

MUNI
PHARM

Department
of Natural
Drugs

Supramolecular Pharmacy

10. Nanoparticles for drug delivery

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Nanochemistry, nanotechnology, nanoparticles

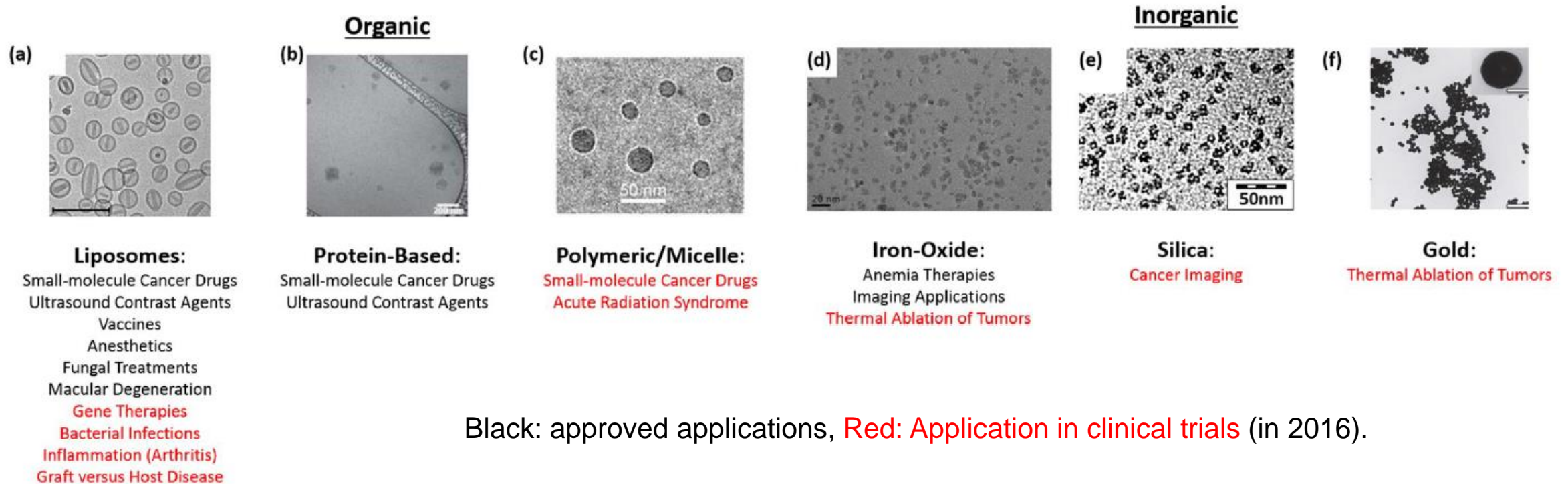
- Chemistry of multi-nanometer scale molecules (dimensions of 2-200 nm)
- **Nanotechnology** a field of applied science and technology based on the control, manipulation, and fabrication of matter on the size scale approaching that of atoms and molecules
- Nanotechnology is highly multidisciplinary and draws on techniques and knowledge from applied physics, materials science, interface and colloid science, device physics, chemical and biological engineering and of course supramolecular chemistry
- **Nanoparticles (NPs)** very small usually approximately spherical fragments of material of radius in the approximate range 2–100 nm
- Nanoparticles can be made of any material and includes crystalline or amorphous solid particles
- NPs = nanocrystals, quantum dots (semiconductor particles having often fluorescence), nanoclusters (1-10 nm NPs)
- NPs are usually monodispersed (size distribution <15 %)
- NPs are often used as suspension in some kind of solvent (colloid)
- Solid usually does not separate as a precipitate (size, stabilization by coating – prevents aggregation, increases solubility)

Nanoparticles (NPs) in drug delivery (nanocarriers)

- Oral, local, topical, and systemic nano-/microparticle delivery systems have been approved by FDA or EMA
- Intravenously administered NPs are the most studied preclinically and clinically
- Systemic delivery provides direct access to nearly all parts of the body
- **Organic** (including polymeric micelles and vesicles, liposomes, dendrimers, and hydrogels) and **inorganic** (including quantum dots, gold and mesoporous silica NPs)
- Organic materials: (a) NPs for gene therapy applications or (b) NPs for delivery of small molecule drugs for cancer treatment
- Organic NPs provide enhanced drug protection, controlled release, extended circulation, improved targeting to diseased tissues/cells
- Inorganic NPs provide the same and stimuli responsive functions due to surface plasmon resonance (thermal heating or imaging) or magnetic responsiveness (MRI, magnetic targeting)
- Introducing new or improving the old therapies

Clinically relevant NPs and their applications

- Nanoparticles have been developed to overcome the limitations of free therapeutics and navigate biological barriers — systemic, microenvironmental, and cellular — that are heterogeneous across patient populations and diseases
- Personalized delivery – precision medicine



Organized efforts towards precision medicine

- US National Science and Technology Council (NSTC) launched the National Nanotechnology Initiative (NNI) in 2000
- The number of nanomedicines available to patients is drastically below projections for the field
- Gap comes from a lack of understanding of the differences in physiology and pathology between animal model species and humans
- Heterogeneity amongst patients can also limit the success of nanomedicines
- Few are recommended as first-line treatment options, and many show improvements in only a small subset of patients
- Moreover, growth, structure and physiology of diseased tissue alter NP distribution and functionality
- Complex systems: nanocarrier-mediated combination therapies — to alter multiple pathways, maximize the therapeutic efficacy against specific macromolecules, target particular phases of the cell cycle or overcome mechanisms of drug resistance

Organized efforts towards precision medicine

- New focus on generating NPs to overcome biological barriers specific to patient subsets or disease states can be attributed, in part, to the increasing prevalence of precision, or personalized medicine and the creation of the Precision Medicine Initiative (PMI) in 2015
- Precision medicine is to utilize patient information — such as genetic profile, environmental exposures or comorbidities — to develop an individualized treatment plan
- Minimizes the impact of patient heterogeneity and allows for more accurate patient stratification, improved drug specificity and optimized dosing or combinatorial strategies

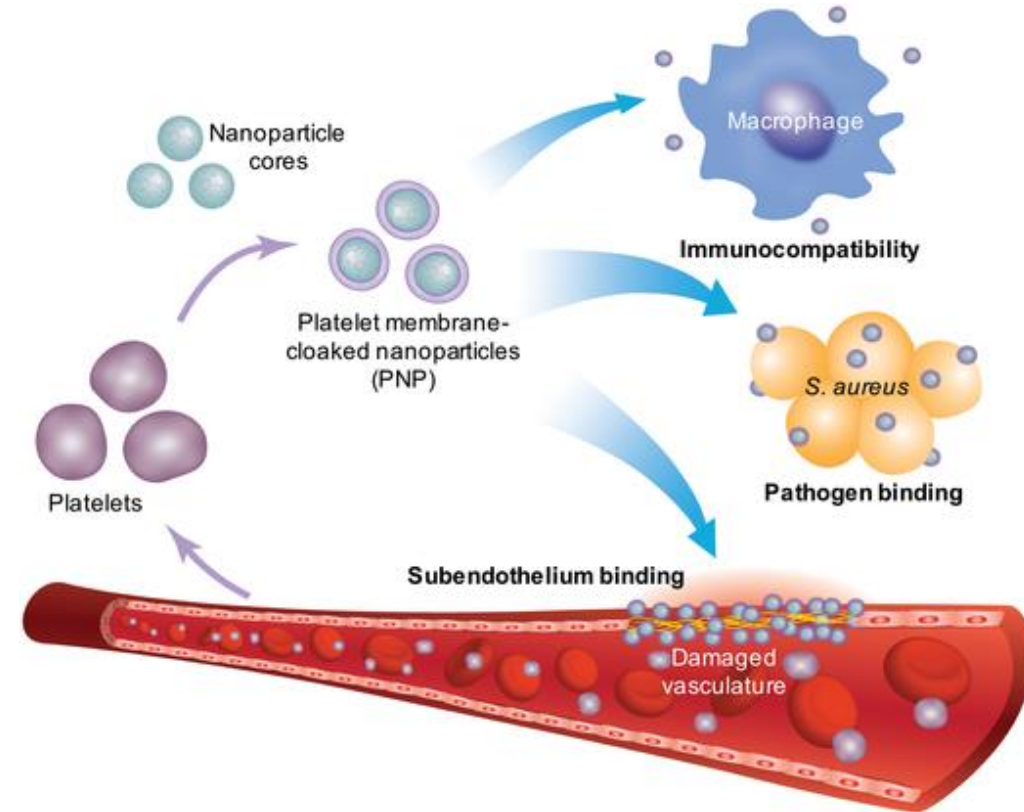
Biological barriers to precision medicine applications

- Biodistribution and drug delivery are difficult to achieve as NPs face both physical and biological barriers: shear forces, protein adsorption and rapid clearance
- These are often altered in disease states and can be even more difficult to overcome with a generalized, one-size-fits-all approach, but also patient specific
- Systemic delivery – ***circulation, stability, and clearance***
- While in ***circulation*** excretion, blood flow, coronas and phagocytic cells can reduce NP stability and delivery
- NPs with a diameter less than 10 nm have generally been shown to be rapidly eliminated by the kidneys, whereas NPs larger than 200 nm risk activating the complement system*
- To avoid rapid excretion based on surface properties, many NP formulations incorporate PEG as a stealth coating
- PEGylation improves the circulation time by altering the NP size and solubility while shielding the NP surface from enzymes and antibodies that may induce degradation, secretion and clearance

* Plasma proteins that induce inflammation and aid in the clearance of foreign bodies or damaged cells by enhancing antibody and phagocytic cell activity

Biological barriers to precision medicine applications

- Platelet (thrombocyte) membrane cloaking
- NP **stability** is greatly affected by how its composition material interacts with the environment
- Lipid-based and polymer-based NPs are the most susceptible to instability and aggregation both in circulation and in storage
- The balance between stabilization and effective intracellular delivery — which typically requires carrier degradation — must be considered



