

# A fluorescent membrane tension probe

Adai Colom<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Emmanuel Derivery<sup>1,2,3,4</sup>, Saeideh Soleimanpour<sup>2,3</sup>, Caterina Tomba<sup>1,3</sup>, Marta Dal Molin<sup>2,3</sup>, Naomi Sakai<sup>2,3</sup>, Marcos González-Gaitán<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Stefan Matile<sup>2,3</sup> and Aurélien Roux<sup>1,2,3\*</sup>

**Cells and organelles are delimited by lipid bilayers in which high deformability is essential to many cell processes, including motility, endocytosis and cell division. Membrane tension is therefore a major regulator of the cell processes that remodel membranes, albeit one that is very hard to measure in vivo. Here we show that a planarizable push–pull fluorescent probe called FliptR (fluorescent lipid tension reporter) can monitor changes in membrane tension by changing its fluorescence lifetime as a function of the twist between its fluorescent groups. The fluorescence lifetime depends linearly on membrane tension within cells, enabling an easy quantification of membrane tension by fluorescence lifetime imaging microscopy. We further show, using model membranes, that this linear dependency between lifetime of the probe and membrane tension relies on a membrane-tension-dependent lipid phase separation. We also provide calibration curves that enable accurate measurement of membrane tension using fluorescence lifetime imaging microscopy.**

Cells and organelles are delimited by lipid membranes. Membranes are fluid surfaces, ~4 nm thick, and are diffusion barriers to most solutes (but not to water). Membrane shape changes can cause bending, shearing and stretching, and membrane tension is defined as the derivative of the membrane free energy with area change<sup>1,2</sup>. Lipid membranes are very resistant to stretch, supporting tensions up to  $10^{-2}$  N m<sup>-1</sup> before lysis, with a few percent of area change<sup>3,4</sup>.

Membrane tension plays an essential role in numerous cell processes. At the whole cell level, membrane tension is tightly regulated during cell migration<sup>5–8</sup>, cell spreading and phagocytosis<sup>9,10</sup>. During cell division, membrane tension causes a volume instability between daughter cells that is counteracted by contraction of the actin cortex<sup>11</sup>. Increased tension delays the last step of cell division, abscission<sup>12</sup>. Membrane tension also regulates subcellular processes. For example, increased tension inhibits endocytosis<sup>13</sup> by counteracting clathrin polymerization<sup>14</sup> and activating membrane fission<sup>15</sup>. Membrane tension regulates the opening of mechanosensitive ion channels<sup>16</sup>, and the activity of TORC2, a major regulator of cell metabolism<sup>17</sup>. As a consequence of its multiple roles, membrane tension is constantly regulated by the cell<sup>18</sup>.

Despite its importance in the regulation of many cell processes, membrane tension remains notoriously difficult to measure in cells: so far, the only technique available is extraction of small membrane tubes from the plasma membrane<sup>5,18,19</sup>. Although this technique has provided valuable insights over the past decade, it suffers from several limitations. First, the tube radius and the force required to maintain the tube—measurements necessary for calculation of the tension—are complex to obtain independently<sup>5</sup>. Second, because formation of the tube requires peeling the membrane off the actin cortex, the adhesion energy of the membrane onto the actin cortex adds up to the membrane tension value. Finally, this technique cannot measure the tension of intracellular membranes such as organelles.

The importance of membrane tension in biological processes called for non-invasive fluorescent probes that would allow for its measurement in living cells. However, no existing tension probes have been shown to be reliable in living cells<sup>20–30</sup>. One approach,

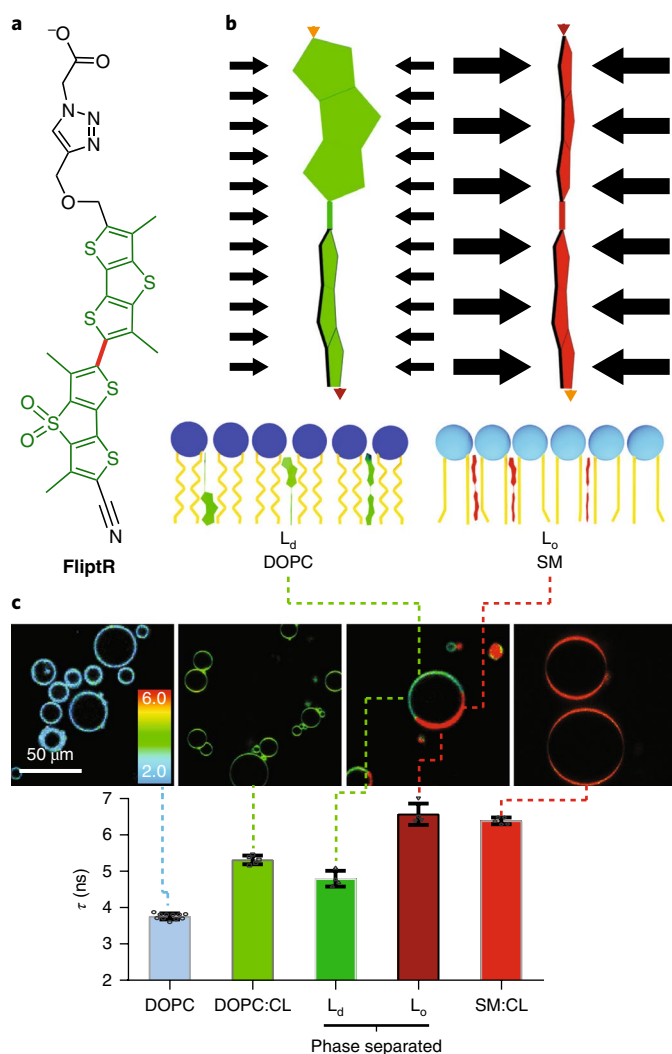
which is technically challenging, is to use the homo-FRET (Föster resonance energy transfer) signal of mechanosensitive ion channels<sup>16</sup>. Among the different mechanisms explored, photo-induced electron transfer is better for voltage sensitivity<sup>26</sup>, whereas solvatochromism<sup>21,28</sup> and excited-state deplanarization in molecular rotors<sup>23,24,28–31</sup> are most promising for imaging membrane order.

Recently, we introduced complementary ground-state planarization as a new approach to mechanosensitive membrane probes<sup>32</sup>. Planarizable push–pull probes can report lipid packing changes through changes in their fluorescence parameters. Lipid packing is defined as the density of lipid acyl chains: higher lipid packing is reflected by tighter and more ordered acyl chains, and lower lipid packing corresponds to more spaced and disordered acyl chains. Thus, liquid-ordered phases have higher lipid packing than liquid-disordered phases. We showed that these planarizable push–pull probes can distinguish different phases with different order<sup>33</sup>. In more ordered phases, lipid packing is higher, as acyl chains apply a higher pressure that planarizes the push–pulled probes.

