Measurability of side chain rotational isomer populations: NMR and molecular mechanics of cobalt glycyl-leucine dipeptide model system

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The cobalt glycyl-leucine dipeptide is a model system for studying the effects of Karplus equation calibration, molecular mechanics accuracy, backbone conformation, and thermal motions on the measurability of side chain rotational isomer populations. We analyze measurements of 8 vicinal coupling constants about the α to β-carbon and β to γ-carbon bonds of the leucine side chain and of 10 NOESY cross relaxation rates across these bonds. Molecular mechanics and peptide and protein crystallographic databases are an essential part of this analysis because they independently suggest that the trans gauche− and gauche+ trans rotational isomers of the leucine side chain predominate. They also both suggest that puckering of the cobalt dipeptide ring system reduces the gauche+ gauche− rotational isomer population to less than about 10%. At the present ±1 Hz calibration accuracy of Karplus equations for vicinal coupling constants, the predominant trans gauche+ and gauche− trans rotational isomer populations can be measured with about 5% accuracy, but the population of the gauche+ gauche− rotational isomer is probably very near or just below the limit of measurability. These estimates also depend upon qualitative assessments of the accuracy of the molecular mechanics energy wells. We introduce gel graphics that are ideally suited to presenting qualitative error and measurability estimates.

I. INTRODUCTION

Comparisons of NMR structures with X-ray structures show that vicinal coupling constants accurately measure the backbone torsion angles of proteins [1, 2, 3]. In the best X-ray structures multiple conformations of a particular side chain can be confidently identified [4, 5, 6, 7, 8], but population estimates may not be very accurate. The populations of the three χ1 rotational isomers of protein side chains can be determined from vicinal coupling constants if the rotational isomers are assumed to have ideal staggered conformations [9, 10]. If the side chain rotational isomers are not assumed to have ideal conformations and the amplitudes of the torsion angle fluctuations of each rotational isomer are also unknown, then in general it is only possible to measure rotational isomer populations as statistical averages over many side chains [11]. Even with a very complete set of vicinal coupling constants and NOESY cross relaxation rates it is difficult to measure the populations of more than two rotational isomers of a single side chain [12]. Protein NMR and crystallographic data available now or in the foreseeable future simply do not have the resolution to measure the populations of all possible side chain rotational isomers at anywhere near the 1% level of accuracy.

Understanding protein properties such as fluorescence intensity decay spectra [13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18], hydrogen ion association constants [19, 20, 21], or global stability [22, 23] often requires that an NMR or X-ray structure be supplemented with molecular mechanics structure calculations of the conformations of a particular side chain. An ideal structure determination method would incorporate these supplemental molecular mechanics calculations and simultaneously fit NMR or crystallographic data. The consistency of the data and the incorporated molecular mechanics could be judged by existing methods [24, 25] for assessing when a model over-fits the data. In the case of measuring side chain rotational isomer populations it might be possible to measure the population of one or two prominent rotational isomers and assess the measurability of other molecular mechanically plausible rotational isomers. In this work we take a simple first step in this direction with an analysis of the cobalt glycyl-leucine dipeptide model system. This model system has the advantages that the vicinal coupling constants and NOESY cross relaxation rates can be accurately measured on samples with natural isotope abundance and that the cobalt dipeptide ring system restrains the dipeptide backbone in a single conformation.

The two background sections give essential information about the conformational analysis of leucine side chain rotamers and about the accuracy of the Karplus equation coefficients. The experimental section gives the vicinal coupling constant and NOESY cross relaxation rate data...
for the cobalt glycy-leucine dipeptide. Simple two and three rotational isomer models suggested by conformational analysis are compared and fit to some of this data. The computational results and discussion section examines the molecular mechanics energy map, the effect of intramolecular thermal motions on calculated NMR coupling constants and cross relaxation rates, and the Monte Carlo probability density functions of the rotational isomer populations. For the simple cobalt dipeptide model system these probability density functions confirm the preliminary analysis in the experimental section and additionally suggest that the populations of the remaining rotational isomers are unmeasurable at present. Our analysis shows that while the NMR data is not fit too well by the simplest models neither does this data give any guidance in selecting among the multitude of models with improved fits.

II. BACKGROUND

A. Leucine side chain conformational analysis

The leucine side chains of crystallographic oligopeptide and protein structures strongly prefer the trans gauche\textsuperscript{+} and gauche\textsuperscript{−} trans rotational isomers [24, 27]. Conformational analysis predicts the backbone-dependent stability of protein side chain conformations and explains the rotamer preferences observed in high resolution crystallographic structures of proteins [28, 29]. This analysis is equally applicable to the leucine side chain of the cobalt glycy-leucine dipeptide and leads to the same conclusions found for leucine side chains in proteins. In either case the predominant rotational isomers of the leucine side chain are trans gauche\textsuperscript{+} and gauche\textsuperscript{−} trans. The butane and syn-pentane effects are known from the conformational analysis of the simple hydrocarbons n-butane and n-pentane. The syn-pentane conformations, which are gauche\textsuperscript{+} gauche\textsuperscript{−} or gauche\textsuperscript{−} gauche\textsuperscript{+}, are about 3.3 kcal/mol higher in energy than the extended trans trans conformation. A molecular conformation is said to be destabilized by the syn-pentane effect when one (or more) five atom fragments of the molecule are in syn-pentane like conformations. The conformational analysis of a peptide or protein identifies unfavorable side chain conformations primarily by searching for syn-pentane effects among all possible n-pentane fragments with the C\textsubscript{α}–C\textsubscript{β} bond in the second or third fragment position. When the C\textsubscript{α}–C\textsubscript{β} and C\textsubscript{β}–C\textsubscript{γ} bonds are in the second and third fragment positions, the analysis gives backbone-independent rotamer preferences because the fragment conformation does not depend on the backbone \( \phi \) and \( \psi \) angles. When the backbone N–C\textsubscript{α} or C\textsubscript{α}–C\textsubscript{β} bond is in the second and the C\textsubscript{α}–C\textsubscript{β} bond is in the third fragment position, the analysis gives backbone-independent rotamer preferences. For a leucine residue there are eight pentane fragments to consider: four backbone-independent fragments of the pattern \((N,C^\prime)–C^\alpha–C^\beta–C^\gamma–(C^{\beta\prime},C^\alpha)\), and four backbone-dependent fragments of the patterns \((C_{i-1},O^-)--HN_i)–N_i–C^\beta–C^\gamma–(C_i–C^\beta–C^\gamma–(C^{\beta\prime},C^\alpha))\), where leucine is the \( i \)th residue and O--\( \text{HN}_i \) is an assumed hydrogen bond acceptor of HN\textsubscript{i}. A very clear Newman projection diagram of these eight fragments is shown in Fig. 2 of Ref. [28]. Of the nine possible leucine rotamers only two, trans guaichi\textsuperscript{+} and gauche\textsuperscript{−} trans, have no backbone-independent syn-pentane interactions, six have one interaction, and one, gauche\textsuperscript{+} gauche\textsuperscript{−}, has two such interactions. Because the identical backbone-independent fragments are present in the cobalt dipeptide and proteins, the backbone-independent conformational analysis for proteins applies equally to the cobalt dipeptide.

The conformational analysis of backbone-dependent rotamer preferences is important because the cobalt dipeptide backbone forms two approximately planar chelate rings with \( \phi \) and \( \psi \) angles differ somewhat from the angles most commonly found in protein structures. To apply backbone-dependent conformational analysis to the leucine side chain of the cobalt dipeptide (Fig. I) simply note that leucine is the second residue and substitute the atom names Co, O\textsuperscript{1}, and O\textsuperscript{2} for the names O--\( \text{HN}_i \), O\textsubscript{i}, and N\textsubscript{i+1} in the above five atom fragments, where O\textsuperscript{1} is the terminal carboxyl oxygen bonded to cobalt and O\textsuperscript{2} is the uncomplexed carboxyl oxygen. (The reverse substitution of O\textsuperscript{1} and O\textsuperscript{2} inconveniently generates the dipeptide from a protein with a very unlikely backbone conformation that has colliding amide groups.) With this identification the leucine backbone torsion angles \( \phi_2 \) and \( \psi_2 \) are both near 180 degrees. If \( \phi_2 = -174.74 \) degrees and leucine \( \chi_1 \) is gauche\textsuperscript{−}, there is a syn-pentane interaction between the glycine carbonyl carbon and the leucine \( C^\gamma \) (Fig. I middle). If \( \psi_2 = 174.74 \) degrees and leucine \( \chi_1 \) is trans, there is a syn-pentane interaction between the uncomplexed terminal oxygen and the leucine \( C^\gamma \) (Fig. I top). Because \( \phi_2 \) and \( \psi_2 \) of the cobalt dipeptide are both near these critical angles, syn-pentane effects could destabilize both of the leucine side chain trans gauche\textsuperscript{−} and gauche\textsuperscript{−} trans rotamers, which are observed in most crystallographic structures and preferred by the backbone-independent conformational analysis.

Crystallographic studies of copper and cobalt dipeptides and the vicinal coupling constants about both N–C\textsubscript{α} bonds of the cobalt glycy-leucine dipeptide suggest that the \( \phi_2 \) and \( \psi_2 \) torsion angles of the cobalt glycy-leucine dipeptide depart from 180 degrees by as much as 10 or 20 degrees. In the crystallographic structures of cobalt glycy-glutamic acid dipeptides [30] and copper dipeptides [31] the chelate ring conformations vary over a wide range. The peptide backbone atoms are typically displaced by up to 0.1 or 0.2 angstrom from the mean plane of the chelate rings and the angles between 3-atom segments of the chelate rings are typically 5 or 10 or perhaps as large as 20 degrees. Both these measures of chelate ring puckering imply backbone torsion angles of 180±10 degrees with maximum deviations from 180 degrees of no more than about 20 degrees. The variability of the chelate
ring conformations is thought to arise from intermolecular contacts within the crystal. Even if a crystallographic structure of the cobalt dipeptide were available, no reliable predictions about the solution conformation of the chelate rings could be made because the conformational distortions caused by intermolecular contacts are not well understood. In various DMSO plus D$_2$O mixtures measurements of the four H–N–C=O–H vicinal coupling constants about the glycine N–C=O bond of the cobalt glycyglycine and dipeptide show a rotation about this bond of −10 to −20 degrees. This rotation angle is relative to an eclipsed substituent atom geometry about the N–C=O bond and implies a puckered amino-peptidato chelate ring. Though this puckering gives no direct information about the backbone-dependent rotamer library for straight side chains [28], which does not include leucine, the gauche$^+$ and trans$^1$ side chain rotamers change fairly dramatically for both 30 and 20 degree backbone angle increments within the backbone-dependent rotamer libraries of Dunbrack and Karplus [28, 29]. The rotamer libraries seem to show that backbone-independent interactions are slightly more important than backbone-dependent interactions. In the backbone-dependent rotamer library for straight side chains [28], which does not include leucine, the gauche$^-$, gauche$^+$, and trans$^1$ side chain rotamers appear with a combined frequency of 20 to 30% in the two 30 by 30 degree square cells adjacent to the point $\phi, \psi = 180$ degrees, even though backbone-dependent syn-pentane interactions favor gauche$^+$ $\chi^1$ rotamers. A similar trend seems to hold throughout the backbone-dependent rotamer library, $\chi^1$ rotamers excluded by syn-pentane interactions appear with diminished probability rather than being completely excluded. In contrast, the backbone-independent syn-pentane interactions of the leucine side chain exclude the gauche$^+$ $\chi^1$ rotamer with striking completeness. In crystallographic structures on which the rotamer library is based less than 2% of the leucines are gauche$^+$ $\chi^1$ rotamers. The exclusion of leucine gauche$^+$ $\chi^1$ rotamers as well as gauche$^-$ $\chi^2$ rotamers seems to hold over all known classes of protein backbone structures [27]. The crystallographic and NMR evidence cited in the last paragraph suggests that the $\phi_2$ and $\psi_2$ torsion angles of the cobalt dipeptide both depart from 180 degrees by as much as 10 or 20 degrees. This is more than enough to relieve the backbone-dependent syn-pentane interactions with the leucine C$\gamma$ and diminish the backbone-dependent preference for gauche$^+$ $\chi^1$ rotamers of the leucine side chain.

