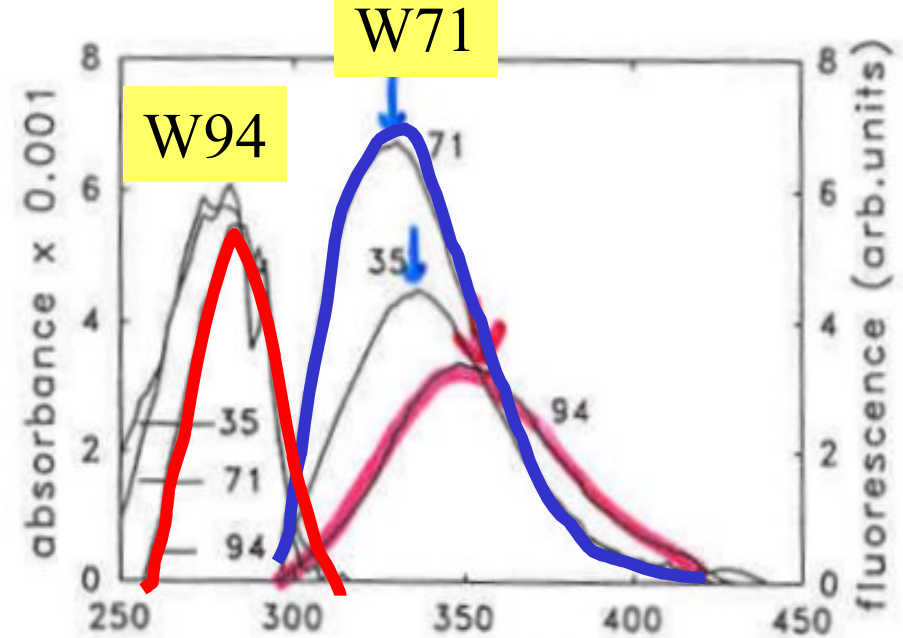
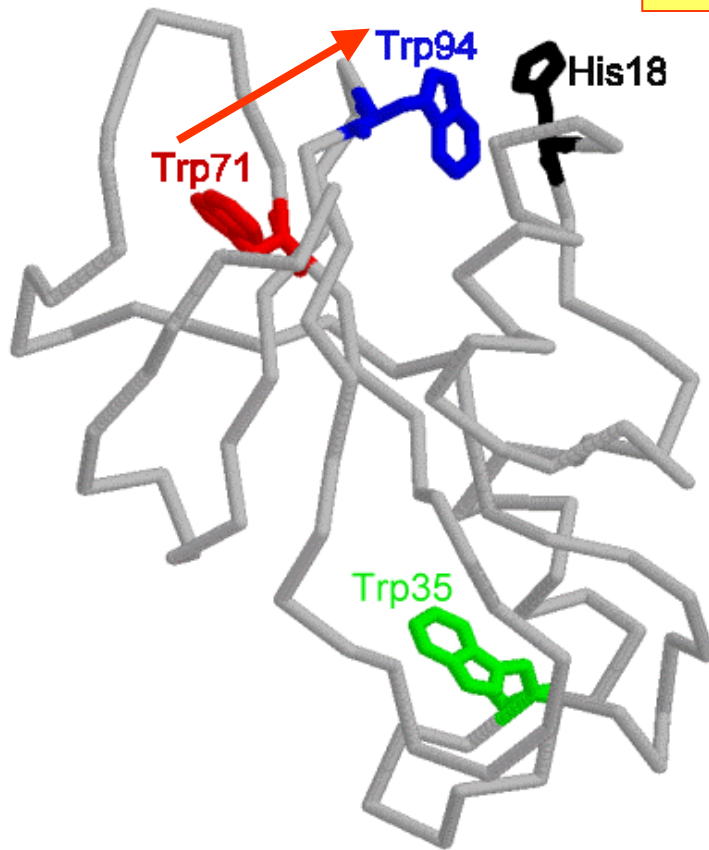
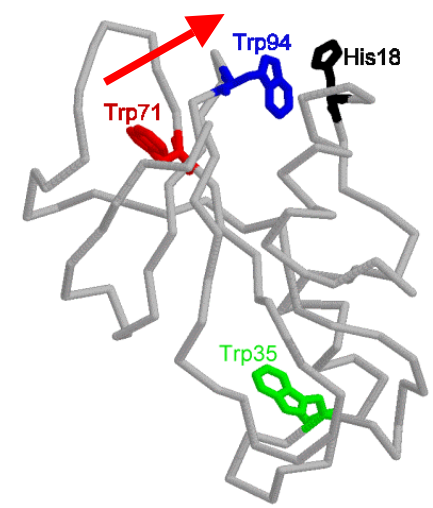
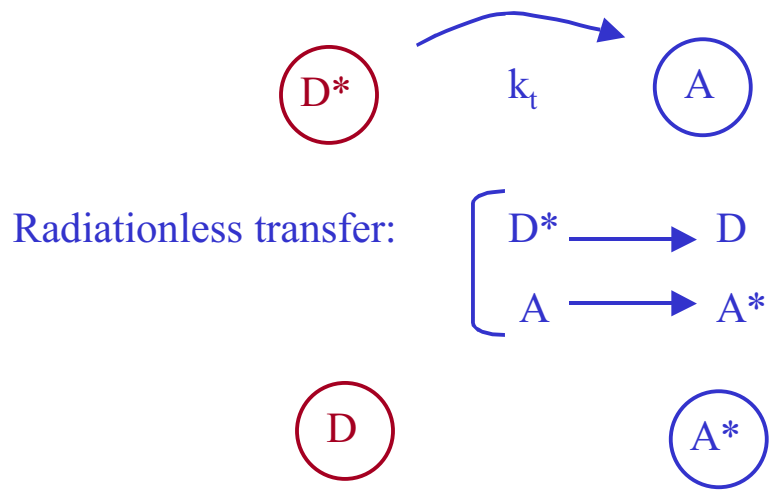
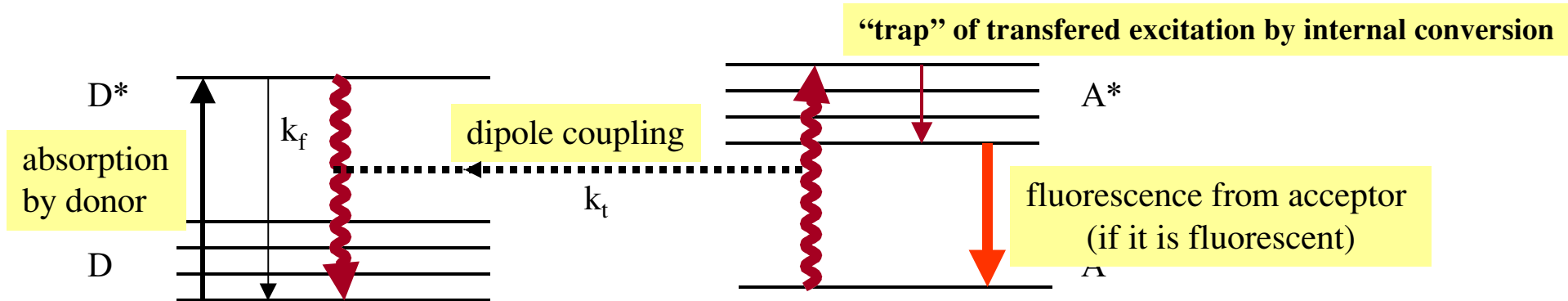


# FRET: Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer

example: Barnase

Donor is W71 Acceptor is W94

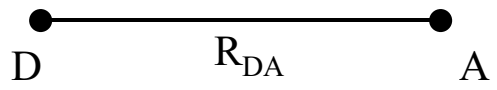




Can measure:

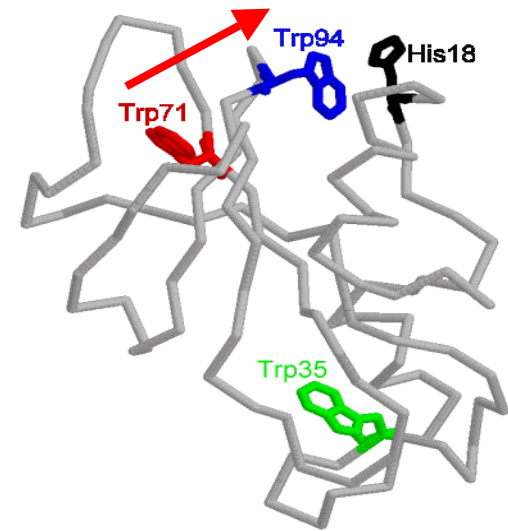
- (1) Fluorescence quenching of Donor due to Acceptor  $\Rightarrow k_t$
- (2) If Acceptor also fluoresces, measure induced (enhanced) fluorescence of the Acceptor  $\Rightarrow k_t$

From  $k_t$ , get  $R_{DA}$ , distance



## Transfer rate depends on:

- (1) Distance
- (2) Orientation of  $\mu_D$ ,  $\mu_A$
- (3) Probability of donor de-excitation and acceptor excitation  
- transition probabilities ( $\mu_D^2$ ,  $\mu_A^2$ )
- (4) Energy matching

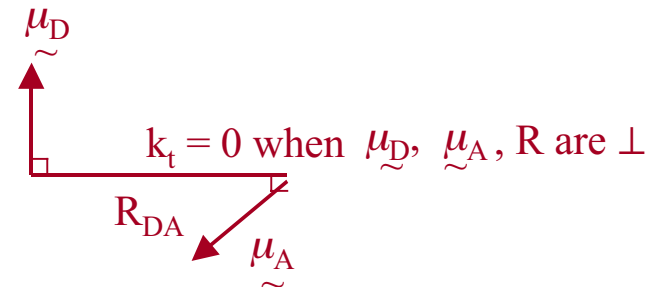
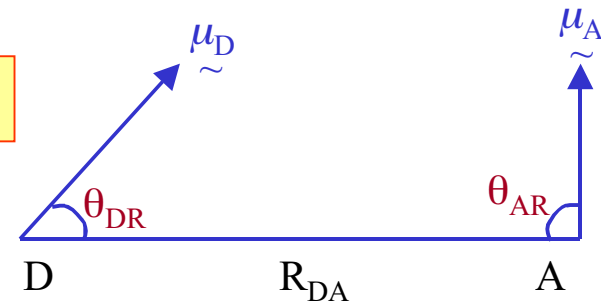


## Interaction energy given by dipole-dipole term

interaction  
energy of two  
dipoles

$$U = \frac{1}{n^2 R^3} \left[ \mu_D \mu_A - 3(\mu_D \hat{R})(\mu_A \hat{R}) \right]$$

$$k_t \propto U^2 \propto 1 / R^6$$



**Rate constant for energy transfer:**

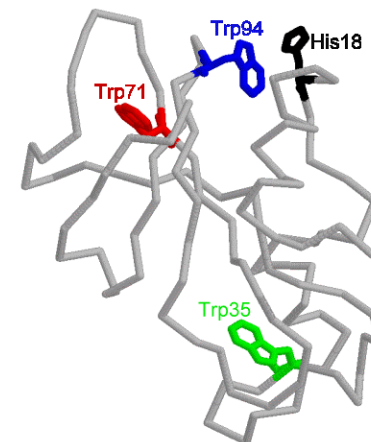
Donor transition probability

Acceptor transition probability

Orientation factor

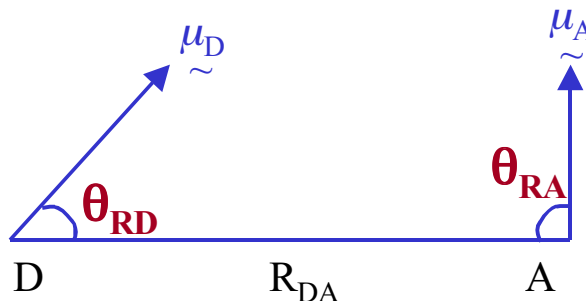
$$k_t \propto \frac{|\tilde{\mu}_D|^2 |\tilde{\mu}_A|^2 \kappa^2}{n^4 R^6} J$$

