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1 Methods for the identification and characterization of extracellular

2 vesicles in cardiovascular studies – from exosomes to microvesicles

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83 Abstract (179 of 200 words)

- 84 Extracellular vesicles (EVs) are nanosized vesicles with a lipid bilayer that are released from cells of
- 85 the cardiovascular system, and are considered important mediators of intercellular and extracellular
- 86 communication. Two types of EV of particular interest are exosomes and microvesicles, which have
- 87 been identified in all tissue and body fluids and carry a variety of molecules including RNAs, proteins,
- 88 and lipids. EVs have potential for use in the diagnosis and prognosis of cardiovascular diseases and
- as new therapeutic agents, particularly in the setting of myocardial infarction and heart failure.
- 90 Despite their promise, technical challenges related to their small size make it challenging to
- 91 accurately identify and characterize them, and to study EV-mediated processes. Here, we aim to
- 92 provide the reader with an overview of the techniques and technologies available for the separation
- and characterization of EVs from different sources. Methods for determining the protein, RNA and
- 94 lipid content of EVs are discussed. The aim of this document is to provide guidance on critical
- 95 methodological issues and highlight key points for consideration for the investigation of EVs in96 cardiovascular studies.
- 97

98 1. Pathophysiological relevance of EVs in the cardiovascular field

99 In recent years, extracellular vesicles (EVs) such as exosomes and microvesicles have gained

- significant interest as mediators of intercellular communication in both the healthy physiological
- 101 state and during pathophysiological stress.¹⁻⁴ All cell types in the cardiovascular system release EVs.⁵
- 102 However, most mechanistic studies use cell culture-derived EVs. EVs are also detected in plasma,
- 103 where they are derived primarily from erythrocytes, platelets, endothelial and immune cells.⁶ The
- plasma EV content responds to environmental changes and can regulate pro-inflammatory and
 innate immune responses, coagulation pathways and atherogenic interactions.⁷ It is therefore of
- 106 interest to understand the function of EVs in the cardiovascular system.
- Several characteristics make EVs promising biomarkers for cardiovascular pathologies.¹ For example,
 EVs are secreted into body fluids such as blood, lymph and pericardial fluid, and EV molecular cargo
- reflects the state of the cell of origin. Therefore, by purifying EVs it is possible to enrich for
- 110 diagnostic markers that may otherwise be obscured by the large quantity of proteins present in the
- fluid.³ For example, acute coronary syndrome results in the rapid appearance of EVs in plasma that
- can be purified, aiding the identification of specific miRNAs,⁸ in comparison to the detection of
- cardiac miRNAs in total plasma, which is inferior to high sensitivity assays for traditional markers of
- damaged myocardium such as troponins^{9, 10}. Cardiac allograft rejection can be predicted with an
- accuracy of 86% based on the concentration and contents of EVs released by the transplanted heart
- into the blood, potentially eliminating the need for endomyocardial biopsy.¹¹ miRNA signatures in
- circulating large EVs, in contrast to freely circulating miRNAs, predicted the occurrence of
- 118 cardiovascular events in patients with coronary artery disease,¹² highlighting the prognostic
- 119 potential of EV-miRNA expression pattern.
- In certain situations, EVs can contribute to the mechanism of cardiovascular diseases. For example, 120 sEVs contribute to the development of pulmonary arterial hypertension,^{13, 14} and to vascular 121 calcification.^{15, 16} Adipocyte-derived extracellular vesicles and their ceramide content have impact on 122 cardiac mortality in advanced atherosclerosis.^{16, 17} Endothelial EVs released during myocardial 123 infarction can mobilize splenic neutrophils and monocytes following their transcriptional activation 124 and could contribute to attenuated cardiac function.^{18, 19} Therefore, EVs are emerging as key players 125 in different stages of disease development of cardiovascular disease and metabolic syndrome 126 (reviewed in $^{20-22}$). 127
- EVs are also promising therapeutic agents for treating cardiovascular disease. They have been shown 128 to mediate various beneficial effects of conditioned medium from stem cells.^{23, 24} EVs can be 129 separated from tissue-culture medium "conditioned" by the growth of cells, and there is growing 130 interest in using such EVs for treating a variety of cardiovascular pathologies.⁵ For example, EVs 131 purified from medium conditioned by cardiac progenitor cells (Exo-CPC), but not from normal 132 dermal fibroblasts, are cardioprotective and proangiogenic in models of myocardial infarction and 133 chemotherapy-induced cardiotoxicity,^{25, 26} and stimulate cardiovascular cell proliferation following 134 myocardial infarction.²⁷ Similarly, platelet-derived EVs in endothelial progenitor cell cultures 135 contributed to their proangiogenic activity.^{28, 29} In another example, EV coating of stents accelerated 136 137 their re-endothelialization and reduced in-stent restenosis compared to drug-eluting and bare metal stents in mice.³⁰ 138
- Currently, there are more than 250 clinical trials registered to use EVs in a range of diseases (ClinicalTrials.gov), as either biomarkers for response to drug treatment or as direct therapeutic mediators. It is therefore crucial that appropriate methods are used to separate, validate and characterize EVs, both to improve their clinical application, and to provide fundamental insights and

in-depth analyses of their mechanism of action. The aim of this document is to provide guidance on
 these critical methodological issues and highlight key points for consideration in the design of
 experiments using EVs. Some of the methods described can be applied generally to all studies using
 EVs, but we provide CV-specific methods where relevant.

147 1.1 Definition of extracellular vesicles and use of terminology

Three main classes of EVs can be distinguished by their mechanism of production: exosomes, 148 149 microvesicles and apoptotic bodies (Figure 1). Microvesicles and apoptotic bodies are released directly via outward budding of the plasma membrane in living or dying cells, respectively, and carry 150 151 proteins, lipids, nucleic acids and other active components that can affect target cells and modify their behaviour.^{4, 5, 31} Exosomes are produced by inward budding of late stage endosomes, thereby 152 forming intraluminal vesicles in multivesicular bodies (MVBs), which are released upon fusion of the 153 limiting membrane of the MVB with the cell membrane.³² The formation of MVBs and subsequent 154 fusion with the plasma membrane is a highly orchestrated mechanism involving the Endosomal 155 156 Sorting Complexes Required For Transport (ESCRT) machinery, which includes the proteins Hepatocyte Growth Factor-Regulated Tyrosine Kinase Substrate (HRS), Tumour Susceptibility Gene 157 158 101 Protein (TSG101), Signal Transducing Adapter Molecule 1 (STAM1) and Programmed Cell Death 159 6-Interacting Protein (PDCD6IP or ALIX), although ESCRT-independent mechanisms have also been reported.³² Precisely how cargo is sorted into exosomes is unclear, although some binding motifs 160 have been suggested.³² 161

162 The umbrella term "EVs" encompasses various types of membrane-enclosed vesicles, including exosomes, microvesicles, extracellular autophagic vesicles and apoptotic bodies, and these can have 163 overlapping size ranges (Figure 1). However, there is no consensus on specific markers that can 164 165 distinguish EV types. Consequently, and since it is challenging to isolate individual EV types with high purity, it is preferable to refer to the separated vesicles simply as "EVs" and report the purification 166 methods used for their separation and characterization. The International Society of Extracellular 167 168 Vesicles in their position paper, MISEV2018 strongly recommended the use of operational terms, 169 based on: size [e.g.: small(s), medium(m) or large(I) EVs); density range (e.g.: low-, middle-, or highdensity EVs]; biochemical composition (e.g.: CD63^{+ve} EVs or Annexin 5^{+ve} EVs); or culture- or cell-type 170 of origin (e.g.: hypoxic EVs, cardiomyocyte-derived EVs, etc.), unless the biogenesis of the EVs was 171 determined.³¹ However, it must be recognized that many of these terms are protocol-dependent 172 and relative, so it is important that their use is clearly defined. Here, we use the term "sEVs" to refer 173 174 to purified samples enriched in small EVs and MVB-derived exosomes, and "IEVs" to refer to preparations enriched in larger EVs and shed microvesicles. 175

