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Rationally designed hyaluronic acid-based nano-

complexes for pentamidine delivery

- 4 Flavia Carton^{1,2}, Yves Chevalier¹, Letizia Nicoletti^{1,3}, Małgorzata Tarnowska¹, Barbara Stella³,
- 5 Silvia Arpicco³, Manuela Malatesta², Lars Petter Jordheim⁴, Stéphanie Briançon¹, and Giovanna
- 6 $Lollo^{1*}$

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- ¹University of Lyon, Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, CNRS, LAGEPP UMR 5007, 43 bd 11
- 8 Novembre 1918, 69622, Villeurbanne, France.
- ²Department of Neurosciences, Biomedicine and Movement Sciences, Anatomy and Histology
- 10 Section, University of Verona, Strada le Grazie 8, Verona, Italy.
- ³Department of Drug Science and Technology, University of Torino, Via P. Giuria 9, Torino, Italy.
- ⁴University of Lyon, Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, INSERM 1052, CNRS 5286, Centre Léon
- 13 Bérard, Centre de Recherche en Cancérologie de Lyon, 69008 Lyon, France.
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- 16 *Corresponding Author
- 17 *E-mail: giovanna.lollo@univ-lyon1.fr

Abstract

Nanoparticles of polymeric complexes made of hyaluronic acid and polyarginine were investigated for the encapsulation of the cationic hydrophilic drug pentamidine isethionate. The interaction between the anionic hyaluronic acid and the cationic pentamidine and the formation of polyelectrolyte complexes of them were firstly studied. Then, nanoparticles made of mixed hyaluronic acid / polyarginine loaded with pentamidine were developed as drug delivery systems. A monodisperse population of negatively charged pentamidine-loaded nanoparticles allowed high encapsulation rates of pentamidine (80%). Such high encapsulation efficiency coming from ion exchange was confirmed by measurements of the counterion isethionate released from pentamidine during nanoparticles formation. Besides, freeze-dried pentamidine-loaded nanoparticles kept their integrity after their reconstitution in water. *In vitro* studies on human lung (A549) and breast (MDA-MB-231) cancer cell lines showed that pentamidine-loaded nanoparticles were more cytotoxic in comparison to the free drug, suggesting an enhanced internalization of encapsulated drug by cancer cells.

1. Introduction

Delivery of hydrophilic drugs is a challenge owing to their difficult crossing through cells walls that limits their therapeutic activity. Encapsulation is often required in order to enhance drug bioavailability. In case of ionic drugs, complexation with polyelectrolytes of opposite charge is a suitable methodology as it has been extensively studied for transfection of DNA and siRNA^{1,2}. Upon formation of a charge-stoichiometric complex, the neutral species may undergo precipitation as nanoparticles, resulting in drug encapsulation inside a nanocarrier. Electrostatic interaction is one of the driving forces for such complexation. However, electrostatic binding often occurs by an ion exchange process such that the overall charge balance is null. Non-electrostatic interactions also matter, so that each system deserves a specific investigation aiming at better mastery over the encapsulation process.

Over the last decades, the development of pharmaceutical nanocarriers based on natural polysaccharides aroused a growing interest in drug delivery technologies based on ionic complexation³. Natural polysaccharides have interesting properties as biocompatibility, biodegradability and low toxicity suitable for biomedical applications⁴⁻⁶. Besides, they bear a large variety of reactive groups, a wide range of molar masses $(M_{\rm W})$, varying chemical compositions and origins, which make them a versatile biomaterial for the preparation of nanometric carriers⁷. Among the different natural polysaccharides, hyaluronic acid (HA) has been widely used in the pharmaceutical field because of its interesting physicochemical and biological properties^{8,9}. HA belongs to the class of anionic glycosaminoglycans (GAGs) formed by several identical subunits (D-glucuronic acid and N-acetyl-D-glucosamine disaccharide) bound together by β-1,4 and β-1,3 glycosidic bonds^{10,11}. HA is an important component of the extracellular matrix (ECM) highly distributed throughout connective, epithelial, and neural tissues in which plays essential physiological roles⁸. HA backbone itself is endowed with targeting moieties that specifically recognize and interact with different cell surface proteins like stabilin-2, RHAMM, lymphatic vessel endothelial hyaluronan receptor 1 (LYVE-1), and CD44. Also, low molar mass HA regulates Toll Like Receptor (TRL). Among all these receptors, CD44 represents the most studied HAreceptor in inflammation and tumor pathologies ^{9,12,13}. Therefore, specific targeting of these receptors has been exploited as an effective strategy for increasing accumulation of associated drug at the target site 14,15. In addition, HA bears a carboxylic group in each glucuronic unit (pKa 3-4) which provides an acidic polyelectrolyte character enabling interactions with cationic polymers or molecules possessing appropriate basic groups for formation of complexes¹⁶. So far, exploitation of HA properties to polymeric conjugates, liposomes, microparticles, and nanoparticles have been attempted. Such dosage forms are generally obtained through formation of self-assembling micelles, chemical conjugation via cross-linking approaches or ionic gelation 16-19. Among these techniques, polyelectrolyte complexation represents the most widely used method to

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tailor HA-based drug delivery systems, because of the mild processing conditions, absence of organic solvents and wide range of cationic polymers undergoing interactions with HA²⁰. Several previous works disclosed instances showing the ability of HA-based polyelectrolyte nanostructures to associate active compounds such as genetic materials or positively charged drugs⁹. Contreras-Ruiz et al. described nanoparticles made of HA complexed with chitosan (CS) oligomers for pDNA delivery. HA-CS complexes entered cells and yielded significant transfection of pDNA into the corneal and conjunctival cells²¹. Recently, a novel ionic metal complex based on HA and an oxaliplatin derivative, dichloro(1,2-diaminocyclohexane)platinum(II) (DACHPt), has been patented. Compared to the DACHPt aqueous solution injected intravenously, DACHPt-loaded nano-complexes protected the associated drug from enzymatic degradation, thereby enhancing plasmatic concentration while lowering drug elimination rate²². Also, Battistini et al. reported a doxorubicin-HA ionic complex as a tumor targeting drug delivery system. *In vitro* studies on tumor cells overexpressing CD44 receptors demonstrated the improved internalization of the complexes in comparison to the free drug¹⁴. Based on this background information, the present work deals with an extensive physicochemical characterization of polyelectrolyte complexes (PECs) made of HA and a cationic molecule, pentamidine isethionate (PTM) as a model drug. PTM is well known for its antiprotozoal, antifungal and anticancer activity^{23,24}. It is a water-soluble molecule with two terminal amidine groups, protonated in a wide pH range (p K_a = 12-13) including physiological/neutral conditions. To stabilize PTM-HA PECs and maximize the amount of associated PTM, polyarginine (PArg) was used to crosslink HA and form nanoparticles (NPs). PArg is a biocompatible cationic poly(aminoacid) belonging to the cell-penetrating peptide polymers able to improve intracellular delivery of therapeutic agents²⁵. At neutral pH, the amine groups of PArg are protonated and interact with carboxylic moieties of HA, leading to the formation of NPs. Also, polyion complexes made of HA and protamine, have been described and developed for the encapsulation of different active compounds^{26,27}. In the current work, the formation of PECs made of HA and PTM and NPs

