

Two-photon excitation with pico-second fluorescence lifetime imaging to detect nuclear association of flavanols

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Keywords: Fluorescence lifetime imaging microscopy, flavanols, epigallocatechin gallate, nuclear binding, histone proteins, multiphoton excitation.

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18ABSTRACT

19Two-photon excitation enabled for the first time the observation and measurement of
20excited state fluorescence lifetimes from three flavanols in solution, which were ~ 1.0 ns
21for catechin and epicatechin, but <45 ps for epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG). The shorter

22lifetime for EGCG is in line with a lower fluorescence quantum yield of 0.003 compared to
23catechin (0.015) and epicatechin (0.018).

24

25*In vivo* experiments with onion cells demonstrated that tryptophan and quercetin, which
26tend to be major contributors of background fluorescence in plant cells, have sufficiently
27low cross sections for two-photon excitation at 630 nm and therefore do not interfere with
28detection of externally added or endogenous flavanols in *Allium cepa* or *Taxus baccata*
29cells. Applying two-photon excitation to flavanols enabled 3-D fluorescence lifetime
30imaging microscopy and showed that added EGCG penetrated the whole nucleus of onion
31cells. Interestingly, EGCG and catechin showed different lifetime behaviour when bound to
32the nucleus: EGCG lifetime increased from <45 to 200 ps, whilst catechin lifetime
33decreased from 1.0 ns to 500 ps. Semi-quantitative measurements revealed that the relative
34ratios of EGCG concentrations in nucleoli associated vesicles : nucleus : cytoplasm were
35*ca.* 100:10:1.

36

37Solution experiments with catechin, epicatechin and histone proteins provided preliminary
38evidence, via the appearance of a second lifetime ($\tau_2 = 1.9$ to 3.1 ns), that both flavanols
39may be interacting with histone proteins. We conclude that there is significant nuclear
40absorption of flavanols. This advanced imaging using two-photon excitation and
41biophysical techniques described here will prove valuable for probing the intracellular
42trafficking and functions of flavanols, such as EGCG, which is the major flavanol of green
43tea.

44

45Keywords: Fluorescence lifetime imaging microscopy, flavanols, epigallocatechin gallate,
46nuclear association, histone proteins, multiphoton.

47

481. Introduction

49Plants synthesise >4000 different flavonoid compounds, which can be grouped into several
50different subgroups. Flavanols (Fig. 1) are an important subgroup that is widespread in
51plants and plant foods [1]; they are also precursors of condensed tannins, which are the
52fourth largest group of natural plant products after cellulose, hemicellulose, and lignin [2].
53These polyphenolic compounds are attracting considerable interest, because diets rich in
54fruits and vegetables are associated with improved health and a reduction of age-related
55diseases such as cancer, osteoporosis and cardiovascular diseases [3-7]. Flavonoids are
56considered to be 'lifespan essentials' and recent reviews suggest that their antioxidant
57properties alone are unlikely to explain their beneficial effects on human health or their
58functions in plants [8-10].

59

60A consensus is emerging that *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments need to probe the
61bioavailability of these polyphenols and their molecular targets [3,6,8,10-11]. *In vitro*
62studies have tended to require 10 to 100-fold higher polyphenol concentrations than are
63usually found in mammalian plasma and tissues in order to achieve many of the reported
64medicinal effects [5,12]. However, the existence of high-affinity targets for dietary
65polyphenols might explain their health-promoting effects and in this context it is pertinent
66to examine more closely recent evidence that nuclei from both plant *and* mammalian cells
67acted as sinks for flavanols [13-17]. Although the function of these secondary plant

4

68metabolites requires further elucidation, evidence is emerging that they may be important in
69cell development. For example, loss of flavanols has been linked to defective pollen
70development [14]. Different types of flavanol distribution patterns were observed in *Tsuga*
71*canadensis* at the sub-nuclear level [13] and the authors questioned whether the epigenetic
72code of histones could affect flavanol-chromatin associations. Moreover, Feucht *et al.* [15]
73found identical flavanol patterns within different cell lineages in a meristematic plant tissue
74and suggested that this could be indicative of a synchronized, transcriptional regulation. In
75addition, nuclear flavanol concentrations clearly depended on the season, i.e. during
76dormancy they were almost absent but during growth periods relatively high amounts were
77observed [18]. The fact that flavanols were associated with both interphase and mitotic
78chromosome states posed the question of whether flavanols might be associated with
79histones. If this is the case, then this could open a new perspective on genomic regulation.

80

81This research by Feucht's group made use of the fact that flavanols form a blue
82condensation product with dimethylaminocinnamaldehyde (DMACA) [19]. The DMACA
83reagent is, however, a relatively aggressive reagent that requires 0.75 M sulfuric acid for
84the staining reaction and this could cause some physical damage within the cells. Polster *et*
85*al.* [18], therefore, tested the existence of nucleus-bound flavanols with a milder technique,
86i.e. laser microdissection and pressure catapulting (LMPC), which separated intact nuclei
87from cells and these also stained blue in the subsequent DMACA reaction. Nevertheless,
88LMPC causes physical rupture of the cytoplasm that surrounds the nuclei and could have
89given rise to an artificial DMACA reaction. Moreover, histological studies with DMACA
90cannot distinguish between different flavanols or between flavanol monomers, oligomers or

5

91polymers [19]. Techniques are therefore required that can establish the sub-cellular
92localisation, and concentrations therein, of flavanols to probe their functionality and
93metabolism in plant and mammalian cells.

94

95Nifli *et al.* [29] recently applied confocal fluorescence microscopy to map the intracellular
96distribution of a major plant flavonol, i.e. quercetin (Fig. 1), which has a UV absorption
97 λ_{max} of 372 nm. Quercetin revealed a specific fluorescence (488 nm_{ex}/500-540 nm_{em}) in the
98cellular environment at physiologically relevant concentrations (<5 μM), which the authors
99attributed to non-covalent binding to cellular components. Intracellular tracing of flavanols
100($\lambda_{\text{max}} \sim 280$ nm; Fig. 1 and Fig. S1) by UV-Vis spectroscopy or confocal fluorescence
101microscopy is, however, not possible because plant and mammalian cells contain numerous
102compounds which would interfere with the detection of flavanols by giving background
103fluorescence signals (termed “auto-fluorescence”). Fig. 2 illustrates the photophysical
104processes in a conventional Jablonski diagramme, which depicts one- and two-photon
105excitation and various relaxation pathways that are open to the electronic excited state
106following photon(s) absorption.

107

108In fluorescence life-time imaging microscopy (FLIM) both fluorescence intensities and
109fluorescence lifetimes of specific compounds can be measured at each pixel in the image
110[21,22]. In addition, variations in fluorescence lifetime can provide further image contrast:
111lifetime shifts can serve as sensitive probes for detecting molecular interactions and may
112yield information on a compound’s environment, such as pH or oxygen concentration [23-
11325]. Lifetime, τ , is derived from the time-constant of the fluorescence decay (Fig. 2), where

6

114 $\tau = 1/k_{\text{fluorescence}}$. FLIM is based on either single- or multi-photon excitation techniques.

115 Multi-photon excitation with femtosecond lasers offers many advantages for biological

116 measurements over more conventional single photon excitation [23,26]:

117 ✓ Excitation with red light that is not directly absorbed by cellular
118 materials.

119 ✓ Reduced cellular toxicity in biological studies.

120 ✓ Reduced photo-bleaching.

121 ✓ Deeper penetration of the near-infrared light into the biological
122 specimen.

123 ✓ Femtolitre volume excitation.

124 ✓ A flexible imaging platform that is capable of resolving several
125 (and related) compounds.

