Multiple stepwise refolding of immunoglobulin domain I27 upon force quench depends on initial conditions

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Mechanical folding trajectories for polyproteins starting from initially stretched conformations generated by single-molecule atomic force microscopy experiments (Fernandez, J. M. & Li, H. (2004) Science 303, 1674–1678) show that refolding, monitored by the end-to-end distance, occurs in distinct multiple stages. To clarify the molecular nature of folding starting from stretched conformations, we have probed the folding dynamics, upon force quench, for the single I27 domain from the muscle protein titin by using a Cα–Go model. Upon temperature quench, collapse and folding of I27 are synchronous. In contrast, refolding from stretched initial structures not only increases the folding and collapse time scales but also decouples the two kinetic processes. The increase in the folding times is associated primarily with the stretched state to compact random coil transition. Surprisingly, force quench does not alter the nature of the refolding kinetics, but merely increases the height of the free-energy folding barrier. Force quench refolding times scale as \( \tau \approx \exp[\Delta x/k_BT] \), where \( \Delta x \approx 0.6 \text{ nm} \) is the location of the average transition state along the reaction coordinate given by end-to-end distance. We predict that \( \tau \) and the folding mechanism can be dramatically altered by the initial and/or final values of force. The implications of our results for design and analysis of experiments are discussed.

A n ongoing challenge in molecular biology is to decipher the folding routes of biomolecules and map the underlying energy landscape. Major advances in theory, simulations, and ensemble experiments have resulted in a better understanding of how proteins and RNA molecules fold (1–3). In conventional experiments, folding (unfolding) is triggered by decreasing (increasing) concentration of denaturants or temperature. Under folding conditions, biomolecules traverse the energy landscape from the high-entropy unfolded states to a low-entropy native basin of attraction (NBA). Because the initial conformations in the unfolded basin of attraction are difficult to characterize and their fluctuations are averaged out in ensemble experiments, unambiguous description of the folding mechanisms remains a challenge.

Recently, mechanical force (\( f \)) has been used as a variable to prepare well defined initial states of RNA and proteins (4–7). Besides the intrinsic interest in folding, \( f \) is a natural variable in several mechanosensitive processes. For example, a newly synthesized polypeptide chain may be subject to an equilibrium force \( f \approx 10 \text{ pN} \) as it exits the tunnel in the ribosome (8). Similarly, the domains of the muscle protein titin have evolved to withstand cycles of stretching and force release (9). Using \( f \) to unfold proteins, Fernandez and Li (6) showed that refolding can be initiated starting from stretched conformations and quenching the force to a low constant value, \( f_q \), at which the NBA is preferably populated. The mechanical folding experiments probe, at a single-molecule level, the dynamics of transition from a stretched low-entropy state to the low-entropy NBA. The force-quench method was used to obtain mechanical folding trajectories for tandem constructs of poly ubiquitin (Ub). Although the interpretation of the data is not straightforward (see below), the folding trajectories reveal several interesting features: (i) The approach to the NBA from the stretched state occurs in multiple stages when monitored by the time dependence of the end-to-end distance of the poly Ub construct. The initial stage of refolding appears to be continuous. Individual atomic force microscopy trajectories demonstrate significant dynamic heterogeneity. (ii) The force-quench refolding time scales as \( \tau_f \approx \exp[\Delta x/k_BT] \), where \( \Delta x \) is the force time in the absence of force, \( f_q \) is the quench force, \( T \) is the temperature, and \( \Delta x \) is the average location of the transition state. The direct observation of single molecule collapse offers an unprecedented glimpse not only into the energy landscape of proteins, but into the relationship between folding and collapse of polypeptide chains.

The poly Ub construct makes it difficult to decipher the nature of refolding of a monomeric protein. The dynamics of a particular Ub module may be influenced by the covalent linkage to other Ub domains, which collectively act as entropic springs just as the handles do in the mechanical unfolding of RNA molecules (5). To ascertain that the Fernandez and Li experiments (6) describe the refolding dynamics of individual domains and to establish the generality of those results, we have undertaken force-quench simulations of I27 by using a Cα–Go model. We chose I27, one of the domains in the large muscle protein titin, because there have been extensive forced-unfolding studies on this system (10–12). More importantly, because I27 is subject to mechanical stress under physiological conditions (9), it is instructive to compare folding initiated by temperature and force quenches.

