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Cell Culture Basics Handbook

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1. Introduction

Purpose of the Handbook

Cell Culture Basics Companion Handbook is a supplement to the Cell Culture Basics instructional videos available online at **www.lifetechnologies.com/cellculturebasics**.

The handbook and videos are intended as an introduction to cell culture basics. The first four chapters of the handbook focus on cell culture, covering topics such as getting familiar with the requirements of a laboratory dedicated to cell culture experiments, laboratory safety, aseptic technique, and microbial contamination of cell cultures, as well as providing basic methods for passaging, freezing, and thawing cultured cells. The subsequent two chapters of the handbook focus on various transfection technologies and provide general guidelines for the selection of the appropriate transfection method, the transfection of cells with plasmid DNA, oligonucleotides, and RNA, as well as culture preparation for *in vitro* and *in vivo* transfection and selection of the transfected cells.

The information and guidelines presented in the handbook and the instructional videos focus on cell lines (finite or continuous) and omit experiments and techniques concerning primary cultures and stem cells, such as isolating and disaggregating tissues, reprogramming cells into pluripotent stem cells, or differentiating stem cells into various lineages.

Note that while the basics of cell culture experiments share certain similarities, cell culture conditions vary widely for each cell type. Deviating from the culture conditions required for a particular cell type can result in different phenotypes being expressed; we therefore recommend that you familiarize yourself with your cell line of interest, and closely follow the instructions provided with each product you are using in your experiments.

Introduction to Cell Culture

Morphology of cells in

Cells in culture can be divided in to three basic categories based on their shape and appearance (i.e., **morphology**).

• Fibroblastic (or fibroblast-like) cells are bipolar or multipolar, have elongated shapes, and grow attched to a substrate.

• Epithelial-like cells are polygonal in shape with more regular dimensions, and grow attached to a substrate in discrete patches.

• Lymphoblast-like cells are spherical in shape and usually grown in suspension without attaching to a surface.

Applications of

Cell culture is one of the major tools used in cellular and molecular biology, providing excellent model systems for studying the normal physiology and biochemistry of cells (e.g., metabolic studies, aging), the effects of drugs and toxic compounds on the cells, and mutagenesis and carcinogenesis. It is also used in drug screening and development, and large scale manufacturing of biological compounds (e.g., vaccines, therapeutic proteins). The major advantage of using cell culture for any of the these applications is the consistency and reproducibility of results that can be obtained from using a batch of clonal cells.

2. Cell Culture Laboratory

Safety

Cell Culture Equipment

Cell Culture Laboratory

Aseptic work area The major requirement of a cell culture laboratory is the need to maintain an aseptic work area that is restricted to cell culture work. Although a separate tissue culture room is preferred, a designated cell culture area within a larger laboratory can still be used fort sterile handling, incubation, and storage of cell cultures, reagents, and media. The simplest and most economical way to provide aseptic conditions is to use a **cell culture hood** (i.e., biosafety cabinet).

Cell culture hood The cell culture hood provides an aseptic work area while allowing the containment of infectious splashes or aerosols generated by many microbiological procedures. Three kinds of cell culture hoods, designated as Class I, II and III, have been developed to meet varying research and clinical needs.

Classes of cell culture hoods

Class I cell culture hoods offer significant levels of protection to laboratory personnel and to the environment when used with good microbiological techniques, but they do not provide cultures protection from contamination. They are similar in design and air flow characteristics to chemical fume hoods.

Class II cell culture hoods are designed for work involving BSL-1, 2, and 3 materials, and they also provide an aseptic environment necessary for cell culture experiments. A Class II biosafety cabinet should be used for handling potentially hazardous materials (e.g., primate-derived cultures, virally infected cultures, radioisotopes, carcinogenic or toxic reagents).

Class III biosafety cabinets are gas-tight, and they provide the highest attainable level of protection to personnel and the environment. A Class III biosafety cabinet is required for work involving known human pathogens and other BSL-4 materials.

Air-flow characteristics of cell culture hoods

Cell culture hoods protect the working enviroment from dust and other airborn contaminants by maintaining a constant, unidirectional flow of **HEPA-filtered air** over the work area. The flow can be **horizontal**, blowing parallel to the work surface, or it can be **vertical**, blowing from the top of the cabinet onto the work surface.

Depending on its design, a **horizontal flow hood** provides protection to the culture (if the air flowing towards the user) or to the user (if the air is drawn in through the front of the cabinet by negative air pressure inside). **Vertical flow hoods**, on the other hand, provide significant protection to the user and the cell culture.

Clean benches

Horizontal laminar flow or vertical laminar flow "clean benches" are **not** biosafety cabinets; these pieces of equipment discharge HEPA-filtered air from the back of the cabinet across the work surface toward the user, and they may expose the user to potentially hazardous materials. These devices only provide product protection. Clean benches can be used for certain clean activities, such as the dust-free assembly of sterile equipment or electronic devices, and they should never be used when handling cell culture materials or drug formulations, or when manipulating potentially infectious materials.

For more information on the selection, installation, and use of biosafety cabinets, refer to to *Biosafety in Microbiological and Biomedical Laboratories, 5th Edition*, which is available for downloading at **www.cdc.gov/od/ohs/biosfty/bmbl5/bmbl5toc.htm**.

Cell culture hood layout A cell culture hood should be large enough to be used by one person at a time, be easily cleanable inside and outside, have adequate lighting, and be comfortable to use without requiring awkward positions. Keep the work space in the cell culture hood clean and uncluttered, and keep everything in direct line of sight. Disinfect each item placed in the cell culture hood by spraying them with 70% ethanol and wiping clean.

> The arrangement of items within the cell culture hood usually adheres to the following right-handed convention, which can be modified to include additional items used in specific applications.

- A wide, clear work space in the center with your cell culture vessels
- Pipettor in the front right and glass pipettes in the left, where they can be reached easily
- Reagents and media in the rear right to allow easy pipetting
- Small container in the rear middle to hold liquid waste

Figure 2.1 The basic layout of a cell culture hood for right-handed workers. Left-handed workers may switch the positions of the items laid out on the work surface.

Incubator The purpose of the incubator is to provide the appropriate environment for cell growth. The incubator should be large enough, have forced-air circulation, and should have temperature control to within ±0.2°C. Stainless steel incubators allow easy cleaning and provide corrosion protection, especially if humid air is required for incubation. Although the requirement for aseptic conditions in a cell culture incubator is not as stringent as that in a cell culture hood, frequent cleaning of the incubator is essential to avoid contamination of cell cultures.

Types of incubators

There are two basic types of incubators, dry incubators and humid CO₂ incubators. Dry **incubators** are more economical, but require the cell cultures to be incubated in sealed flasks to prevent evaporation. Placing a water dish in a dry incubator can provide some humidity, but they do not allow precise control of atmospheric conditions in the incubator. **Humid CO₂ incubators** are more expensive, but allow superior control of culture conditions. They can be used to incubate cells cultured in Petri dishes or multiwell plates, which require a controlled atmosphere of high humidity and increased $CO₂$ tension.

Storage A cell culture laboratory should have storage areas for liquids such as media and reagents, for chemicals such as drugs and antibiotics, for consumables such as disposable pipettes, culture vessels, and gloves, for glassware such as media bottles and glass pipettes, for specialized equipment, and for tissues and cells.

> Glassware, plastics, and specilized equipment can be stored at ambient temperature on shelves and in drawers; however, it is important to **store all media, reagents, and chemicals according to the instructions on the label**.

Some media, reagents, and chemicals are sensitive to light; while their normal laboratory use under lighted conditions is tolerated, they should be stored in the dark or wrapped in aluminum foil when not in use.

Refrigerators

For small cell culture laboratories, a domestic refrigerator (preferably one without a autodefrost freezer) is an adequate and inexpensive piece of equipment for storing reagents and media at 2–8°C. For larger laboratories, a cold room restricted to cell culture is more appropriate. Make sure that the refrigerator or the cold room is cleaned regularly to avoid contamination.

Freezers

Most cell culture reagents can be stored at -5° C to -20° C; therefore an ultradeep freezer (i.e., a –80°C freezer) is optional for storing most reagents. A domestic freezer is a cheaper alternative to a laboratory freezer. While most reagents can withstand temperature oscillations in an autodefrost (i.e., self-thawing) freezer, some reagents such as antibiotics and enzymes should be stored in a freezer that does not auto-defrost.

static holding times, and are therefore more economical.

Narrow-necked containers have a slower nitrogen evaporation rate and are more economical, but **wide-necked** containers allow easier access and have a larger storage capacity.

storing biohazardous materials, while the **liquid phase** systems usually have longer

Cell counter A cell counter is essential for quantitative growth kinetics, and a great advantage when more than two or three cell lines are cultured in the laboratory.

The Countess® II Automated Cell Counter is a benchtop instrument designed to measure cell count and viability (live, dead, and total cells) accurately and precisely in less than a minute per sample, using the standard Trypan Blue uptake technique. Using the same amount of sample that you currently use with the hemocytometer, the Countess® II Automated Cell Counter takes less than a minute per sample for a typical cell count and is compatible with a wide variety of eukaryotic cells.

Aseptic Technique

Aseptic Technique Checklist

The following checklist provides a concise list of suggestions and procedures to guide you to achieve a solid aseptic technique. For an in-depth review of aseptic technique, refer to *Culture of Animal Cells: A Manual of Basic Technique* (Freshney, 2000).

Work Area

Is the cell culture hood properly set up?

Is the cell culture hood in an area free from drafts and through traffic?

Is the work surface uncluttered, and does it contain only items required for your experiment?

Did you wipe the work surface with 70% ethanol before work?

Are you routinely cleaning and sterilizing your incubators, refrigerators, freezers, and other laboratory equipment?

Personal Hygiene

Did you wash your hands?

Are you wearing personal protective equipment?

If you have long hair, is it tied in the back?

Are you using a pipettor to work with liquids?

Reagents and Media

Have you sterilized any reagents, media, and solutions you have prepared in the laboratory using the appropriate procedure?

Did you wipe the outside of the bottles, flasks, and plates with 70% ethanol before placing them on your work surface?

Are all your bottles, flasks, and other containers capped when not in use?

Are all your plates stored in sterile re-sealeable bags?

Does any of your reagents look cloudy? Contaminated? Do they contain floating paticles? Have foul smell? Unusual color? If yes, did you decontaminate and discard them?

Handling

Are you working slowly and deliberately, mindful of aseptic technique?

Did you wipe the surfaces of all the items, including pipettor, bottles, flasks with 70% ethanol before placing them in the cell culture hood?

Are you placing the caps or covers face down on the work area?

Are you using sterile glass pipettes or sterile disposable plastic pipettes to manipulate all liquids?

Are you using a sterile pipette only once to abvoid cross contamination?

Are you careful **not** to touch the pipette tip to anything nonsterile?

Did you mop up any spillage immediately, and wiped the area with 70% ethanol?

Biological Contamination

Introduction Contamination of cell cultures is easily the most common problem encountered in cell culture laboratories, sometimes with very serious consequences. Cell culture contaminants can be divided into two main categories, **chemical contaminants** such as impurities in media, sera, and water, endotoxins, plasticizers, and detergents, and **biological contaminants** such as bacteria, molds, yeasts, viruses, mycoplasma, as well as cross contamination by other cell lines. While it is impossible to eliminate contamination entirely, it is possible to reduce its frequency and seriousness by gaining a thorough understanding of their sources and by following good aseptic technique. This section provides an overview of major types of biological contamination.

Bacteria Bacteria are a large and ubiquitious group of unicellular microorganisms. They are typically a few micrometers in diameters, and can have a variety of shapes, ranging from spheres to rods and spirals. Because of their ubiquity, size, and fast growth rates, bacteria, along with yeasts and molds, are the most commonly encountered biological contaminants in cell culture. Bacterial contamination is easily detected by visual inspection of the culture within a few days of it becoming infected; infected cultures usually appear cloudy, sometimes with a thin film on the surface. Sudden drops in the pH of the culture medium is also a frequently encountered. Under a low-power microscope, the bacteria appear as tiny granules between the cells, and observation under a high-power microscope can resolve the shapes of individual bacteria. The simulated images below show an adherent 293 cell culture contaminated with *E. coli*.

Figure 2.2 Simulated phase contrast images of adherent 293 cells contaminated with *E. coli*. The spaces between the adherent cells show tiny, shimmering granules under low power microscopy, but the individual bacteria are not easily distinguishable (panel A). Further magnification of the area enclosed by the black square resolves the individual *E. coli* cells, which are typically rod-shaped and are about 2 μm long and 0.5 μm in diameter. Each side of the black square in panel A is 100 μm.

Yeasts Yeasts are unicellular eukaryotic microorganisms in the kingdom of Fungi, ranging in size from a few micrometers (typically) up to 40 micrometers (rarely). Like bacterial contamination, cultures contaminated with yeasts become turbid, especially if the contamination is in an advanced stage. There is very little change in the pH of the culture contaminated by yeasts until the contamination becomes heavy, at which stage the pH usually increases. Under microscopy, yeast appear as individual ovoid or spherical particles, that may bud off smaller particles. The simulated image below shows adherent 293 cell culture 24 hours after plating that is infected with yeast.

Figure 2.3 Simulated phase contrast images of 293 cells in adherent culture that is contaminated with yeast. The contaminating yeast cells appear as ovoid particles, budding off smaller particles as they replicate.

Molds Molds are eukaryotic microorganisms in the kingdom of fungi that grow as multicellular filaments called hyphae. A connected network of these multicellular filaments contain genetically identical nuclei, and are referred to as a colony or mycelium. Similar to yeast contamination, the pH of the culture remains stable in the initial stages of contamination, then rapidly increases as the culture become more heavily infected and becomes turbid. Under microscopy, the mycelia usually appear as thin, wisp-like filaments, and sometimes as denser clumps of spores. Spores of many mold species can survive extremely harsh and inhospitable environments in their dormant stage, only to become activated when they encounter suitable growth conditions.

Viruses Viruses are microscopic infectious agents that take over the host cells machinery to reproduce. Their extremely small size makes them very difficult to detect in culture, and to remove them from reagents used in cell culture laboratories. Because most viruses have very stringent requirements for their host, they usually do not adversely effect cell cultures from species other than their host. However, using virally infected cell cultures can present a serious health hazard to the laboratory personnel, especially if human or primate cells are cultured in the laboratory. Viral infection of cell cultures can be detected by electron microscopy, immunostaining with a panel of antibodies, ELISA assays, or PCR with appropriate viral primers.

Mycoplasma Mycoplasma are simple bacteria that lack a cell wall, and they are considered the smallest self-replicating organism. Because of their extremely small size (typically less than one micrometer), mycoplasma are very difficult to detect until they achieve extremely high densities and cause the cell culture to deteriorate; until then, there are often no visible signs of infection. Some slow growing mycoplasma may persists in culture without causing cell death, but they can alter the behavior and metabolism of the host cells in the culture. Chronic mycoplasma infections might manifest themselves with decreased rate of cell proliferation, reduced saturation density, and agglutination in suspension cultures; however, the only assured way of detecting mycoplasma contamination is by testing the cultures periodically using fluorescent staining (e.g., Hoechst 33258), ELISA, PCR, immunostaining, autoradiography, or microbiological assays.

Figure 2.4 Photomicrographs of mycoplasma-free cultured cells (panel A) and cells infected with mycoplasma (panels B and C). The cultures were tested using the MycoFluor™ Mycoplasma Detection Kit, following the kit protocols. In fixed cells, the MycoFLuor™ reagent has access to the cell nuclei, which are intesensely stained with the reagent, but the absence of fluorescent extranuclear objects indicates that the culture is free from mycoplasma contamination (panel A**)**. In fixed cells infected with mycoplasma, the MycoFluor™ reagent stains both the nuclei and the mycoplasma, but the intense relative fluorescence of the nuclei obscure the mycoplasma on or near the nuclei. However, the mycoplasma separated from the bright nuclei are readily visible (panel B). In live cells, the MycoFluor™ reagent does not have access to the nuclei, but readily stains the mycoplasma associated with the outside of cells (panel C). The emission spectra of the MORFS are designed to have a homogeneous intensity that closely matches that of mycoplasma stained according to the MycoFluor™ mycoplasma detection protocol, allowing the researchers to discriminate between stained mycoplasma and other forms of background luminescence, including viruses, bacteria and cellular autofluorescence. The images were obtained using 365 nm excitation and a 100/1.3 Plan Neofluar objective lens coupled with a 450 ± 30 nm bandpass filter.

Cross-contamination While not as common as microbial contamination, extensive cross-contamination of many cell lines with HeLa and other fast growing cell lines is a clearly-established problem with serious consequences. Obtaining cell lines from reputable cell banks, periodically checking the characteristics of the cell lines, and practicing good aseptic technique are practices that will help you avoid cross-contamination. DNA fingerprinting, karyotype analysis, and isotype analysis can confirm the presence or absence of cross-contamination in your cell cultures.

Using antibiotics Antibiotics should never be used routinely in cell culture, because their continuous use encourages the development of antibiotic resistant strains and allows low-level contamination to persist, which can develop into full-scale contamination once the antibiotic is removed from media, and may hide mycoplasma infections and other cryptic contaminants. Further, some antibiotics might cross react with the cells and interfere with the cellular processes under investigation.

