



外泌体靶向修饰的研究进展

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摘要 近年来, 外泌体在生物医学领域的研究热度一直很高, 尤其是随着研究的深入, 其在作为治疗药物或载体的优势逐渐成为研究人员关注的热点. 外泌体是几乎所有细胞都会分泌的一种细胞外囊泡, 不同细胞类型分泌的外泌体也不同, 其磷脂双分子层结构使它在细胞间的相容性很好, 并具有一定的靶向性, 在精准医疗领域具有良好的应用前景. 外泌体的细胞外摄取机制复杂, 主要通过内吞作用或膜融合的方式内化外泌体. 为了提高外泌体对特定组织或器官的靶向特异性, 现阶段的主流方法是通过修饰外泌体表面来实现. 靶向修饰外泌体的方式主要分为生物化学方式和物理方式. 但即使采用相同的靶向修饰方式作用于不同来源的外泌体, 修饰后的工程化外泌体的生物性效应也表现不一. 故此, 标准化的外泌体表面靶向修饰联合载药可能成为今后研究的主流. 本文阐述了外泌体的生物发生过程及细胞外摄取方式, 综述了外泌体的靶向修饰方式, 其中重点总结了各类外泌体靶向修饰方式的研究进展, 并对外泌体靶向修饰的应用前景进行了展望.

关键词 细胞外囊泡, 外泌体, 靶向, 归巢性, 表面修饰, 内吞作用

外泌体是一种天然的纳米级细胞外囊泡, 具有理想的生物相容性和稳定性, 现阶段对于外泌体的研究主要集中在作为潜在生物标志物对疾病进行诊断、监测^[1]、介导免疫^[2]以及载药工程^[3]. 外泌体具有低免疫原性、高生物活性物质转移潜力和高生物相容性等特点, 使其成为当前生命科学研究的热点, 但不同来源的外泌体在不同组织细胞中的富集程度不同, 对不同组织细胞的调控作用也不同^[4]. 例如, 炎症组织的细胞优先吸收T细胞释放的外泌体^[5], 有研究表明, 天然外泌体在全身给药后, 在肿瘤蓄积和血液循环时间方面没有比脂质体有明显的差异^[6]. 多项研究报道了外泌体在循环中主要在肝脏和脾脏中蓄积^[7-9]. 由于天然外泌体本身的靶向性并不高, 为了增加天然外泌体在特

定组织器官中的富集, 有研究者通过对天然外泌体表面进行修饰, 而大量研究表明, 外泌体表面修饰能增强其靶向性, 并载药对特定的组织或器官进行治疗. 但外泌体与细胞表面的相互作用以及介导外泌体递送的机制尚未完全阐明. 本文综述了外泌体在细胞外的摄取方式, 其中重点综述了各种先进的外泌体表面修饰方式, 最后对外泌体靶向修饰的应用前景及挑战进行了展望.

1 靶向外泌体的生物学结构与功能

几乎所有原核生物和真核生物的细胞都会释放细胞外囊泡(extracellular vesicle, EV), 作为其正常生理活动的一部分. 细胞外囊泡是由国际细胞外囊泡学会创

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造的术语,根据细胞外囊泡的生物合成及其分子大小密度分为:外泌体直径为40~160 nm,密度约为 $1.11\sim 1.19\text{ g mL}^{-1}$;微粒/微囊泡(microparticles/micro vesicles)直接从质膜释放,直径约为100~1000 nm;凋亡小体(apoptotic body/bleb)直径约为50 nm~2 μm ,由细胞凋亡产生;肿瘤小泡(large endosomes)直径约为1~10 μm ,由肿瘤细胞释放产生;其他各种EV亚群^[10]。外泌体的产生过程涉及质膜的双重内陷和含有腔内囊泡(intralumenal vesicles, ILVs)的多囊体(multivesicular bodies, MVBs)形成,通过MVB与质膜融合和胞吐作用,ILV最终作为外泌体分泌。质膜的第一次内凹成一个杯状结构,形成早期内吞体(early endosome, ESE),其中包含细胞表面蛋白和与细胞外环境相关的可溶性蛋白,在某些情况下,新形成的ESE可直接与先前存在的ESE融合^[11~13],ESE也可进一步成熟为晚期内吞体(late endosome, LSE),并最终成熟为MVBs。由于MVBs是内吞体限制膜向内凹陷(即质膜的双重内陷)形成的,这一过程使得MVBs内含有多个ILV(未来的外泌体),成熟后的MVB既可以与溶酶体或自噬体融合降解,也可以与质膜融合将所含的ILV作为外泌体释放(图1(a))。外泌体内含有许多细胞成分,包括DNA、RNA、脂质、代谢产物、细胞质和细胞表面蛋白质等^[14]。

大量研究表明,外泌体中特定细胞成分使其功能

复杂多样,且具有一定的靶向性,能参与到机体的免疫应答、抗原提呈、细胞迁移、细胞分化、肿瘤侵袭等生理过程,调节细胞间的通讯^[15]。而工程靶向外泌体的结构主要分为两部分:外泌体和膜修饰部分。外泌体部分主要是各种不同来源的外泌体,而对于膜的修饰,目前使用的修饰材料主要有蛋白质、肽、纳米材料等。通过各种外泌体膜表面修饰方式,将膜修饰材料负载到外泌体上,从而使修饰后的外泌体在组织器官间选择性地积累,并将副作用降低。