Simple inspection of backbone-dependent rotamer libraries suggests that a 20 degree departure from the backbone torsion angles of planar chelate rings can diminish or even eliminate the gauche$^-$ $\chi^1$ rotamer preference of the leucine side chain. The proportions of gauche$^-$, gauche$^+$, and trans $\chi^1$ side chain rotamers change fairly dramatically for both 30 and 20 degree backbone angle increments within the backbone-dependent rotamer libraries of Dunbrack and Karplus [28, 29]. The rotamer libraries seem to show that backbone-independent interactions are slightly more important than backbone-dependent interactions. In the backbone-dependent rotamer library for straight side chains [28], which does not include leucine, the gauche$^-$ and trans $\chi^1$ rotamers change fairly dramatically for both 30 and 20 degree backbone angle increments within the backbone-dependent rotamer libraries of Dunbrack and Karplus [28, 29]. The rotamer libraries seem to show that backbone-independent interactions are slightly more important than backbone-dependent interactions. In the backbone-dependent rotamer library for straight side chains [28], which does not include leucine, the gauche$^-$ and trans $\chi^1$ rotamers change fairly dramatically for both 30 and 20 degree backbone angle increments within the backbone-dependent rotamer libraries of Dunbrack and Karplus [28, 29]. The rotamer libraries seem to show that backbone-independent interactions are slightly more important than backbone-dependent interactions. In the backbone-dependent rotamer library for straight side chains [28], which does not include leucine, the gauche$^-$ and trans $\chi^1$ rotamers change fairly dramatically for both 30 and 20 degree backbone angle increments within the backbone-dependent rotamer libraries of Dunbrack and Karplus [28, 29]. The rotamer libraries seem to show that backbone-independent interactions are slightly more important than backbone-dependent interactions.
B. Accuracy of Karplus equation calibration

Theoretical calculations show that the H–C–C′–H′ vicinal proton coupling constant depends on the torsion angle \( \phi(H,C,C',H') \) around the C–C′ bond, the electronegativity and orientation of substituent groups on the C and C′ atoms, the bond angles \( \theta(H,C,C') \) and \( \theta(C,C',H') \), and the length of the C–C′ bond. The same symbol \( \phi \) serves here for the torsion angle between the vicinally coupled spins and elsewhere for the protein backbone torsion angle, but the meaning should always be clear from the context. The theoretical dependence of the coupling constant on the torsion angle is approximated by a Karplus equation, which is often written in the form

\[
^3J(\phi) = A \cos^2 \phi - B \cos \phi + C,
\]

where \( \phi \) is the torsion angle around the C–C′ bond. For peptide side chain vicinal coupling constants the torsion angle \( \phi \) is equal to the side chain torsion angle to within a phase shift that is approximately an integer multiple of 120 degrees. The Karplus equation for a H–C–C′–C″ heteronuclear vicinal coupling constant also has the same form, where the torsion angle is now \( \phi(H,C,C',C'') \) around the same C–C′ bond. The accuracy of theoretical coupling constant calculations or of the Karplus equation fit to such calculations is at best around \( \pm 1 \) Hz. A more accurate Karplus equation is obtained by adjusting the coefficients to fit experimental coupling constant data. The greatest improvement occurs when the Karplus equation coefficients are calibrated for a four atom fragment with specific functional groups substituted in a specific orientation on the central two atoms. For example, the error in the coupling constants predicted by the Karplus equation calibrated for the protein H–N–C\(^\alpha\)–C\(^\beta\) heteronuclear coupling constant is \( \pm 0.25 \) Hz, as estimated by the RMS difference between the Karplus curve and the fit experimental data. If a Karplus equation that is calibrated for a four atom fragment with specific substituent groups is applied to the same four atom fragment with different substituent group chemistry or orientation, then the errors in the predicted coupling constants are dramatically increased. Similar large errors in the predicted coupling constants result if the Karplus equation is fit to a collection of experimental coupling constants that are all measured for the same fixed four atom fragment, but with a variety of functional groups substituted in a variety of orientations on the two central atoms. For one data set over 300 experimental measurements of the H–C–C′–H′ coupling constant in about 100 conformationally rigid compounds, which are largely 6-membered rings with holding groups, the RMS difference between the fit Karplus curve and experimental data is 1.2 Hz. In this data set carbon and oxygen are the most frequent substituent atoms bonded to the central two carbon atoms of the H–C–C′–H′ fragment, while nitrogen, sulfur, halogen, silicon, and selenium substituent atoms occur in smaller numbers. These two examples span the accuracy range of most calibrated Karplus equations, that is, errors in predicted coupling constants are in the range \( \pm 0.25 \) to \( \pm 1 \) Hz. For a specific substituent group chemistry and orientation the error may be around \( \pm 0.5 \) Hz or even as low as \( \pm 0.25 \) Hz in favorable cases. For small to moderate variations in substituent group chemistry or orientation the error probably is in the range \( \pm 0.5 \) Hz to \( \pm 1 \) Hz.

Studies of the vicinal coupling constants of peptides and closely related compounds suggest that the above generalizations about the accuracy of calibrated Karplus equations apply to the vicinal coupling constants about the C\(^\alpha\)–C\(^\beta\) and C\(^\beta\)–C\(^\gamma\) bonds of the cobalt dipeptide leucine side chain. Simple information about the effect of substituent group chemistry comes from alanine and its analogues, which have a single H–C\(^\alpha\)–C\(^\beta\)–H coupling constant because of the three-fold symmetry of the methyl side chain. The experimental H–C–C–H coupling constant of ethane is 8.0 Hz, the H–C\(^\alpha\)–C\(^\beta\)–H coupling constant of the alanine dipeptide is 7.3 Hz, and the H–C\(^\alpha\)–C\(^\beta\)–H coupling constant of the amino acid alanine remains almost exactly 7.3 Hz over the pH range of 0.5 to 12.5. Replacing two protons on one ethane carbon atom with one carbon and one nitrogen substituent group drops the coupling constant by 0.7 Hz; changing the nitrogen substituent group electronegativities through the range ammonium > acetamide > amide and changing the carbon substituent group through the range carboxyl > N-methylamide > carboxylate does not change the coupling constant at all. But there are many counter examples to this seeming insensitivity to substituent group chemistry. The H–C–C–H coupling constant of propane is 7.3 Hz and of isopropylamine is 6.3 Hz. Replacing one ethane proton with one carbon substituent group already drops the coupling constant to the value observed for alanine, which has an additional nitrogen substituent group, and replacing a second proton on the same carbon atom with a nitrogen substituent group, making the substituted carbon equivalent to the alanine \( \alpha \)-carbon, drops the coupling constant by an additional 1.0 Hz. The H–C\(^\gamma\)–C\(^\beta\)–H coupling constants of various alanine dipeptide derivatives are in the range 6.9 to 7.3 Hz, which shows that even substituent group changes one peptide bond removed from the \( \alpha \)-carbon can change the coupling constant about the C\(^\alpha\)–C\(^\beta\) bond by at least 0.4 Hz.

The \( \beta \)-carbon atoms of all the other amino acids lack the three-fold symmetry of the alanine \( \beta \)-carbon. The above examples of alanine methyl proton coupling across the C\(^\alpha\)–C\(^\beta\) bond probably underestimate the coupling constant variation due to \( \alpha \)-carbon substituent group chemistry and totally ignore the effect of \( \beta \)-carbon substitution. For leucine two H–C\(^\alpha\)–C\(^\beta\)–H coupling constants between the \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \)-protons and four heteronuclear coupling constants between the amide nitrogen and carbonyl carbon and \( \beta \)-protons are usually measurable. The simplest models for these vicinal coupling constants about the C\(^\alpha\)–C\(^\beta\) bond assume ideal gauche or trans torsion angles between the coupled spins and have four parameters: the populations of two of the three \( \chi^1 \) rotational isomers.
and the gauche and trans coupling constants. The heteronuclear N–Cα–Cβ–H trans coupling constant of the leucine cation apparently decreases by 0.6 Hz when the cation is converted into the anion [38]. The effect of α-carbon substituent chemistry on the coupling constants about the Cα–Cβ bond is also seen in the 1-substituted derivatives of 3,3-dimethylbutane, which are analogues of the amino acid leucine with the α-carbon and side chain intact and with various replacements for the amine and carboxylate groups. Both the gauche and trans coupling constants of these analogues vary over the range of 0.7 Hz [39]. Furthermore, this same study found a 1 Hz difference in the average gauche coupling constant depending on whether the 1-substituent was gauche or trans to the coupled proton on the second carbon. This suggests that two separate Karplus equations are required for the two β-protons of leucine. Substituent orientation effects require two different Karplus equations for predicting the β-proton coupling constants of proline [40]. In a similar way the electronegativity corrections to the JHα,Hδ(φ) Karplus equation for leucine probably depend on the orientation of the substituent groups with respect to both the Hα and Hδ protons [41].

The existing calibrations of the Karplus equations for vicinal coupling about the Cα–Cβ bond suffer from several sources of error. Most assume that for each α-carbon bonded atom one Karplus equation predicts the coupling of this atom to both β-protons. The calibrations are done with sets of model compounds that have normal or sometimes rather far from normal peptide backbone chemistries and that have a range of standard and nonstandard amino acid side chains. Errors arise because the set of model compounds is too varied or because none of the model compounds closely match the molecule of interest, whether it be a protein or as in this study the cobalt dipeptide. Model compounds such as 2,3-substituted bicyclo[2.2.2]octanes [36, 42], gallichrome [43], α-amide-γ-butylrolactones [44] differ from standard proteins in both backbone and side chain structure. The match to the molecule of interest may depend on a choice of coupling constants about several different bonds of the model compound. Because the gallichrome backbone and ornithyl side chains out to the β-carbon have essentially the same structure as standard proteins, the Cα–Cβ bonds of gallichrome are fairly well matched to the Cα–Cβ bonds of proteins. The substituent groups on the β and γ-carbons are obviously quite different from those on the α-carbon and coupling about the Cβ–Cγ and Cγ–Cδ bonds is somewhat different from that about the Cα–Cβ bond. If coupling constants about all three bonds are chosen to calibrate the Karplus equation for coupling about the Cα–Cβ bond, then the gallichrome model compound is not a very good match to proteins. Model compounds such as cyclo(triprol) peptide [36], an asparaginamide dipeptide, oxytocin cystine-1 and 6, alumicrocin [44], match the backbone of standard proteins, but the side chains may differ from a specific amino acid side chain of interest.