> **Antibiotics should only be used as a last resort and only for short term applications, and they should be removed from the culture as soon as possible.** If they are used in the long term, antibiotic-free cultures should be maintained in parallel as a control for cryptic infections.

3. Cell Culture Basics

This section provides information on the fundamentals of cell culture, including the selection of the appropriate cell line for your experiments, media requirements for cell culture, adherent versus suspension culture, and morphologies of continuous cell lines available from Life Technologies™.

Note that the following information is an introduction to the basics of cell culture, and it is intented as a starting point in your investigations. For more in-depth information, we recommend that you consult published literature and books, as well as the manuals and product information sheets provided with the products you are using.

Cell Lines

Culture Environment

One of the major advantages of cell culture is the ability to manipulate the **physiochemical** (i.e., temperature, pH, osmotic pressure, O₂ and CO₂ tension) and the **physiological environment** (i.e., hormone and nutrient concentrations) in which the cells propagate. With the exception of temperature, the culture environment is controlled by the growth media.

While the physiological environment of the culture is not as well defined as its physiochemical environment, a better understanding of the components of serum, the identification of the growth factors necessary for proliferation, and a better appreciation of the microenvironment of cells in culture (i.e., cell-cell interactions, diffusion of gases, interactions with the matrix) now allow the culture of certain cell lines in serum-free media.

Adherent vs. suspension

There are two basic systems for growing cells in culture, as monolayers on an artificial substrate (i.e., **adherent culture**) or free-floating in the culture medium (**suspension culture**). The majority of the cells derived from vertebrates, with the exception of hemopoietic cell lines and a few others, are anchorage-dependent and have to be cultured on a suitable substrate that is specifically treated to allow cell adhesion and spreading (i.e., **tissue-culture treated**). However, many cell lines can also be adapted for suspension culture. Similarly, most of the commercially available insect cell lines grow well in monolayer or suspension culture. Cells that are cultured in suspension can be maintained in culture flasks that are not tissue-culture treated, but as the culture volume to surface area is increased beyond which adequate gas exchange is hindered (usually 0.2–0.5 mL/cm²), the medium requires agitation. This agitation is usually achieved with a magnetic stirrer or rotating spinner flasks.

Media The culture medium is the most important component of the culture environment, because it provides the necessary nutrients, growth factors, and hormones for cell growth, as well as regulating the pH and the osmotic pressure of the culture.

> Although initial cell culture experiements were performed using natural media obtained from tissue extracts and body fluids, the need for standardization and media quality, as well as an increased demand led to the development of chemically defined media. The three basic classes of media are **basal media**, **reduced-serum media**, and **serum-free media**, which differ in their requirement for supplementation with **serum**.

Serum is vitally important as a source of growth and adhesion factors, hormones, lipids and minerals for the culture of cells in basal media. In addition, serum also regulates cell membrane permeability and serves as a carrier for lipids, enzymes, micronutrients and trace elements into the cell. However, using serum in media has a number of disadvantages including high cost, problems with standardization, specificity, and variability, and unwanted effects such as stimulation or inhibition of growth and/or cellular function on certain cell cultures. If the serum is not obtained from reputable source, contamination can also pose a serious threat to successful cell culture experiments. All Life Technologies™ and Gibco® products, including sera, are tested for contamination and guaranteed for their quality, safety, consistency, and regulatory compliance.

Basal media

The majority of cell lines grow well in basal media, which contain amino acids, vitamins, inorganic salts, and a carbon source such as glucose, but these basal media formulations must be further supplemented with serum.

Reduced-serum media

Another strategy to reduce the undesired effects of serum in cell culture experiments is to use reduced-serum media. Reduced-serum media are basal media formulations enriched with nutrients and animal-derived factors, which reduce the amount of serum that is needed.

Serum-free media

Serum-free media (SFM) circumvents issues with using animal sera by replacing the serum with appropriate nutritional and hormonal formulations. Serum-free media formulations exist for many primary cultures and cell lines, including recombinant protein producing lines of Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO), various hybridoma cell lines, the insect lines Sf9 and Sf21 (*Spodoptera frugiperda*), and for cell lines that act as hosts for viral production, such as 293, VERO, MDCK, MDBK, and others. One of the major advantages of using serum-media is the ability to make the medium selective for specific cell types by choosing the appropriate combination of growth factors. The table below lists the advantages and disadvantages of serum-free media.

Life Technologies™ offers a wide range of classical basal media, reduced-serum media, and serum-free media, as well as sera, growth factors, supplements, antibiotics, and reagents for your cell culture experiments. The **Appendix** section contains a list of the more commonly used cell culture products available from Life Technologies™. For more information on Life Technologies™ and Gibco® cell culture products, refer to **www.lifetechnologies.com**.

- pH Most normal **mammalian cell lines** grow well at pH 7.4, and there is very little variability among different cell strains. However, some transformed cell lines have been shown to grow better at slightly more acidic environments (pH 7.0–7.4), and some normal fibroblast cell lines prefer slightly more basic environments (pH 7.4–7.7). **Insect cell lines** such as Sf9 and Sf21 grow optimally at pH 6.2.
- $CO₂$ The growth medium controls the pH of the culture and buffers the cells in culture against changes in the pH. Usually, this buffering is achieved by including an organic (e.g., HEPES) or $CO₂$ -bicarbonate based buffer. Because the pH of the medium is dependent on the delicate balance of dissolved carbondioxide $(CO₂)$ and bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻), changes in the atmospheric CO₂ can alter the pH of the medium. Therefore, it is necessary to use exogeneous $CO₂$ when using media buffered with a $CO₂$ -bicarbonate based buffer, especially if the cells are cultured in open dishes or transformed cell lines are cultured at high concentrations. While most researchers usually use $5-7\%$ CO₂ in air, $4\n-10\%$ CO₂ is common for most cell culture experiments. However, each medium has a recommended $CO₂$ tension and bicarbonate concentration to achieve the correct pH and osmolality; refer to the media manufacturer's instructions for more information.

Temperature The optimal temperature for cell culture largely depends on the body temperature of the host from which the cells were isolated, and to a lesser degree on the anatomical variation in temperature (e.g., temperature of the skin may be lower than the temperature of skeletal muscle). Overheating is a more serious problem than underheating for cell cultures; therefore, often the temperture in the incubator is set slightly lower than the optimal temperature.

- Most **human and mammalian cell lines** are maintained at 36°C to 37°C for optimal growth.
- **Insect cells** are cultured at 27°C for optimal growth; they grow more slowly at lower temperatures and at temperatures between 27°C and 30°C. Above 30°C, the viability of insect cells decreases, and the cells do not recover even after they are returned to 27°C.
- **Avian cell lines** require 38.5°C for maximum growth. Although these cells can also be maintained at 37°C, they will grow more slowly.
- Cell lines derived from **cold-blooded animals** (e.g., amphibians, cold-water fish) tolerate a wide temperature range between 15°C and 26°C.

Note that cell culture conditions vary for each cell type. The consequences of deviating from the culture conditions required for a particular cell type can range from the expression of aberrant phenotypes to a complete failure of the cell culture. We therefore recommend that you familiarize yourself with your cell line of interest, and closely follow the instructions provided with each product you are using in your experiments.

Cell Morphology

Regularly examining the **morphology** of the cells in culture (i.e., their shape and appearance) is essential for successful cell culture experiments. In addition to confirming the healthy status of your cells, inspecting the cells by eye and a microscope each time they are handled will allow you to detect any signs of contamination early on and to contain it before it spreads to other cultures around the laboratory.

Signs of deterioration of cells include granularity around the nucleus, detachment of the cells from the substrate, and cytoplasmic vacuolation. Signs of deterioriation may be caused by a variety of reasons, including contamination of the culture, senescence of the cell line, or the presence of toxic substances in the medium, or they may simply imply that the culture needs a medium change. Allowing the deterioration to progress too far will make it irreversible.

Mammalian Cells

Variations in mammalian

Most mammalian cells in culture can be divided in to three basic categories based on their morphology.

- **Fibroblastic** (or fibroblast-like) cells are bipolar or multipolar and have elongated shapes. They grow attached to a substrate.
- **Epithelial-like** cells are polygonal in shape with more regular dimensions, and grow attached to a substrate in discrete patches.
- **Lymphoblast-like** cells are spherical in shape and they are usually grown in suspension without attaching to a surface.

In addition to the basic categories listed above, certain cells display morphological characteristics specific to their specialized role in host.

• Neuronal cells exist in different shapes and sizes, but they can roughly be divided into two basic morphological categories, **type I** with long axons used to move signals over long distances and **type II** without axons. A typical neuron projects cellular extensions with many branches from the cell body, which is referred to as a dendritic tree. Neuronal cells can be unipolar or pseudounipolar with the dendrite and axon emerging from same process, bipolar with the axon and single dendrite on opposite ends of the soma (the central part of the cell containing the nucleus), or multipolar with more than two dendrites.

Morphology of 293 cells The 293 cell line is a permanent line established from primary embryonic human kidney, which was transformed with sheared human adenovirus type 5 DNA. The adenoviral genes expressed in this cell line allow the cells to produce very high levels of recombinant proteins. Life Technologies™ offers several variants of the 293 cell line, including those adapted for high-density suspension culture in serum-free media. For more information, visit our mammalian cell culture pages on our website.

> The phase contrast images below show the morphology of healthy 293 cells in adherent culture at 80% confluency (Figure 3.1) and in suspension culture (Figure 3.2). Note that adherent mammalian cultures should be passaged when they are in the log phase, before they reach confluence (see **When to subculture**, page 27).

Figure 3.1 Phase contrast images of healthy 293 cells in adherent culture. The cells were plated at a seeding density of 5 × 10⁴ viable cells/cm² in 293 SFM II medium and grown as a monolayer in a 37°C incubator with a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO 2 in air. The images were obtained using 10X and 20X objectives (panels A and B, respectively) 4 days after plating.

Figure 3.2 Phase contrast images of healthy 293F cells grown is suspension. The culture was started in a shake flask at a seeding density of 2 × 10 5 viable cells/mL in 293 SFM II medium and grown in a 37°C incubator with a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO² in air. 4 days after seeding, the cells were diluted 1:3, and the images were obtained using 10X and 20X objectives (panels A and B, respectively).

Insect Cells

Morphology of Sf21 cells Sf21 cells (IPLB-Sf21-AE) are ovarian cells isolated from *Spodoptera frugiperda* (Fall Armyworm). They are spherical in shape with unequal sizes, and have a somewhat granular appearance. Sf21 cells can be thawed and used directly in suspension culture for rapid expansion of cell stocks, propagation of baculovirus stocks, and production of recombinant proteins. Because Sf21 cells attach firmly to surfaces, they can be used as a monolayer for transfection or plaque assay applications.

> The images below show the morphology of healthy Sf21 insect cells in suspension culture (Figure 3.3) and in adherent culture at confluency (Figure 3.4). Note that insect cells should be subcultured when they reach confluency (see **When to Subculture**, 27).

Figure 3.3 Phase contrast images of healthy Sf21 insect cells grown is suspension. The culture was started in a shake flask at a seeding density of 3 × 10 5 viable cells/mL in Sf-900 II SFM medium and it was maintained in a 28°C, non-humidified, ambient air-regulated incubator. The images were obtained using 10X and 20X objectives (panels A and B, respectively) 3 days after seeding.

Figure 3.4 Phase contrast images of Sf21 insect cells grown as an adherent monolayer in 293 SFM II medium. The cells were plated at a seeding density of 5 × 10⁴ viable cells/cm² in a T-25 flask and grown as monolayers in a 28°C, non-humidified, ambient air-regulated incubator. The images were obtained using 10X and 20X objectives (panels A and B, respectively) 7 days after seeding, when the culture had reached confluency.

Morphology of Sf9 cells The Sf9 insect cell line is a clonal isolate derived from the parental *Spodoptera frugiperda* cell line IPLB-Sf-21-AE, and it is a suitable host for expression of recombinant proteins from baculovirus expression systems (e.g., Life Technologies™' Bac-to-Bac® and Bac-N-Blue™ Expression Systems). Although insect cells have been historically cultured in stationary systems utilizing T-flasks and serum-supplemented basal medium, insect cells are generally not anchorage dependent and can easily be maintained in suspension culture.

> The images below show the morphology of healthy Sf9 insect cells in suspension and adherent cultures. Sf9 cells attach firmly to surfaces, and their small, regular size makes them exceptional for the formation of monolayers and plaques.

Figure 3.5 Phase contrast images of healthy Sf9 insect cells grown is suspension. The culture was started in a shake flask at a seeding density of 3 × 10 5 viable cells/mL in Sf-900 II SFM medium and it was maintained in a 28°C, non-humidified, ambient air-regulated incubator. The images were obtained using 10X and 20X objectives (panels A and B, respectively) 3 days after seeding.

Figure 3.6 Phase contrast images of healthy Sf9 insect cells grown is suspension. The culture was started in a shake flask at a seeding density of 3 × 10 5 viable cells/mL in Sf-900 II SFM medium and it was maintained in a 28°C, non-humidified, ambient air-regulated incubator. The images were obtained using 10X and 20X objectives (panels A and B, respectively) 3 days after seeding.

4. Cell Culture Methods

This section provides guidelines and general procedures for routine subculturing, thawing, and freezing of cells in culture. Note that cell culture conditions vary for each cell type. The consequences of deviating from the culture conditions required for a particular cell type can range from the expression of aberrant phenotypes to a complete failure of the cell culture. We therefore recommend that you familiarize yourself with your cell line of interest, and closely follow the instructions provided with each product you are using in your experiments.

Guidelines for Maintaining Cultured Cells

What is subculture? **Subculturing**, also referred to as **passaging**, is the removal of the medium and transfer of cells from a previous culture into fresh growth medium, a procedure that enables the further propagation of the cell line or cell strain.

> The growth of cells in culture proceeds from the **lag phase** following seeding to the **log phase**, where the cells proliferate exponentially. When the cells in adherent cultures occupy all the available substrate and have no room left for expansion, or when the cells in suspension cultures exceed the capacity of the medium to support further growth, cell proliferation is greatly reduced or ceases entirely (see Figure 4.1, below). To keep the culture at an optimal density for continued cell growth and to stimulate further proliferation, the culture has to be divided and fresh medium supplied.

Figure 4.1 Characteristic growth pattern of cultured cells. The semi-logarithmic plot shows the cell density versus the time spent in culture. Cells in culture usually proliferate following a standard growth pattern. The first phase of growth after the culture is seeded is the lag phase, which is a period of slow growth when the cells are adapting to the culture environment and preparing for fast growth. The lag phase is followed by the log phase (i.e., "logarithmic" phase), a period where the cells proliferate exponentially and consume the nutrients in the growth medium. When all the growth medium is spent (i.e., one or more of the nutrients is depleted) or when the cells occupy all of the available substrate, the cells enter the stationary phase (i.e., plateau phase), where the proliferation is greately reduced or ceases entirely.

When to subculture? The criteria for determining the need for subculture are similar in adherent and suspension cultures; however, there are some differences between mammalian and insect cell lines.

Cell density

- **Mammalian cells:** Adherent cultures should be passaged when they are in the log phase, before they reach confluence. Normal cells stop growing when they reach confluence (**contact inhibition**), and it takes them longer to recover when reseeded. Transformed cells can continue proliferating even after they reach confluence, but they usually deteriorate after about two doublings. Similarly, cells in suspension should be passaged when they are in log-phase growth before they reach confluency. When they reach confluency, cells in suspension clump together and the medium appears turbid when the culture flask is swirled.
- **Insect cells:** Insect cells should be subcultured when they are in the log phase, before they reach confluency. While tightly adherent insect cells can be passaged at confluency, which allows for easier detachment from the culture vessel, insect cells that are repeatedly passaged at densities past confluency display decreased doubling times, decreased viabilities, and a decreased ability to attach. On the other hand, passaging insect cells in adherent culture before they reach confluency requires more mechanical force to dislodge them from the monolayer. When repeatedly subcultured before confluency, these cells also display decreased doubling times and decreased viabilities, and are considered unhealthy.

Exhaustion of medium

- **Mammalian cells:** A drop in the pH of the growth medium usually indicates a build up of lactic acid, which is a by-product of cellular metabolism. Lactic acid can be toxic to the cells, and the decreased pH can be sub-optimal for cell growth. The rate of change of pH is generally dependent on the cell concentration in that cultures at a high cell concentration exhaust medium faster than cells lower concentrations. You should subculture your cells if you observe a rapid drop in pH (> 0.1–0.2 pH units) with an increase in cell concentration.
- **Insect cells:** Insect cells are cultured in growth media that are usually more acidic that those used for mammalian cells. For example, TNM-FH and Grace's medium used for culturing Sf9 cells has a pH of 6.2. Unlike mammalian cell cultures, the pH rises gradually as the insect cells grow, but usually does not exceed pH 6.4. However, as with mammalian cells, the pH of the growth medium will start falling when insect cells reach higher densities.

Subculture schedule

Passaging your cells according to a strict schedule ensures reproducible behavior and allows you to monitor their health status. Vary the seeding density of your cultures until you achieve consistent growth rate and yield appropriate for your cell type from a given seeding density. Deviations from the growth patterns thus established usually indicate that the culture is unhealthy (e.g., deterioration, contamination) or a component of your culture system is not functioning properly (e.g., temperature is not optimal, culture medium too old). We strongly recommend that you keep a detailed **cell culture log**, listing the feeding and subculture schedules, types of media used, the dissociation procedure followed, split ratios, morphological observations, seeding concentrations, yields, and any anti-biotic use.

