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A Protein-Based Biosensor for Detecting Calcium by Magnetic Resonance Imaging

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Abstract

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AM conceived the study. HFO and AM designed experiments with inputs from AFM and TEK. HFO performed all experiments with help from ADCM and KBF who assisted in biochemical studies. HFO and AM analyzed data and wrote the manuscript with inputs from all authors. AM supervised the research.

Supporting Information

Figures depicting biochemical purification and functional validation of calprotectin, analyte-induced percent change in relaxation times for published metalloprotein-based MRI sensors, relaxometric titration of His3Asp variant in the presence and absence of calcium, voxel-wise T_1 and T_2 response of calprotectin-based calcium sensor, calcium imaging in HT-22 cell lysates, Mn^{2+} uptake and toxicity in model mammalian cells, calcium imaging in CHO cells transduced with calprotectin and treated with a Ca²⁺ ionophore (calcimycin); tabulated values of Mn^{2+} binding affinity, and MRI response of published nongenetic calcium sensors, materials and methods; gene sequences of all constructs used in this work (PDF)

Complete contact information is available at: https://pubs.acs.org/10.1021/acssensors.1c01085

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

Calcium-responsive contrast agents for magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) offer a promising approach for noninvasive brain-wide monitoring of neural activity at any arbitrary depth. Current examples of MRI-based calcium probes involve synthetic molecules and nanoparticles, which cannot be used to examine calcium signaling in a genetically encoded form. Here, we describe a new MRI sensor for calcium, based entirely on a naturally occurring calcium-binding protein known as calprotectin. Calcium-binding causes calprotectin to sequester manganese ions, thereby limiting Mn²⁺ enhanced paramagnetic relaxation of nearby water molecules. We demonstrate that this mechanism allows calprotectin to alter T₁ and T₂ based MRI signals in response to biologically relevant calcium concentrations. The resulting response amplitude, i.e., change in relaxation time, is comparable to existing MRI-based calcium sensors as well as other reported protein-based MRI sensors. As a preliminary demonstration of its biological applicability, we used calprotectin to detect calcium in a lysed hippocampal cell preparation as well as in intact Chinese hamster ovary cells treated with a calcium ionophore. Calprotectin thus represents a promising path toward noninvasive imaging of calcium signaling by combining the molecular and cellular specificity of genetically encodable tools with the ability of MRI to image through scattering tissue of any size and depth.

Graphical Abstract



Keywords

magnetic resonance imaging; calcium imaging; genetically encoded reporters; neuroimaging; Mn²⁺ enhanced MRI

In the nervous system, calcium ions give rise to intracellular signals that modulate a wide range of biological functions including neural activity, gene expression, synaptic communication, and apoptosis.^{1,2} Consequently, experimental imaging of calcium in living cells and organisms is a cornerstone technology for obtaining detailed, time-lapse information on neural signaling mechanisms.^{3–5} High-resolution calcium imaging typically relies on fluorescent dyes and genetically encoded calcium indicators (GECIs), which in conjunction with multiphoton microscopy can detect activity in single cells up to depths of 1 mm in intact tissue.^{6–16} However, the imaging volume typically accessible by optical methods (~1 mm³) encompasses only a small fraction of the brain in most vertebrates.^{17–20}