Membrane tension is also expected to change lipid packing by stretching the lipids away. However, the area increase from this stretching is very small, with a maximum of 8% before lysis<sup>34</sup>. Because our push–pull probes are extremely sensitive to lipid packing, we wondered if they could report such changes in membrane tension. Among the several push–pull probes we designed<sup>32,33,35,36</sup>, we called the most promising probe for measuring membrane tension, **FliptR** (for ‘fluorescent lipid tension reporter’, Fig. 1a)<sup>2</sup>.

**FliptR** consists of two large dithienothiophene flippers<sup>33</sup> (Fig. 1a). In a non-confining environment, the two flippers are twisted out of conjugation by repulsion between the methyls and the endocyclic sulfurs next to the connecting, rotatable bond. The negatively charged carboxylate in the headgroup<sup>2</sup> helps to assure oriented insertion into membranes. **FliptR** has high photostability<sup>2</sup>, partitions almost equally into different membrane phases<sup>33</sup>, has different fluorescence absorption/emission spectra between lipid phase<sup>2</sup>, do not change position following a lipid phase transition<sup>33</sup>, and does not disturb membrane order like, for example, cholesterol<sup>36</sup>. **FliptR** can planarize with an increase in lateral pressure (Fig. 1b). Here, we report that **FliptR** can be used to image a

<sup>1</sup>Biochemistry Department, University of Geneva, Geneva, Switzerland. <sup>2</sup>Swiss National Centre for Competence in Research Programme Chemical Biology, Geneva, Switzerland. <sup>3</sup>School of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of Geneva, Geneva, Switzerland. <sup>4</sup>Present address: MRC Laboratory of Molecular Biology, Cambridge Biomedical Campus, Cambridge, UK. \*e-mail: [Aurelien.Roux@unige.ch](mailto:Aurelien.Roux@unige.ch)



**Fig. 1 | The FlipTR probe.** **a**, Chemical structure. The carbon bond around which the fluorescent groups (green) can twist is shown in red. **b**, Pressure along the axis of the FlipTR probe can planarize the two fluorescent groups, leading to changes in excitation maxima and fluorescence lifetime (see main text). **c**, Fluorescence lifetime  $\tau_1$  images of FlipTR as a function of lipid composition in giant unilamellar vesicles, from liquid-disordered membrane ( $L_d$ ) to increasingly liquid-ordered membrane ( $L_o$ ). Corresponding lifetime mean values are shown in the histogram. Compositions are 1,2-dioleoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DOPC) ( $N=5$ ,  $R=15$ ); DOPC:CL (cholesterol) 60:40 ( $N=5$ ,  $R=25$ ); phase-separated DOPC: sphingomyelin (SM):CL 25:58:17 ( $N=4$ ,  $R=5$ ); and SM:CL 70:30 ( $N=5$ ,  $R=25$ ). Mean  $\pm$  s.d. The colour bar corresponds to lifetime in nanoseconds (ns).

combination of lipid composition and membrane tension in live cells and artificial membranes.

## Results and discussion

**FlipTR reports lipid order in artificial membranes.** With the aim of imaging membrane tension in living cells, the large change in FlipTR fluorescence lifetime with lipid phase caught our interest, as it reflects a high sensitivity to lipid packing. Moreover, the fluorescence lifetime is independent of intensity, which changes by a factor of 10 in the planarized state versus the twisted state and is thus also independent of the optical set-up used to measure it.

We first studied if the fluorescence lifetime of the probe could report the ordering state of various lipid phases. We electroformed giant unilamellar vesicles (GUVs) of different compositions with

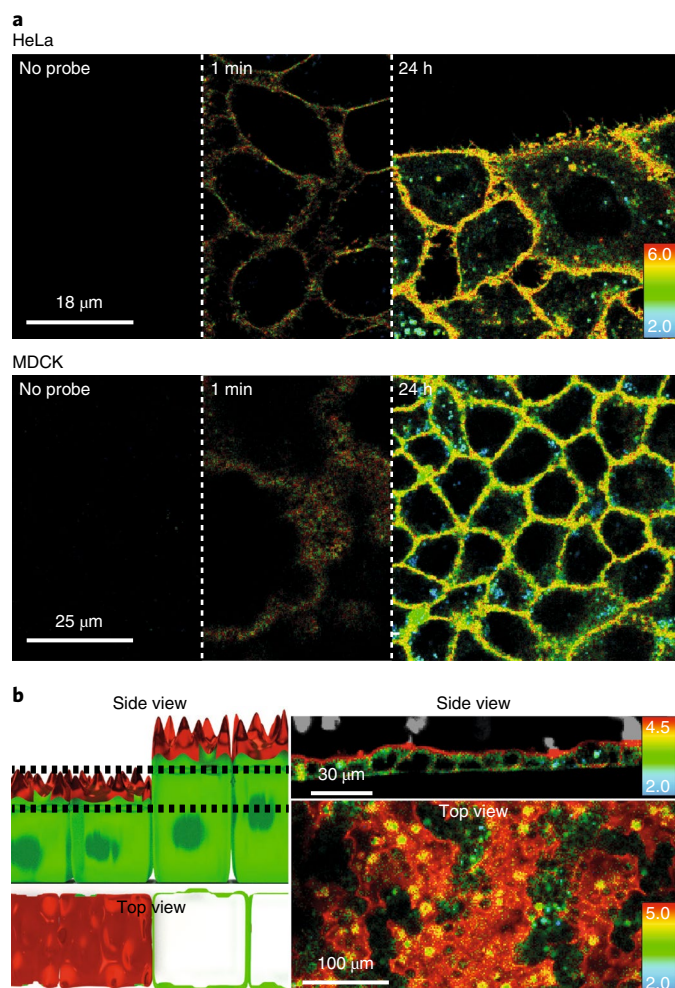
1 mol% FlipTR, and imaged their lifetimes using fluorescence lifetime imaging microscopy (FLIM). The fluorescence emission decay curves were fitted with double exponentials, from which two lifetimes ( $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$ ) and two intensities ( $I_1$  and  $I_2$ ) could be extracted (see Methods). As for FlipTR, the second component of the lifetime,  $\tau_2$ , only accounts for a minority of the signal, with a low number of photons ( $I_2$ ) (Supplementary Fig. 1a). Lifetime data presented in the following correspond to the longest component,  $\tau_1$ . This is justified by the fact that  $\tau_2$  values are more subject to errors, as they are smaller and account for fewer emission events, and also because  $\tau_1$  is linked to the time taken for intramolecular charge transfer and thus reports directly on the mechanism by which FlipTR senses applied forces.

