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Genetically encoded ratiometric biosensor for probing lysosomal pH

in mammalian cells and *C. elegans*

Marcus Y. Chin[1,2*], Anand R. Patwardhan[1*], Kean-Hooi Ang[2], Austin L. Wang[1], Carolina Alquezar[1], Mackenzie Welch[1], Michael Grabe[3], Michelle R. Arkin[2†] and Aimee W. Kao[1†]

[1]Memory and Aging Center, Department of Neurology, University of California, San Francisco, California, CA 94158, USA

[2]Small Molecule Discovery Center, Department of Pharmaceutical Chemistry, University of California, San Francisco, CA 94143, USA

[3]Department of Pharmaceutical Chemistry and Cardiovascular Research Institute, University of California, San Francisco, CA 94158, USA

[*] Both authors contributed equally to this manuscript

[†] Corresponding authors: aimee.kao@ucsf.edu and michelle.arkin@ucsf.edu

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Abbreviations: *FIRE-pHLy, Fluorescence Indicator REporting pH in Lysosomes; LAMP1, Lysosomal-associated membrane protein 1; LAMP2, Lysosomal-associated membrane protein 2; V-ATPase, Vacuolar-type ATPase; FP, Fluorescent Protein; mTFP1, monomeric teal fluorescent protein; DAMP, (N-(3-((2,4-dinitrophenyl)amino)propyl)-N-(3-aminopropyl)methylamine, dihydrochloride; FITC; fluorescein isothiocyanate; BafA1, Bafilomycin A1; iPSC, Induced pluripotent stem cells; HEK293, human embryonic kidney 293; RA, Retinoic acid; BDNF, Brain-derived neurotrophic factor; CMV, cytomegalovirus; UbC, ubiquitin C.*

ABSTRACT

Lysosomes are important sites for macromolecular degradation, defined by a profoundly acidic lumenal pH of ~4.5. To better understand lysosomal pH, we designed a novel, genetically encoded, fluorescent protein-based pH biosensor called FIRE-pHLy (Fluorescence Indicator REporting pH in Lysosomes). This sensor was targeted to lysosomes with LAMP1 and reported lumenal pH between 3.0 and 6.0 with monomeric teal fluorescent protein 1 (mTFP1), a bright cyan FP variant with a pKa of 4.3. Ratiometric quantification was enabled with cytosolically oriented mCherry using high-content imaging. We expressed FIRE-pHLy in several cellular models as well as the multicellular organism *C. elegans* and quantified its alkalinizing response to bafilomycin A1, a specific V-ATPase inhibitor. In summary, we have engineered FIRE-pHLy, a specific, robust and versatile lysosomal pH biosensor that has broad applications for investigating pH dynamics in aging and lysosome-related diseases, as well as in lysosome-based drug discovery.

INTRODUCTION

Lysosomes support diverse cellular functions by acting as sites of macromolecular degradation, nutrient recycling, pathogen clearance and signaling events that regulate cellular functions (Huynh et al., 2007; Lawrence & Zoncu, 2019; Mony et al., 2016; Settembre et al., 2013). Mammalian cells eliminate misfolded proteins using either the ubiquitin-proteasome system or autophagy-lysosome pathway. Both play indispensable roles in protein quantity and quality control in the cell (Ballabio & Bonifacino, 2020; Rousseau & Bertolotti, 2018). The degradative abilities of lysosomes are conferred by an extremely acidic lumen (pH ~4.5-4.7) (Casey et al., 2010) which contains more than fifty hydrolytic enzymes, also known as "acid hydrolases" that break down major macromolecules into building blocks that are recycled for cellular reuse (de Duve & Wattiaux, 1966; Ishida et al., 2013; Rudnick, 1987). Lysosomal acidity is maintained through the vacuolar-type H^+-ATPase (V-ATPase) proton pump, an evolutionarily conserved electrogenic pump that generates a proton gradient across membranes through coupling proton translocation with ATP hydrolysis (Beyenbach & Wieczorek, 2006). Additional contributions to lysosomal pH setpoint are made by a number of counter ion channels and transporters (Mindell, 2012).

Lysosomal pH dynamics are broadly implicated in biological and disease pathways. Loss-of-function mammalian V-ATPase mutations are embryonic lethal (Inoue et al., 1999), highlighting the significance of lysosomal function, in particular pH, to the sustainment of life. In cancer, aberrant V-ATPase activity is linked to hyper-acidic lysosomes that promote tumor proliferation and invasion (Kallunki et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2018; Webb et al., 2011). Even relatively small alterations in the proton concentration (~0.5 – 0.9 pH units) can have dramatic effects on tumor aggressiveness (Anderson et al., 2016; Gallagher et al., 2008). In contrast, loss of lysosomal acidity is observed in aging. Yeast vacuoles (metazoan homolog of lysosomes) and *C. elegans* lysosomes lose their acidity with increasing age (Baxi et al., 2017; Hughes & Gottschling, 2012; Sun et al., 2020), but can be rescued with caloric restriction that upregulates V-ATPase activity (Hughes & Gottschling, 2012). Additionally, neuronal health is highly regulated by lysosomal function, as demonstrated by insights from human genetics that link lysosomal dysfunction to a wide range of neurological diseases (Malik et al., 2019; Platt et al., 2012). Notably, reduced lysosomal pH is a probable key factor in the pathogenesis of familial forms of Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, prion diseases and amyotrophic lateral

sclerosis (Bourdenx et al., 2016; Coffey et al., 2014; Van Acker et al., 2019; Wolfe et al., 2013).

Furthermore, Alzheimer's disease-related presenilin-1 mutations have been shown to prevent

proper acidification of lysosomes by inhibiting assembly of V-ATPase subunits (Fang et al.,

2010; Lee et al., 2015; Wolfe et al., 2013). These studies highlight the importance of

investigating lysosomal pH regulatory mechanisms as a potential therapeutic target.

Several small-molecule pH-sensitive dyes, organic fluorophores and synthetic probes

(e.g. LysoSensor, Lysotracker, FITC-dextran, pHrodo-dextran, DAMP, quantum dots) label and

measure lysosomal pH within cells (Han & Burgess, 2010; Jin et al., 2010; Ohkuma, 1989; X.

Wang et al., 2020; Wolfe et al., 2013; X.-X. Zhang et al., 2013). However, these probes have

disadvantages due to their poor specificity of subcellular targeting, cytotoxicity, modification of

cellular metabolic activity, and leakage from cells (Han & Burgess, 2010; Pierzyńska-Mach et

al., 2014; Tantama et al., 2011). The first genetically encoded intracellular pH sensors (called

'pHluorins') were developed through directed mutations of specific residues of green fluorescent

protein (GFP) to pH-sensitive histidine residues (Miesenböck et al., 1998). Subsequent variants

of this biosensor were targeted towards a cytosolic pH range (6.8 to 7.2) (Casey et al., 2010) and

have been reviewed elsewhere (Ashby et al., 2004; Benčina, 2013). Genetically encoded pH

biosensors have many advantages such as (i) controlled expression in different cell types and

tissues, (ii) enhanced intracellular specificity and (iii) bypassing of dye-incubation steps to (iv)

enable long-term, live imaging studies in cells and animals. Despite these advantages, currently

there are only a very limited number of biosensors suitable for reporting the acidic pH range of

lysosomes.