Calcium signals can also be recorded from deeper tissues using endoscopes and specialized lenses, but these techniques cover a limited field of view and require invasive surgery to embed the imaging hardware inside tissues.^{21,22} Among noninvasive modalities, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is unrivaled in its ability to access large volumes of intact tissue located at any arbitrary depth. Thus, MRI-based calcium sensors have the potential to uniquely complement optical indicators by enabling wide-field imaging of biological processes in deep tissues noninvasively. This vision has motivated the development of a versatile collection of small-molecule paramagnetic complexes, fluorinated agents, and superparamagnetic iron oxide crystals that have evolved over the past two decades for imaging calcium by various MRI mechanisms including longitudinal (T₁) and transverse (T_2) relaxation, chemical exchange saturation transfer (CEST), and direct detection of 19 F spins.^{23–40} Regardless of the specific contrast mechanism, all reported MRI probes for calcium are synthetic molecules, which makes them incompatible with genetic technologies for in vivo delivery, stable long-term expression, and cell type specific targeting-key aspects that underpin the prolific success of genetically encoded calcium indicators derived from the green fluorescent protein (GFP).¹⁰ While iron-containing enzymes such as cytochrome P450 and ferritin nanoparticles have been used to develop protein-based MRI sensors for functional imaging of neurotransmitters and kinase activity, 41-46 to the best of our knowledge, there are no reported examples of protein-based MRI probes for calcium imaging. Here, we describe the development of the first biomolecular MRI reporter for calcium, based on a novel manganese metalloprotein, and demonstrate its utility for imaging calcium in a biological context.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Our sensor is based on calprotectin, an antimicrobial protein that is released by neutrophils to chelate essential transition metals (including paramagnetic Mn^{2+} ions), thus limiting their availability for pathogenic microorganisms in infection sites.^{47–50} The calprotectin heterodimer coordinates Mn²⁺ using two histidine-rich motifs located at the interface of the two subunits.^{48,51–53} Each subunit also contains a canonical EF-hand motif for binding calcium.⁵⁴ Early biochemical studies on calprotectin found that calcium ions are responsible for tuning its Mn²⁺ binding properties, allowing the protein to strongly bind Mn²⁺ ions only when calcium ions are also bound.^{52,55,56} Based on calprotectin's unique ability to sequester Mn²⁺ ions and shield them from nearby water molecules specifically in response to calcium, we reasoned that it should be possible to adapt calprotectin for MRI-based detection of calcium. Specifically, we hypothesized that in the absence of calcium, a binary mixture of calprotectin and Mn²⁺ ions would effectively shorten the T₁ and T₂ relaxation times of water molecules due to paramagnetic relaxation enhancement from free (i.e., unbound) Mn²⁺. In the presence of calcium, calprotectin would sequester free Mn²⁺ ions, limiting access to neighboring water molecules and consequently increase relaxation times in inverse proportion to the concentration of free Mn²⁺ ions remaining in solution (Figure 1A). To test our hypothesis, we cloned both subunits of human calprotectin in *E. coli* BL21 cells, substituting the single cysteine residue in each subunit with serine to avoid cross-linking during purification. We purified and reconstituted the 26 kDa heterodimer using metal-affinity chromatography and verified biochemical function by assaying for

