

Functional single-cell hybridoma screening using droplet-based microfluidics

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Monoclonal antibodies can specifically bind or even inhibit drug targets and have hence become the fastest growing class of human therapeutics. Although they can be screened for binding affinities at very high throughput using systems such as phage display, screening for functional properties (e.g., the inhibition of a drug target) is much more challenging. Typically these screens require the generation of immortalized hybridoma cells, as well as clonal expansion in microtiter plates over several weeks, and the number of clones that can be assayed is typically no more than a few thousand. We present here a microfluidic platform allowing the functional screening of up to 300,000 individual hybridoma cell clones within less than a day. This approach should also be applicable to nonimmortalized primary B-cells, as no cell proliferation is required: Individual cells are encapsulated into aqueous microdroplets and assayed directly for the release of antibodies inhibiting a drug target based on fluorescence. We used this system to perform a model screen for antibodies that inhibit angiotensin converting enzyme 1, a target for hypertension and congestive heart failure drugs. When cells expressing these antibodies were spiked into an unrelated hybridoma cell population in a ratio of 1:10,000 we observed a 9,400-fold enrichment after fluorescence activated droplet sorting. A wide variance in antibody expression levels at the single-cell level within a single hybridoma line was observed and high expressors could be successfully sorted and recultivated.

single-cell screening | high-throughput screening | cell-based assay | monoclonal antibody | angiotensin converting enzyme 1

Antibodies are powerful research and diagnostic tools and have proven to be potent therapeutics against infectious, autoimmune, and neoplastic diseases. Indeed, the number of therapeutic monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) reaching the market is increasing exponentially (1) and the global monoclonal antibody market for therapeutic use was \$38 billion in 2009 (2). Monoclonal antibodies can be screened very efficiently for binding using phage display and related technologies (3). However, binding alone is not sufficient; therapeutic antibodies must also modulate (typically inhibit) the activity of the target whereas these methods select only for binding to a drug target and not for inhibition of its function. To overcome this limitation, functional antibody screens are typically carried out using hybridoma cell technology (4). In this approach, laboratory animals are immunized with the antigen of interest before antibody-releasing B-cells are isolated from spleen. These B-cells are then rendered immortal by fusion with myeloma cells, diluted to generate microtiter plate wells containing single cells and expanded to form clonal populations. Subsequently, the supernatant of each population can be tested to screen for the desired activity. However, the need for clonal cell expansion (to obtain detectable concentrations of antibodies), and hence cell immortalization, typically limits the number of clones that can be screened to no more than a few thousand. Improved techniques have been described facilitating the screening of $>10^5$ clones in <12 h, based on, for example, antigen-based microarrays (5), or compartmentalization

of individual cells in 0.1–1 nL lithographically fabricated micro-wells (6). Still, these methods can only be used to screen for binding activity and do not allow functional assays.

Droplet-based microfluidics (7) holds great potential for functional high-throughput screening at the single-cell level. In these systems, cells are encapsulated into aqueous droplets surrounded by an immiscible carrier phase (e.g., fluorinated oil) (8). Each droplet serves as a miniaturized assay vessel of picoliter-nanoliter volume, and up to several hundred droplets can be generated per second. Furthermore, fluorescence assays and fluorescence-activated droplet sorting (FADS) can be carried out at a similar throughput (9). FADS is similar to fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS), but is not limited to sorting based on intracellular or cell-surface markers: With FADS the entire microvessels are sorted rather than cells, allowing screening of secreted proteins (such as antibodies) as well. Typically, all components of a fluorescence assay are added directly during encapsulation, or at a later time point upon fusion with a second droplet species hosting the assay reagents. Subsequently, the droplets pass through a laser beam, the emitted light is measured, and droplets with particular fluorescence intensities are diverted into a collection channel using electric fields (7). Although these steps have been demonstrated individually for small droplets (approximately 30 μm), an integrated chip combining all required modules in a single platform, as well as fusion and sorting modules allowing droplets big enough for the cultivation of mammalian cells (approximately 100 μm in diameter) to be manipulated, have not previously been described. In consequence, single mammalian cells have been analyzed in droplets (8) and it had also been shown that detectable antibody concentrations can be obtained from individually encapsulated hybridoma cells (10), but the sorting of encapsulated mammalian cells based on a functional screen has not yet been achieved. We present here a fully integrated system that can overcome this limitation and demonstrate the screening and sorting of hybridoma cells for the release of antibodies inhibiting angiotensin converting enzyme 1 (ACE-1; Fig. 14).