The residuals between the Karplus curve and the calibration data set are perhaps the best available indication of the accuracy of a Karplus equation calibration. However, these residuals generally underestimate the errors that occur when the Karplus equation is then applied to predict the vicinal coupling constants of a particular side chain of interest. Fischman et al. calibrate the Jα-Hα-Hδ(φ) Karplus equation by fitting the three Karplus coefficients to 4 coupling constants measured on two bicyclo-octanes [38]. For this fit the RMS residual per degree of freedom is 0.13 Hz. Due to the small calibration data set this tiny observed residual is a completely unreliable estimate of the true residual. Kopple et al. calibrate the JHα,Hδ(φ) Karplus equation by fitting to 10 coupling constants measured on seven model compounds [36]. For this fit the RMS residual per degree of freedom is 0.47 Hz. The data set is just large enough to give a reliable residual estimate, but as discussed in the previous paragraph the model compounds may not be a very good match to proteins. DeMarco et al. calibrate the JHα,Hδ(φ) Karplus equation by fitting 30 coupling constants measured about the Cα–Cβ, Cβ–Cγ and Cγ–Cδ bonds of the ornithyl side chains of gallichrome [43]. For this fit the RMS residual per degree of freedom is 0.92 Hz. This fairly large residual is apparently the result of fitting the coupling constants about all three side chain bonds. The errors in this calibration may be even larger than ±1 Hz because fitting the coupling constants about all three side chain bonds makes the gallichrome model compound a poor match to the Cα–Cβ bond of proteins and may add additional bias error to that suggested by the residuals. Cung and Marraud calibrate the JHα,Hδ(φ) Karplus equation by fitting the three Karplus coefficients and eight angle parameters to 16 coupling constants measured on five model compounds [44]. For this fit the RMS residual per degree of freedom is 0.49 Hz. Note Cung and Marraud arrive at a standard deviation of half this value by computing a straight RMS average of the 16 residuals rather than by averaging over the 5 degrees of freedom actually present. Though the five model compounds used for this calibration are well matched to the Cα–Cβ bond of proteins, the errors of this calibration are likely to be substantially larger than suggested by the residuals because the model compound torsion angles are not estimated from crystallographic structures or by molecular mechanics calculations.

Considering the wide variety of model compounds, the single calibration for both β-protons, the observed residuals, and uncertainties in the model compound structures, it seems extremely unlikely that the errors in the calibration of the Karplus equations for vicinal coupling about the Cα–Cβ and Cβ–Cγ bonds are significantly less than ±1 Hz, whether the molecule of interest is a standard protein or peptide or as here the glycyl-leucine dipeptide complexed to cobalt.
TABLE I: Proton assignments. Shifts are in ppm. The atom H^o and atoms H^31 and H^32 are pro-R and the atom H^δ1 and atoms H^δ2 are pro-S.

| H^o  | 4.1710 | H^1 | 1.6582 |
|------|--------|-----|--------|
| H^31 | 1.8125 | H^δ1| 0.8700 |
| H^δ2 | 1.5440 | H^δ2| 0.8200 |

III. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The proton assignments in Table I are model dependent. These assignments depend on our assumption that the population of the leucine side chain rotational isomers with a gauche^+ χ^1 torsion angle is small compared to the population of rotational isomers with gauche^- and trans χ^3 torsion angles. Without this assumption an unambiguous assignment is not possible. The conventional approach to assigning the β-protons examines the vicinal coupling constants about the C^α–C^β bond and exploits the fact that a weak coupling is expected for synclinal spins and a strong coupling for antiperiplanar spins.

When the leucine side chain χ^1 torsion is gauche^- the atoms H^o and H^31 are antiperiplanar and the atoms H^δ1 and H^δ2 are synclinal and when χ^1 is trans these angular magnitudes are reversed, that is H^31 is synclinal and H^δ2 is antiperiplanar [15]. Thus the 3J_H^o,H^β coupling constant does not help with H^31 assignment, but is very helpful in determining the ratio of gauche^- to trans populations once this assignment is known. The alternating synclinal antiperiplanar geometries of the gauche^- and trans rotational isomers produces a conjugate 3J_H^o,H^β coupling pattern that is diagnostic of the absence of gauche^- χ^1 rotational isomers. The average of the two 3J_H^o,H^β couplings is independent of the rotational isomer populations and the coupling ratio (J_H^o,H^β,J_sc)/(J_H^o,H^β,J_sc) is equal to the gauche^- over trans population ratio. For ideal geometries the Karplus equation predicts that the synclinal coupling J_sc = A/4 + B/2 + C and that the average coupling is 5A/8 + B/4 + C. A very similar situation occurs with the 3J_H^o,H^δ coupling constant. Leucine side chain rotational isomers with a gauche^- χ^2 torsion angle are virtually excluded by backbone-independent synpentane interactions [25]. When the χ^2 torsion angle is gauche^- the atoms H^31 and H^1 are antiperiplanar and the atoms H^δ2 and H^7 are synclinal and when χ^2 is trans these angular magnitudes are reversed. This coupling is again helpful with populations but not assignments and the same conjugate coupling pattern is now diagnostic of the absence of gauche^- χ^2 rotational isomers. As noted in the introduction the χ^1 and χ^2 torsion angles are highly correlated. With only the trans gauche^- and gauche^- trans isomers populated trans χ^1 implies gauche^- χ^2 and gauche^- χ^1 implies trans χ^2. This correlation produces a doubly conjugate 3J_H^o,H^β and 3J_H^δ,H^γ correlation pattern. When the trans gauche^- rotational isomer predominates the β1-proton couples weakly to the α-proton and strongly to the γ-proton and the β2-proton couples strongly to the α-proton and weakly to the γ-proton. When the gauche^- trans isomer predominates these coupling strengths are all reversed. If either one of these leucine side chain rotational isomers predominates then the β-proton assignment can be made by inspection of the 3J_C^α,H^δ heteronuclear coupling constants [45] because the leucine carboxyl carbon and both β-protons are synclinal when the leucine side chain χ^1 torsion is gauche^- and only the carboxyl carbon and β2-proton are synclinal when χ^1 is trans.

The experimental 3J_H^o,H^β and 3J_H^δ,H^γ vicinal coupling constants (Table II) show the doubly conjugate pattern expected for leucine side chains, that is strong – weak and weak – strong. The approximately 3 Hz difference between the weak and strong couplings indicates that both the trans gauche^- and gauche^- trans leucine side chain isomers are significantly populated and that the β-proton assignment is best determined by comparing the goodness-of-fit of the two alternative assignments. For the preliminary β-proton assignment in this section it is adequate to fit only the 3J_H^o,H^β and 3J_C^α,H^δ coupling constants. The resulting two rotational isomer model, see methods, does not have any dependence on the χ^2 torsion angle; nevertheless, throughout this paragraph we maintain the assumption of highly correlated χ^1 and χ^2 torsion angles and continue to refer to these two rotational isomers as trans gauche^- and gauche^- trans. The goodness-of-fit of the simple two rotational isomer model is 2 × 10^{-2} for the β-proton assignment in Table II and 2 × 10^{-3} for the alternative assignment. The bet-
ter fit gives population estimates of 39% trans gauche$^+$ and 61% gauche$^-$ trans with an uncertainty of ±9%. These population estimates fall in the gray area between predominantly gauche$^-$ trans and approximately equal mixture of both conformations. On either side of this gray area the assignment made by inspection agrees with that obtained by fitting the experimental $^3J_{\text{H}^\beta \text{H}_3}$ and $^3J_{C^\gamma \text{H}_3}$ coupling constants. Suppose gauche$^-$ trans predominates. Then the $\chi^3$ torsion angle is gauche$^-$, $\beta^+$ and $\text{H}^\beta$ are antiplanar, the carboxyl carbon and both $\beta$-protons are synclinal, and the assignment in Table II is correct because the $^3J_{\text{H}^\beta \text{H}_3}$ coupling is stronger than the $^3J_{\text{H}_3 \text{H}_2}$ coupling and both $^3J_{C^\gamma \text{H}_3}$ couplings are fairly weak. On the other hand suppose the two conformations are approximately equally mixed. Then the carboxyl carbon and the $\chi^3$-proton are synclinal in one conformation and antiplanar in the other, but the carboxyl carbon and the $\beta^2$-proton are synclinal in both conformations, and the assignment in Table II is again correct because the $^3J_{C^\gamma \text{H}_3}$ coupling is stronger than the $^3J_{C^\gamma \text{H}_2}$ coupling.

The goodness-of-fit of the simple two rotational isomer model is only $2 \times 10^{-2}$ because this model predicts a high average $^3J_{\text{H}^\beta \text{H}_3}$ coupling constant and too low a $^3J_{C^\gamma \text{H}_2}$ coupling constant. As noted above the average of the two $^3J_{\text{H}^\beta \text{H}_3}$ coupling constants is $5A/8 + B/4 + C$ for ideal geometry. Karplus coefficients for this coupling have average values ranging from 8.1 to 8.7 Hz. These predicted values must be compared with 6.0 Hz, which is the average of the two experimental $^3J_{\text{H}^\beta \text{H}_3}$ couplings in Table II. One explanation for this difference is that there is a small population of rotational isomers with gauche$^+$ $\chi^1$ torsion angle. This would reduce the predicted average coupling constant because both $\beta$-protons are synclinal to the $\alpha$-proton when $\chi^1$ is gauche$^+$. What is important is not the magnitude in Hertz of the difference between the average predicted and experimental $^3J_{\text{H}^\beta \text{H}_3}$ couplings, but the standard deviation, that is, the ratio of this difference over the estimated error. The one and one-half standard deviation difference found here is not improbably large and reflects our estimate of the errors in the Karplus equation calibration, see background section, and of the errors due to the assumption of ideal geometry. In view of the known improbability of leucine gauche$^+$ $\chi^1$ rotational isomers, again see background section, these last two sources of error are a more likely explanation of the difference.

The above explanation of the difference between the average predicted and experimental $^3J_{\text{H}^\beta \text{H}_3}$ coupling constants is even more plausible in view of a similar difference found between the average predicted and experimental $^3J_{\text{H}_3 \text{H}_2}$ coupling constants. Though the dipeptide backbone conformation leaves some room for doubt about the complete absence of $\chi^1$ is gauche$^+$ conformation, the evidence from crystallographic studies and conformational analysis is very good that there is at most a very small population of rotational isomers with a gauche$^-$ $\chi^2$ torsion angle. Also the cobalt complex with the dipeptide backbone should have relatively little effect on the $^3J_{\text{H}_3 \text{H}_5}$ coupling constant. For ideal geometry the average of the two $^3J_{\text{H}_3 \text{H}_5}$ coupling constants is given by the same expression as for the $^3J_{\text{H}_3 \text{H}_2}$ average. Karplus coefficients for the sec-butyl coupling$^{[33]}$ give an average value of 8.5 Hz and coefficients corrected for substituent electronegativity as suggested by Pachler (Ref. [42], Eq. 2 and Table 4) give an average value of 8.1 Hz. The average of the two experimental couplings in Table II is 6.5 Hz. Error in the Karplus coefficient calibration and perhaps some departure from ideal geometry seem to be the only plausible explanation of this difference. This supports our view that overall errors of one to two Hz are entirely possible. The two rotational isomer model also predicts that the $^3J_{C^\gamma \text{H}_2}$ coupling constant is $A/4 - B/2 + C$ because the $\beta^2$-proton is always synclinal to the leucine carboxyl carbon when rotational isomers with gauche$^+$ $\chi^1$ torsion angle are excluded. The predicted coupling is 1.4 Hz and the observed is 4.2 Hz (Table IV). A small gauche$^+$ $\chi^1$ population could make up much of this two standard deviation difference, but we again favor the explanation that the Karplus calibration is not very accurate.