分泌后的外泌体主要通过两种不同的方式进入靶细胞:(1)内吞作用。外泌体进入细胞最主要的机制,可以通过钙黏蛋白、免疫球蛋白、选择蛋白、黏蛋白和整合蛋白等细胞黏附因子来介导。(2)膜融合。内吞作用的方式多种多样,如大胞饮^[16,17]、吞噬作用^[18]、网格蛋白介导的内吞作用^[16,19]、小穴蛋白依赖的内吞作用^[20,21]、脂筏依赖的内吞作用^[22~24]和网格蛋白/小穴蛋白不依赖的内吞作用^[25],而膜融合的方式则是通过外泌体膜和靶细胞膜的融合或半融合,使外泌体的内容物进入细胞内^[26~28],继而发挥其生物效应(图1(b))。

目前,外泌体的细胞外摄取仍然是一个未完成的难题,深入研究外泌体在细胞外摄取的机制,可以使研究者了解外泌体与靶细胞之间是以何种方式被摄取发挥作用的,为外泌体靶向修饰提供思路,并且已经有研

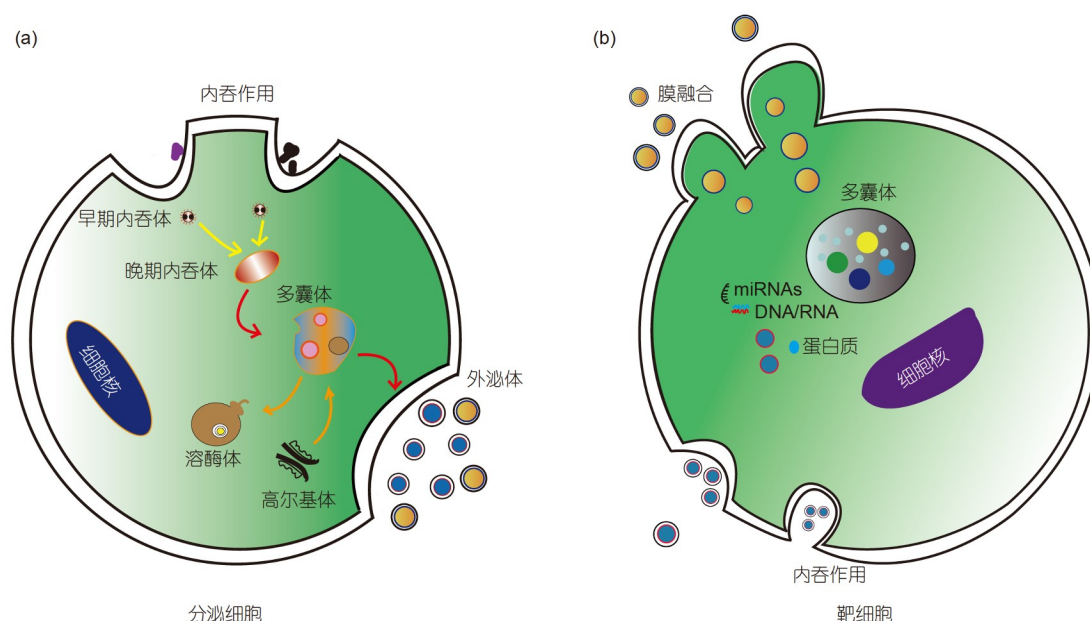


图1 (网络版彩色)外泌体的合成分泌及细胞外摄取示意图。(a) 外泌体形成及分泌过程; (b) 外泌体的胞外摄取方式

Figure 1 (Color online) Schematic diagram of exosome biogenesis, secretion, and extracellular uptake. (a) The process of exosome formation and secretion; (b) the extracellular uptake mechanisms of exosomes

研究者根据内吞作用所涉及的介导蛋白, 开发出胆固醇偶联适配体^[29,30], 根据膜融合的内吞方式, 开发出外泌体与脂质体的杂交外泌体并负载靶向肽^[31,32], 以此来增强外泌体的靶向性. 虽然许多不同的吸收机制及重要的内化相关蛋白已经被确认, 但关于哪种机制起作用, 何时起作用, 以及对哪些细胞起作用, 目前仍不清楚, 外泌体的细胞外摄取仍值得我们继续深入研究, 从而推动外泌体研究的进一步发展.

2 引导外泌体靶向识别的工程方式

选择性地积累生物活性物质并将副作用降至最低的理想方式是通过瞄准靶器官或组织来实现的. 虽然细胞分泌的外泌体具有一定的归巢能力, 但由于外泌体的种类繁多, 并且外泌体的表面有丰富的蛋白质, 所以外泌体的组织特异性并不明显. 现阶段研究者主要

通过对外泌体表面进行修饰, 以提高其靶向能力. 本文总结了目前研究者常用的外泌体表面修饰方式, 主要分为两大类: 生物化学方式和物理方式(图2).

