

子コロイドの調製法の開発。化学工学
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II. 知的財産権の出願登録状況
準備中

ナノサイズ・センシングカプセルの新規開発と医療応用
バイオマーカ作製

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研究要旨

本研究では直径 1nm 台またはそれ以下のバイオマーカとして、CdSe ナノ粒子の安定性が原子数に依存することを利用して (CdSe)₃₄ の他に (CdSe)₁₃、(CdSe)₄₈ 等の原子数まで揃った安定なナノ粒子を作製する方法を開発した。特に生命体への応用を考えるにあたり、水溶性で大量合成可能な方法を見出した。

A. 研究目的

発光性ナノ粒子をバイオマーカとして用いる場合は小さいほど非マーカ体の形状や動作を乱すことが避けられる。現在市販されているナノ粒子の直径は2nmを超えており、1nm台以下が求められる。しかし小さくするほど直径を揃えるのが難しくなり、特性が揃わなくなる。また発光効率も極端に落ちてしまう。表面を占める原子の数が内部に比べて極端に増えて来るために、粒子の構造を原子レベルで精密に整えることが難しくなるからである。この難問を解決するために、ナノ粒子の安定性が原子数に依存することに着目した。この性質を利用し、粒子を合成する条件に工夫を凝らすことによって特定の原子数の安定なナノ粒子が作製することが出来た。またこの試料をもいいて、発光効率も通常の粒子に比べて1000倍以上高めることも出来た。

B. 研究方法

直径が 1nm 台になると構成原子の数は 100 を割り、1 個の増減で安定性が大きく変化するようになる。従って粒子の成長条件によっては安定な粒子だけを選択的に合成することも可能になる。その結果成長する粒子は安定性に支配されているため、原子の数のみならず配列構造までが一意的に定まることになる。この方法により、(CdSe)₃₄ の他に (CdSe)₁₃、(CdSe)₄₈ 等の原子数まで揃った安定なナノ粒子を作製することが出来た。また配列構造も揃っているため、表面修飾等によって発光効率を高められることを実際に明らかにした。

(倫理面への配慮)

該当なし

C. 研究結果と考察

試料作製

先ず、 Cd_2SO_4 と Na_2SeSO_3 の水溶液に Cysteine 或は Thioglycerol を混ぜると 1 日程度で図 1 に示す光吸収を示す試料が成長する。Cysteine を混ぜて得た試料は波長 420nm に鋭い吸収ピークを示し、直径の揃ったナノ粒子であることがわかる。質量分析により、Octylamine で成長するのと同じ $(CdSe)_{34}$ と同定される。但し Octylamine ではピークが 415nm に観測されており、僅かながら移動しているが形状は酷似している。一方 Thioglycerol を混ぜて得た試料は 430nm に幅のある吸収ピークを示し、ある程度直径に分布のあることがわかる。

次に Cd と Se の比を 1:1 から 1:0.25 に変えて Cd の量を増やして同じく Thioglycerol を混ぜた試料では図 1 に示す如くピーク波長が 350nm にまで移動しており、質量分析の結果 $(CdSe)_{34}$ が分解して $(CdSe)_13$ の出来ることがわかった。

ナノ粒子の表面修飾と発光効率の飛躍的向上

得られた試料をクロロフォルム中で保管すると緩やかであるが日数を掛けて更に成長し、450nm 付近に肩が現れると同時に 415nm のピークは減少して行く。ピークの肩が長波長側に現れるのは粒子表面が修飾されて成長したためと考えられる。

この吸収の変化に対して発光を見ると当初は 420nm 付近に幅広ピークが観測されるがやがて鋭くなって強度が上がり、吸収の肩と同じ方向の長波長側に移動しながら効率は実に 10,800 倍にも上昇しているのがわかる。ローダミン色素と同程度の高率であることも判明した。