calcium-dependent Mn²⁺ binding using a fluorescent dye (Figure S1). Next, we incubated various concentrations of purified calprotectin with Mn²⁺ and measured changes in T₁ and T_2 relaxation times at high (7 T) magnetic field induced by saturating amounts (~50-fold excess) of calcium. These experiments revealed a calcium-dependent increase in relaxation times ranging from $20 \pm 4\%$ to $95 \pm 4\%$ for T₁ and $56 \pm 14\%$ to $201 \pm 2\%$ for T_2 (N = 5) (Figure 1B), thereby allowing calcium ions to be respectively visualized as darkening or brightening of MRI signals in standard T₁ and T₂ weighted images (Figure 1C). Relaxivity values of the Mn²⁺-bound protein complex in the presence of calcium were measured as $0.20 \pm 0.07 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} (r_1)$ and $3.30 \pm 0.33 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} (r_2)$, which are substantially smaller than free Mn²⁺ relaxivity.⁵⁷ The lower relaxivity of Mn²⁺ in the bound state is consistent with previous studies that found the Mn²⁺ coordination environment in calprotectin to largely exclude water molecules.⁵⁵ Notably, the amplitude of T₁ and T₂ changes obtained with calprotectin are 2-6-fold larger than the peak response estimated for identical concentrations of metal-loprotein-based MRI sensors (targeting dopamine,⁴² serotonin,⁴⁴ protein kinase⁴¹) reported to date (Figure S2). To characterize calprotectin's contrast mechanism in greater detail, we performed relaxometric titrations by treating calprotectin with a range of Mn²⁺ concentrations and measuring T₁ and T₂ values in the presence or absence of excess calcium. In calcium-free conditions, we observed a consistent decrease in T₁ as the amount of Mn^{2+} was increased from 0 to 40 μM (corresponding to 0–1 molar equiv protein). In contrast, when calcium ions were present, the extent of T₁ change was significantly smaller (p < 0.01, N = 5) in the range of 10–40 μ M Mn²⁺ (Figure 2A). We detected a similar trend in T₂ values, which decreased with increasing concentrations of Mn²⁺ in the absence of calcium but displayed a significantly smaller change when calcium ions were available (Figure 2B). By fitting the measured T₁ changes to binding isotherms, we determined that calcium elicits ~35-fold increase (K_d (-Ca) = 49.7 ± 8.0 μ M, K_d (+Ca) = $1.42 \pm 0.42 \mu M$, p = 0.0003, N = 5) in calprotectin's binding affinity for Mn²⁺, consistent with results from previous spectroscopic and calorimetric studies (Figure 2C and Table S1).^{52,56} To further probe calprotectin's MRI properties, we introduced alanine substitutions in calprotectin's histidine-rich motifs to examine whether the calcium response is altered by changes in the Mn²⁺ coordination environment.^{52,54,55} We examined the resulting variants using relaxometry (Figure S3) and found one mutant (His₃Asp \rightarrow Ala₄) that displayed lower Mn²⁺ affinity in the calcium-free state ($K_d = 184.3 \pm 43.6 \,\mu$ M) relative to wild-type calprotectin, leading to a modest but statistically significant increase (N=3, p=0.005) in overall calcium-induced fold change in relaxation time (Figure 2C,D and Table S2). Finally, we assessed the selectivity of calprotectin's MRI response toward calcium by incubating a mixture of calprotectin and Mn²⁺ ions with magnesium (50-fold excess), representing the most abundant divalent cation found in cells. No significant change in T₁ or T₂ values could detected under these conditions (p = 0.2, N=4) (Figure 2E,F). Next, we established the dynamic range over which calcium ions can be sensed by calprotectin. For these experiments, we fixed the amount of calprotectin and Mn^{2+} at 40 and 30 μ M, respectively, and measured T1 and T2 changes in buffered solutions consisting of calprotectin titrated with varying concentrations of calcium. In these settings, we detected an $18.7 \pm 2.5\%$ (p = 0.007, N= 3) increase in T₁ and a 77.5 \pm 1.5% (p = 1.0 \times 10⁻⁴, N= 3) increase in T₂ over calcium concentrations spanning the full biologically relevant range of $(0.1-100 \,\mu\text{M})$ (Figures 3A and S4). Taken together, our results indicate that calprotectin can be used to

detect biologically relevant calcium changes based on an increase in T_1 and T_2 relaxation times triggered by calcium-induced binding to free Mn^{2+} , which leads to their sequestration in a low relaxivity state.

Next, as a precursor to calcium imaging in mammalian cells, we examined the sensor's calcium response in cellular conditions using intracellular lysates prepared from a mouse hippocampal cell line (HT-22). Similar cell lysate preparations have been previously used for *in vitro* validation of protein-based MRI sensors.⁴¹ We supplemented the cell lysate with purified calprotectin and manganese chloride and then measured changes in relaxation times following treatment with calcium concentrations relevant to neural activity. In this cellular milieu, calcium concentrations as low as 5 μ M were found to induce a significant increase in T₁ (7.0 ± 1.8%, *p* = 0.02, *N*=4) and T₂ (9.1 ± 1.0%, *p* = 0.0015, *N*=4) (Figure 3B), while no change was detected when calcium was added to control lysates containing Mn²⁺ but lacking calprotectin (*p* > 0.2, *N*=3) (Figure S5). Importantly, the T₁ and T₂ changes obtained with calprotectin are comparable to the calcium response reported for existing Gd³⁺ and Mn³⁺ based calcium probes (Table S3) and correspond to signal amplitudes that can be reliably detected *in vivo* by MRI techniques^{35,42,45,58} already established for functional brain imaging.

