

Bioorthogonal Ligation in the Spotlight**

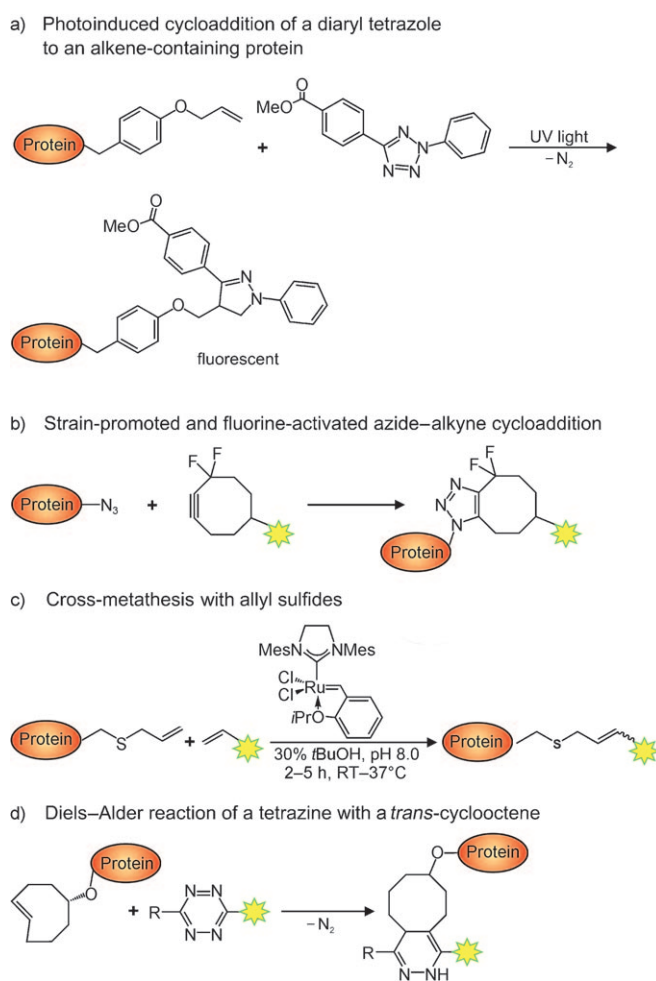
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alkenes · cycloaddition · fluorescent probes ·
photochemistry · protein modifications

Chemical labeling strategies for the selective covalent attachment of synthetic groups to biopolymers, such as proteins, nucleic acids, lipids, and glycans, are the key to many applications in biotechnology, medicine, and basic research. The success story of the green fluorescent protein (GFP),^[1–3] the discovery and development of which was recognized with the Nobel Prize in Chemistry in 2008, underlines the compelling advantage of a fluorescent tag that can be added selectively to a protein of choice, in this case to serve as a reporter of protein localization and dynamics. However, the use of a genetically fused protein tag has limitations, for example, when the aim is to mimic a posttranslational modification, or is even inappropriate, for example, with biomolecules such as glycans or lipids, which are not encoded directly. In such cases, a bioorthogonal ligation between a functional group in the biomolecule and an exogenous synthetic probe is the method of choice.^[4–6] Several powerful new reactions for this purpose have been reported recently, including a photoinducible 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition developed by Lin and co-workers (Scheme 1a), which was shown to be useful for the selective functionalization of proteins in vitro and in live cells.^[7,8]

What are the hallmarks of a bioorthogonal ligation reaction? Two functional groups need to react selectively with one another under mild conditions in a biological medium with the formation of a stable covalent linkage. These groups should be biologically inert to avoid cross-reactivity with other biomolecules, and ideally also biocompatible, that is, nontoxic. Furthermore, the reaction should be fast to be useful on the timescale of biological processes, and should proceed even at low concentrations to provide high sensitivity. Given the wealth of established organic transformations, it appears surprising that only a handful of reactions have so far been recognized as suitable for bioorthogonal ligation. These reactions include the nucleophilic addition of hydrazides or hydroxylamines to ketones or aldehydes,^[9,10] the Staudinger ligation of an azide with a

modified phosphine,^[11] and the 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition of an azide and an alkyne, either catalyzed by Cu^{II}^[12,13] or promoted by the ring strain of a cyclooctyne (Scheme 1b).^[14,15] The



Scheme 1. Overview of some recently developed bioorthogonal reactions. Mes = 2,4,6-trimethylphenyl.

incorporation of these unique functional groups into the target biomolecule can be a challenge in itself and is a field of intense research. The approaches most often used involve metabolic labeling,^[16–18] selective bioconjugation of natural functional groups, mutagenesis with nonnatural amino acids,^[19] and other ligation reactions, such as expressed protein ligation (EPL).^[20]

