

## Preface to the Book Series

*To train young people to grind lenses... . I cannot see there would be much use...because most students go there to make money out of science or to get a reputation in the learned world. But in lens-grinding and discovering things hidden from our sight, these count for nought.*

—Antonie van Leeuwenhoek

Letter to Gottfried Leibniz on 28 September 1715 in response to Leibniz' request that he should open a school to train young people in microscopy

*You can observe a lot just by watching.*

—Yogi Berra

ONE OF THE CENTRAL THEMES OF BIOLOGY IS the constant change and transformation of most biological systems. In fact, this dynamic aspect of biology is one of its most fascinating characteristics, and it draws generation after generation of students absorbed in understanding how an organism develops, how a cell functions, or how the brain works. This series of manuals covers imaging techniques in the life sciences—techniques that try to capture these dynamics. The application of optical and other visualization techniques to study living organisms constitutes a direct methodology to follow the form and the function of cells and tissues by generating two- or three-dimensional images of them and to document their dynamic nature over time. Although it seems natural to use light to study cells or tissues, and microscopists have been doing this with fixed preparations since van Leeuwenhoek's time, the imaging of living preparations has only recently become standard practice. It is not an overstatement to say that imaging technologies have revolutionized research in many areas of biology and medicine. In addition to advances in microscopy, such as differential interference contrast or the early introduction of video technology and digital cameras, the development of methods to culture cells, to keep tissue slices alive, and to maintain living preparations, even awake and behaving, on microscopes has opened new territories to biologists. The synthesis of novel fluorescent tracers, indicator dyes, and nanocrystals and the explosive development of fluorescent protein engineering, optogenetical constructs, and other optical actuators like caged compounds have made possible studies characterizing and manipulating the form and function of cells, tissues, and circuits with unprecedented detail, from the single-molecule level to that of an entire organism. A similar revolution has occurred on the optical design of microscopes. Originally, confocal microscopy became the state-of-the-art imaging approach because of its superb spatial resolution and three-dimensional sectioning capabilities; later, the development of two-photon excitation enabled fluorescence imaging of small structures in the midst of highly scattered living media, such as whole-animal preparations, with increased optical penetration and reduced photodamage. Other

nonlinear optical techniques, such as second-harmonic generation and coherent anti-Stokes Raman scattering (CARS), now follow and appear well suited for measurements of voltage and biochemical events at interfaces such as plasma membranes. Finally, an entire generation of novel “superresolution” techniques, such as stimulated emission depletion (STED), photoactivated localization microscopy (PALM), and stochastic optical reconstruction microscopy (STORM), has arisen. These techniques have broken the diffraction limit barrier and have enabled the direct visualization of the dynamics of submicroscopic particles and individual molecules. On the other side of the scale, light-sheet illumination techniques allow the investigator to capture the development of an entire organism, one cell at a time. Finally, in the field of medical imaging, magnetic resonance scanning techniques have provided detailed images of the structure of the living human body and the activity of the brain.

This series of manuals originated in the Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory course on Imaging Structure and Function of the Nervous System, taught continuously since 1991. Since its inception, the course quickly became a “watering hole” for the imaging community and especially for neuroscientists and cellular and developmental neurobiologists, who are traditionally always open to microscopy approaches. The original manual, published in 2000, sprang from the course and focused solely on neuroscience, and its good reception, together with rapid advances in imaging techniques, led to a second edition of the manual in 2005. At the same time, the increased blurring between neuroscience and developmental biology made it necessary to encompass both disciplines, so the original structure of the manual was revised, and many new chapters were added. But even this second edition felt quickly dated in this exploding field. More and more techniques have been developed, requiring another update of the manual, too unwieldy now for a single volume. This is the reasoning behind this new series of manuals, which feature new editors and a significant number of new methods. The material has been split into several volumes, thus allowing a greater depth of coverage. The first book, *Imaging: A Laboratory Manual*, is a background text focused on general microscopy techniques and with some basic theoretical principles, covering techniques that are widely applicable in many fields of biology and also some specialized techniques that have the potential to greatly expand the future horizon of this field. A second manual, *Imaging in Neuroscience: A Laboratory Manual*, keeps the original focus on nervous system imaging from the Cold Spring Harbor Imaging course. A third volume, *Imaging in Developmental Biology: A Laboratory Manual*, now solely deals with developmental biology, covering imaging modalities particularly suited to follow developmental events. There are plans to expand the series into ultrastructural techniques and medical-style imaging, such as functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) or positron emission tomography (PET), so more volumes will hopefully follow these initial three, which cover mostly optical-based approaches.

Like its predecessors, these manuals are not microscopy textbooks. Although the basics are covered, I refer readers interested in a comprehensive treatment of light microscopy to many of the excellent texts published in the last decades. The targeted audience of this series includes students and researchers interested in imaging in neuroscience or developmental or cell biology. Like other CSHL manuals, the aim has been to publish manuals that investigators can have and consult at their setup or bench. Thus, the general philosophy has been to keep the theory to the fundamentals and concentrate instead on passing along the little tidbits of technical knowledge that make a particular technique or an experiment work and that are normally left out of the methods sections of scientific articles.

This series of manuals has only been possible because of the work and effort of many people. First, I thank Sue Hockfield, Terri Grodzicker, Bruce Stillman, and Jim Watson, who conceived and supported the Imaging course over the years and planted the seed blossoming now in these manuals and, more importantly, in the science that has spun out of this field. In addition, the staff at CSHL Press has been exceptional in all respects, with special gratitude to John Inglis, responsible for an excellent team with broad vision, and David Crotty, who generated the ideas and enthusiasm behind this new series. Also, Inez Sialiano, Mary Cozza, Michael Zierler, Kaaren Janssen, Catriona

Simpson, Virginia Peschke, Judy Cuddihy, Martin Winer, Kevin Griffin, Kathleen Bubbeo, Lauren Heller, Susan Schaeffer, Jan Argentine, and Denise Weiss worked very hard, providing fuel to the fire to keep these books moving, and edited them with speed, precision, and intelligence. More than anyone, they are the people responsible for their timely publication. Finally, I honor the authors of the chapters in these books, many of them themselves past instructors of the CSH Imaging course and of similar imaging courses at institutions throughout the world. Teaching these courses is a selfless effort that benefits the field as a whole, and these manuals, reflecting the volunteer efforts of hundreds of researchers, who not only have taken the time to write down their technical knowledge but have agreed to generously share it with the rest of the world, are a beautiful example of such community cooperation. As Leibniz foresaw, “lens grinding” is a profession that is indeed meaningful and needs the training of young people.

— RAFAEL YUSTE

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# 15

## Visualizing Cell Contacts and Cell Polarity in *Caenorhabditis elegans* Embryos

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### ABSTRACT

The *Caenorhabditis elegans* embryo is particularly amenable to microscopy and embryological studies because of its short developmental time, transparent shell, and nonpigmented cells. Within the embryo, contacts between cells often establish the polarization of neighboring cells. Experiments on cell contacts past the initial stages of cleavage can currently be performed on the embryo *in vivo*. The following techniques describe the process of making an agar mount for microscopic visualization, capturing 4D data on the microscope, identifying and highlighting cell contacts between blastomeres, and laser killing of blastomeres to inhibit cell contacts.

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### INTRODUCTION

Understanding how cells in the embryo establish polarity and cell fate is important for fully understanding the process of development. *Caenorhabditis elegans* is an excellent model system for studying polarity in the embryo because of its invariant lineage and relatively few numbers of cells in the embryo (Sulston et al. 1983).

The proteins involved in polarizing the one-cell *C. elegans* embryo have been extensively studied and are well understood (reviewed in Gonczy and Rose 2005). Many studies have also examined the establishment of polarity of blastomeres later during embryogenesis. Several studies have shown that cell contacts between the P2 and the EMS blastomere permit and direct the polarity of the EMS spindle and establish the fate of the future daughter cells from EMS, the E and MS blastomeres (Walston and Hardin 2006). Through elegant blastomere isolation and recombination experiments, Goldstein showed the roles of both Src and Wnt signaling pathways in establishing polarity within the EMS blastomere (Goldstein et al. 2006). The four-cell *C. elegans* embryo is particularly amenable to both *in vivo* and *in vitro* experimentation. However, beyond the four-cell stage, *in vitro* embryological

experiments, such as those conducted by Goldstein, are increasingly difficult as individual cell identity is difficult or impossible to ascertain. Understanding how these cell contacts can lead to polarity and cell-fate differences is possible through in vivo experiments, such as examining cell–cell contacts and limiting those contacts through either genetic or mechanical manipulation. An example of this technique is the establishment of polarization of the ABar blastomere through contact with the C blastomere (Walston et al. 2004). To study the effects of this contact, several steps were required. Initially, analysis of images was conducted to determine the contact between the cells (Movie 15-1). The effects of this contact were abrogated through *pal-1* RNA interference, which alters the fate of the C blastomere (Movie 15-2). Second, the ABp blastomere was subjected to laser killing, creating steric hindrance between C and ABar (Movie 15-3). Similar techniques can be used to study contacts between blastomeres throughout development.

