A trypsin-based bistable switch

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ABSTRACT

Recreating some of the emergent behavior seen in biological reaction networks is an important goal in the new field of systems chemistry. One of the classic examples of complex behavior is bistability, which is abundantly used in living organisms for switching between cellular states. Here, we create a bistable switch based on the autocatalytic activation and inhibition of the enzyme trypsin under flow conditions. We investigate the influence of the inhibitor structure, and hence inhibition kinetics, on the properties of the bistable switch.

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1. Introduction

All-or-none responses are crucial in cellular processes such as differentiation,1 cell motility,2 apoptosis,3 and cell cycle control.4,5 This type of response is typically regulated by bistable switches,6–8 that are able to maintain a stable state A until a trigger switches the system to state B, after which this new state persists even when the trigger is removed, a property called hysteresis. In the past decades, artificial networks have been developed that display bistability, including ones based on DNA circuits,9 enzymes,10 inorganic chemistry,11 and most recently, small organic molecules.12 In addition, mathematical analyses have indicated that many network motifs can lead to bistability as long as they contain a sufficient degree of nonlinear kinetics.13,14 We propose to use a basic motif, displayed in Fig. 1A, where an autocatalytic, positive feedback loop in which trypsin (Tr) catalyzes its own formation from its precursor trypsinogen (Tg), is combined with a trypsin inhibitor (Inh). Importantly, trypsinogen displays self-activation due to residual tryptic activity, which ensures a slow, but continuous production of trypsin.15 This motif is comparable with the one that was described recently, in which thiols were constantly produced through thioester hydrolysis, amplified through native chemical ligation, and inhibited by maleimides.12 Importantly, bistability is only obtained under out-of-equilibrium conditions in these systems, and to that end we implement a flow reactor.

In this report, we achieve bistability by combining kinetic studies with batch experiments and computational modelling to predict the conditions necessary for bistability in a flow reactor. Previously, we developed this strategy to design a trypsin oscillator based on a different network motif than the one used here.16 Furthermore, we now synthesize a new, more potent inhibitor of trypsin by modifying a commercially available trypsin inhibitor, and probed the influence of the inhibition kinetics on the properties of the bistable system. As we saw before in the trypsin oscillator,17 small modifications in molecular structure can have a profound influence on the behavior of complex, out-of-equilibrium networks.

2. Results and discussion

In a reactor, the autocatalytic formation of trypsin is antagonized by the outflow of reaction products.18 Intuitively, at extremely high flow rates, the outflow of the reactor is similar to its inflow, because trypsinogen is washed out of the reactor before it can be activated. Conversely, one imagines that under batch conditions (no flow) the reaction will proceed until all trypsinogen has been converted into trypsin and thermodynamic equilibrium is reached. Under all circumstances, the addition of inhibitor counteracts the autocatalysis. In a bistable system, a regime exists in which the starting concentration of trypsin determines the final state of the system. At low concentrations of trypsin, outflow and inhibition
outcompete autocatalysis, but at higher concentrations of trypsin, the rate of autocatalysis is increased tremendously due to its nonlinear nature, and a high concentration of trypsin is maintained.

Therefore, it is necessary for the inhibitor to strongly oppose trypsin formation (i.e. relatively high rate of inhibition), while allowing the trypsin concentration to quickly increase when autocatalysis outcompetes inhibition (for instance when all inhibitor has reacted). These are the properties we are looking for below, when we test two different trypsin inhibitors.

2.1. Synthesis and kinetic studies of potent inhibitor

First, we synthesized an arginine-like analogue of the commercially available trypsin inhibitor 4-(2-aminoethyl)benzenesulfonyl fluoride (AEBSF, compound 1 in Fig. 1b) by guanylating its amine using a standard two-step procedure (Fig. 1A). In the first step, AEBSF reacts with NN’-di-boc-thiourea (2) to form a boc-protected guanidinium group (compound 3), after which a simple boc-deprotection step yields the desired compound 4-(2-guanidinoethyl)benzenesulfonyl fluoride (GEBSF, 4).