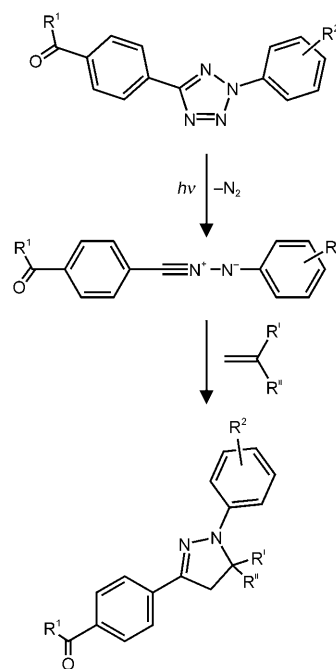
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Why is there still an urgent need for new bioorthogonal ligation procedures despite these well-established reactions? One reason is that each reaction has strengths and drawbacks and may not be ideal for a specific application. For example, the copper(I)-catalyzed cycloaddition of azides with alkynes exhibits favorable robustness and reaction kinetics, which were exploited in proteomics approaches for probing enzyme activities in cell lysates^[21] and for visualizing biomolecules in fixed cells.^[22] However, it is usually not suitable for use in living cells or organisms because of the cytotoxicity of the copper catalyst. In contrast, the Staudinger ligation is based on nontoxic reactive groups, but has the disadvantages of a relatively slow reaction rate and competing oxidation of the phosphine reagents.^[23] An important recent development was the introduction of novel strained and fluorinated cyclooctyne derivatives,^[15] (Scheme 1 b) the cycloaddition reactions of which do not require a cytotoxic copper catalyst and proceed at significantly higher reaction rates than those described for the Staudinger ligation. These reagents enabled improved imaging of dynamic processes in vivo, for example, the visualization of changes in glycan patterns during the development of the zebrafish embryo.^[24] A further motivation for the development of new bioorthogonal reactions is that with more than one reaction available for a particular problem, one could in principle perform two or more reactions in parallel. In this respect, the generation of fluorescent proteins with different colors^[1,2,25,26] has enabled the simultaneous observation of more than one protein as well as FRET (Förster resonance energy transfer) applications.

Lin and co-workers recently reported a photoinducible bioorthogonal ligation reaction which has the potential to become an important addition to the ligation toolkit.^[7,8] An extra degree of experimental control is derived from the requirement for photoinduction. The reaction, first described by Huisgen and co-workers,^[27] is a 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition between a nitrile imine and an alkene dipolarophile to afford a pyrazoline cycloadduct (Scheme 2). The nitrile imine is generated in situ by photolysis with UV light from a diaryl tetrazole, which undergoes cycloelimination with the release of nitrogen. Initial studies showed that this first reaction is very rapid with a first-order rate constant of $k_1 = 0.14 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ($t_{1/2} = 5.1 \text{ s}$) and requires irradiation times of only a few minutes. The subsequent cycloaddition follows second-order kinetics with a rate constant k_2 of up to $11.0 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, depending on the reactants used. It can thus be significantly faster than the Staudinger ligation and the optimized strain-promoted 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition ($k = 0.4$ and $7.6 \times 10^{-2} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively^[15,23]). The resulting pyrazoline adducts are fluorescent with emission maxima between 487 and 538 nm and high quantum yields. This property can be used to monitor the reaction progress directly. On the other hand, this fluorescent product might also be problematic if it interferes with other fluorophores used in the experiment.

To show the selectivity of the reaction in the context of proteins, the tetrazole moiety was incorporated into lysozyme through the acylation of lysine side chains and incorporated regioselectively into GFP by protein semisynthesis by using the EPL strategy.^[7] Subsequent reactions with various acrylamide-based reagents were initiated by brief irradiation with



Scheme 2. Photoactivated 1,3-dipolar cycloaddition between a diaryl tetrazole and a substituted alkene.

UV light and were found to be highly specific. Alternatively, alkene-modified lysozyme was obtained by labeling with methacrylic anhydride and could be modified selectively with various tetrazole ligands, such as a PEG-substituted tetrazole.^[7]

However, to benefit from the full power of this approach, general and specific methods are required for the incorporation of either the diaryl tetrazole or the alkene into biopolymers. In a first important step toward this goal, Lin and co-workers took advantage of a previously reported *E. coli* strain that incorporates *O*-allyltyrosine site specifically into proteins by the tRNA-suppressor technology.^[28] In this way, an alkene-containing Z-domain protein was obtained and modified selectively by the photoinducible cycloaddition (Scheme 1 a).^[8] Furthermore, this reaction could be carried out successfully even in entire *E. coli* cells expressing the alkene-containing protein. Control cells expressing the wild-type Z-domain protein were not labeled (Figure 1). Thus, the reaction is potentially useful for the study of live cells. One of the most pressing next goals will be the extension of this promising method to yeast and higher organisms, for example, to mammalian cells. Another route for the incorporation of one of the functional groups into biomolecules could involve the feeding of amino acids containing an alkene group^[29] and the processing of these modified amino acids by the machinery for protein biosynthesis. Suitably modified precursors for lipid and glycan biosynthesis could be processed in a similar way. Finally, one of the two functional groups could be attached to a protein fused with a tag amenable to chemical modification.^[30–32]

