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Targeting of liposomes to liver cells in vivo.

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Targeting concept

Targeting of drugs in medical practice has been recognized long ago by Paul Ehrlich as a useful means to reduce unwanted side-effects of therapeutic treatment (1). In drug targeting the aim is to specifically direct drugs in the body to cells on which they should act, without interference with other cells. In general the targeting concept includes three components: a drug, a carrier for the drug and a homing device. A variety of carriers has been proposed, of which macromolecules, erythrocytes, liposomes, nanoparticles, microemulsions and albumin spheres (2) have been studied. The homing device can be constructed of molecules which are able to recognize determinants on the target cell's surface. For this purpose immunoglobulins, glycoproteins, glycolipids, polypeptides and antigens (2) have been studied. For use *in vivo* the carrier-homing device combinations have to be non-toxic and biodegradable without giving rise to formation of toxic degradation products and they should preferably be applicable for a large variety of drugs including both hydrophobic and hydrophilic derivatives. Upon reaching the target cells by means of the carrier-homing device combination, the drug may exert its action in two possible ways. Firstly, it may gradually be released from the carrier bound on or near the surface of the target cells leading to a high local drug concentration for a prolonged period of time and secondly, the carrier with the drug may be internalized by the target cells giving rise to a high intracellular drug concentration. The first mechanism can be considered an example of the well-known pharmacological principle of "sustained drug release", but at the cellular level. For the second mechanism to become operative it is important to know the mechanism of uptake of the drug-carrier complex and its implications for intracellular release of the drug. At the moment one of the combinations under study is the system in which liposomes serve as carriers and glycolipids, immunoglobulins or glycoproteins are used as homing devices (3, 4).

In this thesis the experimental part is focused on liposomes with and without glycolipids. By the incorporation of naturally occurring glycolipids (lactylceramide, chapter I, II) or a synthetic one (tris-galchol, chapter III) into liposomes efforts were undertaken to target the liposomes to the parenchymal cells of the liver, the hepatocytes. Furthermore, attention was paid to the question whether the liposomes do become internalized and if so, by what mechanism

(chapter IV) and finally, the influence of the composition of the (non-glyco-)lipids in the liposomal membranes on the targeting to hepatocytes was studied (chapter V).

In the following sections of this introduction it will be explained or discussed

- what liposomes are and how they are prepared;
- what the fate of a liposome could be once it has reached the plasma membrane of a cell, in particular the hepatocyte;
- why the hepatocytes were chosen as a target, and
- what the implication of the liver anatomy is for the availability of liposomes to the various cell types constituting this organ.

Liposomes

Liposomes are artificial lipid vesicles with diameters ranging from 25 nm to several microns. They consist of one or more lipid bilayers enclosing a similar number of aqueous compartments. The number of lipid bilayers per vesicle and the diameter can be varied by applying different preparation techniques (5) and thus liposomes can be divided into three main classes:

- a. small unilamellar vesicles (SUV) with a diameter in the range of 25-70 nm and consisting of one lipid bilayer;
- b. large unilamellar vesicles (LUV) also bounded by only one lipid bilayer but with diameters ranging from 100 to 400 nm;
- c. multilamellar vesicles (MLV), composed of two or more concentric bilayers and ranging in diameter from 200 nm to several microns.

For reasons which will be made clear in the section on liver anatomy, we chose to use SUV for the investigations presented in this thesis. The preparation of such vesicles will briefly be described. When phospholipids are dispersed in an aqueous solution, multilamellar vesicles are spontaneously formed with a mean diameter in the order of microns. By ultrasonic irradiation (sonication) their size can be reduced and, ultimately, small unilamellar vesicles are formed. When a drug is mixed with the lipids or dissolved in the buffer before sonication it will either be incorporated into the lipid bilayer (in case of a lipophilic drug) or it will be trapped in the aqueous compartment of the vesicles (in case of a hydrophilic drug). Gel filtration of the preparation upon sonication can separate any remaining larger vesicles and free drug from the SUV (Fig. 1). By pooling the SUV-containing fractions a SUV preparation without contaminating larger vesicles or free drug can be obtained. Since this thesis mainly deals with the *in vivo* behavior of liposomes

after intravenous injection, the possible influence of blood on the integrity of liposomes has to be taken into consideration.

