

Role of the N-terminal Transmembrane Region of the Multidrug Resistance Protein MRP2 in Routing to the Apical Membrane in MDCKII Cells*

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In polarized cells, the multidrug resistance protein MRP2 is localized in the apical plasma membrane, whereas MRP1, another multidrug resistance protein (MRP) family member, is localized in the basolateral membrane. MRP1 and MRP2 are thought to contain an N-terminal region of five transmembrane segments (TMD₀) coupled to 2 times six transmembrane segments via an intracellular loop (L₀). We previously demonstrated for MRP1 that a mutant lacking TMD₀ but still containing L₀, called L₀ΔMRP1, was functional and routed to the lateral plasma membrane. To investigate the role of the TMD₀L₀ region of MRP2 in routing to the apical membrane, we generated mutants similar to those made for MRP1. In contrast to L₀ΔMRP1, L₀ΔMRP2 was associated with an intracellular compartment, most likely endosomes. Co-expression with TMD₀, however, resulted in apical localization of L₀ΔMRP2 and transport activity. Uptake experiments with vesicles containing L₀ΔMRP2 demonstrated that the molecule is able to transport LTC₄. An MRP2 mutant without TMD₀L₀, ΔMRP2, was only core-glycosylated and localized intracellularly. Co-expression of ΔMRP2 with TMD₀L₀ resulted in an increased protein level of ΔMRP2, full glycosylation of the protein, routing to the apical membrane, and transport activity. Our results suggest that the TMD₀ region is required for routing to or stable association with the apical membrane.

Several members of the ATP-binding cassette superfamily of transporter proteins are able to confer multidrug resistance to tumor cells. Examples are MDR1 P-glycoprotein (1) and members of the multidrug resistance protein (MRP)¹ family, MRP1

and MRP2 (2, 3). Whereas MDR1 Pgp preferably transports large amphipathic molecules (4), MRP1 and MRP2 transport in addition acidic compounds with a large hydrophobic moiety such as drugs conjugated with glutathione, glucuronide, or sulfate (5–7). MRP1- and MRP2-mediated transport of cytotoxic drugs not known to be conjugated to negatively charged ligands is most likely due to co-transport with reduced glutathione (8–12). Besides MRP1 and MRP2, there are seven other MRP homologs expressed in humans, designated MRP3 to -9 (13–15). MRP3 to -5 can confer resistance against some anti-cancer drugs and are able to transport certain organic anions (16–21).

The predicted membrane topology of MDR1 Pgp and MRPs is different. Whereas MDR1 Pgp and MRPs share a similar core region consisting of two times six transmembrane regions and two intracellular ATP-binding cassettes, MRP1 and MRP2, and several other members of the MRP family contain an extra amino-terminal domain of about 280 amino acids (22–26) (see also Fig. 1). This latter domain is thought to consist of five transmembrane segments and is bound to the core region via an intracellular loop (L₀) of ~80 amino acids. By producing various mutants of MRP1 in baculovirus-infected insect cells, we and others previously showed that the MRP1 core, called ΔMRP1, was inactive. Co-expression of the core (ΔMRP1) with TMD₀L₀, however, resulted in an active transporter (24, 27). Interestingly, extending the core region with the intracellular loop L₀ alone also resulted in transport activity, indicating that the TMD₀ region is dispensable for the function of MRP1 (27). In a recent report, we demonstrated that co-expression of the L₀ peptide with ΔMRP1 in insect cells resulted in an active transporter, suggesting that L₀ forms a distinct domain within MRP1 that specifically interacts with the core region (28).

In polarized monolayers of Madin-Darby canine kidney (MDCKII) cells, MDR1 Pgp and MRP2 are localized in the apical membrane, whereas MRP1 is found in the lateral membrane (29, 30, 27, 31). Interestingly, the MRP1 molecule containing L₀ but lacking the TMD₀ segment (L₀ΔMRP1), which showed activity in insect cells, was also active in MDCKII cells and routed to the lateral plasma membrane (27).

To examine whether the TMD₀ segment is dispensable for the routing of MRP2 to the apical membrane, we have constructed similar mutants as described above for MRP1. Our results show that the TMD₀ region of MRP2 is required for

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¹ The abbreviations used are: MRP, human multidrug resistance protein; ALLN, N-acetyl-L-leucil-L-leucil-L-norleucinal; ECFP, enhanced cyan fluorescent protein; DNP-GS, dinitrophenyl S-glutathione; LTC₄, leukotriene C₄; MDR1, multidrug resistance protein 1; Pgp,

P-glycoprotein; mAb, monoclonal antibody; CDNB, 1-chloro-2,4-dinitrobenzene; CFTR, cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator.

apical routing in MDCKII cells and/or for the stabilization of the protein in the apical plasma membrane, in contrast to what was previously found for MRP1.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Materials— ^3H Vinblastine (9.4 Ci/mmol), inulin- ^{14}C carboxylic acid (6.4 mCi/mmol; average molecular weight 5175), and ^{14}C 1-chloro-2,4-dinitrobenzene (^{14}C CDNB; 10 mCi/mmol) were from Amersham Biosciences. ^3H LTC₄ (135 Ci/mmol) was from PerkinElmer Life Sciences. Lactacystin and *N*-acetyl-L-leucyl-L-leucyl-L-norleucinal (ALLN) were from Calbiochem, and tunicamycin was from Sigma (Deisenhofen, Germany). pECFP-Endo and pECFP-Golgi vectors were from CLONTECH. Alexa Fluor 532 goat anti-mouse Ig (H + L) conjugate was from Molecular Probes, Inc. (Eugene, OR). Fluorescein isothiocyanate-labeled sheep anti-mouse IgG was from Chemicon International, Inc. (Temecula, CA).

