Defective Acidification in Human Breast Tumor Cells and Implications for Chemotherapy

By Nihal Altan,* Yu Chen,* Melvin Schindler; and Sanford M. Simon*

From the *Laboratory of Cellular Biophysics, Rockefeller University, New York 10021; and the
Department of Biochemistry, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48824

Summary

Multidrug resistance (MDR) is a significant problem in the treatment of cancer. Chemotherapeutic drugs distribute through the cyto- and nucleoplasm of drug-sensitive cells but are excluded from the nucleus in drug-resistant cells, concentrating in cytoplasmic organelles. Weak base chemotherapeutic drugs (e.g., anthracyclines and vinca alkaloids) should concentrate in acidic organelles. This report presents a quantification of the pH for identified compartments of the MCF-7 human breast tumor cell line and demonstrates that (a) the chemotherapeutic Adriamycin concentrates in acidified organelles of drug-resistant but not drug-sensitive cells; (b) the lysosomes and recycling endosomes are not acidified in drug-sensitive cells; (c) the cytosol of drug-sensitive cells is 0.4 pH units more acidic than the cytosol of resistant cells; and (d) disrupting the acidification of the organelles of resistant cells with monensin, bafilomycin A1, or concanamycin A is sufficient to change the Adriamycin distribution to that found in drug-sensitive cells, rendering the cell vulnerable once again to chemotherapy. These results suggest that acidification of organelles is causally related to drug resistance and is consistent with the hypothesis that sequestration of drugs in acidic organelles and subsequent extrusion from the cell through the secretory pathways contribute to chemotherapeutic resistance.

Key words: multidrug resistance • pH • secretion • chemotherapy • breast cancer

Successful chemotherapy requires that tumor cells be more sensitive to chemotherapeutic agents than normal cells of the body. However, a major impediment to such treatment of cancer is the development of resistance by the tumor not only to the drugs administered but also to a host of other structurally and mechanistically diverse drugs to which the tumor has not been exposed (1). This phenomenon has been termed multidrug resistance (MDR).1

Research during the past 20 years has discovered many genetic differences between drug-resistant and drug-sensitive tumor cells (2). These include changes in the type and amount of cellular lipids and in the expression of proteins, including P-glycoprotein (Pgp) (3, 4), MDR-associated protein (MRP) (5), glutathione S-transferase (6), protein kinase C (7), DNA topoisomerase II (8), and the vacuolar proton ATPase (9). Based on these genetic differences, there are dramatic differences in the intracellular concentration and distribution of chemotherapeutic drugs. In drug-sensitive cells, chemotherapeutic drugs are diffuse throughout the cytoplasm and nucleus. In contrast, in drug-resistant cells, chemotherapeutic drugs accumulate only within discrete cytoplasmic organelles; almost none is detectable in the nucleus (10-14).

Many chemotherapeutic drugs, such as the anthracyclines and vinca alkaloids, are weak bases with pKₐ values between 7.4 and 8.4 (15, 16). They are membrane permeable in their neutral form and relatively membrane impermeant when protonated (17). When these drugs diffuse into acidified liposomes or acidified red blood cell ghosts, they become protonated, thus membrane impermeable, and sequestered (17-20). Likewise, upon entering any of the acidic compartments of the cell (such as the lysosome, recycling endosomes, trans-Golgi network [TGN], or secretory vesicles), it is predicted that they will become protonated and sequestered within these compartments. Based on these observations, the protonation, sequestration, and secretion (PSS) model has been proposed to account for the relative sensitivity of tumor cells and resistance of MDR cells to weak base chemotherapeutic drugs (21). The PSS hypothesis postulates that acidified organelles (in MDR and nontransformed cells) protonate chemotherapeutic drugs, thereby sequestering them from the nucleoplasm and cytosol (the aqueous phase of the cytoplasmic compartment). The drugs are subsequently secreted from the cell through the secretory pathways (22-24).

1 Abbreviations used in this paper: LAMP, lysosome-associated membrane protein; MDR, multidrug resistance; MRP, MDR-associated protein; Pgp, P-glycoprotein; PSS, protonation, sequestration, and secretion; SNARF, seminaphthorhodafluor; TGN, trans-Golgi network.
the cell through the normal pathways of vesicular traffic and secretion. The model proposes that the enhanced sensitivity of tumor cells to chemotherapeutic drugs is a consequence of a reduced acidification within these organelles and, thus, a reduced ability to sequester the drugs away from the cytosol and nucleoplasm. The PSS hypothesis makes the following four predictions: (a) chemotherapeutic drugs should accumulate within the acidic secretory organelles of drug-resistant cells; (b) there should be a significant quantitative difference between drug-sensitive and MDR tumor cells in either the organellar acidification or transport; (c) agents that disrupt organellar acidification should reverse drug resistance; and (d) agents that reverse drug resistance should either block acidification or block secretion from acidified organelles.

There have been several studies measuring the total cellular pH of drug-resistant and drug-sensitive tumor-derived cell lines, with differing results that suggest greater acidification in drug-sensitive cells (22–25). In a previous study, we reported that the drug-sensitive MCF-7 human breast tumor cell line lacks highly acidified organelles (21). Similar results have been reported in the K-562 erythroleukemia cells (26). However, studies have not been done quantifying the pH in identified compartments of the cell.

In this report, we quantify the pH in identified cellular compartments, including the cytosol, the nucleus, the recycling endosomes, and the lysosomes of both MCF-7 and MCF-7/ADR drug-resistant cell lines. Further, we identify the organelles in MCF-7/ADR drug-resistant cells which accumulate adriamycin. These results demonstrate that in MCF-7/ADR cells, adriamycin accumulates in the acidic compartments of the cell, e.g., the lysosomes, TGN, and recycling endosomes. The pH profile of the MCF-7/ADR cells was similar to nontransformed cells (27–29): the cytosolic pH was neutral, and the lysosomes and endosomes were acidified. However, in striking contrast, the cytosol of the MCF-7 cells was considerably more acidic, and the lumens of the lysosomes and recycling endosomes were considerably more alkaline. As a result, the organelles of MCF-7 cells had substantially reduced transmembrane pH gradients. Disrupting the pH gradients in the MCF-7/ADR cells to resemble the pH in the MCF-7 cells dissipated the chemotherapeutic drugs from the acidified organelles and reversed drug resistance.

