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Chapter 3

Optimization of encapsulation of a synthetic long peptide in PLGA nanoparticles: low burst release is crucial for efficient CD8⁺ T cell activation

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Abstract

Overlapping synthetic long peptides (SLP) hold great promise for immunotherapy of cancer. Poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA) nanoparticles (NP) are being developed as delivery systems to improve the potency of peptide-based therapeutic cancer vaccines. Our aim was to optimize PLGA NP for SLP delivery with respect to encapsulation and release, using OVA_{24'}, a 24-residue long synthetic Agic peptide covering a CTL epitope of ovalbumin (SIINFEKL), as a model antigen (Ag). Peptide-loaded PLGA NP were prepared by a double emulsion/solvent evaporation technique. Using standard conditions (acidic inner aqueous phase), we observed that either encapsulation was very low (1–30%), or burst release extremely high (> 70%) upon resuspension of NP in physiological buffers. By adjusting formulation and process parameters, we uncovered that the pH of the first emulsion was critical to efficient encapsulation and controlled release. In particular, an alkaline inner aqueous phase resulted in circa 330 nm sized NP with approximately 40% encapsulation efficiency and low (< 10%) burst release. These NP showed enhanced MHC class I restricted T cell activation *in vitro* when compared to high-burst releasing NP and soluble OVA_{24'}, proving that efficient entrapment of the Ag is crucial to induce a potent cellular immune response.

Introduction

In recent years there is an increased interest in the application of therapeutic vaccination for treatment of cancer¹. Therapeutic cancer vaccines aim to induce a strong cellular response against tumor associated Ags². Dendritic cells (DC) are professional Ag presenting cells (APCs) that play a major role in the initiation of such an immune response, by continuously sampling the environment for foreign Ags and establishing the communication between the innate and adaptive immune system^{3,4}. Only appropriately activated DC are capable of inducing a robust cytotoxic T cell (CTL) response, which is required for effective immunotherapy of established tumors⁵⁻⁸. For this purpose, DC are the major target cells for cancer immunotherapy vaccines^{2,8}.

Therapeutic vaccination with overlapping synthetic long peptides (SLP), covering the entire amino acid sequence of tumor associated protein Ags and thus containing all possible MHC class I and II epitopes, has been successfully applied in murine models and clinical therapeutic vaccination trials⁹⁻¹³. Moreover, vaccination of patients suffering from human papillomavirus 16 (HPV16) induced premalignant vulvar intraepithelial neoplasia with an HPV16-based SLP vaccine resulted in complete clinical regression of the lesions in some cases¹¹⁻¹³.

So far, Montanide-based water-in-oil (w/o) emulsions have been applied to formulate SLP in the majority of clinical therapeutic cancer vaccination trials¹²⁻¹⁸. The use of Montanide-based formulations has some important limitations, including non-biodegradability, causing significant local side effects, poorly controlled Ag release rates and limited scalability because of lack of long-term stability¹⁹⁻²¹. Biodegradable delivery systems based on poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA) offer a promising alternative strategy for peptide-based cancer vaccines. PLGA is well suited for the preparation of micro- and nanoparticles (NP)²²⁻²⁵, which can protect Ag from proteolytic enzymatic degradation and rapid clearance²⁶⁻²⁹, allow co-encapsulation and simultaneous delivery of both Ag and adjuvants, and facilitate Ag uptake by DC³⁰⁻³³. PLGA has a long safety record and is Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approved as an excipient, owing to its biodegradability and biocompatibility, with several slow-release formulations currently on the market^{31,34}. PLGA undergoes hydrolysis in the body to produce the original monomers, lactic acid and glycolic acid, which are natural by-products of metabolic pathways. Ag release can be regulated e.g. by varying the lactic acid/glycolic acid ratio³⁵⁻³⁷. PLGA-based particulate systems can be manufactured reproducibly according to Good Manufacturing Practice conditions

and have been studied extensively for the delivery of a wide variety of Ags^{24,34,38-40}. Ags encapsulated in PLGA microparticles have shown to induce immune responses comparable to those of Ags adjuvanted with Montanide 51^{37,41}. PLGA is also known to have several disadvantages regarding instability of protein Ags, e.g., due to the hydrophobicity of the polymer and the local acidification of the microenvironment that occurs during degradation of the polymer at physiological pH⁴²⁻⁴⁴. However, for synthetic peptides, which do not possess a tertiary structure, this is less problematic and several peptides in PLGA microspheres have been successfully launched on the market^{34,40,44}.

The aim of this study was the pharmaceutical characterization of PLGA NP as a suitable delivery system for encapsulation of SLP for cancer immunotherapy. OVA_{24'}, a 24-residue long synthetic Agic peptide covering a CTL epitope of ovalbumin (OVA; SIINFEKL), was studied as a model SLP, because of its proven capability to induce CTL responses *in vitro* and *in vivo*⁴⁵. Efficient entrapment of OVA_{24'} SLP in the polymeric matrix was obtained by exploring and fine tuning of formulation and process parameters. OVA_{24'}-loaded PLGA NP were characterized for Ag encapsulation efficiency, Ag burst release, particle size and zeta-potential, and the obtained formulations were immunologically evaluated *in vitro* for their potency to induce CD8⁺ T cell activation.

