

# Encapsulation in biodegradable microparticles enhances serum antibody response to parenterally-delivered $\beta$ -amyloid in mice

David J. Brayden <sup>a,\*</sup>, Louise Templeton <sup>a</sup>, Siobhan McClean <sup>a</sup>, Robin Barbour <sup>b</sup>,  
Jiping Huang <sup>b</sup>, Minh Nguyen <sup>b</sup>, Deirdra Ahern <sup>a</sup>, Ruth Motter <sup>b</sup>,  
Kelly Johnson-Wood <sup>b</sup>, Nicki Vasquez <sup>b</sup>, Dale Schenk <sup>b</sup>, Peter Seubert <sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> *Elan Biotechnology Research, Biotechnology Building, Trinity College, Dublin 2, Ireland*

<sup>b</sup> *Elan Pharmaceuticals, 800 Gateway Boulevard, South San Francisco, CA 94080, USA*

Received 29 January 2001; received in revised form 9 April 2001; accepted 23 April 2001

## Abstract

Poly(lactide-co-glycolide) (PLG) microspheres were tested as a parenteral delivery system for human  $\beta$ -amyloid (1–42) ( $A\beta$ ), a potential immunotherapeutic undergoing assessment in Phase 1 studies for Alzheimer's disease (AD).  $A\beta$  was successfully encapsulated in PLG microspheres of average sizes of 3 or 15  $\mu\text{m}$  diameter. Swiss Webster (SW) mice were injected by the sub-cutaneous (s.c.) or intra-peritoneal (i.p.) routes with 3–33  $\mu\text{g}$   $A\beta$ .  $A\beta$ -PLG microparticles (3  $\mu\text{m}$ ) induced dose-dependent antibody responses, which were maximal at 33  $\mu\text{g}$   $A\beta$ , while  $A\beta$  in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) produced weak antibody responses at the same doses by both routes. Significantly increased antibody responses were seen for both small and large particle formulations given by the i.p. route in comparison to the s.c. route. It was previously reported that passive immunisation with  $A\beta$ -specific antibodies cleared amyloid plaques in a mouse model of AD (Bard F, Cannon C, Barbour R, et al. Peripherally administered antibodies against amyloid  $\beta$ -peptide enter the nervous system and reduce pathology in a mouse model of Alzheimer disease. *Nature Med* 2000;6:916–19), an indication that induction of serum antibody is a prerequisite for efficacy. © 2001 Elsevier Science Ltd. All rights reserved.

**Keywords:**  $\beta$  Amyloid; Poly(lactide-co-glycolide); Alzheimer's disease; Adjuvants

## 1. Introduction

It is well established that  $A\beta$  peptide of 42 amino acids in length is a major component of insoluble  $\beta$ -amyloid plaques seen in the post-mortem brains of Alzheimer disease (AD) patients [1]. Recent evidence from human post-mortem brain tissue suggests that plaque density in the cerebral cortex may correlate with AD progression and that its deposition precedes clinical symptoms [2]. There is therefore a sound rationale to develop methods to prevent fibrillar  $A\beta$  formation or to hasten its metabolism to benign forms.

A novel way to successfully prevent  $A\beta$  deposition and to hasten clearance is to induce an immune re-

sponse against  $A\beta$ . Using the amyloid  $\beta$  precursor protein expression driven by platelet-derived growth factor (PDAPP) transgenic mouse model of AD which over-expresses the human gene for APP (amyloid precursor protein), Schenk et al. showed that repeated parenteral immunisations of aggregated  $A\beta$  administered in CFA/IFA completely prevented plaque deposition when used as a prophylactic treatment [3]. In PDAPP mice that had formed AD-like neuropathology, therapeutic immunisation with  $A\beta$  significantly slowed the amount of plaque deposition, astrogliosis and neuritic dystrophy. Recent studies show that several mouse models of AD display memory loss, behavioural impairment and spatial learning deficits [4–6] and that these symptoms can be alleviated by  $A\beta$  immunotherapy [5,6].

Despite efficacy of  $A\beta$  in the PDAPP mouse, the co-administered CFA and IFA adjuvants are toxic in man. Alum (aluminium hydroxide) is currently the only

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +353-1-6731718; fax: +353-1-6731710.

E-mail address: dbrayden@elancorp.com (D.J. Brayden).

FDA-approved adjuvant for routine human immunisation [7]. Several other promising adjuvants are however in phase II and III clinical trials. Subsequent steps in the development of an immunotherapy for AD may therefore be dependent on identifying new formulations of A $\beta$  in adjuvants and/or delivery systems that have the potential to be approved for human use. A phase I study of an A $\beta$  vaccine delivered by injection to AD patients with an as yet undisclosed adjuvant is currently underway with results due in 2001.

In the current study we formulated A $\beta$  in PLG for testing as a parenteral delivery system. The rationale is based on a 20-year history of injected immunisation of mice and primates with antigens in PLG (e.g. [8–11]) and reviewed recently in [12]. Moreover, immunisations with antigens entrapped in PLG appears to have the potential to stimulate cell mediated (Th1 type) immunity [13] compared to the mixed Th1 and humoral (Th2 type) or polarised Th2 type immunity normally associated with alum. Injected PLG-entrapped antigens may also have the potential of simulating multiple immunisation without the need for boosters as a consequence of timed release of antigen *in vivo* (reviewed in [14]). In addition, PLG is approved in man for a number of peptide-based products including a monthly depot form of leuprolide acetate for prostate cancer and for endometriosis (Lupron Depot<sup>®</sup>) [15] and also for use as surgical sutures [16]. PLG manufacturing processes have been successfully scaled up, for example, for human growth hormone [17]. For these reasons PLG might be a good delivery system to take to the clinic should it show promise in animal studies.