Here, we describe the techniques used to conduct these experiments including preparing embryos for visualization on an agar mount, collection of 4D data, analysis of 4D data, and ablation techniques for laser killing of individual blastomeres within the embryo. These techniques focus primarily on the use of differential interference contrast (DIC) microscopy because of its broad availability, common use for *C. elegans* imaging, and wide applicability to microscopic analysis of embryos of other organisms.

However, many of these techniques are also applicable to fluorescent imaging. The broad range of green fluorescent protein (GFP) markers and other labels that can be visualized in living embryos expands the possibilities of analysis of cell contacts and cell polarization.

## Protocol A

### An Agar Mount for Observation of *C. elegans* Embryos

The agar mount is an easy way to prepare *C. elegans* embryos for microscopy. The mount slightly embeds the embryo in agar to hold it in place. The mount also slightly compresses the embryo to provide consistent orientation of the embryo such that every embryo will be positioned with either its right side or its left side facing the objective. Other techniques can result in random orientations that complicate analysis and make identification of individual blastomeres more challenging.

#### IMAGING SETUP

---

For assembling the mount, a standard stereoscope is required for all steps with *C. elegans*. To identify early embryos (one to four cells), a total zoom of 80X or greater is recommended. We use Leica S8 APO microscopes with 10X eyepieces and Leica MZ12.5 microscopes with 16X eyepieces and 1.0X objective lenses.

#### MATERIALS

---

See the end of the chapter for recipes for reagents marked with <R>.

##### Reagents

Agar (5%)  
*C. elegans* hermaphrodite (gravid)  
M9 buffer <R>  
Valap <R>

##### Equipment

See Imaging Setup  
Calibrated glass pipettes, 50- $\mu$ L  
Coverslips, 18 x 18-mm (#1)  
Eyelash brush (eyelash glued to end of round toothpick)  
Mouth pipette 15-in aspirator tube assembly  
Microscope slides, 25 x 75 x 1-mm  
Platinum wire pick  
One inch of 30-gauge platinum or 90% platinum, 10% iridium wire is inserted into a 6-in pasteur pipette and is heated in a flame until the glass melts around the wire. Flat end hobby pliers or a small tack hammer are used to flatten the end of the pick.  
Single-depression microslide, 3-mm  
Syringes (1 cc) with 27 gauge x 1/2-in needles



## EXPERIMENTAL METHOD

The total time needed for the experienced is 10–15 min and for the novice is 30 min.

1. Use a platinum wire pick to move approximately five gravid *C. elegans* hermaphrodites from a culture dish to a single-depression microslide mostly filled with M9 buffer.

The number of hermaphrodites needed will depend on the number of embryos required at the appropriate stage.

2. By holding a syringe with a needle in each hand, place the needles on either side of a hermaphrodite, and draw the flat sides of the tips of the needles across each other to cut the worm in half transversely (Fig. 1A,B). The embryos will be released from the halves of the hermaphrodite. Use an eyelash brush to carefully prod the halves to expel any remaining embryos.

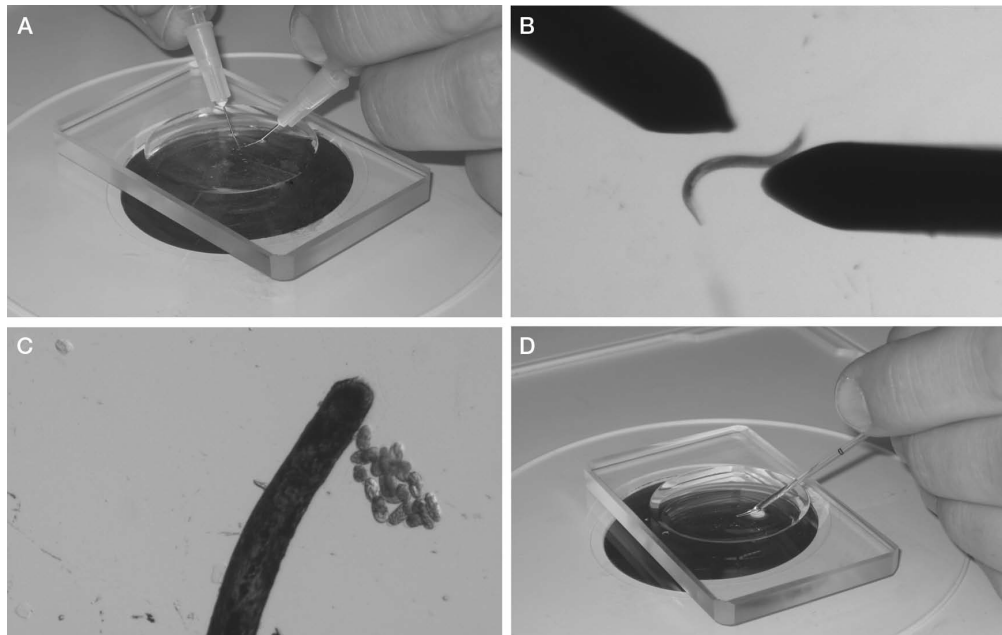
It is important to cut as close to the vulva as possible to release newly fertilized embryos in the uterus. This step can also be conducted by cutting the worm in half with a #15 curved blade scalpel.

3. Sort embryos using the eyelash brush, and brush together into a group of approximately 10 embryos (Fig. 1C).

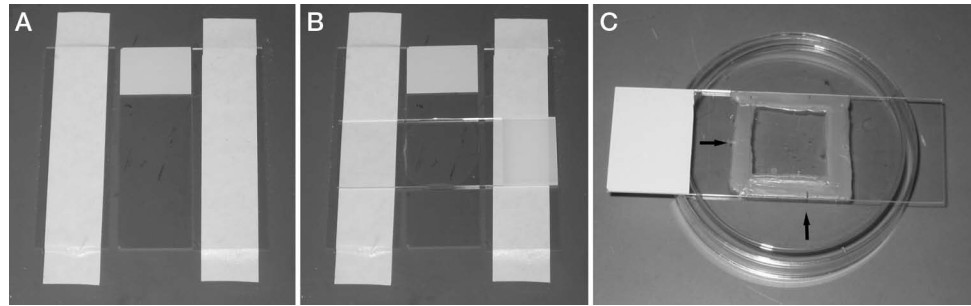
Embryos will tend to stick slightly to each other when grouped. If you desire a certain stage of embryogenesis, it is at this point that the embryo stage should be assessed and should be sorted appropriately. Two-cell stage embryos are the easiest developmental stage to collect.

4. Using laboratory label tape, tape two microscope slides parallel and one slide width apart on the laboratory bench. Place a third slide between the two taped slides (Fig. 2A). Using a 6-in pasteur pipette, place three to four drops of molten 5% agar onto the middle slide. Immediately lay the fourth slide perpendicular to the other three slides over the agar, and press it over the taped slides to flatten the agar before it cools (Fig. 2B).

5. Once the agar has set up, use a razor blade to trim excess agar from the edges of the slides.



**FIGURE 1.** Isolation of *C. elegans* embryos and preparation for mounting on a slide. (A,B) Gravid hermaphrodites are cut in half with 27 × 1/2-in needles. (C) At a higher magnification, embryos are sorted and are grouped using an eyelash. (D) Embryos and M9 buffer are transferred using a mouth pipette.



**FIGURE 2.** Making an agar pad. (A) Three slides are placed on the bench, and the outer two are taped down to the bench. (B) A drop of molten 5% agar is placed onto the middle slide. A fourth slide is then placed perpendicular to the three original slides. The top slide is compressed over the taped slides. (C) The finished slide is sealed with Valap. Using a toothpick to make hash marks in the Valap (arrows) aids in finding the grouping of embryos on the compound scope.

Carefully slide apart the untaped slides so the agar pad is left in the center of one slide.

See *Troubleshooting*.

