Novel Real-Time Sensors to Quantitatively Assess In Vivo Inositol 1,4,5-Trisphosphate Production in Intact Cells

Kenji Sugimoto,¹ Motohiro Nishida,² Masami Otsuka,⁴ Keisuke Makino,¹ Katsutoshi Ohkubo,¹ Yasuo Mori,^{2,3,5,*} and Takashi Morii^{1,6} ¹Institute of Advanced Energy **Kyoto University** Uji, Kyoto 611-0011 ²Center for Integrative Bioscience **Okazaki National Research Institutes** ³School of Life Science The Graduate University for Advanced Studies Okazaki 444-8585 ⁴Faculty of Bioorganic Medical Chemistry Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences Kumamoto University Kumamoto 862-0973 ⁵Laboratory of Molecular Biology Department of Synthetic Chemistry and **Biological Chemistry** Graduate School of Engineering **Kyoto University** Kyoto 615-8510 ⁶PRESTO, JST Uji, Kyoto 611-0011 Japan

Summary

Real-time observation of messenger molecules in individual intact cells is essential for physiological studies of signaling mechanisms. We have developed a novel inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃) sensor based on the pleckstrin homology (PH) domain from phospholipase C (PLC) δ . The environmentally sensitive fluorophore 6-bromoacetyl-2-dimethyl-aminonaphtalene was conjugated to the genetically introduced cysteine at the mouth of the IP₃ binding pocket for enhanced IP₃ selectivity and for rapid and direct visualization of intracellular IP₃ \ge 0.5 μ M as fluorescence emission decreased. The probe, tagged with arginine-rich sequences for efficient translocation into various cell types, revealed a major contribution of Ca²⁺ influx to PLC-mediated IP₃ production that boosts Ca2+ release from endoplasmic reticulum. Thus, our IP₃ probe was extremely effective to quantitatively assess real-time physiological IP₃ production via those pathways formed only in the intact cellular configuration.

Introduction

Phospholipase C (PLC) plays a central role in phosphatidyl inositol response, generating inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃) and diacylglycerol through hydrolysis of phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate (PIP₂) in response to activation of plasma membrane receptors for neurotransmitters, hormones, autacoids, Ca2+, antigens, and growth factors. In various types of cells, IP₃ production leads to biphasic increase in intracellular Ca2+ concentration ([Ca2+];), which controls diverse cellular processes [1, 2]. The first phase of [Ca2+], increase reflects Ca²⁺ release from intracellular Ca²⁺ stores, endoplasmic reticulum (ER), via opening of IP₃ receptors (IP₃Rs) by IP₃ [2-4], while the sustained phase is due to influx of Ca²⁺ from the extracellular space through channels in the plasma membrane that have variously been referred to as receptor-activated Ca^{2+} channels [1, 5, 6]. IP₃ is involved in activation of these ion channels through IP₃induced Ca²⁺ release/store depletion via IP₃R or direct action of IP₃ itself as Ca²⁺, inositol 1,3,4,5-tetraphosphate (IP₄), and arachidonic acid metabolites [2, 7-9]. Thus, IP₃ plays a key role in the signaling cascades to link extracellular messengers to intracellular Ca2+ mobilization.

The conventional HPLC and capillary electrophoretic analyses [10, 11] and the assay based upon competition between generated IP₃ and radiolabeled IP₃ for binding to the binding protein [12] have been previously employed to assess metabolism of IP₃. These methods require destruction of cells. Recently, for real-time detection of temporal and spatial dynamics of inositol lipids in intact cells, green fluorescent proteins (GFP) fused to the protein motifs that mediate the interactions with the phosphoinositides have been invented [13]. Hirose et al. [14] have demonstrated agonist-induced translocation of GFP-tagged PH domain of PLCô, which was discussed to be mainly due to PIP2 metabolization and subsequent increase in intracellular IP₃ concentration ([IP3]i). Despite the usefulness of the genetically encoded GFP-based phosphoinositide probes, several drawbacks that may complicate interpretations have been also pointed out [13]. The probes can bind both inositol lipids and soluble phosphoinositides [14, 15]. Furthermore, stable overexpression of the probes can significantly change the molecular geography by sequestration of inositol lipids and might exert inhibitory effects on various lipid-dependent cellular functions [13]. In an attempt to develop a biosensor that specifically detects [IP₃] changes, we have combined a site-directed mutagenesis/recombinant expression technique with chemical modification with fluorophore. The results demonstrate efficient cellular incorporation of the newly developed IP₃ probe and selective detection of IP₃ by the probe in various types of intact cells. Use of the probe enabled a real-time detection of Ca²⁺ influxenhanced IP₃ production, which can be only assessed in the intact cellular configuration.

Results

Properties of the Fluorophore-Conjugated PH Domain as an IP₃ Sensor and Its Genetic Manipulation for Improved Cellular Incorporation We have previously described a basic strategy for designing optical direct IP₃ sensors with higher selectivity



Figure 1. In Vitro Properties of the $\ensuremath{\mathsf{IP}_3}$ Sensor R9-106DIP3

(A) A schematic representation shows the fluorescence change of R9-106DIP3 associated with IP₃ binding. (B) A schematic diagram depicting (a) PLC δ_1 PH domain substituted Cys106 for Asn106 and PLC δ_1 PH domain substituted Cys106 for Asn106 fused with (b) Tat (Tat-106DIP3), (c) R7 (R7-106DIP3), or (d) R9 (R9-106DIP3) peptide. The meshed portions indicate PLC δ_1 PH domain substituted Cys106 for Asn106. (C) The IP₃ sensors visualized by CBB staining (left) or by transilluminator irradiation (right) after 15% SDS-polyacrylamide electrophoresis. (D) Emission spectra of the R9 106DIP3 with increasing amounts of IP.

(D) Emission spectra of the R9-106DIP3 with increasing amounts of IP₃. An arrow indicates the decrease in the spectral intensity upon addition of IP₃ (0–35 μ M).

(E) Binding isotherm for R9-106DIP3 obtained by fluorescent titrations with IP₃. The binding ratio [(Fo-F)/(Fo- F_{min})] was plotted against the IP₃ concentration.

