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**Caractéristiques des chaleurs et moment de l'ovulation chez la femelle zébu (*Bos indicus*) Azawak**

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(Article begins on next page)



## UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI DI TORINO

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1 **Encapsulation of Acyclovir in new carboxylated cyclodextrin-based**  
2 **nanosponges improves the agent's antiviral efficacy**

3

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32 **Abstract**

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Cyclodextrin-based nanosponges (NS) are solid nanoparticles, obtained from the cross-linking of cyclodextrins, that have been proposed as delivery systems for many types of drugs. Various NS derivatives are currently under investigation in order that their properties might be tuned for different applications. In this work, new carboxylated cyclodextrin-based nanosponges (Carb-NS) carrying carboxylic groups within their structure were purposely designed as novel Acyclovir carriers. TEM measurements revealed their spherical shape and size of about 400 nm. The behaviour of Carb-NS, with respect to the incorporation and delivery of Acyclovir, was compared to that of NS, previously investigated as a drug carrier. DSC, XRPD and FTIR analyses were used to investigate the two NS formulations. The results confirm the incorporation of the drug into the NS structure and NS-Acyclovir interactions. The Acyclovir loading into Carb-NS was higher than that obtained using NS, reaching about 70 % w/w. *In vitro* release studies showed the release kinetics of Acyclovir from Carb-NS to be prolonged in comparison with those observed with NS, with no initial burst effect. The NS uptake into cells was evaluated using fluorescent Carb-NS and revealed the nanoparticle internalisation. Enhanced antiviral activity against a clinical isolate of HSV-1 was obtained using Acyclovir loaded in Carb-NS.

**Key words:** acyclovir, nanosponges, cyclodextrin, prolonged release, antiviral activity

**1. INTRODUCTION**

62

63 Acyclovir, a synthetic nucleoside analogue derived from guanosine, is a widely used antiviral  
64 agent due to of its efficacy in the treatment of herpes simplex virus infections (O'Brien and  
65 Campoli-Richards, 1989). However, neither the parenteral nor the oral administration of the  
66 currently available formulations of Acyclovir is able to result in suitable concentrations of the  
67 agent reaching at target sites. Acyclovir's absorption in the gastrointestinal tract is slow and  
68 incomplete; of consequence, its pharmacokinetics following oral medication are highly variable  
69 and its oral bioavailability ranges from just 10 to 30%. In general, around 80% of the  
70 administered dose is not absorbed and current therapies therefore require the administration of  
71 high doses, up to 1.2 g/day. As a consequence, the presence of systemic toxicity and adverse  
72 reactions is frequent with its administration.

73 Many technological approaches, such as pro-drug preparations and innovative formulations, have  
74 been proposed for improving the efficacy of Acyclovir treatment and decreasing its adverse side  
75 effects. In recent years, the design of new delivery systems for the administration of antivirals  
76 has attracted much research attention (Lembo and Cavalli, 2010). A number of Acyclovir  
77 nanoparticulate systems have been developed, including nanoparticles (Giannavola et al., 2003;  
78 Kamel et al., 2009; Yin et al., 2006; Cavalli et al., 2009; Bertino Ghera et al., 2009; Elshafeya et  
79 al, 2010), liposomes (Pavelic et al., 2005; Chetoni et al. 2004), niosomes (Mukherjee et al., 2007;  
80 Attia et al. 2007) and microemulsions (Gosh et al., 2006; Shishu et al. 2009), all of which aim at  
81 improving the bioavailability of Acyclovir for either systemic or topical administration.

82 The present work focuses on the potential use of new  $\beta$ -cyclodextrin-based nanosponges (NS) as  
83 specifically prepared novel Acyclovir carriers. Cyclodextrin-based NS are solid nanoparticles  
84 consisting of highly cross-linked cyclodextrins, and were recently developed as a novel  
85 nanoparticulate delivery system (Trotta and Cavalli, 2009; Trotta et al., 2012). This new  
86 nanostructured material is prepared by reacting cyclodextrin (CD) with several cross-linking  
87 agents: generally, activated carbonyl compounds (e.g. carbonyldiimidazole), pyromellitic  
88 dianhydride and carboxylic acids. The reaction produces nanoparticles with a rather spherical  
89 shape that possess the capacity to form stable nano-suspensions when dispersed in water under  
90 stirring. NS show good biocompatibility and negligible biotoxicity. For example, the acute  
91 systemic toxicity of nanosponges was evaluated in mice following the injection of doses that  
92 varied between 500 mg and 5000 mg/Kg; the mice showed no signs of toxicity or any adverse

93 reactions. Their oral administration has also been tested in mice, with no apparent side effects  
94 noted (Trotta et al. 2012).

95 Nanosponges are highly efficient at entrapping different types of molecules (both organic and  
96 inorganic), and they can achieve this by means of inclusion or non inclusion complex formation.  
97 NS are able to complex with drug molecules due to their highly cross-linked structure and their  
98 many CD cavities, which can cooperate in forming inclusion complexes. Moreover, the polymer  
99 mesh forms a network with nano-channels able to entrap the guest molecules. This peculiar  
100 structural organisation favours molecule complexation and might be responsible for the  
101 increased solubility, stabilisation and protection capacities of nanosponges in comparison with its  
102 parent cyclodextrins.

103 Cyclodextrin-NS have been exploited as carriers for various types of drugs, but in particular for  
104 molecules with poor aqueous solubility (Cavalli et al., 2006; Swaminathan et al., 2007 and 2010;  
105 Ansari et al., 2010; Mognetti et al. 2012). Recently, loading NS with paclitaxel was found to  
106 increase the bioavailability of the drug when orally administered to rats compared to that  
107 obtained for free paclitaxel (Torne et al., 2010). Further studies demonstrated the ability of NS to  
108 increase the solubility and the oral bioavailability of other molecules, including resveratrol and  
109 tamoxifen (Ansari et al., 2011; Torne et al., 2012). Based on these findings, the current work  
110 investigates the potential for cyclodextrin-NS to increase the oral bioavailability of Acyclovir.

111 The aim of this study was to develop new  $\beta$ -CD nanosponges purposely tuned for the  
112 formulation of Acyclovir, a drug with medium polarity and solubility. To this end, a new type of  
113 NS-derivative, containing dissociable carboxylic groups, was considered for the encapsulation of  
114 Acyclovir and its behaviour compared to the  $\beta$ -cyclodextrin-based NS that has previously been  
115 investigated in relation to more lipophilic drugs. The synthetic rationale consisted of increasing  
116 drug incorporation by increasing complexation due to electrostatic interactions between the acid  
117 groups belonging to the NS structure and the Acyclovir amino group. The physico-chemical  
118 characterisation of the Acyclovir NS formulations along with their *in vitro* antiviral activities are  
119 herein reported.

