

zinc in the hippocampal slice with a membrane-permeable zinc chelator, dithizone, reversibly inhibits the induction of mossy fiber LTP, suggesting that endogenous zinc is required for the induction of mossy fiber LTP. On the other hand, impairment of spatial learning, memory, or sensorimotor functions was not observed in zinc transporter-3-null mice, which lack the histochemically reactive zinc in synaptic vesicles (Cole et al., 2001). Furthermore, mossy fiber LTP is also induced in the presence of zinc chelators, 1,2-diethyl-3-hydroxypyridine-4-one (CP94) or CaEDTA (Xie and Smart, 1994; Vogt et al., 2000). Thus, the physiological significance of zinc as an endogenous neuromodulator is still poorly understood.

EDTA binds zinc with very high affinity, $K_D 10^{-16.4}$, and the apparent affinity constant of CaEDTA for zinc is in the range of 3–4 nM (Dawson et al., 1986; Bers et al., 1994). CaEDTA (2.5 mM) has no appreciable effect at low stimulation frequencies as measured by extracellular field excitatory postsynaptic potential (fEPSP) mediated by AMPA-type glutamate receptors, and mossy fiber LTP is minimally influenced by chelating extracellular zinc with CaEDTA (Vogt et al., 2000). The effect of CaEDTA (1 mM) on the induction of mossy fiber LTP was also minimal in a study by Li et al. (2001b). By judging from the increased rates (around 10%) of fEPSP by CaEDTA in both cases, however, it is possible that zinc released from mossy fibers has an action in the induction of LTP. On the other hand, there is almost no report on zinc's action in the change of presynaptic activity during LTP induction (tetanic stimulation). This is potentially an important issue in understanding not only the mossy fiber LTP but also the role of mossy fiber zinc.

On the basis of the evidence that zinc decreases extracellular glutamate concentration in the hippocampus (Takeda et al., 2003, 2004), the present study examined the presynaptic action of zinc released from mossy fibers during tetanic stimulation by using hippocampal slices. The presynaptic activity was evaluated by intracellular calcium signal and vesicular exocytosis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals

Calcium orange AM, a membrane-permeable calcium indicator, and FM4-64, an indicator of presynaptic activity, were purchased from Molecular Probes (Eugene, OR) and Sigma (St. Louis, MO), respectively. ZnAF-2 and ZnAF-2 DA, a membrane-impermeable and a membrane-permeable zinc indicators, respectively, were kindly supplied by Daiichi Pure Chemicals Co., Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan). These fluorescent indicators were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and then diluted in artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF) containing 124 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM KCl, 1.0 mM MgCl₂, 1.25 mM NaH₂PO₄, 2.0 mM CaCl₂, 26 mM NaHCO₃, and 10 mM D-glucose (pH 7.3). To facilitate cellular uptake of membrane-permeable indicators, cremophore EL (Sigma) was added to DMSO solutions (final concentration 0.02%).

Hippocampal Slice Preparation

Wistar rats (4–5 weeks old, Japan SLC, Hamamatsu, Japan) were anesthetized with ether and decapitated in accordance with the Japanese Pharmacological Society guide for the care and use of laboratory animals. The brain was quickly removed and immersed in ice-cold choline-ACSF containing 124 mM choline chloride, 2.5 mM KCl, 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 1.25 mM NaH₂PO₄, 0.5 mM CaCl₂, 26 mM NaHCO₃, and 10 mM glucose (pH 7.3) to suppress excessive neuronal excitation. Horizontal hippocampal slices (400 μm) were prepared by using a vibratome ZERO-1 (Dosaka, Kyoto, Japan) in an ice-cold choline-ACSF. Slices were then maintained in ACSF at 25°C for at least 30 min. All solutions used in the experiments were continuously bubbled with 95% O₂ and 5% CO₂.

Hippocampal Mossy Fiber Imaging

For intracellular zinc imaging, the hippocampal slices were loaded with 10 μM ZnAF-2 DA for 30 min, then washed out with ACSF for at least 30 min. The hippocampal slices were transferred to a recording chamber filled with ACSF. For extracellular zinc imaging, the hippocampal slices were directly transferred to a recording chamber filled with 10 μM ZnAF-2. Fluorescence was imaged with an Argus-50/CA system (Hamamatsu Photonics, Hamamatsu, Japan) with a cooled CCD camera (excitation 490 nm, dichroic beam splitter 505 nm) at 25°C.

Electrical Stimulation and Imaging

For intracellular calcium and extracellular zinc imaging during electrical stimulation, the hippocampal slices were loaded with 10 μM Fura-2 AM for 30 min and then transferred a chamber filled with ACSF to wash out extracellular Fura-2 AM for at least 30 min. The hippocampal slices were transferred to a recording chamber filled with 10 μM ZnAF-2. In the case of intracellular zinc imaging, the hippocampal slices were loaded with 10 μM ZnAF-2 DA for 30 min, then transferred a chamber filled with ACSF to wash out extracellular ZnAF-2 DA for at least 30 min. The hippocampal slices were transferred to a recording chamber filled with ACSF.

Electrical stimuli (100 Hz, 1 sec, 100 μA, 200 μsec/pulse) were delivered to the dentate granular cell layer through a bipolar tungsten electrode. The fluorescence of fura-2 (excitation 351 nm, monitoring 505–530 nm) and ZnAF-2 (excitation 488 nm, monitoring 505–530 nm) was measured in the stratum lucidum by using a confocal laser scanning microscopic system LSM 510 (Carl Zeiss), equipped with an inverted microscope (Axiovert 200M; Carl Zeiss), at the rate of 1 Hz through a ×10 objective. The region of interest was set in the stratum lucidum based on ZnAF-2 signal, which is useful for determination of mossy fiber terminals.

In another experiment, mossy fiber terminals were preferentially imaged with zinc and calcium indicators according to previous papers (Regehr and Tank, 1991; Kamiya et al., 2002; see Fig 3a). The hippocampal slices were transferred to a chamber and regionally perfused at the rate of 1.6 ml/min with ACSF via a large delivery pipette and suction pipettes. A solution containing 10 μM ZnAF-2 DA and 10 μM calcium orange AM was regionally delivered to the stratum lucidum

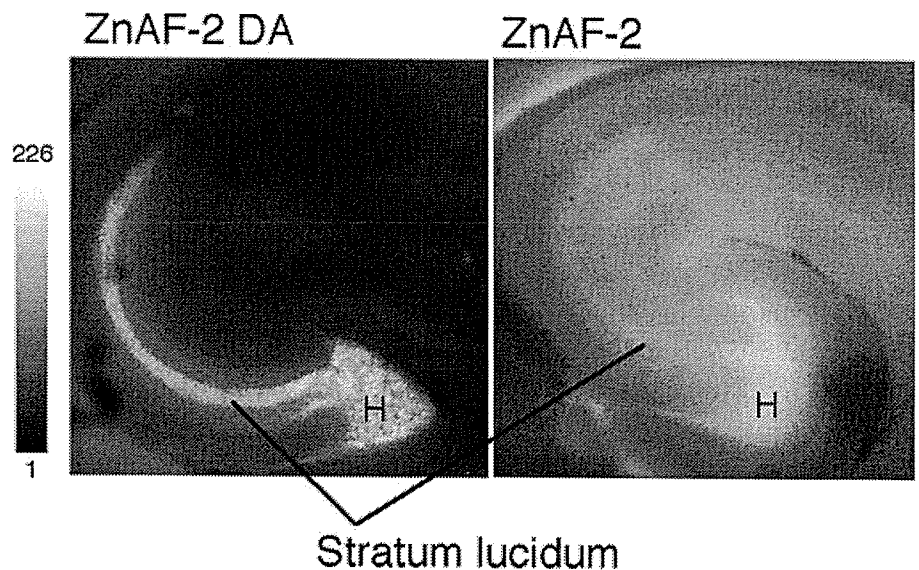


Fig. 1. Imaging of hippocampal intracellular and extracellular zinc. ZnAF-2 DA and ZnAF-2 were applied to rat hippocampal slices to image intracellular and extracellular zinc, respectively. The fluorescent signal was imaged with an Argus-50/CA system as described under Hippocampal mossy fiber imaging. H, hilus.

via a small delivery pipette at the rate of 15 $\mu\text{l}/\text{min}$ for 30 min. Unloaded indicators were collected through a large suction pipette. The hippocampal slices were transferred to a recording chamber filled with ACSF or reagents in ACSF.

Electrical stimuli (100 Hz, 1 sec, 100 μA , 200 $\mu\text{sec}/\text{pulse}$) were delivered to the dentate granular cell layer through a bipolar tungsten electrode. The fluorescence of calcium orange (excitation 543 nm, monitoring above 560 nm) and ZnAF-2 (excitation 488 nm, monitoring 505–530 nm) was measured in the mossy fiber terminals with a confocal laser scanning microscopic system, LSM 510 META (Carl Zeiss), equipped with an inverted microscope (Axiovert 200M; Carl Zeiss), at the rate of 1 Hz through a $\times 20$ objective.

Electrical Stimulation and Recordings

The mossy fiber-CA3 pyramidal neuron responses were induced by stimulation of the dentate granule cell layer with a bipolar tungsten electrode. Extracellular recordings were obtained by using glass micropipettes filled with 3 M NaCl (2–10 M Ω). The recording electrodes were placed along the trajectory of the mossy fiber pathway. To induce mossy fiber LTP, test stimuli were delivered to the dentate granule cell every 10 sec (0.1 Hz). The stimulus intensity was set to produce approximately 40% (100 μA , 200 $\mu\text{sec}/\text{pulse}$) of the maximal EPSP. Tetanic stimulation consisted of one train of 10 Hz lasting for 180 sec. The maximal amplitude of the mossy fiber-CA3 EPSP was calculated and normalized to the 30-min basal value (defined as 100%). At the beginning of the experiments for the LTP induction, the physiological state of the slices was tested by verifying the existence of paired-pulse facilitation, which was induced by application of paired pulses separated by 40 msec. Because of the complex circuitry of the CA3, the metabotropic glutamate receptor II agonist 2-(2,3-dicarboxy-cyclopropyl)glycine (DCG-IV) was used at the end of the experiments to verify that the signal was generated by mossy fiber inputs (Kamiya et al., 1996).

Mossy Fiber Terminal Activity

The hippocampal slices were transferred to an incubation chamber filled with ACSF containing 10 μM ZnAF-2DA, allowed to stand at 25°C for 30 min, transferred a chamber filled with ACSF to wash out extracellular ZnAF-2DA for at least 30 min, transferred to an incubation chamber filled with ACSF containing 5 μM FM4-64 and 45 mM KCl, allowed to stand at 25°C for 90 sec, transferred a chamber filled with ACSF to wash out extracellular FM4-64, and transferred to a recording chamber filled with ACSF or reagents in ACSF, in which 10 μM 6-cyano-7-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione (CNQX), an antagonist of AMPA/kainate receptors, was contained, to prevent recurrent activity. To chelate intracellular zinc, in another experiment the hippocampal slices were loaded with 50 μM 1-hydroxypyridine-2-thione (pyrithione; Molecular Probes), a membrane-permeable zinc chelator, for 90 sec. The hippocampal slices were transferred a chamber filled with ACSF to wash out extracellular pyrithione for at least 3 min and transferred to a recording chamber filled with ACSF containing 10 μM CNQX.

Electrical stimuli (10 Hz, 180 sec, 100 μA , 200 $\mu\text{sec}/\text{pulse}$) were delivered to the dentate granular cell layer through a bipolar tungsten electrode. The fluorescence of FM4-64 (excitation 488 nm, monitoring above 650 nm) and ZnAF-2 (excitation 488 nm, monitoring 505–530 nm) was measured with a confocal laser scanning microscopic system LSM 510 META at the rate of 1 Hz through a $\times 20$ objective to observe attenuation of FM4-64 fluorescence (destaining) based on presynaptic activity. At the end of the experiments, complete depolarization-induced destaining was evoked by single strong stimuli (100 Hz, 18 sec, 100 μA , 200 $\mu\text{sec}/\text{pulse}$). The activity-dependent component of FM4-64 fluorescence in the mossy fiber terminals was measured for each punctum by subtracting its residual fluorescence intensity (<10% of initial intensity) measured after the strong electrical stimulation that produced maximal destaining. FM4-64 signal

was then normalized by the maximal fluorescence intensity before the electrical stimulation.

