

Biochemical Pharmacology

Biochemical Pharmacology 65 (2003) 75-82

Reversal of P-glycoprotein-mediated multidrug resistance by ginsenoside Rg₃

Seung-Whan Kim^{a,1,2}, Hyog-young Kwon^{a,2}, Dong-Whan Chi^a, Jai-Heon Shim^a, Jong-Dae Park^b, You-Hui Lee^b, Suhkneung Pyo^a, Dong-Kwon Rhee^{a,*}

^aCollege of Pharmacy, SungKyunKwan University, Su-Won 440-746, South Korea ^bKorea Ginseng and Tobacco Research Institute, Taejon 302-345, South Korea

Received 24 May 2002; accepted 12 September 2002

Abstract

Multidrug resistance has been a major problem in cancer chemotherapy. In this study, *in vitro* and *in vivo* modulations of MDR by ginsenoside Rg₃, a red ginseng saponin, were investigated. In flow cytometric analysis using rhodamine 123 as an artificial substrate, Rg₃ promoted accumulation of rhodamine 123 in drug-resistant KBV20C cells in a dose-dependent manner, but it had no effect on parental KB cells. Additionally Rg₃ inhibited [³H]vinblastine efflux and reversed MDR to doxorubicin, COL, VCR, and VP-16 in KBV20C cells. Reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction and immuno-blot analysis after exposure of KBV20C cells to Rg₃ showed that inhibition of drug efflux by Rg₃ was due to neither repression of *MDR1* gene expression nor Pgp level. Photo-affinity labeling study with [³H]azidopine, however, revealed that Rg₃ competed with [³H]azidopine for binding to the Pgp demonstrating that Rg₃ competed with anticancer drug for binding to Pgp thereby blocking drug efflux. Furthermore, Rg₃ increased life span in mice implanted with DOX-resistant murine leukemia P388 cells *in vivo* and inhibited body weight increase significantly.

Keywords: Panax ginseng; 20(S)-Ginsenoside Rg3; Multidrug resistance (MDR); P-glycoprotein (Pgp)

1. Introduction

The exposure of cancer cells to a single hydrophobic cytotoxic agent including the vinka alkaloids, epipodophylotoxins, anthracyclines, COL or taxol frequently results in a specific resistance not only to the cytotoxic agent but also to other structurally and mechanically unrelated anticancer drugs. MDR of cancer cells is a major obstacle for cancer chemotherapy. It is correlated with the overexpression of Pgp in the plasma membrane of resistance cells, where the Pgp acts as an ATP-dependent efflux pump by extruding the anticancer drugs and decreasing their intracellular accumulation [1]. Pgp is a 170-kDa protein encoded by

the human *MDR1* gene, and has been implicated in intrinsic and acquired drug resistance in a number of human tumors [2–6]. Therefore, inhibition of Pgp transporter by pharmacological agents should improve the activity of existing chemotherapy against human cancer [7]. Numerous agents interfering with the activity of Pgp have been described [8–14], however, clinical application has been limited by the deleterious toxicities and/or the low efficacy of the Pgp inhibitors in animal studies.

Panax ginseng has been used in the Far East without any significant toxicity [15,16] for a long time and has gained popularity in the West during the last decade. Its major active components are the ginsenosides, which are mainly triterpenoid dammarane derivatives [17,18]. Ginsenoside Rh₂, found only in red ginseng, exhibited potent cytotoxicities against several cancer cells [19]. In addition, human hepatoma cells treated with ginsenoside Rh₂ induced apoptosis by a mechanism that involves the activation of cyclin A/Cdk2 by caspase 3-mediated cleavage of p21^(WAF1/CIP1) [20]. Recently, ginsenosides Rg₁, Re, Rc, and Rd were found to have a moderate inhibitory effect on the drug efflux pump

^{*}Corresponding author. Tel.: +82-31-290-7707; fax: +82-31-292-8800. *E-mail address:* dkrhee@skku.ac.kr (D.-K. Rhee).

¹Present address: Department of Life Science, Pohang University of Science and Technology, Pohang 790-784, South Korea.

² These authors contributed equally to this work.

Abbreviations: COL, colchicine; DOX, adriamycin; IC₅₀, dose causing 50% growth inhibition; MDR, multidrug resistance; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; Pgp, P-glycoprotein; VCR, vincristine; VP-16, etoposide.

in multidrug resistant mouse lymphoma, and increased drug accumulation and tumor antigen expression at 2.0–20.0 µg/ mL [21]. Although ginsenosides had a chemical structuredependent immunomodulating effect by enhancing the activity of natural killer cells and antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity activities [21], the mechanisms of ginsenoside actions on MDR cells remain unclear. This led us to determine effects of ginsenosides on MDR. Of several ginseng components 20(S)-ginsenoside Rg₃, found only in red ginseng, was shown to have the most potent inhibitory activity on multidrug resistant human fibroblast carcinoma KBV20C, capable of inhibiting 50% growth at a concentration of 82 µM. Rg₃, however, did not reverse MDR due to overexpression of multidrug related protein [22]. The aim of this study was to elucidate the mechanism of Pgp inhibition by ginsenoside Rg₃, and determine in vivo efficacy.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemical and drugs

VCR, COL, DOX, VP-16, verapamil, and rhodamine 123 were purchased from Sigma. [³H]vinblastine (specific activity, 23 Ci/mmol) and [³H]azidopine (specific activity, 49 Ci/mmol) were purchased from Amersham. 20(*S*)-Ginsenoside Rg₃ was prepared as described previously (Fig. 1) [22]. C494 mouse anti-Pgp monoclonal antibody was from Signet Laboratories.

