

# Bimolecular reactions in biology

## Enzymatic reactions

- first steps: formation of enzyme-substrate complex

## Ligand binding

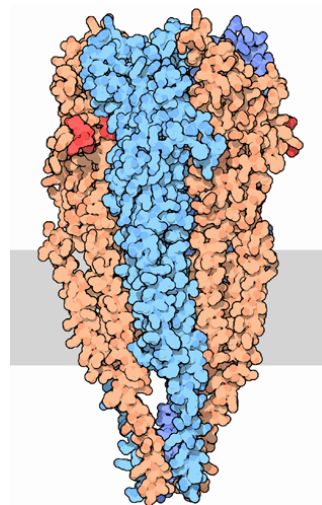
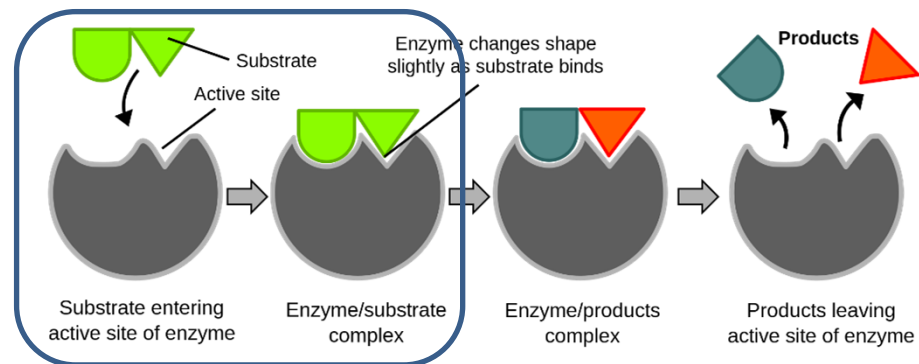
Receptor – ligand interactions, signaling

## Complex formation

assembly of macromolecular complexes, aggregates

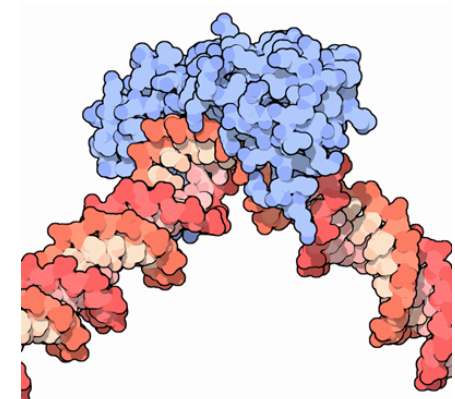
## Protein-DNA interactions

Transcription factor binding of DNA segments



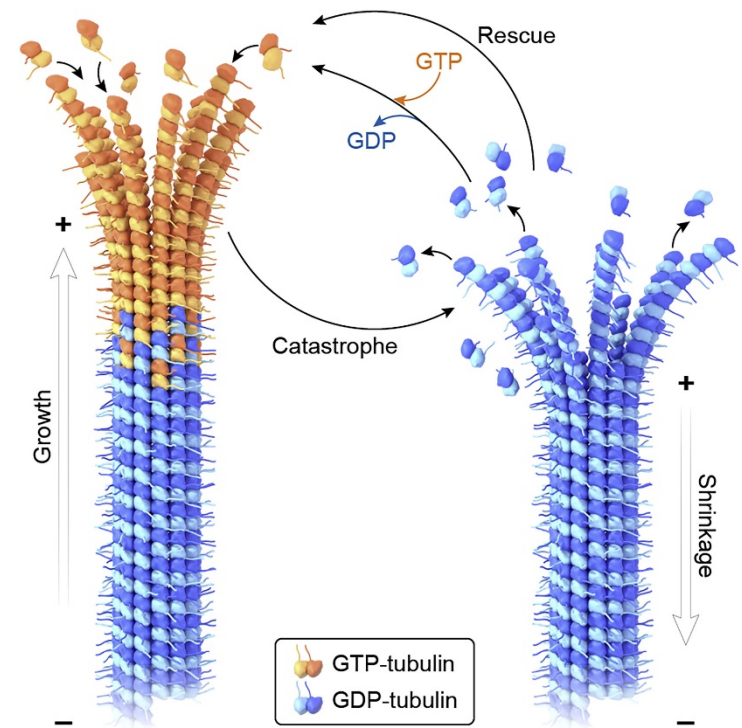
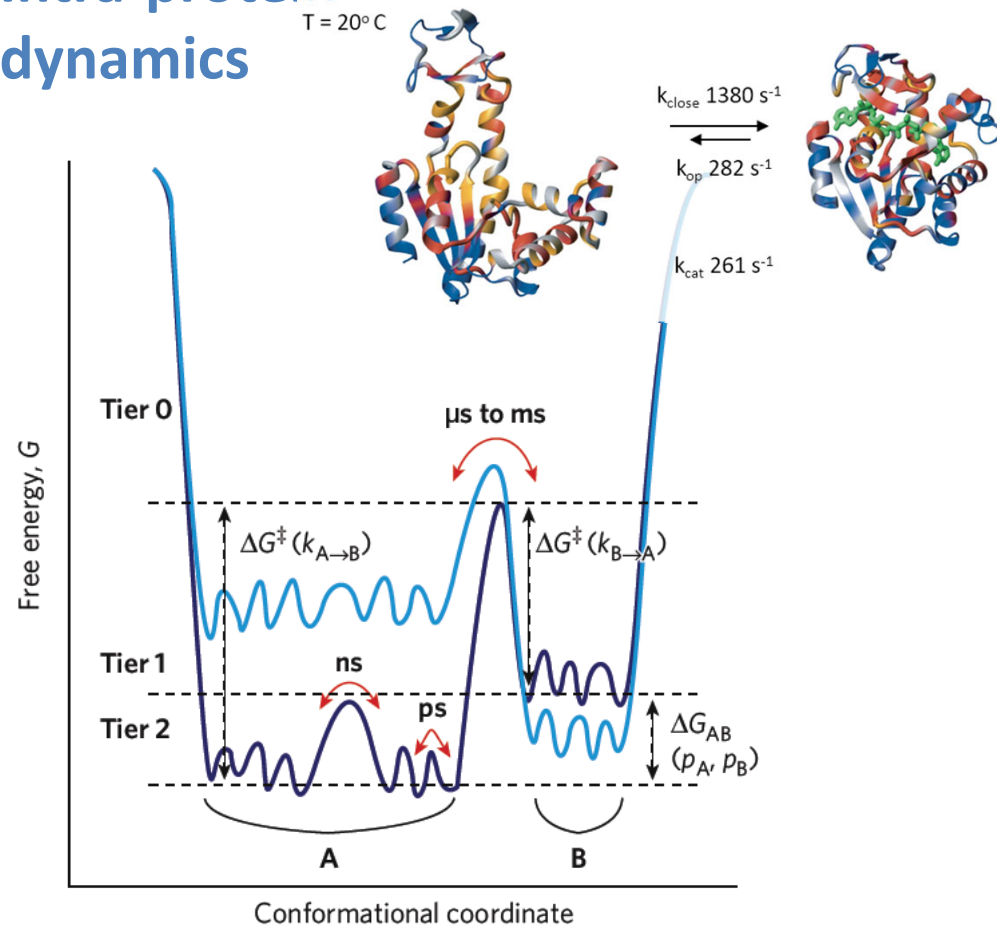
acetylcholine receptor