The lifetime of FlipTR increased with the proportion of lipids forming the liquid-ordered ( $L_o$ ) phase. The FlipTR fluorescence lifetime was  $3.75 \pm 0.08$  ns (mean  $\pm$  s.d., as in the rest of the text, unless noted;  $N=11$ ,  $R=43$ , Fig. 1c) for GUVs made only of 1,2-dioleoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DOPC), which forms the liquid-disordered phase ( $L_d$ ) above 0°C,  $5.31 \pm 0.12$  ns ( $N=5$ ,  $R=15$ , with  $N$  being the number of experiments and  $R$  the number of GUVs) for GUVs made of DOPC and cholesterol (CL) (DOPC:CL, 60:40) which increases lipid order, and  $6.39 \pm 0.09$  ns ( $N=5$ ,  $R=25$ ) for GUVs composed of brain sphingomyelin (SM) and CL (70:30), forming a liquid-ordered phase. Moreover, when phase-separated GUVs were formed (DOPC:SM:CL 25:58:17), different domains could easily be imaged by measuring the FlipTR lifetime (Fig. 1c,  $L_d$  and  $L_o$ ). Interestingly, the lifetime of FlipTR in one of the domains was close to that in DOPC:CL 60:40 membranes ( $4.79 \pm 0.21$  ns ( $N=4$ ,  $R=5$ ), compared to 5.31 ns for DOPC:CL 60:40), while the lifetime in the other domain was very close to the lifetime of GUVs made of SM and CL only ( $6.57 \pm 0.29$  ns ( $N=4$ ,  $R=5$ ) compared to 6.39 ns for SM:CL 70:30). These results show that FlipTR is sensitive to lipid composition by detecting the various packing of lipids in different phases with different order (Fig. 1c)<sup>2</sup>.

**FlipTR reports lipid order in cellular membranes.** We then tested if FlipTR could detect lipid composition and/or phase differences in living cells. We used HeLa fibroblastic cells and Madin–Darby canine kidney (MDCK) epithelial cells, and when micromolar amounts of FlipTR were added to the medium of non-confluent HeLa and MDCK cells, plasma membrane staining appeared in less than one minute, with enough signal to measure the lifetime accurately (Fig. 2a and Supplementary Video 1). However, in epithelial cells, the apical membrane has been reported to form a large  $L_o$  domain due to enrichment in shingolipids and cholesterol, while the basolateral membrane is reported to form a less ordered lipid phase<sup>37</sup>, in which FlipTR required more time to reach the basolateral side (Supplementary Fig. 1b). This may be due to the diffusion barrier created by the tight junctions between the apical side (to which FlipTR is delivered) and the basolateral side. FlipTR remained stably in the plasma membrane, even though limited endosomal labelling appeared after two hours of incubation with FlipTR, most probably due to endocytic recycling of the probe (Supplementary Fig. 1b). We did not notice any cell growth and/or viability defects in up to four days of culture in the presence of FlipTR (Supplementary Fig. 1b).

In polarized confluent MDCK cells that have been grown on microstructured surfaces to provide different orientations of the cells towards the microscope, two clearly different lifetimes were observed (Fig. 2b). The lifetime on the apical side (towards the medium) is higher than on the basolateral (Fig. 2b, red colour on the apical side and green on the basolateral side), matching the lipid order difference in these two parts of the cells<sup>37,38</sup>. This finding clearly shows that FlipTR also detects lipid packing differences in different parts and/or compartments of epithelial cells.

**FlipTR reports changes of osmotic pressure.** We then wondered if FlipTR could detect changes in membrane tension in cells. A com-



**Fig. 2 | Different FliptR lifetimes correspond to different lipid compositions in cells.** **a**, Labelling of MDCK and HeLa cells with time. FliptR mostly stays in the plasma membrane. However, after 2 h of incubation, bright spots with low lifetime values (more blue colours) are seen, probably corresponding to endosomes ( $N=4$ ). **b**, MDCK epithelial cells show longer lifetimes on the apical side (red on the side view) than on the basolateral part (green). The top view corresponds to a single confocal plane (between dashed lines in the left side view schematics), and, depending on the height of the cells, either the apical side (red) or the basolateral part (green) is visible ( $N=4$ ). The colour bar corresponds to lifetime in ns.

mon way to change the membrane tension of cells is to apply osmotic shocks. During hypoosmotic shocks (low osmotic pressure  $\Pi$  from the cell culture medium), the cell volume and plasma membrane tension increase<sup>39,40</sup>. In contrast, under hyperosmotic shock (high osmolarity  $\Pi$ ), the volume and membrane tension decrease (Fig. 3a)<sup>40,41</sup>. When applying hypoosmotic shocks ( $\Pi < 0.3$  Osm) on HeLa and MDCK cells loaded with FliptR, we robustly observed longer lifetimes than in isoosmotic conditions ( $\Pi = 0.3$  Osm), but shorter under hyperosmotic shocks ( $\Pi > 0.3$  Osm) (Fig. 3b). Whereas the FliptR fluorescence lifetime  $\tau_1$  stayed constant when cells were kept in isoosmotic conditions (Supplementary Fig. 2a), it changed rapidly after hypoosmotic and hyperosmotic shocks (Supplementary Fig. 2b). Overall, the dependence of  $\tau_1$  on osmotic pressure  $\Pi$  from the cell medium was linear for both HeLa and MDCK cells (Fig. 3b), but the slopes were clearly different (slope =  $-0.52 \pm 0.03$  versus  $-0.84 \pm 0.04$  ns Osm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, mean  $\pm$  s.e.). Moreover, a

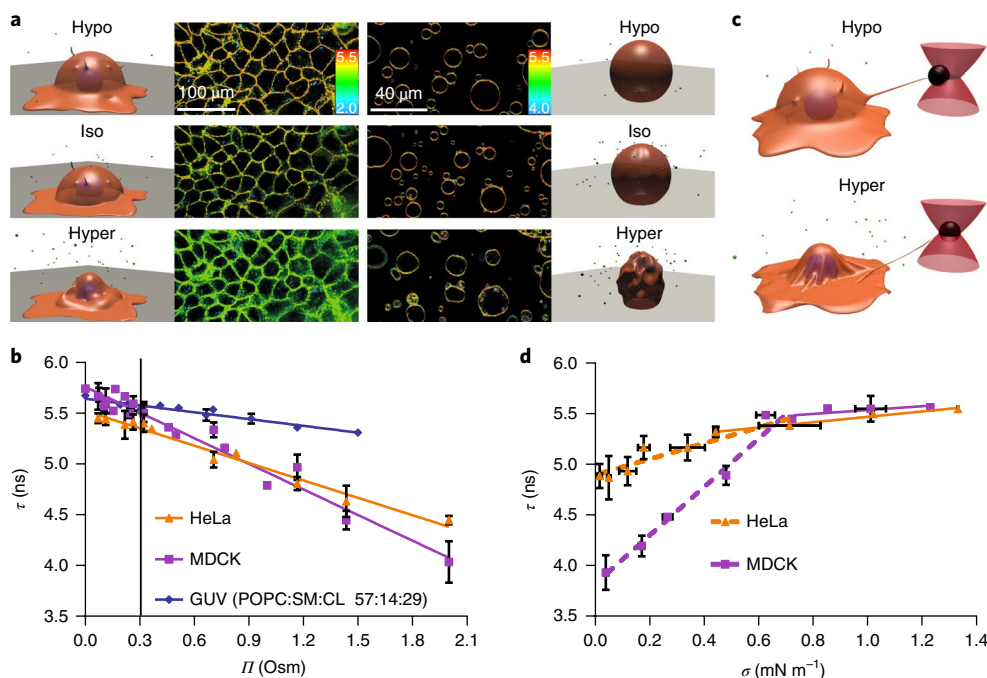
better fit was obtained by fitting hypoosmotic data independently of hyperosmotic data (Supplementary Fig. 2c). In this case, both for HeLa and MDCK cells, the slopes of the hypoosmotic data are about 0.3–0.4 ns Osm<sup>-1</sup> less than for hyperosmotic data (HeLa: Hypo,  $-0.27 \pm 0.13$  ns Osm<sup>-1</sup> and Hyper:  $-0.59 \pm 0.04$  ns Osm<sup>-1</sup>; MDCK: Hypo,  $-0.50 \pm 0.33$  ns Osm<sup>-1</sup>, Hyper:  $-0.88 \pm 0.07$  ns Osm<sup>-1</sup>, mean  $\pm$  s.e.). This may be explained by lowering of lipid packing following a tension increase (see Fig. 4 and discussion).

