See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/255693912

Large scale expression and purification of mouse melanopsin-L in the baculovirus expression system

ARTICLE in PROTEIN EXPRESSION AND PURIFICATION · AUGUST 2013

Impact Factor: 1.7 · DOI: 10.1016/j.pep.2013.07.010 · Source: PubMed

CITATIONS

READS

6 AUTHORS, INCLUDING:



4

Nazhat Shirzad-Wasei

Radboud University Nijmegen

5 PUBLICATIONS 33 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE



73

Giel J C G M Bosman

Radboud University Nijmegen

109 PUBLICATIONS 3,093 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE



Willem J Degrip

Radboud University Nijmegen

262 PUBLICATIONS 7,175 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE

ELSEVIER

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Protein Expression and Purification

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/yprep



Large scale expression and purification of mouse melanopsin-L in the baculovirus expression system



Nazhat Shirzad-Wasei*, Jenny van Oostrum, Petra H. Bovee-Geurts, Maud Wasserman, Giel J. Bosman, Willem J. DeGrip

Department of Biochemistry, Radboud University Nijmegen Medical Centre, Nijmegen Centre for Molecular Life Sciences, P.O. Box 9101, NL-6500 HB Nijmegen, The Netherlands

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 10 April 2013 and in revised form 14 July 2013 Available online 3 August 2013

Keywords:
Melanopsin-L
Baculovirus expression system
Posttranslational modification
Purification
Chaperones
Spectral properties

ABSTRACT

Melanopsin is the mammalian photopigment that primarily mediates non-visual photoregulated physiology. So far, this photopigment is poorly characterized with respect to structure and function. Here, we report large-scale production and purification of the intact long isoform of mouse melanopsin (melanopsin-L) using the baculovirus/insect cell expression system. Exploiting the baculoviral GP67 signal peptide, we obtained expression levels that varied between 10–30 pmol/10⁶ cells, equivalent to 2–5 mg/L. This could be further enhanced using DMSO as a chemical chaperone. LC–MS analysis confirmed that full-length melanopsin-L was expressed and demonstrated that the majority of the expressed protein was N-glycosylated at Asn³⁰ and Asn³⁴. Other posttranslational modifications were not yet detected. Purification was achieved exploiting a C-terminal deca-histag, realizing a purification factor of several hundred-fold. The final recovery of purified melanopsin-L averaged 2.5% of the starting material. This was mainly due to low extraction yields, probably since most of the protein was present as the apoprotein. The spectral data we obtained agree with an absorbance maximum in the 460–500 nm wavelength region and a significant red-shift upon illumination. This is the first report on expression and purification of full length melanopsin-L at a scale that can easily be further amplified.

© 2013 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Introduction

Melanopsin is an integral membrane protein that belongs to the family of the GPCRs. Melanopsin was first discovered in the dermal melanophores of *Xenopus leavis* [1], and subsequently the mammalian ortholog was found to be expressed in a small subset of retinal ganglion cells (RGCs)¹ that project to the central pacemaker, the suprachiasmatic nucleus in the anterior hypothalamus [2], and to deeper parts of the brain [3–5]. This photopigment is responsible for non-visual photic responses such as photo-entrainment of the circadian system, the sustained response of the pupillary light reflex

[6-8], and sleep - awake processes [9]. Most studies report a peak sensitivity of its action spectrum around 480 nm [10]. The melanopsin-expressing RGCs were shown to be intrinsically photosensitive (ipRGCs) with a spectral dependence that corresponds well with that observed for non-visual responses in several mammalian species [11–13]. A series of elegant studies with transgenic mice led to the current view that all three photoreceptor systems (rod, cone and ipRGCs) contribute to non-visual photophysiology [6-8,14,15], and that melanopsin is in particular required for the response at higher light intensities and for sustained activity [11]. Interestingly, melanopsin has greater sequence similarity to invertebrate opsins [1,16] and, in contrast to the vertebrate visual opsins, shows large interspecies differences in size and sequence of the N- and C-terminal tails [16]. Recently, it has been shown that a long and a short isoform of melanopsin, mainly differing in the length of their C-terminals, are differentially expressed in the mammalian retina [17].

Our current understanding of the molecular properties of melanopsin (3D structure, photochemistry, signaling) is still very limited, mainly because of its low natural abundance. Due to the paucity of melanopsin-expressing cells in the mammalian retina purification from natural sources is very laborious [18–20] and does not provide sufficient material for molecular studies. The alternative, therefore, would be expression in a heterologous system.

^{*} Corresponding author.

E-mail address: nazhatshirzad@gmail.com (N. Shirzad-Wasei).

¹ Abbreviations used: ASB-C8φ, 4-n-octylbenzoylamido-propyl-dimethylammonio-sulfobetaine; ASB-14, 3-[N,N-dimethyl(3-myristoylaminopropyl)ammonio]propane-sulfonate; ASB-14-4, tetradecanoylamidopropyl-dimethylammonio-butanesulfonate; CHAPS, 3-[(3-cholamidopropyl) dimethylammonio]-1-propane sulfonate; CTAC, hexadecyltrimethylammonium chloride; Cymal7, n-cyclohexyl-heptyl-β-D-maltoside; C12E8, octaethylene glycol monododecyl ether; DDM, n-dodecyl-β-D-maltoside; DHPC, 1,2-dihexanoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine; DM, n-decyl-β-D-maltoside; DMSO, dimethylsulfoxide; DPC, n-dodecylphosphocholine; Dpi, days post-infection; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; GPCR, G protein-coupled receptor; Gτα, transducin α subunit; Gtβγ, transducin β and γ subunit; ipRGC, intrinsically photosensitive retinal ganglion cells; MOI, multiplicity of infection; PNGase F,peptide-N-glycosidase F; RGC, retinal ganglion cells; TDM, n-tridecyl-β-D-maltoside.

Heterologous expression of membrane proteins has been accomplished in many systems such as *Escherichia coli* [21], yeast [22], insect cell lines [23], cell-free conditions [24] and mammalian cell lines as well as "*in vivo*" in *Caenorhabditis elegans* [20] and in mouse photoreceptor cells [25,26], but with varying degree of success because of the different conditions in the host cell environment. For a recent review see Midgett and Madden [27].

Successful heterologous expression of mammalian melanopsin was reported in several mammalian cell lines such as HEK293 [13], Neuro 2A [12] and D407 [28] and in Xenopus oocytes [29], but because of the very low expression levels only limited information on ligand type (retinal), action spectrum (around 480 nm) and signaling (Gq protein; Ca²⁺ transients) has become available. Terakita and coworkers [30] succeeded in expressing and purifying melanopsin of the cephalochordate Amphioxus Branchiostoma belcheri from HEK293 cells, but only after truncation of the C-terminal. They reported a λ_{max} of 485 nm and a, typical for invertebrate rhodopsins, stable photoproduct (metamelanopsin; λ_{max} about 520 nm) that could be photoregenerated into the melanopsin parent state. Recently, Matsuyama et al. [31] described expression of mouse melanopsin in HEK293 cells, but functional purification was again only achieved after nearly completely truncating the C-terminal tail. Remarkably, they report a peak sensitivity at 467 nm for this recombinant melanopsin and about 476 nm for the meta photoproduct. These data clearly deviate from earlier estimates based upon action spectra of about 480 and 587 nm, respectively [10,32].

Successful amplified production of vertebrate visual opsins has been achieved with the baculovirus/insect cell expression system yielding functional expression levels of up to 5 mg/L cell culture [33–37]. Therefore, we investigated the potential of this system for production and purification of the intact long isoform of mouse melanopsin (melanopsin-L). The long isoform was selected, since the long C-terminal probably is involved in signaling processes.

Here we report large-scale production and purification of mouse melanopsin-L using recombinant baculovirus-driven expression in the Sf9 insect cell line. A major effort was invested in a search for conditions that would improve functional expression and stability during purification.

Materials and methods

Materials

Buffer A: 20 mM Bis/Tris propane, 1 mM dithioerythritol (DTE), 1 mM benzamidine, 5 mM MgCl₂, 5 μM leupeptin (pH 7.6); Buffer B: 20 mM Bis/Tris propane, 1 M NaCl, 1 mM histidine, 5 μM leupeptin, (pH 7.2); Buffer C: 20 mM Pipes [piperazine-N,N'-bis(2ethanesulfonic acid)], 0.1 mM EDTA, 130 mM NaCl, 10 mM KCl, 3 mM MgCl₂, 2 mM CaCl₂ (pH 6.5); Buffer D: 20 mM Pipes, 30 mM EDTA (pH 7.0); Buffer E: buffer B, with DPC, DDM, DHPC or ASB-14-4 either single or in combination at 20 mM pro detergent, 20 mM imidazole (pH 7.2); Buffer F: same as buffer E, but with 50 mMimidazole (pH 7.2); Buffer G: same as buffer E, but with 200 mM imidazole (pH 7.2); Buffer H: same as buffer E, but with 400 mM imidazole (pH 6.5). Penicillin and streptomycin were from Gibco-BRL, Breda, The Netherlands, Leupeptin was obtained from MP Biomedicals, CA, USA, Grace's insect medium and Insect-Xpress medium were obtained from Lonza, USA. Mouse anti tetra-His tag monoclonal antibody was obtained from Qiagen, Hilden, Germany. The polyclonal antibodies CERN9412 and CERN911 were raised against Gtαβγ in albino New Zealand rabbits as described before [38,39] and were selective for the α and β subunit, respectively, of trimeric G-proteins (Bovee-Geurts and DeGrip, unpublished). The goat anti-rabbit (IR Dye®700 CW) and goat anti-mouse (IR Dye®800 CW) secondary antibodies were obtained from Li-Cor biosciences, U.S.A. Monoclonal anti-FLAG® M2 antibody was from Sigma-Aldrich Chemie B.V., The Netherlands and rabbit polyclonal anti-calnexine (C-20)-R sc-6465 was obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology, CA, USA. Rabbit polyclonal anti-ninaA was a kind gift from Dr. Jacques Janssen (Ophthalmology, Radboud University Nijmegen Medical Centre, The Netherlands). All-trans retinal was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Chemie B.V., and 11-cis retinal was a generous gift from Dr. Rosalie Crouch (Medical University of South Carolina, Charleston, USA) through financial support from NEI. DDM and digitonin were obtained from Serva Electrophoresis GmbH, Heidelberg, Germany. ASB-14, ASB-14-4 and ASB-C8p were obtained from Calbiochem, an affiliate of Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany. DHPC was obtained from Avanti polar lipids Inc. Alabama, USA. DPC, CTAC, C12E8, Cholate, Cymal7, CHAPS and TDM were obtained from Anatrace Inc. Ohio. USA, DM was prepared and purified as described before [40]. The plasmids with FLAG-tagged β-arrestin-1 and β-arrestin-2 were kindly donated by Dr. Robert Lefkowitz (Duke University Medical Center, Durham, N.C., USA) [41]. The corresponding recombinant baculoviruses were generated as described below for the recombinant mel-baculovirus. The baculoviruses expressing ninaA and calnexin were a kind gift from Dr. Chris Tate (MRC Laboratory of Molecular Biology, Cambridge, UK) [42]. The baculoviruses expressing $Gq\alpha$, $G\beta1$ and his-tagged Gy2 were kindly provided by Dr. Ted McMurchie (CSIRO, Adelaide Laboratories, Australia) [43].

