Adenosine 5’ triphosphate (ATP) is a universal intracellular energy source and an evolutionarily ancient, ubiquitous extracellular signal in diverse species. Here, we report the generation and characterization of single-wavelength genetically encoded fluorescent sensors (iATPSnFRs) for imaging extracellular and cytosolic ATP from insertion of circularly permuted superfolder GFP into the epsilon subunit of F0F1-ATPase from Bacillus PS3. On the cell surface and within the cytosol, iATPSnFR1.0 responds to relevant ATP concentrations (30 μM to 3 mM) with fast increases in fluorescence. iATPSnFRs can be genetically targeted to specific cell types and sub-cellular compartments, imaged with standard light microscopes, do not respond to other nucleotides and nucleosides, and when fused with a red fluorescent protein function as ratiometric indicators. After careful consideration of their modest pH sensitivity, iATPSnFRs represent promising reagents for imaging ATP in the extracellular space and within cells during a variety of settings, and for further application-specific refinements.
GIVEN WIDESPREAD ROLES IN ENERGY HOMEOSTASIS AND CELL SIGNALING1–3, SEVERAL METHODS HAVE BEEN USED TO DETECT ATP USING SMALL-MOLECULE CHEMICAL APPROACHES4, FREELY LUCIFERASE5–8, ION CHANNEL-EXPRESSING “NIFFER” CELLS9–11, VOLTMETRY12, AND DIFFERENT TYPES OF MICROELECTRODES13,14. ALTHOUGH PROGRESS HAS BEEN MADE, THESE METHODS, HOWEVER, LACK SPATIAL RESOLUTION, CANNOT BE EASILY USED IN TISSUE SLICES OR IN VIVO, AND ARE PROBLEMATIC TO QUANTIFY USING SINGLE-WAVELENGTH IMAGING. INSTEAD, STRATEGIES FAIL TO BENEFIT FROM THE RATIO METRIC NATURE OF FRET SENSOR ATEAM22 AND THE EXCITATION RATIO SENSOR QUEEN23,24, UPON WHICH OUR SENSORS ARE BASED. THE EPILOGUE SUBUNIT IS PREDICTED TO UNDERGO A LARGE CONFORMATIONAL CHANGE UPON BINDING ATP (Fig. 1a), AND THE HOMOLOGUE FROM THE THERMOPHILIC BACTERIUM BACILLUS PS3 DISPLAYS APPROPRIATE ATP-BINDING SENSITIVITY15. THE EPILOGUE SUBUNIT COMPRIS ES EIGHT N-TERMINAL $\beta$-STRANDS FOLLOWED BY TWO C-TERMINAL $\alpha$-HELICES (Fig. 1a), WHICH EXTEND AWAY FROM THE $\beta$-STRANDS IN THE ABSENCE OF ATP, BUT UPON BINDING CRADLE ATP UP AGAINST THE $\beta$-STRANDS.

CIRCULARLY PERMUTED (cpGFp)25 was inserted between the two $\alpha$-helices of the epi logue subunit after residue 107 with the expectation that the epi logue subunit conformational change might alter fluorescence. The first linker (L1) initially comprised Thr–Arg–Ser from the second linker (L2) Leu–Gly (Fig. 1a). Based on our prior experience with the glutamate sensor iGluSnFR26,27, we began mutating residues in the linkers and ~8500 colonies were screened to develop sensors with large ATP-dependent fluorescence intensity increases (dFF/F). The best variant from this screen had a large change in fluorescence (maximum dFF/F of ~3.9). However, it failed to express on the surface of HEK293 cells when cloned into the pDisplay mammalian expression vector, which uses an IgG secretion signal and a platelet-derived growth factor receptor (PDGF) transmembrane domain to anchor it to the membrane. We developed a more stable form of GFP that might improve folding and trafficking, and thus cloned circularly permuted superfolder GFP26 (cpSFGFp) in place of cpGFp. Replacing cpGFp with cpSFGFp remedied the surface trafficking in HEK293 cells (see later section), but greatly diminished ATP-evoked changes in fluorescence. To correct this, we re-optimized L1 and L2 for the cpSFGFp construct by mutating amino acids in the linkers and slightly changing their length; ~7000 colonies were screened (Fig. 1a, b). We also mutated amino acids (Thr9Val and Asn78Tyr) predicted from molecular modeling to decrease dimer formation. Through this process, we developed two sensors that displayed large ATP-dependent increases in fluorescence (Fig. 1a, b). In the sensor we termed iATPSnFR1.0, the L1 linker was changed from Thr–Arg to Val–Leu, and L2 from Leu–Gly to Gly–Leu–His. We developed a second sensor (iATPSnFR1.2) with improved sensitivity by mutating amino acids near the ATP-binding pocket. iATPSnFR1.1 differs from iATPSnFR1.0 by two mutations (Ala95Lys and Ala119Ser; Fig. 1a; Supplementary Figure 1). Both iATPSnFR1.0 and iATPSnFR1.1 show marked improvement over QUEEN-7u, which does not function as a single-wavelength sensor, and over ATEAM for the same ATP concentration range (Fig. 1c). Furthermore, inserting cpSFGFp into Queen did not result in a sensor with ATP-evoked fluorescence increases. Purified iATPSnFR1.0 had a maximum dFF/F of ~2.4 and an EC50 of ~120 $\mu$M, whereas purified iATPSnFR1.1 had a maximum dFF/F of ~1.9 and an EC50 of ~50 $\mu$M (Fig. 1c). Purified iATPSnFRs were not sensitive to ADP, AMP, or adenosine at concentrations equivalent to ATP (Fig. 1d). Both proteins displayed similar fluorescence spectra (peak excitation 490 nm, peak emission 512 nm; Fig. 1e, f). In the presence of ATP, an increase in peak excitation and emission was observed. Supplementary Figure 2 shows that the fluorescence peak at 400 nm, which is seen in many GFP-based sensors including QUEEN, was essentially ATP-independent. Thus, our bacterial-based screen yielded a genetically encoded ATP sensor with micromolar sensitivity, large 488 nm-excited emission intensity dFF/F, and little sensitivity to ATP metabolites (Fig. 1).
**Fig. 1** Design and optimization of a single-wavelength ATP sensor. 

**a** Schematic showing the design and workflow used to optimize QUEEN-7µ into a single-wavelength ATP sensor with the goal of displaying the sensor on the surface of cells. **b** Dose-response curves of iATPSnFR over several successive rounds of mutagenesis (Ex: 488 nm, Em: 515 nm). Fluorescence quenching at very high ATP concentrations can be observed in addition to binding-dependent increases. **c** Dose-response curves for purified ATeam, QUEEN-7µ, iATPSnFR1.0, and iATPSnFR1.1. ATeam dose-response curves were acquired with Ex: 435 nm and Em: 530 nm. The other constructs were with Ex: 488 nm, Em: 515 nm. **d** Dose-response curves of purified iATPSnFR1.1 to ATP, ADP, AMP, and adenosine. **e** Excitation and emission spectra for iATPSnFR1.0 and iATPSnFR1.1 in solution (the traces are the average from 48 replicates each in a 96-well plate). The error bars represent the s.e.m. and in some cases are smaller than the symbols used for the mean. When greater than one (in the case of exemplar traces and graphs), n is provided in the figure panels and refers to the number of independent evaluations.
and in some cases are smaller than the symbols used for the mean. The ratio of the edges (Fig. 2a, b; representative of 290 and 191 cells for iATPSnFR1.0 and iATPSnFR1.1, respectively, from four separate transfections each). Supplementary Movies 1 and 2 for HEK293 cells expressing iATPSnFR1.0. The lower panels show representative traces and an average dose–response curve for HEK293 cells expressing iATPSnFR1.0. The lower panels show representative traces and an average dose–response curve from 290 cells. 