ACE-1 plays a key role in the regulation of blood pressure and the development of vascular pathology and remodeling. It is a type I integral membrane protein which is converted into a soluble circulating form by membrane protein secretases (11). ACE-1 has two catalytic domains, the so-called N- and C-domain, both having the capacity to hydrolyze the same peptides (angiotensin I and bradykinin). However, the two catalytic sites have different substrate specificities and catalytic properties as well as different

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Conflict of interest statement: C.A.M. and A.D.G. are inventors on patent applications including some of the ideas described in this manuscript.

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body inhibiting *Electrophorus electricus* acetylcholinesterase (18)]. This cell suspension was subsequently encapsulated into 660 pL droplets together with recombinant ACE-1. The average number of cells per droplet was approximately 0.3, as measured by video analysis of the cell encapsulation process (1,000 droplets in total) (Movie S2: 65.7% empty drops; 29.5% drops with single cells; 4.8% drops with more than one cell). These results are in good agreement with previous studies showing that the number of cells per droplet follows a Poisson distribution when encapsulating human cell lines in this device (8). These experiments also demonstrated that adherent as well as suspension cells showed a viability of 90% and above during the first two days in drops of the same volume.

After encapsulating hybridoma cells, we incubated the resulting emulsion for 6 h off-chip to obtain significant antibody concentrations (around 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$). Longer incubation times resulted in even higher 4E3 antibody concentrations (>30 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$; Fig. S3A), but turned out to be incompatible with the downstream assay for ACE-1 activity: We observed that with increasing incubation times the supernatants showed higher levels of unspecific conversion of the ACE-1 FRET substrate (Fig. S3A and B). Following off-chip incubation, the droplets were reinjected into the second device (Fig. 1D and Movie S3), fused with droplets containing the fluorogenic ACE-1 substrate and incubated in a delay line for another 30 min (to facilitate generation of the fluorescent product). Finally, the droplets were analyzed and sorted, triggered on fluorescence (19) (Fig. 1D and Movie S4). When the green fluorescence intensity was plotted against the droplet width [used to measure droplet coalescence (8)], three populations were observed (Fig. 2A). One main population showing strong green fluorescence corresponded to droplets in which no inhibition of ACE-1 occurred. Another very sharp, but much smaller population exhibiting almost no green fluorescence signal corresponded to droplets that did not obtain any fluorogenic substrate (due to failed fusion). In between these populations a third population of droplets with intermediate green fluorescence signals could be observed. This last population corresponds to droplets in which inhibition of ACE-1 occurred and was characterized by a high variance in green fluorescence. As with FACS, we set gates for different green fluorescence intensities (Fig. 2A) and collected the corresponding droplets separately. After breaking the emulsion, the recovered cells were analyzed for calcein-red/orange staining. Whereas before the sort only 3% of the mixed cell popu-

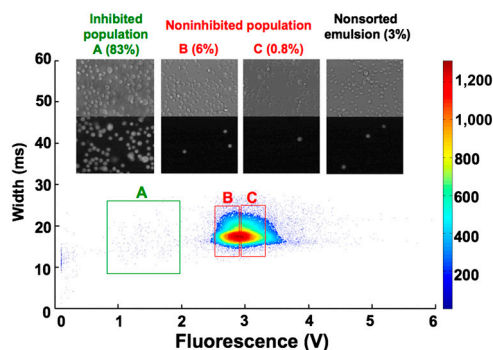


Fig. 2. Sorting of 4E3 hybridoma cells mixed with a 75-fold excess of unrelated control cells. A population of calcein-red/orange-stained hybridoma cells expressing 4E3 antibody and unstained hybridoma cells expressing Elec-403 antibody was mixed in a 1:75 ratio and sorted. The fluorescence signals (green channel corresponding to ACE-1 activity; x axis) of the drops at the sorting junction were plotted against the droplet width (y axis) and gates for the collection of droplets with specific fluorescence intensity were set (green and red rectangles). The relative frequency of all events is color coded as indicated on the right. Bright field (Top) and red/orange fluorescence (Bottom) images shows the nonsorted cell population as well as cells recovered from droplets within the specific gates. The percentage of calcein-red/orange-stained hybridoma cells is indicated.