Methods

Construction of recombinant baculovirus for expression of melanopsin-L

The baculovirus transfer vector pAcGP67 (BD Biosciences Clontech, Palo Alto, CA, USA) was modified by introduction of a synthetic sequence encoding a 10x histidine tag preceded by a BamHI and Spel site in frame and followed by a stop codon and an EcoR1 site. Mouse melanopsin-L cDNA (Genbank accession no.: AAF24979.1) was then excised from the pCDNA3 construct [28] and ligated into pAcGP67-10xhis using the BamHI and Spel sites. The resulting pAcGP67-Mel-10x his vector was then used to generate recombinant baculovirus in the *Spodoptera frugiperda* derived Sf9 cell line (ATCC: CRL-1711) employing the Baculogold homologous recombination system (BD Biosciences Clontech, Palo Alto, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. This results in recombinant mel-baculovirus with the melanopsin-L cDNA under control of the strong late-phase polyhedrin promoter. The correct insertion and

sequence of the His-tagged melanopsin-L in the mel-baculovirus genome was verified by cycle sequencing of baculovirus DNA isolated from Sf9 cell nuclei as described before [44].

Sf9 cell culture and melanopsin-L expression

The *S. frugiperda* (*Sf*9) cell line was used for generation and amplification of the mel-baculovirus and for the amplified production of melanopsin-L protein. Although of the insect cell lines tested *Sf*9, *Sf*-21 and High-Five yield similar expression levels of recombinant protein in culture flasks (monolayers), this is volumetric quite restricted and does not produce sufficient recombinant protein for purification and characterization. In suspension culture (shaker flasks), *Sf*-21 performed less well than *Sf*9, and High-Five grew and produced poorly, hence *Sf*9 was selected for all here described experiments. The cells were grown as monolayers at 27 °C in Grace's insect medium for generation and amplification of the baculovirus. High titer stocks (>10⁷ pfu) were produced by three rounds of virus amplification, and the optimal multiplicity of infection (MOI) for recombinant protein expression was determined

empirically by infection of Sf9 cells with different MOIs of high-titer virus stock. The protease inhibitor leupeptin was routinely added to the cell culture (5 µM final concentration) to suppress proteolysis of melanopsin. For production of melanopsin-L, serum-free and protein-free Insect-Xpress medium was utilized. For large-scale production (400-1000 mL culture volume), Sf9 cells were inoculated at 0.5×10^6 cells/mL and grown in suspension culture in Erlenmeyer flasks (Corning, USA) using Insect-Xpress medium, with addition of penicillin and streptomycin to 5 i.u./mL and 5 μg/mL respectively, under constant rotation of 100 rpm at 27 °C. Under these conditions, the cell doubling time was typically 20–24 h. Total cell counts were performed with a haemocytometer (VWR International Ltd.) hence with an accuracy of ±10%. When the cell density had reached approximately 2×10^6 Sf9 cells/mL, the culture was infected with mel-baculovirus at a MOI = 0.1. The cells were routinely harvested at 4 dpi.

Cell culture with biological and chemical chaperones

Production tests of melanopsin-L with biological or chemical chaperones and combinations were performed in the same Insect-Xpress medium. DMSO and glycerol were added at 1-2% v/v directly to the culture medium through a $0.2~\mu m$ filter (Whatman GmbH, Dassel, Germany). 11-cis and all-trans retinal were added under dim room light as a solution in DMF through a $0.2~\mu m$ filter to a final concentration of $6~\mu M$. The recombinant baculoviruses for FLAG-tagged β -arrestin-1 or -2 were either added separately or in combination to the culture medium at various MOIs (0.01, 0.05, 0.1, 0.5) together with the mel-baculovirus (MOI = 0.1). Expression of β -arrestins was confirmed in immunoblots using anti-FLAG primary antibody.

The same approach was taken for the Gq α , Gß1 and G γ 2 subunits, where the baculoviruses for the three subunits were added together at four different MOIs (0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 1). Only G γ 2 is histagged and the expression of this subunit was confirmed via immunoblot with the anti-his antibody. The expression of Gq α and Gß1 was confirmed via immunoblotting with polyclonal antibodies raised against Gt α B γ (CERN9412 and CERN911, respectively). The recombinant baculoviruses for ninaA and calnexin were added to the culture medium together with the mel-baculovirus, all at a MOI = 0.1. Calnexin expression was confirmed by immunoblot using the polyclonal rabbit anti-calnexin antibody (1:500) and ninaA expression was confirmed using the rabbit anti-ninaA antibody (1:100).

Incubation of melanopsin-L with ligand

At 4 dpi the infected Sf9 cells were collected by centrifugation (10 min, 3000g, 4 °C). The cell pellet was re-suspended at a density of 50×10^6 cells/ml in buffer A. The cells were subsequently homogenized with 3 strokes (5 s per stroke) of a polytron homogenizer (IKA®T10 basic, Ultra-Turrax, Staufen, Germany) at 4 °C. The cell homogenate was centrifuged (20 min, 35,000g, 4 °C) and the resulting membrane pellet was re-suspended in buffer B at a density equivalent to 10⁸ cells/ml. All subsequent manipulations were performed in the dark or under dim red light ($\lambda > 620$ nm, RG620 cut-off filter, Schott, Menden, Germany). The ligand 11-cis retinal was added as a freshly prepared concentrated solution in dimethylformamide to a final concentration of 30 μM and the suspension was incubated for 1–2 h under an argon atmosphere with constant rotation at ambient temperature. The membrane suspension was then directly used for solubilization tests or purification of melanopsin-L, as described below.

Screening of detergents for solubilization of recombinant melanopsin-L

Detergents were selected either from the Solution Master Detergent Kit (Anatrace) which were pre-dissolved at a concentration of 10%, or added as stock solution in buffer B to the membrane suspension in a final concentration of 20 mM per detergent. Detergents and, if required, buffer B were added to the membrane suspension containing the ligand-treated melanopsin-L such that the final membrane density was equivalent to $10\text{--}20\times10^6$ cells/mL. The samples were incubated for 1 h at 4 °C with constant rotation and supernatants were collected after centrifugation (20 min, 40,000g, 4 °C). For SDS–PAGE analysis, 2.5 μ l of the supernatant, corresponding to approximately 20,000 cells originally, were mixed with 2.5 μ l of SDS–PAGE solubilisation buffer (Laemmli sample buffer, Bio– Rad, CA, USA), incubated for 15 min at ambient temperature, and applied to the gel-slot. After electrophoresis, proteins were visualized by silver staining (see below), or transferred onto nitrocellulose membrane for immunoblot analysis (see below).

Solubilization and purification of recombinant melanopsin-L

After treatment with ligand, the melanopsin-L containing membrane suspension was diluted with buffer B to a density equivalent to $10-20 \times 10^6$ cells/mL. Stock solutions of detergents in buffer B and β mercaptoethanol were added to a final concentration of 20 mM per detergent and 5 mM, respectively. After incubation for at least 1 h at 4 °C with constant rotation under an argon atmosphere, the unsolubilized material was removed by centrifugation (20 min, 80,000g, 4 °C). The supernatant was applied to superflow Ni²⁺-nitrilotriacetic acid (NTA) beads (Ni²⁺-NTA, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) for batch-wise purification. The beads were pre-equilibrated with buffer B. The extract from originally 6×10^8 cells was applied to 0.5 mL of settled beads. After overnight incubation under rotation at 4 °C, the beads were allowed to settle and the supernatant was carefully removed. The loaded beads were then washed sequentially with 5 bead volumes (BV) of buffer B and 0.5 BV of buffer E. Elution of melanopsin was then initiated with twice 0.5 BV of buffer F, followed by twice 0.5 BV of buffer G, and completed with twice 0.5 BV of buffer H. The fractions containing melanopsin-L, as shown by immunoblot, were stored at -80 °C. They were assayed for purity by SDS-PAGE followed by silver staining and quantified by immunoblot.

UV/visible spectroscopy

Spectra were recorded at ambient temperature from 250 to 700 nm on a Lambda-15 spectrophotometer (Perkin-Elmer, Norwalk, CT, U.S.A.) equipped with an end-on photomultiplier tube. Photoproducts were generated by illumination for 15 min through a 430 nm cut-off filter (Schott). If "dark state" spectra without interference of photoproducts were required, hydroxylamine was added to a final concentration of 50 mM before illumination.

Immunoblot analysis

Proteins were separated on a 12.5% SDS-PAGE [45] and transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane (0.2 µm iBlot[™] Blotting System, Invitrogen). The nitrocellulose membranes were washed with 50 ml of buffer D and then blocked by incubation for 1 h at RT with gentle shaking in 10 ml of Odyssey blocking buffer (Li-Cor Biosciences, USA) diluted 1:1 with PBS. For the primary antibody step, the membranes were incubated for 1 h at RT under gentle shaking with 10 ml blocking buffer containing 0.05% tween-20 and mouse anti-his-tag monoclonal antibody diluted 1:10,000, followed by 3 washes for 10 min with 50 ml PBS containing 0.05% tween-20 (washing buffer). In the secondary antibody step, the primary-antibody loaded membranes were soaked for 1 h under gentle shaking in 10 ml blocking buffer containing 0.05% tween-20 and goat anti-mouse (IR Dye® 800 CW) antibody diluted 1:10,000, followed by 3 washes for 10 min with 50 ml washing buffer. After drying, the blots were scanned with the Odyssey imaging system (Infrared imaging system, application software

version 3.0, Li-Cor biosciences, USA). The signal intensities were quantified using the Odyssey imaging system software.

Silver staining

Proteins were separated on a 12.5% SDS-PAGE [45] and the gel was subsequently treated with fixative (40% ethanol, 10% acetic acid and 50% deionized water) under constant shaking for 1 h at RT or overnight at 4 °C. Thereupon the gel was incubated under shaking for 20 min at RT, first three times in 30% ethanol in deionized water and finally once in distilled water. The gel was then treated for 1 min at RT with sensitizing solution (0.02% Na₂₋ S₂O₃), washed three times for 20 s at RT with deionized water, and finally stained for 20 min at RT in silver nitrate reagent solution (0.2% AgNO₃ + 0.02% formaldehyde 37% in deionized water) under protection from light. After staining, the gel was washed again withdeionized water (three times 30 s at RT) and subsequently incubated in developer solution (3% Na₂CO₃, 0.05% formaldehyde (37%), 0.0005% Na₂S₂O₃ in deionized water) until the desired intensity was reached. Stop solution (0.5% glycine) was then added to stabilize the image, and the image was digitized with an imaging densitometer (Bio-Rad, Molecular Analyst™ version 1.5, CA, USA).