176 2. Source of EVs

- 177 For investigations of cardiovascular EV function, primary cells, blood or explanted cardiac tissue may
- be preferred. When the aim is to develop EVs as therapeutic agents, and large quantities are
- 179 required, readily expandable cells or cell lines may be preferable. Mesenchymal Stromal Cells (MSC)
- 180 are a popular source as they are cytoprotective, can improve cardiac contractility and calcium
- 181 handling and have beneficial immunomodulatory effects including in the setting of atherosclerosis
- 182 and pulmonary hypertension.^{14, 33-35}
- 183 EVs from many different sources have been shown to improve cardiac function following MI,
- 184 including cardiac stem cells,³⁶ cardiovascular progenitor cells (CPC),³⁷, endothelial progenitor cells,³⁸
- 185 cardiosphere-derived cells,³⁹ embryonic stem cells⁴⁰ and iPSC-derived cardiomyocytes⁴¹(reviewed in
- ⁵). EVs from the epicardium can promote proliferation of cardiomyocytes.⁴² EVs can also be

- 187 beneficial against other forms of injury such as doxorubicin/trastuzumab-induced cardiac toxicity.²⁶
- 188 On the other hand, EVs can be detrimental, for example contributing to vascular smooth muscle cell
- 189 calcification.^{15, 16} As yet, there is little consensus on the ideal source of EVs, however one head-to-
- 190 head comparison suggests CPC may be more efficacious than BM-MSC.²⁵
- 191 Certain stimuli can alter EV production and function, in a cell-type dependent manner, including
- calcium,⁴³ hypoxia/ischaemia,⁴⁴ shock wave therapy,⁴⁵ atorvastatin,⁴⁶ and exercise.^{47, 48} Conversely,
 cardiovascular disease can alter EV production and function. For example, myocardial infarction
- cardiovascular disease can alter EV production and function. For example, myocardial infarction
 increase EV release,⁴⁹ EV-miR-mediated vascular intercellular communication is altered in patients
- with CAD and CKD, promoting CKD-induced endothelial dysfunction,⁵⁰ and diabetes mellitus impairs
- 196 EV function.^{51, 52}
- 197 Cells can be cultured in standard tissue culture flasks, or bioreactor flasks or hollow fibre reactors 198 may be used to maximize production. However, it is important to realise that culture conditions can 199 affect sEV contents and activity significantly.⁵³
- 200

201 3. Methods of separation

202 The optimal method for separating EVs depends on which biofluid or tissue is used as a source.

203 3.1 Separation of EVs from cell culture medium

204 Several techniques have been developed for the separation of EVs from cell culture medium, each 205 with their advantages and disadvantages (Table 1). Most procedures are based on separation by size, and/or density, although many other extracellular particles may share these characteristics with 206 EVs. A protocol of differential centrifugation or ultracentrifugation published by Thery et al. is 207 commonly used to separate both sEVs and IEVs (Box 1).⁵⁴ A subsequent density-gradient separation 208 using sucrose or, preferably, iodixanol, further improves EV purity.⁵⁵ Size-exclusion chromatography 209 has become popular since it effectively removes part of the contaminating soluble protein, and 210 columns can be readily made or purchased (Figure 2D).^{56, 57} Precipitation of sEVs is possible using 211 polyethylene glycol (PEG)-based reagents, for example in HEK293 or MSC cultures,⁵⁸ but the purity 212 obtained is generally inferior to other techniques.^{55, 59} Ultrafiltration is more commonly used as an 213 initial clean-up step to remove larger (e.g.: >0.8 µM) contaminants because membranes can become 214 215 blocked when filtering large volumes and because of concerns that high pressures may damage the membranes of larger EVs. Affinity isolation, typically using antibodies, provides highly pure isolates 216 although at the expense of yield, and only a subset of EVs might be isolated.⁶⁰ Furthermore, the 217 procedure to recover EVs from antibodies could affect their functionality and requires testing.⁶¹ 218 Diafiltration, asymmetric flow field-flow fractionation (AF4)⁶² and tangential flow filtration⁶³ purify 219 220 and concentrate sEV fractions and are scalable, but AF4 requires specialized and expensive 221 equipment.

Several head-to-head comparisons of EV separation procedures have been published^{55, 59, 64, 65}, for 222 human plasma, urine and also specific cardiac-derived progenitor cells, but ultimately, the optimal 223 224 method and obtained quantity depends on the source of the biofluid, the amount of available 225 biofluid and the intended use. For clinical analyses of thousands of blood samples for EV-associated 226 biomarkers, rapid precipitation might be sufficient but for mechanistic studies, purer EVs is essential. 227 The use of cell culture medium as a source of EVs allows for more rigorously controlled conditions 228 for EV production, but the cell culture environment differs from *in vivo* physiology. Given the 229 challenge of removing contaminating serum EVs, protein and lipoproteins, when highly pure EVs are 230 required for 'omics analysis or functional investigation, it is advisable to harvest EVs from cells grown

- in chemically defined medium rather than EV depleted serum or serum-replacement supplements.
- However, control experiments must be in place to assess cell viability and contents of contaminating
- apoptotic bodies, when removing serum. EV-depleted serum may be used but still contains large
- quantities of proteins and lipoproteins which can co-isolate with EVs / are common contaminants of
- EVs and procedural controls are necessary to check for potential contaminant.⁶⁶
- 236 *3.2 Separation of EVs from blood*
- A critical consideration when separating EVs from blood is the pre-analytical procedures (**Table 2**).^{67,}
- ⁶⁸ For instance, EVs can be separated from either plasma or serum, but serum preparation causes
- 239 platelet activation, which releases large numbers of platelet-derived EVs, and the thrombus formed
- traps some of the EVs.⁶⁹ The yield of EVs separated from plasma can be affected by the type of
- 241 anticoagulant used and requires great care to prevent platelet activation and haemolysis. It is
- possible to use any of the methods described above to separate EVs from platelet-free plasma.
- Plasma contains only $\sim 10^8 10^{10}$ sEVs / ml and $\sim 10^6$ lEVs / ml compared to $\sim 10^{16}$ lipoprotein
- 244 particles/ml and large quantities of albumin, globulins and other proteins and substances, which
- greatly complicates the isolation of EVs.^{70, 71} However, by combining several orthogonal methods it is
- possible to improve both yield and purity of EVs.⁷² Given the many variables that can substantially
- influence EV yield and purity, it is essential that all pre-analytical procedures and residual
- contaminants are comprehensively reported alongside the separation method.⁷³

249 3.3 Separation of EVs from tissue

- 250 The isolation of EVs from tissues has considerable scientific interest for understanding their local and
- 251 remote roles in cardiovascular disease development. Their presence should first be confirmed *in situ*,
- e.g. electron microscopy can identify the presence of vesicle structures in pathological samples such
- as human atherosclerotic plaques, ischaemic heart and muscles, or the brain^{74, 75}. EV separation from
- fresh tissues represents a challenging task as the method used should ensure that isolated vesicles
- come from the extracellular space and do not result from tissue homogenization (cell death,
- 256 membrane self-assembly; **Table 2**). Gentle mechanical disruption of tissue, optionally followed by
- enzymatic treatment, can be used to release EVs.⁴³ EVs have been released by collagenase perfusion
 of Langendorff-perfused rat hearts followed by differential centrifugation.^{76, 77} Appropriate controls
- 259 should be considered to estimate the effects of the procedure. Therefore, using tissues from
- 260 genetically modified models and processing healthy tissues or tissues from sham animal models in
- parallel to pathological samples might help evaluate the direct effect of tissue homogenization.^{49, 74,}
- ⁷⁸ Furthermore, the effect of the enzymatic cocktail on EV numbers and protein expression also
- 263 requires investigation.⁷⁶
- 264

265 4. General principles for EV identification and characterization

- A number of recommendations have been published regarding how to characterize and confirm identity, yield and purity of EVs,^{2, 5} but the most authoritative are The Minimal Information for Studies of Extracellular Vesicles ("MISEV") guidelines published by the International Society for
- 269 Extracellular Vesicles (ISEV).³¹ A key overriding principle of the guidelines is that multiple,
- 270 complementary techniques should be used to characterize EVs. Other guidelines have made
- 271 quantifiable metrics to define the identity of MSC-sEV preparations, and facilitate stratification and
- 272 comparison of different MSC-sEV preparations for therapeutic purposes.⁷⁹
- First, it is important to quantify the number of EVs relative to the total lipid or protein content of EVpreparations obtained. The yield of EVs should be measured relative to the amount of starting

- 275 material (e.g.: number of secreting cells, volume of biofluid, or mass of tissue). This calculation
- should be performed every time EVs are isolated since it can vary significantly. Second, the presence
- of at least three positive protein markers of EVs (described below) is strongly suggested. Third, it is
- 278 preferable to evaluate the presence of nonvesicular co-isolated components, e.g.: apolipoproteins
- A1, A2 and B (APOA1, APOA2, APOB), and albumin from plasma/serum isolates. Fourth, the
- 280 presence of individual EVs should be demonstrated using, for example, electron microscopy or
- scanning probe microscopy. If an image with a single vesicle is shown then a wide-field image should
 also be shown, which helps to illustrate the purity. The most appropriate technique for
- characterization depends on the type of EV (large or small), as discussed below.

