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Preclinical studies of iododeoxyuridine in dimethyl sulfoxide for the topical treatment of cutaneous herpes simplex virus infections

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Summary

The topical use of iododeoxyuridine (IDU) in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) for the treatment of cutaneous herpes simplex virus (HSV) infections has been advocated for over 20 years, but the clinical efficacy of this combination remains controversial. The following studies were undertaken to understand better how variable formulations of IDU in DMSO and different rates of percutaneous drug delivery affect clinical efficacy. The flux of IDU from DMSO through excised guinea pig skin was measured in Franz diffusion cells, with varying experimental conditions and formulations of IDU, DMSO and water. Contrary to predictions derived from Fick's law, the flux of IDU did not continue to increase with increasing drug concentration beyond 20% IDU. Higher rates of drug flux were measured when the in vitro experimental conditions more closely replicated those of a skin surface in vivo, that is with the receiver solution at 37°C and skin exposed to ambient conditions. Three IDU-DMSO formulations tested in vitro were used to treat an experimental dorsal cutaneous HSV infection of guinea pigs. The flux values determined at 37°C in the open diffusion cells showed better correlation with treatment efficacy. The results of these experiments may explain in part why very high concentrations of IDU in DMSO may not necessarily be more clinically effective beyond an optimal drug concentration and why results with different IDU-DMSO formulations have been variable.

Introduction

Iododeoxyuridine (5-iodo-2'-deoxyuridine, idoxuridine, IDU) is a structural analogue of the natural deoxyribonucleoside thymidine. IDU was first synthesized by Prusoff in 1959 (Prusoff, 1959), and the inhibitory effect of IDU against herpes

simplex virus (HSV) replication was reported shortly thereafter (Herrmann, 1961). Kaufman et al. (1962) observed that a topical solution of IDU was effective in shortening the course of experimental herpetic keratitis in rabbits. A 0.1% ophthalmic formulation of IDU was subsequently made available for clinical use in the treatment of herpes keratitis.

IDU in various topical preparations, including solutions, creams and ointment bases with concentrations of IDU ranging from 0.1% to 10%, has not demonstrated clinical efficacy in the treatment

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of mucocutaneous HSV infections (Hall-Smith et al., 1962; Burnett and Katz, 1963; Ive, 1964; Juel-Jensen and MacCallum, 1964; Kibrick and Katz, 1970). One possible explanation for this lack of efficacy, despite the *in vitro* activity of IDU against HSV and its utility in ocular herpes, is poor delivery of the relatively insoluble drug through the stratum corneum barrier layer of the skin to the infected cells in the basal epithelial cell layers. Juel-Jensen and MacCallum showed that if IDU delivery through the skin is guaranteed by use of a spray gun, lesion duration may be significantly reduced (Juel-Jensen and MacCallum, 1965).

Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) is an organic solvent well known to enhance the penetration of many compounds through skin (Stoughton and Fritsch, 1964). Topical formulations of 1–20% IDU in vehicles of 90% to 100% DMSO have been reported to decrease lesion severity in both oral and genital recurrent HSV infections (Goldman and Kitzmiller, 1965; MacCallum and Juel-Jensen, 1966; Parker, 1977). In contrast, Silvestri et al. (1982) have found more recently that topical 30% IDU in DMSO (no water dilution) was both ineffective and painful when used to treat genital herpes.

Clinical studies using topical IDU in DMSO to treat mucocutaneous HSV infections have yielded confusing and variable results, and no study of these antiviral formulations to date has satisfactorily explained this variability. The data presented here are the results of a series of experiments with different formulations of IDU in DMSO designed to quantitate the extent to which DMSO enhances the penetration of IDU through excised guinea pig skin. The efficacy of topical IDU in DMSO against an experimental dorsal cutaneous HSV-1 infection of guinea pigs is then correlated with the *in vitro* findings.

