Autofluorescence and metabolic signatures in a pig model of differentiation based on induced pluripotent cells and embryonic bodies

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Summary
Besides several genetic and molecular markers, stem cells undergoing differentiation show changes in their metabolic engagement, such as a switch from anaerobic to aerobic energetic metabolism and decreased autophagic activity, representing metabolic signatures of the stemness status. These activities involve biomolecules - respectively NAD(P)H and flavins, and lipofuscin-like lipopigments - that give rise to autofluorescence (AF) emission under suitable excitation light conditions. Since these endogenous fluorophores can be exploited as cell intrinsic biomarkers, attention is currently deserved to assess the potential of AF analysis to monitor the cell stemness status or maturation degree into a desired phenotype. In our work, we employed pig induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cell as a model of differentiation to compare their AF properties in living conditions with those of embryoid bodies (EBs) derived from them, by means of imaging, microspectrofluorometric techniques and spectral fitting analysis. The AF results indicate that reprogramming of suine iPS cells do not lead to typical metabolic functions of the undifferentiated status. These findings support the value of AF analysis as a tool for a comprehensive assessment of the actual stem cells differentiation degree in the development of regenerative medicine strategies, and for application to animal species of interest in veterinary, zootechnology and, in general, to the species for which immunomarkers are not yet available.

Key words: aerobic/anaerobic metabolism, lipofuscin-like lipopigments, microspectrofluorometry, stem cells.

Introduction
The natural presence of biomolecules acting as endogenous fluorophores is responsible for the autofluorescence (AF) emission rising from cells and tissues when submitted to a suitable excitation light. The strict involvement of endogenous fluorophores in metabolic reactions influences their amount and physicochemical state, in turn affecting their emission properties. As a consequence, the overall cell AF emission signal carries multiple information, making endogenous fluorophores to act as intrinsic biomarkers of the cell functional engagement in the absence of exogenous labeling agents (Ramanujam, 2000; Bottiroli and Croce, 2004). Besides several genetic and molecular biomarkers, cells undergoing differentiation or reprogramming processes are characterized by a metabolic plasticity based on activities involving endogenous fluorophores and likely affecting AF emission properties (Folmes et al., 2012; Santin et al., 2013) Figure 1. Mitochondria, in particular, play an essential role in the maintenance of stem cell homeostasis, consistently both with the switch from anaerobic to aerobic respiration during differentiation and with the autophagic processes, providing for the removal of undesired cell components to maintain the pluripotent status, the opposite occurring during the somatic to pluripotent cell reprogramming (Hernebring et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2011; Rehman et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2012). The consequent changes in the cell engagement in energetic metabolism influence the amount, redox state and bound-free condition of the coenzymes NAD(P)H and flavins (Croce et al., 1999; Salmon et al., 1982; Kunz et al., 1986). The AF emission properties of these endogenous fluorophores up
to now mainly investigated in energetic metabolism studies (Aubin, 1979; Balaban and Mandel, 1990), have been more recently considered for the assessment of the stemness status of human and animal stem cells. Novel and sophisticated techniques have been applied, including a two photon non invasive autofluorescence imaging tool and a phasor approach for the monitoring of the metabolic state of different living stem cell models (Uchugonova et al., 2008; Rice et al., 2010; König et al., 2011; Stringari et al., 2011; Stringari et al., 2012a,b; Santin et al., 2013). The autophagic activity for the removal of undesired subcellular structures, in turn, is expected to result in an accumulation of lipofuscin like products, that can be detected though their AF emission in the yellow-reddish region (Wolman, 1980; Terman et al., 2006).

The development of regenerative therapies is greatly relying on the use pluripotent cells (Welling and Geijsen, 2013). The induction of pluripotent stem cells (iPS) through the reprogramming of adult elements (Yamanaka, 2009; Cherry and Daley, 2012; Kahler et al., 2013) is likely to be preferred to the use of Embryonic Stem Cells (ESCs), their self-renewal features being retained as long as the culture conditions prevent differentiation, along with the ability to differentiate into all adult cell types through their aggregation into embryoid bodies (EBs) (Evans et al., 1981; Williams et al., 1988; Desbaillets et al., 2000). The use of iPS cells results in enormous advantages since it overcomes the ethical concerns related to the use of human ESCs and, at the same time, it allows in principle to generate pluripotent cells from a broad spectrum of adult somatic cells.

