

Sonoporation at a low mechanical index

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▶ To cite this version:

Anthony Delalande, Spiros Kotopoulis, Tijs Rovers, Chantal Pichon, Michiel Postema. Sonoporation at a low mechanical index. Bubble Science, Engineering & Technology, 2011, 3 (1), pp.3-12. hal-03186064

HAL Id: hal-03186064 https://hal.science/hal-03186064v1

Submitted on 30 Mar 2021

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- Running title: Sonoporation at a low mechanical index 36
- Keywords: Sonoporation, Low mechanical index, Microbubbles, Ultrasound contrast 37
- agent, HeLa cells, Cell penetration 38

39 Abstract

⁴⁰ Purpose: The purpose of this study was to investigate the physical mechanisms of ⁴¹ sonoporation, in order to understand and improve ultrasound-assisted drug and gene ⁴² delivery. Sonoporation is the transient permeabilisation and resealing of a cell membrane ⁴³ with the help of ultrasound and/or an ultrasound contrast agent, allowing for the ⁴⁴ trans-membrane delivery and cellular uptake of macromolecules between 10 kDa and ⁴⁵ 3 MDa.

Methods: We studied the behaviour of ultrasound contrast agent microbubbles near
cancer cells at low acoustic amplitudes. After administering an ultrasound contrast
agent, HeLa cells were subjected to 6.6-MHz ultrasound with a mechanical index of 0.2
and observed with a high-speed camera.

Results: Microbubbles were seen to enter cells and rapidly dissolve. The quick
 dissolution after entering suggests that the microbubbles lose (part of) their shell whilst
 entering.

⁵³ Conclusions: We have demonstrated that lipid-shelled microbubbles can be forced ⁵⁴ to enter cells at a low mechanical index. Hence, if a therapeutic agent is added to the ⁵⁵ shell of the bubble or inside the bubble, ultrasound-guided delivery could be facilitated ⁵⁶ at diagnostic settings. In addition, these results may have implications for the safety ⁵⁷ regulations on the use of ultrasound contrast agents for diagnostic imaging.

58 Introduction

Sonoporation is the transient permeabilisation and resealing of a cell membrane 59 with the help of ultrasound and/or an ultrasound contrast agent, allowing for the 60 trans-membrane delivery and cellular uptake of macromolecules between 10 kDa and 61 3 MDa.¹ Many studies have demonstrated increased drug and gene uptake of sites under sonication.^{2–9} These studies presumed, that a physical membrane disruption 63 mechanism, *i.e.*, sonoporation, caused the increased uptake, as opposed to naturally 64 occurring active uptake processes, such as endocytosis, that are controlled by the 65 system biology.^{2–9} Although mechanical disruption with the aid of ultrasound has been 66 attributed to violent side effects of inertial cavitation and microbubble fragmentation, 67 most notably, the increased uptake has also been observed at low acoustic amplitudes, 68 *i.e.*, in acoustic regimes where inertial cavitation and microbubble fragmentation are not 69 to be expected. An ultrasound contrast agent microbubble might act as a vehicle to carry 70 a drug or gene load to a perfused region of interest. If the same ultrasound field that has 71 been implicated in the sonoporation process can cause release of the therapeutic load, 72 this load could be delivered into cells. Apart from plainly mixing ultrasound contrast 73 agents with therapeutic agents, several schemes have been proposed to incorporate 74 the rapeutic loads to microbubbles. These include loads to the microbubble shell,¹⁰ 75 therapeutic gases inside the microbubble,¹¹ gas-filled lipospheres containing drugs,¹² 76 and drug-filled antibubbles.¹³ To understand and ameliorate ultrasound-assisted drug 77 and gene delivery, the physics of controlled release and of sonoporation have been under 78 investigation. That objective also forms the focus for this paper. Moreover, we studied 79 the behaviour of ultrasound contrast agent microbubbles near cancer cells deliberately 80 at low acoustic amplitudes in in order to probe whether sonoporation in this regime 81 was possible; and if so, to ascertain what the microscopic mechanism might entail; and 82 finally, to assess and scrutinise the safety aspects of ultrasound exposure in this regime. 83

