

Two-photon probes for in vivo multicolor microscopy of the structure and signals of brain cells

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1	Two-photon probes for <i>in vivo</i> multicolor								
2	microscopy of the structure and signals of brain								
3	cells.								
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40 Abstract

Imaging the brain of living laboratory animals at a microscopic scale can be achieved by twophoton microscopy thanks to the high penetrability and low phototoxicity of the excitation wavelengths used. However, knowledge of the two-photon spectral properties of the myriad fluorescent probes is generally scarce and, for many, non-existent. Additionally, the use of different measurement units in published reports further hinders the design of a comprehensive imaging experiment.

47 In this review, we compile and homogenize the two-photon spectral properties of more than 48 280 fluorescent probes. We provide practical data, including the wavelengths for optimal two-49 photon excitation, the peak values of two-photon action cross-section or molecular brightness, 50 and the emission ranges. Beyond the spectroscopic description of these fluorophores, we 51 discuss their binding to biological targets. This specificity allows in vivo imaging of cells, 52 their processes, and even organelles and other subcellular structures in the brain. In addition 53 to probes that monitor endogenous cell metabolism, studies of healthy and diseased brain 54 benefit from the specific binding of certain probes to pathology-specific features, ranging from amyloid- β plaques to the autofluorescence of certain antibiotics. A special focus is 55 56 placed on functional in vivo imaging using two-photon probes that sense specific ions or 57 membrane potential, and that may be combined with optogenetic actuators. Being closely 58 linked to their use, we examine the different routes of intravital delivery of these fluorescent 59 probes according to the target. Finally, we discuss different approaches, strategies, and prerequisites for two-photon multicolor experiments in the brains of living laboratory animals. 60

61 Introduction

Two-photon excitation fluorescence microscopy, or two-photon microscopy (TPM), became a standard and powerful method of investigation in biology due to its excellent penetrability in living tissues and high spatiotemporal resolution, while inducing low phototoxicity and photobleaching compared to other optical techniques (Denk et al. 1990; So et al. 2000; Zipfel et al. 2003b; Helmchen and Denk 2005). In this review, we focus on neuroscience because the functional and physiological properties of the brain makes it a particularly fecund field for the application of TPM (Svoboda and Yasuda 2006; Mostany et al. 2015).

69 The sophistication of intravital TPM is currently expanding through three axes: 1. Hardware; 70 2. Sample preparation and new genetic tools; 3. Fluorescent probes (Crowe and Ellis-Davies 71 2014). First, as far as hardware there have been improvements and new developments in 72 excitation sources, scanning, and detection. The popularization of optical parametric 73 oscillators (OPO), which allow excitation far beyond the traditional Titanium:Sapphire lasers, 74 helps improve the depth of imaging up to 1.6 mm (Kobat et al. 2011). Deep scattering tissues 75 can be efficiently observed by wavefront optimization thanks to adaptive optics (Ji et al. 2010; Wang et al. 2015). New kinds of detectors like GaAsP photomultipliers or hybrid avalanche 76 77 photodiodes allow detection of dimmer signals. Also, promising advances in the 78 miniaturization of two-photon microscopes are enabling simultaneous recordings of neural 79 circuit activity in freely moving animals (Yu et al. 2015; Zong et al. 2017) while avoiding the 80 side effects associated with the use of anesthetics (Tran and Gordon 2015; Santisakultarm et 81 al. 2016).

Second, refinements in sample preparation beyond the original glass-covered cranial windows
(Holtmaat et al. 2009) and skull thinning (Yang et al. 2010) now permit chronic live imaging
below the superficial layers of neocortex. For example, a substantial increase in resolution can
be achieved by replacing the single coverslip with a pair of coverslips separated by a thin

layer of air, which minimizes the effects of spherical aberration (Estrada et al. 2015). Also,
surgical GRIN lens implantation can be combined with head-mounted miniscopes (Resendez
et al. 2016) or standard two-photon microscopes for imaging of deep brain structures such as
hippocampus (Crowe and Ellis-Davies 2014).

90 In vivo TPM imaging also benefits from the use of genetic tools that can target fluorochrome 91 expression to different brain cells, including promoters for specific cell types (e.g., Thy1 mice 92 for Layer 5B neurons (Feng et al. 2000), CX3CR1 mice for microglia (Jung et al. 2000)). Cre-93 Lox recombination can be fruitfully used to target any fluorescent protein in spatially 94 restricted patterns, such as different cell types, cortical layers, or brain regions, thanks to the existence of a number of Cre driver lines. Other genetic strategies (e.g., Cre-ER^{T2}) can 95 96 temporally restrict expression (Kristianto et al. 2017). Different fluorochromes can be 97 simultaneously expressed on different cells of the same lineage thus (e.g., the Brainbow 98 construct (Livet et al. 2007)) or on different cell types by breeding together mice of different 99 phenotypes (e.g., Thy1-CFP/LysM-GFP/CD11c-EYFP (Fenrich et al. 2013)).

Designing new transgenic animal models has been recently made less arduous than previously by CRISPR/Cas9 (Wang and Qi 2016) and PiggyBac (Woodard and Wilson 2015) technologies, but remains a time-consuming task that can be overcome by the administration of exogenous fluorescent probes. Depending on the target and on physical and chemical properties of the probe, methods of administration can range from intravenous dye injection to *in utero* electroporation and viral protein transduction.

106 Third, the availability of increasing numbers of two-photon-suitable synthetic dyes or 107 genetically encoded probes with extended properties has brought new perspectives to the use 108 of TPM in neuroscience. One of these perspectives consists of two-photon functional 109 imaging, which makes possible to witness brain cells 'at work' thanks to voltage-sensitive

110 dyes, probes that monitor levels of various ions (*e.g.*, CI^- , Ca^{2+}) (Helmchen 2009), or caged 111 neurotransmitters that can be photoreleased with TPM (Hess et al. 2014).

112 Beyond the prolific engineering of new fluorescent proteins that unquestionably and fruitfully expands the biological applications of TPM (Pak et al. 2015), its routine use is hindered by 113 114 the need for a more extensive characterization of spectral properties of existing fluorescent 115 probes. Recent developments in far-red two-photon excitation make the need for an update of 116 the spectral characteristics of fluorescent probes even more acute (Herz et al. 2010; Mojzisova 117 and Vermot 2011). While commercial and academic databases of one-photon absorption 118 spectra are well documented, the two-photon specifications of most probes are only scarcely 119 documented, despite a small number of helpful initiatives (Bestvater et al. 2002; Cahalan et al. 120 2002; Drobizhev et al. 2011; Mütze et al. 2012; Romanelli et al. 2013; Lim and Cho 2013).

121 In this review, we provide a comprehensive list of two-photon–related spectral and biological 122 properties of more than 280 fluorescent probes, and discuss different routes of delivery of 123 such probes into laboratory animals, as well as their actual or prospective relevance to *in vivo* 124 multicolor TPM of cells, structures, and functions, in the healthy and diseased brain.

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- 127

128 1) Reaching the target

129 **1.1** Intravenous route

Blood vessels transport oxygen and nutriments in the whole organism and can be used todeliver fluorescent dyes into the tiniest parts of an organ (*cf.* Table 1).

132 Blood vessel labeling requires only the intravenous delivery of a fluorescent dye to efficiently

133 stain an entire organ's vascular tree, which can then be observed in vivo with TPM by a z-

134 stack acquisition (Tozer et al. 2005; Ricard et al. 2013b). Common dyes such as fluorescein 135 or rhodamine (cf. Table 2) can be used; these are harmless to the animal and cleared from the 136 circulation after a few hours. As capillaries can be permeable to small molecules, these dyes 137 are usually conjugated with a large molecular weight dextran that is too large to leak into the 138 tissue. The molecular weight of the resulting dye can thus be chosen depending on the 139 permeability of the targeted type of vessel. Neocortical arteries and arterioles can be 140 specifically labeled using Alexa Fluor 633 (cf. Table 3), which binds to elastin fibres (Shen et 141 al. 2012). However, when multicolor labeling is required, green or red channels are frequently 142 chosen through the use of other fluorophores or fluorescent proteins (e.g., EGFP or DsRed). 143 Blue-emitting dyes such as **Cascade Blue** have been successfully used in intravital studies 144 and can efficiently be excited by TPM (Ricard and Debarbieux 2014; Ricard et al. 2016b). It 145 must be considered, however, that in living tissues the maximum imaging depth is a function of the wavelengths of both the excitation and fluorescence beam. In the TPM range, high-146 147 energy photons are quickly absorbed by the tissue, resulting in a reduced imaging depth 148 (König 2000). Such a parameter has to be taken into account in the design of the experiment. 149 Moreover, fluorescent dyes conjugated to dextrans can be captured by phagocytes resulting in 150 a long-lasting labeling of these cells (Fenrich et al. 2012; Fiole et al. 2014). Such labeling is 151 observed in the brain and spinal cord dura mater for several days after a single intravenous 152 injection and can impede the correct segmentation of blood vessels during image processing. 153 Quantum dots were introduced as an alternative to classic fluorescent dyes. They present low 154 toxicity, are not engulfed by macrophages, have reduced photobleaching, and can fluoresce in 155 the red and deep-red range, making them particularly suitable for multicolor imaging 156 (Mashinchian et al. 2014). It was also demonstrated that excitation of quantum dots using an 157 optical parametric oscillator can improve imaging depth of vasculature in the brain and the 158 spinal cord (Kobat et al. 2009, 2011; Ricard et al. 2016a). The fluorescence intermittency of quantum dots (Frantsuzov et al. 2013) should however be taken into consideration especially
for single-particle tracking, unless their nonblinking properties are established (Marchuk et al.
2012; Lane et al. 2014).

Intravenous injections of fluorescent dyes have also been used to label other structures.
Sulforhodamine 101 and Sulforhodamine B were reported to leak out of the vasculature and to stain specifically astrocytes (*cf.* Table 1 and Table 3) without showing adverse reactions on astrocytic calcium signals or electroencephalographic recording *in vivo* (Appaix et al. 2012; Vérant et al. 2013). Sulforhodamine B was also demonstrated to stain elastic fibers in blood vessel walls, as well as in muscles after a single intravenous injection (Ricard et al. 2007).

168 Intravenous injection of fluorescent probes can also be used to determine the acidity of tissues 169 using pH indicators (cf. Table 4), or to measure physiological parameters such as cerebral 170 blood flow (Chaigneau et al. 2003) and blood-brain-barrier permeability (Ricard et al. 2009) 171 in different pathologies, including vascular occlusion (Schaffer et al. 2006) and brain tumors 172 (Ricard et al. 2013b, 2016b). Investigating the properties of the blood vessel tree enables the 173 assessment of side effects of treatments in preclinical trials (Ricard et al. 2013a). For instance, 174 the blood vessel density of glioblastoma-animals injected with **Rhodamine B** dextran was 175 recorded over time. Experiments conducted in untreated conditions and after the 176 administration of bevacizumab, an anti-angiogenic compound, revealed a lack of correlation 177 between tumor growth and blood vessel density (Ricard et al. 2013b).

As an alternative but comparable route to intravenous delivery, intraperitoneal administration (*cf.* Table 1) of fluorochromes can also be performed to stain structures in the diseased brain (*cf.* Table 5). For example, in Alzheimer's disease research, amyloid- β plaques can be specifically stained by intraperitoneal administration of **SAD1** (Heo et al. 2013) or **Methoxy-X04** (Klunk et al. 2002), revealing the kinetics of amyloid- β plaques growing over months (Burgold et al. 2011).

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185

1.2 Whole-cell and bulk loading

186 A large population of neurons can be bulk-loaded with a cell membrane-permeable 187 acetoxymethyl (AM) ester-conjugated indicator form (e.g., Fura-2-AM or Fluo-4-AM) 188 (Garaschuk et al. 2006; Brenowitz and Regehr 2014) or dextran-conjugated form, enabling readout of activity across a network (Yuste et al. 2011; Reeves et al. 2011). Bulk-loading of 189 190 ion indicators may be spatially restricted to the soma and most proximal processes of neural 191 cells. However, Reeves et al. have shown that performing morphological reconstructions after 192 bulk-loading of astrocytes in the CA1 region of the hippocampus from rats can help detecting 193 calcium transients in distal astrocyte processes (Reeves et al. 2011).

Alternatively, chemical ion indicators can be typically delivered into single cells via micropipettes (enabling electrophysiology) or electroporation (Liu and Haas 2011; Grienberger and Konnerth 2012). While the chemical indicators have high sensitivity and fast on-off kinetics allowing for precise temporal resolution of action potentials, they are typically used in acute experimental preparations (a few hours at most), and they are not amenable for labeling of specific cell populations (Grienberger and Konnerth 2012).