(F and G) The fluorescence emission spectra of R9-106DIP3 independent of the changes in Ca²⁺ concentration (F) and pH (G) of the solution. (H) Dissociation speed (k_{ort}) determined by the surface plasmon resonance measurement. Shown is a sensorgram showing the dissociation of 106DIP3-IP₃ complex (top) with 200 nM (open circles), 100 nM (filled circles), and 50 nM (open triangles) 106DIP3. Solid lines represent theoretical fitting curves for dissociation, and deviations are shown in the bottom column. Dissociation speed (k_{ort}) is 4.24 ± 0.45, 4.25 ± 0.76, and 4.32 ± 0.89 (× 10⁻³) s⁻¹ at 106DIP3 concentrations of 50, 100, and 200 nM, respectively. Association speed (k_{ort}) obtained using $Kd = k_{ort}/k_{ort}$ is 1.92, 1.92, and 1.95 (× 10³) M⁻¹s⁻¹ at 106DIP3 concentrations of 50, 100, and 200 nM, respectively.

than the original PLC δ -PH [16]. In the sensor protein constructs, single cysteine (Cys) mutations were first introduced at residues such as aspargine (Asn) 106, whose β carbons are located 8–9.7 Å away from the C2 carbon of bound IP₃. The fluorophores were then conjugated to the residues so that they would snugly fit in the binding pocket to prevent semispecific ligand binding (Figure 1A). The fluorophore 6-bromoacetyl-2-dimethyl-aminonaphtalene (DAN) was conjugated at Asn 106 replaced with Cys in the PLC δ -PH-based IP₃ sensor.

We carried out an additional manipulation of the sensor protein to optimize the structure of the probe for in vivo usage, since the intact probe showed no significant translocation across plasma membrane and incorporation into cells. Several arginine (Arg)-rich polypeptides, including HIV-1 Tat-(48-60) and Antennapedia-(43-58), have been previously reported for their ability to translocate proteins across plasma membrane [17–31]. The PLCô-PH protein was fused to these peptide sequences to produce the sensor derivatives, as shown in Figure 1B. Figures 1D–1H depict in vitro optical behavior of sensor R9-106DIP3, which is the Arg (R)₉-tagged PH domain conjugated with DAN at the cysteine residue 106. Decrease of emission intensity of R9-106DIP3 (formerly referred to as R9-PHIP₃-D106 [32]) through IP₃ binding in response to increase of IP₃ concentration can be theoretically fitted to the following calibration equation (Figures 1D and 1E):

$$\Delta F = \Delta F_{\max} \{ [IP_3] / (Kd + [IP_3]) \},$$
(1)

in which the *Kd* value is 2.21 μ M. The data show an in vitro dynamic range of the R9-106DIP3 probe 0.5 to 25 μ M. We examined the in vitro effects of several important cellular factors that might affect the IP₃-sensing ability of the R9-106DIP3 probe. Changing the CaCl₂ concentration (0–1 mM) or pH (6.5–8) failed to affect emission behavior of R9-106DIP3 in vitro (Figures 1F and 1G). Affinity of IP₃ binding of R9-106DIP3 was slightly

рН	Ca ²⁺ (μM)	Mg ²⁺ (mM)	ATP (mM)	K ⁺ (mM) ^a	Kd (μM)	P⁵
6.5	0	-	_	-	4.91 ± 0.91	**
7.0	0	_	_	_	2.21 ± 0.17	
7.0	0.1	_	_	_	$\textbf{2.86} \pm \textbf{0.24}$	*
7.0	1	_	_	_	$\textbf{2.97} \pm \textbf{0.38}$	*
7.0	10	_	_	_	$\textbf{2.44} \pm \textbf{0.17}$	NS
7.0	1000	_	-	_	$\textbf{3.33} \pm \textbf{0.43}$	*
7.0	0	5	1	-	$\textbf{3.89} \pm \textbf{0.48}$	**
7.0	0	_	_	150	$\textbf{5.27} \pm \textbf{0.12}$	***
7.5	0	_	_	_	$\textbf{1.90} \pm \textbf{0.23}$	NS
8.0	0	_	_	_	1.17 ± 0.15	**

Table 1. Binding Affinity of the IP₃ Sensors with Inositol Phosphate Derivatives

NS, not significant; *, p < 0.05; **, p < 0.01; ***, p < 0.001.

^a 50 mM NaCl was replaced with 150 mM KCl.

^b Significance from control (pH 7.0, without K⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, or ATP).

diminished by addition of Ca²⁺ alone or Mg²⁺ plus ATP, by replacement of Na⁺ with K⁺, and by pH decrease (Table 1). As already demonstrated in the previous paper, the conjugation with DAN created a sensing selectivity to IP₃ over other inositol phosphates (Table 2) [16]. Among the tested inositol phosphates, inositol hexaphosphate showed a Kd comparable to that of IP₃. Furthermore, PIP₂ binding assay using the PIP₂ resin demonstrated that the original PLC δ PH domain bound efficiently to the PIP₂ resin and was eluted by 50 μ M IP₃, whereas R9-106DIP3 showed no significant binding to the PIP₂ resin (see Supplemental Figure S1 available with this article online). Furthermore, \mbox{Mg}^{2+} and \mbox{ATP} failed to confer affinity to PIP₂ on R9-106DIP3, supporting a potential of R9-106DIP3 for selective detection of IP₃ in physiological milieu. Importantly, the dissociation speed evaluated from the binding experiments using the surface plasmon resonance technique (Figure 1H) and the above Kd value determined by the optical measurement reveal an association speed indicative of rapid incorporation of IP₃ by 106DIP3 (see legend to Figure 1H). The data implied a potential of the probe R9-106DIP3 as an effecient in vivo IP₃ sensor.

The untagged sensor probe showed very poor translocation activity across plasma membrane into cells in observation under confocal microscope (Figure 2A). Strikingly, the arginine-rich sequence-tagged derivatives displayed greatly enhanced intracelular incorporation at 37°C: more than half of chicken DT40 B cells

Table 2. Effects of Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, ATP, pH Changes, and Complete Exchange of Na⁺ with K⁺ on *Kd* for Complex Formation of R9-106DIP3 with IP₃

Inositol Phosphate	K _d (μM)	Sª	
IP ₁	>>100	>>45	
Ins(1,4,5)P ₃	$\textbf{2.21} \pm \textbf{0.17}$	1	
Ins(1,3,4)P ₃	440 ± 16.3	200	
L-Ins(1,4,5)P ₃	$\textbf{28.18} \pm \textbf{0.20}$	12.8	
Ins(1,3,4,5)P	$\textbf{63.68} \pm \textbf{6.33}$	29.8	
IP ₆	$\textbf{4.03} \pm \textbf{0.65}$	1.8	
PIP ₂	>>10 ^b	>>4.5	

 K_d for inositol phosphate binding of the IP3 sensor 106DIP3 was analyzed by fluorescence measurement.

^a S represents the ration to the dissociation constant for $Ins(1,4,5)P_3$. ^b K_d of binding to R9-106DIP3. incorporated the arginine-rich sequence-tagged sensors, such as TAT tagged (57% incorporation), R₇-heptapeptide-tagged sensor proteins (61%), and R₉-nonapeptide-tagged R9-106DIP3 (61%), in the presence of the nonionic sulfactant polyol detergent Pluronic F127, which has been routinely used to load ion indicators such as fura-2 and fluo-3 (Figures 2B–2D). Costaining experiments using organelle-specific probes revealed a diffusive distribution of the IP₃ sensor R9-106FIP3 conjugated with fluorescein throughout the cells (Figures 2E– 2G), in contrast with PLC δ_1 PH domain-GFP fusion protein highly localized at the plasma membrane of unstimulated cells [13, 14].