2.1 生物化学方式

2.1.1 基因工程

外泌体的基因工程遗传修饰是使其表面功能化的有效方法^[33]. 外泌体膜由跨膜蛋白组成, 如LAMP-2B、GPI、CD63、CD9、CD81等, 其可与靶向适配体结合, 以提高外泌体的特异性传递^[34]. 基因工程修饰外泌体表面常用的方式是通过质粒转染, 产生含有目标蛋白的外泌体^[35]. 外泌体膜表面表达溶酶体相关膜蛋白2B(LAMP-2B), 使外泌体表面出现了一个大的N端LAMP-2B膜外结构域, 为研究者提供了一个融合靶点^[36]. 有研究者以此为融合靶点开发了外泌体iRGD

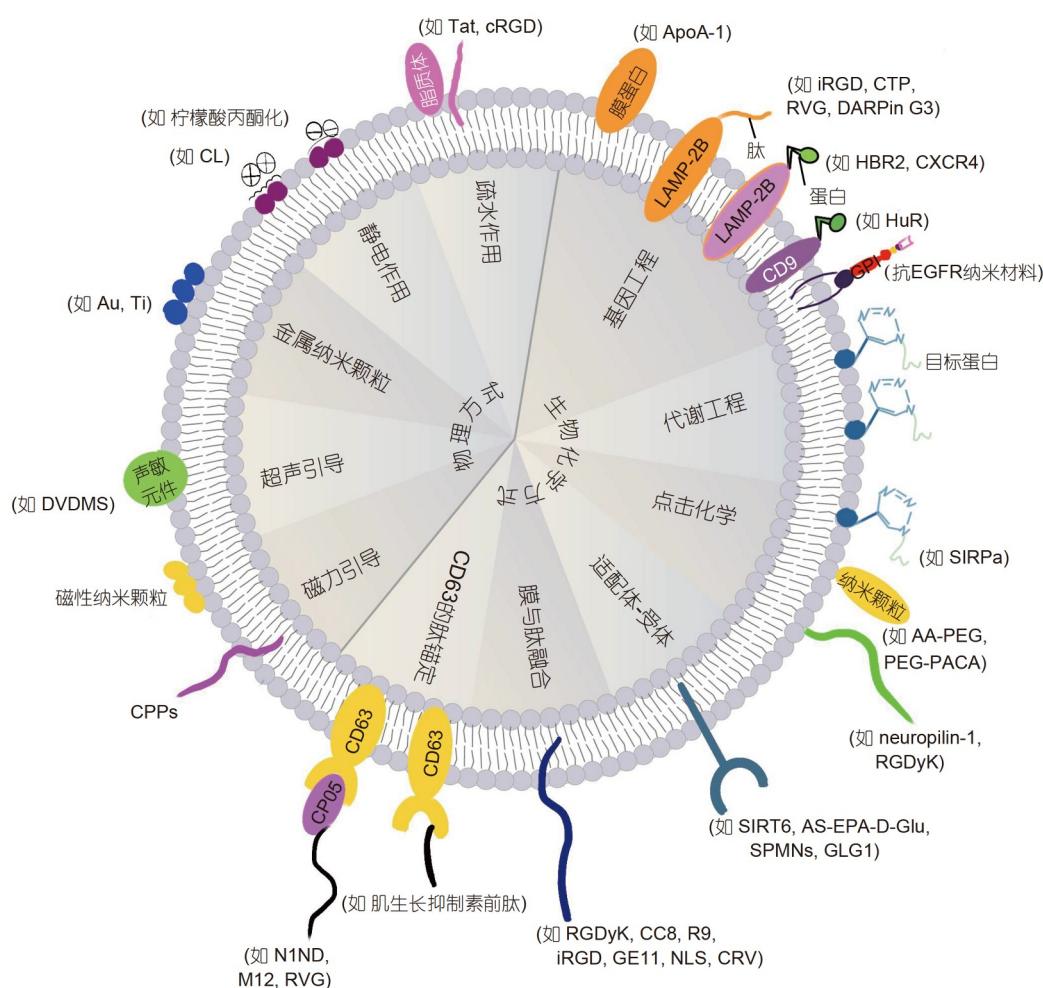


图2 (网络版彩色) 外泌体靶向工程化方式及内容归纳图

Figure 2 (Color online) Exosome-targeting engineering methods and content summary diagram

(CRGDKGPDC)-LAMP-2B, 通过将pEGFP-C1-iRGD-LAMP-2B基因转染未成熟的树突状细胞, 从而得到含有该融合靶点的外泌体^[37]。同样, 有研究将Her2融合到LAMP-2B的N端, 使Her2-LAMP2融合蛋白在外泌体表面表达, 通过表皮生长因子受体(epidermal growth factor receptor, EGFR)介导的肿瘤细胞内吞作用加速靶向细胞摄取, 从而有效地靶向结肠癌细胞^[38]。也有研究通过心脏特异性靶向肽CTP(APWHLSSQYSRT)构建了pc-DNA-CTP-LAMP-2B融合体, 再利用慢病毒共同转染到HEK293细胞中, 培育产生了心脏靶向外泌体^[39]。同时, 有研究用LAMP-2B修饰的pEGFP-C1载体转染树突状细胞, 产生了狂犬病病毒糖蛋白(rabies virus glycoprotein, RVG)功能化的外泌体^[40]。由于慢性白血病细胞中高表达白细胞素-3受体 α , 因而有研究将白细胞素-3(interleukin-3, IL-3)基因融合到LAMP-2B的N端, 从而提高外泌体治疗慢性白血病的靶向能力^[41]。研究表明, 利用LAMP-2B-DARPin G3嵌合基因的慢病毒载体转导HEK293T细胞, 能够产生含有DARPin G3的外泌体, 然后将siRNA装载到这种外泌体里面, 发现这些外泌体可以特异性靶向SKBR3细胞并传递siRNA分子, 从而抑制基因的表达^[42](图3)。

