# Optimizing the Hydrogen-Bond Network in Poisson-Boltzmann Equation-Based $pK_a$ Calculations

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**ABSTRACT**  $pK_a$  calculation methods that are based on finite difference solutions to the Poisson-Boltzmann equation (FDPB) require that energy calculations be performed for a large number of different protonation states of the protein. Normally, the differences between these protonation states are modeled by changing the charges on a few atoms, sometimes the differences are modeled by adding or removing hydrogens, and in a few cases the positions of these hydrogens are optimized locally. We present an FDPB-based  $pK_a$  calculation method in which the hydrogen-bond network is globally optimized for every single protonation state used. This global optimization gives a significant improvement in the accuracy of calculated  $pK_a$ values, especially for buried residues. It is also shown that large errors in calculated p $K_a$  values are often due to structural artifacts induced by crystal packing. Optimization of the force fields and parameters used in  $pK_a$  calculations should therefore be performed with X-ray structures that are corrected for crystal artifacts. Proteins 2001;43:403-412. © 2001 Wiley-Liss, Inc.

Key words:  $pK_a$  calculations; hydrogen-bond network optimization; electrostatics; Poisson-Boltzmann equation; protein structure optimization; crystal artifacts

#### INTRODUCTION

 $pK_a$  calculation methods have several applications in the field of protein chemistry. The most common ones are studies of the pH dependence of protein stability, and of catalytic mechanisms of enzymes. There has also been significant recent interest in incorporating  $pK_a$  calculations in molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. The use of  $pK_a$  calculations for the above purposes has, however, been limited because of the poor agreement between calculations and experiments. Consequently, there is strong interest in improving the accuracy of protein  $pK_a$  calculations.

The interest in calculating  $pK_a$  values dates back to the pioneering work of Linderstrøm-Lang, who developed the theory for multiple titrating sites in a protein. Tanford and Roxby augmented his work and successfully predicted the titration curve for lysozyme using a spherical model for the protein with all titratable groups on the surface. As more and more X-ray structures became available, it became evident that the titrational behavior of a protein had to be

influenced both by its irregular shape and by the fact that not all titratable groups were situated at the surface.  $pK_a$ calculation techniques were at first not able to exploit this knowledge, since accurate electrostatic energies for a two-phase system could be calculated only for objects with a regular shape. 10,11 The development of a finite-difference Poisson-Boltzmann equation (FDPB) solver by Warwicker and Watson<sup>12</sup> made it possible to calculate electrostatic energies for an object of irregular shape. Bashford and Karplus<sup>13</sup> became the first to exploit this advantage when they constructed a  $pK_a$  calculation method based on an FDPB solver, and in subsequent years Yang et al.14 and Antosiewicz et al.7 reported similar methods. Some of these early FDPB-based methods experienced difficulties in beating the trivial null model, which assumes that the  $pK_a$  values of the titratable groups in the protein are not shifted at all as compared with their model  $pK_a$  values (Table I). Many studies have consequently been undertaken to optimize the parameters of FDPB-based  $pK_a$ calculations in order to be at the null model.  $^{15-19}$  The more successful methods are those of Demchuk and Wade, 19 and Antosiewicz et al.,7 who adjusted the dielectric constants used in the calculation procedure.

Except for the work of Yang et al.,  $^{14}$  no explicit attempt at modeling protein flexibility was made until You and Bashford  $^{20}$  developed a theoretical basis for doing so. Recently, several implementations of protein flexibility in  $pK_a$  calculations have been published.  $^{4-6,22-25}$  Many of these methods model the protein flexibility by applying molecular dynamics simulations. These methods do not, however, perform as well as the methods developed by Demchuk and Wade  $^{19}$  and Antosiewicz et al.  $^7$  Attempts to incorporate  $pK_a$  calculations in molecular dynamics (MD) simulations have been made,  $^{4,5}$  but the improvements in the calculated  $pK_a$  values are modest.

The  $pK_a$  calculation methods that model protein flexibility explicitly are thus not yet able to compete with methods that use more empirical ways of describing the protein flexibility. It is obvious, however, that the fine details of protein flexibility play a key role in determining the  $pK_a$  values in the protein, and an accurate and explicit description of the protein flexibility must therefore improve the

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TABLE I. Model  $pK_a$  Values Used in This Study

Residue type	Model p $K_{\rm a}$ value	
Arginine	13.0	
Aspartic acid	4.0	
Cysteine	8.7	
C-Terminus	3.8	
Glutamic acid	4.4	
Histidine	6.3	
Lysine	10.4	
N-Terminus	8.0	
Tyrosine	9.6	

accuracy of  $pK_a$  calculations. Ideally, it might be hoped that one could obtain precise  $pK_a$  values from a series of long MD simulations of a protein-bulk water system at different pH values. This is, however, not a feasible method with present-day computers. To improve the accuracy of protein p $K_a$  calculation methods, we must construct a method that describes the important aspects of protein flexibility explicitly without performing long MD simulations. It has been shown that electrostatic field calculations are sensitive to the details of protein structures (see Sham et al.<sup>24</sup> for an excellent discussion of the importance of protein relaxation in protein  $pK_a$  calculations), and especially to changes in the hydrogen-bond network.<sup>26</sup> We shall show that the fine-tuning of the hydrogen-bond network used in FDPB-based  $pK_a$  calculations can lead to significant improvements in the accuracy of the calculated

