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SYNTHESIS OF POLY(DL-LACTIDE-CO-GLYCOLIDE) NANOPARTICLES WITH ENTRAPPED MAGNETITE

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Biological and Agricultural Engineering

in

The Department of Biological & Agricultural Engineering

by Carlos Ernesto Astete R. B.S., Catholic of Valparaiso University, Chile, 1993 M.B.A. Adolfo Ibanez University, Chile, 2000 December 2005

To whom I love, specially

Sara, Felipe, and Camila my lovely family and My Parents, Sara and Carlos

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ABSTRACT

The goal of the research was to synthesize magnetic polymeric nanoparticles (MPNPs) under 100 nm in diameter, for future drug delivery applications. The thesis is divided into two main sections. In the first section, a quantitative, and comprehensive description of the top-down synthesis techniques available for poly(lactide-co-glycolide) (PLGA) and magnetic polymeric nanoparticles (MPNPs) formation is provided, as well as the techniques commonly used for nanoparticle characterization. In the second part, a novel way to form MPNPs is presented. The emulsion evaporation method was selected as the method of choice to form poly(lactide-co-glycolide) (PLGA) nanoparticles with entrapped magnetite (Fe_3O_4) in the polymeric matrix, in the presence of sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) as a surfactant. The magnetite, a water soluble compound, was surface functionalized with oleic acid to ensure its efficient entrapment in the PLGA matrix. The inclusion of magnetite with oleic acid (MOA) into the PLGA nanoparticles was accomplished in the organic phase. Synthesis was followed by dialysis, performed to eliminate the excess SDS, and lyophilization. The nanoparticles obtained ranged in size between 38.6 nm and 67.1 nm for naked PLGA nanoparticles, and from 78.8 to 115.1 nm for MOA entrapped PLGA nanoparticles. The entrapment efficiency ranged from 57.36% to 91.9%. The SDS remaining in the nanoparticles varied from 51.02% to 88.77%.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

January 2005, FDA approves ABRAXANE[®] for breast cancer treatment, the first nanoparticle system for drug delivery [1, 2]. This system, based on nanoparticle Albumin-bound (nab[®]) Paclitaxel, showed better and faster rate of shrinking tumors in 460 patients with metastic breast cancer, almost double compared with solvent-based Taxol[®]. The application of nanotechnology to the health market is significant, considering the extensive research developed in this area during the last 20 years.

A basic requirement for the use of nanoparticles and other synthetic systems as drug delivery systems for human therapy is their biodegradability and biocompatibility. Another challenge for the use of nanoparticles as drug delivery systems is to minimize their side effects in the biological system in which dispersed. A controlled size distribution (monodisperse distribution of size), for accurate drug administration, is a central need for the use of nanoparticles in drug delivery systems. Moreover, the absence of toxic residues in the final nanosystem is required, and therefore stronger restrictions to the type of methods used for nanoparticles formation exist. Additionally, the stability of the nanoparticles should be addressed if parenteral administration of the nanoparticle is used. The aggregation process due to dispersion forces (i.e. electrostatic, hydrogen bonding, hydrophilic/hydrophobic, steric-Van der Waals) is the principal drawback of nanoparticle use in drug delivery. Therefore, the understanding of the complexity of the nanosystem, the biological system, and the interactions between the two is a basic requirement for successful implementation of new nano-systems designed for drug delivery.

 The goal of the present research was to form nanoparticles from a preformed polymer (poly(lactide-co-glycolide)) with entrapped magnetite. The thesis is divided in two main sections. The first section contains a review of PLGA and magnetic polymeric nanoparticles (MPNPs) synthesis and characterization. A detailed description of the important parameters affecting the nanoparticle size is also provided. The second section of the thesis is focused on the entrapment of magnetite into the PLGA matrix. The formation process of MPNPs nanoparticles by emulsion evaporation method, the effect of surfactant, and the magnetite entrapment results are explained in detail. The selection of the method, materials, and processing parameters to form MPNPs (Chapter 3) is based on the extensive literature cited in the first section of the thesis (Chapter 2), as follows.

1.1. Method Selection

 Two main procedures can be followed to form polymeric nanoparticles, namely top-down and bottom-up techniques. The top-down methods use size reduction to obtain controlled-size nanoparticles. This size reduction is based on the application of strong shear stress by wave sound emission (sonication), high pressure (microfluidization), and high speed agitation (homogenization). The bottom-up methods start from individual molecules to form nanoparticles, by polymerization. The polymerization methods commonly used are emulsion polymerization (water in oil, oil in water, and polymerization in bicontinuous structures), dispersion polymerization, and interfacial polymerization [3]. Monomers, initiators, additives, and solvent are the basic chemical components used in the polymerization methods. The main drawbacks of the bottom-up methods are the presence of residual sub-products in the final nanoparticles that can impart toxicity to the nanoparticles, the difficulty in the prediction of polymer molecular weight, affecting the biodistribution and release behavior of the drug from the nanoparticle; and the possibility for drug inhibitions due to interactions, or cross reactions of the drug with activated monomers and H^+ ions present during polymerization [4]. To overcome these limitations, top-down methods were developed using naturals and synthetic polymers. The emulsion evaporation, salting out, nanoprecipitation, and emulsion diffusion are the main top-down methods used to form polymeric nanoparticles. During the last years, significant modifications of these methods have been developed (see Chapter 2 for details) in an attempt to avoid the use of toxic solvents and surfactants, to improve drug entrapment efficiency and nanoparticle stability, and to more efficiently use energy in droplet size reduction. All these methods involve two liquid phases, the organic phase which can dissolve the polymer and the other hydrophobic components, and the continuous aqueous phase.

Each synthesis method has advantages and disadvantages as described in detail in Chapter 2. Emulsion evaporation, was selected as the method of choice in the present research due to its advantages described as follows. The versatility and flexibility of the method allows for the use of different polymers and solvents. Emulsion evaporation

permits higher polymer concentration per batch production improving the nanoparticle yield by batch. It can be used for entrapment of hydrophobic and hydrophilic drugs. The hydrophobic drugs use oil in water (o/w) emulsion. The hydrophilic drugs require the use of double emulsion $(w/\omega/w)$, and the first aqueous phase dissolves the hydrophilic drug. The fast evaporation rate of the solvent permits a reduction in the processing time [4, 5, 6, 7]; moreover the evaporation rate may be used to control the nanoparticle size as compared with other methods where evaporation follows the nanoparticle formation.

1.2. Materials Selection

1.2.1. Polymer (PLGA)

A wide spectrum of synthetic and natural polymers is available for nanoparticle formation, but their biocompatibility and biodegradability are the major limiting factors for their use in the drug delivery area. Natural polymers are more restricted due to variation in their purity. Also, some natural polymers require crosslinking, which can inactivate the entrapped drug [8]. Synthetic polymers, on the other hand, offer better reproducibility of the chemical characteristics of the synthesized nanoparticles as compared to the natural polymers. Synthetic polymers from the ester family, such as poly(lactic acid), poly(β-hydroxybutyrate), poly(caprolactone), poly(dioxanone), or other families such as poly(cyanoacrylates), poly(acrylic acid), poly(anhydrides), poly(amides), poly(ortho esters), poly(ethylene glycol), and poly(vinyl alcohol) are suitable for drug delivery due to their biodegradability, special release profiles and biocompatibility [9].

Poly(lactide-co-glycolide acid) (PLGA), from the ester family, has been widely used in the biomedical industry as a major components in biodegradable sutures, bone fixation nails and screws [10, 11]. It is a well-characterized polymer, its degradation subproducts are non toxic, it provides controlled drug release profiles by changing the PLGA copolymer ratio which affects the crystallinity (low crystallinity, more amorphous polymer means more fast degradation) of PLGA [9, 10, 11, 12, 13]. For these reasons, PLGA has been selected as the polymer of choice in the present research. PLGA of different molecular weights (from 10 kDa to over 100 kDa) and different copolymer molar ratios (50:50, 75:25, and 85:15) is available on the market. Molecular weight and copolymer molar ratio influence the degradation process and release profile of the drug entrapped. In general, low molecular weight PLGA with higher amounts of glycolic acid offer faster degradations rates [13, 14].

1.2.2. Solvent (Ethyl Acetate)

The top-down method requires the dissolution of the polymer in the aqueous or organic phase. The solvent election is restricted to the method used; for example, nanoprecipitation and emulsion diffusion use water-soluble solvents (i.e. acetone, benzyl alcohol), and emulsion evaporation requires water immiscible solvents. The method selected to form the nanoparticles was emulsion evaporation, in which the polymer (PLGA) was dissolved in the organic phase (solvent). The chlorinate solvents have been extensively used with this method to dissolve the PLGA (i.e. methylene chloride, dichloromethane, chloroform), but their toxicity and inflammability are of concern [15, 16]. A solvent that could be used as an alternative to chlorinate solvents is ethyl acetate. The low toxicity, low boiling point (77 °C) and inflammability are the main advantages of using ethyl acetate to dissolve the polymer. Because ethyl acetate is partially water soluble however, it is required to saturate the solvent with water before emulsification [7, 17].

1.2.3. Surfactant (SDS)

The stability of the organic droplet (ethyl acetate and PLGA) in water, during the emulsification step, is insured by the addition of surfactants. A wide spectrum of surfactants are available for emulsion stabilization, ionic surfactants (cationic, anionic, zwitterionic) and nonionic surfactants. The nonionic surfactants are macromolecules formed by copolymers or tripolymers (amphiphilic) which can form stable micelles due to the hydrophobic hydrophilic interactions with the two phases. The anionic and cationic surfactants use electrostatic interactions to stabilize emulsions. The major nonionic surfactants used in the emulsion evaporation method are poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA), poloxamer and poloxamines family, pluronic family (F68, F127, and others), sodium cholate, and tween 80. The formation of amphiphilic PLGA molecule has been studied to eliminate the surfactant addition during the emulsification step; this is accomplished by the attachment of a hydrophilic polymer (covalent link) to hydrophobic PLGA. Some of the common hydrophilic polymers used are poly(ethylene glycol) (PEG), chitosan, and poly(ethylene oxide) (PEO) [18, 19]. Anionic or cationic surfactants permit formation of micelles under 100 nm [20, 21] because of the electrostatic interaction (and other properties like value of packing number, HLB value, surface tension, and morphology). Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), an anionic surfactant, was selected because it has high HLB value (40) and forms micelles with sizes ranging between 20 to 150 nm in oil in water emulsion [7, 21, 22].

1.3. Processing Parameters

 The method and material selection, as well as the synthesis parameters play an important role in forming nanoparticles of controlled physical and chemical properties. Process parameters like phase volume ratio, sonication time and amplitude, amount of surfactant, PLGA concentration, evaporation conditions, and purification play a key role in determining the final nanoparticle size. Synthesis parameters were selected as follows. The phase volume ratio used was 20%, value based on previous works [7, 23, 24]. In the sonication step (droplet size reduction), two main parameters were controlled, the amplitude and the sonication time. The amplitude, defined as the peak to peak displacement at the probe tip, and the sonication time were selected based on the work of Landfester, K. [25], which showed that amplitudes over 30% formed small nano-droplets for a sonication time of 500 seconds. The sonication time selected was 10 minutes with 39% amplitude, which were proven experimentally to form small size nanoparticles (See Chapter 3). The PLGA concentration used was 5% w/v (mg PLGA/ml ethyl acetate) based on previous published studies [23, 24, 26]. Dialysis was selected as a purification method to reduce the excess of SDS as opposed to ultracentrifugation, because of the aggregation of the nanoparticles observed when centrifugation was used. The time of dialysis and number of washes was based on the published work of Jeong et al. [27, 28].

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CHAPTER 2. SYNTHESIS AND CHARACTERIZATION OF PLGA NANOPARTICLES AND MAGNETIC POLYMERIC NANOPARTICLES: A REVIEW¹

2.1. Introduction

Synthetic polymers and natural macromolecules have been extensively researched as colloidal materials for nanoparticle production designed for drug delivery. Synthetic polymers have the advantage of high purity and reproducibility over natural polymers. Among the synthetic polymers, the polyesters family (i.e. poly(lactic acid) (PLA), poly(ecaprolactone) (PCL), poly(glycolic acid) (PGA)) are of interest in the biomedical area because of their biocompatibility and biodegradability properties. In particular, poly(lactide-co-glycolide) (PLGA) has been FDA approved for human therapy [1].

The size and size distribution of the PLGA nanoparticles and magnetic polymeric nanoparticles (MPNPs) among other physical characteristics, are affected by the technique used for the nanoparticle production and the pertinent synthesis parameters, i.e. PLGA molecular weight, the addition of active components, surfactants, and other additives [2-8]. The current review is designed to present the reader with comprehensive information on PLGA nanoparticle synthesis, control of nanoparticle properties (i.e. size, size distribution, zeta potential, morphology, hydrophobicity/hydrophilicity, drug entrapment) by manipulation of the synthesis parameters, methods for NPMPs synthesis, and methods available for nanoparticle characterization. The words *nanoparticles* and *nanospheres* will be used interchangeably in this review based on the term preferably used by the cited authors; both terms denote particles smaller than 1 µm (1000 nm).

A number of reviews published in the literature focused on polymeric nanoparticle synthesis in general and PLGA nanoparticles in particular [7, 9-16]. The current review differs from the aforementioned reviews in several ways. First, it focuses specifically on PLGA nanoparticles, covering topics such as synthesis, size control and characterization. Second, it addresses in detail all top-down techniques available for PLGA nanoparticle formation. Third and last, in-depth discussions of available methods

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to control the size, size distribution, surface charge, and other nanoparticle properties are also presented.

2.2. Synthesis of PLGA Nanoparticles

Methods available for PLGA nanoparticle synthesis can be divided into two classes: bottom-up and top-down techniques. The bottom-up techniques such as emulsion or microemulsion polymerization, interfacial polymerization, and precipitation polymerization, employ a monomer as a starting point. Emulsion evaporation, emulsion diffusion, solvent displacement, and salting out are top-down techniques, in which the nanoparticles are synthesized from the pre-formed polymer. Table 1 summarizes the nanoparticles characteristics (size, nanoparticle yield) formed by different methods (emulsion diffusion, salting out, nanoprecipitation, emulsion evaporation, dialysis, solvent diffusion), as a function of important parameters (polymer concentration, copolymer ratio, polymer molecular weight, surfactant concentration, solvent used, phase volume ratio). The data is catalogued according to the method used for nanoparticle formation.

2.2.1. Emulsion Diffusion Method

In this synthetic scheme, the polymer (PLGA) is dissolved in an organic phase (e.g., benzyl alcohol, propylene carbonate, ethyl acetate), which must be partially miscible in water. The organic phase is emulsified with an aqueous solution of a suitable surfactant (i.e. anionic sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), non-ionic polyvinyl alcohol (PVA), or cationic didodecyl dimethyl ammonium bromide (DMAB), under stirring. The diffusion of the organic solvent and the counter diffusion of water into the emulsion droplets induce polymer nanoparticle formation [11].

Important parameters that affect the nanoparticle size synthesized by emulsion evaporation are: PLGA copolymer ratio, polymer concentration, solvent nature, surfactant polymer molecular weight, viscosity, phase ratios, stirring rate, solvent nature, temperature and flow of water added.

• Lactide/glycolide ratio

The common PLGA copolymer ratios (lactide/glycolide molar ratio) used are 50:50 and 75:25. The difference detected in nanoparticles size is minimal when different

copolymer ratios are used. Konan et al. [17] obtained nanoparticles with a mean size of 93 nm for 50:50 PLGA and 95 nm for 75:25 PLGA.

PLGA concentration

The data obtained by Kwon et al. [18] showed the effect of PLGA concentration on the nanoparticle size. For an increased PLGA concentration from 1% to 4% w/v, an increase in the mean nanoparticle size from 205 nm to 290 nm was observed (Figure 2.1); PVA concentration was maintained at 2.5% w/v, and the solvent used was propylene carbonate (PC) in all experiments. The work of Lee et al. [19] showed similar results. At a fixed agitation (homogenizer speed 15000 RPM and agitator speed 400 RPM), the mean nanoparticle size obtained was 120 nm for 1% w/v PLGA, and 230 nm for 5% w/v PLGA. The solvent used was ethyl acetate, and the surfactant was 5% of Pluronic F-127 in aqueous suspension.

Figure 2.1. Effect of PLGA concentration on the mean particle size of PLGA nanoparticles (PVA concentration of 2.5 % w/v). Reproduced from Ref. Kwon et al. [18]

• Solvents (organic phase)

The nature of the organic phase affects the final nanoparticle size. This is clearly shown by Choi et al. [20]. Ethyl acetate, methyl ethyl ketone, propylene carbonate, and benzyl alcohol were used to dissolve the PLGA (75:25 with a molecular weight from 75 to 120 kDa), and the continuous phase contained the surfactant poloxamer 188. The smaller nanosphere size was 120 nm when ethyl acetate was used, and it was close to the nanosphere size obtained with methyl ethyl ketone, 125 nm. The highest size nanoparticles of 260 nm were obtained with benzyl alcohol as the organic solvent. The experiments were carried out under a constant PLGA concentration of 2% w/v.

• Thermodynamic parameters

Choi et al. [20] studied the exchange solvent ratio, solubility, and polymer-solvent interaction in a quest for the right method to decrease nanoparticle size. The PLGA concentration used was 2 mg/ml, with four different solvents (ethyl acetate, methyl ethyl ketone, propylene carbonate, and benzyl alcohol). Ethyl acetate solvent formed the smallest nanospheres (approx. 120 nm in size). The authors suggest that solvents with low exchange ratio, ratio between diffusion from solvent to water and vice versa, and high polymer-solvent interaction parameter form small nanoparticles due to small supersaturation region produced.

Surfactants (or stabilizer)

A wide variety of surfactants can be used for stabilization of the organic droplets, which contain the polymer. The effect of PEG, tween 80, gelatin, dextran, pluronic L-63, PVA, and DMAB as surfactants (for nanoparticle stabilization) was evaluated by Kwon et al. [18]. PVA and DMAB (a cationic surfactant) were the only surfactants that formed nanoparticles with the emulsion diffusion method. The smaller mean size of PLGA nanoparticles was obtained when DMBA was used (Figure 2.2.a). The mean size was 76 nm for a concentration of 2% w/v of DMAB. The mean PVA nanoparticle size was 210 nm for 5% w/v. When the DMAB concentration was increased from 2 to 4% w/v, a slight decrease in size of the nanosphere was noticed (from 80 nm to 75 nm). The smaller nanoparticle size formed with DMAB is attributed to the more pronounced surface tension reduction as compared with PVA, 22 dyne/cm at 10^{-2} % w/v for DMAB versus 37 dyne/cm at 10^{-1} % w/v for PVA (Figure 2.2.b).

Ravi Kumar et al. [21] studied the effect of PVA, and a mix of PVA and chitosan (needed to form positive charges over the surface of the nanospheres) in an attempt to improve the entrapment efficiency of DNA (DNA has negative charges allowing its migration to the external phase due to the repulsion with the negative charges of PLGA formed nanospheres in the presence of PVA).