Statistical Analysis

Student's *t*-test was used for comparison of the means of unpaired data. For multiple comparisons, ANOVA followed by Fisher's protected least significant difference (PLSD) was performed.

RESULTS

Zinc Dynamics in Mossy Fiber Terminals During Tetanic Stimulation

To observe zinc movement in mossy fiber terminals, intracellular zinc is stained with ZnAF-2 DA, the diacetylated form of ZnAF-2. ZnAF-2 DA taken up by cells is hydrolyzed to ZnAF-2, which cannot permeate the cell membrane. The fluorescent signal was high in the dentate hilus and stratum lucidum, in which mossy fibers of dentate granule cells exist (Fig. 1). When ZnAF-2 was added to hippocampal slices, the fluorescent signal was immediately detected in the dentate hilus and stratum lucidum. The fluorescent signal was also detected around their regions.

Hippocampal slice was doubly stained with ZnAF-2 and Fura-2 AM, and tetanic stimuli at 100 Hz for 1 sec were delivered to the dentate granule cell layer (Fig. 2). Extracellular ZnAF-2 signal was increased with intracellular Fura-2 signal in the stratum lucidum during the stimulation. In the case of the stimulation of the dentate granule cell layer after staining with ZnAF-2 DA, intracellular ZnAF-2 signal was also increased in the stratum lucidum during the stimulation.

Inhibition of Calcium Signaling by Zinc in Mossy Fiber Terminals During Tetanic Stimulation

To examine zinc action against calcium signaling in mossy fiber terminals, ZnAF-2 DA and calcium orange AM were regionally loaded in the stratum lucidum as shown in Figure 3a. The mossy fibers and associational/commissural fibers were stained with calcium orange, whereas only giant boutons of the mossy fibers were stained with ZnAF-2 (Fig. 3b). Thus, double-stained areas are thought to be giant boutons of the mossy fibers. Tetanic stimuli at 100 Hz for 1 sec were delivered to the dentate granule cell layer, and the change of each fluorescent signal was monitored in double-stained mossy fiber terminals. Intracellular calcium orange signal was significantly increased in mossy fiber terminals during the stimulation. The increase in calcium orange signal was markedly enhanced by addition of 1 mM CaEDTA, a membrane-impermeable zinc chelator, but significantly suppressed by addition of 100 μ M ZnCl₂ (Fig. 3c).

Intracellular ZnAF-2 signal in mossy fiber terminals was also increased during tetanic stimulation and returned to the basal level immediately after the stimulation (Fig. 3c). The increase in ZnAF-2 signal was significantly attenuated by addition of 1 mM CaEDTA.

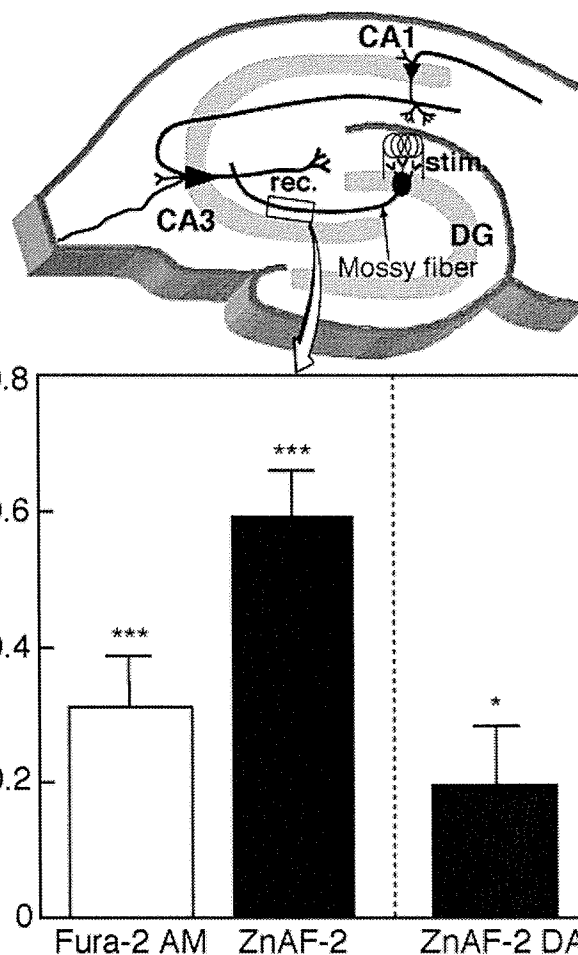


Fig. 2. Zinc movement in the hippocampal synapses during tetanic stimulation. Hippocampal slices were doubly stained with Fura-2 AM and ZnAF-2 ($n = 12$). Hippocampal slices were also stained with ZnAF-2 DA ($n = 21$). Tetanic stimuli at 100 Hz for 1 sec were delivered to the dentate granule cell layer, and the fluorescent signals were monitored with a confocal laser scanning microscopic system LSM 510 at the rate of 1 Hz through a $\times 10$ objective, as shown in the illustration. Region of interest (about 10 μ m in diameter) was set in the stratum lucidum based on each ZnAF-2 signal. The data represent the increment (%) of fluorescent signal during the stimulation (1 sec) to the basal fluorescent signal just before the stimulation (the mean of 3 sec). Each bar and line represents mean \pm SEM. * $P < 0.05$, *** $P < 0.001$, vs. basal level before stimulation.

Inhibition of Vesicular Exocytosis by Zinc in Mossy Fiber Terminals During Tetanic Stimulation

To observe the suppressive zinc action against pre-synaptic activity, vesicular exocytosis was evaluated by using a fluorescent styryl dye, FM4-64. FM4-64 is taken up into presynaptic vesicles in an activity-dependent manner. Subsequent rounds of exocytosis arising from depolarization lead to the release of the dye from the presynaptic terminals (destaining). Because fluorescence signal originates from vesicular membrane-bound FM4-64, the signal is attenuated by presynaptic activity (Klin-

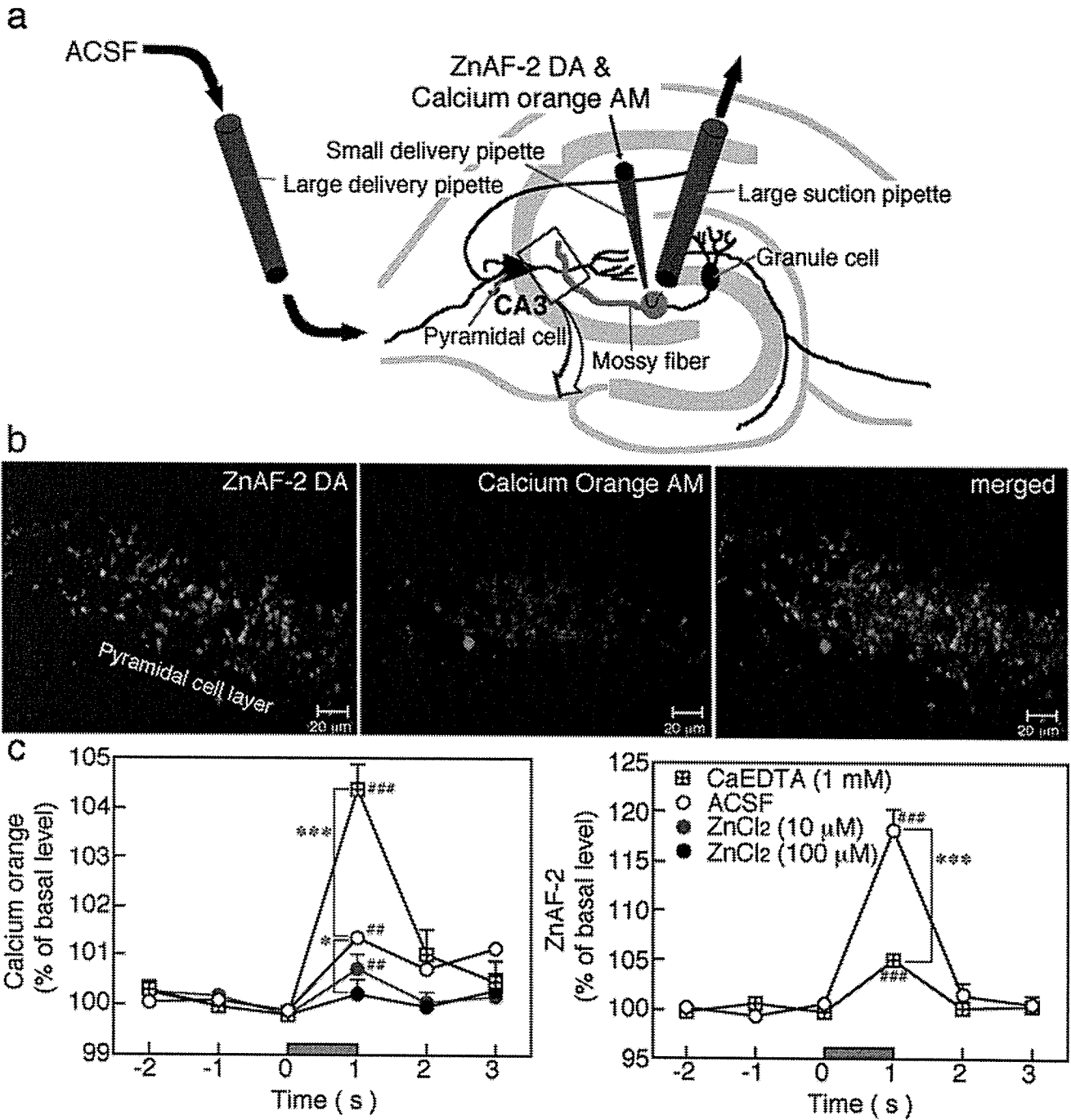


Fig. 3. Inhibition of calcium signaling by zinc in mossy fiber terminals during tetanic stimulation. **a**: Schematic illustration of the procedure. The stratum lucidum was regionally perfused with ZnAF-2 DA and calcium orange AM for mossy fiber terminal labeling. The red square was observed as shown in **b**. **b**: Giant boutons of mossy fibers were doubly labeled with calcium orange and ZnAF as shown in the merged image. **c**: Tetanic stimuli at 100 Hz for 1 sec were delivered to the dentate granule cell layer in ACSF or reagents in ACSF. The fluorescent signals were monitored with a confocal laser scanning microscopic

system LSM 510 at the rate of 1 Hz through a $\times 20$ objective. Region of interest (about 5 μ m in diameter) was set in giant boutons of mossy fibers doubly labeled with calcium orange and ZnAF. The data represent the ratio (%) of each fluorescent signal (1 sec) to the basal fluorescent signal (the mean of 3 sec) just before the stimulation. Each point and line represents the mean \pm SEM (N = 8–18). The shaded bar indicates the period of the stimulation. * P < 0.05, *** P < 0.001, vs. ACSF group (open circle); ### P < 0.01, #### P < 0.001, vs. the basal level (the mean of three points just before the stimulation).