Similar distribution was observed in other types of cells, such as CHO-K1 cells or human embryonic kidney (HEK) cells (data not shown). Since the three IP_3 sensor derivatives behaved similarly in intracellular incorporation, we focused on arginine nonapeptide-tagged R9-106DIP3 in the following experiments.

In Vivo Behavior of the IP₃ Probe

In assessing the efficiency of R9-106DIP3 as an in vivo IP₃ sensor, we recorded and analyzed changes of fluorescence images of the cells with a video image analysis system at an emission wavelength of 510 nm (bandwidth, 20 nm) by exciting at 380 nm (bandwidth, 11 nm) at room temperature. After 10 min incubation of DT40 chicken B cells with R9-106DIP3, IP₃-induced emission change of the probe in the cellular environment was observed by permeabilizing the cells with β -escin under controlled IP₃ concentration (Figure 3A). Equation 1 was used again to fit the obtained fluorescence data (Figure 3B). The "in vivo calibration" procedure, essential for estimation of the intracellular IP₃ concentration ([IP₃]) from the obtained emission data, revealed that the Kd value is 1.24 µM in Equation 1 and that the in vivo dynamic range of the probe is approximately 0.5-5 µM [IP₃]. It is also important to note that the data clearly demonstrate rapid and efficient response of the sensor to increase of [IP₃]_i in vivo.

In B lymphocytes, ligation of B cell receptors (BCR) with anti-IgM antibody (anti-IgM) evokes activation of PLC γ_2 , IP₃ production, and Ca²⁺ release and entry [33]. Without BCR ligation, intensity of fluorescence at an emission wavelength of 510 nm gradually decreased



Figure 2. Intracellular Distribution of the IP₃ Sensor R9-106DIP3

(A–D) Incorporation of the Tat-related peptide-fused sensors into DT40 cells. Cells were incubated with untagged IP₃ sensor (106DIP3) (A), Tat-106DIP3 (B), R7-106DIP3 (C), and R9-106DIP3 (D). Left, DIC images of DT40 cells; right, fluorescent images of the same cells.

(E–G) Cellular localization of R9-106FIP3 in DT40 cells. Confocal microscopic observation of the R9-106FIP3-loaded cells after organelle-specific staining. The fluorescein version of the sensor R9-106FIP3 [16] was used because organelle-specific probes and R9-106DIP3 have similar excitation wavelengths. (E), membrane staining with octadecyl rhodamin B; (F), ER staining with Di116; (G), nucleus staining with propidium iodide (PI). For PI staining, cells were permeabilized with β -escin after incorporation of R9-106FIP3.

in wild-type (WT) and PLC γ_2 -deficient (PLC γ_2^-) chicken DT40 B-cells loaded with R9-106DIP3 (Figure 3C). This seems to reflect degradation of the photo-labile R9-106DIP3 by UV irradiation during the measurement, since increase of interval of UV irradiation reduced the reduction speed of fluorescence intensity. Speeds of fluorescence reduction elicited by UV irradiation at 2, 10, and 20 s intervals were 135%, 77%, and 63%, respectively, of the speed at the 5 s interval routinely used in the measurement. Within 20 s after BCR ligation, significant speeding up of florescence decrease, namely IP_3 production ($\Delta[IP_3]_i$, Figures 3C and 3D) and $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ rises mediated by IP₃R release channel [33] in WT cells, were observed coincidentally (Figure 3E). In contrast, $PLC\gamma_2^-$ cells never showed these responses. Interestingly, fluorescence intensity changes in R9-106DIP3loaded DT40 cells were significantly affected by extracellular Ca²⁺: decrease in fluorescence intensity was maintained after an initial decrease indicative of sustained $[IP_3]_i$ increase in Ca²⁺-containing external solution, whereas fluorescence intensity decreased only transiently to return to almost initial levels in Ca²⁺-free external solution (Figure 3D). The observed changes in fluorescence intensity of R9-106DIP3 showed an interesting temporal correlation with the BCR-induced [Ca²⁺]_i transients (Figures 3D and 3E). R9-106DIP3 fluorescence recovery ([IP₃]_i decrease) delayed compared to decay of [Ca²⁺]_i transients. The results strongly support detection of IP₃ increase and decrease by sensor R9-106DIP3 through reversible IP₃ binding, suggesting that IP₃ production is positively regulated by Ca²⁺ entry.

Efficiency of R9-106DIP3 was also examined in other cell types. As shown in Figure 4A, stimulation of G protein-coupled ATP receptors induced transient $[IP_3]_i$ increases in the absence of extracellular Ca²⁺ in CHO cells loaded with R9-106DIP3. Subsequent addition of Ca²⁺ to external solution induced additional $[IP_3]_i$ increases. This observation is quite similar to that observed in DT40



Figure 3. In Vivo IP₃ Detection by R9-106DIP3

(A) Time courses of fluorescence changes of R9-106DIP3 by adding 0 (open circles), 0.5 (filled circles), 0.75 (open triangles), 1 (filled triangles), 2.5 (open squares), and 5 μ M (filled squares) IP₃ in the DT40 cell permeabilized with β -escin.

(B) The changes in the fluorescence intensity were plotted against IP_3 concentrations. A solid curve represents the best fit for Equation 1.

(C) Real-time measurements of intracellular receptor-mediated IP₃ production (Δ [IP₃]) in DT40 cells. The upper panels show representative time courses of fluorescence intensity changes of IP3 indicator monitored at 5 s intervals upon B cell receptor (BCR) stimulation. Bars show times of BCR stimulation with anti-IgM antibody (anti-IgM: 1 µg/ml). The dotted traces indicate the time course of photo-bleaching of IP₃ sensor. Other traces represent time courses of fluorescence changes observed in individual BCR-stimulated cells. The lower panels show time courses of IP₃ concentration changes. The changes of the fluorescence intensities in the upper panels were normalized with the time courses of photo-bleaching of the IP₃ sensor and were converted to the changes of IP3 concentration by using the in vivo calibration curve in (B).

(D) Left, average time courses of IP3 concentration changes induced by BCR stimulation in WT (open circles) and PLC₂-deficient PLC γ_2^- DT40 cells (filled circles) in the presence or absence (open triangles) of extracellular Ca2+. Treatment with anti-IgM started at the time indicated by the dotted line. For the experiments in the absence of Ca2+, perfusion of EGTA-containing solution was started 2.5 min before BCR stimulation and was continued to the end of experiment. Right, Δ [IP₃]_i by BCR stimulation at the peak point (transient) and sustained after 6 min BCR stimulation (sustained). Data points are the mean ±SE in 17-22 cells. Significance from control (2 mM Ca $^{2+}$): **, p < 0.01; ***, p < 0.001.