200

1.3 Viral transduction

In order to allow expression of new genes coding for fluorescent proteins in spatiallyrestricted and genetically-defined neurons, researchers have developed a versatile toolbox of replication-incompetent recombinant viral vectors (*cf.* Table 1) that are devoid of most of their natural genetic material and loaded with engineered constructs (Nassi et al. 2015). The 206 diversity of available vectors reflects the different specifications of each viral vectors in terms207 of:

1) tropism for cell type, compartment (axonal *vs.* somato-dendritic), and animal species. This
tropism is directly influenced by the nature of the glycoprotein of the envelope (which defines
the serotype) and the expression of receptors for envelope glycoprotein on targeted cells
leading to vector internalization;

2) transduction and expression efficiency, speed of expression after infection, and stability forlong term expression;

3) vector genome size and maximum insert size, ease of manipulating the genome andproducing high-titer solutions, and integration into the host genome;

4) and immunogenicity, cell toxicity and safety.

217 Here we list the main viral vectors used in the neuroscience field and their general features:

retroviruses are integrative vectors with an insert size up to 8-9 kB, providing a stable
 long-term expression. They exclusively transduce dividing cells and show moderate
 immunogeneticity.

lentiviruses are integrative vectors with an insert size up to 8-9 kb, good for stable
 long-term expression. They have a large tropism and can transduce most CNS cells
 (astrocytes, neurons, and oligodendrocytes) and show moderate immunogeneticity.

adeno-associated viruses (AAV) are currently the most commonly used vector for
 gene delivery. They are non-integrative vectors with an insert size up to 4-5 kb.
 Because of their small size and high titer production, a single injection can infect a
 large volume of tissue. They are also favored over other vectors for their mild
 immunogenicity and a dominant neuronal tropism. To enlarge their tropism, envelope
 proteins have been engineered using directed evolution to target specific cell types
 (*e.g.*, oligodendrocytes (Büning et al. 2015; Powell et al. 2016)) or to target specific

neuronal compartments (*e.g.*, axonal domain for retrograde labeling of neurons (Tervo
et al. 2016)).

Herpes Simplex Virus (HSV-1) is a non-integrative vector with an insert size up to
 Herpes Simplex Virus (HSV-1) is a non-integrative vector with an insert size up to
 100 kb. Although its complex genome is not easy to manipulate, HSV-1s transduce
 mainly neurons with a dominant axonal tropism, making them an interesting tool for
 retrograde labeling of neurons. Importantly, they show significant immunogenicity
 and cell toxicity.

Canine Adenovirus (CAV-2) is a non-integrative vector with a smaller insert size up to
 30 kb (Junyent and Kremer 2015). CAV-2s transduce mainly neurons with a dominant
 axonal tropism, making them an interesting tool for retrograde labeling of neurons.
 The main receptor for the internalization of the virus is the coxsackievirus and
 adenovirus receptor (CAR). They also show a significant immunogenicity and cell
 toxicity.

244 Rabies virus (RABV) is a non-integrative vector with an insert size of 4-5 kb. RABVs 245 are neurotropic and are classically used as replication-conditional pseudotyped viruses 246 for retrograde tracing of mono-synaptic inputs onto genetically-defined cell 247 populations (Wickersham et al. 2007). Rabies virus is pseudotyped with the EnVA 248 glycoprotein to ensure that the virus exclusively infects cells expressing the EnvA 249 receptor (TVA). The virus also lacks the envelope glycoprotein and expresses the gene 250 of interest. Complementation of the modified rabies virus with the envelope 251 glycoprotein in the TVA-expressing cells allows the generation of infectious particles, 252 which trans-synaptically infect presynaptic neurons. Importantly, rabies virus shows 253 strong neurotoxicity with longer-term infection (>15 days).

1.4 *In utero* electroporation

In utero electroporation (IUE) is a technique that enables researchers to express genes of 257 258 interest within specific neuronal populations (cf. Table 1) by targeting plasmid DNA 259 constructs directly to the embryonic brain of rodents (Fukuchi-Shimogori and Grove 2001; 260 Saito and Nakatsuji 2001; Takahashi et al. 2002; Wang and Mei 2013). Although this section 261 focuses on cerebral cortex, IUE can be used for gene transfer in other brain regions 262 (Takiguchi-Hayashi et al. 2004; Borrell et al. 2005; Nakahira et al. 2006; Navarro-Quiroga et 263 al. 2007; Bonnin et al. 2007). For cortical labeling, IUE takes advantage of one of the most 264 reliable and tightly regulated processes that occurs during brain development: the sequential 265 inside-out laminar organization of the cortex, whereby neurons in deeper layers are generated 266 before those in more superficial layers (Angevine and Sidman 1961; Rakic 1974). IUE is 267 performed at the gestational age that coincides with the generation of pyramidal precursor 268 cells at the subventricular zone along the lateral ventricles. These newborn neurons eventually 269 migrate to and incorporate into their appropriate cortical layer (Caviness and Takahashi 1995; 270 Tabata and Nakajima 2001). For instance, to label layer 2/3 excitatory pyramidal neurons, 271 IUE is performed at embryonic day (E)15-16 (Saito and Nakatsuji 2001).

272 Although IUE can be used to over-express essentially any protein of interest, it is perhaps 273 most often used to express fluorescent proteins that make it possible to image neuronal 274 structure with confocal or two-photon microscopy. Because IUE can provide sparse labeling 275 in neurons, it is particularly well-suited for high-resolution imaging of the finest detail of 276 neuronal structure, such as dendritic spines. Another major advantage of IUE over traditional 277 fluorescence labeling techniques such as transgenic mouse lines, is that it enables researchers 278 to conduct early postnatal imaging. This is due to the fact that expression of fluorescent 279 proteins (e.g., GFP, YFP) in transgenic mouse lines is often driven by promoters that initiate

280 transcription after synaptogenesis has already been completed in neocortex; for example, 281 cortical expression of **YFP** in Thy1-eYFP-H mice occurs around postnatal day (P) 21 (Feng et 282 al. 2000; Porrero et al. 2010)). IUE can also achieve potent transduction of fluorescent 283 proteins through the use of constitutively active promoters such as pCAG or other CMV 284 variations (Saito and Nakatsuji 2001); this is particularly useful for deep tissue imaging with 285 in vivo TPM. Following IUE, mice can be imaged from perinatal development through 286 adulthood (Cruz-Martin et al. 2010). Another problem with transgenic lines is that layer 287 specificity is limited by the fidelity of the promoter itself and specific Cre lines are not yet 288 available for desired cell types or brain regions, or they may have off target expression. In 289 contrast, IUE at different embryonic stages can be used to target different cortical layers in 290 different locations. Furthermore, tailoring DNA plasmid constructs to a particular 291 experimental design is less expensive and less time-consuming than generating new mouse 292 lines. Additionally, co-labeling cells with multiple fluorophores using IUE can easily be 293 achieved by co-injecting multiple plasmids or by using bi-cistronic promoters (e.g., P2A (Kim 294 et al. 2011)). It is also possible to design plasmids to express opsins or DREADD constructs, 295 to genetically manipulate subpopulations of neurons both constitutively and conditionally 296 (Takahashi et al. 2002; Matsuda and Cepko 2004, 2007; Yasuda et al. 2006; Huber et al. 297 2008; Manent et al. 2009). IUE also affords significant flexibility because the level of 298 expression can be controlled by varying the voltage delivery, concentration of the plasmid, 299 and the volume injected. Of note, IUE may not be compatible with the expression of 300 fluorescent calcium indicators (GCaMP6) as anecdotal reports suggest that few if any 301 neurons survive postnatally, presumably due to some toxicity from calcium buffering.

In conclusion, IUE is a powerful method for the expression of proteins in the early postnatalbrain and into adulthood, especially for layer-specific cortical neurons.

304

305 2) Interrogating neural signals

306 2.1 Calcium imaging

307 The ability to measure changes in ion levels in living tissues with fluorescent microscopy offers many possibilities for scientific investigations (cf. Table 6). Across cell types and 308 within multiple intracellular compartments, calcium ions (Ca²⁺) play a variety of important 309 310 roles, including cell cycle regulation, gene transcription modulation, intracellular signaling, 311 muscle contraction and neurotransmission (Grienberger and Konnerth 2012). Action potentials in neurons result in massive influxes of Ca²⁺ through voltage-gated channels, as 312 well as the release of Ca^{2+} from intracellular stores (Kandel et al. 2000), and fluctuations in 313 free Ca²⁺ in the presynaptic and postsynaptic compartments contribute to activity-dependent 314 plasticity (Grienberger and Konnerth 2012). Because changes in the level of intracellular Ca²⁺ 315 are a robust indicator of action potential firing in neurons, fluorescent Ca²⁺ indicators have 316 317 become powerful tools for recording neural activity with excellent spatial and temporal resolution. Additionally, different types of Ca^{2+} signaling events have been studied in 318 319 astrocytes (Srinivasan et al. 2015) and in cardiomyocytes (Herron et al. 2012).

In general, Ca²⁺ imaging relies on a fluorescent sensor compound that is introduced into 320 neurons (or other cells) and that, when bound to Ca^{2+} , changes its fluorescent properties. The 321 two primary classes of Ca²⁺ indicators are the synthetic chemical indicators and the 322 323 genetically encoded indicators. The chemical calcium indicators (e.g., Fura-2, Indo-1, Fluo-324 4, Oregon Green BAPTA-1) were pioneered by Roger Tsien's group and utilize a synthetic Ca²⁺ chelator combined with a fluorophore (Grynkiewicz et al. 1985; Tsien et al. 1985; Brain 325 and Bennett 1997; Gee et al. 2000). When Ca^{2+} binds to the chelator site, the molecule 326 327 undergoes a conformational change that alters the spectrum of emitted fluorescence

328 (Grienberger and Konnerth 2012). **Fura-2** is excited by ultraviolet wavelengths, produces 329 peak fluorescence at 505-520 nm, and has relatively fast kinetics (Tsien et al. 1985). Under 330 two-photon excitation, **Fura-2** fluorescence decreases as $[Ca^{2+}]$ increases, producing 331 decreases in fluorescence intensity during neuronal activity. In contrast, the fluorescence 332 emitted by **Fluo-4** and **Oregon Green BAPTA-1** increases above its baseline as $[Ca^{2+}]$ 333 increases during action potential firing.

The genetically encoded Ca^{2+} indicators (GECIs) use a Ca^{2+} binding protein, such as 334 335 calmodulin or troponin, instead of a chelator like BAPTA. Since the discovery of the green fluorescent protein, scientists have generated an array of sensors combining GFP variants 336 with Ca²⁺-binding proteins. The GECI subcategory of cameleons (Miyawaki et al. 1997), is 337 338 perhaps the most popular amongst GECIs, but other varieties exist based on troponin-C as the Ca²⁺-binding protein (Mank et al. 2008). Yellow Cameleon (Nagai et al. 2004) utilizes Förster 339 340 resonance energy transfer (FRET) between two different fluorescent proteins, linked by calmodulin and calmodulin binding peptide M13. Upon calmodulin binding to Ca^{2+} , the 341 342 conformational change brings the two fluorophores – one ECFP and one Venus-YFP – close enough to result in activation of the yellow, resulting in a measurable change in the 343 344 cyan:yellow fluorescence ratio (Nagai et al. 2004; Grienberger et al. 2014).

For *in vivo* two-photon Ca^{2+} imaging, the most frequently used GECI is the cameleon-based 345 346 GCaMP variety, which utilizes a single circularly permuted green fluorophore (GFP) 347 attached to calmodulin and the M13 peptide, and is maintained in a low fluorescence state when Ca^{2+} is not bound (Nakai et al. 2001). Ca^{2+} binding to calmodulin causes a 348 349 conformational shift that changes the solvent exposure of the GFP and allows a fluorescence 350 increase (Chen et al. 2013). Earlier versions of GCaMP indicators had relatively low slow 351 on-off kinetics and signal-to-noise ratio, which could however be improved by 3D Block-Matching filtering (Danielyan et al. 2014). More recently, the development of the 352

353 "ultrasensitive" GCaMP6 has improved neuronal event detection capability to single-spike 354 resolution, though the off-kinetics remain somewhat slow (Chen et al. 2013). Typical 355 expression methods for GECIs include viral transduction (Chen et al. 2013), with the 356 associated limitation of eventual cytotoxicity caused by long-term calcium sequestration; and 357 transgenic mice expressing GCaMP (Zariwala et al. 2012; Chen et al. 2012; Dana et al. 358 2014). Finally, it is important to note that continual improvements have also been made in 359 red-shifted GECIs (Looger and Griesbeck 2011), with the most recent iterations being 360 jRCaMP1a, jRCaMP1b, and jRGECO1a (Dana et al. 2016). Further developments in these 361 latter GECIs will allow neuroscientists to record from even deeper brain structures, due to the 362 reduced scattering of longer-wavelength excitation light.

