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Aptamer photoregulation in vivo

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The in vivo application of aptamers as therapeutics could be improved by enhancing target-specific accumulation while minimizing off-target uptake. We designed a light-triggered system that permits spatiotemporal regulation of aptamer activity in vitro and in vivo. Cell binding by the aptamer was prevented by hybridizing the aptamer to a photo-labile complementary oligonucleotide. Upon irradiation at the tumor site, the aptamer was liberated, leading to prolonged intratumoral retention. The relative distribution of the aptamer to the liver and kidney was also significantly decreased, compared to that of the free aptamer.

aptamer | light triggering | cancer targeting

Aptamers are single-stranded nucleic acids that have emerged as a promising class of therapeutics owing to their relative ease of synthesis and high affinity and selectivity toward a range of targets including small molecules, proteins, viral particles, and living cells. A–C. Aptamers can fold into well-defined conformations and are more resistant to enzymatic degradation than other oligonucleotides (7–9). Aptamers have been suggested for imaging applications because their relatively small size and molecular mass (~10 kDa) allow fast tissue penetration and clearance from blood (10, 11). The same characteristics make aptamers promising for effective delivery of diagnostic and therapeutic agents to tissues or organs. However, nonspecific accumulation of aptamers in normal tissues is undesirable (12–15) because it diminishes the proportion of aptamer that targets the desired tissue. This can adversely affect the therapeutic index of the aptamer; this may be particularly true if the aptamer is conjugated to a drug or drug delivery device. Moreover, aptamers themselves can have nonspecific toxic effects (16, 17). Ideally, aptamers would achieve a high concentration in a pathological tissue of interest while maintaining low levels elsewhere. The activity of aptamers can be modulated in vivo by binding to polymers or complementary oligonucleotide sequences (18–20), but spatiotemporal regulation of aptamer activity in vivo has not been achieved, whereby activity would be enhanced in target tissues and not others. Here, we report a strategy to provide light-triggered control of aptamer function and distribution in vivo.

Light is an excellent means of providing external spatiotemporal control of biological systems (21–26). Many strategies have been developed to incorporate photosensitive groups in nucleotides that can control cellular function or affect biological pathways or gene expression by light (24–29). Of particular interest, such approaches can be used to provide spatiotemporal control of gene activation (24). Here, we hypothesized that light triggering can be used to achieve spatiotemporal control of binding of an aptamer injected systemically to its target tissue in vivo, which would have implications for control of delivery of therapeutic aptamers and/or conjugated drugs or drug delivery systems. We designed a photo-triggerable system whereby the aptamer of interest is inactivated by hybridization to a photo-labile complementary oligonucleotide. Upon irradiation, the complementary sequence breaks down, releasing the functional aptamer (Fig. 1). The aptamer of interest is the single-stranded DNA 26-mer aptamer AS1411 (A1411; sequence: 5′-GGT GGT GGT GGT GGT TGT GGT GGT GGT GG-3′) that binds with high affinity and selectivity to nucleolin (30–32), which is overexpressed on the cell membrane of several types of cancer cells, including the 4T1 breast cancer cells used here (33–35). A1411 has been used for cancer targeting in vitro and in vivo (35, 36). A complementary photo-triggerable inhibitory oligonucleotide (OliP) was designed [sequence: 5′-CCCA CCA/CCA CCA/CAA CCA C-3′, where // indicates photo-labile 1-(2-nitrophenyl)ethyl bonds (37); Scheme S1].