(E) Left, time courses of Ca²⁺ responses upon BCR stimulation in WT (open circles) and PLC γ_2 -deficient PLC γ_2^- DT40 cells (filled circles) in the presence or absence (open triangles) of extracellular Ca²⁺. Protocols used were the same as in (D). Right, peak [Ca²⁺]i rises by BCR stimulation. Data points are the mean ±SE in 35–62 cells ([Ca²⁺]₀).

(F) Population measurements of BCR-induced IP₃ production in DT40 cells in the presence (open squares) or absence (closed squares) of extracellular Ca²⁺. Significance from control (2 mM Ca²⁺): *, p < 0.05.



Figure 4. Major Contribution of Ca^{2+} Influx to Receptor-Evoked IP₃ Production

(A) Left, representative time courses of Ca2+ responses (upper) and IP₃ production (lower) induced by stimulation of Gq-coupled ATP receptor with ATP (10 µM) in Ca2+-free solution containing EGTA and by subsequent addition of 2 mM extracellular Ca2+ to evoke capacitative Ca2+ entry in CHO-K1 cells. Traces represent time courses of [Ca2+] and [IP₃]_i changes observed in individual receptor-stimulated cells. Bars indicate times of perfusion with respective solutions, and Ca2+-free solution was perfused 2.5 min before the ATP treatment. Right, peak [Ca2+]i and [IP₃]_i rises by ATP receptor stimulation. Data points are the mean ±SE in 24 cells ([Ca2+]) or in 14 cells ([IP3]).

(B) Left, representative time courses of Ca²⁺ responses (upper) and IP₃ production (lower) induced by BCR stimulation in the presence or absence of extracellular Ca²⁺. The BCR stimulation starts at the time indicated by the dotted line, and Ca²⁺-free EGTA-containing solution was perfused from 2.5 min before BCR stimulation. Right, peak [Ca²⁺], and [IP₃], rises by the BCR stimulation. Data points are the mean \pm SE in 31 cells ([Ca²⁺]) or the mean \pm SE in 17 cells ([IP₃]), *, p < 0.05.

cells (Figure 4B). Considering that the protocol used to assess the real-time effect of Ca²⁺ entry on IP₃ generation is only realized in the intact cellular configuration, R9-106DIP3 can serve as an efficient sensor for direct detection of in vivo regulation of IP₃ production.

We next tested whether loaded R9-106DIP3 perturbs Ca^{2+} responses upon BCR stimulation in DT40 B cells. The cells loaded with the sensor analog R9-106FIP3 conjugated with fluorescein [16] were also tested, since R9-106FIP3-unloaded cells can be distinguished from the loaded cells in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ measurements owing to the difference in excitation wavelength between R9-106FIP3 and the Ca²⁺ indicator fura-2. The data indicate that cells incubated with R9-106DIP3 or loaded with R9-106FIP3 showed BCR-induced Ca²⁺ responses indistinguishable from those in control cells (Figure 5A). By contrast, DT40 cells expressing the genetically encoded

GFP-based phosphoinositide probe, PLC δ PH domain-GFP fusion protein (PH-GFP) [13–15], showed significantly suppressed BCR-induced Ca²⁺ responses. Thus, loaded R9-106DIP3 may have significantly low IP₃-buffering capacity, which enables accurate measurement of [IP₃]_i changes without significantly affecting receptoractivated cellular responses.

Discussion

We have developed biosensors for direct and real-time detection of $[IP_3]_i$ changes by combining recombinant DNA technique and chemical modification with fluorophores. The newly developed IP₃ probe R9-106DIP3 showed improved cellular incorporation and efficient detection of IP₃ in various types of cells. The probe has merit compared to recently described GFP fusion



Figure 5. The Original PH Domain Perturbs but the IP_3 Sensors Keep Receptor-Evoked $[Ca^{2+}]$, Responses Intact

(A) Representative time courses of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ responses induced by BCR stimulation in individual control GFP-expressing or PH-GFP-expressing DT40 cells and R9-106DIP3 or R9-106F-loaded cells.

(B) Summary of peak $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ rises induced by BCR stimulation in cells expressing the constructs or loaded with the sensors above. Data are the mean \pm SE in 22–46 cells. n.s., not significant; significance from control (GFP): **, p<0.01.

protein probes [13]. R9-106DIP3 is selective for IP3 over other inositol phosphates and the phosphoinositide. which allows us to quantitatively transform IP₃ bindinginduced fluorescence guenching of R9-106DIP3 into IP₃ concentration through an in vivo calibration procedure. In contrast to R9-106PIP3, the GFP-tagged PH domain probe similarly detects IP₃ and PIP₂. The observed receptor stimulation-induced translocation of the GFPtagged PH probe from plasma membrane to cytoplasm has been therefore interpreted to represent PIP2 metabolism at the plasma membrane and subsequent [IP_{3]i} diffusion throughout the cytoplasm [14]. Furthermore, it has been pointed out that stable overexpression of the genetically encoded probes can significantly change the molecular geography by sequestration of inositol lipids and might exert inhibitory effects on various lipid-dependent cellular functions [13]. In R9-106DIP3, this type of problem can be avoided by controlling the amount of the probe loaded. The lower binding affinity of R9-106DIP3 with inositol phosphates other than $\ensuremath{\text{IP}_{\scriptscriptstyle 3}}$ and phosphoinositides in comparison to the original PH domain from PLC₀ also minimizes side effects during measurement (Figure 5). This advantage of R9-106DIP3 is attributable to the fluorophore conjugation of the cysteine residue at the mouth of the IP₃ binding pocket [16]. In fact, the data indicate that cells loaded with the IP₃ sensor were indistinguishable from control cells in BCRinduced Ca2+ responses measured using the fura-2 method (Figures 5A and 5B), whereas the cells expressing the genetically encoded GFP-based phosphoinositide probe PH-GFP [13-15] showed significantly suppressed BCR-induced Ca²⁺ responses (Figures 5A and 5B). Thus, R9-106DIP3 is the first IP₃ sensor that simultaneously realized selectivity and directness of IP₃ detection and intactness of the cells examined.

R9-106DIP3 and the previously reported "single cell" probes [13, 14] display an interesting contrast in cellular compartmentalization. Rapid loss within 30 s of PH-GFP probes from the plasma membrane is induced by ATP receptor stimulation [13, 14], suggesting high sensitivity of PH-GFP in PIP₂ hydrolisis/IP₃ production at the plasma membrane. R9-106DIP3 incorporated diffusively in cells (Figure 2) revealed probe fluorescence decrease/ IP₃ production without specific compartmentalization when the probe fluorescence was monitored at a 5 s interval. This is consistent with our observation that IP₃ concentrations are equilibrated within 5 s after extracellular IP₃ application in permeabilized cells (Figure 3A), as well as with the report by Allbritton et al. [34] that IP₃ is a global messenger distributed in cells smaller than 20 μ m, in contrast to Ca²⁺ acting in restricted subcellular domains. Thus, R9-106DIP3 and other "single cell" probes, including the α-hemolysin-based IP₃ detection method that senses nanomolar IP3 localized near the plasmamembrane [35], will provide complementary information with regard to spatial/temporal patterns of IP₃ signals.