It is best to perform experiments and other non-routine procedures (e.g., changing type of media) according to your subculture schedule. If your experimental schedule does not fit the routine subculture schedule, make sure that you do not passage your cells while they are still in the lag period or when they have reached confluency and ceased growing.

Media recommendations

Many continuous mammalian cell lines can be maintained on a relatively simple medium such as MEM supplemented with serum, and a culture grown in MEM can probably be just as easily grown in DMEM or Medium 199. However, when a specialized function is expressed, a more complex medium may be required. Information for selecting the appropriate medium for a given cell type is usually available in published literature, and may also be obtained from the source of the cells or cell banks.

If there is no information available on the appropriate medium for your cell type, choose the growth medium and serum empirically or test several different media for best results. In general, a good place to start is MEM for adherent cells and RPMI-1640 for suspension cells. The conditions listed below can be used as a guide line when setting up a new mammalian cell culture.

Insect cells are cultured in growth media that are usually more acidic that those used for mammalian cells such as TNM-FH and Grace's medium

*** BME**: Basal Medium Eagle; **DMEM**: Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium; **FBS**: Fetal Bovine Serum; **GMEM**: Glasgow Minimum Essential Medium; **IMDM**: Iscove's Modified Dulbecco's Medium; **MEM**: Minimum Essential Medium; **NEAA**: Non-Essential Amino Acids Solution.

*** BME**: Basal Medium Eagle; **DMEM**: Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium; **FBS**: Fetal Bovine Serum; **GMEM**: Glasgow Minimum Essential Medium; **IMDM**: Iscove's Modified Dulbecco's Medium; **MEM**: Minimum Essential Medium; **NEAA**: Non-Essential Amino Acids Solution; **TNM-FH:** *Trichoplusia ni* Medium-Formulation Hink (i.e., Grace's Insect Medium, Supplemented).

Dissociating adherent

The first step in subculturing adherent cells is to detach them from the surface of the culture vessel by enzymatic or mechanical means. The table below lists the various cell dissociation procedures.

TrypLE™ dissociation

TrypLE™ Express and TrypLE™ Select are microbially produced cell dissociation enzymes with similar kinetics and cleavage specificities to trypsin. Although TrypLE™ enzymes can directly substitute trypsin in dissociation procedures without a need for protocol changes, we recommend that you initially optimize the incubation time for dissociation for best results. Because TrypLE™ enzymes are recombinant fungal trypsinlike proteases, they are ideal for applications that require animal origin-free reagents. The table below compares TrypLE™ Express and TrypLE™ Select to trypsin.

Subculturing Adherent Cells

The following protocol describes a **general procedure for subculturing adherent mammalian cells in culture**. Note that the procedure for passaging insect cells differs from that for mammalian cells on several crucial steps. For more information, refer to **Notes on Subculturing Insect Cells**, next page.

For passaging your own cell line, we recommend that you closely follow the instructions provided with each product you are using in your experiments. The consequences of deviating from the culture conditions required for a particular cell type can range from the expression of aberrant phenotypes to a complete failure of the cell culture.

- **6.** Observe the cells under the microscope for detachment. If cells are less than 90% detached, increase the incubation time a few more minutes, checking for dissociation every 30 seconds. You may also tap the vessel to expedite cell detachment.
- **7.** When ≥ 90% of the cells have detached, tilt the vessel for a minimal length of time to allow the cells to drain. Add the equivalent of 2 volumes (twice the volume used for the dissociation reagent) of pre-warmed complete growth medium. Disperse the medium by pipetting over the cell layer surface several times.
- **8.** Transfer the cells to a 15-mL conical tube and centrifuge then at 200 \times *g* for 5 to 10 minutes. Note that the centrifuge speed and time vary based on the cell type.
- **9.** Resuspend the cell pellet in a minimal volume of pre-warmed complete growth medium and remove a sample for counting.
- **10.** Determine the total number of cells and percent viability using a hemocytometer, cell counter and Trypan Blue exclusion, or the Countess® II Automated Cell Counter. If necessary, add growth media to the cells to achieve the desired cell concentration and recount the cells.
- **11.** Dilute cell suspension to the seeding density recommended for the cell line, and pipet the appropriate volume into new cell culture vessels, and return the cells to the incubator.

Note: If using culture flasks, loosen the caps before placing them in the incubator to allow proper gas exchange unless you are using vented flasks with gas-permeable caps.

Notes on subculturing

While the general procedure for subculturing insect cells follows the same steps as mammalian cells, some key requirements of these culture systems are different. For best results, always follow the instructions provided with each product you are using in your experiments.

- Passage insect cells at log phase. However, if your insect cells are strongly adherent, you may passage them at confluency or slightly after when they are starting to pull away from the bottom of the flask. Cells will be easier to dislodge.
- Densities lower than 20% confluency inhibit growth. The healthiest cells are those taken from log phase cultures.
- $CO₂$ exchange is not recommended for insect cell culture.
- Maintain insect cells at 27°C in a non-humidified environment. Cells can be maintained at room temperature on the bench top if protected from light or in a drawer. However, a 27°C controlled environment is recommended.
- Use media specifically formulated for insect cell growth.
- Insect cells attach very tightly to substrates under serum-free conditions and require additional effort to detach. To dislodge the cells, you may need to give the flask **one** quick shake using a wrist-snapping motion. To avoid contamination, always tighten the cap before this procedure.

Caution: We do not recommend shaking the flask vigorously, because it may result in damage to the cells.

Subculturing Suspension Cells

Suspension culture

Suspension cultures can be maintained in sterile culture flasks that are not tissueculture treated; however, **spinner flasks** (i.e., stirrer bottles) specifically designed for suspension cell culture allow for superior gas exchange and permit higher volumes of cells to be cultured. Roller bottles rotating on a rack may also be used to agitate suspension cultures.

Spinner flasks have two basic designs; the medium is agitated (i.e., stirred) by a hanging stir-bar assembly or with a vertical impeller. The vertical impeller provides better aeration. The total culture volume in a spinner flask should not exceed half of the indicated volume of the spinner for proper aeration (e.g., a 500 mL spinner should never contain more than 250 mL of culture).

- Materials needed Culture vessels containing your suspension cells
	- Shaker flasks without baffles or spinner bottles (see **Suspension Culture Vessels**, previous page)
	- Complete growth medium, pre-warmed to 37°C
	- 37°C incubator with humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂
	- Magnetic stir plate (if using spinner flasks), roller rack (if using roller bottles), or shaking platform (if using conventional culture flasks or petri dishes)
	- Reagents and equipment to determine viable and total cell counts (e.g., Countess[®] II Automated Cell Counter)

Protocol for passaging

suspension cells **All solutions and equipment that come in contact with the cells must be sterile.**

Always use proper sterile technique and work in a laminar flow hood. Subculture cells when they are in log-phase growth before they reach confluency. When they reach confluency, cells in suspension clump together and the medium appears turbid when the culture flask is swirled. The maximum recommended cell density before passaging varies with cell lines; refer to the cell-specific product insert or manual for details.

Cells grown in shaker flasks

The following protocol describes a **general procedure** for passaging mammalian cells grown in suspension culture using shaker flasks in a shaking incubator. **For detailed protocols, always refer to the cell-specific product insert.**

Note: Make sure that the shaker flask does **not** have baffles (i.e., the indents at the bottom of the flask designed to provide agitation), because they ruin the shaking rhythm.

- **1.** When the cells are ready for passaging (i.e., log-phase growth before they reach confluency), remove the flask from the shaking incubator, and take a small sample from the culture flask using a sterile pipette. If cells have settled down before taking the sample, swirl the flask to evenly distribute the cells in the medium.
- **2.** From the sample, determine the total number of cells and percent viability using the Countess® II Automated Cell Counter or a hemocytometer, cell counter, and Trypan Blue exclusion.
- **3.** Calculate the volume of media that you need to add to dilute the culture down to the recommended seeding density.
- **4.** Aseptically add the appropriate volume of pre-warmed growth medium into the culture flask. You may split the culture to multiple flasks if needed.
- **5.** Loosen the caps of the culture flasks one full turn to allow for proper gas exchange (or use a gas-permeable cap), and return the flasks to the shaking incubator. The shaking speed depends on the cell line.

Note: To minimize the accumulation of cell debris and metabolic waste by-products in shaker cultures, gently centrifuge the cell suspension at $100 \times g$ for 5 to 10 minutes, and resuspend the cell pellet in fresh growth medium once every three weeks (or as needed).

Cells grown in spinner flasks

The following protocol describes a **general procedure** for passaging mammalian cells in suspension grown using spinner flasks. **For detailed protocols, always refer to the cellspecific product insert.**

Note that cells are sensitive to physical shearing. Ensure that impeller mechanisms rotate freely and do not contact vessel walls or the base. The top of the paddles should be slightly above the medium to ensure adequate aeration to the culture. Adjust the spinner mechanism so that paddles clear the sides and the bottom of the vessel. The table below lists the minimum volumes of media needed for different spinner flask sizes.

We do not recommend initiating a spinner culture into a spinner flask larger than 500 mL. We suggest scaling up from smaller spinners that have already been established.

- **1.** When the cells are ready for passaging (i.e., log-phase growth before they reach confluency), remove the flask from the shaking incubator, and take a small sample from the culture flask using a sterile pipette. If cells have settled down before taking the sample, swirl the to evenly distribute the cells in the medium.
- **2.** From the sample, determine the total number of cells and percent viability using the Countess® II Automated Cell Counter or a hemocytometer, cell counter and Trypan Blue exclusion.
- **3.** Calculate the volume of media that you need to add to dilute the culture down to the recommended seeding density.
- **4.** Aseptically add the appropriate volume of pre-warmed growth medium into the culture flask. You may split the culture to multiple flasks if needed.
- **5.** Loosen the side arm caps of the spinner flasks one full turn to allow for proper gas exchange, and return the flasks to the incubator. The spinner speed depends on the cell line and the impeller type. Make sure that the spinner speed is kept within the recommended values to avoid damage to the cells from shear stress.

Note: To minimize the accumulation of cell debris and metabolic waste by-products in spinner cultures, gently centrifuge the cell suspension at 100 × *g* for 5 to 10 minutes, and resuspend the cell pellet in fresh growth medium once every three weeks (or as needed).

Notes on subculturing

While the general procedure for subculturing insect cells follows the same steps as mammalian cells, some key requirements of these culture systems are different. **For best results, always follow the instructions provided with the insect cell lines you are using in your experiments.**

- It is not necessary to change medium when you are culturing cells in suspension. Regular subculturing requires the removal of cell suspension and the addition of medium sufficient to dilute culture to the appropriate density (refer to the cellspecific product insert). Adding fresh medium is sufficient to replenish cell nutrients.
- $CO₂$ exchange is not recommended for insect cell culture.
- Maintain insect cells at 27°C in a non-humidified environment. Cells can be maintained at room temperature on the bench top or in a drawer, however, a 27°C controlled environment is recommended.
- Use media specifically formulated for insect cell growth.
- Use a surfactant to decrease shearing. 0.1% Pluronic[®] F-68 is recommended for spinner insect cultures. Pluronic[®] F-68 is a surfactant that decreases cell membrane shearing due to impeller forces.

Note: Sf-900 II SFM and Express Five® SFM already contain surfactants.

• Certain insect cell lines may require adaptation to suspension culture. For more information, refer to the cell-line specific product insert or manual.

Freezing Cells

Safety note

Biohazardous materials **must** be stored in the gas phase above the liquid nitrogen. Storing the sealed cryovials in the gas phase eliminates the risk of explosion. If you are using liquid-phase storage, be aware of the explosion hazard with both glass and plastic cryovials, and always wear a face shield or goggles.

Freezing medium Always use the recommended freezing medium for cryopreserving your cells. The freezing medium should contain a cryoprotective agent such as DMSO or glycerol. You may also use a specially formulated complete cryopreservation medium such as Recovery™ Cell Culture Freezing Medium or Synth-a-Freeze® Cryopreservation Medium.

> Recovery™ Cell Culture Freezing Medium is a ready-to-use complete cryopreservation medium for mammalian cell cultures, containing an optimized ratio of fetal bovine serum to bovine serum for improved cell viability and cell recovery after thawing.

Synth-a-Freeze® Cryopreservation Medium is a chemically defined, proteinfree, sterile cryopreservation medium containing 10% DMSO that is suitable for the cryopreservation of many stem and primary cell types, with the exception of melanocytes.

Materials needed • Culture vessels containing cultured cells in log-phase of growth

- Complete growth medium
- Cryoprotective agent such as DMSO (use a bottle set aside for cell culture; open only in a laminar flow hood) or a freezing medium such as Synth-a-Freeze[®] Cryopreservation Medium or Recovery™ Cell Culture Freezing Medium
- Disposable, sterile 15-mL or 50-mL conical tubes
- Reagents and equipment to determine viable and total cell counts (e.g., Countess® II Automated Cell Counter)
- Sterile cryogenic storage vials (i.e., cryovials)
- Controlled rate freezing apparatus or isopropanol chamber
- Liquid nitrogen storage container

For freezing adherent cells, in addition to the above materials, you need:

- Balanced salt solution such as Dulbecco's Phosphate Buffered Saline (DPBS), containing no calcium, magnesium, or phenol red
- Dissociation reagent such as trypsin or $TrypLE^{M}$ Express, without phenol red

Cryopreserving cultured

- cells The following protocol describes a **general procedure** for cryopreserving cultured cells. **For detailed protocols, always refer to the cell-specific product insert.**
	- **1.** Prepare freezing medium and store at $2^{\circ}C$ to $8^{\circ}C$ until use. Note that the appropriate freezing medium depends on the cell line.
	- **2.** For adherent cells, gently detach cells from the tissue culture vessel following the procedure used during the subculture. Resuspend the cells in complete medium required for that cell type.
	- **3.** Determine the total number of cells and percent viability using a hemocytometer, cell counter and Trypan Blue exclusion, or the Countess® II Automated Cell Counter. According to the desired viable cell density, calculate the required volume of freezing medium.
	- **4.** Centrifuge the cell suspension at approximately $100-200 \times g$ for 5 to 10 minutes Aseptically decant supernatant without disturbing the cell pellet.

Note: Centrifugation speed and duration varies depending on the cell type.

- **5.** Resuspend the cell pellet in cold freezing medium at the recommended viable cell density for the specific cell type.
- **6.** Dispense aliquots of the cell suspension into cryogenic storage vials. As you aliquot them, frequently and gently mix the cells to maintain a homogeneous cell suspension.
- **7.** Freeze the cells in a controlled rate freezing apparatus, decreasing the temperature approximately $1^{\circ}C$ per minute. Alternatively, place the cyrovials containing the cells in an isopropanol chamber and store them at –80°C overnight.
- **8.** Transfer frozen cells to liquid nitrogen, and store them in the gas phase above the liquid nitrogen.

Thawing Frozen Cells

5. Transfection Basics

This chapter provides an overview of transfection, including general information on various transfection technologies and selecting the appropriate transfection method for your cell line and experimental needs. Guidelines for transfection of cells with DNA and RNA, considerations for successful transfection experiments, and experimental workflows are provided in the **Transfection Methods** chapter, starting on page 69.

Introduction to Transfection

What is transfection? Broadly defined, **transfection** is the process of artificially introducing nucleic acids (DNA or RNA) into cells, utilizing means other than viral infection. Such introductions of foreign nucleic acid using various chemical, biological, or physical methods can result in a change of the properties of the cell, allowing the study of gene function and protein expression in the context of the cell.

> In transfection, the introduced nucleic acid may exist in the cells **transiently**, such that it is only expressed for a limited period of time and does not replicate, or it may be **stable** and integrate into the genome of the recipient, replicating when the host genome replicates (see **Types of Transfection**, page 43).

Terminology The terminology used for various gene delivery systems has evolved to keep pace with technological advances in the field and further refined to distinguish various methods and cell types.

Transfection

Transfection commonly refers to the introduction of nucleic acids into eukaryotic cells, or more specifically, into animal cells. Classically, the term transfection was used to denote the uptake of viral nucleic acid from a prokaryote-infecting virus or bacteriophage, resulting in an infection and the production of mature virus particles. However, the term has acquired its present meaning to include any artificial introduction of foreign nucleic acid into a cell.

Transformation

Transformation is often used to describe non-viral DNA transfer in bacteria, non-animal eukaryotic cells, and plant cells. However, transformation also refers to a particular event or a series of events that results in a permanent change in an animal cell's phenotype, and implies genetic instability and a progression to a cancerous state. Although transformation in this sense can arise from infection with a transforming virus or from gene transfection, it can also arise spontaneously or following external stressors such as ionizing radiation or chemical mutagens. As such, the term should be avoided for animal cells when describing introduction of exogenous genetic material.

Transduction

Transduction is used to describe virus-mediated DNA transfer. However, the term transfection is also used to refer to infecting a cell specifically with viral nucleic acid that is isolated either from a eukaryote virus or from a bacteriophage.

Applications The two main purposes of transfection are to produce recombinant proteins, or to specifically enhance or inhibit gene expression in transfected cells. As such, transfection is a powerful analytical tool for the study of the function and regulation of genes or gene products, for the production of transgenic organisms, and as a method for gene therapy.