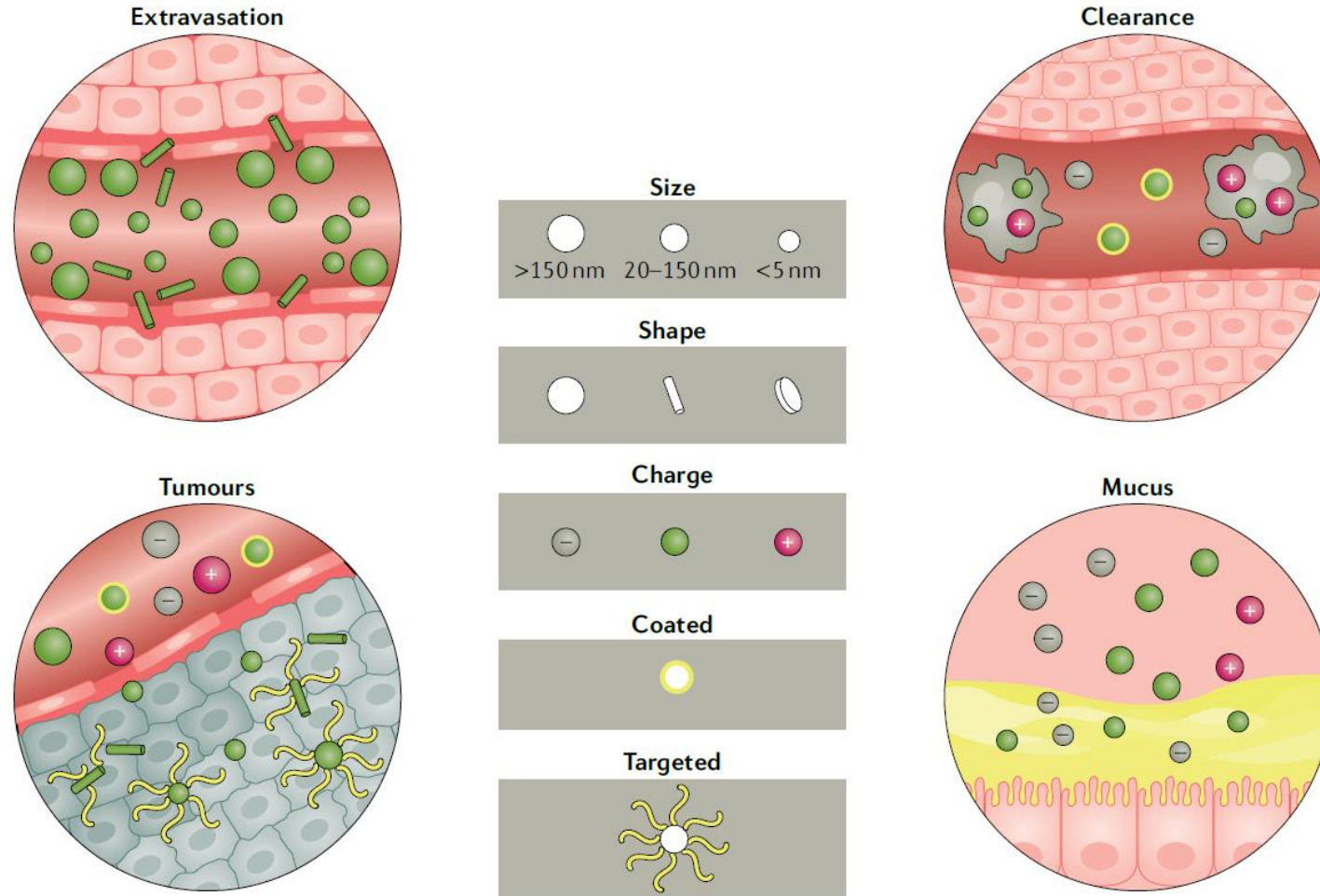
NPs interaction with blood vessels and blood components

- In the bloodstream, NPs experience varying flow rates that induce shear stress which can lead to their damage, prevent their movement into surrounding tissues
- Larger microparticles have higher probability of localizing to vessel walls, non-spherical NPs (ellipsoids, disc, and rod-like) show better margination than spherical
- Non-specific adherence of serum proteins and lipids forms a corona on the surface of NPs
- This corona will dictate the distribution of the NP, and can compromise stability of both the NP and its cargo
- For example, coronas containing apolipoprotein E (ApoE) act as targeting moieties for low-density lipoprotein receptors, which leads to NP delivery to hepatocytes and, in some instances, across the blood–brain barrier (BBB)

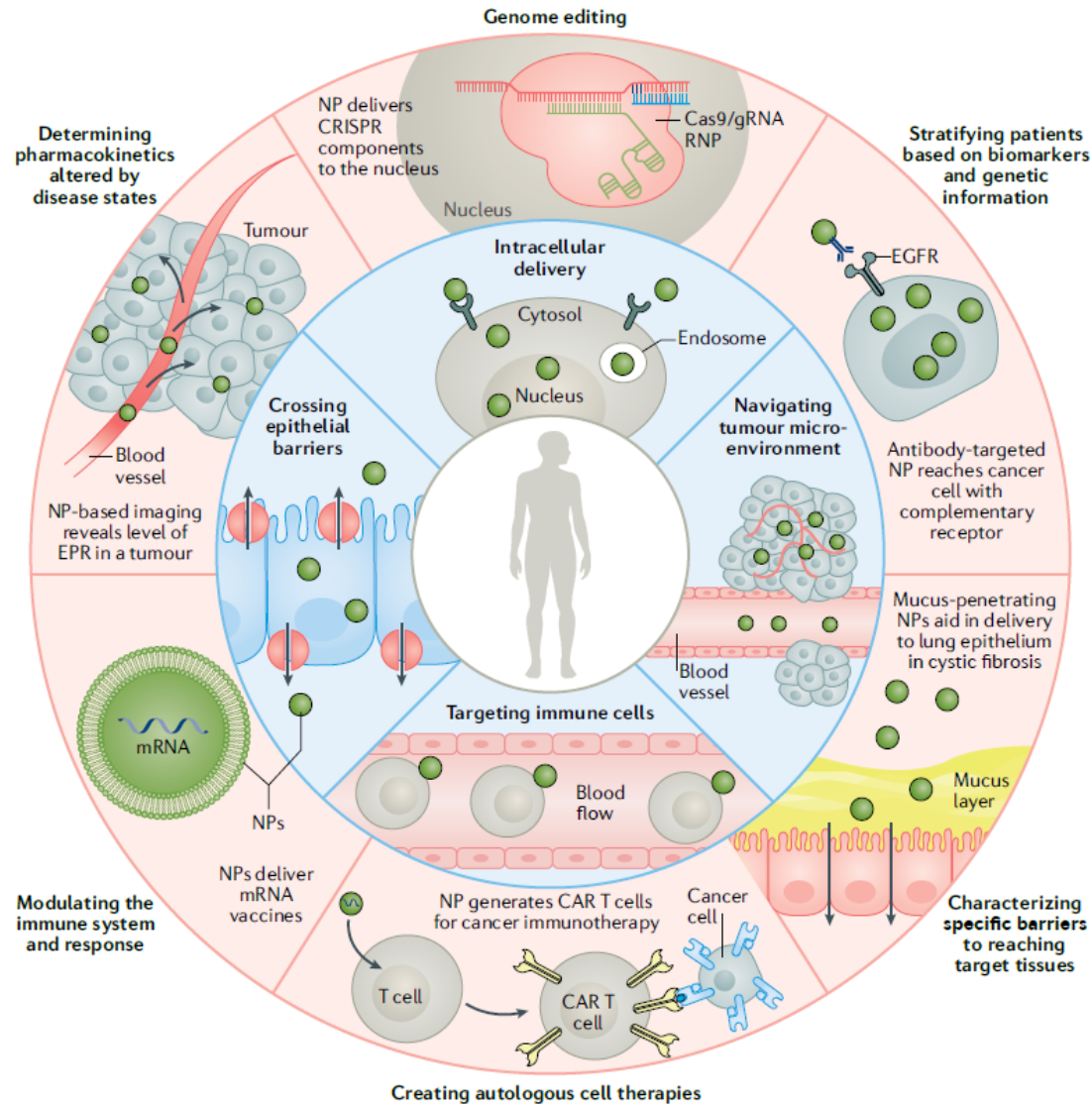
NPs interaction with blood vessels and blood components

- **Clearance** usually results from the interaction with the mononuclear phagocytic system (MPS) or reticuloendothelial system (RES)
- Systems feature phagocytes (predominantly macrophages), monocytes and dendritic cells, which take up NPs and accumulate in the spleen and liver
- Stiffer NPs are often cleared more rapidly
- Cationic NPs are generally most rapidly cleared, followed by anionic NPs, whereas neutral and slightly negative NPs have the longest half-lives in circulation (PEGylation or cell membrane coating prevents clearance)
- Spherical NPs induce a stronger immune response overall. Uptake by phagocytic cells has been related to the NP curvature and aspect ratio: triangular and rod-shaped NPs show more uptake than star-shaped or spherical NPs, and rod-shaped NPs induce more inflammation in macrophages

NPs interaction with blood vessels and blood components



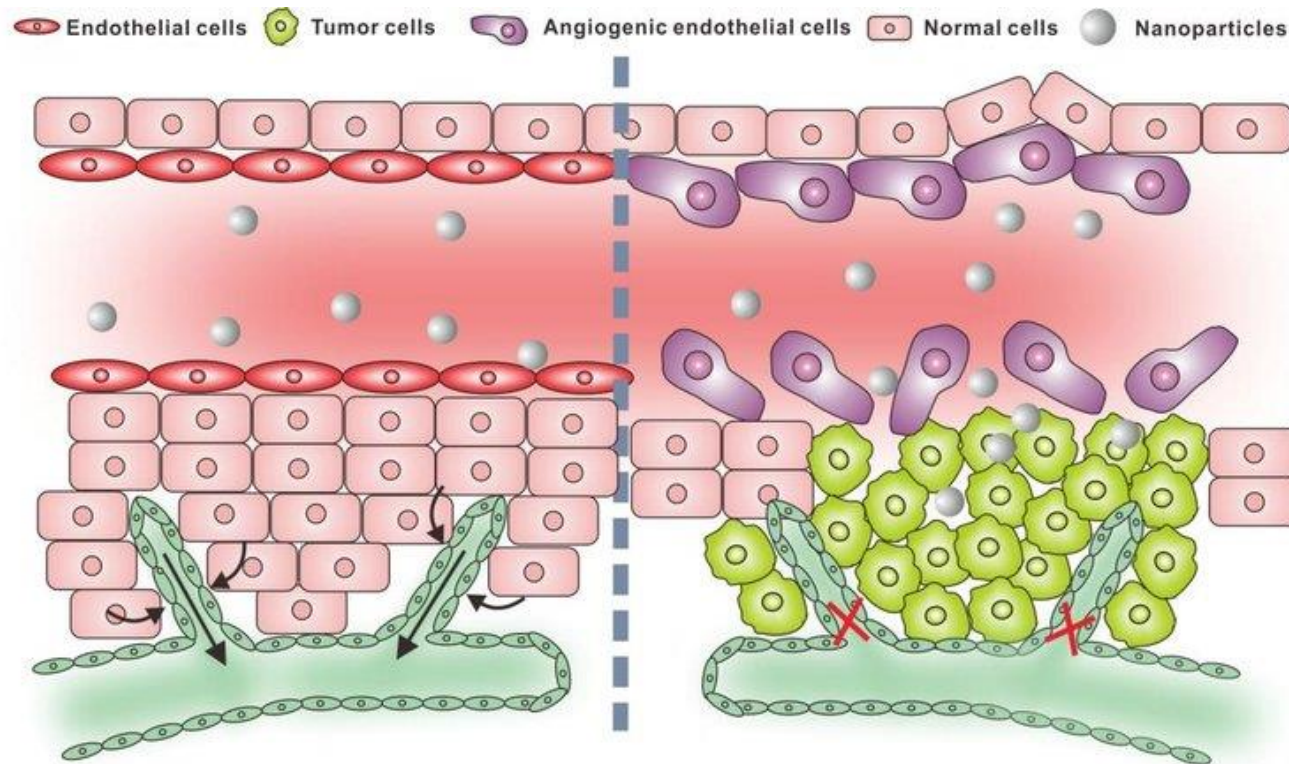
Biological barriers to precision medicine applications



CAR, chimeric antigen receptor;
EGFR, epidermal growth factor receptor;
EPR, enhanced permeation and retention;
gRNA, guide RNA;
RNP, ribonucleoprotein.