In this study SW mice were immunised parenterally with microparticle formulations of A $\beta$  in PLG and serum antibody responses assessed by ELISA. Serum antibody was shown to be a key correlate for efficacy in the PDAPP mouse since passive immunisation with A $\beta$  antibodies can penetrate into the CNS and activate microglia to clear pre-existing plaques [18]. SW mice were therefore used as an initial immunological screen for candidate A $\beta$  delivery systems in advance of the lengthy experiments required for subsequent demonstration of efficacy in the PDAPP mouse.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Chemicals

Human A $\beta$  (1–42) (molecular weight 4514 Da) was supplied by California Peptide Research Inc. (Napa, CA) (Lot MF0639) or by the American Peptide Company (Sunnyvale, CA) (Lot 5108TT) through automated peptide synthesis. PLG Resomer RG504 (50:50 lactide:co-glycolide, molecular weight 57000 Da, *i.v.* 0.49 dl/g) (Lot numbers 34014 and 35011) was supplied

by Boehringer-Ingelheim (Frankfurt, Germany). Dichloromethane was obtained from Labscan (Cork, Ireland). Poly-vinyl alcohol (PVA) USP (85–89% hydrolysed) Lot NCO166 was supplied by Spectrum Quality Products (New Jersey, USA). PVA (Poval 217), lot number 481747, was obtained from Kuraray (Tokyo, Japan). ELISA 96 well plates were from Costar (Amsterdam, Netherlands) and the plate reader was from Molecular Devices (USA). For the A $\beta$  ELISA, 21F12 and 3D6 monoclonal antibodies to A $\beta$  were raised at Elan Pharmaceuticals (USA). Avidin-horseradish peroxidase was from Vector Laboratories. Peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG was from Chemicon (USA).

### 2.2. Preparation of A $\beta$ -PLG microparticles

Microparticle formulations were prepared using a modification of the water-in-oil-in-water (w/o/w) double emulsion solvent evaporation process [19]. The hydrophobic human peptide A $\beta$  (1–42) was dispersed in PBS at pH 7.4 to give a hazy monomeric suspension which was either used immediately ('fresh'), or stored overnight to produce an aggregated fibrillar form ('aggregated'). Aggregated A $\beta$  is a mixture of oligomers in which the monomeric units are held together by non-covalent bonds. Alternatively, the peptide was dissolved in ammonium hydroxide (0.01 N) at pH 10 ('solution'). Under this condition, the A $\beta$  is a monomeric soluble clear mixture of peptide units.

To prepare microparticles, approximately 0.8 g or 2.4 g PLG (Resomer<sup>®</sup> RG504 polymer) was dissolved in an appropriate volume of dichloromethane to give a 4% w/v polymer organic solution and stirred for 120 min. A water-in-oil emulsion was prepared by adding the resulting A $\beta$  aqueous suspension or solution to the organic phase, followed by homogenisation at 9500 rpm for 1 min with a S 25 homogeniser. The primary emulsion was poured slowly into a solution of 240 ml of 3% w/v Poval PVA. For some batches of A $\beta$  in PLG, 2% w/v PVA (US Pharmacopoeia) was used as the stabiliser for the secondary emulsion instead of Poval PVA and this led to higher overall loading (Table 1). Homogenisation was carried out at 13500 rpm for 2–6 min to produce small microparticles of average diameter of 3  $\mu$ m. For large 15  $\mu$ m microparticles homogenisation speed was 8000 rpm for 6 min. For both large and small particles the resulting water-in-oil-in-water secondary emulsion was stirred overnight to evaporate the dichloromethane, and microparticles were collected by centrifugation (15 min, 8000 rpm). The microparticles were then washed twice with chilled autoclaved de-ionised water, dried in a vacuum oven at room temperature for 72 h. For the formulation in which A $\beta$  was ad-mixed with PLG, 1 g of unloaded small microparticles was blended with 2.5 ml of A $\beta$ -ag-

gregated suspension (2 mg/ml) and dried for 60 min at room temperature. Upon resuspension in PBS, no A $\beta$  was located in the supernatant following centrifugation (5 min, 3000 rpm) indicative of efficient adsorption to the surface of the polymer.

### 2.3. Particle morphology and size analysis

PLG microparticle morphology was examined by scanning electron microscopy. Samples were mounted on stubs and coated using a Polarian CE500 gold electron microscope coater. Samples were observed with a Hitachi 5-4300 field emission electron microscope. Particle size was determined by laser diffraction using a Malvern Mastersizer S version 2.14. Duplicate samples were dispersed in filtered Tween-20 (0.1%w/v) and were sonicated for 5 min followed by analysis in a continuously stirred cell.

### 2.4. Loading of A $\beta$ in microparticles

Total protein loading of PLG microspheres was determined using a micro-titer plate micro-bicinchoninic ( $\mu$ BCA) assay protocol (Pierce, Rockford, IL) [20]. In triplicate, 10 mg of A $\beta$ -loaded particles were added to a 3-ml solution of 1% sodium dodecyl sulphate in NaOH (0.1 M) and stirred on a shaker at 50 rpm for approximately 24 h at room temperature. The pH was then adjusted to pH 11.0 with hydrochloric acid (0.1 M) and the total protein content determined.

A $\beta$ -specific loading was determined by a sandwich ELISA (modified from [21]). In brief, approximately 10 mg of A $\beta$ -loaded microparticles was dissolved in a 3-ml solution of 1% w/v Tween-20 in 0.1 M NaOH at room temperature on a shaker at 50 rpm for approximately 24 h. A $\beta$  samples and standards were then diluted 1:100 with 5 M guanidine/1% bovine serum albumen (BSA) followed by a 1:10 dilution with casein blocking buffer, comprising 0.25% casein and 0.05% sodium azide in PBS. The standards and samples had a final concentration of 0.5 M guanidine and 0.1% BSA.