此后, 有研究用编码CD9-HuR的质粒pc-DNA转染

HEK293T细胞, 开发了新型的CD9-HuR表面功能化外泌体, 提高了外泌体的靶向性以及药物装载效率^[43]。外泌体表面有ApoA-1, 是高密度脂蛋白的关键功能蛋白, 能够与在肝癌细胞上富集的清道夫受体B1(scavenger receptor B1, SR-B1)结合。因此, 有研究表明, 将基因*ApoA-1*插入HEK293T细胞中, 能从过表达*ApoA-1*的供体细胞中纯化外泌体, 并通过电穿孔法装载miR-26a, 发现这些外泌体能够通过SR-B1选择性地与HepG2细胞结合, 然后被受体介导的内吞作用捕获, 而miRNA-26a在HepG2细胞中的成功释放降低了癌细胞的迁移和增殖^[44]。相同地, 有研究用基因工程方法生产了靶向外泌体125I-SAV-LA-Exos^[45]。另外, 外泌体表面的37个残基糖基磷脂酰肌醇(glycosyl-phosphatidyl-inositol, GPI)信号肽DAF可以连接不同蛋白质的C端, 如受体蛋白或抗体等。例如, GPI锚定的EGFR特纳米体能特异性靶向EGFR阳性的人表皮样鳞状癌细胞^[46]。最近有研究发现, 基质细胞衍生因子-1(stromal cell derived factor-1, SDF1)在骨髓中高度富集, 并且C-X-C基序趋化因子受体4(chemokine (C-X-C motif) receptor 4, CXCR4)与造血干细胞归巢和肿瘤骨转移有密切联系, 因此他们通过基因工程NIH-3T3细胞产生了膜表面表达CXCR4⁺的外泌体, 并发现CXCR4⁺外泌体能选择地积累在骨髓

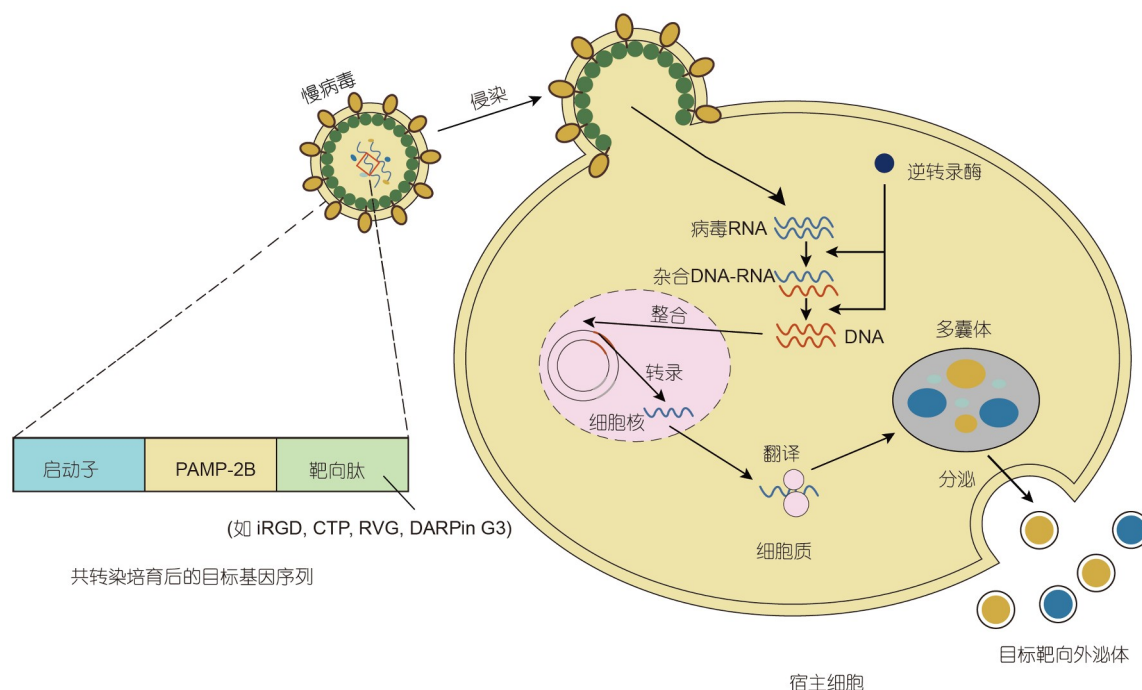


图3 (网络版彩色)慢病毒感染宿主细胞产生靶向外泌体示意图

Figure 3 (Color online) Schematic diagram of lentivirus infecting host cells to produce targeted exosomes

中^[47].

肽是最被广泛探索的靶向配体,因为它们分子量小,对目标细胞/组织的结合亲和力与特异性强、免疫刺激活性低、毒性小,并且它们可以很容易地被修改,仿生肽也可以很容易地被合成.根据对天然配体-受体相互作用的了解,或通过筛选大量的肽库,可以很容易地合成多肽^[48,49].然而,在外泌体的形成过程中,肽容易被细胞内的溶酶体蛋白酶降解,使得肽的合成具有挑战性,为了提高外泌体表面肽的稳定性,有研究将糖基化序列与特异性肽结合,然后再融合到LAMP-2B的N端,从而防止特异性肽被降解^[50].也有研究通过基因工程将靶向肽序列与糖基化序列(GNSTM)结合起来,利用GNSTM来防止靶向肽的降解.然而,在产生外泌体的细胞中进行基因水平的修改是充满挑战的,并且在外泌体膜上引入的靶向分子可能会影响外泌体膜蛋白的正常功能^[24].