γATA-binding protein



# Protein dynamics

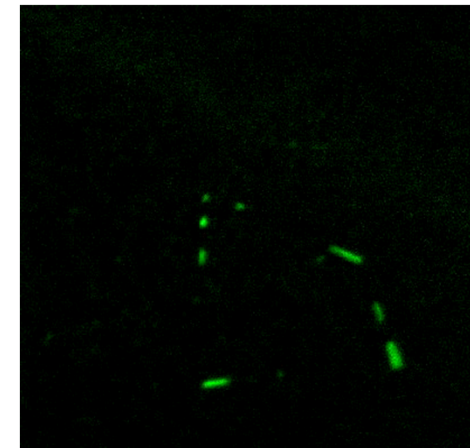
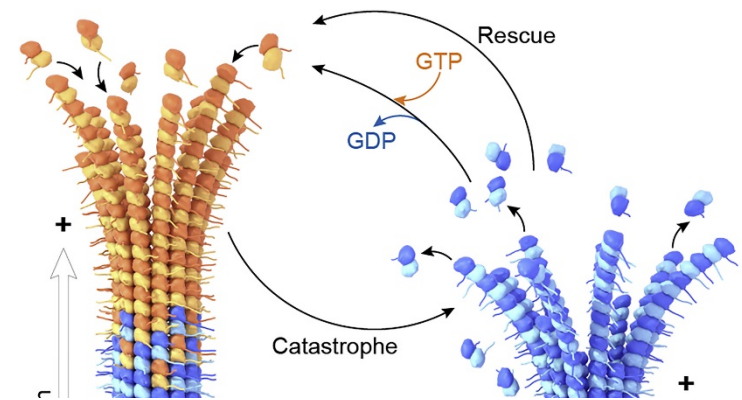
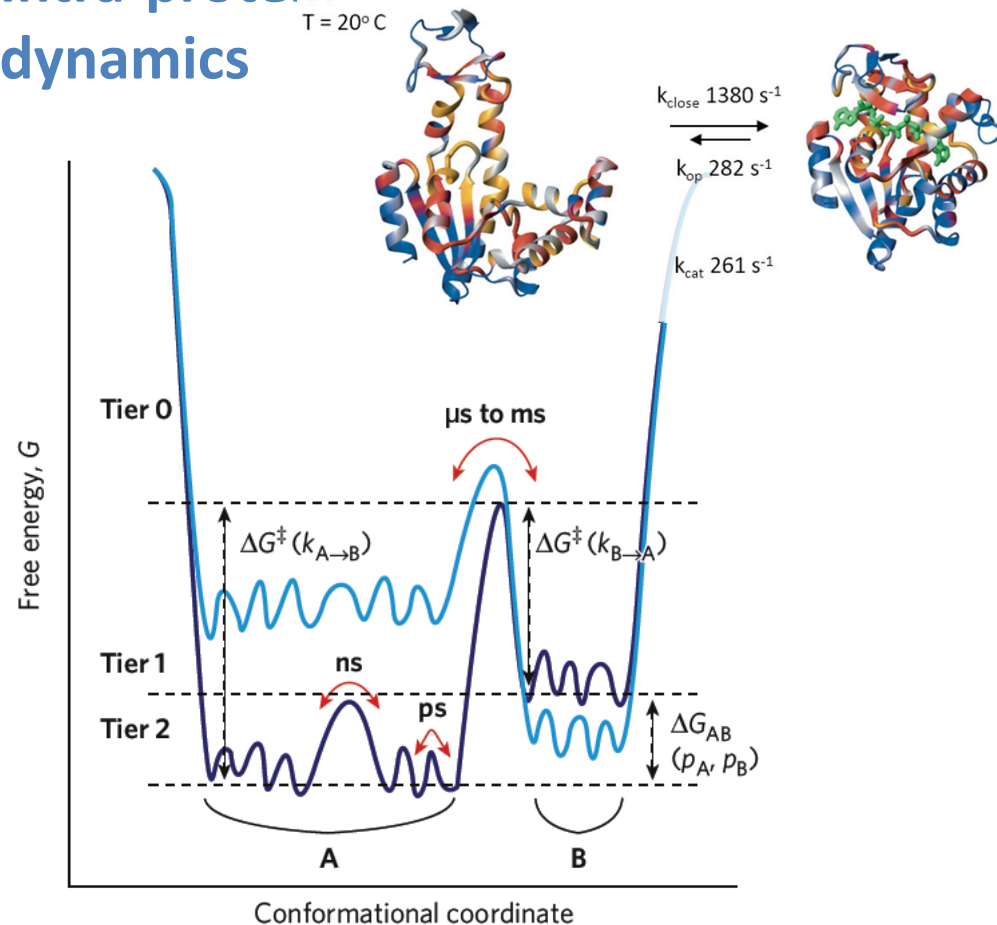
## Intra-protein dynamics



## Inter-protein dynamics

# Protein dynamics

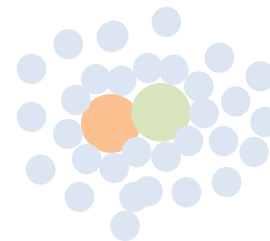
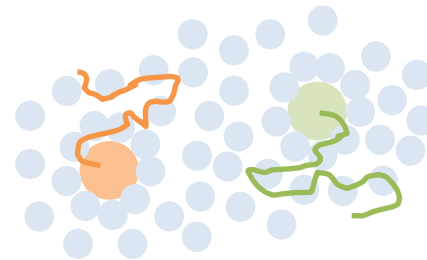
## Intra-protein dynamics



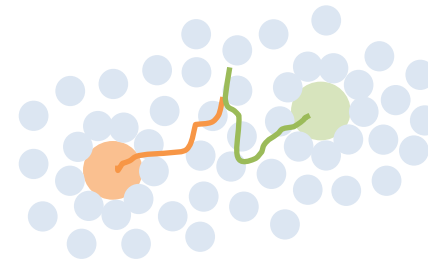
# Bimolecular Reactions in solution

## Steps for a reaction to occur:

- molecular diffusion
- results in random collisions
- every molecule is surrounded by a solvation shell
- solvation shell is shared  $\rightarrow$  encounter complex, repeated collisions
- **reaction?** not every encounter complex is productive  $\rightarrow$  depends on the reaction
- dissociation of the complex

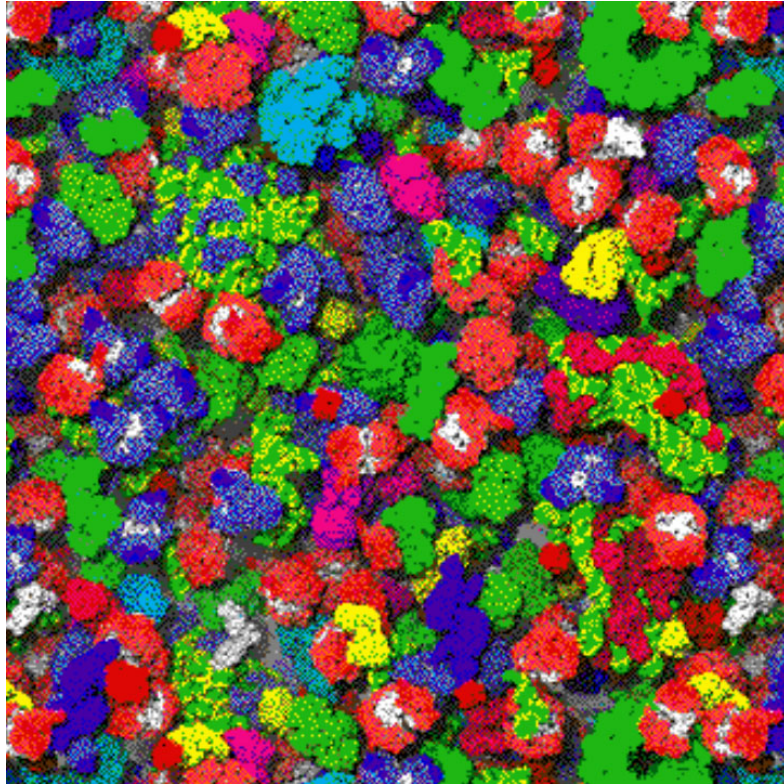


$10^{-10} - 10^{-8}$  s  
for small  
molecules



# Diffusion in biological systems

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*McGuffee & Elcock,  
PLOS Comp Biol 2010*

- Examples of diffusion processes:
  - enzymes and metabolites
  - receptors
  - protein protein interactions
  - transcription factor binding



# Average distance travelled in a random walk

Assuming, per time unit  $t$ ,  $N'$  steps occur, then the number of steps is given by

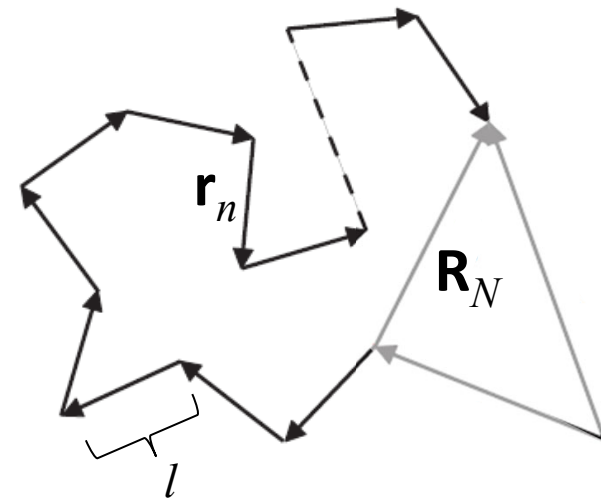
$$N(t) = N' \cdot t$$

and the travelled distance can be expressed as:

$$\langle \mathbf{r}^2 \rangle = N' l^2 t \quad \langle \mathbf{r} \rangle \propto \sqrt{t}$$