Gene expression

Transfection is most commonly performed to express a protein of interest in cultured cells (or an animal model) through the use of a plasmid vector or mRNA. Expression of the protein in eukaryotic cells allows the recombinant protein to be produced with proper folding and post-translational modifications required for its function. Further, introducing proteins with readily detectable markers and other modifications into cells allows the study of promoter and enhancer sequences or protein:protein interactions.

In addition, transfection can be used in various forms of bioproduction depending upon the transfection strategy. For example, delivery of reprogramming transcription factors enables the generation of induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC). Stable transfection, on the other hand, provides the means for the bioproduction of various therapeutic molecules.

Gene inhibition

Another frequent use of transfection is in inhibiting the expression of specific proteins through RNA interference (RNAi). In mammalian cells, RNAi occurs through endogenously expressed non-coding RNA in the form of microRNAs (miRNAs), which are derived from a double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) precursor. The precursor is processed to a mature miRNA that becomes part of a RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC), which acts to inhibit translation of complementary target mRNAs.

Vector-based systems express miRNA precursors or short hairpin RNA (shRNA) precursors that are processed by endogenous machinery to produce miRNAs or shRNAs, respectively, which then act to inhibit gene expression. These systems allow stable transfection of recombinant constructs, and can permit inducible expression of precursor molecules.

Chemically synthesized short/small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) can also be incorporated into a RISC and induce gene silencing by targeting complementary mRNA for degradation. Modifications to siRNAs help to prevent off-target effects, and also to ensure that the active strand of the dsRNA is loaded into the RISC.

Types of Transfection

Because stable integration of foreign DNA into the genome is a relatively rare event, successful stable transfection requires both effective DNA delivery and a way to select cells that have acquired the DNA. One of the most reliable ways to select cells that stably express transfected DNA is to include a selectable marker in the DNA construct used for transfection and then apply the appropriate selective pressure to the cells after a short recovery period (see **Selective Screening**, page 62).

Frequently used selectable markers are genes that confer resistance to various selection drugs or genes that compensate for an essential gene that is defective in the cell line to be transfected. When cultured in selective medium, cells that were not transfected or were transiently transfected eventually die, and those that express the antibiotic resistance gene at sufficient levels or those that can compensate for the defect in the essential gene survive.

Alternatively, phenotypical or morphological changes in the transfected cells can be used as a screenable trait in certain cases. For example, mouse CI127 cells transfected with vectors derived from bovine papilloma virus produce a morphological change (Sarver *et al.* 1981).

Although linear DNA results in lower DNA uptake by the cells relative to supercoiled DNA, it yields optimal integration of DNA into the host genome (see **Factors Influencing Transfection Efficiency**, page 69). As a rule, stable transfection is limited to DNA vectors, but siRNA and miRNA may be stably introduced into cells when they are delivered as short hairpin transcripts made from a selectable DNA vector (see **Vector-mediated RNAi**, page 89). However, RNA molecules by themselves cannot be used for stable transfection.

Choosing a transfection

strategy Deciding whether you need transient or stable transfection depends on the time frame and ultimate goal of the experiment you wish to conduct. Transiently transfected cells are typically harvested 24–96 hours post-transfection and are often used for studying the effects of short-term expression of genes or gene products, performing RNA interference (RNAi)-mediated gene silencing, or rapidly producing recombinant proteins on a small scale. Transient transfection with mRNA can deliver even more rapid results; because mRNA is expressed in the cytosol without the need for translocation to the nucleus and the transcription process, it is possible for transfected mRNA to be expressed within minutes after transfection in some systems.

> In contrast, stable transfection is more useful when long-term gene expression is required or when transfected cells need to be used over many experiments. Because integration of a DNA vector into the chromosome is a rare event, stable transfection of cells is a more laborious and challenging process, which requires selective screening and clonal isolation. As such, it is normally reserved for large-scale protein production, longer-term pharmacology studies, gene therapy, or research on the mechanisms of long-term genetic regulation.

Although transient transfection of mammalian cells has been employed for the production of recombinant proteins with proper folding and post-translational modifications (which are not available when expressing recombinant proteins in bacterial cells) since the invention of transfection reagents, the ability to express milligram-to-gram amounts of recombinant protein has relied mainly on the creation of stable cell lines. More recently, large volume transient transfection of HEK293 and CHO cells adapted to suspension culture has addressed the need to obtain high amounts of recombinant protein without having to resort to the laborious process of stable cell line development. Recombinant protein expression by transient transfection enables researchers to produce, starting from the vector of interest and suspensionadapted CHO or HEK293 cells, milligram-per-liter quantities of correctly folded and glycosylated recombinant proteins in three to seven days.

A major advancement in transient expression technology for rapid and ultra high-yield protein production in mammalian cells is the Expi293™ Expression System, which is based on the high-density culture of Expi293F™ cells in Expi293™ Expression Medium and transfection using the cationic lipid-based ExpiFectamine™ 293 transfection reagent in combination with optimized transfection enhancers. All components work in concert to generate 2- to 10-fold higher protein yields than conventional culture systems such as the FreeStyle™ 293 Expression System, achieving expression levels of greater than 1 g/L for IgG and non-IgG proteins. For more information on the Expi293[™] Expression System, go to **www.lifetechnologies.com/expi293**.

Clinical biotherapeutics are frequently generated using stable, high-expression transfectants, because they provide batch-to-batch consistency and low cost at extremely large-scales. However, in many drug discovery applications, it is beneficial to screen protein constructs quickly using transient transfection methods, which allow simultaneous evaluation of various candidate molecules in less than one week. In many instances, transient transfections are performed in parallel while more resourceintensive stable cell lines are under development, which can take more than three months to accomplish.

Gene Delivery Technologies

The cell membrane consists of a phospholipid bilayer with embedded proteins and carries a net negative charge. Thus, it presents an impenetrable barrier to large molecules that, like the phosphate backbones of DNA and RNA, are also negatively charged. To sneak nucleic acids through the cell membrane, researchers have developed a number of techniques each using a different approach—from using chemicals and carrier molecules that coat the nucleic acids to neutralize them to physical methods that create transient pores in the membrane to introduce the DNA directly into the cell.

Transfection technologies available today can be broadly classified into three groups: **chemical methods** that use carrier molecules to neutralize or impart a positive charge to the negatively charged nucleic acids, **biological methods** that rely on genetically engineered viruses to transfer non-viral genes into cells (also known as transduction), and **physical methods** that directly deliver nucleic acids into the cytoplasm or the nucleus of the cell. However, no one method can be applied to all cells and all experiments. The ideal approach should be selected depending your cell type and experimental needs, should have high transfection efficiency, low cell toxicity, and minimal effects on normal physiology, and be easy to use and reproducible (Kim and Eberwine, 2010).

Biological gene delivery methods

Physical gene delivery methods

Cationic lipid-mediated

delivery Cationic lipid-mediated transfection is one of the most popular methods for introducing foreign genetic material into cells. Although first generation of lipid-based transfection reagents relied on artificial liposomes that could envelop nucleic acids and then fuse with the cell membrane to deposit their cargo inside (Fraley *et al*., 1980), newer cationic lipid-based reagents spontaneously form condensed nucleic acid-cationic lipid reagent complexes via electrostatic interactions between the negatively charged nucleic acid and the positively charged head group of the synthetic lipid reagent. These complexes are believed to be taken up by the cell through endocytosis and then released in the cytoplasm. Once in the cell, transfected DNA is translocated to the nucleus to be expressed by a yet unknown mechanism, while RNA or antisense oligonucleotides skip the translocation step and remain in the cytoplasm (see **Cationic Lipid-Mediated Transfection**, page 58).

> The advantages of cationic lipid-mediated transfection are the ability to transfect a broad range of cell lines with high efficiency, its applicability to high-throughput screens, and the ability to deliver DNA of all sizes, as well as RNA and proteins. In addition, this method can be applied to both stable and transient expression, and unlike other chemical methods, it can be used for *in vivo* transfer of DNA and RNA to animals and humans. The main drawback of cationic lipid-mediated transfection is the dependence of transfection efficiency on the cell type and culture conditions, requiring the optimization of transfection conditions for each cell type and transfection reagent (see **Considerations for Cationic Lipid-Mediated Transfection**, page 80).

Life Technologies™ offers a wide range of cationic lipid-mediated transfection reagents for efficiently introducing DNA, RNA, siRNA, or oligonucleotides into a broad range of cell types, including the Lipofectamine® 3000 reagent. The Lipofectamine® 3000 reagent leverages the most advanced lipid nanoparticle technology to enable superior transfection efficiency and reproducible results in a broad spectrum of difficult-totransfect cell types with improved viability (**www.lifetechnologies.com/3000**). For more information on selecting the appropriate transfection reagent for your application, see **Cationic lipid transfection reagents**, page 56.

> Dilute DNA, siRNA, or oligonucleotides and the transfection reagent in separate tubes.

Combine nucleic acid and transfection reagent to form complexes. Positive charge on cationic lipid binds to phosphate backbone on nucleic acid.

Add nucleic acid-transfection reagent complexes to cells. Positive charge on cationic lipid helps bind complex to membrane.

Complexes enter the cell via endocytosis.

Assay transfected cells for gene expression or silencing.

Figure 5.1 Cationic lipid-mediated transfection workflow.

Calcium phosphate

co-precipitation Calcium phosphate co-precipitation has been a popular transfection method since its introduction in the early 1970s (Graham and van der Eb, 1973) because the components it requires are easily available and inexpensive. Furthermore, the technique is easy to master, it is effective with many types of cultured cells, and it can be used for both transient and stable transfection of a variety of cultured cell types. However, calcium phosphate co-precipitation is prone to variability due to its sensitivity to slight changes in pH, temperature, and buffer salt concentrations, and can be cytotoxic to many types of cell cultures, especially of primary cells. In addition, it is unsuitable for *in vivo* transfer of nucleic acids to whole animals, and it shows relatively poor transfection efficiency compared to other chemical transfection methods such as lipid-mediated transfection.

> The principle of calcium phosphate co-precipitation involves mixing DNA with calcium chloride in a buffered saline/phosphate solution to generate a calcium-phosphate– DNA co-precipitate, which is then dispersed onto cultured cells. Calcium phosphate facilitates the binding of the condensed DNA in the co-precipitate to the cell surface, and the DNA enters the cell by endocytosis. Aeration of the phosphate buffer while adding the DNA-calcium chloride solution helps to ensure that the precipitate that forms is as fine as possible, which is important because clumped DNA will not adhere to or enter the cell as efficiently.

> > Mix DNA with calcium chloride and add in a controlled manner to a buffered saline/phosphate solution.

Incubate at room temperature to generate a precipitate of extremely small, insoluble particles containing condensed DNA.

Add the DNA-calcium phosphate co-precipitate to cells, which adhere to the cell membrane.

The co-precipitate enters into the cytoplasm via endocytosis.

Assay cells for transient gene expression or select for stable transfection.

Figure 5.2 Calcium-phosphate co-precipitation workflow.

DEAE-Dextran-mediated

delivery Diethylaminoethyl (DEAE)-dextran is a polycationic derivative of the carbohydrate polymer dextran, and it is one of the first chemical reagents used to transfer nucleic acids into cultured mammalian cells (Vaheri and Pagano, 1965). The cationic DEAE-dextran molecule tightly associates with the negatively charged backbone of the nucleic acid, and the net positive charge of the resulting nucleic acid-DEAE-dextran complex allows it to adhere to the cell membrane and enter into the cytoplasm via endocytosis or osmotic shock induced by DMSO or glycerol.

> The advantages of DEAE-dextran method are its relative simplicity, reproducibility, and low cost, while its disadvantages include cytotoxicity and low transfection efficiency for a range of cell types (typically less than 10% in primary cells), as well as the requirement for reduced serum media during the transfection procedure. In addition, this method is limited to transient transfections, and is not suitable for generating stable cell lines.

> > Mix nucleic acid with DEAE-dextran solution in transfection medium or phosphate-buffered saline solution.

Nucleic acid-DEAE-dextran complexes are formed via electrostatic interactions between the polymer and phosphate backbone of the nucleic acid.

Add the nucleic acid-DEAE-dextran complexes to the cells, which adhere to the cell surface via electrostatic interactions.

Induce the uptake of nucleic acid-DEAE-dextran complexes by osmotic shock using DMSO or glycerol.

Wash cells to remove the complexes and incubate to allow gene expression.

Assay cells for transient gene expression.

Figure 5.3 DEAE-dextran-mediated transfection workflow.

Delivery by other cationic

polymers Other cationic polymers used for gene delivery include **cationic peptides** and their derivatives (e.g., polylysine, polyornithine), linear or branched **synthetic polymers** (e.g., polybrene, polyethyleneimine), **polysaccharide-based delivery molecules** (e.g., cyclodextrin, chitosan), **natural polymers** (e.g., histone, collagen), and activated and non-activated **dendrimers**.

> Cationic polymers differ from cationic lipids in that they do not contain a hydrophobic moiety and are completely soluble in water. Although they differ dramatically in their degree of transfection efficiency and cytotoxicity, all cationic polymers work in a similar fashion by allowing the formation of nucleic acid-polymer complexes, which adhere to the cell membrane through electrostatic interactions and are taken up by the cell via endocytosis. The efficiency of uptake can be improved by conjugating cell-targeting ligands or nuclear localization signals onto the polymer.

While cationic polymers can offer increased complex stability, more reproducible results, and higher transfection efficiencies when compared to DEAE-dextran, their main limitations continue to be cytotoxicity and their limitation to transient transfection studies. While higher molecular weight (MW) cationic polymers tend to be non-biodegradable and more cytotoxic than lower MW polymers, they show higher transfection efficiencies due to their increased polymer-to nucleic acid-charge ratio. However, the higher toxicity of larger MW polymers can be reduced by biodegradable cross-linking of small polymers into larger polymeric structures.

> Mix nucleic acid with cationic polymer solution in transfection medium or phosphate-buffered saline solution.

Nucleic acid-cationic polymer complexes are formed via electrostatic interactions between the polymer and phosphate backbone of the nucleic acid.

Add the nucleic acid-cationic polymer complexes to the cells. The complexes bind to the cell surface via electrostatic interactions.

Nucleic acid-cationic polymer complexes are taken up by the cell via endocytosis and are released into the cytoplasm.

Assay cells for transient gene expression.

Figure 5.4 Cationic polymer-mediated transfection workflow.

Viral delivery For cell types not amenable to lipid-mediated transfection, viral vectors are often employed. Virus-mediated transfection, also known as transduction, offers a means to reach hard-to-transfect cell types for protein overexpression or knockdown, and it is the most commonly used method in clinical research (Glover *et al*., 2005; Pfeifer and Verma, 2001). Adenoviral, oncoretroviral, and lentiviral vectors have been used extensively for gene delivery in mammalian cell culture and *in vivo*. Other well-known examples for viral gene transfer include baculovirus and vaccinia virus-based vectors. For the more information on various viral delivery systems, see **Virus-Mediated Gene Transfer**, page 58.

While viruses are the preferred system for gene delivery in clinical trials owing to their high *in vivo* transfection efficiency and sustained gene expression due to their integration into the host genome, they have a number of drawbacks including their immunogenicity and cytotoxicity, technically challenging and laborious production procedures for vectors, high costs due to biosafety requirements, low packaging capacity (\sim 10 kb for most viral vectors compared to \sim 100 kb for non-viral vectors), and variability in the infectivity of viral vector preparations (Glover *et al*., 2005; Kim and Eberwine, 2010; Vorburger and Hunt, 2002).

A typical transduction protocol involves engineering of the recombinant virus carrying the transgene, amplification of recombinant viral particles in a packaging cell line, purification and titration of amplified viral particles, and subsequent infection of the cells of interest. While the achieved transduction efficiencies in primary cells and cell lines are quite high (~90–100%), only cells carrying the viral-specific receptor can be infected by the virus. It is also important to note that the packaging cell line used for viral amplification needs to be transfected with a non-viral transfection method.

Figure 5.5 Viral delivery workflow.

Electroporation Electroporation is a physical transfection method that uses an electrical pulse to create temporary pores in cell membranes through which substances like nucleic acids can pass into cells. It is a highly efficient strategy for the introduction of foreign nucleic acids into many cell types, including bacteria and mammalian cells.

> Electroporation is based on a simple process. Host cells and selected molecules are suspended in a conductive solution, and an electrical circuit is closed around the mixture. An electrical pulse at an optimized voltage and only lasting a few microseconds to a millisecond is discharged through the cell suspension. This disturbs the phospholipid bilayer of the membrane and results in the formation of temporary pores. The electric potential across the cell membrane simultaneously rises to allow charged molecules like DNA to be driven across the membrane through the pores in a manner similar to electrophoresis (Shigekawa and Dower, 1988).

The main advantage of electroporation is its applicability for transient and stable transfection of all cell types. Furthermore, because electroporation is easy and rapid, it is able to transfect a large number of cells in a short time once optimum electroporation conditions are determined. The major drawback of electroporation is substantial cell death caused by high voltage pulses and only partially successful membrane repair, requiring the use of greater quantities of cells compared to chemical transfection methods. While more modern instrumentation, such as the Neon® Transfection System offered by Life Technologies™, overcome high cell mortality by distributing the electrical pulse equally among the cells and maintaining a stable pH throughout the electroporation chamber, optimization of pulse and field strength parameters is still required to balance the electroporation efficiency and cell viability (see **Neon® Transfection System**, page 60).