Generation of MRP2 Variants and Their Expression in MDCKII Cells—All MRP2 (ABCC2) mutants used in this study (see Fig. 1) were generated by PCR using the human MRP2 sequence as the template (32) (GenBank™ accession number U49248). The HA-TMD₀ fragment encompasses amino acids 2–189 with a hemagglutinin tag (amino acids MAYPYDVPDYA) fused to the amino terminus. TMD₀L₀ encompasses amino acids 1–305, ΔMRP2 represents amino acids 306–1545, and L₀ΔMRP2 represents amino acids 189–1545. PCR fragments were verified by sequence analysis. Further details are available upon request. MRP2, ΔMRP2, and L₀ΔMRP2 were inserted into the retroviral vector pCMV-neo (33); HA-TMD₀ and TMD₀L₀ were inserted into the retroviral vector pBabe-CMV-Puro (kindly provided by Dr. J. Wijnholds, Netherlands Cancer Institute, Amsterdam, The Netherlands; see also Bakos *et al.* (28)). Retroviral transductions of MDCKII cells were performed as described previously (30). After selection of transduced cells with either G418 (800 μg/ml) or puromycin (2 μg/ml), single clones were isolated. Detection of the various mutant MRP2 molecules was performed by Western blotting. Proteins were detected using the appropriate monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) (see Fig. 2A).

Expression of MRP2 and L₀ΔMRP2 in Insect Cells and Vesicle Uptake Experiments—L₀ΔMRP2 cDNAs were removed from the pCMV-L₀ΔMRP2 construct and subcloned into the pAcUW21 plasmid (Invitrogen). pAcUW21-MRP2 was described previously (28). Recombinant baculovirus was prepared and cultured as described by Bakos *et al.* (27) by using the BaculoGold transfection kit (Pharmlingen, San Diego, CA). ^3H LTC₄ uptake experiments were performed as described previously (27).

Immunocytochemistry—Cells were grown on microporous polycarbonate membrane filters (3-μm pore size, 24-mm diameter, Transwell™ 3414; Corning Costar Corp., Cambridge, MA) at a density of 5×10^5 cells/well as described previously (30). Antibody incubations were as described previously (30). Cells were examined with a Leica TCS SP confocal laser-scanning microscope (Leica Microsystems Heidelberg GmbH, Mannheim, Germany) equipped with a $\times 63$ objective. For the co-localization experiments (see Fig. 7), cells were examined with a Zeiss Laser-Scanning Microscope LSM410 equipped with a $\times 40$ objective. Enhanced cyan fluorescent protein (ECFP) was excited with a krypton 413 laser line; Alexa 532 was excited with a HeNe 543 laser line.

Transfection of pECFP Vectors in MDCKII Cells—MDCKII-MRP2 and MDCKII-L₀ΔMRP2 cells were seeded in 12-well plates (3-μm pore size, 12-mm diameter, Transwell™ 3402; Corning Costar Corp., Cambridge, MA) at a density of 1.5×10^5 cells/well. The next day, cells were transiently transfected with pECFP-Endo (0.8 g) or pECFP-Golgi (1.25 g) using LipofectAMINE™ 2000 reagent (Invitrogen) according to the instructions of the manufacturer. Five hours after the transfection, the medium was replaced with Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium. Cells were analyzed after culturing for 24 h. Longer incubation times resulted in toxic effects of the pECFP vectors.

Transport Assays with MDCKII Cells—Cells were grown for 3 days on microporous polycarbonate filters at a density of 2×10^6 cells/well. Export of ^{14}C dinitrophenyl glutathione (^{14}C DNP-GS) from cells was determined by incubating cells with ^{14}C CDNB as described previously (30). ^3H Vinblastine transport assays were carried out exactly as described (30).

Deglycosylation Experiments and Treatment with Proteasome Inhibitors—Cells were seeded in Petri dishes and grown overnight. The next day, tunicamycin (1.5 μg/ml) was added to the medium, and cells were harvested at the time points indicated. For treatment with proteasome inhibitors, cells were seeded as mentioned above. The next day, lacta-

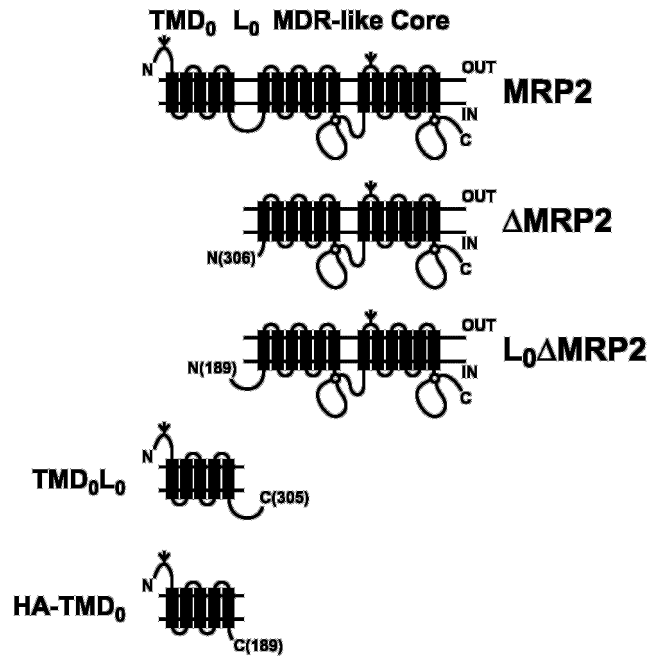


FIG. 1. Schematic representation of the MRP2 mutants used in this study. Putative glycosylation sites are indicated by branched motifs.

cystin (50 μM) or ALLN (50 μg/ml) was added to the medium. Cells were harvested after an incubation time of 8 h.

RESULTS

Generation of MDCKII Cells Expressing MRP2 Constructs—To investigate the role of the TMD₀L₀ segment in the routing and function of MRP2, the following mutants were generated (Fig. 1): (i) ΔMRP2 (amino acids 306–1545), (ii) HA-TMD₀ (HA tag followed by amino acids 2–189), (iii) TMD₀L₀ (amino acids 1–305), and (iv) L₀ΔMRP2 (amino acids 189–1545). The TMD₀L₀ and TMD₀ fragments were cloned into the retroviral pBabe-CMV-puro vector. ΔMRP2 and L₀ΔMRP2 were cloned into the pCMV-neo vector. The use of the pBabe-CMV-Puro and pCMV-neo vectors enabled the selection of two different constructs in one cell. The ΔMRP2 and L₀ΔMRP2 proteins were detected with mAb M₂III-6, TMD₀L₀ and L₀ΔMRP2 were detected with mAb M₂I-4, and HA-TMD₀ was detected with mAb 12CA5 (recognizing the HA epitope), as shown in Fig. 2A. Monoclonal antibody M₂III-6 was raised against amino acids 1339–1545 from rat Mrp2 (3) but also recognizes human MRP2 (32); mAb M₂I-4 was raised against amino acids 215–310 of human MRP2 (34).