FDPB-based  $pK_a$  calculations require the construction of a very large number of protein structures differing only in the protonation state of the titratable residues. Our method creates a globally hydrogen-bond optimized structure for each of these structures, and thus models the hydrogen-bond network of a particular protonation state as accurately as possible without using MD-based methods. The method models each protein protonation state by (1) globally optimizing the positions of the polar hydrogen atoms (this includes adding and removing titratable protons); and (2) allowing His, Asn, and Gln residues to "flip" (a 180-°rotation around their  $\xi^2$ ,  $\xi^2$ , and  $\xi^3$  angles, respectively). This model describes the flexibility of the hydrogenbond network around each residue very accurately because the details of hydrogen-bond networks in proteins are well understood. 27-29

## X-ray Structures

An X-ray structure is normally perceived as a more "accurate" representation of a protein structure than a nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) structure; consequently most  $pK_a$  calculation methods have been parameterized for use with X-ray structures. In the present study, we also use X-ray structures, but we are aware of the special problems that this poses: the presence of ions that co-crystallize with the protein and the effect of the crystal packing on the fine details of the protein surface.

# $pK_a$ Calculation Procedures

Several, sometimes very different, methods exist for calculating  $pK_a$  values. Methods that use the linear response approximation  $^{24,25}$  Monte Carlo MD simulations,  $^{30}$  self-consistent field theory,  $^{31}$  simplified dielectric borders,  $^{32}$  and sigmoidally screened electrostatic energies  $^{33}$  have recently been published. The majority of these methods are not as accurate as the best FDPB-based methods, although the method of Mehler and Guarnieri is a noteworthy exception.

Considerable efforts have been made to optimize the physical aspects of  $pK_{\rm a}$  calculations,  $^{4-7,13-25,34-36}$  such as dielectric shielding and protein flexibility. We describe here two very different ways of improving  $pK_{\rm a}$  calculations that both relate to representing the protein structures: (1) a significant improvement in the accuracy of  $pK_{\rm a}$  calculations can be obtained by globally optimizing the hydrogenbond network for each structure needed in FDPB-based  $pK_{\rm a}$  calculations, and (2) several of the largest errors in  $pK_{\rm a}$  calculations are due to crystal induced structural artifacts.

We believe that the results presented in this article provide a good basis for redoing many of the earlier studies into the dielectric shielding and protein dynamics aspects of  $pK_a$  calculations. Combination of a rigorous optimization of these physical parameters with the structure optimization aspects discussed in this article will lead to even better  $pK_a$  calculation methods than we describe in this report.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

FDPB-based  $pK_a$  calculations methods compute the effect of transferring a titratable group from water to the appropriate position in the protein. The starting point for the calculation of every p $K_a$  value is an estimate of the p $K_a$ value in water for the residue in question. This estimate is called the model p $K_a$  value and is determined by interpolating the  $pK_a$  values of compounds that resemble amino acid side chains (Table I). The  $pK_a$  value of a group in the protein is now computed by adding the desolvation energy and the interaction energy with nontitratable and titratable groups. The p $K_a$  value of a titratable group in the protein, however, is not only dependent on its own environment, but also on the  $pK_a$  values of all other titratable groups in the protein and thereby dependent on the environment of those groups. This means that all  $pK_a$ values in the protein have to be computed simultaneously. This can be done by evaluating the Boltzmann sum shown below (eq. 1) for every titratable group at the pH values of interest:

$$\theta_i = \frac{\sum\limits_{S} \delta_{i,S} e^{-E_S/kT}}{\sum\limits_{S} e^{-E_S/kT}}$$
 (1)

where  $\theta_i$  is the fractional charge on group i,  $E_S$  is the energy of state S, and both sums are over all protonation states in the protein, with  $\delta_{i,S}$  1 only when group i is

charged in protonation state S and zero in all other cases. A protein with N titratable groups has  $2^N$  protonation states, for which energies need to be calculated, which, of course, is not feasible for any but the smallest proteins. Consequently shortcuts have to be introduced to reduce the computation times. Most  $pK_a$  calculations use two methods to reduce the computation time. First, a Monte Carlo (MC) procedure is used to approximate the outcome of eq. 1 without summing over all the  $2^N$  protonation states (see below). Second, the number of energy calculations needed to calculate the energies of all protonation states can be reduced by tabulating the interaction energies of pairs of titratable groups using eq 2:

$$G_S = \sum_i G_{\text{pH},i} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \delta_i \sum_j \delta_j G_{i,j}$$
 (2)

where  $G_S$  is the energy of state S,  $G_{\mathrm{pH},i}$  is a pH-dependent term for residue i that describes the effect of desolvation and the interaction with nontitratable charges,  $\delta_i$  and  $\delta_j$  are 1 only when their respective residues i and j are charged, and zero in all other cases.  $G_{i,j}$  is the interaction energy between residues i and j. Although eq. 2 requires the calculation of only  $\sim N^2$  pairwise interaction energies between titratable groups (plus 2N background interaction energies and desolvation energies), this still requires that the  $pK_a$  calculation algorithm models all the corresponding  $\sim N^2$  structures. The methodological innovation that we describe in this article concerns the construction of these  $\sim N^2$  structures.

