Module 2 overview

lecture

- 1. Introduction to the module
- 2. Rational protein design
- 3. Fluorescence and sensors
- 4. Protein expression

lab

- 1. Start-up protein eng.
- 2. Site-directed mutagenesis
- 3. DNA amplification
- 4. Prepare expression system

SPRING BREAK

- 5. Review & gene analysis
- 6. Purification and protein analysis
- 7. Binding & affinity measurements
- 8. High throughput engineering

- 5. Gene analysis & induction
- 6. Characterize expression
- 7. Assay protein behavior
- 8. Data analysis

Lecture 3: Fluorescence and sensors

- I. Basics of fluorescence
 - A. Important applications
 - B. Energy levels and spectra
 - C. Emission, quenching, and energy transfer

II. Fluorescent calcium sensors

- A. Properties of calcium sensors
- B. Applying Ca²⁺ sensors in cells
- C. In vivo limitations and remedies
- D. Advantages of genetically-encoded sensors

fluorescence/luminescence microscopy H. Lehmann & S. von Prowazek (1913)

laser scanning microscopy





Denk & Svoboda (1997) Neuron

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functional imaging



Nagai et al. (2001) PNAS

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anatomical imaging & histology

4



Livet et al. (2007) Nature

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Introduction to fluorescence

Fluorescence arises from transitions among molecular energy levels:



- electronic energy levels correspond to visible wavelengths,
- vibrational energy levels correspond to infrared wavelengths, with
- rotational energy levels are coupled to vibrations and account for the smooth appearance of absorption/emission spectra



- small organics like fluorescein are the most common fluorophores
- in general, the larger the aromatic ring system, the longer the wavelength for excitation and emission
- quantum dots are ~10 nm particles that exhibit narrower emission bands and less "bleaching" than organic dyes
- some atoms (lanthanides) exhibit fluorescence as well



tetramethylrhodamine isothiocyanate $\lambda_{em} = 580 \text{ nm}$

Decay of excited electrons can occur by **radiative and nonradiative processes**. If *N* is the fraction of fluorophore in the excited state, and Γ and *k* are radiative and nonradiative decay rates, respectively:

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = -(\Gamma + k)N$$

such that

$$N = N_0 e^{-(\Gamma + k)t} = N_0 e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}$$

where τ is the **fluorescence lifetime**, incorporating both Γ and *k*:

 τ_0 describes the fluorescence lifetime in the absence of nonradiative decay. The efficiency of a fluorophore is quantified by its **quantum yield** *Q*:

$$Q = \frac{\Gamma}{\Gamma + k} = \frac{\tau}{\tau_0}$$

One of the main routes of nonradiative decay is a process called **quenching**, which results in environmental sensitivity for many fluorescent molecules, and underlies the mechanism of several sensors

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\Gamma + k}$$

Fluorescence resonance energy transfer (**FRET**) can take place when the absorption spectrum of an "**acceptor**" overlaps with the emission spectrum of a "**donor**," and *geometry favors dipolar coupling between the fluorophores.*



The distance at which 50% of excited donors are deexcited by the FRET mechanism is defined as the **Förster radius** (usu. 10-100 Å):

$$\boldsymbol{R}_{0} = \left[\boldsymbol{8.8} \times \boldsymbol{10}^{12} \cdot \boldsymbol{\kappa}^{2} \cdot \boldsymbol{n}^{-4} \cdot \boldsymbol{Q} \boldsymbol{Y}_{D} \cdot \boldsymbol{J}(\lambda) \right]^{1/6}$$

 $E = \left[1 + \left(r / R_0 \right)^6 \right]^{-1}$

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FRET **efficiency** is defined as:



Fluorescent calcium sensors

A wide variety of fluorescent calcium dyes are available. They differ along several axes:

- calcium affinity
- absorbance and emission properties
- structural properties (*e.g.* protein *vs.* small molecule, membrane permeability, binding and localization)

Indicators with each set of properties may be suitable for specific experiments.