⁸⁴ Mechanical index

The mechanical index (MI) gives an indication of mechanical damage of tissue due to inertial cavitation. It is defined by:

$$MI = \frac{p^-}{\sqrt{f_c}},\tag{1}$$

where p^- is the maximum value of peak negative pressure anywhere in the ultrasound field, measured in water but reduced by an attenuation factor equal to that which would be produced by a medium having an attenuation coefficient of $0.3 \,\mathrm{dB} \,\mathrm{cm}^{-1} \,\mathrm{MHz}^{-1}$, normalised by 1 MPa, and $f_{\rm c}$ is the centre frequency of the ultrasound normalised by 1 MHz. For MI<0.3, the acoustic amplitude is considered low. For $0.3 > \mathrm{MI} > 0.7$, there is a possibility of minor damage to neonatal lung or intestine.¹⁴ These are considered moderate acoustic amplitudes. For MI>0.7, there is a risk of cavitation if an ultrasound

contrast agent containing gas microspheres is being used, and there is a theoretical risk 94 of cavitation without the presence of ultrasound contrast agents.¹⁵ The risk increases 95 with MI values above this threshold. These are considered high acoustic amplitudes. 96 On commercial scanners, the MI has been limited to 1.9 for medical imaging.¹⁶ At low 9 MI, microbubbles pulsate linearly, whereas at high MI, their greater expansion phase 98 is followed by a violent collapse. During the collapse phase, when the kinetic energy 99 of the bubble surpasses its surface energy, a bubble may fragment into a number of 100 smaller bubbles. Fragmentation has been exclusively observed with contrast agents 10 with thin, elastic shells. Fragmentation is the dominant disruption mechanism for 102 these bubbles.¹⁷ Although the fragmentation of therapeutic load-bearing microbubbles 103 must release their loads, the actual drug or gene delivery is in this case a passive 104 process, dependent on diffusion rate and proximity to the target cells. Fragmenting 105 microbubbles may not create pores in cells, since fragmentation costs energy. However, 100 if a microbubble collapses near a free or a solid boundary, the retardation of the liquid 107 near the boundary may cause an asymmetry. This asymmetry causes differences in 108 acceleration on the bubble surface. During further collapse, a funnel-shaped jet may 109 protrude through the microbubble, shooting liquid to the boundary.¹⁸ The pore size 110 created by a jet has been empirically related to the microbubble expansion.¹⁹ 111 jets could be directed to cell layers, in case of a microbubble carrying a therapeutic 112 load, the load could be delivered into cells. The jet formation is effected by the 113 cavitation topology, synergistically interacting with local fluid dynamics arising through 114 the bubble's expansion and contraction due to the ultrasound field. However, as the 115 fluid forming the microjet is just the bulk fluid which carries no therapeutic agent, then 116 there is no guarantee that, even with the formation of a sonopore due to jet impact with 117 the cell membrane, therapeutic agent will enter the cell. It needs to be dislodged and 118 mobilised from the bubble first. Furthermore, jetting has not been observed at low or 119 moderate MI,²⁰ so that fragmentation is likely to occur before any delivery takes place. 120 By pushing the loaded microbubbles towards the vessel wall using primary radiation 12 forces,²¹ release can take place closer to target vessels. In a recent study, Caskey et122 al. pushed bubbles into tissue-mimicking gels at MI=1.5.²² We previously studied 123 how microclusters consisting of lipid-encapsulated microbubbles can be formed using 124 primary and secondary radiation forces, and how these clusters can be pushed towards 125 vessel walls.²³ We found that, even at MI < 0.15, microbubble clusters can be formed 126 and pushed within seconds. 12

¹²⁸ Sonoporation

There are five non-exclusive hypotheses for explaining the sonoporation phenomenon.
These have been summarised in Figure 1: push, pull, jetting, shear, and translation.²⁴
It has been hypothesised that expanding microbubbles might push the cell membrane
inward, and that collapsing bubbles might pull cell membranes outward.²⁵ These

mechanisms require microbubbles to be present in the close vicinity of cells. A separate 133 release mechanism should then ensure localised delivery. Although jetting only occurs 134 in a high-MI regime, it is very effective in puncturing cell membranes. Jetting has 135 been observed through cells using ultrasound contrast agent microbubbles. However, 136 the acoustic impedance of the solid cell substratum formed the boundary to which 137 the jetting took place, not the cell itself.²⁶ Also, there has not been any proof yet 138 of cell survival after jetting. In a separate study, we excluded the role of jetting as 139 a dominant mechanism in sonoporation.²⁷ If a microbubble is fixed to a membrane, 140 the fluid streaming around the oscillating bubbles creates enough shear to rupture the 141 membrane.²⁸ Here again, separate release mechanism should then ensure localised 142 delivery. Finally, it has been speculated that lipid-encapsulated microbubbles, in 143 compressed phase, translate through cell membranes or channels in the cell membrane. 144 In case of therapeutic loading, the load would be delivered directly into the target cell. 145 The main advantage of the latter mechanism is that microbubble translation by means 146 of ultrasonic radiation forces requires very low acoustic pressures. Hence, and potential 147 damaging bioeffects due to inertial cavitation can be ruled out. 148