To test the possibility that membrane-tension-dependent changes of the FliptR lifetime are not coupled to cell active processes such as cortical acto-myosin contraction or active ion pumping, osmotic shocks were applied to GUVs with a lipid composition mimicking the cell plasma membrane (POPC:SM:CL 57:14:29) and loaded with FliptR (Fig. 3a). We found that FliptR lifetime  $\tau_1$  also increased with hypoosmotic shocks, and decreased with hyperosmotic shocks, in a way similar to that in cells (Fig. 3b). Similarly, FliptR lifetime changed linearly with  $\Pi$ , although the changes were smaller (slope =  $-0.22$  ns Osm<sup>-1</sup>). The robust change of  $\tau_1$  in proportion to  $\Pi$  suggests that the lifetime of FliptR could monitor changes in plasma membrane tension.

**FliptR reports membrane tension in cells.** To measure membrane tension while applying osmotic shocks to the same cell, optical tweezers were used to pull away concanavalin A-coated polystyrene beads that had been previously attached to the cell membrane, to produce thin membrane tubes (Fig. 3c)<sup>42</sup>. The force required to hold the bead is a direct measure—although not absolute—of cell membrane tension. We calculated the membrane tension  $\sigma$  from the force data using a measured value of the cell membrane bending rigidity, typically 0.14 pN  $\mu$ m, corresponding to  $35 k_B T$  (ref. 5).

We then applied an osmotic shock by flushing a new solution into the microscopy chamber (see Methods) while recording FliptR lifetime and tube force. Hypoosmotic shocks led to a moderate increase in tube force, indicating a slight increase in membrane tension, whereas hyperosmotic shocks led to a dwindling of tube force, indicating a large membrane tension drop (Fig. 3d). The change in  $\tau_1$  was linear with membrane tension  $\sigma$ , increasing with increasing tension. For MDCK cells, the slope was  $2.38 \pm 0.18$  ns m mN<sup>-1</sup> until reaching saturation for tension values above 0.6 mN m<sup>-1</sup>, and was  $0.196 \pm 0.07$  ns m mN<sup>-1</sup> after this limit (Fig. 3d). For HeLa cells, the dependence was similar; from 0 to 0.6 mN m<sup>-1</sup> the slope was  $0.78 \pm 14$  ns m mN<sup>-1</sup>, then  $0.26 \pm 0.06$  ns m mN<sup>-1</sup> at higher tensions (Fig. 3d). Importantly, the change in slope (Fig. 3d) occurred for membrane tension values obtained under isoosmotic conditions. Values higher than the value of membrane tension in isotonic conditions were obtained for hypoosmotic shocks, whereas membrane tension values below isotonic conditions were obtained with hypertonic shock. Thus, the change in slope occurring under isotonic conditions may be due to an additional effect acting on FliptR under hypotonic conditions. As for lifetime as a function of osmotic pressure (Fig. 3b), this additional effect may be caused by a reduction in lipid packing (see Fig. 4 and discussion). These results clearly show that FliptR fluorescence lifetime reports membrane tension in cells, and that calibration is needed for each cell type.

**FliptR response in single lipid phase membrane is the inverse of that in cells.** The response of mechanosensitive flipper probe FliptR to changes in membrane tension in cells and GUVs (Fig. 3) could conceivably originate from several structural changes (Fig. 4). A change in lipid packing is perhaps the most intuitive outcome of membrane tension (Fig. 4a,b)<sup>4,34,43</sup>. However, increasing distances between lipid acyl chains following an increase in membrane tension should result in a more deplanarized state of FliptR. Increasing tension should thus lead to decreasing lifetimes, an opposite response to that observed in cells (Fig. 3).



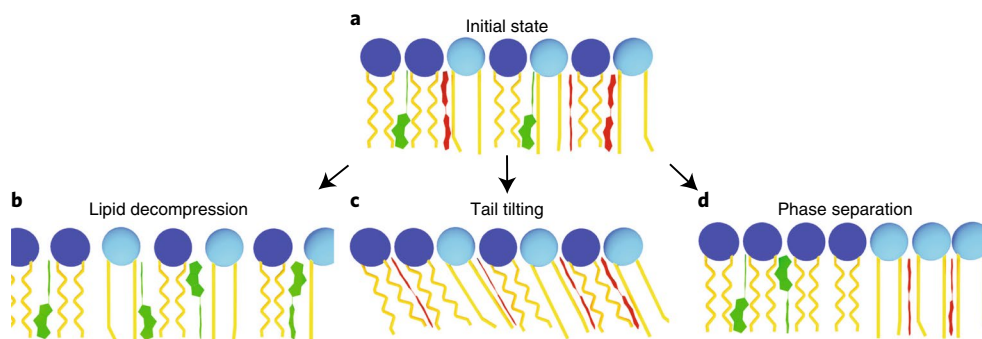
**Fig. 3 | Response of FliptR fluorescence lifetime to osmotic shocks on cells and GUVs. a**, FLIM images of MDCK and GUVs (POPC:SM:CL 57:14:29) in isoosmotic buffer, and after hyper- or hypoosmotic shocks. **b**, FliptR fluorescence lifetime  $\tau_1$  as a function of osmotic pressure  $\Pi$  applied to HeLa cells (orange triangles, slope hypo =  $-0.27 \pm 0.13$  ns Osm $^{-1}$ , slope hyper =  $-0.59 \pm 0.04$  ns Osm $^{-1}$ , mean  $\pm$  s.d. as in the rest of the measurements,  $N = 20$ ); MDCK cells (purple squares, slope hypo =  $-0.50 \pm 0.33$  ns Osm $^{-1}$ , slope hyper =  $-0.88 \pm 0.07$  ns Osm $^{-1}$ ,  $N = 6$ ); and GUVs (blue diamonds, slope hypo =  $-0.19 \pm 0.18$  ns Osm $^{-1}$ , slope hyper =  $-0.22 \pm 0.03$  ns Osm $^{-1}$ ,  $N = 4$ ), with linear curve fit. Black line represents the initial state. **c**, To correlate osmotic pressure  $\Pi$  with membrane tension  $\sigma$ , cells were connected to optical tweezers through pulled-out lipid nanotubes, and  $\sigma$  was calculated from the tube force measured in response to osmotic shocks applied. **d**, FliptR fluorescence lifetime  $\tau_1$  as a function of membrane tension  $\sigma$  applied by osmotic shocks to HeLa (orange triangles, slope hypo =  $0.26 \pm 0.06$  ns mN $^{-1}$ , slope hyper =  $0.78 \pm 0.14$  ns mN $^{-1}$ ,  $N = 7$ ) and MDCK cells (purple squares, slope hypo =  $0.16 \pm 0.07$  ns mN $^{-1}$ , slope hyper =  $2.38 \pm 0.18$  ns mN $^{-1}$ ,  $N = 11$ ) with pulled-out tubes connected to optical tweezers (**c**), with fits to the linear range before the onset of saturation above  $\tau_1 = 5.5$  ns. The colour bar corresponds to lifetime in ns.