2.1.2 代谢工程

除了基因工程,外泌体亲本细胞也可以通过代谢工程来赋予外泌体新的成分和功能.代谢工程主要是改变了细胞内源性的合成和修饰过程,避免了对基因操作的需要.AHA是一种含有叠氮的氨基酸类似物,当外泌体亲本细胞培养基中加入AHA干预时,外源性叠氮化物就会被引入到新合成的蛋白质中,并且也会被引入到亲本细胞分泌的外泌体当中.同样地,亲本细胞的培养基中加入ManNAz培养时,含叠氮的糖类就会被引入到亲本细胞分泌的外泌体膜表面糖类中^[51],通过生物正交化学来实现外泌体的功能化.这种方法已经被应用于将荧光标签和模型蛋白连接到外泌体上^[52].虽然代谢工程能够将外泌体功能化,但很难控制结合部位的特异性和对效率的控制.

2.1.3 点击化学

点击化学是一种常见的外泌体表面修饰技术,主要有4种类型:环加成、亲和开环、羰基化学、碳-碳多键加成.其中最常见点击化学修饰外泌体反应就是乙炔基团叠加反应^[53],一个炔基通过叠加的方式连接到分离的外泌体上,然后乙基-3-(3-二甲氨基丙基)碳二亚胺-N-羟基琥珀酰亚胺(EDC-NHS)缩合反应,最后在铜离子的作用下,将其与目标分子的叠氮基团共轭.点击与传统的化学反应不同,传统化学反应涉及温度或压力的波动和不适当的盐浓度而导致渗透压的变化,从而导致外泌体膜的破坏或外泌体的聚集.而点击化学反应非常高效,因为它可以在有机溶剂和水性缓冲

液中进行,反应时间短,并且共轭反应对外泌体的大小没有任何影响,也不影响外泌体在目标细胞中的摄取,这表明外泌体表面改性的反应条件是合适的.有研究将来自小鼠4T1细胞外泌体的氨基与4-戊炔酸的羧基交联起来,发生碳二亚胺反应,然后通过叠氮-氟545的连接叠加在一起^[54].有研究将超顺磁性氧化铁纳米粒子和姜黄素加载到外泌体中,然后通过点击化学将外泌体膜与neuropilin-1靶向肽(RGERPPR, RGE)偶联,获得了具有成像和治疗功能的胶质瘤靶向外泌体^[55].有研究将外泌体与结合了叠氮化物的脂质体融合,并通过无铜点击化学的方法使其与靶向配体偶联,使其具有靶向特定癌细胞的能力^[31].也有研究通过点击化学的方法开发了一种结合了氨基聚乙二醇(aminoethyl polyethylene glycol, AA-PEG)且负载了紫杉醇的外泌体,靶向肺癌细胞过表达的sigma受体,在全身给药后能够在癌细胞中积累,并增加了疗效^[56].有研究运用点击化学开发了抗A β 1-42功能化聚乙二醇化氰丙烯酸十六烷基聚醚(PEG-氰丙烯酸酯)纳米颗粒,并对其在阿尔茨海默病(Alzheimer's disease, AD)转基因小鼠中的治疗效果进行了评估,发现点击化学修饰的纳米颗粒与A β 靶向配体的作用增强,避免了用特定配体标记纳米颗粒穿过血脑屏障的复杂过程,为治疗AD提供了一种新的更经济简单的方法^[57].同样,c(RGDyK)是一种与整合素 $\alpha v \beta 3$ 具有高亲和力的肽,在缺血后反应性脑血管内皮细胞中表达.有研究通过点击化学将其偶联到间充质干细胞衍生的外泌体表面,发现c(RGDyK)肽标记的外泌体对小鼠缺血性脑损伤区域的靶向性比未修饰的外泌体高11倍^[58].外泌体表面修饰可增强对肿瘤细胞的免疫应答,肿瘤细胞表面表达的CD47可与吞噬细胞上的信号调节蛋白 α 相互作用,导致巨噬细胞的吞噬活性降低.有研究通过点击化学将二苯环辛炔衍生化的SIRP α 抗体与叠氮化物修饰的外泌体结合,发现该工程化外泌体可以抑制肿瘤细胞的生长^[59].

外泌体亲本细胞的代谢工程也是基于点击化学的另一种将外泌体表面功能化的策略.在点击化学的帮助下,可以进一步将外泌体与靶向或标记分子融合^[60].有研究通过叠氮修饰得到标记外泌体,可用于检测其体内的分布^[61].然而,非特异性的靶向分子在外泌体表面的非特异性结合,限制了外泌体表面点击化学的使用.

2.1.4 适配体-受体结合

适配体与外泌体膜表面分子连接是一种新兴的外

泌体表面功能化方式,其能够与特定配体相互作用。适配体是可以结合多种配体的寡核苷酸,通过指数富集配体的系统进化^[62],其高亲和力和特异性可与抗体媲美。研究发现,E3诱导剂修饰的外泌体携带的SIRT6 siRNA可以被癌细胞特异性识别,并抑制与前列腺癌进展有关的SIRT6表达^[63]。另外,有研究将转铁蛋白与超顺磁性纳米粒子结合,并附着在血液网状细胞衍生的外泌体上,使该外泌体具有更强的特异性^[64]。也有研究通过将生物素附着在人脐静脉内皮细胞的外泌体上,直接将受体引入外泌体表面,然后通过阿维菌素-生物素的相互作用增加外泌体的靶向性^[65]。研究表明,通过使用胆固醇偶联适配体AS1411修饰外泌体,可以将miR-21靶向递送至白血病细胞,提高疗效^[29]。随后,有研究报道,涂布聚乳酸-羟基乙酸的外泌体能被AS1411适配体再次修饰,通过小鼠静脉给药,使外泌体的膜表面AS1411适配体与肿瘤细胞膜上的核蛋白特异性结合,提高了肿瘤的靶向性,为制造和功能化生物膜包裹纳米颗粒靶向药物递送的应用提供了新方法^[30]。有研究用 α -D-甘露糖修饰牛血清源性外泌体表面,使其易于与树突状细胞上的甘露糖受体相互作用,并能有效地向树突状细胞递送免疫刺激物^[66]。最近,通过研究膜表面特异性配体发现,高尔基体糖蛋白1(golgi apparatus protein 1, GLG1)具有骨靶向性,因此在携带有Wnt激动剂1的外泌体表面加载GLG1,通过静脉给药,发现该工程化外泌体能在骨中积累,并可以减轻结肠炎小鼠的骨质流失,促进骨形成,加速骨折愈合^[67]。