In liposomes consisting of one species of phospholipids only, the lipid bilayer can undergo a temperature induced transition from a gel phase to a liquid crystalline phase. In the presence of plasma, vesicle integrity is most severely endangered when the liposomal lipids are near or at the gel to liquid crystalline phase transition temperature (T_C). Under these conditions the liposomal membrane, particularly of SUV, is extremely susceptible to the destructive action of high-density lipoproteins (6), but also above T_C SUV are sensitive to these plasma effects. Thus, phospholipids such as distearoylphosphatidylcholine (DSPC) with a T_C of 56°C have been used to prepare relatively plasma-resistant liposomes (7). Also cholesterol has been found to protect liposomes from the solubilizing effects of the plasma lipoproteins (8). Cholesterol tends to tighten the packing of phospholipid molecules in a bilayer due to strong interactions with these lipids; incorporation of 33 mol% of cholesterol abolishes the phase transition in a phospholipid bilayer and thus the extreme sensitivity

of liposomes to plasma influences at the T_C . Cholesterol also reduces the exchange of phospholipids between vesicles and lipoproteins; particularly in case of sphingomyelin as phospholipid cholesterol effectively suppresses this phospholipid exchange (8). Thus radioactive-labeled sphingomyelin is quite suitable as a lipid label for cholesterol-containing liposomes in circulation. In our experiments however, we mainly used the aqueous space marker (^3H)-inulin as a liposomal label. Any inulin (a poly-fructose molecule with a M_r of ~ 5000) released from liposomes in circulation will quickly be excreted by the kidneys. Because inulin can not be metabolized, the measurement of (^3H)-label in a cell or organ yields a good indication of the amount of accumulated liposomes.

When liposomes have reached the target cells they may adsorb to the cell's surface and the following events may take place:

- during adsorption, either reversible or irreversible, lipid constituents may be exchanged between the liposomes and the cells;
- the peripheral liposomal membrane may fuse with the plasma membrane leading to a release of vesicle content into the cell's cytoplasm;

c. the liposomes may be taken up by the endocytic process, delivering the liposomes to the lysosomal system.

This last event is generally thought to play a prominent role in the uptake of liposomes by target cells (9, 10, 11); therefore this process is described in more detail.

Endocytosis

Endocytosis is the process of internalization of extracellular material by invagination of the plasma membrane and the subsequent formation of a cytoplasmic vesicle. This vesicle has different names such as phagosome (12), pinocytotic coated vesicle (14) or primary food vacuole (13) depending on the cell type studied and on the size of the material endocytosis involved. Classically, endocytosis is divided into two types: phagocytosis and pinocytosis. Phagocytosis is the internalization of particles larger than $1\ \mu\text{m}$ in diameter, and pinocytosis is the internalization of all smaller substrates, varying in size from small particles such as lipoproteins and small molecular weight solutes and to the surface of the cell. Phagocytosis always involves adsorption of the particle to the plasma membrane prior to its internalization. Pinocytosis can also be adsorptive (adsorptive pinocytosis), but it may also be non-adsorptive (fluid pinocytosis). Adsorptive endocytic processes display Michaelis-Menten kinetics, whereas uptake by fluid pinocytosis is proportional to the concentration of the substance. Adsorptive pinocytosis may be preceded by specific binding of the substance to the cell surface receptors. Receptor-mediated endocytosis involves interaction with highly specific receptors (receptors) on the cell membrane. The endocytic mechanism is known as receptor-mediated endocytosis. For example, polypeptide hormones such as growth factor (16) and insulin (17), polypeptide drugs such as low density lipoprotein (18), and antibodies (19) and asialoglycoproteins (20) are internalized by receptor-mediated endocytosis. The ultimate fate of receptors and substrates internalized depends on the cell type and the nature of the substance. For instance, when the F_C -receptor, which is located on the surface of macrophages, is occupied by an antigen-antibody immunocomplex both receptor and ligand are internalized in the lysosomes, whereas internalized receptors are recycled back to the plasma membrane (21). Receptor recycling also occurs with the transferrin receptor (22) but in this case the transferrin is recycled together with the receptor to the cell surface while the transport