Index of refraction      Distance      Energy overlap



Orientation factor

$$\kappa = \cos \theta_{DA} - 3 \cos \theta_{RD} \cdot \cos \theta_{RA}$$



For random orientation:  $\kappa^2 = 2/3$ : this is the value that is used in most estimations

Donor transition probability

Acceptor transition probability

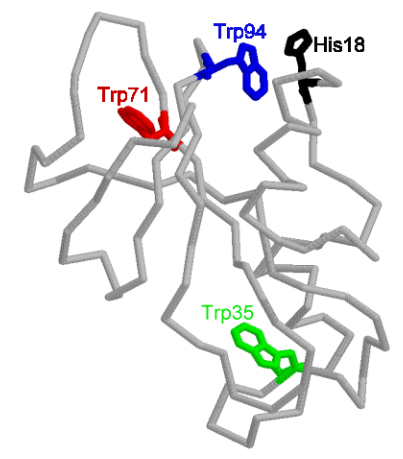
Orientation factor

$$k_t \propto \frac{|\tilde{\mu}_D|^2 |\tilde{\mu}_A|^2 \kappa^2}{n^4 R^6} J$$

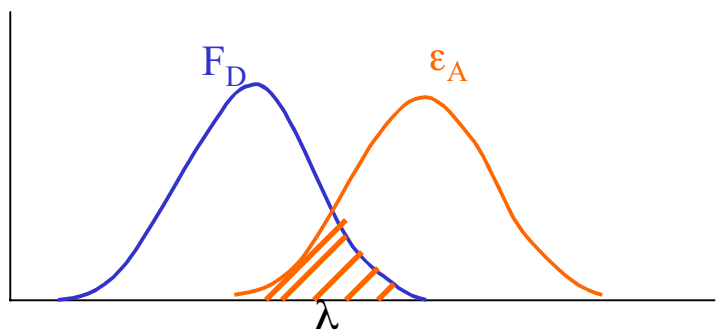
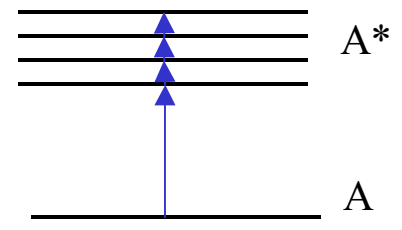
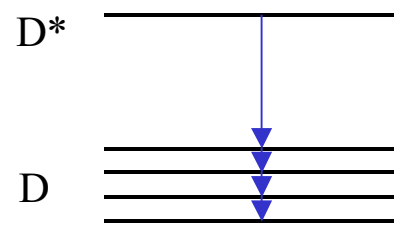
Index of refraction

Distance

Energy overlap

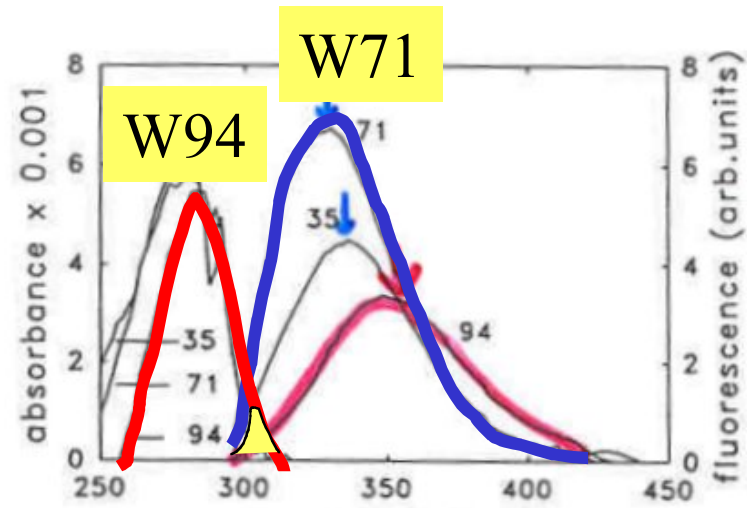
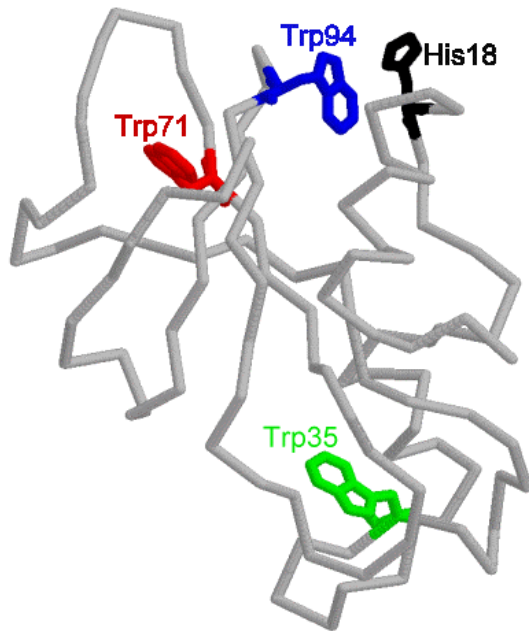


Energy overlap Factor: J



$$\frac{\int F_D(\bar{\nu}) \cdot \epsilon_A(\bar{\nu}) \frac{d\bar{\nu}}{\bar{\nu}^4}}{\int F_D(\bar{\nu}) d\bar{\nu} \cdot \underbrace{\int \epsilon_A(\bar{\nu}) d\bar{\nu}}_{|\mu_A|^2}} = J$$

**Barnase: donor is W71 acceptor is W94**



Transition probability of donor absorption ( $\mu_D$ )<sup>2</sup> is related to the rate constant for fluorescence from the donor ( $k_f$ )

$$k_t \propto \frac{|\mu_D|^2 |\mu_A|^2 \kappa^2}{n^4 R^6} J$$

$$|\mu_D|^2 \propto k_f = (Q_f^D / \tau_D) \frac{\text{Quantum yield}}{\text{lifetime}}$$

$$k_t = \text{constant} \times \frac{\kappa^2 Q_f^D J}{n^4 \tau_d R^6}$$

## Defining $R_0$ for a donor/acceptor pair

$$k_t = \text{constant} \times \frac{\kappa^2 Q_f^D J}{n^4 \tau_d R^6}$$

orientation factor: often assigned value of 2/3

quantum yield of donor in the absence of acceptor

Define:  $R_0 = \left[ \frac{\text{constant} \times \kappa^2 Q_f^D J}{n^4} \right]^{1/6}$

spectral overlap factor

index of refraction between donor/acceptor:  
usually guessed for hydrophobic  
interior of protein

$$k_t = \frac{1}{\tau_d} \left[ \frac{R_0}{R} \right]^6$$

$R_0$  depends on the properties of the Donor and Acceptor and their relative orientation (usually  $\kappa^2 = 2/3$ )

$R_0$  has units of distance ( $\text{\AA}$ ) and can be calculated in advance based on the spectral properties of the donor and acceptor pair if the orientation factor is guessed (2/3)



# Experimental: Measure the efficiency of energy transfer

## What fraction of the excited donors transfer their energy to the acceptor?

### Quantum yield of donor - no Acceptor

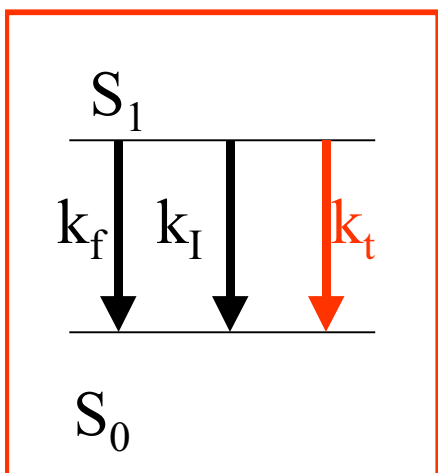
$$Q_{f,D} = \frac{k_f}{k_f + k_I}$$

$$E = \frac{Q_{f,D} - Q_{f,D}^{+A}}{Q_{f,D}} \equiv \frac{k_t}{k_f + k_I + k_t}$$

$$E = \left[ 1 - \frac{Q_{f,D}^{+A}}{Q_{f,D}} \right]$$

$$E = \left[ 1 - \frac{F}{F_0} \right]$$

$$E = \left[ 1 - \frac{\tau_D^{+A}}{\tau_D} \right]$$

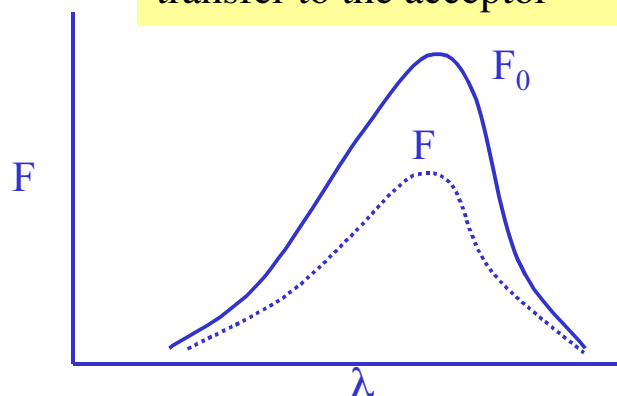


### Quantum yield of donor - plus Acceptor

$$Q_{f,D}^{+A} = \frac{k_f}{k_f + k_I + k_t}$$

added route for returning to the ground state

Measuring quenching of the donor fluorescence due to energy transfer to the acceptor



Once the efficiency of energy transfer is determined, one can determine the distance between donor and acceptor if one knows  $R_0$

$E$  = Efficiency of energy transfer

$$E = \frac{k_t}{k_f + k_I + k_t} = \frac{\frac{1}{\tau_D} \left( \frac{R_0}{R} \right)^6}{\frac{1}{\tau_D} + \frac{1}{\tau_D} \left( \frac{R_0}{R} \right)^6}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{1 + (R/R_0)^6}$$

or

$$R = \frac{(1-E)^6}{E} \cdot R_0$$

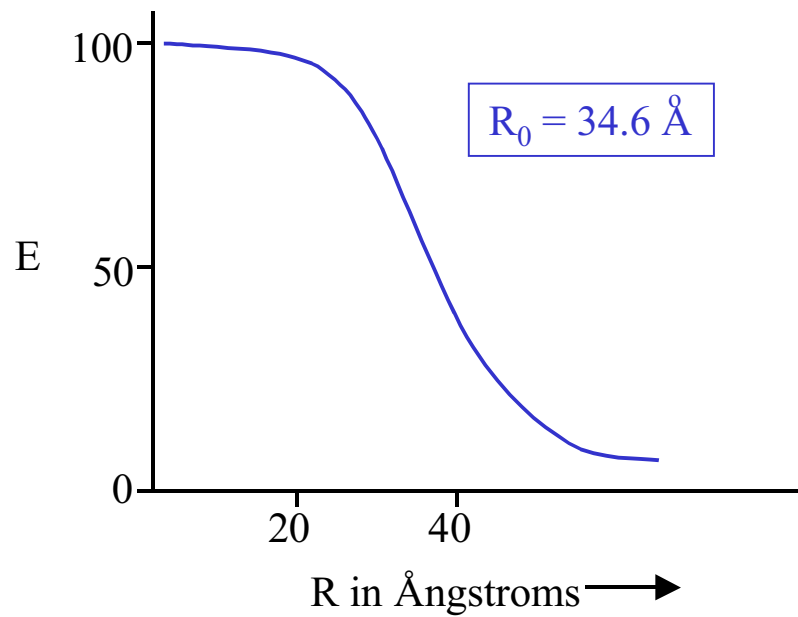
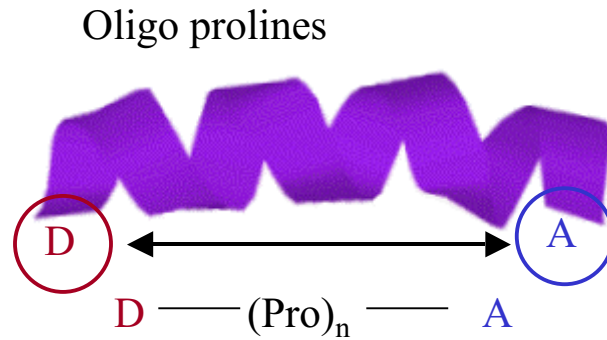
- 1) Calculate  $R_0$
- 2) Measure  $E$   
determine  $R$