2.1.5 膜与肽融合

外泌体可以通过与靶组织具有高亲和力的肽结合,使药物能够到达靶组织并积累。RGD肽由精氨酸、甘氨酸和天冬氨酸组成,存在于多种细胞外基质中,可特异性结合 α V β 3、 α V β 5、 α 5 β 1、 α M β 2等整合素。为了提高外泌体的靶向性,可以将功能配体偶联到外泌体表面,有研究将c(RGDyK)肽与外泌体结合后静脉注射,工程化的外泌体能运载miR-210靶向治疗缺血性脑损伤区域^[68]。研究表明,八肽CC8(CNGQGEEQC)可特异性结合整合素 α 3 β 1,而整合素 α 3 β 1在非小细胞性肺癌细胞中高表达,因此CC8被用作修饰外泌体的靶向配体^[69]。有研究开发了HepG2细胞衍生外泌体的纳米系统,其表面附着了聚精氨酸肽(R9),它可以通过多精氨酸肽与膜相关蛋白聚糖的相互作用,将反义寡核苷酸G3139更有效地递送到靶细胞^[70]。研究表明,将av整合素特异性iRGD肽融合到外泌体膜蛋白LAMP-2B上,能够

增强外泌体的肿瘤靶向性^[71]。GE11肽是一种能够跟EGFR受体特异性结合的合成肽,经GE11肽修饰的外泌体,可以有效地将let-7a miRNA传递到表达EGFR的小鼠异种移植乳腺癌组织中,从而显著抑制肿瘤生长^[7]。另外,有研究将神经受体激动剂肽iRGD和缺氧反应性脂质结合到从牛奶提纯出来的外泌体脂质双分子层中,并负载抗癌药物阿霉素,产生了肽靶向的低氧反应性牛奶外泌体iDHRX,研究证实该外泌体靶向三阴性乳腺癌细胞表面过表达的 α y β 3整合素^[72]。有研究用光敏剂与NLS肽的结合对内源性外泌体进行修饰,发现修饰后的外泌体具有良好的生物相容性,并且具有细胞膜和细胞核的双重靶向能力,从而提高了光动力治疗的疗效^[73]。最近,研究表明,将肿瘤相关巨噬细胞(tumor-associated-macrophage, TAM)特异性肽CRV(CRVLRSRSGSC)设计在肺癌细胞衍生的外泌体膜表面,获得了CRV工程外泌体来伪装纳米颗粒,它分别通过同型靶向和TAM特异性肽来靶向肺癌细胞和TAMs,极大地提高了对肺癌的疗效^[74]。

2.1.6 膜CD63的肽锚定

CD63分子是外泌体表面高表达的跨膜蛋白^[75],而CP05多肽对CD63分子有极高的亲和力,同时外泌体表面也有较多CD63分子,因此它可以作为靶向肽或治疗分子和外泌体表面之间的锚定点。CP05肽锚定CD63的修饰方式消除了用传统方法将药物装入外泌体(如转染、电穿孔或冻融)时产生的药物装载不良的问题,因为CP05肽能与治疗物质直接结合,而不是将治疗药物装载到外泌体中。并且研究表明,CP05肽锚定的修饰可以保持外泌体的原有大小和形态特征,且对其体内分布没有影响^[46]。目前,有研究将CP05肽锚定于高迁移率核小体结合蛋白1(high-mobility group nucleosome binding domain 1, HMGN1)的功能域N1ND,增强了树突状细胞刺激T细胞的能力,对癌症的免疫疗法有较好的效果^[76]。同时,肌肉靶向肽M12(RRQPPRSISSHP)和RVG也可与CP05修饰的外泌体相结合,改善其对周围肌肉和大脑的传递^[77,78]。CP05多肽的发现为将靶向肽或治疗性物质负载到外泌体表面提供了一种简单的方法。另外,有研究通过将肌生长抑制素前肽的抑制结构融合锚定在外泌体跨膜蛋白CD63上,发现锚定外泌体增加了前肽的递送和血清稳定性,增强了肌生长抑制素前肽的抑制效果^[79]。目前,将外泌体表面高表达的跨膜蛋白CD63作为一个锚定点,已得到初步开发,但其他跨膜蛋白,如CD9、CD81,尚未作为新的锚定点被

开发,具有很大的开发潜力.

生物化学方式是目前最常用的外泌体靶向修饰方式,并且修饰效率高、改造特异性强以及结合位点准确等优势,但对技术人员的操作及实验器械的要求相对较高(表1).