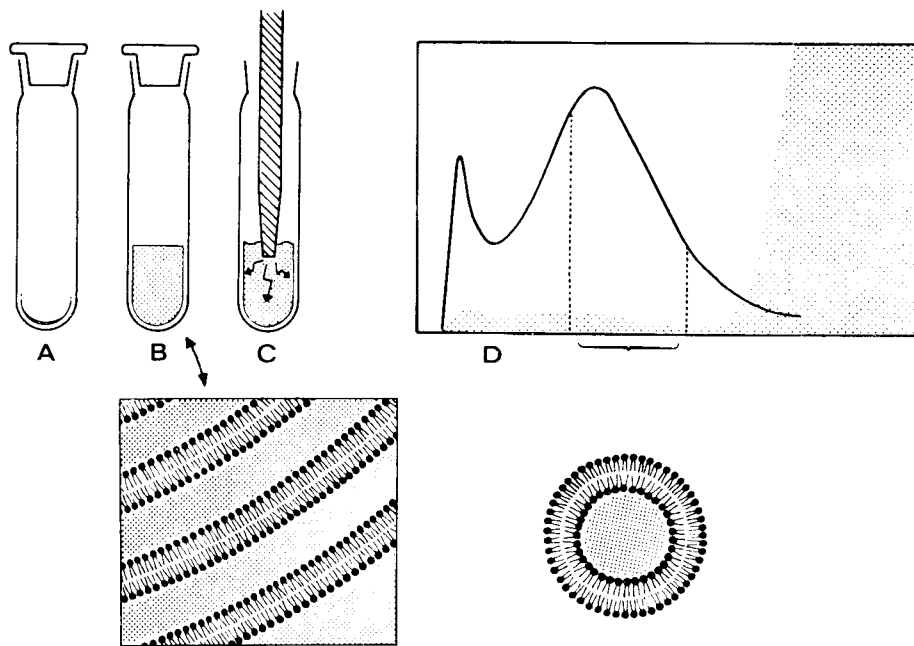
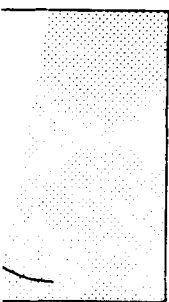


Fig. 1. Preparation of small unilamellar liposomes. Lipids are thoroughly dried under vacuum. To the resulting lipid film (A) the aqueous medium containing the solute to be trapped (:) is added. By dispersion of the lipids large multilamellar liposomes are formed (B). Ultrasonic irradiation

by means of a probe sonifier (C) results in break down of the multilamellar structures and the formation of small unilamellar liposomes. By gel filtration the liposomal suspension is freed of remaining multilamellar liposomes and untrapped solute (D).

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Endocytosis

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 divided into two types: phagocytosis, covering the in-
 ternalization of particles larger than a few tenths of a
 micron in diameter, and pinocytosis describing the up-
 take of all smaller substrates, varying from colloidal
 particles such as lipoproteins and SUV to low-
 molecular weight solutes and to the surrounding fluid.
 Phagocytosis always involves adsorption of the parti-
 cle to the plasma membrane prior to invagination. Up-
 take by pinocytosis can also be adsorptive in charac-
 ter (adsorptive pinocytosis), but it may also merely involve
 internalization of fluid with solutes (fluid pinocytosis).
 Adsorptive endocytic processes display saturation
 kinetics, whereas uptake by fluid pinocytosis is linearly
 proportional to the concentration of the solute. Ad-
 sorptive pinocytosis may be preceded by non-specific
 binding of the substance to the cell surface or it may in-
 volve interaction with highly specific recognition sites
 (receptors) on the cell membrane; this latter
 mechanism is known as receptor mediated endocytosis.
 For example, polypeptide hormones like epidermal
 growth factor (16) and insulin (17), plasma lipoproteins
 such as low density lipoprotein (18), α_2 -macroglobulin
 (19) and asialoglycoproteins (20) are known to be taken
 up by receptor-mediated endocytosis. The intracellular
 fate of receptors and substrates thus internalized
 depends on the cell type and the nature of the ligand.
 For instance, when the F_c -receptor, expressed on the
 surface of macrophages, is occupied by a ligand (im-
 munocomplex) both receptor and ligand are degraded
 in the lysosomes, whereas internalized unoccupied
 receptors are recycled back to the plasma membrane
 (21). Receptor recycling also occurs in case of the
 transferrin receptor (22) but in this case the ligand
 (transferrin) is recycled together with its receptor
 back to the cell surface while the transported iron is delivered

intracellularly. The asialoglycoprotein (ASGP) recep-
 tor, after internalization, is uncoupled from its ligand
 before the lysosomes are reached, and is recycled to the
 cell surface, whereas its ligand ultimately is degraded in
 the lysosomes (23). Some aspects of the overall uptake
 mechanism are shared by different ligands, but the
 ligand-receptor combination is thought to dictate
 which divergent path is taken once they are inside the
 cell. The ASGP receptor, which is abundant on the
 plasma membrane of hepatocytes, binds ligands with
 terminal non-reducing galactose residues. Liposomes
 which expose such galactose residues, it was reasoned,
 could specifically be directed towards the hepatocytes.