The general  $pK_a$  calculation methodology has been described in detail elsewhere  $^{14}$  and is not reviewed in this article. Details of the calculation method used in the present discussion can be found at http://www.cmbi.kun.nl/gv/nielsen/ $pK_a$ /calc\_methodology.html.

# Optimizing the Hydrogen-Bond Network in $pK_a$ Calculations

In some p $K_a$  calculation algorithms, hydrogen atoms are not modeled explicitly and only the charges and radii of heavy atoms are modified. In other methods hydrogen atoms are removed or added in standard positions, 14,15 and in a two cases multiple locally optimized positions for each hydrogen atom were used, 22,34 resulting in a significant improvement in the accuracy of the calculated  $pK_a$ values for hen egg white lysozyme (HEWL). We optimize the hydrogen-bond network globally for each of structures needed in FDPB-based  $pK_a$  calculations using the method of Hooft et al.27 This method additionally allows for His, Asn, and Gln side chain flips if these would produce a better hydrogen-bond network. Using a global rather than a local optimization protocol is important because hydrogen bonds are normally part of large networks, so that a hydrogen bond far away from a titratable group can influence the hydrogen positions on nearby residues. When constructing hydrogen atom positions (and especially when choosing the titratable atom of His, Asp, and Glu residues) one therefore has to optimize the energy of the entire hydrogen-bond network and not only the energy of each individual hydrogen bond.<sup>27</sup> The importance of this is illustrated in Figure 1, where the titratable atom of the His can be either the N $\delta 1$  or the N $\epsilon 2$ , depending on how the hydrogen-bond energy is calculated.

#### **Methods for Constructing Hydrogen Positions**

We have evaluated two different protocols for constructing hydrogen-atom positions in  $pK_a$  calculations. These are described below.

#### Standard coordinate method (standard)

The standard method constructs hydrogen atoms on every residue without considering the local environment. Hydrogen atoms are constructed according to the distances and angles specified in the WHAT IF<sup>37</sup> topology file, and there is no optimization of hydrogen bonds. Histidines always titrate at their N $\epsilon$ 2, and Glu and Asp protons are bound to the O $\epsilon$ 2 and O $\delta$ 2 atoms, respectively.

# Global hydrogen-bond network optimization (H-bond Opt.)

The hydrogen-bond optimization procedure by Hooft et al.  $^{27}$  as implemented in WHAT IF is used to construct the hydrogen-bond network. The method of Hooft et al. method uses a statistically derived force field to calculate the energy of every single hydrogen bond. The different protonation states needed in FDPB-based p $K_{\rm a}$  calculations are constructed by finding the globally most favorable hydrogen-bond network for each protonation state. This means that at least two structures are created for every titratable group (four structures are created for strongly interacting ion pairs).

Exceptions are the protonation states of the terminal groups and the protonation states of Arg and Lys residues. In the case of Lys and N-terminal residues, this is of minor importance as the difference in the hydrogen-bonding capabilities of an NH2 group and an NH3 group are minimal.<sup>27</sup> The deprotonation of Lys and N-terminal residues is therefore performed by removing the proton with the lowest hydrogen-bonding energy. The deprotonated state of arginine residues was modeled by changing the partial charges of the atoms in the residue (Table II), and the protonated form of the C-terminal group was constructed by adding a proton to the oxygen that could form the best possible hydrogen bond. The chance that this will cause inconsistencies in the hydrogen-bond network is very small, as very few proteins are folded at the pH values where arginine residues titrate, and C-terminal residues are normally located near the protein surface.

#### Solving the Poisson-Boltzmann Equation

The program DelPhi  $\rm II^{38}$  was used to calculate the electrostatic energies. Desolvation energies were calculated in a single run using a 65 cubed grid with a resolution of 3.0 grid points/Å<sup>14</sup> because trials indicated that the gain in accuracy using focusing runs was insignificant. Background interaction energies and the pairwise interaction energies between titratable groups were calculated using four focusing runs on a 65-cubed grid. The initial grid had a fill percentage of 30, and the final grid resolution was 4.0

grid points/Å. Background interaction energies are always calculated from the 4.0-grid point/Å map, whereas the pairwise interaction energies for titratable groups were calculated from the highest resolution potential map containing both groups in the pair. The interaction energies for the charged–neutral, neutral–charged, and neutral–neutral states for a pair of titratable groups make a significant contribution to the overall interaction energy of the pair only if the charged–charged interaction is strong.<sup>14</sup>

