Coupling and Decoupling of Rotational and Translational Diffusion of Proteins under Crowding Conditions

Matthias Roos, Maria Ott, Marius Hofmann, Susanne Link, Ernst Rössler, Jochen Balbach, Alexey Krushelnitsky, and Kay Saalwächter

†Institut für Physik, Martin-Luther-Universität Halle-Wittenberg, 06099 Halle (Saale), Germany
‡Experimentalphysik II, Universität Bayreuth, 95440 Bayreuth, Germany

ABSTRACT: Molecular motion of biopolymers in vivo is known to be strongly influenced by the high concentration of organic matter inside cells, usually referred to as crowding conditions. To elucidate the effect of intermolecular interactions on Brownian motion of proteins, we performed 1H pulsed-field gradient NMR and fluorescence correlation spectroscopy (FCS) experiments combined with small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) and viscosity measurements for three proteins, αβ-crystalline (αBc), bovine serum albumin, and hen egg-white lysozyme (HEWL) in aqueous solution. Our results demonstrate that long-time translational diffusion quantitatively follows the expected increase of macro-viscosity upon increasing the protein concentration in all cases, while rotational diffusion as assessed by polarized FCS and previous multi-frequency 1H NMR relaxometry experiments reveals protein-specific behavior spanning the full range between the limiting cases of full decoupling from (αBc) and full coupling to (HEWL) the macro-viscosity. SAXS was used to study the interactions between the proteins in solution, whereby it is shown that the three cases cover the range between a weakly interacting hard-sphere system (αBc) and screened Coulomb repulsion combined with short-range attraction (HEWL). Our results, as well as insights from the recent literature, suggest that the unusual rotational—translational coupling may be due to anisotropic interactions originating from hydrodynamic shape effects combined with high charge and possibly a patchy charge distribution.

INTRODUCTION

Inside cells, macromolecules occupy 20−40% of the cytoplasmic volume,1,2 providing an environment in which the mean distance between neighboring particles is similar to their size. Highly concentrated solutions of proteins and other organic molecules mimicking the cell interior are usually referred to as crowded environment.3−5 Crowding affects many aspects of cellular function and organization,6−7 including biochemical reactions, enhanced protein refolding rates, and the stabilization or destabilization of the compact folded states.8−11 In particular, crowding sensitively affects in vivo molecular motion,12 where protein Brownian dynamics is rather complex due to the usually non-spherical shape of the globule and its complex non-symmetric electrostatic interactions.

The Brownian dynamics of concentrated particle suspensions can be quantitatively described by mean-field models that depend only on the overall volume fraction ϕ of the dispersed particles. This leads to the generalized Stokes–Einstein (GSE) and generalized Stokes–Einstein–Debye (GSED) relationships for the long-time translational diffusion coefficient $D^\infty$ and the rotational correlation time $\tau_r$, respectively:

\[
D^\infty(\phi) = \frac{k_BT}{6\pi\eta(\phi)R_H} \\
\tau_r(\phi) = \frac{4\pi\eta(\phi)R_H^3}{3k_BT}
\]

where $R_H$ and $k_BT$ denote the hydrodynamic radius and the thermal energy, respectively. For the generalized forms, the solvent viscosity $\eta_0$ is merely replaced by the macroscopic dispersion viscosity $\eta(\phi)$; for a critical discussion see ref 13. Such a treatment implies that a macromolecular solute is surrounded by an effective, continuous medium—a situation that is, at first glance, violated under crowding conditions. However, it is well established that the GSE relation for translational diffusion, eq 1, holds for concentrated hard-sphere (HS)14−16 and even soft colloid systems,17 but does not necessarily hold for charge-stabilized colloids.13,15 Crowded proteins represent, in general, a case in-between these limiting situations.

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The validity of the GSED relationship, eq 2, has not yet unambiguously been assessed for proteins. In the presence of neighboring particles, rotational diffusion depends on the particle shape and on intermolecular electrostatic interactions that are, concerning proteins, usually of rather complex nature due to a non-symmetric charge distribution within the protein. Despite the high interest in crowding effects for understanding in vivo behavior of proteins, the effect on Brownian dynamics remains little studied and controversial. Notably, recent combined studies of translational and rotational diffusion of proteins contradict each other with regards to the effect of crowding: it remains unclear whether rotational diffusion becomes less retarded than translational diffusion of the protein, or vice versa. Thus, assessing the potential applicability of both the GSE and GSED relationships is of high relevance to ultimately link microscopic observables with biological function.

Recently we have undertaken a detailed nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) study of the Brownian dynamics of the eye-lens protein αB-crystallin (αBc) over a wide range of concentrations. We found a pronounced decoupling between translational and rotational diffusion: while the slow-down of translational diffusion upon increasing the protein concentration perfectly matched the increase in macro-viscosity, rotational diffusion was almost unaffected. This effect can be explained in terms of a “caging” of the probed molecule by surrounding ones and is generally linked to the phenomenon of the colloidal glass transition. Indeed, a HS-like glass transition in eye-lens α-crystallin solutions was shown recently. Notably, the stable αBc assembly has a rather symmetric, quasi-spherical shape as it consists of several symmetrically arranged monomers such that it resembles an almost perfect hard-sphere particle while other proteins may not. Thus, the behavior of αBc can hardly be taken as universal.

In the present work, we extend our studies by two other proteins, bovine serum albumin (BSA) and hen egg white lysozyme (HEWL). We show that the coupling or decoupling of rotational and long-time translational diffusion under crowding conditions is protein-specific and appears to be related to the specific type of interactions between neighboring proteins.

Protein molecular mobility is characterized here by both NMR spectroscopic measurements of translational and rotational diffusion and independent measurements of the same quantities by polarized fluorescence correlation spectroscopy (FCS). These data are complemented by measurements of the macroscopic viscosity and the intermolecular interactions by capillary rheology and small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS), respectively. Short-time translational diffusion coefficients from neutron-scattering literature data are also taken into account. The combined results provide a comprehensive picture on the Brownian dynamics of proteins under “self-crowding” conditions.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Samples.

Native α-crystallin is a spherical assembly of two homologous proteins, αA-crystallin (αAc) and αBc, each of a monomeric molecular mass of ~20 kDa. The α-crystallin complex has a molecular mass distribution from 500 to 1000 kDa, with the average mass around 800 kDa. Subunit exchange occurs on the time scale of minutes and is much slower than the time scale of our experiments. Here, we rely on our previous data reporting on pure human αBc in buffer solution. In fact, pure αBc has very similar properties to the mixture of αAc and αBc. For details, also concerning recombinant αBc purification, see ref 22.

HEWL from chicken egg white and fatty acid-free BSA were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (product numbers 62970 and A7030, respectively) as lyophilized powders and dissolved in D2O to keep the water NMR signal low. Via lyophilizing and dissolving the protein solution once again in D2O, residual water proteins were further reduced. No buffer was added to ensure almost unscreened electrostatic interactions. The pD obtained was pD 3.8 for HEWL and pD 7.0 for BSA (isoelectric points of pH 11.35 and pH 4.7, respectively). No significant pD changes (more than 0.1–0.2) were observed upon varying the protein concentration. Under these conditions, HEWL (14.4 kDa) is a strongly charged monomeric protein soluble up to high concentrations. BSA consists of monomers (66.4 kDa) and about 50% long-time stable oligomers of different sizes.

