

Putting proteins back into water

Paolo De Los Rios¹ and Guido Caldarelli²

¹*Institut de Physique Théorique, Université de Fribourg, CH-1700, Fribourg, Switzerland*

²*Dipartimento di Fisica, Università "La Sapienza," and INFN Sezione di Roma I, Piazzale Aldo Moro 2, 00185 Roma, Italy*

(Received 21 December 1999)

We introduce a simplified protein model where the solvent (water) degrees of freedom appear explicitly (although in an extremely simplified fashion). Using this model we are able to recover the thermodynamic phenomenology of proteins over a wide range of temperatures. In particular we describe both the warm and the cold protein denaturation within a single framework, while addressing important issues about the structure of model proteins.

PACS number(s): 87.14.Ee

One of the main goals of statistical physics in the last decade has been to understand the “folding code”: how the amino-acid sequence of a protein (coded in DNA, the “genetic code”), uniquely determines its functional (“native”) structure, or fold. Understanding the principles that drive a protein to fold to its native structure is of great conceptual and practical relevance, since it could lead, for example, to high specificity drugs.

Proteins are extremely complex structures: they are long heteropolymers made of up to 20 different amino-acids species, each of them with its own chemical, electrostatic and steric properties; the physiological solvent, an aqueous solution, and its characteristics play a fundamental role both in the dynamics and in the thermodynamics of folding. It is therefore not surprising that only in recent times statistical physicists have begun working on this problem, mainly after the introduction of the so-called HP model [1], where the above mentioned richness has been reduced to a manageable level. In the HP model, proteins are modeled as self-avoiding polymers on a lattice (two or three dimensional), greatly reducing the number of accessible conformations [2]. The chemical and electrostatic properties of amino-acids have also been simplified: indeed, it has been recognized that the main force stabilizing the native conformations of globular proteins is the *hydrophobicity* of nonpolar amino acids [3]. Consequently, the important properties of amino acids are reduced to two: they are either polar (ions or dipoles, labeled with P) or nonpolar (H).

Hydrophobicity can be described as the tendency of hydrophobic molecules to reduce as much as possible their surface of contact with water: two hydrophobic molecules try to stick together in order to hide from water their mutual surface of contact. Consequently, hydrophobicity has been introduced in the HP model as an effective attractive interaction between H amino-acids. Then, the solvent degrees of freedom can be neglected. Here we show that such a simplification can be removed, and water can be taken into account, keeping the complexity of the model at a still manageable level: the benefits are a better description of the protein phenomenology (namely, *cold* destabilization and eventually denaturation [4,5]) and some insights on the structure of the protein core.

In the last fifteen years there has been a growing body of evidence for the so called *cold destabilization* of proteins:

the free energy difference ΔF_D^N between denature and native conformations of proteins has parabolic shape, with a maximum at temperatures of the order of 15–25 °C, or lower, implying that at lower temperatures the native conformation is less and less stable. In some cases, even the *cold denaturation* of proteins has been obtained [6].

The HP model is unable to deal with cold destabilization since its low temperature state is compact and more and more stable down to $T=0$: is a good description of cold destabilization and eventually denaturation relevant for protein folding? We think that the answer is affirmative for at least two reasons.

In order to describe protein folding with a simple model, it is important to capture the essential physics of the process, at the temperatures at which it takes place. If the stability of native conformations of proteins begins to decrease below 15–25 °C, it is unlikely, at least *a priori*, that the physics responsible for such a behavior is not important around the maximal stability temperature, in a range relevant for *in vivo* protein folding. A further reason to believe that a good model for protein folding should also agree with the cold destabilization phenomenology is that, actually, there is no clear-cut distinction between the physics that stabilizes proteins, and the one that destabilizes them. In both cases a reanalysis of the concept of hydrophobicity and of hydrophobic hydration is necessary.