The monoclonal antibodies 21F12 (A $\beta$  33–42) and biotinylated 3D6 (A $\beta$  1–5) were used as the capture and detector antibodies respectively in the ELISA. The 21F12 antibody was coated at 10  $\mu$ g/ml into 96-well immunoassay plates overnight at room temperature. The plates were then aspirated and blocked with 0.25% human serum albumen in PBS for at least 60 min at room temperature. Following storage at 4°C under desiccation, the plates were then re-hydrated with wash buffer containing 0.05% Tween-20 in Tris-buffered saline. The samples and standards were added to the plates and incubated at 4°C overnight. The plates were washed at least three times with wash buffer between each step. Biotinylated 3D6 antibody was diluted to 2.5  $\mu$ g/ml in a buffer containing 0.25% casein, 0.05% Tween 20 and 0.05% thimerosal. 3D6 antibody was then mixed in 0.05% Tween-20 in PBS at pH 7.4 and was incubated in the wells for 60 min at room temperature. Avidin-horseradish peroxidase was diluted 1:4000 in casein buffer, and added to the wells for 60 min at room temperature. The colorimetric substrate Slow TMB (3,3',5,5' tetramethyl benzidine) — ELISA<sup>®</sup> (Pierce), was added and allowed to react for 15 min, after which the enzymatic reaction was stopped with addition of 1 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. Reaction production was quantified using a Dynatech MR7000 spectrophotometer measuring the difference in absorbance at 450 and 650 nm.

### 2.5. Immunisations

SW mice (8–12 weeks old) were injected by the s.c. or i.p. routes with 200–250  $\mu$ l of A $\beta$  in PLG microparticle suspensions or with A $\beta$  ad-mixed with PLG in sterile PBS. Doses of A $\beta$  in PLG ranged from 3 to 33  $\mu$ g per immunisation per mouse. Mice received either 33  $\mu$ g A $\beta$  in PBS or A $\beta$  emulsified in CFA/IFA as negative and positive controls, respectively. Dosing of each formulation was carried out based on the actual amount of A $\beta$  entrapped as measured by ELISA. For the CFA/IFA control, 33  $\mu$ g A $\beta$  was emulsified 1:1 (v/v)

Table 1  
Characteristics of A $\beta$ -PLG formulations

Formulation	Batch wt. (g)	Total protein ( $\mu$ g/mg)	A $\beta$ ELISA ( $\mu$ g/mg)	% EE <sup>a</sup>	D <sub>50%</sub> <sup>b</sup> ( $\mu$ m)
3 $\mu$ m PLG <sup>c</sup>	0.8	Not determined	1.1 $\pm$ 0.2	23	2.7 $\pm$ 0.3
3 $\mu$ m PLG <sup>d</sup>	2.4	1.4 $\pm$ 0.2	1.2 $\pm$ 0.1	22	2.5 $\pm$ 0.1
3 $\mu$ m PLG <sup>e</sup>	2.4	4.0 $\pm$ 0.2	3.4 $\pm$ 0.2	68	3.1 $\pm$ 0.1
15 $\mu$ m PLG <sup>c</sup>	2.4	4.0 $\pm$ 0.3	3.0 $\pm$ 0.1	60	14.8 $\pm$ 0.4

<sup>a</sup> % EE: % entrapment efficiency, i.e. actual loading of antigen divided by the theoretical loading (i.e. 0.5% w/w). Higher A $\beta$  loading for the formulations (used in study referred to in Fig. 4) were achieved with 2% w/v PVA (US Pharmacopoeia) instead of 3% w/v Poval PVA.

<sup>b</sup> D<sub>50%</sub>: 50% of the particles were less than this size.

<sup>c</sup> Used in study referred to in Fig. 2.

<sup>d</sup> Used in study referred to in Fig. 3

<sup>e</sup> Used in study referred to in Fig. 4.

with CFA alone for the first dose and then emulsified similarly with IFA for subsequent doses. Mice were immunised on days 0, 14 and 28 and bled on days 21 and 35 in two studies (Figs. 2 and 4). In a confirmatory study (Fig. 3), an extra dose was given at day 42 and subsequent bleeds were taken at days 49, 70 and 84. The mice studies adhered to the 'Principles of Laboratory Animal Care' (NIH publication no. 85-23, revised in 1985).

## 2.6. Anti-A $\beta$ serum antibody detection

Aggregated A $\beta_{1-42}$  (100  $\mu$ g) was added to 10 ml of 0.1 M phosphate buffer (1.7 mM NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> and 98 mM Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>) at a pH 8.5. After mixing, 100  $\mu$ l was added to each well of Costar 96 well ELISA plates. The plates were covered and incubated over night at room temperature. The wells were then aspirated to near dryness and washed. Specimen diluent (100  $\mu$ l) containing BSA (0.6%), Triton 405 (0.05%), thimerosol (0.5%) was added to all wells except row A. Specimen diluent (150  $\mu$ l) was added to row A. Negative control, positive control and test sera (1.5  $\mu$ l) were added to appropriate wells in row A to give an initial 1/100 dilution. Serial dilutions resulted in 100  $\mu$ l volume in the remaining wells. Plates were incubated for 1 h at room temperature and then washed four times with standard wash buffer containing 0.05% Tween-20 in Tris-buffered saline. One hundred microlitres of a 1/3000 dilution of peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG in specimen diluent was added to each well. After incubation for 1 h at room temperature, plates were washed four times in wash buffer. Pierce Slow TMB<sup>®</sup> (100  $\mu$ l) was then added to each well and incubated for 15 min at room temperature. The reaction was stopped by adding 25  $\mu$ l of 2 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and plates were read at 450 nm. Anti-A $\beta$  serum IgG antibody titres were defined as the reciprocal of the dilution of serum giving one half the maximal optical density. Any samples not reaching 50% by the 218700 dilution were re-tested at higher dilutions.