Materials and Methods

Experimental animals and virus

Hartley strain, outbred, female albino guinea pigs, 200–250 g each, were obtained from Charles River Breeding Laboratories, Inc., Wilmington,

MA; the mean age of these animals was 17 weeks. Following virus inoculation and during treatment, animals were housed in individual cages. The virus used throughout these studies is the laboratory strain HSV type 1 (HSV-1) E115 (originally obtained from A. Nahmais, Atlanta, GA). Virus stock for inoculation of guinea pigs was grown in Vero cells and contained $5\text{--}10 \times 10^7$ pfu/ml. The concentration of IDU that inhibits HSV-1 E115 plaque formation by 50% in Vero cells is 0.18 mg/liter (Freeman et al., 1986).

Antiviral drugs and drug formulations

IDU and DMSO were obtained from Research Industries Inc., Salt Lake City, UT. [^3H]IDU was obtained from Moravek Biochemicals Inc., Brea, CA, at a specific activity of 10 Ci/mmol and concentration of 1 mCi/ml. The purity of the [^3H]IDU was confirmed by thin-layer chromatography on a fluorescent silica gel plate with an upper phase of ethyl acetate–formic acid–water (60:5:35) liquid phase. A single peak contained 96–97% of the activity. Radiolabeled formulations of IDU were prepared by stirring 5 μl of [^3H]IDU with 2 ml each of the liquid test formulations. The resultant specific activity of the formulations was 50–100 CPM/ μg IDU. The radiolabeled formulations of IDU were used for the *in vitro* drug diffusion experiments. IDU test formulations were prepared by dissolving appropriate concentrations of IDU in stock solutions with varying concentrations of DMSO and water.

Penetration of IDU through guinea pig skin in vitro

Guinea pigs were sacrificed with ether and shaved closely using electric clippers, with care taken to ensure that the stratum corneum layer of the epidermis was not damaged during clipping. Full-thickness skin was removed from the dorsum by dissection, and specimens were used within an hour. Franz diffusion cells (Crown Glass, Somerville, NJ) were used in these studies. The receiver chamber was filled with 0.15 M NaCl, 0.01% thimerosal (Sigma Chemicals, St. Louis, MO). Guinea pig skin was clamped across the 1.6 cm diameter opening at the top of the cell with the stratum corneum facing upwards. The temperature of the receiver solution was either kept at

37°C by circulating water through the outer jacket or left at room temperature (25°C). Samples of receiver solution were withdrawn through a side port, and mixing of the receiver solution was achieved with an elongated magnetic stir bar.

At time zero, 100 µl of the IDU-DMSO solution being tested was applied to the exposed stratum corneum surface. The upper glass chamber was either sealed with paraffin film or left open to ambient conditions. Samples (200 µl) were withdrawn from the receiver chamber at intervals and assayed for radioactivity in a Beckman scintillation counter. The concentration of IDU was calculated from the CPM measured.

The penetration of IDU through the excised skin was described by a plot of the IDU concentration (mg/liter) in the receiver chamber against time (h). Drug flux (J , µg IDU/(cm² · h)) was calculated from the slope (mg IDU/(liter · h)), the volume of the receiver chamber (ml), and the area of the skin surface through which diffusion was taking place (cm²).

Animal inoculation and treatment regimens

Guinea pigs were inoculated with 20 µl undiluted stock HSV-1 E115 in 4 different areas on the depilated dorsum by multiple shallow punctures following the model described by Hubler et al. (Hubler et al., 1974) and as described in detail in previous studies from this laboratory (Spruance et al., 1984). The day of inoculation was designated day 0. Treatment was begun 24 h after virus inoculation and continued for a total of 3 days (days 1–3). Treatments were given 4 times a day; 100 µl of each test formulation was applied at these times, a quantity sufficient to cover each infected area. Each drug formulation and its corresponding placebo vehicle were always tested opposite each other at the same rostral–caudal level on the guinea pig dorsum. While each animal provided two pairs of treatment sites, a given formulation or vehicle was tested only once on each animal. IDU-DMSO solutions used for treatment contained a minimum of 5% water in the vehicle to minimize the erythematous reaction which undiluted DMSO solutions may cause on contact with skin.

On day 4 after completion of the treatment regimen, the dorsum of each animal was again depilated, and each infection site was evaluated with respect to number of lesions, total lesion area, and titer of virus in skin excised from the treatment site.

