Biodegradable Synthetic Organelles Demonstrate ROS Shielding in Human-Complex-I-Deficient Fibroblasts


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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Biodegradable, semipermeable nanoreactors that are capable of undergoing cellular integration and, subsequently, function as synthetic organelles represent an exciting therapeutic technology. Polymersomal nanoreactors have been investigated as a suitable candidate for the engineering of such a system, with the chemical versatility and structural robustness required for such a demanding application. Although steps have been taken to demonstrate this capacity, there has yet to be a system presented with biochemically robust data showing therapeutic efficacy in primary human cells. The reason for this shortfall is the absence of essential criteria of the polymersomes tested so far; biodegradability, intrinsic semipermeability, and a biomedically relevant setting. Herein, we present enzyme-loaded, biodegradable poly(ethylene glycol)-block-poly(caprolactone-gradient-trimethylene carbonate) (PEG–PCLgTMC) polymersomal nanoreactors, readily fabricated using the biocompatible direct hydration methodology. Physical characterization of PEG–PCLgTMC polymersomes highlights their semipermeable membrane and ability to shield enzymatic cargo. Surface modification with cell-penetrating peptides (CPPs) directs cellular integration of enzyme-loaded PEG–PCLgTMC nanoreactors in a controlled fashion. Using HEK293T cells and human skin fibroblasts we demonstrate that biocompatible catalase nanoreactors successfully perform as a synthetic organelle, imparting activity-dependent antioxidant (reactive-oxygen-species-shielding, ROS-shielding) capacity to cells. Notably, for the first time, patient-derived human-complex-I-deficient primary fibroblasts are effectively protected against the toxicity of exogenous H2O2 by the action of internalized enzyme-loaded nanoreactors, showcasing this system in a therapeutically relevant context.

INTRODUCTION

Membrane-bound organelles (such as mitochondria, endosomes, or the nucleus) are compartmentalized microenvironments where diverse enzymatic processes take place under highly regulated conditions.1–3 A striking feature of such subcellular compartments is that they permit selective transmembrane molecular transport, a property vital for their function. The physicochemical elegance of organelles has inspired scientists to engineer synthetic counterparts, capable of performing complex function within the cell.4–6 Indeed, substantial progress has been made in this area through the utilization of both micro- and nanocompartments.6,7 Notable developments toward the in vitro application of microreactors (based on polymer capsules or liposomes) have been presented, with uptake into macrophages facilitated by macropinocytosis or via a microinjection method for other cell types.8–10 Although there are undoubtable advantages in using larger, more structurally complex microreactors, their large size makes them less versatile as compared to their nanoscopic counterparts. In particular, copolymer vesicles (polymersomes), synthetic replicas of liposomes, which are capable of encapsulating and stabilizing sensitive internal cargo (such as enzymes),7,11 have great potential for cellular therapy.12,13 In particular, their utility as organelle-like nanosystems, capable of endogenously affecting cellular chemistry and performing tasks that would otherwise be malfunctioning (or absent), is an exciting prospect. Nano-

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reactors, based on polymersomal (and polymer capsule) technology, have been shown to undergo cellular integration, and confined enzyme activity was demonstrated with a number of cell lines in vitro.\textsuperscript{14−16} Moreover, pioneering studies using nanoreactors in vivo have yielded interesting results, with superoxide-dismutase-loaded polymersomes functioning as antioxidants to reduce neuropathic pain (rat model) and β-galactosidase-loaded polyion complex vesicles (PICsomes) showing specific function within tumor tissue (mouse model).\textsuperscript{20,21}

Evaluation of recent studies highlights essential properties that are of critical importance for the effective functioning of synthetic organelles: semipermeability, biodegradability, and biocompatibility. Regarding the former, progress has been made with both membrane postmodification (channel proteins, DNA pores, or chemically),\textsuperscript{22−31} and complex morphological engineering,\textsuperscript{32,33} to generate functioning nanoreactors. Engineering polymersomal nanoreactors with an intrinsically semipermeable membrane remains a challenge, however, with few examples that are sufficiently permeable to facilitate native chemical processing of external substrates utilizing compartmentalized enzyme(s).\textsuperscript{34−40} Even more challenging is to realize such a system that is both biodegradable and biocompatible, vital features of a synthetic organelle to ensure cellular integration without toxic side effects that would undermine biomedical application. To this end, we have undertaken to engineer, via the remarkably facile direct hydration approach, a biodegradable, semipermeable polymersomal platform that can function as autonomous nanoreactors through enzyme encapsulation. Recently, we presented the direct hydration method for preparation of poly(ethylene glycol)−poly(caprolactone) (PEG−PCL) polymersomes, using oligo(ethylene glycol) (OEG) as a nontoxic dispersant.\textsuperscript{41} This methodology can facilitate biomolecular encapsulation;\textsuperscript{42} however, it has not yet been presented as a route toward nanoreactor fabrication.