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made of HA and PArg were investigated by studying size and zeta potential of NPs and quantifying the amount of isethionate, the PTM counterion, released during the formation process while varying the relative concentrations of the PECs-forming components. Lyophilization studies were also carried out in order to ensure preservation of pentamidine-loaded nanoparticles (PTM-loaded NPs) as a dry form upon long-term storage. The morphology of the formed particles was analyzed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and cryogenic-transmission electron microscopy (Cryo-TEM). Finally, *in vitro* studies were performed on lung and breast human cell lines (A549 and MDA–MB 231) to assess the anticancer activity of encapsulated PTM.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Materials

Sodium hyaluronate (HA) (weight-average molar mass, $M_{\rm w} = 3.9 \times 10^4 \, {\rm g \cdot mol^{-1}}$) was purchased from LifeCore® Biomedical (Chaska, Minnesota, USA). Poly (L-arginine hydrochloride) (PArg) (weight-average molar mass, $M_{\rm w} = 5.8 \times 10^3 \, {\rm g \cdot mol^{-1}}$) was purchased from Alamanda® Polymers (Huntsville, Alabama, USA) and pentamidine isethionate (PTM) (molar mass, $M_{\rm mol} = 592.679 \, {\rm g \cdot mol^{-1}}$) from Sigma-Aldrich® (St Quentin-Fallavier, France). Milli-Q water was obtained using a milli-Q Academic System (Merck Millipore®, St Quentin-Fallavier, France). Sodium silicotungstate used for staining in TEM was supplied from Agar Scientific (Parsonage Lane, Stansted, UK). Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) without glucose, glutamine, phenol red and sodium pyruvate was bought from Gibco® (Thermo Fisher Scientific®, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) and used to evaluate the stability in physiological medium. Human lung carcinoma cells (A549) and human breast adenocarcinoma cells (MDA-MB-231) were from ATCC and grown in complete Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Thermo Fisher Scientific®), 100 U/mL penicillin (Thermo Fisher Scientific®), 100 mg·mL⁻¹ streptomycin (Thermo Fisher Scientific®) and 1% L-glutamine (Life Technologies®). 3-(4.5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2.5-

diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich® (St Quentin-Fallavier, 122 France). 123

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2.2. Solubility study of pentamidine

Saturated solutions of PTM at different pH (pH 7.4, 9, 10, 12) and in phosphate buffer saline (PBS, pH 7.4) were prepared. The solutions were stirred for 2 h at room temperature and left overnight to reach equilibrium. Then, all samples were centrifuged (62,000 g, 30 min, 20 °C) and the supernatant was analyzed for PTM by measuring its UV absorbance at 270 nm (UV-1280, Shimadzu, Marne-la-Vallée, France).

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2.3. Preparation of pentamidine-hyaluronic acid polyelectrolyte complexes

Pentamidine-hyaluronic acid polyelectrolyte complexes (PTM-HA PECs) were prepared by mixing aqueous solutions of PTM and HA at different PTM/HA mole ratios ranging between 0.2 and 2.4. Seven different PTM-HA PECs were obtained by adding 0.5 mL of HA aqueous solution (2.5 mg·mL⁻¹) into 0.5 mL of PTM aqueous solution of concentrations ranging from 0.6 to 9 mg·mL⁻¹. Size, polydispersity index, electrophoretic mobility and pH of PECs were studied.

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2.4. Preparation of blank and pentamidine-loaded nanoparticles

Blank nanoparticles (HA-PArg NPs) were prepared by polyelectrolyte complexation using a similar 140 methodology of ionic gelation²⁰. Briefly, 0.5 mL of an anionic HA solution at different 141 concentrations ranging from 1.25 to 5.00 mg·mL⁻¹ were added to an equal volume of solution 142 containing cationic polyarginine (PArg) (0.27 mg·mL⁻¹). Nine different formulations with HA/PArg 143 mole ratio between 0.82 to 8.25 were prepared. 144 Pentamidine-loaded nanoparticles (PTM-loaded NPs) were obtained by mixing 0.5 mL of aqueous 145 solution of PTM at concentrations ranging from 0.50 to 0.17 mg·mL⁻¹ and 0.5 mL of cationic PArg 146 solution at 0.18 mg·mL⁻¹. This premix was left under agitation during 10 min, and 0.5 mL of HA 147

solution of concentrations ranging from 0.83 to 3.3 mg·mL⁻¹ were added. The mole ratio between HA (negatively charged) and PArg plus PTM (both positively charged) was ranging between 1.13 and 4.51. HA-PArg NPs and PTM-loaded NPs were characterized in terms of pH, size, polydispersity index, zeta potential and encapsulation efficiency. The main characteristics of all the compounds used to obtain PECs and NPs are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Chemical characteristics of the compounds used to obtain polyelectrolyte complexes and nanoparticles. The molar masses given for polymers are that of their repeat unit.

Compound	Molecular Formula	Molecular structure	p <i>K</i> a	$M_{ m w}$ $({ m g\cdot mol^{-1}})$
Pentamidine isethionate	$C_{23}H_{36}N_4O_{10}S_2$	H_2N O O O NH_2 O	12.13	592.7
Sodium Hyaluronate	(C ₁₄ H ₂₀ NO ₁₁ Na) _n	HOOC HOH ₂ C OHO OH OH CH ₃	2.87	3.9·10 ⁴
Poly(L- arginine hydrochloride)	$(C_6H_{14}N_4O_2)_n$	H_3C NH HN NH_2 $+ HC1$	12.42	5.8·10 ³

2.5. Physicochemical characterization of polyelectrolyte complexes, blank and pentamidine-loaded nanoparticles

Size distribution and surface potential of the prepared particles (PECs and NPs) were analyzed using a Malvern Zetasizer[®] (model Nano ZS, Malvern Panalytical, Malvern, UK). Particle size distributions were determined by Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS) of samples diluted with milli-Q

water. Analyses were carried out at 25 °C with a scattering angle of 173°. Particle size distribution was determined using the cumulants method that provides the *z*-average diameter and the polydispersity index (PdI). The zeta potential (ζ) was determined from the electrophoretic mobility (u_E) (Equation 1). For all measurements, samples were diluted in milli-Q water and placed in a U-shaped fold capillary cell (DTS1070) made of polystyrene and containing two electrodes of gold-plated beryllium/copper (Malvern). ζ potential was calculated according to the Henry Equation²⁸ under the Smoluchowski approximation of the Henry factor $f(\kappa a)$:

$$u_E = \frac{2}{3} \frac{\varepsilon_0 \varepsilon \zeta}{\eta} f(\kappa a) \tag{1}$$

where η is the viscosity of water ($\eta = 0.887$ mPa·s at 25°C), κ is the inverse Debye length, a is the radius of particles, and $f(\kappa a) = 3/2$.