Prepare cells by suspending in electroporation buffer.

Apply electrical pulse to cells in the presence of specilized buffer and nucleic acids.

Electrical pulse creates a potential difference across the cell membrane and induces temporary pores in the membrane for nucleic acid entry.

Return cells to growth conditions and allow them to recover.

Assay cells for gene expression or silencing.

Figure 5.6 Electroporation workflow.

Other physical delivery

methods Physical gene delivery methods other than electroporation include **biolistic particle delivery**, **direct microinjection**, and **laser-mediated transfection**. Although these physical methods differ in the tools they employ, they all enable the direct transfer of nucleic acids into the cytoplasm or the nucleus by membrane penetration without using chemicals or viruses.

> In brief, **biolistic particle delivery**, also known as particle bombardment, involves projecting microscopic heavy-metal particles (often gold or tungsten) coated with nucleic acids into recipient cells at high velocity using a ballistic device (i.e., "gene gun"). Biolistic particle delivery can be used to transiently transfect dividing and non-dividing cells in culture as well as cells *in vivo*, and it is often used for genetic vaccination and agriculture applications (Klein *et al*., 1992; Ye *et al*., 1990; Burkholder *et al*., 1993). While this technique is reliable and fast, it requires costly equipment, causes physical damage to the samples, and necessitates high cell numbers due to high mortality.

> **Direct microinjection** delivers nucleic acids into the cytoplasm or the nucleus one cell at a time by means of a fine needle; therefore, this method is limited to *ex vivo* applications such as the transfer of genes into oocytes to engineer transgenic animals or the delivery of artificial chromosomes (Cappechi, 1980; Cappechi, 1989; Telenius *et al*., 1999). Although direct microinjection is nearly 100% efficient, it demands considerable technical skill, is extremely labor-intensive, and often causes cell death. As such, this method is not appropriate for studies that require the transfection of large number of cells.

Laser-mediated transfection, also known as phototransfection, laserfection, or optoporation, uses a laser pulse to transiently permeabilize the cell membrane (Shirahata *et al*., 2001; Schneckenburger *et al*., 2002). When the laser induces a pore in the membrane, the osmotic difference between the medium and the cytosol facilitates the entry of nucleic acids or other desired substances in the medium (ions, small molecules, proteins, semiconductor nanocrystals, etc.) into the cell. Advantages of laser-mediated transfection include high transfection efficiency and the ability to make pores at any location on the cell. However, the method requires an expensive laser-microscope system and the cells to be attached to a substrate.

In addition to the methods mentioned above, other physical delivery technologies use hydrodynamic pressure, ultrasound, or magnetic field to drive naked nucleic acids or nucleic acid-particle complexes into recipient cells.

Cationic Lipid-Mediated Transfection

Mechanism Specially designed cationic lipids, such as the Lipofectamine[®] Transfection Reagents, facilitate DNA and siRNA delivery into cells (Chesnoy and Huang, 2000; Hirko *et al*., 2003; Liu *et al.*, 2003). The basic structure of cationic lipids consists of a positively charged head group and one or two hydrocarbon chains. The charged head group governs the interaction between the lipid and the phosphate backbone of the nucleic acid, and facilitates DNA condensation. Often, cationic lipids are formulated with a neutral co-lipid or helper lipid, followed by extrusion or microfluidization, which results in a unilamellar liposomal structure with a positive surface charge when in water.

> The positive surface charge of the liposomes mediates the interaction of the nucleic acid and the cell membrane, allowing for fusion of the liposome/nucleic acid **transfection complex** with the negatively charged cell membrane. The transfection complex is thought to enter the cell through endocytosis. Endocytosis is the process where a localized region of the cellular membrane uptakes the DNA:liposome complex by forming a membrane bound/intracellular vesicle. Once inside the cell, the complex must escape the endosomal pathway, diffuse through the cytoplasm, and enter the nucleus for gene expression. Cationic lipids are thought to facilitate transfection during the early steps of the process by mediating DNA condensation and DNA/cellular interactions.

> The principle of delivery using cationic lipid reagents thus differs from prior attempts to use neutral liposomes for transfections. With cationic lipid reagents, the DNA solution is not deliberately encapsulated within the liposomes; rather, the negatively charged DNA binds spontaneously to the positively charged liposomes, forming DNAcationic lipid reagent complexes.

> Some of the problems associated with traditional transfection methods like calcium phosphate co-precipitation, DEAE-dextran, polybrene, and electroporation include low efficiency of DNA delivery, poor reproducibility, cell toxicity, and inconvenience. In contrast, cationic lipid reagent-mediated transfection yields high and previously unattainable transfection efficiencies in a wide variety of eukaryotic cells. It is simple to perform, and ensures consistently reproducible results. Moreover, a number of cell lines normally resistant to transfection by other methods transfect successfully with cationic lipid reagents.

Figure 5.7 Mechanism of cationic lipid-mediated delivery.

Cationic lipid transfection

reagents Cationic lipid-mediated delivery is a fast, simple, and reproducible means for easily introducing DNA, RNA, siRNA, or oligonucleotides into eukaryotic cells. It allows the highly efficient transfection of a broad range of cell types, including adherent, suspension, and insect cells, as well as primary cultures. When selecting a transfection reagent, you must consider the **payload** you wish to deliver (DNA, RNA, or protein) and the **type of cells** you want to transfect, because the choice of the transfection reagent strongly influences transfections results.

> The table below lists the key features and applications of various cationic-lipid transfection reagents available from Life Technologies™. For more information on each transfection reagent and for optimized transfection protocols for a wide range of cell lines, go to **www.lifetechnologies.com/transfection**.

inhibition of gene expression

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protein mRNA for expression of protein $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \end{bmatrix}$ inhibition of gene expression

protein, shRNA, and miRNA

J, A

Plasmid DNA for expression of

RNAi vectors and siRNAs

inhibition of gene expression

Virus-Mediated Gene Transfer

Lentiviruses are a subgroup of the retrovirus family; as such, they can integrate into the host cell genome to allow stable, long-term expression (Anson, 2004). In contrast to other retroviruses, lentiviruses are more versatile tools as they use an active nuclear import pathway to transduce non-dividing, terminally differentiated cell populations such as neuronal and hematopoietic cells.

Adeno-associated viruses are capable of transducing a broad range of dividing and non-dividing cells types, but they require coinfection with a helper virus like adenovirus or herpes virus to produce recombinant virions in packaging cells. This causes difficulties in obtaining high quality viral stocks that are free of helper viruses. Furthermore, adeno-associated viruses have only limited packaging capacity of up to 4.9 kb. On the other hand, adeno-associated viruses show low immunogenicity in most cell types, and they have the ability to integrate into a specific region of the human chromosome, thereby avoiding insertional mutagenesis.

Other viral vector systems that can be used for overexpression of proteins include vectors based on **baculovirus**, **vaccinia virus,** and **herpes simplex virus**. While baculoviruses normally infect insect cells, recombinant baculoviruses can serve as gene-transfer vehicles for transient expression of recombinant proteins in a wide range of mammalian cell types. Furthermore, by including a dominant selectable marker in the baculoviral vector, cell lines can be derived that stably express recombinant genes (Condreay *et al*., 1999). Vectors based on vaccinia virus can be used for introducing large DNA fragments into a wide range of mammalian cells. However, cells infected with vaccinia virus die within one or two days, limiting this system to transient protein production. Herpex simplex viruses are a class of double-stranded DNA viruses that infect neurons.

Neon® Transfection System

The Neon® Transfection System, a second-generation benchtop electroporation device offered by Life Technologies™, uses an electronic pipette tip as an electroporation chamber to efficiently transfect mammalian cells including primary and immortalized hematopoietic cells, stem cells, and primary cells. The design of the electroporation chamber distributes the current equally among the cells and maintains a stable pH throughout the chamber, resulting in less ion formation and negligible heat generation for increased cell viability and transfection efficiency compared to traditional cuvettebased electroporation systems.

The Neon® Transfection System efficiently delivers nucleic acids, proteins, and siRNA into all mammalian cell types, including primary and stem cells, with a high cell survival rate. The transfection is performed using as few as 1 \times 10^4 or as many as 5 \times 10^6 cells per reaction using a sample volume of 10 μL or 100 μL in a variety of cell culture formats (60-mm, 6-well, 48-well, and 24-well).

Because the Neon® Transfection System uses a single transfection kit (Neon® Kit) that is compatible with various mammalian cell types including primary and stem cells, the need to determine an optimal buffer for each cell type is avoided. Furthermore, the Neon® device is pre-programmed with a 24-well optimization protocol to optimize conditions for nucleic acid/siRNA and cell type, and allows the programming and storage of up to 50 cell-specific protocols in the Neon® device database. Optimized protocols can also be conveniently downloaded from **www.lifetechnologies.com/neon** to maximize transfection efficiencies for many commonly used cell types.

Cell types successfully transfected with the Neon® Transfection System*

Cell types successfully transfected with the Neon® Transfection System, continued*

Selection of Stable Transfectants

Successful stable transfection requires both effective DNA delivery and a way to select cells that have acquired the DNA. Approximately one in 10^4 transfected cells will stably integrate DNA, although the efficiency varies with cell type and whether linear or circular DNA is used. Integration is most efficient when linear DNA is used.

One of the most reliable ways to select cells that stably express transfected DNA is to include a selectable marker on the DNA construct used for transfection or on a separate vector that is co-transfected into the cell, and then apply the appropriate selective pressure to the cells after a short recovery period. When the selectable marker is expressed from the co-transfected vector, the molar ratio of the vector carrying the gene of interest to the vector carrying the selectable marker should be in the range of 5:1 to 10:1 to ensure that any cell that contains the selectable marker also contains the gene of interest.

Frequently used selectable markers are genes that confer resistance to various selection drugs or genes that compensate for an essential gene that is defective in the cell line to be transfected. When cultured in selective medium, cells that were not transfected or were transiently transfected will die, and those that express the antibiotic resistance gene at sufficient levels or those that can compensate for the defect in the essential gene will survive.

Selection antibiotics for

Life Technologies™ offers high-quality selection reagents to complement its wide variety of selectable eukaryotic expression vectors. Geneticin® (G418 sulfate), Zeocin™, hygromycin B, puromycin, and blasticidin antibiotics are the most commonly used selection antibiotics for stable cell transfection. These antibiotics provide unique solutions for your research needs, such as dual selection and rapid, stable cell line establishment.

Geneticin® Selection Antibiotic

Geneticin[®] reagent, also known as G418 sulfate, is commonly used for the selection of mammalian, plant, or yeast cells. The higher purity of Geneticin® reagent available from Life Technologies™ means that 15–30% lower concentrations are required compared to other G418 products; therefore, surviving clonal colonies may arise faster, and cells appear healthier.

Zeocin™ Selection Antibiotic

Zeocin™ reagent is effective in mammalian cell lines, yeast, insect cells, and bacteria. Resistance to Zeocin™ reagent is conferred by the *She ble* gene, which prevents the binding of Zeocin $^{\mathbb{N}}$ reagent and cleavage of cellular DNA in cells expressing the protein. The concentration required for selection ranges from 50 to 2,000 μg/mL (typically 300 μg/mL), depending on the cell type.

Hygromycin B Selection Antibiotic

Hygromycin B is an aminoglycosidic antibiotic that inhibits protein synthesis by disrupting translocation and promoting mistranslation of the 80S ribosome. Because its mode of action is different from Geneticin® or Zeocin™ reagents, hygromycin B can be used in dual-selection experiments. Resistance to hygromycin B is conferred by the *E. coli* hygromycin resistance gene (*hyg* or *hph*). The concentration for selection ranges from 100 to 1,000 μg/mL (typically 200 μg/mL), and should be optimized for each cell line.

Puromycin Dihydrochloride Selection Antibiotic

Puromycin, a translation inhibitor in both prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells, is an aminonucleoside antibiotic from *Streptomyces alboniger*. Resistance is conferred by the puromycin N-acetyltransferase gene (*pac*) from *Streptomyces*. Puromycin has a fast mode action, causing rapid cell death even at low antibiotic concentrations, allowing the generation of puromycin-resistant stable cell lines in less than one week. Adherent mammalian cells are sensitive to concentrations of 2–5 μg/mL, while cells in suspension are sensitive to concentrations as low as 0.5–2 μg/mL.

Blasticidin S HCl Selection Antibiotic

Blasticidin, a potent translational inhibitor in both prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells, is a nucleoside antibiotic from *Streptomyces griseochromogenes*. Resistance is conferred by the *bsd* gene product from *Aspergillus terreus*. *E. coli* strains are generally sensitive to concentrations of 50 μ g/mL, while mammalian cells are sensitive to concentrations as low as 2–10 μg/mL. Cell death occurs rapidly in cells sensitive to blasticidin, and blasticidin-resistant, stable mammalian cell lines can be generated in less than one week at low antibiotic concentrations.

Reporter Gene Assays

Reporter genes are genes whose products can be readily assayed subsequent to transfection, and can be used as markers for screening successfully transfected cells, for studying regulation of gene expression, or serve as controls for standardizing transfection efficiencies. The ideal reporter gene should be absent from the cells used in the study or easily distinguishable from the native form of the gene, assayed conveniently, and have a broad linear detection range. It is also important that the presence of the reporter gene does not affect the normal physiology and general health of the transfected cells. Reporter genes can be expressed constitutively or inducably with an external intervention such as the introduction of IPTG in the β -galactosidase system. Generally, reporter gene assays are performed 1–3 days after transfection; however the optimal time for the assay should be determined empirically. Transfection assays In contrast to selectable markers, which protect an organism from a selective agent that would normally kill it or prevent its growth, reporter genes used for screening transfectants make the cells containing the reporter gene visually identifiable. Reporter genes used in this way are normally expressed under their own promoter independent from that of the introduced gene of interest, allowing the screening of successfully transfected cells even when the gene of interest is only expressed under certain specific conditions or in tissues that are difficult to access. Reporter genes can also serve as controls for transfection. For example, transfection efficiencies between different experiments can be normalized by comparing the expression levels of a reporter gene used in all of the experiments.

RNAi and Non-coding RNA Research

RNA interference (RNAi) is a very powerful tool for studying the basic biology of cells, allowing the knockdown of gene expression to study protein function in a wide range of cell types. Once viewed as a technique used only by select laboratories, RNAi is now considered essential for studying gene function. It has become a prominent tool for protein knockdown studies, phenotype analysis, function recovery, pathway analysis, *in vivo* knockdown, and drug target discovery.

Glossary of common RNAi terms RNAi

Ribonucleic acid interference (first used by A. Fire and C. Mello *et al*., 1998).

siRNA

Short interfering RNA. siRNAs are 21–25 bp dsRNAs with dinucleotide 3' overhangs and are processed from longer dsRNA by Dicer in the RNA interference pathway. Introduction of synthetic siRNAs can induce RNAi in mammalian cells. siRNAs can also originate from endogenous precursors.

shRNA

Short hairpin RNA; also short interfering hairpin. shRNAs are used in vector-based approaches for supplying siRNA to cells for stable gene silencing. A strong Pol III-type promoter is used to drive transcription of a target sequence designed to form hairpins and loops of variable length, which are processed by cellular siRNA machinery. Once in the cell, the shRNA can decrease the expression of a gene with complementary sequences by RNAi.

miR RNAi

Vectors that express microRNAs for RNAi. miRNAs are 19–23 nt single-stranded RNAs, originating from single-stranded precursor transcripts that are characterized by imperfectly base-paired hairpins. miRNAs function in a silencing complex that is similar, if not identical, to RISC (see below).

Chemically modified siRNA

siRNA molecules which have chemical modifications.

RISC

RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC). A nuclease complex composed of proteins and siRNA that targets and cleaves endogenous mRNAs complementary to the siRNA within the RISC complex.

Off-target effects

Effects that occur when one or a few genes not specifically targeted show loss of gene function following the introduction of an siRNA or d-siRNA pool. The effect may be mediated by the sense strand of an siRNA, which may initiate a loss-of-function response from an unrelated gene. Off-target effects can also occur as a secondary effect of the antisense strand of a specific siRNA, if it has sufficient homology to knock down the expression of a non-target gene.

How RNAi works Two types of small RNA molecules function in RNAi. The first are synthetic, short interfering RNA (siRNA) molecules that target mRNA cleavage, effectively knocking down the expression of a gene of interest. MicroRNA (miRNA) molecules, on the other hand, are naturally occurring single-stranded RNAs 19–22 nucleotides long, which regulate gene expression by binding to the 3' untranslated regions (UTRs) of target mRNAs and inhibiting their translation (Ambros, 2004). For more information on RNAi, go to **www.lifetechnologies.com/rnai**.

siRNA analysis There are several ways to induce RNAi: synthetic molecules, RNAi vectors, and *in vitro* dicing (Figure 5.8, below). In mammalian cells, short pieces of dsRNA—short interfering RNA— initiate the specific degradation of a targeted cellular mRNA. In this process, the antisense strand of siRNA becomes part of a multiprotein complex, or RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC), which then identifies the corresponding mRNA and cleaves it at a specific site. Next, this cleaved message is targeted for degradation, which ultimately results in the loss of protein expression. For more information on siRNA analysis, go to **www.lifetechnologies.com/sirna**.