Materials and methods

Materials

Synthetic long peptide 24-mer OVA_{24'} (DEVSGLEQLESIIINFEKLAAAAAK)⁴⁶, covering the cytotoxic T lymphocyte (CTL) epitope SIINFEKL of ovalbumin (OVA) was synthesized at the interdepartmental GMP facility of the Department of Clinical Pharmacy and Toxicology of Leiden University Medical Center as described previously¹⁰. Poly(D,L-lactic-co-glycolic acid) [PLGA], Resomer® RG 502H was purchased from Boehringer Ingelheim (Ingelheim, Germany). 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazine-ethanesulfonic acid (HEPES), sodium cholate, dichloromethane (DCM), dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), and trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany). Acetonitrile (ACN) and methanol (MeOH) were obtained from Biosolve BV (Valkenswaard, the Netherlands), Polyvinil alcohol (PVA) 4-88 (31 kDa) was purchased from Fluka (Steinheim, Germany). Tween 20 was purchased from Merck Schuchardt (Hohenbrunn, Germany). Sodium hydroxide was purchased from Boom (Meppel, Netherlands). Reversed phase HPLC column ReproSil-Pur

C18-AQ 3 μm (150x4 mm) was purchased from Dr. Maisch HPLC GmbH (Ammerbuch-Entringen, Germany). Phosphate-buffered saline (NaCl 8.2 g/L; $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot 12 \text{H}_2\text{O}$ 3.1 g/L; $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 0.3 g/L) (PBS) was purchased from B. Braun (Melsungen, Germany). Iscove's Modified Dulbecco's Medium (IMDM) was purchased from Lonza (Walkersville, USA). All other chemicals were of analytical grade and all aqueous solutions were prepared with milli Q water.

Nanoparticle preparation

General particle preparation process

Nanoparticles loaded with OVA₂₄ were prepared using a double emulsion with solvent evaporation method⁴⁷. In brief, 50 mg of PLGA dissolved in 1 ml of dichloromethane was emulsified under sonication (30 s, 20 W) with a solution containing 1.4 mg OVA₂₄ (for solution compositions, see results). To this first emulsion (w1/o), 2 ml of an aqueous surfactant solution (for surfactant types, see results) were added immediately, and the mixture was emulsified again by sonication (30 s, 20 W), creating a double emulsion (w1/o/w2). The emulsion was then added dropwise to 25 ml of extraction medium (0.3% w/v surfactant) previously heated to 40°C under agitation, to allow quick solvent evaporation, while stirring, which was continued for 1 h. The particles were then collected by centrifugation for 15 min at 15000 g at 10°C, washed, and resuspended in deionized water, aliquoted and freeze-dried at -55°C in a Christ Alpha 1-2 freeze-drier (Osterode am Harz, Germany) for 12 hours.

As starting conditions, the method described by Slütter et al.⁴⁷ was used, with 1% v/v Tween 20 in 25 mM Hepes pH 7.4 as the aqueous phase for second emulsion, with the following modifications: DMSO used as inner phase instead of PBS pH 7.4 and 5% (w/v) PLGA was used instead of 2.5%.

Optimization of formulation parameters

In order to achieve an optimum formulation, the following parameters involved in the particle preparation were varied, and their effect on peptide encapsulation efficiency was investigated.

- a) Surfactant type: investigated by dissolving different surfactant types (PVA; Tween 20; sodium cholate) in the second aqueous phase (w2) during the second emulsion step.

- b) Inner solvent: investigated by dissolving the peptide in different solutions (w1), i.e. DMSO; 50% ACN + 0.1% TFA; 50% ACN in 25 mM NaOH; and 50% ACN in 0.25 mM NaOH + 400 μ L Hepes pH 8.0 at different concentrations).
- c) Volume ratio (w1/o): investigated by varying the volume of the inner aqueous phase w1 (50 μ L, 100 μ L; 500 μ L).

Nanoparticle characterization

Dynamic light scattering and zeta-potential

The Z-average size and polydispersity index (PDI) of NP were measured by dynamic light scattering, using a Zetasizer (Nano ZS, Malvern Ltd., United Kingdom). The zeta-potential was measured by laser Doppler electrophoresis, using the same device. For that purpose, NP were diluted to 2.5 mg/ml in 1 mM Hepes pH 7.4.

Ag content and encapsulation efficiency

Peptide encapsulation efficiency was determined by measuring the peptide content of digested particles by reversed phase HPLC. For that purpose, 200 μ L NP suspension (containing 10 mg NP) was freeze-dried overnight. The lyophilizate was then dissolved in 250 μ L DMSO and the solution was agitated at 50°C for 30 min. Next, 750 μ L 50% ACN with 0.1% TFA were added and the mixture was agitated at 50°C for an extra 60 min, to allow dissolution of the peptide and degradation/precipitation of PLGA, which was then eliminated by centrifugation for 10 min at 18000 g. The supernatant containing the peptide was collected and 50 μ L were injected into a HPLC system equipped with a C18 column (Dr. Maisch Reprosil-Pur C18-AQ, 3 mg, 150 x 4.6 mm) and an ultraviolet detector (Waters 486). Mobile phases applied were 5% ACN in water with 0.1% TFA (solvent A), and 95% ACN in water with 0.085% TFA (solvent B). Separation was performed by applying a linear gradient from 0% to 78% solvent B over 20 min, at a flow rate of 1 ml/min, and peptide detection was performed by absorbance at 220 nm. Peptide concentration in each sample was calculated using a calibration curve created with known concentrations of OVA₂₄.