Using the diverse toolkit of FPs (Lambert, 2019; Rodriguez et al., 2017), we engineered a

novel lysosomally targeted cyan and red fusion protein to report lysosomal pH. We call this

fusion protein Fluorescence Indicator REporting pH in Lysosomes, or 'FIRE-pHLy'. FIRE-

pHLy showed specificity with respect to lysosomal localization and for sensing protons within a

dynamic pH range of 3.0 - 6.0. Further, when exposed to bafilomycin A1, a known V-ATPase

inhibitor that alkalinizes lysosomes, FIRE-pHLy demonstrated a dynamic pH response in a

variety of cell types. Unbiased high-content imaging of FIRE-pHLy allowed us to reproducibly

quantify these responses. Given the emerging attention to lysosomal pH in neurodegeneration

and aging, we explored the utility of FIRE-pHLy in the context of primary neurons, human

induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs), neuroblastoma cells and the model organism *C. elegans*.

Thus, FIRE-pHLy represents a novel lysosomal pH sensor with multiple applications, including

the possibility of future use in elucidating pH dynamics in aging and other lysosome-related

diseases.

RESULTS

Design principles for a ratiometric lysosomal pH sensor

To develop a reliable lysosomal pH biosensor that can be applied to any cellular or *in vivo* model, we have selected a ratiometric system in which the relative brightness of two reporters is used to quantify pH measurements. In a dual-reporter, ratiometric system, one fluorophore changes its signal in response to proton concentration while the other serves as a stable reference point for identifying lysosomes and normalizing protein expression, degradation and photobleaching. This capability represents a significant advantage over single fluorophore biosensors that can lead to biased measurements between samples or experiments (Grillo-Hill et al., 2014; O'Connor & Silver, 2013).

For our purposes, a ratiometric lysosomal pH reporter required the following features: 1) a domain for lysosomal targeting, 2) a cytosolically facing fluorescent protein that exhibits stable brightness at physiological intracellular pH (range pH 6.8 to 7.2) (Casey et al., 2010) and 3) a lysosomal lumen-facing fluorescent protein that provides dynamic lysosomal pH sensing at highly acidic pH (pH <5.0). For lysosomal targeting, we utilized LAMP1, a type 1 membrane protein harboring a tyrosine-based lysosomal sorting motif in its short cytoplasmic tail (last 5 amino acids 'GYQTI') (Braulke & Bonifacino, 2009; Rohrer et al., 1996). For the cytosolic, pH-insensitive domain of the reporter, we tested a number of candidates and ultimately chose mCherry for its brightness and fluorescent stability at physiological intracellular pH ranges (Mony et al., 2016).

The success of a lysosomal pH sensor depends upon identifying a fluorescent protein that accurately reflects the highly acidic pH of the lysosome. The ideal fluorescent protein for this purpose requires a low pKa to allow for pH sensing within the anticipated lysosomal pH range. Additional major attributes in choosing a pH-sensitive fluorescent protein include high brightness, photostability and the ability to maintain proper protein folding and integrity within the acidic lysosomal environment. After testing different candidates, we selected mTFP1 (monomeric teal fluorescent protein 1), a variant of cyan fluorescent protein with a pKa of 4.3. mTFP1 possesses a robust sigmoidal pH response *in vitro* across a broad range (pH 2.0 – 9.0) (Ai et al., 2006). It also exhibits a high extinction coefficient (64000 units) with a brightness value of 54 units and demonstrates adequate photostability ($t_{1/2}$ = 163.0 s) (Ai et al., 2006;

Cranfill et al., 2016; Shaner et al., 2004). Thus, mTFP1 offers the optimal balance of favorable

attributes for the pH-sensitive aspect of a ratiometric pH sensor.

The assembled chimeric fluorescent protein construct consisted of an N-terminal,

lysosomal lumen-facing, pH-sensitive mTFP1 fused to the transmembrane portion of human

LAMP1 and a C-terminal, lysosomal pH-insensitive mCherry (**Fig. 1A, B**). A flexible linker

(GGSGGGSGSGGGSG), rich in small and polar amino acids, was added between mTFP1 and

LAMP1 to promote correct protein folding and retention of biological and fluorescence

properties (Chen et al., 2013). To allow correct sorting, maintain a fixed distance between the

two proteins and minimize mCherry aggregation, a rigid linker (PAPAPAP) was placed between

LAMP1 and mCherry (Chen et al., 2013; Shemiakina et al., 2012). Expression of the construct

was driven by the human cytomegalovirus (CMV) promoter.

Spectral compatibility is important in dual-color, ratiometric reporters. To assess for this

in our reporter, we verified the *in vitro* excitation and emission wavelengths for mTFP1 (462 and

492 nm, respectively) and mCherry (587 and 610 nm, respectively) (Ai et al., 2006; Shcherbo et

al., 2007). We excited mTFP1 using a 470 nm laser line and detected emission from 475 to 580

nm. For mCherry, we excited at 587 nm and detected from 592 to 779 nm. Given their distinct

spectral properties, mTFP1 and mCherry exhibited ideal spectral compatibility (**Fig. 1C**).

Using lentiviral transduction, our pH sensor was stably expressed in cell lines such as

human embryonic kidney 293 (HEK293FT) cells and imaged using the abovementioned

conditions (**Fig. 1D**). Finally, we probed lysates of cells expressing FIRE-pHLy via western

blotting with human anti-LAMP1 antibody and confirmed expression (**Fig. 1E**). We designated

the resulting chimeric fluorescent protein as FIRE-pHLy, for Fluorescence Indicator REporting

pH in Lysosomes.

Figure 1. Design of ratiometric lysosomal pH sensor - FIRE-pHLy

(A) Design of FIRE-pHLy expression cassette driven by CMV promoter cloned in the lentiviral pJLM puromycin-resistant plasmid. Chimeric protein (N- to C-terminus) mTFP1-LAMP1-mCherry is targeted to lysosomes via the type-I transmembrane human LAMP1 peptide sequence. Linker regions 1 (GGSGGGSGSGGGSG) and 2 (PAPAPAP) allow proper folding and expression of each protein portion. **(B)** Representation of FIRE-pHLy expressed on lysosomal membranes and mTFP1 fluorescence levels in acidic (low pH) and alkaline (high pH) conditions. Lysosomal pH-sensitive mTFP1 located within the lumen and lysosomal pH-insensitive mCherry is located on the cytosolic side. **(C)** Laser excitation (black dashed lines) and detection wavelengths (nm) used to image mTFP1 and mCherry fluorescence. As reported in literature, white dashed lines indicate expected peak excitation (mTFP1 = 462 nm; mCherry = 587 nm) while arrowheads indicate expected peak emission (mTFP1 = 492 nm; mCherry 610 nm). **(D)** Representative confocal fluorescence images of mTFP1 (green), mCherry (red) and merged (yellow) in stable FIRE-pHLy-expressing HEK293FT cells. Arrowheads highlight representative puncta of

overlapping mTFP1 and mCherry signal. Scale bar = 10 μm. (**E**) Lysates from wild-type (WT) and FIRE-pHLy-
expressing HEK293FT cells were western blotted with anti-hLAMP1 antibody to detect intact FIRE-pHLy fusion
protein expression levels. The expected FIRE-pHLy molecular weight (MW) is between 145-165 kDa, depending on
the glycosylation state of LAMP1 (~90-110 kDa). The MW of mTFP1 and mCherry are 26 and 29 kDa,
respectively.