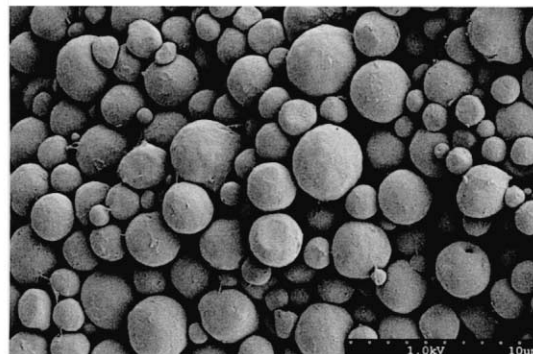
## 2.7. Statistical comparisons

Comparisons of serum total antibody titres between immunised groups at the same or at different points were performed using one-way ANOVA by the INSTAT programme (GraphPad<sup>™</sup>, San Diego). In all cases, *P* values < 0.05 were regarded as significant.

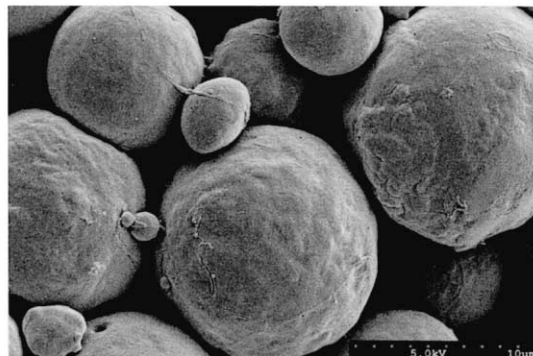
## 3. Results

### 3.1. Characterisation of A $\beta$ -PLG microparticles

The double emulsion process resulted in either small



A



B

Fig. 1. Scanning electron micrographs of A $\beta$  in PLG microparticles. Small (A) and large (B) particles are shown. Horizontal bars are 10  $\mu$ m in each case.

or large microparticles containing A $\beta$  dependent on the homogenisation. Both types of particle were shown by scanning electron microscopy to be discrete and spherical (Fig. 1). The PLG formulation characteristics of the small and large microparticles are given in Table 1.

Small microparticles had an overall mean diameter of 2.8  $\mu$ m. Increasing the batch size from 0.8 to 2.4 g necessitated an increase in the total homogenisation time from 2 to 6 min in order to maintain the same particle size. Assessment of antigen content by ELISA studies showed that > 1  $\mu$ g/mg of antigenically-active A $\beta$  was entrapped in each of three batches made (Table 1). Altering the PVA grade and concentration from 3% w/v Poval to 2% w/v PVA USP was associated with a mean increase in A $\beta$  loading from 1 to 3  $\mu$ g/mg. The ELISA results obtained for the separate formulations used in each experiment correlated with total protein loading. This would suggest that > 80% of the suspension or solution loaded into small PLG microparticles was antigenically-active even in the absence of known protein stabilisers. The average total protein loading and average A $\beta$  content of the larger particles was 4 and 3  $\mu$ g/mg, respectively.

### 3.2. Serum antibody responses in mice to A $\beta$ entrapped in PLG microparticles

A $\beta$  entrapped in small 3  $\mu$ m PLG microparticles at a dose of 33  $\mu$ g induced anti-A $\beta$  antibody responses after two s.c. immunisations. These titres were boosted after a third immunisation (Fig. 2). Each PLG formulation produced significant A $\beta$ -specific serum titres, irrespective of whether the A $\beta$  was in 'fresh', 'aggregated' or 'solution' form. The formulation in which 'fresh' A $\beta$  was ad-mixed with PLG gave statistically lower responses at the first time point than 'fresh' A $\beta$  encapsulated in PLG, but antibody responses were subsequently elevated to levels equivalent to entrapped PLG by the third bleed. Importantly, in this experiment the overall antibody responses at both time points to all four A $\beta$ -PLG formats were no different than those detected for the positive control, 33  $\mu$ g of A $\beta$  in CFA/IFA (group E, Fig. 2). The formulation comprising small microparticles entrapping 'fresh' A $\beta$  at pH 7.4 was selected for further testing.

Splenocytes were harvested from immunised mice at day 50 from the experiment cited in Fig. 2. Following culture for 48 h, the supernatants were harvested. The levels of interferon  $\gamma$ , interleukin-2 and interleukin-5 were determined by cytokine-specific ELISA as quantifiable markers of antigen-specific Th1 and Th2 T cell populations. Cytokine analysis showed moderate expression for all PLG formulations and low expression for A $\beta$  in CFA/IFA (results not shown).

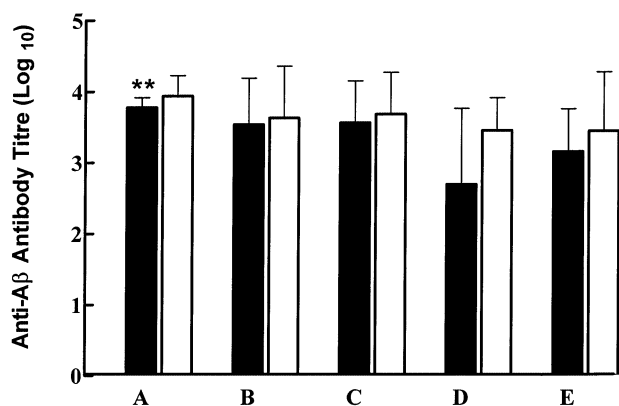


Fig. 2. Serum antibody responses to A $\beta$  in PLG. Mice were immunised (s.c.) with 33  $\mu$ g A $\beta$  total dose on each of days 0, 14 and 28 and bled on days 21 and 35. Values given are means  $\pm$  standard deviations with  $n=8$  in each group. Filled bars are day 21 and open bars are day 35. (A) A $\beta$  in PLG ('fresh'), (B) A $\beta$  in PLG ('aggregated'), (C) A $\beta$  in PLG ('solution'), (D) A $\beta$  mixed with unloaded PLG ('mixed'), (E) A $\beta$  in CFA/IFA (positive control). Description of the different formats of A $\beta$  used is in Section 2 and the formulation specifications are given in Table 1. (A) gave higher responses than (D) only at day 21 (\*\*  $P < 0.01$ ).