6. Heat a glass 50- $\mu$ L pipette in a flame. Once the glass is soft and fluid, remove it from the flame, and quickly pull apart the ends. Break the two ends apart to create a pipette with a tapered end with a diameter of  $\sim 40$   $\mu$ m. Place the pipette in a mouth pipette aspirator.
7. Using the mouth pipette, transfer the grouping of embryos (from Step 3) and  $\sim 20$   $\mu$ L of M9 to the corner of the agar pad on the microscope slide (Fig. 1D).
8. Brush the embryos out of the M9 into the center of the slide using the eyelash. Position the embryos in a single layer side by side.  
See *Troubleshooting*.
9. Set the edge of a coverslip at the side of the agar pad opposite the M9, and slowly drop it so that the coverslip lands on the embryos before it contacts the M9. Use a Kimwipe to wick excess buffer from the edges of the coverslip, and wick air bubbles from under the coverslip.  
See *Troubleshooting*.
10. Trim excess agar from the edges of the coverslip using a razor blade. Seal the edges of the coverslip with melted Valap using a paintbrush (Fig. 2C).

## TROUBLESHOOTING

---

*Problem (Step 5):* The agar pad dries to the slide before it can be used.

*Solution:* Make the pad immediately before use. Stereomicroscopes with light sources mounted under the stage have the potential to heat the stage after long use, which can quickly dry agar pads. Using a stereomicroscope with an external bulb or a cool temperature bulb will reduce this problem.

*Problem (Step 8):* Embryos fail to develop.

*Solution:* One-cell embryos are especially vulnerable to mechanical stress and are challenging to mount without killing. If studying a later stage of development, the likelihood of embryos surviving is markedly increased if two-cell or later stage embryos are used to make the mount. Groupings larger than 15–20 embryos often display increased lethality caused by oxygen starvation. By keeping groupings of embryos around 10 embryos, oxygen starvation should not be a problem.

*Problem (Step 9):* When coverslip is placed on slide, all the embryos wash to the edge of the coverslip.

*Solution:* Too much M9 buffer is used, and the M9 buffer is hitting the embryos before the coverslip can land on them and hold them in the agar.

*Problem (Step 9):* The slide has air bubbles under the coverslip.

*Solution:* Use more M9 buffer. This will allow M9 buffer to completely wash under the coverslip. However, too much M9 buffer will cause embryos to wash away (see previous problem).

## DISCUSSION

---

Mounting *C. elegans* embryos on agar mounts provides a stable long-term environment for microscopic analysis of development. The slight compression from the coverslip will result in embryos reproducibly positioned with either the left or the right side facing toward the objective lens. During later stages of embryogenesis, embryos turn such that left-side views become dorsal views and right-side views become ventral views. Embryos on agar mounts will survive and will hatch from the eggshell on the mount. Embryos prepared with an agar mount are amenable to both light microscopy (with DIC optics) and confocal microscopy.

Alternative methods for mounting embryos, such as poly-L-lysine-coated slides with grease feet (Mohler and Isaacson 2010) or polymer beads (see Chapter 2), are often used to avoid compression to the embryo. However, these techniques typically result in random embryo orientation, which can complicate analysis of development. Additionally, the slight compression of the coverslip seems to have little to no effect on development; and, in most cases, avoidance of such compression is unnecessary.

In conclusion, preparing *C. elegans* embryos on an agar mount is a simple technique that can be easily mastered and is regularly performed by undergraduates in the investigators' laboratories. It provides a consistent embryonic orientation and environment that is suitable for long-term microscopy of *C. elegans* embryos.

## Protocol B

# Acquisition of 4D DIC Microscopic Data to Determine Cell Contacts in Embryos

Acquisition of stacks of images throughout the thickness of the embryo over time is a crucial method for identifying the positions and contacts between cells. Such 4D microscopy is a routine tool in laboratories that study early *C. elegans* development.

This protocol describes the use of a custom script within  $\mu$ Manager's Beanshell scripting language. The script is helpful for reducing the number of shutter open/close events during 4D acquisition. Alternatively, the standard  $\mu$ Manager package has been used successfully by one of us (Hardin) to acquire 4D footage, but this involves 20-fold more shutter open/close events than when the script is used. The script is available at <http://worms.zoology.wisc.edu/4d/4d.html>.

## IMAGING SETUP

---

1. Microscopy/camera hardware: This protocol assumes a basic high-numerical-aperture (high-NA) microscope equipped with oil-immersion objectives and, optionally, an oilable, high-NA condenser from any of the major microscope manufacturers. We typically acquire 4D movies using a 60 $\times$ –63 $\times$ , 1.4–1.45-NA PlanApo objective. Older Newvicon video cameras, coupled to the video port on the microscope, are adequate for many applications, especially if they are equipped with a zoomable video lens attachment such as those sold by Nikon. In this case, an AG-5 digitizing board (Scion Corporation) or a similar video frame grabber can be used to digitize the video signal. Alternatively, modern cameras are almost exclusively charge-coupled device (CCD) cameras and have much higher spatial resolution than older video formats. We have successfully used cameras from Scion Corporation and QImaging. The mounting hardware for such devices differs depending on the microscope being used.
2. Cooled environment: We have found that *C. elegans* embryos can be imaged for long periods of time if the ambient temperature is reduced to  $\sim 20^{\circ}\text{C}$ .
3. z-axis controller/shutter/serial port: A variety of z-axis controllers are available from commercial sources (e.g., Prior Scientific, Ludl Electronics Products, Applied Spectral Imaging [ASI]). In addition, a shutter to block the transmitted light path between time points is strongly encouraged to minimize exposure of embryos to light and to heat.
4. Software: One of us (Walston) has used commercial software (IPLab) to acquire 4D footage. If an inexpensive alternative is desired, free software has been written by one of us (Hardin) as an alternative. Several options are available.
  - a. Legacy acquisition plug-ins for ImageJ: These plug-ins are available free of charge at the following URL: <http://worms.zoology.wisc.edu/research/4d/4d.html>. Full documentation of the plug-ins and detailed instructions for installation of ImageJ and QuickTime for Java are available at the same URL.
  - b.  $\mu$ Manager: The public domain program  $\mu$ Manager supports a variety of CCD cameras, z motors, and shutters. The  $\mu$ Manager program can be obtained at <http://www.micro-manager.org/>.

## MATERIALS

---

### Reagents

*C. elegans* embryos, embedded as described in Protocol A  
Immersion oil (Type DF oil is recommended)

### Equipment

See Imaging Setup.

## EXPERIMENTAL METHOD

---

The total time needed for the experienced is 5 min and for the novice is 15 min.

1. Turn on the z-axis and shutter control boxes and the CCD camera. Turn on the light switch on the microscope. Find a group of embryos using the 10X objective, before oiling the coverslip.
2. If a high-NA condenser is present, place a drop of oil on the condenser (for upright microscopes) or on the bottom of the slide (inverted microscopes). Carefully position the condenser so that it contacts the oil and spreads it uniformly between the condenser and the microscope slide.
3. Focus the condenser. The simplest method for achieving good condenser focus is to stop down the condenser using the iris diaphragm, closing it almost completely. Then the height of the condenser can be adjusted at high magnification until the octagonal outline of the diaphragm is in focus. When performed, open the condenser.
4. Once embryos have been located at 10X and the condenser has been focused, swing the 10X objective out of the way, and add a drop of immersion oil to the coverslip (upright microscope) or to the 60X objective lens (inverted microscope). We find that Type DF oil works well.
5. Carefully slide the 60X or the 100X objective into place (it should just clear the sealant on the slide, as long as it is not too thick). Make sure the correct condenser setting is selected to match the lens.
6. Refocus on the embryos, and refocus the condenser.
7. Open  $\mu$ Manager. Use the “Live” button in the main  $\mu$ Manager Studio window to display an image from the camera. If the “Autoshutter” option is not checked, click the “Open” button to open the shutter. Otherwise, it should open when the “Live” button is clicked. Optimize the positioning of embryos in the field using the stage controls on the microscope and/or by rotating the CCD camera gently by hand (if the mount supports this). Optimize the Nomarski optics through a combination of the following.
  - Center the condenser by closing it and by moving the octagon to the center of the field of view. Reopen the diaphragm to encompass the entire field of view.
  - Adjust the light level. High-quality Nomarski optics requires a substantial amount of light. Optimal settings must be empirically determined.
  - Adjust the exposure time, the gain, and other settings on the CCD camera within. Use  $\mu$ Manager a final time if needed.

See *Troubleshooting*.

8. Invoke the  $\mu$ Manager 4D acquisition script. This protocol presupposes that a “favorite” has been created previously using the script window in  $\mu$ Manager. This window is invoked using the “Tools → Script Panel” menu command in  $\mu$ Manager. When the script window appears, select “Acquire\_4D.bsh” from the list of favorites. Make sure that the cursor is blinking within the code of this script. Then click “Run”. Enter the desired parameters for time interval, number of time points, number of focal planes, and distance between focal planes. Enter the root



name for the images that will be collected. (Note: because most operating systems limit the total length of a file's name to 32 characters, the root name should be kept short.) If a shutter is being used, make sure that the "Use shutter" option is selected.

