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Zinc phthalocyanine conjugated with the amino-terminal fragment of urokinase for tumor-targeting photodynamic therapy

⁷ Q1 Zhuo Chen^{a,*}, Peng Xu^a, Jincan Chen^a, Hongwei Chen^a, Ping Hu^a, Xueyuan Chen^b, Lin Lin^c, ⁸ Yunmei Huang^d, Ke Zheng^e, Shanyong Zhou^a, Rui Li^a, Song Chen^a, Jianyong Liu^e, Jinping Xue^e,

Yunmei Huang ", Ke Zneng ", Snanyong Znou ", Kui Li ", Song Cnen ", Jianyong Liu ", Jinping Xue ",
 Mingdong Huang ^{a,e,*}

10 ^a State Key Laboratory of Structural Chemistry, Danish-Chinese Centre for Proteases and Cancer, Fujian Institute of Research on the Structure of Matter,

11 Q2 Chinese Academy of Sciences, Fuzhou, Fujian 350002, People's Republic of China

^b Key Laboratory of Optoelectronic Materials Chemistry and Physics, Fujian Institute of Research on the Structure of Matter, Chinese Academy of Sciences,
 Fuzhou, Fujian 350002, People's Republic of China

14 ^c Division of Hemostasis and Thrombosis, Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02215, USA

15 ^d Fujian Academy of Integrative Medicine, Fujian University of Traditional Chinese Medicine, Fuzhou, Fujian 350108, People's Republic of China

¹⁶ ^e College of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering, Fuzhou University, Fujian 350108, People's Republic of China

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ABSTRACT

Photodynamic therapy (PDT) has attracted much interest for the treatment of cancer due to the increased incidence of multidrug resistance and systemic toxicity in conventional chemotherapy. Phthalocyanine (Pc) is one of main classes of photosensitizers for PDT and possesses optimal photophysical and photochemical properties. A higher specificity can ideally be achieved when Pcs are targeted towards tumor-specific receptors, which may also facilitate specific drug delivery. Herein, we develop a simple and unique strategy to prepare a hydrophilic tumor-targeting photosensitizer ATF-ZnPc by covalently coupling zinc phthalocyanine (ZnPc) to the amino-terminal fragment (ATF) of urokinase-type plasminogen activator (uPA), a fragment responsible for uPA receptor (uPAR, a biomarker overexpressed in cancer cells), through the carboxyl groups of ATF. We demonstrate the high efficacy of this tumor-targeting PDT agent for the inhibition of tumor growth both in vitro and in vivo. Our in vivo optical imaging results using H22 tumor-bearing mice show clearly the selective accumulation of ATF-ZnPc in tumor region, thereby revealing the great potential of ATF-ZnPc for clinical applications such as cancer detection and guidance of tumor resection in addition to photodynamic treatment.

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50 1. Introduction

Cancer is one of the deadliest diseases of our time and through-51 out the world. Billions of dollars are spent annually on research in 52 order to cure cancer or improve the quality of life of cancer 53 54 patients. Traditional cancer treatments, including surgery, radia-55 tion therapy and chemotherapy, result in serious side effects caused by the loss of normal organ function. In contrast, photody-56 namic therapy (PDT) is more controllable and has the potential to 57 selectively destroy malignant cells while sparing the normal 58

tissues, and thus is recognized as a treatment strategy that is both minimally invasive and minimally toxic. It is a form of phototherapy using nontoxic light-sensitive compounds (i.e. photosensitizers) that are exposed selectively to light, whereupon they become toxic to targeted malignant and other diseased cells [1-3]. In addition, some photosensitizers are able to provide intense fluorescence signals in tumor tissues that allow their photodynamic imaging.

Among many types of photosensitizers for PDT, phthalocyanine (Pc) is one of the main classes of photosensitizers with advantageous photophysical properties [4]. Its stronger absorption at 670 nm where the depth of light penetration in tissue is twice that obtained at 630 nm with porfimer sodium (Photofrin), which has been used as an effective photosensitizer in clinical cancer treatment or in cancer clinical trials [5]. However, Pcs tend to have low tumor-targeting efficacy, which limits their use in clinical applications. A number of strategies have been used to enhance

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^{*} Corresponding authors. Tel.: +86 591 83704996; fax: +86 591 83714946 (Z. Chen). Address: State Key Laboratory of Structural Chemistry, Danish-Chinese Centre for Proteases and Cancer, Fujian Institute of Research on the Structure of Matter, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Fuzhou, Fujian 350002, People's Republic of China. Tel.: +86 591 83704996; fax: +86 591 83714946 (M. Huang).

E-mail addresses: zchen@fjirsm.ac.cn (Z. Chen), mhuang@fjirsm.ac.cn (M. Huang).

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the tumor-targeting specificity of Pc compounds [3,6,7]. In this
study, we report a strategy to improve the tumor-targeting properties of zinc phthalocyanine (ZnPc) by coupling ZnPc to the aminoterminal fragment (ATF) of urokinase.