Preparation for LC-MS

Purified melanopsin-L prepared as described above, was subjected to enzymatic N-linked deglycosylation with PNGase F (Roche diagnostics GmbH, Germany). In brief, 4.5 pmol of purified melanopsin-L was incubated for 1.5 h at 37 °C with 2 μl of PNGase F in 0.1 ml containing 0.5% (w/v) SDS, 2 μM leupeptin. A control sample of purified melanopsin-L was treated in the same way without addition of the enzyme. Samples were prepared for SDS-PAGE as described above and 0.43 pmol (±22 ng) of melanopsin was applied to a 12.5% SDS-polyacrylamide gel. Following electrophoresis the gel was washed with milliQ (three times, 2 min) and incubated with 50 ml of Coomassie blue stain (Bio-Safe Coomassie G250 Stain, Bio-Rad, USA) for 1 h at room temperature under constant shaking. The gel was washed subsequently until the optimal signal/background ratio was reached. Samples were prepared for LC-MS analysis by cutting bands out of the gel. From an untreated sample, the upper and the middle band were kept together and the lower band was cut out separately (see results). From the enzymetreated sample the two bands were cut out separately. The samples were analyzed at the Proteomics Facility Nijmegen by LC-MS.

Results

Construct for expression of recombinant histidine-tagged melanopsin-I.

Our aim to produce melanopsin in insect cells required the construction of a baculovirus vector containing the melanopsin-L cDNA under control of a strong baculoviral promoter [46]. For this purpose, we chose the baculovirus transfer vector pAcGP67, which leads to protein expression driven by the strong late-stage polyhedrin promoter, and results in fusion with the signal peptide of the baculoviral protein GP67. GP67 is a glycoprotein of the viral envelope that is required for the uptake of the virus by the host cell via adsorptive endocytosis. Once the cell is infected, a large amount of the GP67 protein is produced and anchored to the virus peplomers, which renders it the most effective baculovirus-encoded signal sequence. This signal peptide is cleaved off in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) during or after protein translation. Placing the GP67 signal peptide in front of the rhodopsin c-DNA indeed leads to a significant increase in expression level, while the signal sequence

was properly removed (Bovee-Geurts and DeGrip, unpublished data).

For easy purification, a tag consisting of ten histidine residues was introduced at the C-terminus of melanopsin-L. There is ample evidence that the extension of the C-terminus of GPCRs with a histag does not interfere with their functional properties [35,47,48], and expression of C-terminally his- or eYFP tagged melanopsin in mammalian cells indeed generated the typical downstream signaling effects of melanopsin upon illumination (transient increase in intracellular Ca²⁺ level) [28].

Expression and production of decahis-tagged Melanopsin-L in the Sf9 insect cell line

Recombinant baculovirus encoding mouse melanopsin-L was used to infect Sf9 cells as described under Methods. In order to monitor the expression of melanopsin, membranes isolated from Sf9 cells expressing the recombinant his-tagged melanopsin, were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and probed with anti-his antibody (Fig. 1). Calibrated amounts of purified recombinant bovine his-tagged rhodopsin [49] were applied as an internal standard. The immunostaining clearly demonstrates that the melanopsin protein is expressed and migrates with the expected molecular weight of approximately 57 kDa. The presence of the C-terminal his-tag is confirmed by the positive reaction with the antibody, which is a strong indication that full-length melanopsin is produced. Consistently, three separate bands running closely together are observed, most likely due to different (extents of) posttranslational modification (see below). Proteomic analysis unambiguously identified all three bands as representing the full-size melanopsin-L protein (see below).

Production of melanopsin was maximal at 3–4 days post infection and this level subsequently decreased slightly. This time course is typical for genes under control of the polyhedrin promoter. The expression level ranged between 10 and 30 pmol/10⁶ cells, equivalent to 2–5 mg/L, which is in the same range as the visual pigments produced in this system without the GP67 signal peptide [44,50].

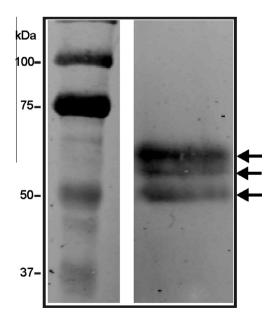


Fig. 1. Immunoblot detection of mouse melanopsin-L expression in Sf9 cells. Blot was screened with anti-histag antibody. Left lane presents calibration proteins (Mw in kD). Right lane represents the membrane fraction of Sf9 cells expressing melanopsin-L. Typically three bands are detected around 55 kD with the upper two often merging.

Effect of chaperones on melanopsin-L production

In case of vertebrate visual pigments, addition of the ligand 11-cis retinal to the Sf9 membrane fraction, followed by solubilization in a mild detergent and spectral analysis, already results in a discernable absorbance peak that can be quantified by difference spectroscopy [46]. This was not the case for melanopsin; we found no obvious difference in spectral properties of membranes from melanopsin-producing Sf9 cells or control cells upon solubilization in the mild detergents DDM or CHAPS. Also, we observed no effect of illumination (data not shown). This could be due to a low level of functionally folded protein or to a low stability of melanopsin in detergent solution, as suggested in earlier studies [31,51]. Unfortunately, we could not use the downstream assay, we applied in mammalian cells [28], since as reported before [52], this did not work properly in insect cells.

Therefore, our first objective was to investigate the effect of a variety of chemical and biological chaperones on the expression level of melanopsin-L. It has been demonstrated that the presence of such chaperones can enhance the total and functional expression level of GPCR's, although their activity is usually very selective [53,54]. Therefore, all subsequent expression trials were performed in the presence of one or more chaperones, either added to the culture upon infection of the insect cells or co-expressed from their individual baculovirus.

Fig. 2 presents an overview of the results of these studies. The expression levels in the presence of chaperones (pmole/ 10^6 cells) were normalized against those obtained under the standard condition included in each experiment (Sf9 cells infected with the melanopsin virus at a MOI = 0.1). The chemical chaperones used in this study were dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) and glycerol, added at 1–2% v/v to the culture medium, and the ligands 11-cis and all-trans retinal, added to a concentration of 6 μ M. Evidence has been presented that addition of DMSO to cell cultures can increase the yield of recombinant GPCRs [55], while glycerol is an established stabilizer of tertiary protein structures [56,57]. Ligands in general may promote correct protein folding [58] and in this specific case an increase in functional level was observed upon addition of 11-cis or all-trans retinal to mammalian cell lines or oocytes expressing melanopsin [12,13,28,29].

The only chemical chaperone that, as a single compound, significantly enhanced (up to 3-fold) the expression level of melanopsin-L in Sf9 cells was DMSO (Fig. 2). In combinations this effect was always reduced. It is noteworthy that while glycerol and the retinals individually did not have a significant effect, combinations clearly promoted expression of melanopsin-L (Fig. 2).

In addition a number of proteins for which scattered evidence is available that they can support heterologous expression of GPCR's, were tested both individually and in combination with other chaperones. For instance, co-expression with the signaling partner β-arrestin-2 stabilized recombinant chicken melanopsin [59] and enhanced the light-evoked response of *Xenopus* oocytes expressing mouse melanopsin [29]. *Drosophila* nina A is a photoreceptor-specific cyclophilin required for the biogenesis of the visual pigment, rhodopsin. It is an integral membrane glycoprotein and forms a stable complex with Drosophila rhodopsin, acting as a chaperone-like molecule escorting rhodopsin through the secretory pathway [60,61]. In addition, it is reported to support functional expression of cone visual pigments in COS cells [62]. Finally, calnexin is an universal biological chaperone in the E.R. assisting protein folding and quality control, such that only properly folded and assembled proteins proceed further along the secretory pathway [63,64].

Co-expression with the β -arrestins had no stimulatory effect (Fig. 2). In fact, at a higher infection level (MOI = 0.5) it strongly suppressed melanopsin-L expression. Co-expression with Gq also had an inhibitory effect at a higher MOI, but a slightly stimulatory effect at the low MOI of 0.1. The combination of ninaA and 11-cis

retinal enhanced melanopsin-L expression, as well. The largest effect in this category came from the combination of DMSO, 11-cis retinal and β -arrestin-2, but this combination still was not as effective as DMSO by itself.

 $Screening\ of\ detergents\ for\ solubilization\ of\ recombinant\ melanops in-L$

Solubilization from the host cell membrane using detergents is essential for purification and subsequent characterization of membrane proteins. In earlier studies, melanopsin was reported to only survive solubilization when using very mild detergents such as DDM or CHAPS [31,51]. However, these detergents performed very poorly in extracting melanopsin-L from insect cell membranes $(8 \pm 8\% \text{ and } 10 \pm 10\%, \text{ respectively})$ (Fig. 3). Therefore we investigated the efficacy of fourteen individual detergents and several combinations in the extraction of recombinant his-tagged melanopsin-L. The selection spanned the different classes (anionic, cationic, zwitter-ionic, non-ionic) and was based on their efficacy in extracting a variety of membrane proteins [35,47,65,66]. The detergent concentrations used for extraction were 20 mM for individual detergents, adding up to 40 mM for a combination of two detergents. Crude membrane fractions from melanopsin-L expressing Sf9 cells were incubated for at least 1 h at 4 °C with the selected detergent (combination).

Unsolubilized material was precipitated by centrifugation and the amount of melanopsin in the supernatant was quantified from the intensity of the corresponding bands in Western blots of the extraction mixture before and after centrifugation. To ensure maximal possible extraction at the moderate detergent concentration of 20 mM, the density of the membrane suspension was kept relatively low (equivalent to $10-20 \times 10^6$ cells/ml). Of the individual detergents, only DPC displayed a good solubilization capacity $(50 \pm 20\%, n = 12; Fig. 3)$. Although phosphocholines have been reported to be effective in solubilizing several types of GPCR's [65,67], including vertebrate visual pigments, solubilization and purification using DPC did not yield a light-sensitive absorbance band in the 450-550 nm region in the purified fraction. This need not be surprising, since invertebrate visual pigments are notoriously unstable in most detergent solutions, except very mild ones like digitonin and DDM [51,68]. Unfortunately, as mentioned before, mild detergents such as DDM and CHAPS were very ineffective in solubilizing melanopsin-L. Therefore, we tested several detergent combinations. The combination of DDM with the more aggressive detergents DPC or DHPC gave reasonable extraction yields in the range 20-30% (Fig. 3). A new mild detergent, ASB-14-4, shown to be efficient in solubilization of complex membrane proteins [66], performed second best as a single detergent with an extraction efficiency of more than 20%.

Hence, we selected DPC, ASB-14-4 and the combination of DDM with DPC or DHPC to test solubilization and purification of melanopsin-L from insect cell membranes.

