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Deleterious effects of calcium indicators within cells; an inconvenient truth

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ABSTRACT

The study of cellular Ca^{2+} signalling is indebted to Roger Tsien for the invention of fluorescent indicators that can be readily loaded into living cells and provide the means to measure cellular Ca^{2+} changes over long periods of time with sub-second resolution and microscopic precision. However, a recent study [1] reminds us that as useful as these tools are they need to be employed with caution as there can be off-target effects. This article summarises these recent findings within the wider context of confounding issues that can be encountered when using chemical and genetically-encoded Ca^{2+} indicators, and briefly discusses some approaches that may mitigate against misleading outcomes.

Tsien and colleagues invented numerous fluorescent indicators that are used to monitor cellular Ca^{2+} [2,3]. The fluorescent indicators vary in properties such as affinity, excitation and emission wavelengths, cellular location, and whether they have single wavelength maxima for excitation/emission, or can be used in a ratiometric manner [4]. These chemical Ca^{2+} indicators (as they are sometimes called; hereafter referred to as ‘Ca^{2+} indicators’) are based on BAPTA, an aminopolycarboxylic acid (Fig. 1). Being charged molecules, Ca^{2+} indicators are hydrophilic and therefore cell impermeant. Tsien showed that esterification of the carboxyl groups conferred lipophilicity, allowing the Ca^{2+} indicators to cross cell membranes [5]. Once inside cells, the esters are hydrolysed, and the free acid, Ca^{2+}-binding molecule is released. Depending on the loading conditions used, the intracellular accumulation of Ca^{2+} indicators can plausibly span from micromolar to millimolar concentrations. Where loading of esterified Ca^{2+} indicators is sub-optimal, the free acid forms can be introduced into cells using techniques such as microinjection or via patch pipettes.

The ease with which Ca^{2+} indicators can be loaded and monitored has led to their use in thousands of studies that have characterised the spatial and temporal properties of Ca^{2+} signals in various cell types. Chemical Ca^{2+} indicators are ideal in many ways; they have rapid Ca^{2+}-binding kinetics, are brightly fluorescent, and are functional within cells for long periods of time [6]. Moreover, the output from these Ca^{2+} indicators can usually be readily calibrated into Ca^{2+} concentration [7]. BAPTA is commonly used to test, or negate, the involvement of Ca^{2+} in cellular processes, and is often loaded to large excess to provide stringent buffering of Ca^{2+} concentration. While Ca^{2+} indicators and BAPTA are critical tools for dissecting cellular responses, relatively few studies have included controls for their potential off-target effects.

A recent study from Maiken Nedergaard’s lab [1] highlighted an interaction of Ca^{2+} indicators and BAPTA with the Na^{+}/K^{+}-ATPase, a ubiquitous cellular enzyme, with consequent deleterious effects on metabolism, signalling and cell survival. Specifically, Smith et al. [1] observed that commonly used Ca^{2+} indicators (Fluo-4, Rhod-2 and Fura-2), as well BAPTA, inhibited the Na^{+}/K^{+}-ATPase in several primary cell types independent of Ca^{2+} binding. They found that the Ca^{2+} indicators and BAPTA altered K^{+} homeostasis and caused ATP release within the cortex of living animals, as well as reducing spontaneous Ca^{2+} signals within primary astrocytes. An additional effect of Fluo-4, Fura-2 and BAPTA was to decrease the cellular uptake of glucose. Given the critical role of the Na^{+}/K^{+}-ATPase in establishing Na^{+} and K^{+} gradients (which are critical for the membrane potential, secondary active transport, ionic transport and cell volume regulation), it is not surprising that inhibition of this enzyme would influence many downstream processes. For example, the Na^{+}/K^{+}-ATPase is the primary mechanism for extracellular K^{+} buffering in the brain; the archetypal function of astrocytes, and critical for overall regulation of the excitability of the central nervous system [8]. Moreover, the Na^{+}/K^{+}-ATPase can function within cellular microdomains that include other transporters and signalling moieties including Src kinase, phospholipase Cγ and inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃) receptors [9]. Long-term inhibition of the Na^{+}/K^{+}-ATPase leads to altered gene transcription [10] and prevents autophagic cell death (autosis) [11]. Rhod-2

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appeared to have a further negative effect on mitochondrial ATP production since it stimulated glucose uptake and glycolysis to compensate for reduced respiration. Although some labs use Rhod-2 to monitor cytosolic Ca\(^{2+}\), due to its delocalised positive charge Rhod-2 accumulates within the mitochondrial matrix and has been used extensively to monitor mitochondrial Ca\(^{2+}\) sequestration \[12\]. Further work is needed to establish how Rhod-2 alters mitochondrial function, but other rhodamine-based compounds have been shown to affect the electron transfer and the F\(_{1}\)F\(_{0}\)-ATPase \[13\], and the adenine nucleotide translocase \[14\].

