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# **Research Papers**

# Design of nanoparticles of less than 50 nm diameter: preparation, characterization and drug loading

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#### **Summary**

In this paper, experimental conditions for preparing nanoparticles less than 50 nm in diameter are described. The concentration **of a surfactant agent (Plmonic F68) was observed to influence greatly the size distribution profile of the colloidal particles obtained.**  Similarly, the lower the HCl concentration was in the polymerization medium, the smaller were the polymerized particles. **Furthermore, these 30-50 nm nanoparticles were found to adsorb efficiently both hydrophilic (ampicillin) and hydrophobic (dexamethasone) drugs. Ampicillin was found to be mechanically entrapped in the polymeric network of the particles, since no modification of the gel permeation chromatography molecular weight distribution was observed after loading the carrier with ampicillin. Drug release from the particles was homogeneous. The preparation could be lyophilized without influencing the size and size distribution profiles. The availability of injectable particles of 30-50 nm in diameter could open interesting perspectives for the delivery of drugs to sites other than the reticuloendothelial system.** 

# **Introduction**

**The** concept of drug targeting has been developed as an alternative to tissue distribution dependent upon the molecular diffusion of the drug. A considerable amount of energy has been devoted to the creation of colloidal drug delivery systems, acceptable for general systemic use and capable of carrying a drug to its target at the cellular or tissular level. One obvious use of the colloidal carriers would be the administration of cancer chemotherapy. However, treatment of solid tumors and metastases requires the carrier to leave the circulation, which seems unlikely due to the size of the carrier (generally larger than 100 nm) in comparison to the histology of the endothelial barrier whose fenestration is 50-60 nm or sinusoids are less than about 100 nm (Bundgaard, 1980).

Among the colloidal structures described for the targeting of the drugs, biodegradable 150 nm nanoparticles have been developed by Couvreur et al. (1982a) and Grislain et al. (1983). Although it has been demonstrated that polyalkylcyanoacrylate nanoparticles can significantly modify drug distribution and, consequently drug toxicity (Couvreur et al., 1982b), their entrapment by Kupffer cells should reduce the availability of the carried drug aimed at other targets (Lenaerts et al., 1984a). Therefore, targeting of nanoparticles to sites other than the reticuloendothelial system

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(RES) presented an important challenge: to improve the bioavailability of the drug-associated nanoparticles. By analogy with liposomes, this strategy requires polymeric colloidal systems of less than 50-60 nm to enable transendothelial passage. Indeed, it has previously been shown that small-sized liposomes could reach hepatocytes by penetrating the endothelial barrier through the fenestration. In addition, Kupffer cell capture of liposomes could be reduced (Spanjer et al., 1984).

This paper describes the preparation of biodegradable nanoparticles of approx. 30 nm. The influence of various physicochemical parameters on the size of the nanoparticles was also studied. Data concerning drug-release from these smallsized nanoparticles are given.

#### **Materials and Methods**

# *Preparation of free nanoparticles*

Nanoparticles were prepared by emulsion, polymerization of two different monomers: isobutyl (IBCA; Sigma, Paris) and isohexylcyanoacrylate (IHCA; Sopar, Brussels). The concentrations of the surfactant (Pluronic  $F68^{\circ}$ ; ICI France, Clamart) in the polymerization medium, the monomer, and the pH of the polymerization medium were varied.

IBCA or IHCA monomer  $(10-200 \mu l)$  was added under mechanical stirring to 10 ml of the polymerization medium containing Pluronic F68  $(0.2-10\%)$ . The pH of the polymerization medium was varied by adding HCl  $(10^{-3}-10^{-1}$  N). After polymerization of the monomer, a milky suspension was obtained which displayed significant Tyndall effect.

In some experiments, the monomer was polymerized in the same medium containing methanol (Prolabo, Paris) (5-30%) or acetone (Prolabo, Paris) (5-30%) in addition to the aqueous solution of Pluronic F68. These conditions were controlled to enable the adsorption of waterinsoluble compounds onto nanoparticles.

## *Preparation of drug-loaded nanoparticles*

Drug-loaded nanoparticles were prepared according to the same method as that described above, after dissolution of ampicillin (Negma, Paris) (AMPI) in a 2% Pluronic F68 solution at pH 1.7. The concentration of AMP1 ranged from 250 to 2000  $\mu$ g/ml. During the polymerization period, no degradation of AMP1 occurred at pH 1.7.