¹⁴⁹ Materials and methods

¹⁵⁰ Sonoporation configuration

In previous studies, increased gene uptake was demonstrated at MI < 0.3.^{29,30} We 151 used a similar sonoporation configuration for our experiments. An overview of the 152 experimental setup is shown in Figure 2. A signal consisting of 50 cycles with a centre 153 frequency of 6.6 MHz and a pulse repetition frequency of 10 kHz, *i.e.*, a duty cycle 154 of 7.5%, was generated by an AFG 3102, dual channel arbitrary function generator 155 (Tektronix, Inc., Beaverton, OR, USA), amplified by a 150A250 radio-frequency (RF) 156 amplifier (Amplifier Research, Souderton, PA, USA) set to maximum gain, and fed 15 to a custom-built 6.6-MHz ultrasound transducer with a hexagonal lithium niobate 158 $y-36^{\circ}$ -cut active element with a maximum width of 25 mm.³¹ The peak-negative acoustic 159 pressure was measured to be 0.5 MPa in a separate tank and in the sonication chamber 160 itself. This corresponds to an MI of 0.2. The transducer was placed in a custom-built, 161 $260 \times 160 \times 150 \,(\text{mm})^3$ Perspex sonication chamber, in which an OptiCell[®] cell culture 162 chamber (Nunc GmbH & Co. KG, Langenselbold, Germany) was placed. One side of the 163 cell culture chamber contained a monolayer of 1.6×10^6 HeLa cells that had been cultured 164 in MEM with Earl's salts medium (PAA Laboratories GmbH, Pasching, Austria) 165 supplemented with 10% v/v heat-inactivated fetal calf serum, $\text{GlutaMAX}^{\text{TM}}$ (Life 166 Technologies Gibco, Paisley, Renfrewshire, UK), 1% v/v of non-essential amino-acids 16 (PAA), penicillin (100 units ml⁻¹) and streptomycin (100 μ g ml⁻¹) (PAA), at 37°C in 168 a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO₂. The cells were used when there was 169 60-80% confluency. Ultrasound contrast agent was injected into the cell culturing 170

chamber before each experiment. Several lipid-shelled ultrasound contrast agents 171 were tested in this study. In this paper, we present results of a 3.33% dilution of 172 MicroMarkerTM (VisualSonics B.V., Amsterdam, Netherlands), a lipid-shelled agent 173 with a mean diameter of $2.5\,\mu\text{m}$. A customised BXFM-F microscope unit with an 174 LCAch N $20 \times /0.40$ PhC (Olympus Deutschland GmbH, Hamburg, Germany) and a 175 LUMPlanFL $60 \times /0.90$ water-immersion objective (Olympus) was placed on top of the 176 sonication chamber. The colour charge coupled device (CCD) of a PHOTRON FastCam 177 MC-2.1 high-speed camera (VKT Video Kommunikation GmbH, Pfullingen, Germany) 178 was connected to the microscope. The sensor was rotated to make sure that in all 179 recorded movies, the ultrasound is directed from the left to the right of the frame. 180