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123 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

124

## 125 **2.1 Materials**

126 Acyclovir, fluoresceine isothiocyanate, carbonyldiimidazole and ammonium acetate were  
127 purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (USA). Cyclodextrin was a kind gift from Roquette (Lestrem,  
128 France). All solvents used are of HPLC grade. All reagent used are of analytical grade. Milli Q  
129 water was used for all the experiments.

130

## 131 **2.2 Synthesis of carbonate and carboxylate nanosponges**

132 In this work, two different types of cyclodextrin-based NS, namely carbonate and carboxylate  
133 NS, were synthesised.

134 Carbonate NS were prepared as previously reported (Trotta and Cavalli, 2009; Trotta et al.,  
135 2012). Briefly, an amount of anhydrous cyclodextrin was dissolved in anhydrous DMF and  
136 allowed to react with carbonyldiimidazole at 90 °C for at least 5 h. Once the reaction was over, a  
137 large excess of water was added to destroy the excess of carbonyldiimidazole and the solid  
138 recovered by filtration. Then, the solid was ground in a mortar and Soxhlet-extracted with  
139 ethanol to remove residual reaction by-products. The reaction was carried out using a molar  
140 excess of crosslinker (e.g. 1:4 of  $\beta$  CD:cross-linker). Following purification, NS were stored at  
141 25 °C.

142 New carboxylated nanosponges (Carb-NS) were obtained by reacting succinic anhydride on  
143 preformed NS in DMSO at 90 °C for 3 h. The solid nanosponges was recovered by filtration and  
144 washed with a large amount of water. The presence of carboxylic groups in the structure was  
145 assessed by titrimetry with NaOH solution and by FTIR analysis (Perkin Elmer System 2000).

146 For titrimetry determination, a known amount of Carb-NS was dissolved in a KCl solution. After  
147 standing for a long time (i.e. 24 h) the suspension was titred with NaOH 0.1 M.

148 NS surface charge modification, determining the Zeta potential value, was also used to ascertain  
149 the presence of the acidic groups.

150 Finally, fluorescent Carb-NS were also synthesised for cellular trafficking studies. For this  
151 purpose, pre-formed NS were added to a fluorescein isothiocyanate solution in DMSO and  
152 incubated at 90 °C for 3 h. Then, the solid was recovered by filtration and washed with ethanol.  
153 The dried product was reacted with the succinic anhydride as previously described to obtain  
154 fluorescent Carb-NS.

155

156

### 157 **2.3 Preparation of Acyclovir-loaded nanosponges**

158 A weighed amount of Acyclovir was dispersed in aqueous suspensions (pH=5.5) of both NS and  
159 carb-NS in a weight ratio of 1:4 and magnetically stirred for 24 h. Suspensions were then  
160 centrifuged at 2000 rpm for 10 min to separate out the non-complexed drug as a residue below  
161 the colloidal supernatant. The colloidal supernatants were freeze-dried using a Modulyo freeze-  
162 drier (Edwards, UK) to obtain the drug-loaded nanosponges. The two drug-loaded NS  
163 formulations were stored in a covered vacuum desiccator at ambient temperature until further  
164 use. Nanosponge nanosuspensions were sterilised by autoclaving (121°C, 2 bar) for the  
165 biological studies.

166

### 167 **2.4 Physical mixture preparation**

168 Binary physical mixtures were prepared by mixing Acyclovir and the two dried NS types in a  
169 glass mortar (4:1 nanosponge:Acyclovir weight ratio).

170

### 171 **2.5 Acyclovir quantitative determination**

172 The quantitative determination of Acyclovir was achieved by HPLC analysis using a Perkin  
173 Elmer instrument (L2 Binary Pump, Perkin Elmer) with a UV-vis spectrophotometer detector  
174 (LC 95, Perkin Elmer, USA) with an external standard method. A reverse-phase hypersil ODS  
175 column (25 cm x 4.6 mm Varian, USA) was used with a mobile phase consisting of a 12:88 (v/v)  
176 ratio of acetonitrile:20 mM ammonium acetate buffer pH=3.5 and a flow rate of 1 ml/min. The  
177 UV detector wavelength was set to 250 nm. The calibration curve is linear in the range 0.5-15  
178 µg/ml with a  $r^2$  of 0.9997. For cellular studies, the HPLC method for Acyclovir determination  
179 was tuned by changing the mobile phase to a ratio of water (adjusted to pH 2.5 with  
180 orthophosphoric acid):methanol (92:8); the same flow rate of 1ml/min was used and UV  
181 detection was carried out at 252 nm.

182

183 **2.6 Determination of size, polydispersity index and zeta potential of nanosponges**

184  
185 NS sizes and polydispersity indices were measured by dynamic light scattering using a 90 Plus  
186 particle sizer (Brookhaven Instruments Corporation, USA) equipped with MAS OPTION  
187 particle sizing software. The measurements were made at a fixed scattering angle of 90° and  
188 25°C for all samples. The samples were suitably diluted with filtered distilled water before every  
189 measurement. Zeta potential measurements were also made using an additional electrode in the  
190 same instrument. For zeta potential determination, all NS formulations were diluted with 0.1 mM  
191 KCl and placed in the electrophoretic cell, where an electric field of about 15 V/cm was applied.

192

193

194 **2.7 Morphology evaluation of nanosponges**

195 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was employed to evaluate the shape of the NS  
196 formulations. A Philips CM 10 transmission electron microscope was used, and particle size was  
197 measured using NIH image software. NS suspensions, at a concentration of 0.5 % w/v of NS,  
198 and Carb-NS (either loaded or unloaded) were sprayed on Formwar-coated copper grids and air-  
199 dried before observation.

200

201 **2.8 Determination of Acyclovir loading**

202 A weighed amount (5 mg) of both Acyclovir-loaded NS and Carb-NS was dispersed into water,  
203 sonicated for 30 min and then diluted in a mixture of water (adjusted to pH 2.5 with  
204 orthophosphoric acid): methanol (92:8, v/v). After centrifugation the supernatant was analysed  
205 by HPLC after suitable dilution, as described before.

206

207 **2.9 *In vitro* release of Acyclovir from nanosponges**

208 The *in vitro* release studies were carried out using multi-compartment rotating cells with a  
209 dialysis membrane (Sartorius, cut off 12,000 Da). The donor phase consisted of NS suspension  
210 containing a fixed amount of Acyclovir in phosphate buffer at pH 7.4 (1 ml). The receiving  
211 phase, which consisted of phosphate buffer pH 7.4, was completely withdrawn and replaced with

212 fresh medium after fixed time intervals, suitably diluted and analysed using the above described  
213 HPLC method. The experiment was carried out in triplicate.