Figure 5.8 Methods of RNAi knockdown in mammalian cells.

miRNA analysis Both RNA polymerase II and III transcribe miRNA-containing genes, generating long primary transcripts (pri-miRNAs) that are processed by the RNase III–type enzyme Drosha, yielding hairpin structures 70 to 90 bp in length (pre-miRNAs). Pre-miRNA hairpins are exported to the cytoplasm, where they are further processed by the RNase III protein Dicer into short double-stranded miRNA duplexes 19 to 22 nucleotides long. The miRNA duplex is recognized by the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC), a multipleprotein nuclease complex, and one of the two strands, the guide strand, assists this protein complex in recognizing its cognate mRNA transcript. The RISC-miRNA complex often interacts with the 3' UTR of target mRNAs at regions exhibiting imperfect sequence homology, inhibiting protein synthesis by a mechanism that has yet to be fully elucidated (Figure 5.9, below).

Plant miRNAs can bind to sequences on target mRNAs by exact or near-exact complementary base pairing and thereby direct cleavage and destruction of the mRNA (Rhoades *et al*., 2002; Chen, 2005). Similar to the mechanism employed in RNA interference (RNAi), the cleavage of a single phosphodiester bond on the target mRNA occurs between bases 10 and 11 (Elbashir *et al*., 2001). In contrast, nearly all animal miRNAs studied so far do not exhibit perfect complementarity to their mRNA targets, and seem to inhibit protein synthesis while retaining the stability of the mRNA target (Ambros, 2004). It has been suggested that transcripts may be regulated by multiple miRNAs, and an individual miRNA may target numerous transcripts. Research suggests that as many as one-third of human genes may be regulated by miRNAs (Lim *et al*., 2003). Although hundreds of miRNAs have been discovered in a variety of organisms, little is known about their cellular function. Several unique physical attributes of miRNAs, including their small size, lack of polyadenylated tails, and tendency to bind their mRNA targets with imperfect sequence homology, have made them elusive and challenging to study. For more information on miRNA analysis, go to **www.lifetechnologies.com/mirna**.

Figure 5.9 Biogenesis and function of miRNA. MicroRNA transcripts, generated by RNA polymerases II and III, are processed by the RNase III enzymes Drosha (nuclear) and Dicer (cytoplasmic), yielding 19–22 nucleotide miRNA duplexes. One of the two strands of the duplex is incorporated into the RISC complex,which regulates protein expression.

Choosing an RNAi

approach The process of RNAi (RNA interference) can be moderated by either siRNA or miRNA. Both are processed inside the cell by the enzyme called Dicer and incorporated into a complex called RISC (RNA-induced silencing complex). However, there are subtle differences between the two.

> siRNA is an exogenous double-stranded RNA that can either be chemically synthesized and then directly transfected into cells, or generated inside the cell by introducing vectors that express short-hairpin RNA (shRNA), which are the precursors of siRNAs. miRNA, on the other hand, is single stranded and comes from endogenous non-coding RNA found within the introns of larger RNA molecules. However, the processing of shRNA into functional siRNA involves the same cellular RNAi machinery that naturally processes genome-encoded miRNAs, which are responsible for cellular regulation of gene expression by modulating mRNA stability, translation, and chromatin structures (Hutvagner and Zamore, 2002).

Another difference between siRNA and miRNA is that siRNA typically binds perfectly and specifically to its mRNA target in animals, while miRNA can inhibit translation of many different mRNA sequences because its pairing is imperfect. In plants, miRNA tends to have a more perfectly complimentary sequence, which induces mRNA cleavage as opposed to just repression of translation.

Both siRNA and miRNA can play a role in epigenetics through a process called RNAinduced transcriptional silencing (RITS). Likewise, both are important targets for therapeutic use because of the roles they play in the controlling gene expression.

* Table adapted from Mack, 2007.

6. Transfection Methods

This section provides useful information and general guidelines for the transfection of cells with plasmid DNA, oligonucleotides, and RNA, preparation of cultures for *in vitro* and *in vivo* transfection, and selection of transfected cells.

Note that while the basics of transfection experiments share certain similarities, conditions vary widely depending upon the cell type used for transfection. Therefore, we recommend that you familiarize yourself with the cell line of interest and the appropriate transfection method, and closely follow the instructions provided with each product you are using in your experiments.

Factors Influencing Transfection Efficiency

Successful transfection is influenced by many factors—the choice of the transfection method, health and viability of the cell line, number of passages, degree of confluency, quality and quantity of the nucleic acid used, and the presence or absence of serum in the medium can all play a part in the outcome of your transfection experiment. While it is possible to optimize specific transfection conditions to achieve high transfection efficiencies, it is important to note that some cell death is inevitable regardless of the transfection method used.

Cell type The choice of which cell type to use for a transfection experiment may seem obvious, but it is a critical factor that is often overlooked. Since each cell type is likely to respond differently to a given transfection reagent or method, choosing the appropriate cell type and proper experimental design are necessary to maximize results.

> While established continuous cell lines are easier to work with in the laboratory, they may not be the best choice for modeling *in vivo* processes because of the multiple genetic changes that they have undergone. However, if the purpose of the transfection experiment is high-level production of recombinant proteins, it is not important that the cell line represents the *in vivo* situation as long as the cell line can express sufficient quantities of recombinant proteins with proper folding and post-translational modifications. For example, transient transfection of suspension-adapted Expi293F[™] cells grown in Expi293™ Expression Medium enables researchers to produce, starting from the vector of interest, greater than 1 g/L of correctly folded and glycosylated recombinant proteins.

Primary cultures, on the other hand, are often used because they more closely mimic natural tissues. However, they typically have a limited growth potential and life span, and are more difficult to maintain in culture. When using primary cultures, it is important to maintain a largely homogeneous population of cells (for example, neuronal cultures should be enriched for neurons and suppressed with regard to glial cells) and use the cells as soon as practical.

In addition, biological properties of the cell type must be taken into consideration when designing transfection experiments. For example, some promoters function differently in different cell types and some cell types are not well suited to particular transfection technologies.

Transfection efficiency in cancer cell line panel

Figure 6.1 Cell line-dependent differences in transfection efficiency. Lipofectamine® 2000 reagent and Lipofectamine® 3000 reagent were used to transfect 17 cell lines with a GFP-expressing plasmid in a 24-well plate format, using 0.5 µg plasmid/well and the recommended protocols for each reagent. GFP expression was analyzed 48 hours posttransfection. Each condition was tested in triplicate, and the data points show the mean transfection efficiency plus standard deviation.

Cell health and viability The viability and general health of cells prior to transfection is known to be an important source of variability from one transfection to another. In general, cells should be at least 90% viable prior to transfection and have had sufficient time to recover from passaging. We strongly recommend subculturing cells at least 24 hours before transfection to ensure that they recover from the subculture procedure and are in optimum physiological condition for transfection.

> Cell cultures with immortalized cell lines evolve over months and years in the laboratory, resulting in changes in cell behavior with regard to transfection. Excessive passaging is likely to detrimentally affect transfection efficiency as well as total transgene expression level from the cell population as a whole. In general, we recommend using cells that have undergone less than 30 passages after thawing of a stock culture. Thawing a fresh vial of frozen cells and establishing low-passage cultures for transfection experiments allow the recovery of transfection activity. For optimal reproducibility, aliquots of cells of a low passage number can be stored frozen and thawed as needed. Allow 3 or 4 passages after thawing a new vial of cells.

> Since contamination can drastically alter transfection results, cell cultures and media should be routinely tested for biological contamination (see **Biological Contamination**, page 14), and contaminated cultures and media should never be used for transfection. If cells have been contaminated or their health is compromised in any way, they should be discarded and the culture re-seeded from uncontaminated frozen stocks.

Confluency For optimal transfection results, follow a routine subculturing procedure and passage cultures once or twice a week at a dilution that allows them to become nearly confluent before the next passage. Do not allow the cells to remain confluent for more than 24 hours.

> The optimal cell density for transfection varies for different cell types, applications, and transfection technology, and should be determined for every new cell line to be transfected. Maintaining a standard seeding protocol from experiment to experiment ensures that optimal confluency at the time of transfection is reliably achieved. With cationic lipid-mediated transfection, generally 70–90% confluency for adherent cells or 5×10^5 to 2×10^6 cells/mL for suspension cells at the time of transfection provides good results.

> Make sure that the cells are not confluent or in stationary phase at the time of transfection, because actively dividing cells take up foreign nucleic acid better than quiescent cells. Too high of a cell density can cause contact inhibition, resulting in poor uptake of nucleic acids and/or decreased expression of the transfected gene. However, too few cells in culture may result in poor growth without cell-to-cell contact. In such cases, increasing the number of cells in culture improves the transfection efficiency.

> Similarly, actively dividing cell lines are more efficiently transduced with viral vectors. When transducing a non-dividing cell type with viral constructs, the MOI (i.e., multiplicity of infection) may need to be increased to achieve optimal transduction efficiency and increased expression levels for your recombinant protein.

Media Different cells or cell types have very specific medium, serum, and supplement requirements, and choosing the most suitable medium for the cell type and transfection method plays a very important role in transfection experiments. Information for selecting the appropriate medium for a given cell type and transfection method is usually available in published literature, and may also be obtained from the source of the cells or cell banks. If there is no information available on the appropriate medium for your cell type, you must determine it empirically.

> It is important to use fresh medium, especially if any of the components are unstable, because medium that is missing key components and necessary supplements may harm cell growth.

For cell culture media information, see **Media recommendations for common cell lines**, page 28, or refer to our website (**www.lifetechnologies.com**). Some cell lines and primary cells may need special coating materials (e.g. poly-lysine, collagen, fibronectin etc.) to attach to the culture plates and get the optimal transfection results.

Serum In general, the presence of serum in culture medium enhances transfection with DNA. However, when performing cationic lipid-mediated transfection, it is important to form DNA-lipid complexes in the absence of serum because some serum proteins interfere with complex formation. Note that the optimal amounts of cationic lipid reagent and DNA may change in the presence of serum; thus, transfection conditions should be optimized when using serum-containing transfection medium.

> When transfecting cells with RNA, we recommend performing the transfection procedure in the absence of serum to avoid possible contamination with RNases. Most cells remain healthy for several hours in a serum-free medium.

Selecting a Transfection Method (non-viral)

When selecting a transfection method, consider the **payload** you wish to deliver (DNA, RNA, or protein) and the **type of cells** you want to transfect. Use the tables below to choose between the various cationic-lipid transfection reagents and the Neon® Transfection System available from Life Technologies™. For more information on each transfection method, as well as optimized protocols for the transfection of wide range of cell lines, go to **www.lifetechnologies.com/transfection**.

Continuous cell lines **Continuous cell lines** are capable of unlimited proliferative potential, and are generally easier to work with than primary or finite cell cultures. However, because these cells have undergone genetic transformation to become immortalized, their behavior in culture may not necessarily reflect the *in vivo* situation.

Primary cells and finite

Primary cells are isolated directly from the tissue and proliferated under appropriate conditions. As such, they are morphologically and physiologically more similar to an *in vivo* state. However, they are usually more difficult to culture and transfect than continuous cell lines.

After the first subculture, the primary culture becomes known as a **cell line**. Cell lines derived from primary cultures have a limited life span (i.e., they are **finite**), and as they are passaged, cells with the highest growth capacity predominate, resulting in a degree of genotypic and phenotypic uniformity in the population. Therefore, their phenotype is intermediate between primary cells and continuous cultures. The use of such cells is sometimes easier than the use of primary cells, especially for the generation of stably transfected clones.

Selecting a Viral DNA Delivery System

There are many options in selecting a viral delivery system matched to your specific needs. Life Technologies™ offers a variety of viral vector systems for delivering nucleic acids into mammalian and insect cells for protein expression and RNAi studies.

Expression in

mammalian cells ViraPower™ Expression Systems from Life Technologies™ use replication-incompetent viral particles to ensure safe and highly-efficient delivery of expression constructs for high-level constitutive or inducible expression in any mammalian cell type. A number of vectors available for use with the ViraPower™ systems offer various options for cloning method (TOPO® or Gateway® cloning, or GeneArt® genetic assembly) and promoter choice (constitutive or inducible), allowing the optimization of the experiment for each cell line or animal model.

- **ViraPower™ Lentiviral Expression System** allows stable protein expression in dividing and non-dividing cells (e.g., stem cells, primary neuronal cells), and are ideal for analysis of long-term gene expression and functional analysis studies.
- **ViraPower™ HiPerform™ Lentiviral Expression System** improves on the existing lentiviral systems by including the woodchuck posttranscriptional regulatory element (WPRE) and the central polypurine tract(cPPT) sequence from the HIV-1 integrase gene in the viral vectors for increased expression and increased lentiviral integration into the host genome, respectively. The ViraPower™ HiPerform™ kits have two versions: kits for high accuracy titer, allowing for precise control of copy number per cell, or kits for fast titering, which are ideal for high throughput screening studies.
- **ViraPower™ Lentiviral T-REx™ System** combines the ViraPower™ HiPerform™ Lentiviral, T-RE x^m , and Gateway® technologies to facilitate easy recombinationbased cloning and lentiviral-based, regulated (Tetracycline-inducible), high-level expression of a target gene in dividing and non-dividing mammalian cells. This system is ideal expressing toxic proteins, because the inducible promoter allows the control of the timing of gene expression.
- **ViraPower™ Adenoviral Expression System** is ideal for protein production, and allows high-level transient gene expression in dividing and non-dividing mammalian cells from the CMV or another promoter of choice. The ViraPower™ Adenoviral System uses Gateway® Technology for fast, easy, and accurate cloning of the gene of interest.

For more information on ViraPower™ expression systems as well as on other expression systems not discussed here, refer to **www.lifetechnologies.com/proteinexpression**.

Expression in insect cells Expression in insect cells offers significant advantages, including high expression levels, ease of scale-up, and simplified cell growth that is readily adapted to high-density suspension culture. Furthermore, because many of the posttranslational modification pathways present in mammalian systems are also utilized in insect cells, proteins produced in insect cells are antigenically, immunogenically, and functionally similar to native mammalian proteins. Life Technologies™ offers powerful and versatile baculovirus expression systems for high-level, recombinant protein expression in insect cells.

- **BaculoDirect™ Baculovirus Expression System** is a fast and easy method for generating recombinant baculovirus using recombinational Gateway® cloning. Baculovirus expression systems typically require bacterial transformation and isolation of a large bacmid or co-transfection of a transfer vector and linear baculovirus DNA into insect cells. The BaculoDirect™ system eliminates these timeconsuming steps, allowing the isolation of purified virus within one week. The reduction of hand-on time for baculovirus generation makes the BaculoDirect™ system ideal for high-throughput expression.
- **Bac-to-Bac® Baculovirus Expression System** uses a unique bacmid shuttle vector that recombines by site-specific transposition to generate an expression bacmid in bacterial cells. The bacmid is then transfected into insect cells for the production of recombinant baculovirus particles. With easy blue/white screening of recombinant colonies, the Bac-to-Bac® Baculovirus Expression System is designed for fast, small scale production of recombinant baculovirus.
- **Bac-to-Bac® HBM Baculovirus Expression System** enables secreted protein expression via the honeybee melittin (HBM) secretion signal, which is ideal for proteins and glycoproteins that require a secretion signal to be glycosylated. In contrast to glycoproteins secreted from mammalian cells, glycoproteins secreted from baculovirus can be easily de-glycosylated *in vitro*, which is essential for crystallizing the proteins.
- **Bac-N-Blue™ Baculovirus Expression System** is the classic and trusted expression system for high-level recombinant protein production in insect cells. Recombinant viral DNA is generated by co-transfection of a transfer vector containing the gene of interest and the linear baculovirus DNA into insect cells. Recombinant baculovirus is isolated using a blue/white plaque visualization method, and then amplified in insect cells to generate a high-titer viral stock to initiate expression studies.

For more information on baculoviral expression systems as well as on other expression systems not discussed here, refer to **www.lifetechnologies.com/proteinexpression**.

Guidelines for Plasmid DNA Transfection

Gene product and

promoter Promoter choice is dependent on the host cell line, the protein to be expressed, and the level of expression desired. Many researchers use the **strong** CMV (cytomegalovirus) promoter because it provides the highest expression activity in the broadest range of cell types. Another strong promoter for high-level protein expression in mammalian cells is the EF-1 α (human elongation factor-1 \square). However, using too strong a promoter to drive the expression of a potentially toxic gene can cause problems in transient transfection of plasmid DNA. For the potentially toxic gene products, use of **weak promoters** are recommended

> Toxic gene products are also a problem for selection of stably transfected cells. Cells expressing a gene for antibiotic resistance lose their growth advantage when such gene expression is detrimental to the health of the transfected cell, which makes it impossible to obtain stably transfected clones with a constitutive promoter. In such cases, an **inducible promoter** can be used to control the timing of gene expression, which will allow for the selection of stable transfectants. Inducible promoters normally require the presence of an inducer molecule (e.g., a metal ion, metabolite, or hormone) to function, but some inducible promoters function in the opposite manner, that is, gene expression is induced in the absence of a specific molecule.