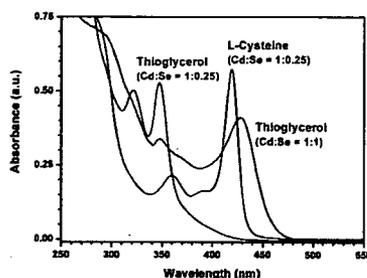


図 1. 異なる条件で合成した $(CdSe)_n$ 光吸収スペクトル

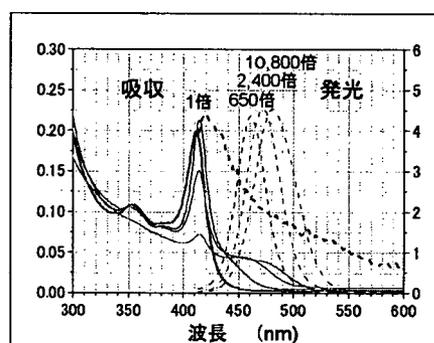


図 2. クロロフォルム中に成長する $(CdSe)_n$ の発光スペクトル

F. 健康危険情報

現在までのところ、本研究は人間を対象としたものではないため、健康に対する害は生じない。

G. 研究発表

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H. 知的財産権の出願・登録状況

1. 特許（公開）

該当なし

2. 実用新案登録

該当なし

超臨界 in-situ 表面修飾法を用いたハイブリッドナノ粒子合成に関する研究

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要旨

本研究において、超臨界水熱合成法を用い、新規新規蛍光・X線・MRI マーカーを合成した。水中分散性を向上させるため、ガドリニウム水酸化物表面をグルコースで修飾し、粒径 30nm の MRI マーカー作製に成功した。また、MRI 能、蛍光および X 線 CT 能を有する磁性酸化物のナノ粒子化に成功した。水酸化物や新しい酸化物ナノ結晶を用いた有機-無機ハイブリッド化により高い水中分散性とナノサイズ化が可能である。

A. 研究目的

高感度計測を可能とする新規蛍光・X線・MRI マーカーとして、超臨界水熱合成法を用いて、溶媒中に良分散する無機-有機ハイブリッドナノ粒子を開発する。

B. 研究方法

超臨界 in-situ 表面修飾法により、水中および溶媒中に良分散する各種蛍光・磁気ハイブリッドナノ粒子を合成する。癌組織への選択性を付与するために、ナノ粒子表面への有機分子修飾によりサイズ・形態・生体親和性を制御する。

C. 研究結果

昨年度常磁性の MRI マーカーとして開発した Gd 水酸化の MRI 能に関する基礎的な検証を行った。表面をグルコースで修飾し水中分散性を付与した場合、粒径を 30nm の場合に陽性の MRI マーカーとなることがわかった。

MRI 能、蛍光および X 線 CT 能を有する磁性酸化物のナノ粒子化に着手し、粒径数十 nm の結晶合成に成功した。この粒子は希土類元素をドーピングすることにより蛍光マーカーとなることを確認した。これらのナノ粒子は幅広い pH 領域で重元素の溶出などが極めて少なく、有機色素とは異なり退光現象も観測されなかった。

D. 考察

高い空間分解能を有する MRI 能を得るためには、高い水中分散性とサイズ制御が重要である。水酸化物や新しい酸化物ナノ結晶を用いた有機-無機ハイブリッド化により高い水中分散性とナノサイズ化が可能になる。マーカーに分子様の性質を付与することにより、プロトン核磁気緩和が制御でき陽性の造影効果が得られた。

E. 結論

グルコース修飾 Gd 水酸化物ナノマーカー

ー

が、高空間分解能計測を可能とする陽性のMRIマーカーとなることを検証した。新しい多元マーカーとしてGdVO₄をナノ粒子を開発した。

F. 健康危険情報

現在までのところ、本研究は人間を対象としたものではないため、健康に対する害は生じない。

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H. 知的財産権の出願・登録状況

なし

Ⅲ. 研究成果の刊行に関する一覧表

別紙1

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IV. 研究成果の刊行物・別刷

Three-dimensional nanometry of vesicle transport in living cells using dual-focus imaging optics

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Abstract

Dual-focus imaging optics for three-dimensional tracking of individual quantum dots has been developed to study the molecular mechanisms of motor proteins in cells. The new system has a high spatial and temporal precision, 2 nm in the x - y sample plane and 5 nm along the z -axis at a frame time of 2 ms. Three-dimensional positions of the vesicles labeled with quantum dots were detected in living cells. Vesicles were transported on the microtubules using 8-nm steps towards the nucleus. The steps had fluctuation of ~20 nm which were perpendicular to the axis of the microtubule but with the constant distance from the microtubule. The most of perpendicular movement was not synchronized with the 8-nm steps, indicating that dynein moved on microtubules without changing the protofilaments. When the vesicles changed their direction of movement toward the cell membrane, they moved perpendicular with the constant distance from the microtubule. The present method is powerful tool to investigate three dimensional movement of molecules in cells with nanometer and millisecond accuracy.

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Motor proteins such as dynein, kinesin, and myosin play roles in cell motility such as vesicle transport, mitosis, and muscle contraction [1,2]. To describe the mechanisms of motility at a molecular level, single molecule studies including *in vitro* motility assay have been used [3–7]. Despite all the *in vitro* measurements performed using purified motor proteins in artificial solutions, it is important to investigate the motility of these proteins in living cells because physiological conditions in the cell environment are very different to those in *in vitro* assays [8–10].