Statistical procedures

Paired data (drug and drug vehicle) were evaluated by the Wilcoxon signed rank test. The percent differences in various measures of lesion severity effected by each formulation in comparison to its vehicle control were compared with the effects of other formulations by the Mann–Whitney rank-sum procedure. Other data were analyzed by Student's *t*-test. All probability determinations were two-tailed, and a *P*-value of ≤ 0.05 was considered to be significant.

Results

Penetration of IDU through guinea pig skin in vitro

The rates of percutaneous IDU delivery to the receiver solution (flux values, J) for each set of experimental conditions are presented in Tables 1–3. Table 1 shows the effect of varying IDU concentrations in DMSO undiluted by water on the rate of drug penetration. These experiments were performed with the top of the diffusion cell

TABLE 1

Influence of different concentrations of IDU in DMSO on the penetration of IDU through guinea pig skin in vitro

IDU (%)	DMSO (%)	Flux (J) µg/(cm ² · h)	Permeability constant ($K_p \cdot 10^{-5}$)
2	98	2.81 ± 0.61	14.05 ± 3.05
5	95	3.65 ± 0.62	7.29 ± 1.24
10	90	5.93 ± 0.83	5.93 ± 0.83
20	80	15.51 ± 1.81	7.75 ± 0.91
30	70	7.91 ± 1.14	2.64 ± 0.38
40	60	4.67 ± 0.33	1.16 ± 0.08

Experiments were performed with top of diffusion cell sealed, receiver solution at 25°C. $K_p = \{J[\mu\text{g}/(\text{cm}^2 \cdot \text{h})]\}/\{\text{concentration} [\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^3]\} = \text{cm}/\text{h}$. For all experiments, $n = 3$, mean ± S.E.M.

TABLE 2

Influence of experimental conditions on the flux of 2% IDU in 58.8% DMSO, 39.2% water through guinea pig skin in vitro

Receiver chamber temperature (°C)	Top sealed	Top open
25	0.05 ± 0.03	0.53 ± 0.38
37	0.25 ± 0.16	1.26 ± 0.57

Flux in $\mu\text{g}/(\text{cm}^2 \cdot \text{h})$; $n = 3$, mean ± S.D.

sealed and the receiver solution maintained at room temperature (25°C). The flux of IDU tended to increase with increasing IDU concentration in the formulation up to 20% IDU. However, flux decreased thereafter as the IDU concentration was increased to 40%. The concentration of IDU in all these formulations is well below the saturation solubility ($\geq 80\%$, N.V.S., unpublished data). The permeability constants (K_p) tended to drop with increasing IDU concentration. A 12-fold greater permeability constant was observed with 2% IDU compared to 40% IDU.

Table 2 shows the effects of varying temperature and atmospheric conditions on the rate of penetration of IDU through guinea pig skin from a solution of 2.0% IDU, 58.8% DMSO, 39.2% water. By changing the conditions in the top chamber of the diffusion cell from sealed to open atmospheric environment, the flux of IDU was increased 10-fold at 25°C and 5-fold at 37°C. With the top of the cell covered, elevation of the

TABLE 3

Influence of DMSO concentration on the flux of 5% IDU through guinea pig skin in vitro

IDU-DMSO formulation			Flux, $\mu\text{g}/(\text{cm}^2 \cdot \text{h})$	
IDU (%)	DMSO (%)	Water (%)	25°C, sealed	37°C, open
5	66.50	28.50	0.18 ± 0.08	2.36 ± 0.74
5	76.00	19.00	0.71 ± 0.57	2.40 ± 0.18
5	90.25	4.75	2.81 ± 0.64	3.69 ± 0.57

Flux values are mean ± S.D., $n = 3-4$.

temperature from 25°C to 37°C increased the flux of IDU 5-fold; with the top of the cell open to ambient conditions, a greater than 2-fold increase in the flux was observed when the temperature was elevated from 25 to 37°C.

Table 3 shows the effect of changing in vitro experimental conditions on the rate of IDU penetration through guinea pig skin from three 5% IDU formulations. At 25°C with the top of the cell sealed, the flux of IDU increased 16-fold as the DMSO in the formulation increased to 90.25% DMSO. When experiments were conducted at 37°C with the top of the cell open to ambient conditions, the changing DMSO concentration had a much smaller effect on flux, and all 3 formulations showed similar, relatively high, rates of drug delivery. The differences in IDU flux between the 5% IDU-DMSO formulations at 37°C were not significant.