We nevertheless carried on testing this hypothesis using SM:CL 70:30 GUVs, which consist of the  $L_o$  phase, thus with high lipid packing at low membrane tension, as reflected by the high FliptR lifetime values in these membranes (Fig. 1c). By aspirating these  $L_o$  GUVs labelled with 1 mol% FliptR with a micropipette, we controlled and changed their tension. This tension was measured by the extraction of small membrane tubes with optical tweezers (Fig. 5a,b). As expected from our hypothesis,  $L_o$  SM:CL 70:30 GUVs demonstrated a linear decrease in FliptR lifetime with increasing tension, with a slope =  $-1.32 \pm 0.19$  ns mN $^{-1}$  (Fig. 5b). Thus, in single-phase membranes, the FliptR response to tension is indeed dominated by loosened lipid packing with increasing distances between lipid tails (Fig. 4b). This effect could also be seen as a tension-induced lipid phase transition: tension may exert pulling forces on the acyl chains of lipids, allowing them to melt from the  $L_o$  into the  $L_d$  phase.

In membranes with a composition closer to plasma membrane (POPC:SM:CL 57:14:29), the decrease in FliptR lifetime in response to increasing tension was much less pronounced (Fig. 5b, slope =  $-0.27 \pm 0.05$  ns mN $^{-1}$ ). Because of the pipette aspiration used in these experiments, only conditions where membrane tension increased could be tested (Fig. 3b). This suggested that even if the response of these GUVs to micropipette aspiration is dominated by loosened lipid packing, another molecular mechanism would lower the response of FliptR to increasing tension. Indeed, the small decrease in FliptR lifetime with increasing tension applied by micropipette aspiration (Fig. 5b) was contrary to the significant increase in FliptR lifetime with decreasing osmotic pressure (membrane tension increase) in cells and GUVs (Fig. 3b).

**FliptR response to tension depends on lipid phase separation.** We then studied the nature of this additional molecular mechanism. One of the possible explanations for the increasing FliptR lifetime with increasing tension is that lipid tails would tilt on increasing the surface area (Fig. 4c). Tilted lipid tails could be a way to adapt the rapid change of surface as observed in stretched polymer chemistry<sup>44</sup>. Also, tilted lipid tails are a characteristic feature of peculiar gel phases called  $L_\beta$  that accommodate tight packing with a surface increase<sup>45</sup>. Chain stretching and lipid tilting in response to increasing membrane tension would cause lateral compression of the acyl chains, leading to FliptR planarization and increasing its lifetime. This effect is expected to be independent of the lipid phase. We thus tested this tilting hypothesis in pure  $L_d$  GUVs composed of DOPC only, and subjected them to hypo- or hyperosmotic shocks, which did not change the lifetime of FliptR (Supplementary Fig. 3a). We thus concluded that the tilting was not the mechanism causing lifetime changes in response to tension changes in cells.

Planarizable push-pull probes have been suspected previously to be planarizable also by voltage because of macrodipole-potential interactions<sup>32</sup>. Cell membranes have a voltage potential created by the ionic gradients across them. Although experimental support for significant voltage sensitivity could not be obtained, possible contributions to the response of the FliptR probe to tension had to be tested. For this purpose, we loaded neurons (cells with high membrane potential) with FliptR and depolarized them with an isoosmotic buffer containing 47 mM KCl (see Methods). During KCl treatment, the FliptR lifetime did not change significantly (Supplementary Fig. 4). However, on adding a 700 mOsm hyperosmotic sucrose solution, the FliptR lifetime dropped significantly



**Fig. 4 | Possible structural changes of lipid bilayer membranes in response to tension reported by FliptR.** **a**, Initial state where FliptR molecules are partially planarized in the membrane. **b–d**, With increasing tension, three structural changes could occur: a loosening of the packing with increasing distance between less ordered lipid acyl chains, leading to FliptR deplanarization (**b**), a tilting and stretching of more ordered acyl chains, which should lead to more compression of the FliptR probe and thus planarization (**c**), and phase separation, in which case, FliptR molecules are more planarized in the  $L_o$  phase and less planarized in the  $L_d$  phase (**d**).

(Supplementary Fig. 4). We thus concluded that FliptR is insensitive to membrane polarization.

The last possibility to explain the coupled changes in lifetime and tension was that tension changes induce phase separation (Fig. 4d). Recent studies have shown that changes in tension can cause a lipid phase separation to accommodate the area change<sup>46–51</sup>. In such a case, while the membrane is initially homogeneous, domains appear on increasing the membrane tension. The newly formed  $L_d$  phase supports most of the stretch, while  $L_o$  domains cluster the lipids that cannot be stretched easily. To test this possibility, GUVs were prepared with a lipid composition (DOPC:SM:CL 1:1:1) that mimics the phase separation state of cell membranes by being close to the transition from  $L_d$  to mixed  $L_d$ – $L_o$  phases<sup>52</sup>, and thus more prone to phase separate on applying tension. These GUVs were aspirated into a micropipette to increase their tension (Fig. 5a). As expected, the formation of large domains (visualized through the lifetime image of FliptR, see also Fig. 1c) could be observed reproducibly in GUVs aspirated in micropipettes after an abrupt increase in aspiration (Fig. 5c). Moreover, following aspiration, while the lifetime increased in the  $L_o$  domains and decreased in the  $L_d$  domains, the average lifetime of FliptR on the entire GUV increased following aspiration (Fig. 5c, middle and right panels). This shows that the FliptR lifetime increase with a membrane tension increase in cells (Fig. 3d) can be attributed to increased lipid phase separation. To further support this hypothesis, we directly investigated changes in the homogeneity of the membrane FliptR lifetime under hypertonic shocks. At rest, the FliptR lifetime image showed areas of higher lifetime (Fig. 5d and Supplementary Video 2), which are probably related to inhomogeneities of the lipid composition. After a hypertonic shock, these areas seemed to disappear (Fig. 5d and Supplementary Video 2), suggesting that, with a membrane tension decrease, the local plasma membrane composition becomes more homogeneous.