Results

We examined the formation and light-triggered dehybridization of double-stranded A1411/OliP in vitro using Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET). A1411 was labeled with a Cy3 fluorophore at the 3′ end (Cy3-A1411) and OliP was modified with a quencher of Cy3 (Iowa Black RQ) at the 5′ end (Q-OliP); the change of FRET signal between the fluorophore and quencher would allow evaluation of the photoactivation process (Fig. 2A and B). The addition of Q-OliP to Cy3-A1411 in solution quenched the fluorescence of Cy3 due to FRET structure (Fig. 2C), confirming the formation of the A1411/OliP hybrid structure. Irradiation (365 nm light at 5 mW/cm2) of the Cy3-A1411/Q-OliP hybrid resulted in an increase in fluorescence intensity at the emission wavelength of Cy3 (Fig. 2D), indicating release of the Cy3-A1411 strand from the hybrid, which peaked in 5 min (Fig. S1). There was no change in fluorescence intensity upon irradiating Cy3-A1411 hybridized to a quencher-bearing DNA strand with the same sequence as Q-OliP but without photo-cleavable bonds (Q-Oli; Fig. S2), suggesting that breakage of the photo-labile bonds by light was crucial to the release of the aptamer from the hybrid. Native polycrylamide gel electrophoresis was performed to further confirm the light-triggered dehybridization of A1411/OliP; ~95% of the OliP was cleaved after 5 min of irradiation (365 nm light at 5 mW/cm2; Fig. S3). The ability of A1411/OliP hybrid to target cancer cells was investigated in vitro. Fluorescent Cy3-A1411/OliP was incubated with 4T1 breast cancer cells (nucleolin-positive) at 37 °C for 2 h. Fluorescence microscopy revealed minimal uptake into cells exposed to 0.5 μM Cy3-A1411/OliP compared with cells incubated with free Cy3-A1411 (Fig. 3D), indicating that hybridization to OliP inhibited uptake by the cancer cells.

Significance

The importance of this research is in the demonstration of the spatiotemporal regulation of aptamer activity in vitro and in vivo that can be achieved by a photo-triggered strategy. The aptamer’s cell-binding capability was blocked by hybridization with a photo-cleavable complementary oligonucleotide. Irradiation at the tumor site liberated the aptamer from the duplex, leading to prolonged intratumoral retention. Furthermore, the relative distribution of the aptamer to the tumor was enhanced in relation to uptake by the liver and kidneys. Our strategy may provide an approach to improving the therapeutic indices of aptamer-based medicines.
the activity of A\textsubscript{1411}. Irradiation of Cy3-A\textsubscript{1411}/OliP (365 nm, 5 min, 5 mW/cm\textsuperscript{2}) induced cell uptake comparable to that seen with free Cy3-A\textsubscript{1411}, suggesting that irradiation released functional A\textsubscript{1411} from the hybrid. Quantitation by flow cytometry revealed that the fluorescence intensity of 4T1 cells incubated with Cy3-A\textsubscript{1411}/OliP was approximately three times less than that of cells treated with Cy3-A\textsubscript{1411} (P < 0.005; n = 4). Upon irradiation (365 nm light at 5 mW/cm\textsuperscript{2} for 5 min), the fluorescence intensity of cells incubated with Cy3-A\textsubscript{1411}/OliP increased ~2.5-fold (P < 0.005, n = 4), that is, to a level similar to that of cells treated with free A\textsubscript{1411} (Fig. 3B). In contrast, cellular uptake of Cy3-A\textsubscript{1411}/OliP without photo-cleavable bonds did not increase upon irradiation (Fig. S4), supporting the view that it was the photo-cleavable nature of OliP that enabled light-responsive cell binding by A\textsubscript{1411}/OliP.

Intratumoral photoactivation of A\textsubscript{1411}/OliP was demonstrated by intravital microscopy (38, 39) in nude mice with 4T1 tumors (diameters ~6–8 mm) on their mammary fat pads. Mice were administered A\textsubscript{1411} or A\textsubscript{1411}/OliP (250 nmol/kg) i.v., both labeled with the fluorescent dye Cy3. FITC-dextran (molecular mass ~70 kDa) was also injected i.v. to highlight the vasculature (40). Injection of free Cy3-A\textsubscript{1411} resulted in strong extravasated fluorescence in the tumor tissue 10 min after injection. Administration of Cy3-A\textsubscript{1411}/OliP resulted in minimal fluorescence in the same time frame (Fig. 4). Irradiation of the tumor site (365 nm light at 200 mW/cm\textsuperscript{2} for 3 min; see SI Materials and Methods, section S6 for the rationales for irradiation timing and Figs. S5 and S6) immediately after injection of Cy3-A\textsubscript{1411}/OliP resulted in more extravasated fluorescence throughout the tumor tissue compared with that without light irradiation. These results suggest that A\textsubscript{1411}/OliP could be dehybridized to liberate A\textsubscript{1411} upon irradiation at the tumor site in vivo.