2.2. Cell lines and animals

The human carcinoma KB cells obtained from ATCC were grown in RPMI 1640 media with 5% fetal bovine serum, and 0.1 mg/mL kanamycin at 37° in 5% CO₂. The mouse leukemia P388 cells obtained from ATCC were grown in RPMI 1640 media with 10% fetal bovine serum and 0.1 mg/mL kanamycin and incubated under humidified air with 5% CO₂ at 37°. VCR-resistant KBV20C cells (generous gift of Dr. Yung-Chi Cheng at Yale University School of Medicine) and multidrug resistant P388/DOX cells (generous gift of Dr. H.-M. Kim at Korea Research Institute of Bioscience and Biotechnology) were developed

Fig. 1. Chemical structure of ginsenoside Rg₃.

M.W.784.996

from the parental KB and P388 cells by stepwise selection for resistance with increasing concentration of VCR and DOX, respectively, and cultured in the presence of 20 nM concentration of VCR and 172 nM concentration of DOX, respectively. These cells have been shown to overexpress Pgp by Western blot [23] and were used for Pgp MDR inhibition study.

For *in vivo* studies, female BDF1 mice, 6–8 weeks of age, were obtained from Charles River Laboratories, and 1×10^6 cells of P388 or P388/DOX cells were implanted into the peritoneum of BDF1 mice and passed twice weekly.

2.3. Rhodamine 123 retention assay

A total of 2×10^5 cells of KBV20C or KB in 1 mL of culture media were inoculated in 24-well plates and incubated at 37° for 24 hr, and 1 mL of fresh media containing appropriate concentrations of Rg₃ or verapamil was added and incubated further at 37° for 20 min. Subsequently, 5 μg of rhodamine 123 was added, and the cells were further incubated at 37° for 30 min. The cells were then rinsed once with media to remove rhodamine 123 and incubated again in fresh media containing Rg3, or verapamil at the indicated concentrations at 37° for 30 min. Cells were then removed from the wells after trypsin-EDTA treatment and collected by centrifugation (500 g). The cells were resuspended in phosphate buffered saline (PBS; NaCl 8 g, KCl 0.2 g, Na₂HPO₄ 0.24 g, pH 7.4 per 1 L) and green fluorescence of rhodamine 123 was analyzed by flow cytometry with a Becton Dickinson FACScan at 488 nm and 300 mW. The median fluorescence was used as a quantitative measure of intracellular fluorochrome accumulation and used as an indicator for Pgp inhibition [24].

2.4. Plasma membrane preparation and photo-affinity labeling

Plasma membranes from KB or KBV20C cells and subsequent photo-labeling with [3H]azidopine in the presence or absence of Rg₃ or verapamil were performed as described previously [25]. Briefly, the cells were incubated with Rg₃ at the indicated concentrations at 37° for 24 hr. Cells were harvested, washed and disrupted by homogenization with a glass homogenizer. The homogenate was centrifuged at 1000 g for 10 min. To prepare a membraneenriched fraction, the supernatant was overlayed on a 35% sucrose solution and centrifuged at 18,000 g for 60 min. The membrane fraction at the interface was centrifuged for another 60 min at 100,000 g. Pellets were resuspended in 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 125 mM sucrose, and stored at -70° until their use. The protein concentration was determined by the method of Bradford [26]. Plasma membranes (50 µg protein) were photo-labeled with 200 nM [³H]azidopine in the absence or presence of the indicated modulator. Twenty-five microgram of photo-labeled membrane proteins were then analyzed using 7% sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS–PAGE; [27]). Subsequently, the gel was dried and exposed to a radioactive sensitive imaging plate for several days to obtain the images. The quantitative radiographic imaging data was analyzed by an image analysis system (Fujix Bioimaging Analyzer BAAS2500).

2.5. Determination of MDR1 mRNA and Pgp level

Total RNA was isolated from KB and KBV20C cells by Trizol reagent (Gibco BRL) as suggested by the manufacturer. Total RNA was reverse transcribed in a reaction mixture containing random hexamers, each deoxynucleoside triphosphate (dNTP), and Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (Promega) as described by the standard methods [28]. The *MDR1* gene expression was determined [29] by reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR; *MDR1* forward primer, 5'-CCC ATC ATT GCA ATA GCA GG-3'; reverse primer, 5'-GTT CAA ACT TCT GCT CCT GA-3') with β₂-microglobulin as internal control (forward primer, 5'-ACC CCC ACT GAA AAA GAT GA-3'; reverse primer, 5'-ATC TTC AAA CCT CCA TGA TG-3').

For determination of Pgp level, membrane proteins $(100 \, \mu g)$ separated on a 6% SDS-polyacrylamide gel were electroeluted onto polyvinylidine difluoride membrane (Millipore Immobilon P) and developed. The membranes were exposed to C494 anti-Pgp monoclonal antibody and then Pgp recognized by antibody was visualized using a horseradish peroxidase assay kit (BioRad). Visualized bands were photographed and intensity was quantified with densitometry.