### Experiments.

Translational diffusion coefficients were determined using a Bruker Avance II spectrometer with a 1H resonance frequency of 400 MHz, using a Diff60 probehead. Pulsed field gradient (PFG) NMR diffusion decays were obtained by use of the stimulated echo technique applying bipolar gradient pulses, and were fitted by

\[
A(g) = A(0) \exp(-g^2 D_2^2 (\Delta - \delta / 3))
\]

in which \(A(g)\) is the (integral) signal intensity in dependence of the gradient strength \(g\), and \(\gamma\) is the \(\text{H}\) gyromagnetic ratio, \(\Delta\) and \(\delta\) denote the fixed gradient pulse duration and diffusion time, respectively. Exemplary PFG NMR diffusion decays for αBc, BSA, and HEWL are shown in ref 22 and the Supporting Information (SI1); data for BSA and HEWL were measured within this work. Translational protein diffusion as characterized by PFG NMR relies on diffusion times of a few tens of milliseconds, thus providing translational displacements in the \(\mu\)m range. Hence, PFG NMR probes protein translational diffusion in the long-time limit.

NMR data for rotational diffusion rely on longitudinal relaxation rates \(R_1\) measured on a field-cycling instrument and/or rotating-frame \(R_2^*\) and transverse \(R_2\) relaxation rate measurements of the integral \(\text{H}\) signal. The derived rotational correlation times are taken from our previous publications; see refs 22 and 32.

Rotational correlation times \(\tau_r\) and translational diffusion times \(\tau_D\) were also determined by polarized FCS with alternating orthogonal, linearly polarized excitation. We used a home-built setup similar to the one described in ref 36; see SI2 for details on the setup, sample preparation, and data processing. Polarized FCS probes rotations of the transition dipole moment and relies on the use of linearly polarized excitation of protein-bound dyes and separate detection of the two orthogonal emission components on a single-molecule basis. The two signals of the fluorescence components that are collinear to the excitation pulses are then cross-correlated, yielding a time correlation function; see Figure 1. Its initial rise (exponential in nature) encodes \(\tau_r\) while its long-time decay encodes \(\tau_D\) the time needed by the molecule to leave again the detection volume. For the latter, due to the well-known issues with focal volume calibration, we refrained from converting it into absolute values for \(D^2\).

![Figure 1. Normalized cross-correlation functions \(G_c(\tau)\) from polarized FCS with alternating orthogonal, linearly polarized excitation for BSA at two concentrations, including fits to obtain \(\tau_r\) (solid red lines) and \(\tau_D\) (dashed blue lines).](image-url)
Steady-shear viscosities were measured at a shear rate of 1000 or 2000 s⁻¹ using the microfluid viscometer m-VROC (Rheosense Inc., CA). Upon decreasing the shear rate to 100 s⁻¹, the signal-to-noise ratio decreased, yet no effect on the viscosity measured was found. Despite the rather high shear rates, the measurements still provide the macro-viscosity.

SAXS measurements were performed at 20 °C using an X-ray generator of rotating anode type with Cu target from Rigaku, operated at 2.4 kW, and a 2D gas detector. Generally, the SAXS signal \( I(q) \) can be written as a product of the form factor \( F(q) \) and the structure factor \( S(q) \); \( I(q) = F(q)S(q) \). The form factor contains information regarding the 3D shape of the scattering particles and was determined at low concentrations (0.5–2 vol%) and electrostatic screening conditions. The structure factor does not depend on the shape of the particles but contains the inter-particle interactions, and is determined at different protein concentrations of BSA, HEWL, and αBc by \( S(q) = I(q)/I_0(q) - 1/c \). For details, see SI3.

### RESULTS

Figure 2 presents the temperature dependence of long-time translational diffusion (a) and viscosity (b). For both cases and all proteins, we observe activation energies (\( E_A \)) close to 20 kJ/mol that increase only slightly with concentration, indicating that both quantities are largely governed by the solvent viscosity (water). This important result also indicates that transient or crowding-induced binding among the proteins is of little relevance, as such an effect would lead to a significantly increased apparent \( E_A \) for translational diffusion. At higher concentration, however, HEWL exhibits non-Arrhenius (Vogel–Fulcher-like) behavior, reflecting increased inter-particle interactions.

![Figure 2](image_url)

Figure 2. Temperature dependence of long-time translational diffusion (a) and viscosity (b) for HEWL, BSA, and αBc. Black dashed lines indicate the slope corresponding to \( E_A = 20 \) kJ/mol. For HEWL translational diffusion, only the high-temperature region was used to estimate \( E_A \) as plotted in the lower panel in (a). The αBc viscosity data were already published in ref 22.

The data for rotational diffusion from multi-frequency relaxometry published in our previous publications²²,³³ show the same trends in \( E_A \) as discussed above for translational diffusion and viscosity. A detailed comparison of all quantities is deferred to the Discussion section. It should just be noted that the molecular tumbling times \( \tau_r \), as reported in ref 22 and the Supporting Information of ref 32, are subject to a potentially large systematic error when neglecting the, at higher concentrations, increasingly nonexponential tailed character of the tumbling correlation function (TCF) in the NMR relaxation data analysis. We have so far used an ad-hoc phenomenological approach, representing the unknown complex TCF as a superposition of two exponentials, \( C_{2exp}(t) \), with a minority component featuring a much slower decay time constant \( \tau_r \) and comparably low amplitude \( a_f \). In order to assess the influence of this “slow tail” on the reported rotational correlation time, and to enable a comparison with the value from FCS, we also consider an apparent correlation time defined as the inverse of the initial slope of the fitted apparent TCF:

\[
\tau_{r,ini} = \left( \frac{dC_{2exp}(t)}{dt} \right)_{t=0} = \left( \frac{1 - a_i}{\tau_f} + \frac{a_i}{\tau_r} \right)^{-1}
\]

It is important to note that \( \tau_r \) from FCS, due to the restriction of the exponential fit to the initial time range of the FCS cross-correlation function \( G_{ff}(\tau) \), provides the same quantity as given by eq 4.

Figure 3 compares \( \tau_{r,ini} \) with \( \tau_r \) (the apparent primary tumbling time) determined by both NMR and FCS. Despite its large influence on the NMR data analysis, the apparent “slow tail” is thus demonstrated to have a nearly negligible influence on \( \tau_{r,ini} \) in the studied concentration range. Additional uncertainty arises from the non-spherical shape of the protein,³⁸ but as shown in SI4, considering tensorial rotational diffusion has little influence on the fitted absolute value of \( \tau_r \) and its concentration dependence. In view of the potentially large uncertainties related to a complex and not necessarily multi-exponential overall correlation function,³⁹,⁴⁰ the coincidence between NMR and FCS data, as well as the agreement with the values estimated on the basis of \( R_H \) from translational diffusion

![Figure 3](image_url)

Figure 3. Comparison of tumbling times determined by NMR relaxometry (\( \tau_{r,ini} \) and \( \tau_r \), the symbol size reflects the experimental uncertainty) and FCS for the three proteins. The solid lines indicate approximate dilute-limit values calculated from eq 2 using \( R_H \) calculated from eq 1, using \( D^f \) from PFG NMR at the lowest concentrations. Within each diagram a visual presentation of the protein (not to scale) is shown based upon Protein Data Bank structures (PDB IDs 2YGD, 4F5S, and 1LYZ).
in the most dilute cases, represents a relevant finding. Note that a (possibly non-exponential) long-time tail of the TCF would contribute to the FCS cross-correlation function at intermediate times, but is not reliably detectable due to its low amplitude and additional contributions from triplet dynamics and the onset of translational diffusion (see Figure 1).