Although the design and fabrication of biodegradable (autonomous) nanoreactors are already a substantial challenge, it is important to apply them toward a quantitative biochemical evaluation using an appropriate therapeutic target that will take us beyond proof-of-principle. In this respect, the pathological effect of hydrogen peroxide ($H_2O_2$) is a medically relevant topic of investigation. $H_2O_2$ is highly diffusible and relatively long-lived,\textsuperscript{43} serving as a key molecule in redox signaling, control, and regulation.\textsuperscript{44} Mitochondria are an important source of intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS), resulting from superoxide dismutation into $H_2O_2$ at complexes I (CI) and III (CIII), which is subsequently oxidized (into water) by cytosolic and mitochondrial peroxidases as well as peroxisomal catalase. When the native antioxidant capacity is overwhelmed by ROS,\textsuperscript{45} oxidative stress in cells occurs, which is implicated in the pathogenesis of many disorders such as Alzheimer’s, Parkinson’s, Huntington’s, and metabolic diseases alongside aging and cancer, more generally.\textsuperscript{40−48} Therefore, the generation of antioxidant nanoreactors (AONs), which can be spontaneously integrated into cells that are experiencing heightened-ROS levels, is a strategy that has great medical potential. Indeed, acatalasemia, an autosomal recessive condition that results in a >90% reduction in cellular catalase activity, is an example where such a strategy could be highly effective. Individuals with inherited catalase deficiency have a high prevalence of diabetes mellitus (18.5%) and of diseases related to oxidative stress (85%).\textsuperscript{49} In mice models, studies show that catalase deficiency leads to ROS sensitivity,\textsuperscript{50} whereas catalase overexpression prolongs lifespan and attenuation of age-related pathologies.\textsuperscript{51−53} Mitochondrial CI deficiency is associated with neurodegeneration, and studies using primary (patient-derived) skin fibroblasts indicate an imbalance between the production and scavenging of ROS.\textsuperscript{54,55} Studies on mice with mal functioning CI also indicated that increases in neuronal ROS are an important part of the neurodegeneration process.\textsuperscript{56} Therefore, with increased attention being paid to the development of advanced therapeutic technologies to tackle age- and cancer-related diseases, attenuation of (cellular) ROS stress is an excellent niche to focus on.

Herein, we present for the first time catalase-loaded, semipermeable polymersomes (comprising biodegradable copolymers) as antioxidant nanoreactors (AONs) in a medically relevant application. We demonstrate (and quantify) the capacity of AONs to function as synthetic organelles, providing effective shielding of patient-derived primary cells from ROS in vitro (Figure 1). Such unprecedented application of this technology makes the important step from proof-of-principle research to a biomedically relevant platform, which reflects the robustness and versatility of this approach and will, hopefully, inspire further development toward realization of synthetic organelles in clinical studies.

![Figure 1](image-url)

**Figure 1.** Engineering a biodegradable synthetic organelle. (a) Poly(ethylene glycol)-block-poly(caprolactone-gradient-trimethylene carbonate) (PEG−PCLgTMC) copolymers were synthesized and, utilizing the direct hydration method, underwent controlled self-assembly into polymersomes that could be loaded with enzymatic cargo. (b) PEG−PCLgTMC polymersomes that possess a semi-permeable membrane facilitate transmembrane substrate diffusion for compartmentalized enzymatic reactions (e.g., $X = D$-glucose and $Y = gluconolactone/H_2O_2$), functioning as autonomous nanoreactors. (c) Cellular integration is directed by attaching a cell-penetrating peptide (CPP) to the polymersome surface. (d) Antioxidant polymersomes (containing catalase) demonstrate ROS shielding in both HEK 293 and (primary) human fibroblasts.

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Engineering Biodegradable PEG−PCLgTMC Polymersomes via Direct Hydration.** The essential requirements for polymersomal nanoreactors to be successfully implemented as synthetic organelles are biocompatibility and semipermeability. To accomplish this goal we set out to develop biodegradable block copolymers (BCPs) in order to generate self-assembled nanostructures with the desired properties.\textsuperscript{37} BCPs comprising...
poly(ethylene glycol) (PEG) with various hydrophobic, biodegradable polymers such as poly(caprolactone) (PCL), poly(lactide) (PLA), or poly(trimethylene carbonate) (PTMC) have been presented as biocompatible building blocks for the preparation of polymersomes. Recently, we reported the self-assembly of PEG–PCL via an unconventional direct hydration process, replacing harmful solvents with nontoxic low molecular weight oligo(ethylene glycol) (OEG). Although PCL is a commonly used polyester in biomedical research, its high Tc (ca. 55–60 °C) impedes control over self-assembly and causes undesirable membrane properties. Therefore, if we are to use BCPs related to PCL in self-assembly of polymersomal nanoreactors, crystallinity should be reduced. To achieve this, it has been reported that copolymerization of caprolactone with a distinct monomer (capable of reducing overall crystallinity) imparts greater control over self-assembly.