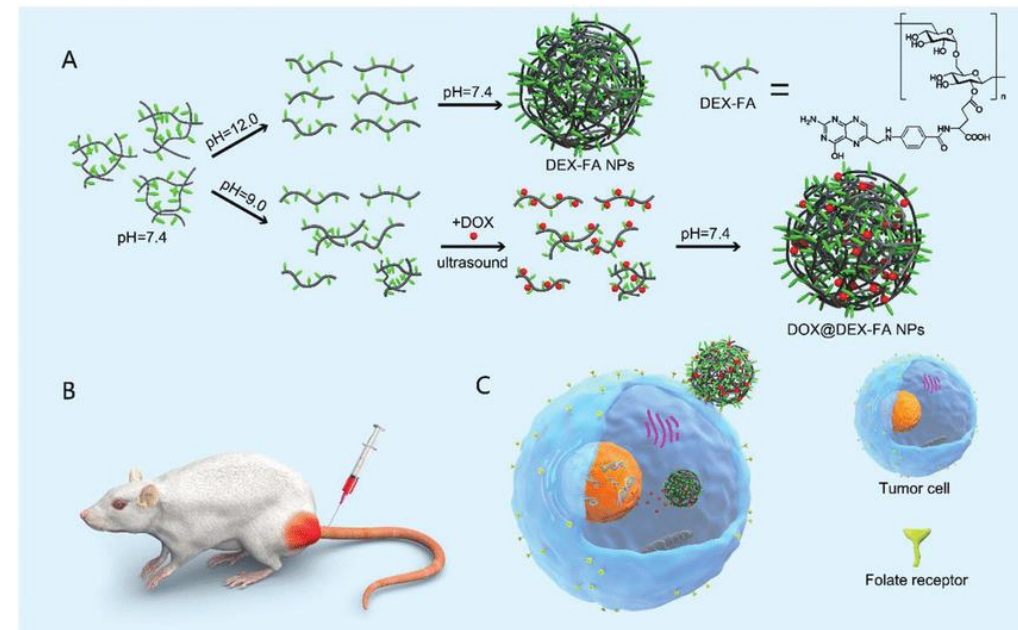
Enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) effect

- high-molecular weight nontargeted drugs and prodrugs accumulate in tissues that offer increased vascular permeability, such as in sites of inflammation or cancer

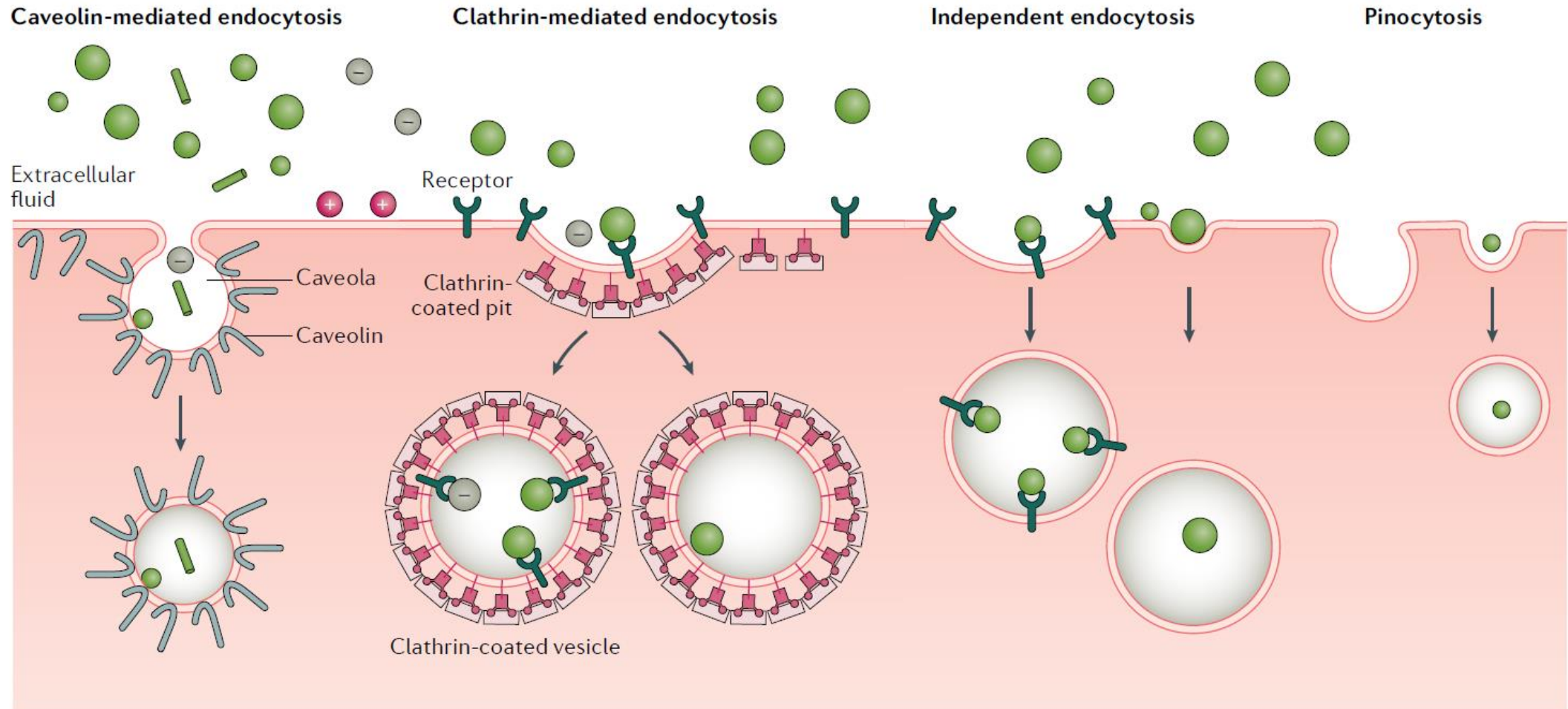


Nanoparticle targeting

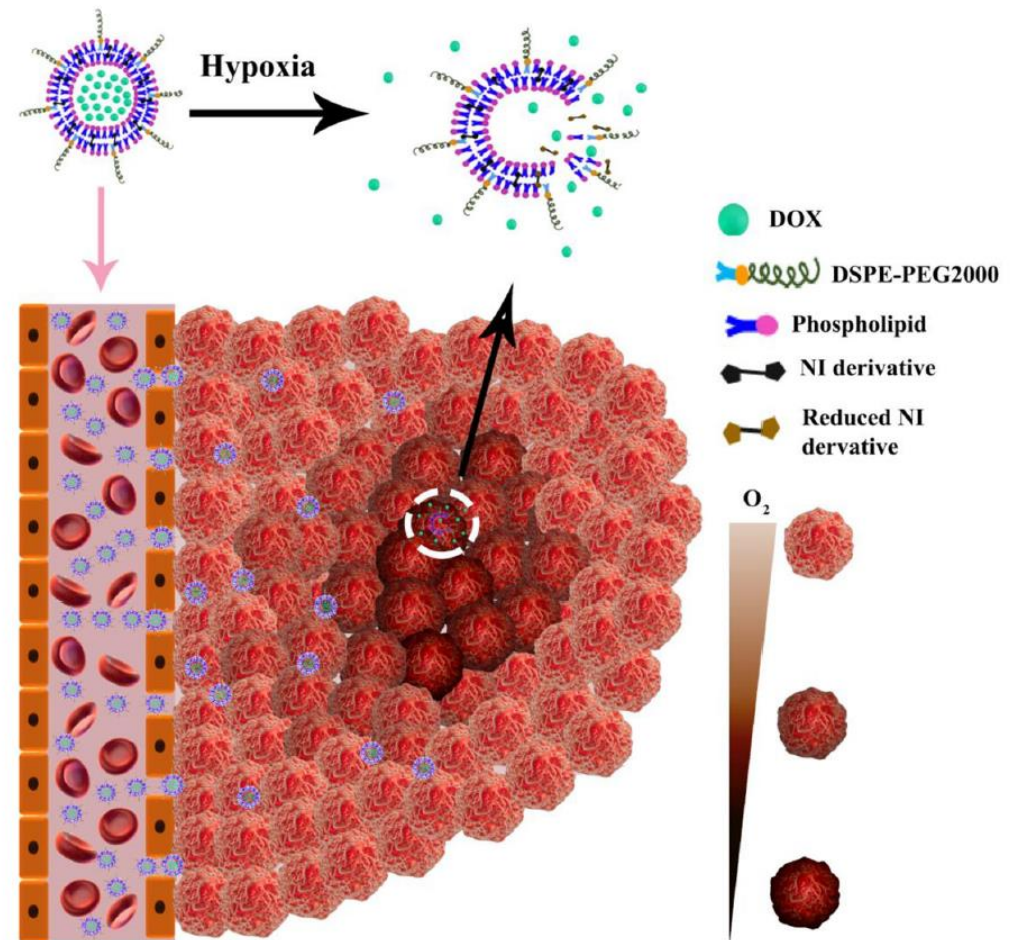
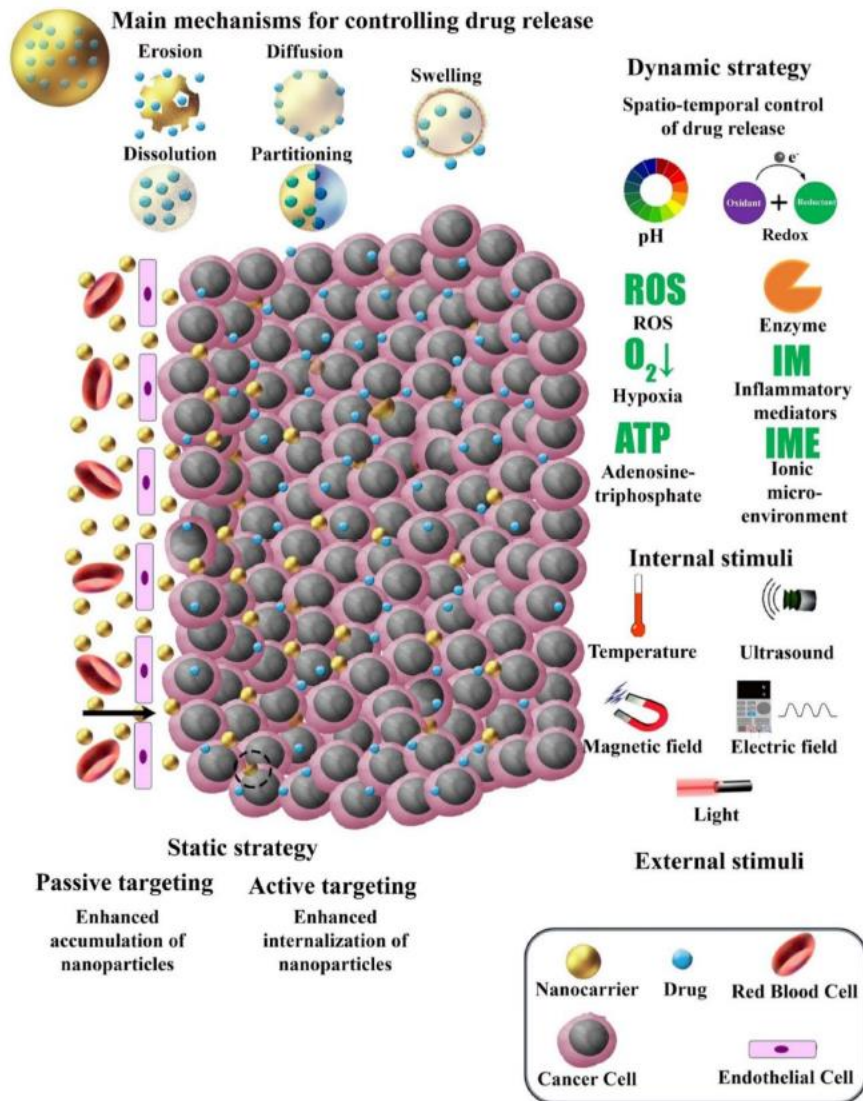
- Many NP platforms have added targeting moieties to their surface to direct their delivery
- Targeting moieties: antibodies, glucose, transferrin, folate, transporters and integrin ligands
- Use interactions with molecules on the target cell's surface, such as ligand–receptor, enzyme–substrate or antibody–antigen mediated interactions.
- Targeted NPs must be engineered with a targeting moiety density that allows for these cell surface interactions
- Ratio of receptors to ligands and the number of interactions needed to overcome the initial energy barrier to NP uptake