Purification of recombinant melanopsin-L

Several conditions yielding a good production of melanopsin-L in small-scale culture were amplified to a larger scale, usually in units of 400–500 ml culture volume. In all cases crude membrane fractions isolated from Sf9 cells, harvested 4 days post-infection, were incubated with 11-cis retinal at a final concentration of 30 μ M. To gain on time-consuming centrifugation and column loading, we attempted to use a 5–10-fold more concentrated membrane suspension (equivalent to 10^8 cells/ml) for extraction of melanopsin. This resulted however in very low yields of solubilized protein, even at higher detergent concentrations, and we further routinely used less concentrated suspensions, similar to the detergent screens. For purification by immobilized metal-affinity chromatography (IMAC), melanopsin was extracted using the detergent selection described in the previous section, and loaded

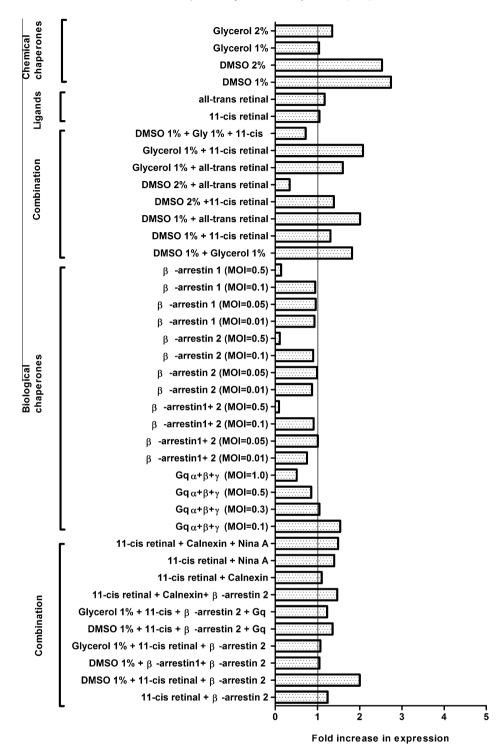


Fig. 2. Normalized expression level of mouse melanopsin-L in S/9 cells in the presence of chemical or biological chaperones and various combinations. Cells were grown in Insect-Xpress medium. Chemical chaperones were added upon infection, biological chaperones were co-expressed with melanopsin. The expression level (pmole/ 10^6 cells) was quantified on immunoblots using his-tagged rhodopsin for calibration and normalized against standard conditions. Standard conditions contain melanopsin virus at a MOI = 0.1 without chaperones and are represented by the vertical line at x = 1. The number of experiments per condition varies between 1 and 4 with an average range in the levels $\pm 30\%$.

onto superflow Ni²⁺-NTA agarose columns. Imidazole was used to elute bound melanopsin, since this proved to be more effective in eluting deca-histagged membrane proteins [48]. Typical results are presented in Fig. 4 and quantitative data are summarized in Table 1. The melanopsin-L bands on the blots were quantified using a calibration curve of purified his-tagged rhodopsin, run on the same gel. As is evident from Table 1, on the average, approximately 50%

of the extracted melanopsin becomes bound to the affinity column (Table 1 and Fig. 4). Additional washing steps with only detergent elute a complex protein population (Fig. 4B, lane 4), probably representing non-specifically or very weakly bound proteins. Most of the low affinity contamination could be removed by washing with 20 mM imidazole (Fig. 4B; lane 5), The major part of the bound melanopsin was eluted upon raising the imidazole concentration

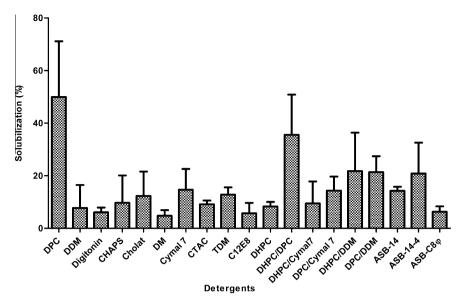


Fig. 3. Solubilization potential of detergents versus recombinant mouse melanopsin-L produced in insect cells. The extraction capacity is given as the percentage of melanopsin-L in the cellular membrane fraction that is detected in the supernatant after centrifugation of the extraction mixture. The amounts are quantified on Western blot as detailed in the Methods section. Bars represent the average with S.D. of 3–12 experiments.

from 20 to 200 mM (Fig. 4A, lanes 5 and 6). A small amount of melanopsin remained bound to the column and could be eluted by raising the imidazole concentration to 400 mM (Fig. 4A, lane 7). Based upon silver staining, melanopsin-L accounted for at least 70% of the protein in the purified fractions, indicating a purification factor of several hundred-fold. Upon purification the same triad band pattern was maintained that was observed in the membrane fraction (Fig. 1): a major band, positioned at 57 ± 5 kD, representing two closely migrating species, and a minor band at 50 ± 5 kD (Fig. 4B, lanes 6 and 7; Fig. 5, lane 3). Table 1 shows the destination of melanopsin-L through the purification steps. On average, the final recovery in the purified fractions accounted for 2.5% of the amount of melanopsin-L in the starting material. The yield of purified melanopsin-L protein averaged about 0.13 mg/L culture volume (Table 1).

When the membrane fraction was stored at $-80\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ prior to purification, degradation of melanopsin-L was observed, resulting in a further loss of recovery. Therefore, purification was always performed with freshly prepared membranes from freshly harvested melanopsin-L producing insect cells.

Posttranslational modification of recombinant melanopsin-L

To verify that the three protein bands around 55 kD obtained after purification indeed represent full-length mouse melanopsin-L, an LC-MS analysis was performed on the combined upper bands that were difficult to isolate separately, and the lower band. Several dominantly present peptides were obtained in both samples that all derived from the melanopsin-L sequence (Fig. 6). Since this includes a near N-terminal peptide (Val⁹-Arg³⁸), and since all three bands are detected by the anti-histag antibody, i.e. contain the C-terminal his-tag, we conclude that all three bands contain the full-length melanopsin-L protein. Therefore, the different migration of the three bands is probably due to secondary factors. such as posttranslational modification. We first investigated potential N-glycosylation, since mouse melanopsin-L contains two sequences (Asn³⁰-Gly-Thr and Asn³⁴-Ser-Val) within its extracellular amino terminal domain, and one (Asn⁸⁷-Leu-Thr) in its putative first membrane helix that obey the consensus sequence for N-linked glycosylation. It was demonstrated before that rat melanopsin could be glycosylated at the equivalent N-terminal

positions Asn-31 and Asn-35 [69]. To determine whether mouse melanopsin-L is glycosylated, purified melanopsin was incubated with N-glycosidase F, which specifically cleaves N-glycan chains from glycoproteins. Upon incubation with N-glycosidase F, the upper band of the melanopsin triad disappears and the middle band increases in intensity. The lowest band was unaffected with respect to relative position and intensity (Fig. 5). We conclude that the upper band is N-glycosylated and upon deglycosylation comigrates with the middle band. The middle and lower band are not N-glycosylated.

The main band obtained after deglycosylation was also examined by LC-MS, since upon N-glycosidase F treatment the glycosylated Asn residue is deamidated, which can be detected by MS. This LC-MS analysis indicated that Asn30 and Asn34 in peptide Val⁹-Arg³⁸ both had become subject to deamidation. The very long amphipatic peptide containing Asn⁸⁷ (Ala³⁹-Arg⁹⁶) was not detected, but Asn⁸⁷ most likely resides in a transmembrane helix [1] and will not be glycosylated. At present, it is not clear why the middle and lower band migrate with a different apparent molecular weight. It has been reported that melanopsin can be phosphorylated at several sites [70,71], but so far we have found no evidence from our LC-MS analyses that this also occurs in the insect cell line. Also, these analyses did not find evidence for thiopalmitoylation (data not shown), which was confirmed by prolonged incubation with 1 M hydroxylamine, that would release palmitoyl chains [72], but did not change the triad pattern.

Spectral analysis of purified melanopsin-L

While following IMAC purification of vertebrate visual pigments, the obvious absorbance bands were reproducibly obtained [36,49], the purified melanopsin-L fractions did not present a consistent pattern. As expected from the SDS-PAGE analyses, a clear protein band at 280 nm was always observed, but often an absorbance band in the 450-550 nm region, was not discernable. Difference spectroscopy (subtracting the spectrum taken after illumination from the one before) was not of much help, since changes in scattering perturbed the baseline such that any other small differences were usually completely overruled. In case an absorbance band in the region mentioned was detected, it was always of low intensity, which rendered it difficult to estimate the absorbance maximum, but this was

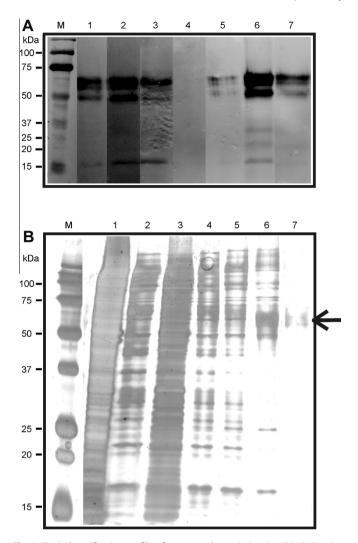


Fig. 4. Typical purification profile of mouse melanopsin-L using IMAC. Fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE, followed by immunoblotting (A) or silver-staining (B). The immunoblot was screened with anti-histag antibody. Lane 1 represents the Sf9-cell membrane fraction. Lane 2 represents the solubilized extract loaded onto the Ni^{2^+} -NTA-agarose column. The nonbound fraction is shown in lane 3. Lane 4 and 5 represent the fractions obtained upon washing with only detergent and detergent with 20 mM imidazole, respectively. The strongly bound fractions, eluted from the column using 200 mM and 400 mM imidazole, respectively, are shown in lane 6 and 7. Arrow shows position of melanopsin-L in panel B.

Table 1Yield of mouse melanopsin-L from each step upon IMAC purification as percentage of the starting amount of melanopsin-L. Quantification was done on immunoblots using the Odyssey fluorodetection and analysis software. Values given are mean ± S.D. of five experiments. The whole cell lysate is taken as 100%.

Step	Melanopsin-L %	% Of total membrane protein
Whole cell lysate	≡100	<0.5
Detergent extract	14.3 ± 6.7	<0.5
Non-bound fraction	7.3 ± 5.1	
Wash fraction	1.4 ± 2.6	
Purified fraction	2.5 ± 1.9	≽ 70

confined to the 460–500 nm range. An example is presented in Fig. 7. Difference spectra were of very poor quality, as explained above. The best one is shown in the insert of Fig. 7 and suggests that upon illumination the absorbance band red-shifts, peaking between 540 and 570 nm. While a variety of culture conditions, including the use of promising chaperones, were used for production and various

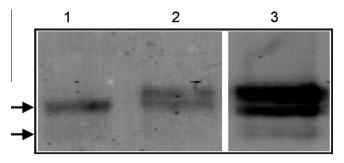


Fig. 5. Effect of N-glycosidase F treatment on the band pattern of purified melanopsin-L. Lane 1 shows the pattern after incubation with PNGase F and lane 2 is the control, incubated without the enzyme. Lane 3 represents the original triad pattern. Upon enzyme treatment the upper band disappears and comigrates with the middle band. Arrows point at the position of the middle and lower band in the melanopsin-L triad.

