



## A Dynamical Approach to Protein Folding

A. TORCINI<sup>1,2</sup>, R. LIVI<sup>2,3</sup> and A. POLITI<sup>2,4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>*Dipartimento di Fisica, Università 'La Sapienza', P.zze A. Moro, 2 – I-00185 Roma, Italy; e-mail: torcini@ino.it – URL: <http://www.ino.it/~torcini>*

<sup>2</sup>*INFN, UdR Firenze, L.go E. Fermi, 2 – I-50125 Firenze, Italy*

<sup>3</sup>*Dipartimento di Fisica, Università di Firenze, L.go E. Fermi, 2 – I-50125 Firenze, Italy; e-mail: livi@fi.infn.it*

<sup>4</sup>*Istituto Nazionale di Ottica Applicata, L.go E. Fermi, 6 – I-50125 Firenze, Italy; e-mail: politi@ino.it*

**Abstract.** In this paper we show that a dynamical description of the protein folding process provides an effective representation of equilibrium properties and it allows for a direct investigation of the mechanisms ruling the approach towards the native configuration. The results reported in this paper have been obtained for a two-dimensional toy-model of aminoacid sequences, whose native configurations were previously determined by Monte Carlo techniques. The somewhat controversial scenario emerging from the comparison among different thermodynamical indicators is definitely better resolved with the help of a truly dynamical description. In particular, we are able to identify the metastable states visited during the folding process by monitoring the temporal evolution of the 'long-range' potential energy. Moreover, the resulting dynamical scenario is consistent with the picture arising from a reconstruction of the energy landscape in the vicinity of the global minimum. This suggests that the introduction of efficient 'static' indicators too should properly account for the complex 'orography' of the landscape.

**Key words:** Dynamical simulations, off lattice models, proteins

*To Linus Torvalds*

What can be thought, can be simulated.

### 1. Introduction

Proteins are heteropolymer chains made of aminoacids. The aminoacid sequence (the so-called primary structure) determines the native configuration (tertiary structure) which, in turn, is responsible for the biological activity of the protein. The identification of the native structure corresponding to a given aminoacid sequence and, viceversa, of the sequence yielding a given configuration are called direct and inverse problem, respectively. In spite of the increasing efforts made by the researchers working in this area, both problems remain generally unsolved. A few different strategies have been adopted so far by the scientific community to tackle the protein-folding problem. The first method that has been developed could be

called ‘black-box’ approach, since one tries to infer the tertiary structure with no other knowledge than the configurations corresponding to some specific aminoacid sequences (e.g., the neural-network approach). Although this method has been implemented with some success, the lack of information about the physics of the underlying folding process does not allow going beyond statistical predictions. In order to overcome such difficulties, simplified Hamiltonians have been introduced with the goal of identifying the native structure through the implementation of equilibrium-statistical-mechanics tools (e.g. Monte Carlo techniques). The main difficulty of this approach arises from the huge number of relative minima, which makes the search for the absolute minimum rather questionable in realistic cases.

However, it is known that, in spite of the very many accessible configurations, the protein folding turns out to be rather fast, actually, much faster than a pure random search (once the appropriate time scales are taken into account) (Creighton, 1993). It is, therefore, rather tempting to tackle the problem from a pure dynamical point of view, following, e.g., the evolution of ‘coiled’ configurations towards globular-folded structures. An ‘ab initio’ approach, where all molecular forces acting among the protein elements and between protein and solvent are taken into account, should, in principle, reveal all details of the folding dynamics. Unfortunately, even if the degrees of freedom of the solvent are traced out from the interaction Hamiltonian, the characteristic times associated with the microscopic dynamics are on the order of  $\mathcal{O}(10^{-11})$  seconds, while the folding process is expected to occur typically on time scales in between  $\mathcal{O}(10^{-2})$  and  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  seconds. Simulating systems with thousands of degrees of freedom over time scales that cover ten orders of magnitude is definitely out of reach for the actual computing facilities and it will remain as such at least in the near future.

On the other hand, it appears reasonable to conjecture that the fine details regarding the interaction structure and the degrees of freedom corresponding to the inner dynamics of the aminoacids do not matter for the folding process. Therefore, one can employ ‘coarse grained’ potentials, epitomizing only a few relevant interactions. The price paid for such a drastic reduction of the gigantic complexity of the molecular structure of a protein should be hopefully compensated by the possibility of obtaining a reliable description of the folding process (provided the main ingredients ruling such a process have been correctly identified).

In fact, it seems that evolution has selected proteins out of all possible aminoacid sequences in such a way that their native states are stable and kinetically accessible, so that only those sequences satisfying both requirements are biologically active. In fact, a great deal of papers has been devoted to the attempt of identifying ‘bad’ and ‘good’ folder sequences, relying upon their structural or equilibrium properties (Camacho and Thirumalai, 1993; Klimov and Thirumalai, 1996; Shakhnovic, 1994; Sali, Shakhnovic and Karplus, 1994; Irbäck and Potthast, 1995; Irbäck et al., 1997).

With reference to a 2D off-lattice model, in this paper we show that strictly dynamical simulations can provide a full account of heteropolymer properties. In

particular, equilibrium simulations allow for an effective identification of the lowest minima of the energy landscape. Moreover, the comparison between folding and unfolding simulations shed some light on the glassy transition, while the peak of the specific heat is clearly resolved to locate the collapse transition. Throughout the paper we compare the behaviour and the properties of five sequences, suitably selected to investigate the differences between possible ‘good’ and ‘bad’ folders.

More specifically, in section II we introduce the mesoscopic 2D off-lattice model. Equilibrium thermodynamic properties of the five selected sequences are discussed in section III (looking both at standard observables such as the total energy and the average distance between configurations). The conformation of the native valley and the associated energy funnel are investigated in section IV, while section V is devoted to the description of the dynamical evolution. Concluding remarks are reported in Section VI.

## 2. The Model

We will consider a slight generalization of the 2-dimensional off-lattice model recently introduced by Stillinger et al. (1993) and similar to that one previously studied by Iori et al. (1991). Such a model is characterized by  $L$  point-like monomers (mimicking the residues of a heteropolymer) arranged along a one dimensional chain. The nature of the residues is assumed for simplicity to be of two types only: hydrophobic (H) or polar (P). Thus, each heteropolymer is unambiguously identified by a sequence of binary variables  $\{\xi_i\}$  (with  $i = 1, \dots, L$ ) along the backbone, where  $\xi_i = 1$  if the  $i$ th residue is of type H and  $\xi_i = -1$ , otherwise. The intramolecular potential is composed of three terms for each monomer: a nearest-neighbour harmonic interaction ( $V_1$ ), a three-body interaction ( $V_2$ ) to simulate the energy cost of local bending, and a Lennard-Jones – like (LJ) interaction ( $V_3$ ) acting between pairs  $(i, j)$  of non-neighbouring residues. This last term depends on the nature of the residues, i.e. on both  $\xi_i$  and  $\xi_j$ , in such a way to mimic the interaction with the solvent.

