

ITC Basic Concepts and Applications

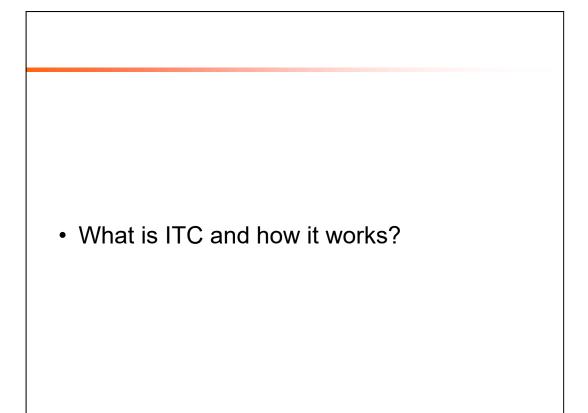
What is ITC and how it works?.

Establishing titrations conditions.

Simulated thermograms for diverse binding models and different titrations conditions.

Kinetic information from ITC.

ITC experiments applied to supramolecular systems.



What is ITC?

Isothermal Titration Calorimetry (ITC) was coined in the late 1980s.

The method allows for simultaneous determination of n, K_a and ΔH . More recently, kinetic measurements (k_{off}/k_{on}) have also been derived from ITC experiments (KinITC).

In 1990 ITC was introduced to biochemistry as a new method without citing previous work. Determination of K_a by titration calorimetry was first reported in 1965.

The introduction of power compensation calorimeters with small volumes and low detection limits by Microcal (Malvern) and Calorimetry Sciences, TA Instruments, (Waters) during the 1990/2000s made ITC experiments the accepted norm.



What is ITC?

An ITC experiment consists in a stepwise titration that collects 10 to 25 data points and requires 2 to 3 h.

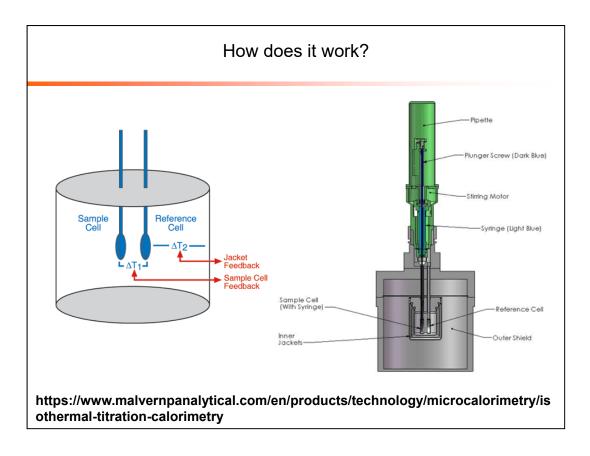
The usual method of heat measurement for this technique is power compensation.

The calorimeter is usually operated with an overfilled reaction vessel. The addition of titrant displaces reactant solution.

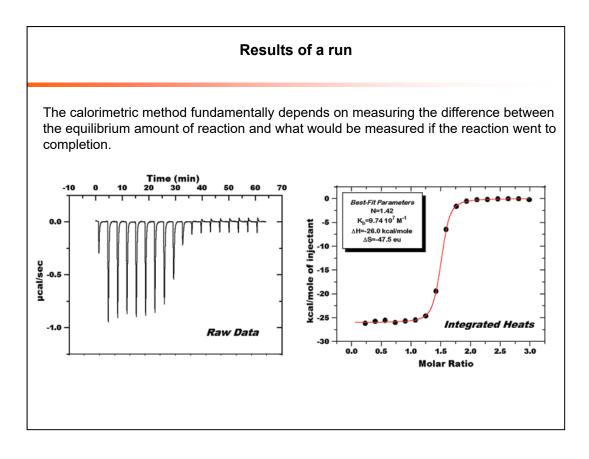
The titrant is added in increments which can vary in size and number.

The computation of K_f and ΔH is done on the increments of heat produced between data points (differential analysis)

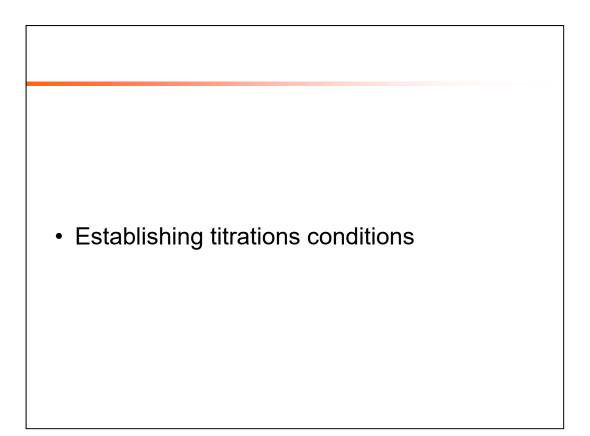


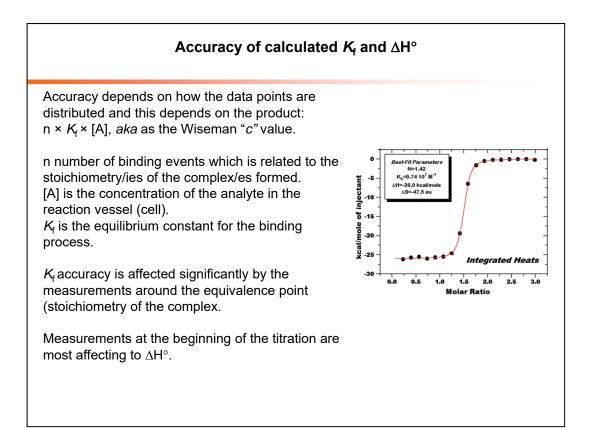


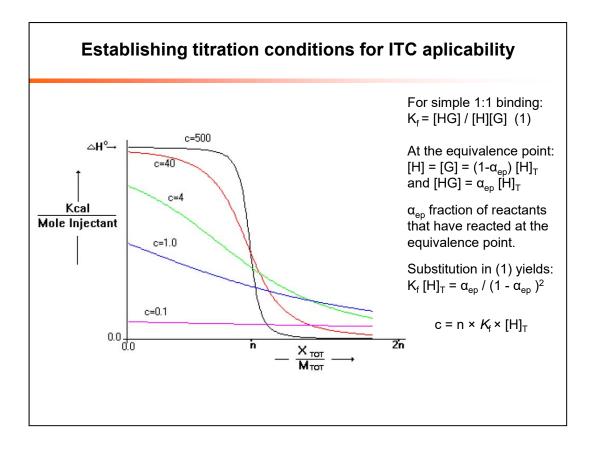
MicroCal's ultrasensitive ITC systems use a cell feedback network (CFB) to differentially measure and compensate for heat produced or absorbed between the sample and reference cell. Twin coin-shaped cells are mounted in a cylindrical adiabatic environment, and connect to the outside through narrow access tubes (Figure 1). A thermoelectric device measures the temperature difference between the two cells and a second device measures the temperature difference between the cells and the jacket. As chemical reactions occur in the sample cell, heat is generated or absorbed. The temperature difference between the sample and reference cells (Δ T1) is kept at a constant value (i.e. baseline) by the addition or removal of heat to the sample cell, as appropriate, using the CFB system. The integral of the power required to maintain Δ T1 = constant over time is a measure of total heat resulting from the process being studied. Figure 2 is a schematic drawing of the ITC cells and syringe.