and the probability of traveling a distance  $x$

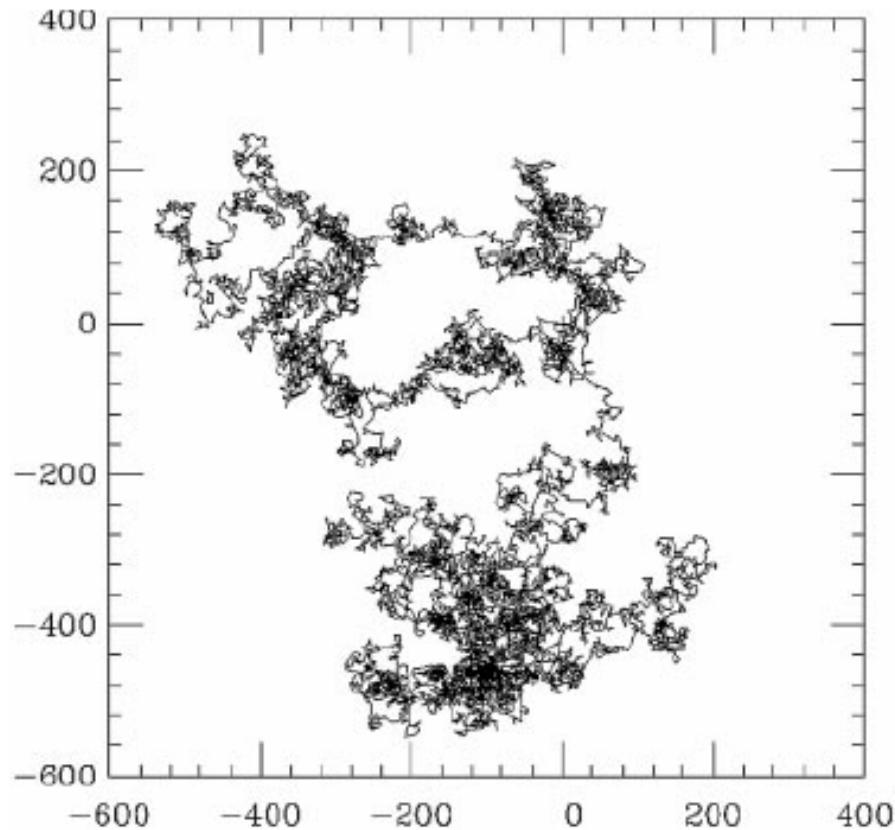
$$p(r)dr = \frac{4\pi x^2}{(2\pi N' l^2 t)^{3/2}} e^{-\frac{r^2}{2N' l^2 t}} dr$$



equivalence to  
freely jointed chain!

# Molecules undergo a random walk in solution

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## Brownian motion

- steps in all directions are equally likely
- stepsize large in gaseous phase
- in solution, steps are infinitesimally short due to solvent interactions
- limited by mobility and size of molecules
- by solvent interactions / mobility  $\rightarrow$  viscosity

# Mean squared displacement with diffusion

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Redefine the steplength and frequency as the **diffusion coefficient  $D$** .

This yield the following equations, dependent on the dimensionality of the process:

$$\text{1D – diffusion: } \langle x^2 \rangle = 2Dt$$

$$\text{2D – diffusion: } \langle \rho^2 \rangle = 4Dt$$

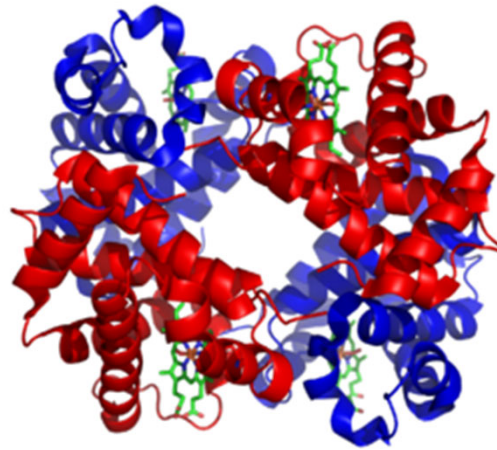
$$\text{3D – diffusion: } \langle r^2 \rangle = 6Dt$$

$$D = \frac{kT}{f} = \frac{kT}{6\pi\eta r}$$



# Quiz...

- Estimate the diffusion coefficient of **hemoglobin**.
- **Estimate, how long** a hemoglobin molecule would need to diffuse the length of a red blood cell (7  $\mu\text{m}$ )?



Hemoglobin  
(ca. 5 nm  
diameter)

Boltzmann constant =

$$1.3806488 \times 10^{-23} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg s}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$$

water viscosity

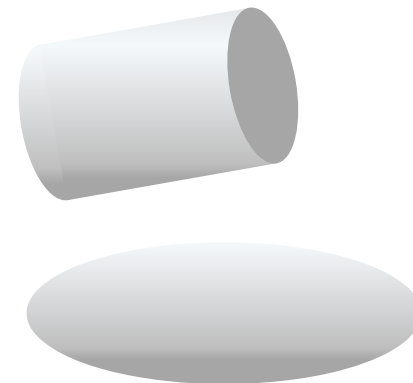
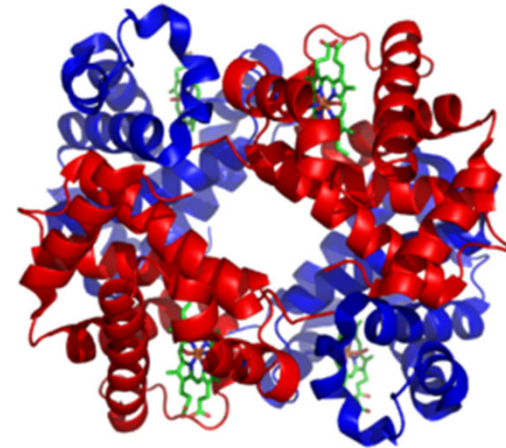
Temperature [°C]	Viscosity [mPa·s]
10	1.308
20	1.002
30	0.7978
40	0.6531
50	0.5471
60	0.4658
70	0.4044
80	0.3550
90	0.3150
100	0.2822

how long for 7 micrometers					
D hemoglobin		69um <sup>2</sup> / s			
viscosity		0.7mPa s			
kb		1.38E-23m <sup>2</sup> kg s <sup>-2</sup> K <sup>-1</sup>			
equation		$\langle r^2 \rangle = 6Dt$			0.016908s
					16.90821ms
		$D = \frac{kT}{f} = \frac{kT}{6\pi\eta r}$			
D	1.29812E-10				
	129.8122966um <sup>2</sup> /s				

# Diffusion coefficients of proteins

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- The radius of a spherical protein can be calculated from  $D$  (i.e. the Stokes radius)
- biological molecules are always **hydrated**
- solvation effectively increases the **hydrodynamic volume** of a molecule and therefore its frictional coefficient
- Molecular shape will also influence the diffusion coefficient: deviation from spherical shape -> **larger frictional coefficient**



# Diffusion is efficient for small particles over small distances

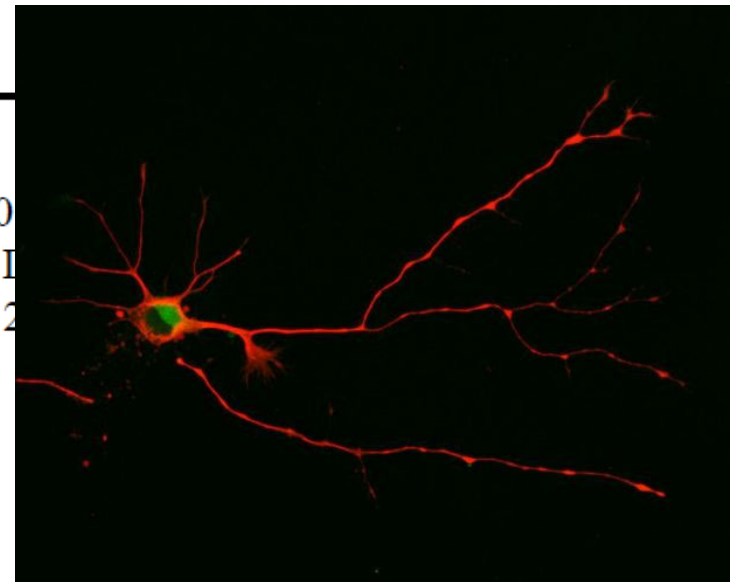
Object	Distance diffused			
	1 $\mu\text{m}$	100 $\mu\text{m}$	1 mm	1 m
K <sup>+</sup>	0.25ms	2.5s	$2.5 \times 10^4\text{s}$ (7 hrs)	$2.5 \times 10^8\text{s}$ (8 yrs)
Protein	5ms	50s	$5.0 \times 10^5\text{s}$ (6 days)	$5.0 \times 10^9\text{s}$ (150 yrs)
Organelle	1s	$10^4\text{s}$ (3 hrs)	$10^8\text{s}$ (3 yrs)	

K<sup>+</sup>: Radius = 0.1nm, viscosity =  $1\text{mPa} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ ; T = 25°C; D=20

Protein: Radius = 3nm, viscosity =  $0.6915\text{mPa} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ ; T = 37; D=

Organelle: Radius = 500nm, viscosity =  $0.8904\text{mPa} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ ; T = 2

For long distances (axon) or large particles (vesicles), **active transport is required**



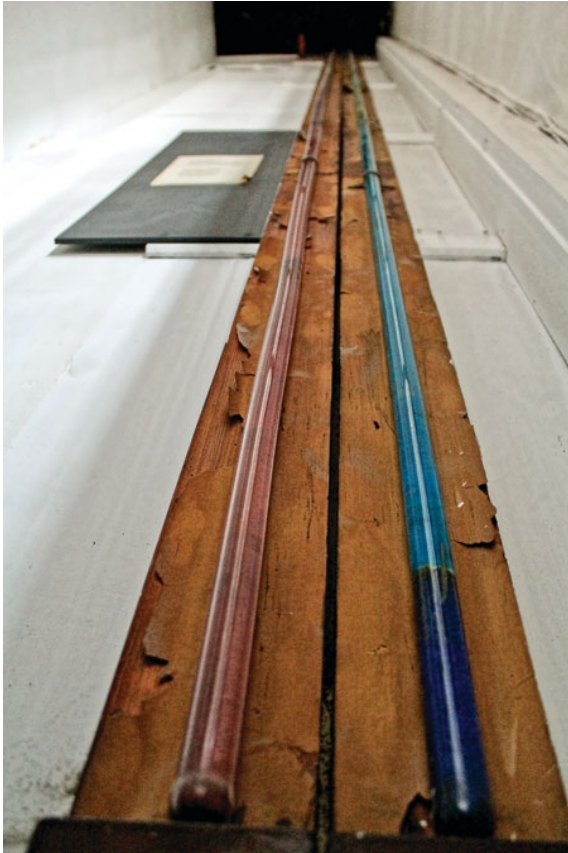
# How to measure diffusion coefficients?