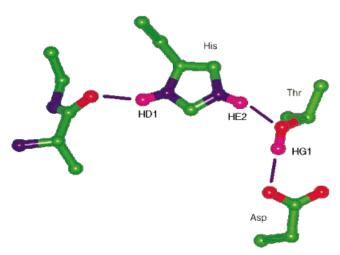


Fig. 1. Hypothetical Thr, His, Asp system. Hydrogen bonds are shown as blue lines. The His N $\delta1$  hydrogen bond is significantly weaker than the N $\epsilon2$  hydrogen bond as measured by the standard distance and angle criteria for hydrogen bonds (Hooft et al., 1996), and the N $\delta1$  proton is therefore predicted to titrate first if the hydrogen-bond energy is measured only locally. If the global hydrogen-bond energy is used, it is seen that the N $\epsilon2$ -proton will titrate, as the proton on the threonine can compensate, at least partially, for the lost N $\epsilon2$  hydrogen bond.

These energies were therefore calculated only if the charged-charged interaction energy was ≥1.0 kT. In all other cases, they were assumed to be zero. 14 The OPLS force field<sup>39</sup> was used as source of charges and radii. The parameters for the nonstandard protonation forms of Glu, Asp, Tyr, Cys, Arg, and Lys are shown in Table II. Two values were used for the protein dielectric constant. The electrostatic energy calculations were performed with a protein dielectric constant of 16 for residues that were involved in crystal contacts, residues with a B-factor of >30 and residues with a second accessible rotamer. The electrostatic energy calculations for all remaining residues were performed with a protein dielectric constant of 8. The dielectric constant of the solvent was in all cases set to 80. Pairwise interaction energies were calculated with a dielectric constant of 16 if one of the two groups in the pair fulfilled the criteria for calculation with a dielectric constant of 16. All other pairwise interaction energies were calculated with a dielectric constant of 8. Residues with an accessible alternative rotamer were identified using the WHAT IF<sup>37</sup> position specific rotamer libraries.<sup>40</sup>

# Calculating $pK_a$ Values

Theories for calculating  $pK_a$  values using Poisson–Boltzmann solvers have been reviewed elsewhere. <sup>13,14</sup> Our  $pK_a$  calculation method generally follows the scheme of Yang et al., <sup>14</sup> with the exception that titration curves are determined using Monte Carlo sampling. <sup>41</sup> The system was allowed to equilibrate for 10,000 steps before the sampling proceeded for 180,000 steps. The degree of protonation for each titratable group was calculated from pH 0.0 to pH 20.0 in steps of 0.1 pH unit.  $pK_a$  values were in all cases defined as the pH values in which the titratable

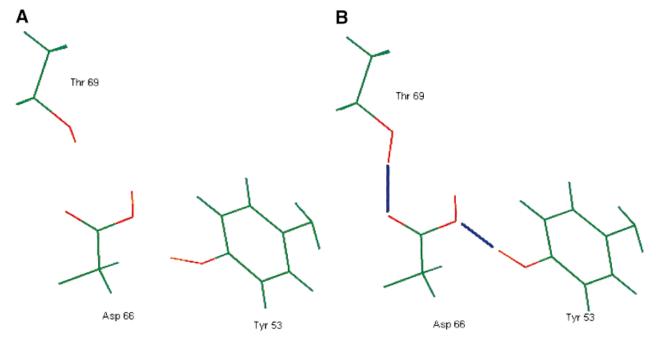


Fig. 2. The residues used in the calculation of the desolvation and background interaction energies for HEWL Asp 66. The only difference between neutral and charged structures for the std-coor. and the stat-GN calculations is the absence/presence of the proton on Asp 66, and consequently only the structure with the neutral Asp is shown. Hydrogen bonds are shown as blue lines. **A:** standard method, Asp 66 neutral; **B:** H-bond Opt., Asp 66 neutral.

TABLE II. Charge and Radius Parameters for the Nonstandard Protonation Forms of Asp, Glu, Tyr, Arg, and Lys\*

	Neutra	ıl Asp	Neutral Glu		Charged Tyr		Neutral Arg		Neutral Lys	
Atom	Charge	rad	Charge	rad	Charge	rad	Charge	rad	Charge	rad
N	-0.570	1.625	-0.570	1.625	-0.570	1.625	-0.570	1.625	-0.570	1.625
HN	0.370	1.200	0.370	1.200	0.370	1.200	0.370	1.200	0.370	1.200
CA	0.200	1.900	0.200	1.900	0.200	1.900	0.200	1.900	0.200	1.900
C	0.500	1.875	0.500	1.875	0.500	1.875	0.500	1.875	0.500	1.875
O	-0.500	1.480	-0.500	1.480	-0.500	1.480	-0.500	1.480	-0.500	1.480
CB	0.000	1.952	0.000	1.952	0.000	1.952	0.000	1.952	0.000	1.952
CG	0.800	1.875	0.000	1.952	0.000	1.875	0.000	1.952	0.000	1.952
OD1	-0.685	1.480	_	_	_		_	_	_	_
OD2	-0.485	1.480	_	_	_		_	_	_	_
HD2	0.370	1.200	_	_	_		_	_	_	_
$CD^{a}$	_		0.800	1.875	0.000	1.875	0.200	1.952	0.000	1.952
OE1	_		-0.685	1.480	_		_	_	_	_
OE2	_		-0.485	1.480	_		_	_	_	_
HE2	_		0.370	1.200	_		_	_	_	_
$CE^{b}$	_		_	_	0.000	1.875	_	_	0.000	1.952
CZ	_		_	_	-0.221	1.875	0.020	1.125	_	_
OH	_		_	_	-0.429	1.535	_	_	_	_
${ m HE}$	_		_	_	_		0.350	1.200	_	_
NE	_		_	_	_		-0.570	1.625	_	_
NH1/NH2	_		_	_	_		-0.440	1.625	_	_
${ m ArgHH^c}$	_	_	_	_	_	_	0.220	1.200	_	_
NZ	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	-0.300	1.625
HZ1/HZ2									0.150	1.200