¹⁸¹ Fluorescence configuration

An overview of the setup used for the fluorescence experiments is shown in Figure 3. 182 It is almost identical to the setup described in the previous section. However, here, 183 the signal consisting of 40 cycles with a centre frequency of 6.6 MHz and a pulse 184 repetition frequency of 10 kHz, *i.e.*, a duty cycle of 6.1%, was amplified using a 2100L, 185 +50-dB RF amplifier (Electronics & Innovation, Rochester, NY, USA) and fed to our 186 custom-built 6.6-MHz ultrasound transducer.³¹ Prior to injection in the OptiCell[®], the 18 MicroMarker[®] contrast agent was labelled using a DiD (DilC₁₈(5)) lipophilic fluorescent 188 probe (VybrantTM Molecular probes, Invitrogen, San Diego, CA, USA). A ratio of $1 \mu l$ of 189 DiD to $40 \,\mu$ l MicroMarker[®] was homogenised by pipetting and incubating for 5 minutes 190 at room temperature. Figure 4 shows how the DiD fluorescent probe bonded to the 19: phospholipid.³² Emitted λ =649–703 nm fluorescence was localised on the microbubble 192 shell when exciting at λ =633 nm. A custom-made aluminium sonication chamber with 193 internal dimensions of $130 \times 170 \times 35 \,(\text{mm})^3$ was locked into to the xy-stage of a 200M 194 inverted confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss AG, Oberkochen, Germany) coupled with a 195 LSM Axiovert 510 scanning device (Carl Zeiss), using an EC Plan-Neofluar $40 \times /1.30$ 196 Oil DIC M27 objective (Carl Zeiss AG), with automated z-stack functionality. 197

The peak-negative acoustic pressure was measured at the objective's field of view and corresponded to MI = 0.2.

To ensure that the microbubbles were not naturally attracted to the cells, $30 \ \mu$ l MicroMarker[®] was diluted into $700 \ \mu$ l of distilled water and tested for electrophoretic mobility (ζ -potential) using a Zetasizer 3000 (Malvern Instruments, Malvern, Worcestershire, United Kingdom).

To measure the thickness of the cultured cells 10^5 HeLa cells were seeded into a OptiCell[®]. The cell plasma membrane was labelled with DiD lipophilic fluorescent probe (VybrantTM Molecular probes) according to the manufacturers protocol. The membrane fluorescence was measured using a 200M confocal microscope. Cell thickness was calculated from the difference between the upper and lower slices where fluorescence was seen. We recorded 23 movies under 6.6-MHz sonication at frame rates between 500 and 210 2000 frames per second, representing 15 minutes of real-time exposure. Of these, 11 212 movies were recorded using fluorescence. In addition we recorded 10 control movies, 213 with a total duration of 22 minutes.

214 Results and discussion

Throughout this section, the optical z-axis is defined from distal-to-focus (negative) to proximal-to-focus (positive), with z = 0 as the focal plane.

Figure 5 shows z-stacks of fluorescence emitted by the DiD dye attached to the membranes of four typical HeLa cells, representing the cell geometry. In total, the thicknesses of 42 cells were measured. The cultured cells were found to be $13 \pm 2 \,\mu\text{m}$ thick. Clearly, these cells had thicknesses much greater than ultrasound contrast agent microbubble oscillations amplitudes at MI=0.2.

We analysed our optical system and compared our results to bubbles and cells that were slightly out of focus, to rule out that the movement of the bubble takes place in a plane different from that of the cell. Figure 6 shows a z-stack of two ultrasound contrast agent microbubbles, similar to Figure 10 of Postema *et al.*³³ Proximal-to-focus Airy disks can be seen around the bubbles, whereas distal-to-focus the bubble boundaries are blurred. Note that the boundary contrast is maximal just proximal-to-focus.³³

At a centre frequency of 6.6 MHz, we recorded 17 events of microbubbles entering HeLa cells. After entering, the microbubbles were observed to quickly dissolve. As an example, Figure 7 shows an event resampled at 3.4 Hz and 40 Hz, respectively, where two bubbles were pushed to a cell during 11 s of sonication. A microbubble "A" of 4- μ m diameter entered the cell and dissolved, whereas a microbubble "B" of 2- μ m diameter stuck to the cell membrane.

Figures 8 and 9 show two similar events, where fluorescence-coated microbubbles were used. The left panels show a microbubble apparently penetrating through the cell membrane in optical focus. Approximately 70 ms after the ultrasound has been switched on a microbubble is seen to penetrate through the cell membrane in Figure 8. In Figure 9 the microbubble is seen to penetrate through the cell membrane approximately 24 ms after the ultrasound has been switched on. The right panels show a *z*-stack through the entire cell, to record whether the apparent microbubble entry is actually into the cell.

For both events, Figure 10 shows average fluorescent intensities in two regions of interest, one inside the cell, and one control region. In both events, most fluorescence from apparent microbubble entry can be observed within $5 \,\mu m$ proximal to optical focus, thus well within the cells themselves.

