Exploring Sequence/Folding Space: Folding Studies on Multiple Hydrophobic Core Mutants of Ubiquitin†,‡

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ABSTRACT: The stability, dynamic, and structural properties of ubiquitin and two multiple hydrophobic core mutants were studied. One of the mutants (U4) has seven substitutions in the hydrophobic core (M1L, I3L, V5I, I13F, L15V, V17M, and V26L). On average, its side chains are larger than the wild-type, and it can thus be thought of as having an overpacked core. The other mutant (U7) has two substitutions (I3V and I13V). On average, it has smaller side chains than the wild-type, and it can therefore be considered to be underpacked. The three proteins are well-folded and show similar backbone dynamics (T₁, T₂, and HNOE values), indicating that the regular secondary structure extends over the same residue ranges. The crystallographic structure of U4 was determined. The final R-factor and R-free are 0.198 and 0.248, respectively, at 2.18 Å resolution. The structure of U4 is very similar to wild-type ubiquitin. Remarkably, there are almost no changes in the positions of the Cα atoms along the entire backbone, and the hydrogen-bonding network is maintained. The mutations of the hydrophobic core are accommodated by small movements of side chains in the core of mutated and nonmutated residues. Unfolding and refolding kinetic studies revealed that U4 unfolds with the highest rates; however, its refolding rate constants are very similar to those of the wild-type protein. Conversely, U7 seems to be the most destabilized protein; its refolding rate constant is smaller than the other two proteins. This was confirmed by stopped-flow techniques and by H/D exchange methodologies. This work illustrates the possibility of repacking the hydrophobic core of small proteins and has important implications in the de novo design of stable proteins.

The de novo design of stable proteins still represents a considerable challenge to protein scientists. One of the most important features of the majority of naturally occurring proteins is a tightly packed and highly ordered hydrophobic core. A nativelike core packing is necessary for designed proteins to be stable, fold, and function, and this can constitute a very significant barrier to progress. Ubiquitin has a well-defined hydrophobic core, which is highly conserved in primary sequence. It is a relatively small protein, 76 residues in length, and its three-dimensional structure has been solved at high resolution (1–2). This has made ubiquitin an ideal model system for both establishing the factors important in determining its stability (3–12) and in the development of computational approaches to designing hydrophobic cores (13–17). In addition, the folding of ubiquitin has been studied extensively using a number of different experimental approaches (18–22). Recently, the kinetics of folding and unfolding have been measured by conventional methods and compared with those derived from the most slowly exchanging amide residues in native ubiquitin. Rate constants, of folding and unfolding, from these two very different types of experiments showed good agreement (23).

Ubiquitin has also been used as a model system to test novel phage-display-based methodologies to select stable folded domains of proteins from libraries (24–25). In these studies, a mutant of ubiquitin, which did not fold, was initially created and used as the starting point to generate a library of mutants in the N-terminal hydrophobic core. Mutants that were stable were selected using an assay based on the resistance of stable folded proteins to proteolysis (24). Analysis of the selectants that survived treatment with protease showed that there was a distinct preference for wild-type sequences. However, some of the selected constructs had a significant number of mutations as compared to the wild-type protein and quite a different composition in the hydrophobic core (25). In this paper, we characterize in detail different experimental approaches (18–22). The stability, folding (by two different approaches: stopped-flow fluorescence and H/D exchange methods), dynamic, and structural properties of two of these mutants. One of the mutants (U4) has seven mutations in the hydrophobic core.
(M1L, I3L, V51, I13F, L15V, V17M, and V26L). On average, its side chains are larger than wild-type and thus can be thought of as having an overpacked core. The other mutant (U7) has two mutations in the sequence (I3V and I13V). On average, it has smaller side chains than wild-type and therefore can be considered underpacked.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials. Isopropyl β-d-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG)1 and analytical grade guanidinium chloride (GdmCl) were purchased from Melford Laboratories Ltd. All other materials were analytical grade and purchased from Sigma.