363

364 **2.2** Sodium imaging

Another important ion that can be measured intracellularly is Na⁺. In contrast to Ca²⁺ 365 indicators, Na⁺ indicators are designed to measure Na⁺ concentration in millimolar ranges and 366 367 therefore these dyes have significantly lower affinity. A commonly used indicator is SBFI 368 that is excitable in the UV range and has ratiometric properties similar to Fura indicators. 369 This indicator has been used to measure Na⁺ in neurons (Myoga et al. 2009) and astrocytes 370 (Langer and Rose 2009). An alternative indicator excitable with blue light is Sodium Green 371 that was also used to measure Na⁺ in neurons (Senatorov et al. 2000). More recently, a greater sensitivity for fast Na⁺ changes in neuronal axons was found for the green excitable indicator 372 373 ANG-2 (Miyazaki and Ross 2015).

374

375 **2.3** Voltage-sensitive dyes

One problem with Ca^{2+} imaging is that the kinetics of the dyes, on the order of hundreds of 376 377 milliseconds or seconds, are orders of magnitude slower than the duration of typical action 378 potentials. As a result, one cannot record neural activity with precise temporal resolution, 379 which is critical for phenomena like spike timing dependent plasticity. Ideally, one would 380 want to record changes in membrane potential (V_m), using either organic (cf. Table 6) or 381 genetically encoded voltage sensors (GEVS), which have exquisite temporal resolution. In 382 vivo voltage-sensitive dye (VSD) imaging from large cell populations in the anesthetized 383 mammalian brain was developed in the nineties (Shoham et al. 1999; Petersen et al. 2003; 384 Grinvald and Hildesheim 2004). This approach is sometimes coupled with intracortical 385 microstimulation and electrode recordings, and requires either injection or topical application 386 (Murphy et al. 2008) of oxonol VSDs, such as RH-1692. These have been designed to absorb 387 light in the red region and are therefore outside the absorption band of haemoglobin (which 388 causes pulsation and hemodynamic noise in brain recordings). More recently, styryl VSDs 389 with similar spectral properties were developed (Zhou et al. 2007). The techniques of in vivo 390 VSD imaging from large cell populations, using oxonols dyes, further progressed until 391 enabling recordings from the barrel cortex of awake head-fixed mice (Poulet and Petersen 392 2008) or from freely moving animals (Ferezou et al. 2006).

393 Among the other in vivo applications of VSD imaging, it is important to mention the studies 394 on embryonic developing nervous systems (Kamino et al. 1989). For this application, 395 absorption VSDs such as NK2429 (Fujii et al. 1981) are typically used, since the high 396 translucency of embryonic tissue allows high-sensitivity absorption measurements (Momose-397 Sato et al. 2001). To achieve in vivo V_m imaging with cellular or subcellular resolution, two-398 photon excitation can be used. To this purpose, the two-photon cross-sections of several styryl 399 VSDs were measured (Fisher et al. 2005). Action potentials from mammalian nerve terminals 400 were then recorded in an ex vivo preparation, the neurohypophysis (pars nervosa), using the 401 VSD di-3-ANEPPDHQ (Fisher et al. 2008). More recently, some novel fluorinated VSDs
402 (Yan et al. 2012) that appear to be more photostable when excited by two photon were
403 developed, and have been used to resolve action potentials from dendritic spines in brain
404 slices (Acker et al. 2011).

In many cases, *in vivo* two-photon V_m imaging requires the topical application of two-photon suitable VSD (*cf.* Table 1) after either craniotomy (Murphy et al. 2008). This challenging approach is highly rewarding as it allows V_m imaging during wakefulness after topical administration of **ANNINE-6** (Kuhn et al. 2008), opening the door for simultaneous V_m imaging and behavioral tests.

410 In summary, in vivo V_m imaging using organic indicators has several practical limitations 411 associated with dye loading, access to small structures, and stability of recordings. In terms of 412 future prospective, most of these limitations can be overcome by replacing organic indicators 413 with GEVS that can be expressed in vivo by viral transduction (Marshall et al. 2016). The first 414 generation of GEVS was developed by mutating the Drosophila Shaker potassium channel 415 and fusing it to a **GFP** protein (Siegel and Isacoff 1997). While good optical responses to V_m 416 changes could be obtained by expressing the sensor in oocytes, the protein could not be 417 expressed in the plasma membrane of mammalian neurons and therefore a second generation 418 of GEVS was developed (Dimitrov et al. 2007). These GEVSs, now expressed in neuronal 419 outer membranes, were based on the voltage-sensitive phosphatase from the sea squirt, Ciona 420 intestinalis, fused to a CFP and YFP FRET pair (Lundby et al. 2008). From these pioneering 421 works, new GEVS based either on single FRET pairs (Jin et al. 2012) or on GFP probes (St-422 Pierre et al. 2014) have been more recently developed with faster responses and enhanced 423 sensitivity, opening the gate to future explorations of activity in the living brain.

428 **2.4** Optogenetics actuators

429 Optogenetic technology has become an essential tool to study the structure and the function of 430 the neural circuits underlying behavior and cognition. Using photosensitive microbial opsin 431 genes expressed into genetically defined neurons, optogenetics provides millisecond-precision 432 control —activation or inhibition — of defined circuit elements in intact organisms with light 433 (reviewed by Deisseroth (Deisseroth 2015)). Recent developments have provided a large 434 diversity of excitatory and inhibitory opsins that are sensitive to different wavelengths. For 435 instance, red-light-activated opsins (such as C1V1, ChRimson) allow simultaneous activation 436 of neurons and imaging of neuronal activity with the green genetic probe GCaMP. 437 Optogenetic tools have been upgraded to achieve two-photon manipulation of neuronal 438 populations at the single-cell resolution. The red-light-activated C1V1 opsin allows the robust 439 generation of precise and fast spike trains using 1,040-nm light and standard raster-scanning 440 light delivery (Prakash et al. 2012). This tool can also be used in combination with two-441 photon imaging of GCaMP probe using 920-nm light (Rickgauer et al. 2014; Packer et al. 442 2015). Inhibitory opsins such as eNpHR3.0 have also proven to be efficient for neuronal 443 inhibition using 1,040 nm light (Prakash et al. 2012). New illumination methods now exist to 444 improve opsin activation, such as spiral scanning, temporal focusing and holography-based 445 patterned light illumination (Papagiakoumou et al. 2013). Thus, combining optogenetics with 446 imaging technologies opens new avenues to all-optical interrogation of neuronal circuits with closed-loop manipulation of neurons in real time (Emiliani et al. 2015). 447

449 **2.5** Spectral properties of endogenous molecules

450 Utilizing the intrinsic spectral properties of the target tissue, when possible, places the 451 experimenter in a very favorable situation by avoiding the complicated, invasive, and/or 452 possibly bias-inducing administration and binding of exogenous fluorescent probes.

453 Many, if not all endogenous molecules display a certain capacity of two-photon excitation, 454 though this excitation is generally rather inefficient. What appears in most cases to produce an 455 annoying background noise does carry some meaningful information. The two-photon action 456 cross-section spectra of several intrinsic molecules (among which NADH, riboflavin, folic 457 acid, cholecalciferol, pyridoxine, and retinol) has been assessed in the early 2000s by the 458 laboratory of Watt W. Webb at Cornell (Zipfel et al. 2003a), facilitating the two-photon-459 based analysis of metabolism (cf. Table 7). Investigating cell dysfunction in a number of 460 pathologies is made possible through the measurement of the fluorescence decay using 461 fluorescence lifetime imaging (FLIM) of metabolites. For instance, NADH FLIM-462 experiments allowed a better characterization of tumor-associated microglia phenotypes 463 (Bayerl et al. 2016), unveiled the role of astrocytes in chronic neuroinflammation-related 464 neuronal death (Mossakowski et al. 2015; Radbruch et al. 2016), and provided a label-free 465 and non-invasive mean to identify neuron- or glial- biased progenitors (Stringari et al. 2012). 466 Moreover, simultaneous FLIM-based detection of several metabolites like NADH and FAD with SHG can be achieved through wavelength mixing (Stringari et al. 2017) (for more 467 468 details, see section Designing a microscopy setup for intravital multicolor TPM).

Although not endogenous, it is worth mentioning the very few instances of therapeutic agentswhose two-photon spectral characteristics are known: the fluoroquinolone antibiotics

471 gatifloxacin and moxifloxacin (Lee et al. 2016) (cf. Table 5), and quinacrine (Bestvater et

472 al. 2002) which stains nucleic acids (cf. Table 8) while having several therapeutic indications

473 (Wallace 1989; Eriksson et al. 2015; Lippes 2015).

474 3) Combining fluorescent probes for multicolor TPM

475 **3.1** Designing a multicolor animal model

476 The first point to consider when designing an intravital multicolor TPM experiment is the co-477 labeling of multiple targets in the biological sample. Such labeling can result from crossing 478 transgenic mice that express fluorescent proteins in different cells or structures of interest. For 479 instance, triple transgenic fluorescent mice were described and successfully involved in 480 intravital multicolor TPM experiments (Fenrich et al. 2013; Ricard and Debarbieux 2014). 481 However, producing such animals requires many crossings that considerably delay their use 482 and increase the cost of the experiment. Another approach to multicolor imaging is the 483 Brainbow transgenic mouse, which takes advantage of Cre/lox recombination to stochastically 484 express different fluorescent proteins in a cell population. As a consequence, each cell 485 randomly express a combination of fluorescent proteins and thus can be followed individually 486 (Livet et al. 2007; Weissman and Pan 2015). Different probes can be used to highlight 487 structures and/or functions (e.g., VSD or calcium-sensitive dyes) (Akemann et al. 2013; 488 Shigetomi et al. 2013, 2016; Xu et al. 2017).

489 Taking advantage of the intrinsic properties of endogenous molecules is an elegant way to 490 investigate biological tissues without the drawbacks associated with the administration, 491 binding and possibly metabolize of exogenous molecules. Second-harmonic generation 492 (SHG) can be used to visualize not only the meninges via type-I or -III collagen imaging 493 (Williams et al. 2005; Ricard et al. 2007; Keikhosravi et al. 2014; Ricard and Debarbieux 494 2014), but also membrane potential (Rama et al. 2010; Loew and Lewis 2015). Third-495 harmonic generation (THG) highlights water-lipids and water-proteins interfaces (Débarre et 496 al. 2006; Weigelin et al. 2016) and was successfully tested in vivo to image neurons, white-497 matter structures, and blood vessels simultaneously (Witte et al. 2011). Both SHG and THG 498 require no staining at all and are observed at half or one-third of the excitation wavelength 499 respectively. Beside the respective specificity of SHG and THG, they have been fruitfully 500 used to record morphological landmarks and help data registration during longitudinal in vivo 501 imaging of neural zebrafish stem cells (Dray et al. 2015). Autofluorescence does arise from 502 molecules and structures under specific excitation wavelengths (Zipfel et al. 2003a; Ricard et 503 al. 2012). At best autofluorescence may carry relevant information, and at worst, being aware 504 of it may help achieve higher contrast between the background and structures of interest by 505 choosing fluorophores accordingly. It must be noted that autofluorescence signals are not very 506 bright in intravital conditions (cf. Table 7) and were mainly described in explants or tissue 507 slices. Due to the low intensity of endogenous signals, one could be tempted to increase the 508 laser power. However, this usually causes artifacts to appear, whose monitoring can help in 509 evaluating photodamage induced during the experiment (Galli et al. 2014).

510 The preparation of a biological sample for intravital multicolor TPM often requires combining 511 different approaches to label a maximal number of structures of interest involved in a 512 complex process. For example, using Thy1-CFP/LysM-GFP/CD11c-EYFP triple transgenic 513 mice intravenously injected with Rhodamine B dextran or Quantum-dots 655, Fenrich et al. 514 have revealed a differential spatiotemporal recruitment of myelomonocytic cells after a spinal 515 cord injury (Fenrich et al. 2013). Recently, Ricard et al. have described the combination of a 516 LysM-EGFP/CD11c-EYFP mouse implanted with DsRed-expressing glioblastoma cells and 517 intravenously injected with Cascade Blue dextran in order to study the recruitment of 518 immune cells during glioblastoma progression (Ricard et al. 2016b).

519 The development of the co-staining protocol of a biological sample to be used for intravital520 multicolor TPM must follow some guidelines:

521 1) Spectral overlap of the emission spectra of all of the utilized fluorophores must be minimal,

- 522 2) Utilized fluorophores must not bias physiological and biological properties of the sample
- 523 nor the pathological condition that is observed,
- 524 3) As multiple-fluorophore-expressing animals are difficult to produce, the experimental
- 525 design should take into account the risk of a downsized animal cohort.