Figure 2.2. a. The influence of surfactant on the mean size of PLGA nanoparticles. b. Surface tension of DMAB and PVA solution as a function of concentration (wt%). Reproduced from Ref. Kwon et al. [18].

When PVA was used alone, the mean nanoparticle size was 111.7 ± 4.2 nm. The addition of chitosan alone did not allow formation of nanospheres, so the addition of a blend of PVA and chitosan was crucial for the formation of stable nanospheres with a positive surface charge. In a further work, Ravi Kumar et al. [22] prepared two surfactant blends and tested the DNA transfection in vivo. The first blend contained chitosan and PVA, and the second blend was a mix of chitosan, PVA, and PEG. The mean size was 180 ± 11 nm for both systems, with a zeta potential of 10 mV for the former, and 7 mV for the latter. They attributed the decrease of zeta potential to PEG chains present in the second blend, but there is no mention if there is a statistical difference between the data points.

• Viscosity of continuous and discontinuous phase

The viscosity of the continuous and discontinuous phase is an important parameter to take into account because it affects the diffusion process, a key step in forming smaller nanoparticles. Ahlin et al. [23] prepared dispersed phases with different viscosities by changing the PLGA molecular weight. A solution of 5% w/w PLGA in benzyl alcohol had viscosities of 0.03 Pa s, 0.036 Pa s, and 0.046 Pas for 50:50 PLGA (12000 Da), 75:25 PLGA (12000 Da), and 75:25 PLGA (63000 Da), respectively. Nanoparticles with mean size of 175 nm, 220 nm, and 280 nm, were obtained by increasing viscosity of the organic solution from 0.03 to 0.046 Pa s. The viscosity of the continuous phase was determined to be 1.5 Pa s, 5 Pa s, and 13 Pa s for 10%, 15% and 20% w/w of aqueous PVA solution, respectively. The mean size of nanoparticles synthesized with 10% of PVA was 310 nm and 170 nm with 20% PVA. The conclusion reached was that the size of the nanoparticles increases with an increase in the viscosity of the dispersed phase, whereas a decrease in the nanoparticle size was observed for a more viscous continuous phase. Other polymers with the same viscosity should be studied for an accurate analysis of the viscosity effect on the nanoparticle size.

• Homogenizer speed and agitation speed

The homogenization of the oil-in-water emulsion is another important step in forming smaller nanospheres. Lee et al. [19] evaluated the effect of homogenizing speed (when the organic phase is added to the aqueous suspention). The speed range tested was from 5000 to 15000 RPM for a suspension with 5% w/v of PVA for a fixed time (7 min). A mean size of 200 nm was obtained for speeds up to 11500 RPM, and at higher revolutions (22000 RPM) the mean nanoparticle size decreased up to 120 nm with no further decrease in size at higher RPM.

Agitation is applied during the addition of excess of water to improve solvent diffusion and nanosphere precipitation. The nanoparticle size was reduced from 115 nm to 90 nm when the agitation speed was increased from 200 RPM to 600 RPM; increasing the agitation speed further to 1000 RPM did not affect the particle size [19]. In the work of Ravi Kumar et al. [21, 22], nanoparticles of 884 ± 17 nm mean size were synthesized when the emulsion was not homogenized and no additional water was added. When homogenization was included, the mean size decreased to 403 ± 8 nm. The mean size was further improved to 181 ± 3 nm by stirring at 1000 RPM and applying homogenization at 13500 RPM. In the studies mentioned above there is no description of the system hydrodynamics which could affect the nanosphere size, so the process scale up and reproducibility of the experiment should be complicated and reconsidered.

• Addition rate of water

The addition rate of water to allow the solvent diffusion was studied by Kwon et al. [18]. No significant size difference was detected for water added at 0.03 mL/s and 16

mL/s. When DMAB was used, the mean size was 76 nm and 78 nm at 0.03 mL/s and 16 mL/s, respectively. When PVA was used, the mean size was 220 nm and 204 nm, for 0.03 mL/s and 16 mL/s, respectively.

Temperature of the water added for solvent diffusion

An important size reduction of the nanoparticles can be achieved by careful control of the water temperature added to improve the diffusion of the solvent. Kwon et al. [18] worked with PVA (5% w/v) and DMAB (2% w/v) with a constant water addition rate of 16 mL/s. For both surfactants, the mean size of nanoparticles was decreased with an increase in the temperature of the water added. For DMAB, the smaller size obtained was 65 nm (polydispersity of 0.056 \pm 0.019) at 60 °C, and the larger size was 78 nm (polydispersity of 0.023 \pm 0.012) at 25 °C. For PVA, the smaller size obtained was 170 nm (polydispersity of 0.063 \pm 0.034) at 60 °C, and the higher size was 204 nm (polydispersity of 0.064 \pm 0.028) at 25 °C. The main drawback of this approach is the effect of the water temperature on the polymer structure, because the T_{g} (glass transition temperature) of PLGA is lower than 60° C. It is important to understand the effect of temperature on the polymer matrix when the working temperature is 60 °C and higher.

• Cryoprotectant

The most common way to stabilize a preparation of nanospheres is lyophilization. The sample is pre-frozen at low temperatures to form small crystals of water, important in that the water crystal disrupts the stabilizer shell around the particle, which results in clustering in the nanoparticle resuspension. Konan et al. [17] worked with trehalose as a lyoprotectant to preserve the nanoparticle size after lyophylization. The weight ratio used was of 2:1 trehalose to nanoparticles. The nanospheres size varied from 120 nm to 140 nm with the addition of trehalose for the 50:50 PLGA copolymer ratio, and from 125 nm to 200 nm for the 75:25 PLGA copolymer ratio. The re-suspension was carried in different mediums (distilled water, phosphate buffer saline (PBS), fetal bovine serum (FBS), human plasma, waymouth grouth) by 30 seconds of manual agitation. The only re-suspension media that showed increase in size was human plasma (from 125 nm to 155 nm for nanospheres prepared with 50:50 PLGA copolymer ratio). Ahlin et al. [24] worked with the same ratio of nanoparticles to trehalose (1:2 w/w for nanoparticles to trehalose) for entrapment of enalaprilat. The mean nanoparticle size before lyophilization

was 204 ± 6 nm. Nanoparticles undergoing lyophilization without trehalose measured 283 \pm 65 nm. The nanoparticle mean size was 255 \pm 30 nm and 210 \pm 12 nm for nanoparticle to trehalose ratios of 1:1 and 1:2, respectively. The PI for the three resuspensions was higher (0.9 \pm 0.09, 0.91 \pm 0.15, and 0.59 \pm 0.11 for 0, 1:1, and 1:2) compared to the sample before lyophilization (0.13 ± 0.1) . This suggested that the aggregation is reduced with the increase of trehalose amount, but it is not eliminated.

Drug entrapment

The drug entrapment affects the final nanosphere mean size and stability over time. This effect can be positive, reducing the mean size of nanospheres, or negative, increasing the mean nanospheres size. Ahlin et al. [24] entrapped enalaprilat, which was dissolved in the organic phase, benzyl alcohol. The free drug nanospheres had a mean size of 183 ± 5 nm. The nanospheres with entrapped drug had a mean size of 204 ± 6 nm. The effect of the drug on the nanoparticle stability, defined as the size variation as a function of time, was also studied. The mean size after 15 days for the free drug nanosphere was almost constant (181 \pm 6 nm), and for the nanospheres with the entrapped drug was 730 ± 200 nm. This data suggests that the diffusion of enalaprilat drug from PLGA matrix induced formation of PLGA nanoparticle clusters, increasing the final mean nanoparticle size.

A positive effect of the drug entrapped on the nanoparticle size is shown in the work of Konan et al [17]. Benzyl alcohol was the organic phase used and meso-tetra(phydroxyphenyl)porphyrin (p-THPP) was the drug. The preparation with 50:50 copolymer ratio and free drug nanospheres had a size of 124 ± 2 nm. When the drug was incorporated, the size was reduced to 93 ± 0 nm for a theoretical loading of 15%. The samples with 75:25 copolymer ratio and free drug nanospheres had a mean size of $132 \pm$ 12 nm. The addition of the drug decreased the size to 95 ± 6 nm for a theoretical loading of 15%. Both copolymer ratios showed a mean size increase with further increases in theoretical loading of drug. It should be highlighted that increases in the theoretical drug loading decreases the entrapment efficiency. The higher entrapment efficiency (76.3%) $\pm 1.4\%$) was for the 5% theoretical drug loading.

Advantages (A)/Disadvantages (D)

• (A) The use of non highly toxic solvents (i.e. benzyl alcohol)

- (A) Reduced energy consumption because it only requires mild stirring. The process does not require high stress shear (i.e. sonication or microfluidization)
- (D) The requirement of large amounts of water for nanoparticles formation
- (D) Large time of emulsion agitation
- (D) The size is highly sensitive to polymer concentration if the process does not use shear stress for size reduction (high speed agitation or sonication)
- (A/D) Suitable for hydrophobic active components. The hydrophilic components have a high migration tendency due to the diffusion of the polar solvent to the aqueous phase and therefore the drug entrapment efficiency is low

2.2.2. Salting Out Method

In this synthesis method, the polymer is dissolved in the organic phase, which should be water-miscible, like acetone or tetrahydrofuran (THF). The organic phase is emulsified in an aqueous phase, under strong mechanical shear stress. The aqueous phase contains the emulsifier and a high concentration of salts which are not soluble in the organic phase. Typically, the salts used are 60% w/w of magnesium chloride hexahydrate [25, 26] or magnesium acetate tetrahydrate in a ratio of 1:3 polymer to salt [27]. Contrary to the emulsion diffusion method, there is no diffusion of the solvent due to the presence of salts. The fast addition of pure water, to the o/w emulsion, under mild stirring, reduces the ionic strength and leads to the migration of the water-soluble organic solvent to the aqueous phase inducing nanosphere formation [5]. The final step is purification by cross flow filtration or centrifugation to remove the salting out agent. Common salting out agents are electrolytes (sodium chloride, magnesium acetate, or magnesium chloride) or non-electrolytes, such as sucrose [14].

Important parameters to be considered are: polymer concentration and molecular weight, stirring rate and time, nature and concentration of surfactant and solvent, and cryoprotectans.

Polymer concentration

This method is more robust than emulsion-diffusion technique because the mean size is not highly sensitive to increments in polymer concentration. Konan et al. [25] varied the PLGA concentration from 10% to 25% w/w. The mean size of 150 nm was constant up to a polymer concentration as high as 17% w/w. At concentrations higher than 20% w/w the size of the nanoparticles increased (to 300 nm for 25% w/w).

• Polymer molecular weight and copolymer molar ratio

The PLGA molecular weight impacts the final mean nanosphere size. In general, higher molecular weight forms higher mean size nanoparticles. The change in nanoparticle size was evaluated as the composition and molecular weight of PLGA was varied (12000 to 48000 for 50:50 PLGA; 12000 to 98000 Da for 75:25 PLGA). For the nanospheres with 50:50 PLGA, the mean size ranged from 102 ± 4 nm to 154 ± 17 nm for 12000 Da and 48000 Da, respectively. For the 75:25 PLGA, the nanoparticle mean size ranged from 132 ± 3 nm to 152 ± 25 nm for 12000 Da and 98000 Da, respectively. For the same molecular weight, the two copolymer ratio (50:50 and 75:25 with free carboxylic end groups) formed nanospheres with similar sizes $(125 \pm 9 \text{ nm})$ compared with 132 ± 3 nm, respectively) [25].

• Solvent

The solvent plays an important role in the formation and mean size of the nanoparticles. Konan et al. [25] obtained different nanosphere sizes with acetone and THF. Smaller nanoparticles were obtained when THF was used. The samples using THF formed nanospheres in the range of 102 ± 4 nm to 166 ± 5 nm, and the mean size for the samples with acetone range from 120 ± 7 nm to 210 ± 66 nm. Acetone was used by Zweers et al. [26]. The mean nanoparticle size formed was 230 nm (polydispersity index (PI) of 0.09), and 139 nm (polydispersity index (PI) of 0.19) for PLGA and PEO-PLGA, respectively.

• Surfactant

The PVA family is widely used as surfactant for the preparation of PLGA nanoparticles. Konan et al. [25] tested two types of PVA: Mowiol[®] 4-88 (87.7%) hydrolyzed with molecular weight of 26,000 Da), and Mowiol® 3-83 (82.6% hydrolyzed with molecular weight of 18,000 Da). PVA Mowiol[®] 3-83 was most efficient in lowering the size of the nanoparticles to 148 nm $(\pm 5 \text{ nm})$ in a concentration of 15% w/w. Zweers et al. [26] used PVA 80% hydrolyzed with molecular weight of 10 kDa, and the concentration in the aqueous suspension was 2 wt.%. The mean size obtained was 230

nm with PI of 0.09. The PVA or Mowiol[®] 4-88 were used by Eley et al. [27] to make nanoparticles with a normal size distribution between 400 to 1100 nm, as obtained by light scattering laser spectrophotometry.

Stirring rate and time

The size can be controlled by stirring rate and time. This was shown by Konan et al. [25]. The stirring speed was varied from 2000 to 13500 RPM (figure 2.3), and the stirring time tested varied from 5 to 50 min. At 13500 RPM, nanospheres with a mean size of 155 nm were formed using THF as a solvent, with 17% w/w of polymer concentration, and 10% w/w of PVA. Nanoparticles sizes under 200 nm were obtained at 8000 RPM; no statistical analysis was provided to detect the significance of these differences. At an optimum stirring time of 15 minutes, nanospheres of 140 nm mean size were formed; no significant decrease in the mean size was notices after 25 minutes (the total size increment was 8 nm up to 45 minutes of stirring).

• Cryoprotectants in freeze-drying

The lyophilization step must be carried out in the presence of cryoprotectants to preserve the mean nanoparticle size obtained in the formation process. The sugar family is widely used as cryoprotectant. Konan et al. [25] tested trehalose, mannitol, glucose, and lactose. All lyoprotectants showed a good size preservation with just a slightly size increment for lyoprotectant to nanoparticles mass ratio over 0.5 (size was increased from 135 nm to 150 nm). The sample without cryoprotectant had a mean size of 480 nm after resuspension.

Advantages(A)/Disadvantages(D)

- (A) Reduced energy consumption because it only requires normal stirring. The process does not require high stress shear (i.e. sonication or microfluidization)
- (A) Low time consuming process
- (D) The main drawback is the requirement of purification step for salting out agent elimination, which is in higher amounts (at least three times more amount of salting out than polymer)

Figure 2.3. Influence of the stirring rate on the main nanoparticle size (Aqueous phase: 10% (w/w) of Mowiol 4-88 and 60% (w/w) MgCl2, organic phase: 17% (w/w) of polymer in THF (mean ± SD, n=3). Reproduced from ref. Konan et al. (2002)

- (A/D) Suitable for hydrophobic components because the salting out agent is water soluble
- (A/D)The use of not highly toxic, but explosive, solvents (i.e. acetone, THF)

2.2.3. Nanoprecipitation (Solvent Diffusion, or Solvent Displacement) Method

Typically, this method is used for hydrophobic drug entrapment, but it has been adapted for hydrophilic drugs as well. Polymer and drug are dissolved in a polar, watermiscible solvent such as acetone, acetonitrile, ethanol, or methanol. The solution is then poured in a controlled manner (i.e. drop-wise addition) into an aqueous solution with surfactant. Nanoparticles are formed instantaneously by rapid solvent diffusion. Finally, the solvent is removed under reduced pressure.

Important parameters to be considered are: polymer/surfactant ratio, polymer concentration, surfactant nature and concentration, solvent nature, viscosity, additives, active component, and phase injection.

• Polymer concentration

The polymer concentration is maintained in the range of 1% w/v up to 10% w/v. Prakobvaitayakit and Nimmannit [28] tested three different concentrations of 50:50 PLGA for nanosphere formation. The nanoparticle mean size was 190 nm for 1 % w/v,

and the size increased to 238.9 nm for 10% w/v. Govender et al. [29] used a concentration of 1% w/v to synthesize nanospheres of 157.1 \pm 1.9 nm in size. Csaba et al. [30] worked with a polymer concentration of 5 $\%$ w/v to form nanoparticles with a size range from 161 ± 7 nm to 269 ± 11 nm. This size range is correlated to the presence of different polymers in the polymer blend used (detailed in the surfactant section). Niwa et al. [31] worked with two different concentrations of 0.39% w/v and 0.44 % w/v, and the mean size was 195 ± 34 nm and 283 ± 37 nm, respectively. In another work, Niwa et al. [32] used 0.77% w/v PLGA forming nanospheres with a mean size of 224 \pm 14 nm. Ameller et al. [33] worked with a concentration of 2% w/v and obtained nanospheres with a mean size of 260 ± 50 nm, approximately (0.1 %w/w of poloxamer 188 was in the aqueous phase); a significant size reduction (approximately, 80 ± 20 nm for the same concentration) was achieved when PLGA was grafted to PEG (5 kDa) (no poloxamer in the aqueous phase) suggesting that the hydrophilic lattices provided by PEG stabilized the nanoparticles; the PLGA aggregation was reduced during nanosphere formation reducing the nanosphere mean size. The trend was maintained for other two polymers used, poly(D,L-lactide) (PLA) and poly(ε -caprolactone) (PCL), which were covalently grafted with PEG (5 kDa).

• Polymer molecular weight and copolymer ratio

The polymer molecular weight affects the size more significantly than the copolymer ratio, as follows. Niwa et al. [31] worked with different molecular weights, and copolymer ratios. The PLGA 50:50 with a MW of 66475 Da formed nanospheres with a size of 338 ± 67 nm, which was similar to the nanospheres size of $85:15$ PLGA with a MW of 66671 Da, measuring 385 ± 51 nm in size. The 85:15 PLGA with a MW of 127598 Da formed nanospheres with mean size of 637 ± 40 nm. These nanospheres were prepared with a mix of chloroform and acetone for the entrapment of indomethacin.

Solvent nature

The selection of good solvents to form smaller nanoparticles and to improve the entrapment efficiency of the active component is a complex and an important process. There is no clear definition of the 'best solvent' for this method. Niwa et al. [31] used a mix of organic solvents (acetone, methanol, dichloromethane, or chloroform) to dissolve PLGA and drugs (indomethacin and 5-fluorouracil). The size of the 85:15 PLGA

nanoparticles of two molecular weights (12279 Da and 66671 Da) changed when the mix of solvents was altered from 0.5:5:5 ml to 0.5:25:5 ml (dichloromethane /acetone /methanol). The first mix of solvents formed nanospheres with a mean size of 283 ± 37 nm and 213 ± 13 nm for the two molecular weights tested, and the second one formed nanospheres of 195 ± 34 nm, and 207 ± 13 nm. The reduction in size with increased acetone concentration is attributed to the reduction in the surface tension of the dichloromethane solution in the presence of acetone. The formation process performed with dichloromethane or chloroform formed nanospheres $1 \mu m$ and bigger in size.