At a fixed temperature, force-quench refolding mechanism must depend on the initial stretching force, \( f_i, f_q \), and the equilibrium temperature-dependent critical force \( f_c \) above which the native state becomes unstable. Both \( f_i \) and \( f_q \) can be experimentally controlled, whereas \( f_c \) is an intrinsic sequence-dependent property. From general theoretical considerations we expect that the refolding pathways and time scales should depend
on the dimensionless variables \( f_i/f_r \) and \( f_r/f_\infty \). For a fixed \( f_r \), the depth of quench \( \Delta f_r = (f_r - f_\infty)/f_r \) determines the folding times. Conversely, if \( f_r \) is fixed, then \( f_\infty \) is a function of \( \Delta f_r = (f_r - f_\infty)/f_r \).

Large deviations from temperature-quench refolding are expected when \( \Delta f_r > 1 \). These arguments show that force-quench refolding can be altered either by changing the initial conditions by varying \( f_r \) or by modifying \( f_\infty \).

To probe the molecular details of force-quench refolding, we use coarse-grained protein models (13), which have been successful in protein folding studies (14–16). The results are as follows: (i) Upon force quench, I27 refolds to the NBA from a stretched state in multiple stages. The initial stage involves a rapid transition from a stretched state to an ensemble of metastable random coil (RC) conformations, RC. A rapid transition from a stretched state to an ensemble of metastable random coil (RC) conformations, RC, refolding can be altered either by changing the initial conditions by varying \( f_r \) or by modifying \( f_\infty \).

(ii) The folding pathways initiated from stretched conformations differ substantially from those observed for temperature-quench refolding. In particular, the collapse and folding processes that are synchronous under temperature quench occur on a different time scale when folding is initiated by force quench (3). Force-quench refolding time for I27 monomer \( \tau_{\text{f} \rightarrow \text{RC}} = 10^{13} \exp(\Delta G_{\text{f} \rightarrow \text{RC}}/k_B T) \) shows the same dependence on \( f_r \) as for poly Ub (6). Thus, for a fixed \( f_r \), the refolding free-energy barrier grows linearly with \( f_\infty \) (4). Just as in the Fernández and Li experiments (6), the I27 simulations correspond to \( \Delta f_r > 1 \). To probe the effect of varying \( \Delta f_r \) on refolding, we carried out extensive simulations of a model \( \beta \)-barrel protein that also includes non-native interactions. For a fixed \( f_\infty \), refolding times depend dramatically on the initial conditions, i.e., \( f_r \).

**Methods**

**Coarse-Grained Model for I27.** The conformation of a polypeptide chain in a coarse-grained representation is specified by a set of coordinates \( \mathbf{r}(t) = (1, \ldots, N) \) of the \( C_n \)-carbon atoms, where \( N \) is the number of amino acids. The energy of a conformation for the \( C_n \)-Go model is (14)

\[
E = \sum_{\text{bonds}} K_r (r_i - r_{0,i})^2 + \sum_{\text{angles}} K_{\theta} (\theta_i - \theta_{0,i})^2 + \sum_{\text{dihedral}} K^d \left[ 1 - \cos (\phi_i - \phi_{0,i}) \right] + K^c \left[ 1 - \cos^3 (\phi_i - \phi_{0,i}) \right] + \sum_{i<j} e \left[ 5 \left( r_{ij}/r_q \right)^{12} - 6 \left( r_{ij}/r_q \right)^{10} \right] + \sum_{i>j} e \left( C_{ij}/r_q \right)^{12}
\]