rad, radius (in Å).

group was half-protonated.  $pK_a$  values were calculated for Asp, Glu, Tyr, His, Cys, Arg, and Lys residues.

## X-Ray Structures

Calculations were carried out for the 3D structures of hen egg white lysozyme (HEWL), bovine pancreatic trypsin inhibitor (BPTI), ribonuclease A (RNase A), *Bacillus circulans* xylanase (Xylanase), calbindin, protein G (PG), third domain of turkey ovomucoid inhibitor (OMTKY3), ribonuclease H (RNase H), and barnase. Structures of all these molecules are available from the PDB. <sup>42</sup> Structures with the following accession codes were used: HEWL: 2lzt, <sup>43</sup> BPTI: 4pti, <sup>44</sup> RNase A: 3rn3, <sup>45</sup> Xylanase: 1xnb, <sup>46</sup> Calbindin: 3icb, <sup>47</sup> PG: 1pga, <sup>48</sup> OMTKY3: 1ppf, <sup>49</sup> RNase H: 2rn2, <sup>50</sup> Barnase: 1a2p. <sup>51</sup>

Ions that are considered to be crystallization artifacts are removed from the X-ray structures to try to model the solution structure of the protein more closely. The calculations are performed without crystal waters.

#### RESULTS

We examined the effects on protein  $pK_a$  calculations of two methods for constructing hydrogen positions: (1) the standard coordinate method (standard), and (2) the global network method (H-bond Opt.). In both cases, we report the accuracy of the calculated  $pK_a$  values as the root-mean-square difference (RMSD) between the calculated and

experimentally measured p $K_{\rm a}$  values. (A list of the experimental and calculated p $K_{\rm a}$  values and the comparisons used in this study are available at http://www.cmbi.kun.nl/gv/nielsen/pKa/results.)

#### Optimizing the Hydrogen-Bond Network

Generally, the  $pK_a$  values obtained with both methods are in good agreement with experimental results. The overall RMSD for all titratable groups is 0.93 and 0.91 for the standard and H-bond Opt. Methods, respectively. The percentage of  $pK_a$  values within 0.5 unit of the experimental value is standard: 55 and H-bond Opt. 49. Both methods give  $pK_a$  values for more than 10 residues, which are in error by more than 1.5 units. The reasons for these large errors are discussed below.

Table III compares the accuracy of the calculated  $pK_a$  values for nine proteins. It can be seen that the H-bond Opt. method improves the accuracy for the majority of the proteins compared with the standard method, but for two proteins, the results are similar. A detailed comparison of the differences in  $pK_a$  values between the standard and the H-bond Opt. methods shows that for some groups, the calculated  $pK_a$  values become less accurate. This is the case for His 12 in RNase A. Inspection of the hydrogenbond network around this residue shows that the hydrogenbond network is better in the H-bond Opt. method than in the standard method. There are good reasons, however, for

<sup>\*</sup>All nonpolar protons were assigned zero charge and zero radius. The neutral state of Cys was modeled by the parameters for a cysteine in a disulfide bridge.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>For Tyr, both CD1 and CD2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>For Tyr, both CE1 and CE2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup>Protons 1HH1, 1HH2, 2HH1, and 2HH2.

Molecule PDB code	HEWL 2lzt	BPTI 4pti	RNase A 3rn3	Barnase 1a2p	Protein G 1pga	RNase H 2rn2	Xylanase 1xnb	OVO 1ppf	Calbindin 3icb
H-bond Opt.	0.66	0.66	1.37	0.90	0.87	1.08	1.18	0.59	0.42
Standard RMSD	0.74	0.66	1.52	1.07	0.72	0.87	1.32	0.65	0.40
(H-bond Opt standard) No. of groups	-0.12	0.00	-0.12	-0.17	0.15	0.21	-0.24	-0.06	0.02
with known $pK_a$ value	21	14	16	13	13	25	12	6	19

TABLE III. Root-Mean-Square Deviations (RMSD) Between Experimental Values and Values Calculated With the Standard and Hydrogen-Bond Optimized Methods\*

TABLE IV. RMSD Values for Hen Egg White Lysozyme (HEWL) and Bovine Pancreatic Trypsin Inhibitor (BPTI) Obtained With Poisson–Bolztmann Equation-Based  $pK_a$  Calculation Methods

