# Structure optimization in an off-lattice protein model 

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#### Abstract

We study an off-lattice protein toy model with two species of monomers interacting through modified Lennard-Jones interactions. Low energy configurations are optimized using the pruned-enriched-Rosenbluth method (PERM), hitherto employed to native state searches only for off-lattice models. For two dimensions we found states with lower energy than previously proposed putative ground states for all chain lengths $\geqslant 13$. This indicates that PERM has the potential to produce native states also for more realistic protein models. For $d$ $=3$, where no published ground states exist, we present some putative lowest energy states for future comparison with other methods.


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Predicting the structure of a protein, given its sequence of amino acids, is one of the central problems in computational biology. Since the problem is too difficult to be approached with fully realistic potentials derived from first principles, many authors have studied it in various degrees of simplifications. This involves in particular neglect of solvent water, simplifying the interactions, lumping together smaller groups of atoms, and putting everything on a discrete lattice. Among the most radically simplified models is the HP model of Dill and coworkers [1] where each amino acid is treated as a point particle on a regular (quadratic or cubic) lattice, and only two types of amino acids-hydrophobic (H) and polar (P)—are considered. Apart from the forces responsible for the connectedness of the chain, the only forces are contact forces between nearest lattice neighbors which are different for HH, HP, and PP pairs.

Even in this highly simplified model it is far from trivial to predict the native state for a given amino acid sequence [2-7]. The most efficient algorithms are either deterministic and cannot be generalized to more realistic models at all [7], or use sequential importance sampling with resampling in the form of the pruned-enriched-Rosenbluth method (PERM) [6]. Although it was shown that the latter can be applied also to off-lattice homopolymers at higher temperatures [8], it is not obvious that it will be efficient for off-lattice heteropolymers at low temperatures needed for protein folding.

While there are a large number of benchmark cases for lattice protein models in the literature, there exist very few simple off-lattice models with known lowest energy states that can be used as benchmarks for efficient algorithms. One such model is the so-called $A B$ model by Stillinger et al. [9,10] which also uses only two types of monomers, now called " $A$ " (hydrophobic) and " $B$ " (polar). The distances between consecutive monomers along the chain are held fixed to $b=1$, while nonconsecutive monomers interact through a modified Lennard-Jones potential. In addition, there is an energy contribution from each angle $\theta_{i}$ between successive bonds. More precisely, the total energy for a $N$ monomer chain is expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
E=\sum_{i=2}^{N-1} E_{1}\left(\theta_{i}\right)+\sum_{i=1}^{N-2} \sum_{j=i+2}^{N} E_{2}\left(r_{i j}, \zeta_{i}, \zeta_{j}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{gather*}
E_{1}\left(\theta_{i}\right)=\frac{1}{4}\left(1-\cos \theta_{i}\right),  \tag{2}\\
E_{2}\left(r_{i j}, \zeta_{i}, \zeta_{j}\right)=4\left[r_{i j}^{-12}-C\left(\zeta_{i}, \zeta_{j}\right) r_{i j}^{-6}\right] . \tag{3}
\end{gather*}
$$

Here $r_{i j}$ is the distance between monomers $i$ and $j$ (with $i$ $<j)$. Each $\zeta_{i}$ is either $A$ or $B$, and $C\left(\zeta_{i}, \zeta_{j}\right)$ is $+1,+\frac{1}{2}$, and $-\frac{1}{2}$ respectively, for $A A, B B$, and $A B$ pairs, giving strong attraction between $A A$ pairs, weak attraction between $B B$ pairs, and weak repulsion between $A$ and $B$.

This model has been studied in several papers [9-13] For its two-dimensional (2D) version, putative ground states for various $A B$ sequences and for various chain lengths are given in Refs. [9,10,13]. Similar models were also studied in Refs. [ $11,12,14,15$ ], but putative ground states for these generalizations were not given at all or for very short chains only. The methods used to find low energy states of the AB model include neural networks [9], conventional Metropolis type Monte Carlo procedures [10], simulated tempering [11], multicanonical Monte Carlo [12], biologically motivated methods [13,15], and molecular dynamics [14]. In all cases the stochastic minimization can only lead to some state in the neighborhood of a local (and hopefully also global) minimum. A greedy deterministic method such as conjugate gradient descent is subsequently applied to reach the minimum itself.