126 The ability to deliver UV-equivalent photon energies directly beneath UV
127 absorbing materials and molecules.

128 An ability to perform time-resolved studies due to the short pulsed light
129 source.

130 In two-photon excitation (2PE) the simultaneous absorption of two lower energy photons

131 mimics the absorption of a single photon of equivalent higher energy (Fig. 2). Thus, 2PE at

132 560 nm mimics UV excitation at 280 nm [23,27]. In FLIM ultrafast lasers providing pulse

133 lengths of the order of 200 femtoseconds (200×10^{-15} s) enable time-resolved

134 measurements, which can detect molecular interactions in solution and cells [23-25,28] and

135can be used to construct fluorescence life-time maps of a compound's distribution within
136viable cells.

137

138Here we describe 2PE experiments designed to eliminate any doubts regarding the results
139from previous histological studies that employed the DMACA staining reagent. Two-
140photon excitation coupled to 3-D fluorescence lifetime imaging microscopy enabled
141examination of intact biological tissues and highly localised, non-destructive and selective
142detection of flavanols. The fluorescence behaviour of three flavanols, catechin, epicatechin
143and epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG) (Fig. 1), was measured first in model solution systems
144and then in two natural cell systems, onion epidermis cells and *Taxus* pollen mother cells.
145These flavanols were chosen because they are widespread in plants and are also
146bioavailable and bioactive in several *in vitro* and *in vivo* mammalian cell systems
147[1,6,9,29]. Solution phase studies were first used to optimise and measure spectroscopic
148shifts and lifetime changes of free flavanols *versus* flavanols bound to DNA or histone
149proteins at normal physiological pH values. The optimised spectroscopic parameters were
150then applied to probe the intra-cellular location of externally added flavanols in *Allium*
151*cepa* cells and of endogenous flavanols in *Taxus baccata* cells. The same plant models had
152been tested previously with the DMACA staining reagent [14,30].

153

1542. **Methods and materials**

1552.1. *Reagents*

156The following reagents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Company Ltd, UK:

157(+)-catechin (98%), (-)-epicatechin (90%), (-)-epigallocatechin gallate (95%; EGCG), tris-
158(hydroxymethyl)amino methane (Tris), K_2HPO_4 (ACS reagent, $\geq 98\%$), KH_2PO_4 (ACS
159reagent, $\geq 99\%$), DNA from calf thymus and Histone type II-A. Histone was supplied by
160Roche Diagnostics Ltd, UK. Histone sulphate from calf thymus was purchased from Fluka
161(Sigma-Aldrich Chemie, Steinheim, Germany; Polster *et al.*, 2003). Ethanol (LiChrosolv, \geq
16299.9%) was purchased from VWR-Merck, UK.

163

164Tris buffers (0.1 M) were prepared and adjusted to pH 7.0 and 8.0 with HCl and phosphate
165buffers (0.1 M) at pH 5.8, 7.1 and 8.2 were prepared using K_2HPO_4 and KH_2PO_4 as
166described [16].

167

1682.2. *Calculation of relative fluorescence quantum yields of the flavanols*

169Flavanols were dissolved in methanol to yield 0.01 M stock solutions. Subsequent dilutions
170for 20 and 40 μ M flavanol concentrations were made with sodium phosphate buffer (pH
1717.4, 0.1 M, 0.05% sodium azide). These were placed in a 10 mm quartz Suprasil
172fluorescence cuvette (Hellma, Germany) and UV-Vis spectra were first recorded from 190
173to 500 nm using a Helios β spectrophotometer (Spectronic Unicam, U.K.). Then
174fluorescence spectra were recorded using a luminescence LS-55 spectrometer (Perkin
175Elmer, U.K.) from 290 to 530 nm with excitation at 295 nm under continuous stirring. The
176excitation and emission slits were both set to 5 nm and scanning speed was 200 nm min^{-1} .
177All experiments were carried out at 37 °C. The literature reported a quantum yield of 0.12
178for tryptophan (Trp) at 270 nm (website) and we confirmed this for 295 nm. Therefore, the
179quantum yields of flavanols (Flav) were calculated relative to tryptophan using the

180 integrated area between 300 and 530 nm under the fluorescence spectra [31-33] according

181 to:

182
$$\text{Absorption at 295 nm (Trp)} * 0.12 * \text{Fluorescence (Flav)}$$

183
$$\text{Quantum yield}_{(\text{Flav})} = \frac{\text{Absorption at 295 nm (Trp)} * 0.12 * \text{Fluorescence (Flav)}}{\text{Absorption at 295 nm (Flav)} * 0.12 * \text{Fluorescence (Trp)}}$$

184
$$\text{Absorption at 295 nm (Flav)} * 0.12 * \text{Fluorescence (Trp)}$$

185

186 2.3. Flavanol solutions

187 Flavanols were dissolved in ethanol (~10 mM) and prepared fresh on a daily basis. Just

188 before measuring the fluorescence lifetimes, aliquots (10 μL) were removed and diluted

189 with buffer, DNA or histone protein solutions (90 and 40 μL) to obtain flavanol

190 concentrations between 1 and 2 mM.

191

192 DNA (0.6 mg) was dissolved in Tris buffer (pH 8.0; 30 mL) overnight at 4 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. Sigma

193 histone (5.9 mg) was dissolved in Tris buffer (pH 7.0 and 8.0; 2.85 mL). Ethanol (98 μL)

194 was added to the pH 8.0 buffer to facilitate dissolution. Histone sulphate (0.8 mg) was

195 dissolved in Tris buffer (pH 7.0 and 8.0) according to Polster *et al.* [16]. The supernatants

196 were used after centrifugation. Roche histone (1.0 mg) was dissolved in Tris buffer (pH 7.0

197 and 8.0; 500 μL) and ethanol (10 μL).

198

199 2.4. Plant samples

200 The thin adaxial epidermis from onion (*Allium cepa*) bulb scale was removed, cut into 2

201 cm^2 pieces and incubated with aqueous catechin or EGCG solutions (1 mM; 20 mL) for up

202 to 8 h [30].

203

204 Male cones from yew (*Taxus baccata*) were harvested on 5th October 2008. The eight cover
205 leaves were removed and the yellow anthers were gently squeezed with tweezers in order to
206 release the mother pollen cells. Preliminary experiments revealed that these cells stained
207 dark blue with the DMACA reagent (10 mg DMACA dissolved in 1 mL of 0.75 M H₂SO₄)
208 [30].

209

210 2.5. Multiphoton microscopy

211 The set up used in this study has been previously described [23]. Briefly, a custom built
212 two-photon microscope was constructed using scanning XY galvanometers (GSI Lumonics
213 Ltd). A diode-pumped (Verdi V18) titanium sapphire (Mira F900) operating at 700-980 nm
214 generated laser light at a wavelength of 585 ± 2 nm and was used for the solution studies
215 and at 630 ± 2 nm for the plant cell studies through an optical parametric oscillator (OPO,
216 APE-Coherent GmbH, Berlin, Germany) operating at 180 fs pulses at 75 MHz. The pulse
217 width was maintained using a femto control unit (APE Coherent GmbH). The laser beam
218 was focused to a diffraction-limited spot using a water-immersion ultraviolet corrected
219 objective (Nikon VC x60, NA 1.2) and specimens were illuminated at the microscope stage
220 of a modified Nikon TE2000-U with UV transmitting optics. Fluorescence emission was
221 collected without descanning, bypassing the scanning system, and passed through a $340 \pm$
222 20 nm interference filter (U340, Comar Instruments, Cambridge, UK). Emission
223 fluorescence was detected using an external fast microchannel plate photomultiplier tube
224 (Hamamatus R3809U-50) and recorded using a Time-Correlated Single Photon Counting
225 (TCSPC) PC module SPC830 (Becker and Hickl GmbH, Berlin, Germany). Fluorescence

11

226lifetime image microscopy was performed by synchronising the XY galvanometer positions
227with the fluorescence decay. The X,Y galvanometers were raster scanned at 1 ms or 2 ms
228per pixel for 128 x 128 or 256 x 256 image size, respectively, giving a 33 sec per image
229frame. The presented images were three accumulations to allow for enough photon counts
230per channel for the data analysis.