526

The next point to consider, when multicolor TPM is required for an experiment, is the 529 530 microscopy setup (cf. Figure 1). Excitation spectra of the fluorophores are the first elements to 531 take into account. The majority of blue-, green- and red-emitting fluorophores can be excited 532 with a Ti:Sapphire femtosecond laser, as its emission wavelength is generally tunable in 533 between 700 and 1,040 nm. When possible, it is advisable to use a single excitation 534 wavelength and tune precisely the gain of detectors associated with each fluorophore. The 535 laser power should be kept as low as possible and the experiment duration as short as 536 possible, to limit photobleaching and phototoxicity. This is essential for multicolor timelapse 537 experiments (Fenrich et al. 2013; Ricard et al. 2016b), in which the same region is scanned 538 over and over, at the risk of exposing the tissue to an energy that would threaten its health 539 and/or integrity. When different excitation wavelengths are required (for example, when both 540 **Cascade Blue** with $\lambda_{ex} = 800$ nm and **eGFP** with $\lambda_{ex} = 940$ nm are present in the same 541 biological sample), a sequential acquisition or the simultaneous use of two Ti:Sapphire 542 femtosecond lasers is required. Continuous sequential acquisition (for example, for calcium 543 imaging recordings) increases the total acquisition time of the images, which is of concern as 544 far as preventing photodamage and prolonged exposure of the animal to anesthetics (if 545 applicable), or depending on the characteristic time of the studied phenomenon.

Deep-red fluorophores require higher excitation wavelengths that cannot be delivered by Ti:Sapphire femtosecond lasers alone. Typically, they are excited by Ytterbium lasers (1,040 nm) but the addition of an OPO (Herz et al. 2010) pumped by a Ti:Sapphire femtosecond laser can enable excitation wavelengths ranging from 1,050 to 1,300 nm when pumped at 800 nm. Simultaneous utilization of both a Ti:Sapphire femtosecond laser and an OPO is achievable. Interestingly, it enables the simultaneous two-photon excitation of three fluorophores with distinct absorption spectra insofar as the pulses of the laser and OPO are 553 synchronized. The excitation of the three fluorophores is done by the femtosecond laser, the 554 OPO and by their spatiotemporal overlap that produces a third two-photon excitation. With 555 such a wavelength mixing, **CFP**, **YFP** and **tdTomato** – having distinct two-photon absorption 556 spectra – can be simultaneously excited. Biological phenomena such as cell movements in 557 embryonic tissues were thereby monitored over time using Brainbow constructs (Mahou et al. 558 2012). Endogenous metabolites such as NADH and FAD can also be detected by FLIM, 559 simultaneously with the SHG of surrounding tissues, using a wavelength mixing approach 560 (Stringari et al. 2017). In this case, two-photon excitations are produced by the 561 synchronization of two excitation beams at 760 nm (NADH and FAD) and 1041 nm that 562 creates a third (virtual) wavelength at 879 nm (FAD) (cf. Figure 2).

More recently, the efficient detection of up to 7 tissue compartments (five fluorophores, SHG from collagen, and autofluorescence) has been reported using wavelength mixing combined with both a broad set of fluorophores (*cf.* Figure 3) and a dedicated spectral unmixing algorithm (Rakhymzhan et al. 2017) (for more details, see section *Image processing*).

567 The next element to consider is the fluorescence collection. Fluorescence photons are nearly 568 always collected in non-descanned mode in intravital TPM, *i.e.*, without passing back through 569 the scanning mirrors. They are instead reflected on a dichroic mirror situated between the 570 objective and scanning mirrors, and are directed towards photomultiplier tubes (PMT), also 571 known as non-descanned detectors (NDDs). In multicolor TPM, a number of NDDs is used. 572 Fluorescence photons are discriminated according to their wavelengths using dichroic mirrors 573 and filters. With such a setup, fluorescence arising from different fluorophores can be 574 simultaneously collected on distinct detectors. Fluorescence intensity varies between the 575 different used fluorophores according to parameters such as their quantity, their two-photon 576 absorption cross-section (σ_2) and quantum yield (ϕ), the product of which defining the two-577 photon action cross-section ($\sigma_2 \varphi$) listed in Tables 2-8. The emission wavelength of a 578 fluorophore is another parameter influencing the collected intensity when put into perspective 579 with the NDD response curve, high-energy blue photons being more absorbed than low-580 energy red photons in biological tissues (König 2000). When a single excitation is used, the 581 laser intensity delivered to each of the fluorophores at the same observation depth will be 582 identical. NDD gain should be adjusted accordingly for each of the fluorophores in order to 583 enhance the signal over noise ratio, while avoiding saturating the detectors. When one expects 584 a specific fluorescence signal to be low, more efficient PMTs such as Gallium Arsenide 585 Phosphide (GaAsP) detectors should be considered (Becker et al. 2011).

586 Multicolor intravital TPM can benefit from the use of spectral chips, composed of an array of 587 PMTs and a prism or diffraction grating to separate the fluorescence photons (Im et al. 2010; 588 Shi et al. 2012, 2015; Zimmermann et al. 2014). Spectral segmentation of the wavelengths 589 arising for the different fluorophores will be thereby both more accurate and easier to achieve. 590 Although such chips are already available on commercial confocal microscopes, they are 591 positioned on the descanned path that is less suitable for intravital applications. Spectral chips 592 in a non-descanned mode are required, and recent advances in non-descanned collection of 593 fluorescence photons by optical fibers may help develop this approach (Ducros et al. 2011).

594

596 **3.3** Image processing

597 Multicolor intravital timelapse TPM generates large amounts of data. The aim of the post-598 processing steps is to extract quantitative data and relevant characterization of the 599 phenomenon of interest from multicolor acquisition.

600 When required, the first step is to perform spectral unmixing (Zimmermann et al. 2002; Neher 601 and Neher 2004; Ducros et al. 2009). Even though the emission spectra of all of the 602 fluorophores used in the experiment do not peak at the same wavelengths, there is generally a 603 certain overlap of the spectra. As a consequence, the signal collected on one NDD contains a 604 major contribution from one fluorophore and minor contributions from the others. It is 605 possible to overcome this problem and to clean the image to retain only the contribution of the 606 major fluorophore. To perform this spectral unmixing (a.k.a., spectral deconvolution), the 607 contribution of each of the fluorophores used in the experiment in each of the NDD must be 608 measured. Then, using dedicated algorithms based on maximum-likelihood unmixing (Davis 609 and Shen 2007), each image from each NDD can be spectrally unmixed and then analyzed 610 (Thaler and Vogel 2006; Brenner et al. 2013; Zimmermann et al. 2014). As an example of the 611 crucial importance of spectral unmixing, Ducros *et al.* have used it to detect small spectral 612 variations of odor-evoked FRET transients up to 250 µm in the olfactory bulb of living mice 613 (Ducros et al. 2009).

In another instance of multicolor intravital TPM experiment, Ricard *et al.* have recently proposed the 6-color intravital TPM of brain tumors (Ricard and Debarbieux 2014). They designed a triple transgenic Connexin43-**CFP**/Thy1-**GFP**/CD11c-**YFP** mouse model enabling the simultaneous observation of astrocytes, neurons, and microglia/dendritic cells, respectively. Mice were grafted under a chronic cranial window with glioblastoma cells expressing **DsRed**. Blood vessels were highlighted by an intravenous delivery of **Cascade Blue** dextran. Meninges were observed using SHG. Images were acquired on a microscope 621 equipped with 5 NDDs under a sequential excitation at 800 and 940 nm. This sequential 622 acquisition allows a discrimination of **CFP** and **Cascade Blue** signals as their two-photon 623 excitation spectra are different, even though their emission spectra strongly overlap. After 624 spectral unmixing, analysis revealed in particular significant alterations of cell motility in the 625 peritumoral area.

626 The usefulness of spectral unmixing algorithms has become even clearer with the successful 627 attempt to simultaneously detect up to 7 tissue compartments using two two-photon excitation 628 sources and 6 NDDs (Rakhymzhan et al. 2017). In order to do this, the authors of this work 629 developed a dedicated pixel-based algorithm based both on similarity measurements between 630 overlapping fluorophores and on the spectral fingerprints of the individual fluorophores. As a 631 result, the 'SIMI' algorithm enables the separation of more fluorophores than available 632 channels (cf. Figure 4). This protocol has been used in murine lymph nodes to simultaneously 633 detect in vivo lymphocytes labelled with Hoechst, CFP, hrGFP, YFP, or DsRed, plus SHG 634 and autofluorescence from macrophages.

635 Conclusion

636 Intravital TPM is a powerful tool to visualize biological phenomena with a subcellular 637 resolution in a physiological environment. Multicolor TPM experiments make the most of the 638 presence of all the actors – known or yet unknown – exhaustively involved in the complex 639 processes that characterize brain functions. The design of intravital multicolor TPM 640 experiments is, however, hindered at different stages following the identification of the 641 biological targets of interest: choice of suitable fluorophores, choice of appropriate routes of 642 delivery of these fluorophores, and design of the setup allowing simultaneous detection of 643 various fluorophores.

644 This review was intended to reduce these hurdles by providing a comprehensive list of two-645 photon-suitable probes along with their spectral properties and biological specificities (cf. 646 Tables 2 to 8), a description of different routes of in vivo delivery of these fluorophores (cf. 647 Table 1), recommendations for the design of intravital multicolor TPM microscope setups, 648 and a discussion about strategies of data post-processing. Taken together, this database and set 649 of recommendations will help scientists design intravital TPM experiments focusing 650 simultaneously on biological targets of diverse natures, ranging from cells (e.g., neurons, 651 astrocytes) and sub-cellular structures (e.g., DNA, organelles) to functional processes – whose 652 exploration greatly benefits from the optogenetics technology -(e.g., ion transport, membrane)653 potential), and through chemical or environmental parameters (e.g., mechanical strains, pH) 654 or even potentially connectomics (Nemoto et al. 2015).

Extending beyond the current trends in neuroscience, this comprehensive two-photon probe database, as well as the resources related to intravital multicolor TPM, is intended to broaden the use of TPM not only in neuroscience, but also to other fields of biology in which the full extent of this technology's capabilities has not yet been revealed.

659 Figures

660

- 661 **Fig. 1** Optical setup for multicolor two-photon microscopy
- 662 DC: dichroic mirror; NDD: non-descanned detector; OPO: optical parametric oscillator.
- ¹: Dichroic mirror used to collect fluorescent photons on five non-descanned detectors.
- 664 Excitatory infrared photons pass through the mirror whereas fluorescence photons are
- reflected. This mirror must be removed to collect photons in descanned mode.
- ⁶⁶⁶ ²: Dichroic mirror used to collect fluorescent photons on a spectral chip in descanned mode.
- 667 Modified from (Ricard and Debarbieux 2014).

668

- **Fig. 2** Wavelength mixing–fluorescence lifetime imaging of endogenous fluorophores
- 670 When the excitation beams $\lambda_1 = 760$ nm and $\lambda_2 = 1041$ nm are synchronized ($\Delta t = 0$), a third
- 671 virtual wavelength for two-photon excitation $\lambda_v = 879$ nm is created by wavelength mixing. A
- time-correlated single photon counting system (TCSPC) is used to perform FLIM.
- 673 Originally published in *Scientific reports* (Stringari et al. 2017) under a Creative Commons
- 674 Attribution 4.0 International License (<u>http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/</u>).

- 676 Fig. 3 Wavelength-mixing optimal combination of two sets of fluorophores
- 677 Two-photon excitation and emission spectra of two sets of fluorophores that can be efficiently
- excited by wavelength mixing with $\lambda_1 = 850$ nm and $\lambda_2 = 1230$ nm (full arrows), resulting in
- 679 $\lambda_v = 1005 \text{ nm}$ (dashed arrow). (a) **CFP**, eGFP, mOrange2, mKate2, eqFP670. (b) Hoechst,
- 680 eGFP, Kusabira Orange, CMTPX Red, Alexa 647, Atto 680.
- 681 Originally published in *Scientific reports* (Rakhymzhan et al. 2017) under a Creative
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683

684 Fig. 4 Example of similarity unmixing of more fluorochromes than available channels 685 (a) Images of cells labelled with several fluorophores, showing crosstalk in two detection 686 channel. (b) Extraction of a relative signal distribution in the two channels pixels by pixel, 687 corresponding to . (c) The algorithm calculates similarities between the known fingerprints of 688 each fluorophore and the signature of undefined fluorophores extracted during step (b). (d) 689 Color separation based on the ratios between the fluorophore fingerprints. 690 Originally published in Scientific reports (Rakhymzhan et al. 2017) under a Creative 691 Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

Tables

Table 1 Routes of administration of fluorochromes for intravital two-photon microscopy of

695 brain cells, structures, and functions.