Cell-type specific promoters, such as the polyhedrin promoter for insect cell expression, are also common. Literature searches are the best tool to determine which promoter will work best for your cell line or application.

Controls Regardless of the transfection method used, it is important to perform control transfections to check for cell health, to determine whether the reported assay is working properly, and to establish any insert-related problems. To check for optimal cell growth conditions, include a negative control (no DNA, no transfection reagent). To establish that the reporter assay is working properly, include a positive control (parallel transfection with established transfection method). To determine whether there are insert-related problems, transfect a plasmid without the gene of interest.

Optimization of Plasmid DNA Transfection

With any transfection procedure, a critical first step is to optimize the transfection conditions. Every cell type and transfection procedure has a characteristic set of requirements for optimal introduction of foreign DNA, and these conditions have a large degree of variability even among cell types that are very similar to one another.

The single most important factor in optimizing transfection efficiency is selecting the proper transfection protocol for the cell type. Once the appropriate transfection method is selected, a transient reporter assay system can be used to optimize the procedure by transfecting a reporter gene under a variety of conditions, and monitoring the transfection efficiency by assaying for the reporter gene product.

This section provides general guidelines for optimizing calcium phosphate–mediated gene transfer, electroporation using the Neon® Transfection System, and cationic lipidmediated transfection.

Considerations for calcium phosphate

The primary factors that influence the efficiency of calcium phosphate transfection are the amount of DNA in the calcium-phosphate–DNA co-precipitate, the length of time the cell is incubated with the co-precipitate, and the use and duration of glycerol or DMSO shock.

Total DNA amount used in calcium phosphate transfection is usually 10–50 μg in 450 μL sterile water and 50 μ L of 2.5 M CaCl₂ per 10-cm dish, but varies widely among plasmid preparations as well as with different cells and media. While with some cell lines 10–15 μg of DNA added to a 10-cm dish results in excessive cell death and very little uptake of DNA, other cell lines, especially primary cells, much higher concentrations of DNA is required. Each new plasmid preparation and each new cell line being transfected should be tested for optimum DNA concentration.

The optimal length of time that the cells are incubated with co-precipitate also varies with cell type. Some hardy cell types, such as HeLa, NIH 3T3, and BALB/c 3T3, are efficiently transfected by leaving the co-precipitate on for up to 16 hours, which might kill some more sensitive cells.

A pilot experiment varying the amount of DNA, incubation time, and exposure to glycerol or DMSO shock will indicate whether the cell type is tolerant to long exposure to a calcium phosphate precipitate and whether glycerol shock should be used. Once the results of the pilot experiment are obtained, further optimization can be performed by adjusting the experimental variables even finer. For instance, if shocking the cells with 10% glycerol for 3 minutes as shown in the example below enhances transfection efficiency, an experiment varying the time of glycerol shock or using 10–20% DMSO shock might also be tried.

Figure 6.2 Pilot experiment example for the optimization of transfection by calcium phosphate co-precipitation**.**

Considerations for cationic lipid-mediated

delivery Four primary parameters affect the success of DNA transfection by cationic liposomes: the amount of DNA, the ratio of transfection reagent to DNA, incubation time of the lipid-DNA complex, and the cell density at the time of complex addition. These factors should be systematically examined for every cell type and vector combination, and once optimized, kept constant in all future experiments to help ensure reproducible results.

> For best results, follow the optimization protocols provided by the manufacturers of the reagent. Life Technologies™ provides optimization protocols for all of its transfection reagents. For more information, refer to **www.lifetechnologies.com/transfection**.

Amount of DNA

The optimal amount of DNA varies depending on the characteristics of the transfected plasmid (e.g., promoter, size of plasmid, origin of replication), number of cells to be transfected, size of the culture dish, and the target cell line used. In many of the cell types tested, relatively small amounts of DNA are effectively taken up and expressed. In fact, higher levels of DNA can be inhibitory in some cell types with certain cationic lipid preparations. In addition, cytotoxicity may result if a plasmid encoding a toxic protein or too much plasmid with a high expression rate is used.

Ratio of transfection reagent to DNA

The overall charge of the transfection complexes is determined by the ratio of transfection reagent to DNA. The negative charge contributed by phosphates within the DNA backbone needs to be offset by the positive charge contributed from the transfection reagent for both good complex formation and for neutralizing the electrostatic repulsion imparted on the DNA by the negatively charged cell membrane.

The optimal ratio of transfection reagent to DNA is highly cell type-dependent. As a starting point, the amount of transfection reagent should be varied while keeping a constant plasmid DNA concentration (for example, 1:1, 3:1 and 5:1 ratios of volume to mass). Additional benefits may be derived by maintaining the ratio and increasing the amount of plasmid added.

Incubation time

The optimal incubation period of cells with the transfection complexes depends on the cell line and transfection reagent used. In general, transfection efficiency increases with time of exposure to the lipid reagent-DNA complex, although toxic conditions can develop with prolonged exposure to certain lipid reagents, requiring removal by centrifugation or dilution with fresh medium after a given incubation period to minimize cytotoxic effects. However, newer and gentler transfection reagents such as the Lipofectamine® 3000 reagent do not necessitate complex removal or dilution after transfection (see **www.lifetechnologies.com/3000** for more information).

When using cationic lipid reagents that require adding or replacing the medium, vary the incubation time after complex addition (e.g., 30 minutes to 4 hours, or even overnight) and monitor cell morphology during the this interval, particularly if the cells are maintained in serum-free medium as some cell lines lose viability under these conditions.

Cell density

Cell density also affects overall transfection efficiency. To achieve transcription and ultimately protein production, nuclear deposition of DNA is required, which is largely dependent on membrane dissolution and reformation during mitosis, requiring that the cells have to be actively dividing.

For adherent cells, the best efficiency is often attained at a confluency of 80%, but protocol recommendations may range from 40–90%. For suspension cells, we recommend splitting the cells the day prior to transfection to ensure that the cells will be in optimal physiological condition for the transfection procedure. The optimal density is highly dependent on cell type and reagent-specific toxicity, and should be determined empirically.

Figure 6.3 Example transfection workflow using the Lipofectamine® 3000 transfection reagent**.**

Considerations for

electroporation Electroporation is mainly dependent on the combination of three electric parameters: the pulse voltage, pulse width, and pulse number. Perhaps because it is not a chemically based protocol, electroporation is less affected by DNA concentration; however, it requires almost five-fold more cells and DNA compared to calcium phosphate-mediated transfection. Generally, $1-5 \mu g$ of DNA per 10^7 cells is sufficient, and there is a good linear correlation between the amount of DNA present and the amount taken up.

> The objective in optimizing electroporation parameters is to find a pulse that maintains 40–80% survival of the cells. The pulse width is determined by the capacitance of the power source and the extent to which this can be varied depends on the electronics of the power supply generating the pulse. If excessive cell death occurs, the length of the pulse can be lowered by lowering the capacitance.

Keeping cells on ice often improves cell viability and results in higher effective transfection frequency, especially at high power which can lead to heating (Potter *et al*., 1984). However, some cell lines electroporate with higher efficiency at room temperature under low voltage/high capacitance conditions (Chu *et al*., 1991).

The Neon® Transfection System, available from Life Technologies™, is pre-programmed with 18- and 24-well optimization protocols that allow quick optimization of electric parameters for many adherent and suspension cell lines within days. Cell line-specific optimized protocols for the Neon® Transfection System can also be conveniently downloaded from **www.lifetechnologies.com/neon** to maximize transfection efficiencies for many commonly used cell types.

Selection of Stable Transfectants

Selection of stably transfected cells begins with successful transient transfection with a plasmid containing a selectable marker, such as an antibiotic resistance gene. As a negative control, cells should be transfected using DNA that does not contain the selectable marker.

- **Before starting** Ensure that the cell line you are using can produce colonies from isolated cells as some cells require contact with one another to grow. For such cells, adapted or conditioned medium may be beneficial.
	- Choose an appropriate selectable marker (see **Selection Antibiotics for Eukaryotic Cells**, page 62).
	- Select a transfection procedure suitable for your cell type.
	- Determine the selective conditions for your cell type by establishing a dose-response curve (**kill curve**) (Ausubel *et al*. 1995).
	- Kill curve A kill curve should be established for each cell type and each time a new lot of the selective antibiotic is used.
		- **1.** Split a confluent dish of cells at approximately 1:5 to 1:10 (depending on the cell type and cell density post-transfection) into medium containing various concentrations of the antibiotic.
		- **2.** Incubate the cells for 10 days replacing selective medium every 4 days (or as needed).
		- **3.** Examine the dishes for viable cells using the desired method (e.g., Countess[®] II Automated Cell Counter, hemocytometer with trypan blue staining).
		- **4.** Plot the number of viable cells versus antibiotic concentration to establish a kill curve to determine the most appropriate selective drug concentration required to kill untransfected cells.
- Selection workflow **1.** Transfect the cells using the desired transfection method. If the selectable marker is on a separate vector, use a 5:1 to 10:1 molar ratio of plasmid containing the gene of interest to plasmid containing the selectable marker.

Note: Perform control transfections with a vector containing the selectable marker but not the gene of interest. If colonies are obtained from cells transfected with the control plasmid but not from cells transfected with plasmid containing the gene of interest, indicating that the gene of interest may be toxic. It is also important to perform replicate transfections in case the transfection fails or the cultures become contaminated.

 2. Forty-eight hours after transfection, passage the cells at several different dilutions (e.g., 1:100, 1:500) in medium containing the appropriate selection drug. For effective selection, cells should be subconfluent, because confluent, non-growing cells are resistant to the effects of antibiotics like Geneticin®. Suspension cells can be selected in soft agar or in 96-well plates for single-cell cloning.

 3. For the next two weeks, replace the drug-containing medium every 3 to 4 days (or as needed).

Note: High cell densities in suspension cultures require frequent medium changes that may deplete critical soluble growth factors, thereby reducing cell viability and the efficiency of the system.

- **4.** During the second week, monitor cells for distinct "islands" of surviving cells. Depending on the cell type, drug-resistant clones will appear in 2–5 weeks. Cell death should occur after 3–9 days in cultures transfected with the negative control plasmid.
- **5.** Isolate large (500–1,000 cells), healthy colonies using cloning cylinders or sterile toothpicks, and continue to maintain cultures in medium containing the appropriate drug (for the isolation of clones in suspension culture, see Freshney, 1993).
- **6.** Transfer single cells from resistant colonies into the wells of 96-well plates to confirm that they can yield antibiotic-resistant colonies. Ensure that only one cell is present per well after the transfer.

Selecting a RNAi Strategy

Non-vector siRNA

technologies For transient knockdown experiments, synthetic, non-vector approaches offer significant advantages over vector-based methods for RNAi delivery. In particular, nonvector experiments are typically easier to design and perform and can result in higher levels of transient knockdown. In addition, recent improvements in RNAi design have increased the likelihood of achieving high-level knockdown after testing only a few RNAi molecules. Consequently, using synthetically generated RNA duplexes is the most popular method for conducting RNAi experiments.

Synthetic siRNAs

Traditional RNAi methods for gene knockdown in mammalian cells involved the use of synthetic RNA duplexes consisting of two unmodified 21-mer oligonucleotides annealed together to form short/small interfering RNAs (siRNAs). Life Technologies™' *Silencer®* Select siRNA and Stealth RNAi™ siRNA improve upon these traditional duplexes by using proprietary chemical modifications to ensure better RNAi results. For more information, see **www.lifetechnologies.com/sirna**.

- *Silencer®* **siRNAs** are Ambion®-designed siRNAs available for all human, mouse, and rat gene targets in the RefSeq database. These siRNAs are designed for maximum potency and specificity using a highly effective and extensively tested algorithm. Each siRNA is synthesized to the highest quality standards and is provided with full sequence information.
- **Stealth RNAi™ siRNA** molecules are chemically modified, blunt-ended, 25-mer double-stranded duplexes that are recognized by the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC) to mediate inhibition of a target gene. Proprietary chemical modifications allow Stealth RNAi™ siRNA to overcome many *in vivo*–specific obstacles, allowing effectiveness and stability in *in vivo* applications.
- *Silencer®* **Select siRNAs** are the best-performing siRNAs for *in vitro* studies, and are available in a variety of formats including preplated collections and custom libraries to simplify screening experiments. They are up to 100-fold more potent than other siRNAs (modified and unmodified), allowing a higher percentage of "on-target" phenotypes.

miRNA mimics and inhibitors

Analyses of miRNA function are performed using strategies that are similar to those used for protein-encoding genes. Transfecting cultured cells with miRNA mimics can help identify gain-of-function phenotypes; down-regulation or inhibition experiments using miRNA inhibitors can be conducted to identify loss-of-function phenotypes. The combination of up-regulation and down-regulation can be used to identify genes and cellular processes that are regulated by specific miRNAs.

- **Ambion® Pre-miR™ miRNA Precursors** are small, chemically-modified doublestranded RNA molecules that are similar, but not identical, to siRNAs, and are designed to mimic endogenous mature miRNAs.
- **mirVana™ miRNA Mimics** are small, chemically modified double-stranded RNAs that mimic endogenous miRNAs and enable miRNA functional analysis by up-regulation of miRNA activity. These molecules are more specific than their predecessors due to inactivation of the star strand by proprietary chemical modifications. mirVana™ miRNA Mimics are available individually or as libraries
- **Ambion® Anti-miR™ miRNA Inhibitors** are chemically modified, single-stranded nucleic acids designed to specifically bind to and inhibit endogenous miRNAs.
- **mirVana™ miRNA Inhibitors** are small, chemically modified single-stranded RNA molecules designed to specifically bind to and inhibit endogenous miRNA molecules and enable miRNA functional analysis by down-regulation of miRNA activity. They have the highest potency *in vitro* inhibition at the lowest miRNA inhibitor concentration of available miRNA mimics. mirVana™ miRNA Inhibitors are available individually or as libraries.

Due to their small size, these synthetic molecules are easier to transfect than vectors, and can be delivered using conditions identical to those used for siRNAs. In contrast to miRNA expression vectors, they can also be used in dose response studies.

Note: Pre-miR miRNA Precursors are not hairpin constructs and should not be confused with pre-miRNAs.

* 1090 distinct human sequences; † 2019 distinct human sequences.

siRNA transfection siRNAs are easily introduced into cells with a siRNA transfection reagent . Soon after being inserted in the mammalian cell, the siRNA molecules become a part of the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC). Guided by the antisense strand of the siRNA, RISC degrades the targeted mRNA inhibiting its translation. Assays are then performed to detect the RNAi activity. Controls are normally set up so RNAi results can be properly compared.

The success of RNAi is dependant on correct delivery of siRNA in appropriate amount at a time when it will brings about the maximum expected response. Such precision can be tricky. Off-targeting by siRNAs proves lethal and poses analytical issues at times. Researchers are looking for better ways of designing and delivering siRNA

- Vector-mediated RNAi For cell types not amenable to lipid-mediated transfection, such as hard-to-transfect, primary, and non-dividing cells, viral vectors containing RNAi cassettes are often employed. Viral delivery can also be used to create stable cell lines with inducible RNAi or to express RNAi sequences with tissue-specific promoters. Adenoviral vectors work well for transient delivery in many cell types, while lentiviral vectors are best for stable delivery in dividing and non-dividing cells, lentiviral vectors are best.
	- **BLOCK-iT™ Adenoviral RNAi Expression System** facilitates the creation and delivery of a replication-incompetent adenovirus to transiently express shRNA in most dividing or non-dividing mammalian cell types and animal models for RNAi analysis. The key advantage of the BLOCK-iT™ Adenoviral RNAi Expression System is Gateway[®] recombination technology, which simplifies the cloning and generation of an adenoviral vector, eliminating the tedious and time-consuming manipulations, screening, and multiple transformations that other adenoviral systems require
	- **BLOCK-iT™ Lentiviral RNAi Expression System** enables the creation and delivery of engineered shRNAs and miRNAs into dividing and non-dividing mammalian cells, including primary and hard-to-transfect cells. The system can be used without selection for transient RNAi analysis or, with appropriate antibiotic selection, to generate a stable cell line for long-term knockdown studies.
	- **BLOCK-iT™ Lentiviral Pol II miR RNAi Expression System combines BLOCK-iT™** Pol II miR RNAi and ViraPower™ Lentiviral technologies to facilitate the creation and stable delivery of engineered miRNAs into nondividing, primary, and hardto-transfect cells. The Pol II promoter in the expression vector enables co-cistronic expression of multiple miRNAs, allowing knockdown of multiple targets from a single construct, a process is ideal for knockdown of more than one pathway component or splice variant, or for using knockdown to create synthetic phenotypes.
	- **BLOCK-iT™ Lentiviral Pol II miR RNAi Expression System with EmGFP** provides all the components and benefits of the BLOCK-iT™ Lentiviral Pol II miR RNAi Expression System listed above, plus the easy expression tracking with co-cistronic EmGFP. The HiPerform™ version of the expression vector contains an mRNAstabilizing sequence (WPRE) and a nuclear import sequence (cPPT) that can generate up to 5-fold higher virus titers.
	- **BLOCK-iT™ Inducible H1 Lentiviral RNAi System** is a complete lentiviral system for long-term inducible or constitutive shRNA expression in any cell type. Regulation of the RNAi response via the tetracycline operator (TetO₂) sequence permits the study of changes over time and loss-of-function experiments even with essential genes, and provides an excellent control system to measure phenotypic changes during recovery of gene function.