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- **Macroscopic measurement (dye in a cuvette)**
  - **Analytical ultracentrifugation**
  - **Dynamic light scattering**
  - Fluorescence correlation spectroscopy
  - single molecule experiments, e.g. single particle tracking
- } correlation spectroscopy
- } direct observation

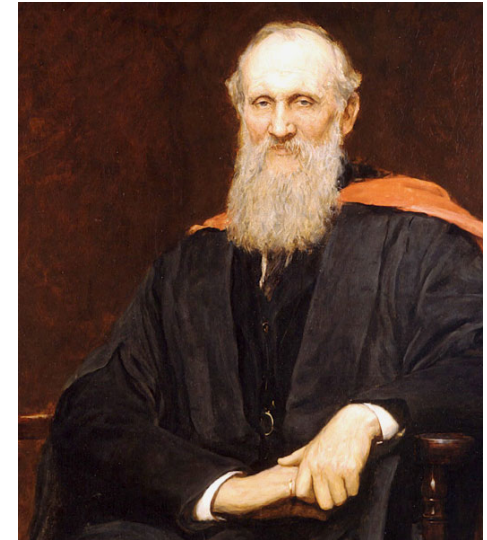
# Macroscopic observations

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"In 1872 [Lord Kelvin] set up two vertical 17.5-foot glass tubes in a lecture theater [at Glasgow]. Kelvin partly filled one tube with a copper sulfate solution and then carefully topped it off with water. He partly filled the second tube with water and then topped it off with colored alcohol."

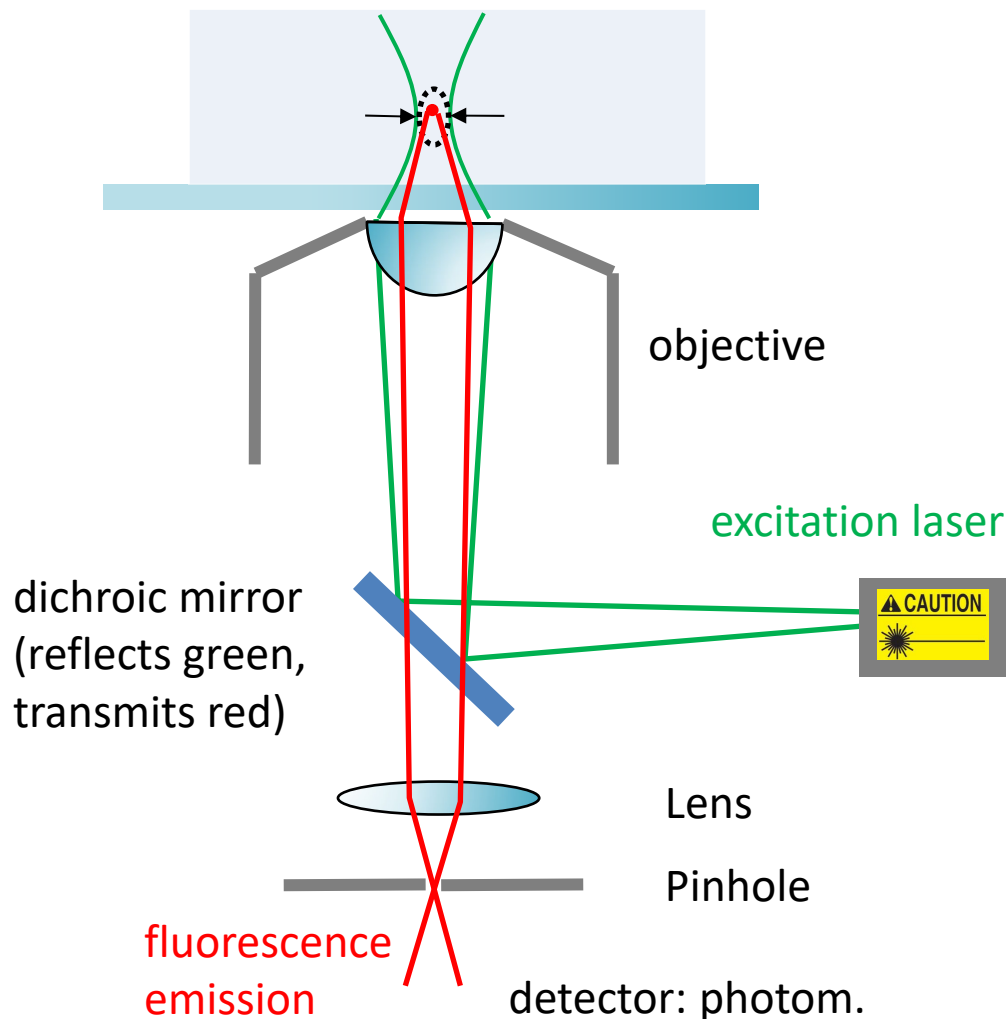
One of the longest running scientific experiments: it is undisturbed since 142 years



Lord Kelvin,  
1824-1907



# Measuring dynamics of fluorescent molecules



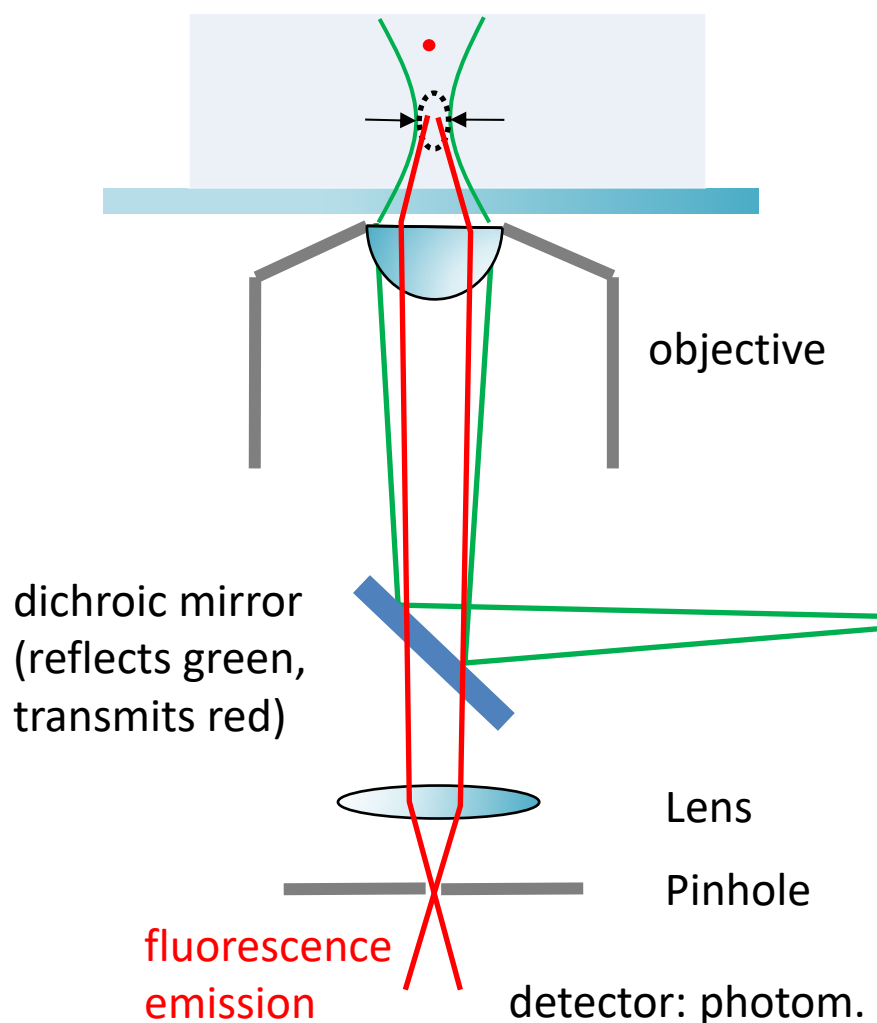
**If the concentration of fluorescent molecules is low:**

Only a low number of molecules occupy the confocal volume at any time

Fluorescence emission is no longer continuous, but fluctuates with the number of molecules

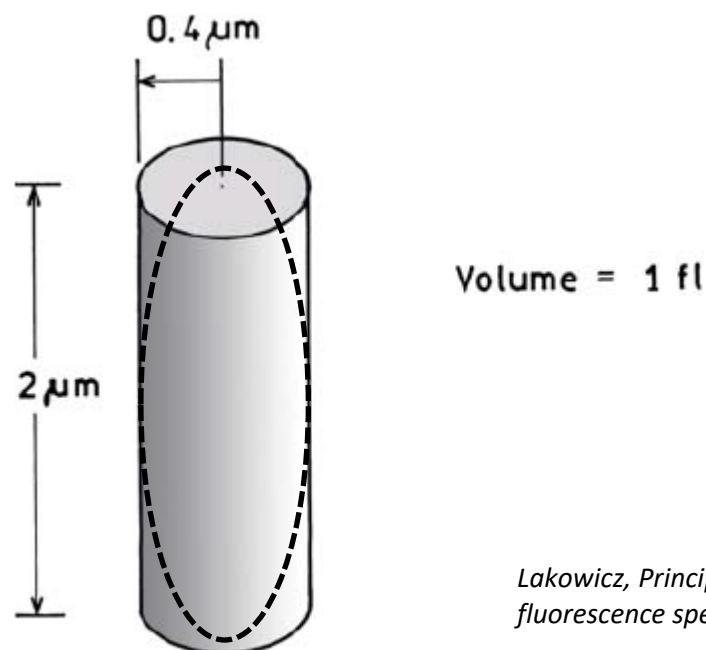
→ this can be exploited to study the motion of individual molecules in cells

# Confocal Imaging



## Confocal imaging of molecules:

Only light from a small volume is recorded, all other light from the sample is blocked by a **pinhole**.