Inspired by this work, we adopted a strategy for the preparation of (noncrystalline) gradient copolymers comprising PCL and poly(trimethylene carbonate) (PCLgTMC) via organocatalyzed ring-opening polymerization. Using monomethoxy-PEG polymers as macroinitiator, we produced a series of well-defined block copolymers (D ≤ 1.1) of PEG–PCLgTMC using methanesulfonic acid as a nontoxic catalyst (Figure S1a and Table S1). As both chemical and physical factors affect BCP self-assembly, optimization of both copolymer composition and their direct hydration was performed. For chemical optimization, PEG–PCLgTMC BCPs with varying PEG length (X), TMC content in the hydrophobic block (Y, wt %), and overall hydrophilic content (Z, wt %) were prepared, designated mPEGx–Y/Z. It was determined that a TMC content of at least 20 wt % was sufficient to suppress PCL crystallinity (Figure S2). Cryo-TEM screening indicated that the optimal composition for polymersome formation was close to mPEG12 or mPEG22–50/13 with longer chains based on mPEG12 forming clustered spheroids (Figure 2a and Figure S3a–c). Either increasing or decreasing the TMC content led to coformation of spherical or wormlike micelles, respectively, and increasing the overall hydrophilic content led to poorly defined morphologies (Figure S3d–f).

Physical optimization of direct hydration involved maximizing the [copolymer] in OEG (prior to hydration) and minimizing the amount of buffer necessary to induce subsequent polymersome formation, so as to make protein encapsulation more favorable (process outlined in Figure S1). While [copolymer] (in OEG) > 10 wt % resulted in visible aggregation, formulation at 10 wt % resulted in uniform polymersomes and was, therefore, chosen for further tests. Using a combination of asymmetric flow field-flow fractionation (AF4) coupled with dynamic light scattering (AF4-DLS) we confirmed that adding 80 μL of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) in the hydration of 20 μL of (stirred) OEG/copolymer solution (mPEG22–50/13) was optimal to obtain polymersomes of ca. 100 nm in size (Figure S4). After stirring the cloudy solution for 5 min, subsequent dilution with 400 μL of PBS yielded a visually homogeneous polymersome suspension with [copolymer] = 4 mg/mL.

Analysis of polymersomes comprising mPEG12/mPEG22–50/13 (by AF4-DLS) yielded average sizes of 200 and 100 nm, respectively (Figure S5a). Analysis of membrane thickness from cryo-TEM images yielded values of around 7 and 14 nm, respectively (Figure S5b). To confirm whether OEG is truly a dispersant in the direct hydration process, or if it interacts to some extent with the polymersomal membrane, nuclear Overhauser spectroscopy (NOESY) was performed, to assess the degree of spatial correlation between membrane protons and those of OEG. It was observed that the sharp OEG peak at 3.75 ppm was distinct from the broad coronal PEG peak at 3.72 ppm (Figure S6). We were therefore confident that OEG only functioned as a dispersant and had no structural role.

Semipermeability, Protein Encapsulation, and Shielding Properties of Polymersomes. With a platform for the facile preparation of well-defined, biodegradable polymersomes, a calcein release assay was performed to probe the permeability of the PCLgTMC membrane. Monitoring calcein release by the dequenching of its
between the co- and monoencapsulated systems. Although both scattering mPEG12 and mPEG22 copolymers. Although both scattering mPEG22-50/13 as the basis for our studies. The observed 50/13 polymersomes and contributed to our decision to use 60% in the case of the thicker-walled, mPEG22-50/13 polymersomes showed a faster release pro

(a) HRP and (b) GOx alongside (c) a mono- (red) and coencapsulated (blue) HRP/GOx cascade; the black curve shows the difference in rate between the co- and monoencapsulated systems.

Figure 3. Nanoreactor characterization of enzyme-loaded polymersomes using Michaelis–Menten kinetic plots to compare free and encapsulated (a) HRP and (b) GOx alongside (c) a mono- (red) and coencapsulated (blue) HRP/GOx cascade; the black curve shows the difference in rate between the co- and monoencapsulated systems.

To evaluate protein loading in this system we encapsulated eGFP (5 mg/mL) and employed AF4 coupled with multangle light scattering (AF4-MALS) to quanitate loading and give an indication of efficiency using this method (optimized for polymersome stability). Size exclusion chromatograms indicated, as expected, that a large population of unencapsulated eGFP exists in solution, which could be reocollected if desired and reused in a scale-up process (Figure S8a). AF4 tractograms of eGFP-loaded polymersomes demonstrated the capacity for protein loading in this system, with a clear signal at 480 nm and a substantial reduction in the radius of gyration of the polymersomes, both indicative of cargo loading (Figure S8b,c). Having measured the refactive index increment (dn/dc) of PEG–PCLgTMC (0.078), the extinction coefficient of eGFP (ε480 = 55 000 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹) was used to quanitate polymersome loading. By mass, the eGFP content averaged around 5 wt %, equivalent to approximately 200 proteins per polymersome with an approximate [eGFP]internal in the region 20–60 mg/mL (Figure 2c). A fundamental property of compartmentalized systems is that they are capable of shielding sensitive cargo from degradation. By encapsulating a self-quenching FITC–BSA substrate we were able to demonstrate this property in the PEG–PCLgTMC polymersomes. While the polymersome remained intact, proteinase K was not able to permeate the membrane, until concentrated surfactant was added into the system that resulted in rupture and rapid degradation of the sensitive cargo (Figure 2d).