Already Frank and Evans [7] identified the origin of hydrophobicity in the partial ordering of water around nonpolar molecules (such as, for example, pentane, benzene and some amino acids). Water molecules tend to build icelike cages around nonpolar molecules. Although a detailed analysis of these structures is, to our knowledge, still lacking (actually recently some better understanding and consensus are emerging [8–11]), we can guess their energetic and entropic properties. Indeed, water molecules forming these cages are highly hydrogen bonded, much as in ice; consequently, their formation is energetically favorable with respect to bulk liquid water. Yet, the possible molecular arrangements in the cages are a small number compared to all the disordered molecular conformations typical of liquid water. The latter are energetically unfavorable with respect to bulk water because water molecules fail to form hydrogen bonds with hydrophobic amino acids. Therefore the free energy of formation of a cage ($F_{\text{cage}} - F_{\text{no cage}} = \Delta F$) is a balance between an

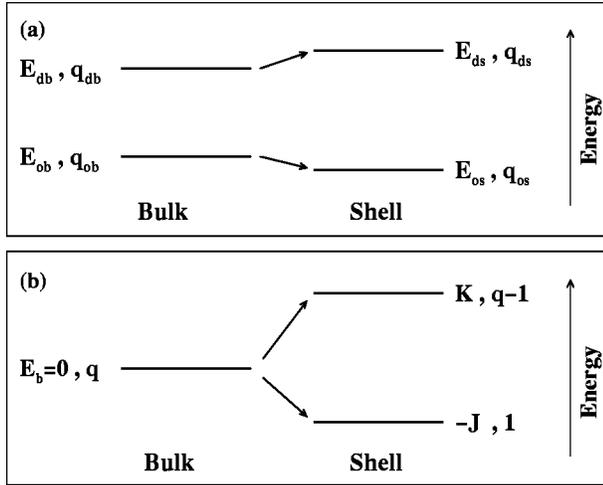


FIG. 1. Bimodal effective models. Panel (a): MLG model, with bimodal energy distributions both for bulk and shell water molecules. The lower levels represent ordered group of water molecules, the higher levels disordered ones. The order of energies and of degeneracies, as obtained from experiments, is $E_{ds} > E_{db} > E_{ob} > E_{os}$ and $q_{ds} > q_{db} > q_{ob} > q_{os}$ (ds =disordered shell, os =ordered shell, db =disordered bulk, ob =ordered bulk). Panel (b): the simplified bimodal energy distribution, with just two free parameters, K and q , since we can take J as energy scale.

enthalpy gain/loss and an entropy loss/gain: ordered cages give an enthalpy gain ($\Delta H < 0$) and an entropy loss ($\Delta S < 0$); the scenario is the opposite for disordered states. All of the above arguments call for a model able to reproduce (at least qualitatively) such a rich phenomenology.

The model we propose here borrows two of the simplifications from the HP model: proteins are still modeled as heteropolymers on a lattice, made of just two different amino-acid species: polar (P) and nonpolar (H). Then, we *put proteins back into water*: every site of the lattice that is not occupied by the polymer is occupied by water (in general, by a group of water molecules that can be arranged in q states). Water is described using the Muller-Lee-Graziano (MLG) two-states model [Fig. 1(a)] [8,9], that Silverstein *et al.* have recently shown to be consistent with a molecular model of the water-amino-acid system [11]. The energy of each H amino acid depends on the states of the water sites it is in contact with: as a simplifying assumption [see Fig. 1(b)], we say that out of the q possible states of a water site, one can be singled out to be a cage conformation (labeled $s=0$), energetically favorable with energy $-J$ ($J > 0$), and the remaining $q-1$ ($s=1, \dots, q-1$) states are energetically unfavorable with energy $K > 0$ (they represent the disordered states of reduced hydrogen-bond coordination). We stress that the term (*un*)favorable is always with respect to bulk liquid water. Water sites that are not in contact with H amino acids (that is, *bulk* water sites) do not contribute to the energy (whereas they would have an energetic description according to the MLG model, that yet has five free parameters, too many for a simple theoretical model). P amino acids do not interact with water so that their energy is always 0: such a crude approximation is made with the idea that hydrophobicity is the leading effect stabilizing the native conformation of proteins. Some better description of the water-P interaction would be welcome, but such an ingredient is unnecessary for our present purposes.