Another important observation of Lin and co-workers was that the reaction with the alkene group of *O*-allyltyrosine proceeded significantly more slowly than the corresponding

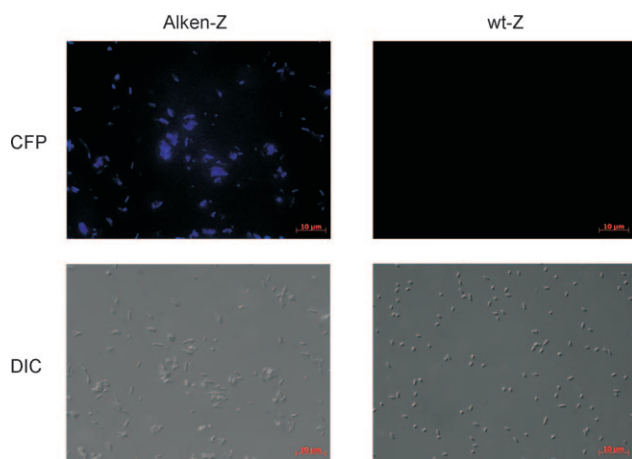


Figure 1. Selective functionalization of an alkene-containing Z-domain protein with a tetrazole (see Scheme 1a) in *E. coli* cells: CFP-channel (top) and DIC-channel images (bottom) of bacterial cells expressing either the alkene-containing or wild-type (wt) Z-domain protein after treatment with the tetrazole (100 μ M). Reproduced with permission from Ref. [8]. CFP = cyan fluorescent protein, DIC = differential interference contrast.

reaction with acrylamide derivatives.^[8] By way of explanation, the authors suggested that the lower LUMO energy of the acrylamide led to a better overlap with the HOMO of the nitrile imine (LUMO = lowest occupied molecular orbital; HOMO = highest occupied molecular orbital). The selection of an appropriate nitrile imine/alkene pair might hold the potential for further optimization.

The special feature of the reaction presented herein is clearly its light dependence. This property opens the way for the precise spatial and temporal control of the ligation event and could thus provide a formidable tool for cell biology. However, it will also restrict the use of the ligation reaction to media and biological material that are transparent at the applied wavelength. By fine-tuning of the substituents on the diaryl tetrazole, it was already possible to shift the absorption maximum so that the reaction could be triggered with light with a wavelength of 365 nm, which is less harmful to cells.^[33]

In summary, recent research efforts have yielded important developments for the selective modification of proteins and for bioorthogonal ligation. These developments broaden the scope of application of these reactions. Two further recent examples are also based on the reaction of an alkene moiety: The research group of Davis has started to exploit the potential of cross-metathesis for the modification of proteins functionalized with an allyl sulfide (Scheme 1c),^[34] whereas Fox and co-workers reported the extremely fast Diels–Alder reaction of tetrazines with *trans*-cyclooctenes for protein modification (Scheme 1d).^[35] There seems to be a bright and exciting future ahead for selective chemical protein modification.

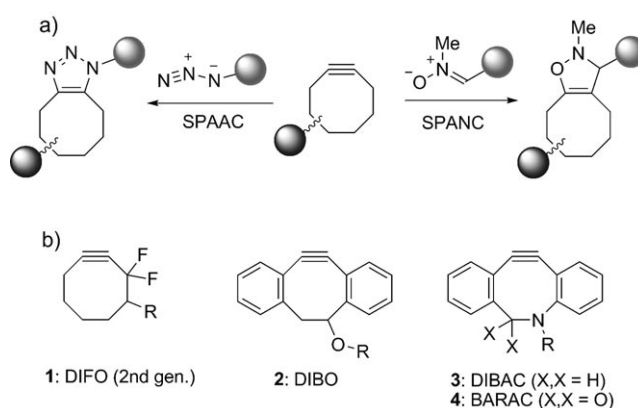
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Readily Accessible Bicyclononynes for Bioorthogonal Labeling and Three-Dimensional Imaging of Living Cells**

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The advent of chemical biology tools for imaging and tracking of biomolecules (proteins, lipids, glycans) in their native environment is providing unique insights into cellular processes that are not achievable with traditional biochemical or molecular biology tools.^[1] Bioorthogonal labeling of biomolecules has proven particularly useful for the detection and study of glycans^[2] and lipids,^[3] based on a highly selective reaction between an abiotic functional tag and a designed chemical probe. With respect to the abiotic tag, azide has been used extensively because of its straightforward chemical introduction, small size, and relative inertness.^[4] The finding that azides react rapidly and cleanly with terminal acetylenes in the presence of copper(I), the quintessential “click” reaction, has found tremendous application in life and material sciences.^[5] However, because up to 20 mol % of copper(I) species is typically used, such click chemistry is not suitable for labeling of living systems without compromising cell function.^[6] Apart from that, the presence of copper may induce oligonucleotide^[7] and polysaccharide^[8] degradation. To avoid the use of toxic metals, several metal-free bioorthogonal labeling reaction have been developed.^[9] In particular, phosphines have been used for covalent ligation to azides, a procedure known as Staudinger ligation.^[10] However, owing to the oxygen sensitivity of phosphines, recent focus of chemical ligation is shifting towards strain-promoted cycloaddition reactions with cyclooctynes (Scheme 1 a).^[11] Most prominently, azides were found to react with cyclooctynes