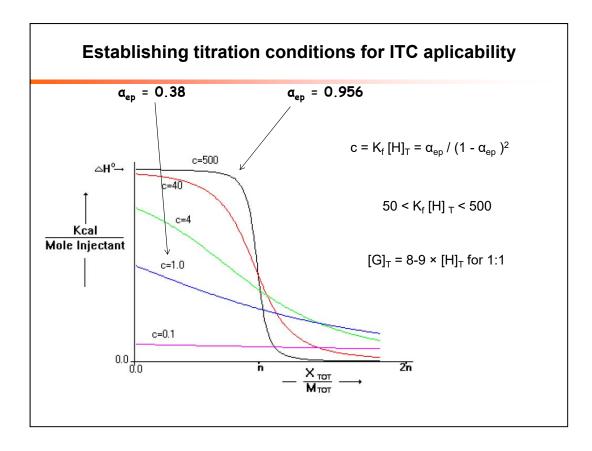
In an ITC experiment, a syringe containing a "ligand" solution is titrated into a cell containing a solution of the "macromolecule" at constant temperature. When the ligand is injected into the cell, the two materials interact, and heat is released or absorbed in direct proportion to the amount of binding. As the macromolecule in the cell becomes saturated with ligand, the heat signal diminishes until only the background heat of dilution is observed. A major advantage of the MicroCal ITC instruments is the availability of three user-selectable modes of operation: high gain, low gain, and passive (US Patent Number 5,967,659). The high gain mode is suggested for most ITC experiments, allowing the fastest re-equilibration between injections, thereby providing the shortest experimental times. The passive mode has the lowest noise, and is useful when examining very small signal changes in systems having slow transients.





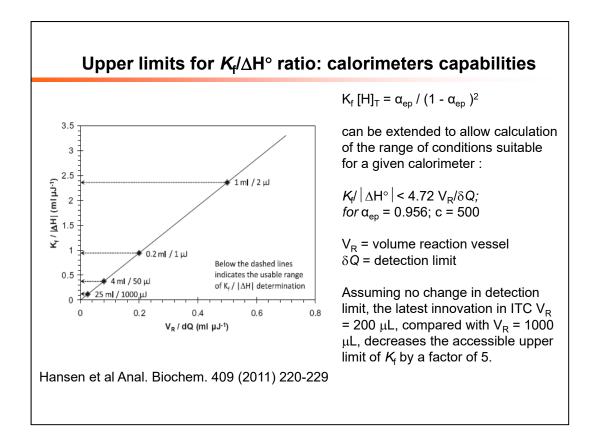


Simulated titration curves for complexation processes with differing equilibrium constants. The calorimetric method for determination of equilibrium constants depends on the reaction being significantly incomplete at the equivalence point. Quantitatively the degree of completion at the equivalence point determines how "rounded" the titration curve is and is related to the product Kf and [H].



This equation is the basis for establishing titration conditions that allows application of the calorimetric method. Similar expressions have been derived and are the basis of the common statement that the product Kf[A] must be between 10 and 1000 or the calorimetric method cannot produce a valid Kf value. Too little reaction occurs if Kf[A]<10 and the reaction is too close to completion if Kf[A]>1000. c=1, alfaep=0.38; c=500, alfaep=0.956; c=1000, alfaep=0.969; c=10000, alfaep=0.990. The Kf[A] value needs to be between 50 and 500 to minimize uncertainty in the determined Kf.

If Kf[A] <50 correlation between DH and Kf makes it mathematically impossible to precisely separated these quantities. I Kf[A] > 500, the endpoint will be sharp, and it is normally not possible to obtain sufficient data points around the equivalence point to obtain a precise value of Kf. The curvature around the equivalence point is the determinant of Kf. At least 5 data points are required to define this curved portion of the titration curve. Note that Kf of the system is not a variable but a fundamental property. [A] must be changed to adjust the value Kf[A for a five reaction.



The figure shows the limit obtained from this inequality for typical calorimeters. To compare the capabilities of calorimeters for

equilibrium constant determinations is not the equilibrium constant per se but rather the ratio of the equilibrium constant to the absolute value of the enthalpy change (i.e., Kf/|DH|).

The upper limit of Kf/|DH| for a given calorimeter is fixed by the ratio VR/dQ (i.e., the ratio of the active volume of the reaction vessel to the detection limit for measurement of the heat per injection). The lines show the upper level of this value for commercially available calorimeters. The volume of the reaction vessel and heat detection limit are shown. For a given volume, the detection limit and the magnitude of DH determine the upper limit of Kf values that can be determined accurately. For a given detection limit, the upper limit on Kf values increases proportionally to an increase in volume.

The detection limit restrict the upper boundary for Kf determination because $[H]_T$ must be decreased to keep the product Kf[H] within the acceptable range, and as [H] decreases, the heat per injection becomes too small to measure accurately.

Similarly, the maximum measurable heat per injection (maximum of the dynamic range) is another characteristic of a calorimeter that must be taken into account when considering the limits of accessible KfCR values. When Kf is small, CR must be made large to stay within the range of acceptable KfCR values. Under these conditions,

especially if DH is large, the total heat per injection in an incremental titration or the heat rate in a continuous titration may exceed the dynamic range of the calorimeter

Exercise: Mentimeter

For a Microcal VP-ITC with 1.0 ml cell and $\delta Q = 1 \ \mu J$ and aiming at a Wiseman value of 40.

To accurately determine a 1:1 binding constant with a magnitude of 7 x 10⁷ M⁻¹ and ΔH = - 21.7 kJ/mol?

What are the best/optimum concentrations of H and G for the experiment?

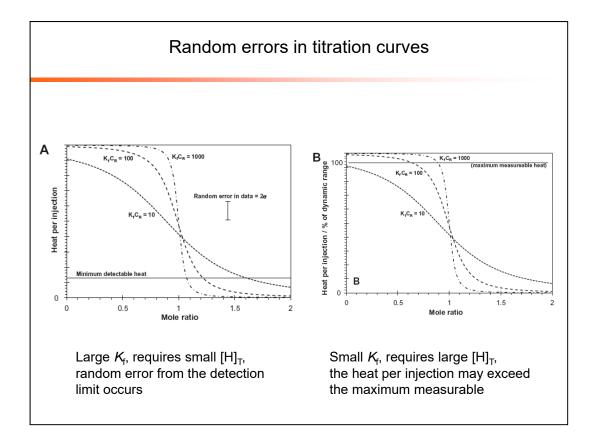
Is the detection limit and cell volume of the calorimeter suitable for the experiment?