The Hamiltonian of the system writes as

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^L \frac{p_{x,i}^2 + p_{y,i}^2}{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{L-1} V_1(r_{i,i+1}) + \sum_{i=2}^{L-1} V_2(\theta_i) + \sum_{i=1}^{L-2} \sum_{j=i+2}^L V_3(r_{ij}, \xi_i, \xi_j) \quad (1)$$

where the mass of each monomer is assumed to be unitary,  $(p_{x,i}, p_{y,i}) = (\dot{x}_i, \dot{y}_i)$ , and  $r_{i,j} = \sqrt{(x_i - x_j)^2 + (y_i - y_j)^2}$ . The first potential term appearing in equation (1) is

$$V_1(r_{i,i+1}) = \alpha(r_{i,i+1} - r_0)^2 \quad (2)$$

with  $\alpha = 20$  and  $r_0 = 1$ ; the second term, favouring the chain alignment, reads

$$V_2(\theta_i) = \frac{1 - \cos \theta_i}{16} \quad (3)$$

where

$$\cos \theta_i = \frac{(x_i - x_{i-1})(x_{i+1} - x_i) + (y_i - y_{i-1})(y_{i+1} - y_i)}{r_{i,i-1}r_{i+1,i}} \quad (4)$$

and  $-\pi < \theta_i < \pi$ . The last, nonlocal, interaction is

$$V_3(r_{i,j}) = \frac{1}{r_{i,j}^{12}} - \frac{c_{i,j}}{r_{i,j}^6} \quad (5)$$

where  $|i - j| > 1$  and

$$c_{i,j} = \frac{1}{8}(1 + \xi_i + \xi_j + 5\xi_i\xi_j) \quad .$$

Accordingly, the interaction is attractive if both residues are either hydrophobic or polar (since  $c_{i,j} = 1$  and  $1/2$ , respectively), while it is repulsive if the residues belong to different species ( $c_{i,j} = -1/2$ ). The only difference with the model introduced by Stillinger et al. (1993) comes from the nearest-neighbour interaction: the originally rigid bond is here replaced by the harmonic term  $V_1$ . We have preferred this latter choice, because it represents a more realistic nearest neighbours interaction. Anyhow, the large value of the coupling constant  $\alpha$  herein adopted makes the difference rather irrelevant.

Quite accurate Monte-Carlo (MC) simulations, performed by employing innovative schemes, have revealed that, analogously to real proteins, only a few sequences fold into a native structure (good folders), while the majority of the possible sequences do not possess a unique folded state (Irbäck and Potthast, 1995; Irbäck et al., 1997)

The dynamics of the toy model (1) has been investigated by integrating the corresponding Hamilton-Jacobi equations in the presence of a heat bath. The thermal reservoir has been simulated by separately implementing a Nosé-Hoover thermostat for each residue of the chain, while the integration has been performed by employing a second order Runge-Kutta scheme. The evolution equations read

$$\dot{x}_i = p_{x,i} \quad ; \quad \dot{y}_i = p_{y,i} \quad (6)$$

$$\dot{p}_{x,i} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x_i} - \zeta_i p_{x,i} \quad ; \quad \dot{p}_{y,i} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial y_i} - \zeta_i p_{y,i} \quad (7)$$

$$\dot{\zeta}_i = \frac{1}{\tau^2} \left( \frac{p_{x,i}^2 + p_{y,i}^2}{2T_b} - 1 \right) \quad (8)$$

where  $\zeta_i$  represents the ‘bath’ variable that acts to keep the temperature of the  $i$ th residue at the constant value  $T_b$ , and  $\tau$  is the ‘reaction’ time of the bath (typically

set equal to 1 in our simulations). Numerical integrations have been performed with a time-step  $\delta t = 0.025$ , after having verified that this value is small enough to guarantee a good accuracy.

Two different kinds of dynamical simulations have been performed, namely unfolding (US) and folding (FS) simulations. In the first case, the initial state of the ‘protein’ is taken equal to the native configuration (NC), that we assume to coincide with the minimal energy configuration. Thermodynamic quantities have been thereby determined by averaging fixed-temperature simulations over a time interval  $t \sim 5 \cdot 10^5$ . FS’s have instead been performed starting from an initial configuration generated by setting the residues at a fixed distance  $r_{i,j} = r_0$  with randomly distributed angles  $\theta_i$  within the interval  $[-\pi/4; \pi/4]$ . The system is then let relax for a time  $t_r$  that has been fixed depending on the simulation temperature (from  $t_r \sim 5 \cdot 10^5$  to  $t_r \sim 10^7$  in the temperature range considered later on). After this transient, the various observables have been averaged over a time interval ranging from  $5 \cdot 10^5$  to  $1.9 \cdot 10^6$ . Additionally, we have averaged over 10 different initial conditions.

In order to investigate the folding properties of this toy model, we have studied a homopolymer of length 20 and 4 heteropolymers each composed of 14 H-type and 6 P-type residues. To be more specific, we have analyzed the dynamical and thermodynamical properties of the following five sequences :

- [S0] a homopolymer composed of hydrophobic residues (i.e.,  $\xi_i = -1, i = 1, \dots, L$ );
- [S1]=[HHHP HHPH HHPH PHHP PHHH] a sequence previously analyzed in Irbäck et al. (1997), where it was identified by the code number 81 and recognized as a good folder for the Stillinger model (Stillinger et al., 1993);
- [S2]=[HHHH PHHP HPHP HHHH PHPH] the sequence with the maximal Z-score (Bowie et al., 1991; Mirny and Shakhnovich, 1996) within an ensemble of 6,900 sequences each composed of 14 H- and 6 P-type residues \*;

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\* The definition of the Z-score is

$$Z = (V_{NC} - \langle V \rangle) / W$$

where  $V_{NC}$  is the potential energy of the NC,  $\langle V \rangle$  is the average potential energy of a suitable set of alternative configurations and  $W = \sqrt{\langle V^2 \rangle - \langle V \rangle^2}$ . In order to select such configurations, we have first identified 467 distinct inherent minima (see Section 4 for the definition) of the homopolymer. Each minimum has been then considered as the initial condition for a gradient method to identify the closest local minimum for each sequence. For the sequence S2,  $Z = -5.70$ , while for S1,  $Z = -2.97$  (notice that in both cases the NC does not belong to the set of alternative configurations over which the average has been performed).

Moreover, for each of the five sequences studied in this paper, the Z-score has been evaluated also identifying the ‘alternative’ configurations with the inherent minima as determined from simulations performed at a temperature  $T = 0.08$ . In this case, the values are  $Z = -4.50$  [S1],  $Z = -3.16$  [S3],  $Z = -3.08$  [S4],  $Z = -2.98$  [S2] and  $Z = -2.20$  [S0]. Accordingly, the best folder seems to be S1, while the worst one is S0.

- [S3]=[PHPH HHHH HHPH HHHHP HHPP] a sequence identified by the code number 50 in Irbäck et al. (1997), where it was recognized as a bad folder;
- [S4]=[PPPH HPHH HHHH HHHP HHPH] a randomly generated sequence of 14 H- and 6 P-type residues.

### 3. Equilibrium Properties

#### 3.1. STANDARD THERMODYNAMIC OBSERVABLES

Before investigating the protein-like properties of the heteropolymer dynamics, we have investigated standard equilibrium-thermodynamics observables. Let us start defining the temperature as

$$T = \frac{1}{L} \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^L \frac{p_{x,i}^2 + p_{y,i}^2}{2} \right\rangle, \quad (9)$$

where the Boltzmann constant has been set equal to one, while  $\langle \cdot \rangle$  denotes a time average along the trajectory in the phase space (notice that the thermal baths defined in the previous section induce a canonical-ensemble measure in the phase space).