In vitro release studies

To determine burst release (BR) at time zero (t₀), freeze-dried NP were resuspended in 1x PBS, 1x IMDM cell culture medium, or 5% w/v glucose solution at a concentration of 10

mg PLGA NP/mL and the mixture was vortexed for 30 seconds at room temperature to allow complete resuspension of the particles. Then particles were centrifuged for 10 min at 18000 *g*, the supernatant recovered and the pellet resuspended. Both fractions were freeze-dried overnight, and extraction was performed as described previously, before being analyzed by HPLC for peptide quantification.

For longer release studies, peptide-loaded PLGA NP were prepared as described, resuspended in 1x PBS pH 7.4 at a concentration of 10 mg and maintained at 37°C in a water bath under constant tangential shaking at 100/min in a GFL 1086 shaking water bath (Burgwedel, Germany). At regular time intervals, 250 μ L samples of the suspension were taken, centrifuged for 10 min at 18000 *g*, and the supernatant recovered. To eliminate undesirable PLGA degradation products affecting detection by HPLC, the supernatant was freeze-dried over night, and extraction was performed as described, with the final supernatant being analyzed by HPLC for peptide quantification. Peptide release profiles were generated for each NP formulation in terms of cumulative Ag release (%) over time.

***In vitro* Ag presentation**

D1 cells, a long term growth factor-dependent immature splenic DC line derived from C57BL/6 (H-2K^b) mice, were cultured as described previously⁴⁸. B3Z, cultured as described before, is a CD8⁺ T-cell hybridoma cell line, specific for the H-2K^b-restricted ovalbumin derived CTL epitope SIINFEKL, that expresses a β -galactosidase construct under the regulation of the NF-AT element from the IL-2 promoter⁴⁹. DC were incubated for 2.5 h with soluble OVA₂₄ (sOVA₂₄) or OVA₂₄ encapsulated in PLGA NP at the indicated concentrations. Cells were washed three times with medium before the T-cell hybridoma B3Z cells were added followed by overnight incubation at 37°C. MHC class I Ag presentation of SIINFEKL (OVA₂₅₇₋₂₆₄) in H-2K^b was detected by activation of SIINFEKL-specific CD8⁺ B3Z T cells. Upon T-cell receptor (TCR) ligation, lacZ protein is produced under the control of the IL-2 promoter thus allowing measurement of the IL-2 production indirectly by a colorimetric assay using chlorophenol red- β -d-galactopyranoside (CPRG) as substrate to detect lacZ activity in cell lysates. Color conversion is determined by measuring absorbance (optical density, OD) at 590 nm.

Statistical analysis

Graph Pad Prism software was used for statistical analysis. Burst release in different physiological media and the effect of inner solvent and emulsion volume on burst release between different formulations in PBS were analyzed by two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test. CD8⁺ T cell activation of SIINFEKL-specific CD8⁺ T cells by a two-tailed paired Student's t-test. Effect of the inner phase composition on apparent pH and the effect of Hepes concentration in the inner phase on release were analyzed using two-way ANOVA.

RESULTS

Ag encapsulation and burst release in PLGA NP

In this study, a 24-mer SLP covering a well-known CTL epitope (SIINFEKL) of ovalbumin, here designated as OVA₂₄, was used as a model Ag to study the encapsulation of SLP in PLGA NP by a double emulsion with solvent evaporation method, as function of formulation and process parameters. As starting point, a slightly modified version of the standard double emulsion method described by Slütter et al.⁴⁷ was applied (see section 2.2.1), in which OVA₂₄ was dissolved in DMSO and Tween 20 used as surfactant in the outer phase (Table 3.1, formulation 1). Since this method led to very low encapsulation efficiencies (ca. 1%), DMSO as inner phase was replaced by 50% ACN/0.1% TFA, which resulted in a marginal improvement (see Table 3.1, formulation 2). Attempts to dissolve OVA₂₄ in the PLGA-containing dichloromethane phase failed (results not shown). Therefore, several process parameters were investigated in order to increase the encapsulation efficiency of OVA₂₄ in PLGA NP. First, commonly used surfactants for making NP, sodium cholate and PVA^{23,47}, were tested in replacement of Tween 20 (Table 3.1, formulations 3–7). The type of surfactant used to stabilize the second emulsion had a dramatic positive effect on the encapsulation efficiency. Using 50% ACN/0.1% TFA (with an apparent pH of 2.0) as first emulsion medium and PVA as surfactant in the second emulsion step resulted in the highest encapsulation efficiency (EE) (up to about 30%, see Table 3.1, formulations 4–7). PVA concentrations of 1% and 2% (w/v) PVA yielded comparable EE and particle size (Table 3.1, formulations 6 and 7). PVA concentrations below 1% led to a lower encapsulation efficiency and a larger particle size (Table 3.1, formulations 4 and 5). For our further studies, OVA₂₄-loaded PLGA NP prepared with 50% ACN/0.1% TFA as inner solvent and 1% PVA as surfactant in the second emulsion (Table 3.1, formulation 6) were selected.