231

2322.6. *Image analysis*

233Steady state grey scale images (8 bit, up to 256 x 256 pixels) are produced by binning all
234decay photons as a single channel. Fluorescence lifetime images were obtained for control
235cells and flavanol-loaded cells by analysing the decay at individual pixels using a single or
236double exponential curve fitting (SPCImage 2.94 analysis software Becker and Hickl). A
237thresholding function within the FLIM analysis software ensured that noncorrelating
238photons leading to background noise arriving at the detector were not included in the
239analysis. Single point decay analysis was carried out without binning while FLIM was
240analysed with a maximum of 2 binning.

241

2423. **Results and discussion**

2433.1. *Flavanol fluorescence lifetimes in aqueous solutions*

244It is well known that flavanols oxidise readily in alkaline pH [4], therefore lifetimes were
245first examined at pH values ranging from 5.8 - 8.2. Fig. 3 shows that the fluorescence
246lifetime, τ , of catechin (2 mM catechin solution in 0.1 M phosphate buffer) was relatively
247stable between pH 5.8 and 7.1: τ was 1.0 ns at the start and 0.9 ns after 20 min. However, at
248pH 8.2 the lifetime changed from 1.0 to 0.7 ns within 20 minutes. When the same

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249 measurements were conducted under a nitrogen blanket, lifetime reduction was kept to 9%
250 over a 30 min period and this agrees with Sang *et al.* [34] who found that flavanols were
251 not oxidised under nitrogen. Therefore, all subsequent solution measurements were
252 determined immediately after mixing the solutions, i.e. within 30 seconds. Fig. 3 also
253 shows that pH *per se* had no effect on catechin lifetimes: τ of catechin was ~ 1.0 ns at pH
254 5.8, 7.1 and 8.2. The reduction in τ values can also not be ascribed to sample concentration
255 or the presence of non-interacting or energy transfer products, as the excited state lifetime
256 is independent of both of these.

257

258 The natural lifetime of catechin in solution in the absence of oxygen is ~ 1.1 ns (Fig. 3).
259 This reduces, via quenching, as expected in the presence of dissolved oxygen ($7.6 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$)
260 at room temperature and pressure to ~ 1 ns. It is worth noting that at high oxygen
261 concentrations, 30 mM, the quenched lifetime observed will be as expected taking into
262 account diffusion control rate. Therefore the subsequent change in lifetime (Fig. 3) (to ~ 0.7
263 ns after 20 min in oxygen) is very likely due to the formation of a deprotonated or oxidised
264 product as the OH groups in the B-ring are particularly susceptible to deprotonation and
265 therefore oxidation at alkaline pH [35]. It is interesting to note that the reduced lifetime
266 fitted well to a single exponential decay, again indicating a single fluorescent molecular
267 species is present and favouring the observed decreases in lifetime results from either a
268 photoproduct, which also fluoresces, or an oxygen quenched process. Further studies using
269 high performance liquid chromatography may help identify these oxidised products.

270

271Importantly, Fig. 4 shows that flavanols had different fluorescent decay curves.
272Fluorescence lifetimes of catechin and epicatechin were similar (1.0 and 1.1 ns,
273respectively). However, in the case of EGCG at pH 8.1 (2 mM flavanol solutions in 0.1 M
274phosphate buffer) the lifetime was found to be within the instrument response function and
275Fig. 4 shows only the characteristics of the fast micro-channel plate (<45 ps). Ultrafast time-
276resolved Kerr gated fluorescence spectroscopy will be needed to resolve the EGCG lifetime
277in the future. EGCG differs from catechin and epicatechin by the presence of a galloyl
278group at C-3 (Fig. 1). The lifetime of the excited state is given by the sum of the different
279competing relaxation processes, which include fluorescence, non-radiative decay,
280intersystem crossing and chemical reaction as illustrated in Fig. 2. The shorter lifetime for
281EGCG is most likely due to the presence of additional phenolic groups, which would be
282expected to enhance the solvation effects and which in turn would influence the non-
283radiative decay processes. These extra phenolic groups also enhance its antioxidant
284properties [36] and this presumably makes it more susceptible to oxidation. Indeed, the
285fluorescence quantum yield of EGCG is much lower than that of catechin or epicatechin
286(Table 1) suggesting that the non-radiative rate (k_{IVR} ; Fig. 2) dominates in the relaxation of
287the electronic excited state.

288

289At pH 8, epicatechin also had a two-component fluorescence decay lifetime (see footnote in
290Supplementary Table). The exact physical origin of the bi-exponential lifetime is unknown.
291However, it is not uncommon for fluorophores in complex cellular environments to
292demonstrate multiple decay times as seen in Table 2. Different decay times represent
293differing physical influences that the nascent electronic excited states are subjected to and

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294consequently may lead to differences in the efficiency of the energy loss process and return
295to the ground state. The fact that we see a bi-exponential decay indicates that the flavanols
296find themselves in two differing states and/or two different environments; for example free
297and bound forms (Supplementary Table). Further investigations studying the ultrafast
298dynamics will be needed to help explain these differences and/or whether diastereoisomers
299such as catechin and epicatechin have different fluorescence properties.

300

3013.2. *Fluorescence lifetime imaging microscopy*

3023.2.1. *Control experiments with onion cells*

303The experimental conditions developed above for flavanol solutions were applied initially
304to onion root cells (tissue soaked in water for 5 h; and followed by two-photon excitation at
305585 nm). Lifetime decay curves, at several different points in the cells, could be fitted to a
306single exponential decay giving a τ value between 2.3 and 2.6 ns ($\chi^2 = 1.05$). It is highly
307likely, however, that under these excitation conditions the emission and lifetime values are
308mainly due to auto-fluorescence contributions from tryptophan [23]. In order to avoid
309significant background fluorescence signals from other cellular materials, in particular
310aromatic amino acids, e.g. tryptophan, when using UV excitation at 290 nm (equivalent to
311580 nm 2PE excitation) the 2PE excitation wavelength was shifted to 630 nm, which has
312been shown to give little background interference [23]. Control experiments were then
313carried out without added flavanols, i.e. in the presence of just water, in order to
314substantiate that the fluorescence was due to flavanols. The onion sample without added
315flavanol showed only weak auto-fluorescence and a τ value of 0.8 ns ($\chi^2 = 1.60$) (Fig. 5c)
316confirming that our FLIM measurements were tracking the flavanol presence in cells (see

15

317Section 3.2.2. below). Whole onions are known for their high quercetin concentration (Fig.
3181) [6], but given the low photon count, we can conclude that neither tryptophan nor
319quercetin interfered with flavanol detection, λ_{em} , at 340 ± 20 nm if 2PE with λ_{ex} was 630 nm.

320

3213.2.2. Absorption of flavanols by onion nuclei

322Fig. 5a and 5b show fluorescence lifetime maps of cells in an onion epidermis, which had
323been soaked in 1 mM aqueous flavanol solutions. Following absorption of catechin or
324EGCG, the fluorescing nuclei and several bright, small spots of ~ 2 to $7 \mu\text{m}$ were clearly
325visible to a much greater extent than the surrounding cell matrix. Careful analysis of Fig. 5b
326showed a bright spot of $4 \mu\text{m}$ diameter. It is known that inactive nuclei possess very small
327nucleoli of the order of $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$ [37]. The observed spot is too large to be a nucleolus, we
328therefore propose that the bright spot was a clustering of perinucleolar organiser regions
329(NORs) [38]. NORs tend to surround the nucleoli and strongly absorb flavanols [13].