We previously characterized MDCKII-derived cell lines stably producing the MRP2 protein (30). Using retroviral transductions, we generated MDCKII-derived clones stably expressing the ΔMRP2 or L₀ΔMRP2 constructs. By Western blot analysis, we identified several clones that produced relatively high amounts of L₀ΔMRP2 (Fig. 2B, lane 7). We also succeeded in isolating clones producing ΔMRP2, but the protein was difficult to detect in total cell lysates (not visible on the exposure of the Western blot shown in Fig. 2B, lane 3, but see Fig. 3). To investigate whether this was due to proteasome-mediated degradation, cells were incubated in the presence of the proteasome inhibitors ALLN and lactacystin, and this resulted in a clear increase in the amount of ΔMRP2 (Fig. 3).

The MDCKII-MRP2 and MDCKII-L₀ΔMRP2 cells were retrovirally transduced with plasmids containing either TMD₀L₀ or HA-TMD₀. Cells were selected with puromycin, and single clones were analyzed by Western blotting. As documented in Fig. 2, B and C, clones producing both the ΔMRP2 and

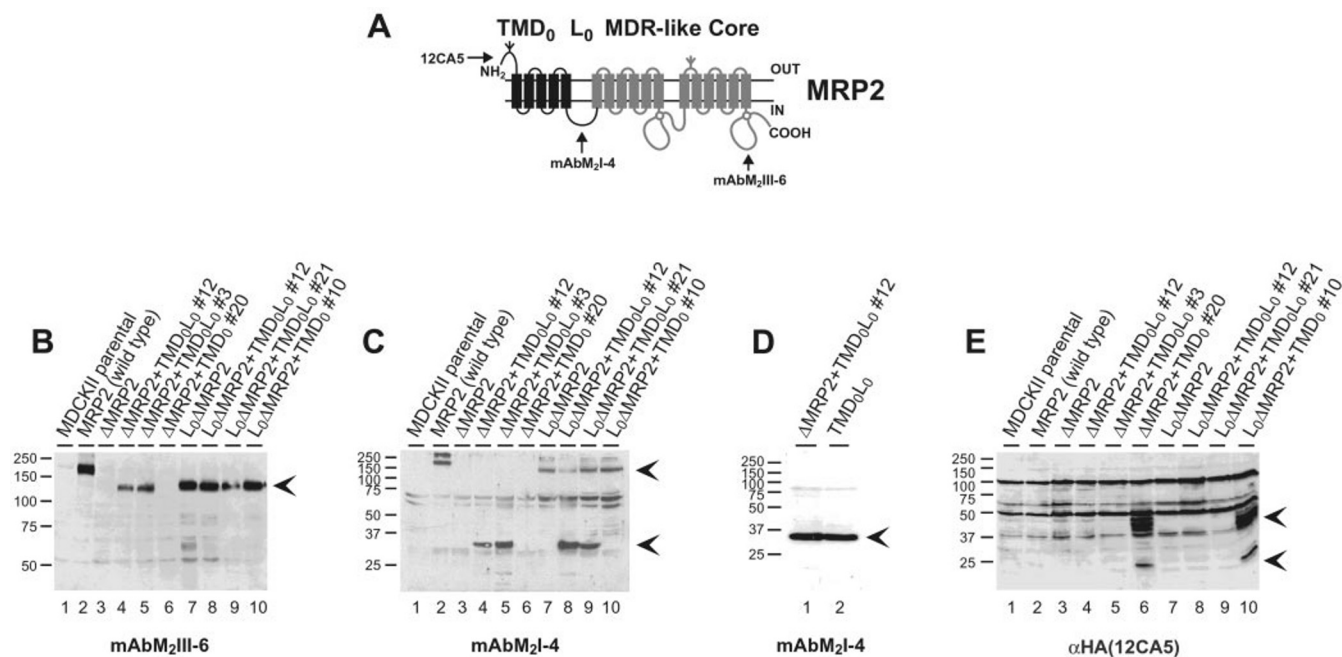


FIG. 2. Detection of MRP2 variants in MDCKII cells by Western blot analysis. A, schematic representation of MRP2. The regions recognized by the mAbs used are indicated. B–E, Western blot analysis with total cell lysates from MDCKII-derived clones. 20 μ g of protein was size-fractionated in a 7.5% (B) or 11% (C–E) denaturing polyacrylamide gel. After immunoblotting, MRP2 fragments were visualized with mAbs M₂III-6 (B), M₂I-4 (C and D), or 12CA5 (E). The relevant protein bands are marked with arrows. Protein-antibody interactions were detected using the enhanced chemiluminescence technique.

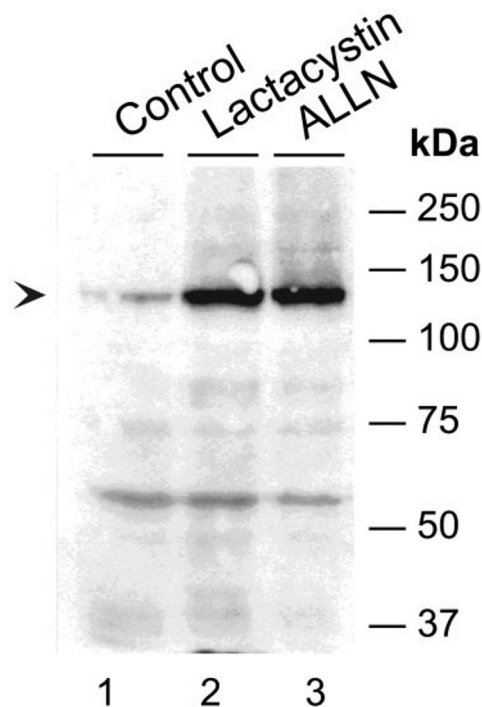


FIG. 3. Effect of proteasome inhibitors on the degradation of Δ MRP2. MDCKII- Δ MRP2 cells were treated without inhibitor (lane 1), lactacystin (50 μ M; lane 2), or ALLN (50 μ g/ml; lane 3). Cells were incubated with inhibitors for 8 h. Cell lysates (20 μ g) were size-fractionated in a 7.5% polyacrylamide gel (see Fig. 2). Δ MRP2 was detected with mAb M₂III-6.