A number of studies have noted that Ca\(^{2+}\) indicators and BAPTA have Ca\(^{2+}\)-independent off-target actions and may not be freely diffusible within cells (Fig. 2 and Table 1) \[15\]. Although more work is needed to understand how these compounds affect cellular targets, a direct interaction is plausible since they are known to bind to cellular proteins \[16,17\]. In fact, it has been estimated that the majority of Fura-2 molecules within a cell may be bound by cytosolic proteins, even if the Ca\(^{2+}\) indicator is injected as the free acid \[17\]. Within muscle cells, typically > 80% of Ca\(^{2+}\) indicator molecules are bound to cellular components \[18\], leading to changes in the indicator’s fluorescence properties \[19,20\]. Non-specific binding of Fura-2 to proteins is enhanced in environments with an acidic pH \[21\].

Smith et al. \[1\] observed that the inhibition of Na\(^+\)/K\(^+\)-ATPase by Ca\(^{2+}\) indicators and BAPTA was retained in cell membrane

![Fig. 1. Chemical structure of BAPTA and analogues, and complexation of Ca\(^{2+}\). Panel A, BAPTA free acid (deprotonated). Panel B, stylised representation of the Ca\(^{2+}\):BAPTA complex showing binding by the carboxyl groups, with participation also from the ester oxygen and nitrogen atoms. Panel C, BAPTA-AM ester form. Panel D, Difluoro- or dibromo-BAPTA-AM analogues.](image)

![Fig. 2. Reported cellular interactions of BAPTA and/or Ca\(^{2+}\) indicators. The figure does not show an exhaustive list of the off-target effects of BAPTA/Ca\(^{2+}\) indicators, but points out some of the key interactions reported by Smith et al. (1), as well as other reported outcomes.](image)
changing BAPTA concentration and having an altered cellular response (i.e. the response was dependent on [BAPTA], but not [Ca2+]).

preparations that had been incubated in a lysis buffer for several hours. Under such conditions any freely diffusible molecules would have been lost from the cells. Whilst these data suggest a long-lasting interaction, it is unclear whether the Na+/K+-ATPase is directly targeted by Ca2+ indicators and BAPTA, or if their effects are mediated by accessory factors. Ouabain, a naturally occurring inhibitor of the Na+/K+-ATPase [36], and conversely inhibition of the enzyme causes Ca2+ oscillations [37]. Inhibition of the Na+/K+-ATPase is both upstream and downstream of cellular ed targets, as Ca2+-independent effects of BAPTA are commonly reported to be mediated by accessory of Ca2+ [25]. However, altering the length of the ether chain linking the aromatic groups, substitution of nitrogen atoms, or altering the position of the benzene rings changed their po- tency for inducing prostacyclin production. Concentration- and time-dependent effects of BAPTA; both activation and inhibition were observed. Decrease tubulina polymerisation Inhibition of phospholipase C Enhanced prostacyclin release. Concentration- and time-dependent effect of BAPTA; both activation and inhibition were observed. Inhibition of heterologously-expressed K+ channels Inactivation of protein kinase C Inhibition of insulin 1,4,5-trisphosphate-induced Ca2+ release Reduced cellular ATP levels Reduced insulin-stimulated translocation of GLUT4 Cytoskeletal disassembly Reduced cellular ATP levels Changes in mitochondrial morphology and distribution