9. Click "OK." The parameters that have been entered will be displayed. If these are acceptable, click "OK." When prompted for a location to which to save images, make a new directory that will contain the images from the 4D sequence. Within the newly created directory, we recommend making two additional directories: (a) one called "working" and (b) one called "terminal." The latter is useful for acquiring a final z-stack of the terminal embryos. Typical settings for a long overnight movie are the following.

Number of time points: usually 200–300 for an overnight movie

Time interval (sec): usually 120–180

Number of shutters: 1

Number of focal planes: 20

Distance between focal planes: 1  $\mu\text{m}$

Root name: "working," or a short name of choice

Information for movie: Enter any pertinent information.

See *Troubleshooting*.

10. Once a directory is specified, the computer should start acquiring images. Status updates will be displayed in the ImageJ main window. To abort, click the "Stop" button in the "Script Panel" window.
11. When the movie is finished, we recommend collecting a terminal image. To do so, keep the field of view the same. Collect a second movie, specifying "1" as the number of time points. Save this movie in the "terminal" folder created previously.
12. To view the movie, there are several options available.
  - i. Raw 4D data sets: These can be viewed in one of several ways, including (a) importing the sequences as a "Virtual 5D Stack" within ImageJ, using the "Virtual 5D Stack" plug-in, available on the ImageJ web site, or (b) using the "Browse4D" plug-in available at <http://worms.zoology.wisc.edu/4d/4d.html>.
  - ii. Compressed movies: Movies can also be compressed to save disk space and can be viewed using QuickTime and the "QT4D Writer" and "QT4D Player" plug-ins available at the same URL. If this approach is being used, we typically save the movie using the same root name as the raw files with the word "movie" appended in the same directory created for the experiment. Although many compression algorithms are available, we typically use "Photo/JPEG," "Motion JPEGA," or "Motion JPEGB" compression, "grayscale," and "Medium" quality. This approach can compress movies 30-fold. To play compressed movies, use the QT4D Player plug-in. Select the desired movie. A graphical interface with clickable buttons or the arrow keys on the numeric keyboard can be used to navigate through movies. Once the movie has been successfully compressed and its quality verified, for routine purposes, it is now fine to delete the original files.

## TROUBLESHOOTING

---

*Problem (Step 7):* No light appears to be reaching the camera.

*Solution:* Make sure the slider that diverts light from the microscope to the camera port is in the proper position and that the power supply to the camera is on. If the shutter has an external toggle switch, make sure that it is in the correct position. If the exposure time is set to too low a value, increase the exposure time using the controls in the Main  $\mu$ Manager window.

*Problem (Step 9):* The plane of focus drifts systematically over time.

*Solution:* This often occurs in the first few minutes after making an agar mount. For this reason, it is advisable to check the focus several times during the first 15–20 min of acquisition. To reset the focus, open the shutter, and use the coarse focus on the microscope to refocus on the top focal plane.

*Problem (Step 9):* Temperature variation in the room results in inconsistent time course of development or variable phenotypes.

*Solution:* For best results, filming should take place in a room held at constant temperature, ~20°C. Make sure the air conditioner is on and that the door remains closed.

*Problem (Step 9):* After several hundred time points,  $\mu$ Manager reports an error from which it cannot recover.

*Solution:* Some users have reported errors with  $\mu$ Manager when using USB-to-serial port adapters. This is a known issue with  $\mu$ Manager. Using a peripheral component interconnect (PCI)-based serial port card appears to alleviate this problem. Alternatively, acquire several shorter movies. We have successfully used this script under  $\mu$ Manager for acquiring up to 150 time points with 25 focal planes/time point.

## DISCUSSION

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This procedure will result in the production of 4D data sets in the form of a series of consecutively named TIFF (tagged image file format) files that can be read by many different programs, including ImageJ, especially when supplemented with appropriate plug-ins. The reduced costs of such a system make this basic system feasible for teaching laboratories and research laboratories constrained by limited funds. Although we have described the use of such a setup for imaging *C. elegans* embryos, this apparatus is well suited for acquiring images of any transparent specimen.

## Protocol C

# Analysis of 4D DIC Microscopic Data to Determine Cell Contacts in Embryos

Identification of cell contacts is important for understanding how cells within the embryo can be polarized by their neighbors. This protocol will describe a technique for identifying cell contacts and for following those contacts through development. This protocol involves manual segmentation of the membrane of each blastomere from 4D DIC data sets (a wild-type example is shown in Movie 15-1; for comparison, a *pal-1*(RNAi) embryo is shown in Movie 15-2, and a laser-irradiated embryo is shown in Movie 15-3). Although this technique was performed with *C. elegans* embryos, it will work with any 4D DIC data set. The recent development of a pleckstrin homology (PH)-domain tagged::GFP expressed in *C. elegans* embryos simplifies this analysis (Audhya et al. 2005); however, many organisms lack appropriate GFP transgenes. The use of the GFP transgene advances other fluorescent techniques for labeling the membrane of embryonic cells that required using a laser to carefully permeabilize the eggshell to allow entrance of the dye into the embryo. The technique described below requires only easily obtainable 4D DIC data sets (see Protocol B).

## IMAGING SETUP

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Previously obtained 4D data sets are required. This technique will specifically address the use of DIC images but can also be extended to confocal images of transgenic embryos.

## MATERIALS

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### Equipment

See Imaging Setup

Computer with image analysis software program and drawing or photograph editing program

A variety of programs can be used for this technique. The image analysis program must have the ability to handle and to easily navigate 4D data sets. The investigators regularly use ImageJ and occasionally use BD Biosciences IPLab. For the drawing or photograph editing program, the investigators have used commercially available Adobe Photoshop and Adobe Photoshop Elements, and freely available versions of ImageJ and GIMP.

Tracing tool

A mouse can be used for this; however, the investigators have had significantly more success using a pen and tablet (such as a Wacom tablet) or the trackpad on a laptop computer.

## EXPERIMENTAL METHOD

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The total time needed is 15–20 min per time point.

1. Open the 4D data set in the image analysis program. Navigate through time points to the time of interest, and identify the cells of interest. Scroll through the focal planes identifying the focal plane with the closest contact or the clearest contact between the cells.

See *Troubleshooting*.

To analyze cell contacts, start the method at least two to three time points before contact or suspected contact.

2. Export all images from that focal plane either to individual frames or to a stack of images.
3. Open the exported images in one of the photograph editing programs. Starting with the first image, select the freehand drawing tool in the software, and use the trackpad or the mouse to trace around the membrane of one of the cells in the embryo.

The first image analyzed may not be the first time point. In several cases, the investigators found it easier to trace the best contact time point first and to work in either direction in time after that.

4. Selecting a different color, repeat for the other cell being studied for contact. Maintain the color scheme throughout the analysis.
5. Repeat for each time point in the analysis.

See *Troubleshooting*.

## TROUBLESHOOTING

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*Problem (Step 1):* Difficulty determining where the cell membranes are for each cell.

*Solution:* It is highly recommended to have both the single frame and the 4D data set open at the same time. Membranes that are hard to pick out in the individual frame often are much more obvious in that frame when it can be visualized within the context of the 4D data sets. Often examining neighboring images (either adjacent time steps or adjacent focal steps) can clarify the membrane boundaries in the individual frame. Using a fluorescent membrane marker, such as a PH domain::GFP transgene, highlights membrane boundaries simplifying analysis of cell contacts.

*Problem (Step 5):* This process takes a lot of time, is there a quicker way to do this?

*Solution:* Several *C. elegans* laboratories, including the investigators' laboratories, are working on automated or semiautomated segmentation techniques for identifying cell boundaries in images. Until the quality of these techniques can be tested and can be shown to be accurate, hand segmentation of the images is the most accurate way, although it is time consuming. As mentioned above, membrane-based GFP markers also simplify this process and reduce the time for image analysis.

## DISCUSSION

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This procedure will result in the identification of cell membranes and potential contacts between different blastomeres in the embryo. Although described here for use with *C. elegans* embryos, it could be conducted with any 4D DIC data set. This technique requires particular attention to detail to correctly identify the boundaries of each cell. However, if both a static image and the 4D data set are compared simultaneously, identification of cell boundaries can be completed accurately. Images that use GFPs that label cell boundaries or cell membranes make identification of the boundaries straightforward and require tracing of the boundaries only to highlight and to identify particular cells.

## Protocol D

### Laser Killing of Blastomeres in *C. elegans*

Blastomere isolation and recombination experiments have led to a wealth of understanding of the events in the four-cell *C. elegans* embryo. However, identifying individual blastomeres after isolation at stages past the four-cell stage is limited. In addition, removal of blastomeres from their native surroundings can interfere with many cell contacts besides the contacts of interest. An alternative approach to studying cell interactions within the *C. elegans* embryo is to use laser ablation of individual cells. Laser ablation can be used to kill one of two cells in contact with each other to understand what happens when a cell no longer signals to its neighbor. Additionally, killing a cell that is between two cells that will eventually contact each other can result in the corpse of the cell forming a steric barrier between the cells preventing the contact. The following protocol describes laser ablation of embryos mounted on an agar mount.