Testing of ATP sensors in HEK293 cells. We initially tested the sensors in HEK293 cells with confocal imaging. Figure 2a, b shows three examples for cell surface targeted iATPSnFRs in HEK293 cells for 24 h. Images are shown before and during ATP applications (1 mM). The ratio of the +ATP and −ATP image is also shown on the right for each image series (dF). From these images, it was clear that both iATPSnFRs were expressed in HEK293 cells, targeted to the surface of the cells and that both responded with visibly discernible increases in fluorescence that localized to the cell edges (Fig. 2a, b; representative of 290 and 191 cells for iATPSnFR1.0 and iATPSnFR1.1, respectively, from four separate transfections each). Supplementary Movies 1 and 2 for iATPSnFR1.0 and iATPSnFR1.1 also illustrate this point. The traces below each set of images in Fig. 1 show representative traces for the various ATP concentrations shown and the graphs show dose–response relations. From such experiments, we concluded that both iATPSnFR1.0 and iATPSnFR1.1 functioned as ATP sensors when extracellularly displayed on the plasma membrane. Furthermore, in HEK293 cells co-transfected with cytoplasmic mCherry and membrane-displayed iATPSnFR1.0 or iATPSnFR1.1 (Fig. 3a), there was clear iATPSnFR fluorescence at the cell edges. In contrast, fluorescence was mostly absent from the cytoplasm, indicating proper membrane trafficking (Fig. 3a, b).

Without optical sectioning and using wide field epifluorescence imaging, both iATPSnFR1.0 and iATPSnFR1.1 displayed concentration-dependent increases in fluorescence that were rapid, maintained in ATP, and that returned to baseline upon ATP washout (Fig. 3c). iATPSnFR1.0 displayed an EC_{50} of ~350 µM with a maximum dF/F of ~1.0 (Fig. 3d). Similarly, iATPSnFR1.1 displayed an EC_{50} of ~140 µM with a maximum dF/F of ~0.9 (Fig. 3e). Thus, there was a ~3-fold loss of ATP sensitivity and decrease in peak response in both sensors when they were extracellularly displayed compared to the soluble proteins (similar effects are seen with other membrane-displayed sensors). During these experiments, we noticed that cells expressing iATPSnFR1.1 were dimmer than those expressing iATPSnFR1.0, and we found lower, but measurable expression levels of iATPSnFR1.1 in relation to iATPSnFR1.0 (Fig. 3f). However, both were expressed. Thus, iATPSnFR1.1 has a lower ATP EC_{50} (more sensitive), but is not as well expressed as iATPSnFR1.0. iATPSnFR1.1 also showed slightly more intracellular accumulation than iATPSnFR1.0 (Fig. 3a).

Kinetics and ligand specificity of the ATP sensors. Using a fast solution switcher, we assessed the response kinetics of cell-displayed iATPSnFR1.0 and iATPSnFR1.1 in relation to iGluSnFR,
which displays fast on- and off-rates\textsuperscript{26,37}. The time constants for fluorescence increases ($\tau_{on}$) were dose-dependent and significantly faster for iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.1} than iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} (Fig. 4a, b). In contrast, the time constants for the return to baseline ($\tau_{off}$) of the ATP-dependent fluorescence increase were not different between the two constructs, implying that the higher equilibrium $EC_{50}$ of iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} was due to slower association of ATP with the sensor or due to slower subsequent coupling of ATP binding to fluorescence change. In comparison, iGlusnFR was significantly faster than both iATPSnFRs (Fig. 4a, b).

ATP is sequentially degraded to ADP, AMP, or adenosine at 1 mM (Fig. 4c). Furthermore, iATPSnFRs were not sensitive to 1 mM GTP or 1 mM UTP (Fig. 4d), other nucleoside triphosphates found within the cytosol and in the extracellular space. Since the extracellular space is expected to contain a mixture of ATP and ADP, we evaluated if 1 mM ADP affected the response to 0.1, 0.3, and 1 mM ATP for iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} and iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.1}. It did not (Fig. 4e). Thus, iATPSnFRs sense ATP with negligible responses to degradative products or to common competing nucleotides and nucleosides.

**Expression of iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} in astrocytes and neurons.** For characterization in astrocytes and neurons, we focused on iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0}, given its better expression. We co-expressed iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} with mCherry in cultured U373MG astroglia and observed good cell-surface trafficking (Fig. 5a), although there was also an intracellular pool of the sensor. We confirmed that iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} responded to 300 mM ATP applications with fluorescence increases (Fig. 5b). Similar data were obtained by expressing iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} in primary cultures of rat hippocampal neurons (Fig. 5c). For U373MG astroglia, we determined the iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} $EC_{50}$ to be 400 µM with a maximum $dF/F$ of 1.1 (Fig. 5d), similar to the HEK293 cell data. In hippocampal neurons, iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} properly localized to membrane processes, and application of ~1 mM ATP evoked increases in fluorescence. In hippocampal neurons, the ATP $EC_{50}$ was 630 µM and the maximum $dF/F$ was ~1.5 (Fig. 5e). Hence, our experiences with iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} in solution, in HEK293 cells, in astroglia and in hippocampal neurons demonstrate that the weakening of ATP binding and the decrease in $dF/F$ resulting from tethering the sensor to the outside of the membrane bilayer is independent of the host cell. We have observed altered sensitivity with other sensors on the membrane\textsuperscript{26,27,31}; we speculate that it results from steric restriction from lipid head groups and membrane proteins.

We generated adeno-associated virus (AAV2/5) to express iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} specifically in astrocytes using the $Gfalpha BC_{D}$ promoter\textsuperscript{38}. Following in vivo microinjections into the hippocampus, iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} co-localized with $S100beta$-positive astrocytes, but not NeuN-positive neurons (Supplementary Figure 3). Bath application of ATP to multicellular preparations such as brain slices is fraught with problems caused by the rapid hydrolysis of ATP by cell surface ectoATPases. In order to minimize such effects, we puffed ATP via a glass pipette with a Picospritzer.
observed when we applied ATP to astrocytes expressing (Fig. 5g, h). Taken together, these data show that iATPSnFR can or D2 medium spiny neurons expressing iATPSnFR in striatum be expressed and responds reliably on the surface of cells

Puffing 3 mM ATP (for 5 s) onto U373MG astroglia resulted in a ~0.7 dF/F (Fig. 5f). Similar, albeit smaller, responses were observed when we applied ATP to astrocytes expressing iATPSnFR1.0 in hippocampus and spinal cord slices or to D1 or D2 medium spiny neurons expressing iATPSnFR in striatum (Fig. 5g, h). Taken together, these data show that iATPSnFR can be expressed and responds reliably on the surface of cells following in vivo expression.