TMD₀L₀ Δ protein were isolated. Remarkably, whereas Δ MRP2 produced alone was hardly detectable, co-production with TMD₀L₀ resulted in a strong increase in the amount of Δ MRP2 (Fig. 2B, lane 3 versus lanes 4 and 5). In the clone containing both Δ MRP2 and TMD₀ (without the L₀ part), the amount of Δ MRP2 was not increased (Fig. 2B, lane 6). Cells producing

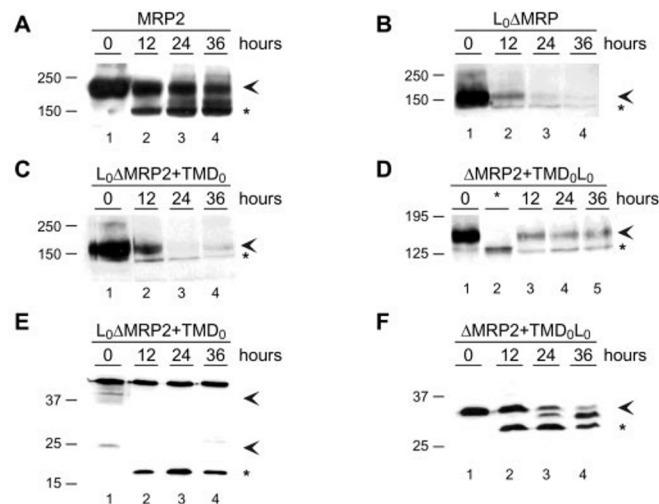


FIG. 4. Tunicamycin treatment of MDCKII-derived clones. Cells were treated with tunicamycin (1.5 μ g/ml) for 0, 12, 24, or 36 h. Lysates were size-fractionated in 7.5% (A–D) or 11% (E and F) polyacrylamide gels. Blots were incubated with mAbs M₂III-6 (A–D), 12CA5 (E), or M₂I-4 (F). The lane marked with an asterisk in D (lane 2) contains a lysate from MDCKII- Δ MRP2 cells treated with lactacystin. Arrows, glycosylated proteins; stars, deglycosylated proteins.

L₀ Δ MRP2 and TMD₀L₀ or TMD₀, respectively, were also isolated (Fig. 2, C and E, lanes 8–10). In these clones, no significant changes in the level of L₀ Δ MRP2 were observed (Fig. 2B). TMD₀ appeared as a discrete band with an apparent molecular mass of 24 kDa and a number of bands around 40 kDa (Fig. 2E, lanes 6 and 10). These are most likely explained by differential glycosylation as shown below. Whereas clones producing the TMD₀L₀ region alone were isolated (Fig. 2D, lane 2), we only detected TMD₀ if it was combined with Δ MRP2 (Fig. 2E, lane 6) or L₀ Δ MRP2 (Fig. 2E, lane 10).

The glycosylation sites present in MRP2 have not been mapped but, like in MRP1 (35), N-glycosylation sequences are

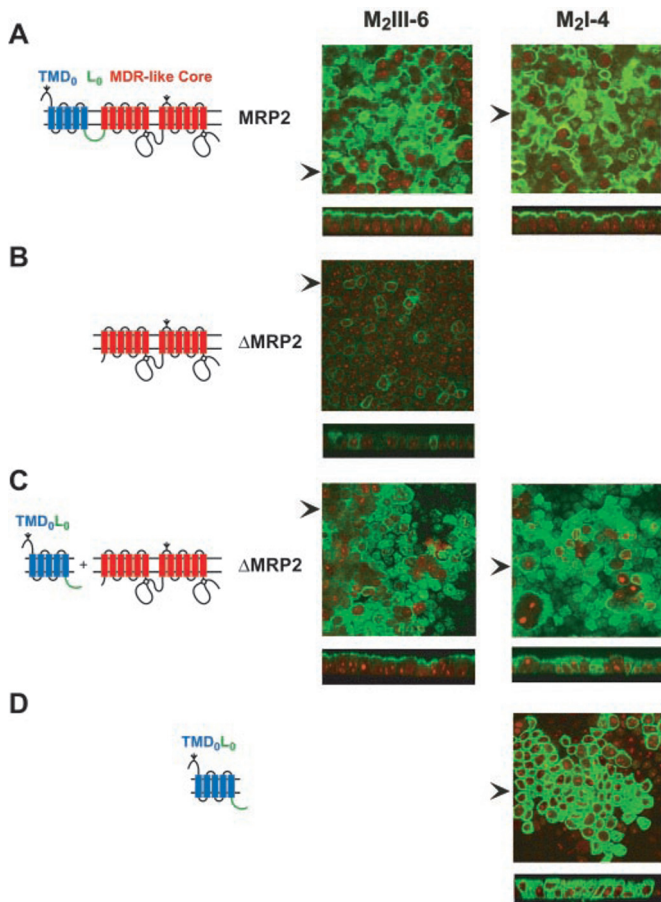


FIG. 5. Immunolocalization by confocal laser-scanning microscopy of MRP2 and Δ MRP2 plus N-terminal fragments in MDCKII monolayers. A, wild-type MRP2; B, Δ MRP2; C, TMD₀L₀ plus Δ MRP2; D, TMD₀L₀. The various proteins were detected by indirect immunofluorescence (green signal) with mAb M₂III-6 or M₂I-4. Antibody-antigen interactions were detected with a fluorescein isothiocyanate-labeled secondary antibody. Nucleic acids were detected by counterstaining with propidium iodide (red signal). The upper part of each panel shows a top (xy) view of the cell monolayer; the lower part shows a vertical (xz) section. The constructs stably expressed in the various cell lines are indicated on the left sides of the panels. The arrows indicate the position where the xz section was made.