330

331This study demonstrated that FLIM combined with 2PE at 630 nm enabled *in vivo* detection
332of both catechin and EGCG and avoided interference by tryptophan or quercetin, as the
333control showed hardly any fluorescence (Fig. 5c). We have previously shown that there is
334negligible excitation of cellular auto-fluorescence, particular from tryptophan, following
335multiphoton excitation at 630 nm [23]. Although tryptophan may be excited by multi-
336photon treatment at 590 nm, which is equivalent to single photon excitation (1PE) at 295
337nm, this diminishes by a factor of 10 at 630 nm. Furthermore, the excited state lifetime of
338tryptophan (~ 3 ns) is significantly different to that of the flavanols investigated here. These
339findings, therefore, provided clear and unequivocal evidence for nuclear flavanol

340absorption. Since the excited state lifetime may be influenced by the environment of the
341flavanols, the colour trend seen in the FLIM images (Fig. 5a,b) may be due to slight
342differences in the environment of the absorbed flavanols. A series of z axis images taken
343through a cell revealed that EGCG was detectable throughout the nucleus and not just at the
344surface (Video Clip S1). EGCG appeared to be concentrated in the NORs; relative
345proportion of EGCG photon counts were 1 to 3 (cytoplasm) : 10 (nucleus) : 100 to 150
346(NORs) (*data not shown*).

347

3483.3. FLIM lifetimes of bound versus free flavanols in solution

349Fluorescence decay curves of nucleus-bound catechin were best fitted to two components,
350i.e. $\tau_1 = 0.5$ ns (77.5%) and $\tau_2 = 2.7$ ns (22.5%; χ^2 of 1.04) (Table 2). It is unlikely that τ_2
351emanates from tryptophan as the same experiments with EGCG fitted to a single
352component decay with an average τ of 0.25 ± 0.05 ns (Table 2). The increase in EGCG
353lifetime from <0.045 ns in solution (Fig. 4) to 0.25 ns in the nucleus is a reverse of the
354trend seen for catechin, which showed a lifetime of ~ 1 ns in solution and 0.5 ns in the
355nucleus.

356

357The effect of nuclear association generating different lifetimes is given in Table 2 and was
358recorded when Fig. 5 was taken. Taken together, these observations suggest that the two
359flavanols (catechin and EGCG) may differ in their interaction mechanisms with nuclear
360components. The lowering of a lifetime indicates either an enhanced non-radiative decay
361(through for example formation of hydrogen bonds) [31] or possibly self-association which
362has been reported for catechin [39]. A decrease in lifetimes upon cellular absorption has

17

363also been reported for 5-hydroxytryptophan and was attributed to self-quenching or
364environmental effects [23]. Further research will be needed to establish whether oxidation
365during the cellular absorption experiment could have contributed to the shorter catechin
366lifetime (Fig. 3) and whether oxidation would have increased EGCG fluorescence lifetime.
367It seems, however, more likely that this contrasting lifetime behaviour is indicative of
368different interaction mechanisms.

369

3703.4. *Endogenous flavanols in Taxus baccata*

371The same 2PE experimental conditions were then applied to pollen mother cells which had
372been isolated from microspores of male *Taxus baccata* cones. According to Feucht *et al.*
373[14] late tetrads and early microspores possess endogenous catechin and epicatechin. We
374observed, however, fluorescence lifetimes, which could be fitted to single component
375decays with τ of 0.2 ns and which resembled EGCG, rather than catechin or epicatechin
376(Table 2). Interestingly, the photon count of the signal to noise ratio from endogenous
377flavanols in the *Taxus* cells was not dis-similar to onion cells soaked in a 1 mM EGCG
378solution. Younger cones at the tip of the *Taxus baccata* twig yielded twice as many photons
379compared to slightly more mature cones from further along the twig. This finding agrees
380with previous observations [14,15] that nuclear DMACA staining for flavanols was most
381intense during high cell activity, e.g. in mitotic and stem cells. Interestingly, it also
382coincides with observations of higher EGCG concentrations in foetal than maternal plasma
383of rats: absorbed catechins were found in the brain, eye, heart, lung, kidney, liver and
384placenta of fetal organs [40].

385

3863.5. Flavanol fluorescence lifetimes in the presence of DNA or histone proteins

387The fact that flavanols bind to the nucleus raises an important question: which nuclear
388components act as the binding sites? Several previous studies demonstrated that DNA
389interacts with planar flavonoids, such as flavonols and anthocyanidins, and depending on
390the experimental conditions, these interactions were either weak or led to intercalation [41].
391However, flavanols are *not* planar and may therefore not be able to intercalate with DNA.
392We, therefore, explored fluorescence lifetime behaviour of flavanols in the presence of
393DNA. Addition of DNA had no effect on catechin or epicatechin lifetimes in aqueous
394solutions (2 mM; pH 8 in Tris buffer; data not shown). This agrees with results from UV-
395Vis spectroscopic titrations which also found that DNA did not interact with catechin or
396EGCG in 0.1 M Tris at pH 7.4 or 8.0 [16].

397

398However, Polster *et al.* [16] reported that histone proteins might be the nuclear targets for
399catechin and EGCG. Using UV-Vis titration experiments, they showed that both flavanols
400bound to histone sulphate and interactions were more pronounced at pH 8.0 than 7.4 in Tris
401buffer. Since these titration experiments required approximately 1 h in total [42], it could be
402argued that this might be sufficient time for oxidative reactions and artefact formation to
403occur especially at higher pH values as determined in Fig. 3. The present fluorescence
404lifetime measurements were, however, made within 30 s of mixing the flavanol and histone
405solutions (note: the fluorescence lifetime experiments were also done in Tris buffer, as the
406UV-Vis titrations revealed that histone sulphate showed a less pronounced interaction with
407catechin in phosphate than Tris buffer [16]).

408

409The lifetimes of catechin and epicatechin in the presence of histone proteins were
410investigated at two concentrations (1.1 and 1.9 mM) and pH (7 and 8) (Supplementary
411Table). Given the short lifetimes recorded and the errors in fitting bi-exponential decays,
412the data for the different flavanols need careful interpretation. At this stage we are unable to
413clearly identify whether or not histones bind to flavanols, which would be expected to be
414shown by a change in lifetime (i.e. due to quenching). From other work it is, however, also
415clear that histone preparations differ in their ability to associate with flavanols [13] and,
416therefore, further fluorescence studies will be needed. Nevertheless, these initial findings
417demonstrate the potential power of studying flavanol–histone interactions by fluorescence
418methods. It is now also evident that much fundamental work is needed for characterising
419how the chemical environment (including pH and oxygen concentration) influence
420fluorescence lifetimes, quantum yields and spectra of flavanols. With regard to pH, the pK_a
421values of catechin, for example, are *ca.* 8.6 and 9.4 [43] and thus at pH 8 three different
422protolyte species exist for catechin: BH_2 , BH^- , and B^{2-} . The fluorescence behaviour of each
423of these species will need to be understood and only through such careful measurements
424can these types of fluorescence measurements provide the much needed tool for elucidating
425the interactions between flavanols, histones and DNA.