214  
215

## 216 **2.10 Differential Scanning Calorimetry**

217 Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC) was carried out using a Perkin Elmer DSC/7 (Perkin-  
218 Elmer, CT, USA) equipped with a TAC 7/DX instrument controller. The instrument was  
219 calibrated with indium for melting point and heat of fusion. A heating rate of 10°C/min was  
220 employed in the 25–300°C temperature range. Standard aluminium sample pans (Perkin-Elmer)  
221 were used; an empty pan was used as reference standard. Analyses were performed in triplicate  
222 on 5 mg samples under nitrogen purge at a flow.

223

## 224 **2.11 X-Ray Powder Diffraction (XRPD)**

225 Plain Acyclovir, Acyclovir physical mixtures, Acyclovir-loaded NS and Acyclovir-loaded Carb-  
226 NS loaded were examined by XRPD. Diffraction data were collected using a Panalytical X'Pert  
227 NS loaded were examined by XRPD. Diffraction data were collected using a Panalytical X'Pert  
228 Pro diffractometer (Bragg Brentano geometry, Cu  $K\alpha_{1,2}$  radiation) and a Huber Guinier Camera  
229 G670 (Cu  $K\alpha_{1,2}$  radiation). Diffraction profiles were analysed using the curve fitting and analysis  
230 FITYK software (Wojdyr, 2010). A Pearson VII shape profile was used for the diffraction  
231 pattern decomposition in order to simulate better the sample and instrumental contributions to  
232 the diffraction. The peak profile we selected takes account of the effect of the presence of a  $K\alpha_{1,2}$   
233 radiation.

234

## 235 **2.12 Fourier Transformed Infra-Red (FT-IR) Spectroscopy**

236 Fourier Transform spectroscopy (FTIR) was carried out on Acyclovir loaded NS, Acyclovir-  
237 loaded Carb-NS and plain drug using a Perkin Elmer system 2000 spectrophotometer to  
238 understand whether structural differences exist between the different NS systems. The spectra  
239 were recorded within the interval 4000 to 650  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  using KBr pellets.

240

## 241 **2.13 Biological studies**

242 *Cells and Viruses*

243 African green monkey fibroblastoid kidney cells (Vero) were grown as monolayers in DMEM  
244 supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated foetal calf serum and antibiotics. A clinical isolate of  
245 HSV-1 (HSV-1 MRC) sensitive to Acyclovir was provided by Dr. Piro, Amedeo di Savoia  
246 Hospital, Turin, Italy.

247

248 *Cell viability assay*

249 To test the cytotoxic effect of Acyclovir, Acyclovir-loaded NS and Acyclovir-loaded Carb-NS,  
250 Vero cells were seeded at a density of  $6 \times 10^4$ /well in 24-well plates. After 24 h, they were either  
251 incubated with the compounds or left untreated. After 72 h treatment, cell viability was  
252 determined by the 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) method,  
253 as previously described (Paules et al., 1988). The effect on cell viability of each formulation at  
254 different concentrations was expressed as a percentage by comparing treated cells with cells  
255 incubated with culture medium only.

256

257 *Virus yield reduction assay*

258 The effect of Acyclovir and the two formulations of Acyclovir-loaded NS on the production of  
259 infectious virus was assessed in yield reduction assays, where the cells were infected with virus  
260 at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.01 pfu/cell and then exposed to the drug for 72 h. After  
261 1 h adsorption, the virus inoculum was removed and cultures were exposed in duplicate to serial  
262 dilutions of the test compound. Supernatants were pooled as appropriate 72 h after infection and  
263 cell-free virus infectivity titres were determined in duplicate by plaque assay in Vero cell  
264 monolayers. The end-points of the assay were the inhibitory concentrations of drug which  
265 reduced virus yield by 50% (IC<sub>50</sub>) in comparison to the untreated virus control. The IC<sub>50</sub> values  
266 were calculated for inhibition curves using the program PRISM 4 (GraphPad Software, San  
267 Diego, California, U.S.A.) fitted to a variable slope-sigmoidal dose-response curve.

268

269 *Evaluation of cellular uptake by confocal laser scanning microscopy*

270 Exponentially growing Vero cells were plated and cultured overnight in 24-well plates on glass  
271 coverslips. Subsequently, the cell monolayers were incubated with 10  $\mu$ M of the labelled  
272 compounds for the indicated time points and then extensively washed with PBS for the

273 observation of the living cells. Confocal sections were taken on an inverted Zeiss LSM510  
274 fluorescence microscope.

275

#### 276 *Determination of Acyclovir concentration in Vero cells*

277 The concentration of Acyclovir in Vero cells was investigated as a measure of the intracellular  
278 accumulation of the drug. After incubation with plain Acyclovir or the Acyclovir formulations,  
279 the cells were washed, lysed with a saturated solution of ammonium sulphate and then  
280 centrifuged at 4 °C for min. Cell lysates were frozen and stored at -18°C. Immediately prior to  
281 their analysis, cell lysates were thawed and centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 10 min at 10°C. The  
282 supernatants were diluted with the mobile phase, vortexed for 5 min and injected into the HPLC  
283 system, as described above in relation to the estimation of the Acyclovir concentration. The  
284 amount of Acyclovir taken up inside the cells was calculated from the standard curve obtained in  
285 the mobile phase with blank cellular lysate added to varying amounts of drug stock solution.  
286 Enhanced cell uptake of Acyclovir-loaded NS and Carb-NS was expressed as a % of the uptake  
287 of plain Acyclovir.

288

#### 289 **2.14 Statistical analysis**

290 The results are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SD. Statistical analyses were performed using unpaired  
291 Student's t-test. A value of  $p < 0.05$  was considered significant.