Enzyme-Loaded Polymersomes Function as Autono-

mous Nanoreactors. Through encapsulation of functional enzymatic cargo, such as glucose oxidase (GOx) and horseradish peroxidase (HRP), we evaluated the performance of PEG–PCLgTMC polymersomes as autonomous nanoreactors. Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICPMS) was used to calculate the loading efficiencies of ruthenium-labeled GOx and HRP, which were 4.2% (±0.2) and 1.2% (±0.3), respectively. Although HRP was appreciably lower than GOx this reflects known (but poorly understood) variations in encapsulation efficiencies between different enzymes.37,38 Encapsulation efficiency values vary to the former value presented for eGFP due to the nature of the measurement; i.e., the latter was a direct content measurement in purified polymersomes. Subsequent assays were designed to compare the kinetics of free and encapsulated enzymes. Because exact [enzyme] encapsulated could not be determined to the necessary degree of accuracy, only the Michaelis constant (K_M) was evaluated.

First, the kinetics of either HRP- or GOx-loaded nanoreactors was evaluated using ABTS peroxidation as a photometric readout (Figure 3a,b). Either H2O2 or D-glucose were used as substrates for assays using HRP or GOx, respectively, with HRP used in excess for the latter and ABTS always used at a saturating concentration. Interestingly, increases in the observed K_M values (K_M(obs)) were measured for both encapsulated systems, with ca. 70% increase for HRP and ca. 240% increase for GOx. Although V_max values were similar, the apparent increase in K_M(obs) is striking and can be best understood by the diffusive barrier experienced by encapsulated enzyme arising from the semipermeable (PCLgTMC) membrane. In the case of HRP this arises due to the hampered diffusion of H2O2 into the nanoreactor (reducing the actual [substrate] at the enzyme), and for GOx this arises due to the hampered diffusion of glucose in and H2O2 out of the compartment. It is therefore consistent that K_M(obs) values for GOx are almost 4-fold larger, as compared to HRP. To demonstrate the positive benefits of compartmentaliza-

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monoencapsulated nanoreactors (Figure 3c). The observed percentage increase in the rate of ABTS peroxidation between mono- and coencapsulated nanoreactors decreased as [glucose] increased (from 70% to 20%). This observation was understood to arise from a more detrimental effect of substrate diffusion at lower [glucose], diminishing as saturating conditions are approached. Although our discussion has focused upon $K_M$ and substrate diffusion, kinetic enhancements that arise due to compartmentalization cannot be discounted; however, a full examination of this is beyond the scope of the present experimental work.

Cell Uptake of CPP-Functionalized Polymersomes. An effective strategy for inducing the cell uptake of polymersomal nanoreactors is through surface decoration with cell-penetrating peptides (CPPs). TAT, a CPP derived from human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), is known to translocate the cell plasma membrane, and direct endocytotic uptake of colloidal or proteinaceous cargo. Having previously reported the successful cellular integration of TAT-polymersomes, we wanted to evaluate whether more advanced properties of CPPs could be realized in this platform, such as endosomal escape. Recently, the cyclic variant of TAT (cTAT) was reported to direct cytosolic delivery of proteins in HeLa cells, thereby bypassing the endolysosomal system. Therefore, we decided to compare the efficacy of the linear and cyclic TAT variants in facilitating polymersomal uptake.

Figure 4. Cell uptake of cTAT polymersomes in HEK293T cells. (a) Uptake of NBD-labeled polymersomes after 24 h at different polymersome concentrations (0.05–0.1 mg/mL) and with different percentages of CPP (0–5%), quantified by flow cytometry (mean fluorescence of live cells presented ± SD, n = 3). Significant differences are indicated by **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$, ****$P < 0.0001$. (b) Confocal microscopy images (sequential excitation mode) depicting the subcellular distribution of 2.5% TAT-polymersomes encapsulating AF647BSA (red) after 24 h of incubation at a concentration of 0.4 mg/mL (plasma membrane stained with CellMask green). (c) Confocal microscopy images (simultaneous excitation mode) depicting the endolysosomal localization of 2.5% TAT-polymersomes encapsulating AF647BSA after a 1 h pulse with 0.4 mg/mL polymersomes followed by a 24 h chase period in polymersome-free medium (acidic cellular compartments stained with LysoTracker green): (i) LysoTracker green, (ii) LysoTracker green and free AF647BSA, (iii) LysoTracker green and 2.5% TAT-polymersomes encapsulating AF647BSA. For visualization purposes, bright-field images were contrast-optimized using a linear contrast stretch (LCS) operation. Scale bars = 10 μm.
logical features of nanoparticles (e.g., size, shape, stiffness, and surface topology) can significantly impact cellular uptake it is important to evaluate this key behavior in such a new system. Cellular uptake and trafficking of polymersomes were evaluated in HEK293T cells after covalently coupling azido-TAT or azido-cTAT to fluorescent nitrobenzoxadiazole-doped (NBD-doped) polymersomes comprising either a 2.5 or 5 wt % doping of dibenzocyclooctyl-modified (DBCO-modified) PEG−PCLgTMC using biorthogonal click chemistry (Figure S9).