The $\delta$-proton assignments in Table II follow from the pattern of $R_{\text{H}^\beta \text{H}_3}$ cross relaxation rates in Table III. These assignments are also model dependent. For several models the $\delta$-proton assignment is unambiguous once the $\beta$-proton assignment is selected (results not presented); however, to keep things simple we again assume that only the trans gauche$^+$ and gauche$^-$ trans leucine side chain rotational isomers are significantly populated. For both these rotational isomers the $H^\beta$ to $H^\beta$ and H$^\beta$ to H$^\beta$ distances are 2.8 to 2.9 angstroms. The $H^\beta$ to H$^\beta$ and H$^\beta$ to H$^\beta$ distances are 2.9 and 4.0 angstroms for the trans gauche$^+$ rotational isomer and reverse order for 4.0 and 2.9 angstroms for the gauche$^-$ trans isomer. The $\delta$-proton assignments in Table IV produce the strong – weak – weak – strong pattern observed in the experimental relaxation rates in Table II.

An unambiguous $\beta$-proton assignment is not possible if an arbitrarily large population of gauche$^+$ $\chi^1$ rotational isomers is allowed. We have repeated the above least squares fit to the experimental $^3J_{\text{H}^\beta \text{H}_3}$ and $^3J_{C^\gamma \text{H}_2}$ coupling constants, while allowing rotational isomers with gauche$^-$, gauche$^+$, and trans $\chi^1$ torsion angles. For the $\beta$-proton assignment in Table II the goodness-of-fit of this three rotational isomer model, see methods, rises to 29% and that of the alternative $\beta$-proton assignment rises to 94%. By this criterion either assignment is now acceptable. The population of rotational isomers with gauche$^+$ $\chi^1$ torsion angles is 36% for the selected assignment and 51% for the alternative. Either of these gauche$^+$ populations seems unacceptably high. In any event the presently available models are not able to meaningfully predict the gauche$^+$ $\chi^1$ population. The experimental data can be satisfactorily explained by a two rotational isomer model, which excludes gauche$^+$ $\chi^1$ rotational isomers. The unambiguous assignment of the $\beta$ and $\delta$-protons probably must await the preparation of
cobalt dipeptide with stereoselectively deuterated leucine side chains \[47\].

IV. COMPUTATIONAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Chelate ring conformation

As discussed in the background section, conformational analysis predicts that gauche\(^+\) \(\chi^1\) rotational isomers of the leucine side chain are favored in the absence of chelate ring puckering. Crystallographic and NMR evidence shows that the cobalt dipeptide chelate rings do pucker and that the \(\phi_2\) and \(\psi_2\) torsion angles depart from 180 degrees by as much as 10 or 20 degrees. Simple inspection of backbone-dependent rotamer libraries suggests that this departure is large enough to reduce the population of gauche\(^+\) \(\chi^1\) rotational isomers to fairly low levels. To obtain a sharper picture of the dependence on backbone conformation of rotamer preferences we have constructed a rotamer library for a region-of-interest around the special point in \(\phi \times \psi\) space where gauche\(^+\) \(\chi^1\) rotamers are most favored, that is, the point with coordinates \(\phi = -175\) and \(\psi = 175\) degrees. This region-of-interest rotamer library differs from previous backbone-dependent rotamer libraries \[28, 29\] only in that a limited region of \(\phi \times \psi\) space is divided into annular disks around the special point instead of dividing the entire \(\phi \times \psi\) space into a grid of square cells. Our region-of-interest rotamer library is constructed from a list of backbone and side chain torsion angles of 7085 leucine residues on 445 nonhomologous (that is with less than 50% sequence identity) protein chains from a recent Brookhaven Protein Database of structures with a resolution of 2.0 angstroms or better. Backbone angles in the region-of-interest are not very common in protein structures. There are only 0, 13, 28, 72, 112, and 251 of the leucine residues with backbone \(\phi\) and \(\psi\) angles in the 6 annular shells with a width of 10 degrees and that have outer radii of 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, and 60 degrees. There are 11 residues with a gauche\(^+\) \(\chi^1\) torsion angle out of the 13 (92%) with backbone torsion angle in the 10 to 20 degree annulus, 21 of 28 (75%) in the 20 to 30 annulus, 29 of 72 (40%) in the 30 to 40 annulus, 10 of 112 (9%) in the 40 to 50 annulus, and 7 of 251 (3%) in the 50 to 60 annulus. The region-of-interest rotamer library shows a dramatic drop-off of gauche\(^+\) \(\chi^1\) leucine side chain rotational isomers when the backbone torsion angle is beyond the 20 to 30 degree annulus. Note that \(\chi^2\) torsion angles of most of the gauche\(^+\) \(\chi^1\) rotational isomers in this region-of-interest are also gauche\(^+\).

The conformational statistics of leucines in protein database structures show clearly that side chain rotamer preferences are highly sensitive to the backbone conformation, especially near the \(\phi\) and \(\psi\) angles of the cobalt dipeptide backbone. Analysis of the molecular mechanics energy map over \(\chi^1 \times \chi^2\) torsion space of the leucine side chain (Fig. 2) and of the backbone conformation of the energy minimized dipeptide structures suggests that the cobalt dipeptide chelate rings do indeed pucker enough to allow gauche\(^-\) and trans \(\chi^1\) rotational isomers to predominate. The gauche\(^-\) trans energy well has the lowest energy minimum, which we assign the value exactly 0 kcal/mol, and the trans gauche\(^+\) well is only 0.1 kcal/mol higher. The energies of the three energy well minima with the \(\chi^1\) torsion angle gauche\(^+\) are 6.4 kcal/mol for gauche\(^+\) gauche\(^-\), 2.1 kcal/mol for gauche\(^+\) gauche\(^+\), and 2.6 kcal/mol for gauche\(^-\) trans. All other well minima have energies higher than 2.9 kcal/mole. The molecular mechanics energy map prediction matches the backbone-independent conformational analysis result that the trans gauche\(^+\) and gauche\(^-\) trans leucine side chain rotational isomers are the most stable. The backbone torsion angles of the minimized structures at the energy minimum grid point of the gauche\(^-\) trans energy well are \(\phi = -162\) and \(\psi = 167\) degrees and of the trans gauche\(^+\) well are \(\phi = -166\) and \(\psi = 168\) degrees. These leucine backbone torsion angles specify a point in \(\phi \times \psi\) space that is 15 and 11 degrees from the point where gauche\(^+\) \(\chi^1\) rotamers are most favored, that is, the point with coordinates \(\phi = -175\) and \(\psi = 175\) degrees. The backbone torsion angles at the energy minimum grid point of the three gauche\(^+\) \(\chi^1\) rotational isomers are all in the ranges \(-176 \leq \phi \leq -174\) and \(-173 \leq \psi \leq -174\).
and $178 \leq \psi \leq 180$ and are all within 4 to 6 degrees of the point with both $\phi$ and $\psi = 180$ degrees. This seems to confirm that the backbone torsion angles of the trans gauche$^+$ and gauche$^-$ trans rotational isomers are indeed adjustments from cobalt dipeptide chelate ring planar geometry that accommodate unfavorable backbone-dependent syn-pentane interactions. To eliminate these backbone-dependent interactions the backbone conformation apparently need adjust only by an angle of 10 to 15 degrees in $\phi \times \psi$ torsion space, which is about half that suggested by the region-of-interest rotamer library.

To definitively establish the amount of chelate ring puckering and its influence on leucine side chain populations will require more extensive molecular mechanics calculations and more reliable energy map error estimates than presented here. Such molecular mechanics studies are important because as we have already emphasized in the experimental section the NMR data by itself does not give an unambiguous assignment of the $\beta$ and $\delta$-protons. Further molecular mechanics studies are also needed to validate our analysis on measurability of rotational isomer populations, which is presented in the concluding subsection of this results and discussion section. There we analyze the measurability of the gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ rotational isomer population based on the assumption that the ratio of gauche$^+$ to trans or gauche$^-$ $\chi^1$ rotational isomer populations is small. The assignments presented in the experimental section also rely on this assumption.

The accuracy of molecular mechanics predictions of the relative populations of $\chi^1$ rotational isomers depends on achieving the correct balance of at least three energy terms: the steric energy of syn-pentane interactions, the energy of 10 to 15 degree compensatory rotations of the leucine $\chi^1$ and $\chi^2$ side chain dihedral angles, and the energy of ring puckering associated with the rotation of the leucine $\phi$ and $\psi$ backbone dihedral angles. Two general considerations suggest that these three energy terms are correctly balanced in the present molecular mechanics calculations. First, syn-pentane interaction accounting correctly predicts the observed rotamer preferences of protein side chains [25]. This implies that compensatory rotations of the side dihedral angles don’t significantly diminish the importance of the syn-pentane effect in predicting rotamer preferences and that the balance of the first two of the three above energy terms is at least qualitatively correct in our calculations. Second, energy minimization of pentane structures with CHARMM parameters [23], which are very similar to those we employ, quantitatively reproduces the conformational energies observed experimentally or predicted by ab initio calculations [28]. This suggests that the balance of the first two of the three above energy terms is also quantitatively correct in our calculations. It remains to establish the accuracy of the last of the above three energy terms, the energy of ring puckering associated with the rotation of the leucine $\phi$ and $\psi$ backbone dihedral angles. The molecular mechanics parameters of the cobalt chelate ring complex are expected to play and important role in determining the ring puckering energy. Most of the bond length and bond angle molecular mechanics parameters are known from previous crystallographic [30] or molecular mechanics [49] studies of cobalt complexes. At the other extreme the torsion angle and improper torsion angle force constants with cobalt in one of the four angle defining positions and charges of the nitro and cobalt atoms are not much better than order of magnitude guesses. Furthermore the -2 charge distributed over the cobalt complex may introduce a substantial solvation effect [50, 51] into the ring puckering energy. Indeed the solvation effects may be viewed as a fourth energy term that affects the accuracy of molecular mechanics predictions of the relative populations of $\chi^1$ rotational isomers.

More extensive molecular mechanics studies are certainly needed to establish the effect molecular mechanics parameters and solvation have on the relative isomer populations. However, some simple tests of the present molecular mechanics suggest we aren’t too far off. The molecular mechanics energy map over $\chi^1 \times \chi^2$ torsion space of the leucine side chain is not very sensitive to the values of the uncertain parameters. The relative energy well depths of the leucine side chain rotational isomers vary by less than about one half kcal/mol when the torsion angle and improper torsion angle force constants involving cobalt are scaled down to zero as a group or when the distance independent dielectric constant equal to one is replaced by a distance dependent dielectric constant equal to the inverse atomic separation in angstroms.