284 4.1 Techniques for identifying EVs

- 285 The most widely used techniques for quantifying EVs include light scattering techniques such as
- 286 dynamic light scattering (DLS), nanoparticle tracking analysis (NTA), and resistive pulse sensing (RPS)
- 287 (Figures 2E-H). However, the robustness and comparability of measurements is hampered by the
- lack of standardization, and quantification of EVs is less straightforward than it seems.⁸⁰ For
- example, each technology has different limitations and potential biases towards certain size ranges.
- 290 An important limitation of most widely used techniques is that they measure all particles, and
- 291 cannot distinguish between sEVs and lipoprotein particles, protein aggregates, EV aggregates or
- other contaminants. Consequently, less pure isolates can paradoxically give the false impression of
- containing greater numbers of EVs. For this reason, it is preferable to use additional measurements
- such as total protein and/or lipid content to indicate the yield and purity.⁸¹ Alternatively,
- quantification of EV marker proteins by ELISA (enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay) or Western blot
 (semi-quantitative) can be useful for comparing yields.
- 297 Since one of the defining features of exosomes is their size, this is another informative parameter to
- report when separating small EVs, although this is not specifically recommended in the MISEV2018
- 299 guidelines. The size distribution of EVs can be obtained using NTA or RPS, calculated from electron
- 300 microscope images, or using another technique. A second defining feature of MVB-derived
- 301 exosomes is that they contain proteins involved in MVB formation and/or exosome release (e.g.:
- 302 CD9, CD63, CD81, Alix/PDCD6IP, TSG101).⁶⁰ These can be used as positive protein markers to
- 303 indicate the enrichment of MVB-derived exosomes within the separated EVs. The presence of at
- 304 least 3 markers should be demonstrated.^{31, 60} Notably, acetylcholinesterase is no longer considered a
- 305 generic marker of exosomes.⁸²
- Large EVs have a less well-defined size-range but can be analysed using similar techniques as for
 small EVs, or using flow cytometry, which is described below.^{2,80}

308 4.2 Electron microscopy

- 309 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) allows imaging at the single EV level, visualizing their size
- and morphology, as well as detecting the presence of contaminants. Negative staining with uranyl
- acetate is the most common method. Of note, drying during preparation results in a typical
- 312 "collapsed vesicle" or "cup-shaped" appearance (Figure 2B).⁵⁴ Nowadays, the gold-standard method
- for imaging biological objects is cryo-TEM, which preserves their native hydrated structure via rapid
- 314 freezing. Cryo-TEM presents several major advantages, including better capacity to distinguish bona
- 315 *fide* EVs from non-vesicular particles and to determine the actual EV size, and to characterize
- 316 heterogeneous EV samples, particularly the presence of EV aggregates either contained in the
- 317 original sample or induced by isolation procedures. Combining EM with immuno-gold labelling aids
- 318 with phenotyping of EVs in complex media, such as pure plasma or heterogenous media (Figure

- 319 **2C**).⁸³ Other techniques, including single EV-microarray and atomic force microscopy can provide
- 320 images of single EVs, as well as information on their biomechanical properties and size.⁸⁴

321 4.3 Flow cytometry

322 Flow cytometry is an attractive technique for EV analysis, as flow cytometers are robust platforms, widely available and designed for high throughput quantitative analysis of single particles based on 323 324 light scattering and fluorescence. However, flow cytometers are designed to analyse cells and several requirements need to be met to improve rigor and reproducibility of EV analysis.⁸⁵ Flow 325 cytometric analysis of sEVs (<300 nm size) is particularly challenging due to their dim fluorescence 326 and scatter signals.⁸⁵ In this respect, it is extremely important to calibrate flow cytometers, confirm 327 detection of single EVs and be aware of the sensitivity of the platform used and potential 328 interference by unbound fluorescent probes.^{86, 87} Nevertheless, the use of single EV flow cytometric 329 analysis has reached a level were reproducible comparisons of EV concentration measurements can 330 be nearly performed, for example of circulating EVs in patients with CVD.⁸⁸⁻⁹⁰ Marker proteins of 331 interest for cardiovascular studies include those such as CD61 and CD144 for platelets and 332 333 endothelium respectively, CD147 (SIRPa) for cardiomyocytes, CD235a for erythroid-derived EVs and leucocyte/lymphocyte- and monocyte-derived EVs (CD45/CD3 and CD14).⁸⁸⁻⁹¹ The MIFlowCyt-EV 334

- 335 Framework, drafted by an EV flow cytometry working group of ISEV-ISAC-ISTH
- 336 (<u>www.evflowcytometry.org</u>), provided a consensus report for EV flow cytometric studies,⁸⁶ advising
- the minimal experimental information that should be reported.

338 4.4 Functional analysis of EVs

339 Ideally, the functional activity of EVs would be assayed using a simple, in vitro potency assay as a 340 surrogate for their in vivo functionality, but no single, universal method has been identified. In the 341 cardiovascular field, EV function is commonly assessed using an assay of in vitro angiogenesis, cell viability, contractility, or combinations thereof. Commonly used in vitro assays of angiogenesis 342 include the scratch assay,⁹¹ Boyden chamber migration assay,^{92, 93} endothelial tube formation⁹⁴, and 343 vessel sprouting assays.^{44, 95, 96} An accurate measure of sEV quantity and purity is important when 344 conducting dose-response experiments of their functionality. At present there is no consensus on 345 which measure of quantity (particle number, protein content, quantity of starting cells, etc) is 346 preferable,³¹ but whichever normalization technique is used (preferably more than one) it should be 347 reported and justified. Furthermore, appropriate (procedural) controls should be included to proof 348 that effects are EV-mediated. For the use of EVs as therapeutic tools, in vitro potency assays are 349 350 required to predict the effectiveness of EV preparations for clinical use, but this depends on the 351 ability to convincingly identify the mechanism of action and quantify the biological activity.⁹⁷

352 *4.5 Reporting methodology*

Finally, to aid reproducibility and transparency, isolation and characterization methodology should be reported in public databases and repositories such as EV-TRACK, a crowdsourcing knowledgebase

- 355 (http://evtrack.org) that centralizes EV biology and methodology with the goal of stimulating
- authors, reviewers, editors and funders to put experimental guidelines into practice.⁹⁸
- 357

358 5. Chapter 4: Methods for determining the protein content of EVs

359 *5.1 Total protein content*

- 360 Total protein content in an EV preparation can be estimated using standard protein assays such as
- bicinchoninic acid (BCA) assay or Bradford assay, or variations thereof, optimised for low protein
- 362 concentrations. Quantification of total protein in an EV sample and comparison with particle counts
- 363 may give an indication of its purity. It has been suggested that pure sEV isolates contain
- 364 concentrations of < 1 μ g protein / 10¹⁰ EV particles,⁸¹ although this is not necessarily universally
- applicable, because there are not yet methods available that can measure all EVs.