**Note that when  $R = R_0$ ,  $E = 50\%$**

**$R_0$  is the distance at which 50% of the excited state donor molecules transfer their energy to the acceptor.**

An early experimental test from 1976:

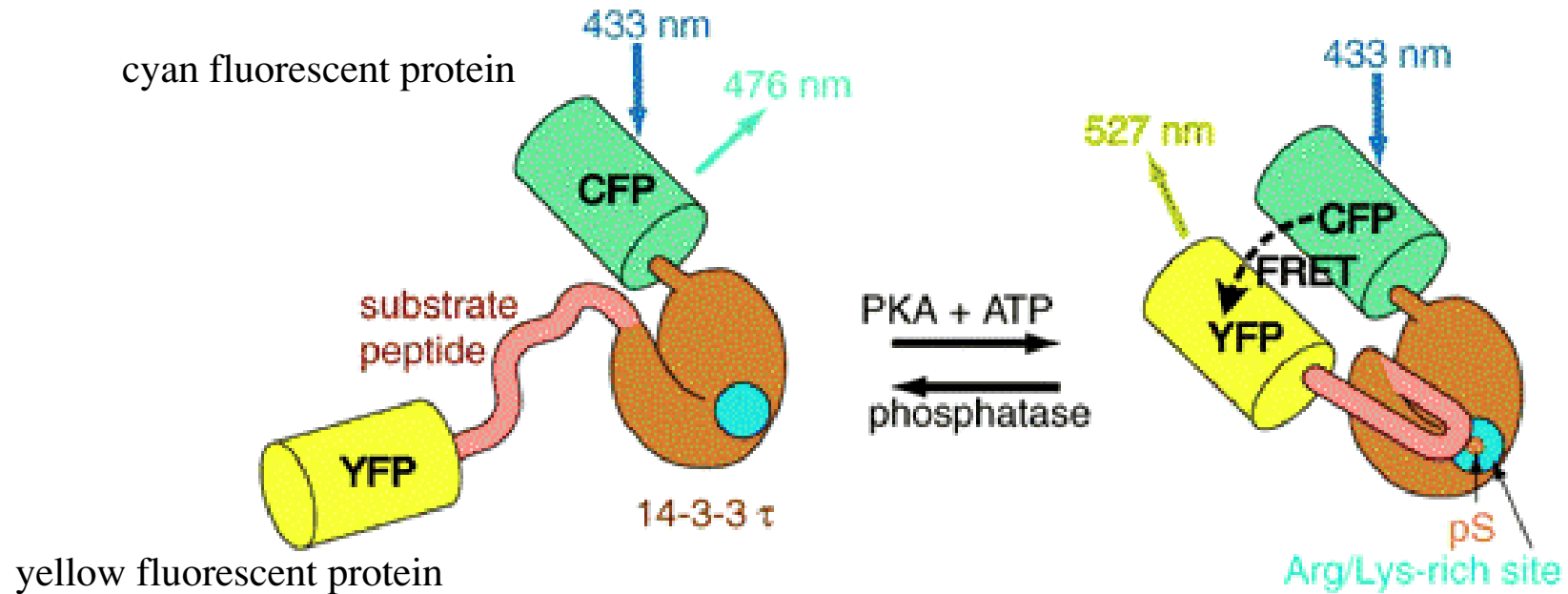
Haugland + Stryer



Biochemistry (1976) **15**, 2097 -

Method is useful to distinguish close from far  
 $R_0$  values range from 15 to 50 Å or more

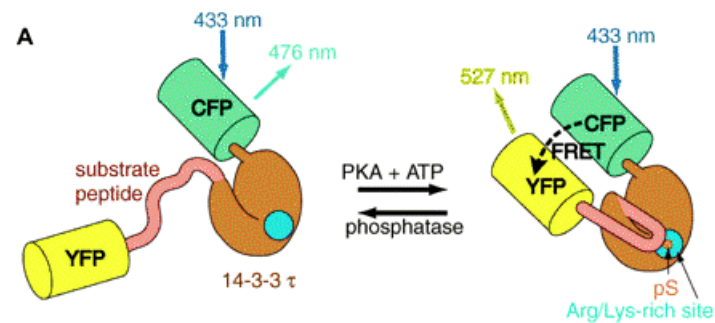
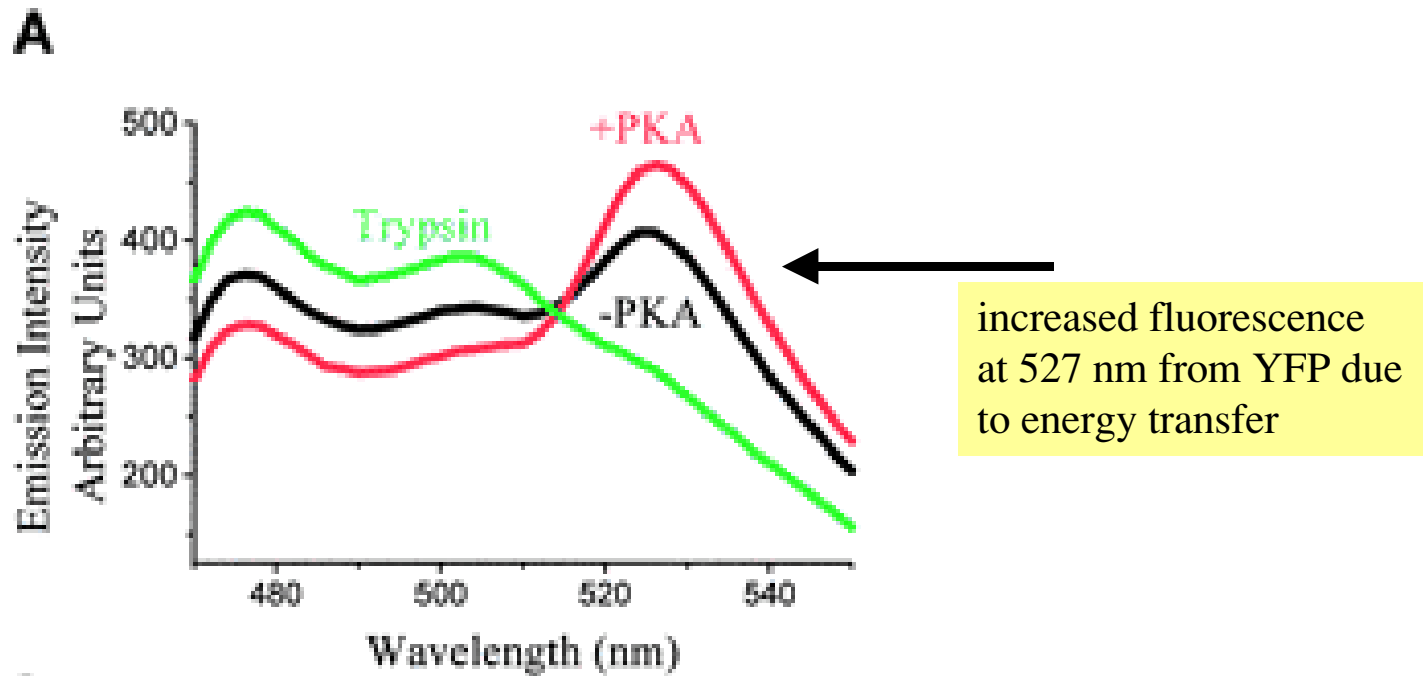
## Using Two GFPs as an Assay for Protein Kinase A Activity



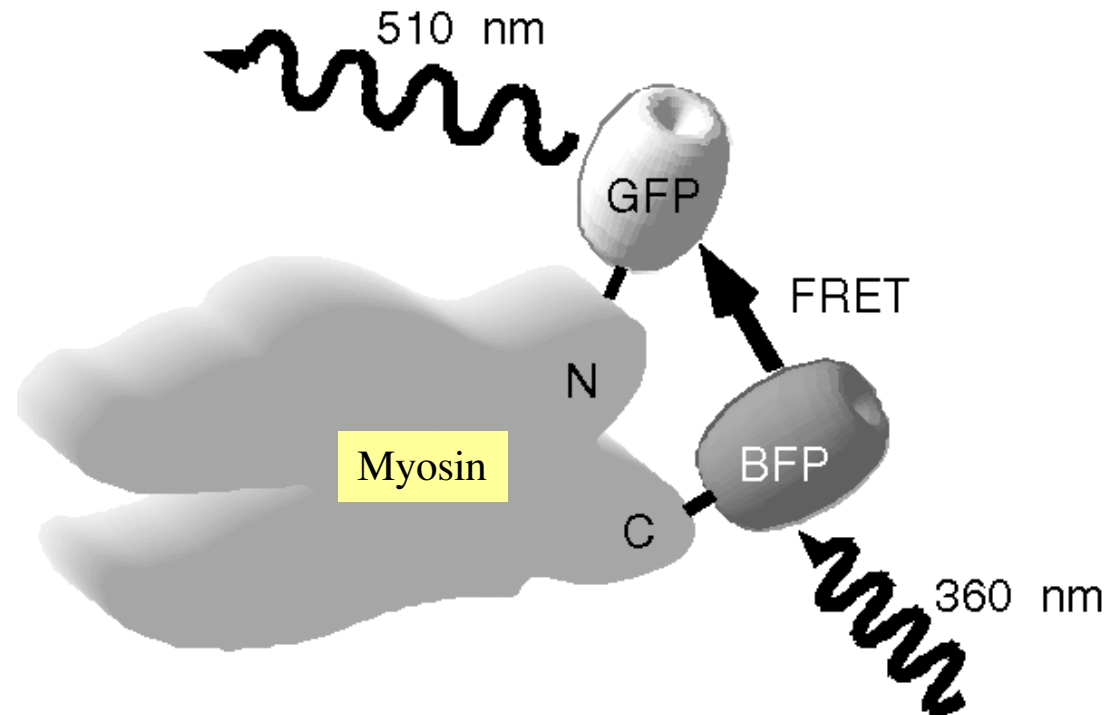
Phosphorylation results in binding of the substrate peptide to an phosphorylation recognition domain engineered into the same protein

The conformational change brings the YFP and CFP close to each other and gives a FRET signal

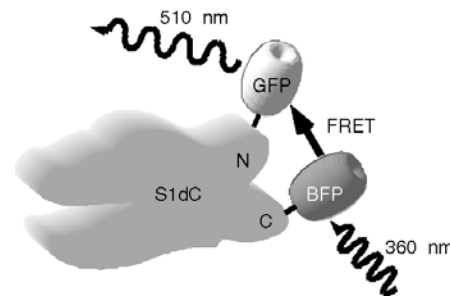
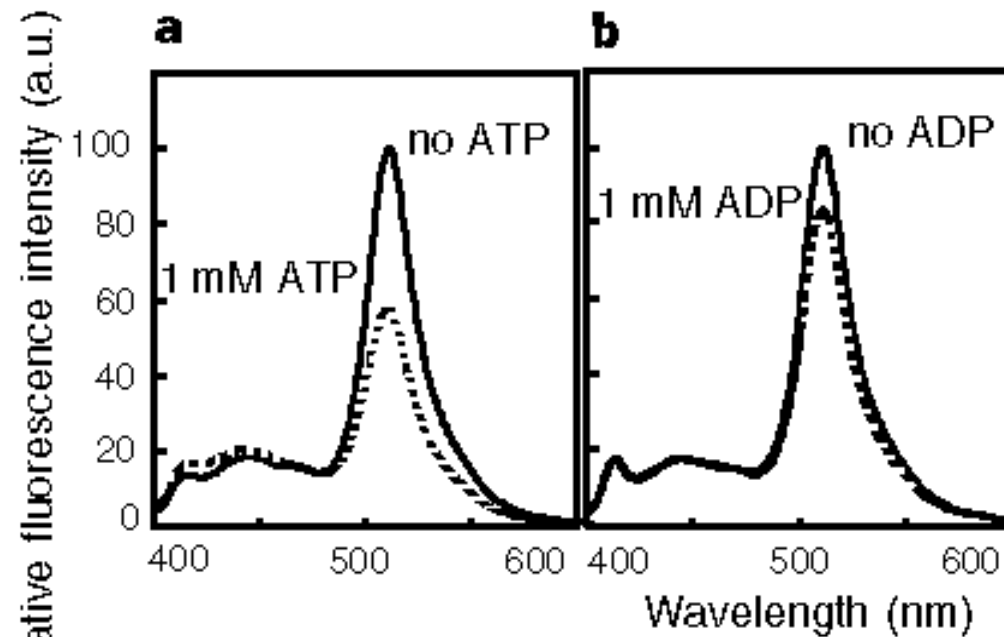
# FRET Assay of Phosphokinase A Activity