Method	$HEWL^{a}$	BPTI	Xylanase <sup>a</sup>
Null model	1.04(-)	0.67	
Yang et al. (1993) <sup>14</sup>	1.07(-)	_	_
Antosiewicz et al. $(1994)^7$	0.65(-)	0.44	_
You and Bashford (1995) <sup>20</sup>	1.87(-)	_	_
Antosiewicz et al. $(1996)^{16}$	2.12(+)	_	_
Demchuk and Wade (1996) <sup>19</sup>	0.65(-)	0.62	_
Alexov and Gunner (1997) <sup>22</sup>	1.52(-)	_	_
WHAT IF (standard)	0.74(-)	0.66	1.32(-)
WHAT IF (H-bond Opt.)	0.66(+)	0.66	1.18(+)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>+ sign in parentheses (+) indicates whether the active site residues (HEWL: Glu 35 and Asp 52, xylanase: Glu 172 and Glu 78) were predicted so that the mechanistic roles of the two groups could be inferred from the p $K_a$  values. For HEWL, this was defined as p $K_a$  (Glu 35)-p $K_a$  (Asp 52) ≥ 1.5 units, and p $K_a$  (Glu 35) ≥ 5.0, for xylanase as p $K_a$  (Glu 172)-p $K_a$  (Glu 78) ≥ 1.5).

the decrease in accuracy. In the crystal structure of RNase A, a sulfate ion is found within a hydrogen-bonding distance of His 12. This sulfate ion probably perturbs the structure around His 12; optimization of the hydrogen-bond network in this region is therefore influenced by the perturbations the sulfate ion makes on the structure (although the sulfate ion itself is not included in the calculations). Some interesting cases showing successes and failures of the H-bond Opt. method are discussed below.

# Hen Egg White Lysozyme

Table IV compares the performance of some commonly used  $pK_a$  calculation algorithms for HEWL. It can be seen that the H-bond Opt. method is the only FDPB-based method capable of producing a low overall RMSD, while predicting the  $pK_a$  values of the active site residues correctly. Furthermore, the H-bond Opt. method is capable of predicting the  $pK_a$  value for Asp 66, which has a low  $pK_a$  value despite the fact that it is completely buried. Asp 66 is generally predicted wrongly by most  $pK_a$  calculation packages, and it is therefore remarkable that the H-bond Opt.

method performs so well for this residue. An even better example of the advantages of the H-bond Opt. algorithm is provided by His 15, where there full potential of the H-bond Opt. method is revealed.

#### Asp 66

The experimental  $pK_a$  value for Asp 66 is 2.0. The standard method calculates it as 3.6, while the H-bond Opt. method calculates it as 2.2. The hydrogen-bond network around Asp 66 used in the standard and H-bond Opt. calculations is shown in Figure 2. The network is shown only for the protonated state of Asp 66, since the only difference in the hydrogen-bond networks between the charged and neutral form for Asp 66 is the titratable proton on the Asp. In the standard method, the protons on Thr 69 and Tyr 53 do not form a hydrogen bond to Asp 66. The interaction energy between the surroundings and the charged state of Asp 66 is therefore less favorable; consequently, a higher  $pK_a$  value is calculated for Asp 66. Using the H-bond Opt. method, the hydrogen bonds from Thr 69 and Tyr 53 to Asp 66 are in place. Both of these hydrogen bonds create a more favorable interaction between the surroundings and the charged state of Asp 66, so that a lower  $pK_a$  value is calculated.

# His 15

The p $K_{\rm a}$  of His 15 is 5.7. The standard and H-bond Opt. methods give 5.3 and 4.9, respectively, which are both very close to the experimental value. The hydrogen-bond networks used for the calculations are shown in Figure 3. It can be seen that it is the Ne2 hydrogen of His 15 that titrates because the proton on Thr 89 is able to substitute for the lost hydrogen bond. At the same time, the proton on Asp 87 shifts from O\delta1 to O\delta2 and is thus able to hydrogen bond to Thr 89. The results for His 15 do not improve when the hydrogen bonds are optimized, even though the hydrogen-bond network around His 15 is undoubtedly better in the H-bond Opt. calculations than in the standard calculations.

#### Active Site $pK_a$ Values

A major use of  $pK_a$  calculation programs is to estimate  $pK_a$  values of active site residues. These are, of course,

<sup>\*</sup>Top two rows: RMSD values for both methods. Row 3: RMSD improvements when going from the standard method to the hydrogen-bond optimized method.