where \( r_i, \theta_i, \) and \( \phi_i \) are the bond length between \( i \) and \( i - 1 \) residues, the bond angle between \( (i - 1, i) \) and \( (i + 1, i) \), and the dihedral angle around the \( i \)th bond, respectively. The distance between residues \( i \) and \( j \) is \( r_{ij} \). Subscript 0 and superscripts NC and NNC refer to native conformation and native and non-native contacts, respectively. The values of the parameters are \( K_r = 250 \text{ kcal/mol-Å}^2, K_\theta = 50 \text{ kcal/mol- rad}^2, K^d = 1.25 \text{ kcal/mol, } K^c = 0.625 \text{ kcal/mol, } e = 1.25 \text{ kcal/mol, and } C = 4 \text{ Å} \). The unit of \( f \) in our model is \( \text{nN} \). Beads \( i \) and \( j \) form a contact in the native state, if \( r_{ij} \leq d_L = 0.6 \text{ nm} \). A contact between \( i \) and \( j \) in an approximate conformation exists if \( r_{ij} \leq 1.2 d_L \). The native conformation of I27 (Protein Data Bank ID code 1TIT) has 86 native \( C_n \) contacts.

**Simulations.** The folding dynamics is obtained by integrating the Langevin equations of motion by using the corrector-predictor algorithm (17). In the presence of a constant \( f \) and assuming a rapid alignment of the end-to-end vector \( \mathbf{R} \) along the force direction, the total energy of the polypeptide is \( E_f = E - f \mathbf{R} \). We calculated \( f \)-dependent thermodynamic quantities by using a version of the multiple histogram method, in which both temperature \( T \) and \( f \) are varied (18).

**Results**

**Force-Quench Refolding Occurs in Steps.** The equilibrium \( f - T \) phase diagram shows that when \( f \) exceeds \( f_c = 43 \text{ pN} \) at \( T_f = 0.85 \text{ K} \) (\( T_f \) is a folding transition temperature at \( f = 0 \)), I27 unfolds (M.S.L., unpublished work). The calculated value of \( f_c \) is in approximate agreement with the estimate (\( f_c = 30 \text{ pN} \)) by Li et al. (19) based on nonequilibrium atomic force microscopy experiments. Given the simplicity of the model and the crude methods used to estimate \( f_c \) in the atomic force microscopy experiments (19), the semiquantitative agreement validates the use of the Go model. To follow the dynamics of approach to the NBA we initially prepared stretched structures by applying a constant \( f = 87 \text{ pN} \) (\( \Delta f_r = 2 \)). A molecule is stretched, if \( R = 0.85 \text{ L} \), where \( L = 30.4 \text{ nm} \) is the contour length of I27. Starting from force-denatured ensemble (FDE) conformations, we quenched the force to \( f_0 \) (4). The refolding dynamics is monitored for 100 molecules by following the time dependence of the number of native contacts \( Q(t) \), the end-to-end distance \( R(t) \), and the radius of gyration \( R_g(t) \).

Refolding trajectories upon force quench show considerable heterogeneity (Fig. 1). Different molecules traverse distinct routes in the FDE → NBA transition. The reduction in \( R \) for the \( f_q = 0 \) case occurs in multiple steps (Fig. 1a and b). At very short times (\( t \leq 30 \text{ ns} \)) \( R \) decreases continuously from 25 nm to \( \approx 10 \text{ nm} \) (stage 1, Fig. 1a). \( R \) fluctuates \( \approx 10 \text{ nm} \) (stage 2) until a transition to \( R \approx 5 \text{ nm} \) occurs around \( t \approx 50 \text{ ns} \) (stage 3). In this refolding trajectory the molecule fluctuates in the compact state (stage 4, \( R = 5 \text{ nm}, R_g = 2.5 \text{ nm}, Q = 30 \text{ nm} \)) until the NBA is reached around \( t \approx 200 \text{ ns} \). At \( t > 200 \text{ ns} \) the fluctuations in \( R \) are considerably reduced (Fig. 1a). Surprisingly, the observed multistep reduction in \( R \) is masked in the time course of \( R_{\infty} \), which changes continuously from the initial value of 7.5 nm to 1.3 nm in the NBA. The acquisition of the native structure, as measured by \( Q \), also occurs in steps from the initial value of \( Q = 0 \) until the NBA is reached. Although another trajectory for \( f_q = 0 \) quench (Fig. 1b) can be similarly interpreted, it is clear that there are significant variations in the lifetimes of the transient intermediates and in the time scales of transition between them. There is no “typical” trajectory, which implies that refolding pathways are heterogeneous.