Turbidity of PECs was monitored by absorbance measurements at 600 nm using an UV spectrometer (UV-1280 from Shimadzu, Marne-la-Vallée, France) equipped with a cuvette with an optical path of 10 mm. The turbidity (τ) was calculated from the absorbance (Abs) reading as $\tau = \ln (10) Abs = 2.3 Abs$.

2.6. Ion-exchange chromatography

Isethionate ions released due to association of positively charged PTM to negatively charged HA were quantified using ion exchange chromatography (IC) (930 Compact IC Flex, Metrohm, Switzerland) equipped with a chemical suppressor and conductivity detection. PTM-loaded NPs were centrifuged (7,000 g, 30 min, 25 °C) using Amicon® filter (Amicon Ultra-0.5, 30,000 NMWL, Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany), supernatants were recovered and injected into the IC. The analyses were conducted using Metrosep a Supp 5 250/4.0 column with an adequate pre-column at a temperature of 30°C. For the detection of anions, the mobile phase was 8 mmol·L⁻¹ solution of Na₂CO₃ (Fischer Scientific, Illkirch, France) prepared in ultrapure water (resistivity > 18 M Ω ·cm), filtered at 0.45 μ m and degassed in an ultrasonic bath prior to use. The flow rate was 0.7 mL·min⁻¹.

Such conditions ensured linearity of calibration curve in a range from 0.005 to $5 \text{ mmol} \cdot L^{-1}$ of isethionate concentration.

2.7. Morphology of blank and loaded nanoparticles using transmission and cryogenic electron microscopy

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was performed with a Philips CM120 microscope at "Centre Technologique des Microstructures" (CTμ) at the University of Lyon 1 (Villeurbanne, France). A small drop of suspension (5 μL) was deposited on a carbon/formvar microscope grid (Delta Microscopies, Saint-Ybars, France), stained with a 1% w/w sodium silicotungstate aqueous solution, and slowly dried in open air. The dry samples were observed by TEM under 120 kV acceleration voltage.

Regarding cryogenic-transmission electron microscopy (Cryo-TEM), diluted samples of HA-PArg NPs and PTM-loaded NPs were dropped onto 300 mesh holey carbon films (Quantifoil R2/1) and quench-frozen in liquid ethane using a cryo-plunge workstation (made at Laboratoire de Physique des Solides-LPS Orsay, France). The specimens were then mounted on a precooled Gatan 626 specimen holder, transferred in the microscope (Phillips CM120) and observed at an accelerating

voltage of 120 kV.

2.8. Association efficiency and loading capacity of pentamidine into nanoparticles

The association efficiency (AE) of PTM into loaded NPs was determined using an indirect method by measurements of the concentration of free PTM in the aqueous phase. PTM-loaded NPs were centrifuged (7,000 g, 30 min, 25°C) using Amicon® filter (Amicon Ultra-0.5, 30.000 NMWL, Merck Millipore®, Burlington, Massachusetts, USA), supernatants were recovered and analyzed for free PTM using UV absorbance at 270 nm. Calibration was performed using PTM solutions at different concentrations from $2.5 \,\mu g \cdot m L^{-1}$ to $30 \,\mu g \cdot m L^{-1}$. From the AE values, the loading capacity (LC) of PTM-loaded NPs was calculated using the following Equations 2 and 3 respectively:

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$$AE(\%) = \frac{Total \, drug - Free \, drug \, in \, supernatant}{Total \, drug} \times 100 \tag{2}$$

$$LC (\%) = \frac{Mass \ of \ associatiated \ drug}{Mass \ of \ nanoparticles} \times 100$$
 (3)

All measurements were performed in triplicate using PTM aqueous solution as control.

2.9. Stability studies of blank and pentamidine-loaded nanoparticles

Colloidal stability of HA-PArg NPs and PTM-loaded NPs was evaluated over 4 weeks under storage at 4 °C. Size, polydispersity index and ζ potential were analyzed every week. Leakage of the drug was also evaluated at the end of the storage period. The stability in DMEM without glucose, glutamine, phenol red and sodium pyruvate was tested to check the effect of protein factors on NPs aggregation.

2.10. In vitro release study of pentamidine-loaded nanoparticles

In vitro release behavior of PTM-loaded NPs in simulated physiological conditions (PBS at 37 °C) was performed using a bicompartmental diffusion device (Franz cells) mounted with a semi-synthetic cellulose membrane (6-8 kDa MWCO from Spectra/Por, Spectrum Laboratories, The Netherlands). To ensure sink condition, 2 mL of PTM-loaded NPs prepared using 2.3 and 3.3 mg·mL⁻¹ of HA and 0.50 mg·mL⁻¹ of PTM were placed in the upper part of the cell (donor chamber). The lower part of the cell (receptor chamber) was filled with 10 mL of release media (PBS, pH 7.4 at 37 °C) with an horizontal shaking. At different time points (15 min, 30 min, 1 h, 2 h, 3 h, 4 h, 6 h, 8 h, 24 h,48 h, 72 h), 1 mL of each sample was collected and analyzed for PTM using UV absorption (at 270 nm). The amount of drug released over time was calculated from the difference between the initial total amount of the drug present in PTM-loaded NPs and the amount

of PTM present in the receptor chamber. The experiments were performed for both NPs in triplicate.

2.11. Freeze-drying studies of blank and loaded pentamidine nanoparticles

Once the development of NPs has been completed, HA-PArg NPs and PTM-loaded NPs were freeze-dried using CRYONEXT pilot freeze dryer (Cryotec, Saint-Gély-du-Fesc, France). During the formulation step, the bulking agent mannitol was added to the formulations at different concentration (5%, 10% w/v). The freeze-drying program consisted of an initial freezing at -20°C in a freezer for 12 h. After that, the freeze-dryer was pre-cooled at -20°C and samples were introduced therein. Then, the temperature was decreased to -50°C at a rate of 1°C·min⁻¹ and this temperature was kept for 12 h. The sublimation step was carried out at a temperature between -35°C and 5 °C and a pressure between 0.100 and 0.3000 mbar according to the recipe. Finally, a secondary drying step was carried out at 35 °C and 0.010 mbar. After freeze-drying, HA-PArg NPs and PTM-loaded NPs were resuspended in 1 mL of milli-Q water and left under magnetic stirring for 30 min. Size, polydispersity and association efficiency of nanoparticles were measured before and after resuspension. Also, morphological observations using TEM were performed.