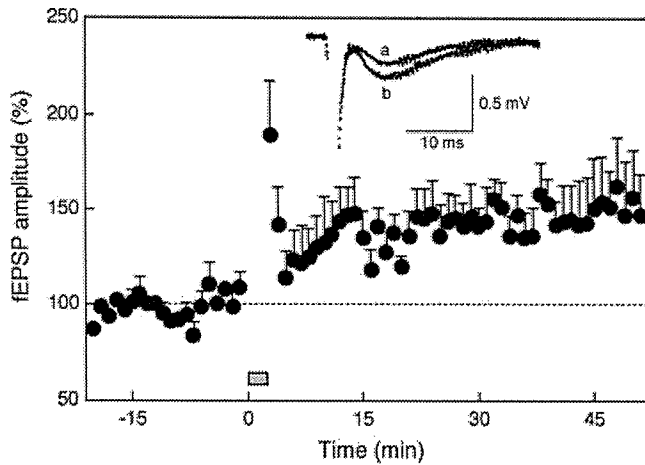


Fig. 4. LTP at mossy fiber-CA3 pyramidal neuron. The mossy fiber-CA3 pyramidal neuron responses were induced by delivery of tetanic stimuli at 10 Hz for 180 sec to the dentate granule cell layer. The shaded bar indicates the period of the stimulation. The superimposed traces are fEPSP recorded before (a) and after (b) tetanic stimulation. The maximal amplitude of the mossy fiber-CA3 fEPSP was calculated and normalized to 30 min basal value (defined as 100%). Each point and line represents the mean \pm SEM ($N = 6$).

gauf et al., 1998; Zakharenko et al., 2001). Tetanic stimuli at 10 Hz for 180 sec, which were used for the exocytosis experiment (Kavalali et al., 1999), were delivered to the dentate granule cells and the mossy fiber-CA3 pyramidal neuron responses were checked by the electrophysiological method. The mean amplitude of fEPSP was $146\% \pm 16\%$ of the basal level (Fig. 4). To examine zinc's action against vesicular exocytosis in mossy fiber terminals, the activity of mossy fiber terminals doubly stained with ZnAF-2 DA and FM4-64 was evaluated by attenuation of FM4-64 signal during the tetanic stimulation (Fig. 5a). Attenuation of FM4-64 signal in mossy fiber terminals was significantly enhanced by addition of 1 mM CaEDTA but significantly suppressed by addition of $100 \mu\text{M}$ ZnCl₂ (Fig. 5b).

When $50 \mu\text{M}$ pyrithione, a membrane-permeable zinc chelator, was loaded for 90 sec to the hippocampal slices, approximately 10% of intracellular ZnAF-2 signal was decreased in mossy fiber terminals (data not shown). Therefore, tetanic stimuli at 10 Hz for 180 sec were delivered to the dentate granule cell layer after treatment

with pyrithione. The attenuation of FM4-64 signal was significantly enhanced by pretreatment with pyrithione (Fig. 5b).

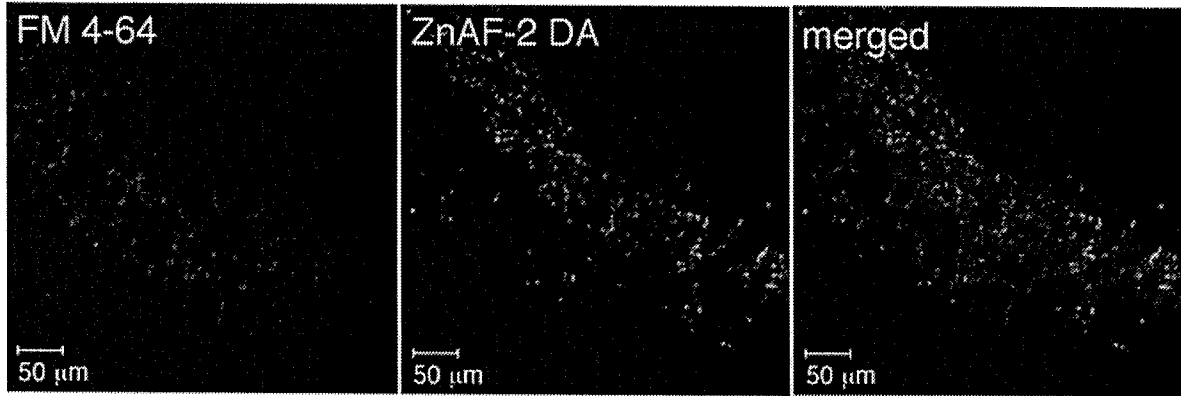
DISCUSSION

The extracellular concentration of zinc reached in the stratum lucidum after the release from mossy fiber is a matter of debate. Estimates after tetanic stimulation ranged between 10 and $100 \mu\text{M}$ (Vogt et al., 2000; Li et al., 2001a), even up to $300 \mu\text{M}$ under extreme conditions (Assaf and Chung, 1984). To monitor dynamics of synaptic zinc, in the present study the change of ZnAF-2 and ZnAF-2 DA signals was observed by using hippocampal slices. ZnAF-2 has a low K_D value of 2.7 nM for zinc, and its fluorescence is minimally changed in the presence of calcium, magnesium, cadmium, nickel, or other heavy metals (Hirano et al., 2000, 2002). ZnAF-2 also has no apparent toxicity to living cells. These features allow us to study zinc movement associated with neuronal activity in hippocampal slices without interference from calcium, magnesium, and other heavy metals (Ueno et al., 2002). When tetanic stimuli at 100 Hz for 1 sec were delivered to the dentate granule cell layer, both extracellular and intracellular ZnAF-2 signals were increased in the stratum lucidum during the stimulation. It is estimated that the increase in intracellular ZnAF-2 signal is due to the binding of cytosolic ZnAF to zinc retaken up after the release and that the increment in cytosolic signal is more than the decrement in vesicular signal. This idea is supported by the data showing that intracellular ZnAF-2 signal in mossy fiber terminals was significantly decreased during the stimulation in the presence of 1 mM CaEDTA, which chelates zinc in the extracellular fluid. These results suggest that zinc released from mossy fiber terminals during tetanic stimulation is immediately retaken up by the mossy fibers. One millimolar CaEDTA may be effective in chelating zinc released and inhibiting zinc reuptake by mossy fibers. It is likely that the diffusion of zinc released is minimal and that extracellular concentration of zinc after the release is lower than the estimates, except for the synaptic cleft concentration. On the other hand, the translocation of zinc is observed in the CA3 and CA1 of kainate-treated zinc transporter-3-null mice, which lack the histochemically reactive zinc in synaptic vesicles (Lee et al., 2000).

Fig. 5. Inhibition of vesicular exocytosis by zinc in mossy fiber terminals during tetanic stimulation. **a:** Giant boutons of mossy fibers were doubly labeled with FM4-64 and ZnAF as shown in a merged image. **b:** Tetanic stimuli at 10 Hz for 180 sec were delivered to the dentate granule cell layer in ACSF or reagents in ACSF and then single strong stimuli at 100 Hz for 18 sec were delivered to the same position ($N = 7-8$). Tetanic stimuli (10 Hz, 180 sec) and single strong stimuli (100 Hz, 18 sec) were also delivered to the dentate granule cell layer in ACSF after treatment with $50 \mu\text{M}$ pyrithione ($N = 7-8$). Region of interest (about $5 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter) was set in giant boutons of mossy fibers double-labeled with FM4-64 and ZnAF. The activity-dependent

component of FM4-64 signal was measured for each punctum (1 sec) by subtracting its residual fluorescence intensity ($<10\%$ of initial intensity) measured after the strong electrical stimulation (100 Hz, 18 sec). FM4-64 signal was then normalized by the maximal fluorescence intensity before tetanic stimulation at 10 Hz. The shaded bar indicates the period of tetanic stimulation at 10 Hz. The activity-dependent component of FM4-64 signal was also measured in the absence of tetanic stimulation as a baseline control (unstimulated group). The data represent the average taken for 3 sec, and each point and line represents the mean \pm SEM. $^{***}P < 0.01$, vs. ACSF group 180 sec after the start of tetanic stimulation at 10 Hz.

a



b

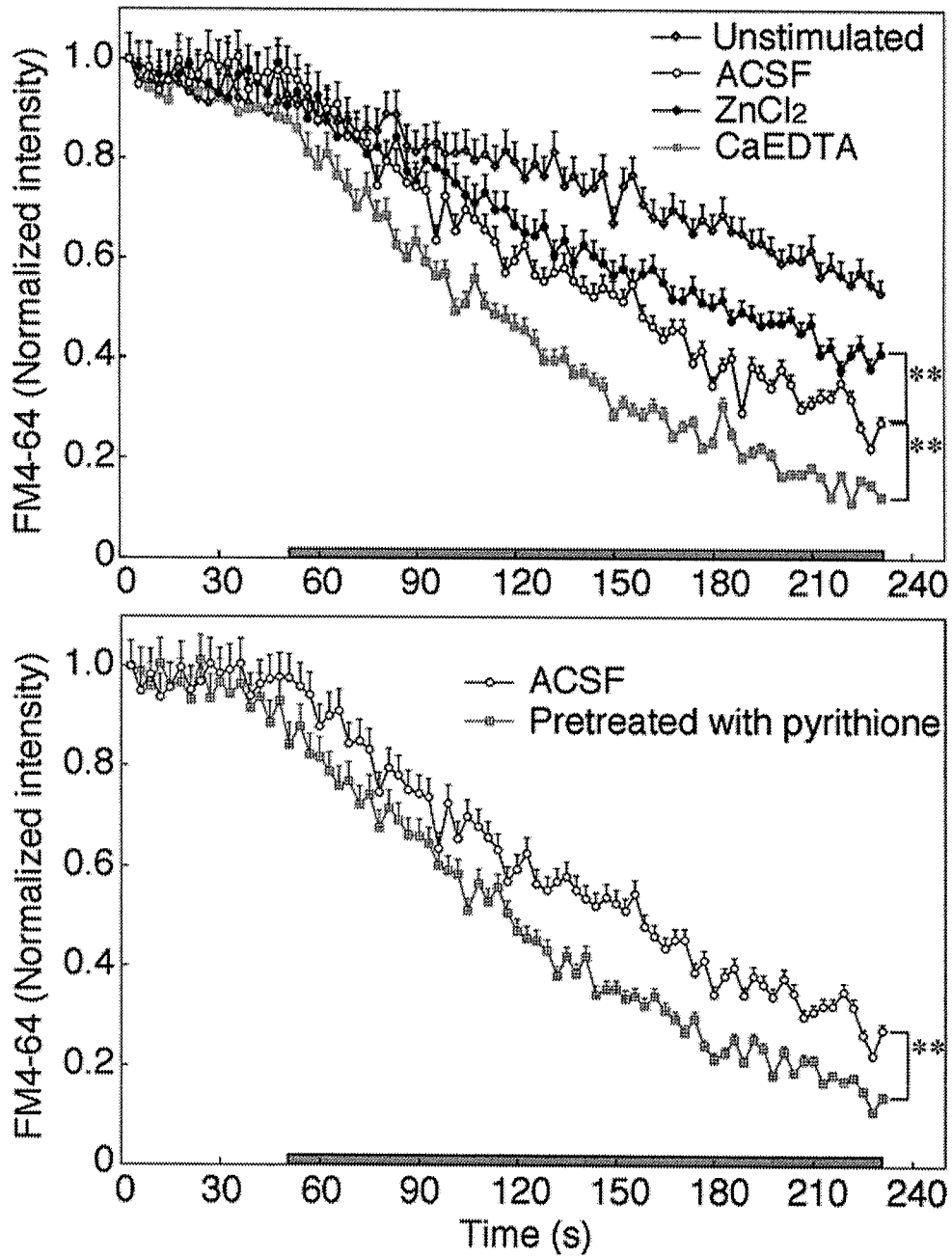


Figure 5.

Thus, it is possible that the zinc released originates from sources other than synaptic vesicles.

In the *in vivo* microdialysis experiment, extracellular glutamate concentrations in the hippocampal CA3 are increased by perfusion with CaEDTA but decreased by perfusion with zinc (Takeda et al., 2003, 2004). Glial glutamate transporter is blocked by zinc (Spiridon et al., 1998). Because this blockade increases extracellular glutamate concentration, it is estimated that zinc efficiently attenuates glutamate release from the neuron terminals. Bancila et al. (2004) showed that exogenously applied zinc inhibits glutamate release via activation of presynaptic ATP-dependent potassium (K_{ATP}) channel by using synaptosomal fraction of rat hippocampal CA3. To clarify the presynaptic action of zinc released from mossy fibers, in the present study, endogenous zinc action against presynaptic activity during tetanic stimulation was examined in rat hippocampal slices in the presence of 1 mM CaEDTA.