B. Effect of intramolecular motions

For most leucine side chain rotational isomers the effect of thermal motions on the NOESY cross relaxation rates is several times smaller than the typical accuracy of these measurements and the effect on vicinal coupling constants is perhaps several times bigger than the accuracy of the best homonuclear coupling measurements. The effect of thermal motions on side chain vicinal coupling constants is similar in magnitude to the previously reported effect on backbone coupling constants [2]. The magnitude of the thermal motion effect is estimated by comparing the calculated average NMR observables to those values calculated at the average $\chi^1$ and $\chi^2$ torsion angles. These averages are taken over the individual energy well regions, see methods, and thus the comparison looks at the effects of fast thermal motions within the energy wells as opposed to the effects of slower interconversion of rotational isomers. The trans gauche$^+$ and gauche$^-$ trans rotational isomers, which are the predominantly populated isomers, are typical. For these two rotational isomers the RMS differences between the average observables and the observables at the average are 0.16 Hz for the vicinal coupling constants and 0.0011 s$^{-1}$ for the NOESY cross relaxation rates, where these RMS differences are averaged over these two rotational isomers and over the 10 NOESY cross relaxation rates.
and 8 vicinal coupling constants listed in Table III. These differences are substantially increased for rotational isomers with more anharmonic $\chi^1 \times \chi^2$ torsion space energy wells. The difference between the energy well minimum position and the average $\chi^1$ and $\chi^2$ torsion angles gives a rough measure of the anharmonicity of a rotational isomer energy well. By this measure the trans gauche$^+$ energy well is the most anharmonic (compare Fig. 2) with a difference of 12 degrees between the minimum and average positions. For the trans gauche$^+$ and gauche$^-$ trans energy wells these differences are only 3 and 4 degrees. For the anharmonic energy well of the trans gauche$^-$ rotational isomer the RMS differences between the average observables and the observables at the average are 0.31 Hz for the vicinal coupling constants and 0.0021 s$^{-1}$ for the NOESY cross relaxation rates, which are both almost twice the values for the more nearly harmonic energy wells of the trans gauche$^+$ and gauche$^-$ trans rotational isomers.

The difference between the average observables and the observables at the average $\chi^1$ and $\chi^2$ torsion angles only accounts for about half the effect of thermal motions on the NMR observables. Thermal shifting of the average $\chi^1$ and $\chi^2$ torsion angles of a rotational isomer also significantly changes the NMR observables. This thermal motion effect is measured by the difference between the NMR observables at the $\chi^1 \times \chi^2$ energy well minimum and at the average $\chi^1$ and $\chi^2$ torsion angles. As already noted in the last paragraph the difference between the minimum and average positions of the trans gauche$^+$ and gauche$^-$ trans energy wells is 3 and 4 degrees. For these rotational isomers the RMS differences between the observables at the minimum and average positions are 0.17 Hz for the vicinal coupling constants and 0.0013 s$^{-1}$ for the NOESY cross relaxation rates. These differences are about the same as the values of 0.16 Hz and 0.0011 s$^{-1}$ reported in the previous paragraph for the differences between the average observables and the observables at the average. In the case of the anharmonic energy well of the trans gauche$^-$ rotational isomer the thermal shifting effect is more dramatic. The RMS differences between the observables at the minimum and average positions are 0.75 Hz and 0.0041 s$^{-1}$, which are about twice the differences between the average observables and the observables at the average for the trans gauche$^-$ rotational isomer.

All these thermal motion effects can be put into perspective by comparing them to the differences in the NMR observables at the $\chi^1 \times \chi^2$ energy well minimum and at ideal geometry $\chi^1$ and $\chi^2$ torsion angles. For the trans gauche$^+$ and gauche$^-$ trans rotational isomers the RMS differences between the minimum energy and ideal geometry observables are 0.50 Hz for the vicinal coupling constants and 0.0039 s$^{-1}$ for the NOESY cross relaxation rates, which is about three times the size of the thermal motion effect. This is just about what might be expected because the energy minima of the trans gauche$^+$ and gauche$^-$ trans rotational isomers differ by 9 and 12 degrees from the ideal geometry positions in $\chi^1 \times \chi^2$ torsion space and these differences are three times the differences between the average $\chi^1$ and $\chi^2$ torsion angles and the positions of the energy well minima.

C. Necessity of molecular mechanics energy estimates

At the present accuracy of Karplus equation calibrations it is not possible to calculate the populations of all 9 rotational isomers of the leucine side chain from only the NMR data in Table III. Before fitting the NMR data a small set of rotational isomers with nonzero population must be selected with molecular mechanics calculations or conformational analysis. If we calculate the population of all 9 rotational isomers by fitting an 8 parameter model (Table III row 1), then the populations estimates range from 0.0 to 0.3, though most of them are near 0.1, and the population error estimates from the moment matrix range from about ±0.2 to ±0.3. The standard deviations of the Monte Carlo probability density functions are all close to ±0.1. These errors are somewhat smaller than suggested by the moment matrix because the moment matrix estimates do not take into account the nonnegativity constraints on the isomer populations. The errors given by either set of error estimates are larger than or at least nearly as large as the population estimates. This indicates that fitting the 9 rotational isomer model gives meaningless population estimates.

There are $2^9 - 1 = 511$ possible nonempty subsets of the set of 9 rotational isomers. As we will detail shortly, these rotational isomer subsets generate a large number of distinct solutions to the problem of fitting the experimental NMR data. As an alternative to fitting all the rotational isomer populations, we might hope to find among this large set of solutions one best solution that includes only a small number of rotational isomers and that has a uniquely high goodness-of-fit to the NMR data. A solution is initially generated from each subset of rotational isomers by fitting the experimental NMR data with the model that includes only the isomers in that subset. In general the populations of these included isomers are not all positive because active nonnegativity constraints force some populations to be exactly zero. A different set of experimental data would yield a different set of active constraints and thus a different set of positive populations. In the next subsection we fit multiple Monte Carlo simulated NMR data sets to calculate population probability distributions. But here we fit only the actual experimental data and generate one single solution from each subset of rotational isomers. Two different subsets of isomers may generate the same solution with the same positive isomer populations on some common subset of the two original subsets of isomers. Thus the number of unique solutions is substantially smaller than the number of subsets of 9 rotational isomers. A single unique solution is conveniently identified by the positive isomer
TABLE III: Rotational isomer populations. Each row shows the fit populations for a model that excludes the dotted rotational isomers. All population estimates are in percent with the error in the last digit given in parenthesis.

|   | $g^-$ | $g^+$ | $g^-t$ | $g^+t$ | $g^-$t | $g^+$t | $tt$ | $Q^*$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 8(8) | 0(8) | 5(9) | 4(7) | 9(7) | 8(8) | 30(10) | 22(12) | 13(9) | 50.0 | MC$^a$ |
| 2 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 6.0 |
| 3 | - | 50 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 3.1 |
| 4 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2.1 |
| 5 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2.0$^b$ |
| 6 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 7 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 8 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 9 | - | 33 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 10 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 11 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 12 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 13 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 14 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 15 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 16 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 17 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 18 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 19 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 20 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 21 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 22 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 23 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 24 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 25 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 26 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 27 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 28 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 29 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 30 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 31 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 32 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 33 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 34 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 35 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 36 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 37 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 1.3 |
| 38 | 0(0) | 0(0) | 0(0) | 0(0) | 0(0) | 0(0) | 0(0) | - | - | - | MC$^a$ |

$^a$The goodness-of-fit $Q$ is the percentage probability that chi-square exceeds its fit value.

$^b$For models marked MC the population errors are calculated from a Monte Carlo simulation of the NMR observables.

$^c$The population errors of models without Monte Carlo error analysis are derived from a least squares moment matrix. Only the average population error is reported in the last isomer column.

$^d$If a rotational isomer marked with an uparrow is added to the model in this row, then a nonnegativity constraint will fix the rotational isomer population at zero. Because these constraints are NMR observable dependent, they are only reported for models without Monte Carlo simulated NMR observables.

$^e$The ($g^+t$, $g^-t$) model is among the 5 two rotational isomer models with a goodness-of-fit better than 1%.

$^f$The ($g^+t$, $g^+t$, $g^-t$) model is among the 15 three rotational isomer models with a goodness-of-fit better than 10%.

$^g$For models marked A the NMR observables are calculated by Boltzmann weighted averaging over the energy well of each rotational isomer. The NMR observables of all other models are calculated at the energy well minimum of each rotational isomer.

$^h$The ($g^+t$, $g^-t$) model appears again with improved goodness-of-fit among these 5 two rotational isomer models with a goodness-of-fit better than 1%.

$^i$For models marked R the assignments of both $\beta$ and $\delta$-protons are reversed.

$^j$The ellipsis marks indicate that the $g^+g^+$ measurability simulations do not generate any additional measure of goodness-of-fit because they are only indirectly based on the experimental NMR observables.
populations and the isomers with positive populations are referred to as the populated isomers.

For the assignments in Table I, experimental data in Table II and with the NMR observables calculated at the $\chi^2$ energy map minimum positions the 511 isomer subsets generate 278 unique solutions. One half of these solutions have a goodness-of-fit better than 10% and two thirds of them have a goodness-of-fit better than 1%. There are 5 solutions that have only two populated isomers and have a goodness-of-fit between 10% and 15% and 15 solutions that have three populated isomers and have a goodness-of-fit better than 10% (Table III rows 2 through 21). Apparently many good solutions exist even with the restriction to solutions that have only a small number of populated isomers. Worse, the solutions with two or three populated isomers are inconsistent and over-fit the experimental data. As a group, the 5 good solutions with two populated isomers give 5 predictions of the population of each of the 9 rotational isomers. The only consistent predictions are for the gauche$^-$ gauche$^-$ and trans trans rotational isomer populations, which all 5 solutions predict are zero. The gauche$^-$ trans rotational isomer population is predicted 4 times in the range 0.5 to 0.6 and once at zero. The other 6 rotational isomer populations are each predicted once in the range 0.4 to 0.6 and 4 times at zero. These positive and zero population predictions are inconsistent because the positive population errors of the 5 solutions are all around ±0.05. The 15 good solutions with three populated isomers give a similar picture. The gauche$^-$ trans rotational isomer population is predicted 11 times in the range 0.3 to 0.5 and 4 times at zero. The other 8 rotational isomer populations are each predicted in the range of 0.3 or 0.4 from 2 to 7 times and otherwise at zero. Again these population predictions are inconsistent because the positive population errors of the 15 solutions are all around ±0.08. The experimental NMR data is over-fit in the sense that the predicted isomer populations depend on the model and the discrepancies between these predictions are much larger than the errors estimated from the fit of a single model.

The number of solutions with two or three populated isomers, the goodness-of-fits, population predictions, and error estimates reported in the last paragraph change very little if the average NMR observables are fit instead of those at the energy map minimum positions, compare rows 2 through 6 and 22 through 26 of Table III. Inconsistent and over-fit solutions also result if the $\beta$ and $\delta$-proton assignments in Table I are reversed. For example, for the reverse assignments the 511 isomer subsets generate 285 unique solutions with an overall pattern of goodness-of-fits similar to the assignments in Table I. There are 4 solutions that have only two populated isomers and have a goodness-of-fit better than 10% (Table III rows 27 through 30). The gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ and trans gauche$^-$ rotational isomer populations are predicted 2 times in the range 0.4 to 0.6 and once at zero. Four other rotational isomer populations are each predicted once in the range 0.4 to 0.6 and 3 times at zero. All 4 solutions predict that the populations of the remaining 3 rotational isomers are zero. These population predictions are inconsistent because the positive population errors of the 4 solutions are all around ±0.05. Again there is no best solution and the solutions that have only a small number of populated isomers are over-fit. At present the only hope for obtaining a reasonable solution is to narrow down the number of possible isomers with the help of molecular mechanics energies or conformational analysis.