FIRE-pHLy specifically localized to lysosomal compartments

We first investigated whether FIRE-pHLy sorted to bona fide lysosomal compartments in
HEK293FT cells stably expressing the reporter. To do so, we tested colocalization of FIRE-
pHLy with lysosomal, endosomal and mitochondrial sub-cellular markers (**Fig. 2A-E**). Cells
were imaged using immunofluorescence confocal microscopy with three laser channels. As
expected, since they are co-expressed in the same fusion protein, mTFP1 and mCherry showed
consistently strong positive Pearson's correlation coefficient values (within the range r = 0.78 –
0.82) across all images (**Fig. 2F-J**).

Figure 2. FIRE-pHLy localizes to lysosomal compartments
(**A-E**) Representative images of FIRE-pHLy-expressing HEK293FT cells stained with various markers (shown in
light blue). (**A**) LAMP1 (lysosomal membranes), (**B**) LAMP2 (lysosomal membranes), (**C**) LysoTracker Deep Red
or Lyso-647 (acidic compartments), (**D**) EEA1 (early endosomes), (**E**) MitoTracker Deep Red or Mito-647

(mitochondria). Scale bar = 10 μm. Co-localized marker and mCherry puncta in displayed in white. Nuclei are

shown in dark blue. **(F-J)** Displayed below each image set are Pearson's correlation coefficients (r) calculated using

the ImageJ plugin JACoP (Just Another Colocalization Plugin). Each graph shows a different marker colocalized

with mCherry and mTFP1 colocalized with mCherry. Data points represents mean ± S.D. (3 independent replicates;

n = 15 cells/replicate. Statistical analysis was performed using two-tailed, unpaired Student's *t*-test. *p ≤ 0.05; **p ≤

0.01; ***p ≤ 0.001; ns = not significant).

We then quantified the colocalization of FIRE-pHLy (using mCherry as reference) with

existing markers for various sub-cellular organelles. We first assessed lysosomal markers by

immunostaining for endogenous LAMP1 or LAMP2 or using lysotracker 647. LAMP1 and

LAMP2 are among the most abundant lysosome-associated membrane proteins (Eskelinen,

2006; Saftig & Klumperman, 2009). Endogenous LAMP1 and mCherry showed a very strong

positive correlation (r = 0.74 ± 0.03) **(Fig. 2A)**. Similarly, LAMP2, a well characterized regulator

of autophagy (Tekirdag & Cuervo, 2018), colocalized with mCherry (r = 0.67 ± 0.04) **(Fig. 2B)**.

LysoTracker Deep Red (Lyso-647) is a widely used commercially available fluorescent probe

that preferentially accumulates in acidic vesicular compartments, such as late endosomes and

lysosomes (Chazotte, 2011). Co-localization of Lyso-647 and mCherry was moderately strong (r

= 0.63 ± 0.03) **(Fig. 2C)**. On the contrary, early endosome antigen 1 (EEA1) is a membrane-

bound protein found specifically on early endosomes (Mu et al., 1995) and its labeling is

characterized by large distinct ring-like structures (Wilson et al., 2000). In contrast to the

lysosomal markers, only a lower fraction of mCherry associated with EEA1 (r = 0.41 ± 0.02)

(Fig. 2D) likely reflecting the maturation of lysosomes from the highly dynamic endolysomal

continuum (Jovic et al., 2010).

Finally, MitoTracker Deep Red (Mito-647) was used to stain mitochondria as a negative

control **(Fig. 2E)**. Most Mito-647 did not strongly colocalize with FIRE-pHLy (r = 0.26 ± 0.03).

The small percentage of colocalization was anticipated because mitochondria-lysosome crosstalk

is known to occur (Deus et al., 2020; Lahuerta et al., 2018). Taken together, we concluded that

FIRE-pHLy localization exhibited normal trafficking and sorting pathways with high specificity

towards lysosomal membranes as defined by its LAMP1 and LAMP2 colocalization.

Quantification & visualization of pH-dependent, mTFP1 fluorescence in live cells

Next, we characterized the ability of FIRE-pHLy to report lysosomal pH in living cells.

To do so, we first established a robust quantitative high-content analysis workflow to acquire

ratiometric confocal images (**Fig. 3A**). Automated, multi-wavelength imaging represents a
powerful technical advance that allows rapid acquisition of unbiased, large-scale, cell population
images while minimizing the potential variation of manual imaging. Furthermore, high-content
image analysis techniques enable nested post-processing features that precisely quantify cellular
phenotypes of interest while removing background noise.

Here, we built a specific lysosomal segmentation protocol that extracted relevant image
information, such as fluorescence intensities and nucleus count, to assess pH dependence in
FIRE-pHLy-expressing cells (See Methods for details). After seeding HEK293FT cells stably
expressing FIRE-pHLy into 96-well microplates, we examined proton (H^+)-dependent mTFP1
fluorescence by artificially adjusting lysosomal pH using ionophores. Prior to imaging, the cell
culture media was exchanged with pH calibration buffers (pH 2.0 to 7.0) supplemented with 10
μM nigericin (Wolfe et al., 2013) and 1X monensin to permeabilize membranes. Nigericin
(K^+/H^+) and monensin (Na^+/H^+) are well-characterized ionophores that exchange K^+ (and to a
lesser extent Na^+) for H^+ across cell membranes, thus equilibrating external pH with that of the
lysosomal lumen (Harned et al., 1951; Wolfe et al., 2013). After 10 minutes of incubation,
simultaneous dual color live confocal images were rapidly acquired with an automated confocal
microscope to obtain accurate fluorescence values for mTFP1 and mCherry across different pH
values.

Figure 3. pH calibration in live FIRE-pHLy-expressing HEK293FT cells

(A) High-throughput workflow for pH calibration protocol. FIRE-pHLy-expressing HEK293FT cells were seeded in 96-well assay plates, incubated with pH buffers (adjusted to 2.0, 3.0, 3.5, 4.0, 4.5, 5.0, 6.0 and 7.0), imaged live using a high-content confocal image analyzer and quantified. **(B)** Fluorescence ratios ($F_{mTFP1}/F_{mCherry}$) were plotted against pH values to generate a sigmoidal pH calibration curve. Data points are presented as mean ± S.D., from 4 independent replicates; n=10,000 cells per replicate. Curve was fitted using a sigmoidal nonlinear regression model with the x-axis constrained at 0. Tukey's test for multiple stepwise comparisons indicated significance between all pH groups, except pH 6.0 and pH 7.0. **(C)** Black and white images of mTFP1, mCherry and nuclei taken from one field of one representative assay well from different pH conditions.

To quantify lysosomal pH, fluorescence intensity ratios for mTFP1 and mCherry ($F_{mTFP1}/F_{mCherry}$) were calculated and plotted according to the pH of the buffer. Measurements were then fitted to generate a pH calibration curve **(Fig. 3B).** The ratio curve exhibited a significant positive sigmoidal relationship with pH, showing a two-fold change in fluorescence ratio between pH 3.0 and 6.0.

As anticipated, mTFP1 fluorescence was the sole driver of the FIRE-pHLy ratio change. mTFP1 signal decreased under acidic conditions, with fluorescence quenching below pH 3.5. mTFP1 exhibited increasing brightness in less acidic buffer conditions of pH 5.0 to 6.0 with plateauing of fluorescence above pH 6.0 **(Fig. 3C).** In accordance with its reported pKa of ~4.3, mTFP1 reproducibly measured pH within the ionophore induced pH range 3.0 to 6.0, making it

one of the most robust fluorophores for engineering a genetically encoded lysosomal pH sensor

to date. The fluorescence of mCherry remained stable over a considerable range of pH values

(see Discussion) and Hoechst nuclear staining also provided a pH-independent cell count.