The successful driving of a cell lineage to the desired phenotype entails the correct assessment and monitoring of the stemness status. In this view, the AF analysis can provide data on the metabolic engagement, useful to integrate the transcription and surface-immunological biomarkers as the expression of regulation factors (Nagano et al., 2008; Enver et al., 2009), or at least to characterize cells from animal species for which immunomarkers are not yet available.

In our work we used pig iPS cells, currently highly considered for applications in biomedical and biotechnological fields, and EBs derived from them, to investigate the potential of real time, in vivo and non invasive AF analysis as a supportive tool for a comprehensive assessment and monitoring of the actual differentiation degree.

### Materials and Methods

#### Cell model

Pig iPS cells have been maintained as previously described (Ezashi T et al., PNAS 2009). In brief, pig iPS cells have been grown onto a feeder of inactivate mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEF) in a medium based on DMEM/F12 and supplemented with 20% Knockout Serum Replacement, Glutamine, non-essential amino acids and basic FGF (4 ng/mL).

To obtain EBs, iPS cells have been first passaged onto gelatin-coated dishes (0.1%) to deplete the MEF feeder in pluripotency medium, and then passaged using Dispase (1 mg/mL) and plated onto ultra-lo attachment plated in a medium containing fetal bovine serum (FBS).

For both AF imaging and microspectrofluorometric analysis, the cells were seeded onto 0.1% gelatin coated glass coverslips in the absence of feeder, to be put upside down immediately before the AF imaging and microspectrofluorometric analyses.

![Figure 1. Schematic representation of metabolic signatures and their changes, exploitable for the AF analysis of cell differentiation: aerobic/anaerobic energetic metabolism and endocytosis/autophagy, involving respectively NAD(P)H and flavins, or lipofuscin as endogenous fluorophores.](image-url)
**Autofluorescence image analysis**

The AF images were collected by means of an Olympus BX51 fluorescence microscope (Olympus Optical Co. GmbH, Hamburg, Germany), equipped with a 100W Hg excitation lamp and a 4.1 Mpixel digital photocamera (Olympus Camedia C-4040 zoom), the acquisition conditions being: WU Olympus fluorescence cube (330–385 nm band-pass excitation filter, Full Width at Half Intensity Maximum (FWHM) 58 nm), BA420 long-pass barrier filter; oil immersion 100X UplanFl Olympus objective (NA 1.25). Following each AF image collection, bright field pictures were also recorded from the same cells.

**Microspectrofluorometric analysis**

The AF spectra were recorded under epi-illumination by means of a microspectrograph (Leitz, Wetzlar, Germany) equipped with an Optical Multichannel Analyzer (EG&G - PAR, Princeton, NJ), and a 512-element intensified diode array detector, mod. 1420/512. Excitation light was provided by a 100 W Hg lamp (Osram, Berlin, Germany), combined with KG1-BG38 anti-thermal filters. Acquisition conditions were: 366 nm band-pass interference excitation filter (FWHM 10 nm, T%366 = 25), 390 nm dichroic mirror (T%366 <2); 390 nm long pass filter; oil immersion 95X Leitz objective with incorporated iris diaphragm (NA 1.10-1.32).

Spectra were recorded in the 400-680 nm range, 10 sequential scans of 200 ms each for a total of 2 s of acquisition time. To avoid photobleaching effects before measurement, cells were selected and focused at microscope under low bright field illumination.

An iterative non-linear curve-fitting procedure (PeakFit; SPSS Science, Chicago, IL, USA) based on the Marquardt-Levenberg algorithm (1963) was used for the analysis of AF spectra. The procedure is based on a combination of half-Gaussian Modified Gaussian (GMG) spectral functions describing the emission profile of each single fluorophore to evaluate their relative contribution to the overall emission, by means of subsequent adjustments to match the best fit for the experimental spectrum profile, as already described in detail (Croce et al., 1999; Croce et al., 2004). The spectral parameters of the single fluorophores considered were: free NAD(P)H (peak center wavelength, $\lambda = 463$ nm; FWHM = 115 nm), bound NAD(P)H ($\lambda = 444$ nm; FWHM = 105 nm), flavins ($\lambda = 526$ nm; FWHM = 81 nm), porphyrins ($\lambda = 635$ nm; FWHM = 20 nm), proteins (emission tail, $\lambda < 440$ nm) and lipofuscin-like lipopigments ($\lambda = 587$ nm; FWHM = 80 nm). In the two latter cases, modifications of the spectral functions were allowed, due to the variability of the lipofuscin-like lipopigments emission profile in dependence of their heterogeneous chemical composition i.e., proteins, lipids, carotenoids- oxidation and crosslink degree (Wolman, 1980). The goodness of fitting verified in terms of $r^2$ coefficient determination, and residual analysis. The relative contribution (%) of each fluorophore estimated from the spectra normalized to 100 (area value, a.u.) was then referred to the real values of the whole emission area. A minimum of 25 cells was measured for each cell type for each sample (minimum, 2 slides).