426

4273.6. Possible role of nuclear flavanols beyond an antioxidant function

428Nuclear absorption has been reported not only for flavanols [13] but also for some other
429flavonoids. *Arabidopsis thaliana* nuclei absorb flavonols [44,45], *Drosophila* follicle nuclei
430absorb quercetin [46] and *Flaveria chloraefolia* nuclei absorb sulfonated flavanols [47]. It
431used to be widely accepted that the major function of polyphenols such as flavonoids was

20

432to protect DNA against UV damage and oxidative stress, but this has now been questioned
433[8,10]. Instead they were shown recently also to affect cell signalling and gene expression
434[48,49]. Flavanols are involved in the transcriptional activation of genes and modulation of
435epigenetic changes [36,50].

436

437Whilst several dietary flavonols and the green tea flavanol, EGCG, have been implicated in
438interacting and protecting DNA against damage [41,51, 52], the fact that they inhibit DNA
439methyltransferases *in vitro* and *in vivo* at the μ molar to sub- μ molar level is potentially more
440important for their effects on health [5,7,29,48,53]. Moreover, EGCG was also a potent
441inhibitor of histone acetyltransferase [50]. Histone acetylation has previously been shown
442to affect flavanol association [13,16] and is known to alter the chromatin structure, which in
443turn has been linked to the transcriptional activation of genes [15]. Both processes, DNA
444methylation and histone acetylation, are involved in epigenetic changes [54]. Indeed,
445Yamada *et al.* [53] concluded that EGCG may have inhibitory effects on the epigenetic
446changes that occur during carcinogenesis and aging. Whilst we found no evidence for
447interactions between flavanols and DNA, the results presented here in terms of flavanol
448association and penetration through the nucleus do not rule out the possibility that histones
449may be a target for EGCG, catechin and epicatechin. Solution phase ultrafast structure and
450dynamics studies such as time resolved infra-red (IR) or time resolved 2-dimensional IR
451will be needed to probe the origin of the bi-exponential lifetimes, which differed between
452the three flavanols. Such time resolved spectroscopic techniques will indicate the functional
453groups responsible for the fast dynamics that differ amongst these flavanols.

454

4553.7. *Future prospects*

456 Given the recent discoveries identifying that flavanols may well be involved in epigenetic
457 changes, highly sensitive techniques will be needed to trace their uptake and trafficking at
458 the sub-cellular and sub-nuclear level and at physiologically relevant concentrations. Our
459 results suggest that not all flavanols will interact via the same molecular mechanism and
460 this will require new techniques with sufficient specificity and sensitivity. New
461 developments in fluorescence lifetime imaging techniques and ultra-fast spectroscopy, as
462 demonstrated here, may hold the key and pave the way for studying their functions and
463 synthesis in plant cells. The trafficking, uptake and subcellular localisation of flavanols is
464 of acute interest also for current research on tannin synthesis in plants [55]. Unravelling this
465 last hurdle of flavonoid biosynthesis, storage and release would facilitate the development
466 of new plant varieties with tannin compositions that can offer enhanced biological activities
467 for nutrition and health [11].

468 Such analytical developments will facilitate new types of biological experiments that can
469 test how these compounds, when present in plant foods, can impact on mammalian cells
470 and health. Although FLIM is a new technique to both mammalian and plant cell biologists
471 alike, its application is growing rapidly [23-26,28], particularly in protein-protein
472 interactions that involve energy transfer processes. However, this is the first study to report
473 FLIM for other plant components and as the technique becomes more readily available, its
474 impact can only grow. This study has shown that relatively small changes in flavanol
475 structures (EGCG *versus* catechin or epicatechin; Fig. 1) lead to measurable changes in
476 lifetime behaviour in the free and bound states. As plants synthesise several types of
477 flavonoids, that vary in oxidation and substitution patterns [1], it is expected that other

478 flavonoid compounds will be detectable using different combinations of excitation and
479 emission wavelengths.

480

4814. Conclusions

482 In conclusion, 2-photon excitation at 585 and 630 nm has enabled for the first time the
483 measurement of fluorescence lifetimes from three flavanols, catechin, epicatechin and
484 EGCG, in solution and *in vivo*. Lifetimes ranging from <45 ps to 1 ns in solution have been
485 determined. *In vivo* experiments with onion cells demonstrated that tryptophan and
486 quercetin have sufficiently low absorbance at 630 nm and this allowed the detection of
487 externally added and endogenous flavanols within *Allium cepa* and *Taxus baccata* cells.
488 Interestingly, fluorescence decay curves of catechin and EGCG differed markedly both in
489 solution and when bound at the nucleus. This fact could be used in the future for selectively
490 tracing the different flavanols *in vivo*. Furthermore, this work demonstrates how the
491 application of fluorescence lifetime technology may be used to investigate the way
492 flavanols interact with individual cellular components. We also conclude that flavanols are
493 absorbed by cell nuclei and this provides new research challenges with regard to their
494 intracellular functions.

495

496 Semi-quantitative measurements revealed that the relative ratios of EGCG concentrations in
497 perinucleolar organiser regions : nucleus : cytoplasm were approximately 100:10:1.
498 Moreover, 3-D FLIM showed that externally added EGCG penetrated the whole nucleus of
499 onion cells and was not just absorbed on the surface. The FLIM technique described here
500 proved therefore a significant advance to DMACA staining and is capable of providing

23

501quantitative biophysical information to probe the intra-cellular functions of flavanols such
502as EGCG, which is the major flavanol of green tea.

503

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508

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598 Legend to Figures

599

600 Fig. 1:

601 Structures of three flavanols, catechin (1), epicatechin (2), and epigallocatechin gallate (3),
602 and one flavonol, quercetin (4) (note: A, B, C denote the flavonoid rings).

603

604 Fig. 2:

605 The Jablonski diagram depicting the energy levels of a molecule. S_0 represents the
606 ground singlet states, S_1 , S_2 the excited singlet states; T_1 the triplet excited states. Electronic
607 levels are subdivided into vibrational levels ($v_1, v_2 \dots v_n$). IC indicates internal conversion,
608 $k_{\text{fluorescence}}$: rate of fluorescence leading from S_1 ($v_1 = 0$) to S_0 (v_1 or v_n), k_{IVR} : intramolecular
609 vibrational relaxation, k_{ISC} : rate of intersystem crossing and k_{quench} : rate of reaction with
610 other molecules, chemical or energy transfer.

611

612 Fig. 3:

613 Time course of fluorescence lifetimes (ns) of catechin (2 mM) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer in
614 air or nitrogen atmospheres at pH 5.8, 7.1 and 8.2 ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 585$ nm).

615

616 Fig. 4:

617 Fluorescence decay curves of catechin, epicatechin and epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG)
618 solutions (2 mM) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer at pH 8.1 ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 585$ nm).

619

620 Fig. 5:

621 Fluorescence lifetime images ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 630 \text{ nm}$) of a cell from an onion epidermis soaked in 1
622 mM aqueous solutions of a) catechin ($\tau_1 = 0.4 \text{ ns}$ (82%), $\tau_2 = 2.6 \text{ ns}$ (18%)), b)
623 epigallocatechin gallate ($\tau = 0.2 \text{ ns}$) and c) control in water without added flavanol. Image
624 (A) shows a steady state image of the total emission lifetimes and image (B) shows the
625 analysed fluorescence excited state map. The distribution of fluorescence lifetimes in (B) is
626 illustrated in image (C), where the vertical axis represents the frequency and the horizontal
627 axis represents lifetime in pico-seconds. (*Note*: control nucleus shows hardly any
628 fluorescence in Fig. 5c).

629

630 **Supporting information**

631 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

632 **Supplementary Table:** Fluorescence lifetimes (ns) of flavanols in the presence of different
633 histones (Tris buffers, pH 7 and 8). Pre-exponential factors are shown in brackets.

634

635 **Fig. S1.** UV-Vis spectra of catechin, epicatechin and epigallocatechin gallate recorded from
636 200 to 595 nm.