In living cells, cytoplasmic dynein transports vesicles bound to its tail domain via membrane associated

proteins [1]. The single particle imaging and tracking techniques using fluorescence dyes such as GFP or quantum dots observed the behavior of the vesicles in cells with nanometer and millisecond accuracies [7,9]. Dynein and kinesin transport vesicles with successive 8 nm steps in living cells [11–13] which is the same as that *in vitro* [7,14]. Many questions, however, have arisen about the *in vivo* behaviors of the motor proteins. Is dynein responsible for switching the protofilaments? Is the vesicle transport obstructed by the cytoskeletal network [1,2]? Since the motor proteins are arranged and work three-dimensionally (3D) in cells, it was difficult to answer these questions from results obtained by measurements of the movements viewed in two dimensions under a conventional microscope.

In the previous works, 3D tracking of particle movements has been constructed by moving the focal position by changing the position of an objective [15–17]. However, the method is not suitable for tracking fast biological pro-

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cesses that occur in a millisecond time scale because of the limitations of the speed of moving the objective. To overcome this problem, we developed a new optical method of dual view optics, which allows us to visualize three-dimensional biological processes with high temporal (2 ms) and spatial (2–5 nm) precisions without moving the objective. Using this technique we observed the inward transport of the membrane protein labeled with quantum dots (QDs) presumably by dynein in living cells.

Materials and methods

DIO (dual-focus imaging optics) system. The optical system for DIO consisted of an epi-fluorescence microscope (IX-71, Olympus), an EM camera (Ixon DV860, Andor), and a Piezo actuator having an electrostatic sensor (FB010-C, Nanocontrol). An area $\sim 10 \times 10 \mu\text{m}^2$ was illuminated by a green laser (532 nm, 0.1 mW/ μm^2 for each specimen, Big Sky laser) using diagonal irradiation [13]. The fluorescence of the quantum dots was filtered using a high-pass filter (transmission wavelength >580 nm; Omega). The Piezo actuator moved the position of the objective by the Piezo driver having a positional feedback loop (NC1100, Nanocontrol). We analyzed the data in which root-mean-square noise was <10 nm.

Preparation of anti-HER2-QDs and cells. HER2 (human epidermal growth factor receptor 2) on the membrane was labeled with multiple quantum dots via an anti-HER2 antibody according to the method reported previously [13]. Human breast cancer cells, KPL-4 cells, were cultured on a coverslip in DMEM (Gibco) containing 5% FBS (fetal bovine serum, Gibco) at 37 °C in 5% CO₂. Just prior to the experiment, FBS was removed for an hour to starve the cells, and the quantum dot-anti-HER2 antibodies were added to the cells [13]. To observe steps clearly, the experiments of 3D imaging were performed at low temperature 16–18 °C under the epi-fluorescence microscope with DIO system [13].

Results and discussion

DIO (dual-focus imaging optics) system and 3D single particle tracking

In order to track the 3D movement of single fluorescent particles, we developed a new optical system that two separated images at distinct focal positions were taken with an EM-CCD camera, called DIO (Fig. 1A). A narrow image of a sample on an epi-fluorescence microscope went through a slit positioned at the imaging surface (“Slit” in Fig. 1A). The optical pathway was split into two pathways by a half mirror (HM in Fig. 1A). Moving either L3 or L4 along the optical axis produced a difference between the two pathlengths. The difference in the optical lengths resulted in the difference in the focuses and magnification of the two images on the camera (an inset image in Fig. 1A). The distance between the two focal positions was set to $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$ in the present study and the ratio of magnification of the two pathways was ~ 0.96 (Supplement 1). The two images of a quantum dot were fitted to 2D Gaussian functions [13]. The difference in the fluorescence intensities at the centroid of the functions fit to was plotted as the function of z -position of the quantum dots (Fig. 1C). This curve was taken before every experiment as a calibration curve (Fig. 1C). The x - y position of a quantum dot was determined by fitting the images with 2D Gaussian functions as previously reported [6,7,9,13]. The spatial resolution was highly dependent on the number of photons emitted from a fluorophore [18]. Quantum dots were used in this study because of their superior fluorescence durabil-