When mossy fiber terminals were preferentially doubly stained with zinc and calcium indicators, and tetanic stimuli (100 Hz, 1 sec) were delivered to the dentate granule cell layer, the increase in calcium orange signal during the stimulation was enhanced in mossy fiber terminals by addition of CaEDTA and was suppressed by addition of zinc. It is likely that zinc released from mossy fiber terminals suppresses the increase in calcium signal in the presynaptic terminals during tetanic stimulation, followed by suppressive modulation of the presynaptic activity. Mossy fiber zinc may be involved in the mechanism of negative feedback in glutamate release from mossy fibers. Quinta-Ferreira and Matias (2004) demonstrated that N,N,N',N' -tetrakis(2-pyridylmethyl)ethylenediamine (TPEN; 20 μ M), a membrane-permeable zinc chelator, does not prevent the induction of mossy fiber LTP. They also demonstrated that TPEN increases presynaptic calcium signals without affecting the LTP when TPEN was added to the medium after the LTP induction, suggesting that mossy fiber zinc inhibits presynaptic calcium mechanism after the LTP induction. VDCC is involved in calcium influx into presynaptic terminals. Mammalian VDCC currents are blocked by micromolar zinc ($IC_{50} = 69 \mu$ M; Takahashi and Akaike, 1991; Busseberg et al., 1992). The blockade of VDCC currents and the activation of presynaptic K_{ATP} channel by zinc may be linked with modulation of intracellular calcium signaling pathways. On the other hand, several subtypes of VDCC are present in the mossy fiber boutons (Tokunaga et al., 2004), and zinc is taken up through VDCC and calcium-permeable receptors (Koh and Choi, 1994; Sensi et al., 1997, 1999; Weiss and Sensi, 2000), insofar as intracellular ZnAF-2 signal in the mossy fiber terminals was increased during tetanic stimulation in the present study. It is likely that zinc retaken up, as a signaling factor, also modulates signal transduction pathways via calcium signaling such as protein kinase C and calmodulin in the mossy fiber terminals, followed by the suppression of the increase in calcium signal in the presynaptic terminals during tetanic stimula-

tion. However, the intracellular cross-talk between calcium and zinc signaling is estimated to be complicated (Hedberg et al., 1994). For example, zinc binds to protein kinase C and calmodulin, and zinc release from protein kinase C may be involved in activation of this protein (Baudier et al., 1983; Korichneva et al., 2002). A zinc-sensing receptor triggers the release of intracellular calcium and regulates ion transport (Hershinkel et al., 2001). Zinc reversibly blocks the influx of capacitative (extracellular) calcium following application of the metabotropic ligands ATP, glutamate, and endothelin-1 (Kresse et al., 2005). Thus, the cross-talk between calcium and zinc signaling in mossy fiber terminals during tetanic stimulation remains to be clarified.

Presynaptic calcium influx through VDCC triggers vesicular exocytosis. It is possible that zinc suppresses vesicular exocytosis. Thus, vesicular exocytosis during tetanic stimulation was examined by using FM4-64, a fluorescent marker of synaptic vesicle recycling. Tetanic stimuli at 10 Hz for 180 sec were delivered to the dentate granule cell layer to evaluate kinetic properties of vesicular exocytosis (Kavalali et al., 1999). Tetanic stimuli at 10 Hz for 180 sec induced mossy fiber LTP. Mossy fiber activity measured with FM4-64 during tetanic stimulation was enhanced by addition of CaEDTA and was suppressed by addition of zinc. Zinc released from mossy fiber terminals during tetanic stimulation may suppress vesicular exocytosis, probably via modulation of the increase in calcium signal in mossy fiber terminals. The effect of CaEDTA during tetanic stimulation might be associated with the increase (about 10%) in fEPSP after LTP induction in the presence of CaEDTA (Vogt et al., 2000; Li et al., 2001b). Mossy fiber activity measured with FM4-64 was also enhanced by pretreatment with pyrithione. Pyrithione is intrinsically nontoxic and has low affinity for zinc ($K_D, 10^{-6}$; Canzoniero et al., 2003). It is possible that pyrithione blocks intracellular action of zinc, followed by enhancement of vesicular exocytosis in mossy fiber terminals, although further investigation of the effect of pyrithione is necessary. In conclusion, the present study is the first to demonstrate that zinc released from mossy fibers may be a negative-feedback factor against presynaptic activity during tetanic stimulation.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Noboru Fukasaku and Jun-ichi Kosuge (Synthesis Technology Research Laboratories Daiichi Pure Chemicals Co., Ltd., Kyoto, Japan) for their advice on the use of zinc indicators.

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The regulator of the F₁ motor: inhibition of rotation of cyanobacterial F₁-ATPase by the ϵ subunit

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The chloroplast-type F₁ ATPase is the key enzyme of energy conversion in chloroplasts, and is regulated by the endogenous inhibitor ϵ , tightly bound ADP, the membrane potential and the redox state of the γ subunit. In order to understand the molecular mechanism of ϵ inhibition, we constructed an expression system for the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ subcomplex in thermophilic cyanobacteria allowing thorough investigation of ϵ inhibition. ϵ Inhibition was found to be ATP-independent, and different to that observed for bacterial F₁-ATPase. The role of the additional region on the γ subunit of chloroplast-type F₁-ATPase in ϵ inhibition was also determined. By single molecule rotation analysis, we succeeded in assigning the pausing angular position of γ in ϵ inhibition, which was found to be identical to that observed for ATP hydrolysis, product release and ADP inhibition, but distinctly different from the waiting position for ATP binding. These results suggest that the ϵ subunit of chloroplast-type ATP synthase plays an important regulator for the rotary motor enzyme, thus preventing wasteful ATP hydrolysis.

The EMBO Journal (2006) 25, 4596–4604. doi:10.1038/sj.emboj.7601348; Published online 14 September 2006

Subject Categories: cellular metabolism

Keywords: ATP synthase; ADP inhibition; CF₁; rotation; ϵ inhibition

Introduction

F₀F₁ ATP synthase synthesizes ATP from ADP and inorganic phosphate by way of the proton motive force (*pmf*) generated across the cytoplasmic membranes of bacteria, thylakoid membranes of chloroplasts and inner membranes of mito-

chondria (Senior, 1990; Boyer, 1997; Yoshida *et al.*, 2001). This enzyme can transport protons to generate *pmf* when it hydrolyzes ATP. The enzyme consists of the membrane-embedded portion F₀ and the water-soluble portion F₁. F₀ is composed of three different subunits, *a*, *b* and *c* with a stoichiometry of *a*₁*b*₂*c*_{10–14} (Senior, 1990; Stock *et al.*, 1999; Seelert *et al.*, 2000; Jiang *et al.*, 2001; Mitome *et al.*, 2004; Meier *et al.*, 2005), and constitutes the proton translocation device. F₁ is composed of five different subunits designated α to ϵ with a stoichiometry of $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_1\delta_1\epsilon_1$ (Yoshida *et al.*, 1979). The minimum catalytic core, which maintains the property of F₁-ATPase, is $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ (Kaibara *et al.*, 1996; Hisabori *et al.*, 1997; Matsui *et al.*, 1997; Du *et al.*, 2001), and the catalytic sites reside on each of the three β subunits at the interface with the α subunits (Abrahams *et al.*, 1994). The rotary catalysis mechanism was first proposed by PD Boyer and co-workers based on detailed analysis of the kinetics of F₁-ATPase activity (Grubmeyer *et al.*, 1982). Following determination of the central axis structure of the γ subunit in the $\alpha_3\beta_3$ hexagon (Abrahams *et al.*, 1994), the rotation of the γ subunit during ATP hydrolysis was examined by biochemical cross-linking (Duncan *et al.*, 1995) and polarized fluorescence experiments (Sabbert *et al.*, 1996). Finally, by single molecule observation, the rotation of the γ subunit was conclusively determined to be coupled with ATP hydrolysis (Noji *et al.*, 1997, 1999; Hisabori *et al.*, 1999; Omote *et al.*, 1999). Thorough analysis of rotation of the γ subunit revealed that the γ subunit rotates with discrete 120° step per single molecule ATP consumption and this 120° step consists of further 80° and 40° substeps (Yasuda *et al.*, 1998, 2001). This 80° substep was recently revealed to be induced by ATP binding, whereas ATP cleavage and product release result in a subsequent additional 40° substep (Yasuda *et al.*, 2001; Shimabukuro *et al.*, 2003).

As ATP synthesis is a key reaction required to maintain a number of metabolic pathways, the F₀F₁ complex must be subject to various regulatory mechanisms required to modulate its activity, in order to optimally accommodate changes in environmental conditions. ADP inhibition of the ATP hydrolysis activity is a common regulatory mechanism that has been found to occur in most species; in such a mechanism, the ATP hydrolysis reaction is inhibited by tight binding of ADP-Mg to the catalytic site(s) (Minkov *et al.*, 1979; Bar-Zvi and Shavit, 1982; Vasilyeva *et al.*, 1982; Malyan and Vitseva, 1983; Feldman and Boyer, 1985; Zhou *et al.*, 1988; Digel *et al.*, 1996; Matsui *et al.*, 1997). Recently, this type of inhibition has been assigned to the pause of the rotation motion at 80° within the 120° catalytic step (Hirono-Hara *et al.*, 2001, 2005). Another regulatory mechanism for the ATP hydrolysis reaction is brought about by the intrinsic inhibitory function of the ϵ subunit (ϵ inhibition), which is well characterized in bacteria and in chloroplasts (Nelson *et al.*, 1972; Richter *et al.*, 1984; Aggeler and Capaldi, 1996; Kato *et al.*, 1997; Nowak

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Received: 29 June 2006; accepted: 22 August 2006; published online: 14 September 2006

et al, 2002). Both ADP inhibition and ϵ inhibition may not affect the ATP synthesis activity of F₀F₁ (Bald *et al*, 1998; Tsunoda *et al*, 2001). However, the ϵ subunit of F₁ from thermophilic *Bacillus* PS3 (TF₁) is known to rotate with the γ subunit and the rotation speed of the ϵ subunit attached to the γ subunit is not significantly different to that of the γ subunit without ϵ (Kato-Yamada *et al*, 1998), and inhibition of rotation of the γ subunit caused by ϵ inhibition has not been characterized in depth at the single molecule level. Furthermore, rotation of the ϵ subunit in *Escherichia coli* F₀F₁ has been observed by FRET measurement (Zimmermann *et al*, 2005). Recently, Nakanishi-Matsui *et al* (2005) reported the inhibition of rotation of the γ subunit by the ϵ subunit in *E. coli* F₁-ATPase (EF₁). They observed a distinct increase in the pausing period of the γ subunit during rotation caused by addition of the ϵ subunit. However, thorough analysis of inhibition by the bacterial ϵ subunit appears difficult because inhibition shows a complicated kinetic profile based on the conformational change of the ϵ subunit by ATP during inhibition of the catalytic reaction (Aggeler and Capaldi, 1996; Kato-Yamada *et al*, 2000; Suzuki *et al*, 2003; Iino *et al*, 2005).

In contrast, ϵ inhibition of the chloroplast-type F₁-ATPase is independent of ATP concentration, and ATP hydrolysis activity is inhibited by addition of ϵ subunit alone to the ϵ -free complex (Richter *et al*, 1984). However, the effect of ϵ binding on the CF₁ complex has not been studied from the point of view of rotation because of the lack of an enzyme complex that can be suitably manipulated. For the study of CF₁ complex at the molecular level, cyanobacterial F₁-ATPase is a suitable alternative, as the active enzyme complex can be reconstituted from the recombinant individual subunits α , β , γ , δ and ϵ (Steinemann *et al*, 1995). In addition, insertion of a 'chloroplast-like' regulatory segment responsible for thiol modulation into the γ subunit of F₀F₁-ATPase of the cyanobacterium *Synechocystis* sp. PCC6803 at the chromosome level can be used to generate a redox-sensitive F₀F₁, which is one of the main distinguishing features of the chloroplast-type ATP synthase *in vivo* (Werner-Grune *et al*, 1994; Krenn *et al*, 1995).

In order to carry out a detailed study on the effect of the ϵ subunit on γ subunit rotation, we prepared a 'purpose-built' F₁-ATPase $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ complex using an *E. coli*-based expression system for synthesis of the thermophilic cyanobacterial ATP synthase complex, which possesses similar properties to the chloroplast ATPase.