**Materials and Methods**

Bodipy-transferin, LysoSensor Blue DND-167, FITC-transferin, seminaphthorhodafluor (SNARF)-dextran, NBD-ceramide, and FITC-dextran were from Molecular Probes, Inc. (Eugene, OR). Adriamycin was from Calbiochem Corp. (San Diego, CA). Concanamycin A was from Fluka Chemical Corp. (Buchs, Switzerland). Bovine insulin and l-glutamine were from GIBCO BRL (Gaithersburg, MD), and FBS was from Gemini Bio-Products, Inc. (Calabasas, CA). The anti-lysosome-associated membrane protein (LAMP) 1 serum was from the Developmental Hybridoma Bank at Johns Hopkins University (Baltimore, MD), and goat anti-mouse secondary antibody Fab fragments conjugated to phycocerythrin were from Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, Inc. (West Grove, PA). All other reagents were from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO).

**Tissue Culture**

MCF-7 and MCF-7/ADR cells were obtained from Dr. William Wells of the Department of Biochemistry, Michigan State University. They were maintained in Modified Eagle's medium with phenol red, bovine insulin 10 μg/ml, l-glutamine, and 10% FBS in a humidified incubator at 37°C and 5% CO₂ (Forma Scientific, Inc., Marietta, OH). In addition, the MCF-7/ADR cells were maintained continuously in 0.8 μM Adriamycin. The MCF-10F cells were obtained from American Type Culture Collection (Rockville, MD).

**Cell Imaging**

All incubations were at 37°C with 5% CO₂. Unless otherwise stated, the cells were incubated in DMEM without phenol red or serum and with 20 mM Hepes, pH 7.3. All incubation and imaging was at 37°C in coverglass chambers (Lab-tek, N aperil, IL) with media preequilibrated with 5% CO₂, and the chamber was superfused with humidified air containing 5% CO₂.

Confocal Microscopy. Unless specifically stated, all imaging measurements were performed on an Ultima confocal microscope (Meridian Instruments Inc., O kemos, MI) equipped with an argon laser. Cells were visualized with a 60×/1.4NA oil objective (Olympus Optical Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan), and the data were collected with two photomultiplier tubes (R 3896; H amamatsu Photonics, H amamatsu City, Japan).

**Epifluorescence Microscopy.** A fluorescence microscope (D iaphot; N ikon, Inc., Melville, NY) was used for pH measurements within the lumens of recycling endosomes. The microscope was equipped with a 100 W Hg lamp and U niblitz shutter (V incent and A ssociates, Rochester, N Y). The shuttering of the light source was controlled with a computer. The data were collected on an intensified charged coupled device (4910; H amamatsu Photonics).

**Adriamycin Labeling.** Adriamycin is a small heterocyclic amine (molecular mass 580 dalton) with a pKₐ of 8.3 that can diffuse across membranes in the uncharged form. Adriamycin fluorescence is excited between 350 and 550 nm and emits between 400 and 700 nm. Cells were incubated with Adriamycin (10 μM) for 30 min at 37°C and then visualized using the confocal microscope with (λ_ex = 488 nm).

**Acridine Orange Labeling.** Cells were incubated with acridine orange (6 μM) for 15 min and then visualized on the confocal microscope (λ_ex = 488 nm). Emission light passed through a 560-nm short-pass dichroic mirror. The green emission passed through a 530/30-nm bandpass filter, and the red emission passed through a 610-nm longpass filter. The green and red emissions were collected using two photomultiplier tubes.

**LysoSensor and TGN Labeling.** Cells were incubated with LysoSensor Blue DND-167 (2 μM, 1 mM stock in water) for 60 min, and then visualized on the confocal microscope (λ_ex = 353 nm). In some experiments, the cells were subsequently washed and incubated with Adriamycin (10 μM) for 30 min.

**TGN Labeling with NBD-ceramide.** Cells were incubated in DMEM, Hepes, pH 7.3, with NBD-ceramide (5 μM) at 4°C for 10 min (30). They were then washed twice with DMEM/20 mM Hepes (pH 7.3) and incubated at 37°C for 30 min, and observed with the confocal microscope (λ_ex = 488 nm).
BODIPY-transferrin Labeling of the Recycling Endosome Compartment. BODIPY-transferrin was used to label the recycling endosome compartment. Transferrin is endocytosed by specific receptors on the surface of the cell, then transported through the endosomes and recycled back to the surface. The transferrin receptor is not transported to the lysosomes, so probes that are conjugated to transferrin can be used to selectively monitor the recycling endocytic compartments (31). The endocytic pathway is known to undergo acidification (32). Thus, the fluorophore BODIPY was used, since its fluorescence is not very sensitive to pH. The cells were loaded with 50 μg/ml of BODIPY-transferrin in DMEM/20 mM Hepes, pH 7.3, for 25 min in a humidified incubator at 37°C and 5% CO₂ (31). The cells were washed rapidly three times with DMEM/Hepes, incubated for 2 min in a citric acid buffer, pH 4, at 37°C, and rinsed three times with HBSS containing 20 mM Hepes, pH 7.3. In some experiments, the cells were subsequently incubated at 37°C for 30 min to allow the transferrin to recycle to the surface, and then incubated with Adriamycin (10 μM) at 37°C for 30 min.