366 5.2 Antibody-based techniques to identify specific proteins

- There may be subpopulations of EVs with different protein content that can be detected using antibodies. Some can be used as marker proteins to identify the cell type of origin within the cardiovascular system (see section 3.3). In addition to EV marker proteins, hundreds of additional proteins can be identified, which may be either genuine EV components or co-isolated proteins. The most common approaches to detect and quantify the relative levels of EV proteins are antibodybased experimental methods (**Table 3**).³¹ All antibody-based techniques require the use of
- 373 appropriate controls to confirm antibody specificity.⁹⁹
- Western blotting can identify proteins that are associated or co-isolated with EVs and provide useful information about the yield and purity of an EV preparation.⁶⁴ Importantly, it can also confirm the
- 376 molecular weight of the target protein. Compared with cell lysates, a disadvantage of EV samples is
- 377 the lack of reference ("house-keeping") proteins to use for normalisation purposes in
- 378 immunoblotting experiments. Therefore, equal protein amount, volume from which EVs are
- 379 separated or particle number are commonly used. Inclusion of the original sample, the EV-depleted
- 380 sample and procedural control samples are required to draw firm conclusions about enrichment of
- 381 proteins in the EV isolate (or depletion of contaminants). Western blotting can be challenging since it
- 382 requires relatively large quantities of EVs for sufficient sensitivity. Alternative versions such as dot
- 383 blotting or capillary electrophoresis immunoassays can provide considerably higher sensitivity.¹⁰⁰
- The question of which proteins should be investigated as potential contaminants is debated, but the best guideline is provided by MISEV.³¹ Depending on the source of EVs, it can be useful to verify the removal of lipoproteins (e.g.: APOB, APOA1, APOA2) and serum albumin (**Figure 3**), and proteins
- 387 from endoplasmic reticulum or plasma membrane.
- 388 ELISA is a well-established technique that can provide sensitive antibody-based detection in multi-
- 389 well formats. A sandwich ELISA format (combining separate capture and detection antibodies) is
- 390 likely to be required when using enzyme-linked or fluorescent detection, but a highly sensitive
- 391 immunoassay variant based on time-resolved fluorescence called DELFIA (dissociation-enhanced
- 392 lanthanide fluorescence immunoassay) is able to detect EV-associated molecules using a single
- detection antibody.^{64, 101} Similar to dot blots, immunoassays provide good sensitivity for small
- sample amounts, but require thoroughly validated antibodies and do provide information to validate
- the molecular weight.
- 396 EV flow cytometry can be used to detect surface protein markers as indicated above. Immuno-gold
- 397 labelling can be performed for visualization using TEM or cryo-TEM, although it is not quantitative,
- and it is mostly used to label EV membrane proteins. Detection of immunogold label on non-EV
- particles in the sample may indicate that the target is only a contaminant in the EV isolate.
- 400 Novel antibody-based approaches such as surface plasmon resonance¹⁰² and interferometric
- 401 imaging¹⁰³ have also been utilized for EV protein characterisation, but they usually require expensive
- 402 specialised equipment and consumables which limits their widespread use.

403 5.3 Mass spectrometry of the EV proteome

- 404 Proteomic analysis of EV samples by mass spectrometry (MS) provides the most comprehensive
- 405 analysis of the EV protein cargo (**Table 3**), and does not rely on an *a priori* selection of proteins based
- 406 on the availability of antibodies or other affinity reagents for specific proteins.^{60, 104} MS approaches,
- 407 however, have an inherently lower sensitivity compared with antibody-based techniques. This is
- 408 mainly due to the excess amounts of highly abundant proteins (*e.g.:* albumin) in the EV preparations
- which mask the presence of low-abundant EV proteins.¹⁰⁵ To address this, MS can be combined with
 better isolation techniques for EVs that result in less contamination. It is recommended to compare
- 411 the EV proteome to tissue or cell source of the EV sample to identify the degree of
- 412 enrichment/depletion of proteins. For EVs separated from cell cultures in which media are
- supplemented with xenogenous components (*e.g.* bovine serum), it is also recommended to
- 414 searches against databases of other organisms. Bovine serum proteins are a common contaminant
- 415 in EVs isolated from cell cultures, unless cells are grown in serum free media. Finally, independent
- 416 validation with an antibody-based technique is advisable since MS detects peptides, which can
- 417 originate from both intact and fragmented proteins. Most journals require that EV proteomic data
- 418 are deposited in online databases.¹⁰⁶

419 5.4 Intraluminal vs membrane proteins

- 420 Determining whether a protein is intraluminal, membrane or external to the EVs is of great
- 421 importance for understanding the structure, origin and function.³¹ Mixing a broad-range protease
- 422 (*e.g.* proteinase K) with an EV-containing sample in presence or absence of detergent can help to
- 423 establish whether a protein is intraluminal or present on the surface/outside of the EVs. Notably, EV
- 424 subtypes have different sensitivities to detergents.¹⁰⁷ Detergents will also disrupt other lipid
- 425 structures such as lipoproteins, another common contaminant in EV preparations. Protease
- 426 treatment can also determine the topology of membrane proteins or the degree of contamination of
- 427 an EV sample,¹⁰⁸ but proteases will digest the extracellular domains of EV membrane proteins.
- 428 Alternatively, surface labelling can be performed to enrich for EV membrane proteins and distinguish
- 429 them from intraluminal cargo.¹⁰⁹

430

431 6. Methods for determining the RNA content of EVs

432 EVs carry various species of RNA, including microRNA (miRNA), circular RNA (circRNAs), vault RNA,

433 small nuclear RNA (snRNA), small nucleolar RNA (snoRNA), Y RNA, transfer RNA (tRNA), long non-

434 coding RNA (IncRNA) and messenger (mRNA), as well as fragments thereof.⁶⁰ EV subtypes differ in

their RNA cargo profile, according to parent cell type and environment, as well as stochastic

- 436 principles, and the method of isolation used.¹¹⁰ Although most attention has focused on the miRNA
- 437 content of EVs, miRNAs might only represent a minor constituent of EVs relative to other RNA
- 438 species.¹¹¹ The mechanism for sorting RNAs to EVs might include association with RNA-binding
- 439 proteins, specific RNA motifs and RNA modifications.^{112, 113}
- 440 6.1 RNA analyses by qRT-PCR and RNA-sequencing
- 441 At first, RNA cargo of EVs was based solely on the use of Taqman miR-PCRs focused on individual
- 442 miRNAs, and it was a challenge finding ways to normalize data. Data normalization was usually
- 443 implemented by spiking-in an exogenous miRNA supposedly not expressed in mammalian species,
- such as *Caenorhabditis elegans* miRNA-39 (Cel-39) before RNA extraction. More recently, several

445 quantitative PCR (qRT-PCR) and digital PCR protocols are available to detect the miRNA cargo of EVs.¹¹⁴ 446

Advances in RNA-sequencing technologies have enabled the identification of EV-derived RNAs in 447 nearly all human biofluids,¹¹⁵ and associated with pathophysiological phenotypes.¹¹⁶ The use of RNA-448

- sequencing approaches has provided a better understanding of the diversity of the EV-embedded 449 RNAs.46, 60, 117 450
- Certain pre-analytic confounders are well known, e.g.: heparin can interfere with PCR analyses of 451
- RNAs,¹¹⁸ but can be overcome by heparinase treatment. The presence of certain miRNAs is 452
- suggestive of haemolysis of blood samples (e.g.: miR-486-5p, miR-451, miR-92a, and miR-16), or 453
- presence of contaminating calf serum (e.g.: miR-122, miR-451a and miR-1246).¹¹⁹⁻¹²¹ Lipoprotein 454
- 455 contamination can also create difficulties in data analyses and interpretation since they can also
- carry miRNAs¹²². To prevent contamination of EV preparation by RNAs carried by lipoproteins and 456
- extra-EV Argonaute proteins, the use of proteinase K and RNase A digestion can be implemented 457
- before proceeding to RNA extraction.¹¹² It is useful to include a negative control without enzymatic 458
- 459 treatment and positive control samples containing RNA, to confirm complete digestion of non-460 exosomal RNAs.
- 461 In order to compare data, several manually curated database were developed: Vesiclepedia
- (http://www.microvesicles.org/) and Exo-carta (http://www.exocarta.org/) include RNAs, lipids and 462

proteins identified in different classes of EVs. More recently, the extracellular RNA communication 463

- 464 (ExRNA) consortium (https://commonfund.nih.gov/exrna) was created by the NIH to establish
- foundational knowledge and technologies for extracellular RNA research (https://exrna-465
- atlas.org/).¹²³ 466

467 6.2 How to evaluate the functional role of EV RNA

468 Despite the numerous examples of studies suggesting important roles of EV-mediated RNA transfer 469 on target cell behavior, e.g. the regenerative potential of epicardium-derived extracellular vesicles 470 mediated by conserved miRNA transfer, assessing the true (patho-)physiological role of such transfer 471 is a formidable challenge, not least because of the relatively low EV RNA concentrations. For 472 investigations into general mechanisms underlying EV-mediated RNA transfer, sensitive reporter systems have been developed that allow the study of EV-RNA transfer at the single cell level.^{124, 125} 473 474 However, to prove a direct effect of endogenous RNA species on EV target cells, additional 475 challenges need to be addressed and important control experiments are required. These include 476 demonstrating that the RNA of interest: 1) full length is present inside EVs; 2) shows increased levels 477 in recipient cells upon delivery (in the absence of upregulated expression); and 3) directly mediates a 478 particular response in target cells, by interfering with its presence or function without affecting the 479 content of EVs or recipient cells in any other way. Recently published reporting guidelines on EV-480 RNA studies should help to ensure reproducibility and to critically evaluate past and future studies claiming EV-RNA-induced physiological and pathological responses.¹¹² 481