2.12. *In vitro* cell viability studies

Human lung carcinoma cells (A549) and human breast adenocarcinoma cells (MDA-MB-231) were used to evaluate the cell viability. Cells (3000 cells/well) were seeded in 96 well plates in 100 μ L media and left to adhere for 24 h. Then, the medium was replaced with a fresh one containing different concentrations (0.01-100 μ M) of free PTM, HA-PArg NPs and PTM-loaded NPs. After 72 h of exposure, metabolically active cells were quantified by 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay according to the supplier's instructions. Briefly, 20 μ L of MTT reagent (5 mg·mL⁻¹) was added in each well and the plate was incubated at 37 °C for 2 h. After that the supernatant was replaced by 100 μ L of isopropanol/HCl/H₂O (90/1/9 v/v/v) and the

optical density was measured at 540 nm for purple intensity and at 690 nm for the subtraction of background using a multiwell-scanning spectrophotometer (Multiskan Ascent, Labsystems SA, Cergy-pontoise, France). Cell viability from the absorbance values was calculated using the following Equation 4:

$$Cell \ viability (\%) = \frac{Abs_{treated}}{Abs_{untreated}} \times 100 \tag{4}$$

268 IC50 values were determined using the CompuSyn software.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Solubility of pentamidine at different pH

pKa of 12.5. Its solubility was above 30 mg·mL⁻¹ in the pH range from 3 to 10 due to the ionization of amidine groups, while at pH values higher than 12 the solubility was drastically reduced (6.5 mg·mL⁻¹). Solubility also depended on ionic strength as the solubility of PTM in PBS pH 7.4 was around 6.9 mg·mL⁻¹. This decrease of PTM solubility could be due to an increase of the concentration of inert ions in the medium that causes a salting-out effect ²⁹.

3.2. Preparation and physicochemical characterization of pentamidine-hyaluronic acid polyelectrolyte

Polyelectrolyte complexes (PECs) are defined as complexes formed through electrostatic interactions between oppositely charged structures. The formation of PTM-HA PECs was based on the electrostatic interaction between the positively charged drug PTM containing two guanidine groups, and the negatively charged polysaccharide HA which contains one carboxylic group for each repeat unit made of two sugar residues, neutral N-acetyl-D-glucosamine and negatively charged sodium salt of D-glucuronic acid as defined in Table 1.

The stoichiometry of the complex was defined as the PTM/HA mole ratio of PTM molecules to HA repeat units. Different PTM-HA PECs having a mole ratio PTM/HA between 0.2 and 2.4 and the mass ratio from 0.24 to 3.6 (PEC A - PEC G) were obtained (Table 2). HA solution was added to an equal volume of PTM at different concentration under magnetic stirring. Since the concentration of the low molar mass electrolyte strongly affects the formation of the complexes, only the amount of PTM was varied³⁰.

All the formulations were prepared at pH values around 6-7 in order to obtain an optimal charge

Table 2. Formulation code for PTM-HA PECs. Mole ratio, mass ratio and pH values are given.

density that generates attractive interactions between the PTM and HA.

Complexes	Mole ratio PTM/HA	Mass ratio PTM/HA	рН
PEC A	0.16	0.24	7.17
PEC B	0.34	0.5	7.07
PEC C	0.67	1.0	6.78
PEC D	0.94	1.48	6.76
PEC E	1.48	2.2	6.79
PEC F	2.01	3.0	6.65
PEC G	2.42	3.6	7.17

The concentration regime of HA solutions was devised by taking measurements of overlapping concentrations (C^*) for aqueous solution of HA of various molar masses reported by Dodero et al.³¹ and extrapolating them down to the present low molar mass of HA (20 kDa). This gave $C^* = 15 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$. The largest present HA concentration of 2.5 mg·mL⁻¹ was much lower than C^* , showing that HA concentrations were in the dilute regime.

DLS measurements were performed in order to study possible interactions between HA and PTM. Figure 1A shows the experimental time correlation function as a function of time (at a scattering angle of 173°). For all PEC solutions, the correlation function showed a trimodal profile. This distribution was due to the existence of fast and slow relaxation modes in molecular motions.

The correlation function of the scattered amplitude $G^{(1)}(t)$ was modeled as the sum of three exponential decays as in Equation 5 (Figure 2A):

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$$G^{(1)}(t) = A_1 e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_1}} + A_2 e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_2}} + A_3 e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_3}}$$
 (5)

where A_i and π (i = 1, 2, 3) are the relative scattered intensities and relaxation times for the three relaxation modes respectively ($A_1 + A_2 + A_3 = 1$). The first term in the right hand side of Equation 5 is the fastest relaxation corresponding to the fastest motions. It was associated with the lateral diffusion of isolated HA-PTM complexes characterized by a mutual diffusion coefficient $D(\tau_i^{-1} = Dq^2)$. The diameter of such species given by the Stokes-Einstein relationship ($D = \frac{kT}{3\pi \eta \, Diam}$) was 12-14 nm (Figure 2B), in agreement with the expected size of a random coil of 3.9.10⁴ g.mol⁻¹ HA. The second term is a slower mode that was ascribed to associations (aggregates) of HA-PTM macromolecules of mean size in the range 300-500 nm (Figure 1B). This interpretation was suggested by observations of such aggregates in dilute solutions of HA reported by Maleki et al.³², and in more complex systems containing HA^{33,34}. The nature of the third mode was difficult to figure out. The diameter of particles that would correspond to a translational diffusion was unrealistically large (~50 µm) because they were not observed by optical microscopy. The origin of this third slowest relaxation might stand from slow internal motions inside HA-PTM aggregates that are not translational diffusion.

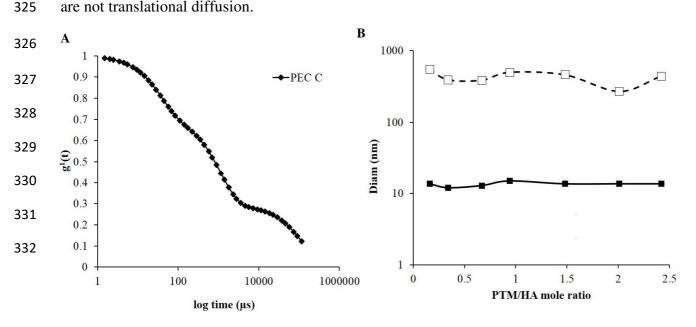


Figure 1. A) Normalized curve of correlation function $(g^1(t))$ versus time of PECs C. The curve is fitted with the aid of the Equation 5 (see text). B) Diameter (nm) of aggregated (\Box) and isolated (\blacksquare) PEC.