HEK293T cells were treated with polymersomes for 24 h prior to analysis of cell uptake by flow cytometry and confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM). Flow cytometry revealed that cell uptake was virtually absent for unmodified polymersomes (0% CPP), whereas TAT- and cTAT-polymersomes were readily taken up in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 4a). At both concentrations, the effect of TAT was already maximal at 2.5% surface loading, whereas for cTAT a further increase was observed at 5%, suggesting the possibility of higher uptake with the latter TAT variant. In agreement with the flow cytometry data, CLSM showed virtually no cell uptake for unmodified polymersomes (Figure S10b). In sharp contrast, cTAT-polymersomes were abundantly present both at the cell membrane and within intracellular punctate structures (Figure S10c–f). Calculation of the Pearson’s colocalization coefficient (PCC), which provides an estimate on the extent of overlap between green (polymersomes) and red (plasma membrane) pixels, showed no difference between TAT- and cTAT-polymersomes, as well as (Figure S11). Similarly, the PCC did not differ between 2.5% and 5% TAT, whereas a significantly higher PCC value was observed at 5% cTAT. Because the data obtained did not show any beneficial effect of the cyclic variant, and due to its reduced tendency to accumulate in the cell membrane, TAT was used at its optimal concentration of 2.5% in further experiments. The ability of 2.5% TAT-polymersomes to deliver macromolecular cargo was demonstrated using Alexa647-labeled bovine serum albumin (AF647-BSA). Orthogonal projections of HEK293T cells treated with AF647-BSA-loaded polymersomes for 24 h unequivocally demonstrated the presence of cargo (red) in punctate structures located within the cell (Figure 4b). Such structures are indicative of endolysosomal uptake, which was confirmed by pulse incubating cells with AF647-BSA encapsulating 2.5% TAT-polymersomes for 1 h followed by a chase incubation of 24 h and staining with LysoTracker green showing a strong colocalization (PCC value of 0.6 ± 0.19; Figure S12). The possibility of cross-talk was excluded (Figure S13). Visual inspection of the Lyso Tracker green-positive structures (Figure 4c, second vertical row) shows a marked enlargement upon treatment with AF647-BSA encapsulating 2.5% TAT-polymersomes. The overlay shows that these structures are AF647-BSA-positive, indicating the lysosomal accumulation of AF647-BSA-polymersomes. Similarly enlarged Lyso Tracker green-positive structures were observed upon treatment with free AF647-BSA (Figure 4c, second vertical row). Also in this case these structures appeared, though extremely faintly, AF647-BSA-positive (Figure 4c, third vertical row). Because equal amounts of AF647-BSA were used, either free or encapsulated, this result clearly demonstrates the strong uptake-facilitating properties of TAT-polymersomes. The 2.5% TAT-polymersomes, loaded with catalase, were used to add functionality to the cells in subsequent studies.

ROS Shielding by Catalase-Encapsulating TAT-polymersomes in HEK293T Cells. Having optimized the conditions for cellular uptake of TAT-functionalized polymersomes, the next step was to evaluate their function in vitro as a kind of “synthetic organelle”. Through encapsulation of catalase, which is an important enzyme in protecting cells from oxidative damage, biological functionality was bestowed upon the TAT-polymersomes, to generate an antioxidant nanoreactor (AON). As CLSM clearly showed the predominant presence of TAT-polymersomes within the endolysosomal system, it is important to consider the function of such AONs at pH values ranging down to ~5. With this in mind, we chose to compare two isoforms of catalase, from bovine (CBOV) and bacterial (CBAC) sources, with the latter being more stable at lower pH values. Functional comparison between AONs, which had a catalase encapsulation efficiency of 3.8% (±0.4), demonstrated that those fabricated with CBAC were at least 8-fold more active than those encapsulating CBOV.
H2O2 (Figure 5b). Crystal violet analysis con
washing and a 24 h challenge with or without 5 mM exogenous
indicated concentration of polymersomes for 1 h followed by
their ROS-shielding ability, cells were pulse-treated with the
addition of H2O2 (5 mM) did not disrupt AON morphology as
completely reversed by the CBAC polymersomes, an e
cct of the 2.5% TAT-polymersomes. In order to examine
their ROS-shielding ability, cells were pulse-treated with the
indicated concentration of polymersomes for 1 h followed by
washing and a 24 h challenge with or without 5 mM exogenous
H2O2 (Figure S15). It was also confirmed that
addition of H2O2 (5 mM) did not disrupt AON morphology as
no change in scattering behavior was observed (Figure S15b).
To address the functionality of the AONs as synthetic
organelles we assessed their capability to shield HEK293T cells
against the detrimental e
ffect of H2O2 (Figure S14), DLS and cryo-TEM were used to confirm the stability of AONs
after catalase encapsulation, surface modification with 2.5%
TAT, and purification (Figure S15). It was also confirmed that
addition of H2O2 (5 mM) did not disrupt AON morphology as
no change in scattering behavior was observed (Figure S15b).