Common uptake pathways that determine NP fate



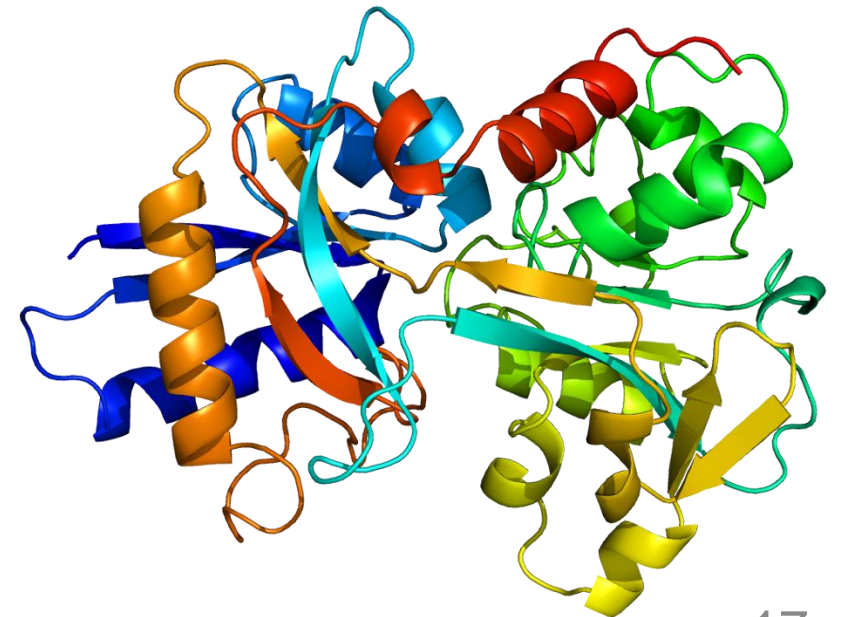
Mode of action



FDA/EMA approved (1995/1996) doxil (caelyx) – doxorubicin
Ovarian cancer (secondary to platinum based therapies)

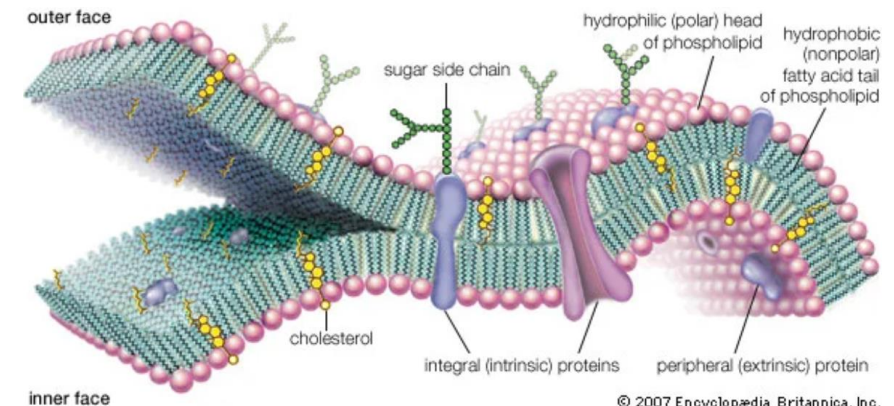
Oral drug delivery

- Gastrointestinal tract presents numerous barriers for NPs
- Average optimal reported size for NP transcytosis in gastrointestinal applications seems to be around 100 nm
- Rod-shaped NPs generally outperform spherical particles
- Even when NPs are internalized by intestinal epithelial cells, only a small percentage undergo exocytosis
- Transferrin pathway can be exploited for transepithelial movement in the intestine
- Problem is nevertheless with formation of coronas
- Barriers are made heterogeneous by pathologies, such as inflammatory diseases, that may increase epithelial permeability and alter mucus production, pH and the gastrointestinal microbiome



Order in liquids

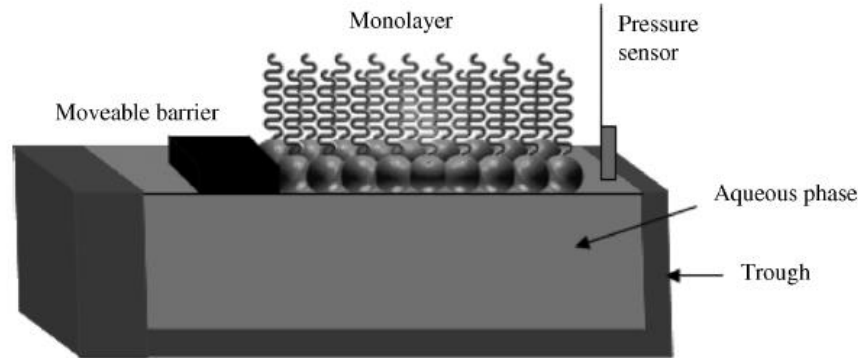
- Biological cell membranes are made of bulky phospholipids that are forced to order themselves in water by combination of hydrophobic effects and interactions between the solvent and the hydrophilic head group, forming capsule-like vesicles – cells
- Cell membrane must exist in the liquid phase to allow rapid biochemical transport and solution chemistry
- Solid-like long-term structure is needed to preserve membrane potentials, control cellular signaling and protect sensitive intracellular enzymes
- Cell membrane must also be sufficiently ordered to anchor transmembrane proteins such as ATPases
- Fluid mosaic model



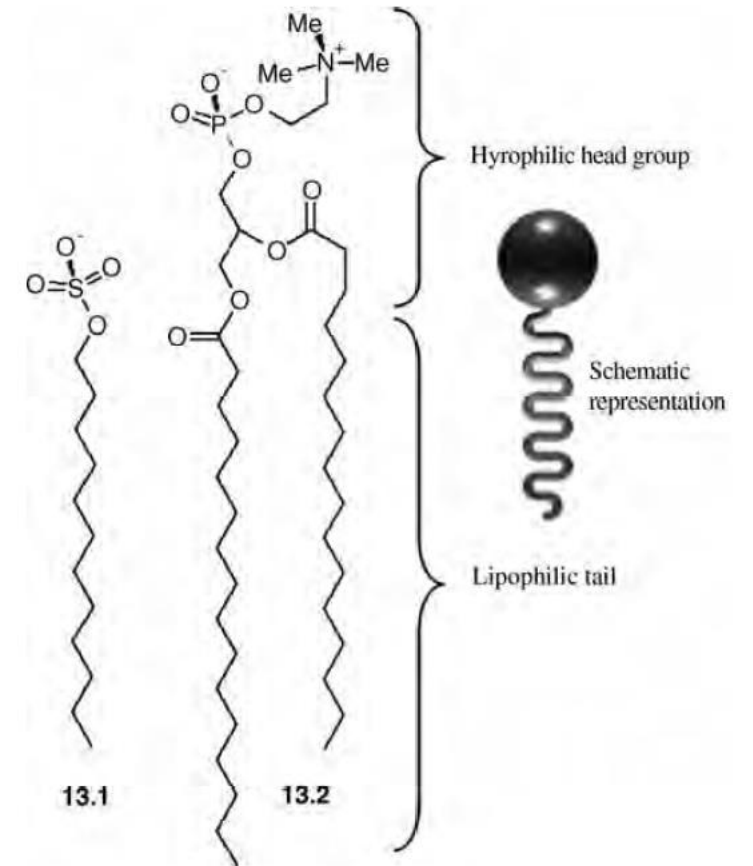
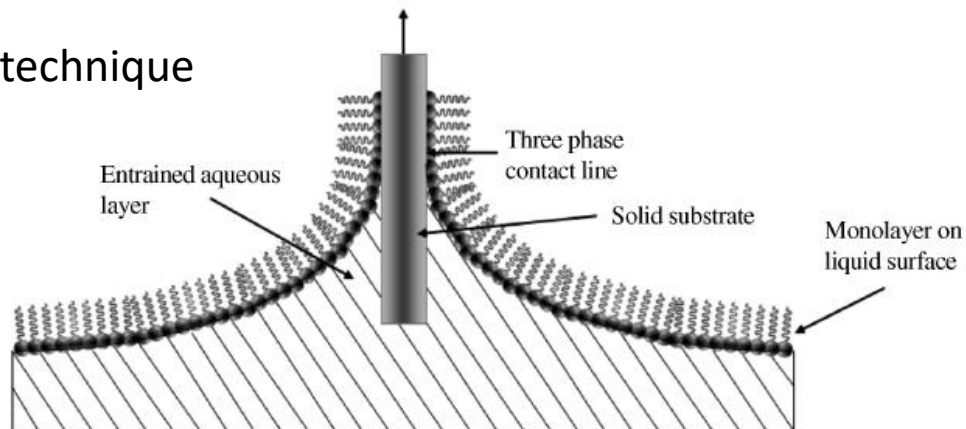
Surfactants, micelles, vesicles

- Surfactant is a molecule that has two different moieties – polar, hydrophilic and non-polar lipophilic – they are amphiphiles
- Daily components – part of soap, washing liquid