Finally, we incorporated calprotectin in a polycistronic lentiviral construct, which was used to transduce a Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cell line to establish stable expression from a strong CMV promoter. We delivered Mn²⁺ to cells by direct supplementation in the culture medium (Figure S6) and stimulated calcium entry by the addition of a calcium ionophore (calcimycin) in the presence or absence of extracellular calcium (5 mM). We performed T_1 measurements on pelleted cells based on procedures established in our earlier work.⁵⁹ To control for nonspecific T₁ changes arising from ionophore treatment, wild type CHO cells were also treated with calcimycin and imaged concurrently under identical conditions. In the presence of calcium, calprotectin-expressing cells were found to exhibit a $22 \pm 4\%$ increase in T₁ compared to control cells (p = 0.011), whereas no change in T₁ could be detected when either calcium or calcimycin was omitted from the medium (p > 0.7) (Figures 3C and S7). Taken together with our results from the hippocampal preparation, these observations indicate that calprotectin may be used for MR imaging of calcium activity to detect changes from the resting-state (~50-100 nM in neurons) to tens of micromolar concentration, which may be reached in stimulation paradigms involving electrical neuromodulation,⁶⁰ seizures,^{61,62} and excitotoxic injury.

CONCLUSIONS

Our findings represent the first example of a genetic construct for imaging calcium with MRI. The observed changes in T_1 and T_2 relaxation in response to calcium binding are comparable to most synthetic calcium probes (Table S3) and exceed that of previous protein-based MRI biosensors (Figure S2). Future work will focus on expressing calprotectin in neuronal cell lines, primary neurons, and eventually *in vivo*, which will allow whole-brain imaging of calcium activity with the added benefit of being able to probe specific cell populations by genetic targeting. To this end, a preliminary assessment of the feasibility of applying calprotectins *in vivo* may be drawn by comparing with ManICS1, a synthetic

(i.e., nongenetic) Mn²⁺ based calcium probe that was recently used to obtain the first measurements of intracellular calcium signals by MRI.³⁵ In this work, brain regions were acutely loaded with ManICS1 and stimulated by K⁺ infusion, which elicited a maximum T₁ weighted signal change of $5.8 \pm 1.2\%$. Notably, both ManICS1 and calprotectin exhibit similar IC₅₀ values for calcium binding (Table S3 and Figure 3A). However, calcium binding induces a larger relaxivity change in the calprotectin/Mn²⁺ sensor system (5.6 to 0.2 mM⁻¹ s⁻¹) compared to ManICS1 (3.6 to 5.1 mM⁻¹ s⁻¹). Given the successful implementation of ManICS1 for in vivo imaging, we therefore think that it should be possible in principle to adapt calprotectin-based sensors for imaging of calcium signals in the brain. However, practical challenges related to Mn²⁺ transport, background relaxation in brain tissue, reporter gene expression, and detection sensitivity will need to be addressed. Accordingly, we envision several areas of future development related to the application of calprotectins in animal models. First, Mn²⁺ dosing should be carefully optimized to minimize toxicity as well as ensure effective delivery to brain regions of interest. Several techniques for transporting Mn²⁺ (typically in quantities of tens of nanomoles, corresponding to intracellular concentrations of 35–93 μ M in the rodent brain⁶³) with minimum acute toxicity have already been established in the context of Mn²⁺ enhanced MRI (MEMRI). These techniques include oral delivery, intraperitoneal administration, systemic injection, transcranial diffusion, and direct infusion in the cerebrospinal fluid.^{64–66} Although Mn^{2+} can passively enter the brain parenchyma, transient and reversible opening of the blood brain barrier (e.g., using focused ultrasound) may be employed to augment the amount of Mn²⁺ transported.⁶⁷ A second challenge also related to Mn²⁺ delivery involves cell-type dependent variations in Mn²⁺ transport as well as increased Mn²⁺ flux (through calcium channels) in response to neural activity. The latter mechanism in fact serves as the basis for mapping activated brain regions by a technique known as activity-induced Mn²⁺ dependent MRI (AIM).^{68–70} One potential approach for offsetting variabilities arising from cell-specific and activity-dependent changes in Mn²⁺ movement could be to co-express calprotectin with DMT1, a Mn²⁺ transporter, which is also used as an MRI reporter based on its ability to constitutively transport Mn²⁺ in cells.^{71,72} Furthermore, because intracellular Mn²⁺ clears slowly from the brain (on the order of days), it may be feasible to implement calprotectins in conjunction with AIM. This could be done by time-locking calprotectin expression (e.g., using Cre-lox or TetTag transgenic models) to a temporal window that follows the AIM segment without further Mn²⁺ infusion. With judicious controls as well as detailed knowledge of calprotectin's response kinetics, such a multiparametric approach to functional MRI could reveal complementary insights on brain activity. Finally, although T_1 weighted signal changes as small as ~1% have been reliably measured *in vivo* using protein-based neurotransmitter sensors, 42,45,58 statistical fidelity of calcium detection can be greatly enhanced by optimizing calprotectins for a larger response amplitude. This can be achieved by protein engineering to increase calcium and Mn²⁺ binding affinities (in the calcium-bound state), ideally to sub- $\mu M K_d(s)$. Improved Mn²⁺ binding will also have the added advantage of minimizing competition from other Mn²⁺ sequestering molecules such as ATP and certain proteins (e.g., glutamine synthetase), which typically exhibit weaker but non-negligible Mn^{2+} affinity (~tens of μM) compared to calprotectin.⁷³ These efforts are likely to benefit from the ability to utilize molecular engineering techniques such as directed evolution, which have been remarkably successful in expanding the toolbox

