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# Hybrid approaches to molecular simulation

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Molecular dynamics (MD) simulation is an established method for studying the conformational changes that are important for protein function. Recent advances in hardware and software have allowed MD simulations over the same timescales as experiment, improving the agreement between theory and experiment to a large extent. However, running such simulations are costly, in terms of resources, storage, and trajectory analysis. There is still a place for techniques that involve short MD simulations. In order to overcome the sampling paucity of short time-scales, hybrid methods that include some form of MD simulation can exploit certain features of the system of interest, often combining experimental information in surprising ways. Here, we review some recent hybrid approaches to the simulation of proteins.

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## Introduction

The dynamical properties of proteins play a key role in their functions. These can be investigated using molecular dynamics (MD) simulations, where the protein is represented on the atomistic level and also using simplified coarse-grained methods. It is fundamentally important that theoretical methods are benchmarked against experimental observations, but this has been hampered owing to the difference in timescales accessible by the two methods. MD typically accessed timescales of nanoseconds (ns)–microseconds ( $\mu$ s), orders of magnitude shorter than the millisecond (ms) timescales observed by experiment. However, recent advances in hardware and software have begun to close this gap, most notably with the first millisecond simulation [1]. The technological advances allowing long-timescale MD over the past few years have been reviewed extensively, as has the use

of MD in protein folding [2–5]. The use of MD simulation is now firmly embedded in the repertoire of biophysical methods. Since the scope of this field is now broad, we focus on recent highlights where MD has contributed to ‘hybrid approaches’ for elucidating the structure and dynamics of macromolecules, where useful predictions can be extrapolated on even modest computational systems (Table 1).

## Predicting allostery through intramolecular pathways

Allostery is one of the underlying principles of signal transduction in proteins where a binding event on one site of a protein induces binding at another site. Although classically, allostery was first found in domain interfaces [6], there has been growing interest in single domain allostery ever since the experimental work on intramolecular pathways of allostery in the PDZ domain (Figure 1A) [7]. In that study, Statistical Coupling Analysis (SCA) was introduced to measure covariation between position pairs across a multiple-sequence alignment of the PDZ family of sequences (Figure 1B). Subsequent mutations at positions that had high scoring SCA values induced significant thermodynamic changes to the PDZ domain. Lockless and Ranganathan [7] made an interesting conjecture that interlocking chains of highly covarying SCA position pairs constituted intramolecular pathways of allostery that travel through the body of the protein.

Hybrid simulations are particularly suited to the study of single domain allostery. The most commonly studied example is the PDZ domain, which functions as a modular scaffold in eukaryotes that bring together receptors and signaling molecules [8]. PDZ domains bind to the C-terminus of other proteins largely through a canonical binding site lined by an  $\alpha$ -helix on one side and the last strand of the central  $\beta$ -sheet on the other (Figure 1A) [9]. One example of a PDZ-based scaffold is GRIP [10], which consists of seven PDZ domains, some of which bind AMPA receptors and others bind signaling proteins. By bringing the receptors and signaling proteins together, GRIP enhances the efficiency of synaptic transmission. More importantly, the binding of PDZ domains to the C-terminus of their target proteins is modulated by allosteric interactions to other PDZ domains. Allosteric effectors may thus be identified by the simulation of intramolecular pathways in PDZ domains.

A straightforward way of analyzing such intramolecular pathways of communication simply involves careful analysis of sidechain–sidechain correlations of straight