Results

Inhibition of ATPase activity of thermophilic cyanobacterial $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ complex by the ϵ subunit

The $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ complex of *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* was over-expressed in *E. coli* BL21(DE3)*unc* Δ 702 strains and purified as described (see Materials and methods). Using this complex, we first determined whether the cyanobacterial F₁ subcomplex has similar properties to the chloroplast-type F₁-ATPase in terms of ϵ inhibition. In the previous study, we found that the ATPase activity of the chimeric complex comprised of the thermophilic bacterial α and β subunits and the spinach chloroplast γ subunit became insensitive to ϵ subunit inhibition upon deletion of the specific additional region of the chloroplast-type γ subunit that contains the two

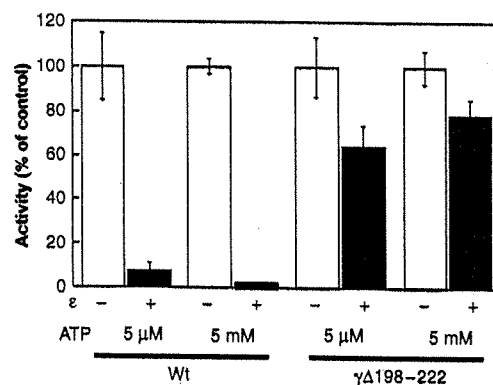


Figure 1 Effect of the ϵ subunit on the ATP hydrolysis activities of $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\text{wild}}$ and $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$. $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ subcomplexes (400 nM) were incubated with (closed bar) or without (open bar) 1 μ M ϵ subunit for 6 min at 40°C, and the ATP hydrolysis activity was measured in the presence of ATP regenerating system at 40°C. For the assay, 27 nM wild-type complex and 9 nM $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ were used.

regulatory cysteines (Hisabori *et al*, 1998). As this result demonstrated the significance of the contribution of additional region of the γ subunit on ϵ inhibition, we hereby prepared a similar mutant of the cyanobacterial $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ complex, $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ (Figure 1B in the Supplementary data). The ATPase activity of $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ was inhibited by 20% by the ϵ subunit when the enzyme activity was measured in the presence of 5 mM ATP, whereas the extent of inhibition was slightly higher when 5 μ M ATP was used (Figure 1). In contrast, the wild-type $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ complex was completely inhibited by the ϵ subunit irrespective of the ATP concentrations. This strong inhibitory effect under high ATP concentration was very different from that observed for the thermophilic bacterial enzyme (Kato-Yamada *et al*, 1999), but similar to that observed for the chloroplast-type ATPase (Richter *et al*, 1984).

In order to determine the cause of the reduction in the extent of the ϵ inhibition in the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ complex, we calculated the apparent K_D values of the interaction between ϵ and the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ complex based on the extent of inhibition of ATP hydrolysis activity of the complex in the presence of various concentrations of the ϵ subunit (Figure 2A). The estimated K_D values were 2.1 ± 0.3 nM for the wild type and 4.2 ± 0.9 nM for the mutant complex. To confirm the difference in affinity, we then examined the binding of the ϵ subunit to this $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ complex using fluorescence correlation spectroscopy (FCS), a valuable method that allows the measurement of the affinity between two protein molecules in solution. For this FCS measurement, a Cys residue was introduced into the ϵ subunit at the position of Q100 (ϵ_{Q100C}) and was labeled with Alexa Fluor 488-C₅-maleimide. This mutation and the fluorescent dye used did not affect ϵ inhibition (see the Supplementary Figure 2). This direct binding measurement showed that the affinity between the ϵ subunit and the complex decreased 3.5-fold by deletion of the additional region of the γ subunit (Figure 2B). The K_D values obtained were 12.5 ± 3.2 nM for the wild type and 44 ± 7.2 nM for the mutant complex. As ϵ inhibition of the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ complex did not increase even in the presence of 1 μ M ϵ subunit (a much higher concentration than the observed K_D value), we concluded that the deleted portion of the γ subunit must play a significant role in ϵ -induced

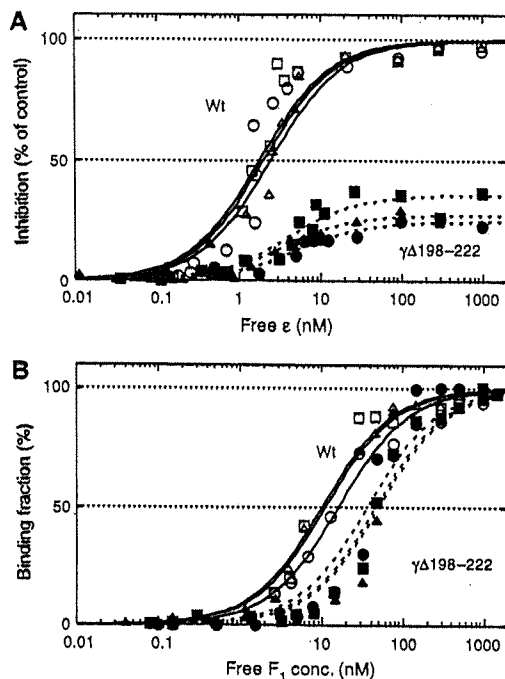


Figure 2 Binding of the ϵ subunit to the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\text{wild}}$ and $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ complexes. (A) The extent of inhibition of the ATPase activity of the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\text{wild}}$ ('Wt', open symbol) and $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ (' $\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ ', closed symbol) complexes were measured in the presence of various concentrations of the ϵ subunit. The results from three independent experiments (circle, triangle and square) are plotted against the concentration of free ϵ subunit (see 'Materials and methods'). Lines were calculated based on the K_D values obtained from the independent measurements above for $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\text{wild}}$ ('Wt', solid line) and for $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ (' $\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ ', dotted line). (B) Binding of the ϵ subunit to the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ complex was measured by FCS method as a function of the concentration of $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\text{wild}}$ ('Wt', open symbol) and $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ (' $\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ ', closed symbol). For the measurements, the fluorescence-labeled ϵ was fixed at 5 nM. The complex and the ϵ subunit were incubated for 60 min at 40°C, and the FCS measurement was carried out at 37°C. The results from three independent experiments (circle, triangle and square) are plotted. The titration curves for $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\text{wild}}$ ('Wt', solid line) and for $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ (' $\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ ', dotted line) were fitted as described (see Materials and methods).

inhibition, although the reduced inhibitory effect of the ϵ subunit on the mutant complex might be in part due to decreased binding of the ϵ subunit. To further dissect the properties of the mutant γ subunit, we measured the enzyme activity of the wild type and $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ complex in the presence and absence of the nonionic detergent lauryldimethylamine oxide (LDAO) (Figure 3). LDAO is a useful indicator of the susceptibility of an enzyme to ADP inhibition (Paik *et al*, 1993). The mutant was found to be less activated in the presence of LDAO, suggesting that, in comparison to the wild type, the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ complex may be less prone to ADP inhibition. These results suggest that the additional region of the chloroplast-type γ subunit is an important determinant of the susceptibility of the complex to both ϵ inhibition and ADP inhibition.

Enzyme preparation for single molecule observation and its inhibition by the ϵ subunit

To observe ϵ inhibition of rotation of the γ subunit in detail, two cysteine residues were introduced at the surface of the γ

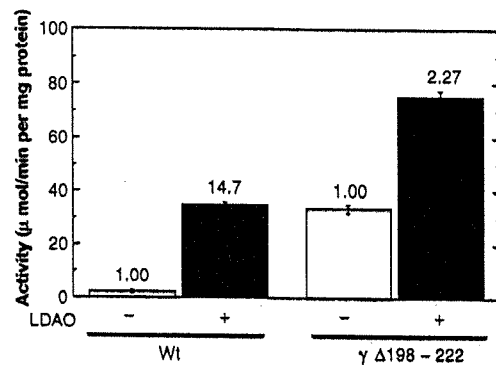


Figure 3 Effect of LDAO on the ATP hydrolysis activity of the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\text{wild}}$ and $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ complexes. ATP hydrolysis of $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\text{wild}}$ and $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ was measured as described in Figure 1 in the presence (closed bar) and the absence (open bar) of 0.1% (w/v) LDAO. Steady-state activity was determined from the slope from 180 to 200 s after addition of the enzyme solutions, and the results of three independent experiments were averaged. The extent of the activation by the addition of LDAO is indicated on the bars.

subunit. These two cysteines were used as an attachment site for the beads that are used as a probe to observe the movement of γ . After screening the γ subunit for mutations that would not affect ϵ -induced inhibition, amino-acid positions corresponding to Gly-112 and Ala-125 were used as recipients for introduction of the required cysteine residues, in addition to the substitution of Lys-221 to Ser, which is located in the additional region. Lys-221 appears to be a critical residue of this region of the enzyme, because substitution of this residue to Ser resulted in an increase in ATPase activity, and reduced the susceptibility of the enzyme to ADP inhibition state as observed for the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ complex. However, the remarkable difference between the K221S mutation and $\gamma_{\Delta 198-222}$ was that the former showed no significant difference in the extent of ϵ inhibition (see Figure 1 in contrast to Table I of the Supplementary data). The complex containing the three γ subunit mutations G112C, A125C and K221S (designated $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma\text{-rot}$) showed 10-fold higher activity than the wild-type complex (Table I of the Supplementary data), and was used for the rotation experiments. Specific biotinylation of the introduced cysteines was confirmed by Western blotting using a streptavidin-conjugated alkaline phosphatase (Figure 3 in the Supplementary data).

Having prepared the experimental system described above, we sought to investigate the kinetic properties of $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma\text{-rot}$ ATPase activity and its inhibition by the ϵ subunit (Figure 4A). The K_M and V_{max} values obtained for $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma\text{-rot}$ were the following: 85.8 μM and 44.3 s^{-1} in the absence of the ϵ subunit, 52.2 μM and 32.1 s^{-1} in the presence of 3 nM ϵ subunit, and 66.5 μM and 21.4 s^{-1} in the presence of 5 nM ϵ subunit. The ϵ subunit was thus found to inhibit the ATPase activity noncompetitively. Figure 4B shows a typical time course for the ϵ -induced inhibition. The decrease in the activity following addition of ϵ occurred within a few minutes and the obtained curve fitted to a single exponential function. The gradual decrease in activity indicates binding of the ϵ subunit to the complex, and the binding rate constant, k_{obs} , was calculated from these curves. Based on the observed linear relation of k_{obs} against the ϵ concentrations, a k_{on} value of $4.9 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ was obtained (Figure 4C). Although the extrapolated intercept of Figure 4C gives the theoretical k_{off}

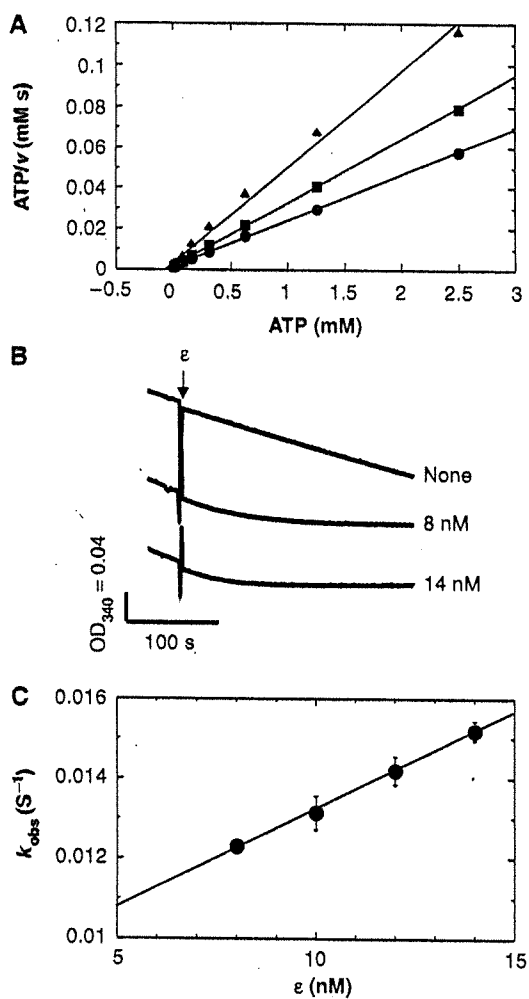


Figure 4 Inhibition of ATP hydrolysis activity of the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ -rot complex by the ϵ subunit. (A) S/v-S plots of the rates of ATP hydrolysis with 5–2500 μM ATP are indicated. ATP hydrolysis activity was measured at 25°C. The reaction was initiated by addition of 6 nM $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ -rot and the activity was monitored for 1 min. 0 nM (triangle), 3 nM (square) and 5 nM (circle) of ϵ subunit was then added and the activity in the steady state was determined from the slope from 175 to 200 s following ϵ subunit addition. (B) ATP hydrolysis activity of $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ -rot was measured with 5 mM ATP at 25°C. The reaction was initiated by addition of 1.5 nM $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ -rot and the activity monitored for 1 min. The indicated concentrations of the ϵ subunits were then added. (C) Time course of the inhibition after addition of the ϵ subunit shown in (B) was used for calculation of k_{on} of the ϵ subunit to the complex. The curves are fitted to a single exponential equation: $y = a \times e^{-k_{\text{obs}} \times t} + b$, where a and b are constants, and k_{obs} is the observed binding rate constant. The association rate constant k_{on} was then obtained from the slope based on the function, $k_{\text{obs}} = k_{\text{on}} \times [\epsilon \text{ subunit}] + k_{\text{off}}$.