292

293

294

295

### 296 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

297 Acyclovir is an antiviral molecule of medium polarity and a solubility of 1.5 mg/ml. It is  
298 reported in the BCS classification developed by Gordon Amidon (Amidon et al., 1995) as a class  
299 III drug; i.e. soluble with low intestinal permeability. The development of formulations for drugs  
300 belonging to this class can be challenging and the solubility/dose ratio can be a key parameter.  
301 As a consequence, Acyclovir needs to be administered in large doses, either orally or  
302 intravenously, to obtain the therapeutic effect desired. The solubility of the drug can play a

303 critical role. Indeed, Acyclovir is available on the market as a solution for parenteral  
304 administration, but the precipitation of the drug can easily occur when its solubility is exceeded;  
305 consequently, renal tubular damage may occur following intravenous administration. Thus, new  
306 formulations of Acyclovir using innovative approaches aim at decreasing the daily doses and, in  
307 turn, the adverse side effects of the drug. One strategy would be to consider the application of  
308 nanocarriers for its deliver and, through their use, overcome some of the limitations of the drug  
309 associated with its conventional dosage forms (Lembo and Cavalli, 2010). Of the various  
310 compounds that have been investigated as potential carriers and solubilising agents, the use of  
311 cyclodextrin derivatives and cyclodextrin polymers has been proposed for a number of drugs  
312 (Martin del Valle, 2004; Van de Manakker et al, 2009; Loftsson and Brewster, 2010). Previous  
313 studies have shown that cyclodextrin cavities of sulphated amphiphilic derivatives are able to  
314 encapsulate Acyclovir, forming stable compounds (Dubes et al., 2003). Furthermore, a soluble  $\beta$ -  
315 CD/poly(amidoamine) copolymer carrying cyclodextrin cavities and a macromolecule chain was  
316 found to significantly increase the solubility of Acyclovir due to its high drug complexing  
317 capacity (Bencini et al., 2008).

318 In the present study, novel Carb-NS were purposely synthesised for Acyclovir formulation.  
319 Carboxylic groups were linked to the structure of preformed NS to enhance the interactions of  
320 the nanocarrier with Acyclovir, with the aim of increasing drug loading and stability. The  
321 marked change in the Carb-NS surface charge in comparison with that of NS provided evidence  
322 of the binding of carboxylic groups, but their presence in the nanosponge structure was firmly  
323 established by titrimetry experiments and FTIR analysis. Titrimetric analysis was able to  
324 determine a carboxylic group concentration of 1.1 mmol/ g of nanosponges.

325 The FTIR spectrum of Carb-NS differed markedly from that of NS (Fig.1): in particular, it shows  
326 a higher and broader peak in the region of the carbonyl group at about  $1770\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and an increase  
327 in C=O stretching due to the addition of carboxylic groups.

328

329 Fig. 1

330 Carb-NS, when dispersed in water, formed nanosuspensions with ease and without the addition  
331 of stabiliser agents or surfactants. The average diameters, polydispersity indices and zeta

332 potentials of nanosponges are reported in Table 1. Considering the particle sizes, no important  
333 differences are detectable between loaded and unloaded nanosponges.  
334 Both types of NS have an average diameter of approx. 400 nm, rather narrow size distributions,  
335 and polydispersity indices ranging between 0.11 and 0.13.  
336 In contrast, the zeta potential values of the two NS types are very different. The surface charge of  
337 Carb-NS (-38.3 mV) is more negative than that of NS (-25.4 mV), confirming the presence of the  
338 carboxylic groups in its structure, but its zeta potential value is sufficiently high enough to ensure  
339 physical stability between nanosponge particles through electrostatic repulsion, and thereby  
340 avoiding aggregations. The NS dispersed in water were confirmed to be stable for six months  
341 when stored at 4 °C and presented no precipitation phenomena. The sterilisation process did not  
342 affect nanosponge sizes, as previously shown (Swaminathan et al., 2010).  
343 Fluorescent Carb-NS did not show larger sizes or higher polydispersity index values than those  
344 of Carb-NS (Table 1).

345  
346 Table1

347  
348 To investigate NS size and morphology further, microscopy studies were carried out using TEM  
349 analysis. TEM photomicrographs of the two types of loaded nanosponges are reported in Fig. 2  
350 and confirm their previously ascertained sizes. Acyclovir-loaded nanosponges were spherical in  
351 shape with a rather uniform distribution.

352  
353 Fig. 2

354  
355 Both types of nanosponges were able to incorporate Acyclovir. The presence of the carboxylic  
356 groups in the Carb-NS structure markedly affected drug loading compared to that of unmodified  
357 NS; the drug loading percentages for NS and Carb-NS were 38 % and 69 % w/w, respectively.  
358 This strong difference could be ascribed to the presence of the acid groups in the Carb-NS  
359 structure acting as further sites for Acyclovir electrostatic interactions besides the cyclodextrin  
360 cavities.

361 The Acyclovir interaction with both NS types was confirmed by DSC, XRPD and FTIR  
362 analyses. The DSC thermograms of the two types of Acyclovir-loaded NS are showed in Fig. 3.

363

364 Fig. 3 DSC

365

366 As reported in Figure 3, Acyclovir shows an endothermic peak at approx. 260°C ( $T^{\text{peak}} = 266.7$ )  
367 corresponding to Acyclovir fusion, which is absent following its inclusion into nanosponges  
368 (either Carb-NS or NS). The disappearance of the drug peak in the DSC thermograms may  
369 indicate that Acyclovir is unable to crystallise and that it is mainly molecularly dispersed in the  
370 nanosponge structure. This behaviour confirms Acyclovir's interaction with the nanosponge  
371 structure. Conversely, the Acyclovir peak is clearly detectable in the drug physical mixture.

372 The mode of interaction between Acyclovir and the two nanosponges was then evaluated by  
373 XRPD analysis., From XRPD analysis, we can qualitatively obtain an estimate of the  
374 crystallinity grade of the sample. Sharp peaks with high *Intensity* versus *Half Width at Half-*  
375 *Maximum* ratios ( $I/hwhm$ ) are typically due to well-crystallised compounds (the spread of the  
376 interplanar spacing around the median value is small). On the contrary, large peaks (low  $I/hwhm$   
377 values) are representative of poorly crystalline materials with a large spread of the  $d_{hkl}$  around the  
378 median value. Plain Acyclovir is a well-crystallised drug and shows a complex diffraction  
379 pattern with sharp and defined diffraction peaks (Fig.4).

380

381 Fig. 4

382

383 Fig. 5 and Fig 6 report XRPD patterns of drug-loaded NS formulations compared to the XRPD  
384 pattern of plain NS. The crystallinity of Acyclovir decreased following its loading into NS,  
385 proving that drug interaction complexation is not due to a mechanical mixing of the components.  
386 These data lie in agreement with the DSC results.

387

388 Fig 5 and Fig. 6

389

390 Fig. 7 reports the decomposition of the experimental XRPD diffraction profiles of plain NS and  
391 plain Carb-NS. From Fig.7 it comes out that the diffraction peaks of NS are very large. This  
392 means that we are dealing not with a crystalline phase but with substances that tend to the  
393 amorphisation. As a matter of fact, the shape obtained from the peak profile decomposition  
394 procedure is essentially Gaussian, confirming their low degree of crystallinity, as expected when  
395 dealing with “amorphous-like” materials. As previously reported, NS can be obtained, either in  
396 crystalline form or in paracrystalline phase (amorphous state), from a  $\beta$ -CD cross-linking  
397 reaction modifying the synthetic procedure (Swaminathan et al., 2010).