**pH Measurements**

The pH-sensitive fluorophores, FITC and SNARF, were used to measure the pH within endosomes and cytosol, respectively. LysoSensor Blue DND-167 was also used as an independent probe for calibration of the pH within the lumenal compartment of lysosomes. Both FITC and SNARF are ratiometric dyes. The emission intensity of FITC at 530 nm increases with increasing pH at λex = 450 nm. However, it is unaffected by pH at λem = 514 nm. Therefore, by taking the ratio of the emission intensities at the two excitation wavelengths, one can obtain a pH value independent of FITC concentration in a particular compartment. To convert the ratios to pH values, the cells were calibrated using monensin and nigericin with buffers of known pH (see below). FITC is most useful for measurement of pH values of 5.0–7.0.

SNARF at λex = 514 nm emits at two wavelengths, 570 and 630 nm. The protonated fluorophore emits at 570 nm, and the neutral fluorophore emits at 630 nm. Again, the ratio of the two emissions corresponds to a pH value that is theoretically independent of the concentration of the dye in that compartment. SNARF can be calibrated reliably over the pH range 6.2–9.0. LysoSensor Blue DND-167 was used to semiquantitatively investigate the pH in lysosomes. The fluorescence of LysoSensor Blue is dependent on pH. LysoSensor Blue has a functional group that, when deprotonated, leads to a loss of fluorescence of the molecule. The pK of this group is 5.1. Therefore, at pH <5.1, a greater percentage of the dye will be protonated and fluorescent. There is little fluorescence above pH 5.8.

At the end of each experiment, the fluorescence emission of each dye was calibrated with solutions of known pH. For pH calibration of endosomes, the cells were incubated in solutions of 150 mM NaCl, 20 mM HEPES or MES (depending on the pH of the calibration solution), 5 mM KCl, 1 mM MgSO₄, buffered at pH 5, 6, 6.5, and 7, containing monensin (20 μM) and nigericin (10 μM) for 5 min before recording the fluorescence (33). For the pH calibrations of cytosol and nuclei, the cells were incubated in solutions of 140 mM KCl, 10 mM Mops, 5 mM MgSO₄, 1 mM CaCl₂, buffered at pH 6, 7, and 7.5 containing nigericin (20 μM).

**Recycling Compartment pH Measurement**

FITC bound to transferrin was used to selectively probe the pH of the endocytic compartment (31, 32). The cells were loaded with 150 μg/ml FITC-transferrin for 30 min. Based on competition binding studies with unlabeled transferrin, this amount of FITC-transferrin specifically labels the recycling endocytic compartment in MCF-7 and MCF-7/ADR cells. The cells were then subsequently washed six times with HBSS with 20 mM Hepes, pH 7.3, and visualized with epifluorescence microscopy (λex = 490 and 450 nm, and λem = 515 nm). The pH was calibrated from the FITC fluorescence as described above.

**Lysosome pH**

To measure the pH within the lysosomes, the cells were incubated with 5 μg/ml of FITC-dextran 10 kD for 30 min (28), then washed four times in DMEM with 20 mM Hepes, pH 7.3, and incubated in this medium for 90 min. They were then visualized with epifluorescence with FITC excitation filters (see above). The pH was calibrated from the FITC fluorescence as described above. Alternatively, the cells were incubated with LysoSensor Blue as described above.

**pH of the Cytoplasm and Nucleoplasm**

The pH within the cytoplasm and nucleoplasm was selectively probed by loading these compartments with SNARF conjugated to dextrans using a procedure referred to as “scrape loading” (34). Briefly, the cells were plated on polystyrene plates at 50% confluency 24-36 h before loading with dextrans. The medium was aspirated, and the cells were rapidly (<10 s) scraped off in the presence of 10 mg/ml of 70- or 10-kD SNARF-dextran and washed in ice-cold media to minimize endocytosis before plating on coverslips as described previously (34). Confocal fluorescence microscopy was used to prepare optical sections through the cell. The fluorescence intensity of the nucleoplasm and cytoplasm could then be quantified. The fluorescence from the SNARF conjugated dextrans was recorded 24-36 h after scrape loading. The pH was calibrated from the fluorescence as described above.

**Immunofluorescence**

LAMP-1. For immunolocalization of lysosomes, anti-LAMP-1 serum was used as described previously (35). Cells were fixed with 2% paraformaldehyde in 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.8, containing lysine (9 mg/ml) for 2 h. They were then permeabilized with 0.01% saponin for 5 min. Anti-LAMP-1 sera was used undiluted for 30 min at room temperature. Cells were washed extensively with PBS and then incubated for 15 min with goat anti-mouse secondary antibody Fab fragments conjugated to phycoerythrin at 1:150 dilution at room temperature. Cells were washed in PBS and visualized with the confocal microscope using λex = 488 nm.

**Results**

Adriamycin distribution in drug-resistant MCF-7/ADR and Drug-sensitive MCF-7 Cells

The PSS hypothesis predicts that weak base chemotherapeutic drugs should accumulate in the acidic secretory organelles of drug-resistant cells. Adriamycin was chosen as the model chemotherapeutic drug to characterize the subcellular distribution of these agents in drug-sensitive and drug-resistant tumor cells because its natural fluorescence allows it to be tracked visually, and because it is widely ad-
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MCF-7/adr (drug-resistant)  MCF-7 (drug-sensitive)

Figure 1. Adriamycin distribution between drug-resistant and drug-sensitive MCF-7 cells. (a) In MCF-7/ADR cells, Adriamycin is excluded from the nucleus. It is concentrated in punctate organelles throughout the cytoplasm and a brightly fluorescent region immediately adjacent to the nucleus. This perinuclear labeling is typical for the recycling endosomes and TGN. (b) In MCF-7 cells, the fluorescence of Adriamycin is localized diffusely throughout the cytoplasm and nucleoplasm, with little accumulation in any cytoplasmic compartment. Adriamycin is also seen labeling the nuclear envelope. Currently, we do not know if Adriamycin fluorescence is due to accumulation in the nuclear envelope or binding to the adjacent euchromatin. Cells were incubated in the presence of 10 μM Adriamycin as described in Materials and Methods. Scale bar, 5 μm.