Collectively, these results confirmed FIRE-pHLy as a robust, highly quantitative, non-invasive

tool to measure lysosomal pH in live cells using high-content microscopy.

Functional validation of FIRE-pHLy in different cell types

Optimal lysosomal pH is maintained by the V-ATPase proton pump, a multi-subunit

protein complex localized on lysosomal membranes that generates an inward proton flux to

acidify lysosomes (Mindell, 2012). Bafilomycin A1 (BafA1) is a potent V-ATPase inhibitor and

functions by binding to the V0c subunit, thus blocking proton translocation (Dröse & Altendorf,

1996). To further validate FIRE-pHLy in fixed cells **(Fig. 4A)**, pH was measured after

alkalinizing lysosomes using BafA1. FIRE-pHLy-expressing HEK293FT cells were incubated

with pH buffers similar to methods described above, fixed, and imaged to generate a standard pH

calibration curve **(Fig. 4B)**. Cells were treated with BafA1 concentrations of 30 nM to 1000 nM

(Fig 4C). Lysosomal pH increased dose-dependently with BafA1 concentration, plateauing at

300 nM with a pH~5.6 compared to the control-treatment group pH of ~4.1.

Given that FIRE-pHLy behaved as a robust ratiometric pH biosensor, we sought to

functionally validate its utility in a variety of different cell types. First, we performed lentiviral

transduction to generate stable FIRE-pHLy lines in induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs), SH-

SY5Y neuroblastoma cells, retinoic acid-differentiated SH-SY5Y neuron-like cells and primary

rat neurons **(Fig. 4D-G)**. For transduction into iPSCs, the CMV promoter was exchanged for a

human ubiquitin C (UbC) promoter-driven lentiviral FIRE-pHLy construct, since CMV is

silenced by DNA methylation during differentiation and shows weak activity in certain cell types

including iPSCs (Brooks et al., 2004; Meilinger et al., 2009). FIRE-pHLy-expressing stable cell

lines were treated with 100nM BafA1 for 6 hours, a condition that we previously determined to

reliably induce pH elevation (pH~5.1). Cells were then fixed and subjected to high content

imaging and analysis. Elevation of lysosomal pH would be expected to increase mTFP1

fluorescence, thus increasing the FIRE-pHLy fluorescence ratio. Indeed, comparisons of ratios

with and without BafA1 treatment confirmed that FIRE-pHLy detected lysosomal alkalization

across all cell lines tested (**Fig. 4H-K**).

Figure 4. *In vitro* FIRE-pHLy models and relative pH measurements with bafilomycin A1

(A) Representative mTFP1 and mCherry ratiometric images of PFA-fixed FIRE-pHLy-expressing HEK293FT cells taken on a high-content confocal imaging system. Scale bars = 10 μm. **(B)** pH calibration curve generated from fixed, pH buffer (pH 3.5 – 7.0) treated cells. Data points are presented as mean ± S.D., from 4 independent replicates; n = 10,000 cells per replicate. **(C)** FIRE-pHLy fluorescence ratios ($F_{mTFP1}/F_{mCherry}$) of FIRE-pHLy-expressing HEK293FT cells treated with bafilomycin (BafA1 30 nM to 1000 nM) and 0.1% DMSO (control) for 6 hours. Data points are presented as mean ± S.D., from 6 independent replicates; n = 10,000 cells per replicate. Tukey's test for multiple stepwise comparisons indicated significance between all groups including control, except BafA1 300 nM and 1000 nM. **(D-G)** Ratiometric images (left to right) of FIRE-pHLy stably expressed in human

iPSCs, SH-SY5Y, Differentiated SH-SY5Y, and late embryonic rat hippocampal neuronal cells. All cells were fixed

prior to image acquisition. Scale bar = 50 μm. **(H-K)** 100 nM bafilomycin A1 was treated on cells for 6 hours and

compared to 0.1% DMSO solvent control. Box-and-whisker plots show median, interquartile range (25th-75th

percentile) and maximum/minimum values of mean ratios per well. **(H)** human iPSC; 18 independent replicates; n =

15,000 cells per replicate. **(I)** SH-SY5Y; 76 independent replicates; n = 1,000 cells per replicate. **(J)** RA-

differentiated SH-SY5Y; 120 independent replicates; n = 3,000 cells per replicate. **(K)** primary rat hippocampal

neurons; 3 independent replicates; n = 10,000 cells per replicate. Statistical analysis was performed using two-tailed,

unpaired Student's *t*-test. *p ≤ 0.05; **p ≤ 0.01; ***p ≤ 0.001; ns = not significant.

These results were consistent with our previous observations that FIRE-pHLy

reproducibly and accurately detected lysosomal pH perturbation in cells, highlighting the

potential of mapping pH in a variety of cell types and conditions.

Monitoring FIRE-pHLy functions *in vivo*

From *in vitro* experiments using live and fixed cells, we further validated FIRE-pHLy

using *in vivo* imaging. *C. elegans* has been a powerful model system for studying the basic

biology of aging, cell death and many other biological phenomena (Son et al., 2019; Z. Wang &

Sherwood, 2011). In addition, the nematode is highly amenable to genetic manipulation, has a

short lifespan, and can be easily imaged through its transparent body wall (Apfeld & Alper,

2018; Kao et al., 2011). In recent years, studies on lysosomal biology have taken advantage of

these features in *C. elegans* to determine key roles for the lysosome in stem cell maintenance

(Bohnert & Kenyon, 2017) and aging-associated phenomena (Sun et al., 2020). Thus, we adapted

FIRE-pHLy for study in *C. elegans*.

Figure 5: *In vivo* **functional validation of FIRE-pHLy in** *C. elegans*

(A) *C. elegans* FIRE-pHLy expression cassette driven by intestinal promoter *(Pvha-6::mtfp1::clmp1::mcherry)* co-injected with selection marker (P*myo-2::gfp*) expressed in the pharynx. The human LAMP1 sequence was exchanged for the *C. elegans* LAMP1 homolog, cLMP1. **(B)** Merged brightfield, mTFP1 and mCherry confocal images of 5 anaesthetized adult (L4) N2 worms expressing the FIRE-pHLy transgene and co-injection marker. Arrows indicate the pharynx and intestines. Dashed white box delineates a representative imaging region. Scale bar = 50 μm. **(C)** PCR sequencing of transgenic FIRE-pHLy-expressing worms and purified plasmid using forward & reverse mTFP1 specific primers. **(D)** Merged image showing Lyso-647 staining (shown in blue) with P*vha-6* driven expression of FIRE-pHLy expression (detected as punctuate structures) in intestinal tissue. White box shows zoomed insert of mTFP1, mCherry and Lyso-647 fluorescent puncta. Arrowheads highlight representative colocalized puncta. Scale bar = 50 μm. **(E)** Pearson's correlation coefficients (r) of Lyso-647 and mTFP1 colocalized with mCherry. Data points are presented as mean ± S.D., from n = 20 worms. Statistical analysis was performed using two-tailed, unpaired Student's *t*-test. **(F)** FIRE-pHLy fluorescence ratios ($F_{mTFP1}/F_{mCherry}$) of worm intestinal cells pre-incubated with 50 μM BafA1 and untreated control for 30 min. Box-and-whisker plot shows median, interquartile range (25th-75th percentile) and maximum/minimum values of mean ratios; 5 independent replicates; n = 18-20 worms/replicate. Statistical analysis was performed using two-tailed, unpaired Student's *t*-test. *p ≤ 0.05; **p ≤ 0.01; ***p ≤ 0.001; ns = not significant.