Scheme 1. Reactions and structures of cyclooctyne compounds for strain-promoted cycloaddition. a) Cycloaddition with azide (SPAAC) or nitron (SPANC). b) Structures of the most commonly employed cyclooctynes.

with high reaction rates in a so-called strain-promoted alkyne–azide cycloaddition (SPAAC).^[12] The toolbox of metal-free bioorthogonal reactions was most recently further expanded by our research group^[13] and others,^[14] by demonstrating that cyclooctynes undergo even more rapid strain-promoted cycloaddition with nitrones (SPANC), a procedure that was found suitable for dual, irreversible, and site-specific N-terminal modification of proteins.^[13]

The broad application of metal-free cycloaddition in life sciences is, however, hampered by the limited commercial availability and lengthy synthetic routes for preparation of the most common cyclooctynes (Scheme 1 b). For example, eight synthetic steps are required to generate second-generation DIFO (**1**),^[15] nine steps for DIBAC (**3**),^[16] and seven steps for BARAC (**4**),^[17] while yields are usually low (10% for **2**,^[18] 16% for **4**). Additional modifications, such as dibenzoannulation (compounds **2–4**), increase lipophilicity and may, therefore lead to non-specific binding to proteins.^[17]

Here we report bicyclo[6.1.0]nonyne (BCN) as a novel ring-strained alkyne for metal-free cycloaddition reactions with azides and nitrones. Bicyclononyne derivatives, which were obtained in a highly straightforward process through cyclopropanation of 1,5-cyclooctadiene, are C_s symmetrical and display excellent reaction kinetics in strain-promoted cycloaddition reactions. Functionalized derivatives of BCN were applied in the labeling of proteins and glycans, as well as in the three-dimensional visualization of living melanoma cells.

Based on the known reactivity enhancement of cyclopropane fusion,^[19] we speculated that analogues of bicyclo-

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Ultrabright and Bioorthogonal Labeling of Cellular Targets Using Semiconducting Polymer Dots and Click Chemistry**

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Click chemistry describes a powerful set of chemical reactions that are rapid, selective, and produce high yields.^[1] The most recognized of these reactions is the copper(I)-catalyzed azide–alkyne cycloaddition, which has been applied in diverse fields, ranging from materials science to chemical biology.^[2–8] For biological applications, both azido and alkyne groups are considered to be bioorthogonal chemical reporters because they do not interact with any native biological functional groups. As a result, these bioorthogonal reporters can be incorporated into a target biomolecule using the biosynthetic machinery of the cell to provide chemical handles that can be subsequently tagged with exogenous probes. The bioorthogonal reporters are complementary to genetically encoded tags, such as green fluorescent protein (GFP),^[9] and provide a powerful approach to tag biomolecules without the need of direct genetic encoding. Bioorthogonal labeling by click chemistry is highly sensitive with low background levels despite the complex cellular environment. In practice, however, the sensitivity is constrained by the abundance of the target molecules, the labeling efficiency of the chemical reporters, and the performance of the exogenous probes.^[7] In almost all cases, bright and photostable probes are highly desirable, particularly for long-term tracking and sensitive detection of low-abundance biomolecules.

Fluorescent nanoparticles, such as quantum dots (Qdots), exhibit improved brightness and photostability over traditional fluorescent dyes.^[10–12] In the context of click chemistry, however, the copper catalyst irreversibly quenches Qdot fluorescence and prevents their usage in the various applications based on copper-catalyzed click chemistry.^[13] Because of the cytotoxicity of copper, copper-free bioorthogonal approaches, such as the Staudinger ligation and the strain-promoted azide–alkyne cycloaddition, have been developed for live cell and in vivo applications.^[7] Qdots can be employed in the copper-free methods,^[13,14] where their instability caused by copper is not an issue. However, the intrinsic toxicity of

Qdots, caused by the leaching of heavy metal ions, is still a critical concern.

Semiconducting polymer dots (Pdots) are a new class of ultrabright fluorescent probes^[15–25] that can overcome both issues for click-chemistry-based applications. Previous studies showed that Pdots were not cytotoxic in different cellular assays,^[16,19,23,25] making them appealing for studies in living system. In this study, we focus on their biological applications involving copper-catalyzed click chemistry. Pdots are brighter fluorescent probes than Qdots, can have up to a thousand-fold faster emission rates than Qdots, and are photostable and do not “blink”.^[16] For biological applications, however, a significant problem of Pdots is the control over their surface chemistry and conjugation to biological molecules. This problem is a significant challenge that has prevented the widespread adoption of Pdots in biological studies.