Urokinase, or urokinase-type plasminogen activator (uPA), is 80 recommended as a prognostic marker for breast cancer by the 81 82 American Society of Clinical Oncology (ASCO) [8] and the European 83 Organization for Research and Treatment of Cancer (EORTC) [9]. Biochemical and structural studies from our laboratory [10,11] 84 and others [12-14] have demonstrated that the ATF of uPA 85 86 (uPA¹⁻¹⁴³, molecular weight \sim 16 kDa) is solely responsible for uPA binding to the receptor of uPA (uPAR). uPAR has a low expres-87 sion level in most quiescent cells, but greatly increases in several 88 cancers including breast, colorectal and gastric cancers cells [15]. 89 90 Several independent studies have correlated uPAR expression 91 in vivo to various pathological conditions, especially cancer inva-92 sion and metastasis [16]. Moreover, a high level of soluble uPAR 93 in plasma correlates with poor patient prognosis in many different 94 human cancers [17]. Due to the importance of uPAR in cancer inva-95 sion and metastasis, several types of uPAR antagonists have been 96 developed during the last decades, and used as targeting agents 97 for imaging of uPAR via various imaging modalities such as 98 magnetic resonance imaging, single-photon-emission computer 99 tomography and positron emission topography [18]. A multifunc-100 tional nanoscale uPAR-targeted delivery vehicle was engineered 101 to enhance the selective and specific delivery of the cargo (noscapine) to prostate cancer cells [19]. In another study, an 102 uPAR-targeted dual-modality nanoparticle probe was generated 103 and shown to selectively accumulate into primary and metastatic 104 105 pancreatic cancer lesions in pancreatic cancer in mice by molecular imaging [20]. Recently, a ⁶⁴Cu-labeled peptidyl uPAR inhibitor was 106 107 demonstrated to accumulate specifically on a xenografted tumor in mice 2- to 3-fold more than the non-inhibitory ⁶⁴Cu-labeled 108 109 peptide [21]. Taken together, uPAR has attracted considerable 110 attention as a promising molecular target for intervention and/or 111 cvtotoxin-based cancer therapies.

112 The ATF of uPA is an often used targeting agent for uPAR and 113 has been used to conjugate to different nanoparticles [20,22]. How-114 ever, recent studies have raised concern that chemical modification 115 of ATF may alter its uPAR binding capability. Small molecular antagonists were developed in the 1990s by several pharmaceuti-116 cal companies to intervene in the uPAR-uPA interaction. These 117 inhibitors were reported to have high potencies, and some of them 118 119 had IC₅₀s in the nanomolar range. However, two inhibitors were later resynthesized by an independent group and found to have 120 121 much weaker potencies (IC_{50} s were of the order of micromoles) [23]. This discrepancy was traced to a problem in the first compet-122 itive assay using ATF with ¹²⁵I labeling, which modified the ATF 123 residues important for uPAR binding and greatly reduced the affin-124 125 ity for uPAR of the labeled fragment [24], thus making the labeled 126 fragment an invalid probe to measure uPAR binding. This example highlights that caution should be taken in the modification of ATF 127 protein in order to preserve its uPAR-binding capability. In this 128 study, we conjugate ZnPc to the carboxyl groups of ATF, which 129 130 was shown not to interfere with uPAR binding [10], and thus preserve the binding activity of conjugated ATF to uPAR. Besides the 131 132 increased tumor-targeting efficacy, this conjugation of ATF with ZnPc has an added benefit of enhancing the water solubility of 133 ZnPc. ZnPc is not soluble in aqueous solution, and various formula-134 135 tion approaches have been used in order to solve this solubility 136 issue, which include the use of detergents (castor oil) or nanopar-137 ticles [25,26]. Derivatization of the Pc ring is also commonly used 138 to enhance the solubility [27].

Both in vitro and in vivo PDT studies demonstrate that ATF-ZnPc
 preferentially accumulates onto uPAR-positive cells, internalizes
 into cells and localizes in the lysosomes, and thus exhibits selective

PDT effects on tumor cells (as shown in Fig. 1). The selectivity of ATF-ZnPc towards uPAR-positive cells is further identified by fluorescent imaging of a tumor model in mice.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials and cell lines

All the starting materials were obtained from commercial suppliers and used as received without further purification. Common chemicals were purchased from Shanghai Chemical, Inc. Sepharose fast flow (SPFF) and Superdex75 HR 10/30 size exclusion columns were obtained from GE Life Sciences. All enzymes were from Takara Bio Inc., except that Pfu DNA polymerase was from Sangon Biotech. Synthetic DNA oligonucleotides were from Beijing Sunbiotech Co. Ltd. Zeocin, Top10F' and eukaryotic *Pichia pastoris* cells were purchased from Invitrogen. Deionized water was used throughout the experiments.

The mammalian cell lines used in the studies were histiocytic 157 lymphoma cell line U937, non-small cell lung carcinoma cell line 158 H1299, mouse hepatocellular carcinoma cell line H22, and human 159 embryo lung fibroblast cell line HELF. All these cell lines were pur-160 chased from Shanghai Institute of Cell Biology, Chinese Academy of 161 Sciences and grown in RPMI-1640 supplemented with 10% fetal 162 calf serum and antibiotics. Cells were kept at 37 °C in a humidified 163 incubator with 5% CO₂ atmosphere. The viability of cells was 164 determined by the dye Trypan blue. Cells were maintained in log-165 arithmic phase with viability >95%. 166

2.2. Preparation of ATF protein

The cloning, expression and purification of human ATF (residues 168 1-143) were carried out according to our previously published 169 protocols [28]. ATF was expressed in eukaryotic P. pastoris to 170 ensure proper protein folding and disulfide bond formation, and 171 was captured from expression medium by an SPFF cation exchange 172 column. The protein was further purified by a preparative C4 173 reversed-phase column (VYDAC®, $250\times10\,mm,~5\,\mu m)$ on a 174 high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) system (Dalian 175 Elite Analytical Instruments Co. Ltd., Dalian, China), eluted with a 176 linear gradient of 20-70% acetonitrile. The final product ATF was 177



Fig. 1. Conjugation of ATF with zinc phthalocyanine (ZnPc) renders ZnPc soluble in water and generates a high degree of specificity to uPAR-abundant tumor cells. ATF-ZnPc preferentially accumulates in lysosome organelle, mainly through uPA receptor-dependent endocytosis, and induces cell death upon light illumination.

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