Turbidity measurements of PTM-HA PECs provided a complement of the conclusions drawn from DLS (Figure 2). A slight increase of turbidity was first observed as more PTM was added to HA indicating that HA polymeric chains tended to overlap and associate each other's. As an outcome, both DLS and turbidity measurements revealed aggregation of HA as association with PTM was proceeding. The origin of such associations was probably a more hydrophobic character of the PECs as the organic PTM cations bind to HA. This provided an indirect indication for the binding of PTM to HA by means of electrostatic interaction between the two polyions.

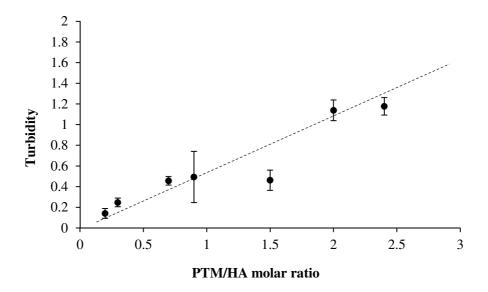


Figure 2. Turbidity (λ = 600 nm) of PTM/HA PECs as a function of PTM/HA mole ratio. PEC A PTM/HA = 0.2, PEC B PTM/HA = 0.3, PEC C PTM/HA = 0.7, PEC D PTM/HA = 0.9, PEC E PTM/HA = 1.5, PEC F PTM/HA = 2.0, PEC G PTM/HA = 2.4. Values are given as mean \pm *Sem* (n = 3).

Stronger binding of PTM cations than Na⁺ coming from the divalent and hydrophobic natures of PTM was more directly detected by measurements of electrophoretic mobility (Figure 3).

Electrophoretic mobility (u_E) was negative over the whole range of PTM/HA stoichiometry, progressively shifting toward no mobility corresponding to electrical neutrality as increasing the concentration of PTM. Electrophoretic mobility experiments clearly indicated an increase of complexation at high PTM/HA mole ratio.

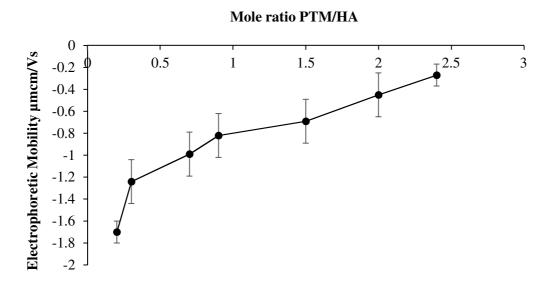


Figure 3. Electrophoretic mobility (u_E) of PTM-HA PECs in function of mole ratio PTM/HA (from 0.24 to 2.4). Values are given as mean $\pm sem$ (n = 3).

As an overall outcome, the conformation of the polymeric chain, turbidity and electrophoretic mobility measurements, confirmed the complexation of PTM by HA. Moreover, the electrostatic binding of PTM to HA was weak because the PTM cation was only divalent. Since the association of polyelectrolytes of opposite charges is usually quite strong, a cationic polyelectrolyte (polyarginine, PArg) was added in order to help at precipitation of nanoparticles and improve the encapsulation of PTM.

3.3. Preparation and physicochemical characterization of the blank hyaluronic acidpolyarginine nanoparticles

To enhance the formation of NPs, the cationic poly(aminoacid) PArg was used as a cross-linking agent causing the formation of insoluble PECs and thereby allowing for the formation of nanoparticles. HA-PArg NPs were prepared by polyelectrolyte complexation in a similar manner as described by Oyarzun-Ampuero et al.²⁰ Five hundred microliters of a solution containing HA at different concentrations (from 1.25 to 5 mg·mL⁻¹) were added to an aqueous solution of PArg (0.27 mg·mL⁻¹) under magnetic stirring at room temperature for 30 min. The formation of NPs was ensured by the electrostatic interaction between the positively charged groups of PArg and the negatively charged carboxylate groups of HA. All the different formulations of HA-PArg NPs (Blank A - Blank I) were studied for their size, polydispersity index (PdI) and ζ potential (Table 3). The average size of the resulting blank NPs ranged between 112 and 244 nm with a low polydispersity index (PdI < 0.2). Values of ζ potential ranged from +33 to -22 mV. When the charge ratio HA/PArg was lower than 1.24, NPs had a size around 120 nm with a positive ζ value (+33 mV), indicating that the charge brought about by PArg was larger than that of HA. At mole ratio higher than 1.24, NPs size increased from 166 to 244 nm, and an inversion of ζ potential to -31 mV occurred. The increase in the hydrodynamic size was correlated to the amount of HA used to obtain the NPs. Besides, inversion of surface potential indicated a conformational change which exposes carboxylic groups of HA in excess with respect to cationic groups of PArg towards the external surface of NPs. Globally, the HA/PArg interaction allows the preparation of NPs of 100-250 nm size with a narrow size distribution and reversal of the electrical charge according to the charge ratio of the two polymers.

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Table 3. Physicochemical characteristics of HA-PArg NPs. *PdI*: Polydispersity index. Values are given as mean \pm *sem* ($n \ge 3$).

	Mass ratio [HA/PArg]	Mole ratio [HA/PArg]	Size (nm)	PdI	Zeta potential (mV)
Blank A	0.50: 0.27	0.82	112 ± 6	< 0.2	+ 33 ± 5

Blank B	0.75: 0.27	1.24	129 ± 1	< 0.2	+ 32 ± 3
Blank C	1.25: 0.27	2.06	166 ± 7	< 0.2	- 31 ± 1
Dialik C	1.23: 0.27	2.00	100 ± /	₹ 0.2	- 31 ± 1
Blank D	1.5: 0.27	2.47	158 ± 4	< 0.2	-38 ± 2
Blank E	2.0: 0.27	3.30	167 ± 3	< 0.1	-33 ± 2
Blank F	2.5: 0.27	4.12	180 ± 14	< 0.1	- 29 ± 3
Blank G	3: 0.27	4.95	201 ± 14	< 0.1	-31 ± 3
Blank H	3.5: 0.27	5.77	222 ± 11	< 0.2	-30 ± 4
Blank I	5: 0.27	8.25	244 ± 5	< 0.1	- 22 ± 3

3.4. Development and physicochemical characterization of pentamidine-loaded hyaluronic acid-polyarginine nanoparticles

PTM-loaded NPs were prepared following the protocol described for blank NPs. Different concentrations of HA (0.83 mg·mL⁻¹ to 3.3 mg·mL⁻¹) were added to an aqueous solution containing PArg (0.18 mg·mL⁻¹) and PTM of concentration ranging from 0.5 to 0.17 mg·mL⁻¹ (Figure 4).

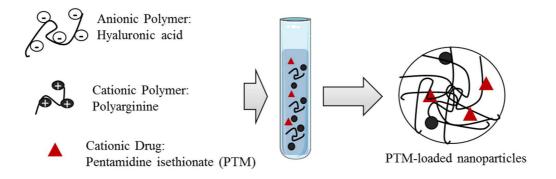


Figure 4. Preparation of PTM-loaded nanoparticles by polyelectrolyte association.