In all cases, at sufficiently large temperatures, the averages obtained from US's and FS's do coincide: this indicates that the time span of the simulations is long enough to guarantee a good equilibration of the measure. At lower temperatures, the heteropolymer structure can be trapped in local minima of the potential, thus yielding different results for the finite-time US's and FS's. This is illustrated in Figure 1, where we have reported  $U(T)$  for the sequence S1. Although the difference between US's and FS's depends on the time span used in the averages, the expected exponential growth of the time needed to visit ergodically the whole phase-space makes it sensible to introduce a rough definition of 'glassy' temperature,  $T_G$ , as the temperature below which the relative difference between the values of the internal energy estimated with the two procedures is larger than some threshold  $f$ . The choice of a specific threshold value as well as that of the averaging time is quite arbitrary and reflects the unavoidable difficulty due to the dynamical character of the transition. As we have numerically verified that for times longer than  $10^6$  units the relaxation is practically unobservable (at low temperatures), we have heuristically chosen an averaging time equal to  $10^6 - 10^7$  units. Furthermore, as for all sequences considered in this paper, the relative difference between the internal energies estimated from FS and US is at most  $\approx 30\%$  (at zero temperature), we have decided that  $f = 10\%$  is a reasonable choice.

The slope of  $U(T)$ , i.e. the specific heat  $C_V$ , exhibits a clear peak at a temperature  $T_\theta^* \approx 0.1$ . Although one cannot speak of phase-transitions in finite systems, this behaviour is definitely reminiscent of the  $\theta$ -transition firstly studied in homopolymers (De Gennes, 1979), where a low-temperature phase, characterized by

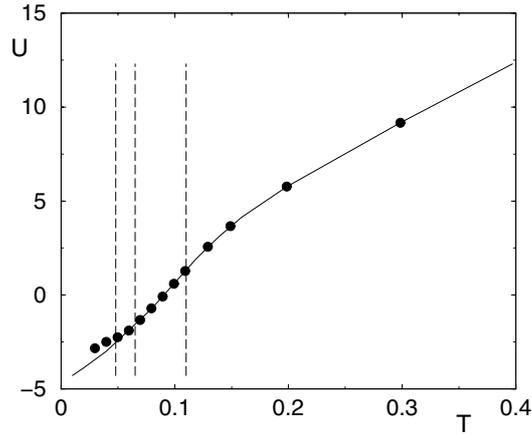


Figure 1. The total energy  $U(T)$  in equilibrium simulations for the sequence S1: the solid line corresponds to US's, while the symbols refer to FS's. The dashed lines correspond to (from left to right),  $T_G$ ,  $T_F$ , and  $T_\theta$  (notice that for this sequence,  $T_\theta \approx T_\theta^*$ ).

compact configurations, and a high-temperature phase, characterized by random-coil states, have been identified. In the context of protein-like chains, this translates into the so-called *collapse transition* (Camacho and Thirumalai, 1993; Klimov and Thirumalai, 1996), that is identified as the temperature corresponding to the maximum of  $C_V$ . Moreover, this  $U(T)$  dependence is also peculiar of systems with attractive interactions, where the collapse transition occurs when such interactions become dominant over the other energy contributions (see, e.g., self-gravitating systems, atomic and molecular clusters) (Antoni and Ruffo, 1995; Torcini and Antoni, 1999; Haberland, 1995).

In practice, the specific heat is better estimated by looking at the fluctuations of the internal energy,

$$C_V = \frac{\langle U^2 \rangle - \langle U \rangle^2}{T^2}. \quad (10)$$

The numerical results obtained for the sequences S0-S4 are reported in Figure 2. There we see that all curves start from  $C_V \simeq 40$  to exhibit a more or less broad peak. In fact, at sufficiently low-temperatures, any sequence is practically indistinguishable from a (disordered) 2d solid, in which case the specific heat is equal to  $2L$ . At high temperatures,  $C_V$  seems to converge to some lower value. In a generic chain with nearest-neighbour interactions in a plane we expect a  $T/2$  contribution from each one of the kinetic degrees of freedom and only one  $T/2$  contribution from the components of the potential energy, dominated by the longitudinal interaction. Altogether this implies that the specific heat should be  $C_V \simeq 3L/2 = 30$ . In practice, we find slightly larger values, as shown in Figure 2. The difference has to be attributed to the Lennard-Jones potentials that are not yet completely negligible at temperatures close to 0.4 (the energy contribution of the angular term

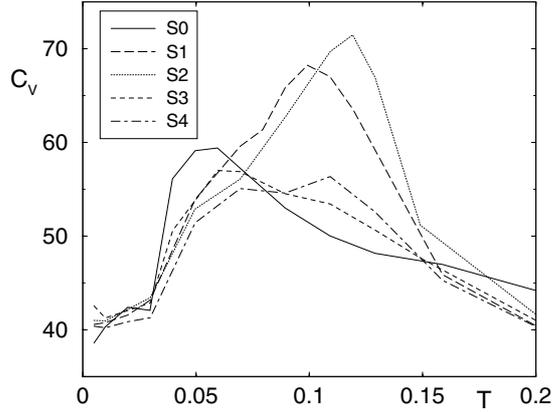


Figure 2. The specific heat  $C_V$  as a function of  $T$ . All data refers to US's.

turns out to be fairly independent of  $T$ ). In fact, the interparticle distance grows with the temperature and, accordingly, the LJ energy increases as well, converging to 0 from below.

Moreover, we notice that S1 and S2 exhibit both the largest collapse temperatures and the highest  $C_V$ -peaks. For the other three sequences,  $T_\theta^*$  is smaller by approximately a factor of two, while the peak value of  $C_V$  is 15 – 20% lower than those obtained for S1 and S2. This suggests that maximizing the zeta score is a good strategy at least for optimizing the collapse transition. This can be investigated more directly by looking at the gyration radius

$$R_{gy} = \sqrt{\left\langle \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_{cm}|^2 \right\rangle},$$

where  $\mathbf{r}_{cm}$  denotes the center of mass of the sequence and the average is performed over configurations generated by the dynamical evolution of the system. The indication for the collapse transition is usually associated with a rapid decrease of  $R_{gy}(T)$  close to a temperature  $T = T_\theta$ , where its derivative should exhibit a singularity. However, as already observed in Irbäck et al (1997), the finiteness of the chains can at most yield a smooth decrease of  $R_{gy}(T)$ , being the singularity intrinsic to thermodynamic limit properties. In finite systems a generally accepted estimate of  $T_\theta$  is the temperature at which  $\partial R_{gy}(T)/\partial T$  is maximal.

With this definition, we obtain for  $T_\theta$  essentially the same value of  $T_\theta^*$  for the sequences S1 and S2, while a  $T_\theta \gg T_\theta^*$  for all the other 3 sequences. Obviously, the homopolymer turns out to be the most compact sequence at all temperatures, as all LJ-potentials are attractive. Coherently with the previous analysis, we can notice a similar behaviour for S1 and S2 which again display a more pronounced transition-like behaviour. A further observation concerns the relatively larger gyration radius exhibited by S4 at low temperature: we can imagine that the frustration

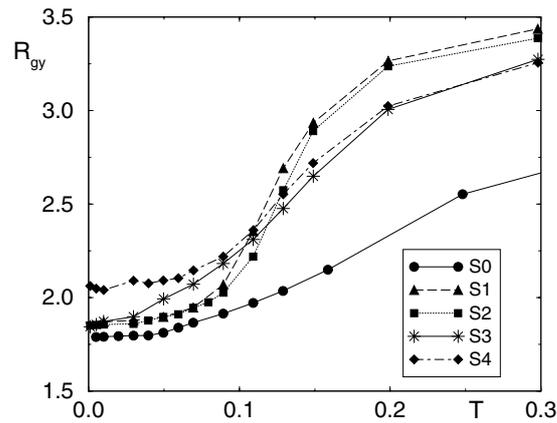


Figure 3. Gyration radius as a function of the temperature for all S0-S4 sequences. The data refers to US's.

of its typical random structure prevents the formation of a more compact ‘native’ configuration.