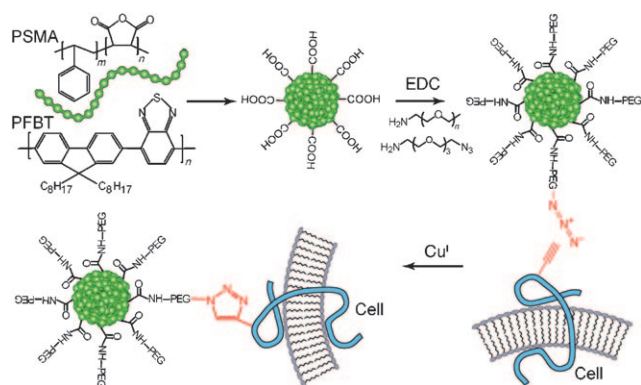
Herein we present a general method that overcomes this challenge by creating functional groups on the Pdot surface. Because the formation of Pdot is driven by a hydrophobic interaction, some amphiphilic polymer with hydrophilic functional groups may be co-condensed into a single dot during nanoparticle formation. The hydrophilic groups on the amphiphilic polymer can be used as handles for functionalizing the Pdots for conjugation to biomolecules. We found that a general copolymer, poly(styrene-co-maleic anhydride) (PSMA), successfully functionalized the Pdots for further surface conjugations (Scheme 1). PSMA provides excellent options for Pdot functionalization because it is commercially available in a broad range of molecular weights and maleic anhydride contents. In this study, PSMA was employed to functionalize Pdots made from a highly fluorescent semiconducting polymer poly[(9,9-dioctylfluorenyl-2,7-diyl)-co-(1,4-benzo-[2,1',3]-thiadiazole)] (PFBT), but the method can be applied to any hydrophobic, fluorescent, semiconducting polymers. During Pdot formation, the hydrophobic polystyrene units of PSMA molecules were most likely anchored inside the Pdot particles whilst the maleic anhydride units localized to the Pdot surface and hydrolyzed in the aqueous environment to generate carboxyl groups on the Pdot surface. The carboxyl groups enabled further surface conjugations.

Analysis of the absorption spectrum for circa 15 nm-diameter PFBT dots indicated a peak extinction coefficient of $5.0 \times 10^7 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (Supporting Information, Figure S1). Fluorescence quantum yield of the functionalized Pdots was determined to be 0.28 using a dilute solution of Coumarin 6 in ethanol as standard. The large extinction coefficient and high quantum yield indicate much higher per-particle brightness compared to other fluorescent nanoparticles. Single-particle photobleaching studies of the functionalized Pdots showed

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Scheme 1. Functionalization and conjugation of fluorescent semiconducting polymer dots for bioorthogonal labeling using click chemistry. A copolymer PSMA was co-condensed with a fluorescent semiconducting polymer PFBT (depicted as green string), thereby forming Pdots with surface carboxyl groups. The carboxyl groups enabled further surface conjugations to functional molecules for the copper(I)-catalyzed click reaction. The functionalized Pdots were selectively targeted against newly synthesized proteins or glycoproteins (blue string) in mammalian cells that were metabolically labeled with bioorthogonal chemical reporters.

that over 10^9 photons per Pdot were emitted prior to photobleaching, which is consistent with their excellent photostability.^[16] We examined the pH and ion sensitivity of Pdot fluorescence in biological applications, particularly the copper-catalyzed click chemistry. We found that the fluorescence of Pdots was not affected by most biologically relevant ions, including iron, zinc, and copper, three of the most abundant ions in biological organisms. The Pdot fluorescence is also independent of pH in the range of 4 to 9 (Supporting Information, Figure S2). This fact can be attributed to the hydrophobic organic nature of Pdots, which tend not to have any chemical interaction with ionic species. In contrast, inorganic Qdots are significantly quenched by copper and iron ions.^[26] As shown in Figure 1a, PFBT dots remained highly fluorescent in MilliQ water containing a high Cu^{I} ion concentration (1 mM), whereas Qdots were completely quenched at a much lower Cu^{I} ion concentration of $1 \mu\text{M}$.^[13] This property provides a significant advantage for applying Pdots in various studies based on copper(I)-catalyzed click reactions.