Acetone is commonly used alone for the preparation of nanospheres. Ameller et al. [33, 34] obtained a mean size nanoparticles of 258 ± 97 nm with zeta potential of -53.4 \pm 0.5 mV. Prakobvaitayakit and Nimmannit [28] formed nanospheres with a mean size varying from 190 nm to 643.9 nm. Panagi et al. [35] formed nanospheres with mean size of 154 ± 23.5 nm, polydispersity of 0.489, and zeta potential of 45.1 ± 1.9 mV with the same solvent. Oster et al. [36] obtained a mean size of 152 ± 3 nm and zeta potential of 35 ± 3 mV.

Saxena et al. [37] added methanol to acetonitrile (in which PLGA was dissolved) for a good dissolution of the active component. The mean size was 357 ± 0.21 nm with zeta potential of -16.3 ± 1.5 mV. The higher zeta potential (less negative) is attributed to the presence of PVA over the nanosphere surface.

Csaba et al. [38] worked with ethanol (organic phase) for the polymer nanoprecipitation. The mean size of the nanospheres (PLGA 50:50) obtained was 191.5 \pm 7.1 nm. Other works used acetonitrile as the organic solvent. For example, Govender et al. [29] prepared nanospheres with a size of 157.1 ± 1.9 nm with acetonitrile.

Surfactant

A variety of surfactants are used for nanoparticle formation and stabilization. The surfactant can be anionic, cationic or nonionic. Surfactants in the poloxamer and poloxamines family, formed with polyoxiyethylene and polyoxypropylene, are commonly used in nanoparticle synthesis. Surfactants of different HLB values can be obtained by varying the amount of monomers; less ethylene oxide monomers and more propylene oxide monomers form surfactants with lower HLB values. Csaba et al. [38] used poloxamer and poloxamines blended with PLGA in the organic phase. The samples formed with more hydrophobic surfactants (HLB of 1 and 2.5) had an increased final size of up to 333.7 \pm 82.1 nm for a mass ratio PLGA:surfactant of 50:75 mg/mg. The lower size nanoparticle formed was 159.8 ± 6.5 nm for the blend PLGA: Pluronic[®] F68 (HLB value of 29) of 50:75 mg/mg. Pluronic® F68 has shorter ethylene oxide chains and larger propylene oxide chains compared with the other surfactants tested. Ameller et al. [34] used poloxamer 188 with a concentration of 0.1% w/w forming PLGA nanospheres of 262 ± 52 nm mean size. The zeta potential obtained was -11 mV.

Another important surfactant used is PVA. Niwa et al. [31] tested different concentrations of PVA. The range tested was from 0.5% to 2% of PVA in the aqueous suspension leading to nanoparticle formation with a mean size of 300 nm (not significant difference in the range tested). Saxena et al. [37] obtained mean nanoparticle size of 357 \pm 0.21 nm using 88 - 89 % hydrolyzed PVA.

• Additives

Certain compounds can improve the stability and size of the nanoparticles (fatty acids, short chains of carbons). Additionally, they can affect the entrapment efficiency of the active component. Govender et al. [29] found that fatty acid incorporation affected the entrapment efficiency of the active component (procaine hydrochloride and procaine dihydrate, water soluble drugs) reducing the nanoparticles mean size. The authors added caprylic acid, (molar ratio of 1:1 and 1:3), lauric acid (molar ratio of 1:1 and 1:3), PLA oligomers (molar ratio of 1:1), and poly(methyl methacrylate-co-methacrylic acid) (PMMA-MA) (molar ratio of 5:1). Lauric acid in a molar ratio of 1:1 increased the drug content from 11% to 34.8%, and the nanoparticle size was reduced from 157.1 \pm 1.9 nm to 118.8 \pm 1.4 nm (p value <0.05). With the 3:1 molar ratio, the size was lower (55.8 \pm 1.5 nm) but the morphology was altered (irregular shape). Zeta potential showed a slight increase from -49.2 \pm 0.7 mV to -44.1 \pm 1.8 mV. The longer carbon chain of lauric acid (in comparison to that of caprylic acid) was associated with the improvement in the nanoparticle characteristics.

• Active component entrapment

Entrapment of active components has an important effect on the final nanospheres final size; as a general rule, entrapment of hydrophobic active components leads to formation of smaller nanospheres, as compared to the entrapment of hydrophilic

components. The interaction between solvent, polymer and active component must be taken into account to improve the drug loading and the drug entrapment efficiency.

The entrapment of procaine hydrochloride (with a pH of 5.8 for aqueous solution) was found to increase the nanoparticle size from 157.1 ± 1.9 nm to 209.5 ± 2.7 nm for a theoretical drug loading of 0% to 10%, respectively. The drug content increased from 0.2 to 4.6% w/w when the theoretical drug loading was increased from 1% to 10% w/w, but the entrapment efficiency decreased from 14.5% to 6.3% [29]. Although, they reduced the nanosphere mean size by change of the aqueous pH (buffer at pH 9.3), the size for PLGA alone was 123.6 ± 2.3 nm, and for nanospheres with 10% w/w theoretical drug loading, the size was 186.5 ± 2.3 nm. In both cases, the entrapment formed bigger nanospheres in the presence of the drug, as compared with the PLGA alone. The nanospheres size was reduced with the entrapment of procaine dehydrate. When the theoretical drug loading of procaine dyhidrate was increased up to 10% w/w, the mean size was reduced from 157 ± 1.9 nm to 56.2 ± 1.9 nm. The drug entrapment efficiency ranged from 36.2% up to 44.1% [29].

The entrapment of plasmids in PLGA nanoparticles increased the nanoparticle size, which can be observed in the work developed by Csaba et al. [30] as depicted in Figure 2.4. The organic solvent used to dissolve the polymer blends was methylene chloride, and the polymer blends were PLGA: poloxamer and PLGA:poloxamine in a ratio of 50:50 mg/mg. Plasmid DNA encoding green fluorescent protein with CMV promoter (pEGFP-C1) in an aqueous solution was added to the organic phase. The mean size of naked PLGA nanospheres was 191 ± 7 nm with a polydispersity index (PI) of 0.046 and zeta potential of -60.1 \pm 7.4 mV. When plasmid was added to the preparation with PLGA alone, the final size was 234 ± 13 nm with PI of 0.187 and zeta potential of -72.7 mV. The addition of plasmid increases the size all samples tested, but the exception was for poloxamine Tetronic® 904 (HLB of 14.5 and molecular weight of 6700). This sample showed a reduction of size from 168 ± 9 nm to 161 ± 7 nm, without and with plasmid, respectively. The zeta potential decreased from -38.4 \pm 3.3 mV to -54.1 \pm 2 mV for the same preparation and the PI was reduced from 0.179 to 0.154.

Figure 2.4. TEM micrographs of blank and plasmid-loaded (A) PLGA: poloxamer (Pluronic F68) and (B) PLGA:poloxamine (Tetronic 908) blend nanoparticles. Reproduced from Ref. Csaba et al. [30].

Saxena et al. [37] found that the retention of the ICG-NaI into the polymeric matrix was less than ICG because of the more hydrophilic nature of ICG-NaI. As a result of the lower retention of ICG-NaI, all further discussions will only consider ICG formulations. The mean nanoparticle size decreased with increasing concentration of ICG from 405 ± 0.05 nm with 1% w/w of drug to 307 ± 0.08 nm with 10% w/w of drug, and the nanoparticle recovery was improved from 48% to 65.3%, respectively. The drug entrapment was reduced from 9.92% to 1.14% and the drug content decreased from 0.21% to 0.17% with increasing amounts of ICG (1% w/w to 10% w/w). When the drugpolymer ratio was reduced drastically to 0.125% w/w, the drug entrapment increased to 74.47%. The drug content was 0.2%, and the nanoparticle recovery was slightly decreased to 45.7% for the lower drug concentration.

• Phase injection

The organic phase addition to the continuous aqueous phase should be controlled and constant, by mild stirring, to assure a uniform distribution and diffusion.

Prakobvaitayakit and Nimmannit [28] used a constant flow rate of 0.3 ml/min with mechanical stirring of 750 RPM. In the Govender et al. [29] work, they reported a drop wise organic phase addition. The stirring was done by a magnetic stirrer. The same procedure was followed by Saxena et al. [37]. Csaba et al. [30, 38] used vortex agitation for mixing both phases getting a fast organic phase dispersion and further moderate magnetic stirring. Other works using fast organic phase dispersion is that by Ameller et al. [33, 34].

Advantages (A)/Disadvantages (D)

- (A) The use of non highly toxic solvents (i.e. acetone).
- (A) Reduced energy consumption because it only requires regular stirring. The process does not require high stress shear (i.e. sonication or microfluidization).
- (A) Additives can be used for nanoparticle size reduction.
- (D) The solvent is removed by evaporation (time consuming).
- (D) The main drawback is the requirement of drugs that are highly soluble in polar solvents (i.e. acetone, ethyl acetate), but they should be slightly soluble in water to minimize losses during solvent diffusion. The drug can diffuse to the aqueous phase reducing the drug entrapped in the PLGA nanospheres [39].
- (D) The drug loading efficiency is lower for the hydrophilic drugs than hydrophobic ones because of their poor interaction (hydrophobic interaction) with the polymer leading to diffusion of the drug during the solvent displacement from the polymer in the organic phase to the external aqueous environment [15].
- (D) Nanoparticle size is very much affected by the polymer concentration; higher nanoparticle sizes are obtained at higher polymer concentrations.

2.2.4. Emulsion Evaporation Method

Emulsion evaporation is the oldest method used to form polymeric nanoparticles from preformed polymers. The method is based on the emulsification of an organic solution of the polymer in an aqueous phase followed by the evaporation of the organic solvent. The polymer is dissolved in a suitable solvent (e.g., ethyl acetate, chloroform,
methylene chloride). The organic phase or aqueous phase is poured into the continuous phase (aqueous or organic phase) in which a surfactant is dissolved to impart stability to the emulsion. Emulsification is carried out under high-shear stress to reduce the size of the emulsion droplet (directly related with the final size of the nanoparticles). The process of emulsification is followed by evaporation of the organic solvent under vacuum, which leads to polymer precipitation and nanoparticle formation.

Normal emulsions oil in water (o/w) or water in oil (w/o) and double emulsions (w/o/w) can be used to accommodate the entrapment of active components with different properties. The o/w emulsion is used for entrapment of hydrophobic compounds, whereas w/o/w double emulsion is used for the entrapment of hydrophilic compounds. The method is widely used for microencapsulation because it is easy to scale up, it doesn't require high shear stress, and it can be adjusted (by use of the double emulsion method) to encapsulate water soluble drugs [40-44].

The formation of the emulsion is a key aspect of this method [45], considering that the size of the emulsion droplet is directly related to the final nanoparticle size. Emulsions can be classified in microemulsions, miniemulsions (or nanoemulsions), and macroemulsions. The microemulsions are transparent and thermodynamically stable emulsions, with droplets mean sizes from 20 to 50 nm, obtained by conjugation of surfactant, solvent and co-surfactant. Microemulsions are thermodynamically stable due to the entropic effect of smaller droplets [46, 47]. The size of mini or nanoemulsions is in the order of 40 to 500 nm [48, 49]; high shear stress and enough surfactant amounts are needed to make stable nanoemulsions. Nanoemulsions are kinetically stable and the surfactant is used in the most efficient way [48]. The macroemulsion droplet size is in the micrometer range; macroemulsions are formed by mild stirring and surfactant addition for stability. Macroemulsions are unstable over time, so they tend to aggregate.

The procedure followed to form a miniemulsion involves the use of surfactants and the application of mechanical stirring with high RPM, high pressure or sonication, as well as the addition of hydrophobic components that act as a suppressant agent against Ostwald ripening (migration of small droplets to bigger ones) [50]. The effect of sonication on the droplet size was studied by Landfester et al. [51], and it showed that the amplitude of wavelength should be over 20% with 600 to 800 seconds of sonication to

form a stable miniemulsions with no more droplet size changes. The main draw-back of sonication is the lack of monodispersity of the emulsion formed [52].

Mason and Bibette [53, 54] showed that the application of laminar shear rate flow, as opposed to sonication, can result in a monodisperse droplet size. The formation of monodisperse viscous droplets in viscoelastic complex fluids by the application of shear stresses with laminar flows was experimentally studied. The emulsion was sheared in a thin gap of two glasses under a uniform shear flow to form a uniform droplet size distribution in the nanometer range by adjustment of the gap in where the sample is placed [53, 55, 56]. Some requirements must be met, such as the phases must be viscoelastic, and the initial emulsion droplets must be rather big in size (5 to 10 µm) for a monodisperse miniemulsion to result.

Advantages (A)/Disadvantages (D)

- (A) The use of non highly toxic solvents (i.e. ethyl acetate)
- (A) Additives can be used for nanoparticle size reduction
- (A) Suitable for hydrophilic (double emulsions) and hydrophobic active components.
- (D) High consumption of energy by the necessity of high stress shear (i.e. sonication or microfluidization)
- (A/D) The solvent is removed by evaporation (energy consumption), but the process time for solvent removal is reduced (special with fast evaporation with vacuum)
- (A/D) The addition of active component affects the final size of nanoparticles

2.2.4.1. Oil in Water Emulsion Method (Single Emulsion)

The method is based on the emulsification of an organic solution which contains the polymer and the active component in an aqueous phase, followed by the evaporation of the organic solvent. Different surfactants such as PVA, SDS, Pluronic F68 can be dissolved in the aqueous phase. The size reduction of the emulsion droplet is done by sonication or microfluidization for miniemulsion formation. The evaporation step is required to eliminate the organic solvent present in the organic phase. This leads to the precipitation of the polymer as nanoparticles with a diameter in the nanometers range.

Important parameters to be considered are: polymer molecular weight and concentration, copolymer ratio and end groups, surfactant nature, phase ratio, solvent nature, evaporation rate, drug entrapment, additives, shear stress, and sterilization.

Polymer concentration

Polymer concentration is an important parameter to consider when forming nanoparticles. Julienne et al. [57] worked with 85:15 PLGA, MW of 87000 Da, and 88% hydrolyzed PVA in a fixed concentration of 0.5% w/v. Nanoparticles formed under these conditions at four PLGA concentrations, 0.79%, 2.5%, 5%, and 7.5% w/v had a mean size of 220, 178, 177, and 236 nm, respectively.

• Polymer molecular weight

Usually, the increase in molecular weight leads to formation of nanospheres of significantly bigger size, but the entrapment of active components reduces this effect. Panyam et al. [58] formed PLGA nanospheres (theoretical loading of dexamethasone was 20 % w/w) with a size of 260 nm (PI of 0.115) and 270 nm (PI of 0.228) for PLGA with molecular weight of 103,000 Da and 143,000 Da, respectively.

• Copolymer ratio and end groups

Different copolymer ratios have been tested with no significant difference in the mean nanospheres size. Panyam et al. [58] tested three different proportions of lactide molar ratios for the entrapment of dexamethasone. The 100% lactide polymer formed nanospheres with a mean size of 260 nm (PI of 0.255), which was the same for the sample with 75% of lactide, but the PI decreased to 0.115 with the decrease in the lactide. The sample with 50 % slightly increased the mean size to 270 nm with a PI of 0.228. Zeta potential varied from -23.9 \pm 3.5 mV to -19.6 \pm 1.5 mV, respectively. There is no mention of statistical analysis to detect significant differences in the parameters analyzed. Another important factor was the effect of end groups on the mean size. Samples prepared with ester end groups formed nanospheres with an average size of 740 nm (PI of 0.394); the mean size for acid PLGA end group was 240 nm (PI of 0.225). The PLGA used was 50:50 with a molecular weight of 12000 and 10000 Da, respectively.

• Surfactant

Many options of surfactant can be used for nanosphere formation by emulsion evaporation. Julienne et al. [57] tested PVA, methylcellulose (MC), gelatin, and lecithin.

For PVA, the concentrations tested were 0.1% , 0.2% , and 0.5% w/v. The size varied from 342 nm to 291 nm. When MC was used, the mean size obtained varied from 1880 nm to 1950 nm for the same concentrations. At a fixed surfactant concentration of 0.5% w/v, a PLGA concentration of 2% w/v and a phase ratio of 20% v/v (organic to aqueous phase), the mean sizes obtained were 288, 2013, 1400, and 298 nm for PVA, MC, gelatin, and lecithin, respectively.

The surfactant type is critical in forming small and stable nanospheres. Moreover, when the target applications of the nanoparticles are in the biomedical area, the presence of toxic surfactant residues over the surface of the nanospheres is of concern. To address this concern, researchers looked to find other surfactants, biodegradable and biocompatible to form nanoparticles. Mu and Feng (2003) use vitamin E TPGS $(d-\alpha$ tocopheryl polyethylene glycol 1000 succinate), amphiphile molecule due to the presence of PEG chains) as a surfactant. Different surfactant concentrations were tested, from 15 mg/ml to 60 mg/ml. The smaller size nanoparticles were formed at a surfactant concentration of 60 mg/ml, measuring in size 567.4 ± 362.6 nm when 85:15 PLGA of a molecular weight of 90 to 120 kDa was used.

• Phase ratios

The phase ratio (organic to aqueous solvent) plays an important role in controlling the size of the nanospheres. In general, the lower ratio of organic-aqueous phase produces nanoparticle of smaller size. Juliene et al. [57] showed the effect with different ratios. At three organic:aqueous ratios, 10%, 25%, and 40% v/v nanoparticles of 106.8 nm (CV 43.1%), 111.2 nm (CV 29.4%), and 130.5 nm (CV 16.5) were formed. The samples were formed in the presence of 8 % w/v of PVA.

• Solvent

Several organic solvents can be selected based on two criteria, (1) the PLGA must be soluble in this solvent, and (2) the solvent must be completely immiscible with the aqueous phase. Solvents from the chlorinate family have been widely used in the emulsion evaporation method. Julienne et al [57] used methylene chloride to form PLGA nanospheres with a mean size of 177 nm (CV of 32%). The same solvent was used by Pietzonka et al. [59] with a mean size of 400 to 500 nm. Song et al. [60] used a mix of dichloromethane and acetone $(8:2 \text{ v/v})$ and formed nanospheres with a mean size of 117

± 40 nm. Panyam et al. [58] used chloroform to dissolve the PLGA, and the drug (dexamethasone) was dissolved in methanol to form nanoparticles of a mean size of 240 nm (PI of 0.225).