present in the N terminus (amino acids 7 and 12) and between putative transmembrane segments 12 and 13 (amino acid 1011). To investigate whether the various fragments of MRP2 were glycosylated, cells were grown in the presence of tunicamycin, a drug preventing N-linked glycosylation. As expected, full-length MRP2 was glycosylated as illustrated by the appearance of a smaller band, around 150 kDa in the presence of tunicamycin (Fig. 4A). L₀ Δ MRP2 was glycosylated both in the presence and absence of TMD₀ (Fig. 4, B and C). Part of Δ MRP2 was core-glycosylated if produced alone, as illustrated by the band visible just above the unglycosylated protein (Fig. 4D, lane 2). Interestingly, Δ MRP2 became fully glycosylated if co-produced with the TMD₀L₀ polypeptide, and this glycosylation was inhibited by treatment with tunicamycin (Fig. 4D). The amounts of unglycosylated MRP2, L₀ Δ MRP2, and Δ MRP2 were strongly reduced compared with the glycosylated forms, suggesting that the unglycosylated proteins are rapidly degraded. Both the TMD₀ and TMD₀L₀ fragments were also glycosylated. An increased mobility of these proteins was observed in the presence of tunicamycin (Fig. 4, E and F). For MRP2 and TMD₀L₀, intermediate bands were observed between the glycosylated and deglycosylated proteins after *t* = 24 and 36 h (Fig. 4, A and F, lanes 3 and 4). These could either be due to

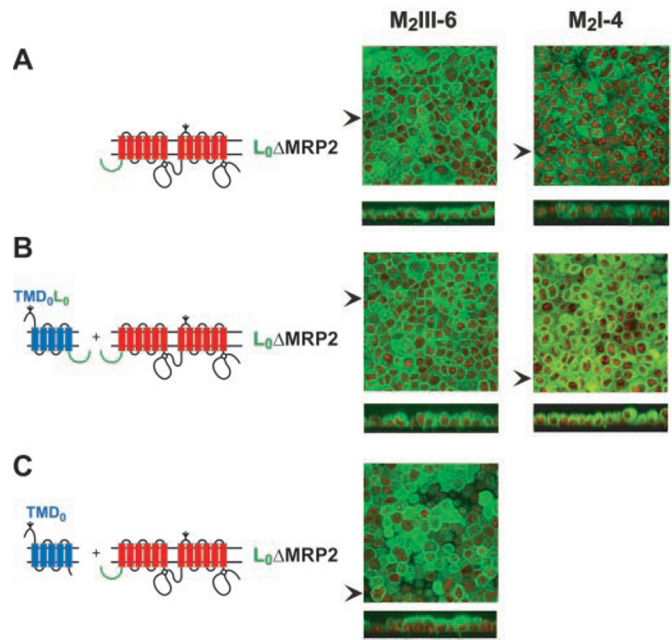


FIG. 6. Immunolocalization of L₀ Δ MRP2 and N-terminal fragments in MDCKII-derived monolayers. A, L₀ Δ MRP2; B, TMD₀L₀ plus L₀ Δ MRP2; C, TMD₀ plus L₀ Δ MRP2. For details, see the legend to Fig. 5.

proteolysis or partial deglycosylation by endogenous endoglycosidases.

Immunolocalization of MRP2 Mutants in MDCKII Monolayers—The subcellular localization of the various MRP2 mutants was determined by indirect immunofluorescence using confocal laser-scanning microscopy. The proteins were detected with the same mAbs as used in the Western blot experiments. Cells were analyzed at the horizontal plane (xy) and at the plane perpendicular to the monolayer (xz). The apically localized wild-type MRP2 was used as a control in these experiments (Fig. 5A). The results for Δ MRP2 can be summarized as follows: (i) Δ MRP2 alone was present in low concentrations in an intracellular compartment, probably the endoplasmic reticulum, but we have not verified this (Fig. 5B). (ii) Δ MRP2 in cells co-expressing TMD₀L₀ together with Δ MRP2 was mainly present in the apical membrane (Fig. 5C). A substantial amount of the TMD₀L₀ protein was localized intracellularly. Some protein, however, was also detected in the apical membrane. (iii) Δ MRP2 was detected intracellularly in cells co-expressing Δ MRP2 and TMD₀ (data not shown). (iv) The TMD₀L₀ polypeptide alone was localized in an intracellular compartment (Fig. 5D).

Since we previously found that L₀ Δ MRP1 was properly routed to the lateral membrane, we investigated whether L₀ Δ MRP2 similarly routed to the apical membrane. The results shown in Fig. 6 document the following. (i) The L₀ Δ MRP2 protein produced alone is localized intracellularly (Fig. 6A). (ii) In cells co-expressing L₀ Δ MRP2 and TMD₀, the L₀ Δ MRP2 protein was in the apical membrane, although some intracellular staining was also observed (Fig. 6C). In these cells, we could not visualize the TMD₀ polypeptide with mAb 12CA5 in immunofluorescence experiments. Full-length, HA-tagged MRP2 was also not detectable by immunofluorescence, although the protein was functional and visualized in Western blots with mAb 12CA5 (data not shown). The HA epitope is probably not accessible in these proteins, since we also did not succeed in detecting it with other anti-HA mAb or polyclonal antibodies using different fixation methods. (iii) In cells co-expressing L₀ Δ MRP2 and TMD₀L₀, both proteins were detected intracellularly (Fig. 6B). Taken together, these data suggest that the