#### IMAGING SETUP

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The laser ablation of *C. elegans* blastomeres requires DIC optics with an ~60x–100x high-NA objective lens. The microscope also requires a tunable dye laser attachment for the lasing and a camera to observe progress of laser killing. A common setup for ablation of *C. elegans* consists of a Micropoint tunable dye laser (Photonic Instruments, Arlington, IL), which includes a 337-nm nitrogen pumping laser and a dye cell filled with Coumarin 440 dye (5 mM in methanol). The intensity of the laser spot can be attenuated using a density gradient filter that slides to generate a spot of the appropriate diameter and intensity as judged by cracking of a coverslip (see below).

#### MATERIALS

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##### Reagents

*C. elegans* embryos mounted on an agar mount slide (see Protocol A)

##### Equipment

See Imaging Setup

#### EXPERIMENTAL METHOD

---

The total time needed is 15–30 min.

1. Select embryos on an agar mount.
2. Place embryos on the microscope, and locate them on the slide.
3. Focus the image on the top focal plane of the embryos.
4. Move the focus slightly above the embryos (essentially focusing on the coverslip of the slide), and move the microscope stage to remove embryos from the field of view.
5. Activate a single pulse of the laser. If focused properly, the laser should crack or poke a small hole in the coverslip when pulsed.

See *Troubleshooting*.



6. Note on the monitor where the pulse cracked the coverslip.  
If using a monitor with a glass screen, marking the spot on the screen with a marker directly on the screen is convenient.
7. Move the microscope stage back to the embryos, and focus on the nucleus of the blastomere to be targeted.  
The target nuclei should be in interphase of the cell cycle and should not be undergoing division.
8. Lase the nucleus of the target cell with ~10 pulses/sec until charcoal buildup can begin to be seen within the nuclei, ~10–15 sec.  
See *Troubleshooting*.
9. Record embryonic development with 4D microscopy.

## TROUBLESHOOTING

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*Problem (Step 5):* No hole or crack appears in the coverslip when targeting the laser.

*Solution:* If no hole appears in the field of view, either the laser is not aimed properly down the objective within the field of view, or the focus is incorrect. The microscope must be focused on the coverslip. If the laser is properly positioned, slightly adjust the focus with the fine-focus control until the coverslip is in focus.

*Problem (Step 8):* The embryo explodes when laser ablation is attempted.

*Solution:* If focused too close to the coverslip while targeting the nuclei within a particular embryo, the embryo will rupture as the laser cracks the coverslip. To prevent this, target focal planes of those nuclei deeper within the embryo.

*Problem (Step 8):* The cell fails to die and continues through development.

*Solution:* If the target nucleus is not lasered sufficiently, it can recover, and the cell will resume mitotic divisions while the embryo progresses through development. Additionally, some cells progress through one final cell division before halting any future divisions. Depending on the particular nature and goals of the experiment, this may or may not be acceptable, and the cell should not be considered killed until cell divisions are halted. Many laser-killed blastomeres will display Brownian motion in which particles in the cytoplasm undergo rapid shaking movements following ablation. This should not be confused with cell division.

*Problem:* The entire embryo dies rather than an individual blastomere being killed.

*Solution:* Contrary to the previous problem of not lasering the nucleus long enough, if the entire embryo dies, it is usually caused by excessive lasering triggering embryonic arrest. Practice and experience will provide the best experience with gauging the appropriate amount of lasering to trigger cell death without killing the entire embryo.

## DISCUSSION

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In cases in which blastomere isolation is not feasible, an alternative is laser killing of particular blastomeres to understand the effects of those blastomeres on development or to create a barrier with the killed cell that prevents other cells from contacting each other. This technique does not require dissecting the embryo, and identification of individual blastomeres at the time of the killing and subsequent to the killing simply requires tracing the lineage of the remaining blastomeres. It can be conducted on embryos throughout development to study cells at a variety of stages of development. This technique can be conducted before 4D imaging or in the middle of collection of a 4D data set without removing the embryo from the microscope if it is set up with both the laser and the 4D imaging equipment.

## RECIPES

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CAUTION: See Appendix 7 for proper handling of materials marked with <I>. Recipes for reagents marked with <R> are included in this list.

### M9 Buffer

Reagent	Amount
KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub>	3 g
Na <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> <I>	6 g
NaCl	5 g
MgSO <sub>4</sub> <I>, 1 M	1 mL
H <sub>2</sub> O	to 1 L

### Valap

Weigh out a mixture of Vaseline, lanolin, and paraffin (1:1:1[w/w/w]), and place the component in a glass or ceramic vessel. Melt the mixture on a hot plate over medium to low heat until completely liquid. The wax mixture should spread smoothly and should dry quickly on a glass slide. If it hardens too quickly, then add more Vaseline and lanolin. If it does not harden fast enough, then add more paraffin. Valap is solid at room temperature; just before use, warm it at low setting on a hot plate.

## REFERENCES

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## MOVIE LEGENDS

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Movies are freely available online at [www.cshprotocols.org/imaging](http://www.cshprotocols.org/imaging).

**MOVIE 15.1.** Contact between the C blastomere and the ABar blastomere directs the spindle orientation of ABar division in a wild-type *Caenorhabditis elegans* embryo. (*Left*) Contact between the C blastomere (membrane near contact outlined in blue) and the ABar blastomere (membrane near contact outlined in green). Focal depth (18

$\mu\text{m}$ ) of greatest contact is shown. (*Right*) Shortly after contact between the C and the ABar blastomeres, the mitotic spindle of the ABar blastomere (right line) is shifted toward the contact resulting in a cell division that is perpendicular to orientation of division of the neighboring ABpr blastomere (left line). Focal depth is  $7.5 \mu\text{m}$ .

**MOVIE 15.2.** Disruption of the fate of the C blastomere using *pal-1(RNAi)* knockdown results in delayed and minimal contact between the C and the ABar blastomeres before division of ABar causing the ABar spindle to be misaligned. (*Left*) Contact is minimal and is delayed between the C blastomere (membrane near contact outlined in blue) and the ABar blastomere (membrane near contact outlined in green). Focal depth ( $14 \mu\text{m}$ ) of greatest contact is shown. (*Right*) In lieu of a polarizing signal from the C blastomere, the ABar blastomere (right line) adopts the default spindle orientation and divides parallel with the ABpr blastomere (left line). Focal depth is  $7 \mu\text{m}$ .

**MOVIE 15.3.** Laser killing of ABp creates a barrier between contact with the C and the ABar blastomeres in *Caenorhabditis elegans* embryos. The ABp blastomere (labeled with a red x) was laser killed at the four-cell stage of embryogenesis, just before the start of the movie. The corpse of ABp prevents contact between the C blastomere (membrane near closest contact outlined in blue) and the ABar blastomere (membrane near closest contact outlined in green). Focal depth ( $10.5 \mu\text{m}$ ) of closest proximity between the two blastomeres is shown. As a result, the ABar blastomere aligns its spindle in the default orientation (line) and divides parallel with the other AB granddaughter cells (not shown).

# 20

## Imaging Cell Movements in Egg Cylinder Stage Mouse Embryos

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### ABSTRACT

Cell movements in the pregastrulation egg cylinder mouse embryo play an important role in patterning. The stereotypic movement of the anterior visceral endoderm converts a proximal–distal axis to an anteroposterior axis by properly positioning the primitive streak. The epiblast at this stage is also characterized by a great deal of cell mixing, about which very little is known. Visualizing such cell movements can help us understand their role in embryonic development. This chapter describes a method to isolate, culture, and image the egg cylinder stage mouse embryo.