Technique	Target	Probe		
Single-cell electroporation	<i>Diverse</i> (<i>e.g.</i> neurons (Liu and Haas 2011))	Diverse		
<i>In utero</i> electroporation (Wang and Mei 2013)	<i>e.g.</i> layer 2/3 cortical neurons (Saito and Nakatsuji 2001)	e.g. eGFP		
Intraperitoneal administration	Amyloid-β plaques	<i>e.g.</i> SAD1 (Heo et al. 2013)		
Intravenous administration	Astrocytes	Sulforhodamine 101 (Nimmerjahn et al. 2004), sulforhodamine B (Vérant et al. 2013)		
	Blood vessels	<i>e.g.</i> Rhodamine B dextran, quantum-dots (Ricard et al. 2016a)		
	Arteries	Alexa Fluor 633 (Shen et al. 2012)		
	Amyloid-β plaques	<i>e.g.</i> DCIP-1 (Zhu et al. 2017)		
Viral transduction (Nassi et al. 2015)	Spatially-restricted (<i>e.g.</i> axonal domain of neurons (Tervo et al. 2016)) and genetically-defined cells (<i>e.g.</i> oligodendrocytes (Powell et al. 2016))	Diverse		
	Calcium activity	Genetically encoded Ca ²⁺ indicators (GECIs)		
	Membrane potential (V _m)	Genetically encoded voltage sensors (GEVs)		
Whole-cell and bulk loading	Ion activity (neurons, astrocytes (Reeves et al. 2011))	Ion indicators (<i>e.g.</i> Fura-2-AM , Fluo-4-AM , Oregon Green BAPTA-1 (Garaschuk et al. 2006))		
	Membrane potential (V _m)	Voltage-sensitive dyes (<i>e.g.</i> ANNINE-6 (Kuhn et al. 2008), RH-1692 (Murphy et al. 2008))		

- 698 **Table 2** Biophysical properties of two-photon–suitable non-specific probes : peak wavelength
- 699 of two-photon action cross-section (λ_{2PA}); peak two-photon action cross-section ($\sigma_2 \phi$); peak
- 700 wavelength of molecular brightness ($\lambda_{\epsilon_{max}}$); peak molecular brightness (ϵ_{max}); fluorescence
- 701 wavelength (λ_{fluo}). Probes discussed in the text are in bold.
- 702 (1) : calculated from the σ_2 and ϕ values
- 703 (2) : data from commercial provider
- * : data from <u>http://www.drbio.cornell.edu/cross_sections.html</u> (accessed 10/24/2017)

Probe	λ _{2PA} [nm]	σ ₂ φ[GM]	λ _{ε_m} ax [nm]	ε _{max} [kcps m]	λ _{fluo} [nm]	Comment	Reference
— Pond 2002 Derivative 1	830	1207 (1)			536	Hydropho bic	Figure 3(1) in (Pond et al. 2002)
— Pond 2002 Derivative 2	830	1427 (1)			528	Hydropho bic	Figure 3(2) in (Pond et al. 2002)
— Pond 2002 Derivative 3	790	2.67 (1)			504	Hydropho bic	Figure 3(3) in (Pond et al. 2002)
— Pond 2002 Derivative 4	825	11 (1)			510	Hydropho bic	Figure 3(4) in (Pond et al. 2002)
— Sadowski 2017 Derivative 4a	740	112			671		Figure 3 in (Sadowski et al. 2017)
— Sadowski 2017 Derivative 4b	820	83			699		Figure 3 in (Sadowski et al. 2017)
— Sadowski 2017 Derivative 4c	740	70			662		Figure 3 in (Sadowski et al. 2017)
— Sadowski 2017 Derivative 5a (7a)	720	1450			633		Figure 3 in (Sadowski et al. 2017)
— Sadowski 2017 Derivative 5b (7c)	720	500			643		Figure 3 in (Sadowski et al. 2017)
— Sadowski 2017 Derivative 5c (7d)	860	340			736		Figure 3 in (Sadowski et al. 2017)
5C-TMR	830	135	850	31.5	580 (2)		Figure 5 in (Mütze et al. 2012)
7-amino-4-	703 <				439 (2)		Figure 3 in

methylcoumarin	722 >>						(Bestvater et
methyleouniarin	863						(Bestvater et al. 2002)
Alexa Fluor 350	~715				442 (2)		Figure 5C in
							(Trägårdh et
							al. 2015)
Alexa Fluor 430	870	11.6	910	16	541 (2)		Figure 2 in
							(Mütze et al.
							2012)
Alexa Fluor 488	940	~30			519 (2)		Figure 2 in
							(Anderson and Webb
							2011)
Alexa Fluor 514			790,	~32,	542 (2)		Figure 2 in
Alexa Fluor 514			790, 960	~25	342 (2)		(Mütze et al.
			900	~25			(Mutze et al. 2012)
Alexa Fluor 546			820	58	573 (2)		Figure 2 in
			020	00	0,0 (1)		(Mütze et al.
							2012)
Alexa Fluor 568			780	~25	603 (2)		Figure 2 in
							(Mütze et al.
							2012)
Alexa Fluor 594			800	~32	617 (2)		Figure 2 in
							(Mütze et al.
			000	20	(22) (2)		2012)
Alexa Fluor 610			820	~28	628 (2)		Figure 2 in
							(Mütze et al. 2012)
Alexa Fluor 633			820	~24	647 (2)	Arteries	Figure 2 in
Alexa Fluor 055			020		047 (2)	(Shen et	(Mütze et al.
						al. 2012)	2012)
Alexa Fluor 647	1240	~45			665 (2)	OPO-	Figure 7 in
						friendly	(Kobat et al.
							2009)
Alexa Fluor 680	1280	~75			702 (2)	OPO-	Figure 7 in
						friendly	(Kobat et al.
	1.000		-				2009)
Alexa Fluor 700	1300	~52			723 (2)	OPO-	Figure 7 in
						friendly	(Kobat et al. 2009)
Aminomethyl	700				445 (2)		– (Bok et al.
coumarin acetate	700				445 (2)		2015)
Ant-PHEA (in	800	2480			575 (2)		Figure 6 in
water)							(Mettra et al.
,							2016)
ATTO 590	790	~250		1	624 (2)	STED-	Figure 2E in
		(NHS				compatibl	(Velasco et
		ester)				e	al. 2015)
ATTO 594	800	~220			627 (2)	STED-	Figure 2D in
		(NHS				compatibl	(Velasco et
		ester),				e	al. 2015)
		~140					
		(antibodie					
ATTO 647N	840	s) ~270			669 (2)	STED-	Figure 2A in
111004/19	0-10	-270	<u> </u>	I	007(2)	STED-	1 iguit 2A ill

		(NHS ester), ~120 (streptavid in)				compatibl e	(Velasco et al. 2015)
ATTO 680	~1260				695 (2)	OPO- friendly	Figure 2D in (Rakhymzha n et al. 2017)
BODIPY (in water)	920	17.12			Variable		*
BODIPY 492/515 (in water)	920	14.3	920	47.4	515		Figure 5 in (Mütze et al. 2012)
BODIPY-FL (in DMSO)	920 << 972				512 (2)		Figure 3 in (Bestvater et al. 2002)
BODIPY-TR	1080	242	106 0	15.2	618 (2)		Figure 5 in (Mütze et al. 2012)
Brilliant Violet 421	710- 1000				421		 - (Figure 6) (Chattopadh yay et al. 2012)
Cascade Blue	740, 800	2.1 (at 750 nm)			420 (2)		Figure 7 in (Xu and Webb 1996)
CellTracker Blue	780				466 (2)		– (Zinselmeye r et al. 2009)
CellTracker Orange	820				565 (2)		– (Miller et al. 2002)
CellTracker Red	~1080				602 (2)		Figure 2D in (Rakhymzha n et al. 2017)
CFP	840	~180			485 (2)		Figure 3B in (Zipfel et al. 2003b)
CFSE	780				521 (2)		– (Miller et al. 2002)
Citrine	968	6.7			529 (Griesbec k et al. 2001)		Figure 1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
Coumarin 307	800	15.3			490 (in ethanol) (2)		*
Cy2-IgG	837 < 905 > 981				505 (2)		Figure 4 in (Bestvater et al. 2002)
Cy3-IgG	1032				565 (2)		Figure 4 in (Bestvater et al. 2002)

Cy5.5	1280	~60			702 (2)	OPO- friendly	Figure 7 in (Kobat et al. 2009)
Dronpa-3	920				515	Reversibl y switchable	- (Ando et al. 2007; Kao et al. 2012)
dsRed	> 990	108			583 (Shaner et al. 2008)		*
dsRed2	1050	73			587		Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
E2-Crimson	1138	1.8			643		Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
EBFP2.0	750	9.2			446		Figure 1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
eCFP	857	12			476		Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
eGFP (pH 8)	927	30			510		Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
eqFP650	1112	8.5			646		Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
eqFP670	1120	1.3			661		Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
Evans Blue	850				680 (Saria and Lundberg 1983)		– (Bennewitz et al. 2014)
eYFP	960	25			527 (Merzlyak et al. 2007)		- (Table 2) (Blab et al. 2001)
Fluorescein (in water, pH = 11)	770	39	800	18.4	520 (Zhu et al. 2005)		Figure 5 in (Mütze et al. 2012)
Fluorescein isiothiocyanate (FITC)	800				525 (2)		Figure 3B in (Wang and Yeh 2012)
GFP	800	6.5			504 (Chattoraj et al. 1996)		*
Hilyte Fluor 488	~815, 960	~55, ~30			525 (2)		Figure 2 in (Anderson and Webb 2011)
Katushka	1080	23			635		2011) Figure S1 in

			(Shcherbo		(Drobizhev
			et al.		et al. 2011)
			2007)		,
Katushka2	1140	27	633 (2)	OPO-	Figure S1 in
				friendly	(Drobizhev
					et al. 2011)
Kusabira Orange	~1110		561		Figure 2D in
			(Karasawa		(Rakhymzha n et al.
			et al. 2004)		n et al. 2017)
Lissamine	837 >>		~580 (2)		Figure 4 in
rhodamine	1116		~380 (2)		(Bestvater et
modamme	1110				al. 2002)
LSS-mKate1	920	~40	624		Figure 1E in
		-			(Piatkevich
					et al. 2010)
LSS-mKate2	920	~90	605		Figure 1E in
					(Piatkevich
					et al. 2010)
Lucifer Yellow	840	1.4	540 (2)		*
mAmetrine	809	40	526 (Ai et		Figure S1 in
			al. 2008)		(Drobizhev
mBanana	1070	44	553	OPO-	et al. 2011)
mBanana	1070	44	(Shaner et	friendly	Figure S1 in (Drobizhev
			(Shaher et al. 2004)	menury	et al. 2011)
mCardinal	>1080		659	OPO-	Figure S3 in
mearanna	21000		057	friendly	(Chu et al.
				menary	2014)
mCerulean	840	~75	475-503		Figure S1 in
			(Ai et al.		(Drobizhev
			2006)		et al. 2011)
mCFP	840	187	475		*
			(Shaner et		
~	1000		al. 2005)	0.00	
mCherry	1080	6.4 (at	610 (Slamon et	OPO-	Figure S1 in
	(Drobizh ev et al.	1080 nm)	(Shaner et al. 2008)	friendly	(Drobizhev et al. 2011)
	2011),		al. 2008)		and Figure 8
	1160				in
	(Vadakk				(Vadakkan
	an et al.				et al. 2009)
	2009)				,
mCitrene	960	~320			Figure 3C in
					(Rizzo et al.
					2006)
mCitrine (pH 8)	950	7.6	527		Figure S1 in
					(Drobizhev
mECED	0.60	200	507		et al. 2011)
mEGFP	960	~300	507 (Shapor at		Figure 3B in
			(Shaner et al. 2005)		(Rizzo et al. 2006)
mGrape3	1140	1.6	645		Figure S1 in
morupos					(Drobizhev
	1			1	

					et al. 2011)
mKate (pH 8)	1118	14	635 (Shcherbo et al. 2007)	OPO- friendly	Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
mKate2	1140	30	633 (Shcherbo et al. 2009)	OPO- friendly	Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
mKeima	~880	~70	620		Figure 1E in (Piatkevich et al. 2010)
mNeptune	1104	12	651 (Chu et al. 2014)	OPO- friendly	Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
mOrange	1080	47	565	OPO- friendly	Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
mOrange2	~1080		565 (Shaner et al. 2008)		Figure 2B in (Rakhymzha n et al. 2017)
mPlum	1105	2.9	644		Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
mRaspberry	1118	5.8	625 (Shcherbo et al. 2007)	OPO- friendly	Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
mRFP	1080	13	611		Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
mStrawberry	1070	6.8	596 (Shaner et al. 2004)		Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
mTangerine	1055	3.3	584		Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2009, 2011)
mVenus	960	~200	525 (Sarkar et al. 2009)		Figure 3C in (Rizzo et al. 2006)
mWasabi	927	7.3	508		Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
Near-iRFP	1260		713	OPO- friendly	Figure S5 in (Filonov et al. 2011)
Neptune	1120	16	647		Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
Pacific Blue	780		455 (2)		– (Lukomska et al. 2006)