398

399 Fig. 7

400

401 Table 2, which is related to Fig.7, reports the peak position values ( $2\theta$ ) and the corresponding  
402 interplanar spacing ( $d_{hk}$ ) of plain NS and Carb-NS. The structural partial and weak ordering is  
403 quite different between NS and Carb-NS, resulting in longer-range ordering in the non-  
404 carboxylated NS. The addition of carboxylic groups on the structure was confirmed by the  
405 displacement of peak positions.

406 Table 2

407

408 The analyses of physical mixtures of both types of NS with Acyclovir evidenced no interaction  
409 between the drug and carrier. In Fig. 8, the decomposition analysis of the diffraction peaks of the  
410 Carb-NS physical mixture is reported. As expected, the physical mixture of Carb-NS and drug  
411 shows the individual diffraction patterns superimposed. The  $2\theta$  position of the reflections of the  
412 two phases is unaltered, as expected from a physical mixture which is free from chemical  
413 interaction.

414

415 Fig. 8

416 FTIR studies showed the presence of interactions between Acyclovir and Carb-NS or NS that  
417 were evident from peak broadenings and peak disappearance in the Acyclovir-loaded samples as  
418 illustrated in Figure 9. The prominent characteristic peaks of Acyclovir were found at around  
419 1200 to 1600  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . All the characteristic peaks of Acyclovir in that range were modified in the  
420 formulations of the drug with the two types of nanosponges, suggesting definite interactions  
421 between drug and nanocarrier.

422

423 Fig. 9

424

425 The *in vitro* release profiles of Acyclovir from the two types of nanosponges are reported in  
426 Figure 10.

427

428 Fig 10

429

430 A sustained release of the drug from the two types of NS was observed indicating the  
431 encapsulation of Acyclovir within the nanostructures. The percentages of Acyclovir released  
432 from Carb-NS and NS after 3 h *in vitro* were approx. 22% and 70%, respectively. No initial burst  
433 effect was observed for either formulation, proving that the drug was not weakly adsorbed onto  
434 the nanosponge surfaces. These results lie in agreement with those obtained from Acyclovir  
435 incorporation in other nano-delivery systems (Cavalli et al, 2009; Bertino Ghera et al., 2009)  
436 where a prolonged release of Acyclovir was observed. The slower release kinetics obtained for  
437 Acyclovir loaded in the Carb-NS formulation might be related to a stronger complexation due to  
438 the additional electrostatic interaction of the carboxylic groups with the Acyclovir amino groups.

439 Plain Acyclovir was found to dissolve rapidly, and an equilibrium between the two  
440 compartments of the *in vitro* release system was reached in just a few minutes (data not shown).

441 Neither Acyclovir, nor NS nor Carb-NS exhibited significant cytotoxic effects on Vero cells as  
442 indicated in Figure 11.

443

444

Fig. 11

445

446 To compare the antiviral activities of plain Acyclovir, Acyclovir-loaded NS and Acyclovir-  
447 loaded Carb-NS, a virus yield reduction assay was performed using monolayers of Vero cells  
448 infected with a clinical isolate of HSV-1. This isolate is sensitive to the inhibitory activity of  
449 Acyclovir (Bencini et al., 2008) and the assay provides a stringent test allowing multiple cycles  
450 of viral replication to occur before measuring the production of infectious viruses. The dose-  
451 response curve shown in Figure 12 demonstrates that the antiviral potency of the Acyclovir-  
452 loaded Carb-NS was higher than that of free Acyclovir. By contrast, the Acyclovir-NS complex  
453 displayed an antiviral activity similar to that of free Acyclovir. The different behaviours  
454 observed between the two types of NS might be ascribed to the high drug loading and the slower  
455 kinetics of release obtained with Carb-NS.

456 The  $IC_{50}$  value for the Acyclovir-loaded Carb-NS determined at 72 h was found to be  $0.033 \mu M$   
457 (95%CI:  $0.025-0.043 \mu M$ ) while those obtained for Acyclovir-NS and free Acyclovir were  $0.162$   
458  $\mu M$  (95% CI:  $0.130-0.202 \mu M$ ) and  $0.166 \mu M$  (95% CI:  $0.112-0.244 \mu M$ ), respectively. The  $IC_{50}$   
459 value for plain Acyclovir corresponded to previously published values (Cavalli et al., 2009). The  
460 unloaded carriers exhibited no antiviral activity *per se* (data not shown).

461

462

463

Fig.12

464

465 We speculated that the difference in the antiviral activity between the two types of NS might be  
466 related to the different release kinetics of the drug. Acyclovir is more slowly released from Carb-  
467 NS than from NS, thus loaded nanosponges retaining a high Acyclovir payload might be  
468 internalised in cells.

469 This hypothesis could be proved by the evaluation of the cell uptake capacity of the NS  
470 formulations. The internalisation of nanoparticulate systems differed from that of the free  
471 molecules in solution (Cavalli et al.; 2009). This was investigated by determining the  
472 accumulation of Acyclovir in the cells; the intracellular concentration of the drug was

473 considerably higher when the cells were incubated with Acyclovir-loaded Carb-NS compared  
474 with Acyclovir-NS or plain drug.

475 The percent enhancement of cellular uptake of Acyclovir formulations in Vero cells compared to  
476 that of the plain drug was approx. 70% for NS and more than 200% for Carb-NS.

477 On the strength of these results, in order to investigate whether acyclovir-loaded Carb-NS could  
478 deliver the drug inside cells, the cellular uptake of the formulation was evaluated by confocal  
479 laser scanning microscopy. For this purpose, fluorescent Carb-NS were used. The assay was  
480 carried out on living unfixed cells to avoid the occurrence of artefacts caused by cell fixation  
481 protocols.

482

483 Fig. 13

484

485 The results reveal a cytoplasmic distribution of fluorescent Carb-NS after 1 hour of its exposure  
486 to the cells, showing that the loaded NS are indeed internalised (Fig.13). No intracellular  
487 fluorescence was detected in control cells unexposed to the labelled compounds, (data not  
488 shown).