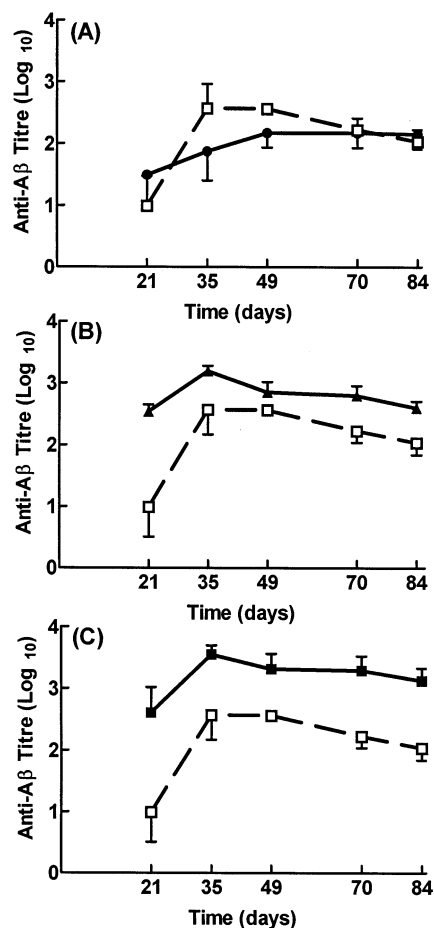


Fig. 3. Effect of immunising dose on antibody response to A $\beta$  in PLG. Mice were immunised (s.c.) with A $\beta$  ('fresh') in small microparticles on days 0, 14, 28 and 42, and bled on days 21, 35, 49, 70 and 84. Values given are mean  $\pm$  standard deviations with  $n=8$  in each group at each time point. One way ANOVA comparison for average response of individual mice in each group over time: (A)  $\square$ , A $\beta$  in PBS (33  $\mu$ g) vs.  $\circ$ , A $\beta$  in PLG (3  $\mu$ g): NS. (B)  $\square$ , A $\beta$  in PBS (33  $\mu$ g) vs.  $\blacktriangle$ , A $\beta$  in PLG (10  $\mu$ g)  $P < 0.02$ . (C)  $\square$ , A $\beta$  in PBS (33  $\mu$ g) vs.  $\blacksquare$ , A $\beta$  in PLG (33  $\mu$ g)  $P < 0.005$ . Unloaded PLG microparticles and PBS/IFA solution controls ( $n=8$ ) gave no responses (data not graphed).

### 3.3. Effect of A $\beta$ dose on the immune response to PLG-entrapped antigen

Having established that 33  $\mu$ g A $\beta$  entrapped in small PLG microparticles induced potent detectable serum antibodies after two immunisations, we then assessed the response to a range of doses of A $\beta$  in PLG. A dose-response relationship was seen for 3, 10 and 33  $\mu$ g A $\beta$  in small PLG microparticles using 'fresh' antigen (Fig. 3). Responses to 33  $\mu$ g A $\beta$  in PLG were significantly increased by 5–8 fold over those seen to the same dose of peptide in PBS, (Fig. 3C), confirmation of the adjuvancy of the small PLG microparticle. Responses to 3  $\mu$ g A $\beta$ -PLG were weak and were not statistically different to those seen for 33  $\mu$ g A $\beta$  in PBS (Fig. 3A). The responses induced by 10  $\mu$ g A $\beta$  in PLG across all

timepoints taken together were statistically increased compared to the antibody level induced by 33  $\mu\text{g}$  A $\beta$  in PBS (Fig. 3B), suggesting that the threshold dose for response is between 3 and 10  $\mu\text{g}$  A $\beta$  in PLG. The responses induced by 10  $\mu\text{g}$  A $\beta$  in PLG were only slightly lower than those seen with 33  $\mu\text{g}$  A $\beta$  in PLG. The responses to the encapsulated antigen at the highest dose were present at 6 weeks after the fourth immunisation (Fig. 3C).

#### 3.4. Effect of parenteral route of administration and particle size on the antibody response to A $\beta$ entrapped in PLG

We examined whether A $\beta$ -loaded large microparticles of average size 15  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter could give superior antibody responses to the 3  $\mu\text{m}$  microparticles loaded with A $\beta$  when mice were immunised with at a dose of 33  $\mu\text{g}$  A $\beta$ . The results suggest that antigen encapsulated in the small microparticles induced slightly increased responses to those of the larger microparticles at both day 21 and 35 when given by either the i.p. or the s.c. routes, respectively (Fig. 4), but this was not statistically significant. Antibody responses to A $\beta$  in either particle sizes were however significantly increased when given by the i.p. route in comparison to the s.c. route (Fig. 4). The serum titres for the free antigen injected in PBS by the i.p. route (Fig. 4A) were weak and similar