Peridinin	850				678		– (Bok et al.
chlorophyll							2015)
Phycoerythrin	1064	322			576 (2)		– (Chen et
							al. 1997; So
							et al. 2000)
QD550 (organic)	700-	~2000			550	Broad	Figure 1A in
	1000					absorption	(Larson et
00.550 /	-00					spectrum	al. 2003)
QD550 (water-	700-	~2000			550	Broad	Figure 1A in
soluble)	1000					absorption	(Larson et
OD567 (water	700-	~10000			567	spectrum Broad	al. 2003) Figure 1A in
QD567 (water- soluble)	1000-	~10000			507	absorption	(Larson et
soluble)	1000					spectrum	(Larson et al. 2003)
QD605 (water-	700-	47000			605	Broad	Figure 1A in
soluble)	1000	47000			005	absorption	(Larson et
solutie)	1000					spectrum	al. 2003)
QD630 (organic)	700-	~2000			630	Broad	Figure 1A in
QD050 (orgunic)	1000	2000			020	absorption	(Larson et
						spectrum	al. 2003)
Resorufin	1040	9	106	33.9	585 (2)		Figure 5 in
			0				(Mütze et al.
							2012)
Rhodamine 110	790	48	800	30.9	521 (2)		Figure 5 in
							(Mütze et al.
							2012)
Rhodamine 6G	700,	~150, ~40			~570		Figure 1C in
	~820				(Zehentba		(Albota et
					uer et al.		al. 1998)
	020	20.4			2014)		*
Rhodamine B	830	204	-		590 (2)		
Rhodamine Green	850				527 (2)		Figure 3 in (Heinze et
							(Hemze et al. 2000)
Sapphire	810	40			511		*
Sappine	010	40			(Zapata-		
					Hommer		
					and		
					Griesbeck		
					2003)		
SeTa-632	820	200	1		641 (2)	Broad	Figure 1B in
						absorption	(Podgorski
						spectrum	et al. 2012)
SeTa-646	840	500			656 (2)	Broad	Figure 1B in
						absorption	(Podgorski
						spectrum	et al. 2012)
SeTa-660	840	1500			672 (2)	Broad	Figure 1B in
						absorption	(Podgorski
9 m (70)	0.40	2000				spectrum	et al. 2012)
SeTa-670	840	2000			688 (2)	Broad	Figure 1B in
						absorption	(Podgorski
S.T. 700	000	200			702 (2)	spectrum	et al. 2012)
SeTa-700	900	200			703 (2)	Broad	Figure 1B in
						absorption	(Podgorski

1050 340 780 ~965, ~1015 320	200		581 (Shaner et al. 2008) 576 (2) 615 (Cahalan et al. 2002) 528 (Nagai et al. 2002) 688	OPO- friendly	Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011) Figure 3C in (Wang and Yeh 2012) Figure 3 in (Heinze et al. 2000) Figure 7B in (Hashimoto et al. 2010) – (Swirski et al. 2007)
³⁴⁰ 780 ~965, ~1015			(Shaner et al. 2008) 576 (2) 615 (Cahalan et al. 2002) 528 (Nagai et al. 2002)		(Drobizhev et al. 2011) Figure 3C in (Wang and Yeh 2012) Figure 3 in (Heinze et al. 2000) Figure 7B in (Hashimoto et al. 2010)
340 780			(Shaner et al. 2008) 576 (2) 615 (Cahalan et al. 2002)		(Drobizhev et al. 2011) Figure 3C in (Wang and Yeh 2012) Figure 3 in (Heinze et al. 2000)
340	200		(Shaner et al. 2008) 576 (2)		(Drobizhev et al. 2011) Figure 3C in (Wang and Yeh 2012)
	200		(Shaner et al. 2008)		(Drobizhev et al. 2011)
				222	
1110	13.7 (1)		579	OPO- friendly	Figure 2B in (Herz et al. 2010)
1100	63		633 (Shcherbo et al. 2009)	OPO- friendly	Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
1050	42		584 (Shaner et al. 2008)		Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
396	27		506 (2)		Figure S1 in (Drobizhev et al. 2011)
320	~110 (NHS carbonate)		651 (2)	STED- compatibl e	Figure 2C in (Velasco et al. 2015)
	(antibodie s)			compatibl e	Figure 2B in (Velasco et al. 2015)
900				absorption spectrum	Figure 1B in (Podgorski et al. 2012)
920	3000		694 (2)	Broad absorption spectrum	et al. 2012) Figure 2A in (Podgorski et al. 2012)
	00 30 20 96 050 100 110	00 9000 30 ~140 (antibodie s) 20 ~110 (NHS carbonate) 96 27 050 42 100 63 110 13.7 (1)	00 9000 30 ~140 (antibodie s) 20 ~110 (NHS carbonate) 96 27 050 42 100 63 110 $13.7 (1)$	00 9000 712 (2) 30 ~140 (antibodie s) ~670 20 ~110 (NHS carbonate) 651 (2) 96 27 506 (2) 050 42 584 (Shaner et al. 2008) 100 63 633 (Shcherbo et al. 2009) 110 $13.7 (1)$ 579	009000712 (2)Broad absorption spectrum30~140 (antibodie s)~670STED- compatible e20~110 (NHS carbonate)651 (2)STED- compatible e9627506 (2)05042584 (Shaner et al. 2008)10063633 (Shcherbo et al. 2009)OPO- friendly11013.7 (1)579OPO- friendly

- 707 **Table 3** Biophysical properties of two-photon–suitable probes specific of brain cells and
- 508 structures: peak wavelength of two-photon action cross-section (λ_{2PA}); peak two-photon
- action cross-section ($\sigma_2 \phi$); peak wavelength of molecular brightness ($\lambda_{\epsilon_{max}}$); peak molecular
- 710 brightness (ϵ_{max}); fluorescence wavelength (λ_{fluo}). Probes discussed in the text are in bold.
- 711 (1) : calculated from the σ_2 and ϕ values
- 712 (2) : data from commercial provider

Probe	λ_{2PA} [nm]	σ ₂ φ [GM]	λ _{ε_max} [nm]	ε _{max} [kcpsm]	λ _{fluo} [nm]	Comment	Reference
Alexa Fluor 633			820	~24	647 (2)	Arteries (Shen et al. 2012)	Figure 2 in (Mütze et al. 2012)
Ant2-PHEA (in water)	800	490			654	Endothelium	Figure 6 in (Mettra et al. 2016)
Sulforhodamine 101	910	118	900	38.4	~605 (2)	Astroglia (Nimmerjahn et al. 2004)	Figure 5 in (Mütze et al. 2012)
Sulforhodamine B	810				~586 (2)	Astroglia	Figure 2A in (Appaix et al. 2012)

- **Table 4** Biophysical properties of two-photon–suitable environment sensing probes: peak
- 716 wavelength of two-photon action cross-section (λ_{2PA}); peak two-photon action cross-section
- $(\sigma_2 \varphi)$; fluorescence wavelength (λ_{fluo}). Probes discussed in the text are in bold.
- 718 (1): calculated from the σ_2 and ϕ values
- 719 (2) : data from commercial provider

Probe	λ_{2PA} [nm]	σ ₂ φ[GM]	$\lambda_{\rm fluo}[\rm nm]$	Comment	Reference
— Chen 2017	710	135 / 68 (1)	460 / 580	Ratiometric pH	Figure 6A in
Probe L1 (pH 6.73				indicator	(Chen et al.
/ pH 4.33)					2017)
— Chen 2017	700	67 / 110 (1)	465 / 540	Ratiometric pH	Figure 6B in
Probe L2 (pH 5.53 /				indicator	(Chen et al.
pH 2.99)					2017)
C-Laurdan (in	780 (820)	64.5 (1)	487	Mechanical	Figure S7 in
EtOH)				strain in the	(Kim et al.
				cell membrane	2007)
Laurdan (in EtOH)	780	60 (1)	494	Mechanical	Figure S7 in
				strain in the	(Kim et al.
				cell membrane	2007)
NP1 (in DMF)	740	155	400-500 /	Ratiometric pH	Figure S4 in
			600-750	indicator	(Park et al.
					2012)
SNARF-1	< 837		580-640 (2)	pH indicator	Figure 3 in
				between pH 7	(Bestvater et
				and pH 8	al. 2002)
Thiophene	740	~1.4 (with	~590	Viscosity-	Figure 5A in
DiHemiCyanine		high-		sensitive dye	(Baek et al.
		viscosity)			2016)

- **Table 5** Biophysical properties of two-photon–suitable probes in the diseased brain: peak
- 723 wavelength of two-photon action cross-section (λ_{2PA}); peak two-photon action cross-section
- $(\sigma_2 \varphi)$; fluorescence wavelength (λ_{fluo}). Probes discussed in the text are in bold.
- 725 (1) : calculated from the σ_2 and ϕ values
- 726 (2) : data from commercial provider

Probe	λ_{2PA} [nm]	σ ₂ φ[GM]	$\lambda_{\rm fluo}[\rm nm]$	Comment	Reference
Calcofluor White	590		430 (2)	Cellulose and	Figure 5B in
				chitin binding	(Trägårdh et
				(identification of	al. 2015)
				fungi and yeast)	
DCIP-1 (in PBS /	900	118	675 / 635	Amyloid-β	Figure S7 in
bound to amyloid-				plaques,	(Zhu et al.
β aggregates)				penetrates BBB	2017)
Gatifloxacin	700		~510	Fluoroquinolone	Figure 1A in
				antibiotics	(Lee et al.
					2016)
MeO-X04 (in PBS	720	10 / 75	452 / 444	Amyloid-β	– (Table S1)
/ EtOH)				plaques (Klunk	(Heo et al.
				et al. 2002)	2013)
MNAH	820		536	Imaging of	– (Liu et al.
				mitochondrial	2016)
				singlet oxygen	
Moxifloxacin	700		~530	Fluoroquinolone	Figure 1A in
				antibiotics	(Lee et al.
	5 40	15 (10	401 / 417		2016)
PIB (in PBS /	740	45 / 40	431 / 417	Amyloid-β	– (Table S1)
EtOH)				plaques	(Heo et al.
	750	10/170	407 / 465	A 1:10	2013)
SAD1 (in PBS /	750	10 / 170	497 / 465	Amyloid-β	– (Table S1)
EtOH)				plaques	(Heo et al.
					2013)

- 729 **Table 6** Biophysical properties of two-photon–suitable functional probes : peak wavelength
- 730 of two-photon action cross-section (λ_{2PA}); peak two-photon action cross-section ($\sigma_2 \phi$); peak
- 731 wavelength of molecular brightness ($\lambda_{\varepsilon_{max}}$); peak molecular brightness (ε_{max}); fluorescence
- 732 wavelength (λ_{fluo}). Probes discussed in the text are in bold.
- 733 (1): calculated from the σ_2 and ϕ values
- 734 (2) : data from commercial provider
- *: data from <u>http://www.drbio.cornell.edu/cross_sections.html</u> (accessed 10/24/2017)
- 736 #: data from <u>https://www.janelia.org/lab/harris-lab-apig/research/photophysics/two-photon-</u>
- 737 <u>fluorescent-probes</u> (accessed 10/24/2017)

Probe	λ _{2PA} [nm]	σ ₂ φ [GM]	λ _{ε_max} [nm]	ε _{max} [kcpsm]	$\lambda_{fluo}[nm]$	Comment	Reference
Calcium indicate	ors						
ACa1 (-Ca ²⁺ / +Ca ²⁺)	-/ 780	-/ 110			498 / 498		Figure 2A in (Kim et al. 2008a)
ACa2 (-Ca ²⁺ / +Ca ²⁺)	_/ 780	- / 90			495 / 495		Figure 2A in (Kim et al. 2008a)
ACa3 (-Ca ²⁺ / +Ca ²⁺)	-/ 780	- / 95			500 / 517		Figure 2A in (Kim et al. 2008a)
ACaL (-Ca ²⁺ / +Ca ²⁺)	-/ 780	- / 90			500 / 502		Figure 1B in (Mohan et al. 2009)
ACaLN (-Ca ²⁺ / +Ca ²⁺)	-/ 750	- / 20			494 / 497		- (Table 1) (Lim et al. 2011a)
BCaM (-Ca ²⁺ / +Ca ²⁺)	-/ 780	-/ 150			470 / 470		Figure 1C in (Kim et al. 2010a)
Cal-590	1050				590		Figure 1B in (Tischbirek et al. 2015)
Calcium Crimson (+Ca ²⁺)	870	95			615 (2)		*
Calcium Green $(+Ca^{2+})$	820, 960	46, 57			531 (2)		*
Calcium Orange $(+Ca^{2+})$	820	60			576 (2)		*