![Figure 2. (A) Examples of AF spectra collected from iPS cells and EBs. (B) Example of fitting analysis of an AF spectrum collected from iPS cells. Measured spectrum (a) and calculated curve (b), as the sum of the contribution of the single endogenous fluorophores: proteins (c), NAD(P)H bound (d), NAD(P)H free (e), flavins (f), lipofuscin-like lipopigments (g), porphyrins (h). Insert: residual analysis. Fitting $r^2$ coefficient of determination $\geq 0.989$.](image-url)
Results

Microspectrofluorometric analysis

The AF spectra recorded from iPS and EB cells show differences in their emission profile (Figure 2A), that can be ascribed to changes in the relative contribution of the main endogenous fluorophores to the whole AF emission signal (Figure 2B). These changes have been analyzed by means of spectral fitting procedure and the results are presented as bar charts (Figure 3 A-C). In general, the greater contribution to the whole cell emission is given by the coenzyme NAD(P)H, accounting for more than 60%, oxidized flavins accounting for less than 4%, and lipofuscin-like lipopigments for a

![Image](image-url)

Figure 3 - Bar charts representing mean values ± S.D. of: (A) real AF contribution of bound and free fractions of NAD(P)H and its whole amount; (B) NAD(P)H_{bound/free}^* and Redox^*; (C) real AF contribution of proteins and lipofuscin-like lipopigments. In each figure: (S1) PIG iPS cells, (S2) PIG EBs cells; (a) colony periphery; (b) within colony/clusters. Statistical analysis, Student’s t test: (A) p<0.05, S1a,b vs S2a,b NAD(P)H free; p<0.01, S1a,b vs S2a,b NAD(P)H bound; (B) p<0.05, S1a,b vs S2a, p<0.01, S1a,b vs S2b for NAD(P)H_{bound/free}; p<0.05, S1b vs S2a,b, p<0.01, S1a vs S2a,b for Redox ratios; (C) p<0.001 for S1 vs S2, all cell types, for proteins and lipofuscin-like lipopigments. *,**Ratio is calculated considering AF yield of 3:1 for NAD(P)H in the respective bound and free state (Salmon et al., 1982). **Redox ratio is calculated in terms of (flavins)/(NAD(P)H_{total} + flavins), from Kirkpatrick et al., 2005.
fraction ranging from less than 10% to about 20%. The calculation of the real emission values of each single fluorophore indicates that, independently from the kind of cell considered within each sample, iPS cells in comparison to EBs cells show a greater content of NAD(P)H in parallel with higher NAD(P)H_{bound/free} and lower redox ratio values (Figure 3 A-B). The contribution of lipofuscin-like lipopigments is less than a half in iPS cells with respect to EBs (Figure 3 C), and porphyrins are in general about 1%, except for a contribute for about 4% in the cells localizing at the periphery of EBs (data not shown).

**Imaging of iPS and EB cells**

Images recorded under the near UV excitation from living iPS cells and EBs show fluorescent cytoplasms around dark nuclei. The cytoplasmic AF patterns are characterized by a low and diffuse signal and distinct bluish bright particles, more numerous, evenly distributed and of comparable size in iPS cells than in EBs. Particles with a yellowish and brighter emission signal, a more variable size and uneven distribution can be also observed, more frequently in EBs than in iPS cells (Figure 4).