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Protocol: Imaging Cell Movements in Pregastrulation Mouse Embryos, 302

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### INTRODUCTION

#### Pregastrulation Egg Cylinder Embryo

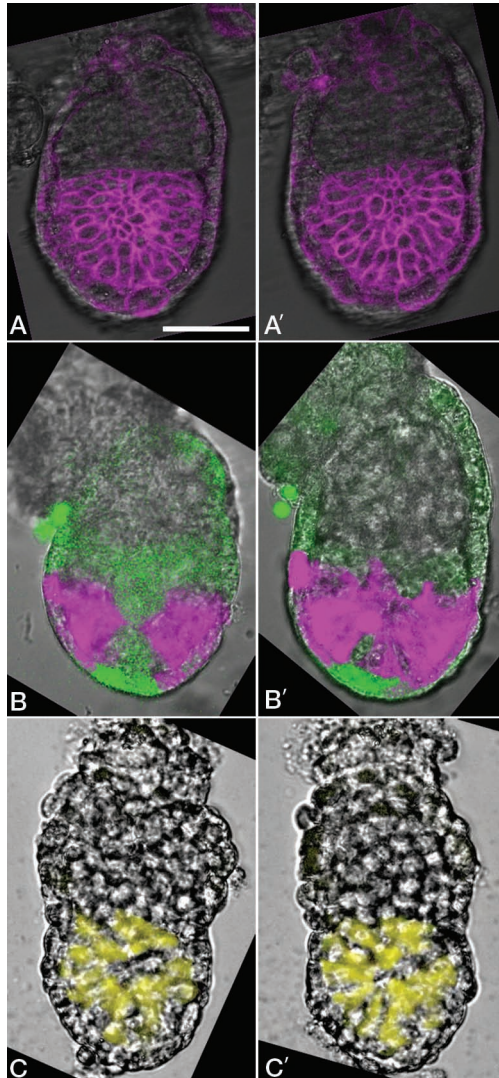
Before gastrulation, the mouse egg cylinder consists of three tissues: the epiblast, the extraembryonic ectoderm, and the visceral endoderm, which encloses the first two. Although the epiblast gives rise to the majority of fetal tissues, a subset of visceral endoderm cells—the anterior visceral endoderm (AVE)—is responsible for correctly patterning the epiblast. The AVE arises at the distal tip of the egg cylinder and moves unidirectionally to a more proximal position, up to the boundary between the epiblast and extraembryonic ectoderm. It restricts the formation of the primitive streak to the opposite side of the epiblast, thereby inducing anterior neural characteristics in the underlying adjacent epiblast (for review, see Beddington and Robertson 1999; Srinivas 2006; Arnold and Robertson 2009; Rossant and Tam 2009). This movement fails to take place in mutants like *Cripto* (Ding et al. 1998), *Otx2* (Kimura et al. 2000; Perea-Gomez et al. 2001), and *Nodal*<sup>lacZ/Δ600</sup> (Norris et al. 2002), resulting in an incorrectly positioned primitive streak and abnormal embryo development. The mechanism governing the translocation of AVE cells remains poorly understood, although time-lapse studies indicate that it is the result of active migratory movement (Srinivas et al. 2004).

There is significant cell movement in the epiblast of mouse embryos (Gardner and Cockcroft 1998). Labeling studies in chick embryos suggest that the hypoblast (the equivalent of the mouse AVE) guides the movement of cells of the overlying epiblast (Foley et al. 2000). This raises the pos-

sibility that cells in the mouse epiblast, rather than moving at random, might do so in a directed manner. Better visualization of cell movements in the epiblast will help untangle this and other outstanding questions.

### Transgenic Mice for Imaging Egg Cylinder Stage Embryos

Cell movement in the surface visceral endoderm can be followed using bright-field illumination alone, but generally it is easier and more informative to follow specific cells that have been labeled fluorescently. Cells at this stage can be labeled using dyes such as DiI (Thomas et al. 1998), but there are an increasing variety of transgenic fluorescent reporter mice that make studies of cell movement at this stage easier because they provide embryos in which specific cell types are labeled by the expression of a fluorescent protein. Hex-GFP (Rodriguez et al. 2001) mice express green fluorescent protein (GFP) specifically in the AVE and have been used in time-lapse imaging experiments (see Supplementary Data in Srinivas et al. 2004). Cer1-GFP (Mesnard et al. 2004), Hex-Venus, and Lefty-DsRed2 (Takaoka et al. 2006) transgenes have also been used to label the AVE. Lines that label the entire visceral endoderm include AFP-GFP (Kwon et al. 2006) and TTR-RFP (Kwon and Hadjantonakis 2009).



**FIGURE 1.** Examples of fluorescently labeled mouse embryos. In all three cases, the time between the first and the second image is 2 h. (A,A') A CAG-TAG embryo in which the epiblast and visceral endoderm is visualized by expression of a membrane-localized TdTomato (magenta). (B,B') A KikGR embryo in which two regions of the epiblast have been labeled by photoconversion (magenta). The green fluorescence is the non-photoconverted KikGR. (C,C') An R26R-eYFP reporter embryo in which epiblast cells are labeled (yellow) through the mosaic expression of MORE-Cre. Scale bar, 50  $\mu$ m.



Mice expressing fluorescent reporters ubiquitously can also be used to visualize cells of the embryo at this stage. Several such lines exist, such as the CAG-TAG line (Trichas et al. 2008), which expresses a membrane-localized TdTomato and nuclear-localized enhanced green fluorescent protein (eGFP) bicistronically. The membrane label allows both movement and changes in cell shape to be followed over time (Fig. 1A). Another strategy useful in following cell movement is to use lines such as CAG-KikGR mice (Kurotaki et al. 2007), which express a photoconvertible protein ubiquitously. Cells can be “labeled” by photoconverting the green KikGR to red using 405-nm light (Fig. 1B). In addition to fluorescent lines, one can also use transgenic Cre driver lines in combination with fluorescent Cre reporters to label specific subsets of cells at this stage. For example, the MORE-Cre line (Tallquist and Soriano 2000) crossed with the R26R-eYFP reporter (Srinivas et al. 2001) labels epiblast cells in a “salt-and-pepper” manner (resulting from the mosaic expression of the Cre), allowing one to follow the movement of individual epiblast cells (Fig. 1C).

The preceding brief discussion of transgenic lines is far from comprehensive and meant only to illustrate some of the approaches possible for labeling cells. Many other useful lines exist, and new lines are being published regularly and can be found through various online resources.

## Protocol

# Imaging Cell Movements in Pregastrulation Mouse Embryos

Here, we describe how to dissect egg-cylinder stage embryos and an approach for time-lapse imaging of embryos cultured *in vivo*.

## IMAGING SETUP

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### Microscope

Because the embryo needs to be immersed in medium for culture, an inverted microscope is generally more suitable for imaging. Any compound microscope should be suitable as long as it is equipped with 10 $\times$ , 20 $\times$ , and/or 40 $\times$  objectives and a high-sensitivity camera (such as a cooled CCD camera or a photomultiplier tube on a laser scanning confocal microscope). Ideally, the microscope should also be equipped with automated shutters and control software to take time-lapse images automatically. An automated *x-y-z* stage is not essential but is a great advantage because it allows several embryos to be imaged over the course of one experiment.

Using just bright-field optics, one can discern cell outlines in the visceral endoderm, but epifluorescence microscopy is essential for more detailed imaging using fluorescently labeled embryos. Standard wide-field epifluorescence, laser scanning, and spinning disk confocal systems are all suitable, and each has its advantages and disadvantages. Confocal microscopes can provide higher-quality images than wide-field epifluorescence microscopes, but they can also be less sensitive and hence lead to more photodamage to the imaged embryo. However, highly sensitive laser scanning confocal microscopes like the Zeiss 710 provide high-quality images with minimal photodamage. High-quality images can also be obtained with specialized wide-field epifluorescence microscopes such as the DeltaVision system (Applied Precision). Objectives such as the Zeiss C-Apochromat 40 $\times$ /1.2 NA water-immersion lens are particularly suitable because their high numerical aperture allows more light to be collected and because the resulting images they collect suffer fewer aberrations because the refractive index of the immersion medium (e.g., water or a water substitute) is close to that of the culture medium.

### Environmental Enclosure

Pregastrulation egg cylinder stage mouse embryos are very sensitive to environmental conditions, particularly temperature fluctuations. Environmental enclosures that maintain the entire microscope at a set temperature are far preferable to stage-top environmental chambers; they generally maintain a more stable temperature and provide more flexibility in terms of the dish used to culture embryos (see Fig. 2A in Chapter 42). Embryos develop better in media that are not buffered with HEPES, and hence the local atmosphere needs to be a humidified 5% CO<sub>2</sub>/air mix. This generally can be achieved easily by fashioning a small, clear, plastic box that can be placed on top of the culture dish and into which one can supply premixed 5% CO<sub>2</sub>/air that has been bubbled through warm water to humidify it (see Fig. 2B in Chapter 42).

## MATERIALS

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CAUTION: See Appendix 7 for proper handling of materials marked with <!>. See the end of the chapter for recipes for reagents marked with <R>.

## Reagents

### Culture medium

This is a 1:1 mix of heat-inactivated mouse serum (from Step 11) and supplemented CMRL medium. DMEM can be used instead of CMRL, but CMRL gives more consistent results.