Example For a Microcal VP-ITC with 1.0 ml cell Is it possible to accurately determine a 1:1 binding constant with a magnitude of 7 × 10⁷ M⁻¹? What host concentration should I use? $c = n K_{f} [H]_{T}$; $40 = 1 \times (7 \times 10^{7}) \times [H]_{T}$; $[H]_{T} = 5.7 \times 10^{-7} M$ What concentration should I use for the guest in the syringe? $[G]_{T} = 8 \times 5.7 \times 10^{-7} M = 4.5 \times 10^{-6} M$ With and enthalpy of binding of $\Delta H = -5.2$ kcal/mol = -21.74 kJ/mol Uper K_f value to be accurately determined K_f < 21740 x 4.72 = 1.0 × 10⁵ M⁻¹ and the order of binding should be two orders of magnitude in the strenge in the streng

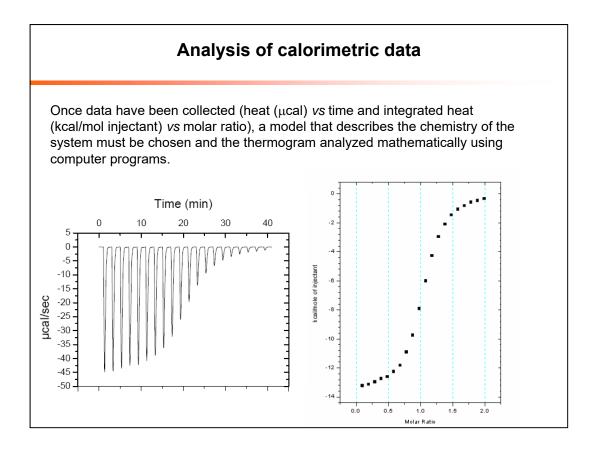
To produce optimal results, the uncertainty in the heat per data point in the titration curve, dQ, must be less than 1% of the total

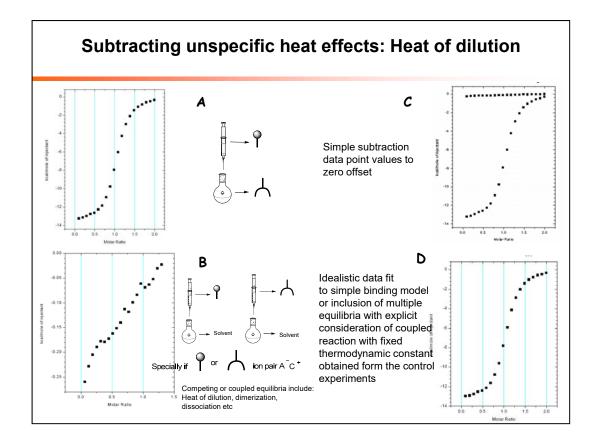
heat produced up to the equivalence point (i.e., Qep > 100dQ, where dQ may be defined as twice the standard deviation in the measured

heat per data point).

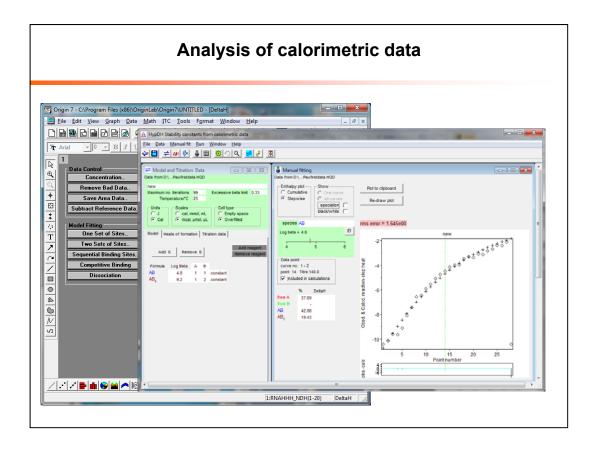


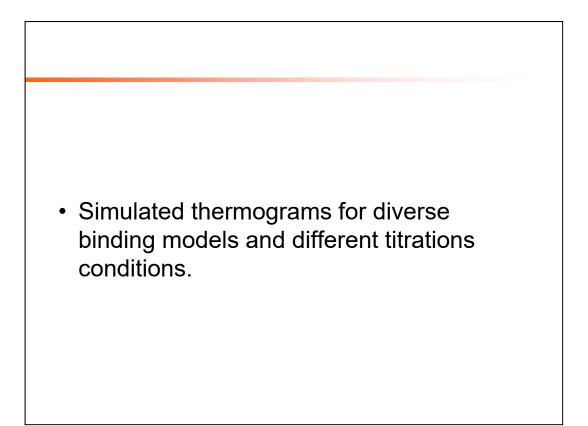
Titration curves illustrating the effects of random error on titration curves under reaction conditions with large Kf that requires a small [A] value, a situation where significant random error from the detection limit occurs throughout the titration curve (A), and conditions with small Kf that requires a large [A] value, a situation where the heat per injection may exceed the maximum measurable heat and the detection limit makes an insignificant contribution to random error (B).

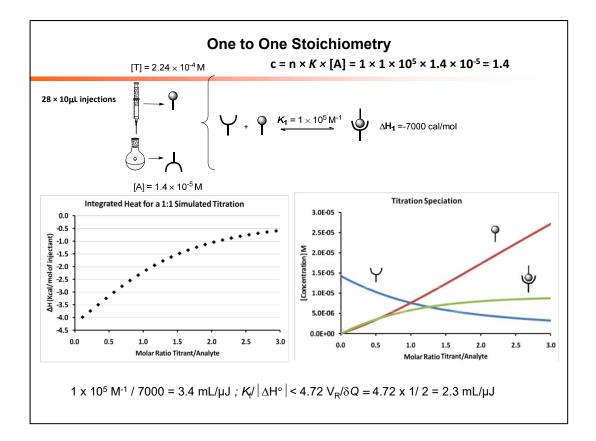


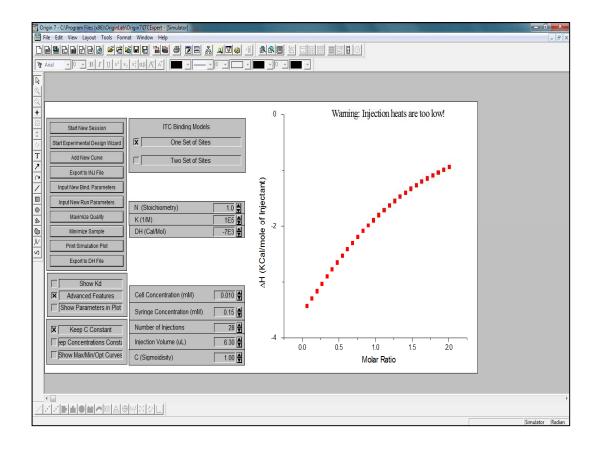


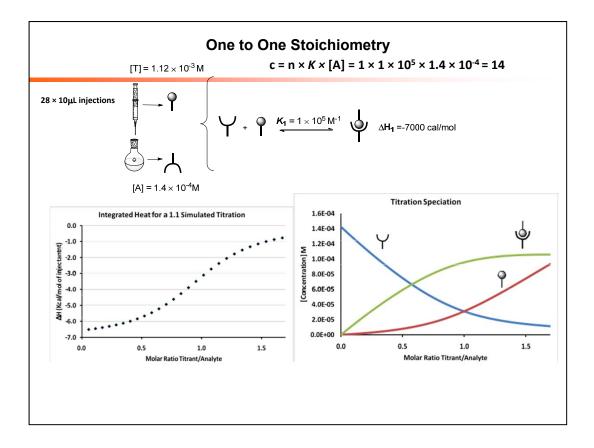
Influences that the do not derive from the supramolecular interactions under investigation. Before analysis the data can be subtracted by using blank titrations one or the other binding partner. But synergistic effects from the solution or the instrument may not be taken into account with blank experiments. In the simple 1.1 idealistic binding model the a zero offset after blank subtraction must be obtained in the region where host-guest complexation reaches saturation. In these cases, the calculated fit function shows systematic deviations, and while error minimization may finally converge, the energetic parameters deduced can nonetheless be characterized by low accuracy and precision.