Adriamycin Colocalizes with the Acidic Compartments of Lysosomes, Recycling Endosomes, and the TGN, in MCF-7/ADR Cells

Since Adriamycin is a weak base, it is predicted to accumulate inside acidic compartments. To determine if it accumulated in the lysosomes, the most acidic cellular compartment, cells were sequentially labeled with LysoSensor Blue DND-167 and Adriamycin. LysoSensor Blue is a membrane-permeable pH probe whose fluorescence emission is reduced significantly at pH >5.8 (see Materials and Methods). Thus, it selectively fluoresces only in the most highly acidic compartments of living cells such as lysosomes. Discrete punctate fluorescence in the cytoplasm was observed in cells incubated with LysoSensor Blue (Fig. 2 b). These lysosomes appeared to be distributed somewhat evenly through the cytoplasm. The same cells were then incubated with Adriamycin and excited at 488 nm, and the emission was collected >550 nm (Fig. 2 c). LysoSensor Blue is not excited at 488 nm; therefore, it did not interfere with the Adriamycin signal (data not shown). Most lysosomes (Fig. 2 b, arrows) were labeled with Adriamycin (Fig. 2 c, arrows). In addition to the lysosomal compartment, there was an additional cytoplasmic region adjacent to the nucleus that was heavily labeled with Adriamycin (Fig. 2 c).
Figure 2. Double labeling of Adriamycin and the perinuclear recycling compartment, TGN, and highly acidified organelles. To characterize the regions that accumulated the Adriamycin in MCF-7/ADR cells, BODIPY-transferrin was used to label the recycling endosomal compartment. NBD-ceramide was used to label the TGN, and LysoSensor Blue was used to label the lysosomes. (a) MCF-7 cells accumulate very low levels of LysoSensor Blue, indicating the lack of highly acidified organelles. (b) In MCF-7/ADR cells, LysoSensor Blue labels many large punctate peripheral organelles, consistent with lysosomes. Arrows, Organelles that colabel with Adriamycin in c. (c) The same cell was subsequently labeled with 10 μM Adriamycin. Note that the perinuclear compartment, though highly labeled with Adriamycin, has few lysosomes. (d) BODIPY-transferrin labels the recycling endosome compartment, which is diffuse and punctate in the cytoplasm of MCF-7 cells. (e) BODIPY-transferrin labels the recycling endosome compartment, which is compact and polarized to one side of the nucleus in MCF-7/ADR cells. (f) Subsequent labeling of the same cells with Adriamycin also localizes in a perinuclear compartment, which overlaps the compartment labeled in e. (g) NBD-ceramide labeling of the TGN in MCF-7 cells. The TGN are distributed nonuniformly throughout the cytoplasm. In some cells, the TGN is perinuclear but not polarized to one side of the nucleus. (h) NBD-ceramide labeling of the TGN in MCF-7/ADR cells. This compartment is compact and polarized to one side of the nucleus. (i) Subsequent labeling of the same cells with Adriamycin also localizes in a perinuclear compartment which overlaps with the TGN compartment labeled in h. Cells were either optically sectioned in 0.2-μm slices and optical sections at equivalent distances through the cell were compared, or the images were taken at a single focus which remained unchanged throughout the course of the experiments. The recycling compartment, lysosomes, and TGN were labeled as described in Materials and Methods. Scale bar, 10 μm.
In many cell types, the TGN and the recycling endosome compartment are found adjacent to the nucleus. These two compartments are also known to be acidic (40–42). Therefore, specific fluorescent probes were used to determine if the perinuclear Adriamycin accumulation in the MCF-7/ADR cells colocalized with these compartments. Due to the broad excitation and emission spectrum of Adriamycin, it was not possible to simultaneously label a cell with Adriamycin and available fluorescent markers for endosomes and the TGN. Therefore, colocalization was done by sequential labeling with Adriamycin and the organelle markers.

To examine whether Adriamycin colocalized with the recycling endosome compartment, cells were first labeled with BODIPY-transferrin by receptor-mediated endocytosis. In MCF-7/ADR cells, transferrin labeling revealed that the recycling endosomal compartment has a perinuclear localization (Fig. 2e). The transferrin label was subsequently chased out (half time = 5 min) with unlabeled transferrin. Next, the cells were incubated with Adriamycin for 20 min. In each cell, the region that labeled with BODIPY-transferrin was also labeled with Adriamycin (Fig. 2f). Thus, the Adriamycin accumulation colocalized with the recycling endosomes.

In some cell types, the TGN is in close proximity with the recycling endosome compartment (43, 44). To test if Adriamycin colocalized with the TGN in the MCF-7/ADR cells, the cells were sequentially labeled with Adriamycin and NBD-ceramide, a vital stain for the TGN (45).

A field of cells was labeled with Adriamycin (10 μM) (Fig. 2i). The cells were then washed with Adriamycin-free media until they no longer showed any Adriamycin labeling. Next, the cells were labeled with NBD-ceramide (Fig. 2h). Again, the region labeled with NBD-ceramide was also labeled with Adriamycin. Thus, Adriamycin accumulation is colocalized with the acidic organelles of the drug-resistant MCF-7/ADR cells—the recycling endosome compartment, the TGN, and the lysosomes.

**Location of the Lysosomes, Recycling Endosome Compartment, and the TGN in Drug-sensitive MCF-7 Cells**

There was little organellar labeling of Adriamycin in drug-sensitive MCF-7 cells (Fig. 1b). Therefore, the presence and distribution of each of these organelles in these cells were tested to determine if the organelles were either missing or present but failing to accumulate chemotherapeutic drugs. The distribution of the recycling endosome compartment was probed with BODIPY-transferrin, and the TGN was probed with NBD-ceramide (45). In the drug-sensitive MCF-7 cells, both the recycling endosome compartment (Fig. 2d) and the TGN (Fig. 2g) were distributed throughout the cytoplasm. Their distribution was very different from the MCF-7/ADR cells, where both compartments were distinctly perinuclear in location and polarized to one side of the nucleus. Furthermore, unlike the MCF-7/ADR cells, in the MCF-7 cells, Adriamycin was not concentrated in any of these compartments (Fig. 1b).