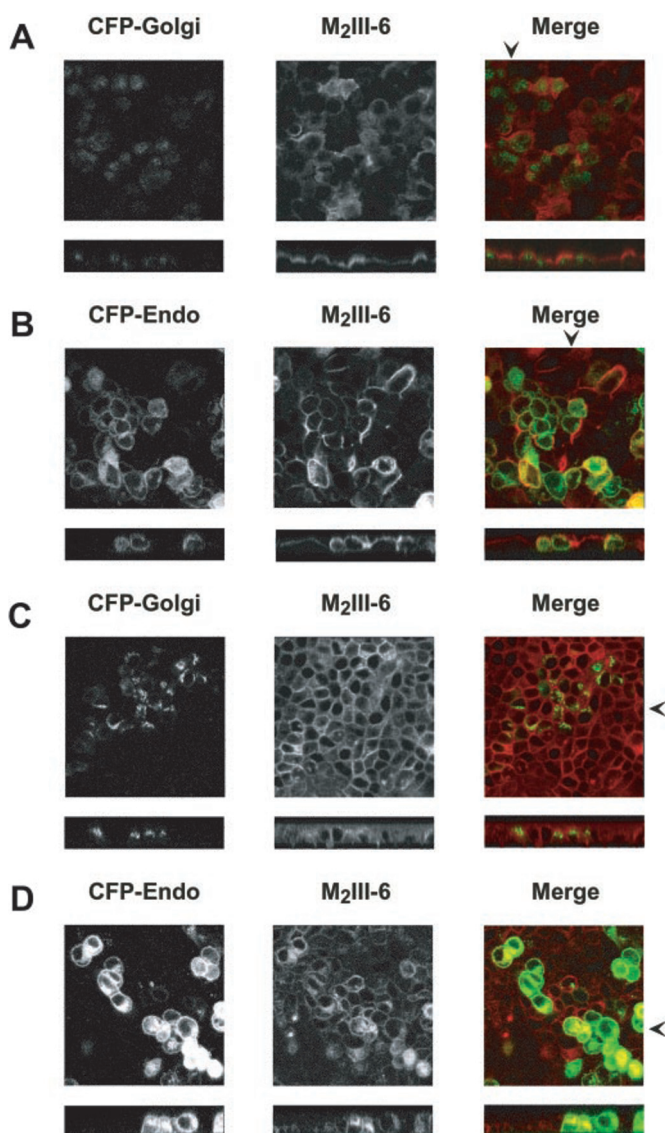


FIG. 7. Co-localization of $L_0\Delta$ MRP2 with the ECFP-Endo and ECFP-Golgi proteins in MDCKII-MRP2 and MDCKII- $L_0\Delta$ MRP2 cells. After fixing the cells, MRP2 (A and B) and $L_0\Delta$ MRP2 (C and D) were detected by indirect immunofluorescence using mAb M₂III-6 and Alexa 532. The left panels show the signal obtained with mAb M₂III-6, and the middle panels show the ECFP signal detected with pECFP-Golgi (A and C) and pECFP-Endo (B and D). The merge of the Alexa 532 (in red) and ECFP signals (in green) is shown in the panels on the right. Co-localization of both proteins is represented by a yellow signal. An arrow indicates the position where the *x/z* section was made.

TMD₀ and TMD₀L₀ polypeptides interact with $L_0\Delta$ MRP2 and Δ MRP2, respectively, to form a protein routed to the apical membrane.

Since L_0 -MRP2 is glycosylated, it most likely is not a folding mutant associated with the endoplasmic reticulum. To analyze whether the protein was associated with endosomes or the Golgi apparatus, we performed co-localization studies with fluorescently labeled marker proteins. As marker for the Golgi apparatus, we used a fusion protein consisting of ECFP and a sequence encoding the N-terminal 81 amino acids of human β -1,4-galactosyltransferase (pECFP-Golgi) (36). As a marker for endosomes, we used the pECFP-Endo vector, which encodes a fusion protein between ECFP and the human RhoB GTPase (37). Stable MDCKII-MRP2 and MDCKII- $L_0\Delta$ MRP2 cells were transiently transfected with the pECFP constructs. The co-localization of proteins in these assays resulted in a yellow signal after merging the ECFP signal (shown in green in Fig. 7,

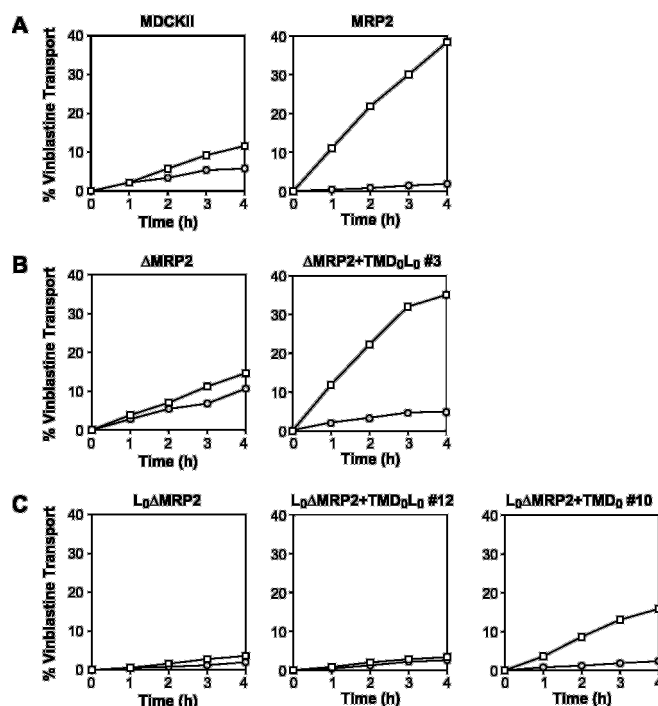


FIG. 8. Vectorial transport of [³H]vinblastine by MDCKII-derived monolayers. A–C, at *t* = 0, [³H]vinblastine (2 μ M) was applied either in the apical or in the basal compartment, and the percentage of radioactivity appearing in the opposite compartment was determined. Transport is presented as the fraction of radioactivity added at the beginning of the experiment, appearing in the opposite compartment. PSC833 (0.1 μ M) was present in both compartments to inhibit the endogenous MDR1 Pgp present in these cells. Squares, translocation from basal to apical. Circles, translocation from apical to basolateral. The experiments were performed in duplicate and repeated three times. A typical experiment is shown.

left panels) with the signal obtained with mAb M₂III-6 (shown in red, middle panels). No overlap was detected between MRP2 and the ECFP-Golgi protein, whereas some overlap was found between MRP2 and the ECFP-Endo protein (Fig. 7, A and B, right panels). Like MRP2, $L_0\Delta$ MRP2 was not co-localizing with the ECFP-Golgi marker (Fig. 7C), but overlap was found in the merge with the pECFP-Endo marker (Fig. 7D), suggesting that at least part of this protein is associated with endosomes.

Transport of [³H]Vinblastine and [¹⁴C]Dinitrophenyl Glutathione by MDCKII-derived Monolayers—To verify whether the co-produced proteins detected in the apical membrane were properly folded, we tested their biological activity. We have shown that wild-type MRP2 is able to transport the Vinca alkaloid [³H]vinblastine to the apical side of a cell monolayer (11, 30). Using the same assay conditions, we analyzed the transport of vinblastine by the MDCKII-derived cell lines expressing the various regions of MRP2. Fig. 8A shows that wild-type MDCKII cells transported little vinblastine under the experimental conditions employed, whereas MDCKII-MRP2 cells demonstrated a clearly increased transport of vinblastine to the apical side of the cell monolayer. Neither in MDCKII- $L_0\Delta$ MRP2 nor in MDCKII- Δ MRP2 cells was a significantly increased transport rate detected to either side of the monolayer. In contrast, transport to the apical side of the monolayer was clearly increased in cells co-expressing Δ MRP2 and TMD₀L₀ or co-expressing $L_0\Delta$ MRP2 and TMD₀, respectively (Fig. 8, B and C, right versus left panels).