### TABLE IV: Karplus coefficients. The vicinal coupling constants are given by the Karplus equation $J(\phi) = A \cos^2 \phi - B \cos \phi + C$, where $\phi$ is the torsion angle between the atoms indicated in the first column. The coefficient units are Hz. Throughout this work these coefficients are used to fit rotational isomer populations to experimental vicinal coupling constants.

| $^3J_{H^\alpha H^\beta}$ | $^3J_{H^\alpha H^\gamma}$ | $^3J_{H^\alpha H^\delta}$ | $^3J_{H^\beta H^\gamma}$ | $^3J_{H^\beta H^\delta}$ | $^3J_{H^\gamma H^\delta}$ |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| $^3J_{C^\alpha H^\gamma}$ | $^3J_{C^\beta H^\gamma}$ | $^3J_{C^\gamma H^\delta}$ | $^3J_{C^\gamma H^\delta}$ | $^3J_{C^\gamma H^\delta}$ |
| A                        | B                        | C                        | A                        | B                        | C                        |
| 10.2                    | 1.8                     | 1.9                      | 10                       | 1                       | 2                        |
| 3                       |                         |                          | 7.20                     | 2.04                    | 0.60                      |
| a                       |                         |                          |                          |                          |                          |
| b                       |                         |                          |                          |                          |                          |
| c                       |                         |                          |                          |                          |                          |
| d                       |                         |                          |                          |                          |                          |

$^a$Cung and Marraud (44).
$^b$Bothner-By (Ref. 23 p. 205), Pachler (Ref. 18 p. 1939).
$^c$Breitmaier and Voelter (52), Wasylishen and Schaefer (Ref. 53 p. 963 and Ref. 12 p. 2711).
$^d$Fischman et al. (Ref. 42 Table III).

### D. Measurability of rotational isomer populations

An analysis of all the NOESY cross relaxation rates and vicinal coupling constants listed in Table III and the Karplus coefficients listed in Table IV confirms the preliminary analysis in the experimental results section that the cobalt dipeptide leucine side chain predominantly populates the trans gauche$^-$ and gauche$^+$ trans rotational isomers in approximately equal proportions. The goodness-of-fit of this simple two rotational isomer model with the NMR observables calculated at the $\chi^2$ energy map minimum positions is 0.020 for the assignments indicated in the first column. The coefficient units are Hz. The experimental NMR data is over-fit in the sense that the predicted isomer populations depend on the model and the discrepancies between these predictions are much larger than the errors estimated from the fit of a single model. The Karplus coefficients listed in Table IV are consistent because the positive population errors of the 4 solutions are all around ±0.05. Again there is no best solution and the solutions that have only a small number of populated isomers are over-fit. At present the only hope for obtaining a reasonable solution is to narrow down the number of possible isomers with the help of molecular mechanics energies or conformational analysis.

The number of solutions with two or three populated isomers, the goodness-of-fits, population predictions, and error estimates reported in the last paragraph change very little if the average NMR observables are fit instead of those at the energy map minimum positions, compare rows 2 through 6 and 22 through 26 of Table III. Inconsistent and over-fit solutions also result if the $\beta$ and $\delta$-proton assignments in Table I are reversed. For example, for the reverse assignments the 511 isomer subsets generate 285 unique solutions with an overall pattern of goodness-of-fits similar to the assignments in Table I. There are 4 solutions that have only two populated isomers and have a goodness-of-fit better than 10% (Table III rows 27 through 30). The gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ and trans gauche$^-$ rotational isomer populations are predicted 2 times in the range 0.4 to 0.6 and once at zero. Four other rotational isomer populations are each predicted once in the range 0.4 to 0.6 and 3 times at zero. All 4 solutions predict that the populations of the remaining 3 rotational isomers are zero. These population predictions are inconsistent because the positive population errors of the 4 solutions are all around ±0.05. Again there is no best solution and the solutions that have only a small number of populated isomers are over-fit. At present the only hope for obtaining a reasonable solution is to narrow down the number of possible isomers with the help of molecular mechanics energies or conformational analysis.

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change the uncertainty.

Analysis of both the protein data bank and the molecular mechanics energy map suggests that the third most populated rotational isomer after trans gauche$^+$ and gauche$^-$ trans is gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$, see the section on chelate ring conformation at the beginning of this results and discussion section. The gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ rotational isomer population is expected to be small, perhaps less than 5 or 10%. Because the 4.3% population standard deviation that is given by fitting the two rotational isomer model is as large if not larger than the probable population, it is unlikely that the gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ population can be measured by fitting the NMR data. If a three rotational isomer model that includes gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ is fit to the NMR data, then the gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ population is 0\(245 \pm 0.078\) with a 0.18 goodness-of-fit (Table 3 [row 35]). Though this gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ population mean is high, the population distribution is not inconsistent with the expected small population. The distribution gives about a 3% probability that the population is smaller than 10% and about a 1% probability it is smaller than 5%. Note that these probability estimates must be taken with caution because, as pointed out in the previous section, even models with three populated rotational isomers over-fit the experimental data. Indeed the high population mean seems to further suggest that the gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ population is poorly measured by fitting the NMR data with the three rotational isomer model. For the reverse assignments the gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ population reaches the extremely implausible level of 0.385 \(\pm 0.078\) with a 0.62 goodness-of-fit (Table 3 [row 36]). The high goodness-of-fit for the three rotamer model with and without the assignments reversed again suggests that the assignments in Table 1 must be taken with caution.

The prominent populations of the trans gauche$^+$ and gauche$^-$ trans rotational isomers are best estimated by fitting experimental data. The minuscule populations of the other seven rotational isomers, except for gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$, are best estimated from the molecular mechanics energy map. This leaves the gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ rotational isomer on the awkward borderline of experimental measurability. The standard Monte Carlo procedure [55] can be altered to estimate the gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ population and its probability distribution (Table 3 [row 37]). Initially the gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ population is fixed at zero, the simple two rotational isomer model is fit, and Monte Carlo NMR observables are generated, but then these Monte Carlo observables are fit to a three rotational isomer model that includes gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$. This differs from the standard procedure because one model generates the Monte Carlo observables and a second different model is fit to these Monte Carlo observables. The resulting Monte Carlo probability density functions (Fig. 3) give population estimates of 0.355 \(\pm 0.053\) and 0.612 \(\pm 0.045\) for the prominent trans gauche$^+$ and gauche$^-$ trans rotational isomers and 0.033\(\pm 0.046\) for the gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ rotational isomer. The prominent rotational isomer population estimates have slightly smaller means and larger standard deviations than the estimates given in the last paragraph for the fit of the simple two rotational isomer model. The Monte Carlo probability density function of the gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ rotational isomer is actually the density function of a mixed discrete and continuous distribution [56]. The probability of having a population of zero is 0.471, which corresponds to the fraction of least-squares fits with an active nonnegativity constraint on the gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ population. The continuous part of the probability density function has a population mean of 0.062 and has a roughly exponential distribution. The overall gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ population mean is as expected near zero because the two rotational isomer model, which generates the Monte Carlo NMR observables, lacks gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ rotational isomer. The mean of the continuous part of the probability distribution is greater than 5% and suggests in perhaps a more direct fashion than fitting the three rotational isomer model as discussed in the last paragraph that gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ populations in the 5% range can not be measured by fitting the NMR data with currently available

![Fig. 3: Gel graphic of rotational isomer population probabilities. The graphic shows Monte Carlo probability density functions for constrained linear least-squares parameter estimates, where the parameters are the rotational isomer probabilities. Each gray scale step of the step wedge bar corresponds to a two-fold change in probability density. The least-squares fit has NMR measurement, Karplus equation coefficient, and molecular mechanics geometry errors and has the gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ rotational isomer population fixed at zero. The gauche$^+$ gauche$^+$ probability density function shows the unmeasurable population range.](image)
FIG. 4: Gel graphic of rotational isomer population probabilities with Karplus equation coefficient and molecular mechanics geometry errors removed. The least-squares fit has only NMR measurement errors. Note the ten-fold expanded vertical scale, which places the prominent trans gauche+ and gauche− trans rotational isomers off scale. All other rotational isomers populations are fixed at zero. Their probability density functions show the unmeasurable population ranges. The forbidden gauche+ gauche− rotational isomer is not included.

models. The extent of the continuous part of the gauche+ gauche+ probability density function is determined by the observation errors incorporated in the least-squares design matrix and observation vector. Though this extent has nothing to do with the 2.1 kcal/mol relative energy of the gauche+ gauche+ rotational isomer determined by molecular mechanics or the accuracy of this energy, it places gauche+ gauche+ population in a molecular mechanically realistic range and approximately captures the uncertainty in the molecular mechanics energy well depths. In this sense the Monte Carlo procedure described here blends together molecular mechanics and experimental NMR data.