We next explored the use of cytosolic iATPSnFR1.0 to follow intracellular ATP, which ranges from 1 to 3 mM in mammalian cells39. We expressed cytosolic iATPSnFR1.0 in U373MG astroglia and detected a significant drop in intracellular fluorescence upon switching to 0 mM glucose (Supplementary Figure 4a), or by applying 10 mM 2-deoxyglucose (2DOG; Supplementary Figure 4b)—an inhibitor of glycolysis40. Similarly, following in vivo expression with AAVs, we measured a significant drop in intracellular ATP levels as reported by the fluorescence of iATPSnFR1.0 in hippocampal astrocytes in 0 mM glucose (Supplementary Figure 4c; the fluorescence of co-expressed tdTomato did not change, arguing against changes in cell shape and volume, or other non-specific artifacts, as the cause). We repeated these experiments for hippocampal astrocytes and CA1 pyramidal neurons, both at somata and along processes (Supplementary Figure 4d); oxygen-glucose deprivation (OGD) caused a substantial drop in intracellular ATP levels. We found that fluorescence decreases of astrocytes were twice that of neurons (Supplementary Figure 4d). Such responses were completely reversible for astrocytes, but only partly reversible for neurons (Supplementary Figure 4d). Furthermore, it took longer for decreases in astrocyte ATP to begin (~10 min in OGD). However, once ATP began to decrease in astrocytes, it took 8.0 ± 0.5 min (n = 37) to decrease by 50%, whereas in CA1 pyramidal neuron somata and dendrites it took 13.5 ± 0.8 min (n = 26) and 17.4 ± 0.9 min (n = 27), respectively (p < 0.0001 by ANOVA and Dunnett post hoc tests, here ± indicates plus/minus standard error of the mean). Based on the titrations in Fig. 3, we estimate that ATP levels fell by ~0.5 mM from >1 mM. Thus during glucose deprivation, ATP levels in astrocytes fall quickly, but recover completely upon restoration of glucose. In contrast, neuronal ATP levels fall slowly and fail to recover to normal levels under the identical conditions.

mRuby-iATPSnFR1.0 as a ratiometric ATP sensor. We fused the red fluorescent protein mRuby41 to the N-terminus of iATPSnFR1.0 to generate a ratiometric sensor (Fig. 6a; mRuby-iATPSnFR1.0). The mRuby-iATPSnFR1.0 construct was identical to iATPSnFR1.0 in terms of its sensitivity and ATP-evoked dF/F (Fig. 6b). In HEK293 cells, mRuby-iATPSnFR1.0 displayed clear changes in green fluorescence in the presence of 2DOG, whereas the red fluorescence of mRuby did not (Fig. 6c; Supplementary Figure 5). Note that in Supplementary Figure 5, a field of view is shown, but that the analyses were performed on single cells and not by averaging across whole fields of view. Similarly, following in vivo expression with AAVs, we measured a significant drop in intracellular ATP as reported by the fluorescence of iATPSnFR1.0 in hippocampal astrocytes and pyramidal neuron somata and
dendrites upon switching to solutions that mimic ischemia (i.e., OGD), whereas there was no change in mRuby (Fig. 6d; Supplementary Figure 6). Interestingly, ATP levels returned back to normal levels upon reapplication of physiological buffers in astrocytes, but remained low in neuronal somata and dendrites (Fig. 6d). We also performed two necessary control experiments. First, we tested whether the iATPSnFR1.0 itself responded to ATP application (control) and during a 300 µM ATP application (+ATP), as well as the change in fluorescence (ΔF). Second, we measured intracellular pH changes further, we also used epifluorescence dual-wavelength ratiometric imaging with BCECF-AM (Ex 505 and 510 nm) to observe pH changes. We observed a drop in mRuby-iATPSnFR1.0 fluorescence, which we associate with a drop in ATP concentration that has been previously reported[20]. For example, from calibration experiments reported[20], we found that the fluorescence of the pH indicator BCECF,

\[
\text{EC}_{50} = 403 \mu M
\]

Astrocytes

\[
\text{Max} = 1.1 dF/F
\]

\[nH = 1.2\]

\[n = 63\]

Neurons

\[
\text{EC}_{50} = 630 \mu M
\]

\[
\text{Max} = 1.5 dF/F
\]

\[nH = 1.6\]

\[n = 10\]

\[p < 0.0001\]

We also performed two necessary control experiments. First, we tested whether the iATPSnFR1.0 itself responded to ATP application (control) and during a 300 µM ATP application (+ATP), as well as the change in fluorescence (ΔF). Second, we measured intracellular pH changes further, we also used epifluorescence dual-wavelength ratiometric imaging with BCECF-AM (Ex 505 and 510 nm) to observe pH changes. We observed a drop in mRuby-iATPSnFR1.0 fluorescence, which we associate with a drop in ATP concentration that has been previously reported[20]. For example, from calibration experiments reported[20], we found that the fluorescence of the pH indicator BCECF,
expected to cause a 9% decrease in fluorescence of ATP-bound mRuby-iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0}, whereas with 2DOG applications we measured a change of between 40 and 50% (Fig. 6). Thus, in accord with past studies\textsuperscript{20} such putative ATP changes were larger, faster and reversible in HEK293 cells (Fig. 6c). We could not use BCECF as a pH indicator for brain slice experiments because our past work shows that membrane-permeant acetoxymethyl ester (AM)-version organic dyes are poorly/unreliably taken up by adult brain slices\textsuperscript{38,42}. Overall, mRuby-iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} experiments suggest that this sensor can be used as a ratiometric sensor of cell-specific intracellular ATP levels, with the caveat that parallel experiments to assess pH changes need to be performed on a case-by-case basis whenever mRuby-iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} is used. We next assessed pH sensitivity of the sensors directly.

**pH sensitivity of iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} and mRuby-iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0}**

As with all GFP-based sensors\textsuperscript{43}, the fluorescence of iATPSnFRs is expected to be sensitive to pH with a H\textsuperscript{+} dependence largely determined by GFP. We performed a specific set of experiments to assess this as a guide for future use of the sensors. We focused on iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0}, because this was used for most of the work reported in this study. First, we measured the fluorescence of extracellularly displayed iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} on the surface of HEK293 cells at a range of pH values between 4 and 9 in the absence and presence of ATP (Fig. 7a). As expected, acidification strongly decreased fluorescence of the ATP bound and unbound states. Between pH 6.5 and 9, there was a strong increase in fluorescence upon binding ATP. Second, we repeated the aforementioned experiments with iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} in solution (from bacterial lysates). We found the same effect with acidification for the ATP bound and unbound states (Fig. 7b). Third, we performed similar experiments for the mRuby-iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} sensor in solution (from bacterial lysates) while assessing fluorescence emission in the green ATP sensor channel and in the reference red mRuby channel (Fig. 7c, d). For the ATP sensors, we again found that acidification decreased fluorescence of the ATP bound and unbound states. mRuby pH effects were not ATP-dependent, indicating that mRuby-iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} can be used as a ratiometric sensor (Fig. 7c, d). Fourth, we performed ATP dose–response curves for iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} and mRuby-iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} in solution at pH 6.4 and 7.4 (Fig. 7e, f). These data showed that acidification decreased fluorescence responses at all concentrations of ATP that were effective in increasing fluorescence. Overall, taken together these data show that iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} and mRuby-iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} function as single wavelength and ratiometric ATP sensors, but do indeed display sensitivity to acid pH as expected by the nature of GFP\textsuperscript{42}. Perhaps more usefully, the calibration curves shown in Fig. 7 provide a metric by which to judge the consequences of acidification in future experiments in which the sensors are used. The sensors are likely to be of limited use in environments where the pH is more acidic than ~6.2. Finally, we assessed the kinetics for ATP binding to iATPSnFR\textsuperscript{1.0} in solution at pH 7.4 and found that they did not follow typical pseudo-first order behavior (Supplementary Figure 8), but were instead consistent with a mechanism in which both higher and lower fluorescent states occur (potentially resulting from monomeric and dimeric states). This possibility could be usefully explored in follow up studies.
Discussion
In the present study, we used the bright, stable cpSFGFP scaffold, rational design, and library screening to direct the selection of ATP sensors with desired characteristics. We characterized the ATP sensors to monitor cell surface and cytosolic ATP levels with excellent specificity. The current sensors may be useful to study cytosolic ATP levels and signals associated with P2X7 receptors, which respond to ATP in the hundreds of micromolar to millimolar range, but they seem unsuitable to measure ATP release from astrocytes which is likely in the hundreds of nanomolar to micromolar range. The sensors may also be useful for diagnostics to sense high ATP levels in tumors. Strategies for further refinements are considered in the sections that follow.