Maintaining a similar topology, we generated an *in vivo* FIRE-pHLy expression vector by replacing the human LAMP1 signal peptide sequence with the homologous *C. elegans* cLMP1. The *vha-6* promoter was used to generate a nematode FIRE-pHLy with intestine-specific expression to allow ease of visualization and manipulation with BafA1 (**Fig. 5A**). *Pmyo-2::GFP* was utilized as a co-injection marker to allow for rapid selection of transgenic animals based on

bright pharyngeal expression **(Fig. 5B)**. Presence of the transgene was confirmed via polymerase chain reaction **(Fig. 5C)**.

In live, anaesthetized, transgenic animals expressing FIRE-pHLy, mTFP1 and mCherry fluorescence was detected on punctate structures morphologically similar to lysosomes that colocalized with lysosomes marked with Lyso-647 (Pearson's coefficient value r = 0.64 ± 0.17) **(Fig. 5D-E)**. This confirmed trafficking and sorting of FIRE-pHLy to lysosomal compartments. We also assessed FIRE-pHLy functionality by alkalinizing lysosomes in the intestines. Upon BafA1 treatment, FIRE-pHLy ratios in transgenic *C. elegans* significantly increased in a reproducible manner **(Fig. 5F)**. To summarize, we successfully demonstrated FIRE-pHLy function *in vivo* in *C. elegans*, opening future avenues to profile lysosomal pH dynamics in a tissue and age-specific manner.

DISCUSSION

Intracellular and intra-organellar pH, particularly that of lysosomes, plays a vital role in regulating cellular homeostasis. Lysosomes are the key component in the degradation and recycling of macromolecules, act as hubs for nutrient sensing and signaling, and are actively involved with secretion and immune response (Settembre et al., 2013). Due to their ubiquitous involvement in such fundamental processes, lysosomal dysfunction is linked to a host of diseases. Lysosomes are biochemically defined by their low pH, which determines their degradative capacity (Xu & Ren, 2015). Indeed, the proteolytic activity of lysosomes are compromised in aging and age-related disorders (Martinez-Vicente et al., 2005), with evidence supporting lysosomal acidification defects in neurodegenerative disorders such as Alzheimer's disease (Wolfe et al., 2013). Additionally, dysregulated lysosomal pH is linked to tumorigenesis (Glunde et al., 2003). Collectively, these findings have transformed our traditional understanding of lysosomes as passive waste receptacles to dynamic participants in regulating cellular health and disease, thus making them salient therapeutic targets (Appelqvist et al., 2013).

Given the central role of pH in lysosomal function and overall cellular homeostasis, numerous lysosomal probes have been developed. Current technologies mostly include fluorescent small molecules that rely on efficient uptake into cells (Han and Burgess, 2010; Wolfe et al., 2013). As such, these probes are limited by their lack of lysosomal targeting specificity, short-term imaging stability, cell-to-cell variability and inability to access all tissues in multicellular organisms. Genetically encoded sensors, on the other hand, have the potential to address these concerns, demonstrated for intracellular pH measurements (Benčina, 2013; Gjetting et al., 2012; Grover et al., 2012; Martynov et al., 2018; Pakhomov et al., 2017; Raimondo et al., 2013; Shirmanova et al., 2015; Tantama et al., 2011; Y. Zhang et al., 2012), however, the field of lysosomal biology still lacks a robust genetically encoded pH biosensors. For example, such sensors have already been widely explored in the field of calcium imaging (M. Z. Lin & Schnitzer, 2016; Mank & Griesbeck, 2008). Therefore, we sought to engineer an accessible genetically encoded detection tool to accurately and dynamically map pH under different biological contexts. We generated genetically encoded FIRE-pHLy, a chimeric protein biosensor **(Fig. 1)** that offered several technical and biological advantages compared to previously described pH detection dyes. First, FIRE-pHLy was targeted very specifically to lysosomal membranes with high degrees of colocalization with LAMP1 and LAMP2 **(Fig. 2)**.

This simultaneously addressed off-target subcellular localization issues and provided the ability
to accurately report pH in lysosomes, thus improving upon the precision of previous acidic
compartment probes.

Moreover, FIRE-pHLy can be easily expressed in a variety of model systems including
multiple cell types and organisms and thus overcome limitations of synthetic probes. Potentially,
FIRE-pHLy can be driven by different promoters to tune sensor levels in various cell types and
cell states, while minimizing overexpression artifacts. We generated stable FIRE-pHLy cell
models in HEK293FT, SH-SY5Y, differentiated SH-SY5Y, iPSC and primary rat neurons while
also targeting FIRE-pHLy expression to the intestinal tissue of *C. elegans* animals (**Fig. 4 and**
5). FIRE-pHLy expression remained stable, which enables future comparisons of pH between
independent samples or experiments staged at longer time scales. This is important because
accurate and dynamic monitoring of lysosomal pH across time may uncover aging phenotypes
relevant to long-lived cells or animals. For example, lysosomal function and intracellular pH
dynamics can be explored in the context of cellular differentiation (in iPSCs or RA-differentiated
SH-SY5Y cells) or natural aging (in *C. elegans*) (Baxi et al., 2017; Chao et al., 2018; Lawrence
& Zoncu, 2019; Sun et al., 2020). To validate our models, bafilomycin treatment was used to
alkalinize lysosomes and confirmed a consistent increase in lysosomal pH (**Fig 4 and 5**).
Interestingly, we observed cell type differences in the extent of relative pH response. This
suggests context-dependent pH regulatory and compensatory mechanisms that warrant further
investigation.

Molecularly, mTFP1 offers a number of favorable attributes for a pH sensor because of
its titratable fluorescence within the physiological lysosomal pH range. mTFP1 has a pKa ~4.3,
signifying that only 50% of fluorescence molecules will be quenched at that value and lower pH
values may be recorded (Ai et al., 2006; Shinoda et al., 2018). Additionally, mTFP1 also resists
common FP pitfalls such as photobleaching and aggregation. Accordingly, FIRE-pHLy is tuned
to detect pH changes within the range of 3.0 to 6.0, which captures the physiological pH range of
lysosomes with 0.5-unit accuracy as demonstrated by unbiased high-content imaging and
quantification methods (**Fig. 3**).

We would like to acknowledge that recently, two related sensors containing mCherry-
pHluorin-LAMP1 (Ponsford et al., 2020) and sfGFP-LAMP1-mCherry fusions (Webb et al.,
2020) have been published. The described probes have a reported pKa of ~6.5 and ~5.0,

respectively. However, to our knowledge, FIRE-pHLy is the first lysosome-targeted pH
biosensor that incorporates mTFP1 as its novel pH-sensing domain with a pKa of 4.3 that
allowed for pH measurements within the extremely acidic range of physiological lysosomes.
FIRE-pHLy is also the first ratiometric lysosomal pH biosensor that was adapted to meet the
unique demands of both *in vitro* or *in vivo* systems. In the future, we hope to manipulate FIRE-
pHLy expression patterns using numerous *C. elegans* tissue specific promoters to elucidate
potential correlations between lysosomal pH and function in the context of development, aging
and in disease models. Moreover, by changing the targeting partner (i.e. LAMP1), mTFP1-
mediated pH measurements can be easily targeted to any specific subcellular compartments (e.g.
endosomes, mitochondria, endoplasmic reticulum, Golgi apparatus), thus making it a highly
versatile tool for measuring organelle-specific pH.