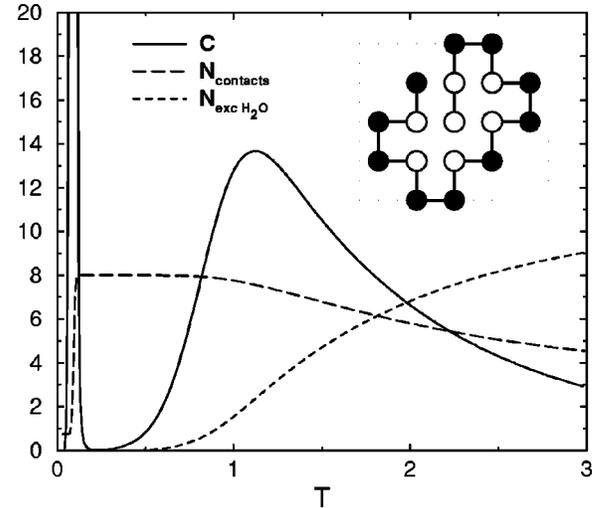


FIG. 2. Specific heat, monomer-monomer contacts and number of water sites in an excited state for the protein shown in the inset; $J=1$, $K=2$, and $q=10^5$.

Given a protein of N amino acids, with the sequence a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N ($a_i = P$ or H), the energy of the protein is then

$$E = \sum_{\langle i, H \rangle} [-J \delta_{s_j, 0} + K(1 - \delta_{s_j, 0})] \quad (1)$$

where the sum is over the water sites that are nearest neighbors of some H amino acid. Starting from (1) we can write the partition function of the system as

$$Z_N = \sum_C Z_N(C), \quad (2)$$

where $Z_N(C)$ is the partition function associated to a single conformation C :

$$Z_N(C) = q^{n_0(C)} [(q-1)e^{-BK} + e^{\beta J}]^{n_1(C)}, \quad (3)$$

where the dependence on the water degrees of freedom has been explicitly calculated. $n_1(C)$ is the number of water sites nearest neighbors of some H amino acid, n_0 is the number of bulk water sites.

We deal with model proteins of length up to $N=17$ on the square lattice, and compute the partition function, and all the thermodynamic quantities and averages by exact enumeration of the 2155667 different conformations. We show the results for the particular sequence $PHPPHPPHPPHPPHH$. We choose $J=1$ (actually, both K and the temperature T can be normalized with respect to J), $K=2$ and $q=10^5$ (a better determination of these values could come from molecular dynamics and structural studies). We take the Boltzmann constant $k_B=1$.

In Fig. 2 the specific heat C_v , and the average number of monomer-monomer contacts, n_c , are shown. The low-temperature peak in the specific heat coincides with a jump of n_c : at lower temperatures the protein is swollen, and maximizes the number of water-H contacts, in agreement with cold denaturation. The number of contacts, n_c , begins decreasing coinciding with the high-temperature peak of the

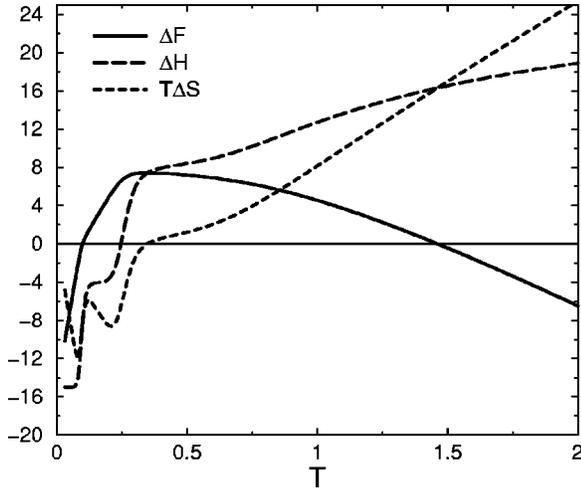


FIG. 3. Free energy, enthalpy, and entropy (times T) differences between denatured conformations and the native one (shown in the inset of Fig. 2), for the same parameter values as in Fig. 2. Since $T\Delta S$ grows linearly at high temperatures, ΔS saturates.

specific heat, that therefore coincides with the usual warm denaturation phenomenon. Between T_c and T_w there is a region where the most probable conformation is the one represented in the inset of Fig. 2: as it can be seen, it is compact with a hydrophobic core, out of reach for water (we also checked that this *native* state is unique, in that its Boltzmann weight is the largest above T_c). We have analyzed the behavior of different protein lengths and of different sequences, and we have always found the same qualitative behavior of C_v and n_c . Our model is therefore able to describe, within a single framework, both cold and warm denaturation. Moreover, it shows a native state with a mostly hydrophobic core.