TABLE 4

Effect of topical therapy with IDU in DMSO on the severity of an experimental cutaneous HSV-1 infection of guinea pigs

Treatment group ^a	Measure of lesion severity ^c					
	No. of lesions	%	Total lesion area (mm ²)	% ^b	Lesion virus titer, log ₁₀ pfu/ml	%
5% IDU/70% DMSO	16 ± 4	60	19 ± 10	78	2.8 ± 0.6	94
70% DMSO vehicle	40 ± 5		85 ± 30		4.0 ± 0.4	
5% IDU/80% DMSO	13 ± 4	68	25 ± 11	68	2.4 ± 1.3	97
80% DMSO vehicle	41 ± 9		79 ± 23		3.9 ± 0.4	
5% IDU/95% DMSO	8 ± 3	78	8 ± 5	90	2.3 ± 1.0	98
95% DMSO vehicle	37 ± 8		79 ± 39		4.0 ± 0.5	

^a Composition (% w/w) of IDU-DMSO formulations is the same as in Table 3; 70, 80, and 95% DMSO vehicle refers to stock solutions of DMSO, water used for placebo treatment and, with addition of 5% IDU, for active treatment.

^b Percent reduction with treatment; $P = 0.01-0.02$.

^c Mean ± S.D., $n = 8$.

Efficacy of topical IDU-DMSO in the dorsal cutaneous guinea pig model

Twelve animals were inoculated with HSV-1 E115 as described above. The same 3 formulations of 5% IDU in DMSO described in Table 3 were assessed, and these results are presented in Table 4. Each of the IDU formulations was significantly more effective than placebo treatment ($P = 0.01-0.02$). When the relative efficacy of each formulation was compared to the others, the differences between 5% IDU in 70% DMSO and in 95% DMSO were significant for reduction in lesion number and lesion area ($P = 0.01$ and 0.02 , respectively), while the IDU formulations in 80% DMSO and 95% DMSO were significantly different from each other only for reduction in lesion area ($P = 0.002$). There were no significant differences in efficacy between 5% IDU in the 70% and 80% DMSO vehicles.

Discussion

These studies demonstrate that several variables affect percutaneous drug delivery enhanced by DMSO, both in the Franz cell diffusion studies and in the living animal model. We found that the flux of IDU tended to increase with drug concentration from DMSO vehicle up to 20% IDU, but then decreased as the drug concentration was further increased to 40%. The saturation solubility of IDU in DMSO exceeds the concentrations of IDU studied by two-fold.

Fick's law of diffusion states that the rate of penetration per unit area (J) is proportional to a permeability constant (K_p) times the penetrant concentration (C) (Scheuplein and Blank, 1971). According to this principle, we would expect the flux of IDU to increase until the saturation concentration of IDU in DMSO is reached. We found that K_p tended to decrease as the concentration of IDU increased (Table 1), indicating that K_p is not invariant with drug concentration. This observation shows that Fick's law alone is not sufficient to interpret the experimental data. Similar results with DMSO as the solvent and *O*-ethyl S-2-diisopropyl-aminoethyl methylphosphono-

thiolate (VX) as the penetrant have been observed by Creasy et al. (1978). The penetration-enhancing properties of DMSO are well recognized (Stoughton and Fritsch, 1964). It has been postulated that DMSO interacts with the stratum corneum either by causing it to swell (due to DMSO's hygroscopic properties) or by solubilizing and eluting components from the horny structure (Bergstrom-Kurihara et al., 1986). In either case, the diffusional resistance of the stratum corneum would be reduced (Creasy et al., 1978).

One assumption we have made in calculating K_p for our data is that the IDU concentration applied to the stratum corneum remained constant. In the Franz cell, conditions on the donor side, particularly with a single bolus dose of drug, are not constant; this dynamic aspect is even more of a factor in topical therapy on living skin. The changing K_p which we found is likely to be due to a combination of effects, including the possibility that the effect of DMSO on permeability at high concentrations of IDU wanes because the drug is so soluble that it acts as a diluent of DMSO.