**Functional analysis of AONs using primary skin
fibroblasts from a healthy individual (C5120) and a patient with isolated complex I
deficiency (S7-5175).** (a) Intracellular ROS assessed by CM-DCF fluorescence intensity measurements after treatment with 0.4 mg/mL polymersomes for 24 h prior to challenge with or without 0.5 mM H2O2 for 5 min. Data are presented as mean ± SD of 3 individual experiments after intr/experimental normalization to the sum of the values obtained. Significance was assessed using two-way ANOVA, followed by Bonferroni’s multiple comparisons test. Significant differences are indicated by *p < 0.01, ****p < 0.0001. (b, c) Effect of CBAC-AONs on cell integrity of (b) C5120 and (c) S7-5175 cells after a 1 h pulse treatment with a range of AON concentrations, followed by a 4 h chase period and a subsequent 24 h challenge with or without 0.1 mM H2O2. Data are presented as mean ± SD from 2 experiments performed in duplicate after intr/experimental normalization to the sum of the values obtained.

at all pH values measured (Figure S14). This difference in
activity is most probably accounted for by a difference in
intrinsc activity per unit enzyme. In accordance with the
decreased sensitivity to pH, at pH 4.5 the CBAC polymersomes
were more active by a factor of 19-fold (Figure S14b). DLS and cryo-TEM were used to confirm the stability of AONs
after catalase encapsulation, surface modification with 2.5%
TAT, and purification (Figure S15). It was also confirmed that
addition of H2O2 (5 mM) did not disrupt AON morphology as
no change in scattering behavior was observed (Figure S15b).

**ROS Shielding by AONs in Primary Skin Fibroblasts
from Patients with Isolated Mitochondrial Complex I
Deficiency.** Primary skin fibroblasts from patients with isolated mitochondrial complex I deficiency show an increased
oxidation of ROS probes, suggesting a mismatch between
ROS production and scavenging. Using primary skin
fibroblasts from a healthy individual (C5120) and a patient
with a mutation in the structural NDUFS7 subunit of CI (S7-
S175), we assessed the ability of the CBAC-AONs to protect
against H2O2 cytotoxicity. Evaluation of the CM-DCF signal
after 24 h of treatment with 0.4 mg/mL of AONs (followed by
a 5 min challenge with 0.5 mM exogenous H2O2) showed that
the H2O2-induced increase in fluorescence was virtually
completely blunted (Figure 6a). Both in nontreated cells and
in cells treated with empty 2.5% TAT-polymersomes the
H2O2-induced increase in CM-DCF fluorescence was signifi-
cantly higher in patient cells, suggesting a reduced capacity to
detoxify this ROS. Critically, this difference was no longer
observed following AON treatment, demonstrating a clear
improvement of the ROS detoxifying capability. To assess the
effect of AONs on H2O2 cytotoxicity, fibroblasts were pulse-
treated with polymersomes for 1 h followed by their removal
and a chase period of 4 h prior to a 24 h challenge with or
without 0.1 mM exogenous H2O2. Subsequent crystal violet
analysis demonstrated the dose-dependence of the effect of
CBAC-AONs in both healthy and patient fibroblasts (Figure
6b–c). In both cases complete prevention was obtained at an
AON concentration of 0.3 mg/mL. In comparison, free CBAC
at an equivalent concentration of 0.042 mg/mL had only a
minor, if any, preventive effect in both control and patient cells (Figure S16). These results are in agreement with the above conclusion that 2.5% TAT-polymersomes possess strong uptake-facilitating properties and, in addition, demonstrate that the activity of encapsulated CBAC is preserved for at least 28 h in the endolysosomal system.

**CONCLUSION**

In summary, we have shown the engineering of a biodegradable, intrinsically permeable nanoreactor, comprising enzyme-loaded PEG–PCL–TMC polymersomes, which, for the first time, demonstrate a therapeutic effect in primary human cells. These autonomous nanoreactors, when modified with cell-penetrating peptides, were capable of cellular integration, delivering macromolecular cargo via the endolysosomal system. To demonstrate functional engagement of these synthetic organelles within the cell, catalase-loaded, antioxidant nanorobots (AONs) were employed to achieve shielding from reactive oxygen species in both HEK293 cells and primary human fibroblasts. In robust biochemical assays, we demonstrated that AONs successfully protected the cells from exogenous H2O2-induced cell death and further demonstrated H2O2 detoxification using a fluorogenic ROS probe. The protection of particularly sensitive human fibroblasts puts the application of synthetic organelles in a therapeutically relevant context using primary tissue, with significant evidence of the function in vitro. This work, therefore, constitutes the development of a realizable therapeutic technology, facilitated by the synergy between materials engineering and biochemical analysis.