Ala 11

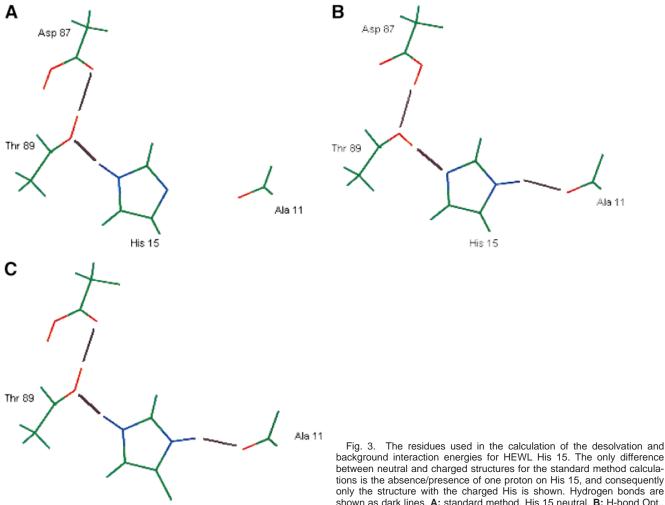


TABLE V. RMSD Between Calculated and Experimental pK<sub>a</sub> Values for Exposed and Buried Groups in the Test Set\*

His 15

	8 Buried groups	116 Exposed groups	All groups
H-bond			
Opt.	1.25	0.90	0.91
Standard	2.17	0.79	0.93

<sup>\*</sup>Buried groups were defined as residues where the average solventexposed surface of the titratable atoms was <0.75 Å<sup>2</sup>. Exposed groups are defined as the remaining groups.

more problematic than all other  $pK_a$  values, and several  $pK_a$  calculation programs are poor at calculating the correct  $pK_a$  values for these residues. The H-bond Opt. method, however, performs quite well on the active site  $pK_a$  values of HEWL and Bacillus circulans xylanase (which are the only two enzymes whose active site  $pK_a$ values are known). In both cases the H-bond Opt. algorithm makes it possible to assign functional roles to the two key active site residues (Table IV), although the absolute values are not quite correct for Bacillus circulans xylanase.

#### background interaction energies for HEWL His 15. The only difference between neutral and charged structures for the standard method calculations is the absence/presence of one proton on His 15, and consequently only the structure with the charged His is shown. Hydrogen bonds are shown as dark lines. A: standard method, His 15 neutral. B: H-bond Opt., His 15 neutral. C: H-bond Opt., His 15 charged.

#### **Sources of Error**

The results for His 15 in HEWL and for His 12 in RNase A makes it clear that optimizing the hydrogen-bond network does not always improve the agreement between calculated and experimentally observed  $pK_a$  values. Visual inspection suggests that the agreement is worse for the residues in regions involved in symmetry contacts or those that are likely to be flexible.

#### Flexible regions

The influence of protein flexibility is illustrated by His 119 in RNase A, which sits in the active site and is known to have a p $K_a$  value of 6.10. This residue is found in two rotamers in the Protein Data Bank (PDB) file; it is therefore likely that it is highly mobile in the free enzyme. The calculated  $pK_a$  value for His 119 is too low for both rotamers. This happens when either the standard or the H-bond Opt. method is used. In fact, the  $pK_a$  value becomes even more inaccurate for one rotamer when using is H-bond Opt. method instead of the standard method. This is not unexpected, as the measured  $pK_a$  value of His 119 is a weighted average of the  $pK_a$  values of all the

Residue	Standard	H-bond Opt.	Location
BPTI-Tyr 35	1.8	1.8	Partly buried; no symmetry contacts
Protein G–Glu 27	1.9	2.4	Surface salt bridge with Lys 28
RNase A-Glu 2	2.3	2.4	Surface salt bridge with Arg 10
RNase A-His 12	0.7	3.9	Sulfate ion
RNase A-Asp 14	2.4	0.4	Close to Arg 33—on the surface
RNase A-His 48	4.1	2.3	Close to Asp 14
RNase A-Asp 121	2.5	1.1	Close to Lys 66, which is influenced by crystal packing
RNase H-Glu 48	1.2	2.2	3.8 Å from a symmetry-related His 83
RNase H-Glu 57	1.7	2.1	Surface salt bridge with Arg 106
RNase H-Glu 119	1.6	2.0	Surface salt bridge with His 127
RNase H-Glu 129	1.7	2.0	Surface salt bridge with Arg 27
Lysozyme–Glu 35	1.4	0.6	Active site
Lysozyme–Asp 52	1.1	1.9	Active site
Lysozyme-Asp 66	1.6	0.2	Buried
Xylanase–Asp 83	2.3	>2.0	H-bonds to Arg 135 (on the surface)
Xylanase–Asp 101	0.9	1.6	Close to His 149, buried water molecule
Xylanase-His 149	>2.0	1.6	Buried water molecule
Xylanase–Glu 172	2.4	1.7	Active site
Barnase–Asp 52	>2.2	1.86	Surface salt bridge with Lys 27

conformations that it occupies. This includes conformations between the two rotamers in the PDB file, and it is therefore obvious that optimizing the hydrogen-bond network for either of the two rotamers found in the PDB file cannot be expected to improve the agreement between the calculated and experimentally observed  $pK_a$  value.

Table V shows the RMSD for the exposed and buried groups in the test set of nine proteins. The RMSD for the deeply buried groups decreases significantly when the H-bond Opt. methods is used, whereas the RMSD for the other groups increases slightly. This shows that hydrogenbond optimization works when the structure is rigid and well defined, as in the protein interior, but for flexible residues at the surface it is less likely that optimizing the hydrogen-bond network will improve the  $pK_a$  values. There is also an influence from crystal packing, which affects surface residues predominantly.