*Lakowicz, Principles of fluorescence spectroscopy*

Figure 24.1. Typical volume in an FCS experiment.

# Fluorescence correlation spectroscopy (FCS)

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## FCS:

based on the analysis of time-dependent **fluorescence intensity fluctuations** resulting from dynamic processes

## Confocal volume (CV)

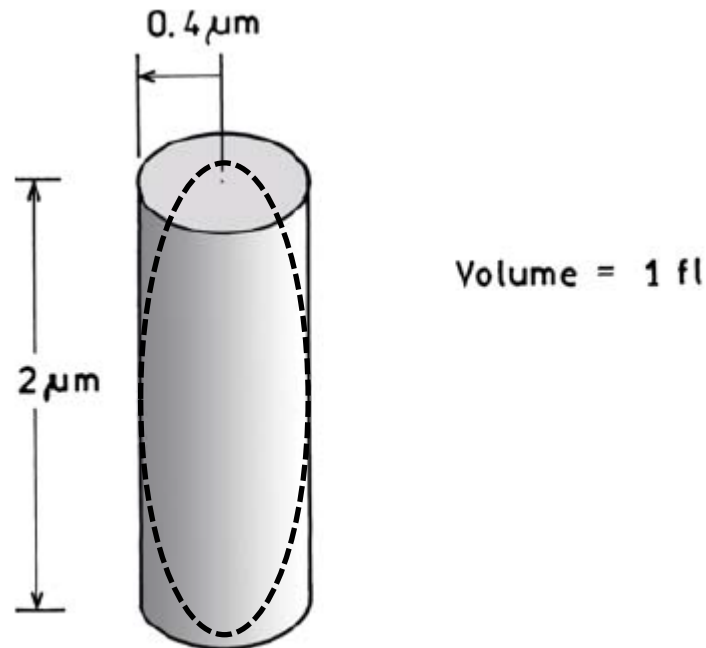


Figure 24.1. Typical volume in an FCS experiment.

*Lakowicz, Principles of  
fluorescence spectroscopy*

# Fluorescence correlation spectroscopy (FCS)

## FCS:

based on the analysis of time-dependent **fluorescence intensity fluctuations** resulting from dynamic processes

## Confocal volume (CV)

Diffusion of a fluorescent molecule into the CV

→ burst of fluorescence emission

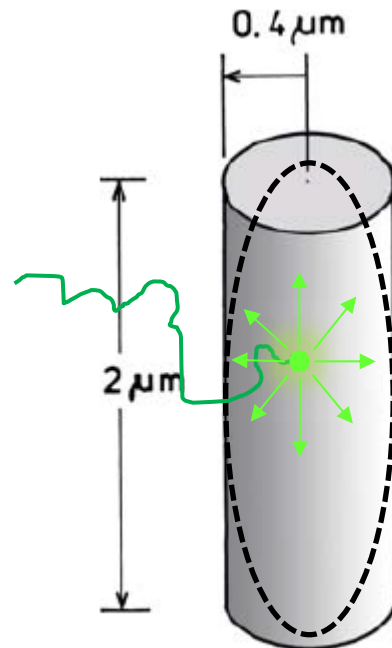


Figure 24.1. Typical volume in an FCS experiment.

## Concentration

at low concentrations (nM), only few molecules simultaneously occupy CV

→ Diffuse in and out randomly

Volume = 1 fl

$c = 1 \text{ nM}$

$N = 0.6 \text{ molecules}$

*Lakowicz, Principles of fluorescence spectroscopy*

# Origin of fluorescence fluctuations at low concentrations

## FCS is governed by Poisson statistics

Probability of having  $n$  mol.  
in the CV, when average  
number in CV is  $N$

$$P(n, N) = \frac{N^n}{n!} e^{-N}$$

e.g. for  $N = 0.6$

$P(0) = 0.55$

$P(1) = 0.33$

$P(2) = 0.10$

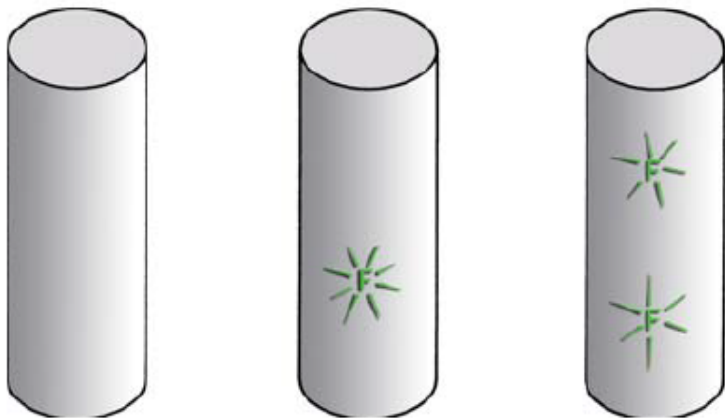


Figure 24.2. Poisson distribution of a 1-nM fluorophore solution in a 1-fl volume,  $N = 0.6$ .

## Measured fluorescence intensities

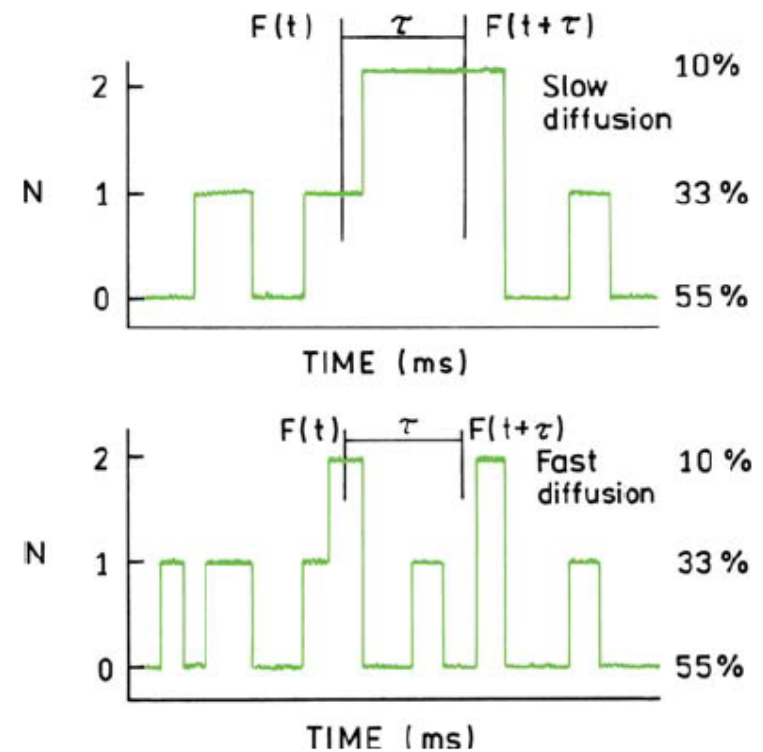


Figure 24.3. Fluctuations in the number of fluorophores ( $N$ ) in the observed volume of 1 fl with  $c = 1$  nM. The intensity axis is in units of the intensity from a single fluorophore.