Expression Vectors. Wild-type and mutant proteins were expressed and purified as described elsewhere (24–25). The expression vector pCANTABB-WT-UBQ was used for the overexpression of wild-type and mutant proteins. This vector expresses ubiquitin as a fusion with the gIII periplasmic leader sequence-hexahistidine tag LQD-ubiquitin-GLDQQ-phil. The plasmid has been constructed with two suppressible amber (TAG) codons between ubiquitin gene and gIII; this allows expression of the hexahistidine-tagged ubiquitin without the gIII fusion partner in a nonsuppressor strain of Escherichia coli such as HB2151. 15N-labeled proteins were expressed in minimal media containing M9 salts plus supplements (2 mM MgSO4, 1 mM FeCl2, 2.0 mM H2BO3, 0.3 mM CoCl2, 4 × 10−2 mM CuCl2, 5 mM ZnCl2, 6.5 mM Na4MoO2, 0.4 mM MnCl2, 1 mg L−1 each of biotin, choline chloride, folic acid, niacinamide, pantothenate, and pyridoxal, 0.1 mg L−1 of riboflavin, 5 mg L−1 of thiamine, 2.5 mM CaCl2, and 50 mM ZnSO4, 6 g L−1 glucose, and 1.5 g L−1 NH4Cl as the only nitrogen source). Yields of purified wild-type and mutant proteins expressed in rich media were not significantly different and were typically 8 mg L−1 (wild-type), 2 to 6 mg L−1 (U4), and 9 to 11 mg L−1 (U7).

Stopped-Flow Experiments. An Applied Photophysics Stopped Flow Reaction Analyzer (model SX-18MV) was used, and data were acquired and analyzed using the Applied Photophysics Kinetic Workstation version 4.099, supplied. The temperature was 15 °C. In all experiments, final buffer concentrations were 50 mM glycine-HCl pH 2.2. Buffers were prepared volumetrically. All stock GdmCl solutions were prepared in volumetric flasks and stored in aliquots at −20 °C until use.

1 Abbreviations: IPTG, isopropyl β-d-thiogalactopyranoside; GdmCl, guanidinium chloride; NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance; HSQC, heteronuclear single quantum correlation; NOESY, nuclear Overhauser effect spectroscopy; TOCSY, total correlation spectroscopy; T1, (1/R1) longitudinal relaxation time; T2, (1/R2) transverse relaxation time; NOE, nuclear Overhauser effect; HNOE, heteronuclear Overhauser effect; 2-D, two-dimensional; 3-D, three-dimensional; D2O, deuterium oxide; PEG, poly(ethylene glycol); k_on, opening rate; k_c, closing rate; k_ex, exchange rate in model peptides; k_ex(urea), observed exchange rate; EX1, mechanism of hydrogen exchange in which k_ex equals k_eq; EX2, mechanism of hydrogen exchange in which k_ex equals k_eq; k_eq, equilibrium constant for formation of the exchange-compotent complex; k_f(urea) and k_u(urea) are the rate constants for folding and unfolding in water, respectively, and k_eq and k_ex(urea) are the slopes of the folding and unfolding arm of the kinetic chevron plot, respectively. K_eq, equilibrium constant; ΔGex, Gibbs energy change of unfolding; ΔGex, apparent Gibbs energy change of opening or exchange; T, temperature; R, universal gas constant.

Unfolding Studies. Unfolding was performed by GdmCl jump experiments in the following manner. Unfolding was initiated by diluting one volume of an aqueous protein solution (55 μM in 50 mM buffer) into 10 volumes of concentrated GdmCl solution (containing 50 mM buffer) to give final GdmCl concentrations between 2 and 7.5 M.

Refolding Studies. Refolding was initiated by GdmCl jump experiments. A solution of unfolded protein was generated by denaturing in 50 mM glycine-HCl pH 2.2 containing 5 M GdmCl. Refolding was initiated by mixing one volume of unfolded protein into 10 volumes of a refolding buffer containing 50 mM glycine-HCl pH 2.2 and appropriate amounts of GdmCl to give final concentrations between 0.45 and 3 M. The final protein concentration, after mixing, was 5 μM. Data were fitted to a single-exponential process with a linear drift that included slow proline isomerization phases. Only the fast phase is considered here. It has been shown that the fast, major phase observed (which corresponds to folding and is not limited by proline isomerization) accounts for 80% of the amplitude (45). As no rollover is observed in the kinetic chevron plots, it is assumed that transient aggregation does not occur during folding under these conditions.

Data Analysis. Data from the plots of ln k versus denaturant concentration were fit to a two-state model, using eq 1 (26).

\[ \ln k = \ln(k_{f}H_2O \exp(-m_{k}(D)) + k_{u}H_2O \exp(m_{k}(D)) \) (1)

where \( k_{f}H_2O \) and \( k_{u}H_2O \) are the rate constants for folding and unfolding in water, respectively, and \( m_{k} \) and \( m_{k} \) are the slopes of the chevron plot for folding and unfolding, correspondingly.