Table 3.1 Effect of first and second emulsion compositions on encapsulation efficiency of OVA₂₄ SLP in PLGA NP

Formulation	1 st emulsion medium	2 nd emulsion medium	DL (%) *	EE (%)	Z-average size (nm)	PDI	ZP (mV)
1	DMSO	1% Tween 20	0.01 ± 0.004	1 ± 0.3	319 ± 90	0.23 ± 0.07	-36 ± 7.0
2	50 µL 50% ACN 0.1% TFA	1% Tween 20	0.06 ± 0.02	4 ± 1	277 ± 5	0.20 ± 0.01	-27 ± 2.0
3	50 µL 50% ACN 0.1% TFA	1% Sodium cholate	0.17 ± 0.04	9 ± 2	203 ± 3	0.10 ± 0.03	-32 ± 1.1
4	50 µL 50% ACN 0.1% TFA	0.3 % PVA	0.37 ± 0.08	16 ± 1	606 ± 4	0.17 ± 0.02	-6 ± 1.5
5	50 µL 50% ACN 0.1% TFA	0.5 % PVA	0.62 ± 0.20	22 ± 7	470 ± 36	0.22 ± 0.05	-12 ± 2.1
6	50 µL 50% ACN 0.1% TFA	1 % PVA	0.86 ± 0.31	26 ± 11	372 ± 44	0.17 ± 0.01	-10 ± 1.9
7	50 µL 50% ACN 0.1% TFA	2 % PVA	0.61 ± 0.27	22 ± 3	345 ± 28	0.15 ± 0.03	-10 ± 2.4
8	100 µL 50% ACN 25 mM NaOH	1 % PVA	0.26 ± 0.22	9 ± 8	360 ± 45	0.22 ± 0.01	-12 ± 0.8
9	100 µL 50% ACN 0.25 mM NaOH	1 % PVA	0.71 ± 25	26 ± 9	379 ± 25	0.19 ± 0.02	-12 ± 0.7
10	500 µL 50% ACN 0.1% TFA	1 % PVA	0.82 ± 0.34	29 ± 12	234 ± 3	0.11 ± 0.03	-15 ± 1.3
11	500 µL 50% ACN 25 mM NaOH	1 % PVA	1.03 ± 0.15	37 ± 5	303 ± 68	0.11 ± 0.05	-11 ± 0.1
12	100 µL 50% ACN 0.25 mM NaOH + 400 µL 1 mM Hepes pH 8.0	1 % PVA	0.55 ± 0.21	20 ± 8	384 ± 7	0.18 ± 0.03	-11 ± 0.2
13	100 µL 50% ACN 0.25 mM NaOH + 400 µL 5 mM Hepes pH 8.0	1 % PVA	0.50 ± 0.20	18 ± 6	427 ± 46	0.20 ± 0.05	-10 ± 1.7
14	100 µL 50% ACN 0.25 mM NaOH + 400 µL 10 mM Hepes pH 8.0	1 % PVA	0.44 ± 0.21	16 ± 7	382 ± 69	0.18 ± 0.05	-10 ± 0.6
15	100 µL 50% ACN 0.25 mM NaOH + 400 µL 25 mM Hepes pH 8.0	1 % PVA	0.70 ± 0.09	25 ± 3	298 ± 27	0.12 ± 0.03	-10 ± 0.9
16	100 µL 50% ACN 0.25 mM NaOH + 400 µL 50 mM Hepes pH 8.0	1 % PVA	1.07 ± 0.07	38 ± 3	328 ± 50	0.22 ± 0.07	-14 ± 0.3

* DL = drug loading, EE = encapsulation efficiency, calculated as described in section 2.3.2. PDI = polydispersity index, ZP = zeta-potential. Data are presented as average ± standard deviation of n = 3 independent batches.

Formulation 6 was tested for burst release of the peptide in PBS and IMDM (cell culture medium), which are commonly used for *in vitro* and *in vivo* applications. Directly upon resuspension ($t = 0$) in either PBS or IMDM, OVA₂₄-loaded PLGA NP showed a very high release, ranging from 80 to 90% (Figure 3.1), indicating that initial encapsulation results were misleading. In contrast, a release study in isotonic 5% glucose solution (Figure 3.1), did not induce substantial peptide release.

With the purpose to decrease the very high burst release, new solutions were tested as inner phase (w1) in the NP preparation process, where the effect of pH was studied. Instead of using pHs below the isoelectric point (pI) of the peptide (pI = 4.3), we decided to use pHs above it, which would change the charge distribution in the peptide and thereby could affect encapsulation, as well as inner phase volume, which might affect the peptide's distribution between the inner and outer aqueous phases present during formation of the double emulsion. Therefore, instead of 50% ACN/0.1% TFA (apparent pH 2.0), OVA₂₄ was dissolved in 50% ACN/25 mM NaOH (apparent pH 12.5).