Isoflurane <I>

Liquid nitrogen <I>

M2 medium (Sigma-Aldrich)

Mice

Mineral oil, embryo-tested (Sigma-Aldrich)

Supplemented CMRL medium <R>

## Equipment

Dissection instruments

Dissection microscope, equipped with transmitted light illumination from below and a fiber optic cold light source for illumination from above

Eppendorf tubes

Fine microdissection forceps

Common forceps are acceptable, provided they have been sharpened on a polishing stone.

Glass-bottomed culture dishes, 35-mm (MatTek) (optional; see note to Step 21)

Lab-Tek II eight-well rectangular chambers, cover glass-bottomed (Nalge Nunc International)

Microscope and analysis software

Needle, 25-gauge

Petri dishes, plastic, 35-mm

Pin vise for holding tungsten needles

P20 Pipetman and pipette tips

Syringe, 1-cc

Tissue culture incubator

Tungsten wire for making needles

For a method for sharpening tungsten needles, see Hogan et al. (1994).

Ultracentrifuge, bench top

## EXPERIMENTAL METHOD

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### Preparation of Mouse Serum

Beddington (1987) presents an alternative approach to preparing rat serum that is also applicable to the preparation of mouse serum.

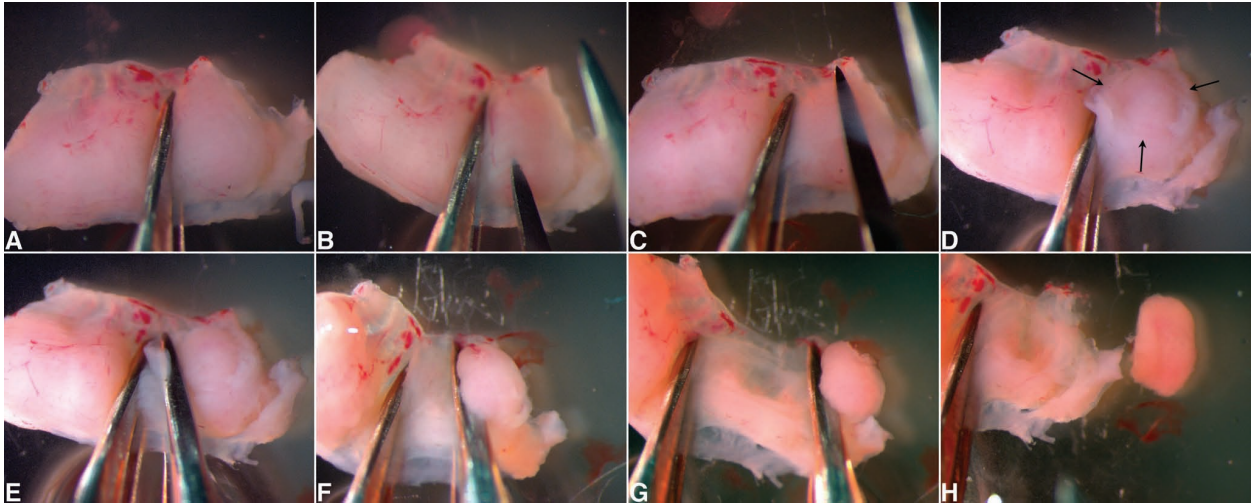
1. Following a local IACUC-approved procedure, anesthetize the mouse using an inhalant anesthesia (e.g., isoflurane). Kill the mouse by cervical dislocation.  
Be careful to snap the neck cleanly, to avoid internal bleeding from torn blood vessels in the neck.
2. Immediately dissect open the thoracic cavity to expose the heart.
3. Insert a 25-gauge needle (attached to a 1-cc syringe) into the heart; generally, the right ventricle is easiest. Allow the blood to enter the syringe. Facilitate this by gently pulling on the plunger, but do not aspirate the blood by pulling vigorously because this will cause hemolysis.
4. Detach the needle from the syringe. Transfer the blood slowly to an Eppendorf tube.
5. Immediately centrifuge the blood at room temperature at 15,000g for 3 min.  
This separates the plasma (top layer) from the cells (bottom layer).

6. Using a sterile pipette tip, collect the plasma. Transfer to a fresh Eppendorf tube on ice.  
Once in the rhythm of things, you should be able to perform Step 6 for the previous sample and Steps 1–4 for the next sample while centrifuging the current sample for 3 min.
7. Incubate all the plasma samples on ice for 3–4 h, during which a fibrin clot will form. At this stage, visually screen the samples and discard those showing extensive hemolysis (i.e., a strong pink color).
8. Centrifuge the samples at 15,000g for 10 min at 4°C to pellet the fibrin clot and any residual cells. Collect the serum with a sterile pipette tip.  
If the fibrin clot does not pellet, press it against the wall of the Eppendorf tube with a pipette tip to collapse it, and then aspirate the serum.
9. Pool all the serum collected for the day to minimize variations among individual mice.
10. Aliquot the serum into Eppendorf tubes (500  $\mu$ L per aliquot is generally suitable). Flash-freeze in liquid nitrogen. Store at –80°C.
11. Prepare heat-inactivated serum.
  - i. Puncture the top of an Eppendorf tube containing the mouse serum before inactivation to allow any dissolved inhalant anesthesia to escape.
  - ii. Heat-inactivate the serum for 30 min at 55°C.  
Heat-inactivated mouse serum can be used for ~1 wk if stored at 4°C.

### Dissection of Pregastrulation Egg Cylinder Stage Embryos

The instructions below are guidelines. Try variations to identify what works best for you.

12. Dissect out the two uterine horns into a dish of room-temperature M2 medium in a 35-mm Petri dish.  
Take care to remove as much attached fat as possible before placing the uterus in the dish; this will keep the medium clearer at later stages, making dissections easier.
13. Starting from any end of the uterus, dissect out the decidua one by one.  
Use a dissection microscope with illumination from above for the following steps.
  - i. Grasp the uterus to the left of the deciduum with one pair of forceps. Orient the uterus so that the smooth antimesometrial side is uppermost.  
Make sure that the tip of the forceps extends just beyond the mesometrial extent of the uterus (Fig. 2A) so that when orienting the uterus, it can be stabilized by resting the tip of the forceps on the floor of the plastic dish.
  - ii. Using the sharp tip of one arm of another forceps, puncture the antimesometrial uterine wall (Fig. 2B). Slide the forceps arm through the uterus and out the other side (Fig. 2C).  
When poking through the uterus with the forceps, try to span a generous segment of uterine wall, as this opens up a larger “window” and ensures that the subsequent step is very easy.
  - iii. Tear the uterine wall by pulling firmly on the forceps, in the direction of the long axis of the uterus.  
This should open the uterine wall, exposing the deciduum (Fig. 2D).
  - iv. Very lightly grasp the uterus with half-closed forceps. Slide them along the uterus and beneath the deciduum, freeing it from the uterus (Fig. 2E–H).
  - v. Repeat Step 13iv with the next deciduum along the uterus.  
After removing two or three decidua, trim off the uterine tissue from which previous decidua have been removed, so that it does not get in the way.
14. Transfer the decidua to fresh room-temperature M2 in the lid of the 35-mm dish used to isolate the decidua.  
The lid has shorter walls than the actual dish, making the subsequent dissection easier.



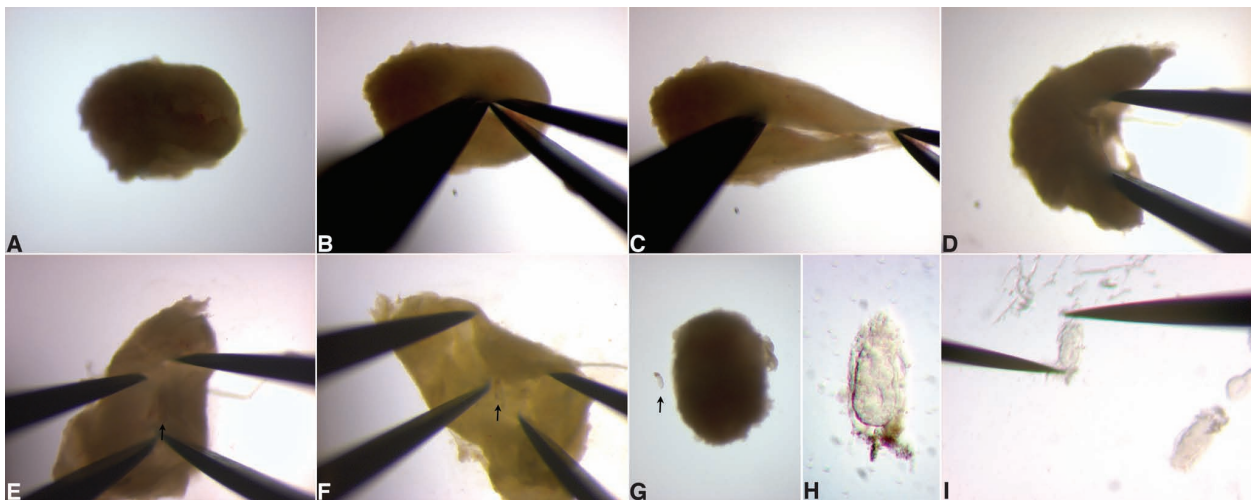
**FIGURE 2.** Sequence of steps for isolating embryonic day 5.5 (E5.5) deciduum from the uterus. The arrows in *D* show the cut margins of the uterine wall, to indicate how large the opening should ideally be. For details, see Step 13.