Dexamethasone (DEXA; Sigma), used as hydrophobic drug model, was dissolved in a 2% Pluronic F68 aqueous solution (pH 1.7) containing methanol (5%) to facilitate dissolution of the drug. The DEXA concentration ranged from 125 to  $1000 \mu g/ml$ .

After polymerization, the nanoparticle suspension was neutralized to pH 7 and centrifuged (Beckman) at  $110000 \times g$ . Washing the particles with water did not desorb AMP1 from nanoparticles. The drug content in both the sediment (linked drug) and the supematant (free drug) was quantified using previous described high-pressure liquid chromatography (Waters-Millipore, St Quentin en Yvelinos, France) (HPLC) methods (Vree et al., 1978; Taniguchi et al., 1987).

# *Nanoparticle characterisation and lyophilization*

*The* mean size and size distribution of nanoparticles were measured by photon correlation spectroscopy using a Coulter sub-micron particle analyzer (Coulter model N4MD (C, Coultronics France, Margency), which evaluates the sample's size distribution as a log normal and computes the mean and standard deviation of the particle size in terms of this distribution.

Nanoparticle samples were observed with a transmission electron microscope (Philips, Bobigny, France) after negative staining with 2% aqueous solution of sodium phosphotungstate (J.T. Baker, Boulogne sur Seine).

Samples were characterized before and after lyophilization in a Chrisa ALPHA 1-5 freeze-dryer (Bioblock Scientific, Vanves, France) for 24 h under vacuum  $(6 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mbar})$ . Lyophilized nanoparticles were resuspended by adding 10 ml of an aqueous glucose solution (5%) to the vial.

# *Molecular weight determination*

The molecular weight was determined using a gel permeation liquid chromatograph (Waters-Millipore) fitted with a refractive index detector and



**Fig. 1. Size distribution profile of IBCA ( -) and IHCA**  (- – – ) nanoparticles prepared in a 2% Pluronic F68 aque**ous solution (pH 1.7).** 

columns 100 and 10000 A packed with Ultrastyragel, were used. Tetrahydrofuran (Prolabo) with a solvent flow of  $1 \text{ ml/min}$  was used as the eluant . Nanoparticles (80 mg) were dissolved in 3 ml of tetrahydrofuran. This solution was filtered through a 0.45  $\mu$ m filter (Waters-Millipore) and 50  $\mu$ l were injected into the chromatographic system. The chromatograms were recorded and the peak surfaces integrated on a printer fitted with GPC calculation capacity.

Polystyrene standards with molecular weights ranging from 1800 to 355000 were used for column calibration. A calculation method was adopted in which the number average molecular adopted in which the humber average molecular<br>weight  $(\overline{M}_n)$  and the mass average molecular weight  $(\overline{M}_{\omega})$  were calculated according to the following equations:

$$
\overline{M_n} = \sum Q_i / \sum (Q_i / M_i)
$$
 (1)

$$
\overline{M_{\rm w}} = \sum (Q_i M_i) / \sum Q_i \tag{2}
$$

where  $Q_i$  represents the amount of polymer having a molecular weight  $M_i$ ; the polymer molecular weight distribution was estimated by calculating  $\overline{f}$ the dispersion coefficient  $(d = \overline{M_w}/\overline{M_n})$ . Molecular weights were determined on either drug-free or AMPI-loaded IBCA nanoparticles, the concentration of AMP1 in the polymerization medium being 1000  $\mu$ g/ml.



**Fig. 2. Electron micrograph of IBCA nanoparticles polymerized in a 2% Pluronic F68 aqueous solution (pH 1.7).** 



Fig. 3. Mean diameter of IBCA  $(- - -)$  and IHCA  $(-$ **nanoparticles as a function of the Pluronic F68 concentration (pH of polymerization medium: 1.7).** 

### *Drug release from nanoparticles*

AMPI-loaded nanoparticles were incubated at  $37^{\circ}$ C in a phosphate buffer (Prolabo; pH 7.4) in the presence (300  $\mu$ g/ml) or absence of esterases (Sigma; from porcine liver). The concentration of AMPI in the incubation medium was  $100 \mu g/ml$ (1000  $\mu$ g/ml in the nanoparticle sample). The pH was regularly verified, controlled and adjusted when necessary with 0.1 N NaOH. Samples were taken at different time interval, ultracentrifuged  $(110000 \times g, 90 \text{ min})$  and the release of AMPI into the supematant was estimated using the



Fig. 4. Mean diameter of IBCA  $(- -)$  and IHCA  $($ **nanoparticles as a function of the HCl concentration (2%**  Pluronic F68 in polymerization medium).