Improvement was observed in neither encapsulation efficiency nor burst release when using an inner alkaline phase volume of 100 μ l (Table 3.1, formulation 9; Figure 3.2a). However, a concomitant increase of inner emulsion volume, by using an inner phase volume of 500 μ l (Table 3.1, formulation 11), drastically reduced burst release from circa 90% to less than 10%, while improving encapsulation efficiency. Still, when at acidic pH,

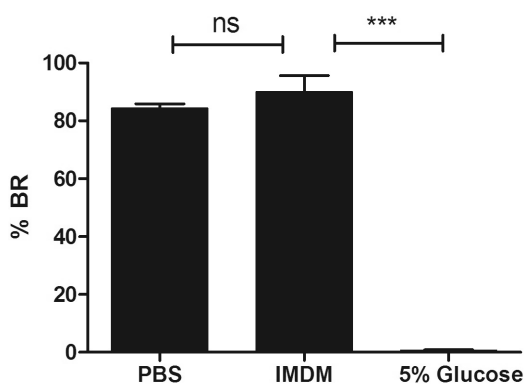


Figure 3.1 Burst release of OVA₂₄ in different physiological media (PBS, IMDM cell culture medium, 5% glucose) from PLGA NP (Table 3.1, formulation 6). Data are presented as average \pm standard deviation of $n = 3$ independent batches. Data was analyzed by two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test. P values are presented as non-significant (ns) = $P > 0.05$; * = $P < 0.05$; ** = $P < 0.01$; *** = $P < 0.0001$.

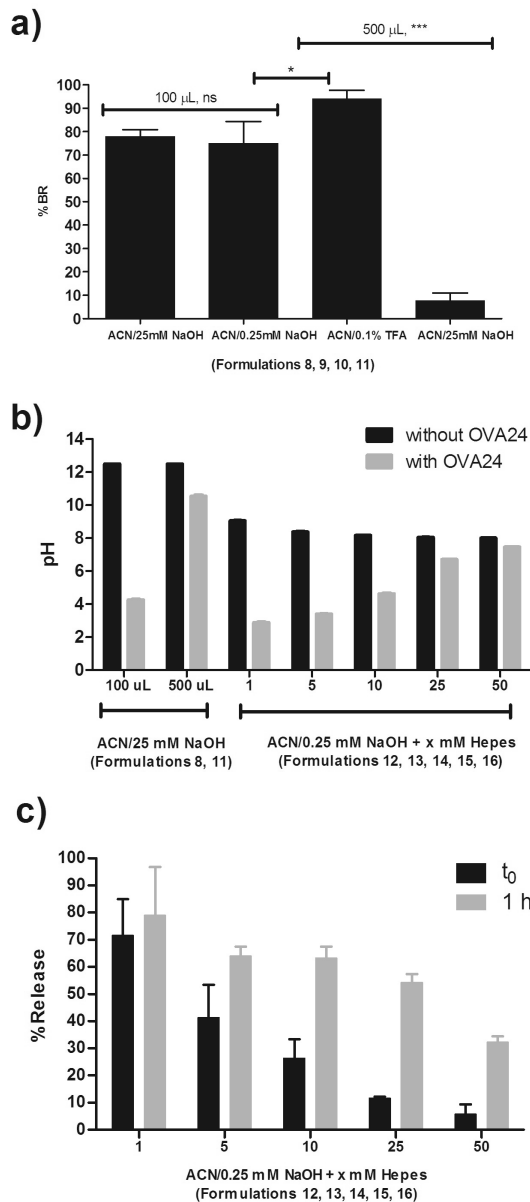


Figure 3.2 (A) Effect of inner solvent and emulsion volume on burst release of OVA₂₄ in PLGA NP, assessed upon resuspension in PBS (Formulations 8–11). (B) Effect of the inner phase composition on apparent pH before and after the addition of OVA₂₄ ($P < 0.0001$) (formulations 8, 11–16). (C) Effect of Hepes concentration in the inner phase on release, assessed at t_0 (burst release) and 1 h after resuspension ($P < 0.0001$) (formulations 12–16). Data are presented as average \pm standard deviation of $n=3$ independent batches. Formulation numbers are according to Table 3.1. P values are presented as non-significant (ns) = $P > 0.05$; * = $P < 0.05$; ** = $P < 0.01$; *** = $P < 0.0001$.

a higher inner emulsion volume (Table 3.1, formulation 10) did not affect encapsulation efficiency or burst release compared to previous values, confirming the central effect of pH in the matter. Indeed we observed that the peptide was very acidic, most likely due to remaining TFA from synthesis, drastically decreasing pH of solutions upon dissolution, with only the higher volumes containing enough base/buffer molecules to neutralize the acid contained in the peptide (Figure 3.2b), and keep the pH above 7.

The size and zeta-potential of the prepared OVA₂₄-loaded NP was measured in 1 mM Hepes pH 7.4. Irrespective of the preparation method, the particles were negatively charged, with zeta-potentials ranging from -10 to -15 mV (see Table 3.1), when prepared using 1% PVA as surfactant. Though the inner emulsion ratio is generally thought to influence final particle size, with a larger ratio typically yielding bigger particles²², we did not observe significant differences in average size (Table 3.1), with final particle sizes ranging from 300 to 400 nm for higher inner phase volumes and polydispersity indices below 0.3.

