

# Gadolinium oxide for molecular and cellular MRI: A cautionary tale

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**INTRODUCTION:** Superparamagnetic iron oxide particles generate dark contrast on T<sub>2</sub> or T<sub>2</sub>\* weighted MRI. A perceived drawback to their usage for cell tracking is that dark contrast in MRI can be generated by other biological and physical phenomena. To avoid these ambiguities, a potential mechanism for producing bright contrast for labeled cells in MRI is to use high r<sub>1</sub> relaxivity contrast agents. Cells would then appear bright on T<sub>1</sub> weighted MRI. Recently, Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> has been investigated for targeted MRI (1). Depending on size, Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> can have an r<sub>1</sub> of ~ 10 mM<sup>-1</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> (1). Thus, Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> appears to be a good candidate for an MRI-based cell tracking agent which would enable bright contrast on T<sub>1</sub> weighted MRI. But it's not that straightforward.

In this work, we fabricated and characterized polymer encapsulated Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals. We then assayed them to determine whether they would be suitable for MRI-based cell tracking, both in terms of MRI properties, as well as safety. It was found that polymer encapsulated Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals have sufficient r<sub>1</sub> relaxivity to enable MRI-based cell tracking, however, similar to inorganic manganese based materials (2), Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals rapidly dissolve in acidic conditions which mimic the endosomal/lysosomal environment within the cells to form Gd<sup>3+</sup> ions. As such, this is a cautionary tale in the use of Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals for MRI-based cell tracking.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS:** Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals were synthesized by thermal decomposition of gadolinium (III) acetylacetonate. PLGA encapsulated Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles were formed using a single emulsion technique. Weight percents of Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> to PLGA during fabrication were 0, 10, 30 or 50%. Oleic acid was used as an excipient to enhance encapsulation. Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals and intact PLGA encapsulated particles were characterized by powder x-ray diffraction (XRD), transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Total Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> content of the particles was measured by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP). r<sub>1</sub> molar relaxivity of Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> embedded particles was measured at 4.0 Tesla.

Dissolution studies were performed on both naked Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals as well as Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> doped PLGA nanoparticles, in both PBS pH 7.4 and 20 mM citrate buffer, pH 5.0, mimicking both cytosolic and lysosomal environments, respectively. To evaluate the ability of the NPs to label cells, either 0, 50, 100 or 200 µl of 10 mg/ml Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> 50 wt% NP in 10 ml media was added to confluent culture dishes of cells (~ 5 million cells) and allowed to incubate for 24 hours. Cells were then washed with PBS to remove free particles, trypsinized, and centrifuged to form cell pellets. Cells were also tested for viability. Cell pellets then underwent T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub> mapping at 4.0 Tesla. Bright field photomicrographs of labeled cells were also acquired. After MRI, ICP was again used to determine amount of Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> internalized into cells.

**RESULTS and DISCUSSION:** TEM revealed that Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals were 3-5 nm. XRD identified the crystal structure of the Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> with broad lines confirming the extreme small size of the nanocrystals. Figure 1A,B show SEM of PLGA encapsulated Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles for formulations containing 0 and 50 wt% Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Smooth, spherical nanoparticles with low polydispersity were obtained with sizes of 182.2 +/- 50.6, 131.4 +/- 30.4 and 142.0 +/- 38.8 nm, for 0, 30 and 50 wt %, respectively. Encapsulation efficiencies as high as ~ 60% and total Gd content of ~ 20% wt% were obtained for different formulations. The r<sub>1</sub> molar relaxivity of PLGA encapsulated Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles was measured to be 1.9 mM<sup>-1</sup>sec<sup>-1</sup>, larger than previously reported manganese based nanoparticles for molecular and cellular MRI (3-5).

Dissolution of Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> cores in citrate to form Gd<sup>3+</sup> occurred rapidly, with nearly half dissolving within 18 minutes, while there was negligible dissolution in PBS (Figure 2A). In addition to dissolution of Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> cores, evolution of Gd<sup>3+</sup> from PLGA encapsulated Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was investigated over the course of 2 days, again in PBS and citrate buffer. While dissolution of Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> cores in PBS was negligible over 48 hours in PBS, Figure 2B shows that ~90% of the Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> cores was dissolved by 1 hour and 99% at 24 hours. These rates of metallic core dissolution, both as naked cores and as polymer encapsulated cores, are much faster than we have measured for both iron oxide and manganese oxide, and are likely due to the extremely small size of the Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> synthesized in this work.