The observation errors of the least-squares fit are dominated by the errors in the predicted NMR observables due to uncertainty in the Karplus coefficients and molecular mechanics geometries. What would happen if the errors in the predicted NMR observables could be reduced below the level of the experimental measurement errors? Given that the errors in the predicted NMR observables are about an order of magnitude larger than the experimental measurement errors, the population error estimates should also be reduced by about an order of magnitude into the 0.5% range. A population of 0.5% corresponds to a relative rotational isomer energy of around 3 kcal/mol. Excepting the prominent trans gauche+ and gauche− trans and the forbidden gauche+ gauche− rotational isomers, the remaining rotational isomers have energy map minima ranging 2.1 kcal/mol for gauche+ gauche+ to 3.9 kcal/mol for gauche− gauche−. A 0.5% population accuracy potentially places all rotational isomer populations except that of the forbidden gauche+ gauche− rotational isomer within reach of experimental measurement. The measurability of the populations of all these rotational isomers can be assessed by the same Monte Carlo procedure applied in the previous paragraph to assess gauche+ gauche+ measurability (Table III row 38). Again we fit the simple two rotational isomer model with all observation errors included. The Monte Carlo NMR observables are generated with only the experimental measurement errors and an eight rotational isomer model that excludes only the forbidden gauche+ gauche− rotational isomer is then fit to the Monte Carlo observables. In the initial model all rotational isomers except the prominent trans gauche+ and gauche− trans rotational isomers are fixed at zero population. As a result the Monte Carlo probability densities (Fig. 4) of these rotational isomers are the density functions of mixed discrete and continuous distributions with zero population probabilities ranging from 0.52 to 0.89 and population means ranging from 0.0005 to 0.0023. The Monte Carlo density functions give population estimates of 0.3712 ± 0.0038 and 0.6203 ± 0.0051 for the trans gauche+ and gauche− trans rotational isomers. The continuous parts of the probability density functions have population means ranging from 0.0035 to 0.0067 and have roughly exponential distributions. This seems to confirm that if experimental measurement was the only source of error, then rotational isomer populations as small as about 0.5% could be measured.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This study the cobalt glycyl-leucine dipeptide side chain rotational isomer populations gives a realistic picture of their measurability and in particular suggests that the population of the gauche+ gauche+ rotational isomer is less than 5 or 10%, which is below the limit of measurability at the present accuracy of Karplus equation calibration. Better calibrations of the Karplus equations with model systems such as cobalt dipeptides promise to push the limit of measurability of side chain populations down into the 1% range. To calibrate the Karplus equations to an accuracy substantially better than ±1 Hz probably requires a separate Karplus equation for each vicinal coupling constant, for example, the $^{3}J_{\text{H1-H2}}$ couplings of the leucine side chain would require calibrating two Karplus equations, one for the coupling to the $\beta1$-proton and a second for that to the $\beta2$-proton. Each Karplus equation has three coefficients, so the calibration of the two $^{3}J_{\text{H1-H2}}$ Karplus equations could require
that as many as six coefficients be determined. As many as four of these six coefficients could be determined from the temperature dependence of the two vicinal coupling constants \(39\). However, it is probably best to attempt to determine only three of these coefficients by adopting the following compromise. Because the torsion angle \(\phi\) between the \(\alpha\) and either \(\beta\)-proton is always synchronous or antiperiplanar the Karplus equations only need to be really accurate within these angular ranges. Reasonable accuracy in these ranges can probably be achieved with only two adjustable parameters per Karplus equation, say by adjusting the \(A\) and \(C\) coefficients and fixing the coefficient \(B\) at the best literature value. Note that these coefficients are defined in the background section and that \(B = (J_{\text{sp}} - J_{\text{pp}})/2\), where \(J_{\text{pp}}\) and \(J_{\text{sp}}\) are the coupling constants at \(\phi = 0\) and 180 degrees. A further reduction by one in the number of coefficients could be achieved by assuming that \(J_{\text{sp}}\) is the same for both \(\beta\)-protons. With these compromises there are only three coefficients to be determined from four measured quantities, that is, two coupling constants and their temperature variations. By measuring a half-dozen or so coupling constants about the \(C^\alpha-C^\beta\) and \(C^\beta-C^\gamma\) bonds of the leucine side chain there would be more than enough measured values to calibrate all the Karplus equations and determine the unknown rotational isomer populations. Fitting the temperature dependence of the coupling constants implies a search for not only the rotational isomer populations, but also for a breakdown of the free energy differences into enthalpic and entropic contributions. The entropic contribution to the the population differences can probably be estimated more accurately from molecular mechanics \(18\) than by fitting the temperature dependence of the vicinal coupling constants. Before attempting to calibrate Karplus equations with the cobalt glycyl-leucine dipeptide the critical issue of assigning the \(\beta\) and \(\delta\)-protons must be addressed by preparing samples with stereoselectively deuterated leucine side chains \(14\). The L-amino acid leucine stereoselectively deuterated at the \(\text{C}^6\) position is available from Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Inc., 50 Frontage Road, Andover MA 01810. It is also important to measure the cobalt glycyl-leucine dipeptide side chain rotational isomer populations with experiments that are completely independent of any Karplus equation calibration. Triple quantum filtered nuclear Overhauser effect spectroscopy (3QF-NOESY) or tilted rotating frame Overhauser effect spectroscopy (3QF T-ROESY) experiments give torsion restraints from cross correlated relaxation \(54\) and could supply this independent corroboration of the population estimates.

In addition to calibrating Karplus equations with the cobalt glycyl-leucine dipeptide and other cobalt dipeptides we suggest parallel studies of \(N\)-acetyl-L-leucine \(N'\)-methylamide (leucine dipeptide), which is the leucine analogue of the alanine dipeptide \(51\). The cobalt dipeptides achieve a single backbone conformation by forming two approximately planar chelate rings. This backbone conformation is uncommon in proteins and destabilizes the normal side chain conformational preferences of leucine. The leucine dipeptide should eliminate this disadvantage of the cobalt glycyl-leucine dipeptide without sacrificing the significant advantage of a single backbone conformation. Indeed the alanine dipeptide \(C_{\text{eq}}\) backbone conformation predominates in weakly polar solvents \(59\). This strongly suggests that the leucine dipeptide backbone would adopt the \(C_{\text{eq}}\) conformation in solvents such as acetonitrile or chloroform, which would in turn strongly favor the gauche\(^-\) trans conformation of the leucine side chain. Parallel studies of cobalt dipeptides and alanine dipeptide analogues would also reveal the extent to which cobalt chelation influences the vicinal coupling constants about the \(C^\alpha-C^\beta\) bond.

A molecular graphic with multiple superimposed structures is perhaps the most common format for reporting the presence of multiple conformations in an NMR or crystallographic protein structure. It is very tempting to suppose that the structures displayed in these molecular graphics are correct in every detail and that structures or side chain conformations not present in these molecular graphics are extremely unlikely. Gel graphics such as those presented here for the leucine side chain of the cobalt dipeptide could supplement common molecular graphics and give a more realistic picture of protein conformational distributions.

### VI. METHODS

We adopt the convention that a side chain torsion angle is gauche\(^-\) in the range \(-120\) to 0 degrees, gauche\(^+\) in the range 0 to 120 degrees, and trans in the range \(-180\) to \(-120\) or 120 to 180 degrees. Torsion angle definitions and atom names are specified by the IUPAC-IUB conventions \(60\). The \(\beta\) and \(\delta\)-protons are also identified according to the Cahn–Ingold–Prelog nomenclature scheme \(61\) for substituents on the \(C^\beta\) and \(C^\gamma\) prochiral centers. The torsion angle between two atoms across a single bond is synclinal in the range \(-90\) to \(-30\) or 30 to 90 degrees and antiperiplanar in the range 150 to 180 or \(-180\) to \(-150\) degrees \(62\). These last terms are very convenient for describing the geometry of vicinally coupled spin systems.

### A. NMR experiments

Barium\([\text{glycyl-L-leucinonitrocobalt(III)}]\) was prepared as previously described \(32\). NMR spectra were recorded at 500 MHz on a Bruker AMX-500 spectrometer. Pure absorption 2D NOESY spectra were obtained by time-proportional phase incrementation \(63\) at mixing times of 50, 100, 200, 400, and 800 ms and the cross relaxation rates were determined by one parameter linear least-squares fits of the initial build-up rates of the peak volumes \(64\). The standard deviations of the cross
relaxation rates were estimated from the one element least-squares moment matrices. Cross relaxation rates within one standard deviation of zero were set equal to zero. Both homonuclear and heteronuclear vicinal coupling constants were derived from 1D NMR spectra. The homonuclear couplings were analyzed [63, 66] with the LAOCN-5 program (QCPE #458).

B. Simple models for preliminary β-proton assignment

The goodness-of-fits of the two alternative assignments were compared for two simple models for the experimental coupling constants across the Cα-Cβ bond. The two rotational isomer model included only the gauche− and trans χ1 rotational isomers and the three rotational isomer model included all three χ1 rotational isomers. For both models the experimental data was linear least-squares fit with the population sum constrained to one so that the first model had one population parameter and the second two parameters. The torsion angles between the coupled spins were assumed to have ideal synclinal or antiperiplanar values of magnitude 60 or 180 degrees. The Karplus coefficients for the 3JHα,Hβ and 3JCα,Hβ coupling constants (Table IV) were specifically calibrated [42, 44] for these couplings in peptides without any correction for cobalt chelation effects. The predicted coupling constants were assumed to have errors of 1.5 Hz to accommodate uncertainty in both the Karplus coefficients and geometry.

C. Molecular mechanics

Energy maps on χ1 × χ2 torsion space and cobalt glycyl-leucine structure coordinates were calculated with the CHARMM molecular mechanics program [67]. The CHARMM structure file internal data structure was generated from custom made topology and parameter CHARMM input files. The custom topology file contained nonstandard glycine and leucine residues to generate the peptide portion of the cobalt dipeptide complex and a patch to add the cobalt and three nitro groups. The molecular mechanics atomic charges were assigned by a simple scheme. First the side chain and backbone atomic charges were set to those of a glycyl-leucine zwitterion. The net dipeptide charge was then −0.6 because one N-terminal amine proton and the backbone amide proton were removed to make cobalt bonds. On the assumption that the nitro group charge magnitudes should be somewhat less than unity and the cobalt charge should be slightly positive we then assigned a charge of −0.6 to each nitro group and 0.4 to cobalt to give the correct total charge of −2.0 to the complete cobalt dipeptide anion. Electrostatics interactions were computed at a dielectric constant of 1.0 and without any distance cutoff, except where otherwise noted. Specialized force field parameters for the cobalt dipeptide ring system were introduced by giving nonstandard atom type codes to all the peptide backbone heavy atoms except for the leucine α-carbon atom. Bond lengths and bond angles were taken from a glycyl-glycine cobalt crystallographic structure [30]. Bond length and bond angle force constants were taken from the force field of a polyamine cobalt complex [49]. The force constants of torsion angles with cobalt in one of the four angle defining positions were guessed by adopting the torsion angle force constants of standard peptide backbone atoms with roughly matching orbital hybridization and bonding. A glycyl-glycine cobalt crystallographic structure [68] gave the initial Cartesian coordinates of the cobalt dipeptide ring system. Other ligand heavy atoms of this same structure gave initial coordinates for the three nitro nitrogens. The nitro oxygens were then built so that the plane of each nitro group was in a staggered orientation with respect to the other cobalt ligand bonds as viewed down each nitro cobalt bond. An internal coordinate representation of the leucine side chain was setup during generation of the CHARMM structure file. The torsion angle internal coordinates were set to ideal values defined in the topology file and the bond lengths and angles were filled in from the parameter file. The molecular mechanics energy map over χ1 and χ2 torsion space was computed by editing these two torsion angle internal coordinates, building the side chain Cartesian coordinates from internal coordinates, restraining the χ1 and χ2 torsion angles with an energy constant of 400 kcal/mole-rad2, and energy minimizing by the steepest decent method for 20 steps followed by the adopted basis Newton-Raphson method for 200 steps. This sequence of edit, build, restrain, and minimize was repeated for all 5184 points on a 5 degree grid in χ1 and χ2 torsion space. The map was output from CHARMM as a list with each line containing the χ1 and χ2 coordinates and energy at one grid point. The Cartesian coordinates of the energy minimized dipeptide were temporarily output as a trajectory file with one trajectory file coordinate set for each grid point. Interatomic distances and torsion angles required for modeling cross relaxation rates and vicinal coupling constants were extracted from this temporary trajectory file with the CHARMM correlation and time series analysis command. To account for rotational averaging of the cross relaxation rate to a methyl group, the three interatomic distances from the methyl protons to the other cross relaxing atom were inverse sixth root mean inverse sixth power averaged with CHARMM time series manipulation commands. Each interatomic distance, averaged interatomic distance, and vicinal spin torsion angle was output from CHARMM as a separate file with one distance or angle on each line and one line for each grid point.

Compared to the CHARMM 22 developmental topology and parameter files for proteins with all hydrogens our custom topology file has similar backbone charges and side chain charges of about one half the magnitude.
Our peptide parameters are generally similar to those in the CHARMM 22 developmental parameter file, except that we only define a single tetrahedral carbon atom type that does not depend on the number of bonded hydrogen atoms and our bond angle potential does not have Urey-Bradley interactions.

A separate FORTRAN program [18] partitioned the molecular mechanics $\chi^1 \times \chi^2$ energy map into energy well regions. The program employed a cellular automata that adjusted the regions so that the boundaries passed through the energy map saddle points and followed along the ridges leading up to the tops of high energy peaks. The program named each well, assigned an index to each well, arranged the indices in a conventional order, and output a new energy map such that each output line specified the energy and well index of one grid point. This cellular automata program is available from the first author of this paper.