NMR. The 15N-labeled samples were extensively dialyzed against phosphate buffer 20 mM pH 6.0, and D2O was added to a final concentration of 10% v/v. The final protein concentrations were 1.5, 0.5, and 3.5 mM for wild-type, U4, and U7, respectively. NMR data were collected on a Bruker DRX spectrometer operating at 500 MHz, equipped with a triple resonance HCN probehead and actively shielded z-gradients. Data were collected at a temperature of 288 K, and unless otherwise stated, water suppression was achieved using established flip-back methods, using shaped selective pulses to return water magnetization to the z-axis followed by WATERGATE to purge any remaining transverse magnetization prior to acquisition (27). States/TPPI was used for quadrature detection in the indirect dimension. Data were processed using the AZARA suite of programs (28).

1H and 15N Assignment. Assignments were made using ANSIG (29). Backbone 15N and 1HN nuclei that could not be assigned by comparison with the wild-type data were assigned using 3-D 15N-HSQC-NOESY (30) and 3-D 15N-HSQC-TOCSY (31) experiments, recorded with 32(τ1) × 100(τ2) × 1024(τ3) complex pairs of data points and spectral widths of 1140(τ1) × 5556(τ2) × 10 000(τ3) Hz. The mixing times were 100 and 67 ms, respectively.

Relaxation Experiments. T1 and T2 relaxation times and (1H)15N heteronuclear NOE enhancements were measured at 500 MHz as described by Farrow et al. (32), via a series of 2-D 15N HSQC experiments recorded with 128(τ1) × 640(τ2) complex pairs of data points and spectral widths of 2000(τ1) × 10 000(τ2) Hz. The time-points recorded were
as follows: $R_1$ (10, 50, 90, 160, 250, 360, 480, 600) ms; $R_2$ (15.8, 47.5, 79.2, 110.9, 142.6, 174.2, 237.6, 301.0) ms. The $^{1}H(^{15}N)$ heteronuclear NOE enhancements were obtained by recording two 2-D $^{15}N$ HSQC experiments, one with 3 s of $^{1}H$ saturation and one with a delay of the same length.

**H/D Exchange Experiments.** These experiments were performed in a very similar way as reported before (23), with some slight differences, as follows. Wild-type and mutant ubiquitin were first lyophilized and then dissolved in 0.5 mL of D$_2$O containing 14 mM each of glycine, glycyl-glycine, and potassium phosphate, pH 5.0. Exchange was initiated at the desired pH by adding 0.1 mL of D$_2$O containing the appropriate amount of NaOD. Final concentrations were 10 mM of each buffer and 0.5 mM of protein. The pH values reported herein are for D$_2$O solutions and have not been corrected for isotope effects. Experimental dead times (time between dissolving protein to the start of data acquisition) were between 5 and 10 min. Exchange was followed in the pH range from 6.5 to 9.2 at 15 °C. H/D exchange rates were measured from the peak intensities in a time series of 2-D $^{15}N$ HSQC experiments (33). The time-scales on which data were acquired varied depending on pH, mutant, and therefore, rate. Typically, 10 $^{1}H(^{15}N)$ HSQC of 8 scans each were taken initially, then an additional 8–10 spectra of 64 scans each were acquired at longer time points. Samples were incubated in a 15 °C water bath between data acquisition. To interpret the data, we used the two-state model (34).

$$\text{Closed (NH)} \xrightarrow{k_{ch}} \text{Open (NH)} \xrightarrow{k_{op}} \text{Exchanged (ND)}$$ (2)

In this model, the “Closed” conformation is the exchange-incompetent protonated form, and the “Open” conformation is the exchange-competent protonated form of the protein. The two states interconvert with rate constants $k_{op}$ (rate constant of the opening step) and $k_{ch}$ (rate constant of the closing step). Exchange happens only with the open conformation with a rate constant $k_{ch}$, which is dependent on sequence, temperature, and pH. Values of $k_{ch}$ can be estimated on the basis of model compounds (35). Under folding conditions, $k_{cl} \gg k_{op}$, so that the observed rate constant for exchange $k_{obs}$ can be defined as

$$k_{obs} = k_{op} k_{ch}/k_{cl} + k_{ch}$$ (3)

Under conditions where $k_{ch}$ is smaller than $k_{cl}$, the observed rate constant of exchange ($k_{obs}$) becomes $k_{op}$. This is known as the EX1 regime. On the other hand, if $k_{cl}$ is greater than $k_{ch}$, then $k_{obs} = k_{op} k_{ch}$, where $k_{op}$ is the equilibrium constant for formation of the exchange-competent conformation. This is known as the EX2 regime.