value, owing to large experimental fluctuations, it was deemed unsuitable for calculation of the K_D value. Instead, the K_D value of 3.6 nM obtained from the inhibition of steady-state ATPase activity by the ϵ subunit was used, allowing determination of the k_{off} value, which was found to be $1.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

Inhibition of rotation of the γ subunit by the ϵ subunit

The rotation of the γ subunit in the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ -rot complex was observed using a 0.2- μm duplex beads as a probe. The

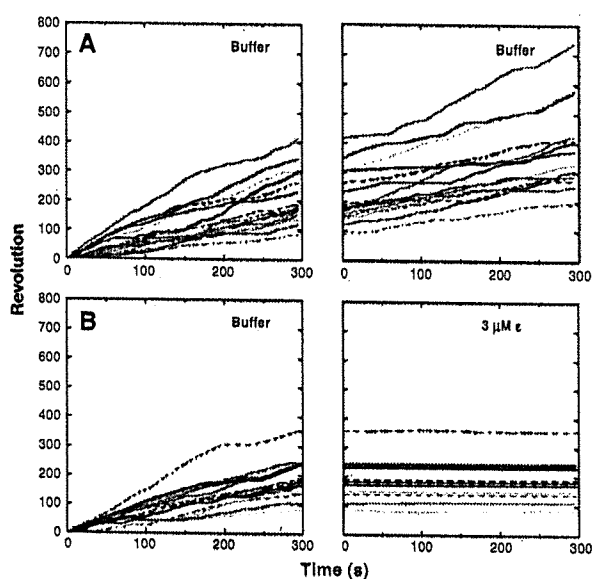


Figure 5 Effect of the ϵ subunit on the rotation of the γ subunit in the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ complex. Rotations of the beads attached to the γ subunit in the presence or the absence of the ϵ subunit were recorded at 250 nM ATP at 25°C. The buffer without (A) or with (B) 3 μM ϵ subunit was infused into the chamber following an initial 5 min observation of rotation. In general, solution exchange in the flow-chamber took 1–2 min. The total number of observed particles was 17 for A (without ϵ) and 13 for B (with ϵ).

exchange of the buffer was found to have little effects on the rotation behavior of the γ subunit (Figure 5A). In contrast, significant inhibition of rotation was observed when the ϵ subunit was injected into the objective chamber (Figure 5B). No continuous rotation was observed on the 13 glass plates examined after injection of the ϵ subunit, suggesting very tight binding of the ϵ subunit to the immobilized ATPase molecule and efficient inhibition of the rotation of the γ subunit. From the k_{off} value obtained for the ϵ subunit, the half-lifetime of the binding of the ϵ subunit to the complex was calculated as 9.3 min, and the ϵ subunit could easily rebind to the complex when the concentration of the ϵ subunit was 3 μM . Therefore, the occasional detachment of the ϵ subunit from the γ subunit and subsequent resumption of rotation within this experimental period was deemed to be highly unlikely.

Analysis of the pause position of the γ subunit caused by the ϵ inhibition

When a very low ATP concentration (250 nM) was used for the rotation assay, the movement of the beads attached to the γ subunit showed three discrete pauses, each separated by 120° (Figure 6A). This stepping rotation was not observed when 10 μM ATP was used (Figure 4 in the Supplementary data). The observed 120° pauses can be attributed to ATP binding (Yasuda *et al*, 1998). The angular position of this 120° pause was not significantly affected by the buffer exchange (Figure 6A–C), indicating that the immobilized ATPase complex does not easily undergo a change in position or direction on the glass surface. The average change in pausing angle of the γ subunit from a prior ATP waiting after buffer exchange was $125.3 \pm 17.9^\circ$ (Table I). We next determined the angular position of the pause when rotation was inhibited by the

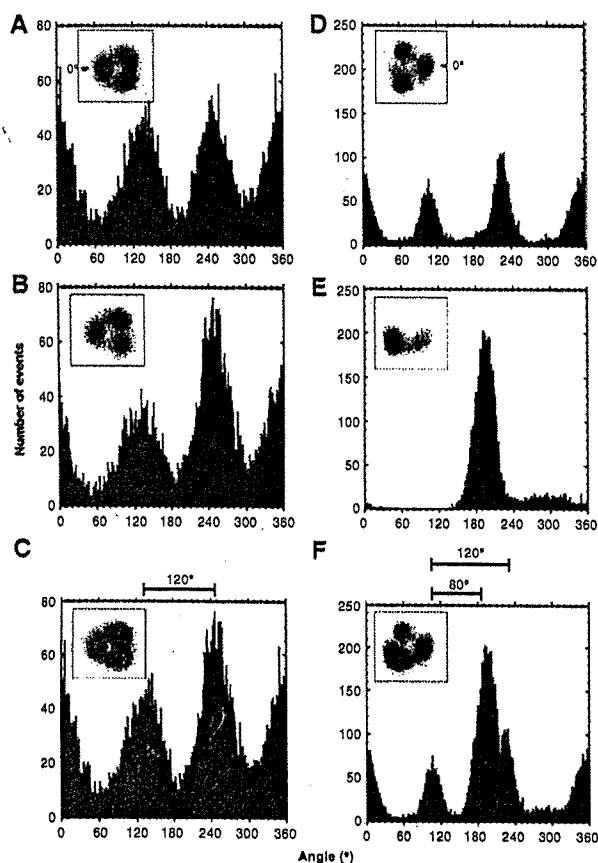


Figure 6 Stop angular position of the γ subunit inhibited by the ϵ subunit. Histograms of angular positions of the beads at 250 nM ATP before (A, D) and after (B, E) buffer exchanges are indicated. (C, F) are superimposed histograms of (A, B) and (D, E), respectively. Histograms were taken from rotations observed for 5 min. One of three peak positions of the histogram was set as 0°, and was indicated as the position of the arrow in the traces of the centroid of the beads in the *inset* figures. In the case of the experiments shown in (D–F), buffer containing 3 μ M ϵ subunit was used.

Table I Stop angular position of rotation of the γ subunit inhibited by the ϵ subunit

Buffer exchange	Pausing angular position of the γ subunit (mean \pm s.d.)
– ϵ	125.3 \pm 17.9° (<i>n</i> = 15)
+ ϵ	79.0 \pm 20.2° (<i>n</i> = 5)

The most common location of the bead during rotation is shown as peaks in Figure 6. Each of the peaks was fitted by Gaussian distributions, and the center of the angular position of the γ subunit from the previous ATP binding position (see the peaks in Figure 6B and E) was averaged on the indicated number of the particles.

ϵ subunit. The location of the beads after the ϵ injection was clearly limited (Figure 6D–F), and the pausing angle was approximately 80° forward from that for the ATP binding (Table I).

To characterize this 80° pausing position induced by the ϵ inhibition, we analyzed the slow rotation of the γ subunit of the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ -rot in the presence of 250 nM ATP in detail, and could observe the long pauses (5–45 s) of rotation at 80° from the ATP binding position frequently (Figure 7). These long

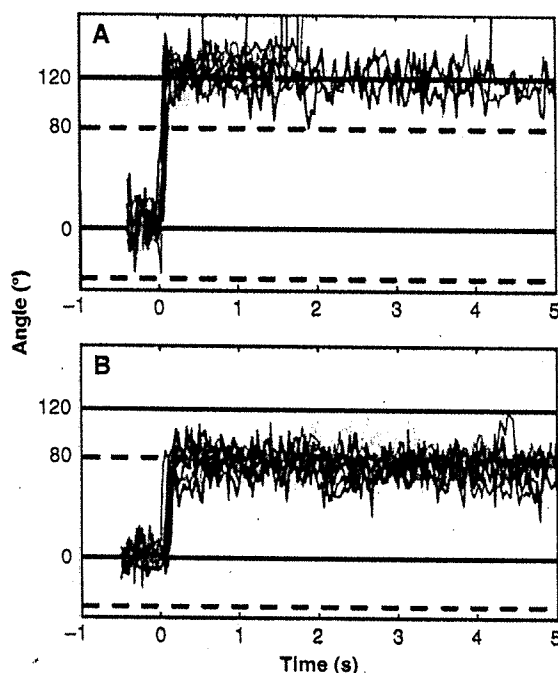


Figure 7. Long pause of the rotation of the γ subunit at 80°. Pausing angular position of the beads from the ATP waiting position to the next ATP waiting position (A) or to the ADP inhibition (B) were overlaid (*n* = 10), when 250 nM ATP was used for the assay.

pauses at 80° seem to be nearly identical to that observed for ADP inhibition state on TF₁ (Hirono-Hara *et al*, 2001), suggesting that the pausing angular position by the ϵ inhibition was identical to that observed for ATP hydrolysis, product release and that for ADP inhibition, but distinctly different from the waiting position for ATP binding.

Discussion

Why can CF₁- ϵ behave as a strong intrinsic inhibitor?

Based on the observation of the recovery of the ϵ inhibition of TF₁, the ϵ subunit is thought to exist in two different states in the complex known as the inhibitory state and the non-inhibitory state (Kato-Yamada *et al*, 1999). Based on structural analysis, these two states are considered to be the consequence of the two different ϵ subunit conformations: the extended conformation and the contracted conformation, respectively (Suzuki *et al*, 2003). Therefore, the transition between these two conformations is thought to be a mode of regulation of the F₁-ATPase complex (Suzuki *et al*, 2003; Iino *et al*, 2005). ATP hydrolysis is strongly inhibited in the F₀F₁ complex as well, when the ϵ subunit assumes the extended conformation, in which the C-terminal α -helices of the ϵ subunit extend into the $\alpha_3\beta_3$ hexagon ring, whereas the contracted ϵ subunit does not inhibit ATP hydrolysis (Tsunoda *et al*, 2001). The apparent insensitivity of the TF₁ or TF₀TF₁ to ϵ inhibition observed in the presence of high concentrations of ATP has therefore been attributed to the contracted conformation of the ϵ subunit, which is induced by ATP (Kato-Yamada *et al*, 2000, 2005). The ATP-dependent conformational change of the C-terminal α -helical part of ϵ has also been shown in EF₀EF₁ (Schulenberg and Capaldi, 1999).