489

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492

#### 493 4. CONCLUSIONS

494

495 The ability of cyclodextrin to form inclusion complexes with various molecules is widely  
496 exploited in the pharmaceutical field to increase the solubility of lipophilic drugs. This  
497 technological approach for hydrophilic or medium polar drugs is less effective, thus the use of a  
498 cyclodextrin polymer presents a potential strategy to improve this limitation. Nanosponges are  
499 biocompatible cross-linked cyclodextrin polymers, whose production is flexible and cost-  
500 effective thank to a simple synthesis and purification procedure along with the use of a limited  
501 number of reagents.. One noteworthy property of nanosponges is that they are able to  
502 encapsulate a variety of different types of molecule. In the present study, new Carb-NS were  
503 purposely prepared as the carrier for Acyclovir and evaluated *in vitro* in comparison with  
504 previously studied nanosponges. Carb-NS were spherical in shape with a mean diameter of

505 approximately 400 nm; they possessed a rather narrow polydispersity index and sufficiently high  
506 negative surface charges to form stable nanosuspensions in water.

507 Carb-NS showed enhanced drug loading and more prolonged release kinetics in comparison with  
508 NS. Moreover, enhanced *in vitro* antiviral efficacy was observed when Acyclovir was  
509 encapsulated within Carb-NS. Considering the biocompatibility of nanosponges, the  
510 development of Acyclovir-loaded nanosponge formulations holds great potential for their use in  
511 various administration routes. In conclusion, this supramolecular technology should be  
512 considered as a promising platform that could be extended to other antiviral drugs with the aim  
513 of improving both drug formulation and antiviral activity

514

515

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517

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519

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632

### 633 **Figure captions**

634

635 Figure 1 FTIR spectra of NS and Carb-NS.

636 Figure 2 TEM images of Acyclovir-loaded NS (left) and Acyclovir-loaded Carb-NS (right).  
637 (Magnification 46000x).

638 Figure 3 DSC thermograms (A and B) of the two types of Acyclovir loaded NS compared to  
639 plain NS, plain drug and physical mixtures.

640 Figure 4 Acyclovir XRD pattern.  $2\theta$  diffraction angle on the abscissa axis.

641 Figure 5 Comparison between XRPD patterns: plain NS (A), Acyclovir-loaded NS (B).

642 Figure 6 Comparison between XRPD patterns: plain Carb-NS (A), acyclovir-loaded.

643 Carb-NS (B).

644 Figure 7 XRPD decomposition for plain NS (A) and for plain Carb-NS (B).

645 Figure 8 (A) Decomposition of the diffraction pattern of a physical mixture of Carb-NS and  
646 Acyclovir (B) and (C) decompositions outline the contributions of the NS and drug, respectively.

647

648

649 Figure 9 FTIR spectra of acyclovir, acyclovir-loaded NS and acyclovir-loaded Carb-NS

650 Figure 10 Percentage of acyclovir released from NS and Carb-NS over time. Each point  
651 represents the mean (n=3).

652 Figure 11 Effect of Acyclovir, NS and Carb-NS on the viability of non-infected Vero cells as a  
653 function of the drug concentration at 72 h. X axis: nanosponge concentration, Y axis: cell  
654 viability (% of untreated control). Each point represents the mean  $\pm$ S.D. (n=3).

655 Figure 12 Antiviral activity of free Acyclovir and Acyclovir loaded in NS or Carb-NS on a  
656 clinical isolate of HSV-1. Vero cells were infected at a MOI of 0.01 and then exposed for 72 h to  
657 different drug concentrations. Virus titres in the supernatants of cell cultures were determined by  
658 standard plaque reduction assay. Values are the means of three separate determinations.

659 Figure 13 Cell uptake of fluorescent Carb-NS. Vero cells were incubated with the formulation  
660 for the times indicated and then analysed by confocal laser scanning microscopy without  
661 fixation. The upper panels show the fluorescence images while the lower panels show  
662 fluorescence images merged with phase-contrast images.

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### **Table captions**

665

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667 Table1: Particle sizes and zeta potentials of nanosponges

668

669 Table 2 Peak position occurrence between plain NS and plain Carb-NS

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671

**Table1: Particle sizes and zeta potential of nanosponges**

<b>Loaded Formulations</b>	<b>Average diameter <math>\pm</math> SD (nm)</b>	<b>Zeta Potential <math>\pm</math> SD MV</b>	<b>Polydispersity Index (PI)</b>
NS	400 $\pm$ 16	-25.4 $\pm$ 2.7	0.12
Loaded-NS	403 $\pm$ 19	-25.0 $\pm$ 1.5	0.13
Carb-NS	410 $\pm$ 12	-38.3 $\pm$ 1.2	0.11.
Loaded Carb-NS	415 $\pm$ 10	-28.2 $\pm$ 1.7	0.12
Fluorescent Carb-NS	407 $\pm$ 7	-35.3 $\pm$ 1.2	0.12

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674

**Table 2 Peak position occurrence between plain NS and plain Carb-NS**

	NS			Carb-NS		
2theta (°)	11.653	20.262	25.833	10.823	19.039	22.962
d <sub>hkl</sub> (Å)	7.588	4.379	3.446	8.168	4.658	3.870

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# Figures of Acyclovir-Carb-NS paper