• Evaporation rate

Fast evaporation of the organic solvent under vacuum is more efficient in forming smaller nanoparticles. Chung et al. [61, 62] compared vacuum solvent evaporation at 160 mmHg and normal evaporation at 760 mmHg as two methods to form microspheres of albumin-loaded poly L-lactide (LPLA) and poly D-lactide (DPLA). The fast rate of evaporation produced a mean particle size around 30% smaller than the mean particle size obtained under a normal rate of evaporation. The reduction in particle size coupled with the low glass transition (T_g) and melting temperature (T_m) of PLGA polymer (i.e. T_g of 25.7 °C for 50:50 PLGA with molecular weight of 5 to 15 kDa) makes the vacuum evaporation method indispensable in the formation of PLGA nanoparticles.

Drug entrapment

In emulsion evaporation, as in other synthesis methods, entrapment of highly hydrophobic drugs tends to reduce the size of the nanospheres. This fact is clearly observed in the work of Mu and Feng [63]. Paclitaxel, an active drug used in breast cancer therapy is added at a 2.4% w/w concentration to form nanoparticles of an average size of 272.5 ± 169.5 nm in the presence of vitamin E TPGS as a surfactant. The samples without paclitaxel formed nanospheres with a mean size of 914.8 ± 380.1 nm and 699.3 ± 100 286.9 nm for 60 mg/ml and 15 mg/ml of vitamin E TPGS, respectively. Other paclitaxel concentrations (0.62% and 0.83% w/w) were tested, but the mean size was higher than that obtained with 2.4% w/w. The entrapment efficiency was 50.4% with a recovery yield of 41.7%.

The solubility of the drug in water is the main drawback in forming smaller size nanospheres and improving the drug entrapment efficiency. This effect was shown by the study of Song et al. [60] where the pH (aqueous phase) effect on the drug solubility was reflected on the drug loading and the size of the nanospheres (Figure 2.5). The higher drug (U-86983, anti-proliferative agent) entrapment efficiency was for basic pH (over 8) due less solubility at basic pHs. The drug load increased from 5.4% to 20.4%, and the entrapment efficiency increased from 28.2% to 84.3% by increasing the pH. Although,

there is high improvement in entrapment efficiency by increasing the pH (linear relation), the nanosphere mean size showed different pattern. The low pH (6.5) formed nanosphere with mean size of 142 ± 36 nm, and the mean size for higher pH (8.14) was 144 ± 37 nm. The smaller size was for pH 7.5 with an average of 88 \pm 41 nm, and entrapment efficiency of 56.9%. The entrapment of the drug U61431F was done for pH 4 and 4.5. The sample with pH 4 formed nanospheres with mean size of 109 ± 41 nm, and entrapment efficiency of 86.1%. The pH 4.5 formed nanospheres with mean size of 115 \pm 42 nm, and entrapment efficiency of 77.5%.

Figure 2.5. Efficiency of drug (U-86983) entrapment into PLGA nanoparticles by changing the pH of the aqueous phase from neutral to basic. Reproduced from Song et al. [60].

• Additives

Addition of hydrophobic additives can improve the nanosphere size, the drug entrapment efficiency, and release profile. Song et al. [60] tested wax (PLGA/wax of 80/20%) and palmitate (PLGA/palmitate of 80/20%) to improve the release profile (reduce the burst effect, fast initial drug release) of the drug U-86983 (an antiproliferative agent). The mean size for the wax sample was 105 ± 38 nm, which was almost the same with the palmitate sample (107 ± 30 nm). The entrapment efficiency was higher for the wax sample (85.3%) as compared with the palmitate sample (80%), but the burst effect was not reduced (around 40% of drug release in the first day).

Shear stress

The emulsion formation requires a strong agitation to reduce the droplet size. This highly impacts the nanoparticles size. Julienne et al. [57] tested two methods of shear stress (mechanical stirring, high pressure homogenizer). They tested two homogenizer pressures of 100 and 200 bars (high pressure homogenizer). The mean size obtained was 178 nm (CV of 22%) and 188 nm (CV of 38%) for 100 and 200 bars, respectively. There is a favorable impact in the size reduction when the emulsion is homogenized with a high pressure homogenizer compared with just high stirring (10000 RPM). The nanosphere mean size with stirring was 288 nm (CV 37%), and the mean size for nanosphere using homogenization (high pressure of 300 bars) was 231 nm (CV of 21%). The samples used PVA at 5% w/v and phase ratio of 20%.

• Sterilization

The effect of sterilization on nanosphere size was evaluated by Song et al. [60]. The sterilization was done by γ - irradiation at 2.5 Mrad doses for nanospheres with 2 aminochromone drug family. The mean size slightly changed from 123 ± 38 nm before irradiation to 149 ± 43 nm after irradiation. The drug release was the same for both preparations, and the nanoparticles uptake was slightly increased from 13.4 μ g/10 mg to 15.4 µg/10 mg artery, before and after irradiation.

2.2.4.2. Double Emulsion (w/o/w) Method

The first step of the double emulsion method is the formation of a water in oil (w/o) emulsion where the aqueous solution contains the hydrophilic active component and the organic phase contains PLGA and a suitable surfactant (Span 80, pluronic F 68, and others) with a low HLB. The miniemulsion is formed under strong shear stress (i.e. sonication, microfluidization, high speed homogenization). Next, the water in oil in water (w/o/w) emulsion formation is sonicated or homogenized for droplet size reduction. This second size reduction should be controlled to minimize the hydrophilic active component diffusion to the external aqueous phase. Evaporation, the final step, is used to remove the organic solvent. Evaporation is done under vacuum to avoid polymer and active component damage, and to promote final nanoparticle size reduction.

The main drawback of the double emulsion method is the large size of the nanoparticles formed and the leakage of the hydrophilic active component [64], responsible for low entrapment efficiencies. The coalescence and Ostwald ripening [65, 66] are the two important mechanisms that destabilize the double emulsion droplets, and the diffusion through the organic phase of the hydrophilic active component is the main mechanism responsible of low levels of entrapped active component [64]. One strategy followed by Song et al. [60] to reduce the nanoparticle size was to apply a second strong shear rate. The leakage effect can be reduced by using a high polymer concentration, and a high polymer molecular weight, accompanied by an increase in the viscosity of the inner water phase, and an increase in the surfactant molecular weight [60, 67].

Important parameters to be considered are: polymer/surfactants ratio, polymer concentration, surfactant nature, viscosity, solvent nature, shear stress, evaporation, additives, and first/second phase ratios.

• Polymer molecular weight and copolymer ratio

An interesting effect of nanosphere size reduction against molecular weight increase is shown by Prabha and Labhasetwar [68]. The molecular weights tested were 12, 53, and 143 kDa for 50/50 copolymer ratio, and the mean size achieved were 563 \pm 6, 685 \pm 40, and 375 \pm 22 nm, respectively. The zeta potential was -17.8 \pm 1.0 mV, -16.6 \pm 1.4 mV, and -11.5 ± 3.4 mV, respectively. The PLGA copolymer ratio tested were 75:25 and 50:50 (molecular weight of 53 kDa) with mean size of 485 ± 11 nm and 685 ± 40 nm. The zeta potential was -16.6 ± 1.4 mV, and -18.2 ± 3.8 mV, respectively. The polymer concentration was maintained at 3 %w/v.

• Solvent

The chlorinate family is widely used for nanosphere preparation with double emulsion. Aukunuru et al. [69] used methylene chloride to dissolve PLGA, and entrapped a 19-mer antisense oligonucleotide (PS-ODN). The mean size obtained was 252 ± 3.4 nm with zeta potential of -12.98 ± 1.8 mV. Dillen et al. [70] used dichloromethane and formed nanospheres with a size of 209.5 ± 2.5 nm before freeze drying. The same solvent was used by Vandervoort et al. [71] with mean size of 204 ± 4 nm. Yan et al. [72] used ethyl acetate to dissolve PLGA, and insulin was added to the first aqueous solution. The smaller nanosphere size was 149.2 nm (PI of 0.09).

• Surfactant

Two surfactants are needed in double emulsion evaporation method, a hydrophobic surfactant for the first emulsion and a hydrophilic surfactant for the second emulsion. Vandervoort and Ludwig [73] evaluated a series of stabilizers against PVA. The stabilizers used were methylcellulose (MC), hydroxy-ethylcellulose (HEC), hydroxypropylcelluloose (HPC) hydroxyl-propylmethylcellulose (HPMC), gelatin type A and B, carbomer (Carbopol[®] 980) and poloxamer (Lutrol[®] F68). The stabilizers used alone formed nanoparticles up to 3.2 μ m with an exception for Carbopol[®] 980- and Lutrol[®] F68, which formed nanospheres with a size of 400 nm. In the presence of PVA, nanospheres under 1 µm were formed. The lower mean size was obtained by using a mix of the stabilizer (the concentration used was equivalent to the same viscosity of 1% PVA) and PVA. The mix of PVA with Carbopol and poloxamer were exceptions because the blend of carbopol and PVA showed a slightly increase in mean size (420 nm), and the blend of poloxamer and PVA showed no variation on the mean size. Zeta potential varied from +14 mV to -50 mV for all preparations. Almost all formulation showed negative values with the exception of gelatin type A, showing a zeta potential of +13 mV.

Another work dealing with PVA use as a surfactant in the second emulsion is that by Yan et al. [72]. PVA concentration was varied to study the entrapment of insulin in PLGA nanoparticles (molecular weight of 11000 Da). The PVA concentrations tested were 0.4% , 0.7% , and 1% w/v. The mean size was reduced from 266.7 nm (PI of 0.15) nm) to 149.2 nm (PI of 0.09), and the entrapment efficiency was improved from 19.3% $(\pm 4.2\%)$ to 42.8% $(\pm 1.5\%)$ by increasing the PVA concentration from 0.4 to 1% w/v. The insulin concentration for the higher entrapment efficiency was 3.048 mg/mL, the surfactant concentration was 1% w/v, and polymer concentration was 50 mg/mL.

Prabha and Labhasetwar [68] tested different PVA concentrations, varying from 0.5% to 2%. The 2% PVA samples formed smaller nanospheres size, 270 ± 1 nm with a PI of 0.2 (± 0.01) . They also quantified the amount of PVA bounded to the nanosphere surface and found that this amount was directly correlated to the amount of surfactant used in the preparation. The lower PVA concentration formed nanospheres with $2.2\% \pm$ 0.2% w/w PVA bounded, and the 5% PVA sample formed nanospheres with 5.3% \pm 0.7% w/w PVA over the surface.

Aukunuru et al. [69] used a PVA concentration of 5% in the continuous phase. It was found that zeta potential increased to less negative values when the PVA concentration increased. Prabha and Labhasetwar [68] showed an increase in zeta potential from -31.3 ± 1.6 mV to -6.5 ± 1.7 mV for PVA concentrations from 0.5% to 2%. Aukunuru et al. [69] obtained zeta potential value of -12.98 ± 1.8 mV. Sahoo et al. [74] showed a similar effect of PVA. The PVA concentration was varied from 0.5% w/v to 5% w/v. The mean size varied from 522 nm to 380 nm, and the zeta potential varied from -15.4 ± 0.8 mV to -8 ± 2.3 mV, respectively.

Yan et al. [72] studied the entrapment of insulin in PLGA nanoparticles (molecular weight of 11000 Da). The effect of surfactant concentration (poloxamer 188) on the nanoparticle size was tested. The lowest mean size obtained for 1% w/v of poloxamer 188 was 149.2 nm with a polydispersity index of 0.09, and the entrapment efficiency was $42.8\% \pm 1.5\%$. The large size obtained of 266.7 nm (PI of 0.15 and entrapment efficiency of $19.3\% \pm 4.2\%$) was for 0.4% w/v of poloxamer 188.

• Drug entrapment

Dillen et al. [75] showed a slight increase in the nanosphere size from 234.7 nm to 238.1 nm, when the drug ciprofloxacin was added. When boric acid was added to the first aqueous suspension to acidify and improve the drug entrapment, the size increased slightly from 234.7 nm to 239 nm and the entrapment efficiency was improved from 61.7% to 62.6%. The improvement was greater (79.9%) when the number of homogenization cycles was increased from one to three. The entrapment of hydrophilic drugs is improved by using high molecular weight of PLGA and high molecular weight of first surfactant, which results in a higher inner phase viscosity. Song et al. [60] tested two different molecular weights of PLGA (58 and 102 Da). The lower molecular weight resulted in an entrapment efficiency of 24.8% and 9.2% for a PLGA concentration of 3% and initial theoretical drug (bovine serum albumin, BSA) of 10%, and for a PLGA concentration of 6% with 14 % of BSA, respectively. The entrapment efficiencies were improved to 68% and 74.8% for high molecular weight, under the same conditions. The mean size obtained for these samples was 150 ± 38 nm.

• Shear stress

High shear stress for droplet size reduction is a basic requirement to make small nanoparticles by double emulsion. Homogenization by microfluidization has been used and found to affect the size of the nanoparticles as a function of the pressure and number of cycles. Dillen et al. [75] tested one and three cycles with a fixed pressure of 50 bars. The mean size obtained for one cycle was 234.7 nm, and the mean size was reduced to 188.7 nm with three cycles. Vandervoort et al. [71] tested the effect of pressure and homogenization cycles forming a wide spectrum of nanoparticle sizes and entrapment efficiencies. The size reduction was achieved by an increase in the homogenization pressure and cycles. The lowest PLGA nanoparticle size was for the PVA and PVA mixed with carbopol (204 \pm 4 nm, and 205 \pm 5 nm, respectively) with 500 bar and three cycles. The drug entrapment decreased with an increase in homogenization pressure and cycles; the PVA sample varied from 61.5% $\pm 12.4\%$ to 20% $\pm 8.2\%$, and the PVA mixed with carbopol varied from 41.8% $\pm 12.1\%$ to 20.8% $\pm 8.4\%$ for the entrapment of pilocarpine HCl.

Sterilization

Sterilization is an important step to obtain a suitable system to be used in vivo. Dillen et al. [75] observed that nanoparticle size increased from 255.8 nm to 295.1 nm following gamma irradiation for sterilization purposes. This effect of slight increment of size is similar to that showed by Song et al. [60] with single emulsion method.

2.2.5. Important Modifications of Traditional Methods

The methods detailed above are the main methods extensively employed in the synthesis of PLGA nanoparticles for different purposes. There is a continuous effort to improve the nanoparticle size (size reduction), to reduce the polydispersity index, to better entrap the active components (hydrophilics and hydrophobics), and to reduce the potential toxicity of the different components involved. These efforts stimulated research and discovery of new methods, based on slight modifications of standard methods, and the application of new synthesis steps in the PLGA nanoparticles formation. The use of microfluidizers, dialysis, spray drying, and mix of standard techniques are examples of new methods created to improve the PLGA nanoparticle physical characteristics.

2.2.5.1. Membrane Emulsion Evaporation Method

The aqueous and organic phases are separated by a membrane which has a defined pore diameter and distribution. The organic phase is forced through the pores to form an organic droplet which is detached from the membrane by a certain movement of the aqueous phase. The membrane has a hydrophobic or hydrophilic behavior as a function of the disperse phase (aqueous or organic solvent) [76]. This can lead to very uniform size distribution of nanoparticles, but the main drawback is the bigger size obtained compared to normal emulsion evaporation method [77]. The pore diameter affects the final size of the nanoparticles, and there is a relation pore to droplet diameter of 1:3 [78]. There are a number of criteria that have to be met in order to obtain nanoparticles in the nanometer range: the membrane must have a pore diameter between 100 and 200 nm, the applied pressure difference should be slightly greater than the critical pressure, the contact angle should be as small as possible, and the surfactant should be adsorbed fast at the oil water interface [76]. SPG (Shirasu Porous Glass) and PTFE (poly(tetrafluoroethylene)) are the main membranes used in this technique [79].

2.2.5.2. Spray Dry Method for Water in Oil

Pamujula et al. [80] developed a method to improve the entrapment efficiency of hydrophilic drugs. An emulsion was formed between the organic phase and water. The organic phase, consisted of a mix of dichloromethane and chloroform, containing the polymer, and lipophilic surfactant $L-\alpha$ -phosphatidylcholine. The aqueous phase contained the drug (amifostine). The final emulsion was injected in a standard 0.7 mm nozzle blowing into a chamber with hot air (55 °C). The mean size obtained was 257 nm (182- 417 nm) and 240 nm (182-417 nm) for preparations with 40% w/w and 100% of theoretical drug loading, respectively. The main advantage of this method is the high entrapment efficiency for hydrophilic drugs, which were $90.9\% \pm 0.16\%$ and $100.03\% \pm 0.16\%$ 2.01% for the same preparations.

2.2.5.3. Spryer Solvent Displacement with Dialysis and Freeze Dryer Stabilization

Kim et al. [81] modified the solvent displacement as follows. The organic phase was injected into an aqueous solution by a nozzle and the solvent removed by dialysis. The drug addition (paclitaxel) was done after dialysis, by adsorption onto the nanosphere surface. The system was stabilized by the addition of an aqueous solution of pluronic F-

68 and subsequently freeze dried. The solvent used in the organic phase (discontinuous) was tetraglycol. For the PLGA concentration tested, 0.5 wt% to 5 wt% the nanosphere mean size obtained were in the range of 150 nm to over 1.4 µm. The maximum entrapment efficiency was $28.5\% \pm 3.3\%$ and loading amount of $9.4\% \pm 1.4$ wt% for PLGA nanospheres formed with 0.05 wt% of paclitaxel-ethanol solution. A limitation of this procedure is the strong dependence of the nanosphere size with respect to the polymer concentration.

2.2.5.4. Double Emulsion with Emulsion Diffusion

Cegnar et al. [82] modified the normal emulsion solvent evaporation method. The evaporation step, required for the solvent elimination, was changed by the addition of large amounts of distilled water to promote the diffusion of the solvent from the polymer (organic phase) to the aqueous suspension to improve the energy consumption. PVA was used as surfactant in the emulsion, and it was added to the second aqueous phase, in low concentrations (0.3% w/v), to avoid aggregation. Ethyl acetate was used as the organic solvent. The excess of PVA was reduced by centrifugation and wash steps with distilled water. Four 50:50 PLGA polymers (free carboxyl end groups with 12 and 48 kDa, and esterified carboxyl end group with 12 and 48 kDa) were employed to entrap cystatin, a cysteine protease inhibitor. The free carboxyl end group with 42 kDa 50:50- PLGA led to mean sizes varying from 300 nm to 350 nm with a polydispersity index of 0.3, and zeta potential of -30 mV. The free carboxyl end groups PLGA incorporated higher amounts of cystatin than esterified carboxyl end groups (free carboxyl end groups: for the 12 kDa was $57 \pm 8\%$, and for 42 kDa was $35 \pm 8\%$; esterified carboxyl end groups: for the 12 kDa was $12 \pm 4\%$, and for the 42 kDa was $14 \pm 6\%$).