2.6. In vitro drug sensitivity

Cells were maintained in drug free media 3 days before determination of the concentration capable of inhibiting 50% growth (IC₅₀). Cytotoxicity assays were performed in triplicate by plating 1×10^4 cells in each well of a 96-well plate. The cells were incubated with different concentrations of anticancer drugs in the absence or presence of MDR modulator with 5% CO₂ at 37° for 72 hr. Subsequently, the Sulforhodamine B (SRB) cell staining method [30] was used to measure the cytotoxic effect. Optical density was read by ELISA reader (Titertek Multiskan MCC/340).

2.7. Drug accumulation

For the study of drug accumulation, KBV20C cells in drug free medium with 5% fetal bovine serum were plated $(2 \times 10^5 \text{ cells/well})$ in 24-well plates. The next day, the growth medium was replaced with 0.5 mL of fresh medium per well. After incubation at 37° for 10 min, the medium was removed and replaced with 0.5 mL of assay medium containing [3 H]vinblastine (0.1 μ Ci, 13 pmol) in the presence

of either verapamil or Rg₃. After the indicated time, the cells were washed with ice-cold PBS twice, solubilized in 0.2% Triton X-100 in 10 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.4), harvested, and then counted.

2.8. In vivo evaluation

Multidrug resistant 2×10^6 P388/DOX cells washed with serum-free medium twice were implanted by intraperitoneal injection into BDF1 female mice (10 mice). All drug treatments (16 mice for DOX only group, 12 mice for DOX + Rg_3 10 mg/kg group, 15 mice for DOX + Rg_3 40 mg/kg group) started on the same day as tumor implantation. DOX (stock concentration was 2 mg/mL in PBS) and Rg_3 (stock solution was 25 mg/mL in 10% dimethyl sulfoxide) were freshly prepared immediately prior to administration. Mice received drug of choice by intraperitoneal administration and continued to be treated every 3 days until death. The survival of mice in each group was examined daily. Mean body weights were recorded every 3 days.

2.9. Statistics

Data was expressed as the mean \pm SD, and analyzed by the Student's *t*-test. *P*-values below 0.05 were regarded as statistically significant.

3. Results

3.1. Modulation of drug resistance

Since the 20(S)-ginsenoside Rg₃ enhanced cytotoxicity of anticancer drugs to multidrug resistant KBV20 cells in the presence of 20 nM VCR but not to the parental drug sensitive KB cells [22], we further examined Rg₃'s efficacy on various drugs in MDR reversal activity. As shown in Table 1, 5 μM Rg₃ moderately reversed the resistance to COL, DOX, VCR and VP-16 in KBV20C cells. In the presence of 20 µM of Rg₃, the IC₅₀s of anticancer drugs such as COL, DOX, VCR and VP-16 to KBV20C cells were reduced about 30-, >126-, 8.5- and 2.1-fold, respectively. A higher concentration of Rg₃ (40 µM) reduced the IC₅₀S of COL, VCR and VP-16 to KBV20C cells 107-, 101-, and 5.9-fold, respectively. These results demonstrated that Rg₃ is an effective modulator in restoring the sensitivity of resistant cells to the various anticancer drugs at concentrations from 5 to 40 µM in human Pgp MDR cells.

3.2. Inhibition of rhodamine 123 efflux by Rg₃

Rhodamine 123 acts as a good substrate for MDR-associated Pgp [31] and agents that block Pgp have been found to increase the retention of rhodamine 123 in MDR cells [24]. Therefore, drug sensitive and resistant cells were

Table 1
Modulation of resistance to various chemotherapeutic agents in KB and KBV20C cells by Rg₃^a

	VCR (nM)	DOX (nM)	VP-16 (μM)	COL (nM)
KB	$3.2 \pm 0.26 (1)^{b}$	59 ± 4.1 (1)	0.92 ± 0.14 (1)	7.0 ± 0.52 (1)
KBV20C	$5210 \pm 417 \ (1628)$	>2586 (>43)	>300 (>326)	>1500 (>214)
$KBV20C + Rg_3 (5 \mu M)$	$2806 \pm 192 (876)$	$1920 \pm 210 (32)$	$267 \pm 20 \ (290)$	$951 \pm 96 (135)$
KBV20C + Rg ₃ (20 μ M)	$612 \pm 58 (191)$	$20 \pm 1.6 \ (0.34)$	$143 \pm 11 \ (155)$	$50 \pm 7.1 (7.1)$
$KBV20C + Rg_3 (40 \mu M)$	$52 \pm 4.1 \ (16)$	ND	$51 \pm 3.2 (55)$	$14 \pm 1.3 \ (2.0)$

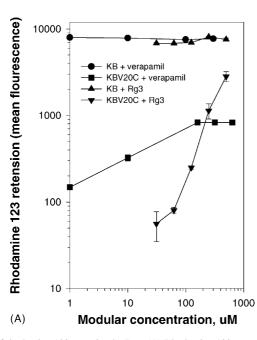
ND: not determined.

exposed to rhodamine 123 at the various concentrations of verapamil or Rg_3 for 30 min and retention of rhodamine 123 was determined. Treatment of KB cells with Rg_3 did not affect retention of rhodamine 123, but treatment of KBV20C cells significantly increased the accumulation of rhodamine 123 in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 2A). Rg_3 did not increase efflux of rhodamine 123 effectively at lower doses, however Rg_3 was more potent than verapamil in modulating MDR function at the higher concentrations than 200 μM of Rg_3 , as reflected by higher rhodamine 123 retention in the resistant cells. Since incubation of 320 μM of Rg_3 for 30 min with KBV20C cells significantly increased efflux of rhodamine 123 without losing cells integrity in PBS buffer, subsequent time course experiment used 320 μM of Rg_3 . The time course experiment revealed

that Rg₃ increased rhodamine 123 retention in KBV20C cells 19-fold than that of the untreated cells after 15 min incubation of KBV20C cells with Rg₃. The maximum rhodamine 123 retention was attained after 30 min incubation of KBV20C cells with Rg₃ but thereafter retention of rhodamine 123 decreased slowly due to the instability of the cells in PBS buffer (Fig. 2B). These results clearly demonstrated that Rg₃ reversed MDR in KBV20C cells specifically and effectively in time- and dose-dependent manner.