# FRET Showing Conformational Change in Motor Protein Myosin Associated with ATP Binding and Hydrolysis

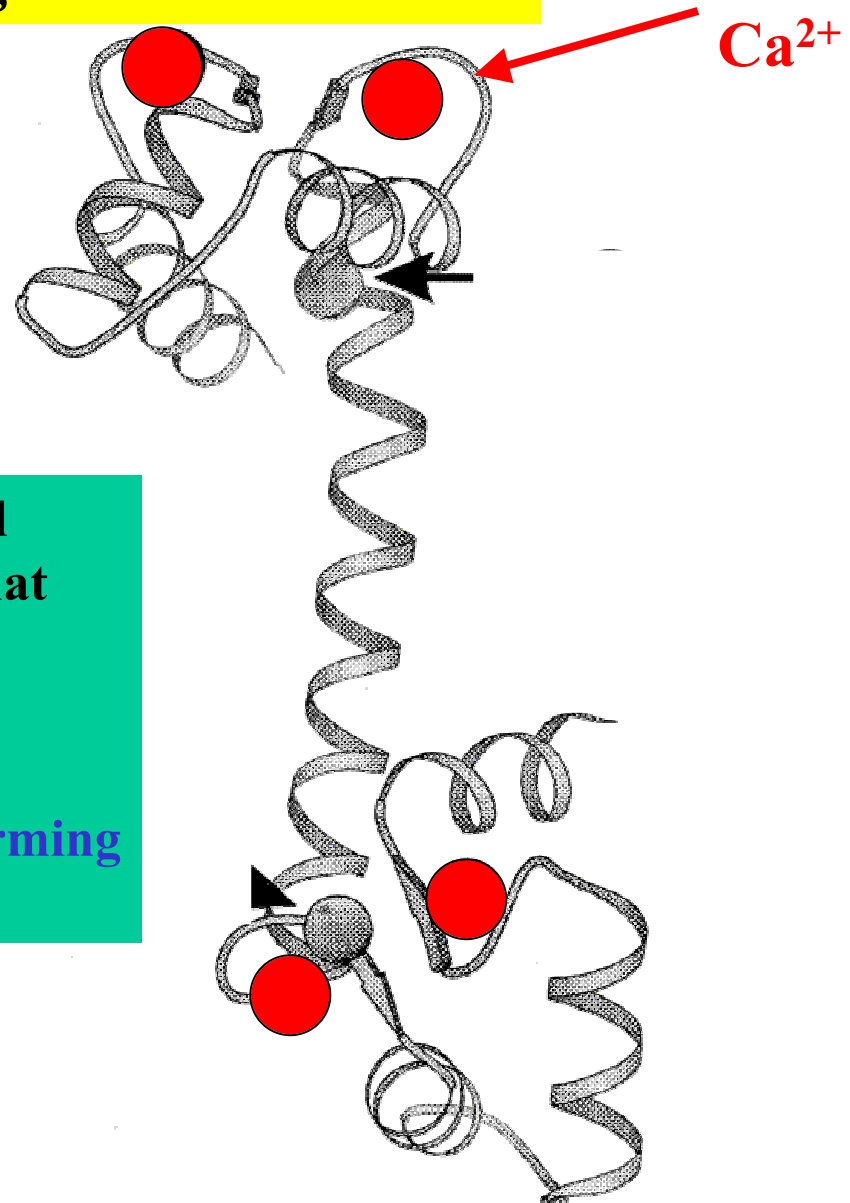


## N- and C- terminal Domains Move Apart Upon ATP binding/hydrolysis



*Nature* **396**, 380 - 383 (1998)

## Calmodulin: two globular domains and a long central helix



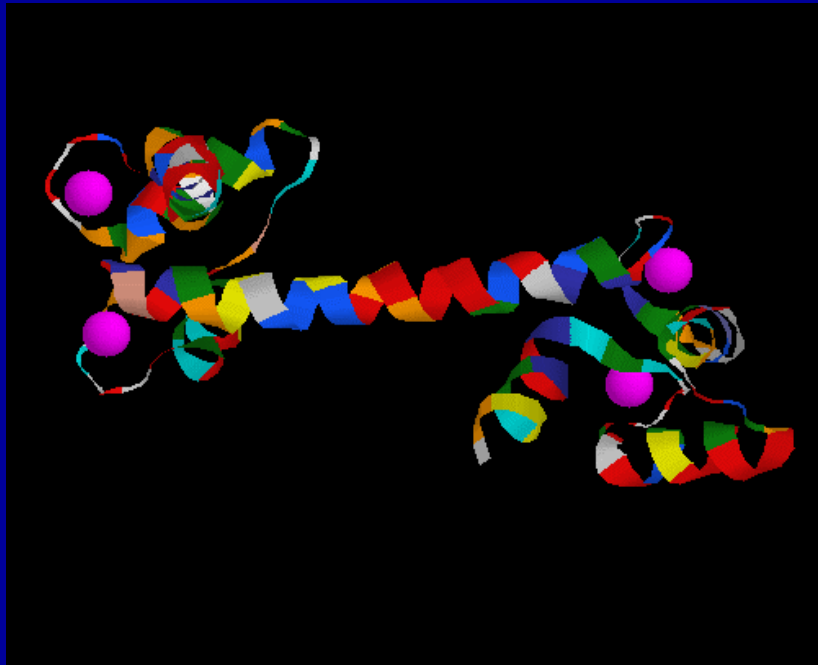
$\text{Ca}^{2+}$  binding causes conformational changes in each globular domain that expose residues that bind to a wide variety of target proteins

The central helix collapses upon forming a complex with the target protein

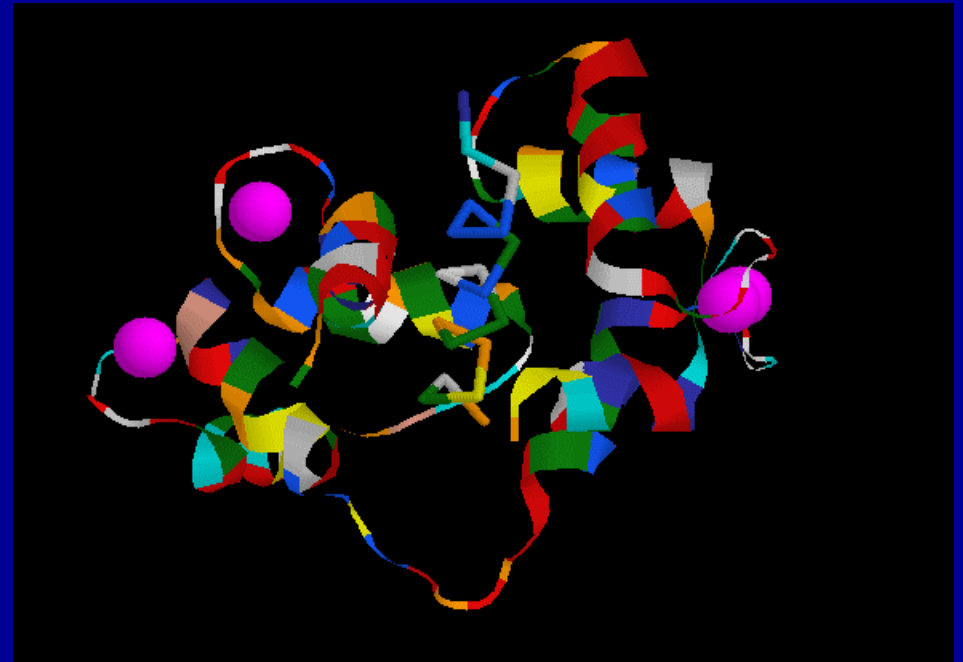
Biochem (1999) 38, 12266-12279

Biochem (2001) 40, 9605-9617





Calmodulin



Calmodulin complexed to  
CaMKinase II

# Calmodulin

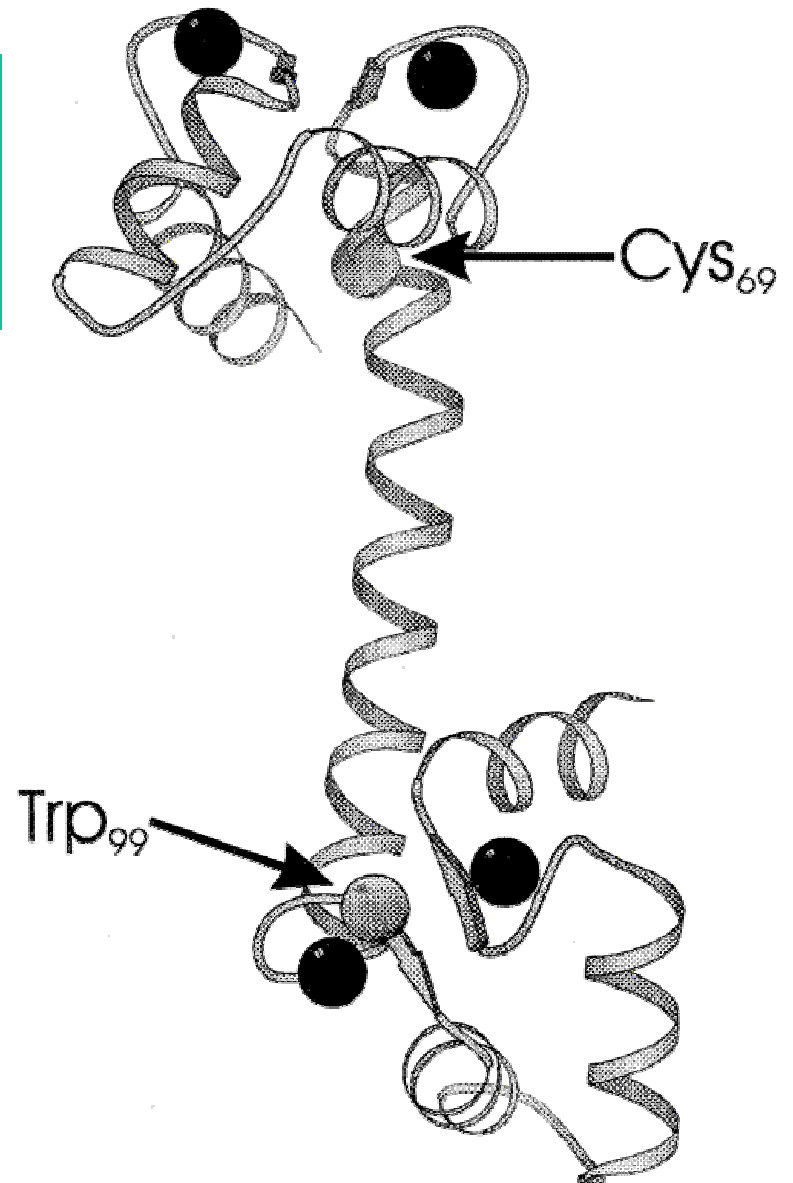
**Question: Does  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  binding itself cause a change in the central helix that alters the conformational relationship of the two globular domains?**