637

638 **Video Clip S1.** 3D stack of multiphoton excited ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 630 \text{ nm}$) fluorescence image from an
639 onion cell epidermis soaked in a 1mM aqueous solution of epigallocatechin gallate. Images
640 were recorded at 0.5 - 2.0 μm slices.

641

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643supporting materials supplied by the authors. Any queries (other than missing material)
644should be directed to the corresponding author for the article.

645
646

647**Table 1**

648Fluorescence quantum yields of catechin, epicatechin and epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG)

649in methanol at 37 °C.

650

Compound	Quantum yield^a
Catechin	0.018
Epicatechin	0.015
EGCG	0.003

651

652^a Estimated accuracy = ±16%

653

654 **Table 2**

655 Fluorescence lifetimes (ns) and pre-exponential factors (A_1 and A_2) of externally added
 656 flavanols, which were absorbed by onion epidermis, and endogenous flavanols in *Taxus*
 657 *baccata* male cones (\pm standard deviations).

658

Sample	τ_1 (ns)	A_1 %	τ_2 (ns)	A_2 %
Onion epidermis:				
control in water	0.84 ^a	100		
Onion epidermis:				
+ catechin	0.5 \pm 0.04	77.5 \pm 6.92	2.7 \pm 0.19	22.5 \pm 6.92
+ epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG)	0.25 \pm 0.05	99.2 \pm 1.13		
<i>Taxus baccata</i> male cones:				
in water	0.2 \pm 0.03	93.4 \pm 6.46	0.5 \pm 0.2	6.6 \pm 6.46

659

660^a The control had a very low photon count in the absence of externally added flavanols and
 661 the data were quite noisy (see Fig. 5c), therefore it was not possible to obtain a standard
 662 deviation of the background lifetime.

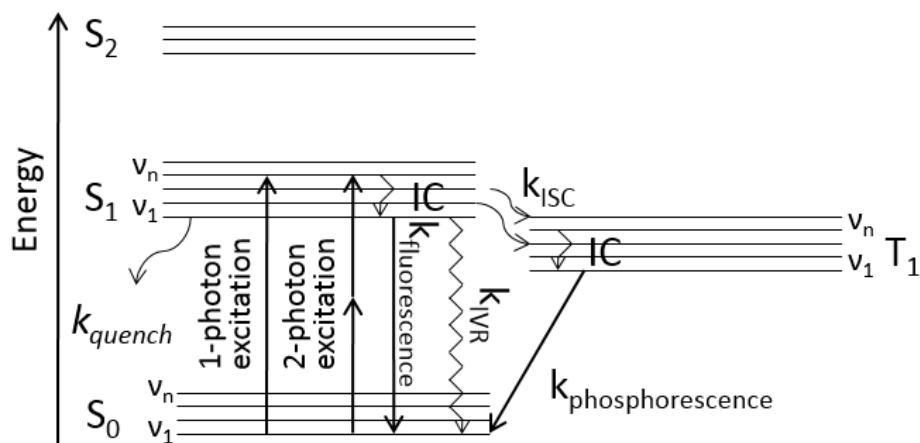
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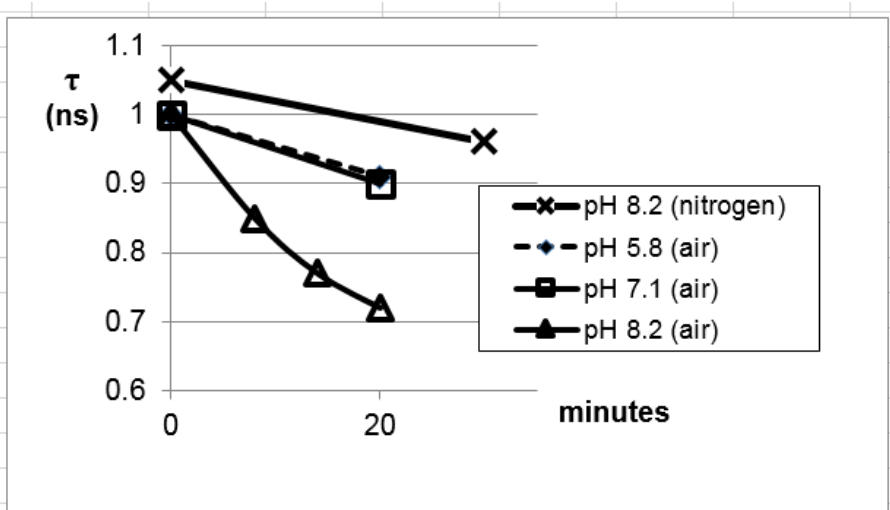
665**Figure 1:**
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670Fig 2
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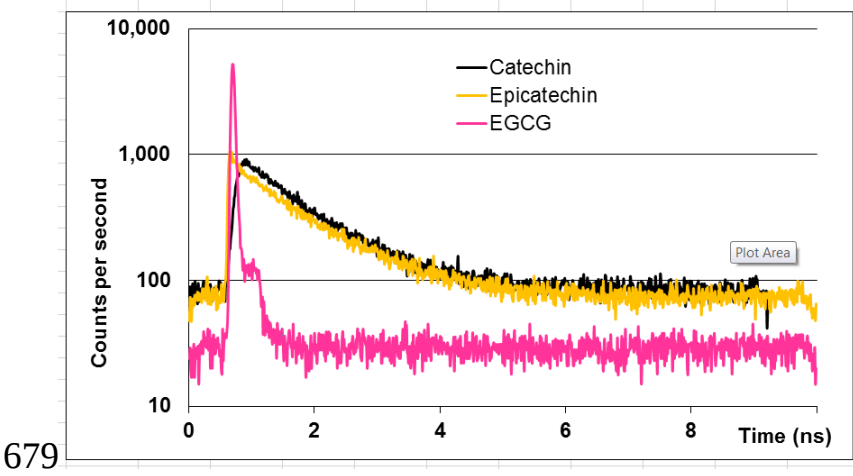


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674Fig 3
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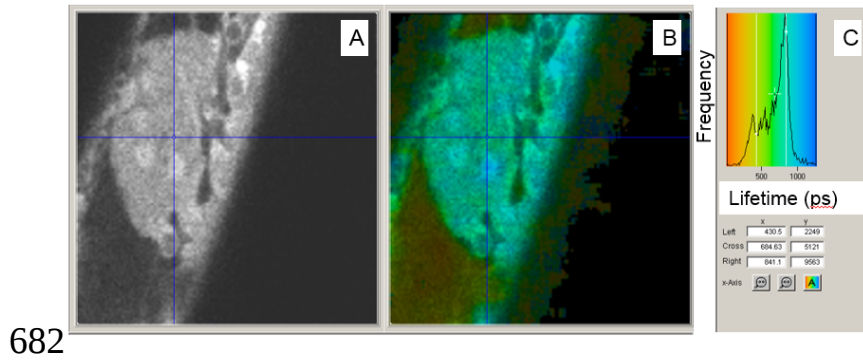


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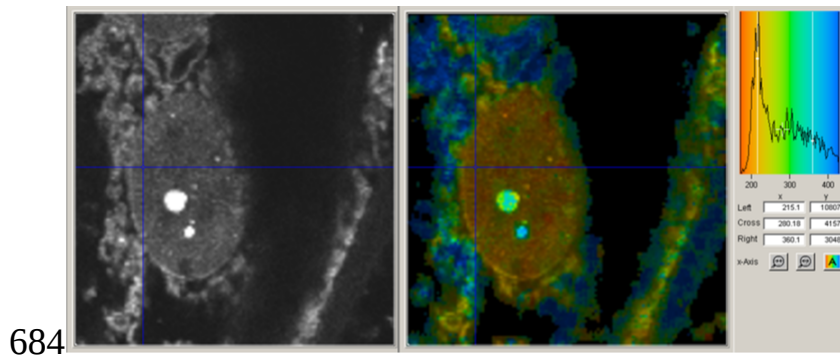
678Fig 4