3.3. Inhibition of $[^3H]$ vinblastine efflux by Rg_3

To ascertain further that Rg₃ can enhance the accumulation of chemotherapeutic agents, KB or KBV20C cells



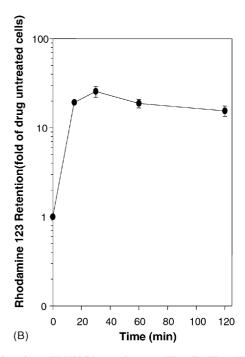


Fig. 2. Increase of rhodamine 123 retention by Rg_3 . (A) Rhodamine 123 retention in resistant KBV20C but not in parent KB cells. KB or KBV20C cells were incubated at 37° for 24 hr, and were resuspended in fresh media containing rhodamine 123, and further incubated at 37° for 30 min. After washing, the cells were incubated again in fresh media containing Rg_3 , or verapamil at the indicated concentrations at 37° for 30 min. Cells were then removed and re-suspended in PBS, and analyzed by flow cytometry. The median fluorescence was used as a quantitative measure of intracellular fluorochrome accumulation and hence an indicator for Pgp inhibition. The vertical bar represents mean \pm SD of the two experiments in triplicate. If vertical bars are not apparent, the size of the SD was close to zero. The average fluorescence values in KB and KBV20C without Rg_3 or verapamil were 6777 and 44.5, respectively. (B) Time-dependent retention of rhodamine 123. KBV20C cells were incubated with 320 μ M of Rg_3 for the indicated time and changes in fluorescence were monitored over time.

 $^{^{}a}$ $_{IC_{50}}$ values were determined by SRB assay in duplicate in two independent experiments and results were presented as means \pm SD of three independent experiments.

^b The numbers in parenthesis are the relative resistance of cells to the drug sensitive parental cells: IC₅₀ of KBV20C/IC₅₀ of KB.

were incubated with [3H]vinblastine for the indicated time in the presence of either verapamil or Rg₃, and the accumulated [3H]vinblastine in KB or KBV20C cells was subsequently counted. In KB cells, Rg3 or verapamil did not exhibit any difference from the group without any treatment in [3H]vinblastine accumulation (data not shown). In KBV20C cells, 80 µM of Rg₃ had a marginal effect in reversing MDR, however at 320 µM [³H]vinblastine accumulation was enhanced by approximately 4-fold after 30 min incubation at 37°. In comparison, verapamil at 100 µM augmented drug accumulation by 2-fold demonstrating that 320 µM of Rg₃ inhibited drug efflux more potently than 100 µM of verapamil (Fig. 3). This result confirmed that Rg₃ is an effective MDR modulator. Also potentiation of the accumulation of drug in MDR cells, but not in drug-sensitive cells, indicate that the MDR reversing effects of Rg₃ were not due to the toxicity of Rg₃ itself.

3.4. Effect of Rg₃ on the MDR1 mRNA and Pgp level

To determine Rg₃'s MDR modulation is due to alteration of the *MDR1* mRNA or Pgp protein levels, KBV20C cells were treated with various concentrations of Rg₃ (40–320 μM) for 30 min, and total cellular RNA and plasma membrane were prepared. Subsequent determination of *MDR1* mRNA by RT-PCR revealed that the levels of *MDR1* mRNA in KBV20C cells in the presence or absence of Rg₃ did not exhibit any difference (data not shown). Visualization of Pgp protein by immunoblot analysis using

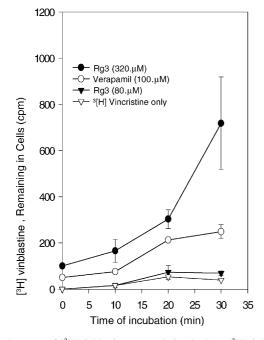


Fig. 3. Increase of [3 H]vinblastine accumulation by Rg $_3$. [3 H]vinblastine accumulation in KBV20C cells was determined after incubation with 26 μ M [3 H]vinblastine and the appropriate modulator for the indicated time. After the indicated time, the cells were washed with ice-cold PBS twice, solubilized in 0.2% Triton X-100 in 10 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.4), harvested, and then counted. The vertical bar represents mean \pm SD of triplicate determinations.

C494 monoclonal antibody raised against Pgp revealed that Pgp levels in plasma membranes from KBV20C cells were not changed by Rg₃ treatment (data not shown), demonstrating that Rg₃ does not affect expression of *MDR1* gene nor Pgp protein level in KBV20C cells.

3.5. Inhibition of $[^3H]$ azidopine binding to Pgp by Rg_3

Since Rg₃ did not affect *MDR1* gene expression, MDR reversal by Rg₃ might be due to inhibition of drug binding to Pgp by Rg₃. To demonstrate competitive inhibition of drug binding by Rg₃, photo-affinity labeling of Pgp with [³H]azidopine was used. Treatment of 100 μM of Rg₃ completely inhibited binding of [³H]azidopine to Pgp demonstrating that Rg₃ competes with [³H]azidopine for binding to Pgp (Fig. 4).