The deviation of τ from NMR and FCS for αBc can be explained by the polydispersity of this protein, which is taken into account in different ways in NMR and FCS experiments; see SI5. This deviation is relevant mainly for dilute-limit data and does not challenge any conclusions on crowding effects. As to the latter, from the data in the given semi-logarithmic representation, we mainly take that the relative increase of τ(ω) with concentration differs significantly among the samples, as analyzed further below.

In order to characterize and compare directly the nature of the inter-particle interactions, we have measured SAXS data for the three proteins under study, see Figure 4 and SI3. This information is of course subject to the limitation that an isotropic average is obtained. The structure factors exhibit qualitative differences. They suggest that αBc assemblies behave like hard spheres, while BSA and HEWL are dominated by Coulomb interactions. In the latter case, short-range attractive interactions are to be considered as well. Details on the corresponding analyses, and the concentration effects on the structure factors, will be discussed in the next section.

**DISCUSSION**

**Long-Time Translational Diffusion Scales with Macroscopic Viscosity.** For a direct comparison of the concentration dependence of viscosity and translational and rotational diffusion in one and the same plot, we compare inverse reduced diffusion coefficients (D/JD°)−1, reduced tumbling or translational diffusion times (τ/DJ/D°), and normalized viscosities (η/η°) at 20 °C, all referred to as retardation factor r. In this way, Figure 5 shows r with increasing extent of crowding (see SI6 for absolute values) and presents the central result of this work. Note in particular that the slope of the data is independent of the chosen reference concentration, as the retardation factors are plotted on a semi-logarithmic scale. As seen from Figure 5, for all cases the reduced long-time translational self-diffusion coefficients match the increase of viscosity with concentration, i.e., D/J/J° = η/η°. This demonstrates the applicability of the GSE relation, eq 1.

In Figure 5, the steric volume fraction was defined as ϕ = c/θ, where θ is the specific volume of the protein (θ = 1.7 mL/g,41 0.735 mL/g,33 and 0.702 mL/g42 for αBc, BSA, and HEWL, respectively). See SI7 for the actual data. The large specific volume for αBc (i.e., low density) results from its high molecular weight combined with the deviation of most "globular" proteins from compact-globule scaling: V c M° rather than V c M°.

The applicability of the GSE equation as observed in the present three cases is in full accordance with established colloid-science concepts: during translational diffusion in the long-time limit, the particle’s trajectory averages over many different configurations of its local surrounding, which allows for a description of the inhomogeneous environment acting in terms of an effective medium of (zero-shear) viscosity η(ϕ).13

**Figure 4.** Protein interaction strength as assessed by SAXS structure factors for a volume fraction of ϕ = 10%. The fits to hard-sphere (HS), screened Coulomb (SC), and SC plus short-range attraction (SC+A) models for αBc, BSA, and HEWL, respectively, are discussed in the next section.

**Figure 5.** Retardation of long-time translation (circles) and rotation (triangles) as compared to viscosity (squares) in dependence of the protein concentration c. The retardation factors are the respective measured quantities normalized against their low-concentration limits. For NMR, they are normalized to an extrapolated value (see SI6), while for FCS we have experimental results at virtually zero (nM) concentration. If not indicated by error bars, experimental uncertainties are of the order of or smaller than the symbol size. Short-time translational diffusion data observed for BSA by neutron scattering (stars) are reproduced from ref 33. Data of αBc and all NMR rotational diffusion data are taken from our previous publications.22,32 The solid lines correspond to predictions of long-time translational diffusion, eq 5, and are based upon an effective HS volume fraction, ϕHS = k ϕ (k = 1, 2.1, and 1.5 for αBc, BSA, and HEWL, respectively). The dashed lines are HS predictions for rotational diffusion, eq 6, using the same rescaling factor k as obtained for translational diffusion.
In the literature, both accordance\textsuperscript{21,44} and mismatch\textsuperscript{20,21} between translational diffusion and viscosity were reported. It is important to note that, in studies reporting on a mismatch, tracer and crowding agent were different proteins, or even synthetic polymer crowders (Ficoll, polyethylene glycol) were used. In such studies, translational diffusion measurements solely report on the tracer species, whereas viscosity measurements are strongly dominated by the specific interactions among the crowder molecules due to their much higher volume fraction. For diffusion of the tracer proteins mixed with other proteins, transient binding may be important.\textsuperscript{37}

Quantitatively, the slow-down of long-time translational diffusion has been addressed via HS models,\textsuperscript{18} resulting in

$$\frac{D_L(\phi_{\text{HS}})}{D_0^L} \cong \frac{(1 - \phi_{\text{HS}})^2}{1 + (3/2)\phi_{\text{HS}} + 2\phi_{\text{HS}}^2 + 3\phi_{\text{HS}}^3}$$

(5)

Proteins are subject to intermolecular interactions beyond the pure HS potential, in particular through electrostatic interactions. However, the size of the protein can be re-adjusted by use of an effective HS radius, corresponding to an effective HS volume fraction $\phi_{\text{HS}} = k \phi$, $k \geq 1$. Fits to eq 5 shown in Figure 5 correspond to $k = 1, k = 2.1$, and $k = 1.5$ for $\alpha$Bc, BSA, and HEWL, respectively. Note that $k$ is the only adjustable parameter; $k = 1$ proves that translational diffusion of $\alpha$Bc follows HS behavior on the basis of the steric volume fraction, indicating only rather weak inter-protein interactions.

**Coupling or decoupling of rotational**

**Diffusion from Long-Time Translation and Macro-viscosity Is Protein Specific.** For the three proteins investigated, the NMR and FCS results for the apparent rotational tumbling times $\tau_{\text{ini}}$ are now compared to translational diffusion and the macro-viscosity; see again Figure 5. Notably, the (de)coupling of rotational diffusion from translational diffusion and viscosity is evidently protein specific. Such behavior is in line with an increased importance of protein-specific intermolecular interactions and shape effects for rotational dynamics.\textsuperscript{18,46,47} Note that, in our experiments, rotation is never observed to be more retarded than translation.

Both fluorescence spectroscopy data\textsuperscript{20} and computer simulations\textsuperscript{47} have revealed a decoupling between translational and rotational diffusion that is in full accordance with the $\alpha$Bc results.\textsuperscript{21} In contrast, an NMR study of hetero-crowding\textsuperscript{21} reported a decoupling in the opposite sense, i.e., rotational diffusion becoming more retarded than translational diffusion and viscosity. Colloid theories\textsuperscript{24,25} suggest that rotation in concentrated solutions is expected either to be less affected than or to scale with translation, provided that the concentration of dispersed colloids is well below the onset of the colloidal glass transition. Likely, the unexpected finding of ref 21 results from estimating rotational correlation times solely from site-resolved NMR $T_1/T_2$ ratios\textsuperscript{38} at a single resonance frequency, neglecting the non-exponential nature of the TCF. As has been shown recently,\textsuperscript{32} such a treatment can lead to an erroneous estimation of the tumbling correlation time, especially at high concentrations. Systematic deviations are, however, hardly detectable by the traditional approach.\textsuperscript{32}