Some of the indicators computed for the S0-S4 sequences are reported in Table I. Within the framework of the random energy model applied to the protein-folding problem, it is commonly believed that a good folder is characterized by a large ratio  $\rho = T_F/T_G$  (Onuchic et al., 1995) (where  $T_F$  is the *folding temperature*, defined in Subsection 4.2). From the data reported in the table, S1 exhibits the largest ‘glassy’ temperature ( $T_G \simeq 0.048$ ) and the smallest  $\rho$ -value. As a consequence, in contrast with Irbäck et al. (1997) where S1 was identified as a good folder, here it should be classified as the worst one. This apparent contradiction is only partly cured by the nonnegligible uncertainty of  $\rho$ . In fact, the definition adopted for the determination of  $T_G$  induces a statistical error on  $\rho$  that ranges from 10 to 30%. Accordingly, all  $\rho$  values are practically indistinguishable from each other. Although, at the expense of definitely increasing the CPU-time, one could improve the accuracy (at least 5000 hours are requested on a single Alpha processor at 500 Mhz to reduce the error by a factor 3 for a computation at a given temperature), it remains true that fluctuations of the  $\rho$  value among the different sequences are definitely modest and rule out the possibility to consider it as a good indicator.

### 3.2. DISTANCE BETWEEN CONFIGURATIONS

In order to study protein-like features of equilibrium simulations, it is important to look at the shape of the heteropolymer and, in particular, to quantify differences between shapes. Given any two configurations  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , identified by the angle

Table I. For all S0-S4 sequences we report: the glassy temperature  $T_G$ ; the ratio  $\rho = T_F/T_G$  (the folding temperature  $T_F$  can be found in Table III); the collapse-transition temperature as estimated from the gyration radius ( $T_\theta$ ) and from the specific heat ( $T_\theta^*$ ); the maximum value of  $C_V$ .

	S0	S1	S2	S3	S4
$T_G$	0.022	0.048	0.028	0.025	0.025
$\rho$	1.6	1.4	1.7	1.4	1.8
$T_\theta$	0.16	0.11	0.13	0.13	0.13
$T_\theta^*$	0.05	0.105	0.12	0.06	0.06
$C_V(T_\theta^*)$	60	68	72	57	55.5

sequences  $\theta_i^{(\alpha)}, \theta_i^{(\beta)}$  ( $2 < i < L - 1$ , see equation 4), we introduce the following angular distance

$$\delta(\alpha, \beta) := \min \left\{ \frac{1}{L-2} \sum_{i=2}^{L-1} \left| \theta_i^{(\alpha)} - \theta_i^{(\beta)} \right| \right\} ; \quad (11)$$

where the minimum is taken over reflections only, since this distance is invariant with respect to translations and rotations of any single configuration. Typically, we are interested in looking at the angular distance between any dynamical configuration of a sequence and its corresponding NC. For the sake of brevity, we indicate this distance with  $\delta$ , omitting the explicit dependence on the generic dynamical configuration. In the following, we will show that  $\delta$  provides essentially the same information as the structural overlap function (Camacho and Thirumalai, 1993)

$$\chi := 1 - \frac{2}{(L-1)(L-2)} \sum_{i=1}^{L-2} \sum_{j=i+2}^L \Theta(\varepsilon - |r_{ij} - r_{ij}^N|)$$

where  $r_{ij}$  is the distance between the  $i$ th and  $j$ th residues of a given configuration,  $r_{ij}^N$  is the corresponding distance in the NC,  $\Theta(x)$  is the Heaviside function and  $\varepsilon$  denotes a suitably chosen threshold. In order to compare this indicator with  $\delta$  we have adopted a slightly different, but practically equivalent, definition by replacing  $\Theta(x)$  in the above equation with  $(1 + \tanh(\kappa x))/2$ . It can be readily verified that  $1/\kappa$  plays the role of  $\varepsilon$ ; in our calculations we have set  $\kappa = 1$ . The average angular distance  $\langle \delta \rangle$  is reported in Figures 4–5 for all S0-S4 sequences with both FS's and US's. At sufficiently high temperatures ( $T > T_G$ ) the results of FS's and US's coincide, as the observables introduced in the previous section do. Typically,  $\langle \delta \rangle$  increases with  $T$  and eventually saturates to a sequence-dependent asymptotic value  $\delta_a$  for  $T > 0.2$ . The comparison with the behaviour of the average structural overlap  $\langle \chi \rangle$  (reported in Figures 4–5 for US's) indicates that this quantity is practically equivalent to  $\langle \delta \rangle$ , the only difference being an irrelevant scale factor.

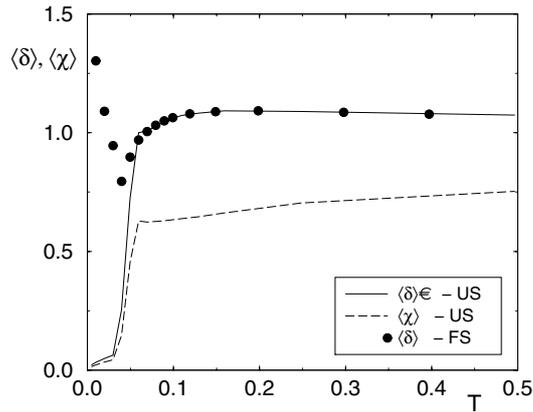


Figure 4. The average distance  $\langle \delta \rangle$  for US's (solid line) and FS's (circles) as a function of the temperature  $T$ , reported together with the average value of the structural overlap function  $\langle \chi \rangle$  for US's (dashed line) in the homopolymer S0.

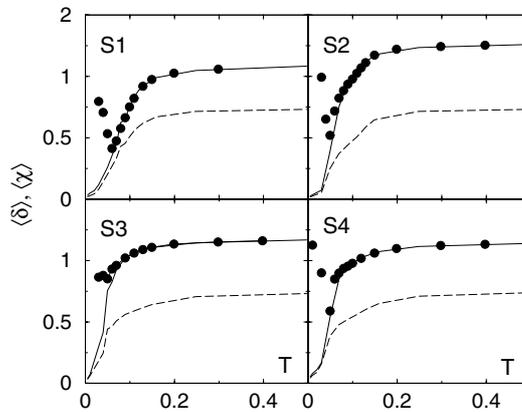


Figure 5. The same quantities as in the previous figure for the sequences S1-S4.

The dependence of  $\langle \delta \rangle$  on the temperature  $T$ , obtained with the US's, gives a first rough idea of the shape of the native valley. The slower growth observed for S1 suggests that this sequence is characterized by a wider basin of attraction. Some information about the 'accessibility' of the native valley can, instead, be extracted from the difference between  $\langle \delta \rangle$  obtained with FS's and US's. If, during the folding dynamics, the heteropolymer is unable to enter the native valley in a broad temperature range (within the employed integration time), this is a strong indication that the corresponding sequence is a slow folder.