**Fig. 5. Size distribution profile of IBCA nanoparticles prepared in a 2% Pluronic F68 aqueous solution (pH 1.7) before**   $(\_\_\_\$ ) and after  $(- - -)$  freeze-drying.

HPLC method described previously (Vree et al., 1978; Taniguchi et al., 1987).

#### **Results**

# *Unloaded nanoparticles*

Fig. 1 shows a typical size distribution profile of nanoparticles after polymerization of the monomers (IBCA and IHCA) in a 2% Pluronic F68 aqueous solution at pH 1.7. The mean size of the particles was 56 nm ( $\pm$ 7 nm) and 49 nm ( $\pm$ 11 nm), respectively. Furthermore, the distribution was unimodal with a Gaussian profile. This was



**Fig. 6. Ampicillin adsorption onto IBCA nanoparticles as a function of the drug concentration in the polymerization medium (2% Pluronic F68 at neutral pH).** 

**Size of** *nanoparticles formed with various concentrations of isobutylcyanoacrylate* (IBCA) or isohexylcyanoacrylate (IHCA) *monomer* 

Monomer concentration <sup>a</sup> $(\mu l/ml)$	$Size \pm SD$ (nm)		$%$ $a$	$Size \pm SD$ (nm)	
	<b>IBCA</b>	<b>IHCA</b>		$A^b$	
				54 $(\pm 6)$	
	31 $(\pm 7)$	26 $(\pm 5)$		54 $(\pm 7)$	
2	33 $(\pm 7)$	32 $(\pm 4)$	10	$63 (\pm 12)$	
	35 $(\pm 8)$	35 $(\pm 9)$	30	$209 (+36)$	
10	45 ( $\pm$ 14)	40 ( $\pm$ 14)			
20	56 $(\pm 7)$	40 $(\pm 15)$		<sup>a</sup> Percentage of acetone or m $\sim$ $\sim$ $\sim$ $\sim$ $\sim$ $\sim$ $\sim$	

**HCl.** 

consistent with electron microscopic examination (Fig. 2).

The concentration of Pluronic F68 in the polymerization medium significantly modified the size of the nanoparticles obtained. For a Pluronic concentration ranging from 0.2 to 10% a marked reduction in diameter was observed for both IBCA and IHCA nanoparticles (Fig. 3). The smaller diameters were obtained with 3% and more Pluronic for both formulations.

In a second experiment, the pH of the polymerization medium was modified by using different concentrations of HCl. Sizes as low as 34 nm  $(\pm 11 \text{ nm})$  and 36 nm  $(\pm 7 \text{ nm})$  were obtained,

<sup>a</sup> Polymerization medium: 2% Pluronic F68 in  $2 \times 10^{-2}$  N

#### **TABLE 1 TABLE 2**

Size of IBCA nanoparticles obtained in the presence of various *concentrations of acetone or methanol (monomer concentrations: 20* **mg/ml)** 

$\frac{a}{b}$	$Size \pm SD$ (nm)		
	A <sup>b</sup>	M <sup>c</sup>	
0	54 $(\pm 6)$	54 $(\pm 6)$	
5	54 $(\pm 7)$	71 ( $\pm$ 30)	
10	$63 (\pm 12)$	178 $(\pm 48)$	
30	$209 (+36)$	325 ( $\pm$ 44)	

**a Percentage of acetone or methanol in the polymerization**  medium:  $2\%$  Pluronic F68 in  $2 \times 10^{-2}$  N HCI.

**b Size of nanoparticles obtained in the presence of acetone (A). 'Size of nanoparticles obtained in the presence of methanol (M).** 

respectively, for IBCA and IHCA nanoparticles prepared in a  $10^{-3}$  N HCl polymerization medium containing 2% Pluronic F68. Increasing the HCI concentration to  $10^{-1}$  N led to the formation of larger particles (above 80 nm) (Fig. 4).

The monomer concentration influenced only slightly the size and size distribution of the polymerized nanoparticles (Table 1).

Methanol or acetone was added to the polymerization medium to promote the solubilization of poorly soluble compounds. With both solvents, a dramatic increase in the nanoparticle diameter was noted (Table 2).