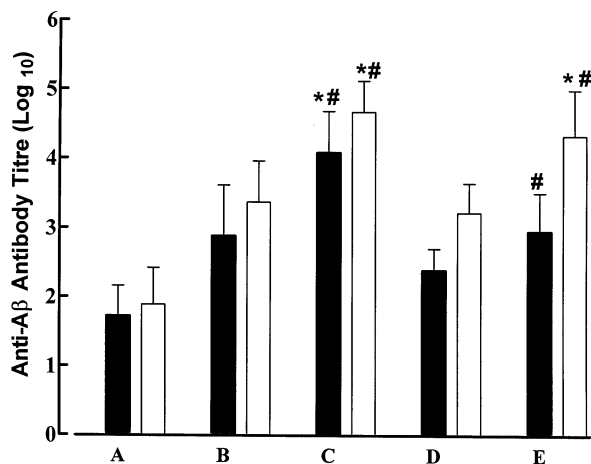


Fig. 4. Comparison of large and small microparticles encapsulating A $\beta$  administered by different routes over time. Mice were immunised (s.c. or i.p.) with 33  $\mu\text{g}$  A $\beta$  ('fresh') on days 0, 14 and 28, and bled on days 21 and 35. (A) A $\beta$  in PBS (i.p.), (B) A $\beta$  in 3  $\mu\text{m}$  PLG (s.c.), (C) A $\beta$  in 3  $\mu\text{m}$  PLG (i.p.), (D) A $\beta$  in 15  $\mu\text{m}$  PLG (s.c.), (E) A $\beta$  in 15  $\mu\text{m}$  PLG (i.p.). Values given are means  $\pm$  standard deviations with  $N = 7-8$  in each group. Filled bars are day 21 and open bars are day 35. Unloaded 15  $\mu\text{m}$  PLG control microparticles ( $n = 8$ , i.p. route) gave no responses (data not graphed). \*  $P < 0.01$  for A $\beta$ -PLG given by the i.p. route (C, E) in comparison to the same PLG formulation given by the s.c. route (B, D) at the same time points. #  $P < 0.001$  for A $\beta$ -PLG given by the i.p. route (C, E) in comparison to A $\beta$  in PBS given by i.p. route (A) at each of the two matched time points.

to those seen to A $\beta$  in PBS by the s.c. route (Fig. 3A). The effectiveness of the particle as an adjuvant for A $\beta$  was again clearly detected since both types of PLG entrapped formulations induced significant antibody responses when administered by the i.p. route at both timepoints. The antibody responses for A $\beta$  entrapped in large and small microparticles by either the i.p. or s.c. routes were significantly enhanced over those detected to A $\beta$  in PBS by either route.

#### 4. Discussion

This study has demonstrated that immunisation of mice with  $\beta$ -amyloid (1–42) can stimulate strong antibody responses when encapsulated in PLG microparticles. In the first report demonstrating that immunisation with A $\beta$  attenuated AD-like pathology in the PDAPP mouse [3], the adjuvant combination used was CFA followed by IFA given in regular injections over twelve months. Unfortunately, despite very potent efficacy, Freund's-type adjuvants cannot be used safely in man as they have a propensity to cause local tissue granulomas and abscesses at the site of injection [22].

PLG was selected as a possible delivery system for the following reasons. Firstly, it has a history of approval in man as a depot for protein-based products [15]. Secondly, PLG has also been successfully tested in animals as a vaccine adjuvant by injected [8–14] and by mucosal routes [23,24]. Thirdly, there is consensus that immune responses at the level of serum antibody can be obtained for antigens delivered in injected PLG microparticles which are of the same order as those achieved with the same dose of particular antigen adsorbed to alum [25,26]. Fourthly, injected PLG formulations have been shown to induce either polarised T helper cell type 1 (Th1) or mixed Th1/Th2 responses, dependent on the antigen, dose and route of administration [13,27]. In contrast, alum-based vaccines have a tendency to stimulate polarised Th2 responses [28], a feature that would favour its use in vaccines directed against extracellular pathogens including certain parasites and many bacteria, but less so against intracellular pathogens such as viruses and mycoplasma. Finally, an important feature for PLG microspheres is that they can release antigen in a pulsed format from one formulation administered in a single dose, dependent largely on blends of microsphere sizes and ratios of poly(lactide) to glycolide [11,14,29]. In-built formulation features that can mimic the required booster formats offer potential for reducing the number of immunisations. In the case of A $\beta$  in PLG, an encouraging finding therefore was that serum titres were present 6 weeks after a total of four immunisations, an improvement in the dosing schedule over the multiple injections required for the antigen in CFA/IFA in the PDAPP mouse [3].

In SW mice we have confirmed that an adjuvant is useful in conjunction with A $\beta$  since the antigen gave weak antibody responses even at doses as high as 33  $\mu$ g in PBS administered by either the s.c. or the i.p. routes. By comparison, mice injected by either the s.c. or i.p. routes with 1  $\mu$ g of potent immunogens in solution, e.g. inactivated pertussis toxin and filamentous haemagglutinin, will mount a vigorous antibody response 2 weeks after two immunisations, even in the absence of an adjuvant [30].

Both the low loading and the low loading efficiency of A $\beta$  in both sizes of particle were typical of that seen for most peptides encapsulated in PLG [31]. Altering the PVA grade and concentration was associated with an increase in antigen entrapment in particles and this was attributed to an increase in the stability of the secondary emulsion. Increased loading efficiency may be achieved by altering the solvent or by using a different method of preparation such as spray-drying. Upon injection, A $\beta$ -PLG microparticles gave responses that were comparable to those seen with CFA/IFA after an equivalent number of doses. These data are similar to that seen by others for model antigens such as bovine serum albumen in PLG by the s.c. route in which the adjuvancy of the microspheres was also reported to be equivalent to that seen with CFA [32]. In agreement with Johansen et al. [33], the overall immune responses to the larger 15  $\mu$ m diameter particles were not better than those achieved with the 3  $\mu$ m size particles. It would appear therefore that the optimum particle size for parenteral immunisation for A $\beta$  is within a wide diameter range of the micron scale. The fact that the smaller sized particles tended to induce a slightly increased response could be due to a number of factors, including increased particle uptake in the 3  $\mu$ m size range by macrophages, increased surface area for antigen presentation and a faster release rate.

Antibody responses were also seen when PLG microparticles were simply ad-mixed with A $\beta$  and this would suggest that externally-adsorbed antigen retains immunogenicity. Whether antigens must be properly entrapped in order to detect an enhanced immune effect upon injection is unclear. The results of the current study agree at least in part with those reported for antigen adsorbed to a polylamellar-substrate PLG particle in which significant antibodies titres have been detected for parenterally-administered adsorbed antigen [34]. While surface-bound antigen may make a significant contribution to the immune response to A $\beta$ , the entrapped formulation is likely to be more stable given the protection offered by the particle. It is possible that a combination of PLG-entrapped A $\beta$  with a surface adsorption process may yield more potent immune responses than the entrapped formulation reported here. The preliminary data would suggest that, similar to when other antigens are adsorbed to aluminium

hydroxide, PLG may act in part as a with a similar adjuvant mechanism for A $\beta$  since physical entrapment was not an absolute requirement to generate an antibody response. This has been shown clearly in the case of nasally-administered liposomes in which successful immunisation was achieved, not only with an influenza antigen entrapped in liposomes, but also when free antigen was administered nasally even at later time-points than control un-entrapped liposomes [35]. Thus, particles such as PLG microspheres may have a dual mechanism of enhancing responses to entrapped antigens, the first based on co-delivery of antigens into antigen presenting cells for immuno-stimulation and the second based on a classical adjuvant alum-like depot sustained release mechanism for A $\beta$ . Yet preliminary data using A $\beta$  adsorbed to aluminium hydroxide revealed a surprisingly poor adjuvant effect in mice (results not shown), so it is apparent that few assumptions or predictions can be made with confidence about immunotherapy with this antigen.