Since it is well known that extreme pH values may harm peptide structure and stability, we decided to lower the working pH. Therefore, NaOH concentrations were decreased from 25 mM (apparent pH 12.5) to 0.25 mM NaOH (yielding an apparent pH of 10.5), and after dissolving the peptide in 50% ACN 0.25 mM NaOH, pH was adjusted by diluting 5 fold in Hepes buffer pH 8.0 at different Hepes concentrations (Table 3.1, formulations 12–16). We observed that a buffer concentration of at least 50 mM was necessary to maintain a basic pH in presence of peptide (Figure 3.2b), with the final pH having a direct effect on burst release (Figure 3.2c). Since the formulation with a relatively mild inner phase with an apparent pH of 8.0 (see Table 3.1, formulation 16) showed a comparable EE and burst release as the formulation with an apparent inner phase pH of 10.5 (Table 3.1, formulation 11), formulation 16 was adopted for further functional studies. With this formulation we obtained particles with an encapsulation efficiency of 38%, with an average size of 328 nm, and zeta potential of -13.6 mV.

Release kinetics

Since the particles are meant to be delivered to DC and taken up by DC rapidly after administration, short term release properties of the peptide-loaded particles (Table 3.1, formulation 16) were assessed for 24 h. It can be observed that after 1 h OVA₂₄ shows approximately 30% release in PBS at 37°C under shaking 100/min (Figure 3.3). Over the next 24 h, no further release was observed. The slight decline in initial concentration of

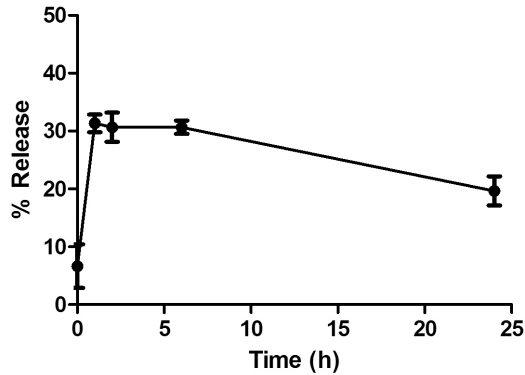


Figure 3.3 Release kinetics of OVA₂₄ from PLGA NP (Table 3.1, formulation 16) in PBS at 37°C under shaking 100/min. Data are presented as average ± standard deviation of n = 3 independent batches.

OVA₂₄ was due to aggregation and, hence, partial precipitation during the centrifugation step. Indeed, free OVA₂₄ dissolved in PBS at 37°C under agitation aggregated over time, as detected by DLS (results not shown). Adding Tween 80 (0.1 % w/v) to the release medium did not help. We did not further study this phenomenon, but it obviously limited the duration of the release study.

***In vitro* Ag presentation of SLP Ag encapsulated in NP**

The effect of encapsulation of OVA₂₄ on the efficiency of DC uptake and processing into MCH class I for Ag cross-presentation resulting into activation of CD8⁺ T cells was tested *in vitro* (Figure 3.4). For that purpose, the different formulations were incubated with DC for 2.5 h, washed to remove excess unbound Ag, followed by co-culture in the presence of OVA-specific B3Z CD8⁺ T cells. OVA₂₄-containing PLGA NP with low (< 10%) burst release (Table 3.1, formulation 16) were compared with those exhibiting high (> 75%) burst release (Table 3.1, formulation 9), against soluble OVA₂₄, empty particles, and a mixture of soluble OVA₂₄ and empty particles. Encapsulation of OVA₂₄ in PLGA-NP resulted in significantly enhanced activation of B3Z CD8⁺ T cells compared to soluble OVA₂₄. Although both tested NP formulations enhanced MHC class I Ag cross-presentation, we observed that delivery of OVA₂₄ via encapsulation in PLGA NP with low (< 10%) burst release resulted in improved T cell responses in comparison to OVA₂₄-containing PLGA NP with high (ca. 75%) burst release. The addition of empty NP to soluble OVA₂₄ did not show an effect on T cell