**X-ray Crystallography.** Crystals of U4 were obtained at room temperature by the vapor diffusion method from solution containing 22.5 mg mL$^{-1}$ of protein in water, equilibrated against a well containing 31%PEG 4K and 0.05 M citrate buffer, pH 5.6. Crystals grew within 5–6 weeks. Diffraction data were collected at 100 K on RAXIS image plate using our in-house setup. Diffraction data were processed by the program MOSFLM and reduced using CCP4 programs suite (36–37). Initial phases were calculated by molecular replacement using wild-type protein as a search model (PDB entry 1UBQ). The structure was model-built and refined using the programs O and Refmac5, respectively (38–39).

**RESULTS**

**Kinetic Studies.** The unfolding and refolding kinetics of wild-type, U4, and U7 were studied using stopped-flow fluorescence methods. All the kinetic traces are single exponentials in 50 mM glycine, pH 2.2. The unfolding and refolding rate constants at different concentrations of guanidinium chloride were determined for wild-type and mutant proteins. Plots of ln $k$ versus denaturant concentration give a chevron, typical of small proteins that fold without significantly populating intermediates states (26). Data were fitted to a two-state model using eq 1 (Figure 1). The kinetic parameters obtained from the best fit are summarized in Table 1. From Figure 1 and Table 1, we can see that both mutants are destabilized as compared to wild-type ubiquitin. An equilibrium $m$ value, $m_{D-N}$, can be calculated from the kinetic data and is shown in Table 1. Although the kinetic $m$ values vary between wild type, U4, and U7, the equilibrium values are all within experimental error indicating that there are no significant differences in the change in solvent accessible surface area between the native and the denatured states on mutation. Changes in kinetic $m$ values can, therefore, be attributed to movements in the position of the transition state on mutation, as indicated by the $\beta$-Tanford values also given in Table 1. It is clear that the unfolding rate constants of U4 are slightly higher than those determined for U7. However, the unfolding rate constant in water ($k_{U}^{H_2O}$) for U4 is 16 × 10$^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$, which is slightly smaller than that obtained for U7 (45 × 10$^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$). This is due to the larger slope of unfolding ($m_{H_2O}$) for U4. The $m_{H_2O}$ value is a measure of the change in solvent accessible surface area between the native and the transition states. The largest $m_{H_2O}$ belongs to U4, suggesting that, in this case, the transition state for U4 is less nativelike than for wild-type or U7. Correspondingly, U7 seems to have a slightly more nativelike transition state than wild-type. Changes in $m_{H_2O}$ values upon mutation have been attributed to movement in the transition state (40–42) or in extreme cases to a change in the folding pathway (43).
It appears that U4 has a less compact transition state as compared to the wild-type, presumably due to the increase in volume of side chains within the core. As discussed next, a number of the interresidue distances in the core of U4 are reduced as compared to wild-type. Although some of these variations are within the experimental error, there is a general tendency for a more tightly packed core in U4. U4 and wild-type refold with very similar rate constants (Figure 1), implying that the introduction of bulkier residues into the hydrophobic core of ubiquitin does not significantly affect the rate of refolding. On the other hand, U7 refolds approximately three times more slowly than the wild-type, the removal of side chains making favorable interactions in the core destabilizing the transition state suggesting that the N-terminal hydrophobic core region is partially structured in the transition state. The $m_{eq}$ values for the three proteins are very similar, indicating that the three proteins have approximately the same change in surface area buried between the denatured and the transition states.

The equilibrium constants were calculated from $K_{eq} = k_f / k_r$, and they were used to calculate $\Delta G_{D-N} = -RT \ln K_{eq}$. According to the $\Delta G_{D-N}$ values, it appears that in the overpacked mutant, U4, the balance between large unfolding and refolding rate constants results in a more stable protein ($\Delta \Delta G = 1.3 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$) as compared to the underpacked mutant, U7 (with only two mutations in the core), which has slightly smaller unfolding rate constants, but its refolding constants are considerably smaller. U7 seems to be the most unstable of the three proteins ($\Delta \Delta G_{D-N} = 2.5 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$).