In order to compare the different sequences on a more quantitative level, we have introduced the 'foldability' quality-factor

$$Q := \frac{\delta_a}{\delta_m}$$

Table II. The foldability factor  $Q$ , the temperatures  $T_F^\chi$  and  $T_F^\delta$ , and the parameters  $\sigma_\chi$ ,  $\sigma_\delta$ , and  $\sigma^*$  for the 5 considered sequences. The values reported within parentheses for S2 correspond to a second peak shown by the variance of  $\chi$  for this sequence.

	S0	S1	S2	S3	S4
$Q$	1.37	2.63	2.44	1.37	1.92
$T_F^\chi$	0.05	0.07	0.05 (0.12)	0.04	0.05
$T_F^\delta$	0.04	0.10	0.07	0.06	0.07
$\sigma_\chi$	0.09	0.33	0.58 (0.00)	0.33	0.55
$\sigma_\delta$	0.27	0.05	0.41	0.00	0.37
$\sigma^*$	0.78	0.41	0.63	0.71	0.64

where  $\delta_m$  is the minimal value reached by  $\langle\delta\rangle$  during the FS's. A high  $Q$ -value indicates that the protein noticeably approaches the native structure before the structural arrest sets in below  $T = T_G$ . Conversely, a relatively small  $Q$ -value suggests that the protein does not even enter the native valley before the dynamics is dramatically slowed down at the glassy transition. The data reported in Table II indicate that the largest  $Q$ -values are obtained for S1 and S2, indicating that the only two 'good' folders are S1 and S2.

In Camacho and Thirumalai (1993) and Klimov and Thirumalai (1996) it was suggested that the variance of  $\chi$  is a meaningful indicator to define the *folding temperature*. More precisely, it is claimed that, analogously to the collapse transition identified from the maximum of the fluctuations of the internal energy, the folding temperature  $T_F^\chi$  corresponds to the peak of the variance of the structural overlap  $\chi$ . The almost equivalence between  $\chi$  and the angular distance  $\delta$  suggests that one could equally look at

$$\Delta\delta = \langle(\delta)^2\rangle - \langle\delta\rangle^2 \quad (12)$$

where the average  $\langle\cdot\rangle$  is taken over all the possible configurations of a heteropolymer (with a given sequence) during a certain time evolution and over different initial conditions. Accordingly, the temperature corresponding to the peak of the variance  $\Delta\delta$  should identify the folding temperature. As it is not a priori obvious that this second definition coincides with the former one, we shall denote it by  $T_F^\delta$ . The results of US's for both  $T_F^\delta$  and  $T_F^\chi$  are reported in Table II (those referring to  $T_F^\delta$  are confirmed by independent FS's). One can see that they are qualitatively similar, but not really close to each other. This should be taken as an indication that the concept of 'folding transition' is ill-defined as all transitions in finite systems.

The 'Camacho-Klimov-Thirumalai criterion' states that when the parameter

$$\sigma_\chi = \frac{|T_\theta^* - T_F^\chi|}{T_\theta^*}$$

is small (e.g.,  $\leq 0.4$  for off-lattice models), the corresponding sequence is a fast folder, while slow folders are characterized by  $\sigma_\chi > 0.6$  (Veitshans et al., 1997; Klimov and Thirumalai, 1996). In our case we have estimated both  $\sigma_\chi(T)$  and  $\sigma_\delta(T)$  (with an obvious meaning of the notation) and the corresponding values are reported in Table II. As a first observation, notice that  $\sigma_\chi(T)$  and  $\sigma_\delta(T)$  do not give coherent indications. By looking at the values of  $\sigma_\chi$  we are led to the ‘absurd’ conclusion that the only good folder is the homopolymer and that all other sequences appear as not-so-fast folders. On the other hand, by looking at  $\sigma_\delta$ , one deduces that the fast folders are  $S_1$  and  $S_3$ , a conclusion that is still partly inconsistent with (Irbäck et al., 1997), where it was ascertained that  $S_3$  is a bad folder. Thus, we can only conclude that in our case, the Camacho-Klimov-Thirumalai criterion does not help in properly identifying good folders.

However, if we replace  $T_\theta^*$  with  $T_\theta$  (i.e. if we look at the peak of the fluctuations of the gyration radius) and define  $T_F$  as discussed in the next chapter (see Table III), we obtain the much more meaningful indicator  $\sigma^*$ . In fact, from the data reported in the last row of Table II, one concludes that  $S_1$  is the only reasonably good folder. Clearly, such differences indicate that finite-size corrections are too important to be neglected in this type of studies. It would be really useful to study a much larger ensemble of systems to conclude whether  $\sigma^*$  is a truly trustful indicator. In any case, it remains to be understood why  $\sigma^*$  is more meaningful than other, apparently equivalent, indicators.

## 4. Energy Landscape

### 4.1. NATIVE CONFIGURATIONS

Assuming that the native configuration of each sequence coincides with the absolute minimum of the energy, we have determined it by first looking for the local minima ‘visited’ by a sufficiently long trajectory at a fixed, not-too-low, temperature value (typically,  $T = 0.08$ ). More precisely, we act as follows: we sample the trajectory every  $\Delta t$  time units and consider the configuration  $(x_i(n\Delta t), y_i(n\Delta t), \dot{x}_i = 0, \dot{y}_i = 0)$  as the initial condition for the overdamped dynamics

$$\dot{x}_i = -\frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{\partial H}{\partial x_i} \quad , \quad (13)$$

where  $\gamma$  is an irrelevant damping constant fixing the time scale (an equivalent equation holds for  $\dot{y}_i$ ). As a consequence, the phase point evolves towards the local minimum, the basin attraction of which contains the initial condition. Such a local minimum is the so-called ‘inherent state’ (Stillinger and Weber, 1984). Upon repeating this procedure over and over, we can construct a large ensemble of inherent minima: the minimal-energy state is eventually identified with the NC.

By comparing with Irbäck (2000), we have verified that, for the sequences  $S_1$  and  $S_3$ , this method allows for a correct identification not only of the NC but also

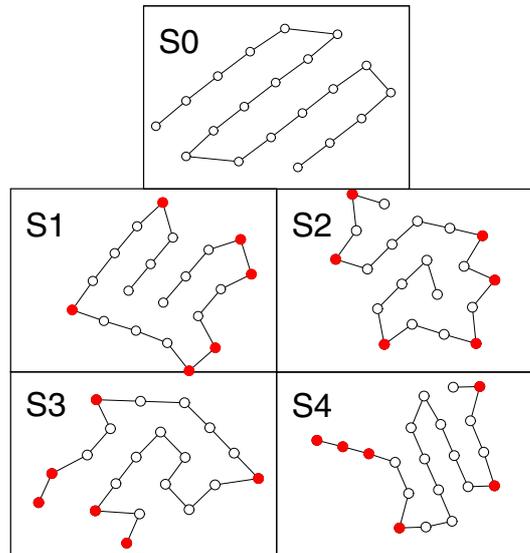


Figure 6. The NCs corresponding to the five examined sequences. Full and open dots denote polar and hydrophobic residues, respectively.

of the 10 lowest energy configurations (with a few differences due to the contribution of the harmonic potential  $V_1$ , replaced by a rigid bond in the original model (Stillinger et al., 1993)). Considering that our method is rather straightforward in comparison to the quite elaborate Monte Carlo techniques implemented in Irbäck et al. (1997), this is a first indication of the advantage of the dynamical approach. To be more precise, simulations for a time  $t = 250,000$  (with sampling-time  $\Delta t = 5$  and minimization-time  $t = 125 - \gamma = 2.5$ ) typically allow for a correct identification of the NC and of the lowest energy minima with an accuracy of  $10^{-5} - 10^{-6}$  in energy and  $10^{-2}$  for what concerns the angular distance  $\delta$ .