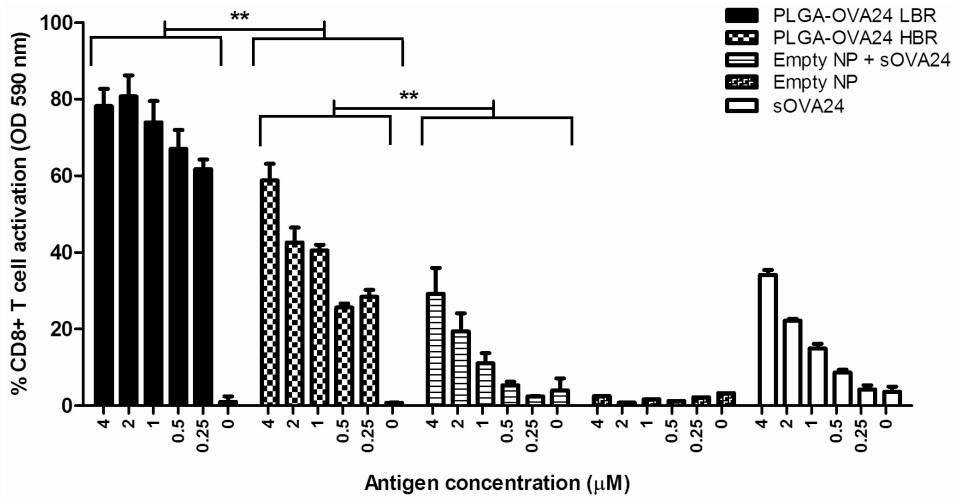


Figure 3.4 Normalized CD8⁺ T cell activation of SIINFEKL-specific CD8⁺ T cells (B3Z) after co-culturing with DC incubated for 2.5 hours with titrated amounts of different OVA₂₄ SLP formulations: low-burst releasing (LBR) PLGA NP loaded with OVA₂₄ (Table 3.1, formulation 16), high-burst releasing (HBR) PLGA NP loaded with OVA₂₄ (Table 3.1, formulation 9), soluble OVA₂₄ mixed with empty NP (OVA₂₄ + Empty NP), empty NP, and soluble OVA₂₄ (sOVA₂₄). Data are presented as average \pm SD of triplicate measurements. Representative results from one out of 3 experiments are shown. Graphs depict normalized T cell activation data based on the maximal OD 590 nm value/T cell activation measured upon incubation of DC with 1 μ M of the minimal H2-K^b epitope OVA₈/SIINFEKL-peptide (OD 590 nm value of 0.918 = 100%) as positive control. P values are presented as * = P < 0.05; ** = P < 0.01.

activation in comparison to soluble OVA₂₄ alone, indicating the strict necessity of peptide encapsulation in NP for enhanced processing in MHC class I Ag presentation pathways. Taken together, these data demonstrate that effective entrapment of Ag in PLGA with low burst release is crucial for efficient Ag cross-presentation by DC.

Discussion

The aim of this study was to develop a method to efficiently encapsulate OVA₂₄ in PLGA, and perform a full characterization of the obtained formulation. This approach may result in Ag-bearing biodegradable particles that can be actively taken up by DC, generating specific T cell immunity and improving the efficacy of synthetic peptide-based cancer vaccines.

Whereas hydrophilic and hydrophobic peptides have been successfully encapsulated in PLGA NP and/or microparticles in the past^{23,37,40,50}, efficient entrapment of the moderately hydrophobic OVA₂₄ proved to be challenging. OVA₂₄ does not readily dissolve in aqueous solutions and is insoluble in solvents like DCM or chloroform. However, it can be dissolved in a suitable matrix such as 50% v/v ACN in water, as well as in the commonly used solvent DMSO, prior to dilution in aqueous solutions. Standard encapsulation procedures generally used for encapsulation of hydrophilic or hydrophobic Ags led to low encapsulation efficiencies and high burst release once NP were resuspended in isotonic solutions at physiological pH. Therefore, several formulation parameters, particularly inner and outer emulsion compositions, were studied in order to increase encapsulation. The positive effect of using PVA in the outer aqueous phase on EE may be due to fact that it is not a classical surfactant with a distinct hydrophobic tail and hydrophilic headgroup, but a polymer that coats the surface, stabilizing the emulsion. In contrast, both Tween 20 and cholate are able to form micelles at concentrations above their critical micelle concentrations (0.07 and 0.6% w/v for Tween 20 and cholate, respectively), that may capture and solubilize the peptide during the emulsification process and thereby favor its extraction in the external water phase. A measurable difference between NP formulated with Tween 20 or sodium cholate (Table 3.1, formulations 1–3) and those formulated with PVA (Table 3.1, formulations 5–16) was that the negative zeta-potential of the former formulations was significantly higher. While the relatively high zeta-potential values obtained with cholate can be explained by the negative charge of the surfactant, we can only speculate that the nonionic surfactant Tween 20, due to its lower molecular size, does not shield the negative charge of the PLGA as much as PVA coating does.

The observed high burst release in the formulations with acidic inner phase led us to the notion that the majority of the OVA₂₄ molecules might not be encapsulated in the NP's polymeric matrix, but instead were adsorbed to their surface, masking real encapsulation efficiencies. This would explain the rapid release of peptide from the NP in presence of salt by disruption of electrostatic interactions between the peptide and the PLGA surface, due to the presence of counter ions that may shield the charges, and/or alter the peptide's solubility. Indeed, the high burst release is highly consistent with observed release profiles for a tumor necrosis factor alpha blocking peptide adsorbed to PLGA NP³⁹, occurring once exposed to salt-based isotonic solutions at physiological pH. Increasing particle hydrophobicity by using different types of PLGA with higher molecular weights and lactic acid/glycolic acid ratio (PLGA 75:25), as well as using DMSO as solvent, creating

an oil-in-water emulsion, instead of water-in-oil-in-water to reduce porosity^{51,52}, did not result in a decrease of the burst release (data not shown), concurring with the adsorption hypothesis, in opposition to diffusion due to high porosity. Moreover, resuspension in either water or isotonic 5% (w/v) glucose solution did not lead to substantial burst release (Figure 3.1), which provides further evidence that the instant release was not due to high particle porosity and peptide diffusion due to osmosis.

A clear correlation between burst release and pH of the inner phase was observed (Figure 3.2), confirming that the pH of the inner phase is of primary importance for efficient peptide encapsulation. The effect of the higher inner phase volume on the burst release is mainly pH related, by providing a higher number of base/buffer molecules able to neutralize the acidic peptide and maintain an alkaline pH, whereas a higher acidic inner volume showed no effect (Table 3.1, formulation 10).