We have tabulated the properties of iATPSnFRs in relation to those of existing fluorescence-based ATP sensors in Supplementary Table 1. Intracellular ATP levels are typically in the millimolar range and change during pathology. Extracellular ATP levels are usually low in physiological settings due to ectoATPases, but several decades of physiological studies and the existence of cell surface ATP receptors with sensitivity to ATP between nanomolar and millimolar indicates that extracellular ATP levels also increase during specific processes such as...
purinergic transmission\textsuperscript{5,47–52}. Considering these facts, it seems unfeasible that a single sensor will be suitable to monitor intra-cellular and extracellular ATP levels over a concentration range spanning 5–6 orders of magnitude. Thus, ATP sensors will need to be designed for specific applications from those that are available (Supplementary Table 1) and those reported herein.

It is clear that to better detect small ATP fluctuations in living animals, the sensitivity, dF/dF and kinetics of iATPSnFRs should be improved, which could be achieved by using directed evolution strategies by employing the iATPSnFR\textsubscript{1,0} scaffold or, others. In parallel, however, ATP G-protein coupled receptors (GPCRs) that display a range of ATP affinities and ligand selectivities\textsuperscript{42} could potentially be exploited to design ATP sensors, as suggested by recent impressive strides made with the generation of acetylcholine and dopamine sensors based on their cognate GPCRs\textsuperscript{28–30}. In evaluating these approaches, it is possible that GPCR-based sensors have the potential to form heteromers\textsuperscript{54} with endogenous GPCRs, whereas for sensors employing engineered scaffolds such as iATPSnFRs this possibility is less likely. Finally, GFP-based ATP sensors will likely find many uses to study the dynamics of ATP and should be considered complementary to the use of luciferase-based ATP imaging approaches, which have been shown to work for intra- and extracellular ATP in cells and in vivo\textsuperscript{16–19,32}. For example, it seems unlikely that fluorescence-based ATP sensors can be used for whole-organ imaging, which is possible for luciferase-based sensors\textsuperscript{19}. Hence, the choice of sensor to employ will largely depend on the specific question being addressed and careful assessment of the contributions of pH to the signals will need to be made on a case-by-case basis.

Overall, the iATPSnFRs reported herein and the future developments they permit (to tailor sensitivity and kinetics to specific applications) portend the direct imaging of purinergic signaling\textsuperscript{5} throughout the body of transgenic animals. Our constructs are available (Supplementary Table 2) to allow such studies to commence in parallel with existing approaches discussed in earlier sections.

### Methods

#### Cloning

The QUEEN-7µ coding sequence was purchased as a gBlock Gene Fragment from Integrated DNA Technologies with a BglII restriction site preceding the coding sequence of QUEEN-7µ and a PstI restriction site following the coding sequence. This gBlock was cloned into an in-house modified pRSET-A vector (ThermoFisher: V35120), termed pHIM.pHIM contained an N-terminal His\textsubscript{6} tag utilized for purification, followed by a hemagglutinin (HA) epitope tag and a multiple cloning site before the gene of interest, as well as a myc tag at the C-terminus of the gene. This vector was used for screening, because it has the HA and myc tags present in pDisplay (ThermoFisher: V66020), which is the vector we planned to use for surface expression in mammalian cells\textsuperscript{20,25}. Cloning from pHIM to pDisplay or into pDisplayMin, an in-house vector that lacks the N-terminal HA epitope present in pDisplay, was achieved via a restriction digest of both the iATPSnFR and pDisplay plasmids with BglII and PstI. Cloning into the pZAC-AAV-GaAUCgD was done using PCR amplification to add an Nhel restriction site to the N-terminus of iATPSnFR and a NotI restriction site to the C-terminus of iATPSnFR coding sequence. Cloning was performed using routine subcloning techniques. That the mRuby we used was mRuby3 minus MDE-LYK from the C-terminus.

#### Protein expression and purification

Vectors containing iATPSnFR variants were transformed into Escherichia coli BL21(DE3) cells (lacking pLYS8). Proteins were expressed in liquid auto-inducing cultures (5 ml) and harvested by liquid auto-inducing centrifugation at 15000 × g for 20 min. The pellet was resuspended in PBS with 1 M NaCl and frozen. Protein was extracted using freeze–thaw lysis and sonication. Upon thawing, 1 M PMSF was added to the solution before sonication.

For expression purification, the bacteria were harvested and resuspended in 100 ml of 300 mM NaCl. Protein was added to a 1 ml PMSF solution and the bacteria were left on ice for 5 min. Bacterial membranes were pelleted at 10000 × g for 10 min.

#### Protein titrations with ATP

After protein expression, 100 µl of protein was transferred to flat-bottom black 96-well plates (Greiner). Initial fluorescence was assayed in a Safelread plate-reading fluorimeter with a stacker (Tecan). Excitation/ emission wavelengths were 485/515 nm. Gain was set at 80 and 120 V and bandpass filters were 5 nm. Fluorescence was assayed again after the addition of 10 µl ATP solution containing between 315 nM and 100 mM ATP for final ATP concentrations of 31.5 nM–10 mM. After a second reading, dF/dt was calculated. For experiments performed with clarified HEK-293 lysate, 10-cm dishes were transfected with the cytoplasmic gene of interest. 24 h following transfection the cells were washed twice with PBS. A third wash of PBS was used to detach the cells. The cells were then pelleted and protein were extracted by freeze/thaw lysis. The pH of the lysate was adjusted and the lysate was concentrated to 1.5 M using an Amicon centrifugal filter. After the lysate was concentrated, dose-response curves were generated as above.

For determining the pH dependence of fluorescence, buffered solutions of specific pH were made (Hydron Chemveloppe) and concentrated, purified protein was added to a final concentration of 0.2 µM. Fluorescence of 100 µl triplicate samples was measured as above. ATP was added (from a 200 mM stock of MgATP) to a final concentration of 6 mM and fluorescence was measured again.