The pathway diversity is also evident when \( f_q > 0 \) (Fig. 1c and d). Although the decrease in \( R \) occurs in steps as for \( f_q = 0 \), the nature of intermediates sampled en route to the NBA is different. In Fig. 1c, there is a rapid reduction in \( R \) to \( \approx 10 \text{ nm} \) (stage 1) followed by a further decrease to \( R \approx 5 \text{ nm} \) on longer times (stage 3). Another trajectory (Fig. 1d) shows that the residence time of the \( R \approx 10 \text{ nm} \) intermediate is \( \approx 300 \text{ ns} \) (\( 2/3 \) of the first passage time to the NBA). The number of native contacts reveals these differences even more dramatically. In both cases, there are three distinct metastable intermediates that are sampled. Their \( Q \) values are different (Fig. 1c and d), which shows that molecules sample distinct regions of the energy landscape even though the starting conformations are similar. It is interesting to note that even though \( R(t) \) and \( Q(t) \) reflect the stepwise acquisition of structure, \( R(t) \) in all cases decreases more continuously, thus masking the presence of any barriers to folding.

**Collapse and Folding Occur on Distinct Time Scales upon Force Quench.**

The time dependence of \( R(t) \), \( R_g(t) \), and \( Q(t) \) that monitors the relaxation to the NBA from the FDE shows a spectrum of time scales (Fig. 2). Upon force quench to \( f_q \), the initial event is the entropically driven transition from the stretched FDE state.
with TDE folding, collapse and folding occur on different time scales and are characterized by varying chain extension, size, and native content. Dramatic differences between refolding trajectories suggest a heterogeneity of folding pathways.

Angular brackets indicate averages over individual trajectories. Compared fits to these probes (see text for the time scales, amplitudes, and other details).

takes place on a time scale of \( \tau_1^F = 8 \text{ ns} \) and corresponds to a drastic contraction of the dimensions of the polypeptide chain. The amplitudes in the two exponential fits indicate that on \( \tau_1^F \) \( \langle R(t) \rangle \) decreases by about two-thirds of the total variation during refolding, whereas \( \langle R_g(t) \rangle \) decreases by \( \approx 75\% \). The second kinetic stage results in a further reduction of \( \langle R(t) \rangle \) by \( \approx 30\% \) on a time scale \( \tau_2^F \approx 30 \text{ ns} \), whereas collapse, monitored by \( \langle R_g(t) \rangle \), takes place on a significantly longer time scale \( \tau_c^F = 160 \text{ ns} \). This difference shows that the overall chain collapse is more complex than the reduction of the end-to-end distance. The decrease in \( \langle R_g \rangle \) is followed by the acquisition of the native interactions. The formation of native interactions, \( \langle Q(t) \rangle \), also occurs in two kinetic stages with the time scales \( \tau_1^Q = 6 \text{ ns} \) and \( \tau_2^Q = 200 \text{ ns} \). Only 20\% of native contacts are formed during the first fast kinetic stage, whereas the majority (80\%) are formed after the final chain collapse.

The plots of various time scales, describing the transition from FDE to NBA, as a function of \( f_q \) (Fig. 3) show no apparent dependence of time scales \( \tau_0^F \) and \( \tau_0^Q \) on \( f_q \). We rationalize this surprising finding by noting that the entropic force \( (f_c) \) needed to stretch the protein is much greater than the maximum value of the quench force \( (f_q^{\text{max}} = 6 \text{ pN}) \). From the worm-like chain model we find that \( f_c \approx 100 \text{ pN} \) for stretching I27 to 0.85 \( L \). Because \( f_c \gg f_q^{\text{max}} \) the initial compaction of the polypeptide chain that is driven by the magnitude of \( f_q \) is not sensitive to the small \( f_q \) values. In contrast, the collapse time scales, \( \tau_0^F \) and \( \tau_0^Q \), and the folding time scale \( \tau_F \) increase exponentially with \( f_q \). For example, \( \tau_0^F \), at \( f_q \approx 0.13 f_c \approx 6 \text{ pN} \), increases 3-fold as compared with \( f_q = 0 \). For all values of \( f_q \), \( \tau_0^F \) and \( \tau_0^Q \) are smaller than \( \tau_F \), which implies that chain collapse occurs before the acquisition of the native state.