D. NMR observables and Monte Carlo simulations

We calculated NMR observables (both NOESY cross relaxation rates and vicinal coupling constants), fit rotational isomer probabilities, ran Monte Carlo simulation of probability distributions, and generated graphics with the MATLAB software package. To accomplish these tasks we carefully designed and wrote a library of 36 function files containing about 1600 lines of MATLAB script. These functions passed all variables explicitly through input and output argument lists and made no references to global variables except in one minor instance of a function passed through an input argument list. Important information, such as spin assignments, isomer names, NMR measurement names, Karplus coefficient selections, and $\chi^1 \times \chi^2$ torsion space grid point coordinates, was passed explicitly from low level definition routines back to high level I/O routines to minimize the possibility of mixing up array index definitions.

The NMR observables were calculated by a function file that input a list of NOESY cross relaxing protons and vicinally coupled spins, opened appropriate CHARMM distance or angle data files, which are described in the mechanics methods subsection, and output a matrix of cross relaxation rates and vicinal coupling constants, where the matrix had one column for each NMR observable and one row for each distance or angle listed in the CHARMM files. To calculate a cross relaxation rate the molecular mechanics interproton distance read from the CHARMM data file was raised to the inverse sixth power and multiplied by the average of glycine geminal $\alpha$-proton and leucine geminal $\beta$-proton scale factors, where each scale factor was equal to the experimental geminal proton cross relaxation rate times the sixth power of average molecular mechanics distance between the geminal protons. The glycine and leucine geminal proton relaxation rates were $0.39 \pm 0.01$ s$^{-1}$ and $0.42 \pm 0.01$ s$^{-1}$ respectively. The geminal proton scale factor varied from 13.5 to 13.7 Å$^6$/s$^{-1}$ depending on whether the geminal proton distances were averaged over structures at all energy map grid points or just over the structures of the nine energy minimized rotational isomers. To calculate a vicinal coupling constant the function file selected the Karplus equation coefficients based on the names in the input list of vicinally coupled spins and inserted the molecular mechanics vicinal proton torsion angle read from the CHARMM data file into a Karplus equation with the selected coefficients. The Karplus coefficients for the $J_{H_\alpha,H_\beta}$ and $J_{C,H_\beta}$ coupling constants were specifically calibrated [12, 44] for these couplings in peptides without any correction for cobalt chelation effects. The coefficients for the $J_{H_\alpha,H_\beta}$ coupling constant were those suggested [35, 18] for the sec-butyl fragment without correction for the extra carbon substitution on the $\gamma$-carbon. The coefficients for the $H^\alpha-C^\alpha-C^\beta-C^\gamma$ and $C^\alpha-C^\beta-C^\gamma-H^\gamma$ heteronuclear coupling constants were taken from a fit to theoretical coupling constants calculated for propane [52, 53, 54]. These Karplus coefficients are summarized in Table IV.

The molecular mechanics energy, interproton distances, vicinal proton torsion angles, and NMR observables were all computed on a 5 degree $\chi^1 \times \chi^2$ torsion space grid. The average $\chi^1$ and $\chi^2$ torsion angles and average NMR observables of each rotational isomer were computed by Boltzmann weighted summation over each energy well region in $\chi^1 \times \chi^2$ torsion space. To average the $\chi^1$ and $\chi^2$ torsion angles over an energy well region these angles were referenced to the minimum energy grid point so that they varied continuously in the range $-180$ to $180$ degrees in this energy well region. We assessed the effect of thermal motions by comparing the average NMR observables of each rotational isomer with the observables at the average $\chi^1 \times \chi^2$ torsion angles, at the $\chi^1 \times \chi^2$ energy map minimum position, and at the ideal geometry $\chi^1$ and $\chi^2$ torsion angles. The NMR observables at the average torsion angles were computed by interpolating the observables between $\chi^1 \times \chi^2$ torsion space grid points with a bicubic spline. The energy map minima positions were approximated by the minima of the interpolating function. To assess the accuracy of this approximation we repeated the molecular mechanics energy minimization at the minimum energy grid point in each of the nine energy wells, except that during the last 100 steps of adopted basis Newton-Raphson minimization the $\chi^1$ and $\chi^2$ torsion angle restraints were released. The $\chi^1$ and $\chi^2$ torsion angles of these minimized unrestrained structures differed from the interpolated energy map minimum positions by less than about one half degree for all the energy wells except for the highly anharmonic trans gauche$^{-}$ and trans trans energy wells, where the torsion angles differed from the interpolated positions by about one and one half degrees. Given these small differences in $\chi^1$ and $\chi^2$ torsion angles we assumed that the differences between the distances, angles, and NMR observables interpolated to the energy map minima positions and those calculated from the minimized
unrestrained structures would also be small. We arbitrarily decided to calculate the NMR observables at the \(\chi_1 \times \chi_2^2\) energy map minimum positions from the minimized unrestrained structures rather than calculate them by interpolating the observables between \(\chi_1 \times \chi_2\) torsion space grid points.

To find the rotational isomer probabilities we minimized the difference between the experimentally measured and predicted NOESY cross relaxation rates and vicinal coupling constants subject to the constraints that the probabilities were nonnegative and that their sum was one. The design matrix was formed by calculating the NMR observables for each rotational isomer as described in the last two paragraphs, arranging these observables in a matrix with one row for each observable and one column for each rotational isomer, and dividing each matrix element in each row by the observation error for that row. The observation vector was formed by dividing element-wise the column vector of experimental measurements by the column vector of observation errors. The observation errors were the RMS average of the experimental measurement errors (Table II) and errors in the predicted NMR observables due to uncertainty in the Karplus coefficients and molecular mechanics geometries. The predicted NOESY cross relaxation rates were assumed to have uncorrelated errors of 0.01 s\(^{-1}\) and the predicted vicinal coupling constants were assumed to have uncorrelated errors of 1.0 Hz. The linear least-squares with linear constraints problem was converted to the equivalent \[\chi_1^2 \times \chi_2\] quadratic programming problem and solved by an active set strategy. \[\chi_1\]

The accuracies of the fit rotational isomer probabilities were estimated from Monte Carlo probability density functions and from the diagonal elements of a moment matrix. We setup an unconstrained linear least-squares subproblem with the number of rotational isomer probability parameters equal to one less than the number of inactive nonnegative probability constraints. The desired moment matrix was obtained by transformation \[\chi_1\] of the subproblem moment matrix to generate matrix elements for the probability parameter that was removed to enforce the probability sum constraint. The probability density functions of the fit rotational isomer probabilities (parameters) were computed by the standard Monte Carlo recipe: the experimental NMR observables were fit to yield fit parameters and fit NMR observables, the fit parameters and fit NMR observables were assumed to be the true parameters and the error free experimental NMR observables, random errors were added to the fit NMR observables to give simulated NMR observables, these simulated NMR observables were fit to give simulated fit parameters, the previous two steps were repeated many times and the resulting large set of simulated fit parameters was histogrammed to form the Monte Carlo probability density functions of the fit parameters (rotational isomer probabilities). To keep the simulated NMR observables nonnegative the random errors were drawn from appropriately truncated Gaussian distributions. These distributions were generated by a simple acceptance-rejection method, that is, if one sample drawn from a standard Gaussian distribution would have given a negative value to a particular NMR observable then that sample was discarded and a new sample was drawn and tested in the same way. When the standard deviations of the Monte Carlo probability density functions were significantly smaller than the fit rotational isomer probabilities, that is, when none of the fit rotational isomer probabilities were near zero, the Monte Carlo standard deviations were almost exactly equal to the moment matrix standard deviations.

E. Gel graphics

Monte Carlo probability density functions were displayed as gel graphics, which were designed to visually indicate both the discrete probability fraction at zero population and shape of the continuous probability density over the range of population from zero and one. This was accomplished by a simulated photographic process where the degree of film overexposure indicates the probability fraction at zero population and continuous gray tones represent the continuous part of the probability density. The continuous part of the probability density was prefILTERed to reduce the noise from the Monte Carlo sampling. The prefilter consisted of two cycles of alternating extrapolation and Gaussian smoothing. The first cycle estimated the probability density at zero population by evenly extrapolating the probability density about zero population and then smoothing. In the second cycle the original probability density was oddly extrapolated about the just determined probability density at zero population and then smoothed. The standard deviation of the smoothing in the first cycle was half that in the second cycle. We speak of this second cycle standard deviation as the prefilter standard deviation. This somewhat cumbersome prefilter procedure smoothed the continuous part of the probability density without introducing distortion near zero population, where the probability density typically has a positive value and a nonzero slope. Note that this positive value is distinct from the discrete probability fraction at zero population, which is not prefiltered. The prefiltering eliminated noise from the Monte Carlo sampling, which would otherwise show up as distracting transverse stripes across the gel lanes. We examined the convergence of the probability density functions by repeating Monte Carlo simulations with increasing numbers of steps and comparing conventional probability density plots and gel graphics. The prefilter standard deviation was adjusted to remove Monte Carlo sampling noise without visibly obscuring the shape of the probability density. For simulations of length \(10^3\), \(10^4\), and \(10^5\) steps the appropriate standard deviation expressed as the full width at half max (FWHM) was 32, 16, and 8 histogram bins, where 1024 bins covered the population range from zero to one. At \(10^3\) steps substantial
fluctuations in the shape of the conventional plots were observed, but the gel graphics had at least qualitatively converged to their final appearance. At $10^5$ steps only tiny differences were observed in the conventional plots and the differences in the gel graphics were imperceptible. The gel graphics presented here were created from Monte Carlo simulations of $10^5$ steps, even though simulations as short as $10^3$ steps would be adequate for many purposes.

After prefiltering an initial image was formed with the probability density functions of the rotational isomers displayed in lanes 1024 rows long by 64 columns wide. In this initial image the values across each row were constant and equal to the probability of finding the population in bins of width 1/1024 covering the range zero to one, except that the values across bottom row of each lane contained the discrete probability fraction at zero population. The probability of finding the population in a given bin is proportional to the bin width and inversely proportional to the total number of bins, but the probability fraction at zero population is independent of the bin width. Because of the relatively high resolution of the image the probability fraction at zero population is about an order of magnitude larger than the probability of finding the population in another bin. For this reason the probability fraction at zero population can be effectively displayed as a film overexposure.

To simulate film overexposure at zero population and smooth the lane edges along the continuous part of the probability distribution a Gaussian blur filter with a FWHM of 16 pixels was applied to the initial image. With this amount of blurring the typical probability density at zero population was still considerably greater than that along the continuous part of the probability distribution. The pixel values of the blurred image were treated like scene luminances and converted into photographic print densities. First, the maximum printable luminance $L_m$ was set equal to the maximum probability in the continuous part of the probability distributions, that is, excluding the probability fractions at zero population. The logarithm of the luminance $L$ was converted to density with a characteristic curve given by $(3x^2 - 2x^3)10 \log 2$, where $x = 1 + (\log L - \log L_m)/(10 \log 2)$ and $0 \leq x \leq 1$. Note that the maximum point-gamma of our characteristic curve is 1.5. Then the printable densities were linearly mapped into gray scale values. A stepwedge bar of the 11 zones in the Zone System was added to the gel graphic as an aid to calibrating the probability densities.

**F. Supporting information available**

Molecular mechanics, data analysis, and gel graphics input files and additional data tables, which are sufficient to reproduce all the results reported here, are included in this electronic preprint’s source file.

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cross relaxation rates calculated at these angles and distances.

[77] The torsion angle list can be downloaded from the backbone-dependent rotamer library Web page through a hyperlink to the file of dihedral angles for all chains at http://www.fccc.edu/research/labs/dunbrack/sidechain.html.