The adjuvant effect of PLG was detected in 76/80 (95%) of mice immunised with 10–33  $\mu$ g A $\beta$ -PLG in various formats. Mice immunised with antigen in PBS gave highly variable responses, which were significantly lower than for PLG-entrapped material at comparative doses. Administration by the i.p. route gave significantly higher titres than by s.c., and this is most likely due to a higher density of dendritic cells in the peritoneal cavity. The rationale for dosing by the i.p. route arose as a result of previous work [14] in which it was shown that it was a particularly effective route for stimulating immune responses for antigens in PLG.

The A $\beta$  formulation in CFA/IFA adjuvant has been shown to slow plaque deposition, neuritic dystrophy and gliosis in the PDAPP mouse [3]. In the PDAPP mouse, major histocompatibility complex class II molecules in microglia and monocytes were activated by the A $\beta$  vaccine [18,3]. Furthermore, Tan et al. [36] have shown that freshly solubilized A $\beta$  can increase CD40 expression on cultured microglia from mice. It is likely therefore that antibody may be transported through the blood–brain barrier from the serum as whole antibody or active fragments [37] possibly resulting in an association with microglia adjacent to amyloid fibrillar plaques. Recently Bard et al. [18] showed that passive immunisation with polyclonal and monoclonal antibodies against A $\beta$  could reduce plaque burden upon therapeutic immunisation of the PDAPP mouse, an effect which may be mediated through Fc microglial receptor-mediated endocytosis. This result is pertinent to our data with PLG in SW mice, since it strongly indicates that serum antibody induction by A $\beta$  is a prerequisite for efficacy.

In conclusion, these studies show for the first time that A $\beta$  in PLG microparticles produces a significant antibody response in mice after parenteral administra-

tion. It was confirmed that both small and large microparticles were effective by two parenteral routes and that surface-bound A $\beta$  may contribute in part to the overall response. The PLG formulation of A $\beta$  has a significant advantage in terms of adjuvant safety over the Freund's-based formulation used in our previous A $\beta$  vaccine studies in PDAPP mice [3]. It remains to be shown if A $\beta$ -PLG microparticles have comparable efficacy in this animal model of AD. Because of the relationship between serum antibody and efficacy in mice, our current approach in decision making for progressing to man is to examine adjuvant/delivery system formulations of A $\beta$  in primates using serum antibody as the read-out.

### Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to Ann-Marie Barrett for technical assistance in adapting the ELISA for A $\beta$  to microparticles, to Dr Nuala Clarke and Dr Janeth Shara for assistance in formulating A $\beta$  in PLG, and to Colin Reid of the Trinity College Electron Microscopy Unit for the micrographs used in Fig. 1. We thank Tom O'Hara of the Pharmacokinetics Department of Elan Biotechnology Research for statistical assistance.