Starting from the carboxyl-functionalized Pdots, we were able to react them with either amine-azido or amine-alkyne groups using the standard carboxyl-amine coupling catalyzed by 1-ethyl-3-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-carbodiimide (EDC).^[27] Gel electrophoresis was performed to characterize the formation of different functional groups on the Pdot surface using a 0.7% agarose gel (Figure 1b). Compared with unfunctionalized, bare Pdots, the carboxyl-functionalized Pdots exhibited an apparent increase in mobility in the gel. Dynamic light scattering and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) measurements showed that both the bare and the functionalized Pdots had comparable particle sizes, with an average of about 15 nm in diameter (Figure 1c). Therefore, the high mobility of PSMA-functionalized Pdots indicated the formation of negatively charged carboxyl groups on the Pdot

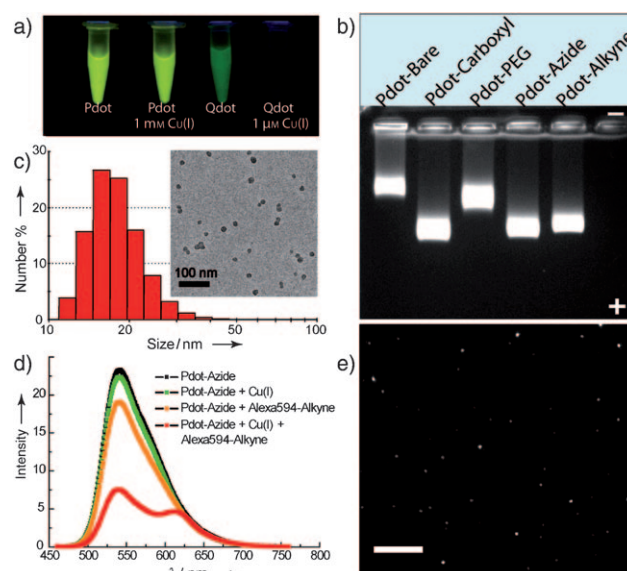


Figure 1. a) Fluorescence photographs of Pdots versus Qdots in the presence of copper(I) under UV illumination. b) Gel electrophoresis of Pdots with different surface functional groups in an 0.7% agarose gel. c) Hydrodynamic diameter of carboxyl-functionalized Pdots measured by dynamic light scattering; inset shows a typical TEM image of functionalized Pdots. d) Fluorescent assay using alkyne-Alexa 594 dye to verify successful functionalization of Pdots with azido groups. e) Single-particle fluorescence images of alkyne-silica nanoparticles coupled to azido Pdots by a click reaction. Scale bar: 50 μm .

surface. Surface conjugation was performed with different amine-containing molecules (amine-terminated polyethylene glycol (PEG), azide, and alkyne). Dynamic light scattering of the conjugated Pdots showed no obvious change in particle size because the conjugation was with small molecules. However, they exhibited shifted migration bands in the gel, as anticipated, owing to the reduced charges of the Pdot conjugates compared to the carboxyl-functionalized Pdots. These results clearly indicate successful carboxyl functionalization of the Pdots as well as all the subsequent surface modifications.

Figure 1d shows a fluorescence assay examining the reactivity of azido Pdots towards a terminal alkyne group by the copper(I)-catalyzed click reaction. When mixed with a copper solution, the azido Pdots exhibited an emission intensity similar to that of the pure Pdots, confirming that their fluorescence is insensitive to copper ions. A slight decrease in intensity was observed in the mixture of Pdots and alkyne-Alexa 594 (no Cu^{I}), but this was primarily due to the inner filter effect rather than direct quenching caused by fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET). In contrast, when directly linked to alkyne-Alexa 594 in the presence of Cu^{I} , the azido Pdots showed remarkable fluorescence quenching accompanied by an emission peak from the Alexa dye. This spectroscopic change was a direct result of efficient FRET from the PFBT dots to the Alexa dye in close proximity and indicated the effective azide-alkyne click reaction. Furthermore, we also clicked the azido Pdots onto alkyne-functionalized silica nanoparticles to convert the optically inert silica particles into highly fluorescent probes.

The Pdot-silica conjugates were clearly visible at the single-particle level even on a mercury-lamp-illuminated, low-magnification ($4\times$) fluorescent microscope (Figure 1e).

To demonstrate cellular labeling with Pdots and click chemistry, we visualized newly synthesized proteins that were modified by bioorthogonal non-canonical amino-acid tagging (BONCAT). In the BONCAT technique, newly synthesized proteins in cells are metabolically labeled with an azido- or alkyne-bearing artificial amino acid. The artificial amino acid endows the proteins with unique chemical functionality that subsequently can be tagged with exogenous probes for detection or isolation in a highly selective manner.^[28] Azido-homoalanine (AHA) and homopropargylglycine (HPG) are two artificial amino acids commonly used in this method.^[29,30] They are effective surrogates for methionine, an essential amino acid; in the absence of methionine, the cellular synthesis machinery incorporates them into proteins in a straightforward manner. This approach is operationally similar to the traditional metabolic labeling with radioactive amino acid ^{35}S -methionine. After incorporation, AHA and HPG are susceptible to tagging with exogenous probes, which in our case are the highly fluorescent Pdots for in situ imaging.