#### Stopped-flow kinetics

Equal volumes of 0.2 µM purified protein in Mg-containing buffer (10 mM HEPES, 145 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM KCl, 10 mM Glucose, 2 mM CaCl\textsubscript{2}, 1 mM MgCl\textsubscript{2}, pH 7.4) and ATP-containing buffer (various concentrations) were mixed in an SX-20 stopped-flow fluorimeter (Applied Photo-physics), with data points collected every millisecond. Excitation was from a 490 nm LED. Emission was detected with a photomultiplier tube and a 510 nm long pass filter. Mixing reactions were performed in quintuplicate and averaged. Data was fit to an equation containing two exponential rises:

\[
F = F_0 + \Delta F_{\text{max}} \times (1 - \exp(-\frac{k_{\text{on}}}{C_0} \times t)) + \Delta F_{\text{nast}} \times (1 - \exp(-\frac{k_{\text{off}}}{C_0} \times t))
\]

#### Mutagenesis

Linker variants and point mutations were generated by site-directed Kunkel mutagenesis\textsuperscript{27} with a uracil template. CJ236 cells were transformed with promising vectors and grown on plates containing chloramphenicol overnight at 37 °C. The following day a 1 ml culture of LB with only ampicillin was inoculated with a colony and grown at 37 °C with shaking until cloudy—usually about 6 h.

Once the culture was cloudy, 1 µl of M13KO7 helper phage (NEB: N0315S) was added. After incubating for an additional hour, the culture was expanded to a 50 ml culture of LB with ampicillin (no chloramphenicol) in a 250 ml flask and incubated overnight at 37 °C with shaking. The following day, the bacteria were pelleted at 4000 × g and the supernatant was transferred to a Falcon tube containing 10 ml of 20% PEG in 2.5 M NaCl. After thorough mixing, the solution was incubated on ice for 15 min. The phage was then pelleted at 40000 × g for 20 min. The supernatant was removed and the phage was resuspended in 2 ml of PBS. The 2 ml of PBS were divided into two different Eppendorf tubes and centrifuged at maximum speed for 5 min to pellet the remaining bacteria. The supernatant was transferred to new Eppendorf tubes containing 300 µl of 20% PEG in 2.5 M NaCl. After vortexing, the solution was incubated on ice for 10 min. The phage was pelleted at maximum speed for 5 min. The supernatant was removed. Another quick spin was done to remove any residual supernatant. The phage was then resuspended in 2 ml of PBS. This was centrifuged at maximum speed for 5 min and the supernatant was transferred to a new Eppendorf tube. The uracil template was then purified using the Qiagen QiAprep Spin M13 Kit (Cat. No. 27704) using the manufacturer’s protocol. 11 µl of MP buffer was added to the 1 ml PBS/template solution. After vortexing, the mixture was incubated at room temperature for 5 min. The mixture was then applied to the column and centrifuged at 4000 × g. The flowthrough was discarded. After the entire mixture was applied, 700 µl of PB buffer was applied to the column. After 1 min of...
incubation, the column was centrifuged at 4700g for 15 s. This was repeated before washing the column three times with 700 µl of PF buffer, and again centrifuging at 4700g for 15 s. After the second wash, 1 µl of the DNA solution was applied to the column which was then centrifuged at 4700g. This was done three times for a total of 75 µl of EB. DNA quality was checked via agarose gel electrophoresis. High-quality preparations run as a single band about ¹⁄₃ the size of the plasmid.

Degenerate primers were designed to mutate two amino acids at a time. This was done by flanking the degenerate/mutated sequence of DNA with about 15 bases of unmutated DNA on either side. A variant of QUEEN, with cPSGGP replacing cPSGP was cloned by PCR. Multiple rounds of mutagenesis were performed to screen variants with mutations at the junction of PS3 and cPSGGP (Linker 1) and cPSGP and PS3 (Linker 2). In the following primers, X indicates the codon that was randomized to encode all possible amino acids. A Linker 2 primer encoding GHKLEYNXDXIDFKRA, from which the final Linker 2 sequence GHKLEYNXLDIDFKRA was optimized with a primer encoding AERRLQSQXXSHNVYIT. From a screen of a Lipofectamine 2000 was added to the other. The content of the two tubes was placed in two tubes. 2.5 µg of DNA was added to one tube and 6.25 µl of transfection of a single well of a 6-well dish. 100 µl of OptiMEM (Gibco: 31985062) was added before washing the column three times with 700 µl of PE buffer, and again centrifuged at 4700g. This was repeated for 10 min incubation on ice, the mixture was centrifuged at max speed for 10 min. The supernatant was taken and diluted with an equal volume of 2× Laemmli buffer for western blot analysis.

Western blotting. Precast gels were purchased from BioRad and were run for 1 h at 150 V. 1x running buffer was composed of 0.09% Tris, 1 M Tris, 0.1% SDS, and 5% sodium deoxycholate at pH 8 supplemented with protease inhibitors (ThermoFisher). Following the 10 min incubation on ice, the mixture was centrifuged at max speed for 10 min. The supernatant was taken and diluted with an equal volume of 2× Laemmli buffer for western blot analysis.

Transfection of HEK293 and U373 cells. HEK293 cells were washed with cold PBS three times prior to lysing cells. Cells were lysed on ice using RIPA buffer: 150 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris, 1 mM EDTA, 0.1% SDS, and 0.5% deoxycholate at pH 8 supplemented with protease inhibitors (ThermoFisher). Lysis of HEK293 cells was performed with cold PBS three times prior to lysing cells. Cells were lysed on ice using RIPA buffer: 150 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris, 1 mM EDTA, 0.1% SDS, and 0.5% deoxycholate at pH 8 supplemented with protease inhibitors (ThermoFisher). Following the 10 min incubation on ice, the mixture was centrifuged at max speed for 10 min. The supernatant was taken and diluted with an equal volume of 2× Laemmli buffer for western blot analysis.

Lysis of HEK293 cells. HEK293 cells were washed with cold PBS three times prior to lysing cells. Cells were lysed on ice using RIPA buffer: 150 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris, 1 mM EDTA, 0.1% SDS, and 0.5% deoxycholate at pH 8 supplemented with protease inhibitors (ThermoFisher). Following the 10 min incubation on ice, the mixture was centrifuged at max speed for 10 min. The supernatant was taken and diluted with an equal volume of 2× Laemmli buffer for western blot analysis.

AAV2/5 microinjections in vivo. All animal experiments were conducted in accordance with the National Institute of Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. Animals were acquired from the Chancellor’s Animal Research Committee at the University of California, Los Angeles. Wild-type C57BL/6NTac mice were generated from in house breeding colonies or purchased from Taconic Biosciences. All mice were housed with food and water available ad libitum in a 12 h light/dark environment. All animals were healthy with no obvious behavioral phenotype, were not involved in previous studies, and were sacrificed during the light cycle. Animals were initially deeply anesthetized in a chamber with 5% iso-flurane. The head of the animal was then shaved to remove the fur around the surgical site. The animal had its head fixed in a stereotaxic setup using ear bars. A nose cone was placed over the nose for continuous administration of iso-flurane throughout the procedure. The animal was gradually brought back to 25 °C using 5 °C steps for 30 s each. To polymerize the reaction was heated to 95 °C for 2 min using a PCR machine. The reaction was then slowly brought back to 25 °C using 5 °C steps for 30 s each. To polymerize the DNA, 0.5 µl water, 1.5 µl 10X T4 DNA ligase buffer, 1 µl 25 mM dNTPs, 1 µl 10 mM ATP, 1 µl T4 DNA ligase, 1 µl 10X NEB buffer 2, and the entire 10 µl annealing reaction was added to a PCR tube and was allowed to incubate at room temperature for an hour. This reaction was then added to L. coli Bl21 (DE3) cells lacking pLysS and plated on 2 mm x 2 cm LB-Agar plates with 100 µg/ml ampicillin. After determining the optimal concentration of kanamycin, the dilution was used for subsequent reactions with that particular uracil rattle.