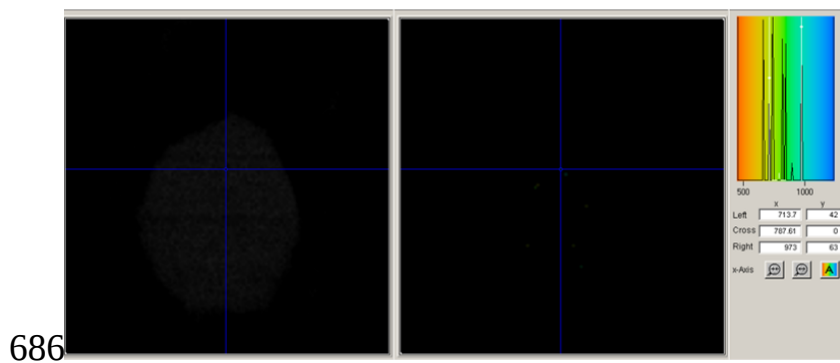
681Fig 5a



683Fig 5 b



685Fig 5c



687

688

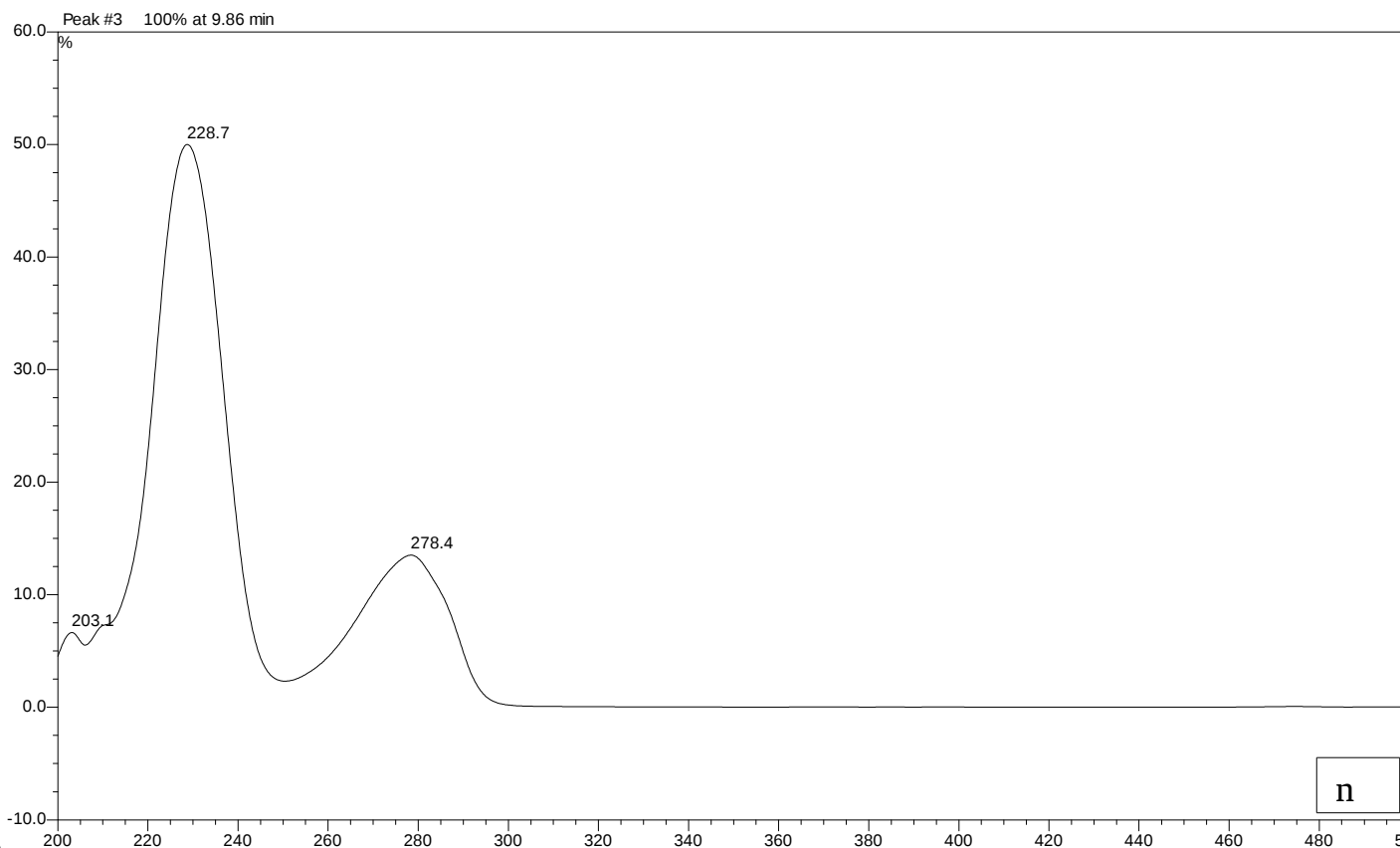
689Fig S1

690**Figure S1:** UV-Vis spectra of catechin, epicatechin and epigallocatechin
691gallate recorded from 200 to 595 nm.

692

693**Catechin**

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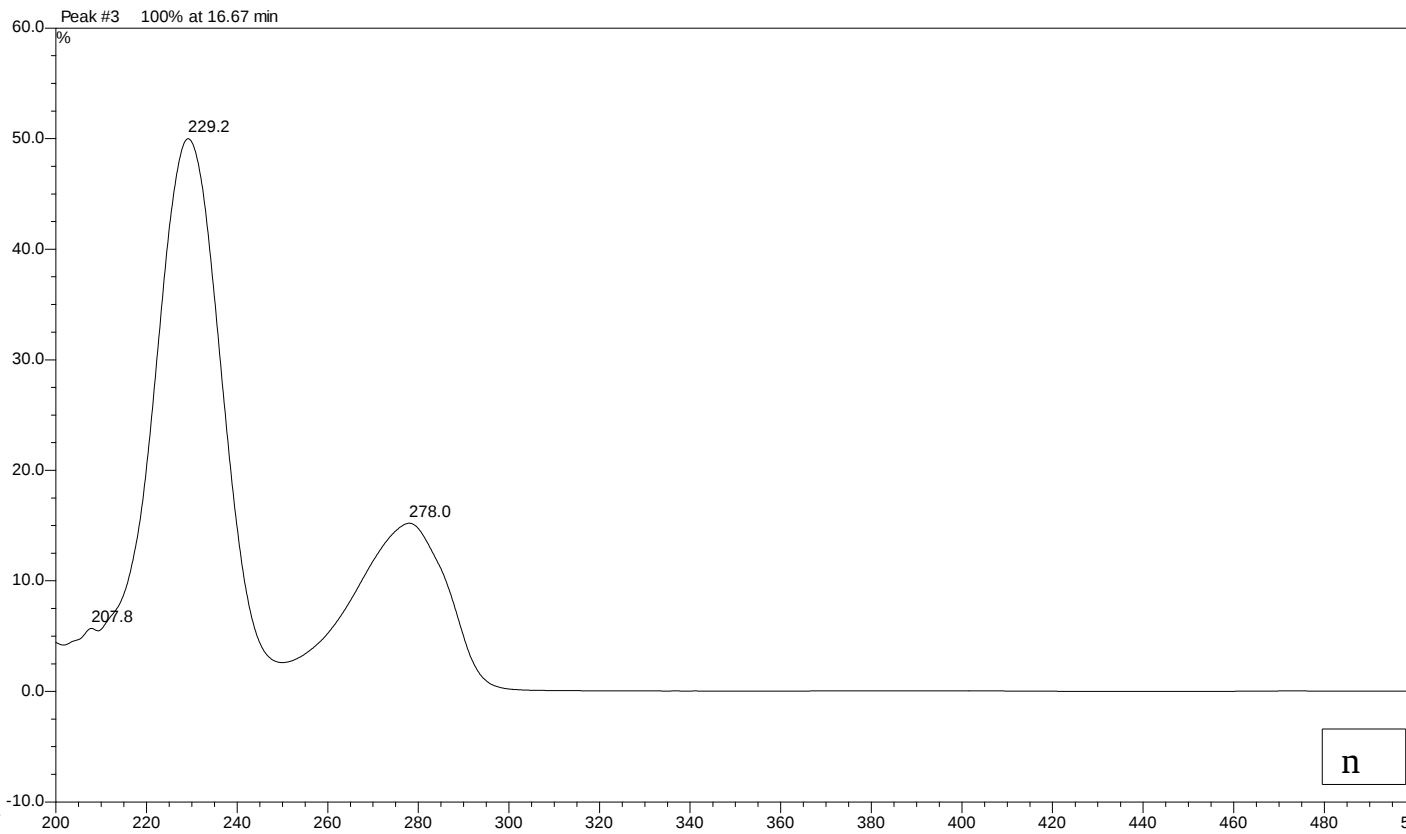
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705Epicatechin