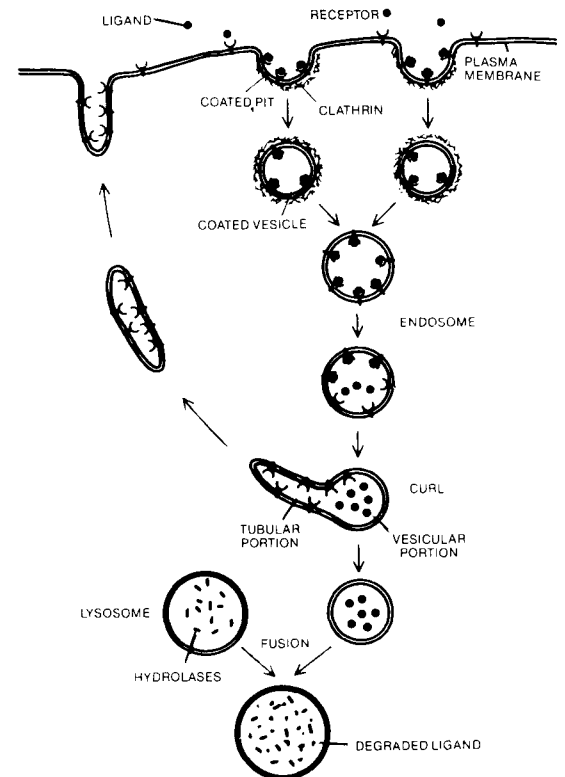


Fig. 2. Pathway of receptors and ligands as determined for galac-
 tose terminal glycoproteins.

Ligands bind to receptors diffusely and then collect in coated
 pits, which invaginate and are internalized as coated vesicles
 whose fusion gives rise to endosomes and then to a CURL. In
 the acidic CURL-environment ligand is dissociated from
 receptors. Ligand accumulates in the vesicular lumen of the
 CURL and the receptors are concentrated in the membrane
 of an attached tubular structure, which then becomes
 separated from the CURL. The vesicular part moves deeper
 into the cell and fuses with a lysosome, to which it delivers
 the ligand for degradation. The membranous tubular structure is
 thought to recycle receptors to the plasma membrane.

(From Dautry, A. & Lodish, H.F., *Scientific Am.* (1984),
 250(5), 48-54)

The ASGP receptors are probably randomly distributed in the plasma membrane of the hepatocytes (24). After binding of a ligand the receptor-ligand complex moves to a so-called coated pit (14), a specialized region of the plasma membrane, of which the name is derived from the fuzzy coat that decorates its cytoplasmic surface. This coat is formed of clathrin (25, 26), a protein which structurally supports (the formation of) the invaginations of the plasma membrane. In the coated pits microaggregation, and thus concentration, of the receptors takes place (24). Internalization is completed by closure of the coated pit, giving rise to the formation of a coated vesicle (14). The coated vesicle loses its coat of clathrin molecules and the remaining smooth endocytic vesicle fuses with or converts into a so-called compartment of uncoupling receptor and ligand (CURL) (27, 28). Probably due to acidification of this compartment the receptor and ligand dissociate (29), followed by spatial segregation. The receptors are transported back to the cell surface where they are reutilized and the vesicles containing the ligands fuse with primary lysosomes (23) where degradation takes place (Fig. 2).

Liver

The liver is an important organ involved in the maintenance of homeostasis in the body. It performs a scala of functions including a regulatory role in the metabolism of carbohydrates, proteins and lipids and is involved in detoxification and storage. It regulates blood glucose concentration and synthesizes and eliminates almost all plasma proteins. Participation of the liver in lipid metabolism involves for example the regulation of the blood cholesterol level, the synthesis from carbohydrates of triglycerides for assembly into lipoproteins and the synthesis of apolipoproteins for the transport of triglycerides in the blood; it also synthesizes the phospholipids required for lipoprotein formation and for the production of bile. Most of the metabolic liver functions are performed by the parenchymal liver cell or hepatocyte, the most abundant cell type in the liver. Several pathological conditions are the result of interference with the hepatocyte's metabolism e.g. by parasites or viruses or malignant transformation. These considerations constituted a major argument for choosing the hepatocyte as a target for the delivery of drug-containing liposomes. In addition, the liver is one of the few organs with an architecture allowing liposomes to escape from the vascular system and to reach cells beyond the endothelial barrier. As pointed out by Poste, discussing the problems and opportunities of liposome targeting *in vivo* (10),

liposomes injected intravenously are otherwise unlikely to escape from the continuous capillaries and to reach extravascular tissue.