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reagent</th>
<th>Cell type</th>
<th>Working concentration</th>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BAPTA-AM</td>
<td>Rat parotid cells</td>
<td>100 μM</td>
<td>Reduced cellular ATP levels</td>
<td>[26]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAPTA-AM</td>
<td>3T3-L1 adipocytes</td>
<td>50 μM</td>
<td>Reduced insulin-stimulated translocation of GLUT4</td>
<td>[27]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAPTA-AM</td>
<td>A6 (Xenopus), RAT2 cells</td>
<td>50 μM</td>
<td>Cytoskeletal disassembly</td>
<td>[28]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAPTA-AM</td>
<td>Murine brown adipocytes</td>
<td>1–2 mM</td>
<td>Reduced cellular ATP levels</td>
<td>[29]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAPTA-AM</td>
<td>3T3-L1 adipocytes</td>
<td>12.5–50 μM</td>
<td>Decrease tubulina polymerisation</td>
<td>[30]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAPTA and di-bromo BAPTA</td>
<td>Drosophila photoreceptors</td>
<td>– 1–10 Mm (IC50 for BAPTA)</td>
<td>Inhibition of phospholipase C</td>
<td>[31]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAPTA-AM, di-fluo BAPTA-AM, and di-bromo BAPTA-AM</td>
<td>Endothelial cells</td>
<td>0.5–50 μM</td>
<td>Enhanced prostacyclin release. Concentration- and time-dependent effect of BAPTA; both activation and inhibition were observed.</td>
<td>[32]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAPTA-AM</td>
<td>HEK293 cells</td>
<td>0.1–50 μM (IC50 = 1 μM)</td>
<td>Inhibition of heterologously-expressed K+ channels</td>
<td>[33]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAPTA-AM</td>
<td>Liver macrophages</td>
<td>10 μM</td>
<td>Inactivation of protein kinase C</td>
<td>[34]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAPTA-AM</td>
<td>Hepatocytes</td>
<td>1 μM–10 mM (Kd = 1.8 mM)</td>
<td>Inhibition of insulin 1,4,5-trisphosphate-induced Ca2+ release</td>
<td>[35]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAPTA</td>
<td>Mouse brown adipocytes</td>
<td>– 1 mM</td>
<td>Reduced cellular ATP levels</td>
<td>[26]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A critical question concerning the continued use of chemical Ca2+ indicators is whether it is possible to overcome or control for, their effects on the Na+/K+-ATPase inhibition. One of the products resulting from the intracellular hydrolysis of esterified Ca2+ indicators is formaldehyde, which is widely used as a tissue fixing agent. However, Smith et al [1] found that the free acid forms of Ca2+ indicators and BAPTA could inhibit the Na+/K+-ATPase, suggesting that products released via ester hydrolysis were not causative. These observations indicate that introduction of Ca2+ indicators and BAPTA via micro-injection or patch pipettes cannot solve the issue.

An alternative to the use of chemical Ca2+ indicators is genetically-encoded Ca2+ indicators (GECIs), which are generally based on the fusion of Ca2+-binding proteins with fluorescent proteins [42]. In their study, Smith et al. [1] demonstrated that the GECI GCaMP3 did not cause inhibition of the Na+/K+-ATPase, or alter the frequency of astrocytic Ca2+ signals. However, whilst GECIs have great utility, particularly for long-term recordings [43], they may not perform as well as chemical Ca2+ indicators in terms of their Ca2+-binding kinetics or sensitivity [44], and might be unsuitable in situations where cells (e.g. cardiomyocytes) could functionally change during the time needed for the GECI expression. As with chemical Ca2+ indicators, the use of GECIs relies on an adequate expression level, correct localization and the absence of deleterious cellular effects. However, it was found that following viral transduction, the expression level of GCaMP3 was not stable and increased over time, reaching an expression level above the optimum signal-to-noise ratio after 7 weeks [45]. Moreover, following long-term expression, GCaMP3 protein was not only found in the cytoplasm (its intended compartment), but additionally non-functional, N-terminally cleaved GCaMP3 accumulated in the nuclei of neurons [46,47], and atypical responses were observed [46]. The presence of non-functional GECI molecules resulted in an under-estimation of the observed Ca2+ responses.