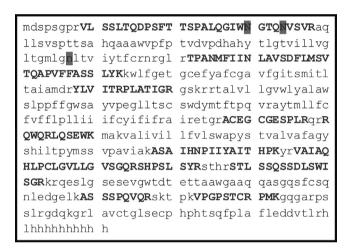


Fig. 6. Amino acid sequence of deca-histagged mouse melanopsin-L (*Mus musculus*). The peptides identified in our LC–MS analyses are shown in bold and upper case. Potential N-glycosylation sites are shown in italics and are highlighted in gray.

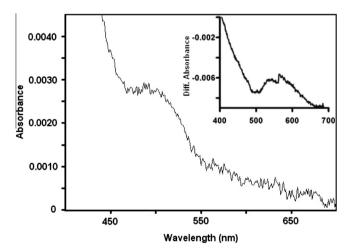


Fig. 7. UV-visible spectrum of a purified melanopsin-L fraction, showing an absorbance band with a maximum in the 480–500 nm range. The difference spectrum in the insert was obtained by subtracting the spectrum recorded after 10 min of illumination with blue light (432 nm) from the "dark" spectrum. Our interpretation is that upon illumination the absorbance band red-shifts to a photoproduct with a maximal absorbance between 540 and 570 nm.

detergents or combinations were used for purification of melanopsin-L, we did not find a correlation with observing a detectable absorbance band in the visible region.

Discussion

Melanopsin is a not until 1998 identified photoreceptor protein, belonging to the rhodopsin subfamily of the GPCRs [1]. Melanopsin provides photosensitivity to a minor subclass of ganglion cells in the mammalian retina that are committed to non-visual photo-regulated tasks [10]. This vertebrate "non-visual" pigment is already noteworthy in that it is most homologous to invertebrate visual pigments [1,16]. In spite of the broad interest in melanopsin, relatively little is known about its structure and its functional characteristics such as its spectral properties, photochemical trajectory, mechanism of photo-activation and signaling partners. Biophysical and structural studies of membrane proteins require milligram quantities of protein. To obtain such quantities of sufficiently pure and functional membrane protein still is a major bottleneck. Here we report a successful application of the baculovirus expression system to produce and purify up to mg quantities of melanopsin-L protein.

Expression of melanopsin-L in the baculovirus-insect cell system

Because of the low abundance of melanopsin in the mammalian retina, overexpression of recombinant melanopsin offers the only way to purify and investigate the protein in more detail. So far, functional expression and purification of melanopsin has been achieved only in a C-terminally truncated form at low yield in HEK293 cells [30,31]. This should provide at least some information on its spectral sensitivity, but unfortunately these studies targeted different species (Amphioxus and mouse, respectively) and report a different $\lambda_{\rm max}$ (485 and 467 nm, respectively).

The baculovirus-insect cell expression system has proven to be quite effective in the expression of relatively large amounts of a variety of GPCRs with properties conforming to those of the native proteins, including visual pigments (e.g. [73]). Hence, we selected this system and here we present the first baculovirus-mediated expression and purification of full-length mouse melanopsin-L. Using the GP67 signal peptide, which strongly enhanced the expression level of rhodopsin to about 30 mg/L, we could boost the production level of melanopsin-L to 2-5 mg/L. In HEK293 cells the expression level of melanopsin also was about ten-fold lower than that of rhodopsin [31]. In addition, we applied C-terminal histidine tagging, since this allows, in combination with immobilized metal affinity chromatography, rapid and relatively inexpensive large-scale purification of recombinant visual pigments without significant functional side-effects and allows simple identification with anti-histag antibodies [47]. A deca-histag was selected for mouse melanopsin-L, since this affords stronger binding to the affinity matrix and more easy disposal of contaminating proteins [48]. The expressed melanopsin-L was indeed detectable by immunoblot using a histag specific antibody (Fig. 1). This identification, together with the apparent Mw (ca 55 kD), is a strong indication that the full-length protein is expressed, for which a Mw of about 57 kD is expected. However, the immunoblot in fact reveals three anti-histag positive bands with two major ones at 57 ± 5 kD running closely together and a third minor one at 50 ± 5 kD (Fig. 5). Hence, we resorted to analyze these bands by limited proteolysis followed by LC-MS. In this way it became obvious that the major peptides identified in these bands indeed derive from melanopsin-L (Fig. 6) and include a near-N-terminal sequence (Val⁸-Arg³⁸). This leads us to conclude that all three bands represent full-length melanopsin-L. Their different migration behavior can be partly explained by posttransitional modification (see below).

Evaluation of chaperones

Expression of melanopsin-L under standard conditions, followed by incubation with the ligand, 11-cis retinal, did not produce a detectable absorbance band in the 500 nm range. This might originate in destabilization upon solubilization with detergent or in a high extent of improper folding upon and following translation. As we used DDM for solubilization, a fairly stable condition for melanopsin according to earlier reports [30,31], we first investigated the effect of a variety of biological and chemical chaperones, that were reported to enhance functional and/or total expression of recombinant membrane proteins in several expression systems. Most chaperones, single or in combination, had little effect on the expression level of melanopsin-L. sometimes even reducing it (Fig. 2). The major exception was DMSO that by itself enhanced expression levels up to threefold. The impact of DMSO on cellular structures and metabolism is complex [74], and the mechanism involved in enhancing recombinant protein production is not very well understood [75,76]. A study in S. cerevisiae [77] showed that DMSO treatment leads to membrane proliferation and affects membrane integrity in yeast. Thus, DMSO may enhance the membrane pool for membrane proteins and/or increase membrane dynamics [78] and/or influence genetic factors that control the rate of membrane protein translation and folding. The second best condition in stimulating melanopsin-L expression was the combination of glycerol and 11-cis retinal (Fig. 2), two chemical chaperones that individually had no significant effect. Glycerol is a recognized stabilizer of protein tertiary structure and possibly folding intermediates [56,58], while the presence of ligand can increase the production of intact recombinant protein, as not only reported for melanopsin [12,13,28,29,31] but for GPCRs in general [75]. Why only the combination of these chaperones had a stimulatory effect is presently unexplained, in particular since it still did not result in a detectable absorbance band around 500 nm after solubilization of cellular membranes with DDM. The combination of ß-arrestin and 11-cis retinal with DMSO also showed a significant stimulatory effect, but this was presumably mainly the influence of DMSO.

The negative effect of the ß-arrestins at higher expression level, upon melanopsin-L expression (Fig. 2) is surprising, considering earlier reports that co-expression of mouse as well as chicken melanopsins with ß-arrestins in *Xenopus* oocytes leads to large and consistent photocurrents [29,59]. ß-arrestins can also target GPCRs for lysosomal or proteasomal degradation [78,79] and possibly this is the preferred pathway for recombinant mammalian melanopsin in insect cells, in particular when its folding is slow or incomplete.

Taken this all together, the presence of any chaperone did still not result in a detectable photosensitive absorbance band around 500 nm after solubilization in DDM. Hence, our next effort was to screen detergents for optimal solubilization and purification of recombinant melanopsin-L.

Screening of detergents for solubilization of recombinant melanopsin-L

We set out to test the efficacy of a number of detergents or detergent mixtures in solubilizing melanopsin-L. Detergents were selected on the basis of our experience with visual pigments (e.g. [80]) and literature data on GPCRs (e.g. [73,81]). DPC turned out to be most effective in solubilizing melanopsin-L. This detergent indeed is reported to efficiently solubilize hydrophobic and amphipathic α -helices [82,83] and has been used in quite a few GPCR studies [65,67,81]. However, following solubilization and

purification of melanopsin-L in DPC, we did not detect any light-sensitive absorbance band in the 450–550 nm region. This suggests that DPC destabilizes melanopsin-L upon solubilization, which would agree with the reported poor detergent stability of Amphioxus melanopsin [30] and invertebrate visual pigments in general [68]. Consequently, we resorted to the second best options, solubilizing 20–30% of the expressed melanopsin-L using mild detergents such as ASB-14–4 and DDM in combination with DPC and DHPC.

We also tested some reportedly stabilizing additives such as NaCl $(0.5 \, \text{M})$, arginine $(50 \, \text{mM})$, glutamine $(50 \, \text{mM})$ and cholesterol hemisuccinate (CHS) $(0.2\% \, \text{w/v})$, but neither of these did specifically result in higher yields of solubilized melanopsin-L (data not shown).

A striking observation was the poor extraction of melanopsin-L with DDM and CHAPS, detergents that were successfully employed in solubilizing C-terminally truncated melanopsin [30,31]. One possible explanation could be that the large C-terminal tail of melanopsin-L strongly interacts with other components or perturbs the micellar structure. However, we consider it more likely that most of the melanopsin may be present as the apoprotein, due to intrinsic poor uptake of free ligand and/or to suboptimal folding. The retinal apoproteins ("opsins") are notoriously less stable in detergent micelles than the holoproteins (e.g. [81]), and have a tendency to aggregate in mild detergents. For instance, upon solubilization of visual rhodopsin, produced with the baculovirus-insect cell system, by means of DDM or NG most of the apoprotein stays behind in the pellet (Bovee-Geurts and DeGrip, unpublished).

Purification of melanopsin-L

Being able to produce mg quantities of full-length melanopsin-L, the next step is to achieve sufficient purification. In view of melanopsin-L taking up <0.5% (w/w) of the membrane protein population in the insect cells and of the instability of melanopsin in a micellar environment, this requires a rapid high-affinity procedure that can easily be scaled up. IMAC in combination with a histag satisfies these conditions (e.g. [49]). This approach worked satisfactorily and vielded comparable results, irrespective of the culture conditions (with or without chaperones) and the detergent (mixture) used for solubilisation. During purification the same triad band pattern was conserved that was observed in the original membrane fraction, consisting of two closely migrating major bands at 57 ± 5 kD, and a minor band at 50 ± 5 kD (see above). Based upon protein staining, these three bands together account for $\geq 70\%$ of the total protein in the purified fraction, which entails a satisfactory purification factor of several hundred-fold. The recovery is problematic, since the 20% of the extracted melanopsin-L that is recovered in the purified fraction, accounts for only 2.5% of the original content in the cellular membrane fraction (Table 1). Still, this opens the way to production in the baculovirus/insect cell system of adequate quantities of purified melanopsin for functional studies, provided the purified protein would be fully functional.

However, the second enigma we encountered was the low level of functional protein, as represented by an absorbance band around 500 nm in the purified fraction. Based on a molar absorbance similar to that of squid rhodopsin $(35,000 \, \text{M}^{-1} \, \text{cm}^{-1} \, [84])$, the percentage of spectrally intact melanopsin varied in the purified fraction from not detectable to approximately 10%.