The purpose of the present paper is to see whether PERM can be efficient for energy minimization in the $A B$ model. In particular we shall use the new variant of PERM presented in Ref. [6]. We shall restrict ourselves to the subclass of "Fibonacci sequences" studied also in Ref. [10], defined recursively by

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{0}=A, \quad S_{1}=B, \quad S_{i+1}=S_{i-1}^{*} S_{i} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here * is the concatenation operator. The first few sequences are $S_{2}=A B, S_{3}=B A B, S_{4}=A B B A B$, etc. They have lengths given by $N_{i+1}=N_{i-1}+N_{i}$, i.e., given by the Fibonacci numbers. Hydrophobic residues $A$ occur isolated

TABLE I. Sequences and energies reached. $E_{\text {perm }}$ is the lowest energy obtained by a PERM run, while $E_{\min }$ is the minimum energy obtained by subsequent conjugate gradient minimization. $E_{\min }^{*}$ is the putative ground state energy obtained by Stillinger and Head-Gordon [10] (for $d=2$ only).

| $N$ | Sequence | $d=2$ |  |  | $d=3$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $E_{\text {perm }}$ | $E_{\text {min }}$ | $E_{\text {min }}^{*}$ | $E_{\text {perm }}$ | $E_{\text {min }}$ |
| 13 | ABBABBABABBAB | -3.2167 | -3.2939 | -3.2235 | -3.9730 | -4.9616 |
| 21 | BABABBABABBABBABABBAB | -5.7501 | -6.1976 | -5.2881 | -7.6857 | - 11.5238 |
| 34 | АВВАВВАВАВВАВВАВАВВАВ <br> ABBABBABABBAB | -9.2195 | - 10.7001 | -8.9749 | - 12.8601 | -21.5678 |
| 55 | $\begin{gathered} B A B A B B A B A B B A B B A B A B B A B \\ A B B A B B A B A B B A B B A B A B B A B \\ A B B A B B A B A B B A B \end{gathered}$ | -14.9050 | - 18.5154 | - 14.4089 | -20.1070 | -32.8843 |

along the chain, while $B$ 's occur either isolated or in pairs. The fraction of $B$ 's tends to the golden mean $\gamma=0.618033$ as the length $N \rightarrow \infty$.

Although PERM also gives detailed information about excited states and thermodynamic behavior at temperatures $T$ $>0$, we shall not discuss this here. For studying the dynamics of the folding transition, in contrast, we would have to assume some realistic microscopic dynamics. Just like other advanced sampling methods such as simulated annealing or parallel tempering, PERM sacrifices the realism of the dynamics for efficiency. In addition, as in the studies mentioned above, PERM is only used for coming close to the native state, and conjugate gradient descent is then used to reach the minimum energy state itself.

PERM is a biased chain growth algorithm with "population control," i.e., a sequential importance sampling method with resampling [16], implemented recursively in a depthfirst fashion [8]. While chains grow, they acquire weights that include both Boltzmann factors and bias correction ("Rosenbluth" [17]) factors. During the growth, samples with large weight are cloned, while chains with too small weight are pruned out. Except for the depth-first implementation and for the fact that it gives the correct GibbsBoltzmann statistics, PERM resembles therefore genetic algorithms. While the original version of PERM was quite successful for lattice proteins $[18,19]$ and for a host of other applications [20], it worked rather poorly for minimization of off-lattice polymer models [21].

In this paper we therefore employ an improved version called nPERMis in Ref. [6] (for "new PERM with importance sampling"). Basically, instead of making exact clones of high weight chains and hoping that these clones will evolve differently during the subsequent growth (as in original PERM), we now branch such that the last monomers are different at the point of branching. Thereby we now force the two copies to be distinct, and we avoid the loss of diversity that also plagues genetic algorithms when the evolution pressure is too high.

For lattice polymers [6] one has for each partially grown chain a finite number of "candidate directions" for the next step. One first estimates the total weight of all these one-step continuations. Based on this estimate, one decides on the number of clones to be made. If, say, one wants to make $k$
clones, one scans all possible $k$-tuples of possible different candidate directions, and selects one of these tuples according to its weight. For off-lattice polymers one proceeds exactly in the same way, with one exception. The candidates are now no longer the lattice bonds, but one has to choose $K$ candidate locations for the next monomer randomly. The number $K$ is an important parameter. While $K \approx 5$ was optimal for 3D polymers near the $\Theta$-point [8], we found that lowest energies were reached in the $A B$ model for $K \approx 50$. While it was necessary to make clonings with very many siblings in simulating the HP model with the old version of PERM [18,19], we now obtained good results by restricting ourselves to $k$-tuples with $k \leqslant 3$.