**U4 Structure.** To further characterize the impact of multiple core mutations in ubiquitin crystallization, trials were carried out with U4, U7, and wild-type. Efforts to crystallize U7 and wild-type were not successful; however, U4 crystallized readily after 5–6 weeks. The data collection and processing of the U4 X-ray structure are given in Table 2. Initial phases were calculated using molecular replacement with the wild-type structure (PDB entry 1UBQ) modeled built and refined using the programs O and Refmac5, respectively. The final $R_{factor}$ and $R_{free}$ are 0.198 and 0.248, respectively, at 2.18 Å resolution. The final structure of U4 consists of residues 1–71 and 49 water molecules (residues 6, 29, 54, and 63 are only partially observed). The refinement parameters are summarized in Table 3.

Comparison of the U4 and wild-type ubiquitin structures revealed that they are very similar. Remarkably, the backbone conformations are essentially the same with average rmsd of 0.53 Å on $C_{\alpha}$ atoms. Higher values are observed in the loops, particularly in the loop connecting $\beta$4 and the $\beta_{10}$ helix (Figures 2 and 3A). Interestingly, the hydrogen-bonding network observed in wild-type ubiquitin is preserved in the mutant. All seven mutations are accommodated by a concerted series of slight movements of the side chains of mutated and nonmutated residues within the core (Figure 3B,C). Several interresidue distances within the core of U4 are smaller as compared to wild-type. Some of the differences are within the experimental error, but the overall trend is for a more tightly packed core. The similarity between U4 and wild-type backbone structures confirms the ability of ubiquitin to tolerate multiple substitutions within the core and to adopt alternatively packed hydrophobic cores, without affecting the overall structure of the protein. Thus, we can confirm that the phage display selection of the hydrophobic core mutants procedure proposed by Woolfson and co-

### Table 1: Kinetic Parameters for the GdmCl-Induced Unfolding and Refolding of Ubiquitin Constructs at 15 °C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>$k^{0.5}_{D-N}$ s$^{-1}$</th>
<th>$m_{eq}$ M$^{-1}$</th>
<th>$k_f$, $k_r$, M$^{-1}$</th>
<th>$m_{eq}$ M$^{-1}$</th>
<th>$\Delta G_{D-N}$ kcal mol$^{-1}$</th>
<th>$m_{D-N}$ kcal mol$^{-1}$ M$^{-1}$</th>
<th>$\beta_{1}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wild-type</td>
<td>30.7 ± 3.2</td>
<td>1.89 ± 0.05</td>
<td>2.5 ± 0.4</td>
<td>0.90 ± 0.03</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>1.59 ± 0.03</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U4</td>
<td>23.9 ± 2.3</td>
<td>1.76 ± 0.07</td>
<td>16 ± 2.2</td>
<td>1.12 ± 0.02</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>1.64 ± 0.07</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U7</td>
<td>7.8 ± 1.02</td>
<td>2.06 ± 0.13</td>
<td>45 ± 4.4</td>
<td>0.77 ± 0.02</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>1.62 ± 0.13</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Values of $k^{0.5}_{D-N}$, $k_f$, $k_r$, and $m_{eq}$ were determined from fittings using eq 1. Data were fit only over a denaturant concentration range that shows no curvature. b $\Delta G_{D-N}$ values were determined as $-RT \ln (k^{0.5}_{D-N}/k_f)$. c $m_{D-N} = RT(m_{eq} + m_{D-N})$.

### Table 2: Parameters for the Data Collection and Reduction of the Crystal of U4

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<tr>
<td>b</td>
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<tr>
<td>c</td>
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<td>5.2 (18.2)</td>
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<td>$R_{merge}$ (%)</td>
<td>10.8 (4.6)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wilson B (Å$^2$)</td>
<td>28.8</td>
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### Table 3: X-ray Refinement Statistics

<table>
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<th>Parameter</th>
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<tr>
<td>$R_{factor}$ (%)</td>
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<td>$R_{free}$ (%)</td>
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<td>Overall B value (Å)</td>
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<tr>
<td>No. of atoms</td>
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<td>Rms on bond length (Å)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rms on bond angle (deg)</td>
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workers is able to generate alternative core sequences that maintain the backbone structure of the protein (24–25).