Langmuir trough



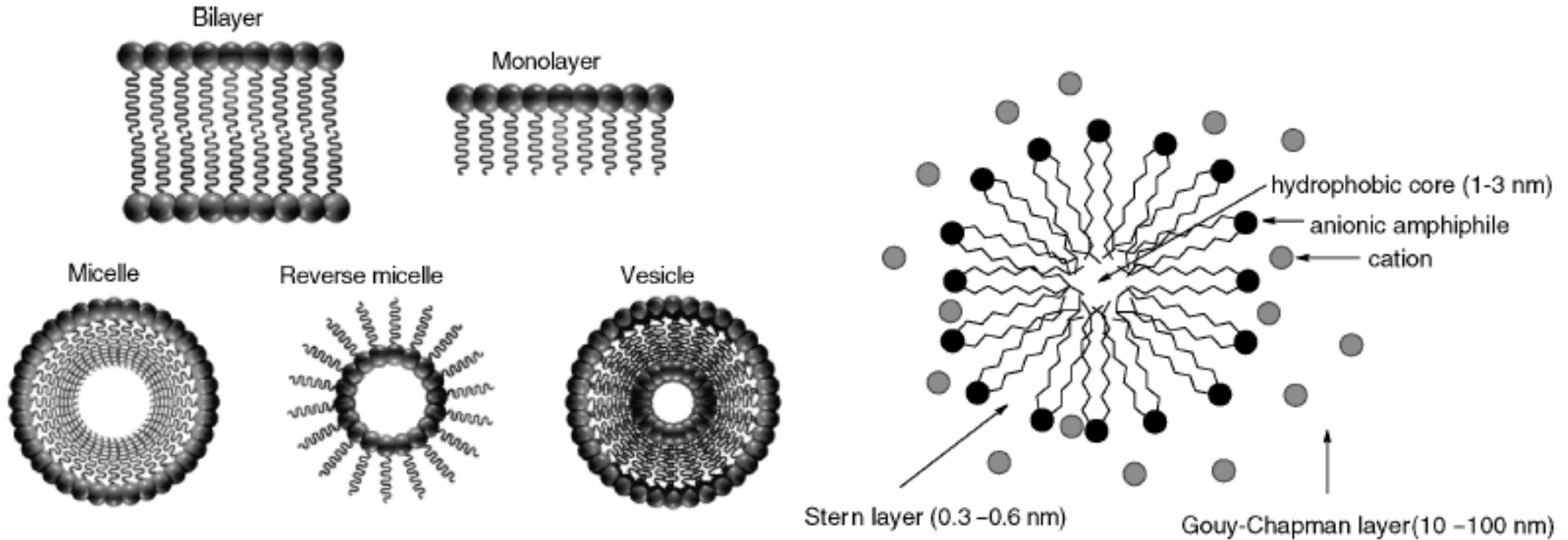
Langmuir-Blodgett technique



- anionic (phospholipids, soaps)
- cationic (quaternary ammonium salts)
- amphoteric (zwitterionic betaines)
- nonionic (fatty acids).

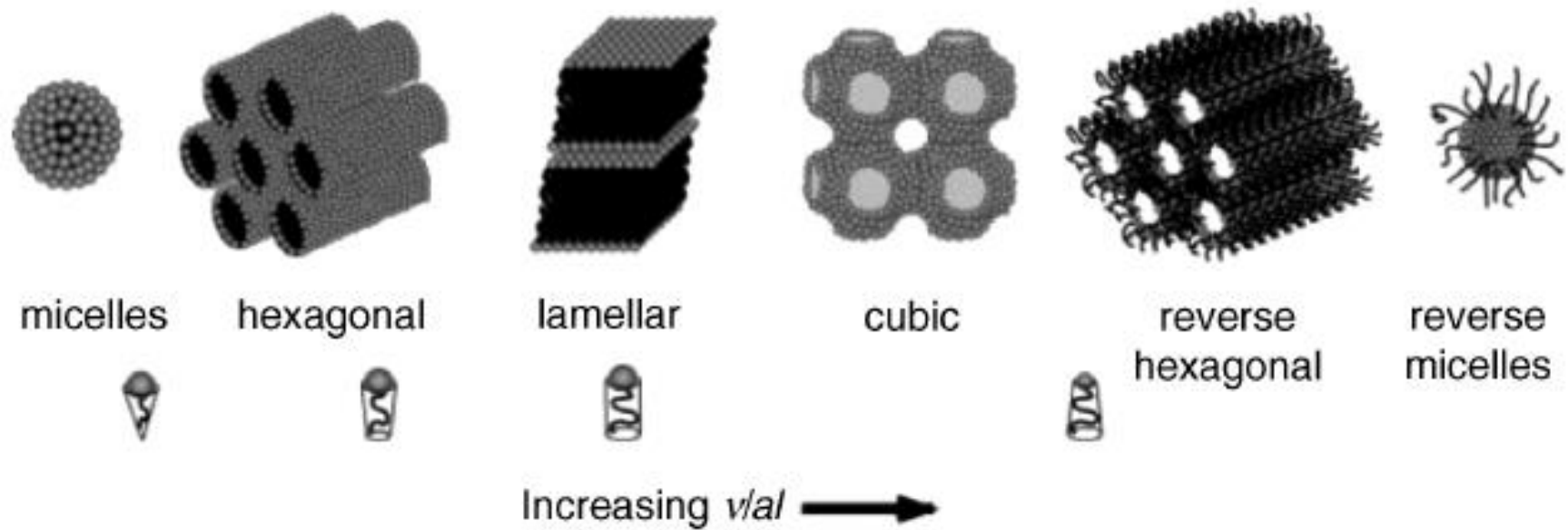
Ordered surfactant structures

- The mode of behavior depends on concentration and structure of surfactant
- Critical micelle concentration - CMC (T , mol dm⁻³)



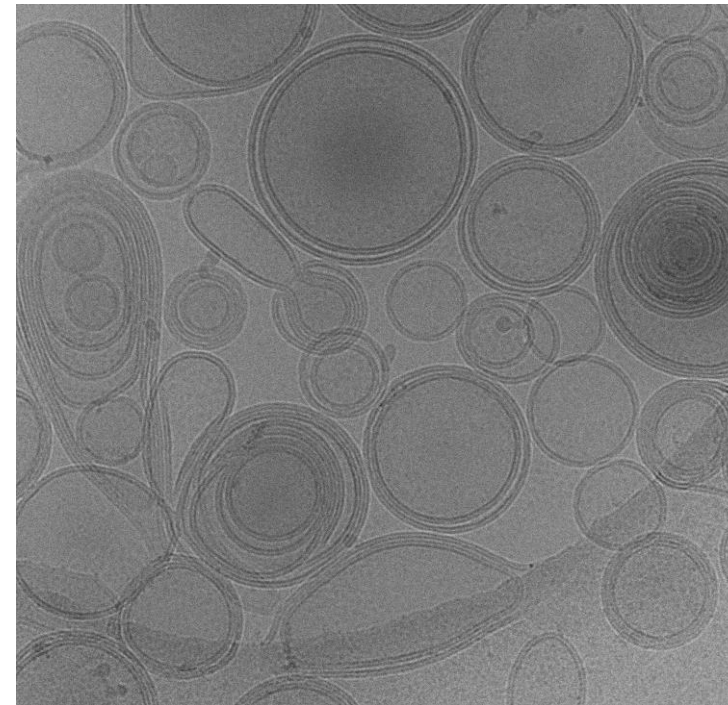
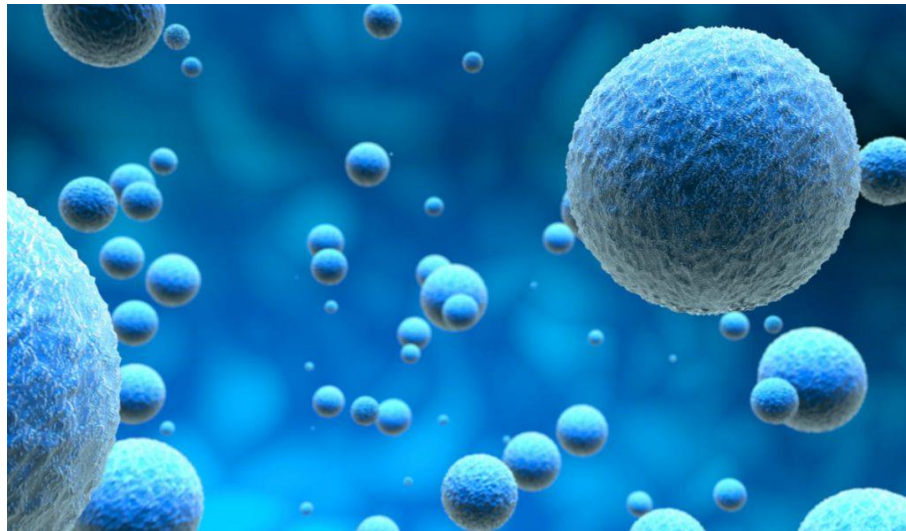
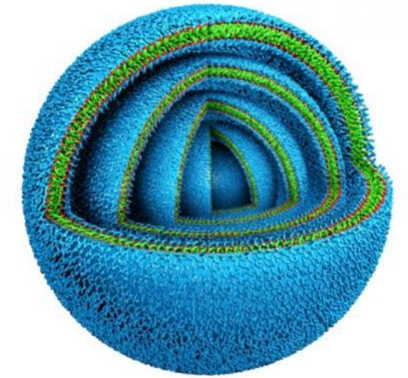
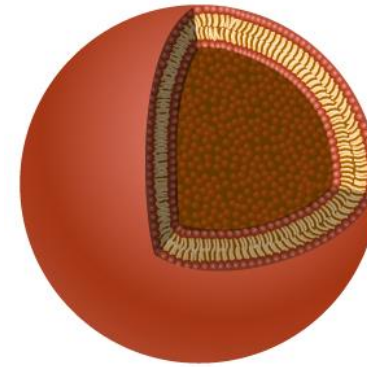
Changes of micelles

- Micelles go through several changes based on their concentration and size of the surfactant