FIRE-pHLy can be easily imaged on most fluorescence microscopes because it is
amenable to ratiometric imaging on standard GFP (488 nm) and mCherry (561 nm) filter sets. In
addition to traditional live confocal microscopy, we also performed high-content imaging and
unbiased quantitative analyses using FIRE-pHLy on fixed cells. We found that FIRE-pHLy
fluorescence is not quenched during fixation, which enables high-throughput imaging
applications. FIRE-pHLy signal is bright and distinct, which allows for accurate feature
extraction of lysosomes in multiplexed quantitative workflows in cells. Thus, FIRE-pHLy could
be adapted to high-throughput screening platforms for drug discovery purposes.

During optimization of our pH calibration curve in live cells, we observed a decrease in
mCherry fluorescence associated with prolonged use of ionophores in extreme low pH (2.0 –
4.0). This ionophore-dependent quenching has been previously observed, and the general
recommendation is to limit exposure with ionophores by imaging the samples within 10 to 30
minutes after nigericin or monensin buffer addition (Canton & Grinstein, 2017; Grillo-Hill et al.,
2014; H.-J. Lin et al., 2003; Wolfe et al., 2013). This issue can be resolved by fixing the cells;
however, the calibration dynamic range becomes tighter **(Fig. 3 & 4).** Clearly, this problem
exists only with the artificial conditions required for ionophore calibrations and does not affect
whole-cell measurements of lysosomal lumenal pH under physiological conditions. Analysis of
individual mTFP1 and mCherry fluorescence intensity under bafilomycin treatment, which
selectively elevates lumenal pH of lysosomes but not cytosolic pH **(Supplementary Fig. 1A)**,
confirmed that only mTFP1 fluorescence varies with lysosomal pH change **(Supplementary Fig.**

1B, C). Therefore, we recommend that ionophore concentration should be optimized separately

for each particular model before generating pH calibration curves.

Supplementary Figure 1: Ratiometric validation of individual FIRE-pHLy fluorophores

(**A**) $F_{mTFP1}/F_{mCherry}$ ratio quantified from FIRE-pHLy-expressing HEK293FT cells treated with 1 μM bafilomycin for

6 hours compared to 0.1% DMSO solvent control. (**B**) mTFP1 mean fluorescence intensity normalized by cell count.

(**C**) mCherry mean fluorescence intensity normalized by cell count. Data points are presented as mean ± S.D., from

6 independent replicates; n=10,000 cells per replicate. Statistical analysis was performed using two-tailed, unpaired

Welch's *t*-test for unequal variances. *$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; ***$p \leq 0.001$; ns = not significant.

CONCLUSION

In summary, we have developed FIRE-pHLy, a novel genetically encoded ratiometric pH

biosensor that localizes to lysosomal membranes and measures lumenal pH within physiological

ranges. FIRE-pHLy responds robustly to pH changes and is amenable to stable integration to

multiple biological models, including cell lines and animals. Moreover, FIRE-pHLy is amenable

to both live- and fixed-cell assays, and both high-resolution confocal microscopy and

quantitative high-content imaging. We anticipate that FIRE-pHLy will be applied to elucidate pH

dynamics in basic lysosomal biology and disease. It may also be translated to phenotypic-

screening platforms for drug discovery. And finally, by engineering *in vivo* models such as *C.*

elegans, this study opens new avenues to profile lysosomal functions in age related-neurological

and other diseases.

METHODS

Construction of <u>F</u>luorescence <u>I</u>ndicator <u>RE</u>porting <u>pH</u> in <u>L</u>ysosomes (FIRE-pHLy)

The genetically encoded FIRE-pHLy reporter cassette consists of the following coding segments, from the N-terminus: CMV-human LAMP1 signal peptide (84bp) – mTFP1 – flexible linker 1 (GGSGGGSGSGGGSG) – human LAMP1 – rigid linker 2 (PAPAPAP) - mCherry. Source of different elements are as follows: LAMP1 signal peptide and human LAMP1 were PCR amplified from LAMP1-mGFP (Addgene Plasmid #34831, kind gift from the Mark Von Zastrov lab, UCSF), mTFP1 amplified from mTFP1-pBAD (Addgene Plasmid #54553), mCherry amplified from pcDNA3.1-mCherry (Addgene Plasmid #128744). The DNA segments were PCR amplified (Phusion® High-Fidelity PCR Master Mix, NEB, UK, #M0531) and fused with Gibson recombination cloning method (Gibson Assembly® Master Mix, NEB, UK, #E2611) in pEGFP-N3 empty backbone. The linker sequences were incorporated into the primer sequences. The FIRE-pHLy expression cassette was cloned into lentiviral vectors with CMV promoter (pLJM1-EGFP; Addgene Plasmid #19319) and hUbC promoter (FUGW; Addgene Plasmid #14883) by Epoch Life Science services (Sugar Land,Texas, USA). To generate the *C. elegans* version of FIRE-pHLy, DNA segments encoding *C. elegans* LMP1, mTFP1 and mCherry were PCR amplified and cloned into a P*vha-6* containing pDONR P4-P1R backbone (a kind gift from Kevah Ashrafi lab, UCSF) by Gibson Assembly. The P*myo-2::GFP* injection marker was also a kind gift from the Ashrafi lab, UCSF. All clones were verified by sequencing (Elim Biopharmaceuticals, Inc., Hayward, CA, USA).

Cell culture and lentiviral transduction

All cells were cultured at 37°C with 5% CO_2 atmosphere and maintained under standard procedures. HEK293FT cells (Thermo Fisher Scientific; Carlsbad, CA, USA, #R70007) were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle medium (DMEM; Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA, #11-995-073) with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS; Gemini Bio, Sacramento, CA, USA, #GEMZR039) containing 1% penicillin and streptomycin (pen/strep) (Gibco; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc., Waltham, MA, USA, #15140122) with 500 µg/mL G418 sulfate antibiotic (Thermo Fisher Scientific, #11811031). SH-SY5Y cells (American Type Culture Collection; ATCC, Maryland, USA, #CRL-2266) were maintained in 1:1 Eagle's Minimum Essential Medium (EMEM; ATCC, #30-2003) and F12 medium (Life Technologies; Carlsbad, CA, USA, #11765062) with 10% FBS and 1% pen/strep. Cells were trypsinized with

0.05% Trysin-EDTA solution (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA, #T4049) during routine passaging.

Lentiviral packaging and titer assessments of FIRE-pHLy-lentivirus were performed by the

UCSF ViraCore facility. For lentivirus transduction, HEK293FT and SH-SY5Y cells were plated

in 6-well plates and cultured to ~70% confluence. Protocol was modified for iPSCs and primary

rat neurons (see below). Lentivirus infections were carried out in the presence of 10 μg/mL of

polybrene (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA, #S2667) in complete media. 48 hours post-transduction,

cells were selected with 1 μg/mL puromycin (Millipore; Carlsbad, CA, USA, #540411) to

generate stable transgene-expressing cell lines. Long-term transgene expression was maintained

by selecting for resistance to puromycin at a final concentration of 1 μg/mL. SH-SY5Y cells

were sorted for green and red positive fluorescence signal on a SH800S Cell Sorter (Sony

Biotechnology) at the UCSF Laboratory of Cell Analysis.