**Use FRET to address this.**

**Construct a double mutant:**

**Tyr99→Trp**

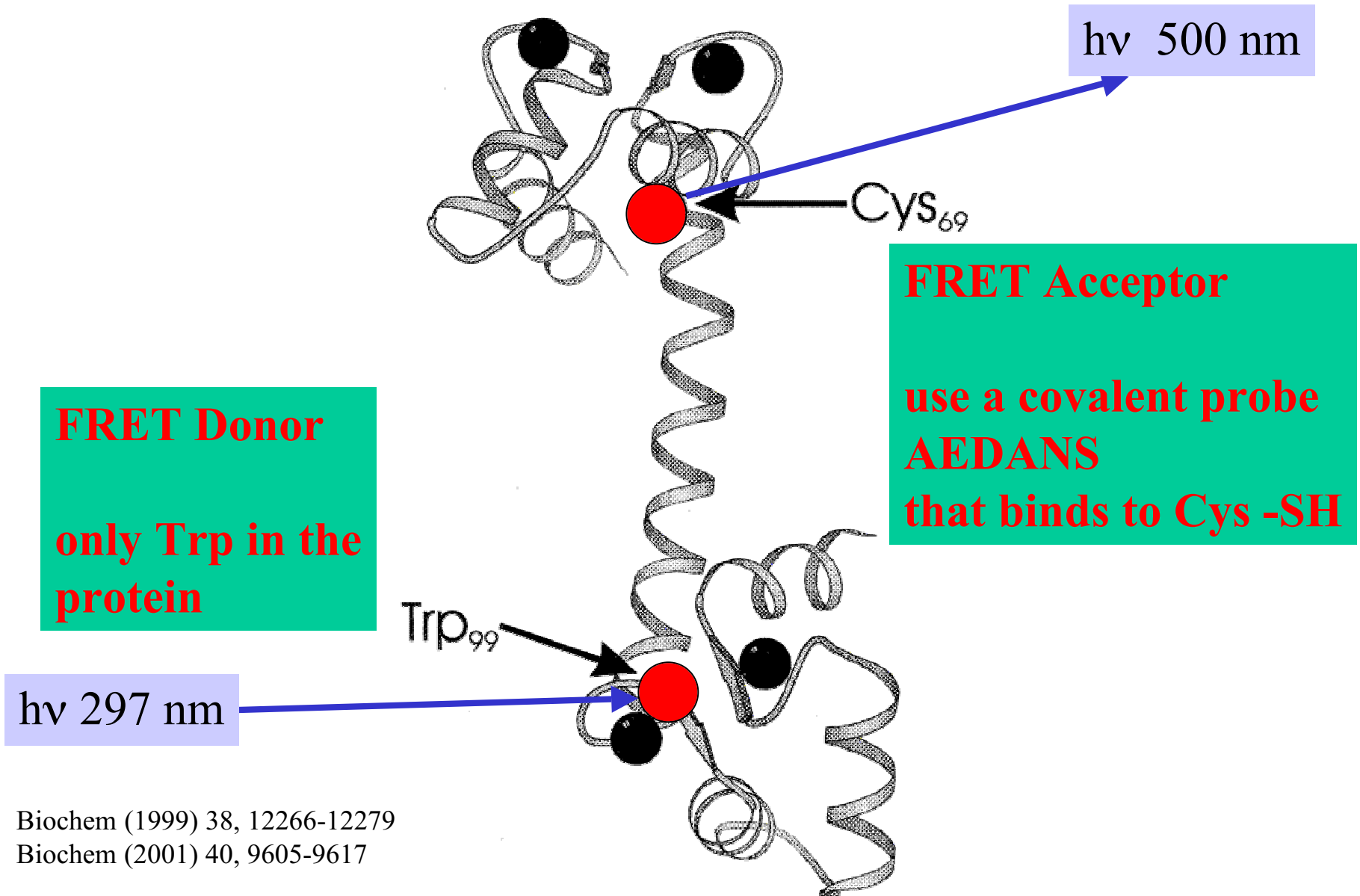
**Leu69→Cys**



Biochem (1999) 38, 12266-12279

Biochem (2001) 40, 9605-9617

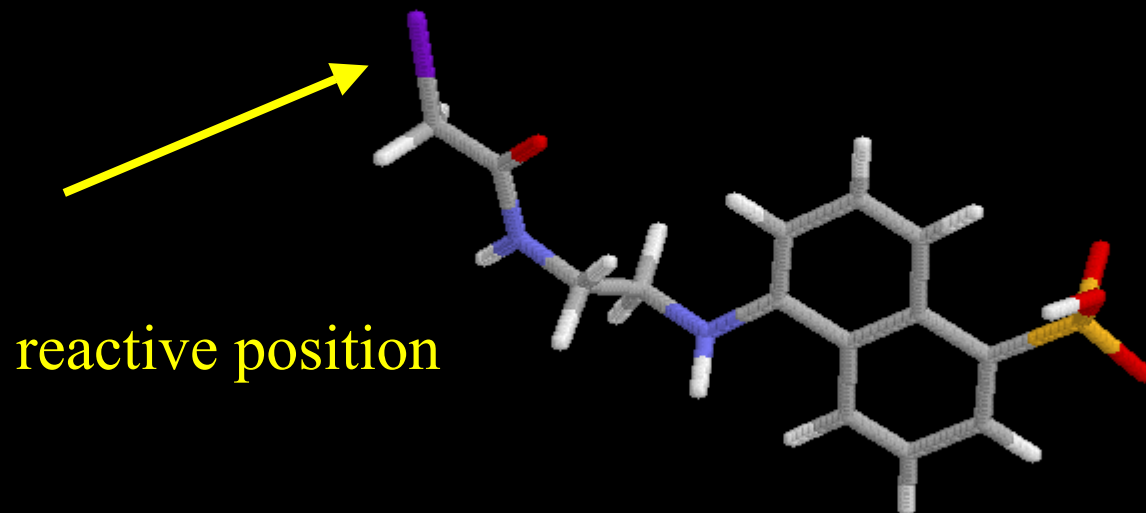
# Calmodulin



Biochem (1999) 38, 12266-12279  
Biochem (2001) 40, 9605-9617

# IAEDANS

FLUORESCENT LABEL FOR  
COVALENT ATTACHEMENT TO CYSTEINES



5-(((2-Iodoacetyl)amino)ethyl)amino)naphthalene-1-sulfonic acid

MDL

# Calculating $R_0$ between Tryptophan-99 and AEDANS

overlap integral  
calculated from spectral overlap  
numerical integration

$$9 \times 10^{-15} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^3$$

$$R_0 = (9.79 \times 10^{-5}) (n^{-4} \kappa^2 Q_d J)^{1/6}$$

1.40

estimated index  
of refraction  
like non-polar solvent

2/3

orientation factor:  
assumes random  
orientations of donor and  
acceptor--rapid isotropic  
motion

measured: 0.098 (+Ca<sup>2+</sup>)

quantum yield of donor:  
compare area under  
the emission spectrum to  
a standard: L-tryptophan,  
which has a known  
quantum yield of 0.14)