482

483 7. Methods for determining EV lipid content

7.1 Lipid content 484

The phospholipid bilayer membrane of EVs consists primary of phosphatidylcholine, in addition to 485

- phosphatidylethanolamine and phosphatidylserine.^{62, 126} The sEV membrane is relatively rigid due to 486
- its enrichment in sphingomyelin and cholesterol, and contains domains with an ordered lipid phase 487
- ("lipid rafts"; reviewed in ¹²⁷). 488

- 489 Notably, EVs also carry lipids involved in signalling such as eicosanoids together with functional
- 490 phospholipases and enzymes of the prostaglandin pathway.¹²⁸ The lipid composition of large EVs is
- 491 closer to that of the plasma membrane, which they originate from.¹²⁶ Translocation of
- 492 phosphatidylserine to the outer leaflet upon cellular activation has been suggested to be a
- 493 prerequisite for large EV biogenesis¹²⁷. EVs with externalized phosphatidylserine are highly pro-
- 494 coagulant, leading to venous thrombosis, particularly in the presence of tissue factor (TF).¹²⁹
- 495 Total lipid content can be easily measured using a sensitive assay.¹³⁰ The total protein-to-lipid ratio
- 496 of an EV sample can then be used as an indication of EV concentration and purity.^{130, 131} However,
- 497 like protein assays, lipid assays are affected by the presence of contaminating lipoproteins.
- 498 MS is increasingly used to determine the complete lipidomic profile of EV samples^{62, 126}.
- 499 Furthermore, targeted lipidomic strategies can be developed based on the results of untargeted MS-
- 500 based lipidomics. Newer techniques include total reflection Fourier-transform infrared
- 501 spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR)¹³² and Raman spectroscopy.¹³³ Raman spectroscopy reveals the chemical
- 502 composition of single sEVs, and can identify different subpopulations of EVs based on their overall
- 503 biochemical composition, including cholesterol content, phospholipids-to-cholesterol ratio, and
- 504 surface protein expression.¹³³
- 505 Most lipidomic studies of sEVs show an enrichment from cells to sEVs for cholesterol and
- 506 sphingomyelin (representing approx. 40-50% and 10-20% of total small EV lipids, respectively).¹³⁴
- 507 Phosphatidylcholine and phosphatidylserine are in general the most abundant glycerophospholipids
- 508 while phosphatidic acid, phosphatidylglycerol and phosphatidylinositol tend to be lower. Compared
- to cells, the content of phosphatidylcholine and phosphatidylinositol is generally lower in small EVs,
- 510 while sphingolipids are increased. Certain lipids such as triacylglycerols and cholesteryl esters are
- 511 found in lipoproteins and lipid droplets, and a high content of these lipids in EV preparations might
- 512 be indicative for co-isolated or contaminating particles. There is evidence that sphingolipid
- 513 composition of circulating EVs is altered after myocardial ischaemia.¹³⁵ Of note, ceramide content in
- adipocyte-derived EVs regulate vascular redox state in obese patients and is associated with
- 515 cardiovascular mortality.¹⁷ EV lipid composition is also dependent on EV type. MVB-derived small
- 516 EVs have a higher cholesterol content than EV types released from the plasma membrane.¹³¹ In line
- 517 with this, sEVs show the highest resistance to detergent lysis among EVs.¹⁰⁷
- 518 A subset of circulating EVs display oxidation-specific epitopes (OSE), which are immunogenic adducts
- 519 derived from (phospho)lipid peroxidation.¹³⁶ Thus, OSE+ EVs may be practical markers of pathology-
- 520 associated oxidative stress and may reflect pathological conditions better than EVs. Several different
- 521 types of OSE can be identified using specific antibodies, including malondialdehyde (MDA), 4-
- 522 hydroxynonenal (4-HNE), and phosphocholine-containing oxidized phospholipids (PC).¹³⁷
- 523

524 8. Measurement of enzymatic activities carried by EVs

525 EVs harbour active enzymes on their membrane. Most surface enzymes are not easily detectable 526 although the functional activity of EVs can still be measured due to the amplification of the detection

527 signal through the enzymatic process for such enzymes, including e.g. the generation of factor Xa.¹³⁸

528 Moreover, in most cases, both activators and inhibitors of a biological process are present at the

- same EV membrane. The overall functional activity of EVs will reflect the combined effects of thesemolecules.
- 531 8.1 Pro-coagulant activity

- 532 Large EVs possess procoagulant activities. This is mainly determined by the exposure of anionic
- 533 phospholipids, especially phosphatidylserine which allows the binding of coagulation factors to the
- EV surface, as well as the exposure of active TF on some subsets of EVs.¹³⁹ Assays measuring the
- 535 functional capacity of EVs to generate factor Xa, thrombin, or a fibrin clot have been developed.¹⁴⁰
- 536 Phosphatidylserine contributions can be evaluated measuring a phospholipid-dependent coagulation
- time after EV dilution in a phospholipid-depleted plasma and activation with factor Xa (FXa) and
- 538 calcium.¹⁴¹ Other assays combine solid-phase capture of EVs by annexin V and thrombin generation.
- 539 A second group of assays focuses on the measurement of TF-dependent procoagulant activity of EVs.
- 540 Thrombin generation in platelet-free plasma or purified EVs spiked in EV-free plasma is initiated in
- 541 the presence of phospholipids without TF. High concentrations of TF-EVs are necessary for detection
- 542 with this assay. Other studies evaluating the value of EVs as a biomarker of thrombosis have
- 543 measured procoagulant EVs with FXa generation assays, using either EVs captured on coated plate
- 544 or EV isolation using ultra-centrifugation (UC).^{142, 143} A more global assay also monitors fibrin
- generation after incubating plasma EVs isolated by UC in the presence of anti-TF or anti-FXII blocking
 antibodies.¹⁴⁴
- 547 In clinical practice, all these assays are currently limited either by a lack of specificity, a low
- sensitivity, or irreproducibility when UC is used to isolate EVs. For example, measurement of TF by
- flow cytometry remains challenging because of the low levels of TF and some concerns about anti-TF
- antibody specificity.¹⁴⁵ To tackle such issues, a new EV-TF activity assay was recently developed using
- a new inhibitory anti-TF antibody and a more sensitive protocol.¹⁴⁶
- 552 Comparisons of assays measuring EV-TF activity suggest that Factor Xa generation assays are more
- sensitive than the Zymuphen assay,¹⁴⁷ and a poor correlation was found between results of the
- factor Xa generation assay and the fibrin generation test.¹⁴⁸ ISTH initiated a new collaborative
- 555 project to compare the analytical performance of different assays measuring EV-TF in plasma
- samples¹⁴⁹ to progress towards an optimal method to measure EV procoagulant activity in plasma
- 557 samples.
- 558 8.2 Fibrinolytic activity
- 559 EVs have ambivalent functions in haemostasis since they also possess fibrinolytic activity. A subset of
- 560 EVs may indeed vector plasminogen activators such as urokinase.¹⁵⁰ Just as for procoagulant assays,
- the use of UC can result in poor reproducibility of fibrinolytic assays. To overcome this limitation, a
- 562 hybrid assay combining specific capture of EVs and measurement of their plasmin generation
- 563 capacity has been developed.¹⁵¹ High resolution laser scanning confocal microscopy could be also
- used to detect EV enzymatic activity using fluorescent reporters.¹⁵² However, throughput is limited.

565 8.3 Enzymatic activities

- 566 Presence of acetylcholinesterase is no longer used as a reliable EV marker; neurons and red blood
- 567 cells produce this activity in abundance, whereas it is almost undetectable in other cell types and
- often associated with non-vesicular structures.⁸² Several metalloproteases, e.g. disintegrin
- 569 metalloproteases and tissue inhibitor of metalloproteases have been reported in different EV
- 570 preparations; these activities could confer on EVs the capacity to promote cell proliferation and
- ⁵⁷¹ remodelling of the microenvironment, which could contribute to EV therapeutic potential.¹⁵³
- 572 However, it remains crucial to demonstrate that the enzymatic activity is associated with EVs and
- not with soluble mediators, and does not result from co-isolation during the purification procedure.
- 574

575 9. Methodologies for functional characterization of EVs

576 Due to the variable quality of the tools and technologies used to study EVs, complete and accurate

reporting of methods is essential. These include the above-mentioned isolation and characterization
techniques, but to understand the functional interaction and potential of different EV preparations,
other points should be taken into consideration.