Next, we investigated the inhibitory properties by mixing GEBSF (40 μM) with trypsin (29.4 μM). The activity of trypsin was measured over time by a fluorogenic assay (see the Experimental section). Fig. 1C shows that trypsin is fully inhibited after 15 min (orange dots), indicating that GEBSF is indeed a potent inhibitor of trypsin. The experimental data were fitted to a bimolecular reaction model in COPASI (dashed line).

Then, we built a model describing these batch experiments in COPASI to gain more insight in the differences between the inhibitors. In the model, four reactions are considered: 1) autoactivation of trypsinogen, 2) activation of trypsinogen by trypsin, 3) inhibition of trypsin by an inhibitor, 4) hydrolysis of the inhibitor. A
regions are distinguished: I) Low [Tr] (in red), II) Competition between inhibition and autocatalysis (in green), III) Low [Inh] (in blue). In the experiments: I) a delay region during which [Tr] stays below its initial value, II) a competition region, in which inhibition and autocatalysis compete, and III) a low [Inh] regime, in which most of the inhibitor has already reacted ([Inh] < 0.1 μM). Two batch experiments were simulated, one with AEBSF (84 μM) and one with GEBSF (6.95 μM), that both showed a delay time of 6 h (Fig. 3A). Again, we see that the use of GEBSF results in a steeper rise in trypsin concentration, but now we can also observe that the duration of the competition region is strongly dependent on the inhibition rate constant. In case of GEBSF the competition region is short, as only 2.6 μM of inhibitor is left at the end of the delay region, which is quickly consumed by the autocatalytically formed trypsin. Consequently, at end of the competition region there is still a high concentration of trypsinogen (81 μM), explaining the switch-like behavior. In contrast, the competition region in case of AEBSF is long, as there is still 59 μM of inhibitor present at the start of the competition region, and it ends when trypsinogen is already fully activated. Therefore, the steepness of the trypsin curve is greatly reduced in the latter case, as autocatalysis has to compete with inhibition. Importantly, the concentration of trypsinogen (green lines in Fig. 3A) is similar at the start of the competition region for both AEBSF ([Tg] = 93 μM) and GEBSF ([Tg] = 96 μM), and the differences in steepness of the trypsin curves cannot be attributed to a substrate-depletion effect (i.e. that most of the trypsinogen was already converted in the low [Tr] regime).

Additional computational analyses showed that the delay time is very sensitive to initial [GEBSF] (orange line in Fig. 3B), while the switch-like behavior — expressed as maximal steepness of the [Tr] curve, or (d[Tr]/dt)max — is retained over a wide range of delay times (orange line in Fig. 3C). In contrast, the delay time increases gradually with increasing [AEBSF] (cyan line in Fig. 3B), and the maximal steepness drops considerably over a small range of delay times (1–4 h, cyan line in Fig. 3C). These results indicate that GEBSF is a better candidate to obtain bistability under flow conditions than AEBSF, because the former has a greater ability to delay the onset of autocatalytic growth whilst still exhibiting switch-like behavior.

### 2.3. Bistability in flow experiments

Finally, we searched for bistability under flow conditions. We used a 250 μL continuously-stirred tank reactor (CSTR), that was fed by three syringes loaded with either trypsinogen, inhibitor, or a buffer solution (see Experimental Section 4.6 for details). In the syringes, trypsinogen and the inhibitor were kept in acidic solutions to prevent autoactivation and hydrolysis, respectively.