# Comparing fluorescence intensities in time

## Calculating the auto correlation function

The autocorrelation function  $G(t)$  is given by the product of the intensity at time  $t$ ,  $F(t)$  with the intensity at time  $t + \tau$ ,  $F(t + \tau)$

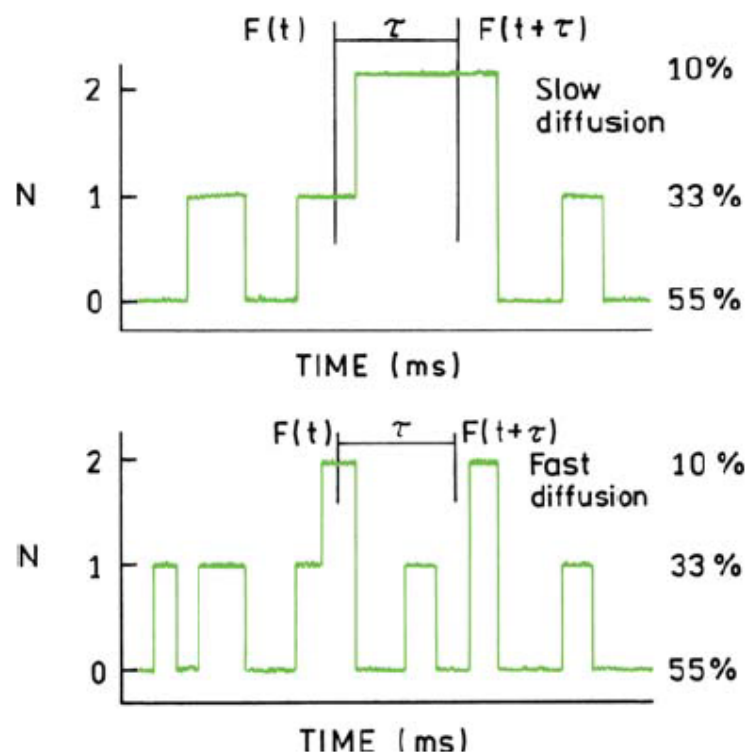
The autocorrelation is further normalized by the average intensity squared

$$G'(\tau) = \frac{\langle F(t) F(t + \tau) \rangle}{\langle F \rangle \langle F \rangle}$$

$$G(\tau) = \frac{\langle \delta F(0) \delta F(\tau) \rangle}{\langle F \rangle^2}$$

with  $\delta F$  as the variance of  $F$

## Measured fluorescence intensities



**Figure 24.3.** Fluctuations in the number of fluorophores ( $N$ ) in the observed volume of 1 fl with  $c = 1$  nM. The intensity axis is in units of the intensity from a single fluorophore.



# Comparing fluorescence intensities in time

## Calculating the auto correlation function

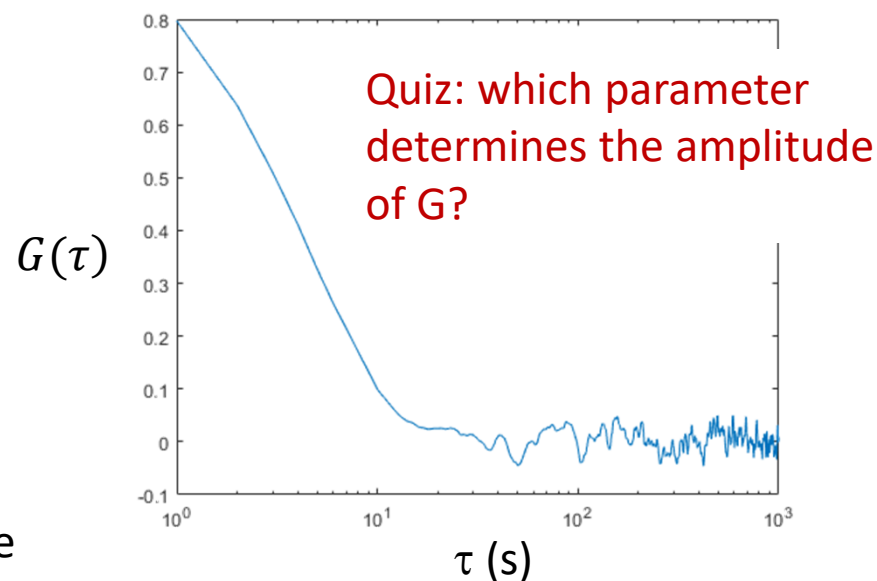
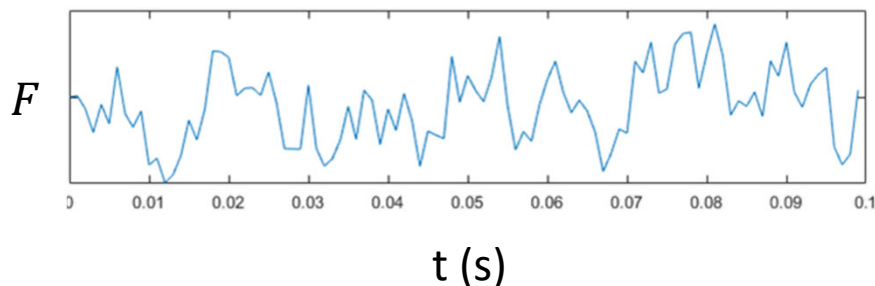
The autocorrelation function  $G(t)$  is given by the product of the intensity at time  $t$ ,  $F(t)$  with the intensity at time  $t + \tau$ ,  $F(t + \tau)$

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$$G'(\tau) = \frac{\langle F(t) F(t + \tau) \rangle}{\langle F \rangle \langle F \rangle}$$

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with  $\delta F$  as the variance of  $F$

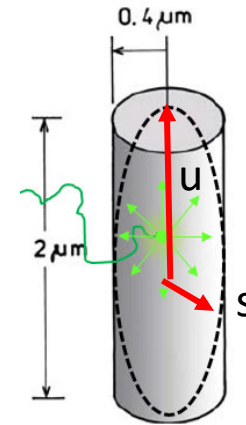


# Diffusion and the autocorrelation function

## The autocorrelation function of diffusing particles in 3D

$$\langle \delta C(r, 0) \delta C(r', \tau) \rangle \\ = \bar{C} (4\pi D \tau)^{3/2} \exp \left[ -|r - r'|^2 / 4D\tau \right]$$

$C(r, t)$ : no. fluorophores / molecules with position  $r$  in the confocal volume,  
 $D$ : diffusion coefficient



*Lakowicz, Principles of fluorescence spectroscopy*

with this (and considering the different brightness of molecules in the confocal volume) the autocorrelation of the fluorescence becomes:

$$G(\tau) = G(0) \cdot \left( 1 + \frac{4D\tau}{s^2} \right)^{-1} \cdot \left( 1 + \frac{4D\tau}{u^2} \right)^{-1/2}$$

with  $u$ : long radius of the ellipsoid  
 $s$ : short radius of the ellipsoid

$$G(\tau) = G(0) \cdot D(\tau)$$

# Determining diffusion constant by FCS

$$G(\tau) = G(0) \cdot \left(1 + \frac{4D\tau}{s^2}\right)^{-1} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{4D\tau}{u^2}\right)^{-1/2}$$

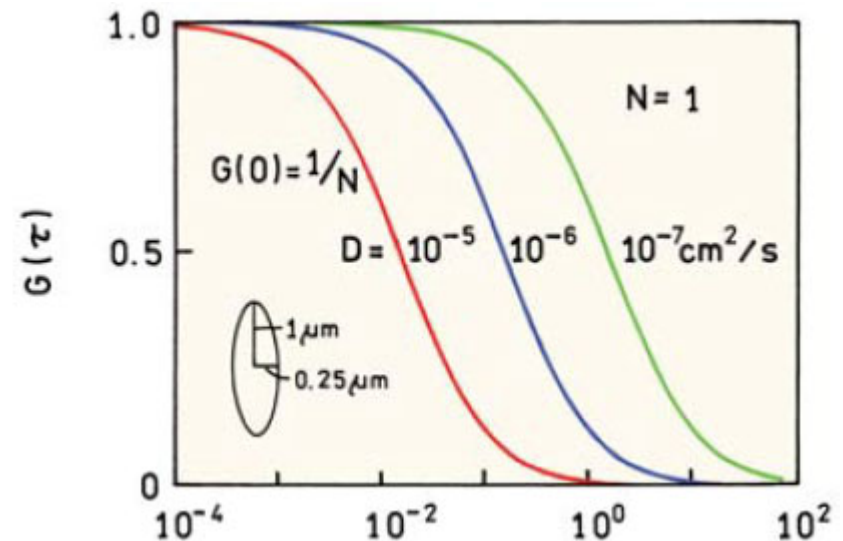
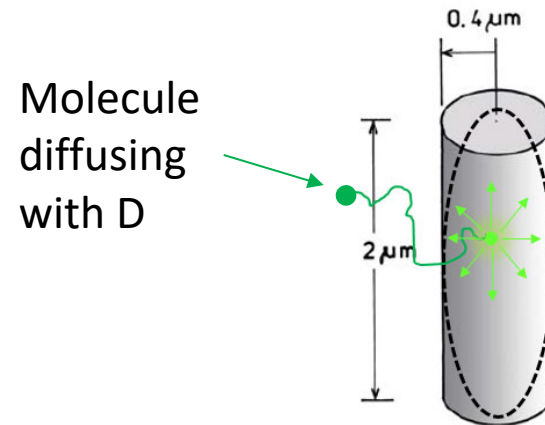
expressed as a function of  
the diffusion time  $\tau_D$

$$G(\tau) = G(0) \cdot \left(1 + \frac{\tau}{\tau_D}\right)^{-1} \cdot \left(1 + \left(\frac{s}{u}\right)^2 \frac{\tau}{\tau_D}\right)^{-1/2}$$

$$\tau_D = s^2 / 4D$$

the decay of  $G(\tau)$  scales with the  
diffusion constant.