3.6. In vivo efficacy

For *in vivo* evaluation of Rg₃, a standard P388 murine leukemia model was used. In a preliminary experiment, DOX alone or a combination of a wide range of doses (2.5, 10, 40, 80 mg/kg) of the Rg₃ with 4 mg/kg of DOX was administered to mice (6 per group) implanted with P388/DOX tumors. The result demonstrated that administration of a combination of 2.5 mg/kg of Rg₃ and 4 mg/kg of DOX did not result in significant increase in life span of mice or mice weight, and administration of 80 mg/kg of Rg₃, by itself, did not produce any significant difference in life span compared with the vehicle control. In addition, combination treatment with 4 mg/kg DOX and 80 mg/kg Rg₃ produced no significant increase in life span of mice than

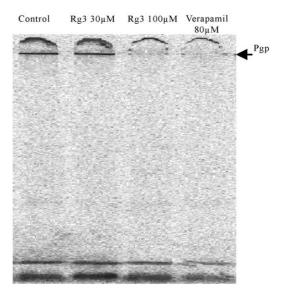


Fig. 4. Inhibition of [3 H]azidopine labeling of Pgp by Rg₃. To determine inhibition of [3 H]azidopine binding to Pgp, resistant KBV20C plasma membrane proteins were incubated with 0.2 μ M [3 H]azidopine in the absence or presence of Rg₃ or verapamil at the indicated concentrations and cross-linked by UV irradiation. Photo-labeled membrane proteins were analyzed by SDS–PAGE and visualized by autoradiography.

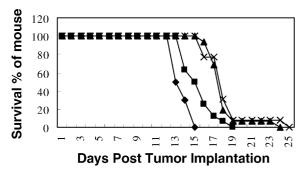


Fig. 5. Increase of the survival of mice implanted intraperitoneally into P388/DOX murine leukemia tumor cells by Rg_3 in combination with DOX. Multidrug resistant P388/DOX cells $(2\times10^6 \text{ cells/0.1 mL})$ were inoculated intraperitoneally into BDF1 female mice. Compounds were administered intraperitoneally at every 3 days after tumor implantation. The results represent the survival percentage vs. days after tumor implantation. Control (\spadesuit); DOX 4 mg/kg (\blacksquare); DOX 4 mg/kg + Rg_3 10 mg/kg (\blacktriangle); DOX 4 mg/kg + Rg_3 40 mg/kg (\times).

combination treatment with 4 mg/kg DOX and 40 mg/kg Rg₃ (data not shown). Therefore, mice were treated with a combination of 4 mg/kg DOX plus 10 or 40 mg/kg Rg₃. When mice were treated with a combination of 4 mg/kg DOX plus 10 mg/kg of the Rg₃, a significant increase in life span (P < 0.01) was observed. Increasing the dose of Rg₃ upto 40 mg/kg did not extend life span any further (Fig. 5). In addition, increase of weight due to tumor growth was significantly suppressed in both groups treated with DOX plus two doses (10 or 40 mg/kg) of the Rg₃ compared with DOX alone (Fig. 6). On the basis of weight and mortality,

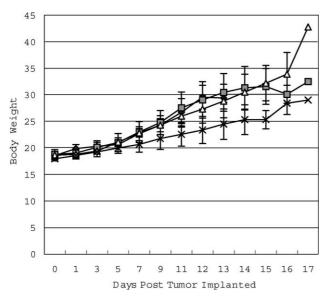


Fig. 6. Inhibition of body weight gain after intraperitoneal implantation with P388/DOX murine leukemia tumor cells by Rg₃ in combination with DOX. Mice were implanted with P388/DOX tumors and treated with Rg₃ every 3 days. Body weight gain was measured over time. The data is expressed as the mean \pm SD. DOX 4 mg/kg + Rg₃ 40 mg/kg treated group was significantly different from the group treated with DOX only at day 6 (P<0.05) and 12 (P<0.001), and the control group at day 12 (P<0.05). Control (\spadesuit); DOX 4 mg/kg (\blacksquare); DOX 4 mg/kg + Rg₃ 40 mg/kg (\triangle); DOX 4 mg/kg + Rg₃ 40 mg/kg (\times).

these results suggest that the increase of DOX cytotoxicity by Rg₃ *in vivo* is modulated through the interaction of the Rg₃ with Pgp.

4. Discussion

Our results indicate that Rg3, one of the panaxadiol saponins present only in trace amounts, was a highly effective and potent modulating agent for MDR cells in vitro although it has no effect on either transcription or translation of MDR1 gene. The rhodamine 123 retention (Fig. 2) and cytotoxicity studies (Table 1) showed that Rg₃ promotes drug accumulation and potentiates the toxicity of VCR in MDR cells, but not in a drug-sensitive cells. Furthermore, photo-affinity labeling of Pgp with [³H]azidopine demonstrated that Rg₃ competitively inhibits binding of anticancerdrugs to Pgp (Fig. 4). Thus, the rhodamine 123 retention and inhibition of [3H]vinblastine efflux by Rg₃ were at least partly due to a pronounced inhibition of Pgp function. Consistent with these data, coinjection of DOX and Rg₃ into mice carrying a multidrug resistant P388 transplantable tumor significantly increased the survival time of the mice compared with DOX treatment alone (Fig. 5) and decreased body weight gain by tumor growth (Fig. 6).