Fluorescence imaging of tumor sections 2 h postadministration showed distribution of Cy5-A\textsubscript{1411} throughout the tumor tissue (Fig. 5), whereas A\textsubscript{1411}/OliP was mainly localized around blood vessels, presumably because of inhibition of the aptamer’s binding to cells. [The 2-h time point was selected because pilot studies suggested that free (unbound) A\textsubscript{1411}/OliP was still present in tumors in large quantity at earlier time points; see also Fig. 6B.] When the tumor site was irradiated for 3 min immediately after administration of A\textsubscript{1411}/OliP, Cy5 fluorescence was found to be distributed throughout the tumor at necropsy 2 h later.

To examine the effect of light triggering on biodistribution, nude mice bearing s.c. 4T1 tumors were administered Cy5-labeled A\textsubscript{1411} or A\textsubscript{1411}/OliP i.v. then underwent quantitative whole-body fluorescence imaging (Fig. 6). The tumors were placed at the neck so that signal from the liver and other organs with significant nonspecific uptake would not interfere with signal from the tumor. To
minimize autofluorescence, the mice were fed a purified diet for 1 wk before experiments (41). Fluorescence from A\textsubscript{414} was readily detected in tumors 2 h after injection (Fig. 6A) but not in animals injected with A\textsubscript{414}/OliP. Irradiation at the tumor site (365 nm light at 200 mW/cm	extsuperscript{2} for 3 min) immediately after i.v. injection of A\textsubscript{414}/OliP resulted in strong fluorescence at the tumor site, similar to that in the group receiving A\textsubscript{414}, and 1.4-fold higher than that in mice receiving A\textsubscript{414}/OliP without irradiation (Fig. 6B). The rate of clearance of A\textsubscript{414}/OliP from tumors (365 nm light at 200 mW/cm	extsuperscript{2} for 3 min) was slower than that of A\textsubscript{414}/OliP (1/2 = 977.2 s). Of note, A\textsubscript{414}/OliP showed similar intratumoral fluorescence intensity 2 h after administration with and without irradiation (200 mW/cm	extsuperscript{2}, 3 min) (Fig. S7), suggesting that increased binding of A\textsubscript{414}/OliP was due to photo-cleavage of OliP and not a direct effect of irradiation on tissue, such as enhanced capillary permeability. These results suggest that A\textsubscript{414} was liberated from the hybrid upon irradiation, rapidly taken up by tumors (Fig. 4), and was retained there. Examination of irradiated H&E-stained sections of tissues (tumors and overlying skin) did not show signs of tissue injury compared with nonirradiated controls (Fig. S8).

Quantitative fluorescence imaging of tumors 2 h after injection showed that the intratumoral fluorescence signal intensity (median radiance) in the light-triggered A\textsubscript{414}/OliP group was similar to that in the group treated with free A\textsubscript{414} (P > 0.1, n = 5, Fig. 6C and D) and was 2.2-fold higher than that in the group that received A\textsubscript{414}/OliP without irradiation (P < 0.05, n = 5, Fig. 6C). Irradiation also increased aptamer accumulation in tumor relative to levels in other organs. The median ratio of liver to tumor radiance in the group that received A\textsubscript{414}/OliP with light triggering was 2.5-fold less than that in the group treated with A\textsubscript{414} (P < 0.05, n = 5, Fig. 6C). Similarly, the kidney-to-tumor ratio in mice treated with A\textsubscript{414}/OliP with irradiation was 63% less than that in the group receiving free A\textsubscript{414} (P < 0.05).

**Discussion**

We have demonstrated a strategy for regulating aptamer activity and biodistribution by light triggering. In our design, hybridization with a photo-cleavable complementary oligonucleotide (A\textsubscript{414}/OliP) blocked the aptamer’s tumor-targeting capability, which was restored when the aptamer was released by photo-triggering. Hybridization also changed the aptamer’s biodistribution, possibly by two phenomena: (i) enhanced binding to tumor upon irradiation in relation to nonspecific tissue binding, and (ii) A\textsubscript{414} (and some other aptamers (7)) has a configuration that protects it from nuclelease digestion (42) and is reported to have very different biodistribution from other DNA molecules that undergo rapid organ uptake followed by rapid degradation and renal clearance of breakdown products (10, 43, 44). The stability of A\textsubscript{414} is greatly diminished by hybridization in A\textsubscript{414}/OliP (Fig. S9).