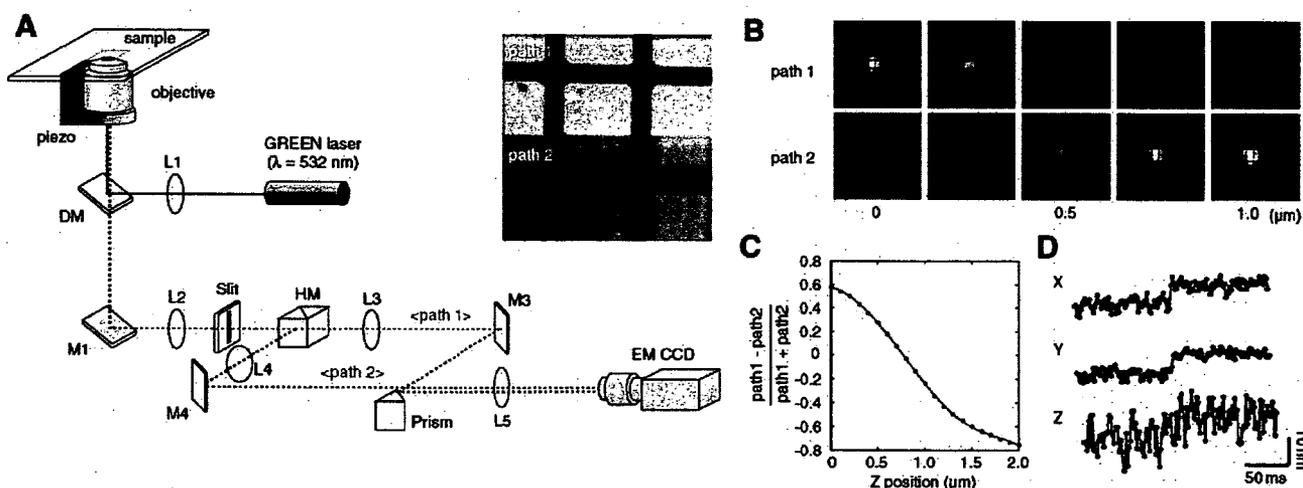


Fig. 1. Three-dimensional single particle tracking. (A) Schematic drawing of an optical set up for dual-focus imaging (DIO). A Piezo actuator bound to the objective. L, lens; M, mirror; DM, dichroic mirror; HM, half mirror cube. An inset panel shows an image of a test pattern of a square lattice (10 μm). Upper image is an image just in focus. (B) Fluorescent images at two distinct focus positions (path 1 and path 2). Quantum dot is located between the two focusing positions. An objective was moved along the optical axis (z -axis). (C) Calibration curve of z -position vs difference of the fluorescent intensities. The fluorescent intensities were recorded as the quantum dots moved along the z -axis. The division of the difference between the intensities in the two pathways and the addition of them was represented as $(\text{path 1} - \text{path 2})/(\text{path 1} + \text{path 2})$. When quantum dots were moved in cells, z -position in the calibration curve was multiplied by the refractive index ratio, 0.88, of water, 1.33 to oil, 1.52. (D) Accuracy of the present methods. Quantum dot(s) fixed on a coverslip were moved by 10 nm steps using a Piezo actuator. The position of the Quantum dot(s) was determined with a temporal resolution of 2 ms with noise of 2.0 nm (x -axis and y -axis) and 5.3 nm (z -axis).

ity [7,13,19,20]. The spatial precisions of the dots fixed on a coverslip using the 3D tracking system were 2.2, 1.5, and 5.3 nm on the x , y , and z directions, respectively, with time resolution of 2 ms (Fig. 1D).

3D vesicle transport in living cells

In order to observe 3D movements of vesicles in living cells, quantum dots coated with anti-HER2 antibodies (human epidermal growth factor receptor 2) were mixed with breast cancer cells, KLP-4, which overexpresses HER2 on the cell membrane. Microtubule-based transport of the vesicles labeled with quantum dots (QD-vesicles) in the cytosol were visualized using diagonal illumination (Fig. 2A) [13]. The QD-vesicles moved in one direction i.e. towards the nucleus (Fig. 2B and Movie S1), and occasionally moved away from the nucleus to the cell membrane. The fluorescence intensity in dual images changed with time (Fig. 2B); for example, intensities on the left panels in Fig. 2B were low at 0 and 3 s and high at 1.2 s. These indicate the movement of z direction. QD-vesicles moved on GFP-microtubules as observed by confocal microscopy (Movie S2), confirming that the vesicles

were indeed transported by a microtubule-based motor, either dynein or kinesin. Movements of QD-vesicles presumably by dynein from the cell membrane to the peri-nuclear region were also recorded. The moving QD-vesicles transported in 3D space were successfully monitored for a precision of a few nanometers on xy -plane and several nm on z -axis with 2 ms resolution using the DIO system (Fig. 2C and D).