Lastly, cells were labeled with different amounts of Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> particles for 24 hours. Viability at 24 hours via trypan blue staining was >95% for all samples. Cell pellets were subjected to T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub> mapping by MRI. Figure 3A,B show the T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub> data from the different cell treatments. As can be seen, cells labeled with more Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> particles have shorter T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub>. However, for each treatment group, the change in R<sub>2</sub>, which is linear with respect to concentration of agent, greatly exceeded the change in R<sub>1</sub>. This means that internalized Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> NPs are more efficient T<sub>2</sub> agents than T<sub>1</sub> agents. This is not surprising given the body of work describing the quenching of Gd<sup>3+</sup> relaxivity in intracellular environment (6), and the likely formation of Gd<sup>3+</sup> inside cells following internalization.

**CONCLUSION:** Polymer encapsulated Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals have sufficient r<sub>1</sub> relaxivity to enable MRI-based cell tracking and can be internalized into phagocytic cells, resulting in T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub> enhancement. However, Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals rapidly dissolve in acidic conditions which mimic the endosomal/lysosomal environment within the cells, evolving Gd<sup>3+</sup>. Despite high cellular viability at 24 hours, this has severe implications not only for MRI-based cell tracking, but also for targeted Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals, as following systemic administration, some particles could be phagocytosed in the RES and could potentially form Gd<sup>3+</sup>. While this might not necessarily kill the cells, there is little doubt as to the contribution of Gd<sup>3+</sup> to NSF. As such, caution is urged for the use of Gd based particles for molecular and cellular MRI.

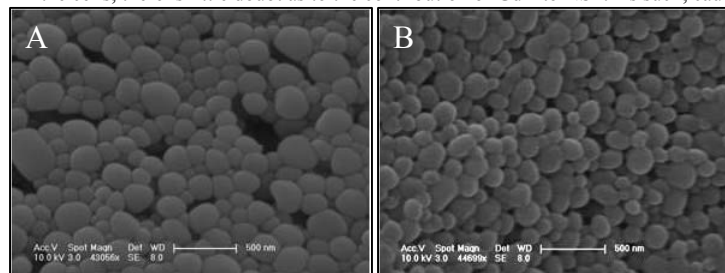


Figure 1: SEM of A) empty and B) 50 wt % Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> PLGA nanoparticles.

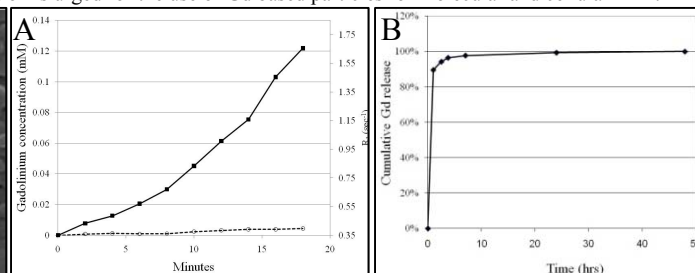


Figure 2: A) Evolution of Gd<sup>3+</sup> in citrate buffer (solid line) and PBS (dotted line) from Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> cores. B) Gd<sup>3+</sup> evolution from Gd<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> doped PLGA nanoparticles in citrate buffer.

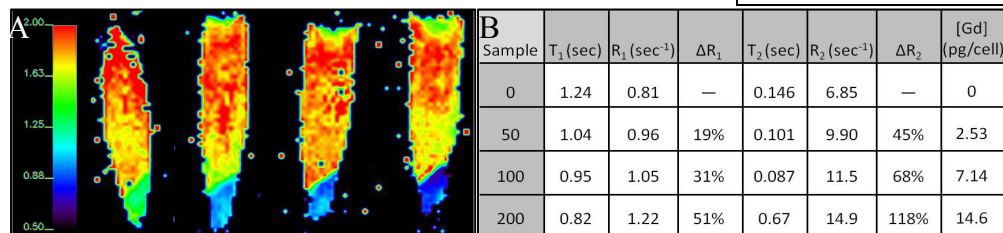


Figure 3: A) False colored T<sub>1</sub> maps of four different cell samples loaded with 0, 50, 100 or 200 µl of labeling solution for 24 hours, from left to right. Cell pellets are displayed in green or blue. Scale bar is T<sub>1</sub> in seconds. B) Table showing T<sub>1</sub>, R<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub>, R<sub>2</sub> for cell pellets, coordinated with amount of internalized Gd.

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