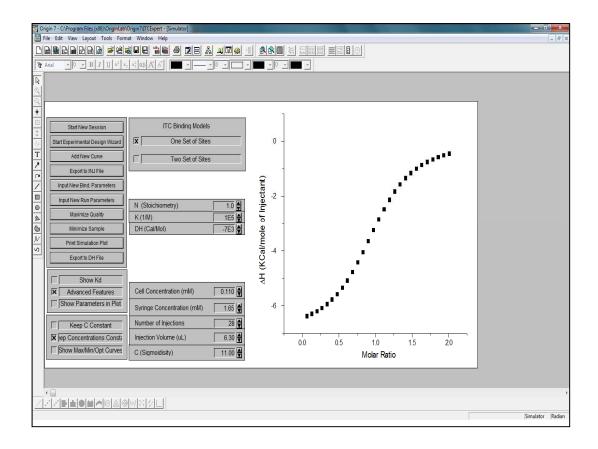


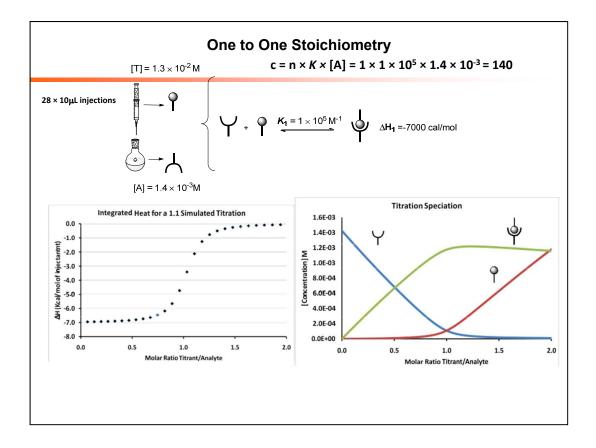


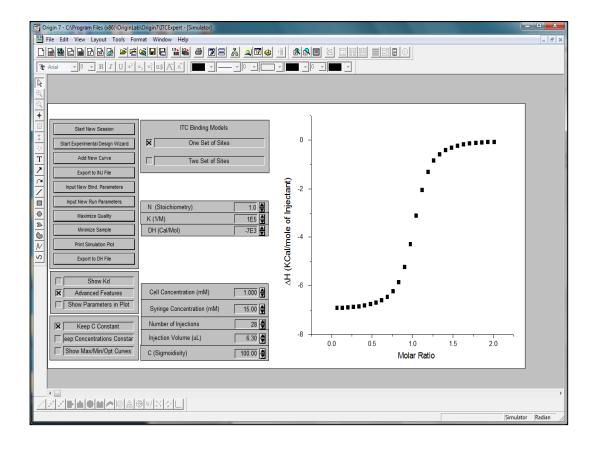


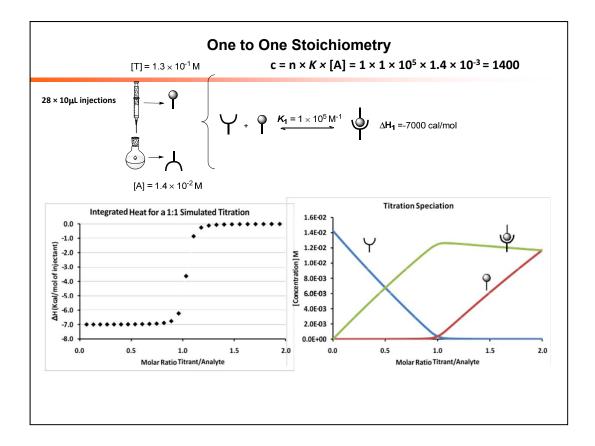


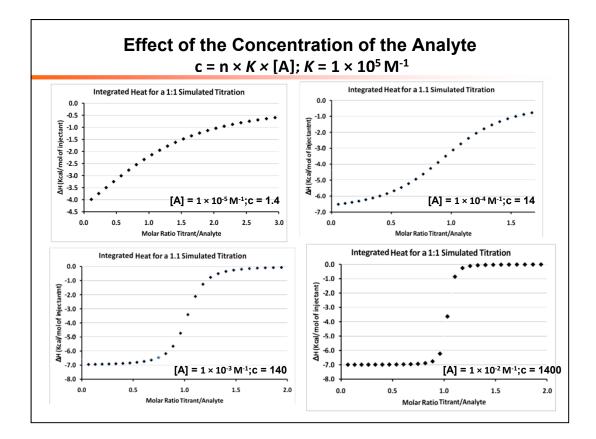


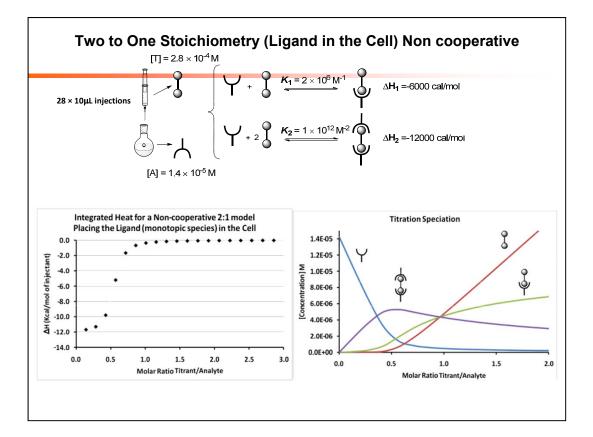


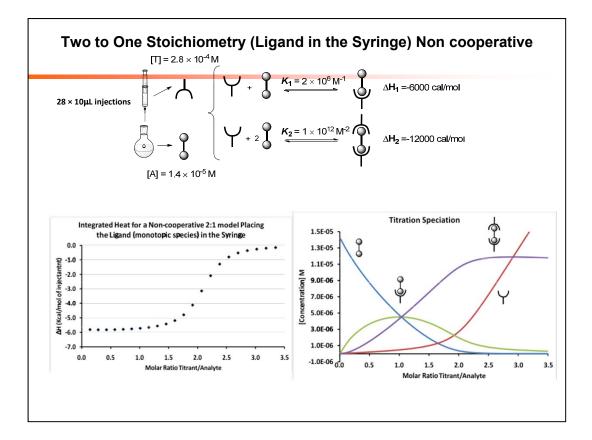


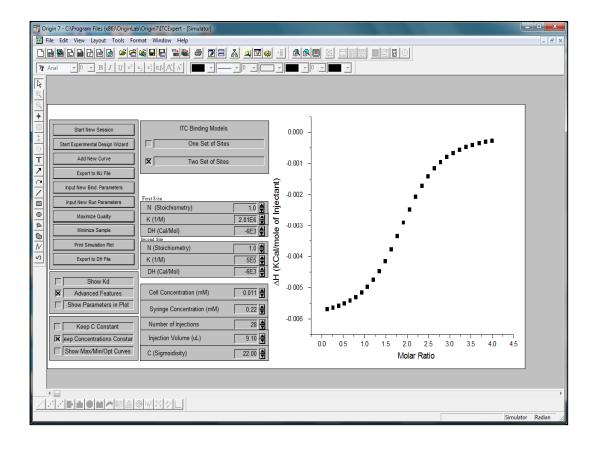


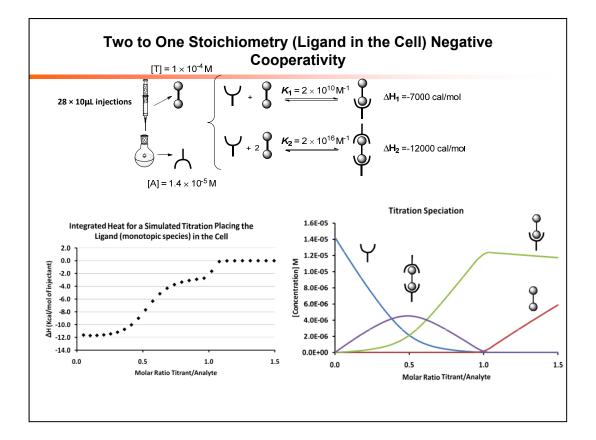


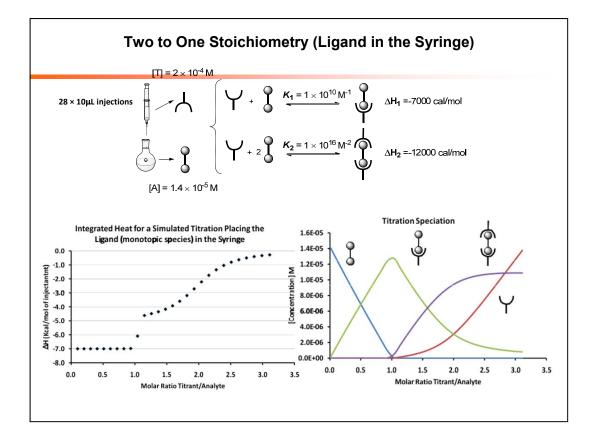


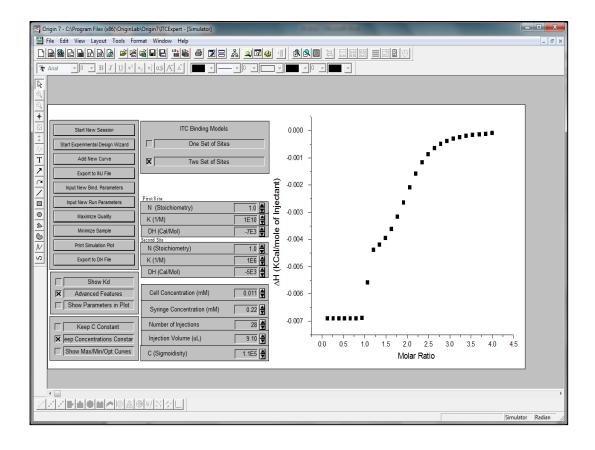


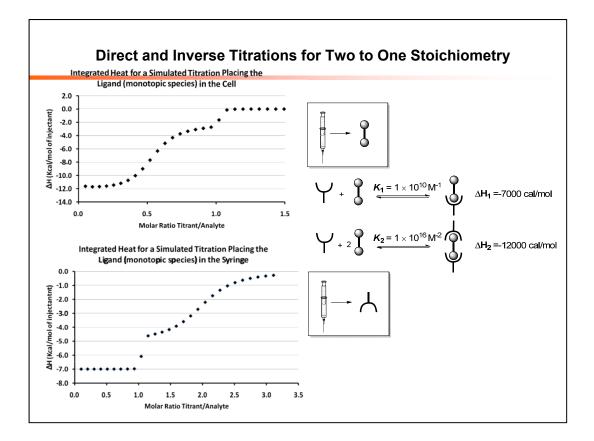