High-throughput screening. Individual colonies were selected using a QPiza colony-picking robot (Genetix). Colonies were harvested to deep 96-well plates filled with 800 µl auto-induction media with 100 µg/ml ampicillin. Cultures were grown with vigorous shaking overnight at 30 °C. The bacteria were harvested by centrifugation (3000g) and washed three times with 900 µl PBS before freezing. Protein was extracted by freeze–thaw lysis with 900 µl phosphate-buffered saline. Rapid shaking was used to homogenize the solution. Crude lystate was clarified by centrifugation at 4000g for 30 min. 100 µl of clarified lystate was transferred to flat-bottomed 96-well plates (Greiner) using a liquid-handling robot. Initial fluorescence was assayed in a Safire2 plate-reading fluorimeter with stacker (Tecan). Excitation/emission wavelengths were 485/515 nm. Gain was between 80 and 120. The primers were phosphorylated using polynucleotides kinase (NEB) and 1 µl of the oligo template. The reaction was then incubated for 30 min at 37 °C. To determine the optimal template to primer ratio, four annelation reactions were initially set up using four different primer dilutions of the kanamized primer; 1:1, 1:5, 1:10, and 1:20. Primers were primer 1 and 1 µl of the DNA ligase buffer, and 7 µl of nuclease-free water was combined in a PCR tube. The reaction was heated to 95 °C for 2 min using a PCR machine. The reaction was then slowly brought back to 25 °C using 5 °C steps for 30 s each. To polymerize the DNA, 0.5 µl water, 1.5 µl 10X T4 DNA ligase buffer, 1 µl 25 mM dNTPs, 1 µl 10 mM ATP, 1 µl T4 DNA ligase, 1 µl 10X NEB buffer 2, and the entire 10 µl annealing reaction was added to a PCR tube and was allowed to incubate at room temperature for an hour. This reaction was then added to L. coli Bl21 (DE3) cells lacking pLysS and plated on 2 mm x 2 cm LB-Agar plates with 100 µg/ml ampicillin. After determining the optimal concentration of kanamycin, that dilution was used for subsequent reactions with that particular uracil rattle.

Heparin assay. Platelets were isolated from 300 µl of blood and resuspended in 1 ml of PBS. The platelets were then added to 900 µl of 140 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris, 0.1% SDS, and 0.5% deoxycholate at pH 8 supplemented with protease inhibitors (ThermoFisher). The platelets were incubated at 25 °C for 30 min. The mixture was then centrifuged at max speed for 10 min. The supernatant was then diluted with an equal volume of 2× Laemmli buffer for Western Blot analysis.

Imaging. HEK293 cells were transiently transfected with a vector encoding the Igk leader sequence followed by AITPsFlr, GGTGGS linker, a myc tag and the transmembrane domain of the PDGF receptor. After 24h of incubation at 37 °C with 5% CO₂ in 6-well plates, cells were trypsinized and plated onto coverslips that were pre-coated with poly-lysine. After another 24 h incubation at 37 °C with 5% CO₂ in 6-well plates, cells were mounted on a perfusion chamber. Images were acquired with an Olympus IX71 using an UplansApo 40 x 0.90 NA oil immersion lens or an Olympus BX51WI confocal microscope with a LUMPlanFL/IR 40 x 0.80 NA immersion lens. Once mounted in the perfusion chamber, a constant flow of fresh HEK293 buffer was perfused over the cells before and after the application of ligands. ATP solutions were made up fresh daily. The intracellular pH detection level was calculated as an average of the images acquired in the first 30 s. Fast-solution changes were achieved using SF-77B perfusion fast step controller from Warner Instruments. A 3-barreled glass square (Warner cat 64-0119) was placed as close to the cell as possible for imaging purposes. Steps of 800 µm were used to move the barrels onto and off the cells. On and off rates were determined using pClamp 10.6. HEK buffer: 140 mM NaCl, 1 mM MgCl₂, 2 mM CaCl₂, 10 mM HEPES, and 10 mM glucose adjusted to pH 7.4 with 5 mM NaOH. Intracellular pH
assessments were made using BCECF-AM following the manufacturer’s instruc-
tions (Invitrogen). For confocal microscopy, we used 473 nm excitation and 525 nm detection. For epifluorescence microscopy, imaging was performed using a 488 nm laser with alternating 400 (500 ms), 505 nm (50 ms) excitation, and 535 nm emission imaging. A monochromator (Till Photonics Polychrome IV or V) and a CCD were used for these experiments (Till Ilmago from Till Photonics) with imaging being controlled by TillVisier software. Animals were deeply anesthetized with pentobarbital (i.p.) prior to transcardial perfusion. Once no reflexes were observed, the chest cavity was opened. The left ventricle was impaled with a needle connected to a perfusion pump and the right was punctured to permit transcardial perfusion. The animals were perfused with at least 30 ml of PBS to completely flush the blood, followed by at least 30 ml of 10% buffered formalin to fix the tissues. Tissues were gently dissected out and fixed overnight in 10% buffered formalin at 4 °C. Tissues were then cryoprotected with 30% sucrose in PBS before being frozen in O.C.T. compound (Fisher Scientific: 23-730-571). 40 µm sections were harvested using a cryostat microtome (Leica). Sections were harvested into PBS and blocked with 10% normal goat serum and 0.5% Triton-X 100 in PBS for 1 h at room temperature prior to staining. Primary antibody was applied overnight at 4 °C in PBS with 10% normal goat serum and 0.5% Triton-X 100. Sections were washed three times with PBS following primary application. The secondary antibody was incubated at room temperature for 1 h followed by three washes with PBS before mounting on to slides. Sections were allowed to completely dry on the slide before applying Fluoromount-G (SouthernBiotech: 0100-01). Primary antibodies: S100β rabbit 1:1000 (Abcam ab145148). NeuN rabbit 1:1000 (Cell Signaling D353). GFP chicken 1:1000 (Abcam ab19790). Secondary antibodies: goat anti-chicken IgG Alexa 488 1:2000 (Invitrogen A11004). Goat anti-rabbit Alexa 546 1:2000 (Invitrogen A11011). Alexa 647 1:88 nm argon laser adjusted to 5–10% maximum output was used for imaging Alexa 488 dyes. A 543 HeNe laser adjusted to 20–30% maximum output intensity was used for imaging Alexa 546 dyes. A Model P-97 pipette puller from Sutter Instrument Co. was used to pull micropipettes from common vitreous. The micropipettes were filled with 0.5% Triton-X 100 and 0.5 mM CaCl2. Micromanipulators were used to place the tip of the pipette 10–20 µm above the cell being imaged. A constant flow of fresh buffer perfused the imaging chamber at all times. After 30 s of imaging, a 5 s puff of 3 mM ATP was administered via the PicoSyringe III from Intracel.