The results presented here show that, in contrast to the reported ϵ inhibition of the bacterial F₁-ATPase, the inhibitory effect of the ϵ subunit on the cyanobacterial $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ complex is not influenced by the concentrations of ATP (Figure 1B), suggesting that the drastic conformational changes of the ϵ subunit from the extended to the contracted conformation is not induced by ATP. This observation is in agreement with the reported inhibitory mechanism of the chloroplast CF₁ by the ϵ subunit (Richter *et al*, 1984). As stated, one of the remarkable differences between the bacterial F₁ and CF₁ is the existence of an additional ~40 amino acids located in the middle of the γ subunit. Although the γ subunit of the cyanobacterial F₁-ATPase is not redox sensitive, it also contains a 26 amino-acid addition whose sequences are very similar to those of CF₁- γ . The additional region of the cyanobacterial and chloroplast γ subunit (Hisabori *et al*, 2003) may interfere with the conformational change of the ϵ subunit, thus CF₁- ϵ can be thought of more as a stationary inhibitory subunit rather than a regulatory one like the bacterial type ϵ -subunit. In the case of CF₁, the thiol modulation system constitutes an additional regulatory mechanism of enzyme activity (Nalin and McCarty, 1984), and this regulation ability seemed to be conferred by the molecular evolution of the additional region of the cyanobacterial γ subunit. In plants, this kind of redox regulation mechanism is likely to be of greater importance because CF₁ activity can be linked both to the photochemical reactions and electron transport, thus constituting an effective mechanism for the efficient use of light as an energy source for ATP synthesis.

Relation between ϵ inhibition and ADP inhibition

The pausing period observed at 80° is considered to encompass the two sequential events; ATP hydrolysis (Shimabukuro *et al*, 2003) and product release (Yasuda *et al*, 2001). Nishizaka *et al* (2004) recently reported that ATP hydrolysis and/or phosphate release but not ADP release would occur at this 80° pause position. In addition, the TF₁ subcomplex showed extended pauses at this angular position caused by ADP inhibition (Hirono-Hara *et al*, 2001).

Feniouk and Junge (2005) recently proposed that the ϵ subunit acts as a stabilizer of the ADP inhibition state in the F₀F₁ complex. As the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ subcomplex also lapses into the ADP inhibition state, ADP inhibition and ϵ inhibition are independent phenomena. However, our results suggest that these two inhibitions may be tightly linked to each other. In this study, we succeeded in determining the discrete stop position caused by the ϵ -induced inhibition of rotation, and found it to be approximately 80° forward from the pause position for ATP binding (Figure 6, Table I), confirming that binding of the ϵ subunit may stabilize ADP inhibition. This conclusion is further supported by the results showing that enzyme activation by LADO was less marked following deletion of additional region of the γ subunit, and this deletion affects ϵ inhibition (Figure 3).

Materials and methods

Materials

Biotin-PEAC₅-maleimide was purchased from Dojindo (Kumamoto, Japan). ATP, phosphoenolpyruvate and bovine serum albumin (BSA) were obtained from Sigma. Pyruvate kinase, lactate dehydrogenase and nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (reduced

form) (NADH) were purchased from Roche Diagnostics. Other chemicals were of the highest grade commercially available.

Strains and plasmid

E. coli strains used were JM 109 (TAKARA) for cloning and BL21(DE3)*uncΔ702* (Tc^r, ATPase mutant, BL21(DE3) *uncΔ702*, *asnA::Tn10*) (Joshi *et al*, 1989; Nichols and Harwood, 1997) for expression of *T. elongatus* $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$. *E. coli* BL21(DE3)*uncΔ702* strain was kindly gifted from Dr Harwood (University of Iowa). A plasmid pTR19, the expression vector for F₀F₁ of thermophilic *Bacillus* PS3 (Suzuki *et al*, 2002), was used as a template to construct the expression vector for *T. elongatus* $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$.

Construction of expression plasmids for $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ and ϵ of *T. elongatus* BP-1

A 948 base pair DNA fragment containing *atpC* gene, coding for γ subunit of F₀F₁, was amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) from genomic DNA of *T. elongatus* BP-1, (a kind gift from Masahiko Ikeuchi, University of Tokyo), using primers 5'-CCGCGGAATTCGC TTTGCTTAGGACTTTAAATACCATTGGCCAATCTCAAAGC-3' (*EcoRI*) and 5'-CGCCGCGGTACCGCTAGCGCAGAGCCTCAGCCCC-3' (*NheI*). The restriction sites for the enzyme shown in parentheses are underlined. A 1512 base pair DNA fragment containing *atpA* gene, coding for α subunit was amplified using primers 5'-GGCGGC GCCATGGAATCTAAGAAGGAGATATACATATGTAAGTATCCGACCCG ACG-3' (*NcoI*) and 5'-CCGCGCGCAATTCTTAGGCAGTGAAGGTAGCT TTGTAC-3' (*EcoRI*). A 1449 base pair DNA fragment containing *atpB* gene, coding for β subunit of F₀F₁, was amplified by PCR using primers 5'-GGCGGGCGCTAGCATTATGAAGGAGATTAATCAAATGCA TCACCATCATCACCATCACCATCACCATATGGTCATATCAGCAGAACC AACC-3' (*NheI*) and 5'-CCC CGCGGAAGCTTCTAAATCTCGACCA CACCCCTGCG-3' (*HindIII*). These three DNA fragments for α , β and γ subunits were then ligated into the pTR19 plasmids using the restriction enzymes indicated. Consequently, the genes for TF₀TF₁ subunits were removed from the plasmid and the plasmid was converted to the expression plasmid for the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ complex of *T. elongatus*. The obtained plasmid was named pTR19FW.

For the ϵ subunit expression plasmid, a 417 base pair DNA fragment containing *atpH* gene, coding for the ϵ subunit of F₀F₁, was amplified by PCR from genomic DNA of *T. elongatus* BP-1 using primers 5'-GGCGGCATATGGTGATGACTGTCCGGTAATTG CG-3' (*NdeI*) and 5'-CCC CGGAAGCTTCTAAATCTCGACCACACC CCTGCG-3' (*HindIII*). The PCR fragment was digested with *NdeI* and *HindIII* and ligated into the plasmid pET21c (Novagen).

Mutant complex preparation

Additional region on the γ subunit corresponding to amino acids 198–222 was deleted from the γ subunit gene on the expression plasmid for $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ using the Mega-primer method (Landt *et al*, 1990) with the following mutation primers: 5'-GCTCCCTCGATCCC CAAGGGACCTCGACGCTGCCCTCTGC-3'. The obtained plasmid was used for the expression of the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma_{198-222}$ complex.

To use the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ complex for single molecule experiments, all cysteines on the complex were substituted with serine by the Mega-primer method using the following mutation primers: 5'-CCCCTGC ACCTGGTATTGTCCAGCGCAAATCTGTGTCCGAGCCATTGCAAACG GG-3' for α Cys144Ser; 5'-CCAAAAGGGCCAAGACGTGATTTCCGTG TATGTGGCCATTGGTCAAAAAGCCTCC-3' for α Cys194Ser; 5'-CGCG CCGCTTAGACGTGGCTGTAACCTCCGAAGTCAAACTCC-3' for β Cys53Ser and 5'-GGTGGTAACAGCGCATCGCGGGCTGTCCGGCGG TTACAACACTAATGTCATTCGCCG-3' for γ Cys90Ser. Substitutions of Gly112 and Ala125 on γ to Cys for Biotin-PEAC₅-Maleimide labeling were carried out by the Mega-primer method using the following mutation primers: 5'-GGAACGTCTCCAAGAACTCGAAGCCGAGTGC CTCAAATACACCCTAGT-3' for γ Gly112Cys and 5'-GGGATAGTACG GCGCTGGAAATATTGGCATGCCCTTGGACCC-3' for γ Ala125Cys. In addition, Lys221 on γ was substituted with Ser using the following mutation primers: 5'-CATTTGGAAGTCAACCGGAGTCCGTTAACCTC GACGCTGCCGCTCTGCC-3'. The plasmid containing the above mutations was named pTR19FR and used for the expression of $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ -rot.

Expression and purification of the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ complex and the ϵ subunit

E. coli BL21(DE3)*uncΔ702* strain was transformed with pTR19FW or pTR19FR, and cultured in 2 × YT medium containing 100 μg/ml ampicillin and 0.2 mM isopropyl- β -D-thiogalactopyranoside at 37°C

for 19 h. The desired proteins were purified and labeled with Biotin-PEAC₅-maleimide by using the same method as described (Ueoka-Nakanishi *et al*, 2004) and stored at -80°C. The ϵ subunit was expressed and prepared as described (Hisabori *et al*, 1997) and stored at -80°C.

Measurement of ATP hydrolysis activity

ATP hydrolysis activity was measured in the presence of an ATP-regenerating system (Stiggall *et al*, 1979) in 50 mM N-2-hydroxyl piperazine-N'-2-ethane sulfonic acid (HEPES)-KOH, pH 8.0, 100 mM KCl, 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 5 mM ATP, 50 μ g/ml pyruvate kinase, 50 μ g/ml lactate dehydrogenase, 2 mM phosphoenolpyruvate and 0.2 mM NADH. The assay was carried out at 25 and 40°C. The rate of ATP hydrolysis after addition of the enzyme was determined by monitoring the decrease in NADH absorption at 340 nm using a spectrophotometer V-550 (Jasco, Tokyo, Japan).

Estimation of the ϵ binding

The proportion of the complex-bound ϵ subunit was estimated from the extent of the inhibition of the ATPase activity of the complex. ATP hydrolysis was initiated by addition of the complex to the reaction mixture, monitored for 1 min, and various concentrations of the ϵ subunit added. The concentration of the $\alpha_3\beta_3\gamma$ complex was fixed at 5 nM. The rate of ATP hydrolysis in steady state was determined from 260 to 280 s after the addition of the ϵ subunit. The change in the extent of inhibition dependent on the ϵ concentrations were then fitted with the hyperbolic equation, $y = [(A \times [\epsilon]_{\text{free}}) / (K_D + [\epsilon]_{\text{free}})]$, where y represents the percentage of inhibition, A is the maximum inhibition (%) and K_D is the equilibrium dissociation constant for the ϵ subunit. To calculate the concentration of the free ϵ subunit, we assumed that the complex that bound an ϵ subunit is completely inhibited, thus $[\epsilon]_{\text{free}} = [\epsilon]_{\text{add}} - [\text{complex}] \times y$.

FCS measurement

ϵ_{Q100C} was labeled with Alexa Fluor 488-C₅-maleimide (Molecular Probes) with a molar ratio of 1:5 in 100 mM K-phosphate, pH 7.0, 5 mM TCEP and 100 mM KCl at 25°C for 2 h. Unbound fluorescent dye was removed from the solution with NAP5 column (Amersham) equilibrated with 50 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 8.0 and 100 mM KCl. The concentrations of the fluorescent dye bound to the ϵ subunit was determined from the absorption using excitation coefficient at 493 nm = 72 000 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹ for the dye. The concentrations of the ϵ subunit were determined by BCA protein assay. FCS measurements were performed using ConfoCor2 (Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany) as described (Pack *et al*, 1999, 2000). The sample was excited with 62.5 μ W of laser power. To prevent nonspecific adsorption of proteins on the surface of the cover glass, the sample chamber was treated with a protein blocker (N101, NOF Corporation, Japan) before measurement. The measured fluorescence autocorrelation functions were fitted by two-component model as described (Pack *et al*, 2000). In the titration experiment, the

duration of measurement was 60 s, and each point on the titration curve is represented by the average of three independent measurements. The titration curves obtained in this study were then fitted with a hyperbolic equation, $y = [(B \times [\epsilon]_{\text{free}}) / (K_D + [\epsilon]_{\text{free}})]$, where y represents the % of the binding of the complex to the ϵ subunit, B is the maximum occupancy of ϵ with the complex (%), K_D is the dissociation constant for the ϵ subunit. As the concentrations of the complex that bound to the ϵ subunit are obtained directly from the FCS measurement, the concentration of the free ϵ subunit was calculated as $[\epsilon]_{\text{free}} = [\epsilon]_{\text{add}} - [\text{complex}]_{\text{bound}}$.