Thus, the FliptR response to tension in cells strongly depends on a tension-induced change in phase separation, a mechanism that explains the overall change of FliptR lifetime in response to osmotic shocks in cells. Following tension-induced phase separation, the overall lifetime response is dominated by FliptR in the more ordered phase (Fig. 4a, d). This explanation seems reasonable considering the almost equal partitioning of FliptR into  $L_d$  and  $L_o$  phases<sup>33</sup>, but larger area of  $L_o$  phase compared to  $L_d$ , resulting from tension-induced phase separation (Fig. 5c)<sup>46,47</sup>. Moreover, the absorptivity of the FliptR probe in the  $L_o$  phase is higher than in the  $L_d$  phase at the excitation wavelength (485 nm)<sup>2</sup>. Thus, the contribution to the overall lifetime counts in FLIM histograms from FliptR

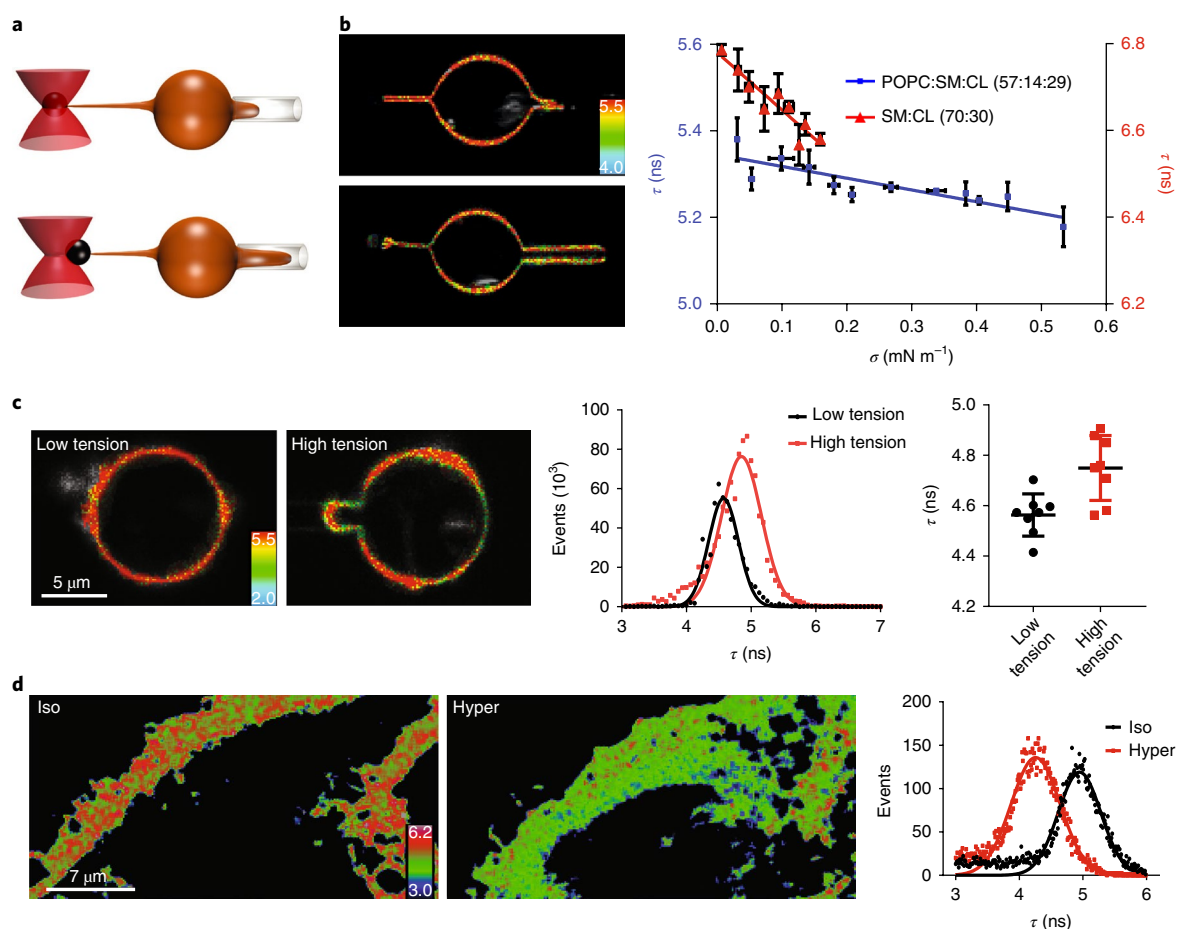
molecules in the  $L_o$  phase is larger than from those in the  $L_d$  phase, as seen from the increased photon counts when phase separated (Fig. 5c). Similarly, the decreasing FliptR lifetime with decreasing tension under hyperosmotic stress is explained by a reduction of the phase separation, most probably because of partial mixing of the  $L_o$ – $L_d$  phases<sup>48,49</sup>.

## Conclusion

We have reported the use of FliptR as a fluorescent probe that allows reliable imaging of membrane tension in living cells and model membranes by FLIM. The intrinsic dependence of the FliptR response on lipid composition naturally prevents the attribution of absolute values of FliptR lifetime to membrane tension that would be valid for all cells. We provide here calibration curves available to other users for two of the most commonly used cell lines, MDCK and HeLa cells (Fig. 3d).

Increasing lifetimes with increasing tension show that FliptR planarizes with an increase in tension. This response is consistent with tension-induced lipid phase separation into more ordered domains with more planarized probes and less ordered domains with more deplanarized probes. These tension-induced domains have been observed previously in model membranes with other techniques<sup>46–51</sup>. In cells, the size of the tension-induced microdomains is probably below detection limits, and they might move too quickly for FLIM imaging. However, the observed overall increase in lifetime with increased membrane tension is consistent with tension-induced domain formation, as in GUVs.