The data in Table 2 show the effect of different experimental conditions on the measurement of flux in vitro. Raising the temperature of the receiver chamber increased the rate of penetration of IDU by 5 times in the sealed cells and greater than two-fold in the open cells. One reason for the increase in flux at higher temperature is the increasing molecular diffusivity of the drug, which is determined in part by temperature (Stoughton, 1965; Poulsen, 1973). In other studies with different antivirals, we have noted a similar temperature effect on drug flux (Spruance et al., 1985; Sheth et al., 1986).

When the flux was measured from the same 2% IDU-DMSO formulation at a set temperature, the exposure of the skin surface to ambient conditions increased the rate of drug delivery by five-fold and ten-fold for 37°C and 25°C, respectively. The reasons for this increase are not clear, but lower ambient humidity in the top chamber of open cells may allow water to evaporate from the IDU-DMSO formulation, increasing the effective concentrations of both IDU and DMSO on the surface of the skin and hence, creating a steeper diffusion gradient across the skin.

Examination of the results in Table 3 shows that in experiments done at 25°C in sealed cells, the flux of 5% IDU increases as the DMSO concentration increases. This suggests that higher concentrations of DMSO in the formulation enhance IDU penetration and is consistent with previous reports (Stoughton and Fritsch, 1964). However, when the same formulations were studied at 37°C with the cells open to ambient conditions, the rates of penetration were not significantly different from each other. Again, this may be due in part to water evaporation from the skin surface.

These data emphasize an important point about the use of in vitro skin diffusion results to predict in vivo efficacy. In the guinea pig model of dorsal cutaneous HSV infection, all three 5% IDU-DMSO formulations were effective topical therapies, with the highest DMSO concentration formulation showing a slight advantage. We have previously shown that efficacy in this model is in part correlated with drug flux measured in Franz cells (Freeman et al., 1986; Freeman and Spruance, 1986). When the results in Tables III and IV are examined, it appears that the measurement of drug flux at 37°C with the skin surface exposed to ambient conditions is the better in vitro system for predicting in vivo efficacy, perhaps because conditions more closely resemble those on the living animal's infected back.

While the measurement of drug flux is one useful correlate of therapeutic efficacy, the passage of antiviral drug through the epidermis, per se, is clearly not the desired pharmacokinetic endpoint. That endpoint is a concentration of antiviral drug inside infected cells that is greater than the virus inhibitory concentration of the agent. Based on our observed correlations of in vivo efficacy in a guinea pig model of HSV infection (Freeman and Spruance, 1986), we hypothesize that antiviral drug delivered through the skin periodically in high concentration to infected basal epidermal cells leads to the accumulation of nucleoside antivirals intracellularly. Phosphorylation of nucleosides creates a molecular "sink" inside infected cells so that drug is retained in the cell after the concentration in the intercellular space has fallen to zero.

We have also measured drug retention in the

stratum corneum by assay of antiviral in adhesive tape strippings, and this measure also correlates with in vivo efficacy (Sheth et al., 1987). There is some evidence from our data that peak stratum corneum IDU levels correlate with clinical efficacy, but measurements at later time points (6–24 h) may show continuing high concentrations of retained drug but ineffective treatment of the clinical disease. This data suggests that some amount of drug becomes trapped in the stratum corneum, and that this reservoir does not release drug to reach locally infected cells and therefore is of no therapeutic significance.

The present studies have shown that IDU in a DMSO vehicle penetrates skin well in vitro, and this formulation likely allows the drug to reach the site of virus replication in the basal cell layers of the epithelium rapidly. Optimum concentrations of IDU and DMSO in the formulation should provide maximum penetration of the drug through the stratum corneum, which in turn may provide better therapeutic efficacy. Our studies suggest that in order to achieve favorable results in clinical trials with IDU and DMSO, it may be important to avoid concentrations of IDU higher than 20%.

IDU in DMSO formulations are effective in the treatment of cutaneous HSV-1 infections in the animal model. Further clinical studies with topical IDU in DMSO are under way to examine the therapeutic efficacy of a formulation based on these studies in the treatment of recurrent herpes labialis.

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