How does dynein walk on a microtubule three-dimensionally with nanometer accuracy while transporting a vesicle? Smooth traces of the displacements were produced by averaging 100 points over a 200 ms period to follow the overall pathways of the QD-vesicles roughly. All of the smooth traces ($n = 57$) were then fitted approximately to the planes. Thirty-eight traces (67%) could be well fitted to a single plane with the standard deviation of the distance between the traces and the fitted plane being <10 nm (mean = 4.6 nm) (Fig. 3A). If artificial random traces were fitted to a plane (Supplement 2A), the standard deviation of the distance was not less than 10 nm ($n = 100$, Supplement 2B). Thus, the planar movements were not part of the random movements. Twelve traces (21%) could not be fitted by a single plane, but were well fitted to two or

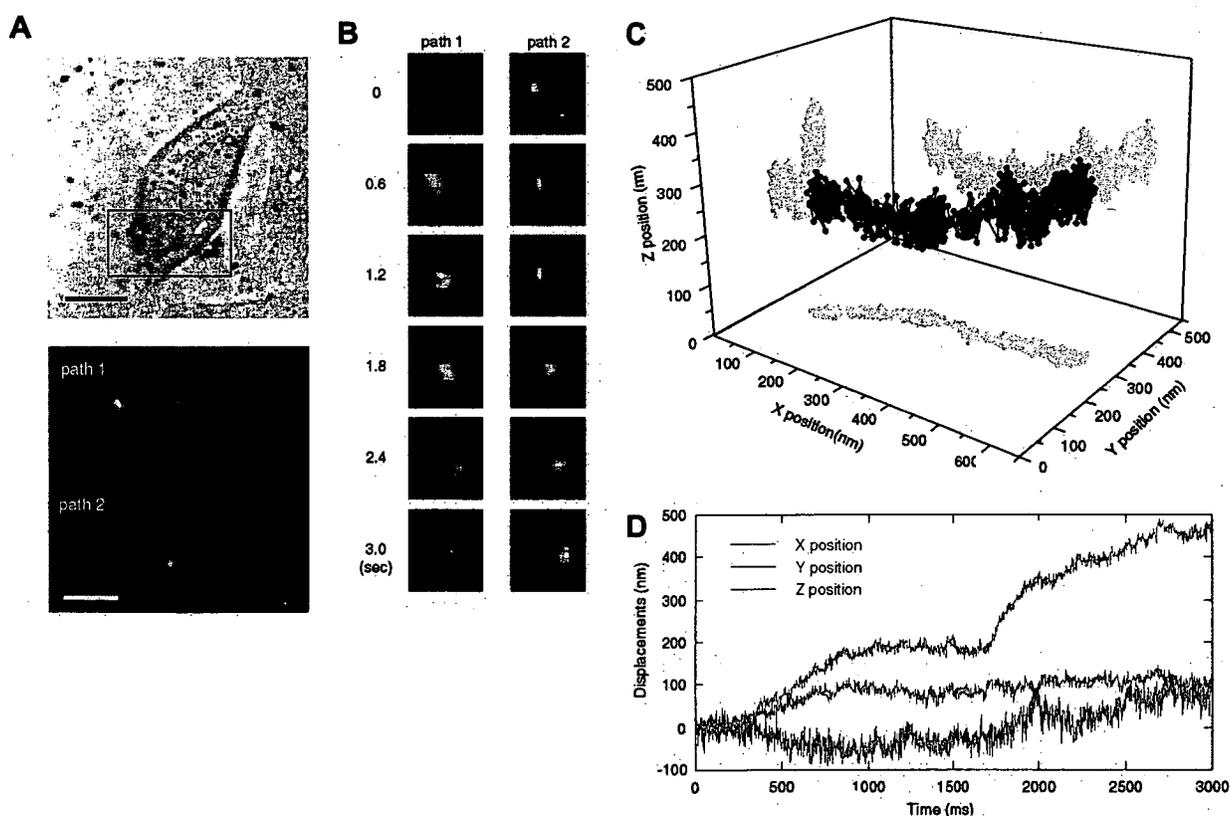


Fig. 2. Three-dimensional tracking of a moving vesicle in a living cell. (A) A bright field image (upper) and fluorescence images (lower) obtained using DIO. The red rectangle indicates the fluorescent imaging area. The fluorescent images of vesicles labeled with quantum dots were in the cell at two distinct focus positions. Yellow arrowheads indicate the vesicle being transported towards the nucleus. Calibration bars were 10 μm in a upper panel and 5 μm in a lower one. (B) Time course of the fluorescent images of the moving vesicle indicated by the yellow arrowheads in (A). The vesicle moved to the right, which is the direction towards the peri-nuclear region. (C) 3D movements of the transport of the QD-vesicle towards the peri-nuclear region. Six colors from blue to green indicate the running time from 0 to 3 s (0.5 s each color). (D) The time courses of x (red), y (blue), and z -positions (green) in (C).