- i. In addition to EV purification and isolation, "EV-depleted" samples and quality and procedural
 controls (e.g.: unconditioned cell-culture medium processed in the same way) can help to
 determine true EV-mediated responses. GW4869, an inhibitor of neutral sphingomyelinase 2
 (nSMase2) and sEV release, is sometimes used as a control, but care is required in its use, as it is
 unlikely to be specific for exosome release.^{31, 154}
- 585 ii. Co-purified and bound molecules might affect functional assays,¹⁵⁵ therefore it is best to avoid
 586 low-specificity methods such as general precipitation (polyethylene glycol, "salting out," the
 587 basis of many commercial "exosome isolation" kits), unless these methods are combined with
 588 additional separation steps.
- 589 iii. The biological nature of EV preparations makes normalization between conditions essential but
 there is no clear consensus on the best way forward. Some alternatives include: starting volume
 or the number of producing cells; total number of EVs; protein content; lipid content; metabolite
 content; or specific markers such as levels of tetraspanins or other putative house-keeping
 proteins or RNA species.¹⁵⁶ It is recommended to have 2-3 different approaches, and to clearly
 describe each, to allow potential differences in functional outcomes to be explored.
- 595 iv. For clinical therapeutic interventions, the identity of the EV preparations can be defined using guantifiable metrics.⁷⁹
- 597 v. In classical dose-response experiments, the relationship between the concentration of a
 598 ligand/drug and a measured outcome parameter is investigated. Such experiments should be
 599 considered to understand the dose-dependency of effects, and to understand the biological
 600 relevance of the quantity of EVs used. In many published works, the dose relative to
 601 physiological concentration is unclear.
- 602 vi. Profiling of the EVs proteome and RNAome also will help to characterize their origin and also
 603 potential functional activities.¹⁵⁷
- 604 *9.1 Uptake and biodistribution studies*

605To understand specific uptake of EV species or how different EV subpopulations are produced,606several potent inhibitors are commonly used, including chloroquine, neutral sphingomyelinase607inhibitors, or genetic removal of Rab-protein family members.^{27, 158, 159} Inhibitors of micropinocytosis,608endocytosis (clathrin, caveolin or lipid-raft dependent), phagocytosis or membrane fusion are also609suggested to decipher *in vitro* the different routes and mechanisms of EV uptake by target cells.¹⁶⁰610Since these suggested compounds lack specificity, it is important to keep in mind that they only611suggest potential mechanisms. No EV-specific interventions have been reported thus far.

- 612 It is challenging to document the *in vivo* biodistribution of EVs. Many studies first isolate and tag EVs
- before injecting them *in vivo*, but these exogenous EVs may not reflect the same fate as
- 614 endogenously released EVs. In addition, the presence of residual contaminants from the isolation
- 615 procedure, the route of administration, the type of label used, the animal model and the detection
- 616 method may all affect *in vivo* biodistribution. If fluorescent dyes are used for EV labelling they should

- be carefully selected. Many dyes, particularly lipophilic dyes, can form dye aggregates or micelles
- that are of similar size to EVs, or may bind to contaminants present in the isolate, such as
- 619 lipoproteins and certain proteins.¹⁶¹ Furthermore, lipophilic dyes might dissociate from the labelled
- 620 EV and be incorporate into cellular membranes *in vivo*, where long dye half-life may lead to incorrect
- assumptions about EV distribution and longevity and diffuse freely. Genetic approaches crossing
- 622 ROSAmTmG mice with models expressing Cre-recombinase in a cell-specific manner have opened
- 623 new avenues for quantifying uncommon populations of EV, such as cardiomyocyte-derived EVs in
- 624 the circulation.¹⁶² On the other hand, protein-based labels added using genetic approaches (e.g. GFP)
- 625 can be susceptible to proteolysis and cannot be used on samples derived from human tissues and
- 626 fluids. Therefore, careful control experiments are required to ensure the signal is specific and to
- 627 monitor the influence of any free dye. Cell-cell interaction studies and paracrine activity of secreted
- 628 exosomes can be studied by e.g. co-culture assays of different cell types. Some examples are
- reported where (direct) EV-cargo loading is used to detect EV-molecule transfer, but indirect effects
 and reduced EV functionality are examples of possible limitations of these methods.¹⁶³ Possible
- contracted by the contraction of the the distribution of free label (or EV) and EV) that has been been by the the contraction of the contraction o
- 631 controls include comparison with the biodistribution of free-label (no EVs) or of EVs that have been
- 632 physically disrupted.¹⁶⁴
- 633 Investigation of endogenous EV biodistribution requires genetic labelling strategies, such as degron-
- tagged reporters or pH-sensitive fluorophores, which provide a stronger EV labelling than that of the
- 635 parent cell.^{165, 166} However, these approaches might be restricted to one specific subset of
- endogenous EVs. The EV-mediated transfer of Cre recombinase into floxed reporter cells appears to
- 637 be an elegant method to study *in vivo* EV distribution and uptake.¹⁶⁶ Another technique is to detect
- tissue uptake of a miRNA unique to the EVs, such as a foreign miRNA that the EVs have been
- 639 engineered to express.²⁵
- 640 In conclusion, all current approaches to assess EV *in vivo* biodistribution (see **Table 4** for examples)
- have their strengths and limitations, which must be carefully considered when designing
- 642 experiments.
- 643

644 **10.** Methodologies for clinical use of EVs in cardiovascular diseases

Potential regenerative/reparative effects of EVs in the cardiovascular system have been observed in 645 both post-infarction, and non-ischaemic chemotherapy-induced cardiomyopathy models.^{1, 23, 26, 37, 39,} 646 ^{42, 167} Although EV biodistribution and direct cellular uptake still needs much attention, preclinical 647 648 meta-analyses indicate that stem cell-derived EV administration is associated with improvements of 649 left ventricular ejection fraction, fractional shortening and a reduction of infarct size. These benefits 650 are seen largely irrespective of the type of stem cell, timing of injection, route of delivery, dosage of delivery or follow-up period.^{168, 169} On the other hand, not unique to EV studies, there is a potential 651 risk of positive publication bias.^{168, 169} While these positive data suggest that clinical studies may be 652 653 warranted, there are a number of important issues to address including those related to upscaling of 654 EV preparation processes in GMP-quality facilities using non-xenogeneic culture conditions, as well as ethical and regulatory approvals.⁵ Even with optimization of EV separation and characterization, 655 656 several practical hurdles must be overcome to maximize the therapeutic potential of EVs. In addition 657 to regenerative potential, however, EVs can play detrimental roles, for example potentially by causing thrombotic complications or forming microcalcifications that destabilize atherosclerotic 658 plaques.¹⁷⁰ The therapies preventing this deteriorating effect are under investigations. 659