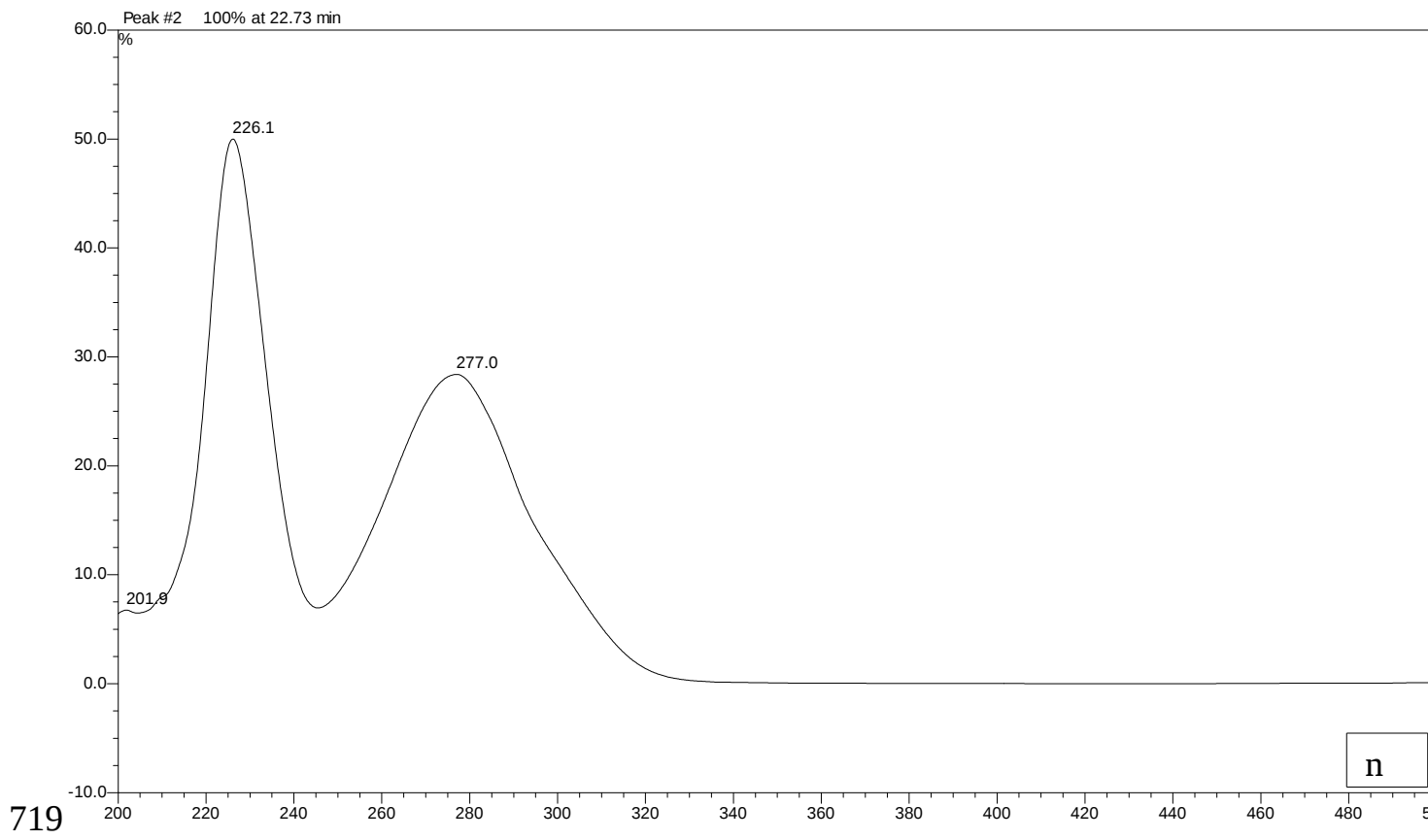
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717Epicatechin gallate

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719

720Supplementary **Table**

721Fluorescence lifetimes (ns) of flavanols in the presence of different histones (Tris buffers, pH 7 and 8). Pre-exponential factors

722are shown in brackets.

	1 mM Flavanol				2 mM Flavanol			
	pH 7		pH 8		pH 7		pH 8 ^b	
	τ_1^a	τ_2	τ_1	τ_2	τ_1	τ_2	τ_1	τ_2
(+)-Catechin^b			0.9		1.1			
+ Sigma histone	0.9 (75%)	1.9 (25%)	(92%)	2.5 (8%)	(82%)	1.7 (18%)	1.1 (80%)	1.9 (20%)
			0.9		1.1			
+ Histone sulphate	1.1 (95%)	4.0 (5%)	(75%)	2.0 (25%)	(88%)	2.1 (12%)	1.1 (88%)	2.0 (12%)
			0.9		0.8			
+ Roche histone	1.0 (96%)	3.5 (4%)	(80%)	2.7 (20%)	(86%)	2.5 (14%)	1.1 (93%)	3.2 (7%)
(-)-Epicatechin^b			0.9		1.1			
+ Sigma histone	0.8 (75%)	2.0 (25%)	(90%)	2.5 (10%)	(85%)	1.8 (15%)	1.0 (86%)	2.0 (14%)
					1.1			
+ Histone sulphate	nd ^c	nd	nd	nd	(87%)	1.9 (13%)	1.0 (84%)	1.9 (16%)
			0.9		1.1			
+ Roche histone	1.0 (92%)	2.8 (10%)	(80%)	2.3 (20%)	(90%)	3.1 (10%)	1.0 (90%)	2.7 (10%)
Average	0.9	2.4	0.9	2.3	1.1	2.3	1.1	2.4

723^a Experimental error is ± 50 ps; ^b For comparison, lifetime measurements in 0.1 M phosphate buffer at pH 8.1 gave $\tau = 1.0$ ns for724catechin and $\tau_1 = 1.1$ (72%) and $\tau_2 = 0.1$ ns (28%) for epicatechin (note: Due to the poor signal-to-noise at longer times the errors

725 are significantly larger for the second lifetime (τ_2) and the pre-exponential factors of less than 10% may be due to a fluorescence contribution from impurities); ^c nd = not determined.