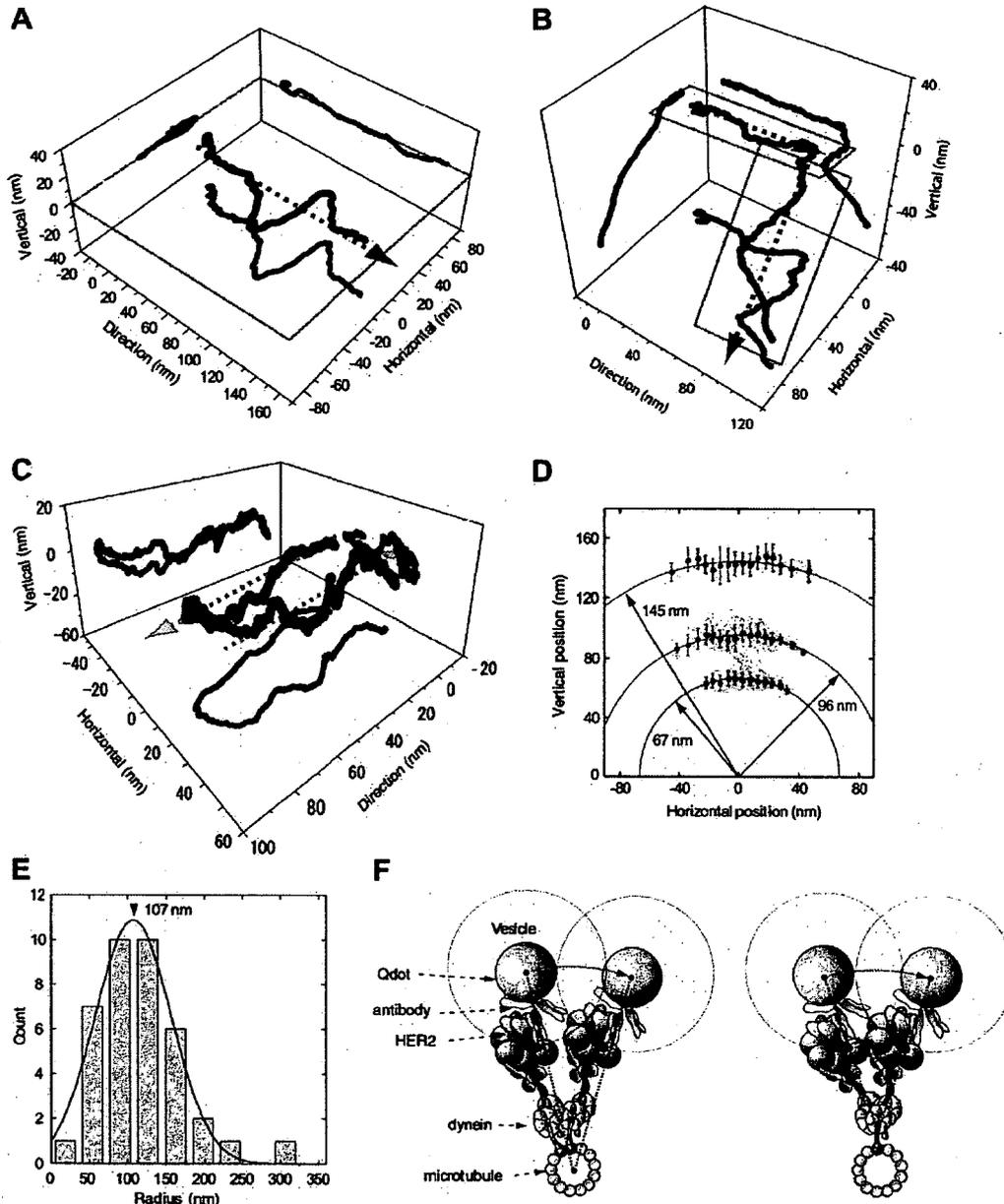


Fig. 3. Movement of the vesicle transport by dynein in living cells. (A) Typical traces of the movements in the different planes. The traces were well fitted with a primary plane surface ($f(x, y, z) = ax + by + cz + d$; a , b , c , and d are the fitting parameters (cyan line). (B) Typical trace when QD-vesicle transfers from one microtubule to another microtubule. The trace was fitted well to two planes. Cyan lines indicate the data have been fitted by two planes. (C) A typical trace of the directional switching by most likely dynein and kinesin. (D) Vertical–horizontal plots of the 3D traces. The graph shows the typical three traces (red, blue, and green). Plots and bars indicate the average values taken every 5 nm along the horizontal axis and the standard deviations, respectively. Traces were fitted with a circle. Cyan arrows in (A), (B), and (C) indicate the direction of movement of the vesicles. (E) Histogram of the radius of the cylindrical surfaces. The distribution followed to a Gaussian distribution with a peak of 107 ± 49 nm (red line, $n = 38$). (F) Possible models to explain the cylindrical movements of the vesicle during transportation. The left panel shows the model where dynein transfers from one protofilament to another on a microtubule. The right panel shows the model that dynein did not transfer but fluctuate around the binding site of dynein and tubulin.