**Figure 3.** Distribution of lysosomes in MCF-7 and MCF-7ADR cells. LAMP-1 is a membrane protein of lysosomes which is found in punctate organelles throughout the cytoplasm of (a) MCF-7/ADR cells and (b) MCF-7 cells. Analysis of large fields of MCF-7 and MCF-7/ADR cells did not reveal any significant differences in the phenotypic distribution or number of lysosomes per cell. MCF-7/ADR and MCF-7 cells were fixed in paraformaldehyde as described in Materials and Methods. Scale bar, 10 μm.
The distribution of lysosomes in MCF-7 and MCF-7/ADR cells was compared using immunofluorescence for the lysosomal integral membrane protein LAMP-1 (46). LAMP-1 was chosen as an indicator rather than LysoSensor Blue because LysoSensor Blue requires acidified lysosomes for labeling. Both MCF-7/ADR cells (Fig. 3a) and MCF-7 cells (Fig. 3b) had punctate LAMP-1-labeled compartments in the cytoplasm. There was little qualitative or quantitative difference in the distribution of LAMP-1 labeling between the two cell types. In some MCF-7 and MCF-7/ADR cells, there was also a perinuclear staining for LAMP-1 which could be indicative of lysosomes or TGN since this membrane protein is sorted to the lysosomes from the TGN. Together, the results demonstrate that the recycling endosomes, TGN, and lysosomes are present in the MCF-7 cells but do not accumulate Adriamycin.

Subcellular pH Profiles of MCF-7 and MCF-7/ADR Cells

Many of the chemotherapeutic drugs, such as Adriamycin, vincristine, vinblastine, daunomycin, and mitoxantrone, are heterocyclic amines (see Fig. 4) (15, 16, 47). With $pK_a$ values at or just above physiological pH, they are weak bases and are membrane permeable only in the noncharged form. This has been tested empirically in single-membrane model systems of liposomes (48) and anucleate red blood cells (18, 19). In liposomes in which the luminal compartments are more acidic relative to the external medium, there is a net luminal accumulation of Adriamycin. The magnitude of this pH-dependent luminal accumulation closely approximates theoretical calculations. For example, Adriamycin with $pK_a$ of 8.3 accumulates ~100-fold in a liposome with a luminal pH of 6 and an external pH of 8 (48). As shown above (Fig. 2, b, c, e, f, h, and i), Adriamycin accumulation colocalized with each of the acidic organelles of the cell. However, Adriamycin did not accumulate within these same organelles in the drug-sensitive MCF-7 cells. Therefore, the pH was examined in the cytosol and organelles of MCF-7 and MCF-7/ADR cells to determine whether the failure to concentrate Adriamycin in the organelles of MCF-7 cells was the consequence of a failure to acidify.

Qualitative pH Profile Monitored with Acridine Orange. Acridine orange is a fluorescent weak base that is used frequently as a probe for acidification of organelles (49, 50). When accumulated in high concentrations in acidic compartments, its emission shifts from green to red (50). MCF-7 and MCF-7/ADR cells were incubated with acridine orange. In drug-resistant MCF-7/ADR cells, there was a red-orange fluorescence in discrete cytoplasmic organelles (Fig. 5a), indicating acridine orange accumulation and thus an acidified compartment. This fluorescent pattern is similar to that observed in various nontransformed cells, such as the MCF-10F cells (Fig. 5d), parietal cells (51), pituitary cells (53), and Xenopus oocytes (54). The MCF-10F cells originated from a female patient with normal nonmalignant breast tissue. These cells have a normal or near-normal karyotype (55). The cytosol and nucleoplasm of MCF-10F cells show a diffuse green fluorescence.
In contrast, acridine orange in the MCF-7 cells had significantly fewer red-orange fluorescent compartments, indicating many fewer acidic vesicles (Fig. 5 b). The fluorescence of acridine orange does not give any information as to the identity of the acidic compartments or the absolute value of the pH within these compartments. Therefore, subsequent experiments used ratiometric pH probes targeted to specific organelles and whose pH could be calibrated in situ. A similar qualitative difference in the distribution of acridine orange has also been observed in K-562 drug-sensitive and drug-resistant human erythroblasta

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Table 1. Summary of Endosome, Lysosome, Cytosol, and Nucleoplasm pH

| Compartment | Endosome | Lysosome | Cytosol | Nucleoplasm |
|-------------|----------|----------|---------|-------------|
| pH MCF-7    | 6.6 ± 0.1| N D      | >5.8    | 6.75 ± 0.3  | 7.1 ± 0.1  |
| ΔpH to cytosol | 0.15 | N D      | <0.9    | -           | -0.35      |
| ΔpH to media | 0.7    | N D      | <1.5    | 0.55        | 0.2         |
| pH MCF-7/ADR | 6.1 ± 0.1| 5.1 ± 0.1| <5.8    | 7.15 ± 0.1  | 7.2 ± 0.1  |
| ΔpH to cytosol | 1.05 | 2.05     | >1.35   | -           | -0.05      |
| ΔpH to media | 1.2    | 2.2      | >1.5    | 0.15        | 0.1         |

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temporary shearing of the plasma membrane, which allows the impermeant macromolecules to diffuse into the cytosol. Since the pH probe SNARF is conjugated to a dextran, once introduced into the cytosol it does not cross cellular membranes. To measure the pH within the cytosol, the probe was conjugated to a 70-kD dextran which is too large to pass through the nuclear pores (Fig. 6a). To measure the pH within the nucleoplasm, the probe was conjugated to a 10-kD dextran, which is too large to cross membranes into organelles but still small enough to pass through the nuclear pores (Fig. 6b).