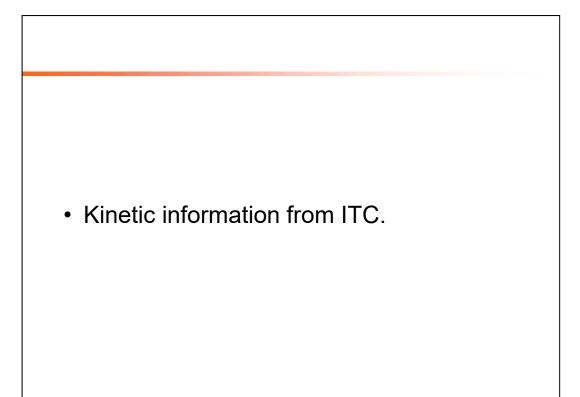












Measuring the Kinetics of Molecular Association by Isothermal Titration Calorimetry (reversible reaction)

 $A + B \rightleftharpoons C$ with parameters k_{on} , k_{off}

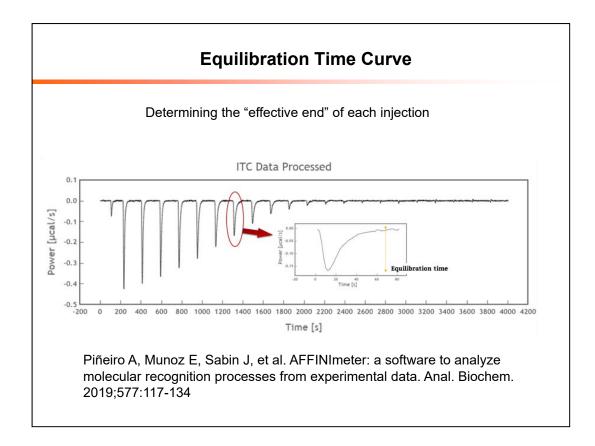
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}[C]}{\mathrm{d}t} = k_{\mathrm{on}}[A][B] - k_{\mathrm{off}}[C]$$

$$K_{\rm d} = k_{\rm off} / k_{\rm on}$$
 $K_{\rm a} = \frac{k_{\rm on}}{k_{\rm off}}$

Dumas P, Ennifar E, Da Veiga C, et al. Methods Enzymol. 2016;567:157-180.