In a further work, Cegnar et al. [83] optimized different parameters to obtain smaller nanoparticles with maximum cystatin activity into the matrix. The parameters tested were stirring rate (from 5000 to 15000 RPM), solvent (ethyl acetate and a mix of dichloromethane with acetone, DCMA), stirring with sonication, and polymer type. The stirring with sonication formed the smaller particles with slight difference for both solvents tested. The mean nanosphere size were 254 ± 16 nm and 235 ± 19 nm for ethyl acetate and DCMA preparations, respectively. The reduction in the cystatin activity was more pronounced with the mix of acetone and DCM (30%) compared with ethyl acetate (15%). Therefore, a mix of sonication and mild stirring in ethyl acetate was applied to preserve up to 85% of cystatin activity. The mean nanoparticle size was 180 ± 9 nm for free carboxylic end group PLGA with molecular weight of 12 kDa. Best drug loading and entrapment efficiencies were obtained for the PLGA polymer with free carboxylic end groups, $2.6\% \pm 0.2\%$ and $57\% \pm 8\%$, respectively.

2.2.5.5. Dialysis Method for Modified PLGA

This is a simple method that can be used for the preparation of nanoparticles with block-copolymers, graft copolymers, and amphiphilic materials [84, 85]. Typically, this method consists of using a dialysis device in which the organic solution is placed. The organic solution, containing the polymer and the lipophylic active component is dialyzed for at least 12 hours against distilled water to remove the organic solvent and the free active component.

Jeon et al. [84] investigated the effect of different solvents on the size of PLGA nanoparticles formed and release of norfloxacin. PLGA copolymer ratios used were 85:15, 75:25, and 50:50 with molecular weight of 48.4, 47.5, and 40.1 kDa, respectively. The experiments were developed with low PLGA concentration $(0.2\% \text{ w/v})$ suggesting that the mean size of nanospheres obtained by this method is highly sensitive to polymer concentration. The solvents studied were acetone, dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO), dimethylacetamide (DMAc), and dimethylformamide (DMF). The lowest mean size obtained was for DMF with 50:50 PLGA with 183 ± 70.6 nm (number average), and the drug content was 9.74 wt $\%$ with a loading efficiency of 10.8 wt $\%$. The highest drug content (12.97 wt%) and loading efficiency (14.9 wt%) was for the 50:50 PLGA in DMAc, but the nanoparticle size obtained was higher (over 300 nm).

The solvent effect was further studied by Jeong et al. [85], who looked at different solvents (acetone, tetrahydrofuran (THF), DMF, DMAc, and DMSO). The lowest size nanosphere obtained was 200.4 ± 133 nm in the presence of DMAc as organic solvent (Figure 2.6). The nanoparticle sizes (number average) varied from 421.2 nm to 276.9 nm for 85:15 and 75:25 copolymer ratios, respectively. It should be noted that the entrapment efficiency was 13.3 wt% and 11.7 wt% for 85:15 and 50:50 ratios, respectively.

Figure 2.6. Scanning electron microphotographs of 50:50 PLGA nanoparticles prepared from (a) DMAc or (b) acetone as a function of the initial solvent. Reproduced from ref. Jeong et al. [85].

The study of testosterone-free surfactant PLGA nanoparticles was done by Jeong et al. [86]. They compared the dialysis method with solvent diffusion method in terms of PLGA nanoparticle size. The nanoparticles mean size obtained by dialysis method was 732.8 \pm 190.7 nm with a drug loading of 8.5 wt% and an entrapment efficiency of 46.4 wt% using acetone. For DMF, the mean size was 164.1 ± 32.5 nm with a drug loading of 9.1 wt% and entrapment efficiency of 50.1 wt%. The solvent diffusion was done with acetone, and the mean size was 81.3 ± 10.4 nm with a drug loading of 11.2 wt% and entrapment efficiency of 63.1 wt%. The release profile for testosterone differed for each preparation suggesting that drug release is related more to the nanoparticle size than active component concentration and that it is regulated by diffusion pathways more than polymer degradation. Nanoparticle synthesized using the acetone-solvent displacement method was released faster than the nanoparticles prepared with the dialysis method (almost 100% after 3 days for the former, and almost 60% for the latter).

A further work of Jeong et al. [87] studied the addition of PLA-poly(ethylene glycol) diblock copolymer to the organic phase with dissolved PLGA. The organic solvent used was dimethylformamide. The organic solution was placed in a dialysis tube with a cutoff of 12,000 g/mol. The mean nanoparticle size (number average) was 295.3 \pm 171.3 nm and 307.6 ± 27.2 nm for the PLGA and PLGA/(PLA-PEG) blend, respectively. The entrapment of adriamycin-HCl (ADR) increased the mean size to 307.6 ± 27.2 nm and 348.4 ± 176.6 nm for 1:1 and 1:2 PLGA/ADR weight ratio, respectively. Poly(Llysine)-grafted-PLGA polymer was another modification done to PLGA by Jeong et al. [88, 89] to obtain an amphiphilic polymer suitable for micelle formation under dissolution in water. The polymer concentration used was 0.4% w/v. The mean size ranged from 149.6 \pm 4.8 nm to 69.4 \pm 2.8 nm for 3% or 8% of polymer grafting, respectively.

2.3. Magnetic Polymeric Nanoparticles (MPNPs)

There are numerous methods available to form magnetic polymeric nanoparticles (MPNPs), divided in two main classes, 1) polymerization techniques, starting with a monomer, and 2) chemical and physical entrapment of magnetite in a preformed polymer. Polymerization methods include emulsion or microemulsion polymerization, interfacial polymerization, precipitation polymerization, and suspension polymerization. When a preformed polymer is the starting material, the methods used are impregnation of magnetite in the polymer matrix, polymer immobilization onto inorganic magnetite, incorporation of magnetite by precipitation, and others.

2.3.1. Polymerization Methods

The materials resulting from the inclusion of magnetite (inorganic material) into a polymer matrix (organic material) are usually named polymer latexes [128, 129] or nanocomposites [130]. Both names, the first originating from colloidal chemistry and the last from nanotechnology, define a mixture of two materials forming a new material with improved properties.

Year	Author	Method	Polymer conc. (mg/mL)	Ratio	M.W. kDa	Surfactant conc. (% w/w)	Solvent	Phase vol. (mL/mL)	Nanopart. yield (%)	Active component	Initial conc. (mg/mL)	Nanoparticle size (nm)	efficiency (%)	Entrapment Nanoparticle loading (% w/w)	Notes
2001	Ahlin $[23]$	ED	5% w/w	50/50 75/25	12 and 12,63	PVA at 10, 15, 20% w/w	Benzyl alcohol	10/20	na.	na.	na.	310 190 165	na.	na.	Viscosity effect
2001	Kim $[90]$	ED	20	75/25	75 to 120	PVA Pluronic F68 and F127	Benzyl alcohol	10/20	na.	Estrogen	na.	Approx. 200 132 and 146	na.	na.	Surfactant effect
2002	Ahlin $[24]$	ED	5% w/w	50/50	12	PVA at 10. 15, 20% w/w	Benzyl alcohol	2.1g/4g	na.	Enalaprilat	2% w/v	183±5 204±6	46.4 ± 1.7	13.2 ± 0.5	Drug effect
2004	Ravi Kumar (a) $[21]$	ED	20	70/30	na.	100 mg PVA 30 mg chitosan	Ethyl acetate	$10/10 +$ extra water	na.	DNA	10	181.5±3	na.	na.	DNA on surface
2005	Lee $[19]$	ED	20	75/25	75 to 120	Pluronic F68 and F127 (5%)	Ethyl acetate	10/20	na.	Magnetite (40%magn. content)	5 _{mg}	95 to 210	na.	na.	Test stirring rates
2002	Konan $[25]$	SO	17% w/w	50/50	12, 48	PVA 82.6% hydrated $(15w/w\%)$	THF and Acetone	5 g / 20 g	na.	na.	na.	102 ± 4 154±17 137±6	na.	na.	Agitation effect
2004	Eley [27]	SO	20% w/w	na.	na.	PVA	Acetone	na.	65	Coumarin- 6	1%	400 to 1100	50-55	na.	Vitro, vivo release
2004	Zweers $[26]$	SO	2%wt.	57/43	11.4	PVA at 2 $wt.$ %	Acetone	5 g / 7.5 g	na.	na.	na.	230 (0.09)*	na.	na.	Degradation
1993	Niwa (b) $[32]$	NP	8	85/15	12, 66, 127	PVA at 2% w/v	Acetone, DCM, water	17/50	76.3- 79.4- 94.5	Nafarelin Acetate	17.6% W/V	311±20 $224 + 14$ 233±31	4.96 11.8 8.22	0.15 0.37 0.22	Hydrophilic drug

Table 2.1. Summary of important parameters for PLGA nanoparticles formation

Notes: The data presented in the table is classified in function of the method. The main parameters presented are: polymer concentration in mg PLGA/ml of solvent; PLGA copolymer molar ratio; PLGA molecular weight (M.W.); surfactant concentration; solvent in the organic phase; phase volume ratio; nanoparticle yield (% of final nanoparticle obtained as a function of the initial amounts of components); active component used in the formulation; initial concentration of drug in the discontinuous phase; nanoparticle size, drug entrapment efficiency (drug entrapped / initial amount added); nanoparticle loading (amount of drug related to the amount of PLGA nanoparticle). When the units are different, they are detailed in the cells.

Examples of this are the addition of 1 wt% of multiwalled carbon nanotubes to polystyrene to improve the tensile strength of polystyrene by at least 25% [131], the application of cellulose whiskers (nanocrystals) as mechanical reinforcing agents for low thickness polymer electrolytes for lithium batteries [132], or the use of iron oxides and ferrites to form conducting polymers [129].

Several monomers have been used to form the shell surrounding a magnetic nanoparticle by polymerization techniques. Sauzedde et al. [128, 133] worked with polystyrene (PS), poly N-isopropylacrylamide (NIPAM) and poly S/Nisopropylacrylamide (PNIPAM) to form a stable nanoparticle by precipitation polymerization. The maximum magnetite adsorbed was 1.24 g/g for PNIPAM, and the hydrodynamic diameter of the nanoparticles formed was 450 nm at 20 °C. When the adsorption was carried out at 40 $^{\circ}$ C, the mean size decreased to 215 nm, but the magnetite adsorbed decreased as well to 0.95 g/g.

Dresco et al. [134] used a single inverse microemulsion by seed copolymerization of methacrylic acid, hydroxyethyl methacrylate and cross-linker to form magnetic nanoparticles. Nanoparticles in the range of 80 to 320 nm were obtained. Arias et al. [135] used anionic polymerization to synthesize a shell of poly(ethyl-2-cyanoacrylate) with a magnetite core. The core/shell nanoparticles obtained were spherical in shape and measured around 144 nm $(\pm 15 \text{ nm})$ with a polymer shell of 30 nm (approx.), for an initial weight ratio of 4 to 3 between monomer to magnetite. Landfester and Ramirez [136] studied miniemulsion polymerization technique as a way to form magnetic polymeric nanoparticles. The nanospheres made from polystyrene matrix with entrapped magnetite measured in average 60 nm, and the entrapment efficiency of magnetite ranged from 19.4% to 34.7% as measured by thermogravimetric measurements. Zheng et al. [137] used the same method to improve the magnetite content and the nanoparticle size distribution. The final nanoparticle mean size was around 120 nm as measured by DLS. Different ratios of magnetite/styrene monomers were tested. The lowest particle diameter (102 nm) was observed for the 1/1 ratio, and the highest diameter (128 nm) was for the 1/3 ratio. The magnetic content was found to change proportionally to the amount of magnetite used for the preparation of the magnetic core polymeric shell system, ranging from 27 to 55 %.

The polymerization techniques have the advantage of forming well controlled magnetic core polymeric shell nanoparticles, by close monitoring the magnetite to polymer ratio, as compared to other methods. A limitation of the polymerization techniques is that the polymeric shell, in some cases, is not thick enough to transport a suitable amount of drug [130, 138]. Other drawbacks are the risk of residual additives and the possibility of interactions or cross-reactions between the drug and the polymer during the polymerization process, leading to drug inactivation [117].

2.3.2. Chemical and Physical Entrapment of Magnetite

2.3.2.1. Chemical Entrapment and Surface Modification of Magnetite

Another procedure used to form polymeric latexes or nanocomposites is the attachment of preformed polymers to magnetite by chemical reaction. The polymer is formed previously and added to the magnetite synthesis or formed magnetite.

Burke et al. [130] worked with polyethylene, polystyrene and polyisobutylen to form a suitable polymeric shell for magnetic nanoparticles (called nanocomposites). The previously formed polymers were added to iron pentacarbonyl and kerosene to form the core/shell nanoparticle. The average size varied from 8 nm to 50 nm with a core size range of 3 nm to 45 nm. The iron content varied from 21 to 61 % wt %. In general, a smaller size distribution of nanoparticles was observed for polyethylene and polyisobutylene as compared to polystyrene shell nanocomposites.

2.3.2.2. Physical Entrapment

In the physical entrapment techniques (top-down techniques), the starting materials are the polymer and magnetite. No chemical reactions are involved in the process; magnetite is entrapped into the polymeric matrix by hydrophobic-hydrophilic, electrostatic, or steric interaction.

Emulsion evaporation, emulsion diffusion, salting out, nanoprecipitation or solvent displacement, are some of the common methods used to form nanoparticles from preformed polymers. These methods can be adapted to entrap magnetite. Jeong et al. [139] entrapped magnetite into a preformed polymer (PLGA) by the emulsion diffusion method. The nanoparticles obtained had an average size of 120 nm. Lee et al. [19] entrapped magnetite in PLGA by nanoprecipitation. The magnetite was suspended in acetone after the PLGA dissolution (150 mg), and the initial magnetite concentration (theoretical loading) was 3.33 % w/w (related to PLGA weight). The nanoparticle size obtained ranged from 120 nm to 230 nm for PLGA concentration varied from 1% to 5%, respectively.

Emulsion evaporation is one of the oldest methods used with preformed polymers, and it has been extensively used to entrapment numerous drugs [63, 72, 121]. Hydrophilic compounds (normal magnetite) can be modified by adding a layer of oleic acid to the surface to ensure its entrapment in the PLGA (hydrophobic polymer) matrix by emulsion evaporation method.

2.3.3. Surface Modification

Surface modification is pursued not only to ensure effective magnetite entrapment in PLGA, but also in an attempt to improve stability of the magnetic nanoparticles, to increase their circulation half life, and improve the nanoparticle cellular uptake. Zaitsev et al. [140] used methacrylic acid for magnetite coating. The size of the nanoparticles formed was 5.7 nm. Dextran coated magnetite nanoparticles have been researched by Lacava et al. [141], who focused on long term retention of the particles in the liver and spleen. Magnetite nanoparticles with an average size of 9.4 nm were obtained. The use of triblocks copolymer is yet another approach to improve the stability of magnetite. Harris et al. [138] synthesized a triblock copolymer which was adsorbed onto the magnetite surfaces. The mean size of the nanoparticles was 8.7 nm (SD 2.7 nm). The amount of entrapped magnetite ranged from 6.9 to 45.4 wt%.

 The incorporation of poly(ethylene glycol) (PEG) on the magnetite surface is another approach to improve stability and increase the circulation half life. Kim et al. [142] obtained nanoparticles of 4.2 nm in size. Gupta and Curtis [143] studied the effect of PEG coated magnetite on human fibroblasts cells suggesting that the cellular uptake is improved compared with unmodified magnetite. The size of the magnetite coated nanoparticles was around 40 -50 nm in diameter. Goodarzi et al. [144] used citric acid for surface modification to obtain a suitable aqueous suspension of magnetite. The size range ranged from 5 to 13 nm. The amount of citric acid attached to the surface was around 30% in weight as determined by thermogravimetric analysis (TGA).

 Surfactants were used to stabilize magnetite and to form hydrophilic or hydrophobic magnetic nanoparticles. The adsorption of surfactants on the magnetite

surface was studied by Korolev et al. [145]. Oleic, stearic, and linoleic acids were tested in CCl4, and oleic acid in hexane. A higher amount of oleic acid was adsorbed for both solvents on the magnetite surface as compared to stearic and linoleic acids, suggesting a better performance for this fatty acid. The nanoparticle size obtained varied between 5.7 nm and 9.3 nm, depending on the temperature. Montagne et al. [146] worked with oleic acid for stabilization of water-oil emulsion of maghemite (Fe₃O₂) ferromagnetic fluid. Wooding et al. [147] studied the effect of different carboxylic acids (C6 to C18) on the stability of surface modified magnetite in aqueous suspension for one and two surfactant layers. The surface covered was between 21 to 38 \AA^2 . Along the same lines, the addition of fatty acids (oleic acid, dodecanoic acid, etc.) was found to improve the stability of magnetite in aqueous and organic suspension. Xu et al. [131] used N-oleoylsarcosine to form a double layer on the magnetite surface by changing the amount of surfactant added to the suspension. The nanoparticle size varied between 8.1 nm and 20.7 nm. Landfester and Ramirez [136] used oleic acid to form a hydrophobic magnetite which was suspended in octane. The nanoparticle size was around 20 nm. A different approach was followed by Jain et al. [148], who mixed two surfactants to entrap a suitable drug. The first one was oleic acid which was attached to the magnetite surface. The second surfactant was Pluronic F-127 which was added to the system magnetite-oleic and stirred over night. The optimum composition was 70.1 wt% magnetite, 15.4 wt% oleic acid, and 14.5 wt% Pluronic F-127 determined by TGA. The drug (doxorubicin) loaded into the system was 8.2 ± 0.5 wt% with an entrapment efficiency of 82%.

Another option for magnetite surface modification is the incorporation of ligands like folic acid [149], proteins like HIV-1 tat peptide [150], or poly ethylene glycol (PEG) [142, 149], which was found to improve the half-life by limiting the mononuclear phagocyte system (MPS) uptake.

2.4. Characterization

2.4.1. Morphology

The methods most broadly used to characterize nanoparticle morphology are transmission electron microscopy (TEM), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), cryogenic transmission electro microscopy (cryo-TEM) and atomic force microscopy (AFM). TEM is used for shape, aggregation, and internal details. It is common to use a negative staining with phosphotungstic acid solution (3% w/v, adjusted to pH 4.7 with KOH) [115]. Panyam et al. [108, 116] used negative staining with uranyl acetate for TEM. SEM is used for surface characterization (shape, distribution, aggregation) with a layer of gold [117] or nanoparticles alone [59, 60, 80, 81, 99]. Cryo-TEM is used to observe the micellar formation of PLGA-g-PEG [118]. Dailey et al. [119] used AFM to visualize three different formulation (PVA grafted PLGA polymer with different amounts of carboxymethyl cellulose) on mica with and without nickel chloride pretreatment. Ravi Kumar et al. [22] and Saxena et al. [37] used AFM for size and morphology of nanoparticles. Moreover, a three D image of one nanoparticle was obtained by Feng et al. [101].

2.4.2. Size and Size Distribution

Dynamic light scattering is the most widely technique used to determine size and size distribution. One of the most common used techniques is photon correlation spectroscopy at room temperature with water as suspension medium [17, 87, 116, 120]. Typically, the suspension is previously sonicated to reduce aggregation if the sample is a re-suspension of nanoparticles. Panyam and Labhasetwar [121] used TEM to determine the mean size of the nanoparticles. The same equipment is used to determine mean size and size distribution. The turbidity measurements are used to evaluate droplet size changes and aggregation during emulsification and evaporation [117].