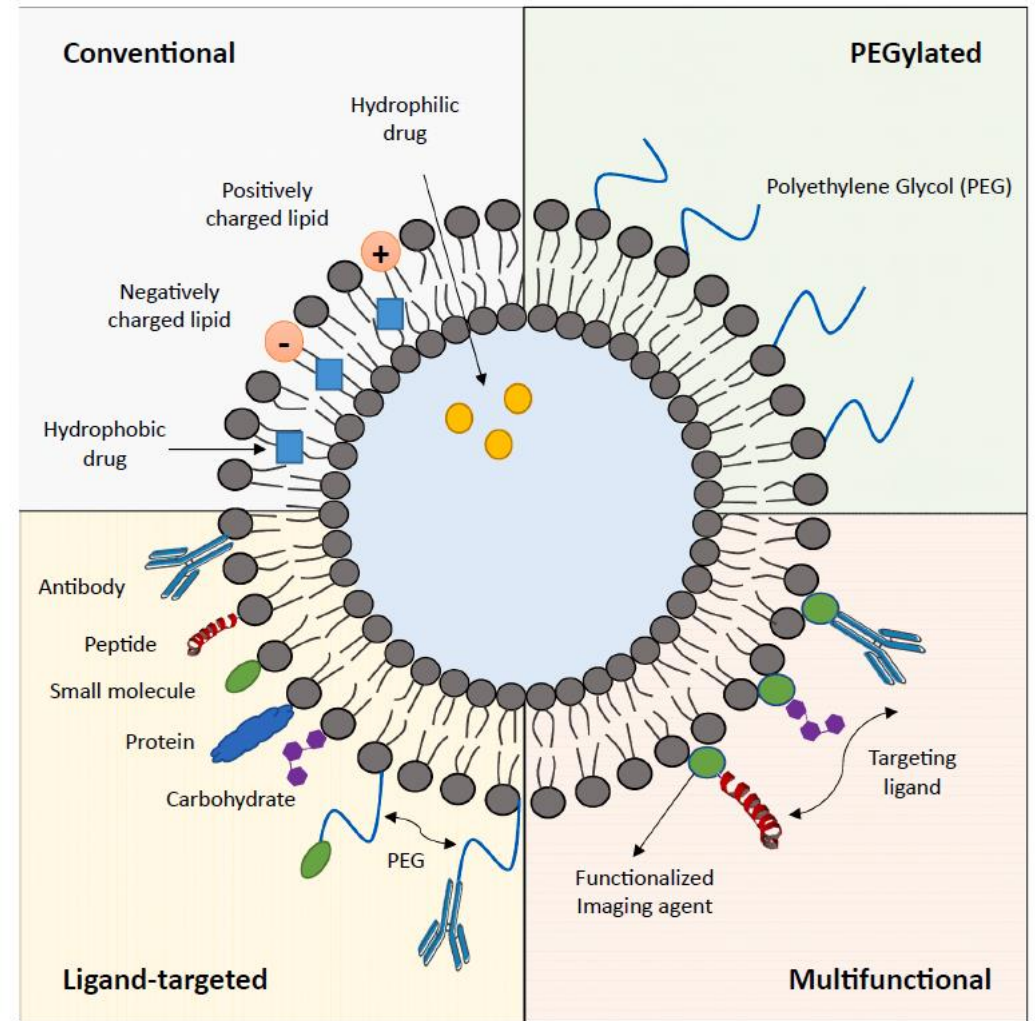
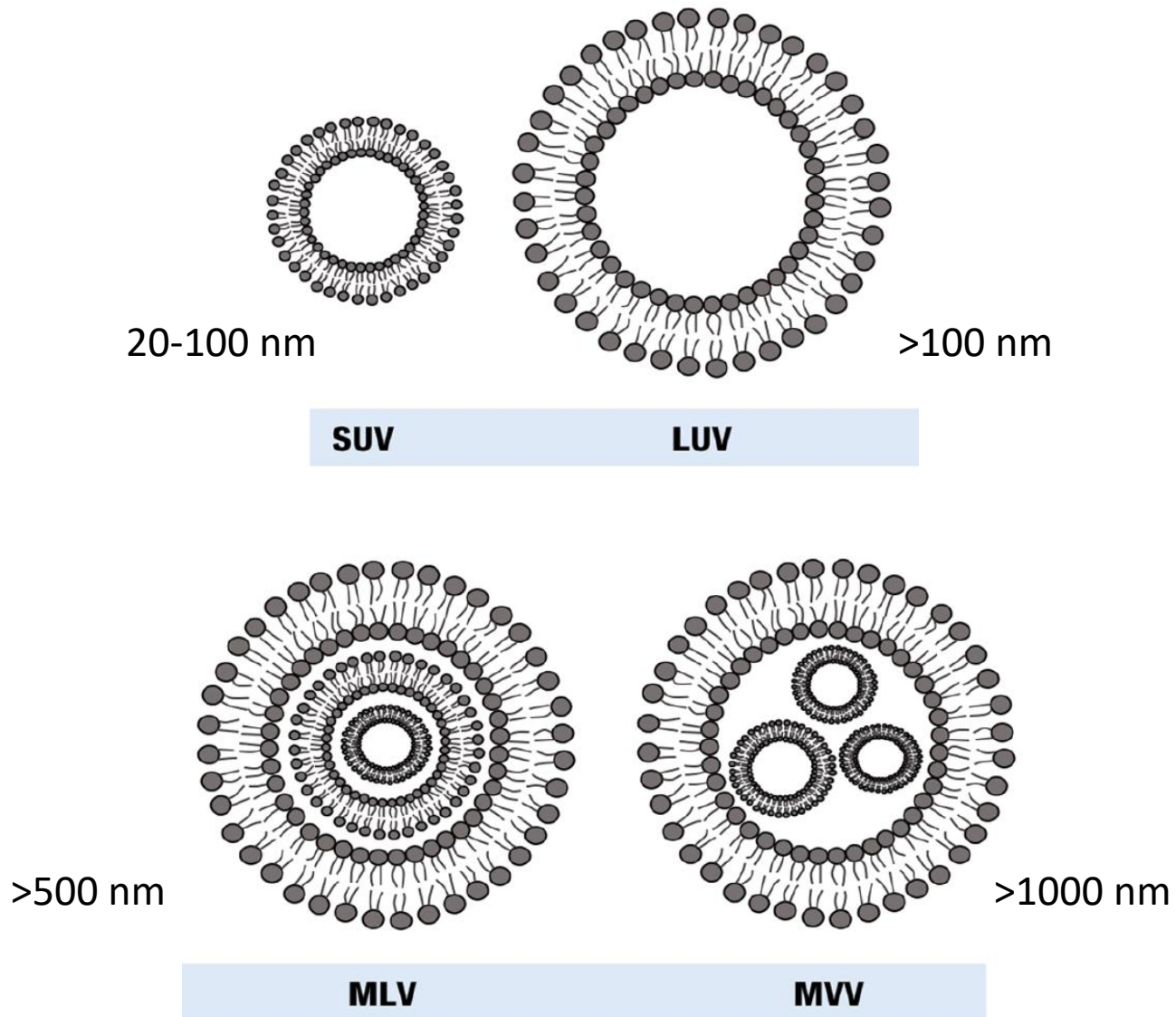
Bilayers and vesicles

- Sheet like micelles – vesicles
- Cells are formed of phospholipid bilayers
- Source of the origin of the first biological cells?
- protocells