**METHODS AND MATERIALS**

All chemicals and enzymes were used as received unless otherwise stated. For the synthesis of the block copolymers, monodisperse heterobifunctional (methoxy-hydroxyl and methoxy-carboxyl) PEG macronitiators were purchased from Creative PEG Works. Trimethylene carbonate was purchased from Acros Organics. Ultrapure Milli-Q water, obtained from a Labconco Water Pro PS purification system (182 MΩ), was used for the polymersome preparation. Dialysis membrane from spectrum laboratories (1000 kDa MWCO) and Superose 6 (GE Healthcare) SEC column were used for purification. All enzymes were supplied by Sigma-Aldrich: catalase from bovine liver (E.C. 232-577-1, E3289), catalase from Corynebacterium glutamicum (E.C. 1.11.1.6, 02071), glucose oxidase from Aspergillus niger (E.C. 232-601-0, G7141), and horseradish peroxidase (E.C. 232-668-6, P6782). All chemicals, unless otherwise stated, were supplied by Sigma-Aldrich.

**Synthesis of Poly(ethylene glycol)-block-Poly(caprolactone-gradient-trimethylene carbonate).** This polymer was synthesized using ring-opening polymerization and MSA as a catalyst. The polymer chain length and the dispersity were determined by 1H NMR and GPC. The detailed synthetic procedure is described in the Supporting Information.

**General Procedure for Polymersome Formation and Encapsulation of Enzymes.** In a 5 mL vial, 20 μL of PEG–PCL–TMC block copolymer (10% in PEG 350 w/w) was added. A magnetic stirring bar was added, and a thin film of the polymer solution was created by slow stirring. Subsequently, 80 μL of aqueous solution was directly added, followed by continuous stirring for 5 min. Polymersomes were subsequently diluted until the desired concentration was reached. In order to encapsulate enzymes, polymersomes were prepared by addition of 80 μL of aqueous solution containing the desired concentration of enzyme(s) (typically 5–10 mg/mL) for encapsulation.

**Cell Culture.** HEK293T cells were grown as a monolayer in DMEM with GlutaMax, high glucose, and pyruvate (31966 Gibco, Life Technologies Invitrogen, Breda, The Netherlands) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal calf serum (FCS) (Gibco, Life Technologies Invitrogen) and 100 IU/mL penicillin/streptomycin (15140122 Life Technologies Invitrogen) in a humidified atmosphere of 95% air, 5% CO2, at 37 °C. Assay medium for HEK293T cells was without glucose, glutamine, phenol red, and sodium pyruvate (A14430-01, Gibco, Life Technologies), supplied with 10% FCS, 100 IU/mL penicillin/streptomycin, 2 mM L-glutamine (25303-024, Gibco, Life Technologies), 5 mM Na-glucose (8769 Gibco, Life Technologies), and 10 mM HEPES (15630056, Gibco, Life Technologies). Primary human skin fibroblasts were obtained following informed parental consent and according to the relevant Institutional Review Boards from skin biopsies of one healthy subject (CS120) and one patient in whom an isolated complex I deficiency was confirmed in both muscle tissue and cultured fibroblasts (S7-S175). Fibroblasts were grown in medium 199 (M-199) with Earle’s salts, L-glutamine, 25 mM HEPES, L-amino acids, and phenol red (12340030 Gibco, Life Technologies Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% (v/v) FCS and 100 IU/mL penicillin/streptomycin. Assay medium for fibroblasts contained no phenol red (11043-023, Gibco, Life Technologies Invitrogen).

**Confocal Microscopy for Visualizing Uptake in a Cell Monolayer.** Two days prior to imaging, HEK293T cells were seeded in complete medium at 40 000 cells/well on an 8-well cover-glass slide (155411, Nunc Lab-Tek Chamber slide 1.0 Borosilicate cover-glass, Nunc, Wiesbaden, Germany). One day before imaging, the medium was replaced by complete medium containing the appropriate concentration of polymersomes. After incubation, the medium including polymersomes was removed, and the cells were washed three times with PBS and imaged in assay medium. Colocalization markers CellMask green (C37608, Life Technologies Invitrogen) and CellMask deep red (C10046, Life Technologies Invitrogen) were used to stain the plasma membrane. Cells were incubated with the 1× working solution (provided solution is 1000×) for 3 min, washed three times with PBS, and imaged within 10 min in assay medium.

Imaging was performed with a TCS SPS confocal microscope (Leica Microsystems, Mannheim, Germany) equipped with an HCX PL APO 63× N.A. 1.2 water immersion objective. Cells were maintained at 37 °C on a temperature-controlled microscope stage. The polymersomes labeled with NBDand CellMask green were excited by an argon laser at 488 nm, and emission was collected between 500 and 550 nm. Polymersomes including BSA-Alexa647 and CellMask deep red were excited with a 633 nm HeNe laser, and emission was collected between 655 and 750 nm. Both green and red fluorescent labels were excited sequentially. Images were analyzed with Image Pro Plus 6.1 (Media Cybernetics, Rockville, MD) and FIJI software (http://fiji.sc/).