### References

- [1] Selkoe DJ. Translating cell biology into therapeutic advances in Alzheimer's disease. *Nature (Suppl)* 1999;399:A23–30.
- [2] Naslund J, Haroutunian V, Mohs R, et al. Correlation between elevated levels of amyloid  $\beta$ -peptide in the brain and cognitive decline. *J Am Med Assoc* 2000;283:1571–7.
- [3] Schenk D, Barbour RW, Dunn W, et al. Immunisation with amyloid- $\beta$  attenuates Alzheimer disease-like pathology in the PDAPP mouse. *Nature* 1999;400:173–7.
- [4] Chen G, Chen KS, Knox J, et al. A learning deficit related to age and  $\beta$  amyloid plaques in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease. *Nature* 2000;408:975–9.
- [5] Janus C, Pearson J, McLauren J, et al. A $\beta$  peptide immunisation reduces behavioural impairment and plaques in a model of Alzheimer's disease. *Nature* 2000;408:979–82.
- [6] Morgan D, Diamond DM, Gottschall PE, et al. A $\beta$  peptide vaccination prevents memory loss in an animal model of Alzheimer's disease. *Nature* 2000;408:982–5.
- [7] Ebbert GB, Mascolo ED, Six HR. Overview of vaccine manufacturing and quality assurance. In: Plotkin SA, Orenstein WA, editors. *Vaccines*, 3rd edn. Philadelphia, PA: WB Saunders, 1998:45–6.
- [8] Priess I, Langer RS. A single step immunisation by sustained antigen release. *J Immunological Methods* 1979;28:193–7.
- [9] Thomasin C, Corradin G, Men Y, Merkle HP, Gander B. Tetanus toxoid and synthetic malaria antigen containing poly(lactide)/poly(lactide-co-glycolide) microspheres. Importance of polymer degradation and antigen release for immune response. *J Controlled Release* 1996;41:131–45.
- [10] O'Hagan DT, Jeffrey H, Davis SS. Long-term antibody responses following subcutaneous immunization with ovalbumen entrapped in biodegradable microparticles. *Vaccine* 1993;11:965–9.
- [11] Hanes J, Chiba M, Langer R. Polymer vaccines for vaccine delivery. In: Powell MF, Newman MJ, editors. *Vaccine Design, the Subunit and Adjuvant Approach*. New York: Plenum, 1996:389–412.
- [12] Johansen P, Merkle HP, Gander B. Revisiting PLA/PLGA microspheres: an analysis of their potential in parenteral vaccination. *Eur J Pharm Biopharm* 2000;50:129–46.
- [13] Moore A, McGuirk P, Adams S, et al. Immunisation with a soluble recombinant HIV protein entrapped in biodegradable microparticles induces HIV-specific CD8<sup>+</sup> cytotoxic T lymphocytes and CD4<sup>+</sup> Th1 cells. *Vaccine* 1995;13:1741–9.
- [14] Cleland JL. Single administration vaccines: controlled release technology to mimic repeated immunisations. *Trends Biotechnol* 1999;17:25–9.
- [15] Plosker GL, Brogden RN. Leuprorelin. A review of its pharmacology and therapeutic use in prostate cancer, endometriosis and other sex hormone-related disorders. *Drugs* 1994;48:930–67.
- [16] Gilding DK, Reid AM. Biodegradable polymers for use in surgery polyglycolic/poly(lactic acid) homo- and copolymers. *Polymer* 1979;20:1459–64.
- [17] Herbert P, Murphy K, Johnson O, et al. A large scale process to produce microencapsulated protein. *Pharm Res* 1998;15:357–61.
- [18] Bard F, Cannon C, Barbour R, et al. Peripherally administered antibodies against amyloid  $\beta$ -peptide enter the nervous system and reduce pathology in a mouse model of Alzheimer disease. *Nat Med* 2000;6:916–9.
- [19] O'Hagan DT, McGee JP, Holmgren J, et al. Biodegradable microspheres for oral immunisation. *Vaccine* 1993;11:149–54.
- [20] Jeffrey H, Davis SS, O'Hagan DT. Preparation and characterization of poly(lactide-co-glycolide) microparticles. II. Protein entrapment by water-in-oil-in water emulsion solvent evaporation. *Pharm Res* 1993;10:362–8.
- [21] Johnson-Wood K, Lee M, Motter R, et al. Amyloid precursor protein processing and A $\beta$  42 deposition in a transgenic mouse model of Alzheimer disease. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 1997;94:1550–5.
- [22] Yamanaka M, Hiramatsu K, Hirahara T, et al. Pathological studies on local tissue reactions in guinea pigs and rats caused by four different adjuvants. *J Vet Med Sci* 1992;54:685–92.
- [23] Eldridge JH, Hammond CJ, Weulbroek JA, Staas JK, Gilley RM, Tice TR. Controlled release in the gut-associated lymphoid tissue. I: Orally-administered biodegradable microspheres target the Peyer's patches. *J Controlled Release* 1990;11:205–14.
- [24] Cahill ES, O'Hagan DT, Illum L, Mills KH, Redhead K. Immune responses and protection against *Bordetella pertussis* infection after intranasal immunisation of mice with filamentous haemagglutinin in solution or incorporated in biodegradable microparticles. *Vaccine* 1995;13:455–62.
- [25] Lee HK, Park JH, Kwon KC. Double-walled microparticles for single shot vaccine. *J Controlled Release* 1997;44:283–93.
- [26] Shahin R, Leef J, Eldridge J, Hudson M, Gilley R. Adjuvanticity and protective immunity elicited by *Bordetella pertussis* antigens encapsulated in poly(D,L-lactide-co-glycolide) microspheres. *Infect Immun* 1995;63:1195–200.
- [27] Newman KD, Samuel J, Kwon G. Ovalbumen peptide encapsulated in poly(D,L-lactide-co-glycolide) microspheres is capable of inducing a T helper type 1 immune response. *J Controlled Release* 1998;54:49–59.
- [28] Mills KHG. Induction and detection of T cell responses. In: Robinson A, Farrar G, Wiblin C, editors. *Methods in Molecular Medicine, Vaccine Protocols*. Totawa, NJ: Humana Press Inc, 1996:197–221.
- [29] Coombes AGA, Lavelle EC, Jenkins PG, Davis SS. Single dose, polymeric, microparticle-based vaccines: the influence of formulation conditions on the magnitude and duration of the immune response to a protein antigen. *Vaccine* 1996;14:1429–38.



- [30] Conway MA, Madrigal-Estebas L, McClean S, Brayden DJ, Mills KHG. Protection against *Bordetella pertussis* infection following parenteral or oral immunisation with antigens entrapped in biodegradable particles: effect of formulation and route of immunisation on induction of Th1 and Th2 cells. *Vaccine* 2001;19:1940–50.
- [31] Singh M, O'Hagan DT. The preparation and characterisation of polymeric antigen delivery systems for oral administration. *Adv Drug Del Rev* 1998;34:285–304.
- [32] O'Hagan DT, Rahman D, McGhee JP, et al. Biodegradable microparticles as controlled release antigen delivery systems. *Immunology* 1991;73:239–42.
- [33] Johansen P, Moon L, Tamber H, Merkle HP, Gander B, Searadic D. Immunogenicity of single dose diphtheria vaccines based on PLA/PLGA microspheres in guinea pigs. *Vaccine* 2000;18:209–15.
- [34] Jabbal-Gill I, Lin W, Jenkins P, et al. Potential of polylamellar substrate particles (PLSP) as adjuvants for vaccines. *Vaccine* 2000;18:238–50.
- [35] De Haan A, Geerligs HJ, Huchshorn JP, Van Scharrenburg GJM, Palache AM, Wilschut J. Mucosal immunoadjuvant activity of liposomes: induction of systemic IgG and secretory IgA responses in mice by intranasal immunization with an influenza subunit vaccine and co-administered liposomes. *Vaccine* 1995;13:155–62.
- [36] Tan J, Town T, Paris D, et al. Microglial activation resulting from CD40-CD40L interaction after beta-amyloid stimulation. *Science* 1999;286:2352–5.
- [37] Bickel U. Antibody delivery through the blood-brain barrier. *Adv Drug Del Rev* 1995;15:53–72.