An important characteristic of MRP2 is its ability to transport certain organic anions. A model substrate to measure MRP-mediated transport of an organic anion from intact cells is DNP-GS. DNP-GS is hydrophilic and therefore only slowly

TABLE I
Transport into the medium, intracellular accumulation, and total synthesis of [14 C]DNP-GS by MDCKII-derived monolayers after incubation for 20 min with [14 C]CDNB

Transport of DNP-GS by MDCKII-derived monolayers. At $t = 0$, [14 C]CDNB (final concentration 2 μ M; 15 nCi ml $^{-1}$) was added to the apical and basal compartment. Samples were taken at $t = 1, 3, 6, 12$, and 20 min and extracted with ethyl acetate to separate DNP-GS from unconjugated CDNB. Values presented represent the total amount of [14 C]DNP-GS (in pmol) transported in the apical or basal medium after 20 min. "Intracellular" represents the amount of radioactivity associated with the cells, and "Total" represents the sum of the total amount of DNP-GS transported into the medium and detected intracellularly. The experiments were performed twice in duplicate. A typical experiment is shown, and the variation between the measurements is indicated.

Cell line	DNP-GS transport (in pmoles per monolayer)			
	Apical	Basal	Intracellular	Total
	<i>pmol/monolayer</i>			
MDCKII	423 \pm 38	706 \pm 18	575 \pm 74	1704
MRP2	1377 \pm 110	436 \pm 60	343	2156
Δ MRP2	375 \pm 9	701 \pm 86	342 \pm 6	1418
Δ MRP2 + TMD $_0$ L $_0$ # 12	670 \pm 47	832 \pm 9	242 \pm 17	1744
Δ MRP2 + TMD $_0$ L $_0$ # 3	922 \pm 147	800 \pm 164	304 \pm 43	2026
L $_0$ Δ MRP2	239 \pm 25	904 \pm 57	449 \pm 60	1592
L $_0$ Δ MRP2 + TMD $_0$ L $_0$ # 12	164 \pm 11	925 \pm 180	362 \pm 16	1451
L $_0$ Δ MRP2 + TMD $_0$ L $_0$ # 21	216 \pm 67	730 \pm 185	490 \pm 112	1436
L $_0$ Δ MRP2 + TMD $_0$ # 10	592 \pm 69	507 \pm 111	175 \pm 7	1274

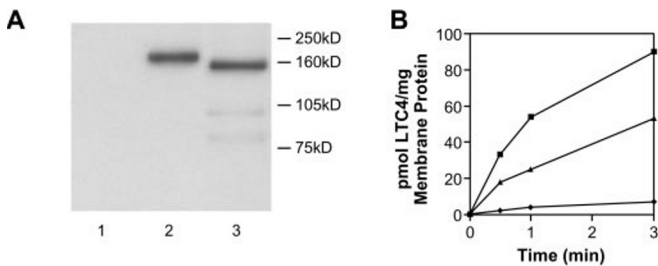


FIG. 9. **Functional analysis of L $_0$ Δ MRP2 in baculovirus-infected Sf9 cells.** A, Western blot of Sf9 cell membranes containing β -galactosidase (lane 1), MRP2 (lane 2), and L $_0$ Δ MRP2 (lane 3). The proteins were detected with mAb M $_2$ III-6. B, ATP-dependent uptake of LTC $_4$ in Sf9 vesicles containing MRP2 (squares), L $_0$ Δ MRP2 (triangles), or β -galactosidase (diamonds). Membrane preparations were incubated with LTC $_4$ (240 nM) at 23 $^{\circ}$ C. ATP-dependent uptake was calculated by subtracting the values obtained in the presence of 4 mM AMP from those in the presence of 4 mM ATP. Samples were taken at $t = 0.5, 1$, and 3 min.

diffuses over the plasma membrane. To measure transport of this compound, cells are incubated with the hydrophobic precursor [14 C]CDNB. This compound rapidly diffuses across membranes and is conjugated intracellularly to glutathione by glutathione *S*-transferases. The [14 C]DNP-GS formed can only leave the cells via an active transporter (38). As shown before, apical DNP-GS transport by MDCKII-MRP2 monolayers was 3.2-fold higher than in the wild type cells (Table I). In MDCKII-L $_0$ Δ MRP2 monolayers, the apical transport activity was 1.8-fold lower than in wild-type cells. This might be due to a down-regulation of the endogenous canine MRP2 that is present in these cells (11). Basolateral transport of DNP-GS was somewhat variable among the different clones, probably due to variation in expression levels of endogenous basolaterally localized organic anion transporters. This variation did not correlate with the expression of MRP2 variants. In two clones tested, co-expression of Δ MRP2 with TMD $_0$ L $_0$ resulted in a 1.8–2.5-fold higher apical transport of DNP-GS than in cells containing Δ MRP2 alone. Co-expression of L $_0$ Δ MRP2 with TMD $_0$ L $_0$ did not result in an increased transport to the apical side of the monolayer. In contrast, apical transport was increased 2.5-fold in the cells containing both L $_0$ Δ MRP2 and TMD $_0$, compared with cells producing L $_0$ Δ MRP2 alone.

Taken together, these data show a correlation between the presence of L $_0$ Δ MRP2 plus TMD $_0$ and Δ MRP2 plus TMD $_0$ L $_0$, respectively, in the apical membrane and transport of both vinblastine and DNP-GS.