Rotation assay

Biotinylated complexes (10 μ l) in 20 mM K-phosphate, pH 7.0, 100 mM KCl and 0.2% (w/v) BSA were infused into a flow chamber and were incubated for 2 min at room temperature. The flow chamber was then washed with 50 μ l of 20 mM K-phosphate, pH 7.0 and 100 mM KCl to remove unattached complexes. A streptavidin beads (209 nm) in 20 mM K-phosphate, pH 7.0, 100 mM KCl and 0.2% (w/v) BSA were infused into the flow chamber and were incubated for 15 min. Rotation was initiated by addition of 30 μ l of assay buffer (50 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 8.0, 100 mM KCl, 0.5 mM MgCl₂, 250 nM ATP, 100 μ g/ml pyruvate kinase and 2 mM phosphoenolpyruvate) after washing the flow chamber with 50 μ l of 50 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 8.0 and 100 mM KCl. The rotation was monitored for 5 min after which the assay buffer containing 3 μ M of the ϵ subunit was infused into the flow chamber to inhibit the enzyme. Rotation of the attached 209 nm duplex beads on the γ subunit was monitored with a conventional optical microscope type IX 71 (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) with a $\times 100$ objective lens and the images were recorded into a digital video recorder. Recorded images were analyzed by custom software prepared by Yasuda *et al* (1998).

Supplementary data

Supplementary data are available at *The EMBO Journal* Online (<http://www.embojournal.org>).

Acknowledgements

We thank Dr C S Harwood (University of Iowa), Dr M Ikeuchi (University of Tokyo), Dr T Suzuki and Dr M Yoshida (ATP System Project, ERATO, JST) for providing us the suitable experimental materials. We also thank Dr B Feniouk, Dr K Yokoyama, Dr H Imamura, Dr R Iino, Dr K Shimabukuro, Dr E Muneyuki, Dr K Motohashi, Dr Y Nakanishi, Dr T Masaike, Dr H Ueno, Ms M Takeda and Dr PGN Romano for fruitful discussions. This work was supported in part by ATP System Project, ERATO, JST, and in part by a Grant-in-aid for Scientific Research (No. 17370015 and No. 17GS0316 to TH) from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan and by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science.

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Control of the Optical Properties of Quantum Dots by Surface Coating with Calix[*n*]arene Carboxylic Acids

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Semiconductor quantum dots (QDs) have become a new class of fluorescent probes that can be used for biological labeling,¹ in vivo bioimaging,² and multi-color optical encoding of biomolecules.³ Since the optical properties of semiconductor QDs can be continuously tuned by changing the particle size, a variety of QDs (II–IV and III–V semiconductor materials) that emit in the visible to the near-infrared regions have been developed.⁴ Recent advances in the synthesis of QDs have led to the development of smaller QDs,^{5,6} where the optical properties can be tunable without a change in the particle size.⁶ Several groups have reported alloyed semiconductor QDs for size-independent tuning of the emission properties.⁶ Bailey and Nic showed that the emission peaks of ternary CdSe_{*x*}Te_{1-*x*} QDs can be controlled by varying the composition of Se and Te.^{6c} Here, we report a new method for the control of the optical properties of CdSe/ZnS (core–shell) QDs by changing the surface coating layer with different oligomer sizes of calixarene derivatives.

Recently, we have found that the surface of CdSe/ZnS QDs can be modified with amphiphilic calixarene derivatives to give water-soluble QDs.⁷ In this work, we examined the optical properties of CdSe/ZnS QDs coated with calix[*n*]arene carboxylic acids (1–3). The calixarene coating was performed by mixing trioctylphosphine oxide (TOPO)-capped CdSe/ZnS QDs and 1–3 in tetrahydrofuran at room temperature. Deprotonation of the carboxyl groups of the calix[*n*]arene resulted in water-soluble QDs (Scheme 1). The QDs were highly fluorescent (quantum yield = 0.1–0.34) and stable for more than 1 month in aqueous solution.

Scheme 1. Preparation of Water-Soluble CdSe/ZnS QDs by Surface Coating with Calix[*n*]arene Carboxylic Acids (1–3)

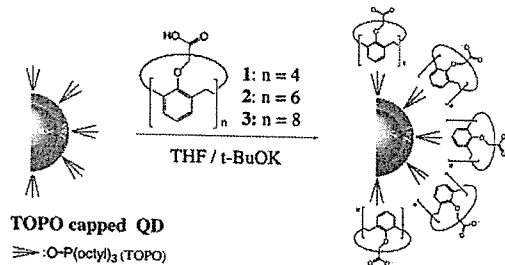


Figure 1a–c shows the fluorescence spectra of CdSe/ZnS QDs before and after the surface coating with 1–3. The emission peak of QDs shifted to longer wavelengths with increasing the oligomer size of the calix[*n*]arene used. In the case of the CdSe/ZnS QD with a 530 nm emission peak, the red shifts were observed to be 8, 21, and 35 nm for 1-, 2-, and 3-coated QDs, respectively. When

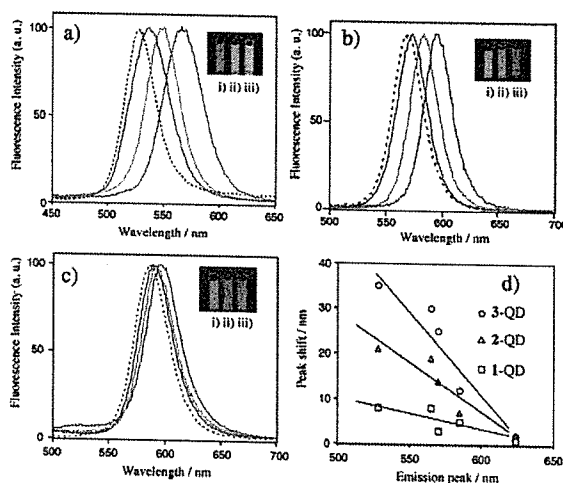


Figure 1. Fluorescence spectra (a–c) of TOPO-capped CdSe/ZnS QDs in chloroform (broken line) and their surface-coated QDs with 1–3 in water (blue for 1, green for 2, and red for 3). The inset shows the fluorescence image of the calix[*n*]arene-coated QDs excited at 365 nm (i for 1-QD, ii for 2-QD, and iii for 3-QD). The peak shifts of the calix[*n*]arene-coated QDs compared to the initial QDs are shown in (d).

the QDs with longer emission peaks were coated, the red shifts became smaller. The dependences of oligomer sizes of the calixarene on the peak shifts are shown in Figure 1d. The result indicates that the emission peaks of CdSe/ZnS QDs can be controlled by the surface coating of the QDs with calix[*n*]arene carboxylic derivatives.

To understand the mechanism of the red shifts, we first examined the absorption spectra of the QDs. Figure 2a shows the absorption spectra of TOPO-capped QDs (565 nm emission) and their surface-coated QDs with 1–3. It should be noted that the band edge absorption shifts to longer wavelengths depending on the oligomer size of calixarenes used for the surface coating. This result shows that the band gap energy decreases in the calixarene-coated QDs compared to that of the initial TOPO-capped QDs. It is well-known that the band gap energy in CdSe/ZnS QDs decreases with increasing particle size.^{4a} In the calixarene-coated QDs, however, the particle sizes of the CdSe/ZnS moiety could not be changed because the surface coating procedure was performed at room temperature.

To characterize the structure of the calixarene-coated QDs, we determined their particle size using TEM and fluorescence correlation spectroscopy (FCS).^{7,8} The inset in Figure 2b shows a TEM image of the TOPO-capped CdSe/ZnS QDs (565 nm emission). The TEM image shows that the size of the core–shell moiety of the QDs is ca. 5 nm. For each of the QDs coated with 1–3, we attempted to measure their particle sizes using TEM, but we failed

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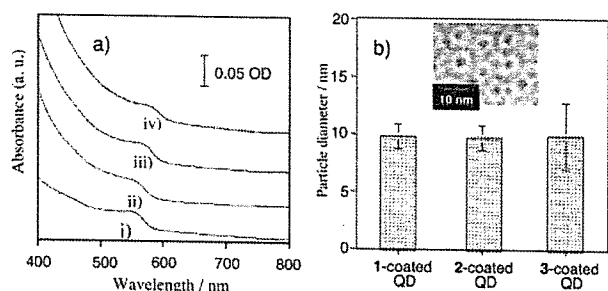


Figure 2. (a) Absorption spectra of CdSe/ZnS QDs (565 nm emission) before and after coating with calix[*n*]arene carboxylic acids: (i) TOPO-coated QDs in chloroform; (ii) 1-coated QDs; (iii) 2-coated QDs; and (iv) 3-coated QDs in water. (b) TEM images (inset) for TOPO-coated QDs (565 nm emission) and the hydrodynamic particle diameter of 1-, 2-, and 3-coated QDs determined by FCS.

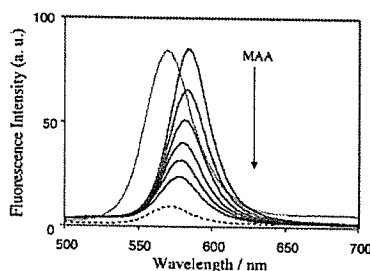


Figure 3. Changes in the fluorescence spectra (solid lines) of 3-coated CdSe/ZnS QDs by ligand-exchange with mercaptoacetic acid (MAA) in borate buffer (pH = 9.2). MAA was added to the QD solution (o.d. = 0.05 at 480 nm) as an aqueous solution (2 mg/mL). For comparison, the fluorescence spectra of TOPO-capped QDs before coating by 3 in chloroform (red line) and MAA-coated QDs in water (broken line) prepared separately are shown.

to obtain, due to the aggregation during dryness of QD colloids on the Cu grid. Instead, we measured hydrodynamic diameters of the calixarene-coated QDs by using FCS. Interestingly, the hydrodynamic diameters of the QDs were calculated to be similar values (ca. 10 nm) for 1-, 2-, and 3-coated QDs (Figure 2b). This result indicates that the thickness of the organic surface layer is 2.5 nm long for all of the QDs coated with 1–3. The molecular lengths of TOPO and calix[*n*]arene carboxylic acids along their alkyl chains are estimated to be 1.3 and 0.95 nm, respectively. Thus it is reasonable to assume that the surface layer of the QDs forms a bilayer structure, as shown in Scheme 1 (see Supporting Information).

If the surface organic layer induces the emission shifts in the calixarene-coated QDs, their emission properties should be affected by compositions of the surface layer of QDs. To confirm the surface coating effect of 1–3 on the optical properties of QDs, we performed a ligand-exchange experiment. The surface organic layer of 3-coated QDs was exchanged with mercaptoacetic acids (MAA). Figure 3 shows the changes in the fluorescence spectra of 3-coated QDs upon addition of MAA. With increasing the concentration of MAA, the emission peak of 3-coated QDs shifted to shorter wavelengths and the emission spectra became close to that of MAA coated QDs. Thus, the red shift observed in the 3-coated QDs can be attributed to the surface coating effect by the calixarene derivative of 3.

The theoretical study of the factors that influence the excitonic states in semiconductor QDs has shown that dielectric confinement effects⁹ are also important as well as quantum (size) confinement effects.¹⁰ It has been predicted that the change in the dielectric constant of the medium surrounding the QDs results in the change in the exciton binding energy.⁹ We believe that the difference in dielectric nature of the surface layer (TOPO and calixarene) plays an important role in the red shifts of the emission of QDs coated with 1–3. Recently, Feng et al. reported a red shift of over 15 nm in the TOPO-capped QDs upon complexation of γ -cyclodextrin, and on the basis of first-principles calculations, they suggested that the S atom in the ZnS shell is exchanged with the hydroxyl oxygen atom of the cyclodextrin.¹¹ In the case of the calixarene-coated QDs, the possibility that the change of the ZnS surface due to the binding of calixarene derivatives may have resulted in the red shifts cannot be ruled out.

In conclusion, we have presented a new method for the control of the optical properties of QDs by surface coating with the calix[*n*]arene derivatives. Although the coating effect on the shifts of the emission peak of QDs decreases with increasing the particle sizes (emission wavelengths) of QDs, this method is useful for the preparation of water-soluble multi-colored QDs from an initial TOPO-coated QD. We expect that the surface coating method using calix[*n*]arene carboxylic acids can be applied to other semiconductor QDs for the control of the optical properties of QDs without changing the particle sizes.

Acknowledgment. We thank Prof. M. Tamura for continual encouragement.

Supporting Information Available: Synthetic procedures for 1–3 and QDs, surface coating procedure, TEM and FCS measurements, and additional characterization results. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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JA062021K