In vitro, a wide range of Rg₃ concentrations were used from 5 to 320 µM. To validate concentration effects of Rg₃, we compared the effect of 80 μM of Rg₃ on rhodamine 123 retention, [3H] vinblastine accumulation, and [3H] azidopine binding. Although 80 μM of Rg₃ increased rhodamine 123 accumulation almost 2-fold in 30 min in PBS buffer (Fig. 2), the same concentration of Rg₃ in RPMI culture media marginally increased [3H]vinblastine accumulation in the same period (Fig. 3) suggesting that some components in the culture media, especially serum proteins, might interfere Rg₃'s modulating effect temporarily. Nevertheless, 100 μM of Rg₃ was shown to almost completely inhibit binding of [³H]azidopine to Pgp after 24 hr incubation of MDR cells in the same culture media (Fig. 4), eventually leading to cell death. Consistent with this, 72 hr incubation of MDR cells in 82 μM concentration of Rg₃ resulted in inhibition of growth of half the MDR cells [22]. Thus, at a specific concentration of Rg₃, time-dependent reversal of MDR was demonstrated. Furthermore, Rg₃ inhibited Pgp dose-dependently in both IC₅₀ (Table 1) and rhodamne 123 accumulation (Fig. 2).

In contrast to dose- and time-dependent mode of Rg₃ results *in vitro*, *in vivo* results exhibited no dose-response relationship. Administration of 10 mg/kg of Rg₃ and 4 mg/kg of DOX at every 3 days increased life span almost the same as that of 40 or 80 mg/kg of Rg₃ and 4 mg/kg of DOX (Fig. 5) suggesting that at this dose Pgp may be saturated, or Rg₃'s toxic effects might limit the modulating effect of Rg₃ on Pgp in murine MDR model. To compare cell culture experiment with *in vivo* result, pharmacokinetic data on Rg₃ is required. However, pharmacokinetics on a single ginsenoside component has only been determined with

Rg₁. Ginsenoside Rg₁ (molecular weight 801 Da) has the same steroidal skeleton as Rg₃ except for a sugar moiety at carbon number 6 and 20. Rg₁ was rapidly absorbed, and the highest serum concentration (0.9 µg/mL serum) was attained 30 min after oral administration of 100 mg/kg into rat. The level of Rg₁ dropped off thereafter, and was not detectable 6 hr after oral administration, although the sensitivity of Rg₁ detection was relatively low $(0.2 \,\mu g \,Rg_1/mL \, serum) \, [32]$. Furthermore, Rg_1 was excreted via urine, bile and feces without undergoing significant metabolization in the liver. In the case of intravenous administration of Rg₁, the level of Rg₁ in rat serum declined more rapidly with a half life of 6.3 min, and was not detected after 1 hr [32]. If Rg₃ is assumed to have same pharmacokinetics as Rg₁, Rg₃ would be rapidly excreted after several hours of Rg₃ administration and its plasma level would be very low. Nevertheless, injection of Rg₃ every 3 days produced significant life span extension demonstrating that low level of Rg₃ might be enough to inhibit Pgp *in vivo*. Furthermore, the effect of Rg₃ on rhodamine 123 uptake *in vitro* is very clearly competitive with a Hill number far higher than unity. In contrast, verapamil has a far smaller Hill number, indicating the possibility that Rg₃ could bind to Pgp with high affinity to inhibit anticancer drug efflux. Further study will be needed to clarify the exact mechanism of binding of Rg₃ with both high affinity and stability to Pgp.

Ginsenoside Rg₃ possesses a four trans-ring rigid steroid skeleton with a modified glucopyranoside chain at carbon number 3 [33]. Structural similarity of Rg₃ to cholesterol and steroids prompted us to compare the action mechanism of Rg₃ to that of cholesterol and steroids. Steroid hormones are lipophilic and may intercalate into the bilayer of target cell plasma membranes, potentially altering the fluidity and function of the membrane. However, the steroids do not always affect phospholipid fluidity; progesterone was found to decrease the lipid fluidity, and testosterone had no effect on lipid movement, whereas estrogen, 17 β-estradiol, increased lipid mobility [34]. Progesterone and deoxycorticosterone, but not estradiol, caused an increase in [³H]vinblastine accumulation [35]. Also progesterone caused a rapid stimulation of efflux of rhodamine 123 from KBV20C cells but did not stimulate efflux from drugsensitive KB cells, indicating that rhodamine 123 is removed from KBV20C cells by the MDR pump [36]. Since Rg₃ was shown to modulate the fluidity of the plasma membrane [37], it seemed to have similar mode of action to that of progesterone although it is more closely related to cholesterol than progesterone in chemical structure.

Ginseng has been known to have diverse pharmacological effects. In addition to inducing MDR reversal, ginsenoside Rg₃ inhibits both cell growth in human prostate carcinoma cells [38] and metastasis of murine intestinal adenocarcinomas [39] besides from MDR reversal. For the modulation of receptors and channels, it also significantly inhibits the secretion of catecholamines from bovine adrenal chromaffin

cells stimulated by acetylcholine [37,40], and modulates Ca²⁺ channel currents in rat sensory neurons [41]. Rg₃ has also been shown to be one of the major active components for inhibiting glutamate-induced neuronal cell death and Ca²⁺ influx through glutamate receptors [42] and inhibits vascular smooth muscle tone via activation of K⁺ channels [43]. These properties of Rg₃ would help to understand pharmacological effects of ginseng.