FliptR deplanarization due to lowering of lipid packing by tension is observed in ordered membrane phases that do not phase separate in our experimental conditions. The typical value of this response (Fig. 5b,  $-1.32$  to  $-0.27$  ns mN<sup>-1</sup>) is in the range of the response due to phase separation (Fig. 3d,  $0.57$ – $2.38$  ns mN<sup>-1</sup>). However, in cells, the contribution of the effects may be very different in hypo- and hyperosmotic conditions: in hypoosmotic conditions, the overall change in lifetime was fairly small, whereas dramatic changes in lifetime were observed for hyperosmotic conditions (Fig. 3b,d). This could be explained by the fact that in hypoosmotic shocks, both changes in lipid packing (Figs. 4b and 5b) and phase separation (Figs. 4d and 5c) contribute to changes in lifetime. As the two effects have opposite contributions, but of the same order of magnitude, they cancel one another, so the overall response is negligible. Under hyperosmotic conditions, however, the lipids relax to their most compressed state, even for small hyperosmotic shocks. In this case, only changes in phase separation could thus act on FliptR, leading to larger changes in the lifetime with



**Fig. 5 | Response of FliptR lifetime to membrane tension in GUVs with and without phase separation induced by micropipette aspiration.** **a**, Schematics of the micropipette tube pulling assay. **b**, FLIM images and dependence of lifetimes  $\tau_i$  on membrane tension  $\sigma$  for SM/CL 70:30 (red triangles, slope =  $-1.32 \pm 0.19$  ns m  $\text{mN}^{-1}$ ,  $N = 6$  GUVs) and POPC:SM:CL 57:14:29 (blue squares, slope =  $-0.27 \pm 0.05$  ns m  $\text{mN}^{-1}$ ,  $N = 7$  GUVs). **c**, Left: FLIM images of DOPC:SM:CL 30:30:40 GUVs aspirated in micropipettes and undergoing phase separation at high tension. Middle: Distribution of fluorescence lifetimes with Gaussian fits at low tension (black) and high tension (red). Right: Average lifetimes ( $N = 8$  GUVs) for GUVs at low tension (black) and high tension (red). Centre lines and error bars are mean  $\pm$  s.d. **d**, Left: Lifetime images of the membrane (confocal image of the lamellipodium) of a HeLa cell under isoosmotic conditions (Iso) and after hyperosmotic shock (Hyper). Right: Corresponding lifetime histograms ( $N = 3$ ). The colour bar code corresponds to lifetime in ns.

decreasing membrane tension (Fig. 3d). Contributions from lipid tilting and changes in transmembrane voltage from the response of FliptR to tension could be excluded.

FliptR offers an ideal combination of characteristics to accurately image membrane tension in live cells. It combines (1) partitioning into different membrane domains without strong preference<sup>33</sup>; (2) negligible disturbance of the structure of the surrounding membrane<sup>36</sup>; (3) specific labelling of the plasma membrane<sup>2</sup>; (4) negligible fluorescence in water<sup>2,33,54</sup>; (5) insensitivity to membrane potential. An intrinsic limitation of FliptR is in reporting lipid packing, which depends on the combination of tension and lipid composition. However, it is difficult to imagine a way other than sensing lipid packing to report membrane tension at the molecular level. Thus, the design of a membrane tension probe insensitive to lipid composition is unlikely. Nevertheless, despite this limitation, FliptR accurately reports membrane tension changes, which occur on a timescale of a few seconds, which are easily discriminated from lipid composition changes, which occur over tens of minutes.

It is safe to predict that FliptR will not remain the only tension probe. Established systems to image changes in membrane order such as molecular rotors<sup>21,23–25,28–30</sup> or solvatochromic probes<sup>23,54,55</sup>

could also function as tension probes. However, further development will be required to adapt these molecules to the list of characteristics required to measure membrane tension. For instance, sufficient partitioning into the  $L_o$  membranes is difficult to achieve<sup>21,23–25,28–30,56</sup>, as these fluorescent probes disturb the local order of lipids. This study is proposed as an example to encourage fluorescent probe experts to elaborate on the compatibility of their systems with the imaging of membrane tension.

The availability of FliptR opens new opportunities to study cell membrane processes by offering the unique possibility to directly image membrane tension in living cells. We foresee new possibilities in studying the role of membrane tension during cell division, endocytosis or cell migration. Preliminary studies focusing on the activation of TORC2 signalling by membrane tension in yeast cells fully support these high expectations, including corroborative evidence for tension-induced phase separation<sup>57</sup>. Moreover, the future design of flipper probes localizing specifically to organelles will enable the community to study intracellular membrane tension, as well as its regulation. Finally, in tissue cells, membrane tension may be a direct reporter of force fields existing in growing tissues. Further studies will determine if the FliptR probe can prove itself a direct way to measure those force fields during development.

## Methods

**FlipR synthesis.** FlipR probes were synthesized following reported procedures<sup>30</sup>. Analytical data for the final product are identical to reported data and thus consistent with the structure and purity of the mechanophore.

**GUVs preparation and lifetime imaging.** GUVs were prepared by the electroformation technique. All lipids were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids. The lipid solutions used (2 mg ml<sup>-1</sup>) were (1) pure 1,2-dioleoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DOPC), (2) a mixture of DOPC 70 mol% and cholesterol 30 mol%, (3) *N*-(dodecanoyl)-sphing-4-enine-1-phosphocholine (brain sphingomyelin) 58 mol%, DOPC 25 mol%, cholesterol 17 mol%, (4) 70 mol% brain sphingomyelin and 30 mol% of cholesterol, and finally (5) 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphocholine (POPC) 80 mol%, sphingomyelin 18.97 mol% and cholesterol 40 mol%. Each lipid solution on CHCl<sub>3</sub> was supplemented with FlipR (from DMSO solution) at 1 mol% and 0.03 mol% DSPE-PEG2000-biotin.

The lipid solution was spread on indium tin oxide (ITO)-coated glass slides, previously cleaned with bi-distilled water, EtOH and CHCl<sub>3</sub>. The ITO slides with the lipid was dried by keeping the slides at 30 °C for 2 h. The chamber was assembled using O-ring as spacer, filled with a 297 mOsm sucrose solution and blocked with silicone elastomer. An electric field (10 Hz, 1.1 V) was then applied for 2 h at 55 °C for sphingomyelin-containing lipid mixes or at room temperature otherwise.

Lifetime imaging was carried out in a flow chamber, as described for osmotic shocks on cells. Before addition of the GUV solution, the coverslip was incubated with avidin (from egg white, Life Technologies, 434401) at 0.1 mg ml<sup>-1</sup> for 10 min. The avidin was washed out three times with ddH<sub>2</sub>O, and the flow chamber was filled with 200 μl of PBS. GUVs (5 μl) were then flushed in the flow chamber. Once the GUVs started to partially adhere to the surface, to avoid further adhesion, which could lead to GUV bursting, the remaining glass-bound avidin was blocked by flowing BSA-biotin (1 mg ml<sup>-1</sup>, Sigma-Aldrich, A8549) for 15 min.