CaRuby-Cl	912				604		Figure 5 in
Cultury Cl	12				001		(Collot et al.
							2012)
CaRuby-F	917				604		Figure 5 in
2							(Collot et al.
							2012)
CaRuby-Me	917				604		Figure 5 in
							(Collot et al.
							2012)
Fluo-3	810	13			520-530		*
					(Svoboda		
					and		
					Yasuda		
					2006)		
Fluo-4	810		800,	~6, ~6	520-530		Figure 4 in
			930		(Yasuda		(Mütze et al.
					et al.		2012)
	010				2004)		
Fluo-4FF	810				516 (2)		– (Yasuda et al. 2004)
Fluo-5F	810				516 (2)		– (Sabatini et
							al. 2002)
Fluo-8			930,	~4	514 (2)		Figure 4 in
			1000				(Mütze et al.
							2012)
Fura-2 +Ca ²⁺)	780	~35			505		Figure 1B in
					(Cahalan		(Mohan et al.
					et al.		2009)
~~~~			0.70		2002)		
GCaMP2			950	~6	511		Figure 4 in
					(Tallini et		(Mütze et al.
~~~					al. 2006)		2012)
GCaMP3 (-	980	0.126			515		Figure 4I in
$Ca^{2+} / + Ca^{2+})$		/ 0.33			(Chen et		(Helassa et
	050	*	-		al. 2013)	1 * 1	al. 2015)
GCaMP3bright	950	0.02 /			~515	high	Figure 4I in
$(-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})$		0.7 *				fluorescence	(Helassa et
	000	0.014			515	dynamic range	al. 2015)
GCaMP3fast (- Ca ²⁺ / +Ca ²⁺)	990	0.014			~515	fast Ca2+	Figure 4H in
Ca /+Ca)		/ 0.2				response times	(Helassa et
GCaMP5A (pH	~940			9.9	~515		al. 2015) – (Table 3)
9.5)	~940			2.7	~515		(Akerboom
2.37							(Akerboolii et al. 2012)
GCaMP5D (pH	~940			9.0	~515		- (Table 3)
9.5)				2.0	-515		(Akerboom
2.57							et al. 2012)
GCaMP5G (pH	~940			9.3	515		Figure 1D in
9.5)				2.5	(Chen et		(Akerboom
,					al. 2013)		et al. 2012)
GCaMP6f	~940	~35			515		#
1	-				(Chen et		
l .					(Chen or		
					al. 2013)		

				(Charact		(Dama at al
				(Chen et (2012)		(Dana et al.
	0.40			al. 2013)		2016)
iGluSnFR	~940			~515	Glutamate	Figure S13 in
					release	(Marvin et al.
Trada 1	730			490 / 405		2013)
Indo-1	/30					* and Figure
				(Cahalan et al.		3A in (Wang and Yeh
				2002)		2012)
jRCaMP1a	~1070	~8		~593	OPO-friendly	Figure 2S1B
JKCalvir la	~1070	~0		~393	OPO-Intendity	in (Dana et
						al. 2016)
jRCaMP1b	~1080	~11		~593	OPO-friendly	Figure 2S1B
JKCalvii 10	~1000	~11		~595	Of O-Intendry	in (Dana et
						al. 2016)
jRGECO1a	~1070	~7		~593	OPO-friendly	Figure 2S1B
JNOLCOIA	1070			-575	Of O-Includy	in (Dana et
						al. 2016)
K-GECO1 (-	~1100	~10		594 / 590		Figure 2C in
$Ca^{2+} / + Ca^{2+})$	1100	10		0,1,0,0		(Shen et al.
						2018)
mApple	1070		7.0	592		– (Table 3)
	10,0			0,72		(Akerboom
						et al. 2013)
mRuby	1060		4.0	590		– (Table 3)
2						(Akerboom
						et al. 2013)
Oregon Green	800	24		523		Figure 2A in
BAPTA-1						(Kim et al.
						2008a)
RCaMP1a (-	1070 /		- / 5.9	594 / 595		– (Table 3)
						(1 1
$Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})$	1070					(Akerboom
$Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})$						(Akerboom et al. 2013)
RCaMP1c (-	1070 1070 /		-/ 7.3	597 / 595		et al. 2013) - (Table 3)
	1070		-/7.3	597 / 595		et al. 2013) - (Table 3) (Akerboom
RCaMP1c (- Ca ²⁺ / +Ca ²⁺)	1070 1070 / 1070					et al. 2013) - (Table 3)
$\frac{\text{RCaMP1c (-}}{\text{Ca}^{2+} / + \text{Ca}^{2+}})$ RCaMP1d (-	1070 1070 / 1070 1070 /		-/7.3	597.5 /		et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) – (Table 3)
RCaMP1c (- Ca ²⁺ / +Ca ²⁺)	1070 1070 / 1070					et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom
$\frac{\text{RCaMP1c}(-)}{\text{Ca}^{2+} / + \text{Ca}^{2+}}$ $\frac{\text{RCaMP1d}(-)}{\text{Ca}^{2+} / + \text{Ca}^{2+}}$	1070 1070 / 1070 1070 / 1070 / 1070		-/7.7	597.5 / 592.5		et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013)
$\frac{\text{RCaMP1c}(-)}{\text{RCaMP1c}(-)}$ $\frac{\text{RCaMP1d}(-)}{\text{RCaMP1d}(-)}$ $\frac{\text{RCaMP1f}(-)}{\text{RCaMP1f}(-)}$	1070 1070 / 1070 1070 / 1070 / 1070 /			597.5 / 592.5 597 /		et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) Figure 2F in
$\frac{\text{RCaMP1c}(-)}{\text{Ca}^{2+} / + \text{Ca}^{2+}}$ $\frac{\text{RCaMP1d}(-)}{\text{Ca}^{2+} / + \text{Ca}^{2+}}$	1070 1070 / 1070 1070 / 1070 / 1070		-/7.7	597.5 / 592.5		et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) Figure 2F in (Akerboom
$\frac{RCaMP1c (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{RCaMP1d (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}$ $\frac{RCaMP1f (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{RCaMP1f (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}$	1070 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 /	25	-/7.7	597.5 / 592.5 597 / 591.5		et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) Figure 2F in (Akerboom et al. 2013)
$\frac{RCaMP1c (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{RCaMP1d (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}$ $\frac{RCaMP1f (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{RCaMP1h}$	1070 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070	~27	- / 7.7	597.5 / 592.5 597 / 591.5 595		et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) Figure 2F in (Akerboom et al. 2013) #
$\frac{\text{RCaMP1c}(-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{\text{RCaMP1d}(-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}$ RCaMP1f(-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+}) RCaMP1h R-GECO1(-	1070 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1065 /	~27	-/7.7	597.5 / 592.5 597 / 591.5		et al. 2013) - (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) - (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) Figure 2F in (Akerboom et al. 2013) # - (Table 3)
$\frac{RCaMP1c (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{RCaMP1d (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}$ $\frac{RCaMP1f (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{RCaMP1h}$	1070 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070	~27	- / 7.7	597.5 / 592.5 597 / 591.5 595		et al. 2013) - (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) - (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) Figure 2F in (Akerboom et al. 2013) # - (Table 3) (Akerboom
$\frac{\text{RCaMP1c}(-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{\text{RCaMP1d}(-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}$ RCaMP1f(-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+}) RCaMP1h R-GECO1(-	1070 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1065 /	~27	- / 7.7	597.5 / 592.5 597 / 591.5 595		et al. 2013) - (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) - (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) Figure 2F in (Akerboom et al. 2013) # - (Table 3)
$\begin{array}{c} RCaMP1c (-\\ Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+}) \\ \hline RCaMP1d (-\\ Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+}) \\ \hline RCaMP1f (-\\ Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+}) \\ \hline RCaMP1h \\ \hline R-GECO1 (- \end{array}$	1070 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1065 /	~27	- / 7.7	597.5 / 592.5 597 / 591.5 595		et al. 2013) - (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) - (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) Figure 2F in (Akerboom et al. 2013) # - (Table 3) (Akerboom
$\frac{\text{RCaMP1c}(-\text{Ca}^{2+} / +\text{Ca}^{2+})}{\text{RCaMP1d}(-\text{Ca}^{2+} / +\text{Ca}^{2+})}$ $\frac{\text{RCaMP1f}(-\text{Ca}^{2+} / +\text{Ca}^{2+})}{\text{RCaMP1h}}$ $\frac{\text{RCaMP1h}}{\text{R-GECO1}(-\text{Ca}^{2+} / +\text{Ca}^{2+})}$	1070 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1065 / 1065 /	~27	- / 7.7	597.5 / 592.5 597 / 591.5 595	Zinc	et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) Figure 2F in (Akerboom et al. 2013) # – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013)
$\frac{RCaMP1c (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{RCaMP1d (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}$ $\frac{RCaMP1f (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{RCaMP1h}$ $\frac{RCaMP1h}{R-GECO1 (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}$ $Other ions$ $6-CO2H-ZAP4$	1070 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1065 /		- / 7.7	597.5 / 592.5 597 / 591.5 595 598 / 588	Zinc	et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) Figure 2F in (Akerboom et al. 2013) # – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) (Akerboom et al. 2013)
$\frac{RCaMP1c (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{RCaMP1d (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}$ $\frac{RCaMP1f (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{RCaMP1h}$ $\frac{R-GECO1 (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{RCa^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}$ Other ions	1070 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1065 / 1065 / 1065 / 1065 /		- / 7.7	597.5 / 592.5 597 / 591.5 595 598 / 588	Zinc	et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) Figure 2F in (Akerboom et al. 2013) # – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013)
$\frac{RCaMP1c (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{RCaMP1d (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}$ $\frac{RCaMP1f (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}{RCaMP1h}$ $\frac{RCaMP1h}{R-GECO1 (-Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+})}$ $Other ions$ $6-CO2H-ZAP4$	1070 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1065 / 1065 / 1065 / 1065 /		- / 7.7	597.5 / 592.5 597 / 591.5 595 598 / 588	Zinc	et al. 2013) - (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) - (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) Figure 2F in (Akerboom et al. 2013) # - (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) (Akerboom et al. 2013) Figure 2B in (Khan et al. 2014)
$\begin{array}{c} RCaMP1c (-\\Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+}) \\ \hline RCaMP1d (-\\Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+}) \\ \hline RCaMP1f (-\\Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+}) \\ \hline RCaMP1h \\ \hline R-GECO1 (-\\Ca^{2+} / +Ca^{2+}) \\ \hline Other ions \\ \hline 6-CO2H-ZAP4 \\ (-Zn^{2+} / +Zn^{2+}) \end{array}$	1070 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1070 / 1065 / 1065 / 1065 / 1065 / 1065 / 1060	- / 86	- / 7.7	597.5 / 592.5 597 / 591.5 595 598 / 588 527 / 523		et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) Figure 2F in (Akerboom et al. 2013) # – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) # – (Table 3) (Akerboom et al. 2013) #