2.4.3. Surface Properties

Laser doppler anemometry is used to measure the zeta potential, an important parameter when considering the stability of the nanoparticles [30, 34, 103, 105, 119] in vitro. The more negative or positive values of zeta potential are related to more stable particles; more repulsion between particles reduce the particle aggregation. For chemical characterization, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) is used when there is surface modification by the attachment of special components [122]. Gref et al. [123] used two-dimensional electrophoresis to determine the plasma protein adsorbed onto the nanoparticles surface. The surface hydrophobicity was measured by the binding constant of Rose Bengal [74].

2.4.4. Active Component Entrapment

The entrapment into the nanoparticles is described by two important parameters: theoretical drug loading, which is the ratio between mass of drug used in synthesis and mass of polymer used in synthesis, and nanoparticle recovery, which is the ratio between mass of nanoparticles recovered and mass of polymer and drug used in synthesis. The drug content is calculated by the ratio of mass of drug in nanoparticles to mass of nanoparticles recovered, and the drug entrapment by the ratio of mass of drug in nanoparticles to mass of drug used in synthesis $[17, 31, 120]$. The quantitative determination of active component entrapped in nanoparticles is done by extraction of the drug. The polymer dissolution in a suitable solvent (acetonitrile, ethyl acetate, and others) is required, washing steps with distilled water, and purification. The drug concentration of the final suspension can be measured by ultraviolet spectroscopy at defined wavelength (related to the active component) or HPLC. When the target is the quantification of surfactant attached to the surface, the thermo-gravimetric analysis is used [50].

2.4.5. Other Techniques

Gel permeation chromatography is suitable to determine the molecular weight of the polymers used for nanoparticle formation and for studies of degradation [87, 124]. Dailey et al. [119] studied degradation by measuring the lactic and glycolic acid present in the supernatant at different time intervals with a UV spectrophotometer. When the nanoparticles are tested in vitro, flow cytometry is used to determine the cell association in 3'3-dioctadecyloxacarbocyanine perchlorate (DiO) [98]. H-NMR is commonly used when the target is the identification of a specific structure in the nanoparticle and polymer blends [38, 125], but Chognot et al. [126] used to determine the molecular weight (M_n) and M_w) of MPEO. To determine the PVA residues on the nanoparticles, a colorimetric method is used [17, 116] with measurements at 644 nm. Desgouilles et al. [127] used a small angle neutron scattering to investigate the nanoparticle structure. The sample was diluted in deuterium oxide (D_2O) , and the sample-to-detector distance was 1.62 or 4.62 m with incident wavelengths of 6 or 15 Å. For porosity measurements, the true density was calculated with helium pycnometer equipment by Murakami et al. [94], and the formula used was Porosity $= (1-(\text{apparent density/true density}))^*100$. The crystallinity of polymer and drugs are estimated by x-ray diffraction [17, 58, 70] or using differential scanning calorimetry [70]. A common method used to determine the crystallinity of the polymer and drug entrapped is done by x-ray diffraction [17, 101].

2.5. Conclusions

Many methods are available to synthesize PLGA nanoparticles, starting with a preformed polymer. Each has its advantages and disadvantages, but the principal selection criteria should be the chemical characteristics of the active component and its interactions with the organic solvents, polymer, and surfactant, as well as the final use of the nanoparticles. Polymerization methods are widely employed for magnetic polymeric nanoparticles (MPNPs) synthesis as compared with methods based on preformed polymers. The final application of MPNPs is the limiting factor in selecting the adequate synthesis method. For example, the potential toxicity of chemical compounds (initiators, residual monomers, and additives) needed in some polymerization techniques limits the use of these methods in formation of nanoparticles for drug delivery applications.

The methods based on diffusion of the organic solvent to form the PLGA nanoparticles are limited to low polymer concentration to maintain a nanoparticle mean size of 200 nm. Methods that involve solvent evaporation are more time consuming and expensive, but are less sensitive to changing the polymer concentration. Emulsion evaporation, in particular, can be used for entrapment of hydrophilic (w/o/w emulsion) or hydrophobic (w/o emulsion) drugs, which is an advantage. The salting-out method is suitable for formation of nanoparticles at higher polymer concentration, but the involved purification process is a limitation of the synthesis method. Surfactant concentration, polymer concentration, polymer molecular weight, solvents, surfactant concentrations, and phase ratios play an important role in controlling the size of the nanoparticles in all methods available for nanoparticles formation. There are important advances in understanding the mechanisms involved and possible manipulation of the nanoparticle characteristics and the improvement in the drug entrapment efficiency by carefully controlling these parameters.

The availability of different characterization techniques makes the detailed analysis of the nanoparticle system possible. The nanoparticles size is affected by many parameters and researchers are continually attempting to decrease the average

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nanoparticle size. Synthesis of PLGA nanoparticles smaller in size than 100 nm is not common by the methods detailed above; however, the advantages of smaller sizes should be studied in depth (i.e. nanoparticles designed for intracellular use should be smaller than nanoparticles designed for extra cellular use).

The magnetic polymeric nanoparticles (MPNPs) are synthesized by polymerization methods. The size range is from 30 nm to over 100 nm. The common structure of the MPNPs is a magnetic core with a polymer shell. The amount of magnetite entrapped ranged from 10 %wt. to 35% wt. The use of preformed polymer to entrap magnetite is limited, and nanoprecipitation is the only top-down method employed in forming MPNPs.

Formation of nanoparticles that can interact with the human body and can modify their responses based on changes in the environment is the next research step in the field. Several questions will be addressed to reach this goal, such as the addition of new polymers to form grafted PLGA, surface modification by adding new polymers or ligands, as well as the creation of nanoparticles with new properties for modulated responses and a better performance.

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CHAPTER 3. SYNTHESIS OF POLY(DL-LACTIDE-CO-GLYCOLIDE) NANOPARTICLES WITH ENTRAPPED MAGNETITE

3.1. Introduction

Biosensor development [1], imaging [2, 3], bio-separation [4], hyperthermia [5, 6], drug delivery [1, 7], targeted diagnostics and therapy [8] are some of the many biomedical areas where magnetic nanoparticles could be of relevant use. Magneticpolymeric nanoparticles (MPNPs), made from organic and inorganic components, have unique characteristics due to the specific properties of the blend. The constituents of a MPNP play different roles: the polymeric matrix acts as a shell, reservoir, and vehicle for the active component, whereas magnetite is the component which makes targeting possible by external magnetic field manipulation. MPNPs can be used for delivery of active components such as drugs [7, 9, 10, 11], vaccines [12], proteins [13], DNA [14, 15, 16], antisense oligonucleotides [17], enzymes [18], and others.

In biomedical applications, synthetic polymers and natural macromolecules have been extensively researched as colloidal materials for the MPNPs production. Synthetic polymers have the advantage of high purity and reproducibility over the natural polymers. Among those, the polymers in the polyesters family are of interest because of their biocompatibility and biodegradability to nontoxic metabolites. Poly(lactide-coglycolide) (PLGA) is a polyester that has been FDA approved for human therapy [19, 20].

The mainly technique used to form a magnetic core with a polymer shell is polymerization which is known as bottom up technique. Another interesting approach is the top down techniques due to the advantages discussed in chapter 1. In the top-down techniques, the starting materials are the polymer and magnetite. No chemical reactions are involved in the process; magnetite is entrapped into the polymeric matrix by hydrophobic-hydrophilic, electrostatic, or steric interaction.

The common top-down methods using preformed polymers are emulsion evaporation, emulsion diffusion, salting out, nanoprecipitation or solvent displacement. These methods can be adapted to entrap magnetite. Jeong et al. [21] entrapped magnetite

into a preformed polymer (PLGA) by the emulsion diffusion method. The nanoparticles obtained had an average size of 120 nm. Lee et al. [22] entrapped magnetite in PLGA by nanoprecipitation. The magnetite was suspended in acetone after the PLGA dissolution (150 mg), and the initial magnetite concentration (theoretical loading) was 3.33 $\%$ w/w (related to PLGA weight). The nanoparticle size obtained ranged from 120 nm to 230 nm for PLGA concentration varied from 1% to 5%, respectively. The emulsion evaporation is one of the oldest methods used with preformed polymers, and it has been extensively used to entrapment numerous drugs [23, 24, 25, 26]. The versatility of emulsion evaporation method permits to entrap magnetite by double emulsion due to the hydrophilic behavior of magnetite, although hydrophilic compounds (normal magnetite) can be tailored to hydrophobic compounds by addition of a surfactant layer (oleic acid) to the particle surface. This magnetite surface modification ensures its entrapment in the PLGA (hydrophobic polymer) matrix by emulsion evaporation method.

3.2. Objectives

The aim of this research was to synthesize PLGA nanoparticles with entrapped magnetite in the polymeric matrix, by emulsion evaporation method. Single emulsion evaporation was the technique used for the entrapment of surface modified magnetite with oleic acid (MOA). The nanoparticles were characterized in terms of size and size distribution with dynamic light scattering (DLS). The magnetite entrapment efficiency was measured by colorimetric method for free iron (Fe^{3+}) detection. The sodium dodecyl sulfate remaining in the nanospheres after dialysis was calculated by thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), and the morphology of the particles was visualized with Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM).

3.3. Materials and Methods

3.3.1. Materials

 Poly(DL-lactide-co-glycolide) (PLGA) 50:50, with a molecular weight of 5,000 – 15,000, PLGA 50:50, with a molecular weight of 45,000-75,000, and PLGA 85:15 with a molecular weight of 90,000 -120,000 were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Sigma Chemical Co, St Louis, MO). Sodium dodecyl sulfate of 99% purity (20% w/v) was obtained from Amresco (Amresco inc., Solon, OH). Ethyl acetate at 99% of purity was acquired from EMD chemicals (EMD chemicals Inc., Gibbstown, NJ), and hydrochloric

acid 32 -38% was purchased from Fisher Chemical (Fisher Scientific International, Fairlawn, NJ). Oleic acid, trehalose, iron oxide, and potassium ferrocyanide were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Sigma Chemical Co, St Louis, MO). Magnetite (Fe₃O₄) was obtained from the Center for Advanced Microstructures and Devices (CAMD).

3.3.2. Nanoparticles Preparation

3.3.2.1. Hydrophobic Magnetite

Magnetite was prepared by coprecipitation of ferrous salts (Fe(II) and Fe(III)) by addition of excess of ammonium hydroxide. The attachment of oleic acid to the surface was done after the formation of magnetite by addition of 15 ml of 20 %wt aqueous solution of oleic acid and 10% ammonium hydroxide. The solution was stirred with a magnetic bar for 30 minutes at 80 °C in an oil bath. Following stirring, the solution was placed on a magnet and washed three times, twice with distilled water and once with ethanol. The solution was dried with nitrogen for two hours and stored for further use.

3.3.2.2. Single Emulsion Evaporation with Hydrophobic Magnetite

PLGA nanoparticles were prepared using emulsion evaporation method. Typically, 125 mg of PLGA was dissolved in 2.5 ml of ethyl acetate. The magnetite-oleic acid (MOA) was suspended in ethyl acetate and sonicated for 10 min in an ice bath and it was added to the organic phase at two concentrations, 4% and 8% w/w (relative to PLGA). The organic phase was poured into to 2 mg/ml of aqueous SDS solution (distilled water saturated with ethyl acetate), and the emulsion was stirred with a homogenizer Ultra Turrax T18 (IKA Works Inc., Wilmington, NC) for 3 minutes at 12000 RPM. The emulsion was sheared with sonication in an ice bath at 4 to 6 °C using a probe-type sonicator VC505 (Vibracell, Sonic & Materials Inc., Denbury, CT) for 10 minutes in pulse mode (38% of amplitude). The organic solvent was evaporated with a rotoevaporator (Buchi R-124, Buchi Analytical Inc, New Castle, DE) for 7 min under vacuum (40 mmHg). After nanospheres formation, the purification (extraction of excess of SDS) was done by dialysis with a Spectra/Por[®] (Spectrum Laboratories Inc., Rancho Dominguez, Ca) membrane of a 100 kDa molecular weight cut off. The dialysis process was done with distilled water with three washes. Washes for the low molecular weight PLGA were performed at 20 °C (t_g is 25.7 °C). The first one was for two hours, the second one was for 8 hr, and the last one was over night. The amount of distilled water was 1.5 l each time. Finally, the nanoparticles were pre-frozen at -80 °C for three hours followed by lyophilization for 48 hours at -41 °C under 110 mmHg of vacuum (freezone 4.5, Labconco Corporation, Kansas City, Missouri) in the presence of trehalose. The final samples were injected with nitrogen (to avoid degradation due to humidity, hydrolysis) and stored at 4 °C.

3.3.3. Nanoparticles Characterization

3.3.3.1. Morphology and Size

Transmission electron microscope (TEM) JEOL 100-CX (JEOL USA Inc, Peabody, MA) was used for morphology studies. The aqueous dispersion (one drop) was placed over a copper grid of 400 mesh with carbon film. The droplet was reduced after 5 min with a filter paper to eliminate the excess of nanoparticles. Finally, the sample was air dried prior to placing it in the TEM.

3.3.3.2. Size and Zeta Potential

Diffraction light scattering was used for size and polydespesity index measurements (Zetasizer nano ZS, Malvern instruments Inc, Southborough, MA). Typically, a sample of 1.5 ml was placed in a cuvette at a concentration of 0.3 mg/ml. The measurements were done at 25°C. The viscosity and refraction index of the continuous phase were set equal to those specific to water. Zeta potential measurements were done with a disposable capillary cell with a volume of 1 ml. The mean value was determined using a mono-modal distribution.

3.3.3.3. Colorimetric Method for Iron Content

The magnetite with oleic acid entrapped into the polymeric matrix was measured by detection of free iron (Fe^{3+}) with a UV/vis spectrophotometer Genesys 6 (Thermo Spectronic Corp., Rochester, NY), colorimetric method, that uses the prussian blue reaction. The calibration curve was done with iron oxide at 99.999% of purity and potassium ferrocyanide solution at 4% w/v. Typically, a certain amount of PLGA nanospheres with entrapped MOA (10 mg) was digested with hydrochloric acid at 6 N (1 ml) for two hours or until the residue was white. A dilution step was added (10 ml) to insure that the concentration was in the calibration plot range. The solution formed a white-yellow color. Next, 0.3 ml of sample was reacted with equal amount of potassium ferrocyanide for 15 min. The absorbance was measured at 700 nm. To determine the

magnetite content, a final correction was applied to the iron content of magnetite (molar ratio of 72.4%).

3.3.3.4. Thermogravimetric Analysis

The sample was placed in the furnace of TGA 2950 thermogravimetric analyzer (TA instruments, New Castle, DE) over an aluminum pan under a nitrogen atmosphere to avoid oxidation. The temperature was varied from 25 to 600 $^{\circ}$ C with increments of 5 $^{\circ}$ C per minute.

3.3.3.5. Statistical Analysis

Data collected were analyzed by SAS software. The test performed was analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey-kramer adjustment. P<0.05 was considered significant. The proc mixed procedure was used to analyze the interaction between the process parameters (molecular weight, MOA addition, and sonication amplitude) and their effect in the nanoparticle size.

3.4. Results and Discussions

3.4.1. Single Emulsion Evaporation with Hydrophobic Magnetite

3.4.1.1. Morphology and Magnetite Distribution into the Polymeric Matrix

The magnetite with oleic acid (MOA) nanoparticles analyzed by TEM showed a spherical shape with a narrow size distribution (Figure 3.1). The aggregation present in MOA was due to the solvent elimination prior to TEM analysis and to natural clustering of MOA.

 The TEM pictures of the MPNPs formed with 4% MOA theoretical loading showed a good distribution and a small size of the nanoparticles. The presence of MOA into the polymeric matrix is identified by the black dots over the grey background representing the PLGA (Figure 3.2). A clear visual difference between 4% and 8% MOA theoretical loading was not possible by TEM. Figures 3.3 and 3.4 show MOA nanoparticle surrounded by PLGA. MOA aggregation affects the size and PI of PLGA nanoparticle with entrapped MOA. The distribution and density of MPNPs can be observed in Figure 3.5. MOA distribution into PLGA nanoparticles can be appreciated in Figure 3.6, where MOA is depicted by the black dots.

Figure 3.1. Surface modified magnetite with oleic acid (MOA). The MOA nanoparticle size was around 15 nm. The appearance of clustering was common by observed .

Figure 3.2. PLGA (molecular weight (M.W.) 45 to 75 kDa) nanospheres with 4% MOA theoretical loading. The black circles are showing the MOA entrapped in the polymeric matrix. Clustering was observed, and some PLGA nanoparticles are without MOA (empty PLGA nanoparticles).

Figure 3.3. PLGA (M.W. 45 to 75 kDa) nanospheres with 8% MOA theoretical loading. The black dots represent MOA entrapped in PLGA nanospheres.

Figure 3.4. Nanoparticles formed with PLGA M.W. of 45 to 75 kDa with 4% w/w of MOA theoretical loading. The big dark sphere (inside the dotted circle) manifests the presence of MOA. The appearance of clustering is observed in the surrounded PLGA nanoparticles.

Figure 3.5. Low molecular weight PLGA nanospheres with 4% w/w of MOA theoretical loading. The black dots represent MOA entrapped in the PLGA nanoparticle.

Figure 3.6. Medium molecular weight PLGA (40 to 75 kDa) nanosphere with 4% w/w of MOA theoretical loading. The magnetite is clearly showed in the center of this nanosphere by darker spots.

3.4.1.2. The Effect of Synthesis Parameters on Nanoparticle Physical Characteristics

• Surfactant concentration

The study of the surfactant concentration effect on the nanoparticle size was performed for the low molecular weight PLGA 5 to 15 kDa (Figure 3.7). Three distinctive regions were observed. Region A: For a SDS concentration lower than the critical micelle concentration (CMC), 1.2 mg/ml for SDS [27], the mean nanoparticle size decreased from 69.1 nm (0.4 mg/ml SDS) to 45.6 nm (1.2 mg/ml SDS) . The polydispersity index (PI) decreased with increasing SDS concentration from 0.170 to 0.227 in the same range. The decrease in size and PI can be explained by the decrease in the surface tension with increasing surfactant concentrations up to the CMC. The availability of the surfactant molecules at higher concentrations, required for stabilization of the smaller emulsion droplets created during sonication, is another reason for the improved size and size distribution in this region. Region B: At SDS concentrations higher than CMC, smaller particles were formed as a result of SDS molecules availability, as well. Although the size decreased, the polydispersity index (PI) of the formed nanoparticles increased with increasing SDS concentration. The increase of the PI suggests that the excess SDS was responsible for aggregation of the nanoparticles by interactions between the SDS polar heads and cluster formation. Region C: Ultimately, the aggregation due to the excess surfactant was responsible for an increase in the size and the PI of the nanoparticles when the SDS concentration exceeded a threshold of 7 mg/ml (Figure 3.7).