R9-106DIP3 has an advantage with regard to significantly low buffering of IP₃ signals by the probe itself. This is supported by the fact that lowering the probe concentration from 1 to 0.25 μ M failed to significantly affect receptor-induced IP₃ responses (Figure S2B). In the formation of the 1:1 complex of IP₃ and the probe, 1.21 μ M is obtained for *Kd* by fitting *F/F0* from the Figure 2A data to Equation 2:

$$F/F_0 = 1 - A \times \{Kd + [IP_3]_t + C - ([IP_3]_t^2 + 2[IP_3]_tKd - 2C[IP_3]_t + 2CKd + C^2 + Kd^2)^{1/2}\}/(2C), \qquad (2)$$

in which $[IP_{3]_{tr}} A$, and *C* are total intracellular IP₃ concentration, the maximal changes in normalized fluorescence intensity $[(F_{max} - F_{min})/F_{max}]$, and the concentration of the incorporated probe, respectively [36]. When $[IP_{3}]_{t}$ is 3 μ M, the above *Kd* value gives 71 nM for the IP₃-R9-106DIP3 complex concentration ([complex]) using *Kd* = [IP₃][R9-106DIP3]/[complex], since we estimated *C* to be 100 nM in the cells loaded with the probe in 1 μ M solution through comparison of their fluorescence intensities with those of the probe at various concentrations in between pairs of glass cover slips (data not shown). Therefore, only less than 1/40 of IP₃ produced is buffered by the probe itself, again supporting the efficiency of R9-106DIP3 in being significantly free from interfering native IP₃ signaling.

R9-106DIP3 has enabled the first real-time demonstration of positive regulation of IP3 production by receptor-activated Ca²⁺ influx in individual cells. A previous report determining IP₃ levels by competition assay with [³H]IP₃ using destroyed cells has demonstrated enhancement of IP₃ production by Ca^{2+} entry via PLC δ_1 [37]. However, it was difficult to temporally correlate IP₃ production with [Ca²⁺], since the highest time resolution was 15 s in the experiment. In addition, the data were averaged behavior of different masses of cells but were not from the same individual cells. In contrast to the population measurement, our data using R9-106DIP3 clearly demonstrate delay of [IP₃], decrease compared to decay of [Ca²⁺], transients in individual cells, suggesting that a negative regulation signal for Ca²⁺ response is generated during PIP₂ hydrolysis. Interestingly, the [IP₃] measurement using R9-106DIP3 demonstrated a gradual increase of [IP₃] in Ca²⁺-containing external solution and a slow [IP₃] increase, peaking only after 2 min BCR stimulation in Ca2+ free-external solution (Figure 3D), while BCR-induced IP₃ production in the IP₃ population measurement using lysed cells showed a peak after 1 min stimulation in DT40 cells (Figure 3F). Considering rapid association/dissociation kinetics of IP3 with the probe in in vitro experiments, it is possible that this discrepancy between the two methods is attributable to the difference in IP₃ fraction detected by the methods: R9-106DIP3 detects free IP₃, but the population measurement detects free IP₃ plus IP₃ buffered by IP₃ binding proteins. Given that the diameter of DT40 cells is \sim 10 μm, estimation from the population measurement actually gives Δ [IP₃]_i of \sim 2.7 μ M (\sim 1.5 and \sim 4.2 μ M for basal and peak [IP₃], respectively), which is slightly higher than that obtained from the single cell measurement. In this context, IP₃-buffering mechanisms can be downregulated after 1 min B cell receptor stimulation, since free [IP₃] was kept elevated (Figure 3D), while the total [IP₃] (free [IP₃], plus buffered [IP₃], was decreased (Figure 3F). Alternatively, the above discrepancy may be due to differences in the stimulation condition: cells were perfused with anti-IgM-containing PSS at room temperature in the single cell measurements, while anti-IgM was added and immediately mixed with cell suspension of PSS at 37°C in the population measurement (see Experimental Procedures).

It must be further noted that our data show recovering of fluorescence intensity of R9-106DIP3 after initial decrease in response to receptor stimulation in the tested cell types such as DT40, HEK, and CHO cells. This supports sufficient reversibility in binding of IP₃ with the probe, which may reflect [IP₃]_i oscillation [14]. Thus, R9-106DIP3 is efficient in quantitative and temporal assessment of [IP₃]_i changes. Although the [IP₃]_i measurement is still open to further refinement by employing more sophisticated techniques, such as caged IP₃ derivatives [38] for calibration, R9-106DIP3 is no doubt already a powerful tool for understanding the complex interplay among different second messengers in various biological systems.

Significance

The second messenger D-myo-inositol-1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃) regulates intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration. Mapping real-time intracellular IP₃ concentration changes is an indispensable technique to elucidate the diverse cellular processes related to IP₃ production. We have developed a biosensor for direct and real-time detection of intracellular IP₃ concentration changes based on binding by the PLC δ PH domain. The IP₃ sensor tagged with the arginine-rich peptide was efficiently incorporated into intact cells and detected the intracellular IP₃ concentration changes induced by ATP stimulation of CHO cells or anti-IgM antibody stimulation of DT40 cells. The IP₃ biosensor reported here would be a powerful tool for detecting positive regulation of IP₃ production by receptor-activated Ca²⁺ influx, which can be only elicited in the intact cellular configuration. The concept of the biosensor design, based on fluorophore conjugation at the mouth of binding pockets of small protein domains, is applicable for other second messengers, providing important tools for elucidating metabolism networks of second messengers.

Experimental Procedures

Plasmid Constructs

cDNA encoding the PH domain of PLC δ_1 (11-140) was amplified with PCR from rat brain cDNA library (CLONTECH Labs. Inc.) and subcloned into pET3a vector to yield pET3PH as described previously [16]. The mutated PH domain (Cys48, Cys96, and Asn106 to Ser48, Ser98, and Cys106, respectively) was created by using PCR-based site-directed mutagenesis, and expression constructs of TAT (YGRKKRRQRRR), arginine nonapeptide (R₉), and arginine heptapeptide (R₇) fused with the mutated PH domain were generated by inserting double-strand oligonucleotides encoding the amino acid sequences of TAT, R₉ and R₇ peptides, respectively, into pET3PH106 vector [16].

Protein Purification and Fluorophore Coupling Reactions

The plasmids were transformed into *Escherichia coli* BL21(DE3)pLysS cells, and the proteins were purified by using Mono S cation exchange chromatography (Amersham Pharmacia) with 10 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) containing 50 mM NaCl and 4 M urea. Fractions containing mutated PH domain were collected. The solution (1 ml) containing the mutated PH domain (10 μ M) was degassed and was added to a DMF solution of 6-bromoacetyl-2-dimethylaminonaphthalene (DAN) or 6-iodoacetamidofluorescein (6IAF) known as thiol reactive fluorophore (10 eq.) at 4°C. After 2.5 hr, the reaction was quenched by addition of DTT to a final concentration of 5 mM. The labeled protein was separated from free fluorophore by gel filtration using a PD-10 column with 10% acetonitrile containing 0.1% TFA, purified by using RESOURCE RPC reversed phase chromatography, then dialyzed against a phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) containing 50 mM NaCl and 0.005% Tween 20. The purified fluorophorelabeled PH domains were identified by 15% SDS/polyacrylamide gel visualized with transilluminator or with Coomassie Brilliant Blue R-250 (CBB) staining.