A typical calcium sensor consists of a calcium sensitive component attached to one or more fluorescent moieties:

 \sim



Fluo dyes:

- visible absorption/emission wavelengths
- virtually no emission in absence of Ca²⁺
- range of calcium affinities



Indicator	K _d (Ca ²⁺)	R ²	R ⁷	R ⁵	R ⁶
Fluo-3	0.39 µM	CI	CI	CH_3	Н
Fluo-4	0.35 µM	F	F	CH ₃	Н
Fluo-5F	2.3 µM	F	F	F	н
Fluo-5N	90 µM	F	F	NO ₂	Н
Fluo-4FF	9.7 µM	F	F	F	F

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Sensors with different calcium **affinities** (K_d values) may be appropriate for different applications:

spontaneous Ca²⁺ fluctuations in *Xenopus* embryo

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calcium transients in dendritic spines

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www.invitrogen.com



What is the significance of having a dye with high fluorescence **intensity** or **dynamic range**? **SNR**



Calcium Green & related dyes



How are calcium dyes applied to cells?





Image from Svoboda, K., et al. "In vivo Dendritic Calcium Dynamics in Neocortical Pyramidal Neurons." Nature 385, no. 6612 (1997): 161-165. © Macmillan Publishers Ltd: Nature. All rights reserved. This content is excluded from our Creative Commons license. For more information, see http://ocw.mit.edu/fairuse.

multicellular loading (or bath application)





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Courtesy of National Academy of Sciences, U. S. A. Used with permission. Source: Stosiek, C., et al. "In vivo Two-Photon Calcium Imaging of Neuronal Networks." PNAS 100, no. 12 (2003): 7319-7324. Copyright © 2003, National Academy of Sciences, U.S.A.

AM-esters

N(CH_COCH_OCCH_)

limitation

1

effect on experiments

solution

dye binds to intracellular proteins and does not function loss of fluorescence responses, alteration of calcium sensitivity

dye leaks from cell or is sequestered into inappropriate cellular compartments

dye bleaches over the course of experiments loss of fluorescence responses, higher background fluorescence alter localization/ solubility, *e.g.* using <u>dextran conjugate</u>

use <u>dextran</u> <u>conjugates</u> or targeted indicators, <u>ratiometric imaging</u>

loss of fluorescence responses

lower imaging duty cycle, select dyes with low bleaching, ratiometric imaging

Ratiometric measurements

Suppose you measure fluorescence intensity from a cell, but you don't know either how much dye is present or what the calcium concentration is; you have one equation in two unknowns ($[L]_{tot}$ and $[Ca^{2+}]$):

$$F_{tot} = F_{Ca^{2+}} [L \cdot Ca^{2+}] + F_{free} ([L]_{tot} - [L \cdot Ca^{2+}])$$

where $[L \cdot Ca^{2+}] = \frac{[L]_{tot}}{(1 + K_d / [Ca^{2+}])}$

The trick is to combine measurements at the first wavelength with measurements at another wavelength, to get a second equation:



$$F_{tot}^{*} = F_{Ca^{2+}}^{*} [L \cdot Ca^{2+}] + F_{free}^{*} ([L]_{tot} - [L \cdot Ca^{2+}])$$
$$= F^{*} [L]_{tot} \quad (if F^{*} is independent of Ca^{2+})$$

"isosbestic point"

The ratio F/F^* is independent of $[L]_{tot}$ and depends only on the calcium concentration.

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effect on experiments

solution

dye binds to intracellular proteins and does not function

limitation

2

loss of fluorescence responses, alteration of calcium sensitivity

dye leaks from cell or is sequestered into inappropriate cellular compartments

dye bleaches over the course of experiments loss of fluorescence responses, higher background fluorescence alter localization/ solubility, *e.g.* using <u>dextran conjugate</u>

use <u>dextran</u> **use** <u>conjugates</u> or **proteins** targeted indicators, <u>ratiometric imaging</u>

loss of fluorescence responses

lower imaging duty **use** cycle, select dyes **proteins** with low bleaching, <u>ratiometric imaging</u>



Image from Kotlikoff, M. I. "Genetically Encoded Ca2+ indicators: Using Genetics and Molecular Design to Understand Complex Physiology." *J Physiol* 578 (2007): 55-67. Copyright © 2003 John Wiley & Sons. Reprinted with permission.

Genetically-encoded calcium sensors:

- FRET-based CaM-XFP fusions (CaMeleons)
- CaM + single XFPs (pericams, camgaroos, GCaMPs)
- troponin C based

Advantages of genetically-encoded calcium indicators:

- noninvasive delivery (expression within cells)
- constant resynthesis (limited effect of bleaching)
- targeted expression

Protein sensors genes can be introduced by making transgenics, or by *in vivo* transfection (viral, electroporation, "biolistics," *etc.*).

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