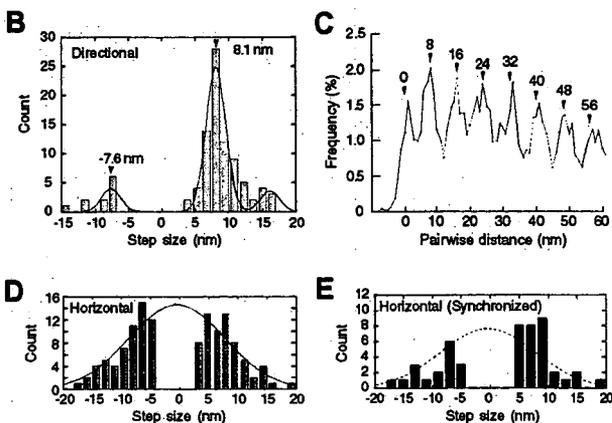
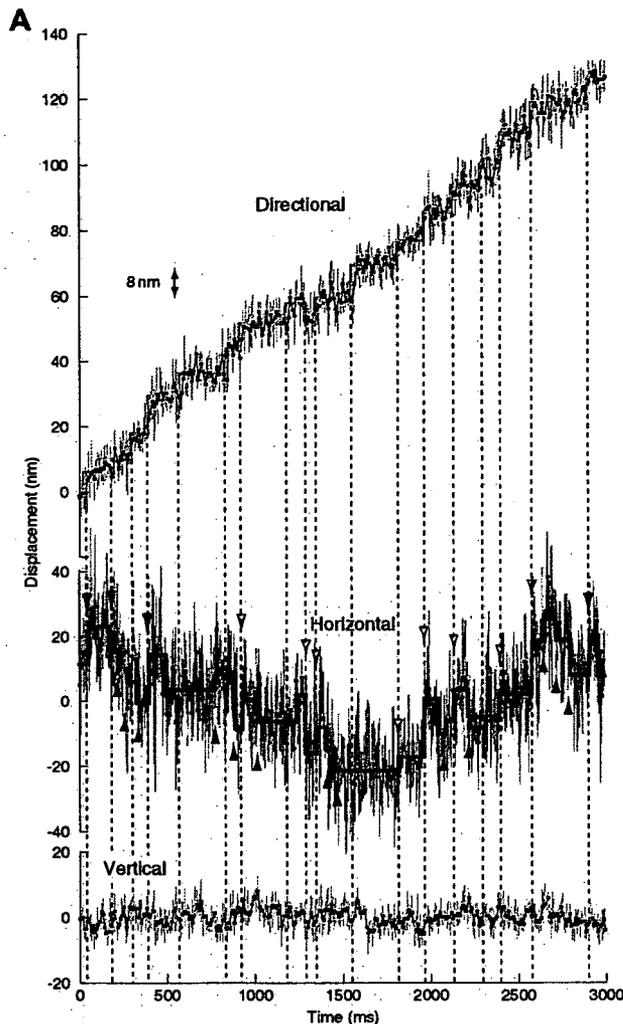
three planes with standard deviations <10 nm (Fig. 3B). The remaining seven traces could not be distinguished from random movement because of the large standard deviations (>10 nm). Helical type movements were not observed in any of the traces.

An abrupt change in the direction of movement of the vesicles was observed in three traces (5%) which are fitted

to one plane. In all cases, the QD-vesicles moved by 30–50 nm in the horizontal direction in a stepwise fashion when the direction of movement suddenly changed to the opposite direction (Fig. 3C and Fig. 3S). Kinesin is a motor that moves vesicles to the plus-end of a microtubule and is thought to be involved in this process by directly competing with dynein [12].

Three-dimensional nanometry of vesicle transport

To examine the systematic displacement of quantum dots from the planes, the vertical position displaced from the plane and horizontal positions perpendicular to moving direction were reported (Fig. 3D). These plots could be well



fitted to arcs, a part of a circle. The mean radius of the arcs was determined to be 107 nm (Fig. 3E). The arcs indicate the distance between the center of a microtubule and the center of quantum dots because the distance, 107 nm, is consistent with the distance estimated from the radius of a microtubule (13 nm), the length of the dynein (50–80 nm), the length of the membrane protein and antibody complex (10–20 nm) and the radius of a quantum dot (~12 nm) (Fig. 3F) [21,22]. The approximately planar or exactly arc movements suggest that vesicles were transported on single microtubules. The traces which fitted to two or three planes suggest that vesicles can switch from one microtubule to another during vesicle transport.