PIP₂ Binding Assay

 PIP_2 resin (Echelon) was incubated with 0.5 μ M R9-106DIP3 (R₉tagged PH domain conjugated with DAN fluorophore at the cysteine residue 106) and the PH domain of $PLC\delta_1$ (PLC δ_1 PH)(11-140) for 5 min at room temperature in 10 mM phosphate (pH 8.0) containing 100 mM NaCl and 0.01% Tween 20. After the PIP₂ resin was separated from the supernatant (S, nonbinding fraction) by centrifugation at 1000 \times g for 1 min at room temperature, R9-106DIP3 or PLC δ_1 PH was eluted from the PIP₂ resin with 10 mM phosphate (pH 8.0), 100 mM NaCl, and 0.01% Tween 20 containing 50 μM IP_3 to give binding fraction (B). The nonbinding fraction (S) and B were precipitated by adding an equal volume of 20% trichloroacetic acid and centrifugation and were quantitated by analyzing 15% SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis followed by CBB staining. In detail, the quantification of each band was performed by analyzing the scaled gel data with NIH Image (ver. 1.6) software to integrate the intensity of dots of which each band was composed. The binding fractions Q = [B]/([B] + [S]) for R9-106DIP3 and PLC δ_1 PH to the PIP₂ resin were plotted against the PIP₂ concentrations. A solid curve represents the best fit for a theoretical dissociation equation, $Q_{fit} = [PIP_2]_{total}/(Kd + [PIP_2]_{total})$, where $[PIP_2]_{total}$ is the total concentration of PIP₂ and Kd is the dissociation constant of the protein-PIP₂ complex.

In Vitro Fluorescent Measurements

Binding reactions of R9-106DIP3 and IP₃ were monitored by measuring the changes in fluorescence emission that occurred upon addition of IP₃ to a solution of 100 nM R9-106DIP3 in 10 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) containing 50 mM NaCl and 0.005% Tween 20 at $25^{\circ}C$. Fluorescence emission spectra were recorded by addition of increasing amounts of IP₃ to saturation at the excitation wavelength at 390 nm. The dissociation constant of the complex of R9-106DIP3 and IP₃ was determined by measuring the change in fluorescence emission at a wavelength of 500 nm. The results were fit to a binding isotherm,

$$\Delta F = \Delta F_{\text{max}} \{ [IP_3] / (Kd + [IP_3]) \}, \tag{1}$$

where ΔF is the change in fluorescence intensity, ΔF_{max} is the fluorescence intensity change at saturation, *Kd* is the dissociation constant, and [IP₃] is the concentration of IP₃.

Kinetic Determination of Dissociation Constants for the 106DIP3 Complex by Surface Plasmon Resonance

A biotin-labeled IP₃ was injected over a streptavidin-coated sensor chip (SA, Pharmacia Biosensor) until a suitable level was achieved. A buffer containing 10 mM HEPES, 150 mM NaCl, 3.4 mM EDTA, and 0.005% Tween 20 was used both as flow buffer and sample preparation buffer. The same buffer containing 1 mM IP₃ was used as regeneration buffer. The association was followed for 3 min, and the dissociation was measured at a flow rate of 20 µl/min. Analysis of the data was performed using the evaluation software supplied with the instrument (BIAevaluation version 3.0). To eliminate small bulk refractive change differences at the beginning and end of each injection, a control sensorgram obtained over a surface modified with biotin was subtracted for each peptide injection. Furthermore, the second phase of the responses were fitted, since instrument response contains a component due to the change in bulk refractive index of the two solutions (i.e., soluble ligate versus buffer) during the first 20-30 s period after injection of ligate, as described by O'Shannessy et al. [39]. For the determination of the dissociation kinetics constant (kd),

$$\mathsf{RU}(\mathsf{t}) = \mathsf{RU}_0 \cdot \mathsf{e}^{(-k\mathsf{d}\cdot\mathsf{t})} \tag{3}$$

was used. RU(t) and RU_0 are the response at the optional time and the response at the time at which dissociation begins, respectively.

IP₃ Sensor Incorporation

For each assay, 5×10^4 /ml DT40 cells were pelleted on a 10 mm \times 5 mm glasses and cultured for 3–4 hr. Chinese hamster ovary (CHO)-K1 cells were trypsinized, diluted with F-12 medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 30 units/ml penicillin, and 30 µg/ml streptomycin and plated onto glass coverslips precoated with poly-Llysine (Sigma) at least 6 hr. After complete adhesion, the solution containing IP₃ sensor was exchanged for Hanks' balanced salt solution (HBSS, Sigma) containing 0.1% F127 (Molecular Probes) using a NAP5 column (Amersham Pharmacia). The cells were incubated into 1 µM IP₃ sensor solution for 10 min at room temperature (Figure S2A). Cells were washed with HBSS, and the distribution of IP₃ sensor was observed at an emission wavelength of 500 nm at room temperature by exciting at 385 nm on a fluorescence microscope (Olympus, Japan).

Subcellular Localization of IP₃ Sensor Probe

DT40 cells (5 \times 10⁴) were plated and cultured for 4 hr on 30 mm plates on a glass coverslip. The culture medium was discarded, and the cells were washed with HBSS (Sigma). HBSS buffer was discarded, and the cells were incubated with the HBSS buffer containing 1 µM R9-106FIP3 (R9-tagged PH domain conjugated with fluorescein at the cysteine residue 106) and 0.1% F127 (Molecular Probes) for 10 min at 37°C. After the cells were washed with HBSS buffer, the cells were incubated with HBSS buffer containing 0.1 µM octadecyl rhodamin B or 0.1 µM Dil16 (Molecular Probes) for 2 min at 37°C. For the staining of nucleus, 0.1 µM propidium iodide (PI) (Dojindo) was incubated with cells for 2 min after 10 min treatment of R9-106FIP3-preloaded cells with β -escin (1 μ M, Sigma). After the cells were washed with HBSS buffer, the distribution of fluorescenes was analyzed under a confocal laser microscope (FV500, Olympus). Excitation wavelength: 488 nm for fluorescein and 543 nm for octadecyl rhodamin B, Dil16, and PI. Emission wavelength: 518 nm for fluorescein and 578, 565, and 617 nm for octadecyl rhodamin B, Dil16, and PI, respectively,