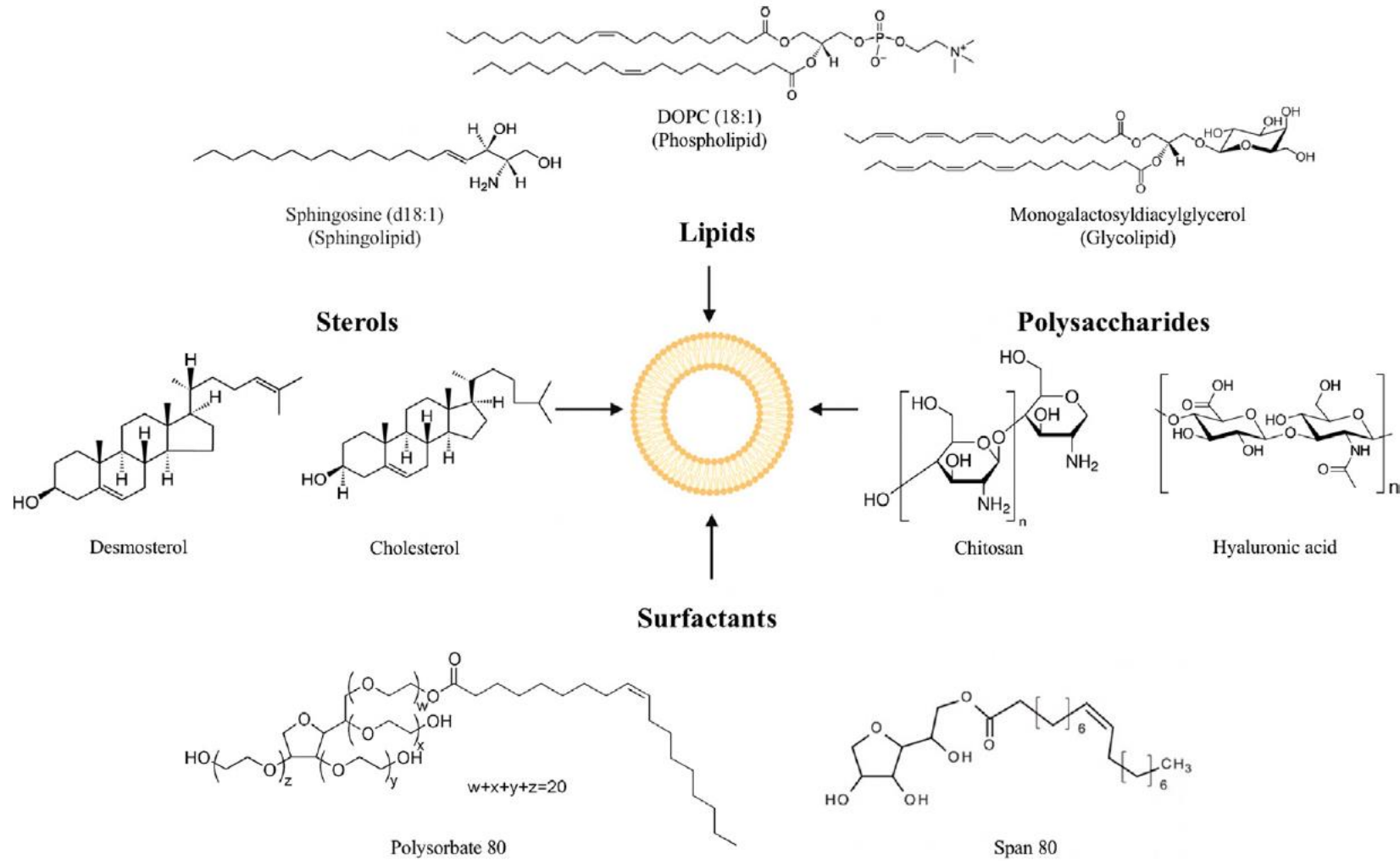


TEM: 79 000 x – ca 200 nm

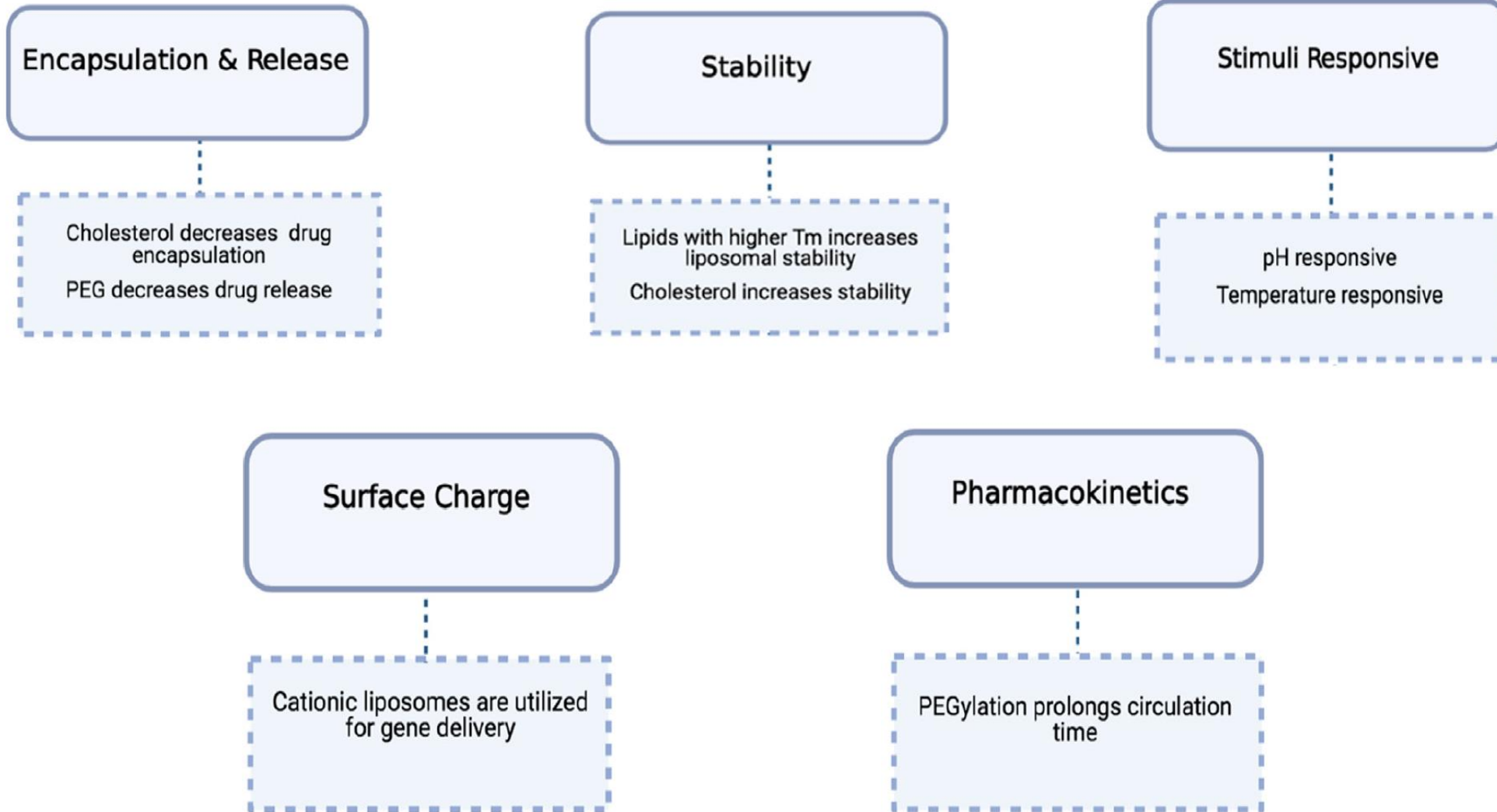
Liposomes



Building units



Tuning their properties



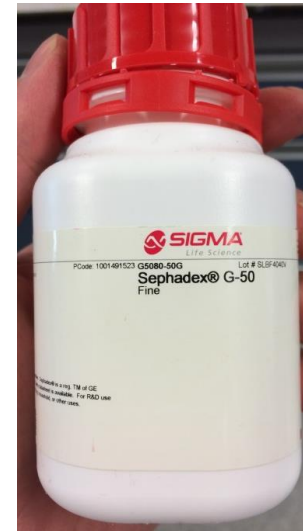
Vesicle preparation – thin film hydration

1. Mix POPC and cholesterol
2. Evaporate solvents
3. Re-dissolve in aqueous soln. of drug
4. Stir for 1 h (vesicle formation)
5. Freeze-thawing (breaking down multilamellar vesicles) or sonication
6. Sizing (formation of vesicles smaller than 200 nm, extruder)
7. Size exclusion separation (removal of small vesicles and free dye)

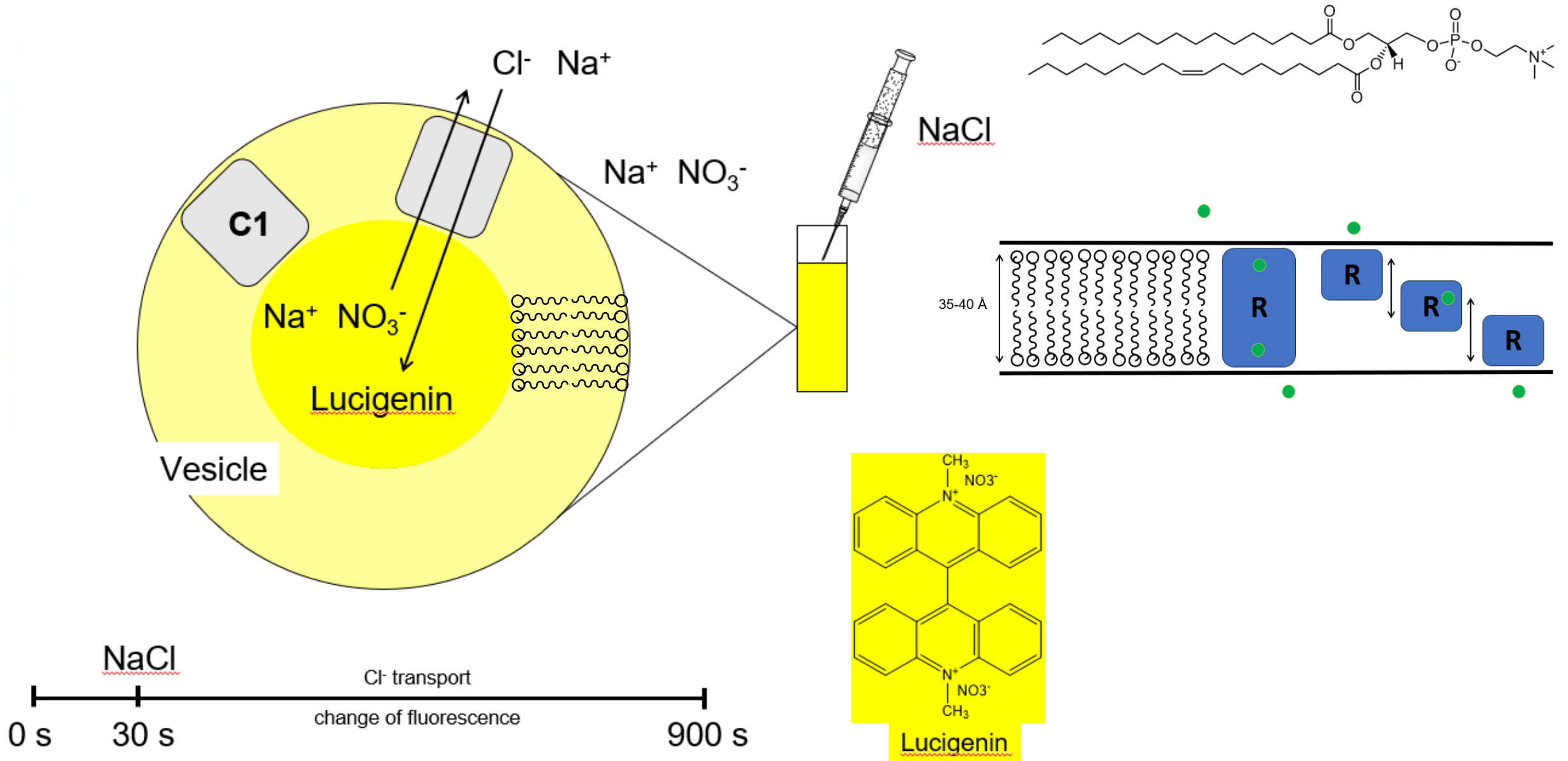
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Anion (chloride) transport study

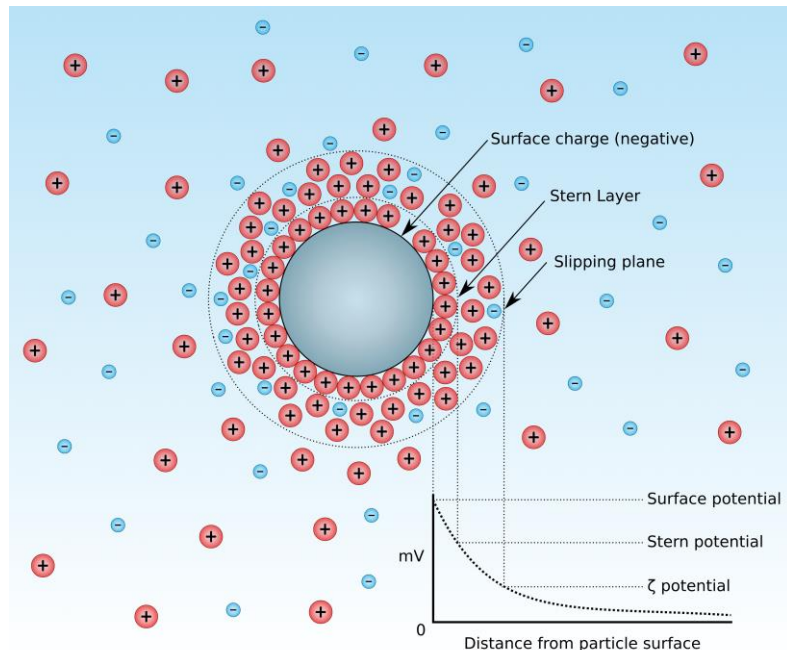


Vesicle preparation

- Reverse-phase evaporation – LUV, MLV – protein encapsulation
 - Injection – LUV – many variations, injection of lipids in low boiling solvent
 - Detergent removal – LUV – surfactant with high CMC
 - Dehydration-rehydration – LUV – without organic solvent
 - Etc.
-
- Freeze-thaw - solution can be sonicated at room temperature, frozen in liquid nitrogen and left at room temperature to melt. As the liposomal solution thaws, vesicles fuse forming LUVs. Up to 10 freeze-thaw cycles may be used to achieve the intended results.

Vesicle characterization

- Zeta potential = overall net charge of the particles - net charge of liposomes is influenced by key parameters, such as lipid composition, the head group of lipids and associated ligands



| Properties | Analytical techniques |
|--------------------------|---|
| Size | Dynamic light scattering (DLS), Nanoparticle tracking analysis (NTA), Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), Field-flow fractionation (FFF), Size exclusion chromatography (SEC). Microscopy techniques: Transmission electron microscopy (TEM), Cryogenic-TEM (Cryo-TEM) and Atomic force microscopy (AFM). |
| Zeta potential | Laser Doppler electrophoresis (LDE) and Capillary electrophoresis. |
| Shape | Microscopy techniques: TEM, Cryo-TEM and AFM. |
| Lamellarity | Cryo-TEM, ^{31}P NMR, Small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) and trapped volume determination techniques. |
| Phase behavior | Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC), Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), fluorescence probe polarization, NMR, Electron paramagnetic resonance, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) and X-ray diffraction (XRD). |
| Encapsulation Efficiency | Ultraviolet-visible (UV-Vis) and Fluorescence spectroscopy, enzyme or Protein-based assays, High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), Ultra-performance liquid chromatography (UPLC), Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS), Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS), Electron spin resonance (ESR) and ^1H NMR. |
| Drug release | Spectrophotometry methods, HPLC and UPLC. |

Lipid-based NPs - liposomes

- Lipid-based NPs are the most common class of FDA-approved nanomedicines
- Many advantages including formulation simplicity, self-assembly, biocompatibility, high bioavailability, ability to carry large payloads and a range of physicochemical properties that can be controlled to modulate their biological characteristics
- Unique physiological functions, such as pH response, prolonged blood circulation, and reduced systemic toxicity
- Liposomes are typically composed of phospholipids, which can form unilamellar and multilamellar vesicular structures, usually spherical
- Liposomes can carry and deliver hydrophilic, hydrophobic and lipophilic drugs, and they can even entrap hydrophilic and lipophilic compounds in the same system
- *In vitro* and *in vivo* stability are altered by NP size, surface charge, lipid composition, number of lamellae and surface modifications (with ligands or polymers)
- Shelf-stability of liposomes can be increased by freeze-drying