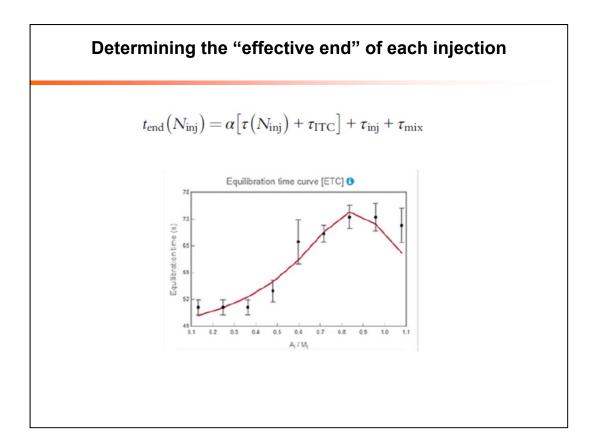
The real-time power response inherent in an isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC) experiment provides an opportunity to directly analyze association kinetics, Interactions occurring with relaxation times ranging from slightly below the instrument response time constant (VP-ITC 12.5 s in this case) to as large as 600 s. For Microcal ITC 3.5s.

In a binding titration scenario, in the most general case an injection can reveal an association rate constant (kon).

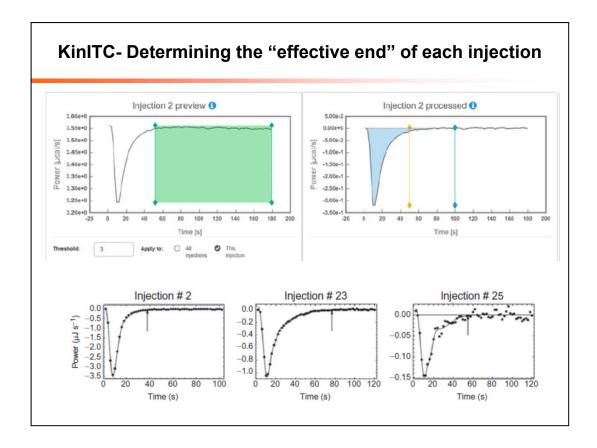


Under more restrictive conditions (reversibility throughout the full titration), the instrument time constant-corrected power decay following each injection is simply an exponential decay described by a composite rate constant (kobs), from which both kon and the dissociation rate constant (koff) can be extracted.

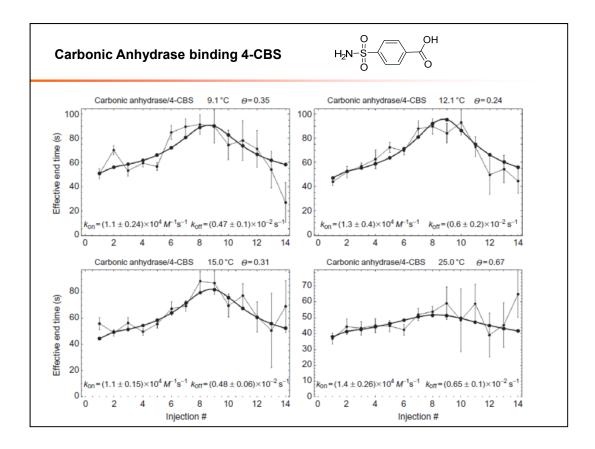
The output from a power compensation microcalorimeter can be viewed as a convolution of the reaction "impulse" heat evolution function with the calorimeter "response" function, the latter being effectively modelled as first order with rate constant kITC.



In this way, the best possible kinetic parameters were available for comparison with the results from kinITC–ETC.

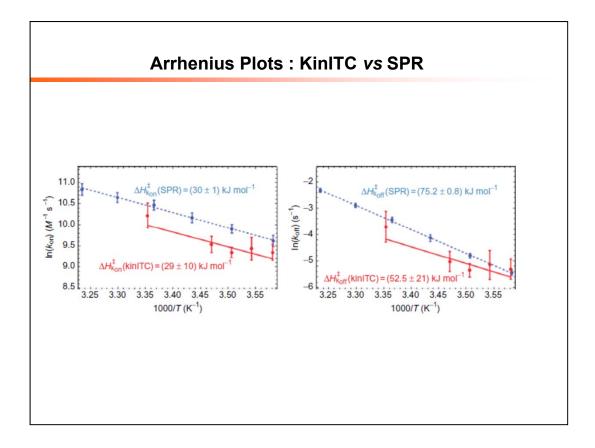


The simplified kinITC method, therefore, is based upon the determination of the effective end time or, in other words, of the equilibration time of each injection, which yields a more or less bell-shaped ETC. In this way, the best possible kinetic parameters were available for comparison with the results from kinITC–ETC.

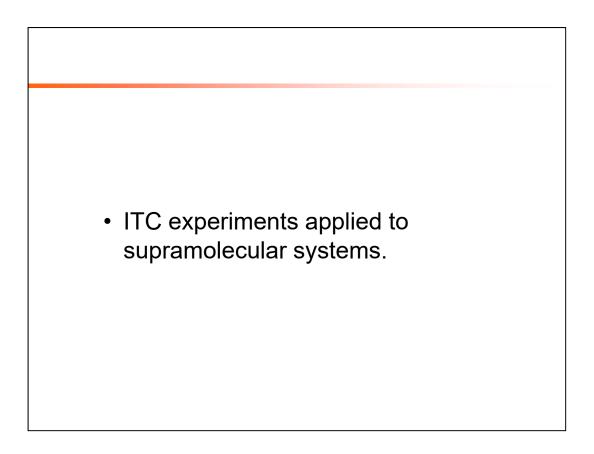


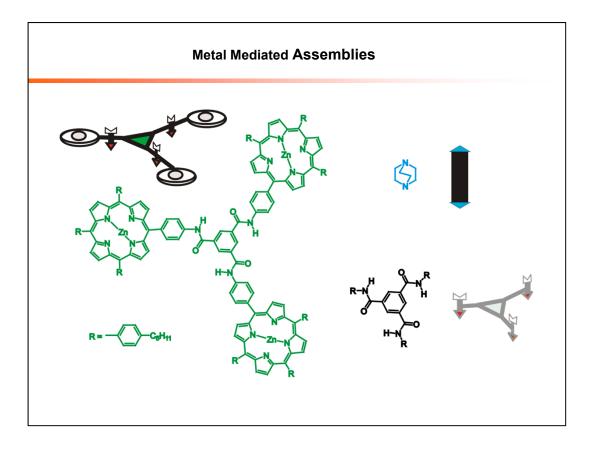
The initial concentrations of carbonic anhydrase (compound A) were [A] = 24:4, 24:2, 24:5, 24:6, and 17:6 μ M at, respectively, 6.1 °C (not shown), 9.1, 12.1, 15, and 25 °C. The concentration

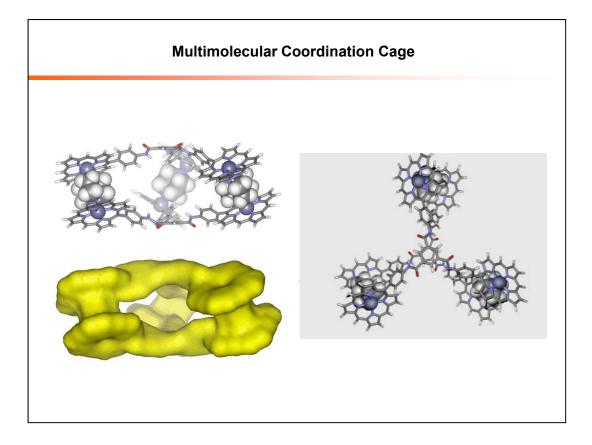
of 4-CBS was [B] = 315μ M at all temperatures and the injected volumes were 1.9 μ L up to 15 °C and 1.4 μ L at 25 °C.