Our first experiment for protein imaging was to target the AHA-labeled proteins with Pdot-alkyne probes. MCF-7 human breast cancer cells were grown to confluence before passage into serum-free medium lacking methionine. After incubation to deplete any residual methionine, cell cultures were supplemented with AHA for four hours. Then the cells were washed and fixed before carrying out the click reaction with alkyne Pdots in the presence of CuSO_4 , a reducing agent (sodium ascorbate), and a triazole ligand. The Pdot-tagged cells were viewed immediately on a confocal fluorescence microscope. Identical settings were used to acquire images from the Pdot-labeled cells and the negative controls.

Figure 2 shows confocal fluorescence and bright-field images of the Pdot-labeled cells and the control samples. We observed very bright fluorescence for the AHA-labeled cells tagged with Pdot-alkyne by the click reaction (Figure 2a).

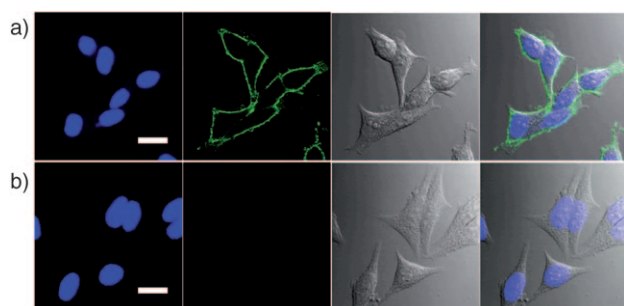


Figure 2. Fluorescence imaging of newly synthesized proteins in the AHA-treated MCF-7 cells tagged with Pdot-alkyne probes. a) Positive Pdot labeling in the presence of copper(I). b) Negative control for Pdot labeling carried out under identical conditions as in (a) but in the absence of the reducing agent (sodium ascorbate) that generates copper(I) from copper(II). The left four panels show fluorescence images; green fluorescence is from Pdots and blue fluorescence is from the nuclear stain Hoechst 34580. The right four panels show Nomarski (DIC) and combined DIC and fluorescence images. Scale bars: 20 μm .

When the cells were incubated under identical conditions but in absence of the reducing agent (sodium ascorbate) that forms copper(I) from CuSO_4 , cell labeling by Pdots was not observed (Figure 2b), indicating that Pdot-alkyne was selective for the copper(I)-catalyzed reaction. In a different control, copper(I)-catalyzed Pdot-alkyne tagging was performed under identical conditions as those in Figure 2a but in cells not exposed to AHA. In this control, cell labeling also was not observed (Supporting Information, Figure S3), indicating Pdot-alkyne tagging was highly specific for the cellular targets of interest. Furthermore, we also used Pdot-azide to detect newly synthesized proteins in MCF-7 cells incubated with HPG. In this case, the Pdot-azide also specifically and effectively labeled the targets (Supporting Information, Figure S4). In comparison with the Pdot-alkyne labeling (AHA-treated cells), we did not observe obvious difference in the fluorescence brightness of the Pdot-azide labeling (HPG-treated cells). This is consistent with the literature results that HPG and AHA show very similar activities in the synthesis of nascent proteins in mammalian cells.^[28,29]

Next, we used Pdot-alkyne probes to selectively target glycoproteins, a subset of proteins extensively involved in various biological functions.^[31] The bioorthogonal chemical reaction strategy has been previously developed for probing glycans on cultured cells and in various living organisms.^[32–35] The method involves metabolic labeling of glycans with a monosaccharide precursor that is functionalized with an azido group, after which the azido sugars are covalently tagged with imaging probes. We incubated MCF-7 cells with N-azidoacetylgalactosamine (GalNAz) for three days to enrich O-linked glycoproteins with the azido groups. The GalNAz-treated cells were tagged with Pdot-alkyne by a click reaction and subsequently viewed on a confocal microscope. Bright cell-surface labeling was observed for the cells positively tagged with Pdot-alkyne (Figure 3a). In the negative control, where cells were incubated with Pdot-alkyne in the absence of the reducing agent, cell labeling was not observed (Figure 3b). As an additional control, we carried out Pdot tagging under identical conditions but in cells lacking azides; in this case, cell

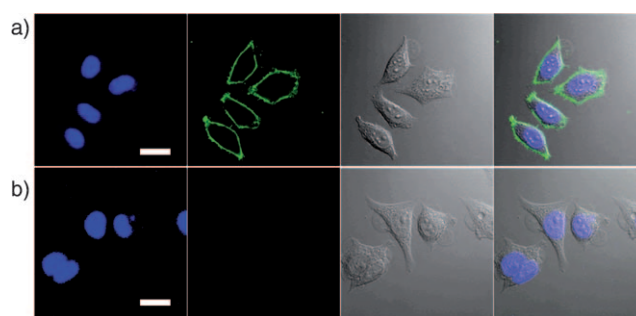


Figure 3. Fluorescence imaging of glycoproteins in GalNAz-treated MCF-7 cells tagged with Pdot-alkyne probes. a) Positive Pdot labeling in the presence of copper(I). b) Negative control for Pdot labeling carried out under identical conditions as in (a) but in the absence of copper(I). The left four panels show fluorescence images; green fluorescence is from Pdots and blue fluorescence is from the nuclear stain Hoechst 34580. The right four panels show Nomarski (DIC) and combined DIC and fluorescence images. Scale bars: 20 μm .

labeling was not observed, again indicating Pdot labeling was highly specific for the cellular targets of interest.