In Vivo Fluorescent Measurements

The cells (5 \times 10⁴ cells/ml) were plated onto poly-L-lysine-coated glass coverslips. After 2 hr incubation for cell adhesion. the cells were transferred to HBSS containing 1 μ M IP₃ sensor and 0.1% F127 (Molecular Probes) for 10 min at 37°C. After cells were washed with HBSS, the coverslips were placed in a perfusion chamber mounted on the stage of the microscope. Cells in the chamber with a capacity of 500 µl were perfused with various solutions with a rate of 500 μ l/min. Changes in fluorescence images of the cells were observed using a video image analysis system at an emission wavelength of 510 nm (bandwidth, 20 nm) at room temperature by exciting at 380 nm (bandwidth, 11 nm) in a physiological salt solution (PSS) containing (in mM) 150 NaCl, 4 KCl, 1 MgCl₂, 2 CaCl₂, 5.6 glucose, 5 HEPES adjusted to pH 7.4 with NaOH. [IP3]i increases were detected as fluorescence quenching of R9-106DIP3 due to IP₃ binding. All traces except those of Figures 3A and 3C were displayed after subtracting averaged time courses of fluorescence reduction obtained without cell stimulation attributable to photo-bleach or photo-degradation.

For the in vivo calibration of $[IP_{3}]_{i}$, synthesized IP₃ (Dojindo) was applied to DT40 cells after 10 min treatment of R9-106DIP3-preloaded cells with β -escin (1 μ M, Sigma). The initial decrease of fluorescence was observed, and the results were fit to Equation 1. The $[IP_{3}]_{i}$ was calculated on the basis of Equation 1, where *Kd* value is 1.24 μ M obtained by in vivo calibration experiment.

Measurement of Changes in Intracellular Free Ca2+ ([Ca2+],)

CHO-K1 cells on coverslips were loaded with fura-2 by incubation in F-12 containing 5 μ M fura-2/AM, 0.2% F127 and 10% FBS at 37°C for 30 min and washed with the HEPES-buffered saline (HBS) containing (in mM): 107 NaCl, 6 KCl, 1.2 MgSO₄, 2 CaCl₂, 1.2 KH₂PO₄, 11.5 glucose, and 20 HEPES adjusted to pH 7.4 with NaOH. DT40 cells were prepared according to the previous paper [40]. The coverslips were then placed in a perfusion chamber mounted on the stage of the microscope, and cells were perfused with solutions as described above in IP₃ measurements. Fluorescence images of the cells were recorded and analyzed with a video image analysis system (ARGUS-20/CA, Hamamatsu Photonics, Hamamatsu, Japan). The fura-2 fluorescence at an emission wavelength of 510 nm (bandwidth, 20 nm) was observed at room temperature by exciting fura-2 alternatingly at 340 and 380 nm (bandwidth, 11 nm). The 340/380 nm ratio images were obtained on a pixel by pixel basis and were converted to Ca^{2+} concentrations by in vivo calibration. The calibration procedure was performed according to previous reports [40, 41].

Population Measurement for IP₃ Production

Population IP₃ production assay was performed as described previously [37]. DT40 cells (1 \times 10⁶) were suspended in 50 µl serum-free PSS solution, and anti-IgM (2 µg) was added to the cell suspension and incubated for the indicated time at 37°C. The BCR stimulation was terminated by adding 50 µl trichloroacetic acid (15%). After extraction with diethyl ether and subsequent pH adjustment to 7.5 with 0.5 M NaHCO₃, samples were subjected to kinetic analysis of IP₃ production using the BIOTRAK IP₃ assay system. Assay was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech).

Statistical Analysis

Results are presented as means \pm S.E.M. obtained through observations of n cells in at least three independent experiments. The statistical significance of observed differences was determined by analysis of variance followed by Student's t test. Differences among means were considered significant when p was less than 0.05.

Supplemental Data

Two figures are available as supplemental data at http://www.chembiol.com/cgi/content/full/11/4/475/DC1.

Acknowledgments

We thank Keiji Imoto for helpful discussion.

Received: October 27, 2003 Revised: January 2, 2004 Accepted: January 9, 2004 Published: April 16, 2004

References

- 1. Tsien, R.W., and Tsien, R.Y. (1990). Calcium channels, stores, and oscillations. Annu. Rev. Cell Biol. 6, 715–760.
- 2. Clapham, D.E. (1995). Calcium signaling. Cell 80, 259-268.
- Berridge, M.J. (1993). Inositol trisphosphate and calcium signalling. Nature 361, 315–325.
- 4. Bootman, M.D., and Berridge, M.J. (1995). The elemental principles of calcium signaling. Cell 83, 675–678.
- Neher, E. (1992). Cell physiology. Controls on calcium influx. Nature 355, 298–299.
- Fasolato, C., Innocenti, B., and Pozzan, T. (1994). Receptoractivated Ca²⁺ influx: how many mechanisms for how many channels? Trends Pharmacol. Sci. *15*, 77–83.
- Putney, J.W., Jr. (1990). Capacitative calcium entry revisited. Cell Calcium 11, 611–624.
- Irvine, R.F. (1990). 'Quantal' Ca²⁺ release and the control of Ca²⁺ entry by inositol phosphates: a possible mechanism. FEBS Lett. 263, 5–9.
- Peppelenbosch, M.P., Tertoolen, L.G., den Hertog, J., and de Laat, S.W. (1992). Epidermal growth factor activates calcium channels by phospholipase A2/5-lipoxygenase-mediated leukotriene C4 production. Cell 69, 295–303.
- Binder, H., Weber, P.C., and Siess, W. (1985). Separation of inositol phosphates and glycerophosphoinositol phosphates by high-performance liquid chromatography. Anal. Biochem. 148, 220–227.
- Potter, B.V.L., and Lampe, D. (1995). Chemistry of inositol lipid mediated cellular signaling. Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl. 34, 1933–1972.
- Palmer, S., Hughes, K.T., Lee, D.Y., and Wakelam, M.J. (1989). Development of a novel, Ins(1,4,5)P₃-specific binding assay. Its

use to determine the intracellular concentration of $lns(1,4,5)P_3$ in unstimulated and vasopressin-stimulated rat hepatocytes. Cell. Signal. 1, 147–156.