The physicochemical characterizations of NPs obtained using a PTM solution of 0.5 mg·mL⁻¹ concentration (Table 4) showed an average size between 155 and 203 nm with a low *PdI* (< 0.1) and a negative ζ potential ranging from -24 to -18 mV. Interestingly, the incorporation of the drug into NPs caused a reduction of NPs size compared to blank ones (Table 3). The balance between negatively (HA) and positively (PTM and PArg) charged species was reduced in the case of PTM-loaded NPs as compared to the HA-PArg NPs. Therefore, the attractive force that modulates electrostatic interactions within the complexes determined a "condensation phenomenon"

responsible of the reduction of the complex particle size^{35,36}. The ζ potential decreased from -24 to -26 mV for Loaded A to Loaded F, and then increased to -18 mV for Loaded G. The effect of NPs size reduction has been observed also for other particles suggesting the strong interaction between the drug and the polymeric chains^{17,22}.

Since the formation of NPs, the association of PTM to the polymers causes its encapsulation inside the particles. Association efficiency AE is equivalent to the widely used encapsulation efficiency EE.

The amounts of associated PTM varied from AE= 26% (Loaded A) to as high as AE= 82% (Loaded G) upon increasing the HA/PArg mole ratio (Table 4). The highest encapsulation efficiencies were obtained when the amounts of PTM were low, so that high AE (82% for Loaded G) was correlated with low loading capacity (12% for Loaded G). Taking together all these results, PTM was efficiently associated in HA-PArg NPs at a mole ratio above 2.25 and with a loading capacity ranging from 20 to 10%. This data confirms that the addition of PArg to the system had the advantageous effect of promoting the association of PTM to the systems.

Table 4. Physicochemical properties of PTM-loaded NPs obtained using a PTM solution at 0.5 mg·mL⁻¹. *PdI*: polydispersity index; AE (%): association efficiency. Values are given as mean \pm sem $(n \ge 3)$.

	Mass ratio [HA: PArg: PTM]	Mole ratio [HA/PArg +PTM]	Size (nm)	PdI	Zeta potential (mV)	Loading capacity (%)	AE (%)
Loaded A	1.25:0.27:0.75	1.13	155 ±3	< 0.1	-24 ±3	33	26 ±3
Loaded B	1.5:0.27:0.75	1.35	159 ±4	< 0.1	-25 ±2	30	31 ±4
Loaded C	2:0.27:0.75	1.80	191 ±20	< 0.1	-27 ±2	25	46 ±5
Loaded D	2.5:0.27:0.75	2.25	157 ±6	< 0.1	-25 ±5	21	61 ±5
Loaded E	3:0.27:0.75	2.70	172 ±14	< 0.1	-29 ±4	19	65 ±1
Loaded F	3.5:0.27:0.75	3.15	179 ±4	< 0.1	-26 ±1	17	76 ±1
Loaded G	5:0.27:0.75	4.51	203 ± 9	< 0.1	-18 ±1	12	82 ±1

The fraction of associated PTM increased as a function of the concentration of HA (from Loaded A to Loaded G). The highest PTM binding efficiency was obtained for the formulation Loaded F containing 2.3 mg·mL⁻¹ of HA and Loaded G containing 3.3 mg·mL⁻¹ of HA. These results confirmed the ability of NPs to associate a high quantity of PTM by electrostatic interaction. Then, Loaded F and Loaded G were selected for the *in vitro* studies. Previous papers reported the different nanosystems for PTM encapsulation. Encapsulation of PTM inside liposome yielded an association efficiency below 50% due to the hydrophilic character of PTM³⁷. PTM has also been encapsulated into other types polymeric NPs such as PLGA NPs. As described for the liposome formulation, the loading efficiency of PTM was very low (around 2.9%)²⁴.

Micale et al. developed PTM-HA bioconjugates in which drug loading ranged from 20 to 30%. However, the use of chemical reactions and organic solvents compromised the direct exploitation of

3.5. Quantification of isethionate ions using ion-exchange chromatography

the conjugate for drug delivery applications³⁵.

According to electrostatic binding of counterions to polyelectrolytes in solution, the ion concentration in the counterion cloud that surrounds the charged molecules is significantly higher than that in the solution, especially at low ionic strength. Formation of an electrostatic complex of PTM with HA weakens electrostatic binding of isethionate counterions to PTM, so, isethionate counterions are released in bulk solution. The balance is a competitive binding of HA and isethionate to PTM which is shifted towards HA because of its large negative charge (it is a polyelectrolyte) compared to the monovalent isethionate anion. In case of full ion exchange of HA for isethionate, the overall charge of the particles varies as the PTM/HA mole ratio. In the absence of ion exchange (adsorption of the neutral PTM-isethionate ion pair), loading PTM does not change electrostatic phenomena with respect to blank NPs. The balance of isethionate binding to NPs controls the NPs charge, thus the onset of NPs formation. When two opposite charged macro-ions form a complex, as in the case of HA with PTM and PArg, the electrical double layer is perturbed

and counterions are released to the bulk solution³⁸. To assess the influence of HA concentration on the formation of PTM-loaded NPs (Loaded B, C, D, E and F), the release of isethionate, the counterion of PTM, was quantified using ion exchange chromatography. The results show that the full amount of isethionate was released upon formation of all NPs irrespective of the amount of HA. This shows that electrostatic interactions between HA and PTM are predominant. It should be kept in mind that association by strong interactions remains an equilibrium that could be shifted according to changes of external condition (pH, ionic strength).

3.6. Morphological analysis of blank and pentamidine-loaded nanoparticles

The morphological analysis of HA-PArg NPs (Blank H and I) and PTM-loaded NPs (Loaded F and G) was carried out using TEM and Cryogenic transmission electron microscopy (CryoTEM). As shown in Figure 5, HA-PArg NPs and PTM-loaded NPs formed monodispersed population of regular rounded-shaped particles as observed by DLS measurements. The addition of the drug did not modify the morphology of the NPs.

Besides, to prepare TEM samples, NPs were stained and dried before the analysis. This preparation step might modify the structure of the NPs. Observation NPs in their native state was achieved with Cryo-TEM. Both measurements showed similar results and confirmed the DLS analysis (Figure 6).

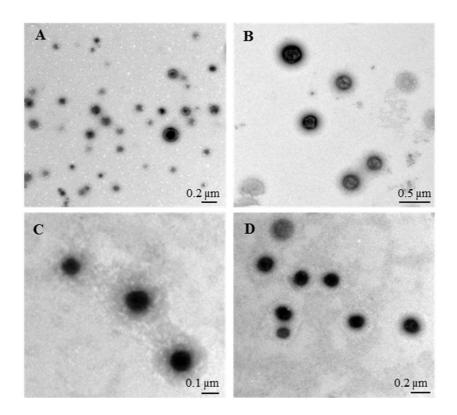


Figure 5. TEM images of Blank H (A); Blank I (B); Loaded F (C) and Loaded G (D).