Coupling or decoupling of rotational from long-time translational diffusion and the relationship of these two quantities to the macroscopic viscosity can be generally assigned to the presence or absence of correlated motions among neighboring particles. For long-time diffusion, multiple independent encounters with other particles, that may have to rearrange cooperatively at high concentrations,\textsuperscript{13} lead to its dependence on an average friction corresponding to the macroscopic zero-shear viscosity $\eta(\phi)$. In contrast, on the time scale of rotational diffusion (0.01–0.1 $\mu$s for HEWL, and ~1 $\mu$s for $\alpha$Bc) the protein’s local surrounding neither undergoes substantial reconfiguration, nor do particle collisions appreciably affect the rotational dynamics. In the absence of specific interactions rotational diffusion is almost unhindered.\textsuperscript{38} Specifically, even a non-spherical object such as HEWL subject to only excluded-volume effects was shown to be able to rotate rather freely within its cage formed by the surrounding particles.\textsuperscript{38} Still, local hydrodynamic effects\textsuperscript{33} mediated via particle–solvent interactions retard rotational diffusion and account for a measurable but rather weak concentration dependence. In fact, we find that the slow-down of rotational diffusion of $\alpha$Bc with increasing concentration is again quantitatively reproduced by applying a corresponding HS model\textsuperscript{18,49}

$$\frac{\tau_r(\phi_{\text{HS}})}{\tau_{r,0}} \cong [1 - 0.631\phi_{\text{HS}} - 0.762\phi_{\text{HS}}^2]^{-1}$$

(6)

without requiring rescaling of the effective HS volume fraction ($k = 1$, as for translational diffusion); see Figure 5. Thus, the viscosity experienced by rotation is closer to that of the solvent than to the macroscopic viscosity, as often referred to as micro-viscosity. More precisely, as a short-time quantity rotational diffusion is considered to be sensitive to the viscosity determined in the limit of high shear rates,\textsuperscript{18,50} usually denoted as $\eta_\infty(\phi)$. Hence, a decoupling of rotational from long-time translational diffusion is to be expected as long as $\eta_\infty(\phi) \neq \eta(\phi)$, as is well established for spherical colloids.\textsuperscript{13,18,24,25} For $\alpha$Bc and, to a lesser extent, BSA, we observe such a behavior.

**Rotational vs Short-Time Translational Diffusion.** In contrast to translational diffusion measured by PFG NMR, translational diffusion as detected by neutron scattering is measured on short length scales, corresponding to short observation times of 0.3 ns $\leq \tau \leq$ 5 ns.\textsuperscript{33} The corresponding translational root-mean-square displacements amount to about 10 Å or even less, i.e. translational dynamics is probed solely within the cage formed by neighboring molecules. This situation corresponds to the time scale of rotational diffusion. Both rotational and short-time translational diffusion are considered, as mentioned above, to be related to $\eta_\infty(\phi)$; hence, one may expect a similar concentration dependence for these two diffusion processes. To address this point, Figure 5 also presents the short-time translational diffusion data for BSA measured by quasielastic neutron backscattering.\textsuperscript{33} Indeed, the concentration dependence of short-time translational diffusion coincides with our data on rotational diffusion within the experimental uncertainty. This coincidence also reinforces that NMR relaxometry and FCS provide reliable results regardless of the polydispersity of the protein solution.

**Role of Protein–Protein Interactions.** HEWL, being a strongly charged protein under our conditions (pD = 3.8, no buffer), behaves qualitatively differently as compared to $\alpha$Bc and BSA; its rotation is fully coupled to long-time translational diffusion and macroscopic viscosity. Here, when using the same effective HS volume fraction as for translational diffusion, the hard-sphere model, eq 6, clearly fails in accounting for the concentration dependence of rotational diffusion (Figure 5). Instead, approaching the experimental data requires a rescaling as large as $k = 3.7$ (compared to $k = 1.5$ for translational diffusion). Moreover, HS modeling intrinsically predicts a
decoupling of rotational from long-time translational diffusion under crowding conditions, see above. Thus, with regard to the same concentration dependence of long-time translational and rotational diffusion, effective-sphere behavior cannot even qualitatively describe the HEWL experimental data. Our finding also stands in stark contrast to results of Brownian dynamics simulations of crowded HEWL solutions when shape effects and only excluded-volume interactions are considered.\textsuperscript{38} Consequently, specific interactions must be of major importance and evidently lead to a correlation of the tumbling of a single HEWL molecule with the dynamics of its surroundings.

Our SAXS data (Figure 4) provide direct evidence of the different nature of the interactions present in the three protein solutions studied. A qualitative but easily assessed piece of information is the concentration dependence of the low-q maximum of the structure factor, \( q_{\text{max}} \) (Figure 6). For a simple HS liquid such as \( \alpha\mathrm{Bc} \),\textsuperscript{29} the maximum of the structure factor does not scale with the mean center-to-center distance of the particles, leading to a constant \( q_{\text{max}} \) then relates to the average center to center distance between first neighbors. However, in case of screened, hard-sphere-like particles the concentration dependence of \( 2\pi/q_{\text{max}} \) is strongly reduced (the dashed line gives the prediction for spheres with \( R = 58 \, \text{Å} \)).

![Figure 6. Protein interactions as assessed by SAXS experiments. The plotted inverse maximum positions of the structure factor (2\( \pi/q_{\text{max}} \)) in dependence of the volume fraction \( \phi \) are expected to decrease according to a power law for strong repulsive systems (\( q_{\text{max}}^{-1} \alpha \phi^{-1/3} \), solid lines; BSA at \( \phi = 1\% \) was excluded in the fit). The value of \( 2\pi/q_{\text{max}} \) then relates to the average center to center distance between first neighbors. However, in case of screened, hard-sphere-like particles the concentration dependence of \( 2\pi/q_{\text{max}} \) is strongly reduced (the dashed line gives the prediction for spheres with \( R = 58 \, \text{Å} \)).](https://doi.org/10.1021/jacs.6b06615)

The remarkable non-Arrhenius behavior and the somewhat increased (apparent) activation energy of HEWL at low temperatures as compared to that of pure water reflects significant inter-protein interactions and correlated motions, which ultimately lead to a calorimetric glass transition at high concentrations.

As a result of the short-range attraction, HEWL has long been discussed to form transient clusters upon increasing the concentration.\textsuperscript{53,54} The fact that attractive interactions are known to retard rotational diffusion beyond the limit of HS behavior\textsuperscript{57} suggests that the phenomena may have a common origin. Note, however, that at all HEWL concentrations, our data on long-time translational diffusion (ms time scale) agree with the diffusion of monomers, which is not found in systems characterized by transient clustering.\textsuperscript{57} Further work is certainly necessary to explore this issue.

Since the high overall charge of the HEWL monomers leads to repulsion, this in turn leading to decoupling rather than coupling of rotation and macro-viscosity in the case of isotropic spheres,\textsuperscript{57} we suggest that the behavior of HEWL may be related to either a non-uniform charge distribution or charge-enhanced hydrodynamic effects combined with shape anisotropy, to be discussed below. Note that electrostatic multipole interactions and alignment effects give rise to net attractive interactions,\textsuperscript{53,54} providing a rationale for the short-range attraction discussed above.

The quantitative understanding of anisotropic interactions between "patchy" charged colloids as a suitable model for proteins is of substantial current interest,\textsuperscript{58} yet recent reports have focused on static structural and thermodynamic properties,\textsuperscript{53,54,59} in particular protein solution-phase behavior.\textsuperscript{60-63} We are so far not aware of any theoretical assessment of tumbling motion in such cases. The only experimental observation of rotational–translational coupling in a colloidal system was recently made in a suspension of homogeneously charged platelets.\textsuperscript{64} Also in this case, effective-sphere models failed to explain the observation, and it was attributed to electro-hydrodynamic coupling effects.