These measurements show that MCF-7 cells have an average cytosolic pH of 6.75 ± 0.3, which is 0.4 U lower than the cytosolic pH of MCF-7/ADR cells (pH 7.15 ± 0.3).

Figure 5. There is a lack of acidification within the subcellular compartments of drug-sensitive MCF-7 cells as assayed by acridine orange. Acridine orange is a weak base that fluoresces red when it accumulates in acidic compartments. (a) In MCF-7/ADR cells, there are many punctate red-orange fluorescing compartments throughout the cytoplasm, which is indicative of acidic organelles. (b) In MCF-7 cells, there is little red-orange fluorescence from acridine orange. This is diagnostic for few acidified organelles. Note also that the nucleus of MCF-7 cells takes up a greater amount of acridine orange than the nucleus of MCF-7/ADR cells. (c) In MCF-10F cells, a nontransformed human breast epithelial cell line, there are many punctate red-orange fluorescing compartments distributed throughout the cytoplasm, indicative of acidic organelles. a and b were observed using confocal microscopy; c was observed under epifluorescence. Scale bar, 5 μm.

Figure 6. Specific loading of a pH probe into the cytosol of MCF-7 cells. Cells were scrape loaded with SNARF-dextran as described in Materials and Methods. Scale bar, 5 μm. (a) 70-kD SNARF-dextran loaded into MCF-7 cells. The fluorescence was excluded from the nucleoplasm and was observed as diffuse cytoplasmic fluorescence. Conjugated to a dextran, it cannot cross internal membranes. Thus, it specifically reports the pH of the cytosol. (b) MCF-7 cells were loaded with a 10-kD SNARF-dextran. The probe is present in both the cytosol and nucleoplasm. The distribution of these probes in MCF-7/ADR cells is similar. Note that in some cells, the SNARF-dextran has a punctate distribution in some areas of the cytoplasm, which may be due to an aberrant aggregation of SNARF-dextran. All pH measurements were taken from a region of cytoplasm where there was no aggregation of the probe.
0.1) when the extracellular medium is buffered at pH 7.3 (Table 1). The pH of the nucleoplasm in both cell types was 0.1–0.3 pH U more alkaline than the cytosol pH (Table 1). This is consistent with another recent report, which finds a more alkaline nucleoplasmic pH (60). The higher cytosolic pH of MCF-7/ADR cells results in a lower plasma membrane ΔpH and contributes to a greater organellar ΔpH. This is consistent with the hypothesis that the distribution of the weak base Adriamycin (Fig. 1) is affected by pH gradients across membranes.

Effect of Ionophores and Blockers of the H⁺-ATPase on the Response of MCF-7/ADR Cells to Adriamycin. These results demonstrate a large difference in the subcellular pH profile between the drug-resistant and drug-sensitive cell types.
Inhibitors of the vacuolar proton ATPases disrupt the acidification of drug-resistant MCF-7/ADR cells and redistribute the Adriamycin to the nucleus as assayed by laser-scanning confocal microscopy. Scale bar in c and d is 2 μM, and in a, b, and e–h is 5 μM. (a) MCF-7/ADR cells were labeled with acridine orange as in the citation to Fig. 5. The punctate red-orange fluorescence in the cytoplasm is diagnostic for acidified organelles. (b) The same cells as in a, 30 min after addition of bafilomycin A1 (500 nM). Note the disappearance of punctate red-orange cytoplasmic fluorescence, indicative of reduced acidification. (c) MCF-7/ADR cells were incubated with Adriamycin as in the citation to Fig. 1. The Adriamycin fluorescence is observed within punctate cytoplasmic organelles which colocalize with lysosomes (see Fig. 2, g–i) and with a perinuclear compartment which colocalizes with the TGN (see Fig. 2, d–f) and the recycling endosomes (see Fig. 2, a–c). (d) The same cells as in c, 30 min after addition of bafilomycin A1 (500 nM). The fluorescence of Adriamycin is decreased substantially in all cytoplasmic compartments and increased in the nucleoplasm. (e) Acridine orange–labeled MCF-7/ADR cells as in a. (f) The same cells as in e, 30 min after inclusion of concanamycin (100 nM) in the incubation media. The punctate red-orange fluorescence from acridine orange accumulation is almost completely dissipated. (g) Fluorescence of Adriamycin in MCF-7/ADR cells. (h) The same cells as in g, 30 min after inclusion of concanamycin (100 nM) in the incubation media. There is a substantial decrease of Adriamycin fluorescence in punctate cytoplasmic organelles and pericentriolar compartment. In contrast, there is significant increase of Adriamycin fluorescence in the nucleus.
tant MCF-7/ADR cells, including the lysosomes, recycling
protonated, thereby sequestered from the cytosol, and se-
nucleoplasm. This distribution of Adriamycin in cells where
compartments and a diffuse increase across the cytoplasm and
Adriamycin: a decrease in the punctate cytoplasmic com-
had no effect on the red spectral shift within the vesicles, indi-
this redistribution in these compartments. Similar
results were seen with the potassium/proton exchanger
nigericin (data not shown).

These experiments were repeated with bafilomycin A1
and concanamycin A, which specifically block the proton
ATPase. Thus, their mechanism of inhibiting the acidifica-
tion of endosomes, lysosomes, and TGN is totally different
from the ionophores monensin and nigericin. The punctate
red acridine orange labeling of acidic organelles in MCF-7/
ADR cells (Fig. 7 a) when treated with monensin (Fig. 7 b)
did not exhibit the red spectral shift within the vesicles, indi-
the loss of acidification in these compartments. Sim-
lar results were seen with the potassium/proton exchanger
nigericin (data not shown).