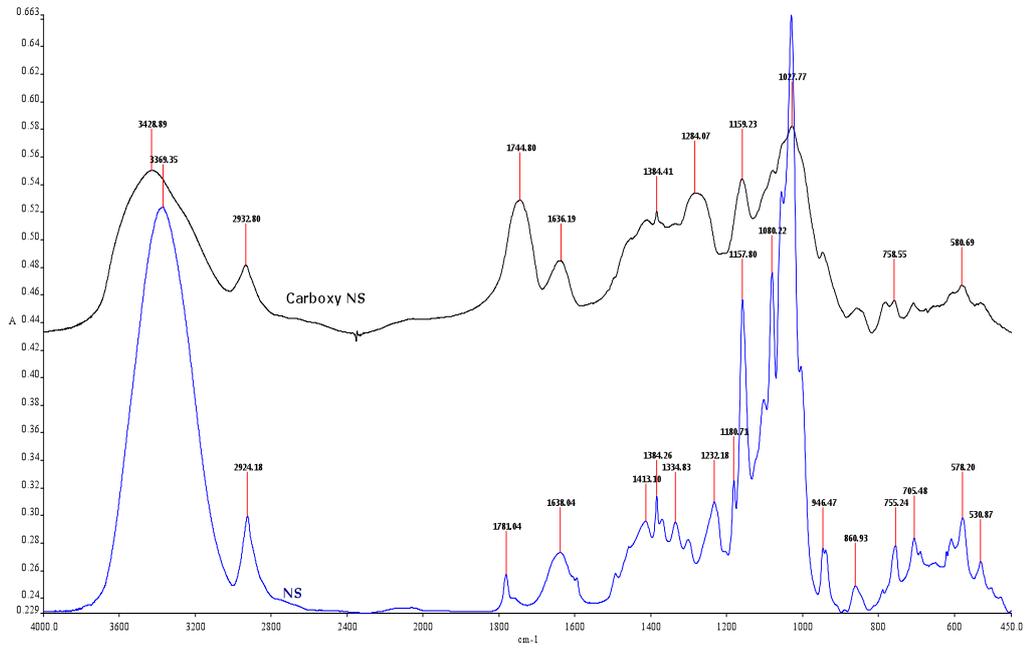


Fig.1

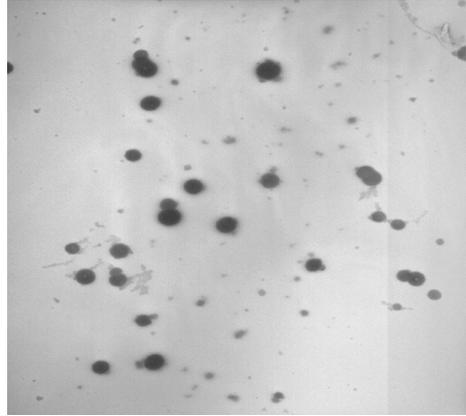
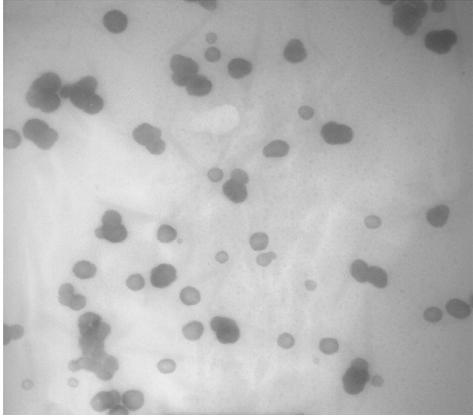


Fig. 2

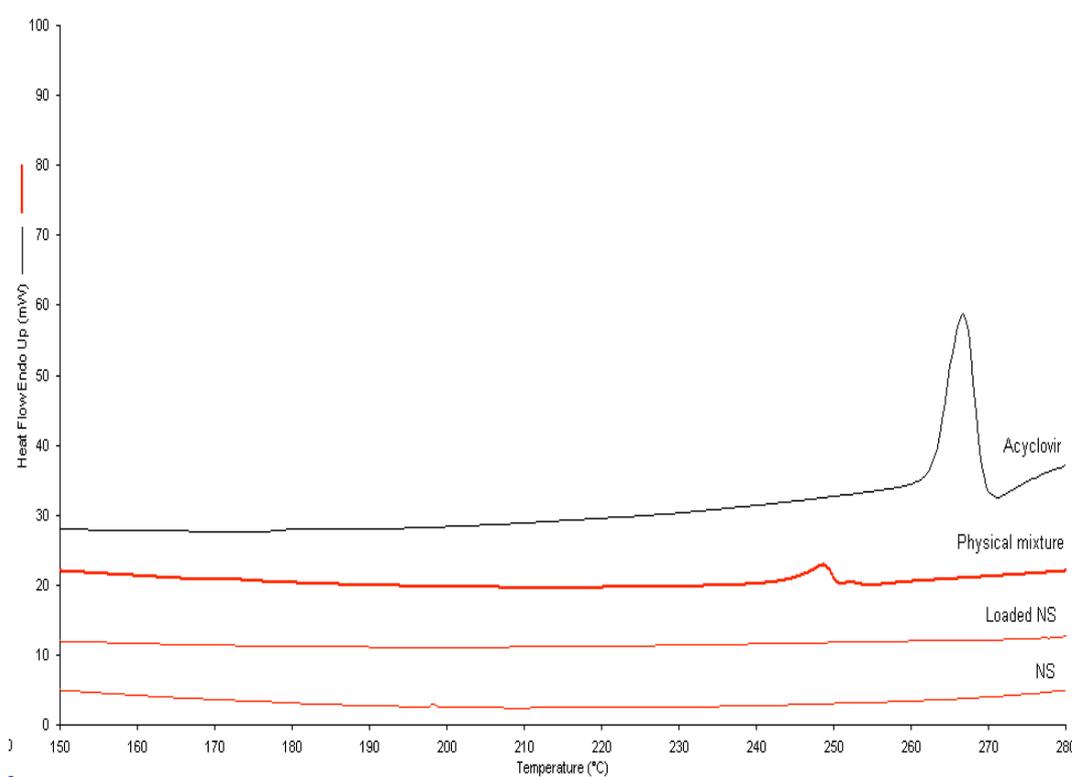


Fig. 3 (A)

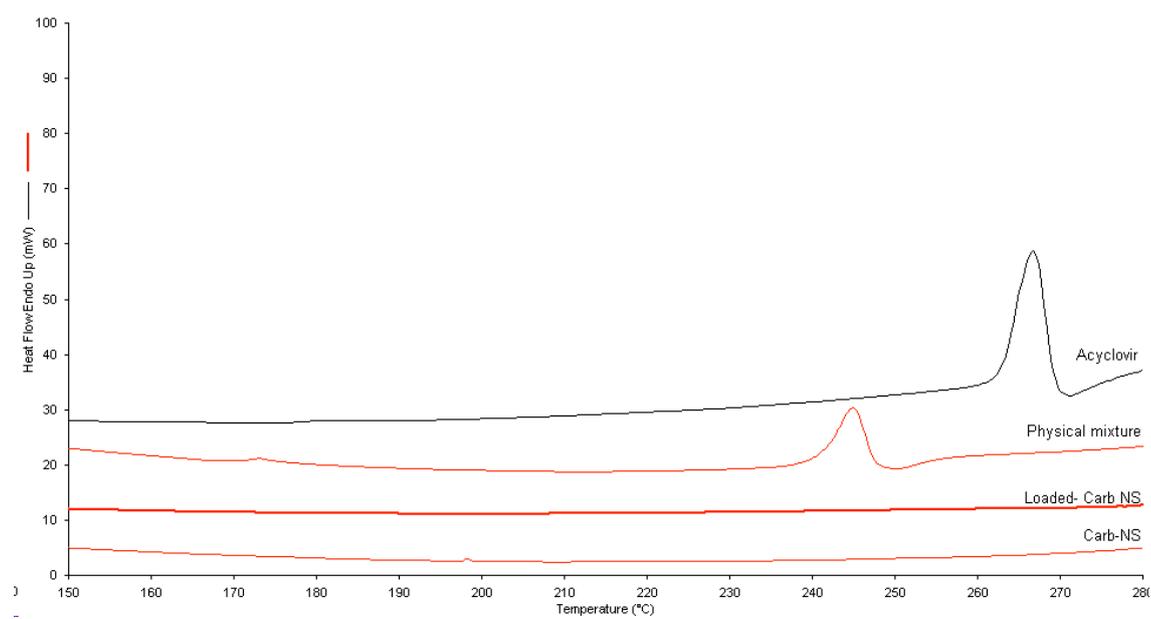


Fig. 3 (B)