$$R_0 = 22.6 \text{ \AA}$$

# FRET Results: measure fluorescence from Trp99 in the presence and absence of AEDANS

fluorescence of Trp99  
in the absence of AEDANS

$$E = 1 - F_{da}/F_d$$

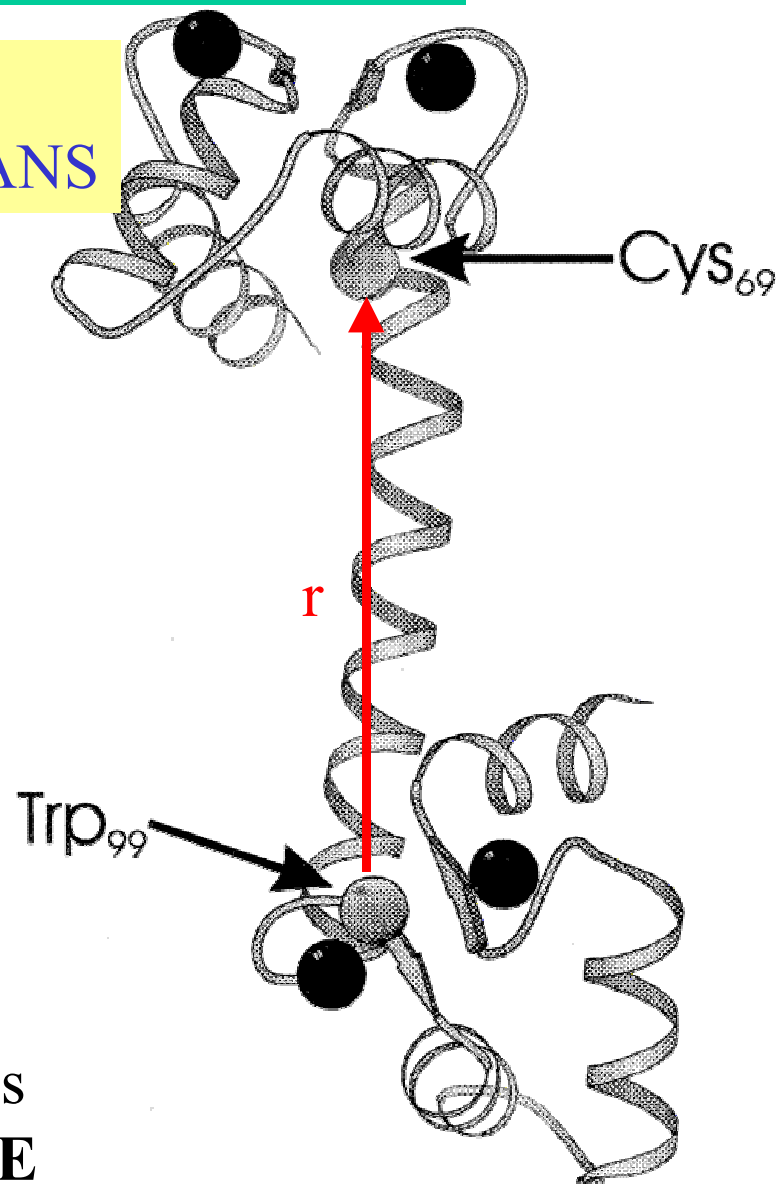
experimental relationship

fluorescence from Trp99  
in the presence of AEDANS

$$E = R_0^6/(R_0^6 + R^6)$$

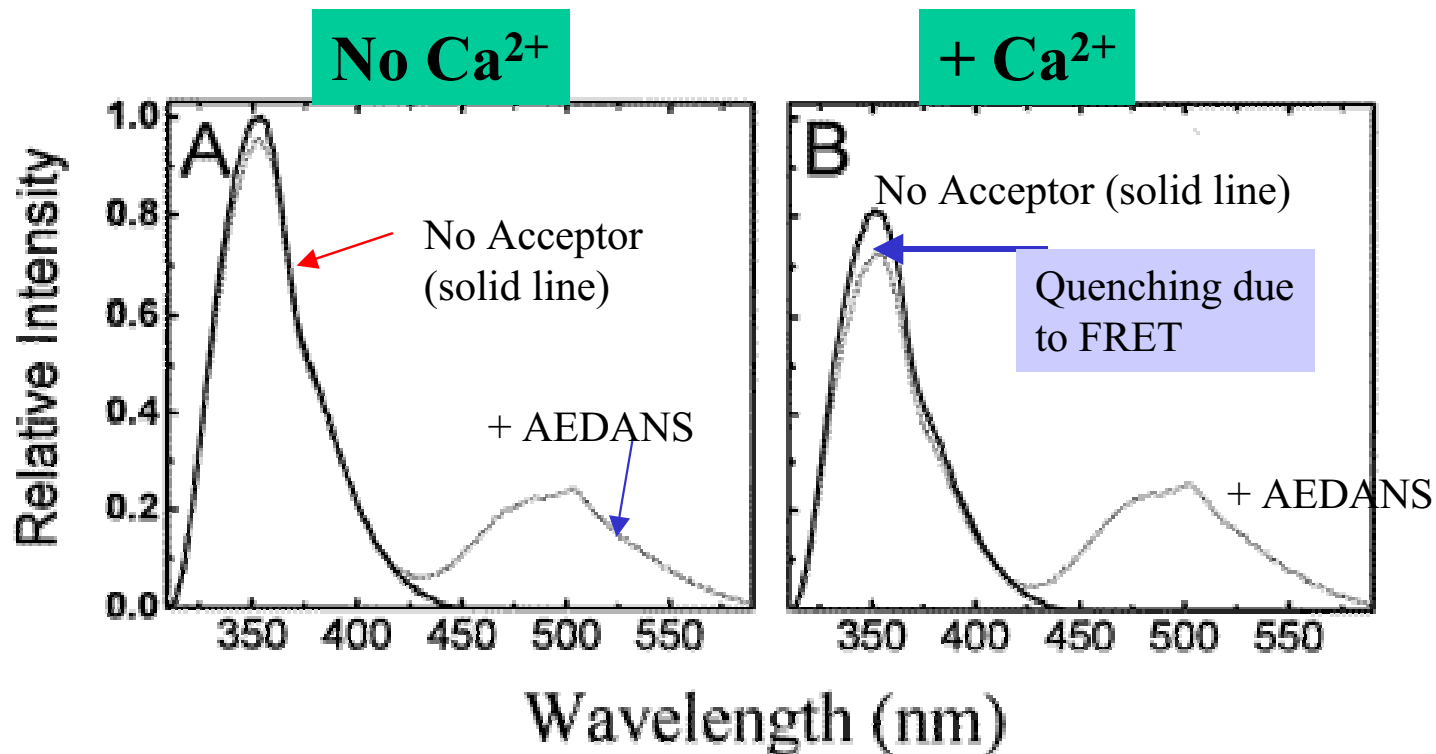
theoretical relationship

want to get this  
by measuring **E**

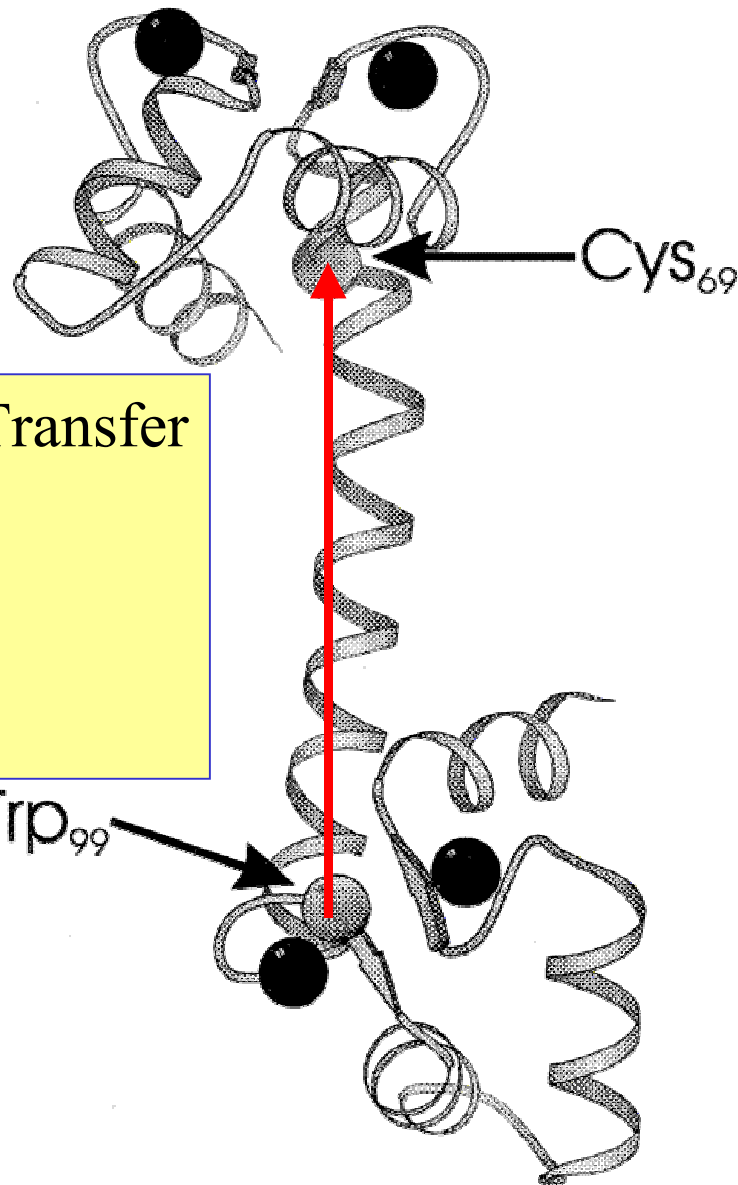


**Measuring FRET from Trp99 to AEDANS  
by steady state fluorescence spectroscopy**  
**What is the distance between the two domains?  
Does calcium binding change the distance?**

excite at 297 nm: only the tryptophan is excited at this wavelength.  
The AEDANS fluorescence is entirely due to FRET



**FRET Results:** increase in energy transfer upon calcium binding



Efficiency of Energy Transfer

15% (+ Ca<sup>2+</sup>)

7% (no Ca<sup>2+</sup>)



## FRET Results

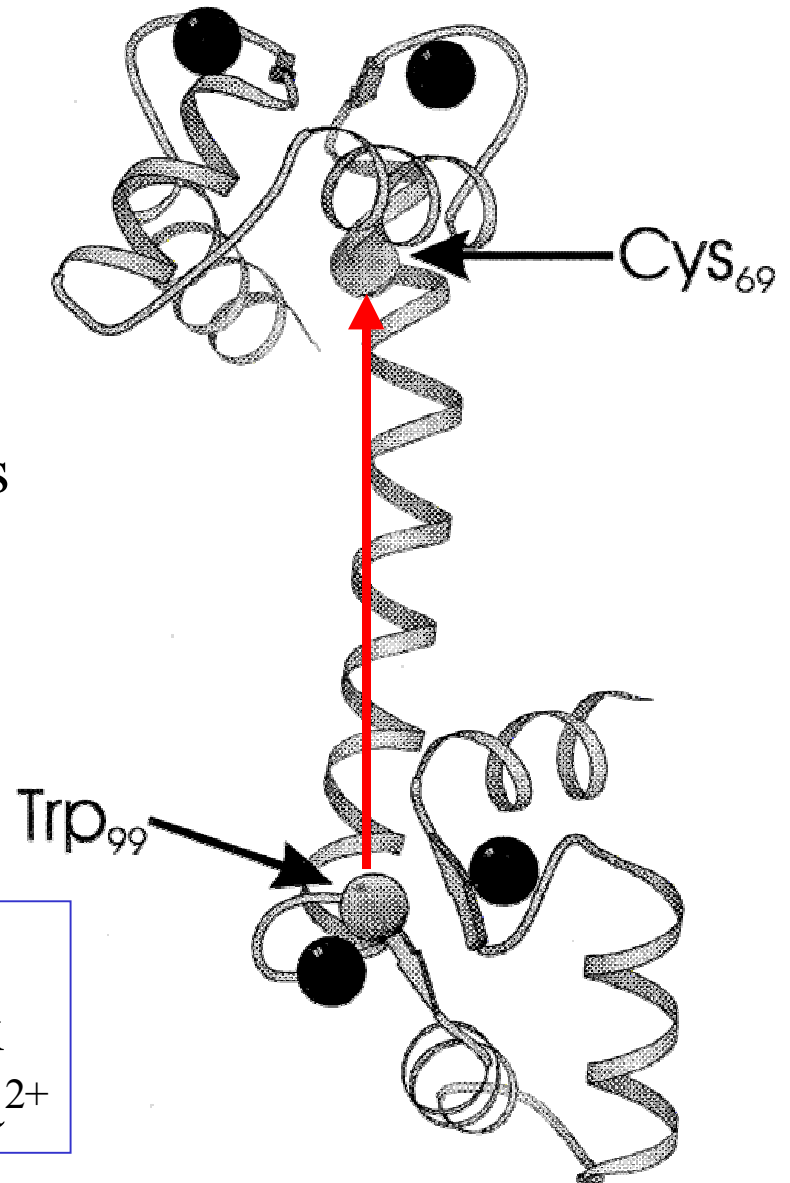
$$E = R_0^6 / (R_0^6 + R^6)$$

want to get this

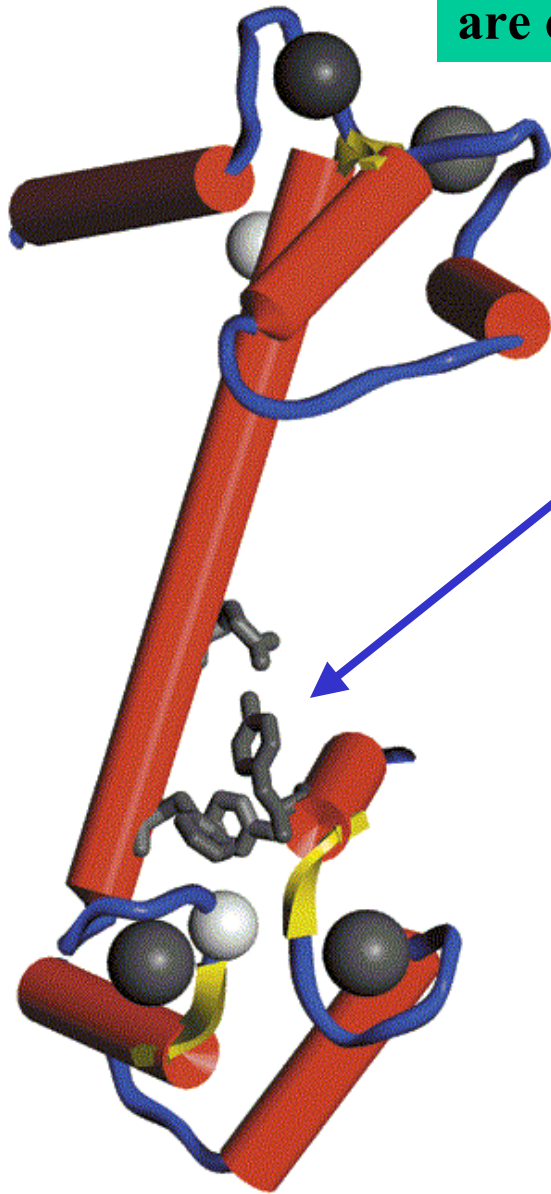
$$r = 31 \text{ \AA} (+ \text{Ca}^{2+})$$

$$r = 38 \text{ \AA} (\text{no } \text{Ca}^{2+})$$

**conclude:** there are two distinct conformations of the central helix in the presence and absence of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$



**Interactions with tyrosine 138  
are crucial to maintain the extended structure of calmodulin**

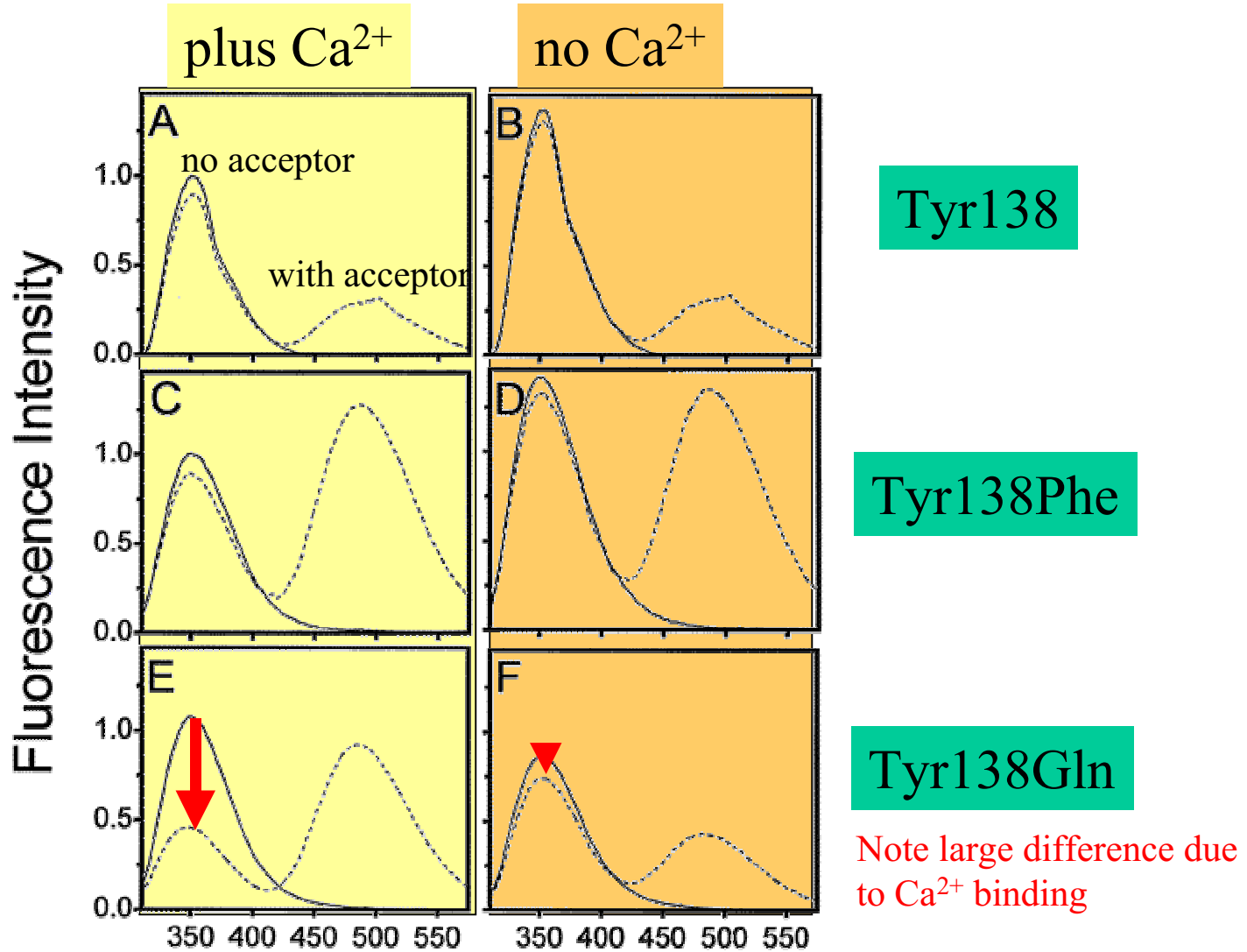


tyrosine 138 mutants disrupt the structural coupling between the two globular domains

Tyr138 interacts with residues in the central helix to stabilize the structure.