Fig. 1. FDE refolding of I27 domain monitored for individual molecules at the quench forces \( f_q = 0 \) (a and b) and \( f_q = 0.06 f_c \) (c and d). The time dependences of the end-to-end distance \( R(t) \), the radius of gyration \( R_g(t) \), and the number of native contacts \( Q(t) \) are shown in black, red, and green, respectively. The final points in the plots correspond to the first passage time to the NBA. All panels show that FDE refolding occurs in multiple steps (as indicated in a and c) characterized by varying chain extension, size, and native content.

Fig. 2. Kinetics of I27 FDE (in gray) and TDE (in black) refolding monitored by the end-to-end distance \( R(t) \), the radius of gyration \( R_g(t) \), and the number of native contacts \( Q(t) \). Smooth curves represent multiexponential fits to these probes (see text for the time scales, amplitudes, and other details). Angular brackets indicate averages over individual trajectories. Compared with TDE folding, collapse and folding occur on different time scales and are markedly slower when folding commences from FDE.
Ensemble of Initial Unfolded Structures Determines the Folding Pathways. A RC-like temperature-denatured ensemble (TDE) is generated by increasing temperature. Upon temperature quench the folding transition starts from a high-entropy TDE state to a low-entropy folded (NBA) state. In contrast, in FDE refolding, the low-entropy NBA is reached from a low-entropy stretched state with the initial rapid kinetic stage being the FDE → RC transition. If the relaxation of tension along the chain is rapid compared with protein conformational changes, then the ensemble of transiently populated coil conformations upon force-quench RC must be distinct from the TDE. The transiently populated metastable RC state RC at T < T_F is under tension when f_0 > 0. These physical arguments suggest that FDE refolding pathways and time scales must be different from those observed for TDE refolding (Fig. 4).

When refolding is initiated by a temperature quench, (R(t)) decreases exponentially with a single characteristic time scale τ^R = 8 ns (Fig. 2). In contrast, (R_c(t)) and (Q(t)) show two-stage kinetics. Their double exponential fits indicate that the first kinetic (“burst”) stage coincides with the contraction of the end-to-end distance (τ^R_1 = 10 ns and τ^R_2 = 4 ns). During this initial stage, the chain dimensions are reduced by ~50%, and ~25% of native contacts are formed. The final collapse and folding take place on a much longer time scale (τ^R_3 = 130 ns). This stage is associated with the formation of the bulk of the native interactions (75%) and further compaction of the chain by ~50%. The data show that collapse and folding starting with the TDE conformations are effectively synchronous.

In contrast to TDE folding, (R(t)) in FDE refolding shows a two-stage relaxation (Fig. 2). The radius of gyration and the number of native contacts also follow a two-stage kinetics as for TDE. However, FDE time scales, τ^F_1 and τ^F_2, increase by 30% and 50%, respectively (Fig. 2). The folding time τ_F shows a similar increase (from τ_F^TDE = 180 ns to τ_F^FDE = 300 ns).

More importantly, collapse and folding are no longer synchronous (Figs. 2 and 3) when folding is initiated from FDE.

Physics of Refolding Is Not Model Dependent. To ascertain that the qualitative results for the I27 Go model are not model dependent, we performed the force-quench refolding simulations by using the four-strand β-barrel model sequence S1 (20). This model differs from I27 in two important aspects. First, the energy function of S1 includes non-native interactions that are neglected in the I27 model. Second, the native topology of S1 is a β-barrel, which is simpler than the β-sandwich structure of I27. The S1 simulations (for details see Supporting Text and Figs. 6 and 7, which are published as supporting information on the PNAS web site) were performed under the conditions similar to those used for I27. All structural probes, which monitor TDE refolding, show a concerted collapse and folding on a single time scale of ~85 ns. When folding is initiated with FDE conformations (f_0 = 0), we observe an additional rapid relaxation, corresponding to contraction of the initially fully stretched conformations to partially stretched RC_f whose average dimensions are about double that of TDE. In addition, the time scale for reaching the NBA increases by a factor of two. Surprisingly, the final collapse time scales in TDE and FDE refolding are nearly the same. Therefore, folding and collapse occur on distinct time scales upon the change in initial conformations. Hence, the findings for S1 and I27 are in qualitative agreement.