Generation of FIRE-pHLy-expressing iPSCs

The F11350 iPSC line was obtained from the laboratory of Celeste Karch at Washington

University School of Medicine (Karch et al., 2019). Cells were maintained in matrigel (Corning,

#354277) coated plates using mTSER media (StemCell Technologies, Vancouver, Canada,

#05850), which was replaced every day. During passaging, cells were lifted using Accutase

(ThermoFisher Scientific, #A1110501) and then replated in media supplemented with 10 μM

ROCK inhibitor (Y-27632, StemCell Technologies, #72304). For the transduction of the virus,

iPSCs were plated onto matrigel-coated 24-well plates at a density of 50,000 cells per well.

Serial dilutions of the UbC promoter FIRE-pHLy lentiviral vector were prepared in mTSER

media with 4 μg/ml polybrene (Sigma, #S2667) Lentivirus media was allowed to transduce cells

for 24 hours and then fresh media changes were performed every day until 80% confluence was

reached. Clonal populations of green/red fluorescence positive cells were manually selected and

transferred into separate wells for expansion.

Isolation of primary rat neurons and FIRE-pHLy lentivirus transduction

Wildtype SAS Sprague Dawley rats (Charles River Laboratories, Wilmington, MA, USA) and

isolation reagents were a kind gift from the Molofsky Lab (UCSF). Embryos staged at day 18

were dissected from one pregnant rat and immediately placed in chilled brain dissection buffer

(HBSS-Ca^{2+}/Mg^{2+}-free with 10 mM HEPES buffer, pH 7.3). Brains were removed from 5

individual embryos and hippocampi halves were isolated after removal of the meninges.

Hippocampi were digested with trypsin/EDTA solution and DNAase at 37°C incubation for 25

min. Quenching buffer (HI-OVO diluted 1:5 in HBSS-Ca^{2+}/Mg^{2+}-free, with 50% glucose,

ovomucoid, bovine serum albumin, and DNAase) was subsequently added to inhibit trypsin

digestion. Following centrifugation and buffer removal, culture medium I (DMEM-high glucose,

L-glutamine-sodium pyruvate free) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS) (not heat

activated) was added to partially digested hippocampi. Cells were then manually dissociated and

plated in poly-D-lysine coated 96-well plates (Greiner Bio-One, Kremsmünster, Austria,

#655956) at a density of 15,000 cells per well. After 24 hours, media was replaced with culture

medium II (Neurobasal medium, 1% heat inactivated FCS, 2% B27 supplement, 1X Glutamax I,

1X MycoZap plus, and 15mM NaCl). At DIV 5 (5 days in vitro), 5 µM 5-Fluorouracil was added

to curb glial cell proliferation. At DIV 7, neurons were transduced with UbC-FIRE-pHLy

lentivirus for 24 hours. Half media changes were performed every two days until DIV 14.

RA-differentiation of FIRE-pHLy SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cells

SH-SY5Y cells were seeded in collagen type I-coated µClear 96-well plates (Greiner Bio-One,

#655956) at a density of 10,000 cells/cm^2 24 hours before start of differentiation. Differentiation

media was composed of 10 µM of retinoic acid (RA) (Sigma, #R2625) in EMEM/F12 media

supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% P/S. After 6 days of RA treatment, cells were treated for 4

days with 50 ng/mL of brain-derived growth factor (BDNF) (Peprotech, Rocky Hill, NJ, USA,

#450-02B) in serum-depleted EMEM/F12 media supplemented with 1% pen/strep (Alquezar et

al., 2020; Encinas et al., 2000).

Antibodies & reagents

Immunofluorescence. AlexaFluor 647 mouse-anti-hLAMP1 (1:500, Biolegend, Carlsbad, CA,

USA; #328611), AlexaFluor 647 mouse-anti-hLAMP2 (1:500, Biolegend, Carlsbad, CA, USA;

#354311), mouse-anti-EEA1 (1:1000, BD Biosciences; Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA; #610457),

AlexaFluor 647 goat anti-mouse (1:500, Life Technologies; #A21206). *Western blot.* hLAMP1

(1:1000, DSHB, University of Iowa, USA, #2296838). *Reagents.* LysoTracker Deep Red^{TM}

(Life Technologies; #L12492), MitoTracker Deep Red FM (Invitrogen; Carlsbad, CA, USA,

#M22426), Monensin solution 1000X (Invitrogen; #501129057), Nigericin solution (Sigma

Aldrich, USA, #SML1779), paraformaldehyde (PFA) solution (Fisher Scientific; #50980494),

glycine (Sigma; #G7126), bovine serum albumin (BSA) (Fisher Scientific; #BP1605100), D-

PBS (Sigma; #D8662), Saponin (Sigma; #S7900).

Western blotting

Lysates from FIRE-pHLy-expressing HEK293FT cells were collected from 1X RIPA buffer (Fisher Scientific, #89900) supplemented with a cocktail of phosphatase and protease inhibitors (Roche, Basel, Switzerland, #4693116001). Sample protein concentrations were determined using the Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay kit (Thermo Scientific, #PI23225). Samples were loaded onto a Novex NuPAGE SDS-PAGE gel system with MOPS running buffer (Life Technologies, #NP001). Proteins were transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes and blotted with indicated antibodies. Imaging of band intensities were performed on a LI-COR Odyssey Infrared System (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA).

Immunofluorescence and colocalization analysis

FIRE-pHLy-expressing HEK293FT cells were plated in TC-grade chamber slides (μ-Slide 8-well chamber slide, Ibidi, Gräfelfing, Germany, #50305795) at a density of 30,000 cells per well for 24 hours. For uptake of organelle markers, cells were incubated with 30 nM LysoTracker Deep Red or 30 nM MitoTracker Deep Red FM along with 1:1000 Hoechst dye (10mg/mL Hoescht 33342 solution, ThermoFisher, #H3570) in culture medium at 37°C/5% CO_2 for 10 min. For immunofluorescence staining, cells were washed once with 1X D-PBS (with $MgCl_2$ and $CaCl_2$) and fixed with 2% PFA for 15 min at room temperature (RT). Then, cells were washed once with glycine, blocked for 2 min with 2% BSA/D-PBS, and permeabilized with 0.01% saponin/2% BSA for 1 min at RT. Cells were incubated with primary antibodies for 1 hour at RT, secondary antibodies for 1 hour at RT shielded from light, and washed twice. Cells were imaged using an inverted confocal line-scanning microscope (DMi8 CS Bino, Leica Microsystems Inc., Wetzlar, Germany) with a 63x/1.40 oil-immersion objective lens at 2048x2048 pixel resolution. Fluorescence images was acquired with sequential scanning between frames on the LAS X SP8 Control Software system using preset channel settings (Blue Ex/Em: 405 nm/410-464nm; Green Ex/Em: 470 nm/474-624nm; Red Ex/Em: 587 nm/592-646 nm; Far Red Ex/Em: 653 nm/658-775 nm). Randomly acquired imaging fields were processed and the Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated using ImageJ (NIH, Maryland, USA) (Schneider et al., 2012) plugin JACoP (Just Another Co-localization Plugin).

pH calibration buffers and standard curve

pH calibration buffers and procedures were adapted from a previously described study with few modifications (Wolfe et al., 2013). Buffer recipe is described below, composed of 5 mM NaCl,

660   115 mM KCl, and 1.3 mM $MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$, 25 mM MES buffer with pH adjusted in the range 2.0

661   – 7.0. Freshly made buffers were supplemented with $10\mu M$ nigericin and 1X monensin.