## 2 Sequences and topology

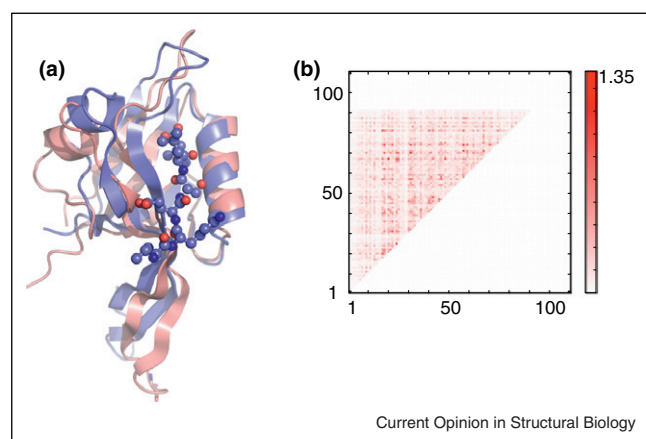
Table 1

Summary of methods		
Hybrid method	Pros	Cons
Temperature coupling to residues [14,16]	Simple to implement temperature couple to residue	Requires backbone constraints, and energy leaks into the backbone
Rotamerically induced perturbation [18*,19]	Flexible modeling of local perturbations to identify direct interaction of residues	Only considers local plasticity
Sidechain Monte-Carlo [17]	Exhaustive modeling of sidechain conformations	Since it uses Monte-Carlo of the sidechains over the whole protein, cannot identify direct interactions via energy flow. No backbone motion
Double-minimum allostery [22]	Identifies sidechain correlations during the transition between large motions	Dependent on knowledge of the crystal structure of two states of allostery
Elastic Networks + Replica-Exchange [20,31*]	Effective sampling of the binding site by combining global motions with extensive temperature search	Complicated protocol and replica-exchange is a reasonably expensive calculation
FlexPepDock [29]	Docks arbitrary peptides to ill-defined binding site on a protein	Low resolution docking and expensive computationally
Pepsec [36]	Fast peptide docking with reasonable binding energies for sequence profiles	Requires manual choice of anchor residues and is designed for determining sequence specificity
Peptide binding + protein-design [37*]	Extremely exhaustive analysis of sequence profiles of a peptide-protein system	May not be easily transferable to other systems as it relies on the canonical binding site of PDZ domains
Direct Coupling Analysis [44**,46*,47**]	The most robust definition of covariation in multiple-sequence alignment. Predicts structural contacts, protein-protein interactions, and common-fold structure	Limited to consensus structures of a family of proteins
Normal Mode + Minimization/ Molecular Dynamics/ Metadynamics [61-64,66,67]	Massively enhances the sampling capabilities of molecular dynamics simulations	Restricted to conformational changes that are evident in the starting structure
Coarse-grain domain model of Nuclear Pore complex [93**]	Unprecedented scale in terms of size and time-scales	Will rely on the experimental determination of systems of similar enormous size

MD simulations. Long-range communication is assumed to take place if a statistically significant correlation is found between distal residues. There is considerable

freedom in choosing the relevant parameter in which to define the correlation. Over the past few years, different studies have defined correlations over a wide variety of measures: from energy fluctuations in PDZ2 [11], to the entropy of torsional angles in Interleukin-2 [12], and to relative distance fluctuations in ABL and EGFR kinases [13]. In all these studies, interesting distal residues were found to correlate strongly, thus providing a simulation trace of potential allosteric interactions. These studies however, do not propose any concrete mechanism for how the communication is effected between distal sites.

Figure 1



The PDZ domain. **(A)** Schematic of the PDZ domain (6th domain of Partition-Defective-Protein-6). The bound conformation (1RY4) is in blue, and the free conformation (1RZX) in pink. The peptide in the bound conformation is in ball-and-stick and the C-terminal is at the top of the figure. There is significant conformational change upon binding the peptide. **(B)** A heat map of the SCA analysis of covariation in the multiple-sequence alignment of the PDZ family. Red values indicate high values of covariation. This is a noisy graph that has been the basis of many studies of the allostery of the PDZ domain.

Several simulation methods have attempted to directly model intramolecular pathways by isolating certain physical features. The first method to study this was the Anisotropic Thermal Diffusion (ATD) method [14]. In ATD, the PDZ protein is cooled down to 10 K, then, after position constraints are applied to the backbone and surface atoms, a temperature couple is applied to a single residue. Coupling between residues is measured by heat flow, allowing a prediction of residues that physically couple, and thus carry energy from one allosteric site to another. ATD has been used to predict allosteric sites in different systems including a recent analysis of the Liver X Receptor, which predicted several allosteric sites upon binding cholesterol [15]. The Pump-Probe method is a variation of ATD that uses pulsed energies at set frequencies [16].