Presumably, both symptoms, low recovery and low level of functional protein, originate from poor uptake of the ligand 11-cis retinal, resulting in a high level of apoprotein that is much less stable in detergent micelles. The poor uptake of free ligand may be due to incomplete folding and/or to an intrinsic property of an invertebrate-like opsin [68,85]. If incomplete folding would be the major factor, we would expect that this at least partly could

be remedied by employing chaperones. For instance, the presence of ligand (9-cis, 11-cis or all-trans retinal) has been reported to enhance the photo-activity of melanopsin expressed in mammalian cell lines [12,13,28,29,31], as does co-expression with ß-arrestins in Xenopus oocytes [29,59]. Furthermore, folding and targeting of visual pigments can be enhanced upon co-expression with the chaperones ninaA or calnexin [60,62,86]. However, neither of these or any other of the chaperones we tested did significantly and consistently increase the level of holo-melanopsin-L. It might be an option to search for more specific chaperones, e.g. possibly operating in the ipRGCs. On the other hand, 50-70% of the expressed melanopsin-L is N-glycosylated, which in the baculovirus-insect cell system usually is equivalent to correct folding [87,88]. Hence, we postulate that the major problem lies in poor uptake of free ligand. In fact, in the cephalopod photoreceptor cell 11-cis retinal is provided to the visual opsin by a relay system consisting of retinochrome, a photo-isomerase producing 11-cis retinal from all-trans retinal, and a specialized retinal-binding protein (RALBP) that takes up 11-cis retinal from retinochrome and shuttles it to opsin [89,90]. Since multi-protein co-expression is easily established in the baculovirus expression system [91], this seems the best option in further trials to improve large-scale functional expression of melanopsin-L. The spectral properties of melanopsin still are a matter of debate [10]. Although our data are not very specific, they are consistent with a maximal absorbance around 480 nm and a significant red-shift upon photoconversion to metamelanopsin.

Posttranslational modification

Proteins can be subject to a variety of posttranslational modifications (disulfide bridge formation, methylation, acetylation, targeted proteolysis, N- and O-glycosylation, thiopalmitoylation, phosphorylation, ubiquitination, sumoylation a.o.), that are involved in a variety of processes like quality-control in the endoplasmic reticulum, targeting, complex formation, signal transduction and modulation, stabilization and degradation, Insect cell lines can also execute such modifications, except that N-glycosylation mostly involves simpler oligomannose chains [92-94]. Visual pigments are N-glycosylated in their extracellular N-terminus, which is not a functionally relevant modification, but probably a stabilizing factor [95-97]. A similar role was recently inferred for two glycosylation sites in rat melanopsin[69]. Mouse melanopsin-L contains two corresponding glycosylation consensus sequences within its extracellular N-terminal domain (Asn³⁰– Gly-Thr and Asn³⁴-Ser-Val). Via treatment of purified melanopsin-L with N-glycosidase F, in combination with LC-MS analysis, we could demonstrate that the upper band of the melanopsin triad is glycosylated at both sites and that the two lower bands are not glycosylated. This explains the difference in apparent Mw between the upper and the middle band.

Visual pigments are usually also thiopalmitoylated, which anchors a short C-terminal helical segment to the membrane [98,99]. This probably has a stabilizing function as well [100]. In fact, rhodopsin produced in the baculovirus system is thiopalmitoylated [87]. Melanopsin-L contains several cysteine residues in its large C-terminal domain, of which Cys-364 probably corresponds to the thiopalmitoylated residues in visual pigments. The peptide containing this residue (Val³⁵⁶–Arg³⁷⁵) was identified in our LC–MS analysis (Fig. 6), but no evidence was found for palmitoylation in any of the triad bands. Furthermore, mouse melanopsin was reported to be phosphorylated in its C-terminal by a GR-kinase and on Thr-186 and Ser-287 by protein kinase A [70,71]. Our LC–MS-identified peptides covered some serine and threonine residues in the C-terminal, as well as Ser-287 (Fig. 6), but also here we did not find evidence for modification. Since phosphorylation

probably is triggered upon photo-activation, it is possible that we would not detect this modification because of the low level of holo-melanopsin. On the other hand, Thr-186 and most of the C-terminally located serine and threonine residues were not covered by the peptides we identified. Finally, we did not yet search for *O*-glycosylation, but it was reported that octopus rhodopsin is *O*-glycosylated at two N-terminal sites [101]. Further analysis combined with a higher coverage of the melanopsin-L sequence with LC-MS introduced peptides, using the approach reported elsewhere [102], may detect further modifications explaining the different migration of the middle band of the triad and the lower band.

In conclusion, we successfully expressed his-tagged full length mouse melanopsin-L using the baculovirus expression system. Immunoblot analysis revealed a triad band pattern, consisting of two closely migrating major bands at 57 ± 5 kD, and a minor band at 50 ± 5 kD. All bands represent full-length melanopsin-L. The upper band accounts for 50-70% of the triad protein content and is N-glycosylated at Asn-30 and Asn-34. The expression level of melanopsin-L ranged between 2-5 mg/L culture volume. Out of a variety of chemical and biological chaperones tested, only DMSO significantly enhanced the total expression level, whereas β-arrestins had a surprisingly strong inhibitory effect. None of the tested conditions resulted in a consistently detectable photosensitive absorbance band around 500 nm after solubilization in the mild detergent DDM. Better solubilization was achieved with DPC, ASB-14-4 or combinations of DDM with DPC or DHPC. Purification of the recombinant melanopsin-L using IMAC yielded fractions containing at least 70% melanopsin-L on a protein basis. However, the recovery of melanopsin is quite low after purification (2.5 ± 1.9%) resulting in a yield of purified protein of about 0.13 mg/L. The yield of spectrally intact protein is even lower, maximally 10% of the purified protein, which we currently impute to a combination of incomplete folding and poor uptake of free ligand.

To our knowledge this is the first report on production and purification of full-length mouse melanopsin-L at a scale that can easily be further put up. The next step should investigate stabilization of the protein either by co-expression with a specialized chaperone and/or with ligand-bearing RALBP. Large-scale production of functional melanopsin-L then will trail-blaze the much-awaited unraveling of its structural and functional properties.

Acknowledgments

We thank Dr. Renaud Wagner (Dpt Recepteurs et Proteines Membranaires, ESBS, Illkirch, France) and Dr. Carola Driessen (Department of Biochemistry, RUNMC, The Netherlands) for the construction and testing of the Mel-transfer vector. Dr. Ignacio Provencio (Department of Biology, University of Virginia, USA) is gratefully acknowledged for providing a plasmid with the coding sequence of mouse melanopsin-L. We acknowledge Dr. Jolein Gloerich (Nijmegen Proteomics Facility, The Netherlands) for the analysis of posttranslational modifications. This research was supported by funds to WJ DeGrip from the Council for Chemical Sciences of the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NOW-CW project 700.54.008) and from the European Commision (E-MeP programme, EC contract LSHG-CT-2004-504601). Neither NWO-CW nor EC had any involvement whatsoever in any element of this project.

References

- [1] I. Provencio, G. Jiang, W.J. DeGrip, W.P. Hayes, M.D. Rollag, Melanopsin: an opsin in melanophores, brain and eye, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 95 (1998) 340–345.
- [2] I. Provencio, I.R. Rodriguez, G. Jiang, W.P. Hayes, E.F. Moreira, M.D. Rollag, A novel human opsin in the inner retina, J. Neurosci. 20 (2000) 600–605.

- [3] J.J. Gooley, J. Lu, D. Fischer, C.B. Saper, Broad role for melanopsin in nonvisual photoreception, J. Neurosci. 23 (2003) 7093–7106.
- [4] S. Hattar, M. Kumar, A. Park, P. Tong, J. Tung, K.-W. Yau, D.M. Berson, Central projections of melanopsin-expressing retinal ganglion cells in the mouse, J. Comp. Neurol. 497 (2006) 326–349.
- [5] T. Sexton, E. Buhr, R.N. Van Gelder, Melanopsin and mechanisms of nonvisual ocular photoreception, J. Biol. Chem. 287 (2012) 1649–1656.
- [6] R.J. Lucas, S. Hattar, M. Takao, D.M. Berson, R.G. Foster, K.-W. Yau, Diminished pupillary light reflex at high irradiances in melanopsin-knockout mice, Science 299 (2003) 245–247.
- [7] S. Panda, T.K. Sato, A.M. Castrucci, W.J. DeGrip, M.D. Rollag, J.B. Hogenesch, I. Provencio, S.A. Kay, Melanopsin (*Opn4*) is required for circadian phase shifting under low light conditions, Science 298 (2002) 2213–2216.
- [8] N.F. Ruby, T.J. Brennan, X.M. Xie, V. Cao, P. Franken, H.C. Heller, B.F. O'Hara, Role of melanopsin in circadian responses to light, Science 298 (2002) 2211– 2213.
- [9] C.M. Altimus, A.D. Güler, K.L. Villa, D.S. McNeill, T.A. LeGates, S. Hattar, Rodscones and melanopsin detect light and dark to modulate sleep independent of image formation, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 105 (2008) 19998–20003.
- [10] M.W. Hankins, S.N. Peirson, R.G. Foster, Melanopsin: an exciting photopigment, Trends Neurosci. 31 (2008) 27–36.
- [11] D.M. Berson, F.A. Dunn, M. Takao, Phototransduction by retinal ganglion cells that set the circadian clock, Science 295 (2002) 1070–1073.
- [12] Z. Melyan, E.E. Tarttelin, J. Bellingham, R.J. Lucas, M.W. Hankins, Addition of human melanopsin renders mammalian cells photoresponsive, Nature 433 (2005) 741–745
- [13] X.D. Qiu, T. Kumbalasiri, S.M. Carlson, K.Y. Wong, V.R. Krishna, I. Provencio, D.M. Berson, Induction of photosensitivity by heterologous expression of melanopsin, Nature 433 (2005) 745–749.
- [14] S. Hattar, R.J. Lucas, N. Mrosovsky, S. Thompson, R.H. Douglas, M.W. Hankins, J. Lem, M. Biel, F. Hofmann, R.G. Foster, K.-W. Yau, Melanopsin and rod-cone photoreceptive systems account for all major accessory visual functions in mice, Nature 424 (2003) 76–81.
- [15] S. Panda, I. Provencio, D.C. Tu, S.S. Pires, M.D. Rollag, A.M. Castrucci, M.T. Pletcher, T.K. Sato, T. Wiltshire, M. Andahazy, S.A. Kay, R.N. VanGelder, J.B. Hogenesch, Melanopsin is required for non-image-forming photic responses in blind mice, Science 301 (2003) 525–527.
- [16] J. Bellingham, D.H. Whitmore, A.R. Philp, D.J. Wells, R.G. Foster, Zebrafish melanopsin: isolation, tissue localisation and phylogenetic position, Mol. Brain Res. 107 (2002) 128–136.
- [17] S.S. Pires, S. Hughes, M. Turton, Z. Melyan, S.N. Peirson, L. Zheng, M. Kosmaoglou, J. Bellingham, M.E. Cheetham, R.J. Lucas, R.G. Foster, M.W. Hankins, S. Halford, Differential expression of two distinct functional isoforms of melanopsin (Opn4) in the mammalian retina, J. Neurosci. 29 (2009) 12332–12342.
- [18] T.J. Sexton, M. Golczak, K. Palczewski, R.N. Van Gelder, Melanopsin is highly resistant to light and chemical bleaching in vivo, J. Biol. Chem. 287 (2012) 20888–20897.
- [19] M.T. Walker, R.L. Brown, T.W. Cronin, P.R. Robinson, Photochemistry of retinal chromophore in mouse melanopsin, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 105 (2008) 8861–8865.
- [20] D. Salom, P.X. Cao, W.Y. Sun, K. Kramp, B. Jastrzebska, H. Jin, Z.Y. Feng, K. Palczewski, Heterologous expression of functional G-protein-coupled receptors in *Caenorhabditis elegans*, FASEB J. 26 (2012) 492–502.
- [21] S.S. Karnik, M. Nassal, T. Doi, E. Jay, V. Sgaramella, H.G. Khorana, Structure-function studies on bacteriorhodopsin. II. Improved expression of the bacterio-opsin gene in *Escherichia coli*, J. Biol. Chem. 262 (1987) 9255–9263.
- [22] C. Lang-Hinrichs, I. Queck, G. Buldt, U. Stahl, V. Hildebrandt, The archaebacterial membrane protein bacterio-opsin is expressed and N-terminally processed in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, Mol. Gen. Genet. 244 (1994) 183–188.
- [23] J.J.M. Janssen, W.J.M. VanDeVen, W.A.H.M. VanGroningen-Luyben, J. Roosien, J.M. Vlak, W.J. DeGrip, Synthesis of functional bovine opsin in insect cells under control of the baculovirus polyhedrin promotor, Mol. Biol. Rep. 13 (1988) 65–71.
- [24] S. Sonar, N. Patel, W. Fischer, K.J. Rothschild, Cell-free synthesis, functional refolding, and spectroscopic characterization of bacteriorhodopsin, an integral membrane protein, Biochemistry 32 (1993) 13777–13781.
- [25] N. Li, D. Salom, L. Zhang, T. Harris, J.A. Ballesteros, M. Golczak, B. Jastrzebska, K. Palczewski, C. Kurahara, T. Juan, S. Jordan, J.A. Salon, Heterologous expression of the adenosine A1 receptor in transgenic mouse retina, Biochemistry 46 (2007) 8350–8359.
- [26] D. Salom, N. Wu, W.Y. Sun, Z. Dong, K. Palczewski, S. Jordan, J.A. Salon, Heterologous expression and purification of the serotonin type 4 receptor from transgenic mouse retina, Biochemistry 47 (2008) 13296–13307.
- [27] C.R. Midgett, D.R. Madden, Breaking the bottleneck: eukaryotic membrane protein expression for high-resolution structural studies, J. Struct. Biol. 160 (2007) 265–274.
- [28] M.E. Giesbers, N. Shirzad-Wasei, G.J.C.G.M. Bosman, W.J. DeGrip, Functional expression, targeting and Ca²⁺ signaling of a mouse melanopsineYFP fusion protein in a retinal pigment epithelium cell line, Photochem. Photobiol. 84 (2008) 990–995.
- [29] S. Panda, S.K. Nayak, B. Campo, J.R. Walker, J.B. Hogenesch, T. Jegla, Illumination of the melanopsin signaling pathway, Science 307 (2005) 600– 604.