Dynamic Studies. To study the properties of the multiple core mutants in further detail, heteronuclear NMR experiments were undertaken to investigate the effect of mutations on the dynamics and structure of the protein. The three proteins were 15N-labeled and spectra assigned. For the U7 mutant, which has two substitutions, simple comparison of the chemical shifts with those reported for the wild-type protein was sufficient to reassign the mutant spectra. However, for U4, which has seven mutations, it was necessary to perform the assignment from scratch using standard HSQC, NOESY, and TOCSY experiments.

15N-relaxation experiments were used to determine the effect of the mutations on the backbone dynamics. \( T_1 \) and \( T_2 \) were obtained from a two-parameter fit to a single exponential, and the \(^1\)H–\(^{15}\)N NOE enhancement was obtained from the measured peak heights using the formula \( I_{sat}/I_{unsat} \). \( T_1 \), \( T_2 \), and NOE values for the three proteins are globally quite similar (Figure 4). The structured regions appear to be maintained despite the mutations, and the unstructured regions (the N- and C-termini and known loop regions) occur in the same residue ranges as in the wild-type and correlate well with other published data on ubiquitin backbone dynamics (44). This indicates that all the three molecules are well-folded and highly ordered. However, globally, U4 has similar values for \( T_1 \) and \( T_2 \) to wild-type, while U7 has slightly higher \( T_1 \) and lower \( T_2 \) values as compared with wild-type. This is reflected in the correlation times for each protein, which were calculated using \( T_1/T_2 \) for the rigid residues, to give 6.2, 6.6, and 6.1 ns for wild-type, U7, and U4, respectively, and are likely to be attributable to large differences in the protein concentration of the samples measured.

H/D Exchange. To measure the stability and the kinetics of folding and unfolding of the three proteins in the absence of denaturant, H/D exchange experiments were performed over a pH range from 6.5 to 9.2 at 15°C. Previous studies of amide exchange on ubiquitin have demonstrated that
values of \( k_{\text{op}} \) and \( k_{\text{cl}} \) for the most slowly exchanging amide protons in ubiquitin are equivalent to the rate constants for unfolding and folding under native conditions. Also, it has been demonstrated that the stability of ubiquitin does not appreciably change between pH 6.0 and 9.5 (23, 45). Plots of \( \log (k_{\text{obs}}) \) versus pH for the most slowly exchanging NHs in the three proteins are shown in Figure 5. They show clear evidence of EX2 regime for the three proteins at pH < 8.5. Above pH 8.5, the pH dependence of \( k_{\text{obs}} \) decreases, or disappears, for most of the residues, indicating the switch to the EX1 regime. Values of \( k_{\text{op}} \) and \( k_{\text{cl}} \) were obtained from nonlinear least-squares fittings with the simple two-state model (eq 3). In those cases where plateau regions were insufficiently defined for fitting, simulations to eq 3 were used to obtain the lower limits of \( k_{\text{op}} \) and \( k_{\text{cl}} \). The symbols indicate the observed rate constants of exchange for the individual residues. The lines are the best fittings according to the simple two-state model, eq 3. For those residues where data in the plateau region were insufficient, simulations of eq 3 were used to obtain the lower limits of \( k_{\text{op}} \) and \( k_{\text{cl}} \).

Displacement of denaturant. Wild-type is the most stable protein, followed by U4, and U7 seems to be the least stable of the three proteins primarily due to the fact that its refolding/closing rate constants are much smaller than for the other two proteins. Despite the different values of thermodynamic and kinetic parameters determined by H/D exchange and stopped-flow fluorescence (it was not possible to perform the stopped-flow experiments under exactly the same conditions as the H/D exchange as there is no change in fluorescence at neutral pH for wild-type ubiquitin (19)), the H/D exchange confirms that both mutants are less stable than wild-type. Despite the fact that U4 has seven substitutions within its hydrophobic core as compared to just two for U7, U4 is consistently more stable than U7 at 15°C.