lation were calcein-red/orange-positive (corresponding to 4E3-expressing cells), this value increased to approximately 83% for cells recovered from droplets with intermediate fluorescence signals (Fig. 2B). In contrast, the cell populations recovered from droplets with high fluorescence intensity (indicating no inhibition of ACE-1) included only 0.8–6% stained cells. The presence of some stained cells in the noninhibited population is not surprising, as dead 4E3 hybridoma cells or cells expressing only low levels of 4E3 antibodies inevitably end up in this population, too.

Biochemical Characterization of Cell Culture Supernatants from Recovered Sorted Cells. Next, we repeated the experiment using multiple narrow gates for the sorting of droplets with intermediate fluorescence intensity (indicating ACE-1 inhibition) and analyzed the secretion of 4E3 antibody from cultured recovered cells, as well as the ACE-1-inhibitory activity of the supernatants (Fig. 3). Compared to the nonsorted population, cultures of cells recovered from droplets within all of these gates showed strongly increased yields of 4E3 antibody (up to 12.5-fold), as determined by ELISA. In contrast, cultures of cells recovered from the two other droplet populations (nonfused droplets and droplets with high fluorescence intensity) did not show elevated levels of 4E3 antibody. Analysis of cell culture supernatants for ACE-1 inhibition showed similar results: Whereas supernatants from the nonsorted population did not significantly decrease ACE-1 activity, supernatants of cells recovered from droplets with intermediate fluorescence showed a strong inhibitory effect (approximately 50% decrease in ACE-1 activity). In fact, some of these nonpurified supernatants lowered ACE-1 activity even more than purified antibodies (200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) from the 4E3 cell line.

Mimicking the Selection of Individual Clones from Large Heterogeneous Populations. To mimic the selection of individual hybridoma cell clones from large heterogeneous populations, we repeated the experiments using higher dilutions of the 4E3 hybridoma cells (4E3 and Elec-403 hybridoma cells in ratios of 1:1,000 and 1:10,000) and additionally performed clonal expansion of individually sorted cells. We again stained the 4E3 hybridoma cells prior to the sort to allow direct measurement of the sorting efficiency. The scatter plot of the fluorescence signals of drops containing these cell mixtures versus the width showed similar results compared to the 1:75 cell mixture (Figs. 2 and 3). Because of the much lower absolute number of 4E3 cells we set only two gates (1:1,000 sample) or one gate (1:10,000 sample) for the collection of droplets showing decreased fluorescence signals (indicating ACE-1 inhibition), plus an additional gate for the main high fluorescence droplet population (Fig. 4).

The number of stained hybridoma cells recovered from the inhibited population indicated an enrichment factor of 700-fold for the 1:1,000 mixture: Before sorting only 0.11% of the mixed cell population were calcein-red/orange-positive (corresponding to 4E3-expressing cells), whereas after the sorting approximately 78% of the cells recovered from droplets with decreased fluorescence signals were calcein-red/orange positive. An even higher enrichment factor of around 9,400-fold was achieved for the 1:10,000 mixture for which the percentage of stained 4E3 hybridoma cells increased from 0.01% before sorting to 94% after sorting. This higher enrichment factor is consistent with the fact that the main source of false positives is the cocompartmentalization of two cells (one positive and one negative) in the same droplet. With a Poisson distribution of cells in droplets, the maximally achievable enrichment factor inversely correlates with both the initial ratio of positive to negative cells (ϵ_0) and the average number of cells per droplet (λ) (9).