Additional support of our hypothesis is provided by the increasingly non-exponential, tailed nature of the TCF as detected by NMR relaxometry.\textsuperscript{59,62} A similar phenomenon has been described even for spherical colloids at high concentrations,\textsuperscript{8,65} where it is mostly due to local concentration fluctuations. As mentioned under Results, a “slow tail” was modeled empirically by a second exponential component with a slower isotope signal time \( \tau \), and (small) amplitude \( a_0 \). We stress that our previous interpretation of \( a_0 \) in terms of a “model-free” order parameter \( S_{\tau_{1/2}} \) should be considered critical, in view of the unknown shape of the TCF.\textsuperscript{59} More detailed analyses are certainly required to extract physically meaningful parameters. We just note that the parameter \( a_0 \) increases with concentration, as expected,\textsuperscript{62} and is significantly larger for HEWL than for BSA. The relevance of charge for the apparent “slow tail” was proven by NMR experiments on HEWL solutions at different pH.\textsuperscript{19} Along this line, experiments\textsuperscript{66} and simulations\textsuperscript{57} have demonstrated that HEWL orient along the electric field exerted by another protein (\( \alpha \)-lactalbumin, 14 kDa).

In summary, we have discussed evidence that the observed coupling between protein rotational and translational diffusion (and also macroscopic viscosity) may be explained by shape-
and charge-related anisotropic protein–protein interactions, possibly combined with specific hydrodynamic coupling effects. With this, our results emphasize the importance of a prudent choice of the crowding agent in order to mimic in vivo conditions. Macromolecular crowding by flexible, possibly branched random-coil polymers such as Ficoll or polyethylene glycol results in a physically different situation compared to crowding by unevenly charged globular proteins. At high concentrations, the random coils of flexible-polymer crowders interpenetrate, forming an entangled medium that is better described by established polymer physics concepts rather than colloid concepts based on excluded volume only.68

CONCLUSIONS

Upon increasing the concentration of globular proteins of widely different size and interactions, PFG NMR and FCS results on translational diffusion measured on a millisecond time scale are consistent and exhibit a scaling with the macroviscosity. Such behavior confirms the wide applicability of the generalized Stokes–Einstein relation for both mono- and polydisperse protein solutions.

In contrast, rotational diffusion, as assessed complementarily by NMR relaxometry and polarized FCS, is a short-time quantity, which is sensitive to the viscosity of the microenvironment. In case of weakly interacting, near-isotropic particles it is close to the viscosity of pure solvent, with only small corrections due to local hydrodynamics. However, a non-spherical shape and/or specific anisotropic interactions lead to a correlation between the rotations of neighboring proteins, coupling the tumbling motion to the macroscopic zero-shear viscosity.

We have found that the applicability of either scenario is protein-specific and that the whole range between these limiting cases known in colloid science is covered: our results reflect both full coupling and strong decoupling between rotational and translational diffusion (HEWL and αBc, respectively), as well as an intermediate case (BSA). SAXS measurements reflecting inter-particle interactions and previous NMR data19,32 emphasize the relevance of charge effects, combined with hydrodynamic coupling and transient anisotropy arising from a complex surface charge distribution and/or a non-spherical shape. This view is supported by patchy charge models that emphasize the relevance of mutual alignment effects.53,54,70

Theoretical assessments of the tumbling motion of concentrated patch charged colloids and especially proteins are so far not available, but we hope that our work provides a stimulus to develop a more complete physical understanding. This is also important for future NMR studies, in particular of crowded proteins, where the non-exponential character of the tumbling correlation function (TCF) with its apparent “slow tail”, which likely arises from anisotropic protein–protein interactions, challenges established data analysis models.32 Precise knowledge of the TCF may enable the development of physically well motivated and thus precise approaches.19,45,71 Such endeavors will likely benefit from the complementarity of NMR and FCS results presented herein.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information
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AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Authors
*krushelnitsky@physik.uni-halle.de
*kay.saalwachter@physik.uni-halle.de

Author Contributions
*M.R. and M.O. contributed equally.

Notes
The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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REFERENCES

Supporting Information for

Coupling and Decoupling of Rotational and Translational Diffusion of Proteins under Crowding Conditions

Matthias Roos,1,4 Maria Ott,1,4 Marius Hofmann,2 Susanne Link,1 Ernst Rössler,2 Jochen Balbach,1 Alexey Krushelnitsky,1,7 Kay Saalwächter1,7

1Martin-Luther-Universität Halle-Wittenberg, Institut für Physik, 06120 Halle (Saale), Germany;
2Universität Bayreuth, Experimentalphysik II, 95440 Bayreuth, Germany.

S1: PFG NMR and sub-ensemble effects

Translational diffusion coefficients were measured via the pulsed-gradient stimulated echo (PGSTE) technique, using bipolar gradient pulses [1]. This means that for spatial encoding as well as decoding, positive and negative gradient pulses of duration δ/2 are applied during the first and second half, respectively, of a Hahn echo of total duration τ. Thus, during both encoding/decoding periods, the NMR signal is reduced by transverse relaxation as described by \( T_2 = \frac{1}{1 - \exp(-2\tau/T_2\gamma g^2 \delta^2 (h - \lambda/3) \times 10^{17} / \text{sm}^2)} \). This may lead to sub-ensemble selection in a polydisperse system. Our data for BSA and HEWL, see Fig. S1, are well represented by exponential single-component decay functions. Since commercial BSA is known to contain oligomers [2], this deserves some further comments.

**Figure S1:** PFG NMR diffusion decays for (a) BSA and (b) HEWL at 20°C. Note the singly exponential nature of the decays, reflecting a single diffusion coefficient.

To explain this apparent discrepancy, we note that the inverse of the transverse relaxation time scales with rotational diffusion roughly as \( 1/T_2 = \frac{1}{T_2} \times (1 - \alpha_i) \tau_i + \alpha_i \tau_i \), where \( \tau_i \) is the tumbling time, and \( \alpha_i \) and \( \tau_i \) characterize the slow component of rotational tumbling, see ref. [2]. Consequently, the slower the rotational dynamics of the particle, the faster the NMR signal decays during the encoding/decoding periods. This effect is of particular relevance if the transverse relaxation time \( T_2 \) is shorter than the duration of the gradient encoding periods. This is obviously the case for the oligomers in our BSA solutions. Consequently, our translational diffusion data for BSA reflect monomer diffusion within a polydisperse surrounding.

**Figure S2:** Hydrodynamic radii of BSA as estimated from the macro-viscosity and the long-time translational diffusion coefficients based upon the GSE relation, eq. (1) of the main paper. Note that the strong concentration dependencies of the measured data at high concentration impart larger errors for slight concentration mismatches. The horizontal line marks the value expected for BSA monomers (34.4 Å).

Hydrodynamic radii for BSA obtained from eq. (1) of the main paper (see Fig. S2) match at all concentrations the size of the monomer, demonstrating that there seems to be no significant signal contribution from the oligomers. Yet, as shown previously by size-exclusion chromatography and blue native (BN) PAGE on our BSA sample [2], BSA contains a significant portion of oligomers (dimers up to hexamers) [3,4]. These oligomers even remained on an SDS-PAGE (Fig. S3), i.e., under denaturing conditions. This indicates a high stability of the oligomers once the oligomers are formed. Indeed, the dimerization of BSA likely happens due to covalent binding among free sulfhydryl groups of cysteine [5], providing long-time stable oligomers.

To explain this apparent discrepancy, we note that the inverse of the transverse relaxation time scales with rotational diffusion roughly as \( 1/T_2 = \frac{1}{T_2} \times (1 - \alpha_i) \tau_i + \alpha_i \tau_i \), where \( \tau_i \) is the tumbling time, and \( \alpha_i \) and \( \tau_i \) characterize the slow component of rotational tumbling, see ref. [2]. Consequently, the slower the rotational dynamics of the particle, the faster the NMR signal decays during the encoding/decoding periods. This effect is of particular relevance if the transverse relaxation time \( T_2 \) is shorter than the duration of the gradient encoding periods. This is obviously the case for the oligomers in our BSA solutions. Consequently, our translational diffusion data for BSA reflect monomer diffusion within a polydisperse surrounding.