# Trp99→AEDANS Energy Transfer

Structural difference due to Tyr138Gln is again evident



## Trp99 → AEDANS Energy Transfer

Tyr138Phe eliminates the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  effect on the conformation of the central helix  
The distance between domains does not get shorter upon calcium binding

Tyr138Gln causes the structure of the central helix  
to partially collapse, resulting in the two globular domains  
getting closer together

	Energy Transfer Efficiency	Distance
Tyr138/+ $\text{Ca}^{2+}$	15%	30Å
Tyr138/- $\text{Ca}^{2+}$	7%	37Å
Tyr138Phe/+ $\text{Ca}^{2+}$	9%	35Å
Tyr138Phe/- $\text{Ca}^{2+}$	7%	37Å
Tyr138Gln/+ $\text{Ca}^{2+}$	<b>51%</b>	<b>23Å</b>
Tyr138Gln/- $\text{Ca}^{2+}$	16%	29Å

Interaction of Ca-calmodulin with its target proteins  
also results in collapse of the central helix structure  
likely by altering key interactions, such as that of Tyr138

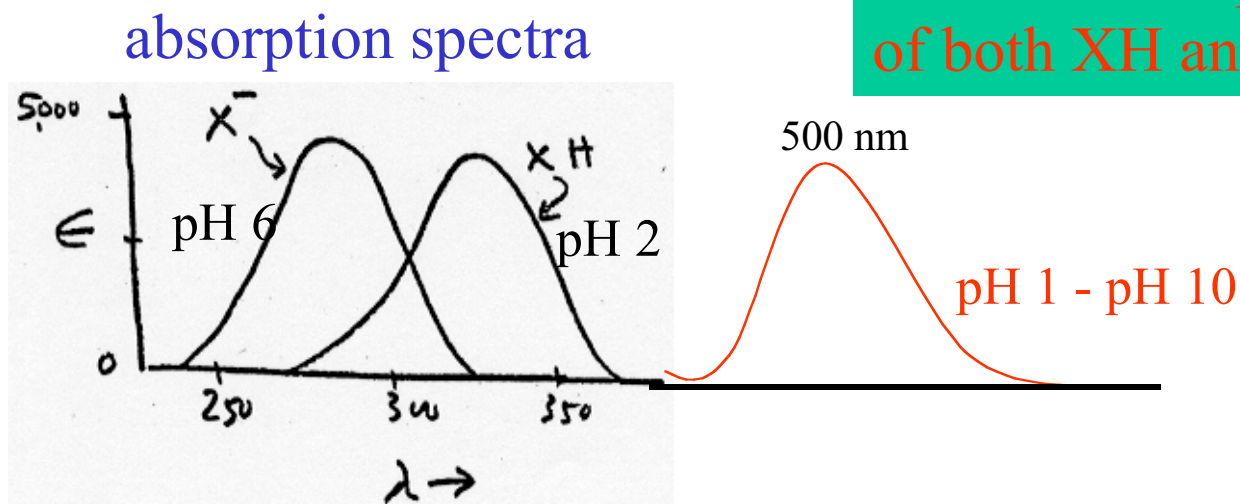
## Sample problem 1: fluorescence and absorption

A fluorescent molecule has a single dissociating proton:



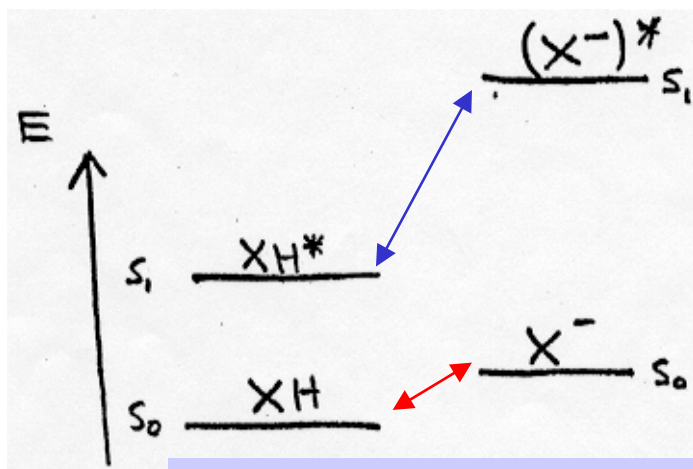
**XH and X<sup>-</sup> have distinct absorption spectra, with a pK<sub>a</sub> = 3.5.**

Part 1: Over the pH range 1 - 10 the emission spectrum does not change at all. **Explain.**



1) The equilibrium state of protonation of the ground state evidently does not influence the emission spectra.

2) The excited state must reach a rapid equilibrium with the protons within the excited state lifetime (about  $10^{-8}$  sec).

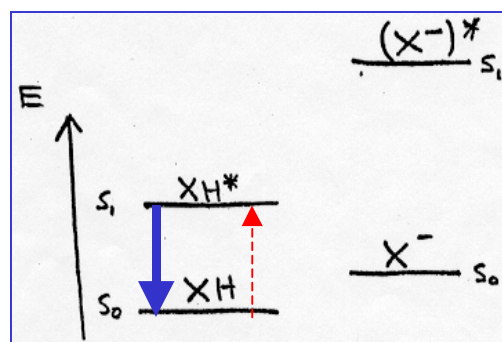


ground state  $pK = 3.5$

The  $pK$  of the excited state must be outside the range examined (pH 1 to 10)  
Most likely, the  $pK > 10$ .

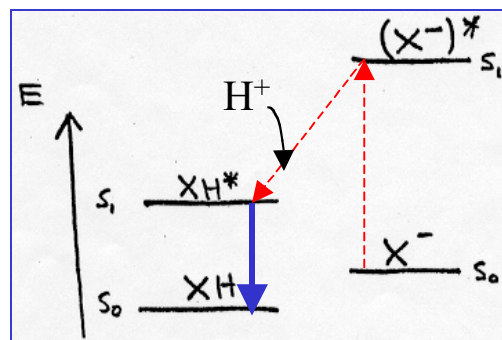
The proton equilibrates before emission of the photon.

Ground state is deprotonated at pH 6 but there is rapid proton equilibration during the excited state lifetime so the excited state can protonate before emission of a photon



pH 2

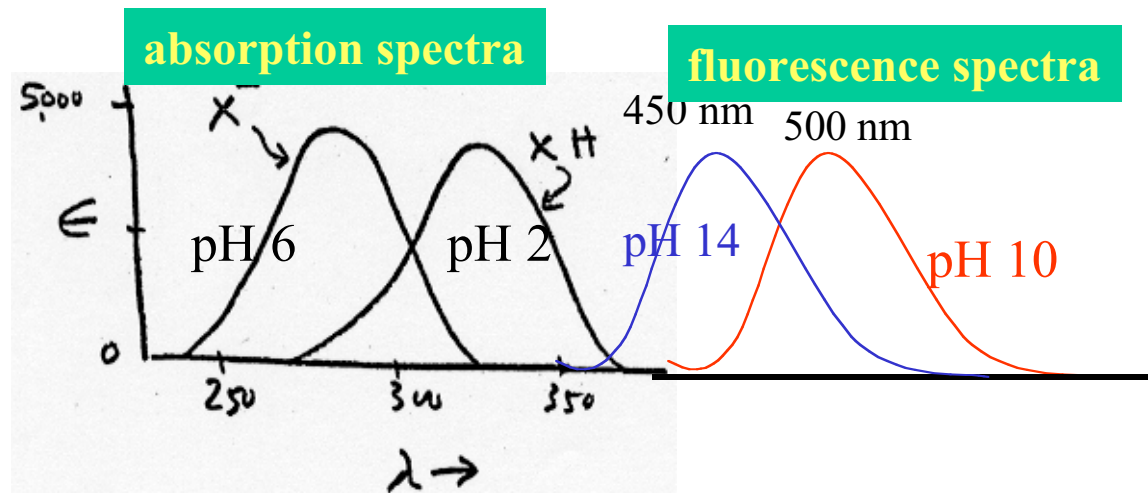
450 nm emission



pH 6

450 nm emission

**Part 2: As the pH is changed from pH 10 to 14, the emission peak shifts to the red from 500 nm to 450 nm. Explain what is occurring.**

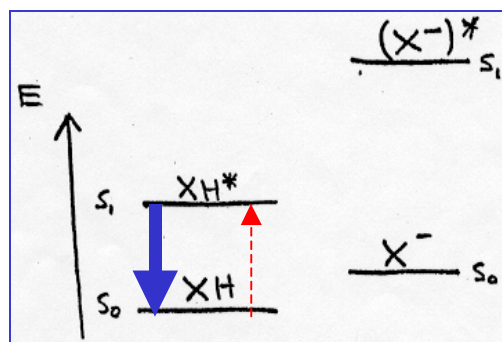
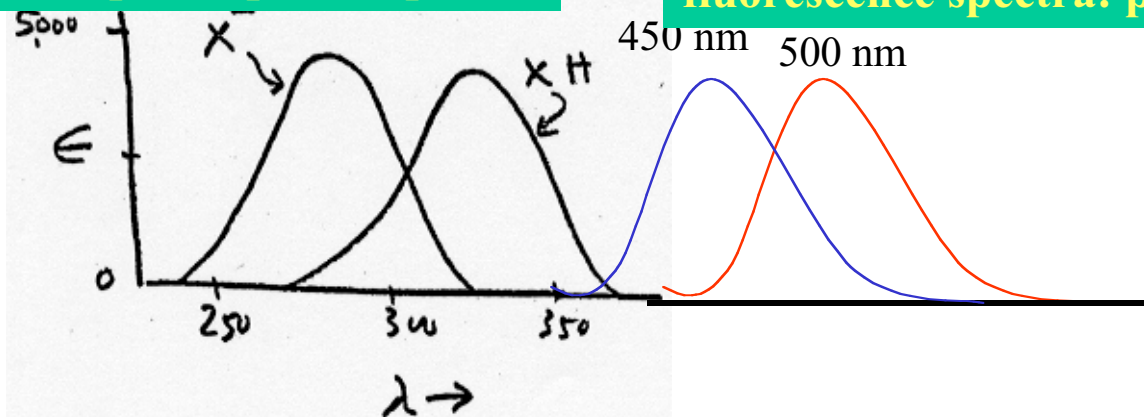




The blue shift denotes a change in the emitting species from  $XH^*$  to  $(X^-)^*$  as the pH is increased above pH 10. The excited state pKa is apparently about pH 12.