After freeze-drying, nanoparticles were readily resuspended in water. Comparative particle size measurements before (57 + 8 nm) and after (61 +







**(- ) IBCA nanoparticles.** 

**11** nm) freeze-drying showed no significant modification of the nanoparticle size distribution profile (Fig. 5).

# *Drug-loaded nanoparticles*

For IBCA nanoparticles, 75%  $(\pm 5\%)$  of the AMPI initially dissolved in the polymerization medium (up to 2000  $\mu$ g/ml) were firmly associated with the carrier, i.e. at a drug content as high as 67.5 mg of AMP1 per g of polymer (Fig. 6). The size distribution profile remains unchanged after AMPI adsorption onto the nanoparticles  $(48 \pm 9)$ nm).

In the case of DEXA, drug loading onto IBCA nanoparticles was satisfactory. For concentrations of DEXA in the polymerization medium ranging from 125 to 1000  $\mu$ g/ml, 75% ( $\pm$ 10 %) of the drug was bound to the polymer. Under these conditions, a maximum of 37.5 mg of DEXA per g of polymer could be associated with IBCA nanoparticles (Fig. 7). The size distribution profile was barely changed after DEXA adsorption onto nanoparticles (79  $\pm$  23 nm).

# *Molecular weight determination*

Since cyanoacrylate compounds polymerize via an anionic mechanism, it was important to determine whether the drug interacted with the polymer. Therefore, the molecular weights of unloaded and AMPI-loaded nanoparticles were estimated. These measurements showed that no significant change in the length of the polymer chain occurred after AMPI linkage (Fig. 8).



**Fig. 9. Profiles of AMPI release from IBCA nanoparticles in**  the absence  $(\blacksquare)$  and presence  $(\square)$  of esterases. Free AMPI (x) **was used as a control for stability.** 

# *Drug release from nanoparticles*

AMP1 release from IBCA nanoparticles into the esterase-free medium was biphasic with an initially rapid rate that was probably due to the liberation of AMP1 externally adsorbed at the surface of the particle; it then followed zero-order kinetics (Fig. 9). In the presence of esterases, drug release was slightly increased.

# **Discussion**

The results of these experiments have enabled us to establish experimental conditions needed to prepare nanoparticles of less than 50 nm and, in some cases, even less than 30 nm. For IBCA and IHCA nanoparticles, the concentration of Pluronic F68 in the polymerization medium strongly influenced the size and the size distribution profile of the colloidal particles obtained. The critical concentration of Pluronic for a marked size reduction was  $2-3\%$ , which was much higher than the critical micellar concentration (CMC) of the surfactant agent (Smolka, 1967). This led us to conclude that Pluronic must be present in sufficient quantities to enable polymerization into numerous micelles, after diffusion of the monomer from droplets which serve merely as a storehouse for monomer molecules. This was consistent with the mechanism of emulsion polymerization proposed by Harkins (1950) who demonstrated that monomer molecules are captured by soap micelles as long as the latter are present and not saturated with monomer.

Thus, increasing the Pluronic F68 concentration induced the formation of more micelles which, in turn, led to the formation of smaller nanoparticles, provided the monomer-polymer concentration remained constant.

On the other hand, the lower the HCl concentration was, the smaller were the polymerized particles. This can be explained by the fact that polymerization of IBCA and IHCA monomers occurs through an anionic polymerization mechanism (Donnely et al., 1977) (Fig. 10) rendering the monomer more reactive at lower HCl concentrations. Moreover, above pH 3, preparation of the nanoparticles became uncontrollable (larger par-



Fig. 10. Anionic polymerization of cyanoacrylic monomers (from Donnely et al. (1977)).

ticles) because of excessively rapid polymerization.

In contrast, the monomer concentration only slightly influenced the nanoparticle size. Furthermore, lyophilization and drug loading had no effect on nanoparticle size distribution.

Loading nanoparticles with AMP1 did not appear to modify to any great extent the architectural organization of the carrier formed by the agglomeration of small oligomeric subunits. The absence of modifications in the molecular weight profiles after loading nanoparticles with AMP1 led us to suppose that no chemical interactions occurred between the drug and the polymer. Thus, AMP1 was most probably mechanically entrapped in the polymeric network and was steadily released due to the bioerosion of the system, since greater amounts of the drug were liberated in the presence of esterases. This confirms the results of Lenaerts et al. (1984) who demonstrated the enzymatic contribution to the bioerosion of the polymer.

Preparation of colloidal drug-carriers less than 50 nm in diameter could open new perspectives for the transendothelial delivery of drugs to sites other than the reticuloendothelial system.

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