					2010b)
Asante NaTRIUM Green-2 (ANG- 2) (-Na ⁺ / +Na ⁺)	780	0.84 / 5.7	542	Sodium	Figure 2 in (Roder and Hille 2014)
AZn1 (-Zn ²⁺ / +Zn ²⁺)	-/ 780	- / 95	496 / 498	Zinc	Figure 1B in (Kim et al. 2008b)
AZn2 (-Zn ²⁺ / +Zn ²⁺)	-/ 780	_/ 110	494 / 499	Zinc	Figure 1B in (Kim et al. 2008b)
AZnE1 (-Zn ²⁺ / +Zn ²⁺)	-/ 780	- / 86	502 / 503	Zinc	Figure 2A in (Danish et al. 2011)
AZnE2 (-Zn ²⁺ / +Zn ²⁺)	-/ 780	- / 86	503 / 504	Zinc	Figure 2A in (Danish et al. 2011)
AZnM1 (-Zn ²⁺ / +Zn ²⁺)	-/ 780	- / 88	501 / 504	Zinc	Figure 2A in (Danish et al. 2011)
AZnM2 (-Zn ²⁺ / +Zn ²⁺)	-/ 780	- / 86	504 / 504	Zinc	Figure 2A in (Danish et al. 2011)
AZnN (-Zn ²⁺ / +Zn ²⁺)	-/ 780	- / 89	500 / 502	Zinc	Figure 2A in (Danish et al. 2011)
FMg1 (-Mg ²⁺ / +Mg ²⁺)	-/ 740	- / 87	540 / 540	Magnesium	Figure 1C in (Dong et al. 2012)
FMg2 (-Mg ²⁺ / +Mg ²⁺)	-/ 740	-/76	555 / 555	Magnesium	Figure 1C in (Dong et al. 2012)
NC7	860	77 (1)	520	Magnesium	Figure 4 in (Yin et al. 2015)
OC7	740	71 (1)	500	Magnesium	Figure 4 in (Yin et al. 2015)
PhenGreen-FL	1074		517 (Petrat et al. 1999)	Heavy metals	Figure 3 in (Bestvater et al. 2002)
P-Zn (-Zn ²⁺ / +Zn ²⁺)	700 / 700	304 / 565 (1)	465 / 550	Zinc	Figure 1A in (Li et al. 2017)
SBFI (+Na ⁺)	780	20	539	Sodium	Figure 1C in (Kim et al. 2010b)
Sodium Green(+Na ⁺)	800	30	532	Sodium	Figure 1C in (Kim et al. 2010b)
$\frac{\text{SZn-Mito}}{\text{Zn}^{2+} / + \text{Zn}^{2+}} (-$	- / 760	- / 75	500 / 493	Zinc	Figure 1B in (Masanta et al. 2011)
SZn2-Mito (-	_ /	_ /	536 / 536	Zinc	Figure 1B in

$Zn^{2+} / +Zn^{2+})$	750	155			(Baek et al. 2012)
SZnC (-Zn ²⁺ / +Zn ²⁺)	750 / 750	16 / 92	499 / 499	Zinc (Golgi- localized)	Figure 2D in (Singh et al. 2015)
Schwarze 2015 Probe 1 (DMSO / K ⁺ / Na ⁺)	860	3.1 / 9.4 / 3.4	511	Potassium / Sodium	Figure 2B in (Schwarze et al. 2015)
- Schwarze 2015 Probe 2 (DMSO / K ⁺)	840	5.7 / 16.1	493	Potassium	- (Table 1) (Schwarze et al. 2015)
Voltage-sensitive	e dyes				
ANNINE-6	1020		560-660 (Frey et al. 2006)		- (Kuhn et al. 2008)
ANNINE-6plus	1060		560-660		- (Kuhn et al. 2004)
ArcLight A242	950		<775		- (Table 1) (Brinks et al. 2015)
ASAP1	950		<775		- (Table 1) (Brinks et al. 2015)
BP6	740	100	545	Mitochondrial membrane potential	Figure 7 in (Moritomo et al. 2014)
CAESR	968		<775		- (Table 1) (Brinks et al. 2015)
di-2- ANEP(F)PTEA	1060		632 (bound to lipids)		– (Yan et al. 2012)
di-3- ANEPPDHQ	850		>560		Figure 5A in (Fisher et al. 2008)
Di-4-ANEPPS	940	5	635 (in ethanol) (2)		*
Di-8- ANEPPDHQ	~900- 950	~20	620 (in octanol)		Figure 3 in (Fisher et al. 2005)
Di-8-ANEPPS	940	10	625 (in octanol)		* and Figure 5 in (Fisher et al. 2005)
FlicR1	1120		597	OPO-friendly	– (Abdelfattah et al. 2016)
Merocyanine 540	>950	4.4 (at 960 nm)	615 (in octanol)		Figure 3 in (Fisher et al. 2005)

Nile Blue A	<800	0.6	660 (in	Figure 3 in
		(at	octanol)	(Fisher et al.
		800		2005)
		nm)		,
QuasAr1	1200		660-775	– (Table 1)
				(Brinks et al.
				2015)
QuasAr2	1200		660-775	Figure S3 in
				(Brinks et al.
				2015)
RH-1692	~800-	1.5	680 (in	Figure 3 in
	850	(at	octanol)	(Fisher et al.
		800		2005)
		nm)		
RH-237	<800,	8.9	676 (in	Figure 3 in
	>960	(at	octanol)	(Fisher et al.
		800		2005)
		nm)		
RH-414	~950	12 (at	636 (in	Figure 3 in
		960	octanol)	(Fisher et al.
		nm)		2005)
RH-421	~950	16 (at	648 (in	Figure 3 in
		960	octanol)	(Fisher et al.
		nm)		2005)
RH-795	~950	10 (at	640 (in	Figure 3 in
		960	octanol)	(Fisher et al.
		nm)		2005)

- 740 **Table 7** Biophysical two-photon properties of intrinsic fluorophores : peak wavelength of
- 741 two-photon action cross-section (λ_{2PA}); peak two-photon action cross-section ($\sigma_2 \phi$); peak
- 742 wavelength of molecular brightness ($\lambda_{\epsilon_{max}}$); peak molecular brightness (ϵ_{max}); fluorescence
- 743 wavelength (λ_{fluo}). Probes discussed in the text are in bold.

Probe	λ_{2PA} [nm]	σ ₂ φ[GM]	$\lambda_{\rm fluo}[\rm nm]$	Comment	Reference
Cholecalciferol	<700, 820, 980	0.0006 (at 700 nm)	460	Vitamin D3	Figure 1A in (Zipfel et al. 2003a)
FAD	~880	<1	~530		Figure 1B in (Stringari et al. 2017)
Folic acid	<700	0.007 (at 700 nm)	~445	Vitamin B9	Figure 1A in (Zipfel et al. 2003a)
NADH	700	0.09 (at 700 nm)	~470		Figure 1A in (Zipfel et al. 2003a)
Pyridoxine	<700	0.008 (at 700 nm)	~390		Figure 1A in (Zipfel et al. 2003a)
Retinol	<700	0.07 (at 700 nm)	~490		Figure 1A in (Zipfel et al. 2003a)
Riboflavin	<700	0.8 (at 700 nm)	~530		Figure 1A in (Zipfel et al. 2003a)

- 746 **Table 8** Biophysical properties of two-photon–suitable probes specific of sub-cellular
- structures : peak wavelength of two-photon action cross-section (λ_{2PA}) ; peak two-photon
- action cross-section ($\sigma_2 \phi$); peak wavelength of molecular brightness (λ_{ϵ_max}); peak molecular
- brightness (ϵ_{max}); fluorescence wavelength (λ_{fluo}). Probes discussed in the text are in bold.
- 750 (1) : calculated from the σ_2 and ϕ values
- 751 (2) : data from commercial provider
- *: data from <u>http://www.drbio.cornell.edu/cross_sections.html</u> (accessed 10/24/2017)

Probe	λ_{2PA} [nm]	σ ₂ φ [GM]	λ _{fluo} [nm]	Comment	Reference
Acridine Orange	837 > 882 >> 981		526 (DNA), 650 (RNA) (2)	Nucleic acids	Figure 3 in (Bestvater et al. 2002)
ANO1	750	170	502	Nitric oxide	Figure 3 in (Seo et al. 2012)
AS1	780	85	498	Glucose	Figure S6A in (Lim et al. 2012)
ASiR1 (in CH ₃ CN)	750	258	593	Lysosomes	Figure S2 in (Zhang et al. 2018)
ASiR2 (in CH ₃ CN)	760	237	601	Lysosomes	Figure S2 in (Zhang et al. 2018)
ASiR3 (in CH ₃ CN)	760	160	606	Lysosomes	Figure S2 in (Zhang et al. 2018)
ASiR4 (in CH ₃ CN)	760	179	608	Lysosomes	Figure S2 in (Zhang et al. 2018)
ASiR5 (in CH ₃ CN)	750	189	609	Lysosomes	Figure S2 in (Zhang et al. 2018)
ASiR6 (in CH ₃ CN)	750	193	601	Lysosomes	Figure S2 in (Zhang et al. 2018)
ASS (H ₂ 0 / 2- AET)	780	11 / 113	457 / ~505	Thiols	Figure 1D in (Lee et al. 2010)
BLT-blue	750	160	451	Lysosomes	Figure 1B in (Han et al. 2012)
CAEI	850	152	550	Mitochondria	Figure 1B in (Miao et al. 2014)

CAI	860	328	562	Mitochondria	Figure 1B in (Miao et al. 2014)
CLT-blue	750	50	471	Lysosomes	Figure 1B in (Son et al. 2011)
CLT-yellow	850	47	549	Lysosomes	Figure 1B in (Son et al. 2011)
C-Laurdan (in EtOH)	780	64.5 (1)	487	Lipid rafts	Figure S7 in (Kim et al. 2007)
DAPI	580 >> 685		461 (2)	Nucleic acids	Figure 2A in (Trägårdh et al. 2015)
DCF2 (H ₂ DCFDA) (in DMSO)	1065		538 (Yi et al. 2009)	Organelle tracker	Figure 3 in (Bestvater et al. 2002)
DiA	880 (study limited to [830-920 nm])		590	Lipophilic Tracer	- (Table 1) (Ruthazer and Cline 2002)
DiD	830		665	Lipophilic Tracer	- (Table 1) (Ruthazer and Cline 2002)
DiI	<700, 1020	96, 10	565 (Cahalan et al. 2002)	Lipophilic Tracer, organelles	*
DiO	880 (study limited to [830-920 nm])		501	Lipophilic Tracer	- (Table 1) (Ruthazer and Cline 2002)
ER-Tracker white/blue	728		430-640 (2)	Endoplasmic Reticulum (environmentally- sensitive)	Figure 5 in (Bestvater et al. 2002)
FMT-green	750	175	523	Mitochondria	Figure 1B in (Han et al. 2012)
Hoechst 33258	560 >> 717		461 (2)	Nucleic acids	Figure 5A in (Trägårdh et al. 2015)
Hoechst 33342	660 > 715		461 (2)	Nucleic acids	Figure 3A in (Bestvater et al. 2002)
Laurdan (in EtOH)	780	60 (1)	494	Lipid rafts	Figure S7 in (Kim et al. 2007)
LysoTracker Red	1010 < 1100		590 (2)	Organelle tracker	Figure 5 in (Bestvater et al. 2002)
LysoTracker Yellow	972		535 (2)	Organelle tracker	Figure 5 in (Bestvater et al. 2002)

MitoTracker Red	860, 1133	3.12 (at 860 nm)	599 (2)	Organelle tracker	Figure 5 in (Bestvater et
PKH26	950		567 (2)	Membrane labelling	al. 2002) – (Takaki et al. 2015)
РКН67	870, 850		502 (2)	Membrane labelling	 – (Morelli et al. 2003; Kuwashima et al. 2005)
Propidium iodide	989 > 1015 >> 1099		617 (2)	Nucleic acids (dead cells)	Figure 3 in (Bestvater et al. 2002)
Quinacrine	678 > 697		525 (2)	Nucleic acids, therapeutic effect	Figure 3 in (Bestvater et al. 2002)
SL2 (in EtOH / THF)	800	40 / 185	576 / 495	Lipid rafts, turn-on	Figure 1B in (Lim et al. 2011b)
Rhodamine 123	913 > 1090		527 (2)	Mitochondria	Figure 3 in (Bestvater et al. 2002)
SYBR Gold	~820		~537 (2)	Nucleic acids	Figure 3 in (Neu et al. 2002)
SYBR Green	~820		520 (2)	Nucleic acids	Figure 3 in (Neu et al. 2002)
Syto 13	~780-800		509 (DNA), 514 (RNA) (2)	Nucleic acids	Figure 2 in (Neu et al. 2002)
Syto 40	900		441 (2)	Nucleic acids	Figure 2 in (Neu et al. 2002)
Syto 9	<800		503 (2)	Nucleic acids	Figure 2 in (Neu et al. 2002)
Sytox Blue	<800		480 (2)	Nucleic acids	Figure 3 in (Neu et al. 2002)
Sytox Green	~715		523 (2)	Nucleic acids	Figure 5C in (Trägårdh et al. 2015)
TO-PRO-3	1110		661 (2)	Nucleic acids, OPO- friendly	– (Smith et al. 2012)

- **Table S1** Biophysical properties of two-photon-suitable probes in alphabetical order: peak755wavelength of two-photon action cross-section (λ_{2PA}); peak two-photon action cross-section756($\sigma_2 \phi$); peak wavelength of molecular brightness (λ_{ϵ_max}); peak molecular brightness (ϵ_{max});757fluorescence wavelength (λ_{fluo}).758(1): calculated from the σ_2 and ϕ values
- 759 (2) : data from commercial provider

762 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

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772	Ethical approval: All procedures performed in studies involving animals were in accordance
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