**Confocal Microscopy for Visualizing Cellular Trafficking in a Cell Monolayer.** Two days prior to imaging, HEK293T cells were seeded in complete medium at 40 000 cells/well on an 8-well cover-glass slide (155411, Nunc Lab-
Tek Chamber slide 1.0 Borosilicate cover-glass, Nunc, Wiesbaden, Germany). One day before imaging, the medium was replaced by complete medium containing the appropriate concentration of polymersomes. After incubation of 1 h, the medium including polymersomes was removed, and the cells were washed two times with PBS and for 24 h incubated with complete medium in a humidified atmosphere of 95% air, 5% CO₂ at 37 °C.

To stain the lysosomes, the cells were incubated with 75 nM LysoTracker green DND-26 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 1 h in a humidified atmosphere of 95% air, 5% CO₂ at 37 °C. After removal of staining, the cells were imaged in assay medium. Imaging was performed with a TCS SP8 microscope (Leica Microsystems, Mannheim, Germany) equipped with an HCX PL APO 63× N.A. 1.2. water immersion objective. Cells were maintained at 37 °C on a temperature-controlled microscope stage. LysoTracker green was excited by an argon laser at 488 nm, and emission was collected between 500 and 550 nm. Simultaneously, BSA-Alexa647 was excited with a white light laser at 647 nm, and emission was collected between 655 and 750 nm. Both emission signals were simultaneously recorded with avalanche photodiode/photomultiplier tubes hybrid detectors (HyD, Leica).

Images were analyzed with Image Pro Plus 6.1 (Media Cybernetics, Rockville, MD) and FIJI software (http://fiji.sc/).

Flow Cytometry for Visualizing Uptake of Polymersomes in a Cell Monolayer. HEK293T cells were seeded in 24-well plates (Sarstedt, Numbrecht, Germany) at 80 000 cells/well 2 days prior to measurement. Cells were incubated with the indicated concentration of polymersomes for 24 h. After incubation, the cells were washed 3x with PBS and detached by trypsinisation for 2–3 min, spun down, and resuspended in assay medium. The fluorescent signal of the polymersomes was measured using a FACSCalibur flow cytometer (BD BioSciences, Erembodegem, Belgium), and subsequently data were analyzed with FlowJo software. The cells were gated on the live population by forward and side scatter, and 10 000 cells were counted to determine cellular uptake by measure of mean cellular fluorescence in the FL-1 channel.

Flow Cytometry for Measuring ROS Levels. HEK293T cells were seeded in 24-well plates (Sarstedt, Numbrecht, Germany) at 80 000 cells/well and fibroblasts 40 000 cells/well, 2 days prior to measurement. Cells were incubated with the indicated concentration of polymersomes for 24 h. After incubation, the cells were washed 2x with PBS and stained with 5 μM CM-H₂DCFDA (C6827, Invitrogen) in assay medium for 30 min in a humidified atmosphere of 95% air, 5% CO₂ at 37 °C. The staining was aspirated, and subsequently 500 μM H₂O₂ (Scharlau, 30% w/w) in assay medium was added for 5 min in a humidified atmosphere of 95% air, 5% CO₂ at 37 °C. Next, cells were detached by trypsinisation for 2–3 min, spun down, and resuspended in 100 μL of assay medium. The fluorescent signal of H₂DCF was measured using a FACSCalibur flow cytometer (BD BioSciences, Erembodegem, Belgium), and subsequently data were analyzed with FlowJo software. The cells were gated on the live population by forward and side scatter, and 10 000 cells were counted to determine cellular uptake by measure of mean cellular fluorescence in the FL-1 channel.

Crystal Violet Assay. Cells were seeded in 24-well plates and subjected to the various treatments (e.g., dose-dependency polymersomes, H₂O₂). Next, the cells were washed with PBS and incubated for 10 min at room temperature (RT) in a staining solution consisting of 0.5% (w/v) crystal violet solution, 30% (v/v) ethanol, and 3% (v/v) formaldehyde. After staining, plates are rinsed with water followed by addition of a 1% (w/v) SDS solution for 30 min on an orbital shaker. The amount of resolubilized crystal violet can be used as a readout of relative cell numbers by absorbance measurements (550 nm) using a microplate spectrophotometer (Benchmark Plus, Biorad, The Netherlands).

Statistical Analysis. The number of independent experiments is marked by n, each experiment performed in duplicate. Average values are represented as mean ± SD. Values were tested for significance using the two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) at 95% confidence level (p < 0.05), followed by Tukey’s multiple comparisons test (Graph Pad Prism software, version 6), unless stated otherwise. Significant differences are indicated by *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001.

No unexpected or unusually high safety hazards were encountered during this research.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acscentsc.8b00336.

Characterization of polymersomes and their assembly using different direct hydration formulations, cellular uptake, subcellular distribution studies, and characterization of catalase-loaded AONs (PDF)

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Notes

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