Although the ratio between T_c and T_w in Fig. 2 is unphysical, using the full MLG model it is possible to come closer to real values: the price to be paid is the larger number of parameters to adjust. In this paper we address the physical principles responsible for the thermodynamic behavior of proteins on a broad range of temperatures: we believe that the differences between the bimodal model and the MLG model (and other possible more refined models) govern the details of the behavior more than the essential features.

We next compare the free energy, enthalpy and entropy variations of the folding of our model with those from the literature [4,5]. Indeed, such a comparison is a difficult one, since it is hard to define what a denatured state is in our theoretical calculations. Therefore, as a simple approximation, we consider as denatured those conformations with at most 4 monomer-monomer contacts (a polymer of 17 monomers over a square lattice has at most 9 monomer-monomer contacts). The native state has 8 monomer-monomer contacts.

In Fig. 3 we show $F_{\text{Denatured}} - F_{\text{Native}} = \Delta F_N^D$, ΔH_N^D and $T\Delta S_N^D$. They coincide qualitatively with the ones from experiments [4,5]. We point out the presence of two temperatures below and above which $\Delta F_N^D < 0$: the denatured state of our model protein is more stable than the native state. Between these two temperatures, instead, $\Delta F_N^D > 0$, and the native state is the most stable. In the same temperature range where $\Delta F_N^D > 0$, ΔH_N^D and $T\Delta S_N^D$ have a strong temperature

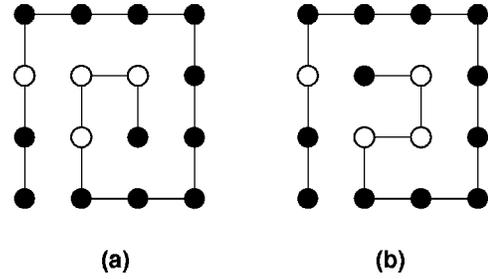


FIG. 4. Two different conformations of the same sequence differing only for a reorganization of the core amino acids.

dependence: they even change sign, a signature of the rich physics behind the water-protein system. At high temperatures we find that both ΔH_N^D and ΔS_N^D saturate ($T\Delta S$ grows linearly, therefore ΔS saturates), as experimentally observed [5]. Some particular care should be paid to the low temperature behavior of ΔH_N^D and $T\Delta S_N^D$. Indeed, ΔH_N^D goes to a constant value, which is consistent with a lower bound for the energies, and $T\Delta S_N^D$ tends to 0 with T . Experiments should be made below T_c to assess such a behavior (although a recent model suggests such a scenario [10]). We find therefore that our model reproduces qualitatively the known calorimetric data of protein denaturation over a broad range of temperatures.

The hydrophobic effect is often modeled through attractive effective HH interactions. Within our framework, we consider a system of two H amino acids in solution and we compare the partition function of the system when the two amino acids are in contact, Z_c , with the one when the two amino acids have no mutual contacts Z_0 . The effective attractive interaction is defined as $\epsilon = T \ln(Z_c/Z_0)$ (ϵ is positive if attractive, with this definition). The $T \rightarrow \infty$ limit is

$$\epsilon(T \rightarrow \infty) = 2K - \frac{2}{q}(K+J) \quad (4)$$

and is attractive for large values of q : it is the usual hydrophobic effective interaction. Yet, the $T=0$ limit is $\epsilon = -2J$, repulsive. A meaningful effective interaction should at least include such a temperature dependence. Actually, the strong temperature dependence of ϵ is not the only limitation to a definition of an attractive HH interaction. Indeed, such an interaction can be meaningful only for amino acids surrounded by water molecules, but it cannot be defined in the core of proteins, where water is absent. As a consequence, in the absence of some true interactions between amino acids, the hydrophobic interaction alone is not able to favor thermodynamically the native state against different compact states obtained by reordering only the core of the protein. As an example, the two conformations in Fig. 4, corresponding to the sequence $PPHPPPPPPPHHHP$ have the same probability to occur in our model, since they hide and expose to water the same number of H amino acids.

