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A smart fluorescence nanoprobe for the detection of cellular alkaline phosphatase activity and early osteogenic differentiation

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6 Abstract

In the past decades, biomaterials were designed to induce stem cell toward osteogenic differentiation. However, conventional methods for 7 evaluation osteogenic differentiation all required a process of cell fixation or lysis, which induce waste of a large number of cells. In this study, a 8 fluorescence nanoprobe was synthesized by combining phosphorylated fluoresceinamine isomer I (FLA) on the surface of mesoporous silica-coated 9 superparamagnetic iron oxide ($Fe_3O_4(@mSiO_2)$) nanoparticles. In the presence of alkaline phosphatase (ALP), the phosphorylated FLA on the 10nanoprobe would be hydrolyzed, resulting in a fluorescence recovery of FLA. During early osteogenic differentiation, a high-level expression of 11 cellular ALP was induced, which accelerated the hydrolysis of phosphorylated FLA, resulting in an enhancement of cellular fluorescence intensity. 12 This fluorescence nanoprobe provides us a rapid and non-toxic method for the detection of cellular ALP activity and early osteogenic differentiation. 13 © 2016 Published by Elsevier Inc. 14

15 Key words: Fluorescence nanoprobe; Stem cell; Alkaline phosphatase; Osteogenic differentiation

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Q9 Introduction

Mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) are multi-potential stem 18 cells that can differentiate into a variety of cells, such as 19osteocytes, chondrocytes, adipocytes and myoblasts.^{1,2} Simul-20taneously, because MSCs can be readily isolated from a number 21of tissues including blood, liver, bone marrow, spleen, dental and 22adipose³⁻⁶ and easily expanded in vitro,⁷ they have attracted 23 great attention for the applications in stem cell based therapy. 24The osteogenic differentiation of MSCs has been widely studied 25since the pioneering study by Friedenstein and coworkers^{8,9} that 26MSCs could form osteoblasts and bone matrix in vivo. To induce 27osteogenic differentiation, physical or chemical stimuli were 28introduced to biomaterials for tissue engineering and regenera-29tive medicine.^{10–12} Generally, the osteogenic differentiation 30 capacity of the biomaterials was evaluated by traditional 31

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.nano.2016.01.010 1549-9634/© 2016 Published by Elsevier Inc. methods such as alkaline phosphatase (ALP) staining for enzyme 32 activity, von Kossa or Alizarin red S staining for mineralization 33 of the extracellular matrix, Western blot analysis for the marker 34 proteins: osteopontin (OPN), osteocalcin (OCN) and Collagen I, 35 and reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) 36 for the osteogenic-related gene expressions.¹⁰ However, all these 37 methods require cell lysis or fixation, which might induce usage 38 of a large number of stem cells. 39

In recent years, new methods were proposed for the detection of 40 osteogenic differentiation. Kuo et al¹³ used surface plasmon 41 resonance (SPR) biosensors to detect the osteogenic protein marker 42 by measuring the refractive angle shift during the differentiation 43 process. Erdem et al¹⁴ used an electrochemical sensor to detect 44 the expression of osteogenic differentiation protein markers. Choi 45 et al¹⁵ designed a gold@polydopamine nanoprobe for the detection 46 of osteogenic-related microRNAs. However, the methods for the 47 detection of osteogenic differentiation are still limited.

ALP, which is an early marker for osteogenic differentiation,^{16–18} 49 is also a monophosphate hydrolase that could catalyze the hydrolysis 50 of monophosphate to the corresponding alcohol (or phenol) and 51 phosphate ion.¹⁹ Therefore, in this study, a phosphorylated 52 fluoresceinamine isomer I (FLA) based nanoprobe was developed 53 to detect the cellular ALP activity and early osteogenic differentiation 54 (Figure 1). In the presence of ALP, the monophosphate could be 55 rapidly hydrolyzed, ²⁰ resulting in a fluorescence recovery of FLA. 56

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Figure 1. Illustration of the fluorescence nanoprobe for monitoring ALP activity and detection early osteogenic differentiation.