The distribution of Adriamycin in MCF-7/ADR cells
(Fig. 7 c and Fig. 8, c and g) was monitored upon addition
of either monensin (Fig. 7 d), bafilomycin A1 (Fig. 8 d), or
concanamycin A (Fig. 8 h). Treatment with any of the
three different agents produced a similar redistribution of
Adriamycin: a decrease in the punctate cytoplasmic com-
partments and a diffuse increase across the cytoplasm and
nucleoplasm. This distribution of Adriamycin in cells where
organelle acidification is blocked is similar to that observed
in the drug-sensitive MCF-7 cells (Fig. 1 b).

Discussion

Most chemotherapeutic agents have sites of action in the
nucleus or in the cytosol. Therefore, their toxicity depends
upon their concentration in either of these two compart-
ments. The PSS hypothesis proposes that the concentration
of weak base chemotherapeutic drugs in both the cytosol
and nucleoplasm is regulated by the ability of cytoplasmic
organelles to sequester the drugs away from the cytosol.
The PSS hypothesis is based on the assumption that chem-
otherapeutic drugs entering acidic organelles should become
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scopic level with the acidic organelles of living drug-resis-
tant MCF-7/ADR cells, including the lysosomes, recycling
endosome compartment, and the TGN. Our result is consis-
tent with an ultrastructural study of drug-resistant NIH 3T3
cells, which showed that the Golgi compartment and lys-
osomes were labeled by a photoprecipitate of Adriamycin (14).

The PSS hypothesis predicts that these differ-
ences in acidification are causally related to the drug-resis-
tance phenotype. As a test of this hypothesis, the subcellular
pH profile of drug-resistant MCF-7/ADR cells was changed
to resemble that of drug-sensitive MCF-7 cells while moni-
oring the distribution of the chemotherapeutic drug Adri-
amycin. To do this, the sodium/proton exchanger mon-
ensin, which dissipates pH gradients across all membranes
(21, 61, 62), and the vacuolar proton ATPase inhibitors ba-
filomycin A1 and concanamycin A (62, 63) were used to
block acidification. Acridine orange–labeled MCF-7/ADR
cells (Fig. 8 a) when treated with monensin (Fig. 8 b) did
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 discuss two aberrations of cellular pH regulation in the MCF-7
drug-sensitive tumor cell line. First, there is a failure to acidify
organelles as measured both qualitatively (Fig. 5, and reference 21) and
quantitatively (Table 1). Second, we have found that the
cytosol in MCF-7 cells is 0.4 pH U more acidic than the
cytosol of MCF-7/ADR cells. As described below, both of
these features will increase the concentration of chemotherapeutic
drugs in the cytosol and nucleoplasm of drug-
sensitive tumor cells relative to the concentrations in drug-
resistant or nontransformed cells. We have observed similar
results on organellar acidification in the SW-48 human
colon cell line and the MDA-231 (estrogen receptor-
itive) human breast cancer line, and qualitatively similar ob-
servations have been reported for the K-562 erythroleukemia cell line (26).
Chemotherapy relies upon tumor cells being more sensitive to chemotherapeutic drugs than
nontransformed cells. We propose that one factor that might
contribute to this enhanced sensitivity in these drug-sen-
sitive cells is a failure of the PSS mechanism.

Effects of Plasma Membrane \( \Delta pH \) on Drug Distribution.
The pH gradient across the plasma membrane of MCF-7
cells is 0.55 pH U, whereas in drug-resistant MCF-7/ADR cells,
it is 0.15 pH U. Therefore, at equilibrium conditions, there
will be \(~2.5\) fold greater accumulation of Adriamycin in
the cytosol of MCF-7 cells than in that of MCF-7/ADR cells.

Effects of Organellar Membrane \( \Delta pH \) on Drug Distribution.
The pH gradients across the organelles of the MCF-7 cells
were almost zero (Table 1). Thus, the organelles could not
accumulate chemotherapeutic drugs. In contrast, the pH
gradient between the recycling endosome compartment
and the cytosol of MCF-7/ADR cells is calculated to be an
average of 1.0 pH U, which would cause a 10-fold accumula-
tion in this organelle. The \( \Delta pH \) between the lysosome
and cytosol in MCF-7/ADR cells is \(<2.0\) pH U. Thus, the lys-
somes of MCF-7/ADR cells should accumulate at least
100-fold more Adriamycin than the cytosol.

If the distribution of Adriamycin reached an equilibrium,
the cytosolic concentration would be solely dependent on
the \( \Delta pH \) across the plasma membrane and extracellular
drug concentration. Acidic organelles would accumulate
high levels of drugs, but could not lower the cytosolic con-
centration. However, a large body of work has shown that
many acidic organelles, including the TGN and recycling
endosomes, continuously secrete their contents by exocy-
tosis. This active process, if fast relative to the diffusion of
extracellular drug into the cytosol, will keep cytosolic and
nuclear drug levels low. Drug concentrations would not
reach equilibrium distribution but would remain at a steady
date due to the continuous cycling of acidic organelles.
Thus, organellar acidification would lower the concentra-
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Discussion

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we observed between MCF-7 and MCF-7/ADR cells (Fig. 1). In drug-resistant MCF-7/ADR cells, Adriamycin was sequestered within subcellular organelles, decreasing the drug concentration within the cytoplasm and, accordingly, in the cytosol as well. The high density of organelles throughout the cytoplasm makes it impossible to resolve Adriamycin fluorescence selectively from the cytosol. As a first approximation, we assume that the cytoplasmic concentration reflects the free cytosolic concentration, since Adriamycin should be freely permeable through both the nuclear envelope and the nuclear pores, whose size cut-off is 25 nm [64]). In drug-sensitive cells, in the absence of an organelar mechanism for sequestration, a greater percentage of incoming Adriamycin remained in the cytosol with access to binding sites within the nucleus. The PSS hypothesis proposes that cytosolic/nucleoplasmic drug concentrations are a function of the ΔpH and drug permeability of the plasma membrane, the ΔpH and drug permeability of the organelar membrane, and the rate of exocytosis. Hence, nuclear/cytosolic drug levels would be increased by (a) elevated plasma membrane ΔpH, which would increase cytosolic drug accumulation; (b) decreased organelar ΔpH, which would decrease sequestration; and (c) decreased rate of secretion, which would permit the drug levels to equilibrate across organelle membranes. The PSS hypothesis predicts that at a steady state, dissipation of plasma membrane ΔpH will decrease drug sensitivity, whereas dissipation of organelar ΔpH and/or decreasing the rate of secretion will increase drug sensitivity.