Faster diffusion  $\rightarrow$  faster decay of  
the autocorrelation function

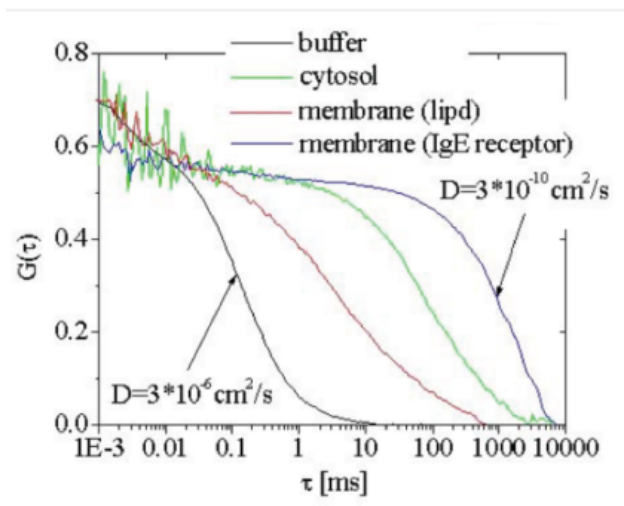


# Different environments and Binding reactions

Diffusion of dye:

÷ in buffer vs cytosol

÷ on a lipid or membrane protein



**Quiz:**

How can binding curves be determined?

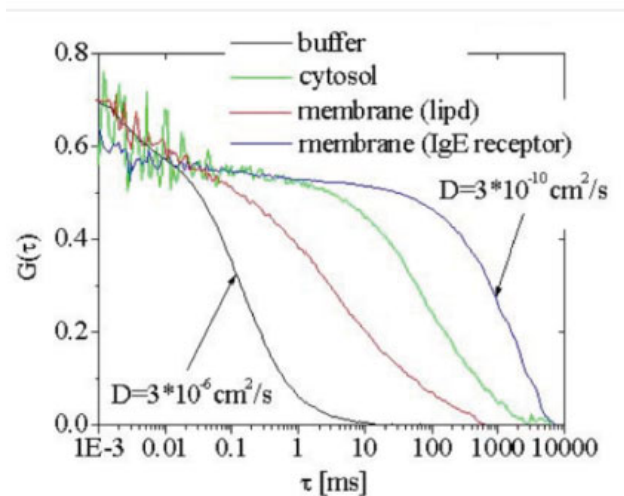
Images : Petra Schwille

# Different environments and Binding reactions

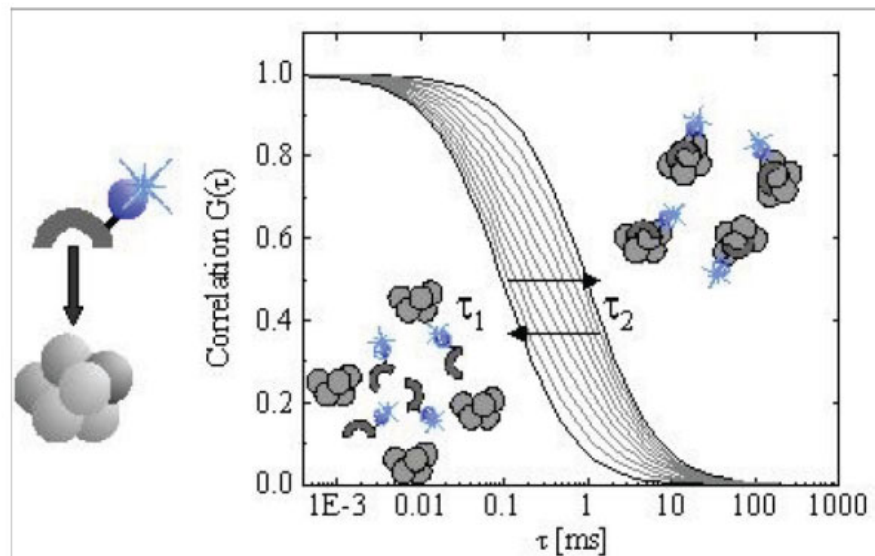
Diffusion of dye:

÷ in buffer vs cytosol

÷ on a lipid or membrane protein



Diffusion of ligand in the presence of increasing concentrations of receptor

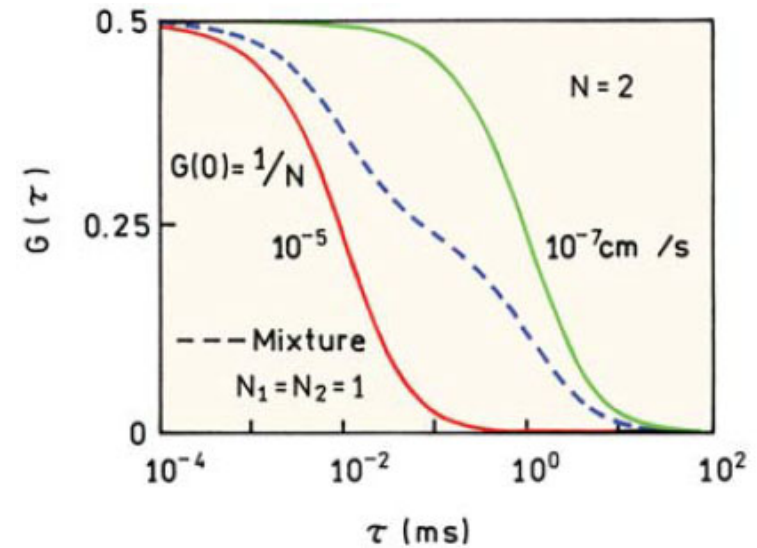


**Figure 16: Changes in diffusion time of a small ligand upon binding to a heavy protein**

Images : Petra Schwille

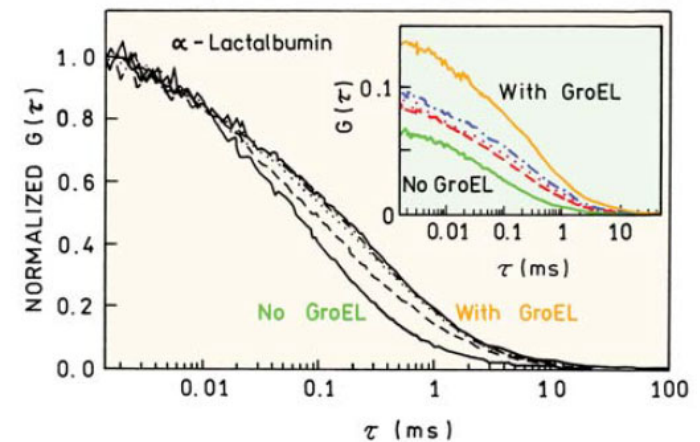
# FCS with mixtures of species

Simulated FCS curve of mixture of two species with different diffusion coefficients.



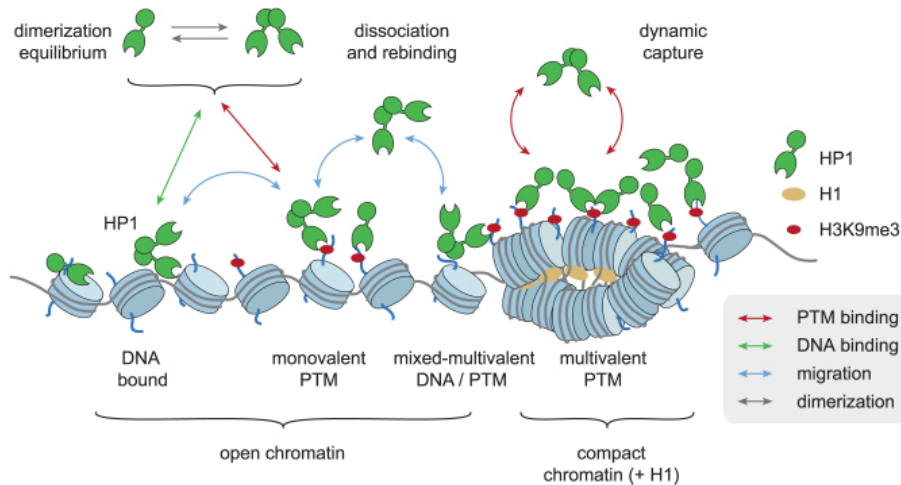
FCS can be used to determine binding reactions, by labeling one species, and titrating the unlabeled binding partner