Interestingly the percentage of stained hybridoma cells isolated from the two nonoverlapping gates of the inhibited population in the 1:1,000 mixture was highly similar (75% in gate A and 78% in gate B), indicating that the higher inhibition of ACE-1

Performing the screens on the single-cell level revealed a wide variance in antibody expression levels within a single hybridoma line and cells could be efficiently sorted and recovered based on the level of ACE-1 inhibitory activity. In fact, the antibody secretion rate of 4E3 hybridoma cells (releasing ACE-1 inhibiting antibodies) recovered from droplets with low fluorescence intensity, indicating efficient ACE-1 inhibition, was significantly higher than that of the unsorted 4E3 cell line. ELISA data indicated approximately eightfold higher concentrations of the anti-ACE-1 antibody on average and up to 10-fold higher concentrations for some individual clones. It is well-known that point mutations and chromosome rearrangements frequently occur in hybridoma cell populations and change the expression level of individual cells (22). Over time, this effect can result in a percentage of nonantibody producing cells (within a hybridoma cell population derived from one and the same clone) between 40% and 85% (22) and illustrates the need for frequent single-cell sorting of existing hybridoma cell lines. As demonstrated here, our approach allows the specific selection and expansion of cells releasing higher amounts of antibodies (over a period of at least three weeks) compared to the unsorted hybridoma cell population. Moreover, the sensitivity of the system should even facilitate the functional screening of large cell libraries subsequent to immunization experiments, because we successfully demonstrated the selection and expansion of individual positive cells (releasing antibodies with desired properties) from a 10,000-fold excess of negative cells. As no cell proliferation is required, this technique could also open the way to directly screen nonimmortalized primary B-cells or plasma cells, which might be particularly useful for the cloning of antibodies from human donors, such as disease survivors expressing therapeutically relevant antibodies of unknown identity. For example, the immune system of HIV-infected individuals sometimes evolves HIV-neutralizing antibodies, but their identification and characterization is still difficult and very time consuming (23). Just recently, a method for the selection of primary B-cells releasing antibodies binding influenza virus hemagglutinin A has been developed in a microtiter plate format and even enabled the identification of a neutralizing antibody (24). However, the screen itself was still based on binding activities and did not allow the direct selection for functional properties. In contrast, the approach described here can overcome this limitation, even though distinguishing between highly inhibitory antibodies secreted at low concentrations and less inhibitory anti-

bodies secreted at high concentrations might be difficult. Nonetheless the results obtained here clearly show an up to 9,400-fold enrichment of cells expressing antibodies with desired properties using fluorescence activated droplet sorting. The false positives observed occasionally are most likely due to the co-encapsulation of a negative and a positive cell into the same droplet and can be reduced by starting with a lower cell density during compartmentalization (at the price of a lower overall throughput) (19). Alternatively hydrodynamic cell encapsulation modules (25–27) allowing the specific generation of droplets hosting single cells could be used. False positives can also be ruled out during downstream biochemical characterizations of sorted cells, at which stage truly quantitative data on the inhibitory potency of the released antibodies can be obtained. Compared to conventional approaches our system also requires fewer cells and should allow screening of a much larger fraction of the immune repertoire: In a conventional hybridoma experiment, typically no more than a few thousands of hybridoma clones are screened which represents only a tiny fraction (approximately $1/10^4$) of the available antibody repertoire in a mouse, and an even smaller fraction (approximately $1/10^6$) of the available human repertoire. Hence the technique described here the selection of antibodies against less immunogenic, but functionally more relevant, epitopes.

Materials and Methods

Heterogeneous hybridoma cell populations [4E3 and Elec-403 (13–15, 18) cells in a ratio of 1:75, 1:1,000 or 1:10,000] were encapsulated into 660 pL drops at a density of 1.25×10^6 cells/mL together with 1.6 ng/mL ACE-1 (R&D Systems). The resulting emulsion was incubated off-chip for 6 h at 37 °C under a 5% CO₂ atmosphere, followed by reinjection into the integrated microfluidic chip (Fig. 1D), where drops containing the hybridoma cells were fused with a second drop species containing a fluorogenic ACE-1 substrate (Fig. 1B). Drops showing low fluorescence intensities (indicating a low ACE-1 activity) were sorted by applying an electrical field via embedded electrodes adjacent to the channels. Sorted drops were broken by adding an equal volume of 1H, 1H, 2H, 2H-Perfluoro-1-octanol (Aldrich) and subsequently hybridoma cells were isolated and seeded into 96-well plates (Fig. S5). After expansion, the supernatants were characterized for their antibody concentration and ACE-1 inhibiting activity. For detailed experimental procedures, see *SI Materials and Methods*.

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