One drawback with the ATD and Pump-Probe methods is that much of the applied energy flows along the backbone. This generates a large background energy flow that swamps direct sidechain interactions with the perturbed residue. One solution to this is a simplified model that focuses exclusively on sidechain fluctuations [17]. The PDZ domain was modeled using Monte-Carlo simulation of only the sidechain degrees of freedom, where correlations between sidechain fluctuations were used to identify allosteric interaction. In this way, the problem of energy leakage in the backbone is avoided, but backbone plasticity is lost. A variation of the ATD method solves the problem of backbone energy leakage in another way [18<sup>•</sup>]. Rotamerically Induced Perturbation (RIP) applies the perturbation energy to a residue only through rotation of the sidechain dihedral angles. A RIP perturbation does not leak any energy into the backbone and thus, backbone constraints are not needed at all and the backbone can respond to perturbed sidechains in non-local contacts. As a result, RIP analysis generates much cleaner signals of physical sidechain–sidechain interactions in the PDZ domain. Furthermore, when driven at high temperature, RIP generates a useful map of surface plasticity [19]. High-temperature RIP applied to residues in a protein equilibrated to room temperature, induces weakly held surface loops to move. This method recapitulated known flexible loops in a number of well-studied proteins [19]. When applied to different PDZ domains [18<sup>•</sup>], dramatically different surface plasticity was produced that were consistent with the known differences in dynamics between PDZ domains.

Nevertheless these models focus on local interactions of a sidechain with nearby sidechains and nearby backbone. Other models have been introduced to model global responses to perturbation. Perturbation Response Scanning (PRS) focuses on how individual residues affect the global motion of a protein domain [20]. In the PRS method, a matrix is constructed that represents the global motion of the protein using a classical Elastic Network Model approximation [21]. Using a detailed analysis of this matrix, changes in the global motion owing to perturbation of specific residues can be calculated. Another simplified MD-based method investigates collective motions of allostery owing to ligand binding [22]. Artificial double-minimum distance constraints are applied to residue–residue contacts in a protein system, allowing the protein to smoothly oscillate between the bound and free conformation. Another set of artificial potentials force the ligand-binding state into either the bound or free states. Allosteric sites are then identified by correlated sidechain–sidechain motions in the system observed during an MD run.

The main conclusion is that even small rigid domains exhibit subtle dynamics that can be modeled in different ways. Methods have been developed that focus exclusively on sidechains, or sidechains with local backbone

plasticity, or global motions. The use of restricted models allows us to isolate specific aspects of motion that induce single domain allostery.

### Restricted models of peptide binding

Ligand binding is clearly an important component of allostery. Unfortunately, there is as yet no general solution to the problem of modeling ligand-binding especially if one considers small organic molecules [23]. However, in ligand binding systems where a protein domain exhibits a canonical-binding site for binding peptide ligands, simplified approaches can be taken [24]. Given that the ligands are peptides themselves, the same force-fields as proteins can be used, and this avoids the complication of parameterizing arbitrary organic molecules. Well-known peptide–protein interaction systems include the PDZ, SH2, SH3, WW, PTB, EH, and MHC domains [9,25–27].

Recent developments of peptide–protein systems have focused on how to model protein flexibility. There is a balance between allowing flexibility in the system, and keeping the simulation tractable. Many of these systems are based on the Monte-Carlo Rosetta package [28]. FlexPepDock is a general approach to peptide–protein binding, where the system iterates between a local exploration of the binding site using standard Rosetta local moves [28], and an exploration of the peptide conformation, where the peptide conformations also exploit the Rosetta local fragment library [29]. FlexPepDock was shown to have reasonable predictive power over a wide range of peptide–protein systems. Another approach used a custom Monte-Carlo model of the peptide binding. In this study, the protein was rigidly constrained except for the active site, where the active site residues was subjected to a local 8-residue Monte-Carlo move [30]. This model used custom-fitted solvation parameters, and provided interesting details on the kinetics of binding.

Nevertheless, these methods only apply local methods of modeling the active site. Another approach takes into account global motions of the protein in response to ligand binding [31<sup>•</sup>]. In that study, Elastic Network Model analysis was used to generate a set of constraints for the global motion of the protein. Using these constraints in a replica-exchange MD simulation, a rich set of protein conformations was sampled, to which peptides were docked using the standard ligand-binding package RosettaLigand [32]. When applied to different PDZ domains, quite subtle interaction differences were found in the peptide binding.