The distribution of polar residues is such that the formation of a stable hydrophobic core is possible in S1 and S2, while the concentration of the residues at the ends in S3 and S4 induces the formation of fairly unstable filaments.

In Table III we report the potential energy  $V_{NC}$  of the native state together with the energy gap  $V_{gap}$  separating the NC from the second lowest energy level. As expected the lowest energy corresponds to the homopolymer sequence, while the other native-state energies are quite close to each other. The largest gap is, instead, found for the sequence S1: it is more than 3 times larger than the  $V_{gap}$ -value for S0 and S2 and more than 30 times larger than in S3 and S4. According to the ‘Shakhnovich criterion’ (Shakhnovich, 1994; Sali, Shakhnovich and Karplus, 1994), a protein with a large energy gap between the NC and the first non-native (compact)

*Table III.* The minimal potential energy  $V_{NC}$  (corresponding to the NC) is here reported together with the energy gap  $V_{gap}$ , the number of nearest neighbours local minima of the NC, and the folding temperature  $T_F$  for the 5 considered sequences.

	S0	S1	S2	S3	S4
$V_{NC}$	-7.0422	-4.6666	-5.1234	-4.6283	-4.6661
$V_{gap}$	0.0255	0.0922	0.0244	0.0025	0.0017
$n_0$	6	38	33	3	28
$T_F$	0.036	0.065	0.048	0.036	0.046

configuration folds rapidly. Therefore, one expects that S1 is a much faster folder, while S3 and S4 should really be slow folders. On the other hand, it has been recently shown that the folding dynamics depends on the whole energy landscape and not only on the energy gap (Pitard and Orland, 2000). In this sense, one should consider that such criteria may provide useful guidelines for an approximate identification of good folders.

#### 4.2. FOLDING TEMPERATURE $t_f$

A commonly used definition of the *folding temperature*  $T_F$  (i.e. of the temperature below which the polypeptidic chain is predominantly in the native configuration) states that  $T_F$  is the temperature for which the probability to visit the NC is 1/2. At finite temperatures, in off-lattice simulations, the NC is never exactly met: this implies that the implementation of the above definition requires defining a ‘visit’ as a ‘close-encounter’ with the ambiguity of this expression. One could simply state that the NC has been ‘visited’ whenever the phase point enters its basin of attraction. In practice, we have verified that this is too narrow a criterion to be utilized for a meaningful definition of  $T_F$ . Accordingly, we have preferred to compute the probability  $P(T)$  to visit the basin of attraction of either the NC or one of its neighbouring metastable states: in what follows we shall refer to this ensemble of attraction basins as ‘native valley’. The definition of  $T_F$  is, therefore, implicitly given by the constraint

$$P(T_F) = 0.5 \quad .$$

The metastable states have been identified by following the sequence of minima visited during unfolding-dynamics simulations. In fact, if the temperature  $T$  is neither too small nor too high, a generic trajectory explores the native valley jumping among all minima around the NC. As a result, we have observed that the number  $n_0$  of minima surrounding the NC is maximal for the sequence S1, while it reduces dramatically for S0 and S3 (see Table III for more details). This indicates

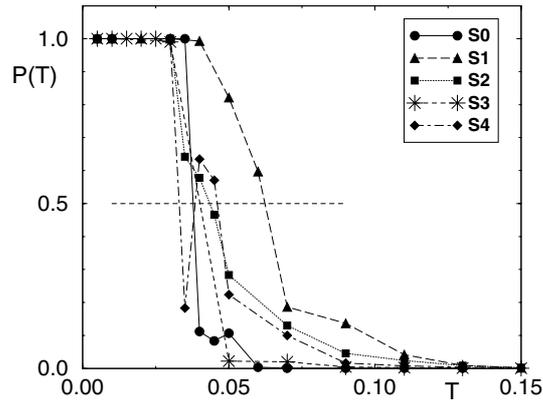


Figure 7. The probability  $P(T)$  versus the temperature  $T$  in lin-log scales. The measurements have been performed during US's of duration  $t = 250,000$ , where an overdamped relaxation scheme has been applied every  $\Delta t = 5$  to find the underlying local minimum.

that many different pathways can lead to the folded structure in the case of S1, S2 and S4, while a few paths exist for S0 and S3.

The probability  $P(T)$  to be in either the NC or one of its  $n_0$  neighbours has been measured at different temperatures for all the sequences. The data reported in Figure 7 reveals quite an abrupt decrease of  $P(T)$  for both S0 and S3, while a smoother behaviour has been found for the three other sequences. The corresponding folding temperatures are reported in Table III. The highest value is found for S1 ( $T_F = 0.065$ ), while the lowest for S0 ( $T_F = 0.036$ ). In the next section we will show that  $T_F$  coincides with the minimal temperature for which the NC is dynamically accessible within a 'realistic' lapse of time.

#### 4.3. ENERGY FUNNEL

The energy landscape associated to three of the five mentioned sequences has been investigated by examining the distribution of local minima obtained by performing US's at various temperatures. For each value of  $T$ , we have made a long simulation of duration  $t_f = 12500$ , applying the above described overdamped integration scheme every  $\Delta t = 0.05$  time units, to identify the inherent minima. As a result, we have been able to determine the number  $N_d(t, T)$  of distinct minima visited up to time  $t$  at temperature  $T$ . For each sequence, we have found that  $N_f = N_d(t_f, T)$  decreases noticeably with  $T$  (see Figure 8, where we have reported the results for the sequences S0, S1 and S2). This observation, analogous to what recently found for a  $\beta$ -heptapeptide in methanol solution (Daura et al., 1999), is quite obvious, since at low temperatures the trajectory remains trapped into local minima. In particular, we see that for the sequence S1, 6324 different minima have been identified at  $T = 0.09$  while only 6 distinct minima have been visited at  $T = 0.04$ .

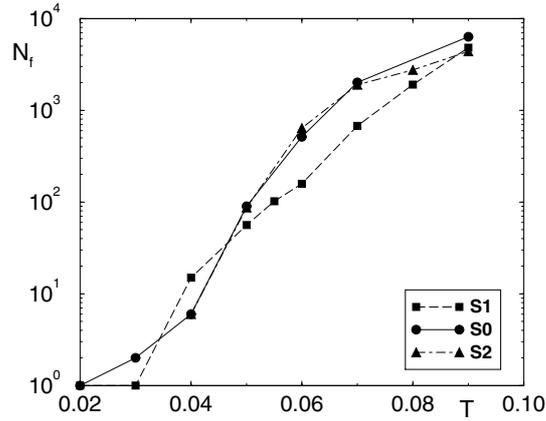


Figure 8. Number of distinct minima obtained during a US of duration  $t = 12,500$ , with an overdamped relaxation scheme applied every  $\Delta t = 0.05$  to locate the nearest inherent minima.