Figure: binding of  $\alpha$ -LA to GroEL





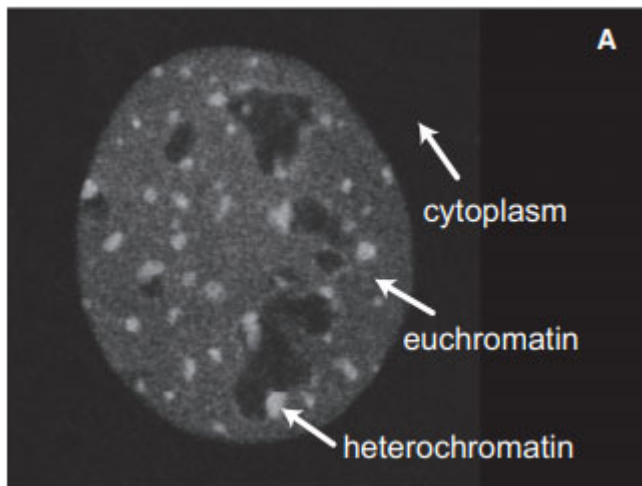
# Measuring FCS in cells



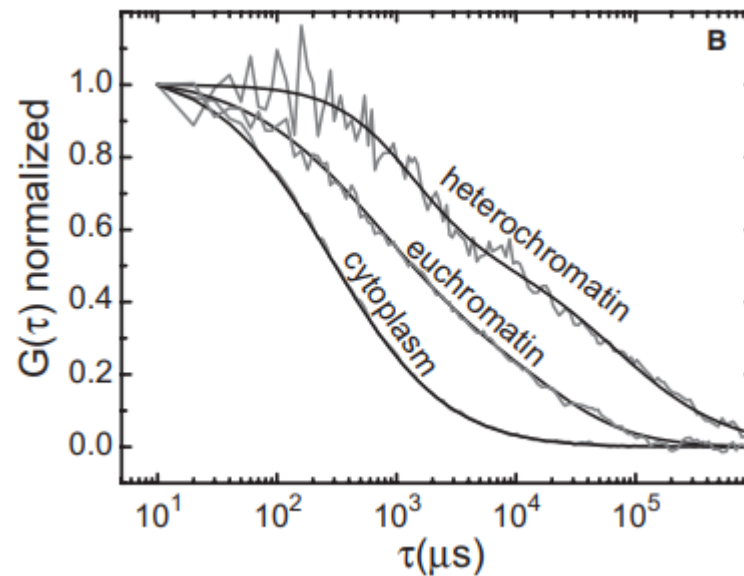
**HP1** is a chromatin binding protein, organizing compact heterochromatin compartments.

**euchromatin:** loose, active chromatin

**heterochromatin:** compact, repressed chromatin



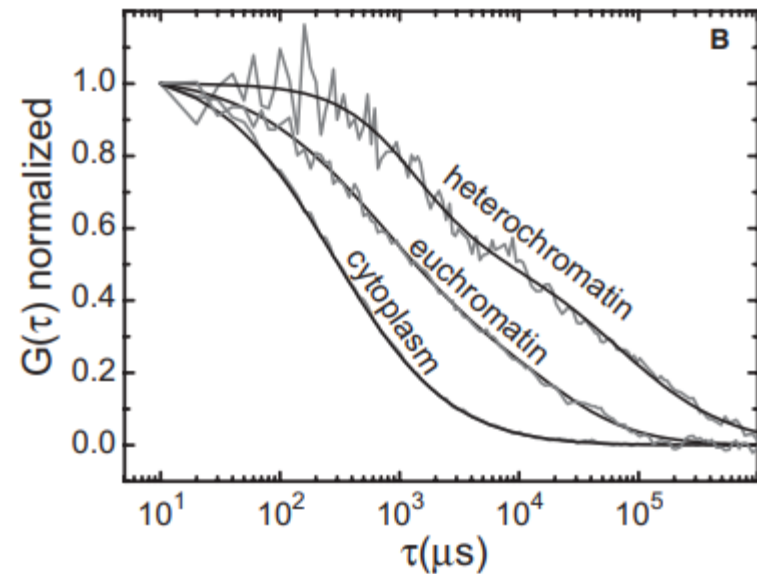
Müller et al. Biophysical journal 2009



# Measuring FCS in cells

free GFP:

$$D = 23.7 \pm 4.5 \mu\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$$



**TABLE 2 FCS measurements of HP1 $\alpha$  and HP1 $\beta$  in NIH 3T3 cells**

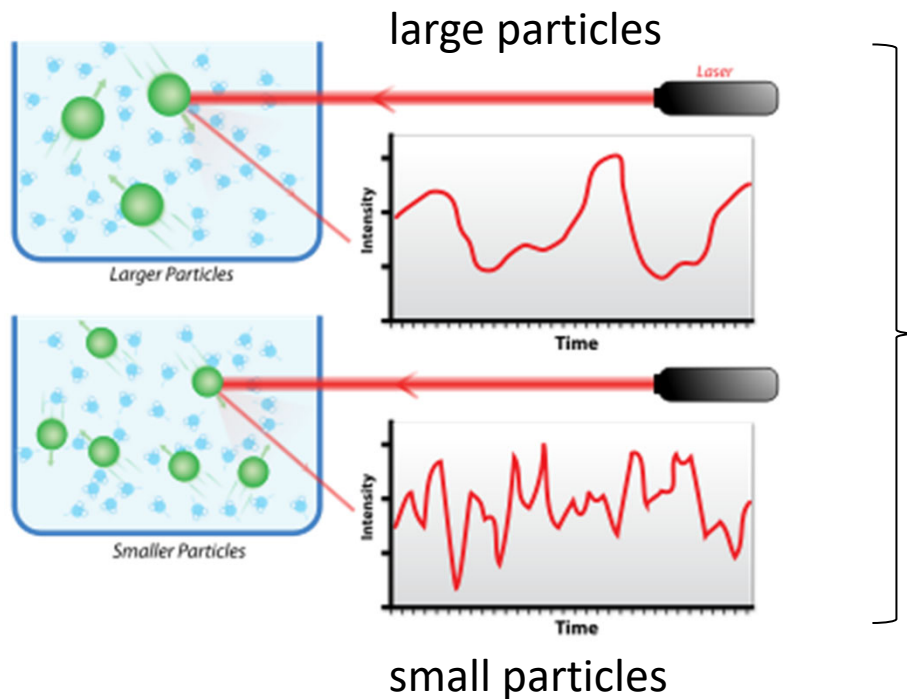
	Cytoplasm*		Euchromatin <sup>†</sup>		Heterochromatin <sup>†</sup>	
	HP1 $\alpha$	HP1 $\beta$	HP1 $\alpha$	HP1 $\beta$	HP1 $\alpha$	HP1 $\beta$
$D_1$ ( $\mu\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ )	$23.4 \pm 2.4$	$24.3 \pm 5.6$	$7.7 \pm 0.8$	$3.2 \pm 0.8$	$3.9 \pm 0.9$	$3.7 \pm 0.6$
$\alpha_1$	$0.83 \pm 0.05$	$0.74 \pm 0.05$	$0.81 \pm 0.04$	$0.79 \pm 0.06$	$0.88 \pm 0.12$	$0.83 \pm 0.08$
$D_2$ ( $\mu\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ )	—	—	$0.21 \pm 0.04$	$0.07 \pm 0.02$	$0.05 \pm 0.02$	$0.04 \pm 0.01$
$\alpha_2$	—	—	$>1$	$>1$	$>1$	$>1$

Data were analyzed with a one- or two-component anomalous diffusion model. As a reference, the diffusion constant of GFP was measured to be  $D = 23.7 \pm 4.5 \mu\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$  in the cytoplasm ( $\alpha = 0.97 \pm 0.04$ ) and  $D = 21.5 \pm 4.8 \mu\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$  in the nucleus ( $\alpha = 1.1 \pm 0.1$ ). Euchromatin and heterochromatin regions were not distinguishable in terms of the associated GFP mobility. See also the [Supporting Material](#).

\*The data for the HP1 $\alpha$  and HP1 $\beta$  mobility in the cytoplasm were fit with a one-component anomalous diffusion model ( $D_1, \alpha_1$ ). (Error limits correspond to a 95% confidence interval.)

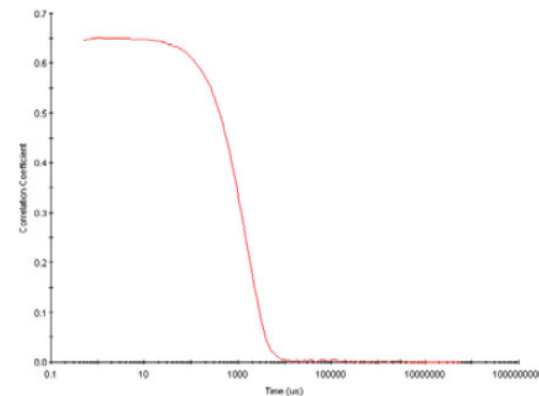
<sup>†</sup>For the nuclear fraction of HP1 $\alpha$  and HP1 $\beta$ , a two-component model was required to describe the data. The faster-moving fraction with diffusion constant  $D_1$  displayed a subdiffusion behavior ( $\alpha < 1$ ), as expected for transient binding and/or diffusion in the presence of obstacles. For the second fraction, intensity fluctuations were very slow and displayed a value of  $\alpha > 1$ . A more detailed analysis of the associated intensity fluctuations revealed that they originate from chromatin-bound molecules and can be described by a confined diffusion model.

# Correlation spectroscopy: Dynamic light scattering



autocorrelation function

$$G(\tau) = \langle I(t) \cdot I(t + \tau) \rangle$$



laser with wavelength  $\lambda$  is passed through the solution with refractive index  $n$ .

Scattered light intensity is measured at angle  $\theta$  in time, a correlation function is calculated

$$G(\tau) = A(1 + B \exp(-2Dq^2\tau))$$

$$q = \frac{4\pi n}{\lambda_0} \sin(\theta / 2)$$

# Summary

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- Diffusion of macromolecules often determines the kinetics of biological processes (see next week)
- The distance a particle diffuses depends on its friction (shape), the viscosity and scales with  $(t)^{0.5}$
- The individual molecules undergo a random walk in 3 dimensions

## Methods:

- Macroscopic methods, including analytical ultracentrifugation, yield D
- Correlation spectroscopy, such as FCS or DLS allow determination of D and MW