Large-scale proteomic analysis of binding affinities are now available that provide highly detailed peptide-binding profiles for various peptide–protein systems, such as the PDZ domain [33,34], as well as the SH3 and WW

#### 4 Sequences and topology

domains [35]. In order to connect with experiment, we need to push the peptide-binding models further to generate comprehensive peptide-binding profiles, where the focus is on speed and relative binding energies. Several methods have been developed that generate rich sequence profiles that can be compared to experiment. Pepsec is a Rosetta-based method that uses constraints to anchor certain peptide residues to the binding site in order to limit the search space [36]. Another Rosetta-based study designed a hybrid method that combines Monte-Carlo conformational search and protein design to generate rich sequence profiles [37]. In this method, the peptide backbone is docked onto the structure, and a large ensemble of structures of the complex is generated. Then, using essentially a protein-design protocol, a search is conducted over both the chemistry and the conformations of the sidechains of the peptide. This method generated rich peptide-sequence profiles of several PDZ domains that were even able to recapitulate changes in the sequence profiles owing to point mutations on the PDZ domain itself.

These methods demonstrate a range of approaches that expand the repertoire of peptide-protein systems. As the coverage of calculated sequence profiles improves, and the allostery of the proteins is understood, it may be possible to predict genome-wide interaction maps through structural analysis.

#### Simulation models that incorporate sequence alignments

Much of the work on intramolecular pathways of allostery was inspired by the SCA measure [7], which is a formalized measure of covariation analysis [38–40]. Some recent simulations have exploited recent refinements of covariation analysis to produce some useful hybrid simulations of protein-protein interactions, and remarkably, even structure prediction. The highly covarying pairs of positions, identified by the SCA measure, are somewhat ambiguous, and some of them admit no easy interpretation (Figure 1B). There have been various attempts to improve the measure. A correction for the SCA term was found that accounts for phylogenetic correlations [40]. Another study found a weighting term that accounted for uneven levels of conservation at different positions [41]. A clustering analysis of high-scoring SCA position pairs was used to identify groups of coevolving residues [42]. Another approach attempts to disentangle distal from proximate correlations using a Bayesian network model [43].

The most significant improvement of the analysis of covariation was the introduction of a global model of covariation called Direct Coupling Analysis (DCA) [44]. Instead of considering each pair of positions as independent, the DCA uses a global probability model that treats the correlation between a pair of positions as a marginal distribution over the global model. The DCA

analysis was able to filter out indirect correlations from direct correlations, leading to much cleaner predictions. The original application of DCA was applied to a two-protein docking problem, where DCA analysis was carried out over a combined multiple-sequence alignment of a kinase-receptor system. It was found that high-scoring DCA position-pairs between the protein families predicted key residues that formed the protein-protein interaction. A subsequent MD docking protocol was designed around these predicted contacts [45], which was able to recapitulate the known structure of the protein complex.

A faster version of DCA analysis was developed [46] that allowed a much more extensive analysis over a diverse set of 131 different protein families. It was found that high scoring DCA position-pairs in a multiple sequence alignment correspond to observed contacts in experimentally determined structures of proteins from each family. This confirmed an older hypothesis [39] that the covariation of positions is largely determined by conserved structural contacts in a protein family.

An impressive confirmation and application of this hypothesis was recently developed by Marks and colleagues [47]. For a diverse range of 15 protein families, they identified high-scoring DCA pairs of positions in the multiple sequence alignment. They interpreted these pairs of positions as structural contacts and fed the pairs as distance constraints into standard NMR refinement software. They generated robust predictions of structure that were typically within 3 or 4 angstroms of known structures of members of the families. Not only was this an impressive confirmation of the interpretation of covariation as structural contacts, but this was also a demonstration of the power of this method to perform *ab initio* structure prediction.

These impressive results with DCA suggests that covariation analysis of a sequence alignment identifies key structural contacts that we can directly exploit in simulations. However, for purposes of allosteric analysis, it would help to understand exactly how structural contacts contribute to allostery in single domains. There is a theoretical model that postulates that allostery in single-domains is transmitted through the rigidification of flexible-regions upon ligand-binding [48]. Is there such a connection between structural contacts and intrinsic flexibility? One study found such a link in the PDZ domains [18]. In simulations using high-temperature RIP, it was found that different PDZ domains exhibited different flexibility in a key  $\alpha$ -helix. In certain strategically placed structural contacts, in the PDZ domain where the helix was rigid, a strong RIP interaction was found between a sidechain in the body of the protein and the helix, whereas in the PDZ domain where the helix was flexible, there was no such interaction. These key structural contacts scored much higher SCA

values in the sequence alignment than other contacts. We can thus interpret highly covarying structural contacts as contacts that are well placed to modulate the flexibility of a protein, and hence, its allosteric response.

Given the impressive results that have already emerged from the covariation analysis, exploiting this rich source of information will surely lead to exciting opportunities for hybrid simulations.