Taken together, the present results demonstrate for the first time that a ginseng component, Rg₃, can specifically inhibit Pgp-mediated drug accumulation in KBV20C, but not in drug-sensitive cells. Thus, Rg₃ could be a highly feasible candidate for the development of MDR modulators with higher potency and specificity.

Acknowledgments

This study was supported by a research grant of the Society for Korea Ginseng (1998–2000).

References

- Gottesman MM, Pastan I. Biochemistry of multidrug resistance mediated by the multidrug transporter. Annu Rev Biochem 1993;62: 385–427.
- [2] Endicott JA, Ling V. The biochemistry of P-glycoprotein-mediated multidrug resistance. Annu Rev Biochem 1989;58:137–71.
- [3] Gros P, Ben Neriah Y, Croop JM, Housman DE. Isolation and expression of a complementary DNA that confers multidrug resistance. Nature 1986;323:728–31.
- [4] Herzog CE, Tsokos M, Bates SE, Fojo AT. Increased mdr1/P-glycoprotein expression after treatment of human colon carcinoma cells with P-glycoprotein antagonists. J Biol Chem 1993;268:2946–52.
- [5] Ling V. Multidrug resistance: molecular mechanisms and clinical relevance. Cancer Chemother Pharmacol 1997;40(Suppl):S3–8.
- [6] Pastan I, Gottesman MM, Ueda K, Lovelace E, Rutherford AV, Willingham MA. Retrovirus carrying an mdr1 cDNA confers multidrug resistance and polarized expression of P-glycoprotein in MDCK cells. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1988;85:4486–90.
- [7] Ford JM, Hait WN. Pharmacology of drugs that alter multidrug resistance in cancer. Pharmacol Rev 1990;42:155–99.
- [8] Dale IL, Tuffley W, Callaghan R, Holmes JA, Martin K, Luscombe M, Mistry P, Ryder H, Stewart AJ, Charlton P, Twentyman PR, Bevan P. Reversal of P-glycoprotein-mediated multidrug resistance by XR9051, a novel diketopiperazine derivative. Br J Cancer 1998;78: 885–92.
- [9] Dantzig AH, Shepard RL, Cao J, Law KL, Ehlhardt WJ, Baughman TM, Bumol TF, Starling JJ. Reversal of P-glycoprotein-mediated multidrug resistance by a potent cyclopropyldibenzo suberane modulator LY335979. Cancer Res 1996;56:4171–9.
- [10] Bichat F, Solis-Recendez G, Poullain MG, Poupon MF, Khayat D, Bastian G. S9788 modulation of P-glycoprotein- and multidrug-related protein-mediated multidrug resistance by Servier 9788 in doxorubicin-resistant MCF7 cells. Biochem Pharmacol 1998;56:497–502.
- [11] Newman MJ, Rodarte JC, Benbatoul KD, Romano SJ, Zhang C, Krane S, Moran EJ, Uyeda RT, Dixon R, Guns ES, Mayer LD. Discovery and characterization of OC144-093, a novel inhibitor of P-glycoprotein-mediated multidrug resistance. Cancer Res 2000;60:2964–72.
- [12] Sparreboom A, Planting AS, Jewell RC, van der Burg ME, van der Gaast A, de Bruijn P, Loos WJ, Nooter K, Chandler LH, Paul EM,

- Wissel PS, Verweij J. Clinical pharmacokinetics of doxorubicin in combination with GF120918, a potent inhibitor of MDR1 P-glycoprotein. Anticancer Drugs 1999;10:719–28.
- [13] Atadja P, Watanabe T, Xu H, Cohen D. PSC-833, a frontier in modulation of P-glycoprotein-mediated multidrug resistance. Cancer Metastasis Rev 1998;17:163–8.
- [14] Vanhoefer U, Cao S, Minderman H, Toth K, Scheper RJ, Slovak ML, Rustum YM. PAK-104P, a pyridine analogue, reverses paclitaxel and doxorubicin resistance in cell lines and nude mice bearing xenografts that overexpress the multidrug resistance protein. Clin Cancer Res 1996:2:369-77
- [15] Coon JT, Ernst E. Panax ginseng: a systematic review of adverse effects and drug interactions. Drug Saf 2002;25:323–44.
- [16] Zhu M, Chan KW, Ng LS, Chang Q, Chang S, Li RC. Possible influences of ginseng on the pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of warfarin in rats. J Pharm Pharmacol 1999;51:175–80.
- [17] Attele AS, Wu JA, Yuan CS. Ginseng pharmacology: multiple constituents and multiple actions. Biochem Pharmacol 1999;58:1685–93.
- [18] Gillis CN. Panax ginseng pharmacology: a nitric oxide link? Biochem Pharmacol 1997;54:1–8.
- [19] Kitagawa I, Yoshikawa M, Yoshihara M, Hayashi T, Taniyama T. Chemical studies of crude drugs (1). Constituents of Ginseng radix rubra. Yakugaku Zasshi 1983;103:612–22.
- [20] Jin YH, Yoo KJ, Lee YH, Lee SK. Caspase 3-mediated cleavage of p21^{WAF/CIP1} associated with the cyclin A-cyclin-dependent kinase 2 complex is a prerequisite for apoptosis in SK-HEP-1 cells. J Biol Chem 2000:275:30256-63.
- [21] Molnar J, Szabo D, Pusztai R, Mucsi I, Berek L, Ocsovszki I, Kawata E, Shoyama Y. Membrane associated antitumor effects of crocine-, ginsenoside- and cannabinoid derivatives. Anticancer Res 2000;20:861–7.
- [22] Park JD, Kim DS, Kwon HY, Son SK, Lee YH, Baek NI, Kim SI, Rhee DK. Effects of ginseng saponin on modulation of multidrug resistance. Arch Pharm Res 1996;19:213–8.
- [23] Chen HX, Bamberger U, Hechel A, Guo X, Cheng YC. BIBW22, a dipyridamole analog, acts as a bifunctional modulator on tumor cells by influencing both P-glycogen and nucleoside transport. Cancer Res 1993;53:1974–7.
- [24] Ludescher C, Gattringer C, Drach J, Hofmann J, Grunicke H. Rapid functional assay for the detection of multidrug-resistant cells using the fluorescent dye rhodamine 123. Blood 1991;78:1385–7.
- [25] Safa AR. Photo-affinity labeling of the multidrug-resistance-related Pglycoprotein with photo-active analogs of verapamil. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1988;85:7187–91.
- [26] Bradford MM. A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding. Anal Biochem 1976;72:248–54.
- [27] Laemmli UK. Cleavage of structural proteins during the assembly of the head of bacteriophage T4. Nature 1970;227:680–5.
- [28] Sambrook J, Fritsch EF, Maniatis T. Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual. Cold Spring Harbor: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory; 1989.