Uptake of LTC $_4$ in Membrane Vesicles Containing L $_0$ Δ MRP2—The experiments shown above indicate that L $_0$ Δ MRP2 did not transport drugs into the medium in MDCKII cells and was localized intracellularly. To investigate whether L $_0$ Δ MRP2 is able to transport leukotriene C $_4$, a typical substrate for MRP2, we expressed MRP2 and L $_0$ Δ MRP2 in baculovirus-infected insect (Sf9) cells. Fig. 9A shows that we obtained similar levels of MRP2 and L $_0$ Δ MRP2 in membrane vesicles prepared from these cells. To examine the functionality of L $_0$ Δ MRP2, ATP-dependent uptake of LTC $_4$ was determined in isolated membrane vesicles. The apparent transport rate of L $_0$ Δ MRP2 for LTC $_4$ (240 nM) was \sim 50% of the transport of wild-type MRP2 (Fig. 9B). These transport rates were corrected for the differences in protein levels and for the transport-competent inside-out vesicles content, as determined by measuring active Ca $^{2+}$ uptake. The transport rate of L $_0$ Δ MRP2, measured in the presence of higher concentrations of LTC $_4$ (720 nM) for 30 s, was also found to be about 50% of wild type MRP2, indicating that deletion of the TMD $_0$ region did not cause a major change in the apparent K_m of L $_0$ Δ MRP2 for LTC $_4$.

DISCUSSION

By co-expressing various mutants of MRP2 in polarized MDCKII cells, we searched for regions that are important for routing of MRP2 to the apical plasma membrane. In MDCKII cells, the L $_0$ Δ MRP2 protein was localized intracellularly and mainly associated with endosomes. Uptake experiments with L $_0$ Δ MRP2-containing vesicles that were isolated from baculovirus-infected Sf9 cells demonstrated that this mutant protein is in principle functional, since it mediated the transport of the MRP2 substrate LTC $_4$. Co-expression in MDCKII cells of the N-terminal fragments TMD $_0$ L $_0$ and TMD $_0$ with the core fragments Δ MRP2 and L $_0$ Δ MRP2, respectively, resulted in routing to the apical plasma membrane. Co-produced mutants localized in the apical membrane are functional, since they transport both the *Vinca* alkaloid vinblastine and the organic anion DNP-GS. This strongly suggests that the co-produced MRP2 fragments are properly folded and that routing is most likely determined by the same signals that are functional in wild-type MRP2. Our data suggest that the complete TMD $_0$ L $_0$ region of MRP2 is required for routing, although it is also possible that TMD $_0$ L $_0$ is required to remain stably localized in the apical membrane. These findings are in contrast to our previous experiments with MRP1 mutants, which showed that the TMD $_0$ region of MRP1 is not required for routing to the lateral membrane (27, 28).

In cells producing Δ MRP2 and TMD₀L₀, only a fraction of the latter protein was detectable in the apical membrane, whereas all Δ MRP2 was in the apical membrane. We hypothesize that the TMD₀L₀ region is required for the sorting of Δ MRP2 from the ER to the Golgi apparatus, where it becomes glycosylated. The TMD₀L₀ protein probably is expressed in molar excess in our cells, resulting in routing of only those TMD₀L₀ molecules that interact with Δ MRP2. This hypothesis is in line with the observation that TMD₀L₀ in the absence of Δ MRP2 is localized intracellularly.

The Δ MRP2 protein in the absence of TMD₀L₀ is most likely degraded by proteasomes, since the protein was only detectable at very low concentrations and was only core-glycosylated. Moreover, treatment with two different proteasome inhibitors resulted in a substantially increased amount of the protein. Co-expression with TMD₀L₀ clearly increased the stability of Δ MRP2 and resulted in glycosylation. These findings are not specific for Δ MRP2, since we found the same in cells containing Δ MRP1 and its N-terminal TMD₀L₀ fragment.² We do not know at present whether Δ MRP2 is a misfolded protein and therefore recognized by the quality control system of the cell, resulting in proteasome-mediated degradation, or whether this molecule lacks signals that are required for sorting from the ER to the Golgi apparatus. Such signals should then be present in L₀, since the L₀ Δ MRP2 protein is glycosylated and functional, at least *in vitro*. Remarkably, the L₀ Δ MRP2 mutant was glycosylated in the absence of TMD₀ but was not detected in the plasma membrane.

L₀ Δ MRP2 was in part co-localizing with the ECFP-Endo and not with the ECFP-Golgi protein. An interesting question is whether L₀ Δ MRP2 is routed from the Golgi apparatus to the plasma membrane and subsequently rapidly endocytosed or directly sorted from the Golgi to endosomes. The implication of the former hypothesis is that TMD₀ is required for MRP2 to remain stably localized in the apical membrane. Alternatively, it is tempting to speculate that TMD₀ is required for routing of L₀ Δ MRP2 and that this region contains an apical routing signal. At steady state, however, we see only intracellular staining of the TMD₀L₀ protein produced alone. This indicates that a possible routing signal only functions in the context of the complete molecule.

It is possible that MRP2 contains multiple signals required for routing. That routing signals in polytopic apically localized transporters may be complex is illustrated by recent experiments in which the routing behavior of chimeric proteins containing part of the Na/K-ATPase α -subunit (basolateral localization) and the H₂K-ATPase α -subunit (apical localization) was studied (39). Both the extracellular and intracellular loops flanking transmembrane segment four of the H₂K-ATPase, but not transmembrane four itself, were sufficient to redirect the normally basolaterally localized Na₂K-ATPase to the apical membrane. Following a similar approach for MRP1 and MRP2 may be difficult, since most of the chimeric molecules we analyzed remained associated with the endoplasmic reticulum.³

Another ATP binding cassette transporter that shows some structural homology to MRPs is the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR). The C terminus of CFTR contains sequences important for routing to the apical membrane. The last three C-terminal amino acids form a PDZ-binding motif that interacts with proteins containing PDZ domains (40, 41). Interestingly, a CFTR with a truncation of the last three amino acids had lost its apical localization and was distributed between the apical and basolateral membrane (42).

Subsequent work showed that additional C-terminal residues are required for localizing CFTR to the apical membrane (43). As one of the PDZ domain-containing proteins, PDZK1 (also called CAP1), which binds to CFTR, also interacts with the C terminus of MRP2 (43), it has been speculated that PDZ domain-containing proteins play a role in the localization of MRP2 (45). Although we formally cannot exclude the possibility that sequences present in the C-terminal tail of MRP2 play an additional role in routing, the last three amino acids are not required in the MDCKII cell line we use, since an MRP2 mutant lacking these last three amino acids localizes to the apical membrane and is functional.⁴ For the time being, we have no evidence that MRP2 contains routing information in another region than in TMD.

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³ R. Evers and P. Borst, unpublished observations.

⁴ S. B. M. Fernández and R. Evers, unpublished results.

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