- Balla, T., Bondeva, T., and Varnai, P. (2000). How accurately can we image inositol lipids in living cells? Trends Pharmacol. Sci. 21, 238–241.
- Hirose, K., Kadowaki, S., Tanabe, M., Takeshima, H., and lino, M. (1999). Spatiotemporal dynamics of inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate that underlies complex Ca²⁺ mobilization patterns. Science 284, 1527–1530.
- Stricker, R., Adelt, S., Vogel, G., and Reiser, G. (1999). Translocation between membranes and cytosol of p42IP₄, a specific inositol 1,3,4,5-tetrakisphosphate/phosphatidylinositol 3,4, 5-trisphosphate-receptor protein from brain, is induced by inositol 1,3,4,5-tetrakisphosphate and regulated by a membrane-associated 5-phosphatase. Eur. J. Biochem. 265, 815–824.
- Morii, T., Sugimoto, K., Makino, K., Otsuka, M., Imoto, K., and Mori, Y. (2002). A new fluorescent biosensor for inositol trisphosphate. J. Am. Chem. Soc. *124*, 1138–1139.
- Anderson, D.C., Nichols, E., Manger, R., Woodle, D., Barry, M., and Fritzberg, A.R. (1993). Tumor cell retention of antibody fab fragments is enhanced by an attached HIV TAT protein-derived peptide. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 194, 876–884.
- Fawell, S., Seery, J., Daikh, T., Moore, C., Chen, L.L., Pepinsky, B., and Barsoum, J. (1994). Tat-mediated delivery of heterologous proteins into cells. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 91, 664–668.
- Pepinsky, R.B., Androphy, E.J., Corina, K., Brown, R., and Barsoum, J. (1994). Specific inhibition of a human papillomavirus E2 trans-activator by intracellular delivery of its repressor. DNA Cell Biol. *13*, 1011–1019.
- Kim, D.T., Mitchell, D.J., Brockstedt, D.G., Fong, L., Nolan, G.P., Fathman, C.G., Engelman, E.G., and Rothbard, J.B. (1997). Introduction of soluble proteins into the MHC class I pathway by conjugation to an HIV tat peptide. J. Immunol. *15*9, 1666–1668.
- Vives, E., Brodin, P., and Lebleu, B. (1997). A truncated HIV-1 tat protein basic domain rapidly translocates through the plasma membrane and accumulates in the cell nucleus. J. Biol. Chem. 272, 16010–16017.
- Vives, E., Granier, C., Prevot, P., and Leblue, B. (1997). Structure and activity relationship study of the plasma membrane translocating potential of a short peptide from HIV-1 Tat protein. Lett. Pept. Sci. 4, 429–436.
- Derossi, D., Chassaing, G., and Prochiantz, A. (1998). Trojan peptides: the penetratin system for intracellular delivery. Trends Cell Biol. 8, 84–87.
- Nagahara, H., Vocero-Akbani, A.M., Snyder, E.L., Ho, A., Latham, D.G., Lissy, N.A., Becker-Hapak, M., Ezhevsky, S.A., and Dowdy, S.F. (1998). Transduction of full-length TAT fusion proteins into mammalian cells: TAT-p27^{Kip1} induces cell migration. Nat. Med. *4*, 1449–1452.
- Gius, D.R., Ezhevsky, S.A., Becker-Hapak, M., Nagahara, N., Wei, M.C., and Dowdy, S.F. (1999). Transduced p16^{™K4a} peptides inhibit hypophosphorylation of the retinoblastoma protein and cell cycle progression prior to activation of Cdk2 complexes in late G₁. Cancer Res. 59, 2577–2580.
- Schwarze, S.R., Ho, A., Vocero-Akbani, A., and Dowdy, S.F. (1999). In vivo protein transduction: delivery of a biologically active protein into the mouse. Science 285, 1569–1572.
- Vocero-Akbani, A.M., Vander-Heyden, N., Lissy, N.A., Ratner, L., and Dowdy, S.F. (1999). Killing HIV-infected cells by transduction with an HIV protease-activated caspase-3 protein. Nat. Med. 5, 29–33.
- Lindgren, M., Hällbrink, M., Prochiantz, A., and Langel, U. (2000). Cell-penetrating peptides. Trends Pharmacol. Sci. 21, 99–103.
- Wender, P.A., Mitchell, D.J., Pattabiraman, K., Pelkey, E.T., Steinman, L., and Rothbard, J.B. (2000). The design, synthesis, and evaluation of molecules that enable or enhance cellular uptake: Peptoid molecular transporters. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 97, 13003–13008.
- Futaki, S., Suzuki, T., Ohashi, W., Yagami, T., Tanaka, S., Ueda, K., and Sugiura, Y. (2001). Arginine-rich peptides: An abundant source of membrane-permeable peptides having potential as carriers for intracellular protein delivery. J. Biol. Chem. 276, 5836–5840.

- Suzuki, T., Futaki, S., Niwa, M., Tanaka, S., Ueda, K., and Sugiura, Y. (2002). Possible existence of common internalization mechanisms among arginine-rich peptides. J. Biol. Chem. 277, 2437–2443.
- Nishida, M., Sugimoto, K., Hara, Y., Mori, E., Morii, T., Kurosaki, T., and Mori, Y. (2003). Amplification of receptor signalling by Ca²⁺ entry-mediated translocation and activation of PLC_γ2 in B lyphocytes. EMBO J. 22, 4677–4688.
- Kurosaki, T. (2000). Functional dissection of BCR signaling pathways. Curr. Opin. Immunol. 12, 276–281.
- Allbritton, N.L., Meyer, T., and Stryer, L. (1992). Range of messenger action of calcium ion and inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate. Science 258, 1812–1815.
- Cheley, S., Gu, L.Q., and Bayley, H. (2002). Stochastic sensing of nanomolar inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate with an engineered pore. Chem. Biol. 9, 829–838.
- Hirose, K., Takeshima, H., and lino, M. (1999). Fluorescent indicators for inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate based on bioconjugates of pleckstrin homology domain and fluorescent dyes. Anal. Commun. 36, 175–177.
- 37. Kim, Y.H., Park, T.J., Lee, Y.H., Baek, K.J., Suh, P.G., Ryu, S.H., and Kim, K.T. (1999). Phospholipase C- δ_1 is activated by capacitative calcium entry that follows phospholipase C- β activation upon bradykinin stimulation. J. Biol. Chem. 274, 26127–26134.
- Khodakhah, K., and Armstrong, C.M. (1997). Inositol trisphosphate and ryanodine receptors share a common functional Ca²⁺ pool in cerebellar Purkinje neurons. Biophys. J. 73, 3349–3357.
- Oshannessy, D.J., Brigham-Burke, M., Soneson, K.K., and Hensley, P. (1993). Determination of rate and equilibrium binding constants for macromolecular interactions using surface plasmon resonance: Use of nonlinear least squares analysis methods. Anal. Biochem. 212, 457–468.
- Mori, Y., Wakamori, M., Miyakawa, T., Hermosura, M., Hara, Y., Nishida, M., Hirose, K., Mizushima, A., Kurosaki, M., Mori, E., et al. (2002). Transient receptor potential 1 regulates capacitative Ca²⁺ entry and Ca²⁺ release from endoplasmic reticulum in B lymphocytes. J. Exp. Med. *195*, 673–681.
- Hara, Y., Wakamori, M., Ishii, M., Maeno, E., Nishida, M., Yoshida, T., Yamada, H., Shimizu, S., Mori, E., Kudoh, J., et al. (2002). LTRPC2 Ca²⁺-permeable channel activated by changes in redox status confers susceptibility to cell death. Mol. Cell 9, 163–173.