Similar to chemical Ca2+ indicators, a substantial portion of GECIs can be bound to cellular targets (around 50% in neurons) [47], which could lead to altered properties such as a change of Ca2+ sensitivity. Furthermore, long-term expression of GECIs may result in prolonged Ca2+ buffering, thereby impacting on Ca2+-regulated processes including transcriptional regulation via NFAT or CREB. Since the expression of several Ca2+ transport systems is controlled through these Ca2+-dependent transcription factors (e.g. insulin 1,4,5-trisphosphate receptors and the mitochondrial uniporter via NFAT2 and CREB, respectively [48,49]), GECIs might adversely affect the expression of Ca2+ channels and transporters. Moreover, GECIs (specifically
### Table 2
Assessing, and controlling for, Ca^{2+}-independent cellular actions Ca^{2+} indicators and BAPTA, and other experimental issues arising from fluorescence imaging.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Utility</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Application of ouabain</td>
<td>Given that the Na^{+}/K^{+}-ATPase has been shown to be affected by Ca^{2+} indicators and BAPTA, ouabain could be used as a control. If ouabain replicates experimental outcomes observed using Ca^{2+} indicators and BAPTA, then the Na^{+}/K^{+}-ATPase may be involved.</td>
<td>It would be difficult to know exactly how much ouabain would be needed to replicate putative Na^{+}/K^{+}-ATPase inhibition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of low affinity BAPTA analogues</td>
<td>Low affinity BAPTA analogues can be loaded using the same conditions as for BAPTA. Due to their lesser affinity for Ca^{2+}, the analogues should not replicate the effect of BAPTA if a particular cellular process is Ca^{2+}-dependent.</td>
<td>This is potentially the simplest control to perform. However, since the low affinity BAPTA analogues may not buffer Ca^{2+} to the same extent as BAPTA, it would be necessary to show that they have loaded into the cells by measuring increased absorption at 260 nm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Ca^{2+}- buffering AM ester compounds</td>
<td>To assess the potential effects of de-esterification of Ca^{2+} indicators and BAPTA within cells, it could be helpful to use non-Ca^{2+}-buffering, cell-permeable esters as a reference. For example, BCECF-AM, a cell-permeable pH indicator, could be used as a reference.</td>
<td>One potential caveat in the use of BAPTA analogues is whether they have the same off-target effects. There is evidence that they share the same off-target actions on the Na^{+}/K^{+}-ATPase [1], phospholipase C [31] and prostacyclin release [32].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of pharmacological reagents to verify the involvement of Ca^{2+}</td>
<td>An adjunct to the use of BAPTA to investigate the role of Ca^{2+} signals in a cellular response could be pharmacological reagents that target specific Ca^{2+} transport processes. For example, U73122, 2-APB and xestospongin B could be used to implicate IP3 signaling and/or Ca^{2+} influx [50-54], or mitoxantrone may be used to examine the role of the mitochondrial Ca^{2+} uniporter [56].</td>
<td>Whilst this is an easy control to perform, it might be difficult to match the intracellular concentrations of Ca^{2+} indicators and BAPTA with a reference indicator such as BCECF. In addition, reference indicators may have their own off-target effects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of chelators to rule out effects of heavy metals</td>
<td>Chemical Ca^{2+} indicators all show varying degrees of affinity for heavy metal ions like Mn^{2+} and Zn^{2+} [58]. If changes in the concentration of heavy metal ion concentrations occur, these might be interpreted as changes in the Ca^{2+} concentration without appropriate controls.</td>
<td>Some pharmacological tools have genetic correlates that can be used in parallel. For example, xestospongin B and 2-APB can be used in conjunction with the IP3, 5′-phosphatase, or a high-affinity IP3 sponge, to inhibit IP3-mediated Ca^{2+} signals [57,58].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effects of pH and experimental reagents on Ca^{2+} indicators and their calibration</td>
<td>The spectral characteristics and affinities of many chemical Ca^{2+} indicators (and GECIs) is pH-dependent. The affinity for Ca^{2+} is usually not affected within the physiological cytosolic pH range, but can be reduced at acidic pH [65]. The fluorescence of Ca^{2+} indicators may be affected by experimental reagents such as caffeine [66] and resveratrol [67].</td>
<td>The effect of experimental reagents on Ca^{2+} indicators can be tested using solutions of the indicator free acid. If an effect is observed, caution will be needed in interpreting experimental results and calibration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression of GECIs and Ca^{2+}-binding proteins</td>
<td>GECIs and Ca^{2+}-binding proteins can be used for the same purposes as chemical Ca^{2+} indicators and BAPTA providing that they can be expressed within the cells of interest.</td>
<td>Whilst the principles of calibrating the output of Ca^{2+} indicators, and transforming fluorescence recordings into Ca^{2+} concentration, are relatively straightforward there are several potential pitfalls. For example, it may be difficult to obtain maximal and minimal fluorescence signals or the correct Kd values, and there may be Ca^{2+}-insensitive or compartmentalised forms of Ca^{2+} indicators within cells. Some of these issues, and their solutions, have been discussed previously [7,71-73]. GECIs are a growing method for monitoring cellular Ca^{2+} signals. They can be targeted to specific cellular regions/structures and are available in different colour variants. GECIs can be expressed in a stable or transient manner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mitigating potential pitfalls of chemical Ca^{2+} indicators</td>
<td>There are a number of issues that can arise when performing fluorescence experiments: chelation of heavy metals, indicator bleaching, production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), compartmentalisation/extusion of fluorescent reporters, and varying affinities of reporters for Ca^{2+} in different cellular environments [73]. An issue that is not widely considered is the induction of autophagy when using simple extracellular solutions that do not have growth factors or amino acids. Autophagy can induce a change in Ca^{2+} transport systems [75].</td>
<td>The impact of bleaching and ROS may be minimised by using short excitation exposure times and low incident light energy, or supplementation with ROS scavengers.</td>
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(continued on next page)
GCaMPs) change the apparent sensitivity of cells to IP₃ [44]. Most transgenic GECI mice do not show an obviously altered phenotype [47], but profound effects of GECI expression have been observed, e.g. cardiac hypertrophy in a mouse expressing GCaMP2 [50]. It is plausible that mild phenotypic changes, which go undetected, could nevertheless affect the experimental results obtained with specific cell types. For example, a detailed study of transgenic mice expressing the troponin C-based GECI TN-XXL revealed changes in behavioural parameters, cardiac function and gene expression, despite the absence of a strong whole animal phenotype [51].