### Unbiased predictions of protein conformational changes using normal modes

Many allosteric systems require the dynamic response of a protein to respond correctly to interaction with its partner. As such, there is a place for the prediction of conformational changes of protein structures using hybrid methods. Clearly, methods that use short simulations are important. But it is more important to focus on unbiased methods that do not require the input of predefined transition states, collective variables or pathways. Only then, can we truly make a prediction of conformational change. One such method is the classical Normal Mode (NM) analysis [49–51]. The classical NM method considers the atomic force-field interactions for defining the Hessian matrix of the atomic coordinates. An approximation to this is the Elastic Network Model (EMN) that considers the system as a network of mechanical springs. The eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the Hessian matrix thus describe the collective motion of the protein, where the eigenvalue in particular gives the frequency of the motion. Standard NM analysis has been used to predict the large collective displacements of atoms relevant to enzymatic activity, and binding of ligands or other macromolecules [52–55]. NM analysis has also predicted motions for large-scale displacements corresponding to time scales approaching the millisecond or beyond for large complex assemblies of proteins [56,57], which would otherwise be difficult to study with conventional brute-force MD simulations [58–60].

NM analysis has been successfully combined with other simulation techniques, for example energy minimization where important results have been obtained just by displacing the structures along the lowest NM frequency modes using energy minimization [61,62]. NM analysis has also successfully augmented MD simulation. A new approach, termed ‘Consensus Mode’ was developed in order to take advantage of the topological characteristics of multiple points on the potential energy surface derived from NM in order to generate more robust modes in free-energy MD calculations [63]. The lowest NM frequency eigenvectors describing these motions have been used as reaction coordinate for computing conformational changes [64] by using the umbrella method [65]. Metadynamics is another useful method for obtaining the free energy profiles in the subspace defined by low frequency NM eigenvectors [66,67].

Several NM studies that were able to corroborate experimental findings deserve highlighting. A number of studies have investigated conformational changes that are linked to enzymatic activity and allostery [68–70]. In the case of the bacterial enzyme Glucosamine-6-phosphate synthase, it was shown that the inner-channel within the protein linking the two active sites is formed owing to the collective motions of the protein [61]. This channel could not be obtained with standard MD simulations. For docking simulations, a greater variety of conformations of the protein can be generated by exploring a low frequency NM subspace. This increased the success of finding new ligands that are likely to bind with high affinity [71–74], and to identify allosteric binding sites [75]. In the prediction of protein–protein complexes where protein partners undergo important global conformational changes, the NM approach was able to generate conformations that were suitable for binding [76–80]. The NM-generated conformations also improved the correct ranking of docked complexes, mimicking the induced fit mechanism by global movements [81–84]. NM analysis has also been applied to the study of macromolecular assemblies from electron microscopy [85–87], as well as the interpretation of SAXS experiments [88–90].

The simulations of proteins discussed here typically operate on an atomic level of detail. In cases where atomic interactions are not so relevant, one can always simplify the representation of the protein to a coarse-grained (CG) model [91,92]. Whilst a general CG discussion is beyond the scope of this review, a recent CG model that has successfully modeled a system of unprecedented size should be highlighted. This impressive example studied the transport of cargo through the nuclear pore complex, which is one of the largest macromolecular assemblies in eukaryotic cells [93<sup>••</sup>]. New insights were obtained as to how this system can discriminate between the active and inert cargos, the passage time as a function of the size of the cargo, the interactions that are involved during the translocation, and many other properties.

### Conclusions and outlook

The ultimate goal of MD simulation is to provide a complete theoretical model of the chemistry of proteins that can accurately and efficiently generate structure, dynamics and interactions. Nevertheless, the kind of proteins that have been selected by evolution only constitute a subset of all possible protein sequences. These proteins belong to the subset of protein sequences that exhibit foldability, marginal stability at physiological temperatures, restricted dynamics, and efficient specificity in interaction. These are all properties that can be exploited in simulation, and many of the hybrid methods explicitly do this. Whilst the progress towards longer and unbiased MD simulations of individual proteins is an exciting development, in order to connect with experiment, especially given the growing amount of proteomic

## 6 Sequences and topology

data, there will always be a place for approximate techniques that are efficient enough to generate predictive results for entire groups of proteins.

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- of special interest
- of outstanding interest

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## 8 Sequences and topology

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