**Lifetime measurements.** FLIM imaging was performed using a Nikon Eclipse Ti A1R microscope equipped with a time-correlated single-photon counting module from PicoQuant<sup>®</sup>. Excitation was performed using a pulsed 485 nm laser (PicoQuant, LDH-D-C-485) operating at 20 MHz, and the emission signal was collected through a 600/50 nm bandpass filter using a gated PMA hybrid 40 detector and a TimeHarp 260 PICO board (PicoQuant). SymPhoTime 64 software (PicoQuant) was then used to fit fluorescence decay data (from full images or regions of interest) to a dual exponential model after deconvolution for the instrument response function (measured using the backscattered emission light of a 1 μM fluorescein solution with 4 M KI). Data were expressed as means ± s.d. of the mean. The full-width at half-maximum response of the instrument was measured at 176 ps.

Supplementary Fig. 1a shows all parameters extracted from the fits of FlipR in various GUV compositions. As similar tendencies were seen for  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$ , the longest lifetime ( $\tau_1$ ), obtained by double exponential fits, was used for all subsequent graphs.

**Optical tweezers tube pulling experiment.** Tube pulling tension measurements were performed using a modified version of a published set-up<sup>15</sup>, which allowed simultaneous bright-field and FLIM imaging on an inverted Nikon Eclipse Ti A1R microscope. A membrane nanotube was formed by pulling away a micropipette-aspirated GUV, whose membrane was attached to a streptavidin-coated bead (3.05 mm diameter, Spherotec) held in a fixed optical trap. The trap was obtained by focusing an ytterbium fibre laser (IPG laser) through a ×100, 1.3 NA oil immersion objective (Nikon). Force measurements were carried out by measuring the displacement of the bead in the optical trap with a C-MOS camera (Pixelink) with a home-made video recorder and bead tracking software under Matlab. The force  $F$  exerted on the bead was calculated from Hooke's law:  $F = k \Delta x$ , where  $k$  is the stiffness of the trap ( $k = 8.58$  pN pix<sup>-1</sup> W<sup>-1</sup>) and  $\Delta x$  is the displacement of the bead from its initial zero-force position.

**Data processing.** Images were analysed and processed with SymPho Time64 and ImageJ. All graphs were constructed with GraphPad Prism 7. Blender software was used for drawings.

**Reporting Summary.** Further information on experimental design is available in the Nature Research Reporting Summary linked to this article.

**Data availability.** The data sets generated during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Received: 22 December 2017; Accepted: 25 July 2018;  
Published online: 27 August 2018

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### Acknowledgements

The authors thank V. Mercier, G. Molinard and M. Laporte for technical support and useful scientific discussions. The authors thank the NMR, MS and Bioimaging platforms for services, and the University of Geneva, the Swiss National Centre of Competence in Research (NCCR) Chemical Biology, the NCCR Molecular Systems Engineering and the Swiss NSF for financial support. A.R. acknowledges funding from the Human Frontier Science Program CDA-0061-08, the Swiss National Fund for Research grants nos. 31003A\_130520, 31003A\_149975 and 31003A\_173087, and the European Research Council Starting Grant no. 311536 (2011 call). E.D. acknowledges funding from Human Frontier Science Program (LT00305/2011-L).

### Author Contributions

A.C., N.S., S.M. and A.R. designed the project. S.S. and M.D.M. synthesized the FliptR probe. E.D. and M.G.-G. designed and performed initial FLIM measurements. C.T. developed and made vertical PDMS walls for MDCK cell culture. A.C. performed all other experiments and analysis. A.C., E.D., N.S., S.M. and A.R. wrote the paper.

### Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

### Additional information

Supplementary information is available for this paper at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41557-018-0127-3>.

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SymPhoTime 64

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## Life sciences study design

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Sample size

The error bars and the measure of the center is mean  $\pm$  SD.

In each measurement was taken several GUV's and cells giving an important number of events, together with the small differences between replications were the indication of the sample size for each experiment

Lifetime vs lipid composition(GUV) (fig 1c and Suppl fig a)

DOPC-- R:15

DOPC:CL-- R:25

Phase separated-- R:5

SM:CL-- R:25

Lifetime vs osmotic pressure (fig 3b):

GUV-- R:85

MDCK-- R:20

HeLa-- R:22

Lifetime vs osmotic shocks (fig 5d):

Hela-- R:3 (Paper one example)

lifetime vs tension (fig 3d):

MDCK-- R:11

HeLa-- R:7

Lifetime vs tension (GUVs) (fig 5):

GUV (POPC:SM:CL)-- R:7

GUV (SM:CL)-- R:6

GUV (DOPC:SM:CL)-- R:8

lifetime vs time during osmotic shocks:

GUVs (DOPC) : R:14 (suppl fig 3a)

GUVs (POPC:SM:CL) : R: 6 (suppl fig 3b)

Hela (control w/o shock): R:21 (suppl fig 2a)

MDCK (control w/o shock):R:19 (suppl fig 2a)

Hela : R:14 (suppl fig 2b)

MDCK :R:49 (suppl fig 2b)

Data exclusions

Not relevant

Replication

Lifetime vs lipid composition(GUV) (fig 1c and Suppl fig a)

DOPC-- N:5

DOPC:CL-- N:5

Phase separated-- N:4

SM:CL-- N:5

Lifetime vs osmotic pressure (fig 3b):

GUV-- N:4

MDCK-- N:6

HeLa-- N:20

lifetime vs tension (fig 3d):  
 MDCK-- N:11  
 HeLa-- N:7

Lifetime vs osmotic shocks (fig 5d):  
 HeLa-- N:3 (Paper one exeample)

Lifetime vs tension (GUVs, fig 5) :  
 GUV (POPC:SM:CL)-- N:7  
 GUV (SM:CL)-- N:6  
 GUV (DOPC:SM:CL)-- N:8

lifetime vs time during osmotic shocks:  
 GUVs (DOPC) : N:2 (suppl fig 3a)  
 GUVs (POPC:SM:CL) : N:1 (suppl fig 3b)  
 HeLa (control w/o shock): N:2 (suppl fig 2a)  
 MDCK (control w/o shock):N:2 (suppl fig 2a)  
 HeLa : N:2 (suppl fig 2b)  
 MDCK :N:2 (suppl fig 2b)

Neurons--KCl and Osmotic shock (suppl fig 4): N:3

Randomization

Blinding

## Reporting for specific materials, systems and methods

### Materials & experimental systems

n/a  Involved in the study

Unique biological materials

Antibodies

Eukaryotic cell lines

Palaeontology

Animals and other organisms

Human research participants

### Methods

n/a  Involved in the study

ChIP-seq

Flow cytometry

MRI-based neuroimaging

## Eukaryotic cell lines

Policy information about [cell lines](#)

Cell line source(s)

Authentication

Mycoplasma contamination

Commonly misidentified lines (See [ICLAC](#) register)