Guidelines for RNA Transfection

Transfection of RNA is an offshoot of classic transfection technologies for introducing RNA into cells. The purpose of RNA transfection is similar to that of plasmid transfection. mRNA is introduced into cells to express the encoded protein, and study gene function and regulation. siRNA is used for RNAi studies that examine the effects of gene knockdown. One major difference between the two methods is that RNA can only be transiently transfected.

- RNAi workflow The diagram below depicts an RNAi experiment workflow following siRNA design and synthesis. When performing an RNAi experiment, make sure that you have the following on hand:
	- Transfection/electroporation agent and protocol
	- Assays to assess knockdown and other RNAi effect(s)
	- Positive and negative control siRNAs
	- Two or more siRNAs to gene of interest

Figure 6.4 RNAi workflow following siRNA design and synthesis.

- Handling RNA RNA oligonucleotides are susceptible to degradation by exogenous ribonucleases introduced during handling.
	- Wear gloves when handling RNA.
	- Use RNase-free reagents, tubes, and barrier pipette tips for preparing RNA for transfection.
	- Work areas should be wiped down with 70% ethanol or other RNasedecontamination solution such as RNaseZap® RNase Decontamination Solution.

Transfection efficiency The efficiency with which mammalian cells are transfected with siRNA will vary according to cell type and the transfection agent used. This means that the optimal concentration used for transfections should be determined empirically. The major variables that impact siRNA transfection efficiency are the following:

- Transfection reagent type and amount
- Number of cells plated in well
- Type of RNA or siRNA
- Concentration of RNA or siRNA.
- Positive controls It is important to include a positive control in each experiment. The positive control should elicit a reproducible, easily measured response in the cells and assay used in your study. If you see maximal effect above/below a pre-determined threshold level with this control, you know that measurements from other experiments tested on the same day are reliable. Note that it is important to empirically determine the thresholds for each assay and control pair.

The degree of the response to a particular RNA or siRNA is directly linked to its transfection efficiency. To assess transfection efficiency, we recommend including the BLOCK-iT[™] Fluorescent Oligo in every experiment. Using the BLOCK-iT[™] Fluorescent Oligo in your transfection experiment allows you to easily assess oligomer uptake and transfection efficiency using any fluorescence microscope and a standard FITC filter set. Uptake of the fluorescent oligomer by at least 80% of cells correlates with high efficiency.

Negative controls Negative controls are just as important as positive controls for obtaining meaningful data. Always include a set of transfections with an equimolar amount of at least one negative control to compare the effects of the target RNA or siRNA-treated and controltreated cells. Data from these crucial controls serve as a baseline for evaluation of experimental target knockdown.

> Non-transfected or cells-only negative controls are also very useful. By comparing expression of a housekeeping gene among cultures that were not transfected and cultures transfected with a non-targeting negative control, valuable information about the effects of transfection on cell viability can be obtained.

Co-transfection Co-transfection is performed when the user wants to introduce both siRNA and a plasmid for expressing a protein into a cell. This protein can be part of the test system, or in most cases, it can be a reporter gene (luciferase, GFP , β -lactamase). In some cases, users may want to express a mutant protein along with the siRNA to block one pathway with the siRNA, and overexpress a mutant protein.

> The presence of the plasmid may decrease transfection efficiency of all cargo (plasmid and siRNA) when a lipid transfection reagent is used, making transfection optimizations very important. Undesired and non-specific cell death can result with too much lipid, or too little knock-down or protein expression from the plasmid can occur if transfection conditions are not optimal.

siRNA quality The quality of siRNA can significantly influence RNAi experiments. siRNAs must be free of reagents carried over from synthesis, such as ethanol, salts, and proteins. Also, dsRNA contaminants longer than 30 bp are known to alter gene expression by activating the nonspecific interferon response and causing cytotoxicity (Stark *et al*., 1998). Therefore, we recommend using standard purity siRNAs that are greater than 80% full length.

siRNA storage

Store siRNAs at –20°C or –80°C, but do not use a frost-free freezer. Our data indicate that up to 50 freeze/thaw cycles are not detrimental to siRNAs in solution at 100 μM (as assessed by mass spectrometry and analytical HPLC). However, we recommend that siRNAs that have been resuspended in RNase-free water or buffer be stored in small aliquots to avoid potential contamination.

Nuclease resistance of siRNAs

Annealed, double-stranded siRNAs are much more nuclease resistant than singlestranded RNA. However, stringent RNase-free techniques should be used during all RNAi experiments.

If you suspect that a preparation of siRNA may be degraded, check the integrity of the siRNA by running ~2.5 μg on a non-denaturing 15–20% acrylamide gel. Visualize the RNA by staining with ethidium bromide, and verify that it is the expected size and intensity. The siRNA should migrate as a tight band; smearing indicates degradation.

siRNA quantity The optimal amount of siRNA and its capacity for gene silencing are influenced in part by properties of the target gene products, including the following: mRNA localization, stability, abundance, as well as target protein stability and abundance.

> Although many siRNA experiments are still performed by transfecting cells with 100 nM siRNA, published results indicate that transfecting lower siRNA concentrations can reduce off-target effects exhibited by siRNAs (Jackson *et al*., 2003; Semizarov *et al*., 2003). For lipid-mediated reverse transfections, 10 nM of siRNA (range 1–30 nM) is usually sufficient. For siRNA delivery using electroporation, siRNA quantity has a less pronounced effect, but typically 1 μg/50 μL cells (1.5 μM) of siRNA (range 0.5–2.5 μg/50 μL cells or 0.75–3.75 μM) is sufficient.

Keep in mind that while too much siRNA may lead to off-target or cytotoxic effects, too little siRNA may not reduce target gene expression effectively. Because there are so many variables involved, it is important to optimize the siRNA amount for every cell line used. In addition, the amount of non-targeting negative control siRNA should be the same as the experimental siRNAs.

Volume of transfection

reagent The volume of transfection agent is a critical parameter to optimize because too little can limit transfection, and too much can be toxic. The overall transfection efficiency is influenced by the amount of transfection agent complexed to the siRNA. To optimize, titrate the transfection agent over a broad dilution range, and choose the most dilute concentration that still gives good gene knockdown. This critical volume should be determined empirically for each cell line.

Cell density While cell density is important for traditional, pre-plated transfection experiments, cell density is less critical and requires little to no optimization, when siRNAs are delivered by reverse transfection. However, if too many cells are used, and the amount of siRNA is not increased proportionally, the concentration of siRNA in the sample may be too low to effectively elicit gene silencing. When cell density is too low, cultures can become unstable. Instability can vary from well to well because culture conditions (e.g., pH, temperature) may not be uniform across a multiwell plate and can differentially influence unstable cultures.

Exposure to transfection

Although most transfection agents are designed to induce minimal cytotoxicity, exposing cells to excessive amounts of transfection agent or for an extended time can be detrimental to the overall health of the cell culture. Sensitive cells may begin to die from exposure to the transfection agent after a few hours. If transfection causes excessive cell death with your cells, remove the transfection mixture and replenish with fresh growth medium after 8–24 hours.

Presence of serum

during transfection Complex formation between transfection agents and siRNA should be performed in reduced-serum or serum-free medium, so that serum components will not interfere with the reaction. However, once complex formation has occurred, some transfection agents will permit transfection in serum-containing, normal growth medium (follow manufacturer's instructions). No culture medium addition or replacement is usually required following transfection, but changing the media can be beneficial in some cases, even when serum compatible reagents are used. Be sure to check for serum compatibility before using a particular agent. Some transfection agents require serumfree medium during the transfection and a change to complete growth media after an initial incubation with transfection complexes.

Tips for a successful

- siRNA experiment **1. Design and test two to four siRNA sequences per gene.** Do not attempt to design siRNAs on your own. Go to **www.lifetechnologies.com/rnai** and utilize the best-inclass design algorithms to design your siRNAs.
	- **2. Avoid RNases!** Trace amounts of ribonucleases can sabotage siRNA experiments. Since RNases are present throughout the laboratory environment on your skin, in the air, on anything touched by bare hands or on anything left open to the air, it is important to take steps to prevent and eliminate RNase contamination. Life Technologies™ offers a complete line of products designed to detect and eliminate RNases.
	- **3. Maintain healthy cell cultures and strict protocols for good transfection reproducibility.** In general, healthy cells are transfected at higher efficiency than poorly maintained cells. Routinely subculturing cells at a low passage number ensures that there will be minimal instability in continuous cell lines from one experiment to the next. When performing optimization experiments we recommend transfecting cells within 50 passages, since transfection efficiency drops over time.
	- **4. Avoid antibiotic use.** Avoid the use of antibiotics during plating and up to 72 hours after transfection. Antibiotics have been shown to accumulate to toxic levels in permeabilized cells. Additionally, some cells and transfection reagents require serumfree conditions for optimal siRNA delivery. We suggest you perform a pilot transfection experiment in both normal growth media and serum-free media to determine the best condition for each transfection.
	- **5. Transfect siRNAs using optimized reagents.** Use an optimized siRNA transfection reagent and protocol for your cell type. The choice of transfection reagent is critical for success in siRNA experiments. It is essential to use transfection reagents formulated to deliver small RNAs (most commercially available transfection reagents were designed for large plasmid DNA, not small RNA molecules). Also, some reagents have been developed for the transfection of specific cell lines while others have broader specificity. For help selecting the appropriate transfection reagent, see **siRNA transfection**, page 88.
	- **6. Use an appropriate positive control to optimize transfection and assay conditions.** Housekeeping genes are suitable positive controls for most cell types. To optimize conditions, transfect target cells with several concentrations of an siRNA specific to your chosen positive control and to your experimental target siRNA. Measure the reduction in the control protein or mRNA level compared to untransfected cells 48 hours after transfection. Too much siRNA can lead to cell toxicity and death. For maximum convenience, Life Technologies™ offers positive control siRNAs against a variety of gene targets (see page 92).
- **7. Use a negative control siRNA to distinguish non-specific effects** (see page 92). Negative controls should be designed by scrambling the nucleotide sequence of the most active siRNA. However, be sure to perform a homology search to ensure that your negative control sequence lacks homology to the genome of the organism being studied.
- **8. Use labeled siRNAs for protocol optimization.** Fluorescently labeled siRNA can be used to analyze siRNA stability and transfection efficiency. Labeled siRNA is also useful to study siRNA subcellular localization and in double label experiments (with a labeled antibody) to visualize cells that receive siRNA during transfection and to correlate transfection with down-regulation of the target protein.

Optimization of siRNA Transfection

Factors affecting siRNA

transfection efficiency Maximizing transfection efficiency while minimizing cytotoxicity are crucial for optimal gene silencing. Similar to balancing siRNA-induced knockdown and cell viability, there may also be a balance between siRNA delivery and downstream phenotypic assay conditions. It may be necessary to re-optimize siRNA delivery conditions for different downstream assays that are used in siRNA screening passes. The best transfection efficiencies are achieved for each cell type by identifying the following factors (in order of importance):

- **1.** Choice of transfection reagent
- **2.** Volume of transfection agent
- **3.** Amount of siRNA
- **4.** Cell density at the time of transfection
- **5.** Length of exposure of cells to transfection agent/siRNA complexes
- **6.** Transfection method: traditional transfection where cells are pre-plated or reverse transfection where cells are transfected as they adhere to the plate
- **7.** Presence or absence of serum

Once the conditions for maximal gene silencing are determined, keep them constant among experiments with a given cell type.

Appendix

Troubleshooting

The table below lists some potential problems and possible solutions that may help you troubleshoot your cell culture experiments. Note that the list below includes only the most commonly encountered problems in cell culture, and provides guidelines to solutions only. To help evaluate your results more successfully, we recommend that you consult the manuals and product information sheets provided with the products you are using as well as the published literature and books on the subject.

Cell Culture and Transfection Products

Life Technologies™ offers a variety of primary cultures and established cell lines, as well as reagents, media, sera, and growth factors for your cell culture experiments. The tables below contain lists of the more commonly used cell lines and other cell culture products available from Life Technologies™. For more information on Life Technologies™ and Gibco® products, refer to **www.lifetechnologies.com/cellculture.**

Cell lines In addition to the mammalian and insect cell lines listed below, Life Technologies™ offers primary mammalian cells and complete cell culture systems, including keratinocyte, fibroblast, melanocyte, hepatocyte, corneal and mammary epithelial, large vessel and microvascular endothelial, smooth muscle, and neuronal cell culture systems. For a comprehensive list of cells, technical resources and related technologies, visit **www.lifetechnologies.com/cellculture**.

Media for mammalian

Life Technologies™ provides you with all of your cell culture needs through its Gibco® Cell Culture Media, and offers products to support the growth of a range of mammalian cell lines. All cell culture media products available from Life Technologies™ are tested for contamination, and guaranteed for their quality, safety, consistency, and regulatory compliance. In addition to the media listed below, Life Technologies[™] offers a large selection of serum-free and specilized media for culturing primary cells, established cell lines, and stem cells, as well as for virus production, protein expression, stem cell differentiation, and cytogenetics. For more information and a complete list of cell culture media, visit **www.lifetechnologies.com/cellculture**.

*Most of the media listed in this table are available with L-glutamine, GlutaMAX™-I, or no glutamine, with or without phenol red, as well as in powder and liquid formulations. †Also available in different quantities and packaging sizes.

Media for insect cell

Insect cell culture is a common choice for heterologous protein expression. For large scale production or basic research, insect cells are able to express large quantities of protein with complex post-translational modifications. Gibco® insect media from Life Technologies™ have been formulated for maximum growth and protein yields. For more information, visit **www.lifetechnologies.com**.

*Most of the media listed in this table are available in powder and liquid formulations. †Also available in different quantities and packaging sizes.

Serum products for cell

Life Technologies™ supplies a wide range of Gibco® animal sera, both bovine and nonbovine, for cell culture applications, the most widely used being fetal bovine serum (FBS). The table below lists a small selection of sera available from Life Technologies™. For a complete list and more information on the use, sources, traceability, collection, and bottling of serum, refer to **www.lifetechnologies.com**.

*To ensure supply, Life Technologies™ sources FBS from the United States, New Zealand, Australia, and other countries meeting USDA importation requirements (i.e., USDA-Approved). All other serum products are sourced from New Zealand with the exception of rabbit serum, which is sourced from the United States. †Also available in different quantities and packaging sizes.

Laboratory reagents for

cell culture The table below lists a small selection of laboratory reagents for cell culture that are available from Life Technologies™. For more information and a complete list, refer to **www.lifetechnologies.com**.

*Products are also available in different quantities and packaging sizes. †Product is available in liquid or powder formats. ‡HBSS is available with or without magnesium and calcium, and with or without phenol red.
Antibiotics and

antimycotics Antibiotics are used to protect the integrity of your cell culture as well for selection and establishmeny of cell lines; Life Technologies[™] offers a wide selection of antibiotics, antimycotics and detection kits. For more information, refer to **www.lifetechnologies.com**.

Growth factors and

Life Technologies™ offers an array of highly-potent and highly-pure growth factors, chemokines, cytokines, and other proteins and protein inhibitors validated for use in cell culture. These products have been validated in live cell bioassays using Gibco® media. For more information and a complete list, refer to **www.lifetechnologies.com/cellculture**.

Accessory products for

The table below lists a small selection of accessory products for cell culture that are available from Life Technologies™. For more information and a complete list, refer to **www.lifetechnologies.com**.

Transfection reagents Life Technologies™ offers the most complete collection of cationic lipid-based transfection reagents with exceptional performance that can be used for delivery of DNA, siRNA, oligonucleotide, and RNA. The table below lists a small selection of cationic-lipid transfection reagents that are available from Life Technologies™. For more information and a complete list, refer to **www.lifetechnologies.com/transfection**.

Neon[®] Transfection
System

The Neon[®] Transfection System efficiently delivers nucleic acids, proteins, and siRNA into all mammalian cell types, including primary and immortalized hematopoietic cells, stem cells, and primary cells, with a high cell survival rate. For more information on the Neon® Transfection System and optimized Neon® transfection protocols for many commonly used cell types, refer to **www.lifetechnologies.com/neon**.

RNA interference RNAi is a specific, potent, and highly successful approach for loss-of-function studies in virtually all eukaryotic organisms. Life Technologies™ has developed two types of small RNA molecules that function in RNAi, short interfering RNA (siRNA) molecules and microRNAs (miRNA), and offers a variety of products for RNAi analysis *in vitro* and *in vivo*, including libraries for high-throughput applications. Your choice of tool depends on your model system, the length of time you require knockdown, and other experimental parameters.

> In addition, Life Technologies™ offers the most complete collection of cationic lipidbased transfection reagents with exceptional performance that can be used for delivery of assorted RNAi reagents, including shRNA and miR RNAi vectors and synthetic molecules such as siRNA, Stealth RNAi[™] siRNA, and Dicer-generated siRNAi pools. Further, cell specific RNAi transfection protocols have been developed using these transfection reagents for many popular cell lines.

For more information and a complete list of RNAi products available from Life Technologies™, refer to **www.lifetechnologies.com/rnai**.

Additional Resources

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For support visit **lifetechnologies.com/support** or email **techsupport@lifetech.com lifetechnologies.com/cellculturebasics**

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