15. Dissect out the embryo from each deciduum as follows.

Switch off the illumination from above, and use only transmitted illumination from below for the following steps.

- i. Orient the deciduum so that the end that has a midline groove (and is slightly blunter) is positioned to the right (Fig. 3A).
- ii. Pin the deciduum down on the dish with a closed set of forceps pressed into the middle of the deciduum, near the inside end of the groove (Fig. 3B).
- iii. Use another set of closed forceps to tear the right half of the deciduum open along the midline in a single motion (Fig. 3B,C).

Do not make many small cuts, as this will create jagged edges in the deciduum that make it difficult to locate the embryo.



**FIGURE 3.** (A–F) Sequence of steps for isolating an E5.5 embryo from a deciduum. (G) An embryo and deciduum next to each other to provide a sense of scale. The embryo in this panel is  $\sim 100\ \mu\text{m}$  in width. The arrow in *E–G* points to the embryo. (H) An isolated E5.5 embryo, with intact Reichert's membrane. (I) Removal of the Reichert's membrane with tungsten needles.



- iv. Open up the deciduum by inserting a closed forceps into the tear and allowing the forceps to open. At the same time, pivot the deciduum into a vertical position, with the torn half facing up, so that you can look down into its interior.
- v. Pin the open deciduum down on the floor of the dish using forceps. Identify the embryo: It should be visible as a slight shadow, often located near a darkly pigmented structure in the deciduum.  
Adjust the angle of the illumination if necessary to see the embryo clearly (Fig. 3D–F).
- vi. Pinch into the decidual tissue beneath with forceps. Scoop out the embryo and move it to one side of the dish, so that it is out of the way while isolating embryos from the other decidua.

Embryos can be moved by gently swirling the medium around them with forceps, or by picking them up in a pipette tip. If using a pipette tip, make sure to aspirate M2 medium into the tip once or twice before handling the embryo, as this helps prevent the embryo from sticking to the plastic wall of the tip.

16. After all the embryos have been isolated, remove Reichert's membrane.

Continue using illumination from below on the dissection microscope. Using the following method, with a little practice one can become adept at removing Reichert's membrane quickly and without damage to the embryo. For an alternate approach to removing the membrane using micromanipulators, see Miura and Mishina (2003). For an enzymatic procedure, see Rivera-Perez et al. (2007).

- i. Insert one tungsten needle into the space between Reichert's membrane and the embryo to pin down the embryo.  
Generally, it is easiest to do this where Reichert's membrane meets the ectoplacental cone. Sometimes, there is also a fair amount of space at the distal tip between the embryo and Reichert's membrane (Fig. 3H,I).
- ii. Use a second tungsten needle to peel off Reichert's membrane.
- iii. Remove any Reichert's membrane attached to the embryo using the tungsten needles.  
When cutting with tungsten needles, hold the needles so that they are opposed and in contact with each other, forming an X shape. To cut, draw the needles apart so that the point of contact between the needles travels toward the tip of the needles (in a manner similar to the action of scissors). This cuts the intervening Reichert's tissues neatly and avoids damaging the embryo.

17. Store embryos in M2 medium for up to 1–2 h, preferably at 37°C.

### Imaging Cell Movements in the Egg Cylinder Embryo

18. Equilibrate culture medium for 2–3 h in a tissue culture incubator at 37°C and 5% CO<sub>2</sub>.

Medium can also be equilibrated overnight, but preferably for not more than ~18 h.

19. Equilibrate the microscope environmental chamber to 37°C for at least 3–4 h, but preferably overnight.

Temperature stability is important for embryos to culture well, and some components of the microscope (e.g., the objectives) can take several hours to equilibrate.

20. Using a pipette tip, wash away excess M2 medium by transferring the embryos to be imaged into a drop of culture medium.

21. Transfer the embryos into 500 μL of culture medium in one well of an eight-well Lab-Tek II cover glass-bottomed dish.

Alternatively, image embryos in ~300 μL of culture medium in the depression created by the cover glass in MatTek dishes.

22. If imaging for >8–10 h, overlay the medium with embryo-tested mineral oil.

If using MatTek dishes, it is generally best to overlay the medium with mineral oil even for short culture experiments.

23. Position the cover glass-bottomed dish on the microscope stage, ensuring that the local atmosphere is 5% CO<sub>2</sub> in air.

Make sure the dish has a lid on it; this will minimize both evaporation of medium and also embryo drift during imaging.

24. Select an objective for imaging. Set up the microscope control software to capture images or image volumes at the desired time interval.

Generally 20x or 40x objectives are suitable for observing the movement of cells in the context of the entire embryo. A time-lapse interval of 8–15 min is a good compromise between good temporal resolution and minimizing photodamage to the embryo. Embryos can be imaged for >12 h under such conditions.

See *Troubleshooting*.

## TROUBLESHOOTING

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*Problem (Step 24):* The embryo fails to develop during imaging.

*Solution:* This could be caused by any number of reasons. Perform controls to determine the cause of the problem.

- Culture embryos in a tissue culture incubator. If the embryos do not develop normally, there likely is a problem with one of the components of the culture medium. Try using freshly prepared medium with new components. Alternatively, small amounts of fixative or other noxious compounds could be compromising the culture. This can happen if, for example, tools used to manipulate embryos in fixative are used to isolate embryos for culture. Try keeping a set of tools exclusively for use with embryos for culture. If possible, isolate embryos in a location as clean as one used for tissue culture.
- Culture embryos in the microscope without imaging. If the embryos do not develop, test the temperature stability within the enclosure. Use a commercially available temperature logger to record the temperature at preset intervals and measure temperature fluctuations over the course of the culture period. Shifts in temperature below 37°C can be as bad for viability as fluctuations above 37°C. A common cause for temperature fluctuations within the microscope enclosure are room air-conditioning vents pointed directly at the microscope.
- Test the pH of the culture medium to confirm that the local CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is correct. If not, adjust the gas flow rate (it generally need not be high for a reasonably air-tight atmospheric enclosure).
- Measure the volume of the culture medium before and after culture to determine if the medium is evaporating. If it is, confirm that the gas is being humidified, or overlay the culture medium with mineral oil.

*Problem (Step 24):* Embryos do not develop normally when imaged.

*Solution:* This is indicative of photodamage to the embryo and can be solved by reducing the energy load on the embryo by one or more of the following methods.

- Reduce the frequency of imaging by increasing the time lapse.
- If you are taking image volumes, reduce the number of images in the stack.
- Reduce the exposure time for each image.
- Reduce the illumination intensity.
- If you are using a scanning confocal microscope, reduce the pixel dwell time and/or the scan resolution, so that the total time the embryo is scanned is reduced.

All these approaches will lead to some degree of degradation of data quality. Loss of image brightness can be compensated for to some extent by increasing the gain or by binning. If fluo-

rescence intensity does not need to be quantified and if using a detector that captures at >8-bit depth (i.e., >255 gray levels), one can use a histogram of the distribution of pixel intensities to adjust the exposure time to capture only 8 bits of information per channel, as this is sufficient bit depth for images for figures. Where possible, use fluorophores that are excited at longer, lower energy, wavelengths.

*Problem (Step 24):* Embryos drift out of the field of view during imaging.

*Solution:* This can be a difficult problem to avoid. Temperature differences in the vicinity of the sample can set up convection currents in the culture medium. Make sure the environmental enclosure is well equilibrated. The culture dish should be covered with a lid, even if the medium is overlaid with mineral oil. This generally reduces drift, presumably by preventing the incoming CO<sub>2</sub>/air mix from causing eddies on the surface of the oil/culture medium that can shift the embryos. If drift is still a problem and there is a risk of losing the embryo from the field of view altogether, try imaging with a lower magnification objective with a larger field of view. A 20X objective is generally a good compromise of magnification and field of view.

## RECIPE

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Recipes for reagents marked with <R> are included in this list.

### *Supplemented CMRL Medium*

CMRL medium (Invitrogen)	9.9 mL
L-glutamine (100X)	0.1 mL

The supplemented CMRL can be used for ~3 wk if stored at 4°C.

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