Aptamers can be covalently bound to a wide variety of therapeutic agents, including chemotherapeutics or enzymes (45, 46), siRNA (47, 48), or drug-loaded nanocarriers (36, 49), to provide targeted drug delivery. The spatiotemporal control of drug delivery afforded by our approach may enhance the efficacy and therapeutic index of many drugs. Our strategy involves less synthetic workup than approaches that change oligonucleotide biodistribution via chemical modification (e.g., PEGylation) (14, 50–52).

Although UVA light (320–400 nm) has been widely used for photochemical regulation of biological activities in vitro and in vivo (21–26), UVA light possesses clinical limitations such as limited tissue penetration. Clinical applicability could be enhanced by use of two-photon technology whereby near-infrared light, which can penetrate tissues more deeply, could be used to cleave two-photon photolabile groups (26, 53). Fiberoptic endoscopy could also be used to use UVA light deep within the body (54, 55). Brief irradiation with 365 nm light at low energy is not considered a risk for skin cancer (56, 57).

**Materials and Methods**

A full description of materials and methods is provided in SI Materials and Methods.

A\textsubscript{414}/OliP Synthesis. A\textsubscript{414}/OliP stock solution was prepared by adding OliP to a solution (PBS, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.4) of DNA aptamers labeled with a dye with a final ratio of A\textsubscript{414}:OliP of 1:1. The solution was annealed and stored at 4 °C overnight to allow full hybridization.

![Diagram](image-url)
Cellular Uptake Analysis. 4T1 cells were grown in 12-well plates in RPMI-1640 medium, supplemented with 100 units/mL aqueous penicillin G, 100 mg/mL streptomycin, and 10% (v/vt/v) PBS (all from Life Technologies) at concentrations to allow 70% confluence in 24 h (i.e., 2 × 10^4 cells/cm^2). On the day of experiment, the medium was replaced with Opti-MEM medium (500 mL) containing 0.5 μM Cy3-labeled A1411 or A1411/OliP probes with or without light triggering (365 nm light at 5 mW/cm^2 for 5 min). After incubation for 2 h, the cells were washed with PBS (2 × 500 μL per well) and treated with 0.25% trypsin with EDTA for 5 min (Life Technologies). After the cells were washed with PBS (2 × 1 mL), they were fixed with 4% (wt/wt) formaldehyde for 10 min at room temperature, washed with PBS (2 × 1 mL) and stored in 1 mL PBS with 1% (v/vt/v) BSA solution at 4 °C for flow cytometry analysis.

The 4T1 Tumor Model and in Vivo Imaging. Immunodeficient 6- to 8-wk-old nu/nu nude mice were purchased from Charles River Laboratories and maintained under pathogen-free conditions for all animal studies. The study protocol was reviewed and approved by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology Committee on Animal Care. For subcutaneous 4T1 tumor models, 4T1 cells were injected in the dorsal aspect of the neck with 1 × 10^6 cells/0.1 mL in HBSS were injected into mouse mammary fat pads. Tumor length and width were measured with calipers, and the tumor volume was calculated using the following equation: tumor volume = length × width × width / 2. Mice whose tumors reached >100–200 mm^3 were used in subsequent experiments. The mice were injected intravenously (i.v.) with Cy5-labeled A1411 or A1411/OliP at an aptamer dose of 250 nmol/kg. In light-triggering experiments, the tumor site was illuminated by UV light for 3 min (365 nm, 200 mW/cm^2) immediately after injection. Whole body fluorescence imaging was performed with an IVIS imaging system (IVIS spectrum, Caliper Life Sciences) with excitation and emission wavelengths of 640 and 680 nm, respectively.

Statistical Analysis. Data which were reasonably normally distributed were described with means and standard deviations and compared with t tests. Otherwise, data were presented as median ± quartiles and differences between groups were assessed with a Mann–Whitney u test. All data analyses were performed using Origin 8 software.

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