Lipid-based NPs – lipid nanoparticles (LNPs)

- Lipid nanoparticles (LNPs) - liposome-like structures widely used for the delivery of nucleic acids (form micellar structures within the particle core)
 - Composition: cationic or ionizable lipids that complex with negatively charged genetic material and aid endosomal escape, phospholipids for particle structure, cholesterol for stability and membrane fusion, and PEGylated lipids to improve stability and circulation
 - Important in personalized genetic therapy applications for their efficacy of their nucleic acid delivery along with their simple synthesis, small size and serum stability
 - Ionizable LNPs are an ideal platform for the delivery of these nucleic acid therapies as they have a near-neutral charge at physiological pH but become charged in acidic endosomal compartments, promoting endosomal escape for intracellular delivery
 - Limited by low drug loading and biodistribution that results in high uptake to the liver and spleen

Technological challenges in use of NPs

- Scale-up synthesis – it is essential to have consistent and highly reproducible formulation prior to the clinical trials
- Performance optimization
- Performance prediction – correlation between animal and human model is essential
- Sterilization – provide compromise between stability and sterilization

| Name | Particle type/drug | Approved application/indication | Approval (year) |
|--|--|---|--------------------------|
| New approvals since 2016 | | | |
| VYXEOS CPX-351 (Jazz Pharmaceuticals) | Liposomal formulation of cytarabine:daunorubicin (5:1M ratio) | Acute myeloid leukemia | FDA (2017) EMA (2018) |
| ONPATTRO Patisiran ALN-TTR02 (Alnylam Pharmaceuticals) | Lipid nanoparticle RNAi for the knockdown of disease-causing TTR protein | Transthyretin (TTR)-mediated amyloidosis | FDA (2018) EMA (2018) |
| NBTXR3 Hensify (Nanobiotix) | Hafnium oxide nanoparticles stimulated with external radiation to enhance tumor cell death via electron production | Locally advanced squamous cell carcinoma | CE Mark (2019) |
| Cancer nanoparticle medicines | | | |
| Doxil Caelyx (Janssen) | Liposomal doxorubicin (PEGylated) | Ovarian cancer (secondary to platinum based therapies) HIV-associated Kaposi's sarcoma (secondary to chemotherapy) Multiple myeloma (secondary) | FDA (1995) EMA (1996) |
| DaunoXome (Galen) | Liposomal daunorubicin (non- PEGylated) | HIV-associated Kaposi's sarcoma (primary) | FDA (1996) |
| Myocet (Teva UK) | Liposomal doxorubicin (non- PEGylated) | Treatment of metastatic breast cancer (primary) | EMA (2000) |
| Abraxane (Celgene) | Albumin-particle bound paclitaxel | Advanced non-small cell lung cancer (surgery or radiation is not an option) Metastatic breast cancer (secondary) Metastatic pancreatic cancer (primary) | FDA (2005) EMA (2008) |

| Name | Particle type/drug | Approved application/indication | Approval (year) |
|---|---|---|------------------------------|
| Marqibo (Spectrum) | Liposomal vincristine (non-PEGylated) | Philadelphia chromosome- negative acute lymphoblastic leukemia (tertiary) | FDA (2012) |
| MEPACT (Millennium) | Liposomal mifamurtide (non-PEGylated) | Treatment for osteosarcoma (primary following surgery) | EMA (2009) |
| Onivyde MM-398 (Merrimack) | Liposomal irinotecan (PEGylated) | Metastatic pancreatic cancer (secondary) | FDA (2015) |
| Iron-replacement nanoparticle therapies | | | |
| CosmoFer INFeD Ferrisat (Pharmacosmos) | Iron dextran colloid | Iron deficient anemia | FDA (1992) Some of Europe |
| DexFerrum DexIron (American Regent) | Iron dextran colloid | Iron deficient anemia | FDA (1996) |
| Ferlecit (Sanofi) | Iron gluconate colloid | Iron replacement for anemia treatment in patients with chronic kidney disease | FDA (1999) |
| Venofer (American Regent) | Iron sucrose colloid | Iron replacement for anemia treatment in patients with chronic kidney disease | FDA (2000) |
| Feraheme (AMAG) Rienso (Takeda) Ferumoxytol | Iron polyglucose sorbitol carboxymethylether colloid | Iron deficiency in patients with chronic kidney disease | FDA (2009) |

| Name | Particle type/drug | Approved application/indication | Approval (year) |
|--|--|---|-----------------------------------|
| Injectafer Ferinject (Vifor) | Iron carboxymaltose colloid | Iron deficient anemia | FDA (2013) |
| Monofer (Pharmacosmos) | 10% iron isomaltoside 1,000 colloid | Treating iron deficiency and anemia when oral methods do not work or when iron delivery is required immediately | Some of Europe |
| Diafer (Pharmacosmos) | 5% iron isomaltoside 1,000 colloid | Iron deficient anemia | Some of Europe |
| Nano/microparticle imaging agents | | | |
| Definity (Lantheus Medical Imaging) | Perflutren lipid microspheres | Ultrasound contrast agent | FDA (2001) |
| Feridex I.V. (AMAG) Endorem | Iron dextran colloid | Imaging of liver lesions | FDA (1996) Discontinued (2008) |
| Optison (GE Healthcare) | Human serum albumin stabilized perflutren microspheres | Ultrasound contrast agent | FDA (1997) EMA (1998) |
| SonoVue (Bracco Imaging) | Phospholipid stabilized microbubble | Ultrasound contrast agent | EMA (2001) |

| Name | Particle type/drug | Approved application/indication | Approval (year) |
|---|-----------------------------------|--|---------------------------------------|
| Resovist (Bayer Schering Pharma) Cliavist | Iron carboxydextran colloid | Imaging of liver lesions | Some of Europe Discontinued (2009) |
| Ferumoxtran-10 Combidex Sinerem (AMAG) | Iron dextran colloid | Imaging lymph node metastases | Only available in Holland |
| Nanoparticle vaccines | | | |
| Epaxal (Crucell) | Liposome with hepatitis A virus | Hepatitis A vaccine | Some of Europe (discontinued) |
| Inflexal V (Crucell) | Liposome with trivalent-influenza | Influenza vaccine | Some of Europe (discontinued) |
| Particle anesthetics | | | |
| Diprivan | Liposomal propofol | Induction and maintenance of sedation or anesthesia | FDA (1989) |
| Nanoparticles for fungal treatments | | | |
| AmBisome (Gilead Sciences) | Liposomal amphotericin B | Cryptococcal meningitis in HIV-infected patients Aspergillus, Candida and/or Cryptococcus species infections (secondary) Visceral leishmaniasis parasite in immunocompromised patients | FDA (1997) Most of Europe |
| Nanoparticles for macular degeneration | | | |
| Visudyne (Bausch and Lomb) | Liposomal verteporfin | Treatment of subfoveal choroidal neovascularization from age-related macular degeneration, pathologic, or ocular histoplasmosis | FDA (2000) EMA (2000) |

Marketed liposomes

| Name | Company | Liposomal Composition (molar ratio) | Drug Encapsulated | Drug Type | Route of Administration | Clinical Approval Year |
|------------|---|--|--|----------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|
| Abelcet | Leadiant Biosciences, Inc. | DMPC : DMPG (2.3 : 1) | Amphotericin B | Antifungal | I.V. | 1995 |
| Ambisome | Fujisawa Healthcare, Inc. and Gilead Sciences, Inc. | HSPC : DSPG : Cholesterol : Amphotericin B (5 : 2 : 2.5 : 1) | Amphotericin B | Antifungal | I.V. | 1997 |
| Amphocil | Zeneca Pharmaceuticals | Cholesteryl sulphate : Amphotericin B (1 : 1) | Amphotericin B | Antifungal | I.V. | 1993 |
| Amphotec | Sequus Pharmaceuticals Inc. | Cholesteryl sulphate : Amphotericin B (1 : 1) | Amphotericin B | Antifungal | I.V. | 1996 |
| Arikayce | Insmmed, Inc. of Bridgewater, NJ. | DPPC and Cholesterol : Amphotericin B (0.6–0.79 : 1 wt ratio) | Amikacin | Antibacterial | Oral Inhalation | 2018 |
| DaunoXome | Galen US, Inc. | DSPC : Cholesterol (2 : 1) | Daunorubicin | Chemotherapeutic | I.V. | 1996 |
| DepoDur | Pacira Pharmaceuticals, Inc. | DOPC : DPPG : Cholesterol : Tricaprylin and Triolein (507 : 11 : 76 : 6 : 1) | Morphine sulfate | Narcotic Analgesic | Epidural | 2004 |
| Doxil | Johnson & Johnson | HSPC : Cholesterol : DSPE-PEG2000 (11.2 : 7.8 : 1) | Doxorubicin | Chemotherapeutic | I.V. | 1995 |
| Epaxal | Johnson & Johnson | DOPC : DOPE (3 : 1) | Hepatitis A virus antigen, strain RG-SB | Vaccine | I.M. | 1993 |
| Exparel | Pacira Pharmaceuticals, Inc. | DEPC : DPPG : Cholesterol : Tricaprylin (7.6 : 1 : 10 : 3.5) | Bupivacaine | Anesthetic | I.V. | 2011 |
| Evacet | Liposome Company Inc. | (Hydro Soy PC, cholesterol and DSPE-PEG) : Doxorubicin (8 : 1) | Doxorubicin | Chemotherapeutic | I.V. | 1995 |
| Inflexal V | Johnson & Johnson | 70% Lecithin, 20% Cephalin and 10% Phospholipids (DOPC : DOPE, 3 : 1) | Influenza virus antigen, strains A and B | Vaccine | I.M. | 1997 |
| Lipodox | Sun Pharmaceutical Industries Ltd. | DSPC : Cholesterol : DSPE-PEG2000 (10.9 : 7.3 : 1) | Doxorubicin | Chemotherapeutic | I.V. | 1995 |
| Marqibo | Acrotech Biopharma, LLC | Sphingomyelin : Cholesterol (1.5 : 1) | Vincristine | Chemotherapeutic | I.V. | 2012 |
| Mepact | Takeda Pharmaceutical Limited | DOPS : POPC (1 : 2.3) | Mifamurtide | Immunomodulator/ Antitumor | I.V. | 2004 |
| Myocet | Zeneus Pharma Ltd. | EPG : Cholesterol (1.2 : 1) | Doxorubicin | Chemotherapeutic | I.V. | 2000 |
| Onivyde | Merrimack Pharmaceuticals, Inc. | DSPC : MPEG-2000 : DSPE (200 : 133.3 : 1) | Irinotecan | Chemotherapeutic | I.V. | 2015 |
| Visudyne | Novartis International AG | Verteporfin : DMPC and EPG (1 : 8) | Verteporfin | Photosensitizer | I.V. | 2000 |

In the next class...

Nanoparticles for drug delivery 2

Thank you for your attention!