ρ_{\max} histogram is combined with a plot of the average bias potential. The three ρ_{\max} histograms for the two mutants and the native protein present a large peak in the vicinity of the phase space basin of the native structure, where for all trajectories the protein is waiting a long time before it continues to unfold. Since the average value of the bias potential is large in this region, we expect that the first and largest free energy barrier is located around $\rho_{\max}=14.5 \text{ \AA}$. This corresponds to structures with a radius of gyration of about 11.2 \AA close to the value of 10.5 \AA of the crystal structure. At increasing ρ values, a second barrier is visible for the wild type protein (at $\rho_{\max} = 15.6 \text{ \AA}$, corresponding to a radius of gyration around 11.7 \AA) and for the mutant E46A ($\rho_{\max} = 15.7 \text{ \AA}$). This barrier seems to be absent in the mutant R3E. For the wild type protein, we checked the structures sampled in the bins of the ρ_{\max} histogram around $\rho_{\max} = 15.6 \text{ \AA}$ corresponding to the second barrier. It turned out that in this region the contacts made by strand III with strand II and with strand V are about to be disrupted. This corroborates the previous findings that the first important structural change during unfolding of CspB involves strand III.

4.5 Conclusions

The protein unfolding simulations with the bias potential can reveal interesting aspects of CspB unfolding, since the structural properties of the first unfolding steps were found to be generally conserved for trajectories with different initial structures, and even for different mutants. The region of interest in the early stages of the CspB unfolding process is always the three-stranded beta-sheet, whose third strand (III) becomes more flexible and often moves apart from the rest. During this early phase of unfolding the rest of the protein is only slightly modified

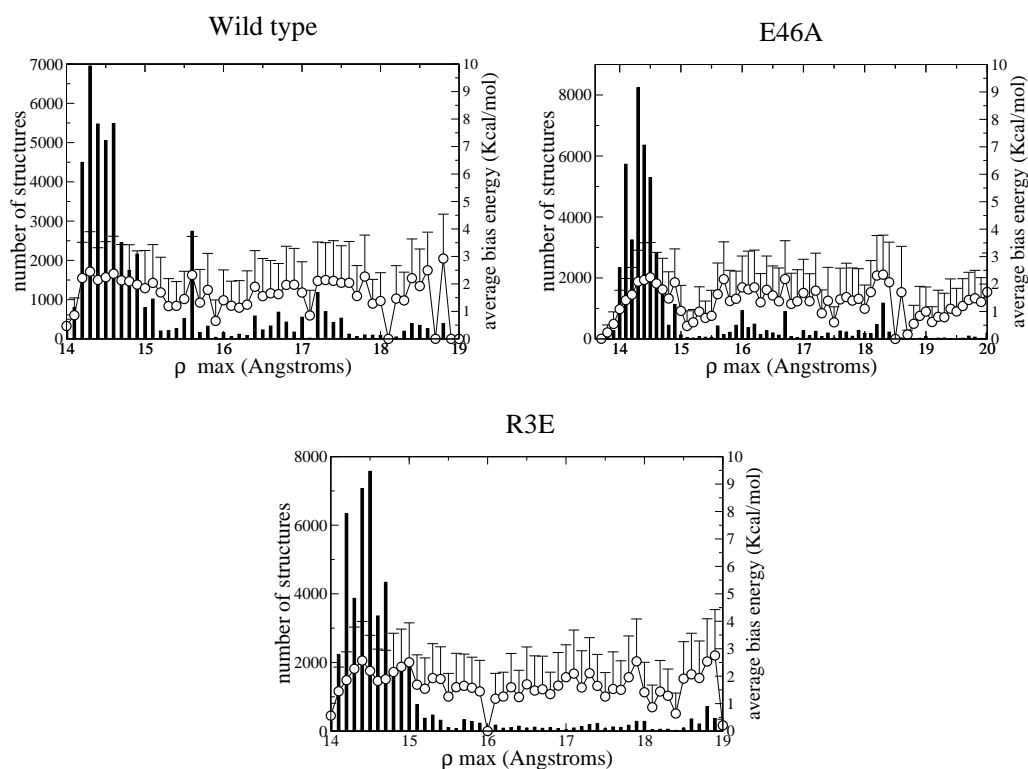


Figure 4.13: Wild type CspB protein and mutants. For each molecule a set of 50000 structures were generated with biased simulation. These data were used to create a histogram in ρ_{\max} , that is the equilibrium value of the reaction coordinate ρ (black bars, scale on left side). Within each bin of the histogram the average value of the applied bias is calculated and drawn an open circle (scale on right side).