From the results for S1 and I27, we surmise that the qualitative differences between folding initiated by temperature or force quenches are primarily related to the variations in the nature of the metastable RC and the thermally equilibrated TDE (Fig. 4). It is the memory of the initially stretched conformation that makes the RC ensemble sampled along FDE refolding pathways different from the TDE. By shifting the FDE plots by Δt to the left, we find that the distribution of conformations in the FDE pathway approaches TDE if Δt ~ 50 ns (Fig. 5). The striking agreement between FDE and TDE refolding plots upon Δt shift suggests that folding begins only after RC_f conformations start to “resemble” the TDE RC conformations. Subsequently, both kinetic processes are similar. The delay in FDE folding com-
The dependence of the folding time of native contacts as a suitable reaction coordinate in the FDE obtained the $fq$ surprisingly long ($\Delta t_{f} \sim 0.3$). The long time needed to reach local equilibration in RCs, after which folding begins, explains the increase in $\tau_f$ for FDE folding as compared with that for TDE. This finding also shows that folding strongly depends on the starting point on the energy landscape.

To further probe the dependence of force quench $\tau_f$ on the initial conditions, we prepared distinct FDEs by stretching S1 to a different value of the initial end-to-end distance, $R$. This procedure is equivalent to varying $f_0$ albeit in a nonlinear manner. In accord with the physical picture in Fig. 4, we find that, at $f_0 = 0$, $\tau_f$ changes dramatically with $R$ (Fig. 5 Inset). Thus, initial conditions, which can be readily manipulated in laser optical tweezer or atomic force microscopy experiments by altering $f_0$, determine the refolding mechanism and time scales.

**Collapse and Refolding Times for I27 Depend Exponentially on $f_0$.** We obtained the $f_0$-dependent refolding time $\tau_f$ from the distributions of first passage times computed by using 50–100 trajectories for each value of $f_0$. When $f_0 = 0$, we find that $\tau_f \sim 300$ ns, which is $\sim 60\%$ more than the TDE refolding time at $T_i = 0.85 T_F$. When $f_0 > 0$, the refolding times obey the relation

$$\tau_f(f_0) = \tau_0 \exp \left( \frac{\Delta_t}{k T} \right),$$

where $\Delta_t$ is the average location of the folding transition-state ensemble (Fig. 3 Inset). From the linear fit of log($\tau_f$) as a function of $f_0$, by using Eq. 2 we get $\Delta_t \sim 0.6$ nm for I27 at $T_i = 0.85 T_F$. In the force-quench experiments $R$ can be treated as a suitable reaction coordinate in the FDE → NBA transition (6). The dependence of $\tau_f$ on $f_0$ can be written as $\tau_f = \exp(\Delta G_{U\beta}/k T_f)$, where $\Delta G_{U\beta}$ is the equilibrium free energy of stability of the NBA with respect to the unfolded states, $y = f_0/f_c$, and $X_{U\beta}$ is the distance between the NBA and the unfolded states. In force-quench experiments, the search for the transition-state ensemble occurs among the ensemble of unfolded states. With this interpretation, a Tanford-like parameter can be written as $\beta = \Delta X_{f}/\Delta X_{U\beta} = 0.2$ for I27, where $\Delta X_{U\beta} = a(N^{1/3} - N^{2/3})$.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

Force-quench experiments offer a potential of initiating biomolecular refolding starting from arbitrary initial values of the end-to-end distance, $R$ (6). Fernandez and Li (6) generated mechanical folding trajectories from the regions of free energy landscape that cannot be accessed in conventional experiments. In this work, we have used coarse-grained models for the $\beta$-sandwich protein I27 and $\beta$-barrel to probe refolding from the ensemble of stretched structures. The implications of our findings are discussed below.

The refolding pathways are heterogeneous, with the approach to NBA occurring in distinct stages. The longer refolding times in FDE simulations compared with TDE refolding are caused by the reduction in the rate of formation of low-energy compact structures. Similar to poly Ub, several long-lived intermediates with varying values of $R$ and $Q$ are sampled en route to the NBA. These results for a monomeric I27 are in qualitative accord with the conclusions drawn from mechanical folding trajectories for poly Ub (6).