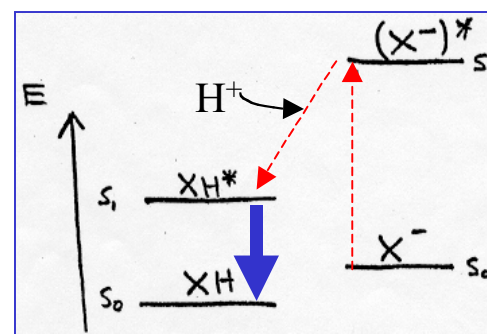
absorption spectra: pK 3.5

fluorescence spectra: pK 12



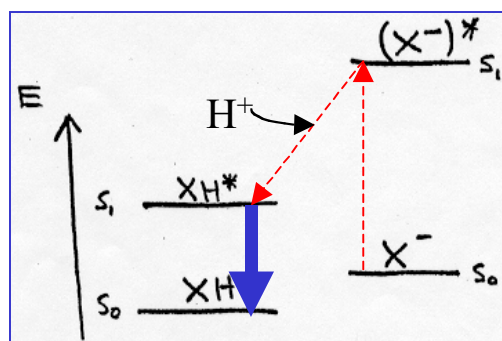
pH 2

500 nm



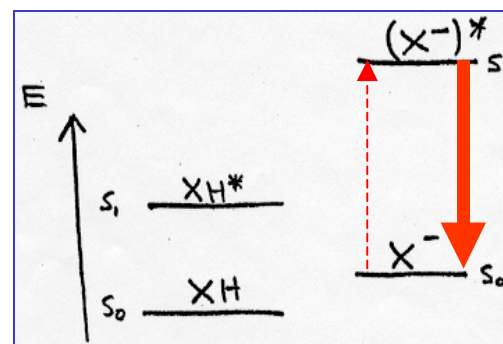
pH 10

500 nm



pH 6

500 nm

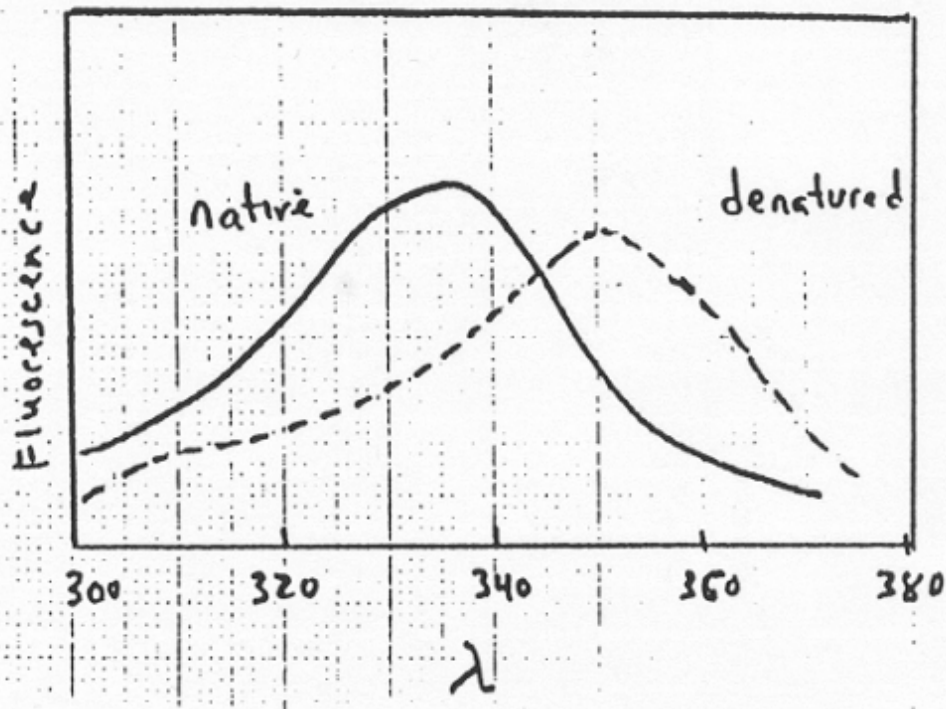


pH 14

450 nm

## Sample problem:

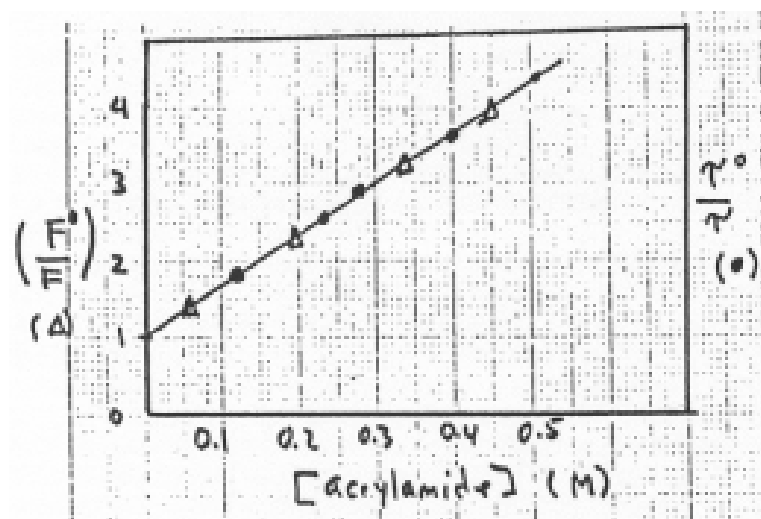
A protein contains two tryptophan residues which each fluoresce with equal quantum yields. Upon urea denaturation of the protein, the fluorescence changes as shown. **Explain.**



**solution:** the tryptophans are fully exposed to water when the protein is denatured, but are buried in the protein in the native form. Solvent relaxation results in the Stokes shift to the red.

b. Acrylamide was used to quench the tryptophan fluorescence. A linear Stern-Volmer plot was obtained which could be measured by either steady state fluorescence or by lifetime measurements

What is the mechanism of quenching? Explain.



$$F_0/F = 1 + k_Q \tau_0 [Q]$$

Solution: Dynamic quenching: the lifetime changes in parallel with the fluorescence intensity

A modified “reciprocal” form of the Stern-Volmer plot is shown below

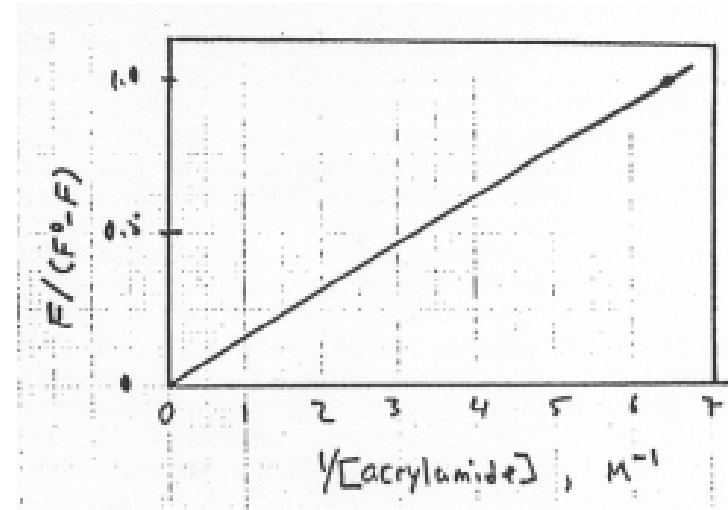
Are all the tryptophan residues buried?

reciprocal “modified form  
of the Stern-Volmer equation

$$F^0/F = 1 + k_Q\tau_0[Q]$$

$$(F^0/F) - 1 = k_Q\tau_0[Q]$$

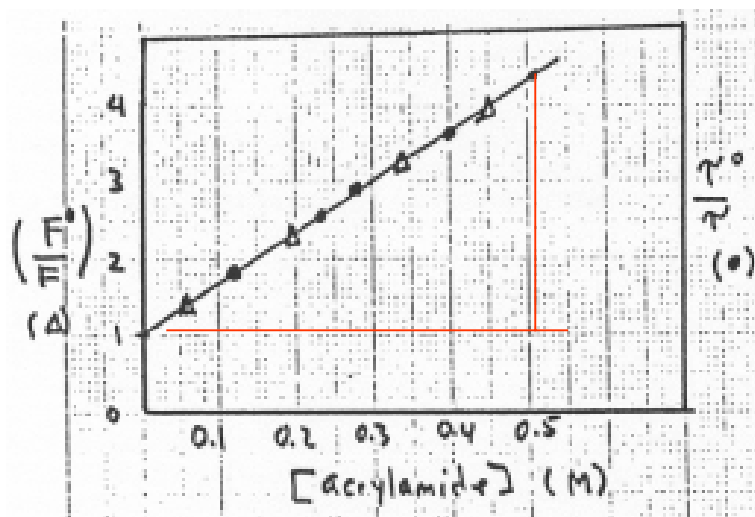
$$F/(F^0 - F) = 1/(k_Q\tau_0[Q])$$



**Solution:** as [acrylamide] is increased to infinite concentration the fluorescence,  $F$ , goes to zero.

This implies complete exposure to acrylamide to collisional (dynamic) quenching. Acrylamide is small and hydrophobic and can penetrate proteins to quench even buried tryptophans

What is the value of the collisional rate constant?  
 How does this value compare with the maximum possible?



$$F^0/F = 1 + k_Q \tau_0 [Q]$$

$$\text{Slope} = 6.5 \text{ M}^{-1} = k_Q \tau_0$$

Since  $\tau_0 = 3.6 \text{ nsec}$ , we can calculate that  $k_Q = 1.8 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$

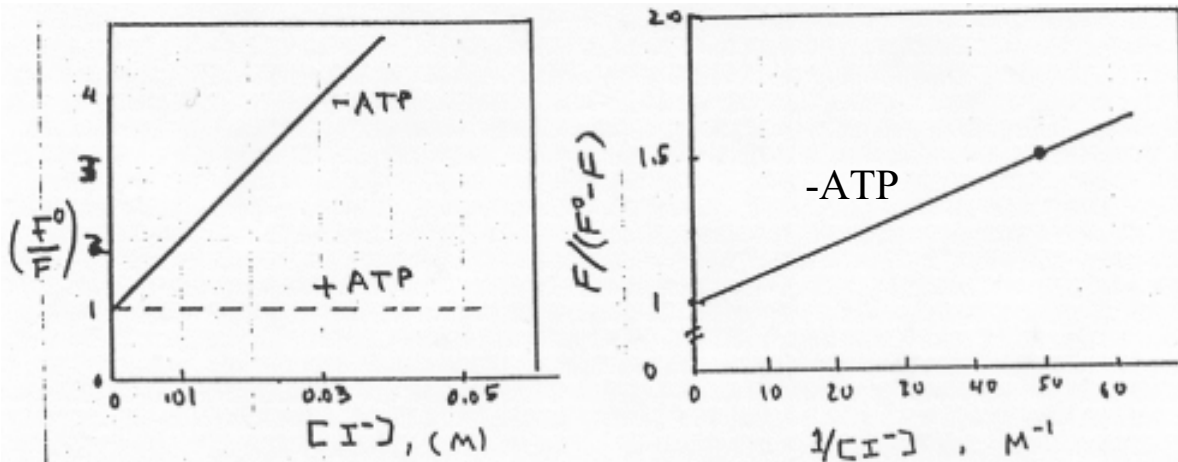
This is close to the diffusion limit of  $10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$

Iodide (I<sup>-</sup>) was used as a quencher with the same protein. **In this case, the fluorescence lifetime did not change.** The quenching pattern was dramatically altered in the presence of ATP, known to bind to the protein.

1. What kind of quenching is caused by iodide in this case?
2. Are all the tryptophans accessible to iodide?

$$F^0/F = 1 + k_Q \tau_0 [Q]$$

$$F/(F^0 - F) = 1/(k_Q \tau_0 [Q])$$



Since the lifetime does not change, this is **static quenching**, probably due to iodide binding at some site near a tryptophan residue.

The intercept of the modified Stern-Volmer plot is 1, indicating that half the fluorescence is not quenched even at infinite iodide ( $F = 0.5 F^0$ ). One tryptophan residue is not accessible to iodide.