A detailed investigation would require considering the hidden dependence of  $N_d$  on the integration time  $t_f$ . The practical computer-time limitations obliged us to study one case only. In Figure 8 we observe that the sequence S1 is characterized by an almost exponential increase of  $N_f$  with temperature. This confirms that the native valley is well connected to many other valleys of the energy landscape for the S1 sequence, while much fewer connections are found for S2 and S0.

A further interesting quantity to study is the temporal growth of the number of distinct inherent minima visited. In Figure 9, we have reported  $N_d(t, T)$  at various temperatures for the sequences S1 and S0. It is evident that the heteropolymer, at low temperatures, is trapped in the native valley for the simulation duration, while for  $T > T_F$ , it starts visiting other valleys.

The nonuniform growth exhibited by  $N_d$  (see, for instance, the highest temperature simulations for S1) are suggestive of the existence of different valleys: as soon as some specific ‘passes’ are overcome, a new landscape appears making new valleys easily accessible.

In order to give a pictorial description of the energy landscape, we have decided to define the ‘free energy’

$$F(U) = -T \ln[Q(U, T)] \quad (14)$$

where  $Q(U, T)$  is the probability that, at temperature  $T$ , the heteropolymer is in one of the inherent minima whose energy lies within the interval  $[U, U + \delta U]$ . The results for S1 and S0 are reported in Figure 10, where  $Q(U, T)$  has been determined by fixing  $\delta U = 0.1$ . It is evident that at sufficiently low temperatures, the minimum of  $F(U)$  is located at the energy  $U = U_0$  of the NC, while at higher temperatures, the minimum shifts to larger values, indicating that the NC is no longer the favoured thermodynamical state. For the S1 sequence, this occurs for

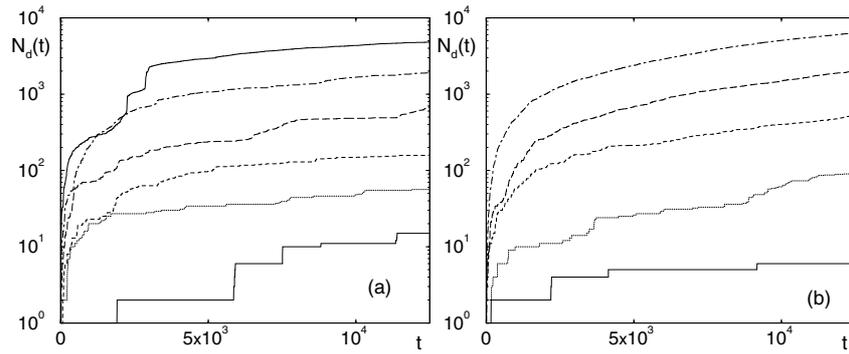


Figure 9. Number of distinct inherent minima  $N_d(t, T)$  visited during a US of duration  $t = 12500$ . Panel (a) contains the results for the S1 sequence: from bottom to top the temperatures are  $T = 0.04, 0.05, 0.06, 0.07, 0.08,$  and  $0.09$ ; panel (b) refers to the sequence S0: from bottom to top the temperatures are  $T = 0.04, 0.05, 0.06, 0.07,$  and  $0.09$ .

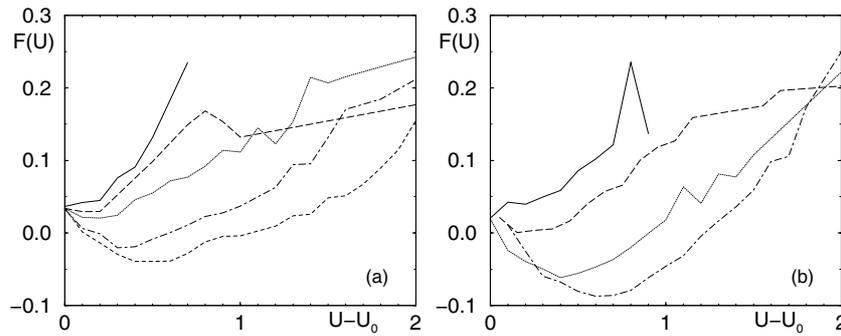


Figure 10. Free energy  $F(U)$  as a function of  $U - U_0$  (where  $U_0$  is the energy of the NC) for various temperatures. Panel (a) refers to the S1 sequence with temperatures  $T = 0.05, 0.06, 0.07, 0.08,$  and  $0.09$  from top to bottom; panel (b) refers to the S0 sequence with temperatures  $T = 0.05, 0.06, 0.07,$  and  $0.09$ , from top to bottom. The origin of the free energy axis is fixed arbitrarily.

$T > 0.07$ , while for S0, the NC is no longer favoured already for  $T = 0.05$ . These numbers are compatible with the previously estimated values of the folding temperature and suggest an alternative definition of  $T_F$  pointing more directly to the folding process as to a phase-transition (with all limitations due to the fact we are referring to finite systems).

## 5. Dynamics

In the previous sections we have adopted the widespread attitude of describing the folding process with concepts and tools borrowed from the language of equilibrium thermodynamics. This approach proves partially effective in singling out differences between good and bad folders, although the heuristic criteria proposed so far reveal some degree of ambiguity. However, the folding process can be viewed as a transient evolution towards a uniquely selected native state. In this perspective, a dynamical description of the folding process seems more appropriate than a purely thermodynamic one. First, by looking at the evolution, one can identify the accessible pathways towards the native configuration and thereby estimate the folding time. Furthermore, the relative length of the proteins makes the use of thermodynamical concepts rather questionable.

A proper observable to look at is the angular distance  $\delta(t)$ , defined in Section 3. In Figure 11(a), one can notice how, for  $T_G < T < T_F$ , the approach to the native valley ( $\delta \approx 0$ ) of S1 is characterized by a series of jumps that correspond to successive rearrangements of the chain configuration. This process can be better appreciated by looking at the snapshots taken in the various plateaus (the NC is reported for the sake of comparison). Notice that although the ‘asymptotic’ average value  $\delta_a$  of the distance is not numerically too small ( $\delta_a \simeq 0.3$ ), the dynamical configuration looks very similar to the NC (within a left-right symmetry transformation that in 2D has to be always considered). In other words  $\delta_a$  is quite sensitive an indicator.

In Figure 11(b) one can look at the evolution of the three components of the potential energy (see equations 2) for the same trajectory as in Figure 11(a). The harmonic component  $V_1$  is, as expected, completely insensitive to the various structure changes, while the angular energy  $V_2$  limits itself to displaying larger fluctuations in the asymptotic regime. The only interesting behaviour is exhibited by the long-range potential energy  $V_3$ , which closely reproduces the jumps of  $\delta(t)$  with the only exception of the first one.

The time needed for S1 to enter the native valley is typically on the order of  $\mathcal{O}(10^6 - 10^7)$  adimensional units. In physical units, this corresponds to  $\mathcal{O}(10^{-5})$  seconds, a much shorter time than that typically observed in real proteins\*. It seems reasonable to conjecture that the two-dimensional character of the space is the main responsible for the shortness of the time scale. Indeed, the more stringent geometrical constraints induce a faster folding in 2D than in 3D. Moreover, the

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\* A rough estimate of the ‘real’ time scale involved in the folding process described by our model can be derived from the period of small oscillations  $\tau_{LJ} \sim \sqrt{m\sigma^2/\varepsilon}$  in the Lennard-Jones potential, where  $m$  is the typical mass of an aminoacid,  $\varepsilon$  is the depth of the potential well and  $\sigma$  is the equilibrium distance. In our model,  $m = 1$ ,  $\sigma \sim 1$  and  $\varepsilon = 1$ , while for an aminoacid  $m \sim 1 - 3 \cdot 10^{-22}$  g., the equilibrium distance is  $7 - 9 \cdot 10^{-8}$  cm. and the energy of a hydrophobic interaction is  $\sim 1 - 2 \cdot 10^{-13}$  erg. Therefore,  $\tau_{LJ} \sim 4 - 6 \cdot 10^{-12}$  sec., so that the folding time-scale for the sequence S1 is  $\mathcal{O}(10^{-5})$  secs.