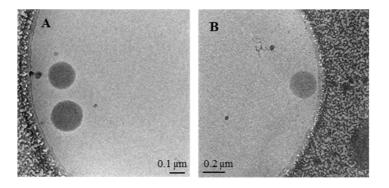


Figure 6. Cryo-TEM images of Loaded F with 2.3 mg·mL⁻¹ of HA (A) and Loaded G with 3.3 mg·mL⁻¹ of HA (B).

3.7. In vitro release study of pentamidine-loaded nanoparticles

The release study was performed for HA-PArg NPs (loaded F and loaded G) upon incubation with PBS at 37°C using vertical diffusion Franz cells. For both formulations a biphasic release profile characterized by an initial burst release in the first 8 h, 6% of release after 15 min increasing up to

50% after 8 h, was observed. Then, a plateau was reached and no further release was detected until 72 h (Figure 7). This behavior has been described also for others hydrophilic polymer-based NPs³⁹. According to the authors, the encapsulation of a hydrophilic drug allows a faster penetration of water in the system causing the swelling of polymeric matrix and the formation of pores. The initial burst release is probably due to a fast erosion of the surface that cause the disaggregation of the polymeric matrix with a fast drug release. When the swelling of the matrix is compensated by erosion process a constant release towards water as receptor medium was observed. Moreover, the release behavior of PTM from NPs was similar to the control PTM solution. This shows that the rate-limiting step of the experiment was the diffusion of PTM through the dialysis membrane.

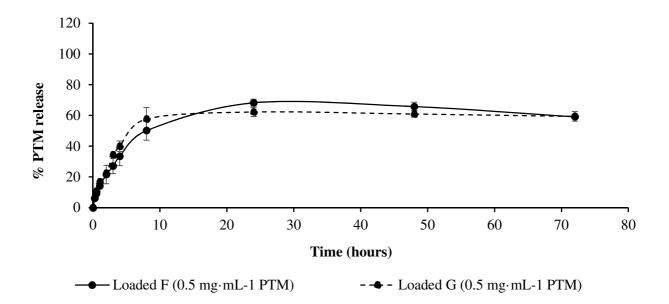
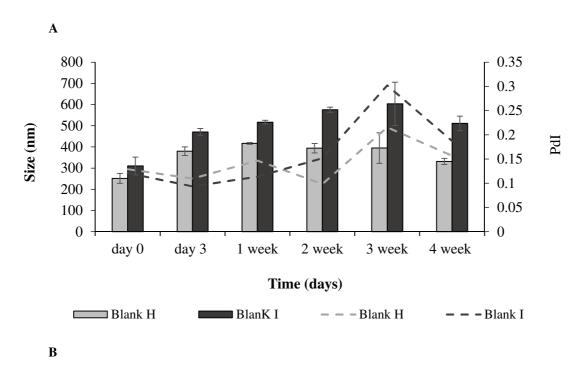


Figure 7. Release profile of PTM from loaded F and loaded G in PBS medium. The diffusion cells were thermoregulated with water at 37° C circulating in a double jacket. (Mean \pm *Sem.*; n = 3).

3.8. Stability studies of blank and pentamidine-loaded nanoparticles

The stability of colloidal suspensions of Blank H and I (Figure 8-A) and Loaded F and G (Figure 8-B) NPs at 4 °C was evaluated over 1 month of storage. Size, polydispersity index and leakage of PTM were evaluated every week. As reported in Figure 8-A and B, size and *PdI* of Blank H and I increased over time for both formulations. However, Blank (H-I) and Loaded NPs (F-G) were more

stable cause they were more negative and more stabilized by electrostatic repulsions. No leakage of the drug was observed for both formulations, demonstrating the ability of NPs to associate PTM in an efficient manner. In addition, Blank H and PTM-Loaded F did not aggregate in DMEM (data not shown).



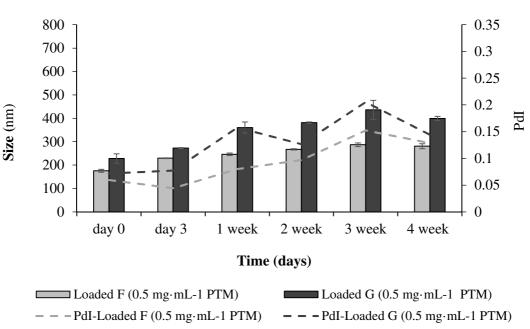


Figure 8. Stability studies, size and *PdI*, upon storage condition for 4 weeks at 4°C in aqueous solution of Blank H (3.5 mg·mL⁻¹ of HA), Blank I (5 mg·mL⁻¹ of HA) (A) and Loaded F

(2.3 mg·mL⁻¹ of HA), Loaded G (3.3 mg·mL⁻¹ of HA) (B). *PdI*: polydispersity index. (Mean \pm *sem*; n = 3).

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3.9. Freeze-drying studies of blank and pentamidine-loaded nanoparticles

A dry form of blank and loaded NPs selected was prepared by freeze-drying in order to study the long-term stability. The optimal freeze-drying conditions that convert the aqueous suspension into dry powder and allow for reconstitution in physiological medium were set up. Blank I, Loaded F and Loaded G were freeze-dried using different amount of mannitol (5%, 10% w/v) as bulking and isotonic agent. The aim was to obtain isotonic values close to physiological condition (280-300 mOsm·L⁻¹). Tables 5 and 6 show the physiochemical characteristics (size, *PdI* and osmolarity) of Blank H and Loaded F formulations prepared with different mannitol concentrations, before and after redispersion in water. Also, stability after redispersion was evaluated over 15 days at 4 °C. Blank H and Loaded F, were successfully dispersed in water irrespective of the amount of mannitol used. However, 5% mannitol was needed to obtain isotonic formulation. Following reconstitution in water, the size of HA-PArg NPs and PTM-loaded NPs increased. Moreover, the size continued to increase during the storage period for the both formulations (Table 5-6). However, the population remained monodispersed (PdI > 0.1) and no leakage of the drug during the time was observed. Figure 9 confirms that both Blank H and Loaded F recovered the initial morphology characteristics upon freeze-drying and reconstitution in water. Both formulations formed monodispersed population showing a regular round shape and no aggregation was detected.

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Table 5. Physicochemical characterization of Blank H before and after freeze-drying and reconstitution. *PdI*: polydispersity index. Results are expressed as mean values \pm *sem*; n = 3.