Figure 11 shows frames in optical focus from the events in Figures 8 and 9, before sonication and approximately 8 minutes after sonication. Clearly, fluorescence has transferred into the cells and remained inside the cells long after sonication. At these low acoustic amplitudes, inertial cavitation, fragmentation, and jetting should not occur. Hence, as a mechanism in sonoporation at low MI, these phenomena might justifiably be neglected.

Our observations do not explain why some microbubbles enter a cell and others don't. The quick dissolution after entering suggests that the microbubble loses (part of) its shell whilst entering.

The ζ -potential measurements showed that the microbubble shells had a charge of -43.9±2.4 mV. As cells have a natural negative charge,^{34,35} the ultrasound contrast agent should be repelled by the cells, in our recordings we see that, once the ultrasound was turned on, the microbubbles would be attracted to the closest cell, independent of the direction of the sound field. This supports the recent finding that cell membranes can be acoustically active,³⁶ and therefore interact with microbubbles.

Other cell types than HeLa cells must be used in follow-up studies, to investigate differences in bubble-cell interaction.

262 Conclusions

We have demonstrated that lipid-shelled microbubbles can be forced to enter cells at a low MI. Hence, if a therapeutic load is added to the bubble, ultrasound-guided delivery could be facilitated at diagnostic settings.

In addition, these results may have implications for the safety regulations on the use
 of ultrasound contrast agents for diagnostic imaging.

Acknowledgements

This work has been supported by DFG Emmy Noether Programme Grant 38355133
and EPSRC Grant EP/F037025/1. The authors are grateful to Conseil Regional for
A. Delalande's fellowship.

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Figure 1: Possible mechanisms of sonoporation: a) push, b) pull, c) jetting, d) shear, e) translation. Based on Figure 9.2 in Postema $et\ al.^{24}$



Figure 2: Experimental setup (top) and a close-up of the sonoporation configuration (bottom).



Figure 3: Experimental setup (top) and a close-up of the fluorescence configuration (bottom).



Figure 4: Schematic representation of DiD (DilC₁₈(5)) lipophilic fluorescent probe bonding to phospholipid.³²



Figure 5: z-stacks of fluorescence emitted by the DiD dye attached to the membranes of four typical HeLa cells, representing the cell geometry.



Figure 6: z-stack of two ultrasound contrast agent microbubbles. Proximal-to-focus Airy disks can be seen around the bubbles, whereas distal-to-focus the bubble boundaries are blurred. Microbubble A has a diameter of $2 \,\mu$ m, whereas microbubble B has a diameter of $3 \,\mu$ m. Each frame corresponds to a $11 \times 11 \,(\mu m)^2$ area.



sonication (left) and selected frames of the microbubble entereing a cell (right). Microbubble "A" entered the cell and dissolved, whereas microbubble "B" stuck to the cell membrane. Each frame corresponds to a $23\times23\,(\mu\mathrm{m})^2$ area.



Figure 8: Microbubble of 5- μ m diameter apparently penetrating through the cell membrane in optical focus (*left*); z-stack through the entire cell, to record whether the apparent microbubble entry is actually into the cell (*right*). Areas (A) and (C) are regions of interest inside and outside the cell, respectively. Each frame corresponds to a 76 × 76 (μ m)² area.



Figure 9: Microbubble of 4- μ m diameter apparently penetrating through the cell membrane in optical focus (*left*); z-stack through the entire cell, to record whether the apparent microbubble entry is actually into the cell (*right*). Areas (A) and (C) are regions of interest of high fluorescence and low fluorescence, respectively, inside the cell. The white dotted lines in the upper left frame of the right panel indicates the cell membrane. Each frame corresponds to a $52 \times 52 \ (\mu m)^2$ area.



Figure 10: Average fluorescent intensities in the regions of interest (ROI) of Figures 8 (*left*) and 9 (*right*). Bold lines represent ROI (A) inside the cells, whereas hairlines represent ROI (C) the control regions. The dotted line represents the cell boundary contrast. Note that the cell boundary contrast is maximal just proximal-to-focus.



Figure 11: Columns (a) and (b) represent frames in optical focus from the events in Figures 8 and 9, respectively, before sonication and approximately 8 minutes after sonication. The white dotted lines in the right frames indicate the cell membrane boundary. The left frames correspond to $76 \times 76 \ (\mu m)^2$ areas, whereas the right frames correspond to $45 \times 45 \ (\mu m)^2$ areas.