The nature of the ensemble of initial states determines the collapse and folding pathways. When the protein is fully extended, the entropy of the stretched state is dramatically lower than that of TDE conformations. Refolding from FDE effectively starts from extended conformations ($R_h \sim N$), whereas TDE refolding begins from the ensemble of conformations with a mean $R_h \sim N^{0.6}$. The folding initiated with FDE differs from TDE folding in two aspects. First, the stretched polypeptide chain must initially contract to the ensemble of conformations with the dimensions approximately similar to TDE RCs. Second, FDE leads to the delay in formation of native interactions, because chain must not only contract, but also “equilibrate” within a RC ensemble. Therefore, when folding begins from stretched state, the collapse and folding occur on distinct time scales. In contrast, when TDE is used, collapse and folding often occur in concert for two-state folders.

Force-quench experiments on poly Ub (6) and the present study on monomeric proteins show that the $f_0$-dependent refolding time obeys Eq. 2. However, the value of $\tau_f$ extrapolated to $f_0 = 0$ is larger than that obtained by conventional experiments. Fernandez and Li (6) obtained $\tau_f \sim 0.01$ s for ubiquitin, whereas the folding time from ensemble experiments $\tau_f \sim 3$ ms (21). Our results show that the difference between the two experimental values is caused by the vastly different initial conditions, from which refolding is initiated. In the transition from the stretched state to the NBA, a large free-energy cost is involved in burying substantial surface area $\Delta A \sim (R_h^2 - a N^{2/3})$. In contrast, the NBA is accessed from TDE by much smaller conformational fluctuations. The discrepancy between $\tau_f$ and $\tau_f$ should decrease, if $f_0$ does not fully stretch the polypeptide chain (Fig. 5 Inset).

In the Fernandez and Li experiments (6), $f_0$ is fixed ($\Delta f_0 \sim 3$) and $f_0$ is varied, which affects the free energies of the folded and
unfolded states. The linear increase in the free-energy barrier to folding, which is consistent with the Bell-type model (22), is caused by the stabilization of the RCF states with increasing fQ.

The presence of free-energy barrier to folding is consistent with theoretical (23, 24) predictions and simulation results (25) that show that equilibrium-force unfolding is a first-order transition. On the other hand, if fQ is fixed and fI is varied, then we expect \( \tau_I \approx \exp(\gamma f_I) \), where \( \gamma \) is an effective surface tension. This finding suggests that the shape of the dependence of \( \tau_I \) on \( f_I \) should approximately resemble the equilibrium force-extension curve (Fig. 5 Inset). These arguments show that force-quench refolding with fixed \( f_I \) and varying \( f_Q \) is qualitatively different from folding with \( f_Q \) fixed and differing \( f_I \) values. This inherent asymmetry can be exploited to map the free-energy landscape of proteins.

It is not straightforward to infer the nature of monomeric protein folding from mechanical folding trajectories of polypeptide constructs. The folding of the ith domain may be influenced by the neighboring domains that act as “flexible” linkers. Resolution of folding trajectories of a single domain requires that the spring constant of a linker \( k_L \) > \( k_P \), where \( k_P \) is a measure of the “softness” of a protein. This requirement may not be satisfied in polypeptide constructs. Therefore, it is preferable to use stiff linkers that sandwich the monomeric protein just as was done in the mechanical unfolding of RNAs (5). Computational studies of force-quench refolding of RNA hairpins with linkers show that relaxation dynamics of the hairpin and the linkers is additive (C. Hyeon and D.T., unpublished work). This finding implies that by varying separately the mechanical properties of the linker and the linker-biomolecule-linker constructs the refolding dynamics of the monomeric protein can be directly monitored.

The major limitation of the present study is the use of the coarse-grained models. For more realistic models, the difference between the time scales of TDE and FDE folding is likely to grow (6). Because the physics of the transition from stretched states to the native conformation is generic (Fig. 4), we propose that the qualitative aspects of force-quench refolding explored here should be valid for other single-domain proteins.

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