660 10.1 Production and storage effects on the quality of EV preparations

- 661 Prior to *in vivo* application, it is essential to assess the reproducibility of EV content, purity and
- 662 functionality in batch preparations. These measures should include evaluation of ingredients and
- 663 potential co-isolations of culture medium, while also keeping in mind that these might mediate part
- of the observed functional effects. The production of EV preparations for use in the cardiovascular
- 665 system is not uniquely different from those for use in other systems. Manufacturing of MSC-sEV
- 666 preparations for therapeutic applications is currently the most advanced with several preparations in 667 clinical trials, as highlighted elsewhere.¹⁷¹
- 668 For the isolation of EVs secreted by cells in culture, several cell-culture factories are available,
- 669 including multi-layered culture flasks,⁶³ hollow-fibre bioreactors,¹⁷² and microcarriers.¹⁷³ Before
- these systems are used, however, their impact on EV production and bioactivity must be
- 671 determined. Isolated EVs are believed to be stable and can be frozen, but extensive studies are
- 672 warranted to confirm that EV functionality is retained following freeze-thaw cycles and long-term
- 673 storage.¹⁷⁴ Multiple additional considerations are essential for handling blood-derived EVs,⁷³
- 674 including pre-analytical methods, and quality controls.
- 675 10.2 Delivery strategies and biodistribution of EVs
- Efficient EV delivery to the target organ/cells may be necessary to achieve full therapeutic potential, 676 677 but it should also be considered that the primary target may not be the diseased tissue if EVs 678 function indirectly. Both systemic and intra-organ delivery is possible and close monitoring of EV biodistribution is needed since cellular uptake of EVs might not be accurately reflected by the 679 680 tracking-labels used. Due to the small size of EVs, myocardial retention might be severely hampered since even stem cells, which are much larger than EVs, are immediately washed out from the 681 myocardium after injection.¹⁷⁵ EVs delivered intravenously are rapidly cleared (within minutes) and 682 mainly distribute to the liver.¹⁷⁶ Biodistribution studies, in which EVs are labelled with fluorescently 683 linked lipid or amine dyes¹⁷⁷, radiolabels¹⁷⁸ or iron oxide particles,¹⁷⁹ are highly warranted for 684 mechanistic understanding of their effects. To facilitate long-term exposure of EV therapeutics, slow-685 release systems in which EVs are loaded and slowly exposed to the targeted tissue are key. Both 686 natural¹⁸⁰ and synthetic¹⁷⁷ delivery systems have been developed and display enhanced beneficial 687 effects for cardiac repair³⁸, with the caveat that they may require a direct intramyocardial delivery 688 whose invasiveness may hamper their clinical acceptance. An alternative approach that has been 689 690 successfully used to promote cardiac repair following myocardial infarction is thus to inject the EVproducing stem cells into a semi-permeable chamber, which is then inserted subcutaneously to 691 release EVs (and other factors) over time.³⁶ 692
- 693 10.3 Loading therapeutics into EVs
- For successful intra-myocardial delivery, many limitations and barriers have to be overcome,¹⁸¹ whereas bioengineered EVs with surface and/or cargo modifications might present unique advantages. Engineered therapeutic nanoparticles include: i) vesicle-mimetics produced from cells by serial extrusion or cell membrane-cloaked nanoparticles, which have substantially greater yield and an easy purification process ¹⁸²; ii) EV-liposome hybrids, produced using simple incubation or freeze-thaw cycles, for easier uptake by target cells and for enhanced delivery; and iii) synthetic EVs, which are based on liposomes with a composition similar to EVs.
- EVs have been modified to deliver small molecules, therapeutic RNA, proteins, lipids and different
 types of imaging molecules.^{183 184} Materials can be loaded into EVs via both passive loading (e.g.
 incubation with EVs or with EV-producing cells) or active loading (e.g. sonication, membrane
- permeabilization, electroporation, antibody binding of EVs or transfection of EV-producing cells). EVs

- can be labelled on the surface or intraluminally.¹⁶⁴ However, the labelling and loading procedure
- may alter physical, chemical and therapeutic properties of EVs or EV-mimetics. Moreover,
- therapeutic loading might be overestimated as observed for electroporation procedures that cause
- siRNA aggregate formation in the EV preparation.¹⁸⁵ Therefore, a thorough *in vitro* and *in vivo*
- ros evaluation of their uptake, stability, efficacy and toxicity is necessary to develop suitable methods
- 710 for future clinical studies. Recent research suggests that EVs of various sizes can naturally carry
- intact viruses used in therapeutics such as adeno-associated viruses (AAVs), (reviewed in ^{181,157} and
- 712 may thereby be able to circumvent antibody neutralization.
- 713

714 **11.** <u>Conclusion</u>

715 In conclusion, researchers are gradually developing a better understanding of the role endogenously 716 formed EVs in cardiovascular patho-physiology, how they may be sampled as biomarkers of 717 cardiovascular disease, and how exogenously administered EVs might be used therapeutically. Basic 718 procedures and principles for their purification, characterization, analysis and modification are in 719 progress, which will facilitate detailed future mechanistic investigation. However, there are critical 720 caveats at each step, and it is essential to bypass these pitfalls in order to avoid major setbacks and 721 succeed in clinical translation (Tables 1,2,3). While relatively impure EV preparations may be shown 722 to contain a desired biological activity useful for clinical applications, mechanistic studies may be 723 hampered by the presence of unknown contaminants. This is essential, since approval of EVs for 724 clinical use is likely to necessitate an effective potency assay (or an array matrix consisting of several potency assays), which would ideally reflect a proven mechanism of action.⁹⁷ Apart from better 725 separation techniques, characterization of EV preparations is needed using orthogonal and 726 727 complementary methods to define the purity of the preparations and will reveal potential sources of 728 contamination. With the wide interest in EVs from both academia and the pharmaceutical industry, 729 there is no doubt that methods will continually evolve and improve, which will help to advance EVs 730 studies in cardiovascular science.

12. <u>Tables</u>

Table 1 Potential advantages and disadvantages of the main methods used to purify sEVs

Method of purification	Disadvantages	Advantages
Affinity-based methods	 Low yield Non-scalable Antibodies are expensive and difficult to remove afterwards Protein contaminants bind to the solid phase 	Highly purified sEVs
Diafiltration	Specialized equipment required	Membrane pores rarely blockRe-useable
Centrifugation (Pelleting)	 Labour intensive Non-scalable Expensive equipment required Relatively low purity 	 Widely used Standardised protocol (though may vary with different rotors)
Density gradient centrifugation	 Labour intensive Non-scalable Expensive and time consuming It may be necessary to remove the gradient material, depending on subsequent analysis 	Widely usedStandardised protocol
Field-flow fractionation	 Expensive equipment required Extensive optimization required 	 High purity and yields can be achieved Scalable
Precipitation	Relatively low purity	 Very rapid "Home-made" techniques very cheap
Size-exclusion chromatography	 Labour intensive Contaminants of a similar size of EVs may co-isolate 	 Widely used Efficient at removing small proteins Commercial columns available Large columns can be made relatively cheaply for isolating sub-populations by size
Tangential flow filtration	Expensive equipment required	Scalable GMP-compliant
Ultrafiltration through a membrane	 Low purity High pressures may damage the membranes of larger EVs Membranes can become blocked when filtering large volumes 	 Scalable. High yield Cost-effective More commonly used as an initial clean-up step or a concentration step post isolation

Table 2. Major factors to consider when isolating EVs from sources relevant to cardiovascular studies.

Source of EVs:	Major factors to consider	Potential solutions
Cell-culture conditioned medium containing serum	 Risk of contamination from serum components including animal-derived EVs coming from serum 	 Contaminating EVs can be pre- removed from serum Consider using serum-free medium^a
Cell-culture conditioned medium without serum	 Risk of cell phenotypic changes/death contaminating EVs with intracellular or apoptotic vesicles 	Use short-term cultureQuantify levels of cell death
Plasma	 Care must be taken not to activate platelets during collection and handling Platelets disrupt during a freeze-thaw cycle and hamper EV isolation Challenging to remove contaminating blood proteins and lipoproteins 	 Carefully define suitable pre- analytical procedures Isolate EVs using a combination of orthogonal techniques
Serum	 EVs are released from activated platelets Challenging to remove contaminating blood proteins and lipoproteins EVs lost in the fibrin clot 	 Carefully define suitable pre- analytical procedures. Isolate EVs using a combination of orthogonal techniques.
Tissue (e.g. myocardium)	 Challenging to disrupt tissue without damaging the cell membrane Risk of shaving epitopes from EVs when using proteolytic enzymes 	 Perform control experiments to ensure cells are not disrupted Titrate enzyme quantity and use the minimum

The importance of these points will vary depending on the intended use of the EVs, and must beevaluated separately for each experiment.