2.2 物理方式

2.2.1 静电作用

静电作用的修饰方式是利用异性电荷相吸的原理,将同种电荷涂抹到外泌体膜表面,从而提高外泌体对带异种电荷生物膜的靶向效率^[60].有研究将阳离子脂质(cationic lipid, CL)融合到外泌体表面,从而使外泌体表面具有正电荷,提高了包裹葡聚糖大分子(70 kD)外泌体在细胞间的摄取以及胞内的释放^[80].另外,有研究发现,外泌体表面的负电荷很容易被柠檬酸丙酮化修饰为更高的负电荷,在血清蛋白存在的条件下,高负电荷的外泌体更容易进入到巨噬细胞里面^[81].但是使外泌体表面所带电荷也存在一些不利影响,能够使膜变薄,产生形成孔、膜侵蚀等,从而使靶细胞膜的磷脂双分子层结构出现缺陷^[82].

2.2.2 疏水作用/膜融合

由于表面有磷脂双分子层结构,外泌体可以通过疏水作用与脂质体连接^[83].首先,脂质体可以连接到靶向肽或聚乙二醇,然后通过冻融法将外泌体和脂质体膜融合,且不改变外泌体表面原有的糖蛋白,从而得到具有靶向作用的外泌体^[31,32].有研究设计了外泌体与脂质体的膜融合,使外泌体的膜表面通过直接膜融合被改变,从而提高了外泌体在血液中的半衰期.最近,

有研究制备了Tat肽(YGRKKRRQRRR)-PEG-脂质修饰外泌体膜表面,从而改善外泌体在内皮细胞的递送^[84].也有研究制备了CD47转基因的融合纳米粒子肿瘤外泌体与脂质体的融合体,该融合体表面再用肿瘤靶向的cRGD肽修饰,发现该融合体不仅可以集中于癌症组织,而且可以避免体内单核吞噬细胞系统的消除,并具有适当的药物封装效率^[85].

2.2.3 磁力引导

组织靶向性递送可以通过用磁性纳米颗粒修饰外泌体来实现.有研究开发了一种双功能超顺磁性纳米颗粒外泌体,作为癌症治疗的靶向药物递送载体.这种外泌体在室温下就能表现出超顺磁性,对外部磁场的响应比单个超顺磁性纳米颗粒更强,从而使这种外泌体能够从血液中分离出来,在外磁场作用下增强了对肿瘤的靶向性并抑制了肿瘤的生长^[64].最近,研究表明,含有超顺磁性氧化铁纳米颗粒的细胞靶向肽(cell-penetrating peptides, CPPs)和肿瘤坏死因子锚定的外泌体,可以在外部磁场的作用下引导其对肿瘤的靶向,抑制肿瘤生长^[86].另外,有研究将磁性纳米粒子涂布在装载有多柔比星的外泌体表面,通过外部磁场引导外泌体在肿瘤部位富集,然后用近红外辐射诱发局部高热,并触发外泌体内装载的药物释放,为肿瘤精准治疗提供了新的思路^[87].

2.2.4 声波引导

有研究者利用聚焦超声来引导声敏外泌体在特定部位的递送,他们设计了一种功能化的智能声敏外泌体(EXO-DVDMS),通过在同型肿瘤细胞衍生的外泌体上加载华卟啉钠(sin porphyrin sodium, DVDMS),然后

表 1 生物化学修饰方式的特点总结

Table 1 Summary of characteristics of post-translational modifications in biochemistry

生物化学方式	修饰方式	优缺点	参考文献
基因工程	将目的蛋白或肽的基因插入到受体细胞,从而产生表达该蛋白或肽的子代细胞	快速、大量、改造特异性强,但技术难度高、过程会引起基因突变	[33~50]
代谢工程	将所需的化合物添加到细胞培养基中,从而使细胞表达该化合物	简单、快捷,但适用范围小	[51,52]
点击化学	将目的蛋白、肽、某些功能键,通过化学点击的方法负载到外泌体表面	简单、快捷、适用范围大、效率高,但靶向分子与外泌体表面是非特异性结合	[53~61]
适配体-受体	将适配体负载到外泌体表面,使其能靶向细胞上的特异性受体	靶点特异性高,适配体的负载效率不高	[29,30] [62~67]
膜与肽融合	将靶向肽负载到外泌体双层磷脂分子结构的膜上,从而增强外泌体的靶向性	简单、适用范围广,但肽负载效率有待提升,且负载后外泌体形态改变	[68~74]
CD63的肽锚定	以外泌体膜CD63为锚点,某些肽与其特异性结合	结合位点准确度高、不改变原外泌体的形态,但适用范围小,仅针对CD63特异性结合的分子	[75~79]

表 2 物理修饰方式的特点总结

Table 2 Summary of the characteristics of physical modification methods

物理方式	修饰方式	优缺点	参考文献
静电作用	利用静电作用, 将正或负电荷涂布在外泌体表面, 使其靶向异种电荷高的细胞	简单、高效, 但外泌体形态改变, 如膜变薄, 产生形成孔、膜侵蚀等	[60,80~82]
疏水作用	利用磷脂双分子层的疏水性, 把脂质体和靶向肽融合在外泌体表面	简单、快捷、半衰期增长, 但形态不一	[31,32,83~85]
磁力引导	在外泌体表面涂布某一磁性, 在外部磁场的引导下作用在特定部位	简单、快捷, 但对于外磁场引导操作者的要求极高	[64,86,87]
超声引导	将声敏元件负载到外泌体上, 在外部超声引导下作用在特定部位	简单、快捷, 但可用声敏元件少, 引导操作要求高	[88]
金属纳米修饰	将金属纳米颗粒负载到外泌体表面, 靶向与该金属纳米颗粒亲和度高的细胞	简单、快捷, 但金属纳米材料蓄积有潜在毒性、负载的效率不一	[89,90]