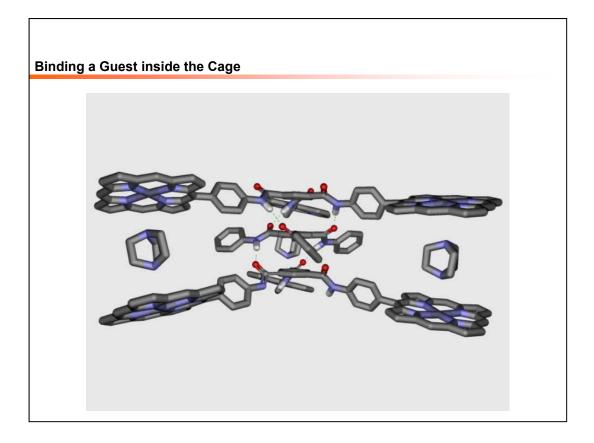


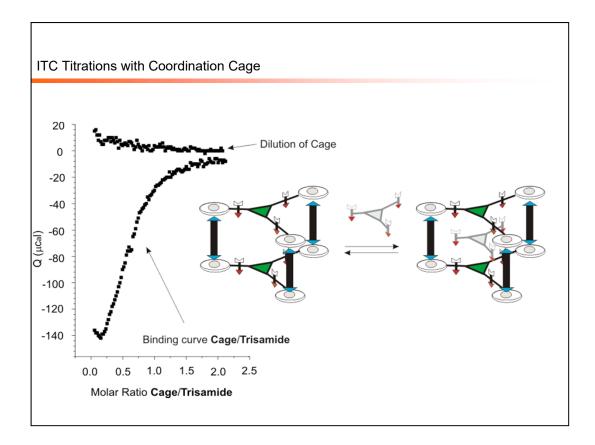
This experimental case, therefore, appears to be representative of a favorable situation leading to kinetic parameters comparing well with those from SPR results of the best possible quality due to the unusually great number of independent replicate experiments