In order to better understand the physicochemical characteristics of the peptide and the effect of pH of the inner (w1) phase on the observed encapsulation efficiency and burst release, the sequence of the peptide was analyzed using ProtParam, the online protein identification and analysis software that is available through the ExPASy World Wide Web server⁵³. Using this tool, the theoretical isoelectric point of the OVA₂₄ peptide was determined as 4.3, and the grand average of hydropathicity (GRAVY) as 0.087⁵⁴. According to this index, amino acids are separated into hydrophilic (negative GRAVY value) and hydrophobic (positive GRAVY value). The amino acids with GRAVY values closer to zero correspond to the least hydrophobic and hydrophilic ones, which are respectively alanine (1.8) and glycine (-0.4). The slightly positive value of the OVA₂₄ peptide confirms its slight hydrophobic nature.

Hydrophobic protein domains have shown to adsorb to polymer surfaces by electrostatic and/or hydrophobic interactions, and particle surface properties can influence adsorption⁵⁵. Though for the OVA₂₄/PLGA system the mechanism of encapsulation versus surface localization is still not clear, we hypothesize that efficient encapsulation at a higher pH of the inner phase may result from a more favorable partitioning of the peptide between internal/external aqueous phases and interfaces. A closer look at the peptide sequence and position of its charged residues (D'EVSGL⁻QLE⁻SIIN⁻FE⁻K⁺LAAAAAK⁺) allows us to divide it into two sections, with distinct characteristics. At low pHs, below the peptide's pI, the DEVSGLEQLESIIINFE part should be mostly neutral, with the exception of the N-terminal amine group, and therefore rather hydrophobic. On the other hand, the K⁺LAAAAAK⁺

sequence might act as a charged headgroup, thereby rendering the molecule surface active and prone to migrate to the surface. Free peptide in the external phase may also adsorb to the particles through electrostatic interactions between positively charged residues and negatively charged PLGA NP surfaces. Once exposed to saline solutions at higher pHs, the 'hydrophobic tail' will become negatively charged, hence more hydrophilic, by which the molecule may lose its surface activity, as well as repel from negatively charged PLGA, whereas the electrostatic interactions between the positively charged residues and PLGA may also be displaced by the presence of counter ions, which could explain the release in PBS pH 7.4, but not in water (i.e., during washing of the particles during preparation) or isotonic glucose solutions with acidic pHs.

Previous studies with the short synthetic peptide SIINFEKL in PLGA microparticles showed nearly total release of the peptide within 24 hours in PBS²⁴. Studies with longer peptides (13 to 43 amino acids) or recombinant human growth hormone in microparticles showed 20–70% release over the first 24 h⁵⁶⁻⁵⁹, whereas insulin also shows 30–40% release from PLGA NP within 24 h⁶⁰. With our method we were able to encapsulate OVA₂₄ with nearly 40% EE in NP showing minimal burst release and a total peptide release of circa 30% over 24 h. The better retention of SLP will allow delivery of encapsulated peptide to DC, which is a great improvement compared to release over the same period of time of high releasing formulations. This is especially important if we consider subsequent development of this particulate system for delivery of SLP, which may include co-encapsulation of adjuvants, such as Toll-like receptor ligands (TLRL), or even surface modification with targeting moieties that require covalent binding to the particles at controlled pH such as described by Cruz et al.²³ without losing most of the Ag during the manufacturing process or shortly after administration.

The effect of OVA₂₄ encapsulation on Ag cross-presentation to activate CD8⁺ T cells was tested *in vitro* with conclusive results. OVA₂₄-containing PLGA NP with low burst release showed significantly higher capacity of CD8⁺ T cell activation comparing to those with high burst release (Figure 3.4). Likewise, soluble peptide mixed with empty particles did not show any improvement when compared to soluble peptide, further proving the need of effective entrapment of Ag in PLGA to increase Ag cross presentation by DC. Furthermore, we showed that not only encapsulation of OVA₂₄ in PLGA NP is required, but also the release characteristics are of vital importance, with low burst release being fundamental to induce a potent cellular immune response. This is probably due to enhanced uptake and/or processing by DC of particulate Ag. When incubated with low-burst releasing particles,

DC may efficiently uptake the Ag cargo still encapsulated in PLGA particles, whereas with high-burst releasing particles, DC will take up less encapsulated peptide, thereby lowering the overall efficiency by which the peptide is internalized and routed into MHC class I Ag presentation pathways. The improved MHC class I Ag presentation observed with low-burst releasing particles is indicative of sustained release of the peptide inside the DC, similar to other Ag delivery systems to DC ⁶¹.

Conclusion

In this study we described a method for efficient encapsulation of a model SLP in PLGA NP, resulting in a particle delivery system able to enhance CD8⁺ T cell activation *in vitro*. This encapsulation method, employing an apparent inner phase pH above the pI of the encapsulated SLP, may be a promising approach for encapsulation of peptides with amphiphilic and/or hydrophilic properties, and may be considered as a firm basis for the development of NP formulations for SLP-based immunotherapy of cancer. Preliminary studies showed that the method is applicable to other SLP as well (unpublished results). Additionally, this study shows the importance of thorough characterization of peptide encapsulation process in PLGA NP to achieve a successful formulation. In conclusion, this study has shown that encapsulation and release characteristics are strongly dependent on the pH of the first emulsion, whereas a direct comparison between NP with similar physicochemical characteristics in terms of charge, size and Ag loading, but different release profiles, uncovered the importance of low burst release to induce a potent cellular immune response.

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