- [30] A. Terakita, H. Tsukamoto, M. Koyanagi, M. Sugahara, T. Yamashita, Y. Shichida, Expression and comparative characterization of Gq-coupled invertebrate visual pigments and melanopsin, J. Neurochem. 105 (2008) 883–890
- [31] T. Matsuyama, T. Yamashita, Y. Imamoto, Y. Shichida, Photochemical properties of mammalian melanopsin, Biochemistry 51 (2012) 5454–5462.
- [32] L.S. Mure, P.-L. Cornut, C. Rieux, E. Drouyer, P. Denis, C. Gronfier, H.M. Cooper, Melanopsin bistability: a fly's eye technology in the human retina, PLoS ONE 4 (2009). e5991-1-e5991-10.
- [33] J.W.H. Janssen, P.H.M. Bovee-Geurts, A.P.A. Peeters, J.K. Bowmaker, H.M. Cooper, Z.K. David-Gray, E. Nevo, W.J. DeGrip, A fully functional rod visual pigment in a blind mammal a case for adaptive functional reorganization?, J Biol. Chem. 275 (2000) 38674–38679.
- [34] J.W.H. Janssen, Z.K. David-Gray, P.H.M. Bovee-Geurts, E. Nevo, R.G. Foster, W.J. DeGrip, A green cone-like pigment in the 'blind' mole-rat *Spalax ehrenbergi*: functional expression and photochemical characterization, Photochem. Photobiol. Sci. 2 (2003) 1287–1291.
- [35] P.M.A.M. Vissers, W.J. DeGrip, Functional expression of human cone pigments using recombinant baculovirus: compatibility with histidine tagging and evidence for N-glycosylation, FEBS Lett. 396 (1996) 26–30.
- [36] P.M.A.M. Vissers, P.H.M. Bovee-Geurts, M.D. Portier, C.H.W. Klaassen, W.J. DeGrip, Large-scale production and purification of the human green cone pigment: characterization of late photo-intermediates, Biochem. J. 330 (1998) 1201–1208.
- [37] S.E. Wilkie, P.M.A.M. Vissers, D. Das, W.J. DeGrip, J.K. Bowmaker, D.M. Hunt, The molecular basis for UV vision in birds: spectral characteristics, cDNA sequence and retinal localization of the UV-sensitive visual pigment of the budgerigar (Melopsittacus undulatus), Biochem. J. 330 (1998) 541–547.
- [38] R.G. Foster, J.M. García-Fernández, I. Provencio, W.J. DeGrip, Opsin localization and chromophore retinoids identified within the basal brain of the lizard *Anolis carolinensis*, J. Comp. Physiol. A 172 (1993) 33–45.
- [39] J.J. Schalken, W.J. DeGrip, Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for quantitative determination of the visual pigment rhodopsin in total eyeextracts, Exp. Eye Res. 43 (1986) 431–439.
- [40] W.J. DeGrip, P.H.M. Bovee-Geurts, Synthesis and properties of alkylglucosides with mild detergent action: Improved synthesis and purification of β-1-octyl, -nonyl- and -decyl-glucose. Synthesis of β-1-undecylglucose and β-1dodecylmaltose, Chem. Phys. Lipids 23 (1979) 321–335.
- [41] L.M. Luttrell, S.S.G. Ferguson, Y.H. Daaka, W.E. Miller, S. Maudsley, G.J. DellaRocca, F.-T. Lin, H. Kawakatsu, K. Owada, D.K. Luttrell, M.G. Caron, R.J. Lefkowitz, β-Arrestin-dependent formation of β₂ adrenergic receptor-Src protein kinase complexes, Science 283 (1999) 655–661.
- [42] C.G. Tate, E.M. Whiteley, M.J. Betenbaugh, Molecular chaperones stimulate the functional expression of the cocaine-sensitive serotonin transporter, J. Biol. Chem. 274 (1999) 17551–17558.
- [43] W.R. Leifert, A.L. Aloia, O. Bucco, E.J. McMurchie, GPCR-induced dissociation of G-protein subunits in early stage signal transduction, Mol. Membr. Biol. 22 (2005) 507-517.
- [44] C.H.W. Klaassen, W.J. DeGrip, Baculovirus expression system for expression and characterization of functional recombinant visual pigments, Methods Enzymol. 315 (2000) 12–29.
- [45] U.K. Laemmli, Cleavage of structural proteins during the assembly of the head of bacteriophage T4, Nature 227 (1970) 680–685.
- [46] G.L.J. DeCaluwé, J. Van Oostrum, J.J.M. Janssen, W.J. DeGrip, *In vitro* synthesis of bovine rhodopsin using recombinant baculovirus, Meth. Neurosci. 15 (1993) 307–321.
- [47] J.J.M. Janssen, P.H.M. Bovee-Geurts, M. Merkx, W.J. DeGrip, Histidine tagging both allows convenient single-step purification of bovine rhodopsin and exerts ionic strength-dependent effects on its photochemistry, J. Biol. Chem. 270 (1995) 11222–11229.
- [48] V.R.P. Ratnala, H.G.P. Swarts, J. Van Oostrum, R. Leurs, H.J.M. de Groot, R.A. Bakker, W.J. DeGrip, Large-scale overproduction, functional purification and ligand affinities of the His-tagged human histamine H1 receptor, Eur. J. Biochem. 271 (2004) 2636–2646.
- [49] C.H.W. Klaassen, P.H.M. Bovee-Geurts, G.L.J. DeCaluwé, W.J. DeGrip, Large-scale production and purification of functional recombinant bovine rhodopsin using the baculovirus expression system, Biochem. J. 342 (1999) 293–300.
- [50] G.J.C.G.M. Bosman, J. Van Oostrum, G. Breikers, P.H.M. Bovee-Geurts, C.H.W. Klaassen, W.J. DeGrip, Functional expression of his-tagged rhodopsin in Sf9 insect cells, Meth. Mol. Biol. 228 (2003) 73–86.
- [51] M. Koyanagi, K. Kubokawa, H. Tsukamoto, Y. Shichida, A. Terakita, Cephalochordate melanopsin: evolutionary linkage between invertebrate visual cells and vertebrate photosensitive retinal ganglion cells, Curr. Biol. 15 (2005) 1065–1069.
- [52] P.J.K. Knight, T.A. Pfeifer, T.A. Grigliatti, A functional assay for G-proteincoupled receptors using stably transformed insect tissue culture cell lines, Anal. Biochem. 320 (2003) 88–103.
- [53] J.H. Dunham, R.A. Hall, Enhancement of the surface expression of G proteincoupled receptors, Trends Biotechnol. 27 (2009) 541–545.
- [54] T.A. Kost, J.P. Condreay, D.L. Jarvis, Baculovirus as versatile vectors for protein expression in insect and mammalian cells, Nat. Biotechnol. 23 (2005) 567– 575.
- [55] S.F. Marino, High-level production and characterization of a G-protein coupled receptor signaling complex, FEBS J. 276 (2009) 4515–4528.