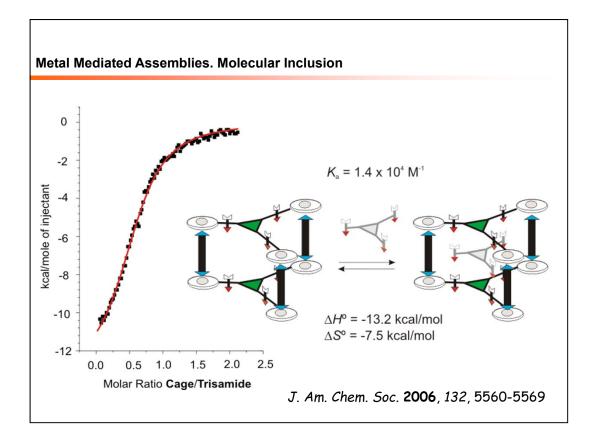


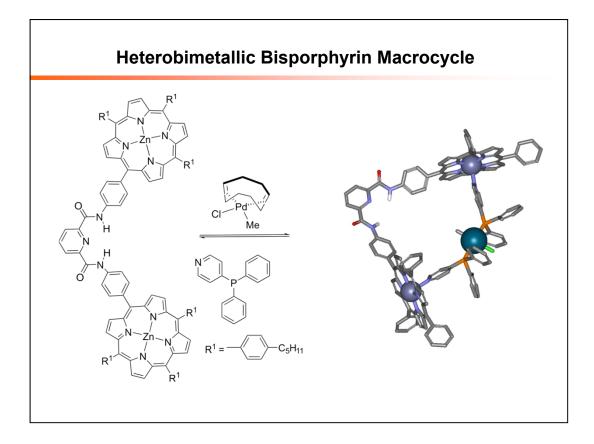


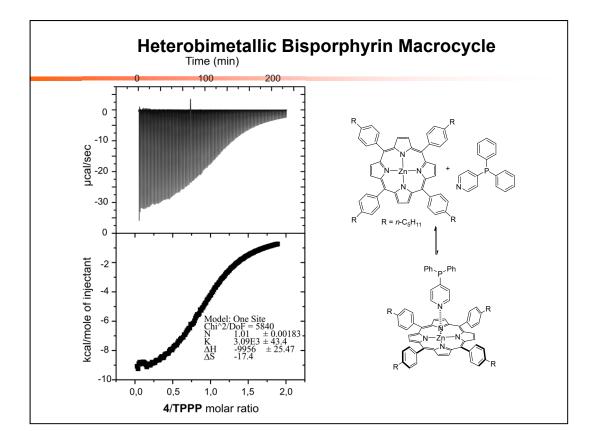


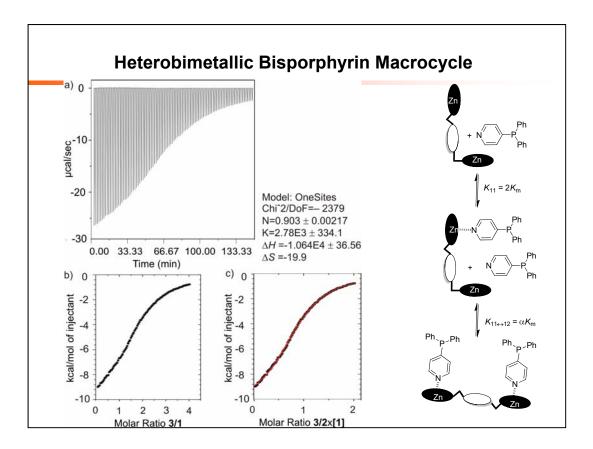


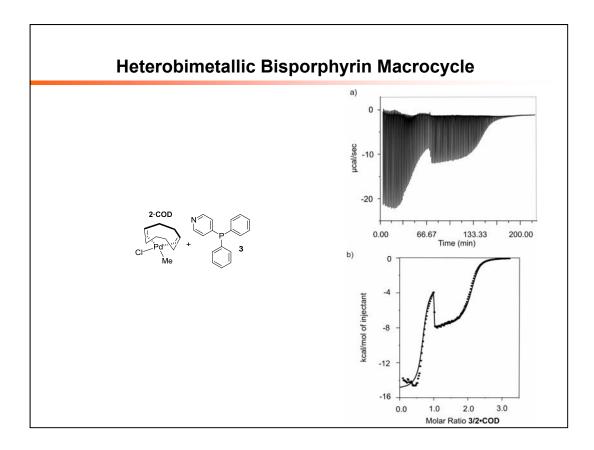


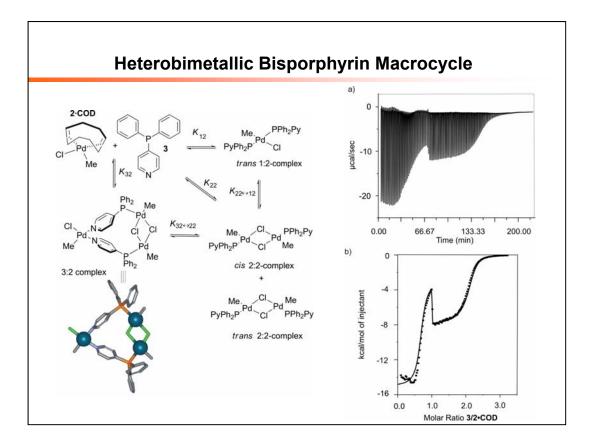


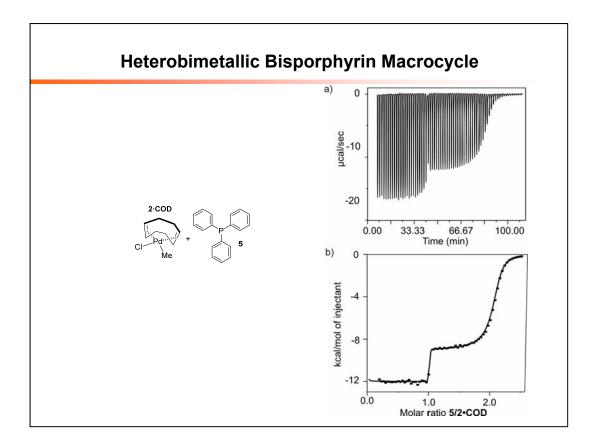


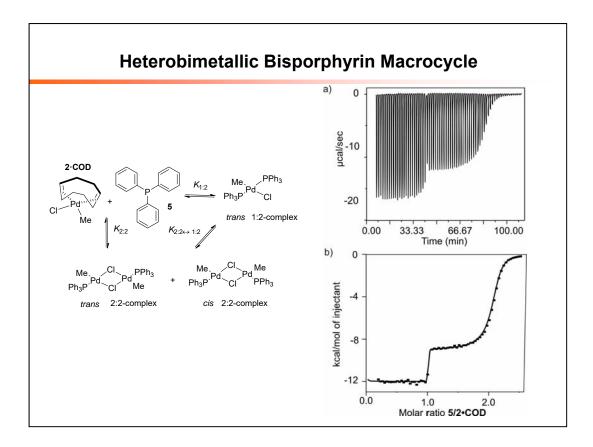


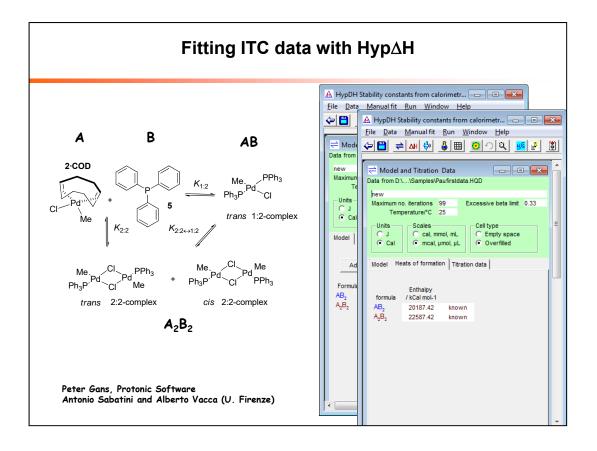


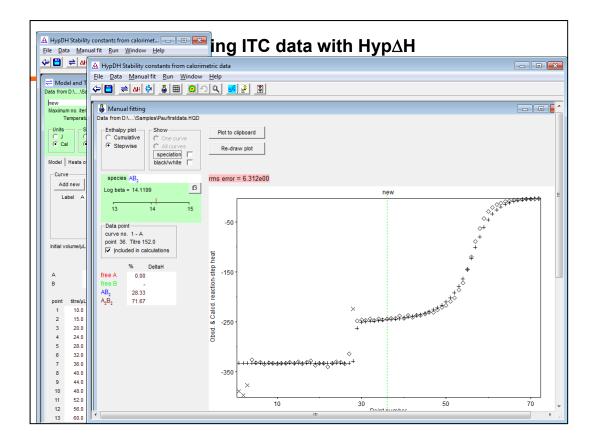


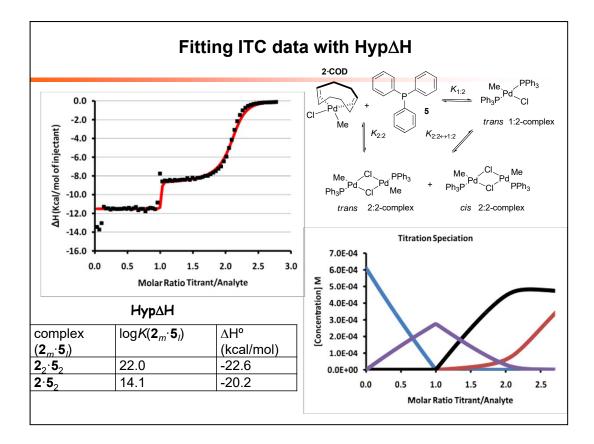


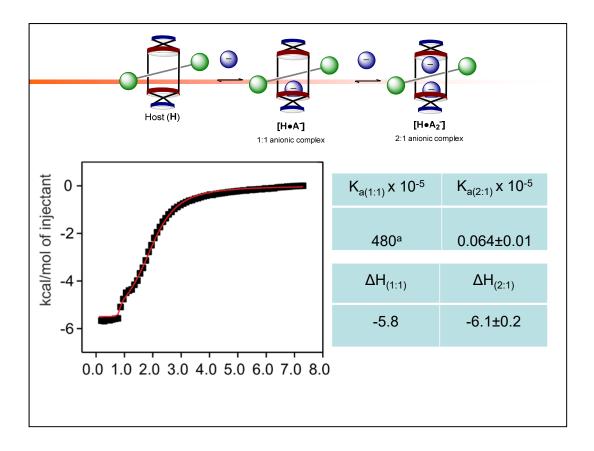












Conclusions

- In favorable circumstances logβ and ΔH^o for single and multiple equilibria can be determined from calorimetric data alone. Titration calorimeters, however, measure the sum of heat associated with all processes occurring upon addition of T.
- The selection of concentrations for [H] and [G] used in the titration are of utmost importance. Experimental conditions must be selected to avoid or try to minimize competing or coupled equilibria involving the interacting species. Subsequent data analysis must take into account the contributions of coupled equilibria to the overall measured heat.

Conclusions

- The precision of logβ values can be less than generally achieved with other titration techniques, but ΔH^o values have comparable precision.
- Titration data corresponding to multiple binding equilibria can be analyzed mathematically with appropriate software (Hyp∆H) and the condition-independent values for the supramolecular binding process or processes of interest can be determined.
- It is also possible to extract kinetic information for ITC experiments originally planned for the thermodynamic characterization of a binding system.