**Discussion**

Studies on the role of cell redox balance in the modulation of stemness status and differentiation have recently brought attention to the coenzymes NAD(P)H and flavins, that can act as intrinsic biomarkers because of their participation to energy production, reductive biosynthesis, and antioxidant defense (Uchugonova *et al.*, 2008; Ogasawara and Zhang, 2009; Hamanaka and Chandel, 2010; Figure 4. Examples of the AF distribution patterns and corresponding bright field images collected from living iPS cells and EBs. Each pair of images allows to appreciate a cytoplasmic diffuse AF emission signal around the dark nuclei. In comparison with EBs, iPS cells show more numerous bright bluish particles, evenly distributed and of comparable size, ascribable to mitochondria, while more brilliant yellowish granules with variable size and uneven distribution, ascribable to lipofuscin-like lipopigments, are shown by EBs. Bar: 25 μm.)
Therefore, the AF properties of these coenzymes in terms of signal amplitude, spectral shape and distribution patterns can be expected to reflect possible differences in the engagement of iPS cells and EBs in redox metabolic pathways. Actually, a higher turnover rate between the reduced and oxidized forms of NAD(P)H and flavins in iPS cells with respect to EBs is indicated by their greater content in NAD(P)H, accompanied by a higher NAD(P)H bound/free ratio and a lower redox ratio. These data suggest a still active engagement in aerobic metabolism of iPS cells, consistently with the results previously obtained in normal, young or immortalized fibroblasts (Croce et al., 1999). The direct relationship between the relative increase in NAD(P)H in the bound with respect to the free state following the differentiation from progenitor to adult cell elements is further supported by comparable results on different cellular models undergoing differentiation both in culture and in their native environment (Stringari et al., 2011; Stringari et al., 2012a,b; Santin et al., 2013).

The high redox ratio of EBs, in turn, is likely to be related to a still low turnover rate between reduced and oxidized forms of NAD(P)H and flavins during the switch from anaerobic to aerobic metabolism, with a rising in the engagement of mitochondria in state 3, the high level of oxidative metabolism producing ATP (Li et al., 2009).

The differences in the energetic metabolism engagement suggested by the microspectrofluorometric analysis of our samples are supported by the AF images, able to show more numerous mitochondria in iPS cells than in EBs in the absence of exogenous dyes, because of intrinsic NADH emission. Lipofuscin-like lipopigments contribute to the cell AF emission in the yellow-red region. As a consequence, these fluorophores can be exploited as additional AF biomarkers providing comprehensive information on the presence of waste material accumulated at the intracellular level, as a product of autophagy and oxidative stress damage (Terman et al., 2005; Stolzing et al., 2006; Rice et al., 2010; Rehman, 2010; Terman et al., 2010; Stringari et al., 2012c; Santin et al., 2013). Our results show a much greater amount of lipofuscin-like lipopigments in EBs with respect to iPS cells, in full agreement with the role of autophagic activity providing for the removal of undesired subcellular structures to maintain the cell stemness status (Hernebring et al., 2006; Rehman et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2012).

Porphyrins, namely Protoporphyrin IX, despite their very small presence can be detected by means of spectral fitting analysis because of their narrow band peaking at 630 nm (Moesta, 2001), distinguishable from the low emission tail of the other fluorophores in the red region. In our samples the highest presence of porphyrins detected in cell clusters of EBs can be explained considering the porphyrin role as intermediates of the synthesis of heme-proteins, such as microsomial or mitochondrial cytochromes. Actually, a direct association between cytochrome c synthesis and cardiomyocyte differentiation has been demonstrated (Chen et al., 2012), and an increase in the presence of porphyrins has been found during the transition from anaerobic to aerobic metabolism in mice stem cells (Santin et al., 2013).

Conclusions

The AF results indicate that reprogrammed suine iPS cells do not show a complete recovery of the typical metabolic functions of the undifferentiated status. This finding could be related to the fact that suine iPS cells could not be equivalent to the naive mouse embryoid stem cells (Santin et al., 2013). These results support the ability of AF analysis to assess stem cell differentiation degree and open a new perspective for the application of this technique as a supportive tool to investigate genetic and molecular biomarkers, both in already characterized models or in animal species of interest in veterinary, zootechnology, and more generally in developing research, even when immune-biomarkers are not available (Nowak-Imialek and Niemann, 2012).

Acknowledgments

We thank “Superpig Program” as a project co-financed by Lombardy Region through the “Fund for promoting institutional agreements” for supporting this work. We are also grateful to Prof. Michael Roberts (University of Missouri), for providing the pig iPS cell lines.
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