For the Pdot labeling described in this study, we applied very low Pdot concentrations (ca. 50 nM), which was orders of magnitude less than the general concentration used for small dye molecules (typically in the μM range). We emphasize that Pdot tagging by click chemistry was highly specific in our experiments, with virtually no background labeling in all the control samples. Finally, we used the Pdot probes to detect glycoproteins and newly synthesized proteins in a different cell line, 3T3 fibroblast. In all these cases, the Pdots also specifically and effectively labeled the targets, demonstrating the strategy was equally efficient and successful in different cell lines.

In conclusion, we presented a facile conjugation method that covalently links functional molecules to Pdots for click chemistry-based bioorthogonal labeling of cellular targets. These functionalized Pdots were selectively targeted against newly synthesized proteins and glycoproteins in mammalian cells that were metabolically labeled with bioorthogonal chemical reporters. The highly efficient, specific, and bright protein labeling using Pdots and click chemistry demonstrate the potential of this method for visualizing various cellular processes. We anticipate the method described herein will enable Pdots to be used in a wide range of cellular studies and fluorescence applications.

Experimental Section

Functionalized Pdots in aqueous solution were prepared by using a modified nanoprecipitation method. In a typical preparation, PFBT and PSMA were dissolved in THF to produce a solution mixture with a PFBT concentration of $50\text{ }\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ and a PSMA concentration of $10\text{ }\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$. The mixture was sonicated to form a homogeneous solution. A 5 mL quantity of the solution mixture was quickly added to 10 mL of MilliQ water in a bath sonicator. The THF was removed under a stream of nitrogen gas. The solution was concentrated by continuous evaporation under a stream of nitrogen gas to 5 mL on a 90°C hotplate followed by filtration through a 0.2 micrometer filter.

Surface conjugation was performed by utilizing the EDC-catalyzed reaction between carboxyl Pdots and the respective amine-containing molecules. 11-Azido-3,6,9-trioxaundecan-1-amine was used to form azido Pdots; propargylamine was used to produce alkyne Pdots; amine-terminated poly(ethylene glycol) was used to form PEG-Pdots. In a typical conjugation reaction, 60 μL of polyethylene glycol (5% w/v PEG, MW 3350) and 60 μL of concentrated HEPES buffer (1M) were added to 3 mL of carboxyl Pdot solution ($50\text{ }\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ in MilliQ water), resulting in a Pdot solution in 20 mM HEPES buffer with a pH of 7.3. Amine-containing molecules (1 mg mL^{-1} , 30 μL) was then added to the solution and mixed well on a vortex. Finally, 60 μL of freshly-prepared EDC solution (5 mg mL^{-1} in MilliQ water) was added to the solution, and the above mixture was magnetically stirred for 4 h at room temperature. Finally, the resulting Pdot conjugates were separated from free molecules by Bio-Rad Econo-Pac 10DG columns (Hercules, CA, USA).

For metabolic labeling of newly synthesized proteins, MCF-7 cells were grown to confluence before passage into serum-free medium lacking methionine. After one hour incubation to deplete any residual methionine, cultures were supplemented with 0.1 mM AHA or HPG for four hours. The cells were washed twice by 1X PBS, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde/PBS, and blocked using a blocking buffer. The AHA- or HPG-labeled cells were incubated for one hour with a

mixture of 1 mM CuSO_4 , 5 mM sodium ascorbate, 0.5 mM tris((1-benzyl-1H-1,2,3-triazol-4-yl)methyl)amine (TBTA, triazole ligand), and 50 nM alkyne-Pdots (for AHA-labeled cells) or azido-Pdots (for HPG-labeled cells). For metabolic labeling of glycoproteins, MCF-7 cells were cultured using the general EMEM medium containing 50 μM GalNAz for three days to enrich the azido groups in O-linked glycoproteins. The GalNAz-labeled cells were washed twice with PBS, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde/PBS, and blocked. The GalNAz-labeled cells were then incubated for one hour with a mixture of 1 mM CuSO_4 , 5 mM sodium ascorbate, 0.5 mM TBTA, and 50 nM alkyne Pdots. The Pdot-tagged cells were then counterstained with Hoechst 34580, washed three times by PBS and imaged immediately on a fluorescence confocal microscope (Zeiss LSM 510).

The materials, cell culture, experimental details of Pdot characterizations, and additional figures are provided in the Supporting Information.

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