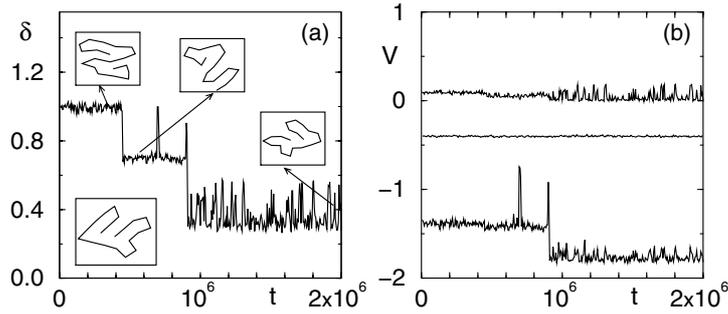


Figure 11. A typical FS for the sequence S1 at  $T = 0.06$ . (a) The distance  $\delta$  with respect to the NC is plotted versus time. The three upper insets contain snapshots of the configuration in each of the three plateaus (the NC is reported in the lower-left inset for comparison). The three component of the potential energy  $V_2$ ,  $V_1$ , and  $V_3$  are reported in panel (b) (from top to bottom) for the same FS. The potential energies are arbitrarily shifted along the vertical axis.

relatively small chain length ( $L = 20$ ) contributes to fastening the folding process, as well.

Nonetheless, it is instructive to point out that the average time scale of the folding process is already six orders of magnitude larger than the typical scales of equilibrium vibrations: this testifies to the meaningfulness of the model itself that is likely to be strengthened by extending it to 3D.

The behaviour of the other sequences exhibit both differences and analogies. In order to observe a convincing convergence to the NC, one has to consider smaller temperatures. From a biological point of view, the energy scale is very important, as a meaningful protein has to fold in a specific temperature range. On the other hand, as the energy scale is somehow arbitrary in our model, one would like to understand whether the difference between the various sequences reduces to fixing the temperatures at which specific phenomena are observed.

The data reported in Figures 12 and 13 refer to S0 and S3, respectively. The evolution of  $\delta$  and  $U$  for  $T = 0.04$  is qualitatively similar to that exhibited by S1 at temperature  $T = 0.06$ . Nevertheless, there is an important difference that may have relevant biological implications: the fluctuations of  $\delta$  (and, similarly, of the total energy  $U$ ) within what appears to be the native valley are larger for S0 and S3 than for S1 (the standard deviation is approximately equal to 0.14, 0.12, and 0.08, in the three cases), even though the temperature is comparably smaller than in the latter case. This points to a more clear configurational stability of the folded state of S1.

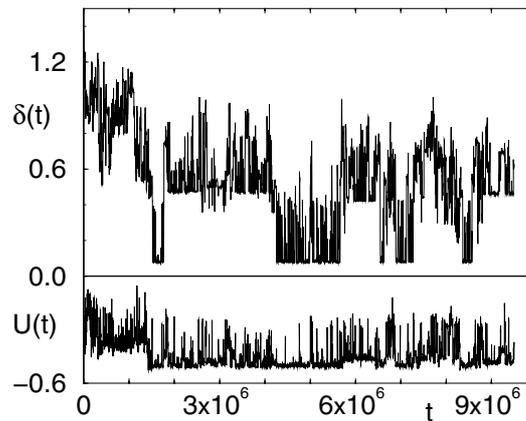


Figure 12. A typical FS for the sequence S0 at  $T = 0.04$ . The distance  $\delta$  with respect to the NC and the potential energy  $U$  are plotted versus time. The potential energy  $U$  is arbitrarily shifted along the vertical axis.

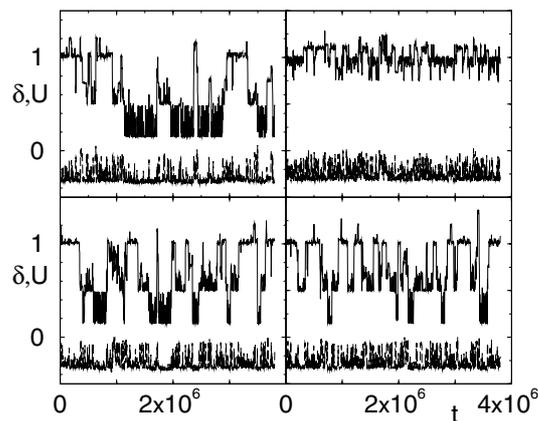


Figure 13. Four samples of FSs for the sequence S3 at  $T = 0.04$ . The distance  $\delta$  with respect to the NC (upper curves) and the overall potential energy  $U$  (lower curves) are plotted versus time. The potential energy  $U$  is arbitrarily shifted along the vertical axis.

## 6. Concluding Remarks

Five different sequences of a 2d toy-model of aminoacid chains have been studied in detail. Time averages of thermodynamical indicators have been analyzed in order to check their consistency in discriminating between one specimen of ‘good folder’ (S1) and a set of four very different sequences. These equilibrium simulations yield controversial conclusions: the various indicators often attribute

different rankings to the various sequences (in one case, S1 is even located among the worst candidates for a ‘good folder’).

A clear identification of S1 as a ‘good folder’ is provided by the foldability factor  $Q$  and by the Camacho, Klimov and Thirumalai criterion applied to  $\sigma^*$ . The Shakhovich criterion too points in this direction, as S1 exhibits the largest energy gap  $V_{gap}$ .

In summary, applying a ‘majority rule’ we are led to conclude that S1 is actually a ‘good folder’. Nonetheless, it would be definitely better to rely upon less ambiguous criteria for achieving such a conclusion. The direct inspection of the dynamics of the sequences provides a more clear scenario. Simulations performed at temperatures close to  $T_F$ , reveal that an initial ‘coil’ state evolves towards its native configuration entering the energy funnel by a sequence of configurational jumps. In order to obtain a similar scenario for the other sequences, the temperature has to be significantly lowered and this is not sufficient, since the relative fluctuations within the native valley are comparably larger.

The analysis of the structure of the energy landscape provides complementary indications that are consistent with the dynamical description. In particular, the ‘free-energy’  $F(U)$  defined in equation 14 shows that the NC is a minimum of  $F(U)$  only below a temperature close to  $T_F$ . Above  $T_F$ , the minimum shifts away, suggesting that the stable thermodynamical state differs from NC. Moreover we have discovered that in S1 the ten inherent minima of lowest energy are dynamically connected to the NC (i.e. all of them belong to the native valley), while in S0 and S3 only a few are directly connected to the corresponding NC’s. This indicates that the gap height, although certainly important, does not provide a full account of the relevant folding properties. Preliminary investigations (Tiberio, 2000) suggest that such information must be complemented with the ‘connectivity’ between the NC and the other low-energy minima and with the height and ‘shape’ of the barriers separating the NC from the inherent minima.

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