Nanoparticle aggregation due to the excess surfactant was apparent in the nanoparticle size distribution curves (Figure 3.8) for a SDS concentration of 4.8 mg/ml (Figure 3.8-b) with PLGA of low molecular weight. The main peak was at 37 nm, a second peak (size range of 200 to 900 nm), and a third pick (over $4 \mu m$) were present, which impacted the polydispersity index; whereas at SDS concentrations of 1.2 mg/ml a single peak was observed at 60 nm (Figure 3.8a) for PLGA with medium molecular weight.

Figure 3.7. Effect of SDS concentration on the size and polydispersity index of PLGA nanospheres (PLGA 5% w/v, molecular weight of 5 to 10 kDa, and copolymer molar ratio of $50:50$, $n = 2$

• PLGA concentration

The study of different PLGA concentrations was completed for low molecular weight PLGA (5 to 15 kDa). The increase from 5% to 15 % w/v in the PLGA concentration resulted in an increase in the nanoparticle size (Figure 3.9) for SDS concentrations of 2 mg/ml and 4 mg/ml. For a SDS concentration of 2% mg/ml, there was a slight increase in size from 38.6 nm to 52.7 nm, and for 4% SDS, the nanoparticle size increased from 36.1 to 41.6 nm. The increase in size, however small, suggested that the amount of surfactant was not enough to maintain the stability of the droplets and coalescence of the droplets occurred. The nanoparticle size improved when the SDS concentration increased from 2% to 4% w/v for all polymer concentrations tested (from 5 to 15% w/v). The results also showed that it was possible to increase the polymer concentration three fold (from 5 to 15 $\%$ w/v) without forming particles over 100 nm in size. This finding is important because an increase in the polymer concentration is directly related to an increase in the efficiency of the nanoparticle synthesis.

Figure 3.8. Size distribution and undersize curve for PLGA nanoparticles. Three runs at 25 °C with detector at 70°. a was PLGA 50:50 with molecular weight of 40 to 75 kDa and a SDS concentration of 1.2 mg/ml. b was PLGA 50:50 with molecular weight of 5 to 15 kDa and SDS concentration of 4.8 mg/ml

• Sonication amplitude

The sonication effect on size was evaluated with two different amplitudes at a SDS concentration of 2 mg/ml for naked PLGA nanoparticles. Amplitudes of 30% and 39% were evaluated (Table 3.1), showing a small decrease in the PLGA nanoparticles size for the three PLGA molecular weights tested.

Figure 3.9. Effect of PLGA and SDS concentration on the nanospheres size (PLGA molecular weight of 5 to 10 kDa, copolymer molar ratio of 50:50)

The amplitude in sonication is defined as peak to peak displacement at the probe tip, which is maintained constant during sonication. The percentages of amplitude are in function of the maximum displacement. The random process of droplet disruption and fusion during sonication improved the nanoparticle size for all polymer molecular weights (amplitude 39%).

		Sonicated with 30% amplitude		Sonicated with 39% amplitude		
MW (kDa)	5 to 15	40 to 75	90 to 126	5 to 15	40 to 75	90 to 126
$(L:G \text{ ratio})$	(50:50)	(50:50)	(75:25)	(50:50)	(50:50)	(75:25)
Size (nm)	39.4 ± 1.7	66.8 ± 1.8	70.6 ± 0.3	38.6 ± 0.2	63.3 ± 0.3	67.1 ± 0.5
PI	$0.285 + 0.016$	$0.107 + 0.008$	0.121 ± 0.01	0.217 ± 0.018	$0.127 + 0.003$	0.127 ± 0.005
ζ (mV)	-28.0 ± 3.7	-31.4 ± 4.6	$-39.7+2.9$	$-19.2+4.6$	$-26.3+1.3$	$-27.1+2.9$

Table 3.1. Size of PLGA nanospheres as a function of sonication wave amplitude

 $\overline{\ast}$ n=3 for all samples

The nanoparticles size reduction with increasing the sonication amplitude was higher for the medium and high molecular weight (5.3% and 5%) as compared with the nanospheres of low molecular weight (2.03%). However, the decrease in size with increasing sonication amplitude was not significant for the three molecular weights tested (p values of 0.9768, 0.0542, and 0.3065 for low, medium and high PLGA molecular weight, respectively). Not only the size, but also the PI was affected by the sonication amplitude. A better PI was observed for the low molecular weight (5 to 15 kDa) PLGA

with increasing the sonication amplitude. The medium (40 to 75 kDa) and high (90 to 126 kDa) molecular weights had similar PIs (close to 0.1), and indicator of monodisperse suspension, for both sonication amplitudes.

• Effect of MOA size on the final MPNP size and size distribution

To evaluate the effect of MOA size on the final MPNPs size, MOA was sonicated before it was added to the nanosphere preparation. At constant amplitude of 39%, the sonication time tested was 2 and 10 minutes. The final size of MPNPs was affected (Table 3.2) by sonication time.

Table 3.2. Effect of sonication time of MOA on the PLGA nanosphere with magnetite entrapped in the polymeric matrix

	MOA sonicated for 2 min				MOA sonicated for 10 min			
Molecular	size	PI	Z	size	PI			
weight (kDa)	nm	a.u.	mV	nm	a.u.	mV		
4% magnetite								
5 to $15(50:50)$	109.2 ± 2.4	0.321 ± 0.024	-39.5 ± 1.7	87.2 ± 0.8	0.297 ± 0.006	-28.5 ± 3.9		
40 to 75 (50:50)	87.5 ± 4.1	0.270 ± 0.019	-49.9 ± 23.9	81.8 ± 6.1	0.222 ± 0.06	-26.9 ± 2.9		
90 to 126 (75:25)	84.0 ± 0.7	0.234 ± 0.006	-49.6 ± 11.1	78.8 ± 0.3	0.172 ± 0.017	-33.6 ± 1.9		
8% magnetite								
5 to 15 (50:50)	138.7 ± 10.5	0.299 ± 0.076	-38.9 ± 2.5	115.1 ± 1.0	0.320 ± 0.019	-36.1 ± 4.4		
40 to 75 (50:50)	100.0 ± 1.9	0.268 ± 0.008	$-39.2+4.3$	93.0 ± 1.4	0.249 ± 0.01	-34.1 ± 3.2		
90 to 126 (75:25)	96.8 ± 1.3	0.258 ± 0.003	-38.1 ± 3.4	$107.4 + 4.9$	0.258 ± 0.004	-37.6 ± 3.1		

 $*$ MOA suspension in ethyl acetate. n = 3, and the amplitude of sonication was 39%

The size of nanospheres with 4% of MOA theoretical loading was improved from 109.2 nm to 87.2 nm for the low molecular weight sample. The medium and high molecular weight showed a reduction in size of 5.7 nm and 6 nm, respectively. Moreover, the PI was lower for all 4% MOA preparations after 10 minutes of sonication. It was obvious that the size decrease in the MOA accomplished by increasing the sonication time, which was associated with an improvement in the final MPNP characteristics for low, medium, and high PLGA molecular weight at 4% of MOA.

When the nanospheres were prepared with 8% of MOA theoretical loading, with low molecular weight PLGA (5 to 15 kDa), the size was reduced from 138.7 nm to 115.1 nm. The MPNPs size decreased from 100 nm to 93 nm for the medium molecular weight PLGA (40 to 75 kDa). However, the size of the MPNPs formed with high molecular weight PLGA (90 to 126 kDa) increased by 10.6 nm, while the PI remained constant. In general, a strong shear stress applied to the MOA suspension reduced the size the MOA clusters naturally occurring and therefore improved the MPNP size.

• Polymer molecular weight

The particle size, size distribution, and zeta potential were measured after nanoparticle formation for three PLGA molecular weights (MW): low MW 5-15 kDa, medium MW 40-75 kDa, and high MW 90-126 kDa (Table 3.3). The nanoparticle size was found to increase with the polymer molecular weight, from 38.6 nm to 67.1 nm. The size distribution improved for high MW PLGA (PI of 0.127) as compared to low MW PLGA (PI of 0.217). The results are consistent with the literature, where a direct relationship is defined between the polymer molecular weight and the nanoparticle size (for naked PLGA nanoparticles). The differences in nanoparticle size between low and medium PLGA molecular weight, and low and high PLGA molecular weight, were significant (both p values \lt 0.05 (0.0001)). The difference between medium and high PLGA molecular weight was not significant (p value > 0.05 (0.9455)).

• Magnetite concentration

The amount of magnetite entrapped in the polymeric matrix was found to affect the final mean size of the polymeric nanoparticle (Table 3.3). The addition of magnetite increased the size and size distribution of the nanoparticles (Figure 3.10).

When 4% magnetite was entrapped into the matrix, the size increased from 38.6 nm to 87.2 nm (for low MW) and from 67.1 to 78.8 nm (for high MW). The increase in the nanoparticle size was even more evident when 8% magnetite was entrapped into the polymeric matrix. The size increment was higher for low molecular weight PLGA as compared to the medium and high molecular weight PLGA, with a maximum size of 115.1 nm for low MW PLGA. The difference in size was significant for all combinations of MOA entrapped (0%, 4%, and 8%) and for all three PLGA molecular weights (P values < 0.05).

The increase in size observed for all MW PLGA can be explained by the hydrophobic interactions between the oleic acid tails belonging to two or more partially covered magnetic particles. These interactions could be responsible for magnetite clustering, and therefore could explain the increase in the particle size and size distribution.

Figure 3.10. PLGA nanoparticles size and polydispersity measured by DLS (at 70°, 25 °C). $n = 3$

*All samples were run in triplicate, measured after three to four hours after formation

MW (kDa)	Size (nm)	PI	ζ (mV)
0% magnetite			
5 to 15 (50:50)	54.5 ± 1.6	0.155 ± 0.027	-33.2 ± 7.3
40 to 75 (50:50)	68.5 ± 0.8	$0.146 + 0.014$	$-30.9+4.8$
90 to 126 (75:25)	70.3 ± 0.2	0.138 ± 0.007	$-33.5+4.6$
4% magnetite			
5 to 15 (50:50)	82.9 ± 1.6	$0.261 + 0.003$	-29.2 ± 12.3
40 to 75 (50:50)	82.6 ± 0.7	0.167 ± 0.003	-30.8 ± 3.3
90 to 126 (75:25)	82.8 ± 0.7	0.169 ± 0.007	$-27.1 + 4.0$
8% magnetite			
5 to 15 (50:50)	$108.4 + 3.7$	0.290 ± 0.007	-42.2 ± 7.4
40 to 75 (50:50)	95.8 ± 1.1	0.238 ± 0.006	-45.7 ± 7.5
90 to 126 (75:25)	108.5 ± 3.8	0.246 ± 0.006	$-37.7+9.3$

Table 3.4. Mean size, polydispersity index, and zeta potential of nanoparticles for different molecular weights and magnetite concentration AFTER dialysis

*All samples were run in triplicate, measured after four to 10 hours after formation

The increase in size, most evident in the low molecular weight PLGA, was probably due to the limited coating of the magnetite by the polymer as compared to the higher molecular weight PLGA nanoparticles. The polydispersity of the modified magnetite could be another factor which could have negatively impacted the polydispersity of the system, which was observed when two different sonication times were applied to the MAO suspension before nanosphere preparation.

Medium (40 to 75 kDa) and high (90 to 126 kDa) molecular weight polymer proved to be more suitable for magnetite entrapment. The size of the particles only increased from 63.3 nm to 81.8 nm for medium M.W. and from 67.1 nm to 78.8 nm for high M.W., when 4% of MOA was entrapped. The higher lactide (a more hydrophobic component) present in the high M.W. polymer (75:25), as compared to 50:50 lactide:glycolide for medium M.W., may explain the smaller increase in size for the medium MW PLGA nanoparticles in the presence of MOA.

The nanoparticles were characterized before and after purification. An increase in the mean nanoparticle size from 38.6 nm to 54.5 nm (significant difference, p value <0.05) was detected after dialysis for the low MW PLGA nanoparticles without magnetite (Table 3.4), while the polydispersity index was improved from 0.217 to 0.155 due to the removal of small nanoparticles and MOA by dialysis. A similar effect, an increase in the mean particle size following dialysis, was observed for the medium and

high PLGA molecular weights, but the difference was not significant (p value >0.05)... The polydispersity index was improved for all samples due to the removal of SDS in excess and the SDS trapped over the nanoparticle surface, which limited the nanoparticle aggregation. In addition, losses of small nanoparticles during dialysis explain the increase in the PLGA nanoparticles mean size without MOA, and the PI improvement. When 4% w/w of MOA was added, the difference in size was not significant for the medium molecular weight PLGA. It was not conclusive whether the PLGA nanoparticle size was affected by dialysis (p value almost 0.05) for low and high PLGA molecular weight with 4% w/w of MOA. The difference in nanoparticle mean size before and after dialysis was not significant when 8% w/w of MOA was added (p value > 0.05).

3.4.1.3. Yield of Nanoparticles, Entrapment Efficiency of MOA, Remaining SDS, and Oleic Acid Amount over Magnetite

The amount of MOA in the PLGA matrix was measured by a colorimetric method, and the SDS left in the sample was calculated from TGA data (Figure 3.11a and 3.11b) combined with data collected from the colorimetric method (Table 3.5). The residue after 600 °C obtained by TGA analysis for the MPNPs was composed of magnetite, sulfate, and sodium (from SDS). The SDS residue was determined by subtracting the amount of magnetite obtained from the colorimetric method (Table 3.5) from the total residue amount obtained by TGA. From Figure 3.11a, a relation between SDS residue and total SDS can be obtained (The sodium and sulfate groups are 24.75 wt.% of SDS). The entrapment efficiency (final weight ratio of MOA in lyophilized MPNPs measured by colorimetric method divided by the initial amount of MOA added in the formation process) varied from 57.36% to 91.9% for the PLGA with low and high PLGA molecular weight nanoparticles, respectively. The differences in the entrapment efficiency were not significant between the 4 and 8 %w/w MOA samples for all molecular weights (p values > 0.05).

The medium molecular weight (40 to 75 kDa) PLGA nanoparticles showed similar entrapment efficiency for 4% and 8% of MOA theoretical loading, 77.34% and 78.75%, respectively. The low (5 to 15 kDa) and high (40 to 75 kDa) molecular weight PLGA MPNPs presented different entrapment efficiencies for 4 and 8% w/w MOA theoretical loading. The entrapment efficiency of MPNPs formed with 5 to 15 kDa PLGA

M.W. was 57.36% and 76.27% for 4 and 8% w/w of MOA theoretical loading, respectively.

		Magnetite with oleic acid (MOA)		Surfactant		
Nanoparticle	Theoretical	Nanosphere	Entrapment	SDS	SDS	
molecular weight	loading ¹	yield ²	efficiency ³	residue ⁴	removed ⁵	
kDa	$wt\%$	$\%$	$\%$	$wt\%$	$\%$	
PLGA 5 to 15	4%	66.8 ± 3.6	57.36 ± 6.8	5.95 ± 1.3	55.34%	
PLGA 5 to 15	8%	61.6 ± 1.8	$76.27 + 11.7$	6.59 ± 2.5	48.90%	
PLGA 40 to 75	4%	$58.9+9.3$	77.34 ± 8.50	$1.50 + 0.4$	88.77%	
PLGA 40 to 75	8%	62.7 ± 3.9	78.75 ± 3.80	6.32 ± 1.7	51.02%	
PLGA 90 to 126	4%	66.6 ± 2.6	70.23 ± 18.5	4.80 ± 2.6	64.00%	
PLGA 90 to 126	8%	56.2 ± 3.7	91.90 ± 31.8	4.71 ± 3.1	63.48%	

Table 3.5. Entrapment of magnetite oleic acid and SDS residue in nanoparticles

*All samples in triplicate

1. Theoretical loading: Initial amount of MOA added to the nanoparticle formation process (wt%)

2. Nanosphere yield: final weight of sample after freeze drying (mg)/initial weight of sample (mg)

3. Entrapment efficiency: MOA in samples (wt%)/theoretical loading (wt%)

4. SDS residue: Total residue (wt%) (from TGA) – magnetite (wt%) (from colorimetric method)

5. SDS removed: SDS residue (wt%)/total SDS added in the nanoparticle formation process (wt%)

Figure 3.11. a. SDS profiles acquired by TGA. Temperature was varied from 25 to 600 °C. A residue of 24.75% composed of sulfate and sodium group of the SDS molecule was found at 600 ºC. This residue present in all samples was used to calculate the amount of SDS remaining in the nanoparticles. b. A typical curve for the MPNPs formed with low molecular weight PLGA (CA64). The residue at 600 °C was due to the sodium and sulfate groups of SDS, and magnetite.

The medium molecular weight (40 to 75 kDa) PLGA nanoparticles showed similar entrapment efficiency for 4% and 8% of MOA theoretical loading, 77.34% and 78.75%, respectively. The low (5 to 15 kDa) and high (40 to 75 kDa) molecular weight PLGA MPNPs presented different entrapment efficiencies for 4 and 8% w/w MOA theoretical loading. The entrapment efficiency of MPNPs formed with 5 to 15 kDa PLGA

M.W. was 57.36% and 76.27% for 4 and 8% w/w of MOA theoretical loading, respectively

The MPNPs yield ranged from 56.2% to 66.8% due to losses during dialysis and freeze drying. This data suggested that the dialysis membrane cutoff was high, or compatibility between nanoparticles and membrane promoted adsorption of PLGA nanoparticles with entrapped MOA on the surface of the dialysis membrane. All membranes presented surface areas visibly brown in color (membrane is white prior to use) after the samples were removed. No visual difference was observed between MPNPs prepared with 4% and 8% of MOA.

The SDS amount removed by the three washes varied from 51.02% to 88.77%. No obvious relationship was found between the SDS removed and the PLGA molecular weights, or amount of magnetite added.

• Oleic acid on magnetite

The amount of oleic acid was measured by thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) (Figure 3.12).

Figure 3.12. TGA data for magnetite and MOA (magnetite plus oleic acid). The initial decrease was due to the presence of water (approximately 2 wt% for magnetite and 1.15% for MOA). The 2.74 wt% and 3.64 wt% remaining could be explained by ammonium used in the magnetite formulation.

The TGA residue for MOA at 600 \degree C was 86.39 wt%. The TGA residue for normal magnetite was 95.23%. The 8.84 wt% difference was associated with the oleic acid presence. This data correlated well with the colorimetric method for iron detection, in which the oleic acid content detected was 10.24 wt% with an error of 0.03 wt%.