in its structure and in its overall compactness. Since the unbiased trajectories at $T = 400\text{K}$ exhibit the same features of unfolding, we conclude that this still native-like activated state is relevant and represents the first step towards a complete unfolded state. This is confirmed in the analysis of the structures sampled with biased unfolding simulations, described in the last part of the previous section. That the three-stranded beta sheet may be involved in the first unfolding steps of the cold shock protein was also recently observed in a native state hydrogen exchange experiment on another member of the cold shock family, namely CspA from *Escherichia coli* [111]. Nevertheless, there is a disagreement between these experimental results and our proposed model in defining which strands are involved (I and II in [111], II and III in our simulation). Since our model was confirmed by purely thermal unfolding simulations, we can exclude distortion effects due to the bias. The disagreement might instead originate from sequence differences between CspA and Bc-Csp. Bc-Csp namely contains a larger number of charged residues located on strands I and II which are possibly involved in ionic bridges (K5 and K7 with E19 and D24) and may improve the stability of this substructure. The other

interesting step that is evidenced in the biased but not in the thermal unfolding simulations is the disruption of non-local contacts between strands I and IV (also observed experimentally in [111] for CspA). This is the most dramatic change during biased unfolding, since it leads to a strong and rapid expansion of the polypeptide backbone structure. This event is preceded by smaller changes, which are less effective in increasing the radius of gyration. During that time the protein waits to accumulate bias energy, which is needed to break contacts. This leads us to the conclusion that the contacts between strands I and IV are indeed quite robust and that their disruption is crucial for the protein to reach the more extended conformations of the phase space basin of unfolded states. The region of the protein corresponding to strands I, IV and V has been intensively investigated [107, 106], because some residues present in that area, in particular R3 (strand I) and L66 (strand V), are considered to be responsible for the enhanced stability of the thermophilic Bc-Csp with respect to the corresponding mesophilic protein Bs-Csp. Recently, it has been experimentally shown that the contact between R3 (strand I) and E46 (strand IV) is already present in the transition state during the folding reaction of the protein [112]. Our results corroborate these findings, since we show that in the large majority of cases the transition between the native-like ensemble of conformations and non-native like extended conformations occurs primarily through the disruption of these contacts, in the wild type protein and in the mutants. This would mean that the transition state is located before the point where this contact is disrupted, what is in agreement with the experimental observation that the transition state is compact and native-like [101, 108]. The energetics of biased unfolding, analyzed in the last section for wild type Bc-Csp and for the mutants, suggested that the transition state for unfolding is located around the radius of gyration of 11.7 Å for the wild type protein and similarly for the mutant E46A, which is in a native-like region of phase space. We also found in agreement with the experimental results [112] that the mutant R3E might have a lower unfolding barrier. The robustness of the two-stranded β -sheet (residues 44 to 66, strands IV and V) found in our biased simulations suggests that this substructure is the most stable one and is disrupted very late in the unfolding process. It may also suggest that this substructure forms very early in the folding process. This observation can be seen in the light of recent mutation studies of Perl and coworkers [112] based on a Φ -values analysis. The measure of the Φ_F values, introduced by Fersht and coworkers [16] and presented in chapter 1, is a powerful tool for investigating the folding steps of a protein, since it provides information on single residues involved in native-like interactions at the transition state. The experimental Φ_F values can then be used within theoretical models, leading to better insight into the folding process [113, 22, 114, 115]. Perl and coworkers concluded from their Φ -value analysis on Bc-csp that the contact between residue 66 (strand V) and residue 3 (strand I) has not yet formed in the transition state, and it would appear in the very last folding steps. Since strand IV, which belongs to the same beta-sheet, is indeed in contact with residue 3 in the transition state, this means that strand V is not aligned yet with strand IV at that point. Their analysis is based on the hypothesis that the free energy of the unfolded state does not change upon residue mutation,

since no contacts are present in that state. However, this hypothesis does not consider that the beta-sheet might be formed rather early in the folding process, when the protein is still largely unfolded. In any case, even if one does not consider that the folding process does occur exactly in the opposite order as the unfolding process monitored in our biased simulations, it seems at least that a disruption of the two-stranded beta-sheet consisting of strand IV and strand V is not directly involved in the transition state of the protein, and its folding and unfolding may occur independently from the other events.