Movement in the horizontal axis (~20 nm in S.D.) was much larger than movement in the vertical axis (~4 nm) (Fig. 3D). There are two possibilities that could explain the large movements in the horizontal plane. One is that dynein steps onto the neighboring protofilaments (Fig. 3F, left) [22]. This is suggested from studies that recombinant yeast dynein was shown to step to neighboring protofilaments in the *in vitro* assays [14]. In this model, the horizontal movement should occur at steps in travel direction. The other possibility is that the flexible linker, stalk or tail, in dynein allows the quantum dot to fluctuate around the linker (Fig. 3F, right) [23–25]. In this model, the horizontal movement does not need to occur at the directional steps.

To distinguish between these two possibilities, the step sizes of the QD-vesicles in directional, horizontal, and vertical movements were analyzed (Fig. 4). Steps were detected in the directional and the horizontal orientation using our computing algorithm (Fig. 4A, red and blue lines) [13], while steps in the vertical orientation was within a few nanometers which is not distinguished from the noise. The histogram of the step sizes in the directional orientation showed three distinct Gaussian distributions with the main peak occurring at 8.1 nm and minor peaks at 16 and –8 nm (Fig. 4B). The histogram of the pairwise distances also confirmed that 8 nm steps occurred in the directional movement (Fig. 4C) [3]. The 8 nm unitary steps were

Fig. 4. Three-dimensional nanometry of a moving vesicle. (A) The typical time courses in the directional, horizontal, and vertical axes. Data points of the displacements were analyzed at 2 ms intervals (Gray lines). Five points were then averaged to smoothen the traces as shown by black squares and lines. A step size larger than 4 nm was detected here by the computer algorithm [13]. Broken lines indicate the moments where the 8 nm steps occurred along the directional axis. Yellow arrowheads indicate the steps are not in synchronization with the directional 8 nm steps. (B) Histogram of the step size in the directional axis. The graph was fitted with multiple Gaussian functions. The peaks \pm widths are 8.1 ± 1.5 nm at forward steps and -7.6 ± 1.4 nm at backward steps. (C) Histogram of the all pairwise distance analysis [3] (40 ms interval) of the trace in directional axis shown in (A). (D) Histogram of the step size in the horizontal axis. The graph was fitted with a Gaussian function with the peak of 0.5 nm and a width of 8.2 nm. (E) Histogram of the step size in the horizontal axis when horizontal steps were in synchronization with the directional 8 nm steps. Dotted line indicates the Gaussian curve the same as that in (D).

consistent with the value previously determined in two dimensions in living cells [7,11–14].

Some of horizontal steps synchronized with the directional 8 nm steps (Fig. 4A, blue arrowheads), but many of them did not (yellow arrowheads). The sizes of both synchronized and non-synchronized steps were fitted to a Gaussian distribution with the peak at 0.5 nm and a standard deviation of 8.2 nm (Fig. 4D and E). The horizontal step sizes of 8.2 nm were much smaller than ~50 nm which was estimated from the model that describes dynein changing the protofilaments during movement. These results suggest that dynein primarily moves on certain protofilaments in the microtubules with small fluctuation around the microtubule. In a living cell, there are many obstacles such as other vesicles, organelles, and the cytoskeletal meshwork that will prevent vesicle transport from moving in a straight line along a protofilament on a microtubule. Dynein may be able to subtly change the structure of the flexible linker to encounter obstacles (Fig. 3F, right).

The horizontal step size of 30–50 nm in Fig. 3C (Supplement 3) was comparable to the horizontal step size of ~50 nm predicted from Fig. 3F (left), suggesting that these two motors, presumably dynein and kinesin, move on distinct protofilaments or bound to a vesicle separately.

Here, we successfully observed vesicle transport in three dimensions in living cells with nanometer and millisecond accuracy using the DIO system. We found that dynein primarily walks in straight lines on a protofilament of a microtubule and changes protofilaments minor. The lateral displacement of QD-vesicles can be explained by the flexible linker region in the dynein molecule, and this would contribute to the robustness of the dynein-based vesicle transport through the cytoskeletal meshwork filled with organelles and other vesicles without having to switch to other protofilaments. The present method is powerful tool to investigate many kinds of 3D movement of molecules in cells with nanometer and millisecond accuracy.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.bbrc.2007.04.168.

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