Animals were deeply anesthetized with isoflurane prior to decapitation. The brain was removed as gently and as quickly as possible, and then cooled as quickly as possible. The brain was mounted with superglue to a cutting platform and was bathed in ice-cold hippocampal slicing buffer while 300 µm sections were harvested using a vibratome. For spinal cord slices, a laminectomy was performed. The dura mater and all roots were removed and the spinal cord was subsequently mounted using superglue on an agarose block for transversal sectioning (300 µm). These sections were then placed in 32 °C hippocampal imaging buffer. All solutions were bubbled with 95% O2 and 5% CO2 for at least 30 min prior to slicing. Following sectioning, the slices were placed in a perfusion chamber in imaging buffer with a constant flow of 2–3 ml/min of hippocampal imaging buffer. Images were taken using an Olympus BX51W1 confocal microscope with a LUMPlanFL/IR 40 × 0.80 NA water immersion lens. A 488 nm argon laser adjusted to 10–15% maximum output intensity for imaging GFP. Hippocampal slicing buffer: 87 mM NaCl, 25 mM NaHCO3, 25 mM glucose, 2.5 mM KCl, 1.25 mM NaH2PO4, 75 mM sucrose, 0.5 mM MgCl2. Hippocampal imaging buffer: 126 mM NaCl, 25 mM NaHCO3, 10 mM glucose, 2.5 mM KCl, 1.24 mM NaH2PO4, 1.30 mM MgCl2, and 2.4 mM CaCl2.

Data analyses and statistics. Data from every experiment represents a minimum of n mice (for the experiments where mice were used). In all the imaging experiments, n = 3 is independent evaluations (mice or transfections). Sample sizes were not calculated a priori. In the figure panels and legends, n is defined as the number of replicates (cells, dendrites, regions of interest or evaluations in the case of biochemical evaluations) and generally refers to the number of cells unless otherwise stated. For AAV injections, mice were randomly assigned to each experimental group. No experimental data points were excluded. Statistical tests were run in Origin 9. Summary data are presented as mean ± s.e.m. Note that in some of the graphs, the bars representing the s.e.m. are smaller than the symbols.

References
1. Lohmann, K. On the pyrophosphate fraction in muscle. Naturwissenschaften 17, 624–625 (1929).
2. Burnstock, G. & Verkhratsky, A. Evolutionary origins of the purinergic signalling system. Acta Physiol. 195, 415–447 (2009).
3. Holton, F. A. & Holton, P. The capillary dilator substances in dry powders of spinal roots; a possible role of adenosine triphosphate in chemical transmission from nerve endings. J. Physiol. 126, 124–140 (1954).
4. Holton, P. The liberation of adenosine triphosphate on antidromic stimulation of sensory nerves. J. Physiol. 145, 494–504 (1959).
5. Burnstock, G. Purinergic nerves. Pharmacol. Rev. 24, 509–581 (1972).
6. Rajendran, M., Dane, E., Conley, J. & Tantama, M. Imaging adenosine triphosphate (ATP). Biosens. Bioelectron. 23, 73–84 (2016).
7. Wang, Z., Haydon, P. G. & Yeung, E. S. Direct observation of calcium-independent intercellular ATP signaling in astrocytes. Anal. Chem. 72, 2001–2007 (2000).
8. Wang, X. et al. P2X7 receptor inhibition improves recovery after spinal cord injury. Nat. Med. 10, 821–827 (2004).
9. Hazama, A., Hayashi, S. & Okada, Y. Cell surface measurements of ATP release from single pancreatic beta cells using a novel biosensor technique. Pflug. Arch. 347, 31–35 (1998).
10. Brown, P. & Dale, N. Spike-independent release of ATP from Xenopus spinal neurons evoked by activation of glutamate receptors. J. Physiol. 540, 851–860 (2001).
11. Lalo, U. et al. Exocytosis of ATP from astrocytes modulates phasic and tonic inhibition in the neocortex. PLoS Biol. 12, e0017474 (2014).
12. Singhal, P. & Kuh, W. G. Direct electrochemical detection of purine- and pyrimidine-based nucleotides with sinusoidal voltammetry. Anal. Chem. 69, 3552–3557 (1997).
13. Kueng, A., Kranz, C. & Miziaikoff, B. Amperometric ATP biosensor based on polymer entrapped enzymes. Biosens. Bioelectron. 19, 1301–1307 (2004).
14. Llaudet, E., Hatz, S., Droniou, M. & Dale, N. Microelectrode biosensor for real-time measurement of ATP in biological tissue. Anal. Chem. 77, 3267–3273 (2005).
15. de Wet, J. R., Wood, K. V., DeLuca, M., Helsinki, D. R. & Subramani, S. Firefly luciferase gene: structure and expression in mammalian cells. Mol. Cell. Biol. 7, 725–737 (1987).
16. Pellegrati, P., Falzoni, S., Pinton, P., Rizzuto, R. & Di Virgilio, F. A novel recombinant plasma membrane-targeted luciferase reveals a new pathway for ATP secretion. Mol. Biol. Cell 16, 3659–3665 (2005).
17. Morciano, G. et al. Use of luciferase probes to measure ATP in living cells and animals. Nat. Protoc. 12, 1542–1562 (2017).
18. Beigi, R., Kobatake, E., Aizawa, M. & Dubyak, G. R. Detection of local ATP secretion. J. Physiol. 327, 195–200 (2001).
19. Berg, J., Hung, Y. P. & Yellen, G. A genetically encoded biosensor of ATP enables physiological studies in living cells and animals. Am. J. Physiol. 276, C267–C278 (1999).
20. Pellegrati, P. et al. Increased level of extracellular ATP at tumor sites in vivo imaging with plasma membrane luciferase. PLoS ONE 3, e2599 (2008).
21. Berg, J., Huang, Y. P. & Yellen, G. A genetically encoded fluorescent reporter of ATP:ADP ratio. Nat. Methods 6, 161–166 (2009).
22. Tantama, M., Martínez-François, J. R., Mongeon, R. & Yellen, G. Imaging energy status in live cells with a fluorescent biosensor of the intracellular ATP-ADP ratio. Nat. Commun. 4, 2350 (2013).
23. Imamura, H. et al. Visualization of ATP levels inside single living cells with fluorescence resonance energy transfer-based genetically encoded indicators. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 106, 15651–15656 (2009).
23. Yaginuma, H. et al. Diversity in ATP concentrations in a single bacterial cell population revealed by quantitative single-cell imaging. *Sci. Rep.* **4**, 6522 (2014).

24. Chen, T. W. et al. Ultrasensitive fluorescent proteins for imaging neuronal activity. *Nature* **499**, 295–300 (2013).

25. Lakowicz, J. R. Principles of Fluorescence Spectroscopy 3rd edn. (Springer Science & Business Media, LLC, New York, USA, 2006).

26. Marvin, J. S. et al. An optimized fluorescent probe for visualizing glutamate neurotransmission. *Nat. Methods* **10**, 162–170 (2013).