MDR in tumors could stem from a number of cell biological changes. The most frequently proposed mechanism for MDR in tumors is a plasma membrane-based efflux pump that uses ATP to transport chemotherapeutic drugs (4). This idea is based on studies in cell lines that express two of the proteins implicated in multidrug resistance, Pgp and MRP. The evidence includes the observations that (a) addition of azide to these cells increases nuclear accumulation of chemotherapeutic drugs; (b) both Pgp and MRP have ATP-binding domains; and (c) chemotherapeutic drugs modified with photoactive groups can be used to label Pgp. The PSS mechanism tested in this paper may be an additional mechanism for drug resistance working separately from the Pgp and MRP drug-efflux pumps.

It is also possible that both Pgp and MRP contribute to the PSS mechanism by affecting organelle pH. Indeed, it has been demonstrated that transfection of cells with Pgp results in an alkaline shift of the cytosolic pH (23) and total cellular pH (24) consistent with the pH shift seen in resistant cells (Table 1). One clue to the mechanism for this pH shift may come from the structural homology between Pgp, MRP, and the ATP-binding cassette family of proteins, which includes the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator, a chloride channel expressed in lung epithelial cells. In cells defective in cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator, there is reduced acidification of the TGN and recycling endosome compartments (65). Acidification of organelles requires a proton ATPase. However, proton pumping alone is not sufficient to acidify to levels seen in organelles such as endosomes and lysosomes. The membrane potential caused by the proton gradient blocks the activity of the proton ATPase. Thus, anion channels are necessary to dissipate the membrane potential and keep the proton ATPase pumping protons (40, 66). Both Pgp and MRP have been observed to be components of intracellular membranes (67, 68). They might either form ion channels or modify the activity of ion channels (69–73). If the MCF-7 cells were missing a counterion transport, this would limit acidification of the organelles. The presence of Pgp or MRP may facilitate a counterion transport, allowing restoration of acidification within these organelles in the MCF-7/ADR cells. However, there is still disagreement over whether Pgp forms an ion channel (69, 74).

There are differences in the pH gradients across both the plasma membrane and organelar membranes between drug-sensitive and drug-resistant cells (Table 1). Results presented here indicate that the cellular organelles are critical determinants of cellular sensitivity to chemotherapeutic drugs that are weak bases. Monensin disrupts pH gradients across all cellular membranes. Dissipation of plasma membrane ΔpH should decrease the cytosolic concentration of adriamycin in MCF-7/ADR cells, and conversely, dissipation of organelar ΔpH should increase cytosolic and nucleoplasmic adriamycin. The observation that monensin increases the nucleoplasmic concentration of adriamycin (Fig. 7d) and increases substantially the sensitivity of MCF-7/ADR cells to adriamycin (21) suggests that organelar pH gradients may be a greater contribution to adriamycin distribution than plasma membrane pH gradients. Further, both bafilomycin A1 and concanamycin A, which specifically block the vacuolar proton ATPase in endosomes and lysosomes (62, 63) and TGN of eukaryotic cells (42), increase adriamycin levels in the nucleus (Fig. 8, d and h). Thus, the drug-resistant phenotype—both sequestration of drugs into cytoplasmic organelles and the sensitivity of cells to the weak base chemotherapeutic drugs—is causally dependent upon organelle acidification. The pH gradient across the plasma membrane may make significant contributions to the sensitivity of drug-resistant cells to non-weak base chemotherapeutic drugs such as colchicine and taxol. The binding of colchicine to tubulin is pH dependent and is favored at more acidic pH (75). Similarly, an acidic pH favors the stabilization of microtubules by taxol (76). Thus, the acidic cytoplasmic pH of tumor cells increases the activity of chemotherapeutic drugs. The more neutral pH of nontransformed and MDR cells decreases their activity.

In the PSS model, acidification of organelles plays a direct role in the accumulation of weak base chemotherapy agents. Still, it remains to be determined whether the drugs are actually exocytosed from the cell, and whether acidification may subserve other functions in pathways of cellular detoxification. Further, we do not know if sequestering chemotherapeutic drugs within subcellular organelles followed by secretion is sufficient to account for all the drug
resistance of MCF-7/ADR cells. However, based on the observation that disrupting organellar acidification in drug-resistant MCF-7/ADR cells (with either the protonophore monensin or H^+ -ATPase blockers bafilomycin A1 and concanamycin A) both reverses the subcellular Adriamycin distribution to that seen in drug-sensitive MCF-7 cells (Figs. 7 and 8) and increases Adriamycin toxicity (21), we propose that the organelles make a significant contribution to the drug-resistance phenotype.

N. Altan would like to thank the Merinoff Foundation, M. Schindler the Pardee Foundation (Midland, MI), and S.M. Simon the Klick Foundation, the Woffensohn Foundation, the William and Helen Mazer Foundation, and the Irving A. Hansen Memorial Foundation for their financial support. Y. Chen was supported by National Institutes of Health grant GM-07739.

Address correspondence to Sanford Simon, Laboratory of Cellular Biophysics, Box 304, Rockefeller University, 1230 York Ave., New York, NY 10021. Phone: 212-327-8130; Fax: 212-327-8022; E-mail: simon@rockvax.rockefeller.edu

Received for publication 23 October 1997 and in revised form 2 March 1998.

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