^aAs noted in the main text, these solutions can introduce problems of their own. e.g. EV removal

from serum also removes other components, and it is probably not possible to remove 100% of the

744 EVs. Serum-free medium may negatively affect cell health and EV quality.

745

746

Detection method	Advantages	Disadvantages
Capillary	Smaller sample volume required Face of automation	Expensive instrumentation Limit of detection poorer than solid
immunoassay ^b	East constantion and data acquisition	• Elimit of detection poorer than solid
	Fast separation and data acquisition	phase detection (e.g. Initialioassay)
DELFIA	Which opiate setup	Requires place reader with time- resolved fluorescence (TBE) detector
	Higher throughput than immunobletting	Pick of false positive signal with low
	Sufficient consitivity with only one	Risk of faise positive signal with low
	Sufficient sensitivity with only one antibody	specificity antibodies
Dot blotting ^b	antibudy Smaller cample volume required	Malagular weight not datarmined
Dot blotting	Brotocols shorter than western	Bick of false positive signal with low
	Protocols shorter than western	Kisk of faise positive signal with low specificity antibodies
Elow cytomotry	Suitable for large EVs (>200pm)	specificity antibodies
Flow cytometry	suitable for large LVS (>Soonin)	Sinai LVS (<soonin) are="" below="" detection="" light="" limit="" of="" of<="" scatter="" th="" the=""></soonin)>
	High throughout (suitable for clinical	many conventional flow sytemeters
	• Then throughput (suitable for chinical	Generic fluorescent EV labelling may
	Ouantitative analysis of single EVs	introduce biases in EV detection of
	Can use multiple detection	heterogeneous EV preparations
	antibodies	EV-associated proteins may be
	Bead-based immune canturing	helow the limit of detection
	protocols can be used to perform FV	Lengthy sample preparation with
	subset analysis ^b	multiple control conditions required
	•	
Imaging cytometer ^b	Can detect single small EVs	Specialized equipment required
	Can use multiple detection	Extensive protocol development
	antibodies	required
Immunoelectron	Single particle detection	Expensive equipment
microscopy	Can distinguish membrane and	Mostly qualitative
(TEM or Cryo-TEM) ^b	intraluminal targets	
Mass spectrometry	Comprehensive picture of the EV	Expensive equipment
	proteome	Lengthy sample preparation
	Quantitative analysis of more than	Substantial quantity required
	one target protein	• Poor limit of detection due to the
	Label-based approaches powerful	presence of high-abundant
	for quantitative purposes	contaminants
Sandwich ELISA ^b	Microplate setup	Risk of false positive signal with low
	 Higher throughput than 	specificity antibodies
	immunoblotting	
Transmission	Single EV detection	Expensive equipment
electron microscopy	Can distinguish membrane and	• Sample is dried so EV morphology is
(TEM)	intraluminal targets	altered
		Mostly qualitative data
Cryo-transmission	As per TEM	As per TEM
electron microscopy	 Shows native shape of EVs 	
(Cryo-TEM)		
Western blotting ^b	Well-established protocols	Large sample volume required
	Molecular weight determined	Time-consuming
		Usually semi-quantitative

748 **Table 3 Advantages and disadvantages of common techniques used for EV detection**^a

^aAn important overarching consideration is whether isolation of EVs is necessary for subsequent

analysis steps. E.g.: Some analysis techniques such as flow cytometry can be optimized to work in

the presence of (diluted) plasma or serum, negating the need for purification and its attendant

752 limitations and inherent variability.

- ⁷⁵³ ^bAll techniques using antibodies require validation of antibody specificity and optimisation of their
- concentrations and blocking reagents.

Method of EV labelling	(Animal) models	Observations	Advantages	Disadvantages	References
Lipophilic dyes (e.g. PKH26, PKH67, DiD)	 Ischaemic mouse hearts cell lines 	 EV-bound labels co- labelled with cardiac-specific cell types direct transfer <i>in vitro</i> cultures 	 Well- establishe d protocols 	 Non-EV mediated dye transfer from EVs to other cells or organs. Free label transfer 	27 161
 Donor cell RNA transfer cel-miR-39 overexpressi on donor cell (lipofectamin e) 	 In vitro cell model Perfusing isolated rat hearts 	 Mouse proteins present in human cell lines Dose- dependent presence of increased cel- miR39 levels in cultured cells and ex vivo hearts 	 Intact EV sorting and mechanis ms Well- establishe d protocols 	Variation in EV content due to donor cell changes	186 25
EV siRNA loading	Electroporation	 Knock-down of target genes in organs 	•	 Disruption of EV integrity and functionality 	187
Fusion proteins	 Luciferase- or GFP-linked labels to CD9 or CD63 CD63-pHluorin 	 Cardiac-specific EV tracking via Luciferase expression In vivo and in vitro EV release, transfer and function 	 Direct EV visualizati ons EV release and organ specific uptake 	 EV functionality disrupted Limited signal detection 	188 189 166
Degron reporters	 In vitro cell models 	Highly sensitive EV release	 High sensitive 	 Functional tools need donor/target manipulations 	165

Table 4 – examples of EV labelling for direct transfer and biodistribution studies

759 **13.** Figures





763 *Figure 1.*

- The typical size range of the major lipid-bilayer EVs up to 1000 nm diameter.
- ^aAs reported by Jeppesen et al.⁶⁰
- 766 ^bThe size of apoptotic vesicles/bodies can range up to 5 μ m in diameter.
- 767 Please be aware that the diameter of EVs depends on the detection method used.



- 769
- 770 *Figure 2*.
- 771 Representative images of different techniques of EV characterization.
- 772 A) Transmission electron micrography (TEM) of multi-vesicular body (MVB) containing
 773 exosomes (arrows) in primary HUVECs.
- 774 B) Transmission electron micrography (TEM) of negative-stained EVs isolated from HUVECs
 775 (sEV = small EVs, IEV = large EVs).
- C) Cryo-TEM of a single CD81+ EV from iPS-derived cardiovascular progenitor cells.³⁷ The lipid
 bilayer is clearly resolved (arrow).
- D) Fractionation of sEVs (purple) from proteins (green, blue) by size-exclusion chromatography.

- E) Single frame from nanoparticle tracking analysis (NTA) of an sEV sample under constant
- 780 flow, showing particle tracks (red) and particle size-distribution (blue).
- 781 F) Representative trace of EV sample obtained using resistive pulse sensing (RPS).
- G) Individual particles detected by RPS, with size determined relative to calibration beads of a known size.
- 784 H) Size distribution of EVs obtained by RPS.



786 *Figure 3.*

- 787 Steps towards EV characterization, adapted from MISEV2018 guidelines.³¹
- 1) Determine the quantity of EVs obtained, relative to the amount of starting material.
- 2) Verify the presence of at least three positive protein markers of small EVs, including one
- transmembrane or GPI-anchored protein (eg: CD9, CD63, CD81, NT5E/CD73), and one cytosolic,
- 791 Iuminal protein (eg: ALIX/PDCD6IP, HSC70). For large EVs, a wide range of surface markers such as
- integrins from the cell of origin may be used.
- 3) Preferably, demonstrate the relative abundance of significant contamination by non-vesicular, co-
- isolated components such as lipoproteins (APOB, APOA1, APOA2) or albumin.
- 4) Characterize individual EVs, with images of single EVs (both wide-field and close-up).

14. <u>Box 1</u>

798 799	The standard differential ultracentrifugation protocol for EV isolation, originally published by Thery et al. ⁵⁴		
800	1.	Centrifuge sample at 300 g for 10 min, at 4°C. (Remove cells and cell debris)	
801	2.	Centrifuge supernatant at 2,000 g for 10 min, at 4°C. (Remove larger complexes)	
802	3.	Centrifuge supernatant at 10,000 g for 30 min, at 4°C. (Microvesicles are in the pellet).	
803	4.	Centrifuge supernatant at 100,000 g for 70 min, at 4°C in ultracentrifuge. (EVs are in the pellet)	
804	5.	Re-suspend the pellet containing EVs and contaminating proteins.	
805	6.	Centrifuge 100,000 g 70 min, 4°C in ultracentrifuge to wash. (sEVs/exosomes are in the pellet).	

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808 15. <u>Author contributions</u>

All co-authors contributed to the draft of the document; SD, JS and CMB synthesized allcontributions and handled the revision of the paper.

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839 17. Conflicts of Interest

840 L.B has performed advisory board work and received speaker fees from Sanofi and Novartis, and is 841 founder and shareholder of Glycardial Diagnosis SL and Ivestatin Therapeutics, SL (all outside of this work) ; CJB is a board member of Technoclone. AB is founder and CEO of Exo-Analysis. TT has filed 842 843 and licensed patents in the field of noncoding RNAs and targeted delivery strategies and is founder 844 and shareholder of Cardior Pharmaceuticals GmbH (outside of the topic of this review). RL discloses 845 grants from Stago and a patent on microvesicle fibrinolytic activity licensed to Stago. EIB is member 846 of the Advisory Board of Sphere Gene Therapeutics Inc. (Boston, US). MHMW discloses a 847 collaborative research agreement with BD Biosciences Europe, Erembodegem, Belgium to optimize 848 flow cytometric analysis of EVs. 849

850 18. <u>References</u>

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