3.5. Conclusions

Surface modification of magnetite with oleic acid was a useful approach to ensure the entrapment of magnetite into a hydrophobic polymer (PLGA) with high entrapment efficiency. MPNPs with a final mean size under 100 nm were obtained, at 4% w/w MOA theoretical loading. When MOA theoretical loading was increased to 8% w/w, nanoparticles mean size under 120 nm were formed. The entrapment efficiency was highly different for the low (57%) and high PLGA molecular weight (92%).

The emulsion evaporation method was a suitable synthesis method for the formation of nanoparticles with a mean size under 100 nm. The SDS concentration played a critical role in controlling the nanoparticle size. The size and uniformity of the MOA suspension was found critical in forming small and uniform MPNPs. With the method proposed, it was possible to increase the PLGA concentration by at least three times without increasing the nanoparticle size over 100 nm. Stability of MPNPs was improved by applying a purification step quickly after synthesis. Dialysis was used as a purification step to remove the excess of SDS and avoid aggregation.

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CHAPTER 4. CONCLUSIONS

Magnetite was successfully entrapped into PLGA nanoparticles while maintaining their size under 100 nm, for 4% w/w MOA theoretical loading. The SDS concentration and MOA size and size distribution were found to be the critical factors in controlling the nanoparticle size. The entrapment efficiency varied between 57% for low MW PLGA and 92% for high MW PLGA. Entrapment of magnetite can be coupled with the entrapment and delivery of active components (cancer drug, peptides, DNA, and others) to the target by the developed MPNPs.

It was found that an increase in the PLGA concentration (batch of production) by three times was possible with the proposed method, while keeping the nanosphere size less than 100 nm. This finding is significant, considering that commercial application of the synthesis method is strongly dependent on the nanoparticle yield formation, directly proportional to polymer concentration. Lastly, it was found that synthesis must be followed by a purification step (i.e. dialysis) to avoid aggregation of the nanoparticles due to excess of surfactant in the suspension.

CHAPTER 5. FUTURE WORK

 The main target of the thesis research was to synthesize nanoparticles less than 100 nm in size, with entrapped magnetite in the polymeric matrix. The study of technologies available and the main parameters affecting the final PLGA nanoparticle size were the two main parts of this research. Although significant progress was made toward understanding the system developed, other areas of research should be addressed before the developed MPNPs could be successfully implemented in the drug delivery field. The future work should address the following aspects:

- Test the MPNP system with a suitable drug. The hydrophilic and hydrophobic drugs have different behaviors affecting the process parameters and size of the nanospheres. Although, the hydrophobic drugs are suitable for single emulsion evaporation method, the hydrophilic drugs should be tested. This requires switching from the single emulsion-evaporation to double emulsion-evaporation method. Some limitations should be addressed for the double emulsion evaporation method, such as formation of bigger nanoparticles with lower drug entrapment efficiency (losses of active component in the continuous phase due to hydrophilic behavior of active component). The addition of some additives can improve the entrapment efficiency (i.e. higher viscosity, cationic-anionic interaction).
- Remove or replace SDS by other surfactants. SDS can not be administrated by parenteral route. To overcome this limitation two approaches can be followed:
	- o Purification of the nanoparticles suspension to remove the SDS associated with the nanoparticles. Dialysis is an adequate method for elimination of SDS, but ultra-filtration can be used, and it should be tested.
	- o Synthesis of a suitable surfactant with high hydrophilic-lipophilic balance (HLB) value (over 20), biodegradable, biocompatible, good packing number (less than 0.3), and small molecular size to replace SDS. The advantage of SDS is the use of electrostatic and steric forces to form small micelles that are used to form small nanoparticles.
- Optimize the SDS concentration, PLGA concentration, sonication time, entrapment efficiency of active component, and purification steps to obtain the optimum nanoparticle size by factorial design.
- Study the effect of sonication on the structure of the LGA chains, especially for high molecular weight. The size reduction of polymer chains can affect the possible release profiles of the active component entrapped.
- Conduct stability studies. The aggregation profile should be measured over time at different pHs. The nanoparticles aggregation must be avoided at corporal pH (neutral) for parenteral administration.
- Study the release profile of drugs entrapped in the MPNPs, an important step for further uses in vivo.
- Test the cellular uptake of PLGA-SDS nanoparticles to find the toxicity levels, and the advantages/disadvantages of the system. This is related with the active component bio-distribution, mechanism of cellular uptake and action (i.e. the negative and positive charges over the surface of the particle play an important role in the cellular uptake of PLGA nanoparticles).
- Conduct targeting studies required to find the minimum amount of magnetite that should be entrapped in the MPNP to obtain a suitable drug delivery system.

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APPENDIX B. STANDARD CURVE FOR IRON DETECTION

 Iron determination based on Prussian blue reaction. The wavelength used was at 700 nm. The digestion was made with Hydrochloric acid at 6 N.

The standard curve was prepared with iron (III) oxide, 99.999% of purity.

APPENDIX C. SIZE MEASUREMENTS WITH DLS (MALVERN ZETASIZER NANOSERIES)

There were prepared a lot of sample to define the important parameters to obtain nanoparticle under 100 nm. The tables presented in this appendix showed the diversity of nanoparticle size in function of the parameters tested. Many experiments were design to test some theories and procedures.

Double emulsion method without second sonication (CAR 140, CAR 132), and all other parameters were maintained constant. CAR 131 is the standard single emulsion evaporation method, but the magnetite entrapped was without oleic acid surface modification. CAR 133 was double emulsion method with second sonication. CAR 135 and CAR 136 were different evaporation rates with single emulsion method (PLGA of LMW). The evaporation procedure tested were without injection of nitrogen and high vacuum (40 cm Hg), and without nitrogen injection and high vacuum (40 cm Hg). The sample CAR 138 was with low vacuum (100 cm Hg) and nitrogen injection. All other samples are explained in the table.

Sample CAR 185 and CAR 186 were prepared with different amounts of PLGA. The sample CAR 178, CAR 179, and CAR181 were with high molecular weight PLGA. The samples CAR 168, CAR 172, CAR 182 and CAR 180 were prepared with more surfactant (35 mg). CAR 173 and CAR 174 were formed with medium PLGA molecular weight (MMW). In all samples presented in this table, the aqueous phase was prepared with a buffer solution (pH 8). They showed a strong precipitation after two hour ended the formation process. Strong aggregation was present, which was reflected in the higher size measured.

The samples CAR 250, CAR 256, CAR 262 were formed with poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA). All other samples were for magnetite entrapment by emulsion evaporation (single emulsion).

 All sample were prepared with emulsion evaporation method (SDS of 2 mg/ml), and with the three PLGA molecular weight used in this research.

 All sample were prepared with emulsion evaporation method (SDS of 2 mg/ml), and with the three PLGA molecular weight used in this research.

 All sample were prepared with emulsion evaporation method (SDS of 2 mg/ml), and with the three PLGA molecular weight used in this research.

57	Zeta	CAR236	June 1. 2005	- 25	-41.81	0.04469
58	Zeta	CAR237	June 1, 2005	- 25	-40.27	0.04468
59	Zeta	CAR237	June 1, 2005	- 25	-30.79	0.05193
60	Zeta	CAR237	June 1, 2005	-25	-44.99	0.05545

 All sample were prepared with emulsion evaporation method (SDS of 2 mg/ml), and with the three PLGA molecular weight used in this research.

 All sample were prepared with emulsion evaporation method (SDS of 2 mg/ml), and with the three PLGA molecular weight used in this research. The symbol D in the samples name means after dialysis.

 All sample were prepared with emulsion evaporation method (SDS of 2 mg/ml), and with the three PLGA molecular weight used in this research. The amplitude used was 39%. The evaporation time was 7 min. The amount of MOA was 4% w/w and 8%w/w.

Record	Type	Sample	Date	T C	Z-Ave (nm)	PDI	ZP (mV)	Cond (mS/cm)
1	Size	CA64	July 5, 2005	25	38.81	0.233		
$\overline{\mathbf{c}}$	Size	CA64	July 5, 2005	25	39.01	0.212		
3	Size	CA64	July 5, 2005	25	38.86	0.214		
4	Size	CA65	July 5, 2005	25	38.47	0.226		
5	Size	CA65	July 5, 2005	25	38.62	0.245		
6	Size	CA65	July 5, 2005	25	38.61	0.23		
$\overline{7}$	Size	CA66	July 5, 2005	25	52.72	0.385		
8	Size	CA66	July 5, 2005	25	53.59	0.364		
9	Size	CA66	July 5, 2005	25	54.77	0.399		
10	Size	CA67	July 5, 2005	25	63.61	0.135		
11	Size	CA67	July 5, 2005	25	63.39	0.132		
12	Size	CA67	July 5, 2005	25	63.74	0.121		
13	Size	CA68	July 5, 2005	25	63.35	0.117		
14	Size	CA68	July 5, 2005	25	63.05	0.118		
15	Size	CA68	July 5, 2005	25	62.91	0.148		
16	Size	CA69	July 5, 2005	25	63.55	0.119		
17	Size	CA69	July 5, 2005	25	62.94	0.126		
18	Size	CA69	July 5, 2005	25	62.92	0.124		
19	Size	CA70	July 5, 2005	25	66.06	0.13		
20	Size	CA70	July 5, 2005	25	66.58	0.117		
21	Size	CA70	July 5, 2005	25	66.75	0.128		
22	Size	CA71	July 5, 2005	25	67.65	0.125		
23	Size	CA71	July 5, 2005	25	67.27	0.118		
24	Size	CA71	July 5, 2005	25	66.87	0.127		
25	Size	CA72	July 5, 2005	25	68.05	0.156		
26	Size	CA72	July 5, 2005	25	66.95	0.13		
27	Size	CA72	July 5, 2005	25	67.47	0.111		
28	Size	CAR324B	July 5, 2005	25	83.27	0.169		
29	Size	CAR324B	July 5, 2005	25	84.46	0.165		
30	Size	CAR324B	July 5, 2005	25	84.95	0.204		
31	Size	CAR324Bd	July 5, 2005	25	76.41	0.17		
32	Size	CAR324Bd	July 5, 2005	25	76.97	0.164		
33	Size	CAR324Bd	July 5, 2005	25	76.41	0.154		
34	Size	CAR325B	July 5, 2005	25	92.94	0.168		
35	Size	CAR325B	July 5, 2005	25	92.32	0.203		
36	Size	CAR325B	July 5, 2005	25	90.89	0.183		
37	Size	CAR325Bd	July 5, 2005	25	87.11	0.21		
38	Size	CAR325Bd	July 5, 2005	25	86.32	0.207		
39	Size	CAR325Bd	July 5, 2005	25	85.56	0.202		
40	Zeta	CA64	July 5, 2005	25			-12.91	0.06245

 All sample were prepared with emulsion evaporation method (SDS of 2 mg/ml), and with the three PLGA molecular weight used in this research. The amplitude used was 39%. The evaporation time was 7 min. The amount of MOA was 4% w/w and 8%w/w.

99	Zeta	CA69AD	July 12, 2005	25	-24.23	0.0297
100	Zeta	CA70AD	July 12, 2005	25	-25.97	0.03194
101	Zeta	CA70AD	July 12, 2005	25	-31.58	0.01207
102	Zeta	CA70AD	July 12, 2005	25	-33.4	0.01913
103	Zeta	CA71AD	July 12, 2005	25	-36.35	0.01369
104	Zeta	CA71AD	July 12, 2005	25	-39.24	0.02446
105	Zeta	CA71AD	July 12, 2005	25	-40.65	0.02406
106	Zeta	CA72AD	July 12, 2005	25	-34.67	0.03526
107	Zeta	CA72AD	July 12, 2005	25	-26.06	0.03188
108	Zeta	CA72AD	July 12, 2005	25	-33.2	0.01604
109	Zeta	CA46AD	July 12, 2005	25	-23.52	0.01603
110	Zeta	CA46AD	July 12, 2005	25	-24.21	0.0302
111	Zeta	CA46AD	July 12, 2005	25	-24.1	0.01675
112	Zeta	CA47AD	July 12, 2005	25	-43.38	0.03603
113	Zeta	CA47AD	July 12, 2005	25	-42.63	0.03764
114	Zeta	CA47AD	July 12, 2005	25	-43.82	0.02526

 All sample were prepared with emulsion evaporation method (SDS of 2 mg/ml), and with the three PLGA molecular weight used in this research. The amplitude used was 39%. The evaporation time was 7 min. The amount of MOA was 4% w/w and 8%w/w.

 All sample were prepared with emulsion evaporation method (SDS of 2 mg/ml), and with the three PLGA molecular weight used in this research. The amplitude used was 39%. The evaporation time was 7 min. The amount of MOA was 4% w/w and 8%w/w.

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APPENDIX D. STATISTICS ANALYSIS OF DATA

Analysis by SAS software using proc mixed procedure ($\alpha = 0.05$). The results showed the effect of active component (AC), PLGA molecular weight (MW), and dialysis (Dys) in nanoparticle size is significant.

Randomize complete design (one-way anova) effect of PLGA molecular weight, MOA, and dialysis in Np size CRD with proc mixed \sim SIN GROUP DIALSYSIS

The Mixed Procedure

Model Information

Class Level Information

Dimensions

Number of Observations

Iteration History

Convergence criteria met.

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Fit Statistics

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Least Squares Means

Differences of Least Squares Means

Randomize complete design (one-way anova) effect of PLGA molecular weight, MOA, and dialysis in Np size CRD with proc mixed

The Mixed Procedure

Differences of Least Squares Means

Randomize complete design (one-way anova) effect of PLGA molecular weight, MOA, and dialysis in Np size CRD with proc mixed post hoc adjustment with macro by Arnold Saxton

Effect=AC ADJUSTMENT=Tukey(P<0.05) bygroup=1

Effect=MW ADJUSTMENT=Tukey(P<0.05) bygroup=2

Effect=AC*MW ADJUSTMENT=Tukey(P<0.05) bygroup=3

Effect=Dys ADJUSTMENT=Tukey-Kramer(P<0.05) bygroup=4

Effect=AC*Dys ADJUSTMENT=Tukey-Kramer(P<0.05) bygroup=5

Effect=MW*Dys ADJUSTMENT=Tukey-Kramer(P<0.05) bygroup=6

Randomize complete design (one-way anova) effect of PLGA molecular weight, MOA, and dialysis in Np size CRD with proc mixed Univariate analysis of residuals

The UNIVARIATE Procedure Variable: Resid

Moments

Basic Statistical Measures

Location Variability

Tests for Location: Mu0=0

Tests for Normality

Quantiles (Definition 5)

Extreme Observations

 The analysis of sonication amplitude was performed with the same program, but the parameters tested were in molecular weight without addition of MOA and sonication amplitude. The proc mixed procedure ($\alpha = 0.05$) was used.

Dimensions

Covariance Parameters 2

Number of Observations

Iteration History

Convergence criteria met.

Covariance Parameter Estimates

Fit Statistics

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Least Squares Means

Differences of Least Squares Means

Randomize complete design (one-way anova) effect of PLGA molecular weight, MOA, and dialysis in Np size CRD with proc mixed post hoc adjustment with macro by Arnold Saxton

Effect=Son ADJUSTMENT=Tukey(P<0.05) bygroup=1

Effect=MW ADJUSTMENT=Tukey(P<0.05) bygroup=2

Effect=Son*MW ADJUSTMENT=Tukey(P<0.05) bygroup=3

Randomize complete design (one-way anova) effect of PLGA molecular weight, MOA, and dialysis in Np size CRD with proc mixed Univariate analysis of residuals

The UNIVARIATE Procedure Variable: Resid

Moments

Basic Statistical Measures

Location Variability

Tests for Location: Mu0=0

Tests for Normality

Quantiles (Definition 5)

Extreme Observations

The analysis of entrapment efficiency (EE) was performed with the same program, but the parameters tested were in molecular weight (MW), and MOA (AC). The proc mixed procedure ($\alpha = 0.05$) was used with Tukey adjustment.

Randomize complete design (one-way anova) effect of PLGA molecular weight, MOA, and dialysis in Np size List of Data Obs EE AC MW Rep 1 68.3 2 1 1 2 49.1 2 1 2 3 54.7 2 1 3 4 82.2 2 2 1
5 72.0 2 2 2 5 72.0 2 2 2 6 77.8 2 2 3 7 62.8 2 3 1 8 93.2 2 3 2 9 54.6 2 3 3
10 71.7 3 1 1 71.7 3 1 1
64.8 3 1 2 11 64.8 3
12 92.3 3 12 92.3 3 1 3 13 69.2 3 2 1 14 84.3 3 2 2
15 82.7 3 2 3 82.7 16 125.0 3 3 1 17 58.4 3 3 2 92.2 Randomize complete design (one-way anova) effect of PLGA molecular weight, MOA, and dialysis in Np size CRD with proc mixed The Mixed Procedure Model Information Data Set WORK.NANOPARTICLES Dependent Variable EE Variance Components Estimation Method REML Residual Variance Method Profile
Fixed Effects SE Method Model-Based Fixed Effects SE Method

Class Level Information

Degrees of Freedom Method Containment

Dimensions

Number of Observations

Iteration History

Convergence criteria met.

Covariance Parameter

Estimates

Fit Statistics

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects

Least Squares Means

Differences of Least Squares Means

Randomize complete design (one-way anova) effect of PLGA molecular weight, MOA, and dialysis in Np size CRD with proc mixed post hoc adjustment with macro by Arnold Saxton

Effect=AC ADJUSTMENT=Tukey(P<0.05) bygroup=1

Effect=MW ADJUSTMENT=Tukey(P<0.05) bygroup=2

Effect=AC*MW ADJUSTMENT=Tukey(P<0.05) bygroup=3

Randomize complete design (one-way anova) effect of PLGA molecular weight, MOA, and dialysis in Np size CRD with proc mixed Univariate analysis of residuals

The UNIVARIATE Procedure Variable: Resid

Moments

Basic Statistical Measures

Location Variability

Tests for Location: Mu0=0

Quantiles (Definition 5)

VITA

Carlos Astete graduated from Catholic of Valparaiso University in 1993, Chile. He received his bachelor's degree in Biochemistry Engineering. He was working for three years in Watt's Foods in the position of research engineer and environmental impact. The position was dealing with the impact of industrial contaminations and its management due to new national environmental regulations. The development of new products and improvement of oldest was another important area as well. After, he was working for three years in DAF S.A. A company oriented to project development and informatics. The position was project manager of new accounts. The challenges were related to the development of new interactions with the market by implementation of interactive platforms.

In 2000 he received the degree of Master in Business and Administration from Adolfo Ibanez University, Chile. From 2000 to 2002, he was working in DAF S.A. in the position of product manager. The interaction and relationship with the customer's platform was a key point in the development of internet technical support.

In fall 2003, he was accepted in the department of Biological and Agricultural Engineering for a Master of Science degree, Louisiana State University in Baton Rouge, Louisiana. He was an active member of the Gamma Sigma Delta, Gamma Beta Phi honor societies, and the National Society of Collegiate Scholars. Mr. Carlos Astete will be awarded the degree Master of Science in December 2005, and he is currently following the doctoral studies in the same university.