- [29] Bichat F, Mouawad R, Solis-Recendez G, Khayat D, Bastian G. Cytoskeleton alteration in MCF7R cells, a multidrug resistant human breast cancer cell line. Anticancer Res 1997;17:3393–401.
- [30] Skehan P, Storeng R, Scudiero D, Monks A, McMahon J, Vistica D, Warren JT, Bokesch H, Kenney S, Boyd MR. New colorimetric cytotoxicity assay for anticancer-drug screening. J Natl Cancer Inst 1990;82:1107–12.
- [31] Yoshimura A, Shudo N, Ikeda SI, Ichikawa M, Sumizawa T, Akiyama SI. Novel screening method for agents that overcome classical multidrug resistance in a human cell line. Cancer Lett 1990;50:45–51.
- [32] Odani T, Tanizawa H, Takino Y. Studies on the absorption, distribution, excretion and metabolism of ginseng saponins. II. The absorption, distribution and excretion of ginsenoside Rg1 in the rat. Chem Pharm Bull 1983;31:292–8.
- [33] Tanaka O, Nagai M, Shibata S. Chemical studies on the oriental plant drugs. XVI. The stereochemistry of protopanaxadiol, a genuine sapogenin of ginseng. Chem Pharm Bull (Tokyo) 1966;14:1150–6.
- [34] Whiting KP, Restall CJ, Brain PF. Steroid hormone-induced effects on membrane fluidity and their potential roles in non-genomic mechanisms. Life Sci 2000;67:743–57.
- [35] Yang CP, DePinho SG, Greenberger LM, Arceci RJ, Horwitz SB. Progesterone interacts with P-glycoprotein in multidrug-resistant clees and the endometrium of gravid uterus. J Biol Chem 1989; 265:782–8.
- [36] Jancis EM, Chen HX, Carbone R, Hochberg RB, Dannies PS. Rapid stimulation of rhodamine 123 efflux from multidrug-resistant KB cells by progesterone. Biochem Pharmacol 1993;46:1613–9.
- [37] Tachikawa E, Kudo K, Nunokawa M, Kashimoto T, Takahashi E, Kitagawa S. Characterization of ginseng saponin ginsenoside-Rg(3) inhibition of catecholamine secretion in bovine adrenal chromaffin cells. Biochem Pharmacol 2001;62:943–51.
- [38] Liu WK, Xu SX, Che CT. Anti-proliferative effect of ginseng saponins on human prostate cancer cell line. Life Sci 2000;67:1297–306.
- [39] Iishi H, Tatsuta M, Baba M, Uehara H, Nakaizumi A, Shinkai K, Akedo H, Funai H, Ishiguro S, Kitagawa I. Inhibition by ginsenoside Rg3 of bombesin-enhanced peritoneal metastasis of intestinal adenocarcinomas induced by azoxymethane in Wistar rats. Clin Exp Metastasis 1997;15:603–11.
- [40] Tachikawa E, Kudo K, Harada K, Kashimoto T, Miyate Y, Kakizaki A, Takahashi E. Effects of ginseng saponins on responses induced by various receptor stimuli. Eur J Pharmacol 1999;369:23–32.
- [41] Rhim H, Kim H, Lee DY, Oh TH, Nah SY. Ginseng and ginsenoside Rg3, a newly identified active ingredient of ginseng, modulate Ca²⁺ channel currents in rat sensory neurons. Eur J Pharmacol 2002;436:151–8.
- [42] Kim YC, Kim SR, Markelonis GJ, Oh TH. Ginsenosides Rb1 and Rg3 protect cultured rat cortical cells from glutamate-induced neurodegeneration. J Neurosci Res 1998;53:426–32.
- [43] Kim ND, Kang SY, Kim MJ, Park JH, Schini-Kerth VB. The ginsenoside Rg3 evokes endothelium-independent relaxation in rat aortic rings: role of K⁺ channels. Eur J Pharmacol 1999;367:51–7.