利用体外超声设备可以无创地提高EXO-DVDMS的同质肿瘤靶向性。为体外引导靶向外泌体提供了新思路^[88]。

2.2.5 金属粒子修饰

金纳米颗粒(gold nanoparticles, AuNPs))在治疗、成像和表面修饰方面具有多功能特性, 是一种被广泛用于医疗行业的纳米材料。有研究通过机械或挤压的方法, 将合成的AuNPs与外泌体膜表面相结合, 静脉给药后, 发现其在小鼠脑部积累明显增加, 证明了用AuNPs修饰后的外泌体具有独特的脑靶向特性^[89]。另外, 有学者研究了间充质干细胞(mesenchymal stem cells, MSC)来源的外泌体与钛(Ti)在骨发育过程的作用, 发现Ti表面修饰的外泌体能迅速促进MSC的黏附和增殖。这些发现为金属纳米颗粒在外泌体表面修饰的应用提供了新的依据^[90]。

虽然物理方式靶向修饰外泌体的操作较生物化学方式简单、快捷, 但其靶向修饰效率较低, 修饰部位的结合位点准确性较差, 且极容易改变原外泌体的形态(表2)。

3 讨论

外泌体作为药物靶向递送的载体已经得到越来越广泛的研究, 但其研究仍处早期阶段, 还有许多问题需要克服及解决。外泌体来源广泛, 可以从各种细胞中提取, 但从不同细胞中提取的外泌体表面糖蛋白是不同的, 而且外泌体里面的内含物也多种多样, 所以外泌体的分类概念并不明确, 从而限制了其临床应用及发展。而且外泌体的提取方法很多, 各有优缺点, 目前还没有建立标准化的提取方法, 而更方便、高效的提取方法还有待研究。外泌体虽然具有一定的靶向能力, 但其靶向能力较弱, 我们可以通过表面修饰的工程化方式进一步增强其靶向性。但大多数工程化方式会改变原本外泌体的形态大小, 工程化后的靶向外泌体形态各异, 没有统一性, 而形态的改变对外泌体功能作用的影响仍值得深究。此外, 当外源性外泌体进入体内并发挥作用时, 可能会出现浓度降低和生物活性下降等问题。同时, 我们还需要更合适的体内模型来研究载药修饰外泌体的作用。外泌体作为新兴的药物载体还有很多有待探索的问题。

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Summary for “外泌体靶向修饰的研究进展”

Advances in targeted modification of extracellular vesicles

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In recent years, exosomes have become a hotspot in biomedical research. In-depth studies have revealed their advantages as therapeutic drugs or carriers. Exosomes are natural, nanoscale extracellular vesicles that can regulate cell-cell communication. Their cargoes mainly include DNA, RNA, glycoproteins, peptides, and other bioactive substances. Due to their phospholipid bilayer structure, exosomes exhibit good cell compatibility, low immunogenicity, a strong capacity to transfer bioactive substances, high biocompatibility, and specific targeting properties, rendering them favorable for precision medicine applications. Current research is mainly focused on engineering exosomes to achieve drug delivery, immune regulation, and potential biomarkers for disease diagnosis and surveillance. Exosomes have complex extracellular uptake mechanisms. Cells mainly internalize exosomes via endocytosis or membrane fusion, thereby exerting biological effects. However, the mechanism of extracellular exosome uptake is not yet fully understood. Several studies have investigated cholesterol-conjugated aptamers based on the mediating proteins involved in endocytosis and developed exosome-liposome hybrid vesicles loaded with targeting peptides based on applicable modes of membrane fusion. Due to different extents of enrichment, exosomes from different origins have different regulatory effects on different tissues and cells. To enhance the targeting activity of exosomes to specific tissues or organs, multiple researchers have developed a method that modifies the surfaces of natural exosomes, enhancing their desired molecular targeting activity. Although the advantages and disadvantages of several targeting modification methods have been investigated, most methods involve altering the morphology and size of the original exosomes. The engineered targeted exosomes exhibit heterogeneous morphology, and the effects of morphological changes on the biological functions of exosomes warrant further investigation. The main exosome modification methods currently being investigated can be classified as either biochemical or physical. Biochemical methods include those involving genetic engineering, metabolic engineering, “click chemistry”, aptamer receptors, membrane peptide fusion, and peptide anchoring of CD63. Meanwhile, physical methods involve electrostatic interaction, hydrophobic interaction, magnetic guidance, ultrasonic guidance, and metal nanoparticle modification. The operational procedures used for the physical modification of targeted exosomes are relatively simple; however, the modification efficiency is low and unstable. Conversely, a high efficiency is achieved when exosomes are modified by biochemical methods; however, the operational procedures required for these methods are relatively difficult. These engineering methods are not independent, and the exosome modification process used may involve multiple methods. The modified exosomes are more enriched in target tissues and organs and have significantly better therapeutic effects than natural exosomes. However, when the same modification method is used on exosomes of different origins, the resulting engineered exosomes can exhibit different biological functions. Standardized exosome surface-targeted modification integrated with drug delivery may become a mainstream component of precision medicine research in the future. This article elaborates on the biogenesis process and extracellular uptake of exosomes and reviews exosome-targeted modification methods. Furthermore, research progress in the field of exosome-targeted modification methods is summarized, and potential application prospects of exosome-targeted modification are discussed.

extracellular vesicles, exosomes, targeting, homing ability, surface modification, endocytosis

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