of fluorescent calcium indicators¹⁰ as well as developing new MRI reporters based on metalloproteins.^{42,74–77} In summary, as the first biomolecular reporter for sensing calcium by MRI, calprotectin is a promising step in the ambitious path toward understanding how neural circuits and networks distributed throughout the mammalian brain coordinate to process information and generate behavior.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Figure 1.

Principle of calcium imaging with calprotectins. (A) Proposed mechanism of MRI contrast induced by sequestration of paramagnetic Mn^{2+} ions by calprotectin in the presence of calcium. (B) Percent change in T₁ and T₂ relaxation times obtained for a binary mixture of calprotectin (40, 100, and 200 μ M) and Mn²⁺ (30, 75, and 150 μ M) in response to saturating amounts of calcium (2 mM) in HEPES buffer 9; pH 7.4). (C) T₁ and T₂ weighted images of calcium (2 mM) induced MRI contrast obtained with a binary mixture of 200 μ M calprotectin and 150 μ M Mn²⁺. All MRI measurements were performed at 7 T. Error bars represent standard error of mean from 5 independent replicates.

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Figure 2.

In vitro MRI relaxometry of calprotectin-based Ca²⁺ sensors. In the presence of calcium (2 mM), (A) T₁ and (B) T₂ relaxation times exhibit a significantly smaller decrease with increasing Mn²⁺ concentrations due to Mn²⁺ sequestration by calprotectin. The solid lines represent best fits to equilibrium binding isotherms. (C) Dissociation constants for Mn²⁺ binding to calprotectin (CP) and His₃Asp variant (mut.) in the presence and absence of saturating calcium (2 mM), estimated from model-fitting of T₁ titration results. (D) Calcium-induced percent change in T₁ and T₂ for calprotectin and the His₃Asp mutant. (E) Calprotectin does not produce a change in T₁ and T₂ values or (F) detectable T₁ and T₂ weighted MRI contrast in response to saturating amounts of Mg²⁺ (2 mM). For all experiments, protein and calcium concentrations were 40 μ M and 2 mM, respectively. Mn²⁺ was either titrated from 0 to 30 μ M (A,B) or used at 30 μ M (D–F). Relaxation rates were measured at 7 T. Error bars represent standard error of mean from 3–5 independent replicates. * denotes p < 0.05 and n.s. indicates p > 0.05 (Student's *t* test).

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Figure 3.

MRI-based sensing of biologically relevant calcium concentrations. (A) Percent change in T_1 and T_2 relaxation times in response to calcium concentrations spanning 0.1 μ M to 1 mM. Calprotectin and Mn²⁺ concentrations were 40 μ M and 30 μ M, respectively. (B) Percent change in relaxation times obtained by adding calprotectin (40 μ M) and Mn²⁺ (30 μ M) to a hippocampal cell lysate preparation treated with biologically relevant concentrations of calcium (1, 5, and 24 μ M). (C) Change in T_1 elicited by stimulating calcium entry in Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells lentivirally transduced with calprotectin-expressing vectors and treated with 10 μ M calcimycin, a calcium ionophore. As ionophore treatment by itself alters cellular T_1 , all values are normalized to T_1 values measured concurrently in identically treated CHO cells that have not been transduced to express calprotectin. Relaxation rates were measured at 7 T. Error bars represent standard error of mean from 3–5 independent replicates. * denotes p < 0.05 and ** indicates p < 0.01 (Student's *t* test).