**DISCUSSION**

**Methods to Design Hydrophobic Cores.** Two methods have previously been used to produce stable hydrophobic core mutants of ubiquitin (13, 24–25). In the first approach, a core-repacking algorithm ROC (repacking of cores) was developed and tested. A number of hydrophobic core variants of ubiquitin were designed and characterized using this method (13, 16, 47). ROC was shown to be a good method to identify alternative core sequences that resulted in proteins with native-like conformations. In general, cores designed by this method were more stable than randomly designed cores.
but less stable than wild-type ubiquitin. One mutant with seven substitutions (1D7) was chosen for further characterization by NMR. This mutant protein showed that the mutations had little impact on the conformation and the backbone dynamics on the milliseconds to picoseconds time scale (17). Using an alternative approach, Woolfson and co-workers selected mutants of ubiquitin from a library, which passed through their stability-based selection procedure (24–25). Variants that survived the proteolytic selection method and were stable showed a clear consensus for the wild-type sequence. All the mutants that were tested were destabilized with respect to wild-type ubiquitin but had melting temperatures within 10 °C. The authors concluded that the core of ubiquitin can accommodate quite large changes and remain well-folded, but the wild-type sequence is near to optimal in terms of stability (25). In comparison, other studies have shown that single point mutations (V26I or V26L) can result in an increased stability (20). Here, we have chosen two of the stable mutants obtained from the selection method of Woolfson and co-workers (25) to characterize in further detail and to establish the effect of multiple mutations within the core of ubiquitin on protein stability, structure, folding, and dynamics. Our results confirm that this selection procedure results in alternative core sequences that maintain the overall structure and backbone dynamics of wild-type ubiquitin. It is interesting to speculate that less-stringent conditions of selection might result in variants with larger differences in stability, structure, and backbone dynamics; or more stringent conditions might lead to more stable and tighter structures.

Identification of Slowly Exchanging Core Residues. It is well-known that exchangeable amide hydrogens that are involved in hydrogen-bonded structure can exchange with solvent deuteriums only when they are transiently exposed to solvent according to eq 2. The most slowly exchanging residues in wild-type ubiquitin that we were able to survey at all the pHs studied were Ile3, Phe4, and Val5, located in the first β-strand; Leu15 and Leu17 situated at the beginning of β2; Asp21 in the loop connecting β2 and α-helix; Val26, Lys27, Ala28, Lys29, and Ile30 all of them in the α-helix; and Ile44 situated in the third β-strand. In contrast, the most slowly exchanging residues observable at all the pHs studied in U4 are Leu3, Phe4, Ile5, Val15, Glu18, Leu26, Lys27, and Ile44, while the positions of the most slowly exchanging amide protons in U7 are Val3, Leu15, Val17, Glu18, Asp21, Val26, Lys27, and Ile44. It is clear that the positions of the slowest exchanging amide protons detectable over the pH range used for wild-type, U4, and U7 differ. For example, some residues, such as residues 4, 5, 17, 21, 28, and 29 have a higher protection in wild-type than in U4 or U7. In contrast, residue 18 has a higher protection in U4 and U7 as compared to wild-type.

Residue 17 in wild-type has the largest (measurable) opening rate constant of all residues, and it also has the second largest opening rate in U7, after residue 44. However, we were not able to observe H/D exchange for residue 17 at any pH for U4. In wild-type and U7, this residue is a valine, while in U4 it is a methionine. Also, we were able to observe residues 21, 28, 29, and 30 for U4 and 4, 5, 28, 29, and 30 for U7 as some of the most slowly exchanging residues in the mutant proteins, only at the lower pHs. At higher pH, their exchange-kinetic curves were too fast to be measurable or reliable. This, in part, may be due to the fact that U4 and U7 unfold faster than the wild-type protein. Interestingly, residue 18 appears to be one of the slowest exchanging amide protons for U4 and U7 but not for wild-type despite the fact that wild-type is the most stable of the three proteins. As mentioned before, the structures of wild-type and U4 are very similar, and the hydrogen-bonding network is not altered by the seven mutations; nevertheless, there are some subtle rearrangements in the hydrophobic core of U4 that allow the side chains of the mutated residues to be accommodated. It is possible that these small movements are responsible for the different protection patterns observed for U4, U7, and wild-type.