It has to be pointed out that the effect of Ca²⁺-indicators and BAPTA on the Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase, as reported by Smith et al. [1], impinge on the results of published studies. However, it is a reminder that the loading of Ca²⁺ indicators is best kept minimal and should be controlled for. Whilst substantial loading of Ca²⁺ indicators may improve signal to noise in fluorescence recordings, it can actually lead to diminished Ca²⁺ signals due to buffering. Smith et al. [1] observed that the inhibition of the Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase was proportional to the concentration of Ca²⁺ indicator loaded. With modest concentrations of Ca²⁺ indicator loading, there was no significant effect on the Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase activity. It is possible that empirically establishing minimal Ca²⁺ indicator-loading conditions may avoid deleterious effects on the Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase and other yet unknown cellular targets. Some years ago, Erwin Neher pointed out that both very high and very low concentrations of a Ca²⁺ indicator, such as Fura-2, may be useful but for different experimental purposes, and that intermediate concentrations should be avoided as they may not give accurate results. Generally, to measure changes in the cytosolic free Ca²⁺ concentration, a minimal indicator concentration should be used to circumvent extra Ca²⁺ buffering, whilst for measuring Ca²⁺ flux a sufficient amount of Ca²⁺ indicator must be present to overcome the endogenous Ca²⁺ buffers in the cell [52].

In experiments where BAPTA is used to implicate the involvement of Ca²⁺ in a cellular process, it could be important to perform additional controls using low affinity versions of BAPTA such as dibromo-BAPTA and difluoro-BAPTA (Kᵦ values 1.6 and 65 μM, respectively, compared to a Kᵦ of 160 mM for BAPTA) (Fig. 1). These low affinity Ca²⁺ chelators should not phenocopy the effect of BAPTA if the cellular response involves Ca²⁺. Moreover, it would be ideal if the Ca²⁺ buffering of BAPTA was tested after it has been loaded into cells. The buffering of cytosolic Ca²⁺ is generally assumed after BAPTA-AM loading, and is not routinely demonstrated in studies that use BAPTA as a means of blocking cellular Ca²⁺ signalling. The effectiveness of BAPTA could be easily tested by stimulating GECI-expressing or Ca²⁺ indicator-loaded cells with a Ca²⁺-releasing agonist (e.g. ATP). If this is not suitable, the loading of BAPTA into cells could be verified by measuring absorbance of the compound at ~260 nm. Some of the approaches that may be taken to mitigate off-target effects of Ca²⁺ indicators and BAPTA, and ancillary experimental issues, are described in Table 2.

The study by Smith et al. [1] is a timely reminder that we need to be cautious in our use of chemical Ca²⁺ indicators and BAPTA. Evidence has been presented over many years that these compounds may have deleterious off-target actions (Table 1). However, there are a range of strategies that can be adopted to counteract potential confounding effects (Table 2). Chemical Ca²⁺ indicators and BAPTA remain ideal tools for certain situations, but additional control experiments may be both necessary and prudent.

Acknowledgements

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References


Table 2 (continued)

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<tr>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Utility</th>
<th>Notes</th>
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<tr>
<td>The induction of autophagy can be tested using a number of markers, and can be avoided by including growth factors and amino acids in the extracellular medium. Complete phenol red-free culture medium can be used for imaging providing that it is supplemented with a pH buffer that can work outside a CO₂-gassed incubator. However, long term (&gt; 7b) presence of HEPES in the medium has been shown to induce autophagy [77].</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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R.C. Hardie, Inhibition of phosphatase activity in Drosophila photoreceptors by 1,2-bis(2-aminophenoxy)ethane-N,N,N′,N′-tetracetic acid (BAPTA) and di-bromo fluorescein, Cell Calcium 9 (1988) 547–556.