57 Methods

58 Fluorescence nanoprobe synthesis and characterization

59 The mesoporous silica-coated superparamagnetic iron oxide (Fe₃O₄@mSiO₂) nanoparticles were prepared according to 60 previous report,²¹ and the fluorescence nanoprobe was synthe-61 sized by surface modification on the Fe₃O₄@mSiO₂ nanoparti-62 cles (Figure S1). Expanded methods including reagent 63 information, nanoparticle synthesis and surface modification 64 procedures are in Supplementary Information. The nanoparticles 65 were fully characterized using transmission electron microscopy 66 (TEM), zeta potential measurement, Fourier-transform infrared 67 (FTIR) spectroscopy, dynamic light scattering (DLS) elemental 68 analysis and LS55 luminescence spectrometer. Full experimental 69 details are listed in Supplementary Information. 70

71 Fluorescence response to ALP

To evaluate the fluorescence response to ALP, the nanoprobes were dispersed in phosphate buffer (10 mM, pH 8.0) and different concentrations of ALP (Sigma, USA) (1 U/mL, 0.5 U/mL, 0.1 U/mL and 0.01 U/mL) were added to the nanoprobe. The resulting concentration of the nanoprobe was 100 μ g/mL. The fluorescence intensities were measured at an LS55 luminescence spectrometer (Perkin-Elmer).

79 Bone marrow mesenchymal stem cell (BMSC) culture

BMSCs were harvested from 5-week-old male Sprague-Dawley 80 (SD) rats according to previously reported methods.²² SD rats were 81 purchased from Laboratory Animal Center of Zhongnan Hospital of 82 Wuhan University (China). The animal experiments were approved 83 by the Animal Research Committee of Zhongnan Hospital of 84 Wuhan University and were in accordance with the guidelines of the 85 Experimental Animals Management Committee (Hubei Province, 86 China). The harvested cells were cultured in the maintenance 87 medium (low glucose Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium, 10% 88

FBS, 1% penicillin–streptomycin) at 37 °C in a humidified 89 atmosphere containing 5% CO₂. All cells used were from passage 90 2. For cell behavior studies, BMSCs were first cultured in the dish or 91 plate for 24 h, then the medium was aspirated and the nanoprobe 92 dispersed in the maintenance medium was added. After incubation 93 for 2 h, the culture medium was suctioned and cells were washed 94 with PBS for 5 times. In addition, the time point after cell 95 internalized with the nanoprobe for 2 h was defined as 0 h.

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Prussian blue staining for cellular uptake

To assess the endocytosis of the nanoprobe, 1 mL of BMSCs 98 at a seeding density of 5×10^4 /mL was cultured on a glass 99 bottom dish. The nanoparticles at different concentrations (20, 100 40, 60, 80, 100 and 150 µg/mL) were studied. After incubation 101 for 2 h, the cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde. The 102 fixed cells were stained with 10% K₄Fe(CN)₆ · 3H₂O solution 103 for 5 min and the mixture of 10% K₄Fe(CN)₆ · 3H₂O and 20% 104 HCl (1:1) for 30 min successively. The images were taken 105 using a low magnification inverted microscope (OLYMPUS 106 IX70, Japan). The percentage of BMSCs that acquired 107 the nanoprobe was calculated by counting the Prussian blue 108 stained and unstained cells, and for each sample, at least 300 109 cells were calculated. 110

Biocompatibility of the fluorescence nanoprobe

The cell viability and cell proliferation were firstly evaluated 112 by MTT assay. BMSCs at a seeding density of 5×10^3 /well 113 were cultured in 96-well plate and the nanoprobes at different 114 concentrations (20, 40, 60, 80, 100 and 150 µg/mL) were 115 studied. After incubation for 2 h, 20 µL MTT (5 mg/mL) was 116 added to each well and further cultured for 4 h. Then the MTT 117 medium was removed and 150 µL DMSO was added. The 118 optical density (OD) values were measured with a microplate 119 reader (Bio-Rad, Model 550, USA) at 570 nm. The OD values 120 after cell internalized with the nanoprobe and further cultured in 121 the maintenance medium for 24 h and 48 h were also measured. 122 Download English Version:

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