#### Effect of crystal packing

Both methods made errors of more than 1.5 units for more than 10 residues. Table VI shows a summary of the errors in the calculated  $pK_a$  values for these residues and provides an overview of their location. Of the 19 residues with  $pK_a$  values out by more than 1.5 units, eight are involved in surface salt bridges, four are influenced by changes in the protein structure induced by the crystal packing, and two are close to a completely buried water molecule that was not included in the calculations. One additional group is in error only in the standard method (Asp 66 in HEWL), but for the remaining four groups we could find no obvious explanation for the poor agreement with experimental values. It is, however, clear from the summary above that both methods are very bad at predicting p $K_a$  values for residues involved in surface salt bridges. This is probably because surface salt bridges are present only transiently when the protein is in solution, so it is not surprising that there is a discrepancy between the measured  $pK_a$  values (from NMR) and the calculated  $pK_a$  values (using an X-ray structure). Ideally, we should therefore use an ensemble of structures for the surface residues to model their titrational behavior correctly.

The present method corrects for the influence of flexibility and crystal contacts by employing a dielectric constant of 16 in the electrostatic energy calculations for a subset of the titratable groups (as mentioned in the materials and methods section). Electrostatic energy calculations for a residue are carried out with a dielectric constant of 16 when the residue fulfills at least one of the following criteria: (1) the average B-factor of the residue is above 30, (2) the residue has an accessible alternative rotamer, and (3) the residue is involved in crystal contacts.

The use of a protein dielectric constant of 16 for residues that fulfill these criteria improves the overall RMSD between the calculated and experimental values from 1.11 to 0.91. Much more can, of course, be done to correct an X-ray structure for the effects of flexibility and crystal packing: MD simulations, remodeling of the protein surface, and the use of NMR structures. We have used the above strategy of employing two different dielectric constants because it is simple and easy to implement. In this way, we reduce the influence of the local environment on the  $pK_a$  values in areas for which the X-ray structure is likely to deviate from the solution structure of the protein. Work on alternative methods to make an X-ray structure more solution-like is in progress.

## DISCUSSION

We have shown that optimizing the hydrogen-bond networks in FDPB-based  $pK_a$  calculations improves the agreement with experimental values for buried titratable groups (Table V). Using two different values for the protein dielectric constants also improved the RMSD.

The method calculates the p $K_a$  values for Asp 66, Glu 35, and Asp 52 in HEWL correctly, which has never before

been achieved with FDPB-based  $pK_a$  calculations. Asp 52 and Glu 35 are the catalytic nucleophil and hydrogen donor, respectively. Getting these two  $pK_a$  values right justifies the use of  $pK_a$  calculations for identifying the roles of active site residues. The  $pK_a$  value of Asp 66 is especially difficult to calculate because Asp 66 is completely buried, and it still comes out with a very low  $pK_a$  value. The reason for the low  $pK_a$  value is a very favorable local hydrogenbond network, and  $pK_a$  calculation methods that disregard the details of the hydrogen-bond network are bound to calculate a wrong  $pK_a$  for this residue.

The  $pK_a$  values calculated by the H-bond Opt. method allow for the identification of the hydrogen donor and the nucleophil in the *Bacillus circulans* xylanase, and the method thus calculates all four active site  $pK_a$  values in the test set correctly. Mehler and Guarnieri<sup>33</sup> recently published a remarkably successful  $pK_a$  calculation method, that provides a significant improvement in the accuracy of protein  $pK_a$  calculations. The method uses a sigmoidal screening of the electrostatic energies, modulated by the hydrophobicity of the environment of each titratable residue. It is questionable, however, whether such a screening function based only on the hydrophobicity of the local environment can describe all the effects of the very complex dynamics of the hydrogen-bond networks in proteins.

The results of  $pK_a$  calculation algorithms are always compared with  $pK_a$  values measured by solution state NMR experiments, but normally X-ray structures, and not NMR structures, are used as source of coordinates for  $pK_a$ calculation algorithms. X-ray protein structures are known to be slightly different from protein solution structures, especially in the regions in which protein atoms make symmetry-related contacts. In the development of  $pK_a$ calculation methods, this has been largely ignored. The parameters of most  $pK_a$  calculation algorithms have thus been optimized to give the best agreement with experimental data, regardless of the differences between the solution and the crystal state of the protein. This obviously leads to an inconsistent parameter set and, in the worst-case scenario, it will lead to the situation that residues involved in crystal contacts will have their  $pK_a$  values predicted more correctly than residues that have identical conformations both in the crystal and in solution.

Table VI shows that some of the largest errors with our method occur for residues that are involved in crystal contacts. Obviously, correcting for crystal artifacts in these cases will lead to improvements. It is, however, very likely that a much better overall performance of  $pK_a$  calculation algorithms can be obtained by correcting the parameters and the force fields for the errors that have been introduced by calibrating the algorithms on X-ray structures with crystallization artifacts.

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