Therefore this model suggests that it is improper to define interactions of hydrophobic origin inside proteins, and that the detailed structure of the cores of proteins should be stabilized by other mechanisms. Indeed, in the biochemistry literature the debate is still strong whether the hydrophobic

interaction alone is able to enforce the full native state of proteins or other interactions should also be taken into account [12]. Effective interactions can be safely defined whenever they substitute some nonchanging environment. When a protein is folding, its amino acids find instead an *ever changing* environment that depends on water and on the other amino acids. Even the reliability of two-body effective interactions vs many-body ones is an open issue still to be settled. It is therefore intrinsically difficult to define effective potentials of some general validity between amino acids: our model points out such a problem for hydrophobic interactions.

In conclusion, we have introduced a model of proteins in water that is able to reproduce the known features of proteins (namely, cold destabilization and warm denaturation, a native state with a mostly hydrophobic core, and the correct free energy, enthalpy and entropy of folding). We also checked our results for different protein lengths, sequences, parameter values and even implementing the full MLG model for the description of water. Although some details may change, the overall behavior is consistent and robust. Moreover, lattice models are intended to be only qualitatively instructive, whereas a quantitative description can be given only by more detailed off-lattice models.

-
- [1] K.F. Lau and K.A. Dill, *Macromolecules* **22**, 3986 (1989); H.S. Chan and K.A. Dill, *Phys. Today* **46**, 24 (1993).
- [2] C. Vanderzande, *Lattice Models of Polymers* (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, England, 1998).
- [3] W. Kauzmann, *Adv. Protein Chem.* **14**, 1 (1959).
- [4] K.P. Murphy, P.L. Privalov, and S.J. Gill, *Science* **247**, 559 (1990).
- [5] P.L. Privalov and S.J. Gill, *Adv. Protein Chem.* **39**, 191 (1988); G.I. Makhatadze and P.L. Privalov, *J. Mol. Biol.* **213**, 375 (1990); G.I. Makhatadze and P.L. Privalov, *J. Mol. Biol.* **232**, 639 (1993); P.L. Privalov and G.I. Makhatadze, *J. Mol. Biol.* **232**, 660 (1993); G.I. Makhatadze and P.L. Privalov, *Adv. Protein Chem.* **47**, 307 (1995), and references therein.
- [6] See, e.g., N.C. Pace and C. Tanford, *Biochemistry* **7**, 198 (1968); P.L. Privalov, Yu.V. Griko, S.Yu. Venyaminov, and V.P. Kutysenko, *J. Mol. Biol.* **190**, 487 (1986); Y.V. Griko and P.L. Privalov, *Biochemistry* **31**, 8810 (1992); J. Zhang, X. Peng, A. Jonas, and J. Jonas, *Biochemistry* **34**, 8631 (1995); E.M. Nicholson and J.M. Scholtz, *Biochemistry* **35**, 11 369 (1996); G. Graziano, F. Catanzano, A. Riccio, and G. Barone, *J. Biochem. (Tokyo)* **122**, 395 (1997); for a general review, see P.L. Privalov, *Crit. Rev. Biochem. Mol. Biol.* **25**, 181 (1990), and references therein.
- [7] H.S. Franks and M.W. Evans, *J. Chem. Phys.* **13**, 507 (1945); see also T.E. Creighton, *Proteins. Structures and Molecular Properties* (W.H. Freeman & Company, New York, 1993), pp. 157–161, and references therein.
- [8] N. Muller, *Acc. Chem. Res.* **23**, 23 (1990).
- [9] B. Lee and G. Graziano, *Acc. Chem. Res.* **22**, 5163 (1996).
- [10] K.A.T. Silverstein, A.D.J. Haymet, and K.A. Dill, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **120**, 3166 (1998).
- [11] K.A.T. Silverstein, A.D.J. Haymet, and K.A. Dill, *J. Chem. Phys.* **111**, 8000 (1999).
- [12] Many methods to predict the native state of proteins have been recently developed, based on residue-residue interactions of a statistical origin, without any specific assumption on the “real,” microscopic, nature of such potentials. Their derivation from first principles, when possible, is still an open issue; see, e.g., S. Miyazawa and R.L. Jernigan, *J. Mol. Biol.* **256**, 623 (1996); J. Skolnick, L. Jaroszewski, A. Kolinski, and A. Godzik, *Protein Sci.* **6**, 676 (1997).