- [56] R. Sousa, Use of glycerol, polyols and other protein structure stabilizing agents in protein crystallization, Acta Crystallogr. D: Biol. Cryst. 51 (1995) 271–277.
- [57] S.N. Timasheff, The control of protein stability and association by weak interactions with water: how do solvents affect these processes?, Annu Rev. Biophys. Biomol. Struct. 22 (1993) 67–97.
- [58] A. Ülloa-Aguirre, J.A. Janovick, S.P. Brothers, P.M. Conn, Pharmacologic rescue of conformationally-defective proteins: implications for the treatment of human disease, Traffic 5 (2004) 821–837.
- [59] M. Torii, D. Kojima, T. Okano, A. Nakamura, A. Terakita, Y. Shichida, A. Wada, Y. Fukada, Two isoforms of chicken melanopsins show blue light sensitivity, FEBS Lett. 581 (2007) 5327–5331.
- [60] E.K. Baker, N.J. Colley, C.S. Zuker, The cyclophilin homolog NinaA functions as a chaperone, forming a stable complex in vivo with its protein target rhodopsin, EMBO J. 13 (1994) 4886–4895.
- [61] M.A. Stamnes, B.-H. Shieh, L. Chuman, G.L. Harris, C.S. Zuker, The cyclophilin homolog ninaA is a tissue-specific integral membrane protein required for the proper synthesis of a subset of *Drosophila* rhodopsins, Cell 65 (1991) 219– 227.
- [62] P.A. Ferreira, T.A. Nakayama, W.L. Pak, G.H. Travis, Cyclophilin-related protein RanBP2 acts as chaperone for red/green opsin, Nature 383 (1996) 637–640.
- [63] M.J. Betenbaugh, E. Ailor, E.M. Whiteley, P. Hinderliter, T.-A. Hsu, Chaperone and foldase coexpression in the baculovirus-insect cell expression system, Cytotechnology 20 (1996) 149–159.
- [64] L. Ellgaard, A. Helenius, Quality control in the endoplasmic reticulum, Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol. 4 (2003) 181–191.
- [65] H. Ren, D.-Y. Yu, B.-S. Ge, B. Cook, Z. Xu, S.G. Zhang, High-level production, solubilization and purification of synthetic human GPCR chemokine receptors CCR5, CCR3, CXCR4 and CX3CR1, PLoS ONE 4 (2009). e4509-1-e4509-15.
- [66] W.R. Tschantz, N.D. Pfeifer, C.L. Meade, L. Wang, A. Lanzetti, A.V. Kamath, F. Berlioz-Seux, M.F. Hashim, Expression, purification and characterization of the human membrane transporter protein QATP2B1 from Sf9 insect cells, Protein Expression Purif. 57 (2008) 163–171.
- [67] B.L. Cook, K.E. Ernberg, H.Y. Chung, S.G. Zhang, Study of a synthetic human olfactory receptor 17–4: expression and purification from an inducible mammalian cell line, PLoS ONE 3 (2008). e2920-1–e2920-9.
- [68] G. Höglund, K. Hamdorf, H. Langer, R. Paulsen, J. Schwemer, The photopigments in an insect retina, in: H. Langer (Ed.), Biochemistry and Physiology of Visual Pigments, Springer Verlag, Heidelberg, Germany, 1973, pp. 167–174.
- [69] J. Fahrenkrug, B. Talktoft, B. Georg, L. Rask, N-linked deglycosylated melanopsin retains its responsiveness to light, Biochemistry 48 (2009) 5142–5148.
- [70] J.R. Blasic Jr., R.L. Brown, P.R. Robinson, Light-dependent phosphorylation of the carboxy tail of mouse melanopsin, Cell. Mol. Life Sci. 69 (2012) 1551– 1562
- [71] J.R. Blasic Jr., R.L. Brown, P.R. Robinson, Phosphorylation of mouse melanopsin by protein kinase A, PLoS ONE 7 (2012). e45387-1-e45387-9.
- [72] D.R. Pepperberg, D.F. Morrison, P.J. O'Brien, Depalmitoylation of rhodopsin with hydroxylamine, Methods Enzymol. 250 (1995) 348–361.
- [73] R. Grisshammer, Purification of recombinant G-protein-coupled receptors, Methods Enzymol. 463 (2009) 631–645.
- [74] Z.-W. Yu, P.J. Quinn, Dimethyl sulphoxide: a review of its applications in cell biology, Biosci. Rep. 14 (1994) 259–281.
- [75] N. André, N. Cherouati, C. Prual, T. Steffan, G. Zeder-Lutz, T. Magnin, F. Pattus, H. Michel, R. Wagner, C. Reinhart, Enhancing functional production of 41 G protein-coupled receptors in *Pichia pastoris* to levels required for structural studies via a single expression screen. Protein Sci. 15 (2006) 1115–1126.
- [76] K.H. Chang, J.M. Lee, H.K. Jeon, I.S. Chung, Improved production of recombinant tumstatin in stably transformed *Trichoplusia ni* BTI Tn 5B1-4 cells, Protein Expression Purif. 35 (2004) 69–75.
- [77] Y. Murata, T. Watanabe, M. Sato, Y. Momose, T. Nakahara, S. Oka, H. Iwahashi, Dimethyl sulfoxide exposure facilitates phospholipid biosynthesis and cellular membrane proliferation in yeast cells, J. Biol. Chem. 278 (2003) 33185–33193.
- [78] P. Maurice, J.-L. Guillaume, A. Benleulmi-Chaachoua, A.M. Daulat, M. Kamal, R. Jockers, GPCR-interacting proteins, major players of GPCR function, Adv. Pharmacol. 62 (2011) 349–380.
- [79] L. Pan, E.V. Gurevich, V.V. Gurevich, The nature of the arrestin-receptor complex determines the ultimate fate of the internalized receptor, J. Biol. Chem. 278 (2003) 11623–11632.
- [80] W.J. DeGrip, Thermal stability of rhodopsin and opsin in some novel detergents, Methods Enzymol. 81 (1982) 256–265.
- [81] N. Eifler, M. Duckely, L.T. Sumanovski, T.M. Egan, A. Oksche, J.B. Konopka, A. Lüthi, A. Engel, P.J.L. Werten, Functional expression of mammalian receptors and membrane channels in different cells, J. Struct. Biol. 159 (2007) 179–193
- [82] V. Beswick, R. Guerois, F. Cordier-Ochsenbein, Y.M. Coic, H.D. Tam, J. Tostain, J.P. Noel, A. Sanson, J.M. Neumann, Dodecylphosphocholine micelles as a membrane-like environment: new results from NMR relaxation and paramagnetic relaxation enhancement analysis, Eur. Biophys. J. 28 (1999) 48-58.
- [83] S. Soulie, J.M. Neumann, C. Berthomieu, J.V. Moller, M.M. le, V. Forge, NMR conformational study of the sixth transmembrane segment of sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺-ATPase, Biochemistry 38 (1999) 5813–5821.

- [84] T. Suzuki, K. Uji, Y. Kito, Studies on cephalopod rhodopsin: photoisomerization of the chromophore, Biochim. Biophys. Acta 428 (1976) 321–338.
- [85] T. Hara, R. Hara, Retinal-binding protein: function in a chromophore exchange system in the squid visual cell, Prog. Retin. Eye Res. 10 (1991) 179–206.
- [86] S.M. Noorwez, R.R.K. Sama, S. Kaushal, Calnexin improves the folding efficiency of mutant rhodopsin in the presence of pharmacological chaperone 11-cis-retinal, J. Biol. Chem. 284 (2009) 33333–33342.
- [87] G.L.J. DeCaluwé, W.J. DeGrip, Point mutations in bovine opsin can be classified in four groups with respect to their effect on the biosynthetic pathway of opsin, Biochem. J. 320 (1996) 807–815.
- [88] J.J.M. Janssen, W.R. Mulder, G.L.J. DeCaluwé, J.M. Vlak, W.J. DeGrip, *In vitro* expression of bovine opsin using recombinant baculovirus: the role of glutamic acid (134) in opsin biosynthesis and glycosylation, Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1089 (1991) 68–76.
- [89] K. Ozaki, A. Terakita, R. Hara, T. Hara, Isolation and characterization of a retinal-binding protein from the squid retina, Vision. Res. 27 (1987) 1057– 1070.
- [90] A. Terakita, R. Hara, T. Hara, Retinal-binding protein as a shuttle for retinal in the rhodopsin retinochrome system of the squid visual cells, Vision. Res. 29 (1989) 639–652.
- [91] D.J. Fitzgerald, P. Berger, C. Schaffitzel, K. Yamada, T.J. Richmond, I. Berger, Protein complex expression by using multigene baculoviral vectors, Nat. Methods 3 (2006) 1021–1032.
- [92] A. Horstmeyer, H. Cramer, T. Sauer, W. Müller-Esterl, C. Schroeder, Palmitoylation of endothelin receptor A – differential modulation of signal transduction activity by post-translational modification, J. Biol. Chem. 271 (1996) 20811–20819.
- [93] D.L. Jarvis, Z.S. Kawar, J.R. Hollister, Engineering N-glycosylation pathways in the baculovirus-insect cell system, Curr. Opin. Biotechnol. 9 (1998) 528–533.

- [94] Y. Okamoto, H. Ninomiya, M. Tanioka, A. Sakamoto, S. Miwa, T. Masaki, Palmitoylation of human endothelin B – its critical role in G protein coupling and a differential requirement for the cytoplasmic tail by G protein subtypes, I. Biol. Chem. 272 (1997) 21589–21596.
- [95] S. Kaushal, K.D. Ridge, H.G. Khorana, Structure and function in rhodopsin: the role of asparagine-linked glycosylation, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 91 (1994) 4024–4028.
- [96] B.M. Tam, O.L. Moritz, The role of rhodopsin glycosylation in protein folding, trafficking, and light-sensitive retinal degeneration, J. Neurosci. 29 (2009) 15145–15154.
- [97] L. Zhu, G.-F. Jang, B. Jastrzebska, S. Filipek, S.E. Pearce-Kelling, G.D. Aguirre, R.E. Stenkamp, G.M. Acland, K. Palczewski, A naturally occurring mutation of the opsin gene (T4R) in dogs affects glycosylation and stability of the G protein-coupled receptor, J. Biol. Chem. 279 (2004) 53828–53839.
- [98] Y.A. Ovchinnikov, N.G. Abdulaev, A.S. Bogachuk, Two adjacent cysteine residues in the C-terminal cytoplasmic fragment of bovine rhodopsin are palmitylated, FEBS Lett. 230 (1988) 1–5.
- [99] K. Palczewski, T. Kumasaka, T. Hori, C.A. Behnke, H. Motoshima, B.A. Fox, I. Le Trong, D.C. Teller, T. Okada, R.E. Stenkamp, M. Yamamoto, M. Miyano, Crystal structure of rhodopsin: a G protein-coupled receptor, Science 289 (2000) 739-745.
- [100] A. Maeda, K. Okano, P.S.H. Park, J. Lem, R.K. Crouch, T. Maeda, K. Palczewski, Palmitoylation stabilizes unliganded rod opsin, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 107 (2010) 8428–8433.
- [101] M. Nakagawa, T. Miyamoto, R. Kusakabe, S. Takasaki, T. Takao, Y. Shichida, M. Tsuda, O-glycosylation of G-protein-coupled receptor *Octopus* rhodopsin direct analysis by FAB mass spectrometry, FEBS Lett. 496 (2001) 19–24.
- [102] K. Sansuk, C.I.A. Balog, A.M. van der Does, R. Booth, W.J. DeGrip, A.M. Deelder, R.A. Bakker, R. Leurs, P.J. Hensbergen, GPCR proteomics: mass spectrometric and functional analysis of histamine H1 receptor after baculovirus-driven and in vitro cell free expression, J. Proteome Res. 7 (2008) 621–629.