**Figure S3:** SDS-PAGE of BSA, reflecting monomers, dimers, and higher order oligomers. BSA solutions were diluted down to about 1 mg/ml directly before application of the SDS-PAGE.
For HEWL, there is no further consequence, as it is purely monomeric [2]. The oBC oligomers, on the other hand, contain at their C-terminus relatively long trains of unstructured residues with high mobility, competing the effect of slow overall rotation of the protein assembly. The finally detected NMR diffusion signal mainly results from these unstructured residues independently of the actual rotational correlation time of the overall assemblies. Thus, in this case, PFG NMR provides the full unbiased ensemble average of the oBC assemblies [6].

S12: Polarized fluorescence correlation spectroscopy (FCS)

Fluorescence microscope set up

FCS experiments were conducted using a home-built confocal microscope. The excitation light was provided by a fiber laser (FemtoFiber pro TVIS, Toptica) with pulse lengths below 1 ps and a repetition rate of 80 MHz. Two cube polarizers (PBSH, CVI Melles Griot) were used to build a polarization-dependent optical delay of 6 ns to realize a pulse train of orthogonal, linearly polarized excitation pulses with a total frequency of 160 MHz. The excitation light was fed into a single-mode fiber (LMA-8, NXT Photonics) for spatial filtering. After collimation the light was reflected by a dichroic mirror and focused by a microscope objective (Zeiss C-Apochromat, 63x/1.25, W) into the sample solution. Fluorescent light collected by the microscope objective was split by a polarizing beam splitter cube and focused onto two single-photon avalanche diodes (SPCM-AQRH-14-TR, Excelitas). The active area of the single-photon counting modules served as the confocal pinhole. The resulting effective focus volume as detected by diffusion measurements of unbound Alexa647 dye molecules was about 1.2 fl at excitation powers of 100 μW and 638 nm. Pulses from the detectors were fed into a TCSPC board (TimeHarp260, Picoquant) operating in the time-tagged time-resolved mode with 25 ps time resolution.

Samples and sample preparation

FCS experiments of concentrated BSA solutions were conducted by adding small amounts of commercially available, fluorescently labeled BSA (A34785, Thermo Fischer Scientific) to the unlabeled, concentrated solutions. The labeled BSA molecules carried 4-5 AlexaFluor647 dyes per molecule with a fluorescence lifetime of 1.2 ns. The total protein volume fractions were determined by SAXS experiments [see S13]. For FCS measurements of oBC we took advantage of the serendipitous fluorescence of some oBC molecules in the solutions as prepared for NMR or SAXS measurements, with a fluorescence lifetime of 0.86 ns (see Fig. S4). All FCS measurements were performed at a wavelength of 638 nm with excitation powers of 100 μW and 175 μW for BSA and oBC, respectively.

Cross-correlation analysis

All detected fluorescence photons were sorted with respect to the polarization of the excitation pulses and according to their relative polarization (see Fig. S4). While orthogonally polarized photons were discarded, the time series of the collinear polarized photons of the two excitation polarizations were cross-correlated, leading to an anti-correlated build-up term in the correlation function on the time scale of rotational motion and a correlated decay on longer times due to translational motion (see Fig. 1 in the main text).

At small lag times $\tau$, the characteristic time scale of rotation can be determined by a mono-exponential fit

$$G(\tau) = y_0 - A \exp\left(-\frac{\tau - t_0}{\tau_r}\right),$$

where $y_0$ and $A$ are some amplitude factors, $t_0$ is a system-dependent time offset, and $\tau_r$ is the characteristic time of rotation. Following the fitting procedure as described in ref. [7], combined correlation functions, $G^{2\times 1}(-\tau)$ and $G^{1\times 1}(\tau)$, as displayed in Fig. S5, were used to improve the fitting accuracy. The superscripts relate to the photons detected after pulse 1 and 2 and denote the order of cross-correlation. In order to minimize the statistical noise of $G(\tau)$ at small $\tau$ we collected up to $10^9$ photons for each measurement. The noise at high protein concentrations and for oBC is due to high uncorrelated background scattering and the low quantum yield of the oBC fluorescence.

The characteristic decay time of the translational diffusion was determined at long times by the fitting function

$$G(\tau) = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \left( \frac{\tau - \tau_0}{\tau_\text{dwell}} \right)^a \right) \left( 1 + S^2 \left( \frac{\tau - \tau_0}{\tau_\text{dwell}} \right)^a \right)^{-1/2},$$

where $S$ and $a$ are system parameters describing the shape of the focal volume, $N$ is the average number of labeled molecules in the focal volume, and $\tau_0$ the average dwell time in the focus, being related to the inverse translational diffusion coefficient. $G(\tau)$ was normalized with respect to the average number of molecules in the focus volume, $G(0) = G(\tau) \times N$. In our study we used $\tau_0$ as a relative measure without the attempt to determine absolute diffusion coefficients. Control experiments with unbound dye molecules in different glycerol-water solutions could exclude an impact of the slightly increased refractive index at higher protein concentration on the determination of $\tau_0$ for the investigated concentration range. The refractive index at 20 % protein concentration is about 1.38.
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Figure S4: Time-correlated single-photon counting histograms allow one to sort each detected fluorescence photon with respect to the polarization of the excitation pulse (red/blue) and with respect to its relative polarization compared to the polarization of the excitation pulse (collinear vs. orthogonal). For cross-correlation analysis, only the photons collinear to the excitation polarization were used. The data set exemplarily displays the fluorescence emission of αβC.

Figure S5: Determination of the rotational diffusion time by FCS: Normalized correlation function \( G(t) \) (blue line and symbols) of αβC (left) and BSA (right) at different volume fractions. The mono-exponential fitting functions (black lines) display a concentration dependence which is more pronounced for BSA than for αβC. Data sets were shifted vertically for clarity.

SI3: X-ray scattering experiments

SAXS experiments of protein solutions were conducted using mark tubes made from borosilicate glass (diameter 1 mm, wall thickness 10 μm, Hilgenberg GmbH) and using a collimated X-ray beam of a beam size of 500-600 μm. The X-ray beam was generated by an X-ray source of rotating anode type with Cu target from Rigaku operated at 2.4 kW, and was combined with a confocal optics from Osmic to provide monochromatic Cu Ka radiation. The X-ray beam was collimated by a system of three pinholes. The flight path was fully evacuated, and the scattered radiation was detected by a Bruker Hi-Star multwire proportional chamber. The data were collected as frames of 1024 × 1024 pixels at one (αβ-crystalline) or two (HEWL, BSA) distances to the detector. The resulting accessible \( q \)-range was 0.012 Å\(^{-1}\) < \( q < 0.14 \) Å\(^{-1}\) or 0.012 Å\(^{-1}\) < \( q < 0.5 \) Å\(^{-1}\), respectively, which was calibrated using reflections of silver behenate.