Differences in Opening/Unfolding, Closing/Refolding Rate Constants, and ΔGν,ν→H Values as Measured by Stopped-Flow Fluorescence and H/D Exchange. From Tables 1 and 4, it is clear that the values of rate constants and ΔG values obtained by H/D exchange experiments in the absence of denaturant are different to those obtained by the stopped-flow experiments at different concentrations of GdmCl. Unfortunately, a direct comparison cannot be made as the experiments were performed under different solvent conditions. The H/D exchange experiments were measured between a pH range of 6.5 and 9.2, while the stopped-flow experiments were performed at pH 2.2 (it is not possible to measure the kinetics of our constructs at neutral pH by stopped-flow fluorescence; the lack of tryptophan in the proteins leads to undetectable changes in the fluorescence signal under these conditions). Nevertheless, it is known that there are no pH-induced transitions for ubiquitin between pH 1.18 and 8.48 (48). In addition, unpublished results from our laboratory (45) have shown that the GdmCl-induced denaturation of a F45W variant of ubiquitin measured at pH 2.2, 5.0, and 7.4 is practically independent of pH when measured in GdmCl due to salt effects. Makhatadze and co-workers have shown that charge–charge interactions in ubiquitin stabilize the protein at neutral pH but destabilize the protein under acidic conditions and that these interactions are screened by salts including GdmCl (3). Second, the stopped-flow experiments were performed in H2O while the NMR H/D exchange experiments were performed in D2O. There are several studies demonstrating that there is only a very minor isotope effects on the kinetics and stability of folding of ubiquitin. For example, Sosnik and co-workers (11, 49) measured the effect of amide isotope substitution by measuring the stability of the protein both with deuterated and with protonated amides, under identical solvent conditions. They found that ubiquitin exhibits only a small isotope effect that is manifested in the unfolding rates. Isotope effects on the stability of ubiquitin were found to be negligible, on the order of 0.10 ×b1 0.02 kcal mol−1. Robertson and co-workers (23) have also measured the kinetics of unfolding and folding as a function of denaturant concentration using magnetization transfer at pH 7.0 and 288 K. They found that the kν value extrapolated to 0.55 M GdmCl in D2O is equivalent to that determined in 0.55 GdmCl in H2O at pH 8.5 and 293 K by stopped-flow circular dichroism (50). Further, in another study, the denaturation curves of ubiquitin were measured by changes in fluorescence at pH 3 and 298 K with different concentration of GdmCl, in aqueous solvent, and the midpoints of denaturation were consistent with data obtained by titrations monitored by NMR at pH 3.0 in the presence of different concentrations of GdmCl in D2O at 290...
K monitoring the His-68 signal (51).

In our case, it is not feasible to compare directly the two different techniques. However, it is known that \( \Delta G_{\text{HX}} \) computed from rate constants for the unfolding mechanism is often, but not always, the same as \( \Delta G \) for the global denaturation determined by methods such as calorimetry or chemical denaturation. Assuming that the data from calorimetry or chemical denaturation are correct, the simplest explanation for differences in \( \Delta G \) is that the denatured state retains nonrandom structure around the exchanging amides (52). It has been observed that ubiquitin can adopt partially structured states in some conditions (53). NMR studies on the partially unfolded A-state of ubiquitin in 60% methanol/40% water, pH 2.0, show nativelike secondary structure for residues 1–33. In addition, it has been reported that wild-type ubiquitin and a designed core variant (1D7) show a number of residues that have protection factors greater than that expected from global stability measurements (17). All this supports the existence of nonrandom structure in the unfolded state of wild-type, U4, and U7 variants. It is important to highlight that despite the differences found between the stopped-flow experiments and H/D exchange, the relative stabilities between the three ubiquitin variants studied here are confirmed by the two methodologies. Furthermore, H/D exchange possesses the potential of determining the kinetics and thermodynamics of conformational motions at the residue level under native conditions.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the three proteins are well-folded and have very similar backbone dynamics. The overpacked mutant U4 unfolds faster than wild-type but is very similar in structure and refolding rates, despite the presence of seven mutations within its hydrophobic core. U7, the underpacked core mutant that has only two mutations, on the other hand, is the most destabilized of the three proteins. This is reflected in its refolding/closing rate constants, which are considerably smaller than for the other two proteins. This was confirmed by both stopped-flow techniques and by H/D exchange methodology. This work on ubiquitin illustrates how it is possible to repack the hydrophobic core of small proteins without affecting the structure, folding, or dynamics. It also demonstrates the power of combining libraries with suitable selection methods for generating stable proteins. In addition, the relative refolding and unfolding rates of U4, U7, and wild-type suggest that the N-terminal region of the hydrophobic core is partially structured in the folding transition state of this protein, consistent with results from other protein engineering studies and \( \phi \)-value analysis of ubiquitin (H.M.W. and S.E.J., unpublished results).

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REFERENCES