First, however, it is imperative to use a computational model to estimate which inhibitor(s) and conditions are necessary to obtain bistability. The model made in MATLAB contains the same reactions as the COPASI model used to describe the batch experiments, but the former also takes flow into account. Note that flow is hereafter described by space velocity (SV, with units of h⁻¹), which is the ratio of the flow rate (in μL h⁻¹) over the reactor volume (in our case...
250 μL. In the MATLAB model, the space velocity is first increased from 0 (i.e. batch conditions) to 4 h\(^{-1}\) in small steps. The model waits for 250 simulated hours before changing the space velocity to obtain a final steady state of the system, and uses the final concentrations of compounds in the reactor as the initial conditions at the next space velocity while keeping the inflow concentrations of trypsinogen and inhibitor constant. After reaching a space velocity of 4 h\(^{-1}\), the concentrations in the reactor are set to zero again, and the process is repeated, but now for decreasing space velocity. The system is considered bistable when a difference is observed between the final trypsin concentration obtained at increasing space velocity as compared to the reverse process. Ultimately, the differences in trypsin concentration (Δ[Tr]) in μM are plotted in a phase diagram of initial inhibitor concentration vs. space velocity.

Using this model, we did not find bistability in the case of AEBSF, but did observe a large bistable regime for GEBSF (Fig. 4A, [Tg]₀ = 100 μM) as expected based on the results of the batch experiments. Finally, we tested the model predictions in flow experiments using the CSTR. We indeed observed bistability and hysteresis in trypsin concentration when the space velocity was first increased, and then decreased again (Fig. 4B). In addition, we observed the same behavior at a constant space velocity, but at changing concentrations of GEBSF (Fig. 4C). The states of high [Tr] are named the thermodynamic branches in Fig. 4B and C, as they resemble the final high [Tr] reached at thermodynamic equilibrium. In contrast, the states of low [Tr] are called flow branch and inhibitor branch in Fig. 4B and C, respectively, since here the antagonists of autocatalysis are dominant. In both flow experiments, we had to wait until at least six reactor volumes of fluid had passed through the reactor for the trypsin concentration to stabilize (the steady-state concentrations of trypsin are plotted in Fig. 4B and C). Additionally, we see that the steady state trypsin concentration is lowered in the thermodynamic branch as the inhibition strength is increased, either by increasing the space velocity or the [GEBSF].

The experimental results are in good agreement with the computational model, although the experimental bistable regime seems to be slightly smaller than the computed one.

3. Conclusion

In this report, we have shown that a combination of synthesis, kinetic studies, batch experiments, and computational modelling resulted in the observation of bistability in a CSTR. Interestingly, we observe that a small change in molecular structure can be crucial for obtaining complex behavior, something we established in previous work as well.\textsuperscript{16,17} Our work does not only expand the available toolbox of complex networks, but we also foresee that our bistable system can be implemented in enzyme-responsive, smart materials.\textsuperscript{20,22} Furthermore, we expect that strong, natural trypsin inhibitors such as soybean trypsin inhibitor and aprotinin (both are proteins) can also be used to create trypsin-based bistable switches. These alternative inhibitors are interesting for applications where long reaction times may be required, such as in enzyme-responsive materials, as these proteins do not hydrolyze in contrast to the inhibitors used in this study.

4. Experimental section

4.1. Synthesis of 4-(2-\textit{N,N}-diboc-\textit{guanidinoethyl})benzenesulfonyl fluoride (compound 3)

\(N,N'\text{-Di-Boc-thioureia} (31.6 \text{ mg}, 114.7 \text{ μmol}, 1.2 \text{ eq})\) and 4-(2-aminoethyl)benzenesulfonyl fluoride hydrochloride (AEBSF, 22.9 mg, 95.6 μmol, 1 eq) were first dried under vacuum, and afterwards suspended in dry DCM. Dry \(N,N'\text{-disopropyl}.ethylethane (66 μL, 382 μmol, 4 eq)\) and fine powdered copper chloride dihydrate (19.6 mg, 114.7 μmol, 1.2 eq) were added in quick succession. The mixture was stirred under nitrogen for one hour, and then poured in 10% (w/v) KHSO₄ solution. Next, ethyl acetate was added and the organic phase was separated in a separatory funnel, and subsequently washed with KHSO₄ and brine. Then, the mixture was dried over Na₂SO₄ and the solvent was evaporated under reduced pressure. The crude product was purified by silica column chromatography (ethyl acetate/heptane, 1:4, v/v) yielding the desired compound 3 (17.1 mg, 38.2 μmol, 40%).