After subtraction of the scattering background the scattering intensities were normalized according to the protein concentration, see Fig. S6a. The form factors were determined at low concentrations (0.5-2 vol%) and for HEWL and BSA with added salt (0.3-0.5 M NaCl) for electrostatic screening. The experimentally determined form factor intensities were analyzed using a program provided by NIST [8]: The form factor of BSA could be fitted to the scattering intensity of an oblate ellipsoid [9] \( (a=1.69±0.02, b=c=4.56±0.02 \text{ nm}) \), HEWL to a prolate ellipsoid [10] \( (a=b=1.39±0.01 \text{ nm}, c=2.44±0.02 \text{ nm}) \) and αβ-crystalline to a Schulz distribution of spheres [11] with an average radius of 5.86±0.04 nm and a polydispersity of 0.15±0.01. The structure factors were determined by division of the measured, background-corrected and concentration-normalized scattering intensity \( I_{\text{scat}}/c \) by the concentration-normalized form factor intensity, and were likewise analyzed using the program available from NIST [8] via applying the implemented fitting protocols for a hard-sphere, screened-Coulomb and two-Yukawa interaction potential. The position of the maximum of the structure factor did not depend upon whether the measured intensity or the fitting curve for the form factor was used for the calculation. An additional correction factor was finally used to address small concentration and/or volume uncertainties in a way that the structure factor at high \( q \)-values was about 1. Fig. S6b shows the determined structure factors exemplary for HEWL at different concentrations.
The quantity defined in this way corresponds to the initial slope of the rotational correlation function, and is safely determined during data fitting. Yet, when neglecting the contribution of oligomers ($P_1 = 1$) during data analysis, the effective weighting of oligomers relative to monomers is uncertain, and biased absolute values are obtained. Both ways of analyzing the NMR relaxometry data, however, provide the same concentration dependence, see Fig. S7. The concentration dependence is crucial when judging on coupling or decoupling of rotational diffusion from translation and viscosity.

Regarding HEWL, neither analysis of the NMR relaxometry data, nor size-exclusion chromatography indicated the presence of oligomers. HEWL data analysis on rotational diffusion thus solely relies on monomers plus the apparent long tail of rotational diffusion. The NMR relaxometry data of αB-crystallin report on the average rotational correlation time of the αB-crystallin assemblies [6].

Since HEWL is the only truly monodisperse protein in our study, one might tentatively take this as the origin of its specific concentration behavior in comparison to BSA and αB-crystallin. However, it has been shown that both mono- and polydisperse spherical colloids reveal a clear decoupling between rotational and translational diffusion with increasing concentration [12], such that polydispersity cannot explain our main findings.

**Effect of polydispersity (BSA)**

In our NMR relaxometry study [2], we analyzed the NMR data of BSA in two ways: (i) Using two components of mass fractions $P_M$ and $P_O$, $P_M + P_O = 1$, accounting for monomers and the dispersion of oligomers, respectively, and (ii) a single component reflecting the overall slow-down of rotational diffusion of the polydisperse sample.

Applying the model accounting for monomers and oligomers, we defined the mean tumbling time $\tau^*_M$ in analogy to eq. (4) of the main paper as

$$\frac{1}{\tau^*_M} = \frac{P_M}{\tau^*_M} + \frac{P_O}{\tau^*_O},$$

where $\tau^*_M$ is the (standard) rotational correlation of monomers, and $\tau^*_O$ reflects an average correlation time of the oligomers. Together with the apparent slow component of the rotational diffusion [2], the overall apparent inverse mean tumbling time, again in analogy to eq. (4) of the main article, reads

$$\frac{1}{\tau^*_{rel}} = \frac{1-a^*_r}{\tau^*_M} + \frac{a^*_r}{\tau^*_O}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (S4)

**Figure S7:** Normalized mean apparent tumbling times of BSA [2] as obtained by (i) accounting for monomers and oligomers (filled triangles), and (ii) fitting the data with a single component (open triangles). For comparison, the concentration dependencies of the FCS rotational correlation times (squares) and that of short-time translational diffusion coefficients (circles) reported in ref. [13] are shown as well. The dashed line is a guide to the eye.

In the main article, the fitting result of the model including oligomers is used, as this fitting model is physically more correct.
Effect of shape anisotropy

In general the shape of a protein differs from that of a symmetric, spherical object. In our NMR relaxometry study [2] providing the data presented in the main article we assumed a spherically symmetric diffusion tensor, i.e., describing the main tumbling motion of the protein (the fast dominating component of the overall rotational correlation function, i.e. "normal" Brownian tumbling) by a single correlation time. As described below, this simplification can be justified.

As the simplest approximation accounting for a non-spherical shape, the protein may be described by an axially symmetric ellipsoid, going along with two intrinsic relaxation times, \( \tau_a \) and \( \tau_b \), for rotation about the principal axes \( a \) and \( b \), respectively. For a prolate ellipsoid of axis ratio \( p < 1 \), the ratio \( \Gamma \) of the corresponding rotational correlation times reads [14]

\[
\Gamma = \frac{\tau_a}{\tau_b} = \frac{f_a}{f_b} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{f_a} + \frac{1}{f_b} \right),
\]

where

\[
f_a = \frac{4(1-p^2)}{3(2-p^2)} \quad \text{and} \quad f_b = \frac{4(1-p^2)}{3p^3 \left( 2 - p^2 \right)^2},
\]

and

\[
s = 2(1-p^2)^{-1/2} \ln \left[ \frac{1 + (1-p^2)^{1/2}}{p} \right].
\]

The spectral density as resolved by NMR relaxometry than reads [15]

\[
J(\omega) = c_1 J(\omega; \tau_1) + c_2 J(\omega; \tau_2) + c_3 J(\omega; \tau_3),
\]

and is composed of three mixed correlation times with regards to \( \tau_a \) and \( \tau_b \),

\[
\tau_1 = \tau_a, \quad \tau_2 = 6 \tau_b / (\Gamma + 5), \quad \tau_3 = 3 \tau_b / (2\Gamma + 1),
\]

with the amplitudes \( c_i \) given by

\[
c_i = \left( 3 \cos^2 \beta - 1 \right)^i / 4, \quad c_2 = 3 \cos^2 \beta \sin^2 \beta, \quad c_3 = \left( 3 \sin^4 \beta \right)^i / 4.
\]

Here, \( \beta \) is the angle of the inter-nuclear vector with the principal axis of the diffusion tensor. Performing high-field NMR studies, in which spectral resolution allows discriminating among different spin pairs, the impact of an ellipsoidal shape can indeed be resolved [16]. However, as we rely on a low-field NMR signal, only an integral proton signal can be analyzed. Under such circumstances, the effect of a non-spherical shape of the protein is not as evident as for high-field NMR measurements. Here, due the multitude of different orientations of the inter-nuclear vector, we assume an isotropic distribution of \( \beta \). Then,

\[
\langle c_j \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \int c_j \sin \beta \, d\beta = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ for } j = 1 \\ 2/5 \text{ for } j = 2 \\ 2/5 \text{ for } j = 3 \end{cases}
\]

and

\[
J(\omega) = \sum_{j=1}^{3} \langle c_j \rangle J(\omega; \tau_j).
\]

As done in the main article, we define the mean rotational correlation time \( \langle 1/\tau_c \rangle^{-1} \) by the initial slope of the rotational auto-correlation function, resulting in

\[
\langle 1/\tau_c \rangle = 0.2 \tau_1^{-1} + 0.4 \tau_2^{-1} + 0.4 \tau_3^{-1} = (\Gamma + 2) / 3 \tau_2^{-1}.
\]

As a BC oligomers are near-spherical in shape, their data analysis can safely be performed using the simpler model of an isotropic object. For BSA and HEWL the axis ratio is \( p = 0.3 \) and \( p = 0.6 \), respectively. For such scenario, \( \tau_1, \tau_2 \) and \( \tau_3 \) are still of the same order of magnitude (cf. Table S1). Since NMR relaxometry is sensitive to \( \omega \tau \), on a logarithmic scale, the effect of shape anisotropy is thus negligible.