The features of the hepatic blood circulation and microanatomy that allow liposomes to reach the hepatocytes will now briefly be discussed. The blood supply of the mammalian liver is provided by two afferent vessels: the hepatic artery, which delivers oxygen-rich blood and the portal vein, which transports substances absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract to the liver. Both the hepatic artery and the portal vein have numerous branches within the liver, with successive branches having smaller diameters. The terminal branches are called sinusoids and there venous and arterial blood come together. Extensive exchange of materials and metabolites between blood and liver cells occurs in the sinusoids. After passage through the sinusoids, the blood is collected in branches of the hepatic veins, converging in the vena hepatica, which drains on the inferior vena cava.

In addition to the hepatocytes the liver contains three other cell types: Kupffer cells (liver macrophages), the sinusoidal endothelial cells and the fat-storing cells (30). Each of these cells is found at specific locations in the sinusoid (Fig. 3), which measures about 6-7 μ in diameter. The endothelial cells form the lining of the

sinusoids, with the Kupffer cells usually on or imbedded in this endothelial cell lining on the blood side. The hepatocytes are located on the other side of the endothelial cells. The space between the hepatocytes and the endothelial cells is called the space of Disse where the fat-storing cells are located. The endothelial cells are fenestrated i.e. they have numerous holes or pores allowing the free access to all the cells in the liver parenchymal cells. The fenestrations in the endothelial cells have an average diameter of about 100 nm. The diameter of any drug carrier to reach the hepatocytes should therefore be less than or approximately 100 nm.

Aim of the thesis

The experiments described in this thesis were aimed at defining optimal conditions for liposome drug targeting to the parenchymal cells. In view of the micro-anatomy of the liver, the liposomes chosen for this purpose were of the small unilamellar vesicle type (SUV) to allow free passage through the endothelial fenestrations. Variations in liposome size showed that hepatic uptake as well as the disposition of an intravenously injected liposome is dependent on the liposome size and the type of phospholipid used. In order to improve the distribution in favor of the hepatocytes, liposomes containing galactose-carrying ligands were incorporated into the liposomal membrane to allow specific targeting to the hepatic asialoglycoprotein receptor which is present on the plasma membrane of the

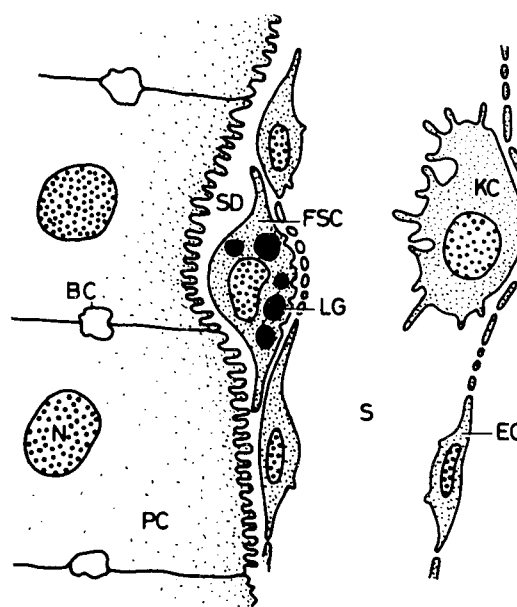


Fig. 3. Scheme of a liver sinusoid.

Endothelial cell (EC); Kupffer cell (KC); parenchymal cell (PC); space of Disse (SD); Fat-Storing Cell (FSC); lipid granule (LG); bile canaliculus (BC); nucleus (N).

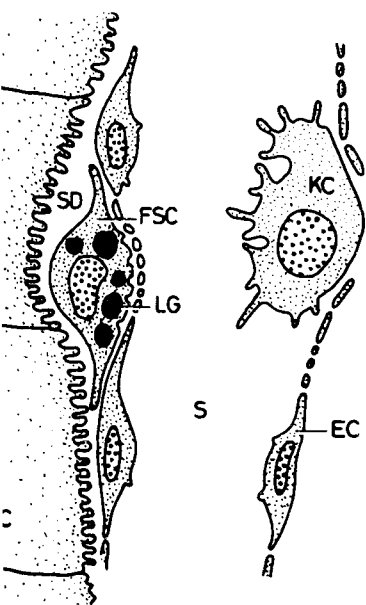
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