27. Marvin, J. S. et al. Stability, affinity, and chromatic variants of the glutamate sensor iGluSnFR. *Nat. Methods* **15**, 936–939 (2017).

28. Patriarchi, T. et al. Ultrasalt neuronal imaging of dopamine dynamics with designed genetically encoded sensors. *Science* **360**, eaat4422 (2018).

29. Sun, F. et al. A genetically encoded fluorescent sensor enables rapid and specific detection of dopamine in flies, fish, and mice. *Cell 174*, 481–496 (2018).

30. Jing, M. et al. A genetically encoded fluorescent acetylcholine indicator for in vitro and in vivo studies. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **36**, 726–737 (2018).

31. Looger, L. L. et al. A genetically encoded fluorescent sensor for in vivo imaging of GABA. *bioRxiv* https://doi.org/10.1101/322578 (2018).

32. Rangarajan, V. et al. Activity-driven local ATP synthesis is required for synaptic function. *Cell 156*, 825–835 (2014).

33. Xu, J. et al. Imaging P2X4 receptor subcellular distribution, trafficking, and regulation using P2X4-pHluorin. *J. Gen. Physiol. 141*, 84–104 (2014).

34. Yagi, H. et al. Structures of the thermophilic F1-ATPase epsilon subunit suggesting ATP-regulated arm motion of its C-terminal domain in F1. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **104**, 11233–11238 (2007).

35. Kato-Yamada, Y. & Yoshida, M. Isolated epsilon subunit of thermophilic F1-ATPase binds ATP. *J. Biol. Chem.* **278**, 36013–36016 (2003).

36. Pédelaqz, J. D., Cabantous, S., Tran, T., Terwilliger, T. C. & Waldo, G. S. Engineering and characterization of a superfolder green fluorescent protein. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **24**, 79–88 (2006).

37. Haustein, M. D. et al. Conditions and constraints for astrocyte calcium signaling in the hippocampal mossy fiber pathway. *Neuron* **82**, 413–429 (2014).

38. Shigetomi, E. et al. Imaging calcium microdomains within entire astrocyte territories and endfeet with GCaMPs expressed using adeno-associated viruses. *J. Gen. Physiol. 141*, 633–647 (2013).

39. Traut, T. W. Physiological concentrations of purines and pyrimidines. *Mol. Cell. Biochem. 140*, 1–22 (1994).

40. Wick, A. N., Drury, D. R., Nakada, H. I. & Wolfe, J. B. Localization of the primary metabolic block produced by 2-deoxyglucose. *J. Biol. Chem. 224*, 963–969 (1957).

41. Kreidel, S. et al. mRuby, a bright monomeric red fluorescent protein for labeling of subcellular structures. *PLoS ONE 4*, e4391 (2009).

42. Reeves, A., Shigetomi, E. & Khakh, B. S. Bulk loading of calcium indicator dyes to study astrocyte physiology: key limitations and improvements using morphological maps. *J. Neurosci. 31*, 9353–9358 (2011).

43. Tsien, R. Y. The green fluorescent protein. *Annu. Rev. Biochem. 67*, 509–544 (1998).

44. Surprenant, A., Rassendren, F., Kawashima, E., North, R. A. & Buell, G. The cytosolic P2Z receptor for extracellular ATP identified as a P2Z receptor (P2Z7). *Science 272*, 735–738 (1996).

45. Bowser, D. N. & Khakh, B. S. Vesicular ATP is the predominant cause of intercellular calcium waves in astrocytes. *J. Gen. Physiol. 129*, 485–491 (2007).

46. Di Virgilio, F., Sarti, A. C., Falzoni, S., De Marchi, E. & Adinolfi, E. Extracellular ATP and P2 purinergic signalling in the tumour microenvironment. *Nat. Rev. Cancer 18*, 601–618 (2018).

47. Abbracchio, M. P. et al. International Union of Pharmacology LVIII: update on the P2Y G protein-coupled nucleotide receptors: from molecular mechanisms and pathophysiology to therapy. *Pharmacol. Rev. 58*, 281–341 (2006).

48. Burnstock, G. Physiology and pathophysiology of purinergic neurotransmission. *Physiol. Rev. 87*, 659–707 (2007).

49. Fields, R. D. & Burnstock, G. Purinergic signalling in neuron–glia interactions. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci. 7*, 423–436 (2006).

50. Khakh, B. S. & Burnstock, G. The double life of ATP. *Sci. Am. 301*, 84–90 (2009).

51. Khakh, B. S. et al. International Union of Pharmacology. XXIV. Current status of the nomenclature and properties of P2X receptors and their subunits. *Pharmacol. Rev. 53*, 107–118 (2001).

52. Verkhratsky, A. & Burnstock, G. Biology of purinergic signalling: its ancient evolutionary roots, its omnipresence and its multiple functional significance. *Bioessays 36*, 697–705 (2014).

53. Tao, R. et al. Genetically encoded fluorescent sensors reveal dynamic regulation of NADPH metabolism. *Nat. Methods 14*, 720–728 (2017).

54. Gomes, I. et al. G protein–coupled receptor heteromers. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol. 56*, 403–425 (2016).

55. Marvin, J. S., Schreiter, E. R., Echevarria, I. M. & Looger, L. L. A genetically encoded, high-signal-to-noise maltose sensor. *Proteins 79*, 3025–3036 (2011).

56. Studier, F. W. Protein production by auto-induction in high density shaking cultures. *Protein Expr. Purif. 41*, 207–234 (2005).

57. Kunkel, T. A. Rapid and efficient site-specific mutagenesis without phenotypic selection. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **82**, 488–492 (1985).

58. Octeau, J. C. et al. An optical neuron-astrocyte proximity assay at synaptic distance scales. *Neuron 98*, 49–66 (2018).

59. Srinivasan, R. et al. Ca(2+)+ signaling in astrocytes from Ip3r2(-/-) mice in brain slices and during startle responses in vivo. *Nat. Neurosci. 18*, 708–717 (2015).

Acknowledgements
Supported by the NIH (MH104069 and NS100525 to B.S.K.) and Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Janelia Research Campus (to L.L.L.). Looger and Khakh collaborations were part of the Janelia Visiting Scientist Program. J.N. was supported by a JSFS Overseas Research Fellowship (H28-729). M.T.K. was part of the doctoral program CCHD (Cell Communication in Health and Disease) financed by the Austrian Science Fund (FWF, W1205). Thanks to Gary Yellen (Harvard) for discussions. Thanks to Joshua Borda for performing spinal cord AAV microinjections and to Michael V. Sofroniew for sharing equipment.

Author contributions
M.A.L. performed molecular biology and imaging with the help from R.T., J.N., M.T.K., P.M.B., and J.S.M. J.S.M. and L.L.L. supervised sensor design and optimization. B.S.K. and L.L.L. conceived the project. B.S.K. helped analyze data, assembled figures, and wrote the paper with contribution from all authors.

Additional information
Supplementary Information accompanies this paper at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-08441-5.

Competing interests: The authors declare no competing interests.

Reprints and permission information is available online at http://npg.nature.com/reprintsandpermissions/

Journal peer review information: *Nature Communications* thanks Francesco Di Virgilio, Alexander Gourine and Thomas Knopfel for their contribution to the peer review of this work.

Publisher’s note: Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

© The Author(s) 2019