To demonstrate the negligible contribution of an ellipsoidal shape on our NMR relaxometry data analysis, relaxation times of HEWL were fitted both by accounting for its ellipsoidal shape, and by using the simpler model of a spherical object. As expected, both models provide within the experimental uncertainty the same results; see Table S2. For BSA, we refrained from such an analysis since no information on the shape (and distribution of sizes) of the oligomers are available.

Given the increased extent of excluded-volume effects at high protein concentration, one may wonder about the impact of an ellipsoidal shape of the protein. Under crowding, rotation about the short principal axis can be considered to be more retarded than rotation about the long axis. In particular, the slow component of rotational diffusion might be considered to originate from this kind of rotational anisotropy, i.e., it may be possible to model it via an apparently large shape anisotropy.

### Table S1: Impact of the ellipsoidal shape on the rotational correlation times entering the spectral density in NMR relaxometry.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sample</th>
<th>( \Gamma )</th>
<th>( \tau_1/\tau_a )</th>
<th>( \tau_2/\tau_b )</th>
<th>( \tau_3/\tau_b )</th>
<th>( \langle 1/\tau_c \rangle^{-1} / \tau_2 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BSA (monomer)</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEWL</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table S2: Fitting results for HEWL assuming a spherical object (S) as compared to fitting the same data using an ellipsoidal representation (E) of the protein. Data for (S) was directly taken from ref. [2]; data for (E) was obtained by a new analysis of the NMR relaxation times reported in ref. [2].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tumbling motion</th>
<th>Internal dynamics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$c$ (g/L)</td>
<td>$\tau_{a}$ (ns)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>10.5±0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>130</td>
<td>14.6±0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>213</td>
<td>23.9±0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>257</td>
<td>39.9±0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>10.5±0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>130</td>
<td>16.6±0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>213</td>
<td>23.6±0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>257</td>
<td>39.3±0.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To investigate this effect, we allowed for an adjustable axis ratio during the fitting procedure, with no additional account of the “long tail” (i.e., $\alpha_{s} = 0$). Such fitting provides very large apparent axis ratios; see Table S3. Also note that the slow component of rotational diffusion already affects NMR relaxometry data analysis at 65 mg/mL HEWL, see ref. [2] and Table S2. Fitting the NMR relaxation times at this concentration using a freely adjustable apparent axis ratio, one observes an apparent axis ratio as large as 1:12 despite of the less pronounced excluded volume effect at this rather low concentration. Moreover, to compensate for the corresponding slow rotation about the short axis, the fit provides a $\tau_{a}$ underestimated by 50% compared to the expected minimal value of $\tau_{a}(c \to 0) = 9$ ns as estimated from $R_{n} = 19$ Å [17]. Given the unphysical fitting results at this low reference concentration, we refrained from considering this model, and rely on modeling the “slow tail” of rotational diffusion as described in the main text. It is also noted that the overall fitting quality in terms of the normalized $\chi^{2}$ is noticeably inferior (17% as compared 13% for the long-tail model).

Table S3: Fitting results for HEWL when using an adjustable axis ratio during data fitting, the value of $\Gamma$ was adjusted, without additional parametrization of the slow component.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tumbling motion</th>
<th>Apparent Ellipsoidal Shape</th>
<th>Internal Dynamics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$c$ (g/L)</td>
<td>$\Gamma$</td>
<td>$\tau_{a}$ (ns)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>30±1</td>
<td>13±0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>130</td>
<td>34±1</td>
<td>11.7±0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>213</td>
<td>50±1</td>
<td>22.2±0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>257</td>
<td>62±1</td>
<td>28.6±0.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SI5: Size polydispersity effect on rotational diffusion of αβ-crystallin

Given a polydisperse sample, FCS and NMR provide different kinds of data over the ensemble. This effect leads to intrinsically different absolute values for the mean rotational correlation time.

In FCS, rotational dynamics is resolved via the initial slope of the cross-correlation function $G_{c}(t)$. Consequently, FCS provides an average over inverse individual rotational correlation times, see also Fig. 1 of the main article and eq. (S3),

$$\frac{1}{\tau_{1}} \propto \frac{1}{R_{1}^{2}}$$

which, at the same time, conforms to eq. (4) of the main article. Thus, FCS provides a harmonic average and probes the mean inverse hydrodynamic volume of the protein.

Rotational dynamics as probed by NMR relaxation times is determined by the spectral density of motion, roughly $R_{n,i,j} \propto J(\omega) \approx \tau_{r,i,j} / \left(1 + (\omega \tau_{r,i,j})^{2}\right) - \tau_{r,ik}$. Thus, NMR relaxometry provides not the harmonic average of the individual rotational correlation times but a quantity close to the arithmetic average over the individual correlation times themselves, unless the distribution of correlation times (going along with a multi-component data analysis) is not considered explicitly in the fit (as done for BSA, see SI4). Thus, we have

$$\text{NMR: } \langle \tau_{r,ij} \rangle \propto \langle \frac{1}{R_{i}^{2}} \rangle$$

NMR relaxometry thus probes, approximately, the mean hydrodynamic volume.

Since $\langle \frac{1}{R_{i}^{2}} \rangle \leq \langle \frac{1}{R_{ij}^{2}} \rangle$, where $\langle \frac{1}{R_{ij}^{2}} \rangle = \int p(R_{ij}) R_{ij}^{2} dR_{ij}$ and $p(R_{ij})$ is the distribution of hydrodynamic radii $R_{ij}$. FCS naturally provides a smaller mean of the rotational correlation time as compared to NMR relaxometry. Specifically, assuming a log-normal size distribution of αβC, with $R_{ij}$ between 60 and 110 Å (full with at half maximum of about 50 Å), the (small) discrepancy between the FCS- and NMR-determined correlation times can be explained. Note that for BSA, our NMR relaxometry data allowed us to distinguish between monomers and oligomers (see SI4), such that a harmonic average could be re-introduced, cf. eq. (S3).
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Figure S8: Absolute translational diffusion coefficients (a) and mean tumbling times (b) [solid symbols] at 20°C as measured by pulsed-field gradient NMR and NMR relaxometry [2], respectively, together with their calculated (open symbols) or extrapolated (crossed filled symbols) value at zero concentration. Polynomial fits of second order (solid lines) can be used for extrapolation. Translational diffusion coefficients at zero concentration were estimated by the SE relation using the solvent (D$_2$O) viscosity, $\eta_s = 1.25$ mPas, and hydrodynamic radii of 95 Å [6], 34.4 Å (Monomer) [18] and 19 Å [17] for aBc, BSA and HEWL, respectively. The rotational correlation time of HEWL at c=0 was not extrapolated but calculated to be 9 ms using the SED relation. Absolute values of the viscosity at 20°C are shown in (c).

Table S4: Steric volume fractions $\phi$ and inter-molecular [center-to-center] distances $R_{cc}$, the latter being also normalized to the hydrodynamic size $R_H$ of the molecule. $\phi$ is calculated from the known specific volumes 3 (1.7 ml/g [19], 0.735 ml/g [13] and 0.702 ml/g [20] for aBc, BSA and HEWL, respectively), and the center-to-center distance was either calculated ($o$) from the volume fraction in case of hard-sphere behavior [21], or directly estimated ($b$) from the maximum of the SAXS structure factor, $R_{cc} = 2\pi/q_{max}$. The hydrodynamic radii are 95 Å [6], 34.4 Å (Monomer) [18] and 19 Å [17] for aBc, BSA and HEWL, respectively.
References


Supporting Information
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