Another important parameter is the temperature at which the simulation is run. We typically used temperatures well below the collapse transition, $k T \approx 0.1$ or even lower. In order to speed up the ground state search, we also modified the Lennard-Jones potential by putting $E_{2}(r)=+\infty$ for $r<1$. This hard core constraint reduces the available phase space, but has no effect on ground state configurations (we did not use it in the conjugate gradient minimization, and we checked that it was satisfied after minimization). For chain deformation algorithms it could slow down the dynamics, since the hard cores could act as barriers, but it can only improve any pure chain growth algorithm. Finally, as a last trick, we used equally spaced azimuthal angles for all candidates (with one overall angle chosen at random, for each group of candidates), in order to make them cover the unit sphere more uniformly. All simulations were done on Linux and UNIX workstations. CPU times were up to 2 days, but their precise values are not very significant. Exact timings would involve frequent comparisons of the minimizer basins of attraction reached by PERM, which we considered as too time consuming.

In Table I we list the lowest energies thus obtained for the two- and three-dimensional $A B$ model for all Fibonacci sequences with $13 \leqslant N \leqslant 55$. The latter is equal to the length of the longest sequence studied in Ref. [10]. Let us first discuss the case $d=2$. For comparison we quote also the putative ground state energies from Table II of Ref. [10]. For $N$ $<13$, our energies agree perfectly with those of Ref. [10]. Except for the shortest chain with $N=13$, already PERM
$N=13$

$$
N=21
$$


$\mathrm{N}=34$
$\mathrm{N}=55$


FIG. 1. Putative ground states of Fibonacci sequences listed in Table I in 2D space. Full dots indicate hydrophobic monomers.
gave in all cases shown in Table I lower energies than those found in Ref. [10]. In all these cases already PERM by itself showed that the topologies shown in Ref. [10] are not the native ones. While the subsequent gradient descent improved the energies substantially, it in no case changed the overall topology.

The latter is true also for $d=3$, although there the subsequent minimization gave even larger energy changes than in $d=2$. This shows that in $d=3$ too, PERM is able to find states very close to the native ones. Since there exist no published ground state energies for the 3D $A B$ model, we are unable to compare PERM with other methods.

The configurations corresponding to the energies shown in Table I are shown in Figs. 1 (for $d=2$ ) and 2 (for $d$ $=3$ ). For $d=2$ we see that none of the configurations, except the one for $N=13$, have single hydrophobic cores. Instead, the hydrophobic ( $A$ ) monomers form clusters of typically $4-5$ particles. This is easily explained by the fact that hydrophobic monomers are always flanked by polar monomers along the chain. Thus a clean separation into hydrophobic and polar regions is impossible. This shows that the $A B$ model with Fibonacci sequences would be a very poor model for real proteins in $d=2$. In Fig. 2 we see that the same is true to a lesser degree in $d=3$. There the chains with $N$ $=21$ and $N=34$-fold into configurations with single hydrophobic cores (except for a single $A$ monomer which keeps out in both cases), and only the chain with $N=55$ forms two clearly disjointed main hydrophobic groups.

In conclusion we have extended the PERM algorithm to an off-lattice two-species protein model. We have shown that it performs well, indeed we are able to refute with it the previous claims for putative ground states.

The chosen model is not very realistic. This follows partly from the restriction to two types of monomers, partly from

$$
\mathrm{N}=13
$$



FIG. 2. Stereographic views of putative ground states of 3D Fibonacci sequences listed in Table I. Again, $A$ monomers are shown as filled circles.
the fact that we did not include, as in [11], more realistic local (bond angle and torsion) forces, and partly from the restriction to Fibonacci sequences. Each of these features could have been easily avoided, and PERM works indeed equally well if we modify any of them. But it was not our aim to present a realistic model. Rather we wanted to treat a model which is suitable for benchmarking, because it is defined in a simple way and because it was already studied in detail before.

It is less obvious whether PERM would also perform well for all-atom models with realistic potentials, or even with explicit solvents. Typically, its performance decreases quite rapidly with the number of degrees of freedom, but presumably it shares this with other modern methods like multicanonical sampling and parallel tempering. To answer this question, we have started such simulations with the ECEPP force field implemented in SMMP [22]. But it is still too early to draw any conclusions.

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