Stock Conc.	5M NaCl	1M KCl	1M MgSO$_4 \cdot$7H$_2$O	0.5M MES	6.7mM Nigericin	Monensin (1000X)	1N KOH/ 1N HCl *	Final volume
Volume	10 µl	1150 µl	13 µl	500 µl	15 µl	10 µl	*	10ml
Final Conc.	5 mM	115 mM	1.3 mM	25 mM	10 µM	1X		(H$_2$O)

*pH values are adjusted using pH meter with appropriate acid/base. (conc., concentration)

On day 1, FIRE-pHLy-expressing HEK293FT cells were seeded at a density of 10,000 cells/well

resuspended in 100 µl media in collagen type-1 coated, black-bottom 96-well plates (µClear,

Greiner Bio-One; #655956). Plates were left in the culture hood at room temperature for 45 min

to allow for even cell distribution before incubated at 37°C/5.0% CO_2 overnight. On day 2, cell

nuclei were stained with 1:1000 (vol/well) Hoechst dye (10 mg/mL Hoescht 33342 solution,

ThermoFisher, #H3570) diluted in cell culture media for 20 min at 37°C/5.0% CO_2. After one

wash with 50 µl of 1X D-PBS, 50 µl of each pH titration buffer supplemented with 10 µM

nigericin and 1X monensin were added to wells and incubated at 37°C/5.0% CO_2 for 10 min

(note: do not exceed). Plates were then immediately imaged live on the IN Cell Analyzer 6500

HS (General Electric Life Sciences/Cytiva, Marlborough, MA, USA) and processed (see *High-*

content confocal microscopy, feature extraction and ratiometric image analysis). Liquid

dispensing and aspiration were performed using an automatic multichannel pipette (Voyager II,

INTEGRA Biosciences Corp, Hudson, NH, USA; #4722).

Bafilomycin treatment assay in cells

Cells were seeded and cultured on 96-well plates prior to addition of 100 nM bafilomycin A1

(LC Laboratories, Woburn, MA #B-1080). After 6 hours, cells were fixed with 2% PFA at room

temperature (RT) for 15 min and washed once with 1X D-PBS. Cells were stained with 1X

Hoechst dye for 20 min at RT protected from light and washed once with 1X D-PBS. Plates were

imaged on the IN Cell Analyzer 6500 HS and processed (see *High-content confocal microscopy,*

feature extraction and ratiometric image analysis).

High-content confocal microscopy, feature extraction and ratiometric image analysis

Black 96-well assay plates (µClear® bottom, Greiner Bio-One; #655956) were imaged using a

fully automated laser-scanning confocal cell imaging system (IN Cell Analyzer 6500HS, GE

Life Sciences) with a NIKON 20X/0.75, Plan Apo, CFI/60 objective lens and preset excitation

lasers (Blue 405 nm; Green: 488 nm; Red: 561 nm). Laser and software autofocus settings were

applied to determine a single optimal focus position. The EDGE confocal setting was used to

increase image resolution and improve downstream visualization and segmentation of

lysosomes. Nine images were acquired per well and were distributed in a 3X3 equidistant grid

positioned in the well center. Wells were imaged sequentially in a vertical orientation. Image

stack files were analyzed on a high-content image analysis software (IN Cell Developer Toolbox

v1.9, GE Life Sciences). Target set segmentation and quantification measures were developed

for individual channels and applied onto all sample images. Cell nuclei were segmented using a

preset nucleus type segmentation module. The size of nuclear mask was adjusted according to

the cell type. Visual inspection of several reference fields across multiple wells confirmed

segmentation accuracy. Total number of segmented nuclei was quantified per well. To quantify

FIRE-pHLy fluorescence, mCherry was used as the reference channel for segmenting lysosomes.

mCherry fluorescence provided a robust representation of FIRE-pHLy localization for the

purposes of delineating lysosomal objects, compared to mTFP1 fluorescence, whose signal

varies with lysosomal pH. A preset vesicle segmentation module was applied on the 561nm

source images with acceptance criteria (Dens-levels>300), min/max granule size (1-10um),

scales = 2, sensitivity = 33, low background, and no shape constraints settings. These settings

created an object "mask" for lysosomes, which was directly applied to 488nm source images to

segment mTFP1 identically as mCherry. Mean fluorescence intensities of mCherry and mTFP1

channels were generated and the ratios calculated. All measures were outputted as a Microsoft

Excel file for further analysis.

***Caenorhabditis elegans (C. elegans)* maintenance and generation of transgenics**

C. elegans hermaphrodites were maintained on nematode growth medium (NGM) agar plates

seeded with E. coli bacterial strain OP50 at 20°C as previously described (Brenner, 1974). To

generate *C. elegans* strains expressing FIRE-pHLy, P*vha-6::*FIRE-pHLy and *Pmyo-2::GFP*

were microinjected together into the gonads of N2 adult worms following the standard procedure

as described in WormBook (Eisenmann, 2005). Transgenic clones were verified by PCR

sequencing using forward & reverse mTFP1 specific primers using the standard protocol

described in the WormBook.

C. elegans LysoTracker, bafilomycin treatment & quantification

Bafilomycin A1 treatment protocol was adapted from a previously described method (Ji et al., 2006). L4 worms were treated with 50 μM BafA1 (Invivogen, San Diego, CA, USA #88899-55-2) for 30 minutes. Lysotracker treatment followed the same protocol but with 2 μM LysoTracker™ Deep Red (Life Technologies; #L12492). Worms were mounted on a 2% agarose pad on a microscope slide with 5 μl of 2 mM levamisole and imaged individually on a Leica DMi8 inverted confocal microscope using a 40x (BafA1 treatment) or 63x (LysoTracker treatment) oil objective (NA 1.40) at 1024x1024 pixel resolution. For ratiometric measurements, the posterior end of the worm was imaged to avoid the co-injection marker. Images were processed in ImageJ using a customized Macroscript. Briefly, mCherry and mTFP1 frames were thresholded by Otsu threshold. A mask was created using the thresholded mCherry frame. Using this mask, mCherry and mTFP1 values were extracted and plotted. Co-localization between channels was conducted using the ImageJ JaCoP plug-in application. Non-intestinal regions and the intestinal lumen (appeared as a solid thick line from LysoTracker signal) were excluded during colocalization analysis. Only intestinal tissue peripheral to the lumen was selected for Pearson's correlation coefficient analysis.

Data presentation, statistical analysis, and illustrations

All data were generated from randomly selected sample populations from at least three independent experiments represented unless otherwise mentioned in corresponding figure legends. Statistical data were either presented in box–and-whisker plots with median, interquartile range, and maximum & minimum values or bar graphs with mean ± S.E.M. Multiple comparisons between groups were analyzed by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's test and statistical significance for two sets of data was determined by two-tailed, unpaired Student's t-test. All data plots and statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 8 with no samples excluded. Significant differences between experimental groups were indicated as *$P<0.05$; **$P<0.01$; ***$P<0.001$; Only $P <0.05$ was considered as statistically significant. NS = not significant. Pre-processing of data was organized in Microsoft Excel. Cartoon schematics were created on Biorender.com. Figures were assembled on Adobe Illustrator.

DATA AND REAGENT AVAILABILITY

The authors declare that all relevant data supporting the findings of this study are available within the paper (and its Supplementary information file). Any data or reagents can be obtained from the corresponding authors (A.W.K. and M.R.A.) on reasonable request.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

M.Y.C., A.R.P., M.G, M.R.A. and A.W.K for conceptualization and design; M.Y.C., A.R.P., K.A., A.L.W., C.A. and M.W. for experimental design and data acquisition; all authors analyzed and interpreted data; M.Y.C., A.R.P., M.R.A. and A.W.K. wrote the manuscript; all authors edited the manuscript.

COMPETING INTERESTS STATEMENT

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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