\(^{1}H\) NMR: (400 MHz, CD₃OD) δ 8.14 (d, \(J = 8.2 \text{ Hz}, 2H\)), 7.71 (d, \(J = 8.3 \text{ Hz}, 2H\)), 3.62 (t, \(J = 7.1 \text{ Hz}, 2H\)), 3.14 (t, \(J = 7.0 \text{ Hz}, 2H\)), 1.41 (s, 9H); LCQMS-ESI (Da) /m/z/ observed 446.38 for \(C_{19}H_{29}FN_{3}O_{6}S\) \([M+H]^{+}\); m/z calculated for \([M+H]^{+}\): 446.18.

4.2. Synthesis of 4-(2-\textit{guanidinoethyl})benzenesulfonyl fluoride (GEBSF, compound 4)

Compound 3 (17.1 mg, 38.2 μmol) was dissolved in 1 mL dioxane, and 1 mL of 4 M HCl in dioxane was added, after which the mixture was stirred overnight at room temperature. Then, the mixture was concentrated under reduced pressure and diethyl ether was added. The formed precipitate was centrifuged, washed twice with diethyl ether, and dried under vacuum yielding the desired compound 4 (GEBSF, 9.7 mg, 34.3 μmol, yield 90%).

\(^{1}H\) NMR: (400 MHz, CD₃OD) δ 8.00 (d, \(J = 8.2 \text{ Hz}, 2H\)), 7.61 (d,

![Fig. 4](image-url)
4.3. Inhibition of trypsin by GEBSF

Trypsin (29.4 μM) was mixed with GEBSF (40 μM) in 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.7, containing 20 mM CaCl₂, and kept at 22 °C. At multiple time points, 20 μL of the reaction mixture was quenched with 180 μL of a 0.1 M KHSO₄ solution. 10 μL of the quenched reaction mixture was added to 2.5 mL 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer, pH 7.7, containing 5 μg/mL bis-(Z-Ile-Pro-Arg)-rhodamine 110, a fluorogenic trypsin substrate. Increase in fluorescence intensity (λex = 470 nm, λem = 520 nm) was measured for 20 s, and its slope compared to a calibration curve to calculate the concentration of active trypsin.

4.4. Hydrolysis of GEBSF

GEBSF (0.19 mg, 0.67 μmol, 1.03 mM starting concentration) was dissolved in 650 μL 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.7, in D₂O containing 20 mM CaCl₂, and hydrolysis was followed by ¹H NMR (400 MHz). The formation of hydrolyzed inhibitor was followed in time by integrating the peaks of the phenyl ring, from which the [GEBSF] observed 246.28 for C₉H₁₃FN₃O₂S⁺ [M+H⁺]; m/z calculated for [M+H⁺]: 246.07.

4.5. Batch experiments

In the batch experiments in Fig. 2, 100 μM of trypsinogen was mixed with varying concentrations of either AEBSF or GEBSF in 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.7, containing 20 mM CaCl₂, and kept at 22 °C. The rest of the procedure was identical as described in section 4.3.

4.6. Flow experiments

Details on the fabrication of the CSTR and the experimental setup can be found in our previous work. Three syringes were connected to the reactor, which typically contained: I) trypsinogen (272 μM, 2.40 mg/mL) in 4 mM HCl containing 40 mM CaCl₂, II) GEBSF (32 μM in 2 mM HCl), III) 0.5 M Tris-HCl, pH 7.7 buffer. The flow rate for trypsinogen was always half the total flow rate (effective starting concentration [Tg] = 100 μM; note that in the batch used for flow experiments only 74% of trypsinogen was active), and the flow rates of inhibitor and buffer were changed in case different concentrations of inhibitor had to be achieved (in all cases, buffer capacity was at least 50 mM). Droplets from the outlet tubing were collected using a BioRad 2110 fraction collector, in which eppendorf tubes were placed containing 780 μL 0.1 M KHSO₄. The quenched solutions were analyzed with the fluorogenic assay described in section 4.3. Droplet volume was determined by measuring the time interval between falling droplets and multiplying this time with the flow rate.

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