5% mannitol				10% mannitol		
Days	Size (nm)	PdI	Osmol. (mOsm·L-1)	Size (nm)	PdI	Osmol. (mOsm·L ⁻¹)

0	151 ± 5	< 0.1	-	148 ± 6	-	-
0	218 ± 5	< 0.1	665	210 ± 8	< 0.1	305
8	233 ± 7	< 0.1	665	254 ± 11	< 0.2	305
16	315 ± 45	< 0.1	665	383 ± 42	< 0.2	305

Table 6. Physicochemical characterization of Loaded F after freeze-drying and reconstitution. *PdI*: polydispersity index. AE (%) association efficiency. Results are expressed as mean values \pm *sem*; n = 3.

		59	% mannitol			10%	mannitol	
Days	Size (nm)	PdI	AE (%)	Osmol. (mOsm·L·1)	Size (nm)	PdI	AE (%)	Osmol. (mOsm·L·¹)
0	149 ± 1	< 0.1	79 ± 1	-	157 ± 6	-	64 ± 2	-
0	234 ± 12	< 0.2	76 ± 1	669	204 ± 12	< 0.1	64 ± 4	297
8	287 ± 13	< 0.1	-	669	265 ± 3	< 0.1	-	297
16	353 ± 6	< 0.1	78 ± 1	669	321 ±10	< 0.2	75 ± 1	297

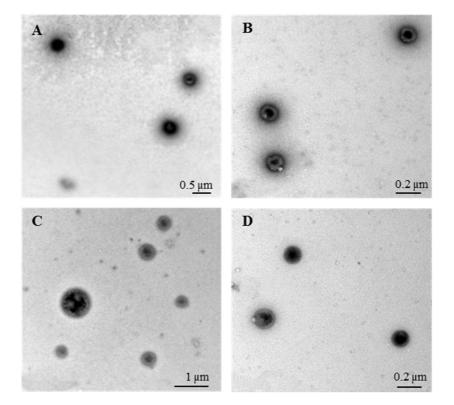


Figure 9. TEM pictures of Blank H (A-B) and Loaded F (C-D) nanoparticles after freeze-drying and reconstitution in 1 mL of water.

3.10. *In vitro* cell viability studies of pentamidine-loaded nanoparticles

The antiproliferative activity of free and encapsulated PTM into Loaded F was assessed using the MTT assay. Lung (A549) and human breast cancer (MDA-MB-231) cell lines were selected based on their sensitivity to PTM^{23,40}. The viability of A549 and MDA-MB-231 was monitored after incubation with different concentrations of free PTM and PTM-loaded NPs for 72 h. Blank H were used as controls to evaluate the biocompatibility of the nanocarrier. As shown in Table 7, the use of Loaded F was associated with a better activity than free PTM both on lung (IC50 = $0.21 \pm 0.08 \,\mu\text{M}$ $vs 1.2 \pm 0.8 \,\mu\text{M}$) and breast cancer cells (IC50 = $2.2 \pm 1.8 \,\mu\text{M}$ $vs 4.6 \pm 3.7 \,\mu\text{M}$). Blank I showed very low toxicity (IC50 > $40 \mu M$) highlighting the biocompatibility of the nanocarrier. These data confirmed that PTM activity in vitro was improved when the drug was incorporated inside nanoparticles. As reported in the literature both cell lines express CD44 receptors^{41,42}. Hence, we suggest that the present NPs can target cancer cells in vivo through interaction with this receptor. In line with our study, Battistini et al. 16 observed that in A549 cells, cytotoxicity of HA-doxorubicin complexes was 3-fold higher than that of the reference free drug. These results indicated an increased cellular uptake of doxorubicin when complexed with HA due to the presence of CD44 membrane receptors¹⁴. Targeting CD44 using HA moieties has also been demonstrated in vivo in CD44-positive human breast tumor xenografts mice. HA based micelles loaded with paclitaxel exhibit a remarkably high accumulation and retention in the CD44 receptor-overexpressing tumor

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Table 7. IC50 values of studied compounds on A549 and MDA-MB-231 cells. Results are expressed as mean values \pm *sem*; n = 3.

Cell line	Formulations	ΙC50 (μΜ)
	PTM	1.2 ± 0.8

following intravenous. injection in comparison to the free drug¹⁵.

A549	PTM-loaded NPs	0.21 ± 0.08
	Blank HA NPs	42 ± 16
	PTM	4.6 ± 3.7
MDA-MB-231	PTM-loaded NPs	2.2 ± 1.8
	Blank HA NPs	66 ± 47

4. Conclusions

The present study provides insight into a new HA based nano-complex, namely nanoparticles, for encapsulation of positively charged hydrophilic drug. In a first set of experiments, HA-PTM complexes were studied. Such complexes were highly polydispersed species that remained soluble in water. To stabilize the complex and to maximize the amount of the drug associated to the system, HA-PArg NPs were developed using polyelectrolyte complexation technique. NPs were kinetically stabilized by the excess charge, which prevented their aggregation and ensured high encapsulation efficiency of PTM. Also, high encapsulation efficiency was associated to the release of the isethionate counterion in the solution quantified by IC. Following *in vitro* studies, PTM-loaded NPs were more effective in reducing cell viability as compared with free drug suggesting enhanced efficacy and cell internalization via CD44 receptor. Moreover, their optimum pharmaceutical properties, namely easy production using mild conditions, stability and possibility to obtain ready-to-use dry powders, highlight the potential of HA-PArg nanoparticles as novel drug delivery system for nanomedicine applications.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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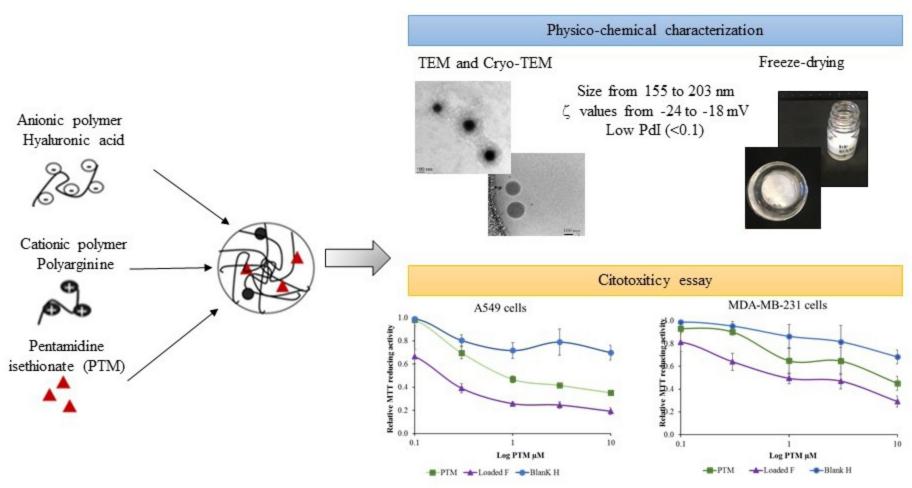
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PTM-loaded NPs induced a significant reduction in cell viability in comparison with PTM solution.