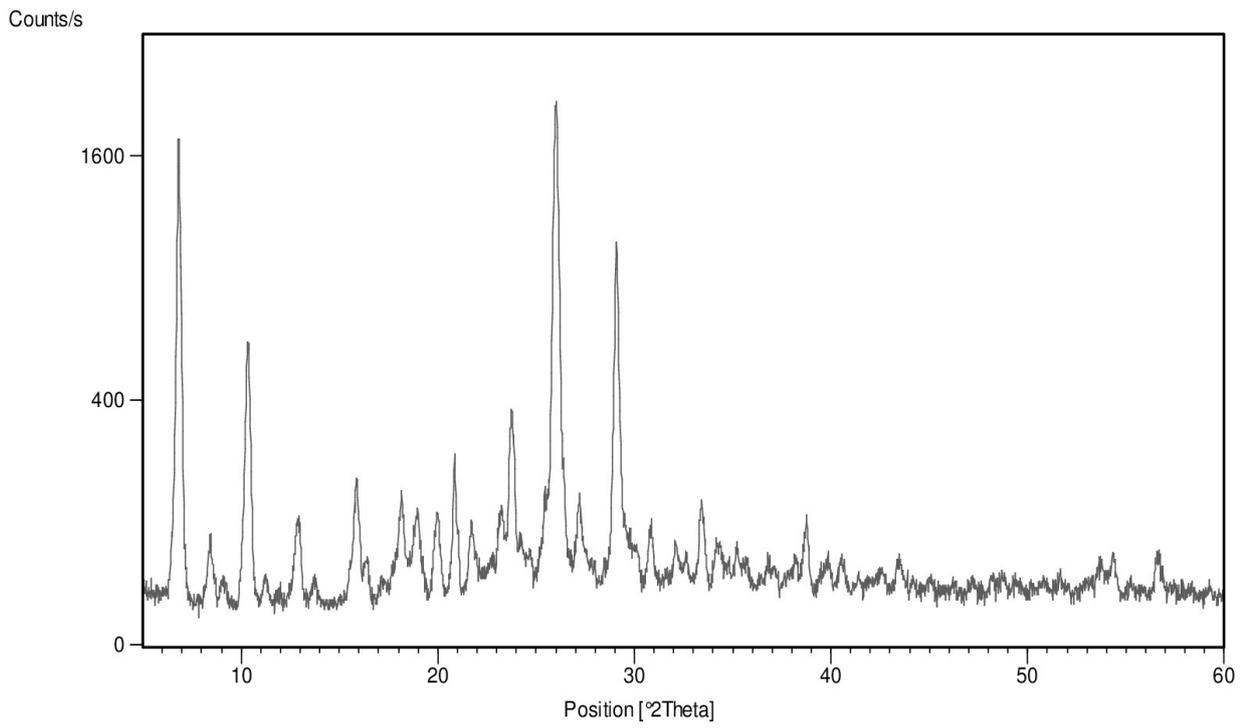


Fig. 4

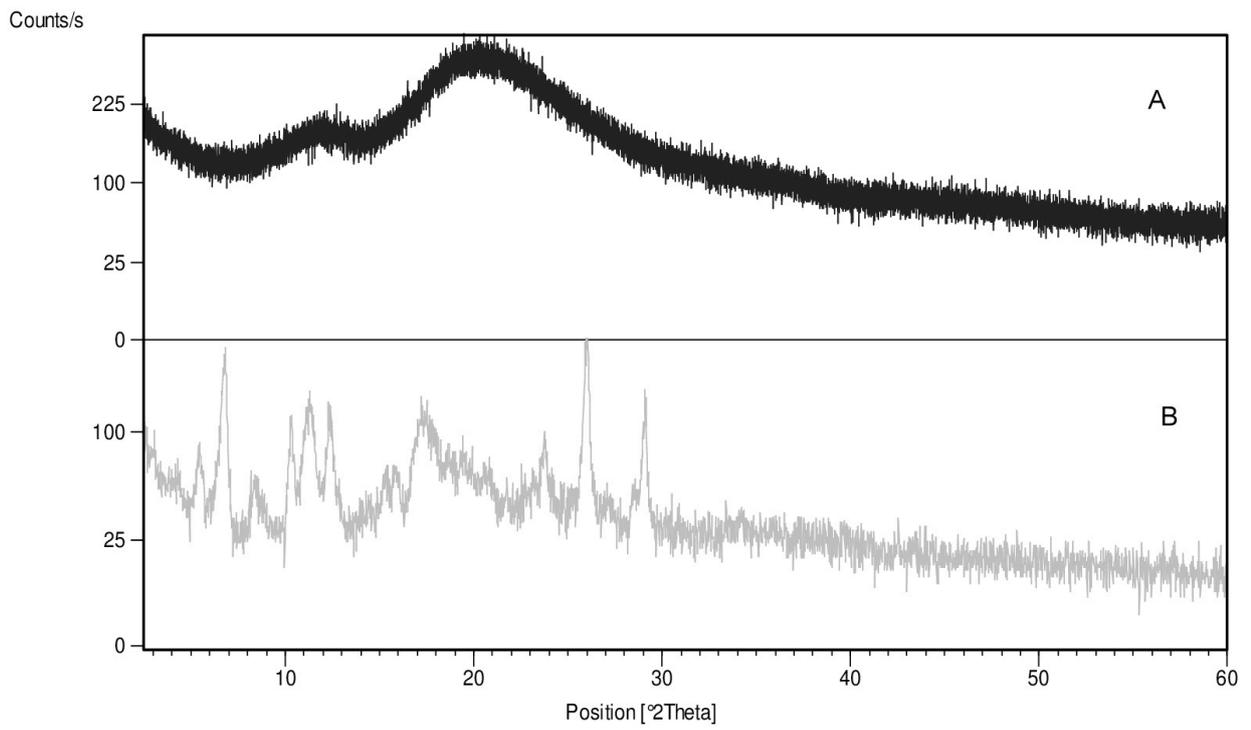


Fig 5

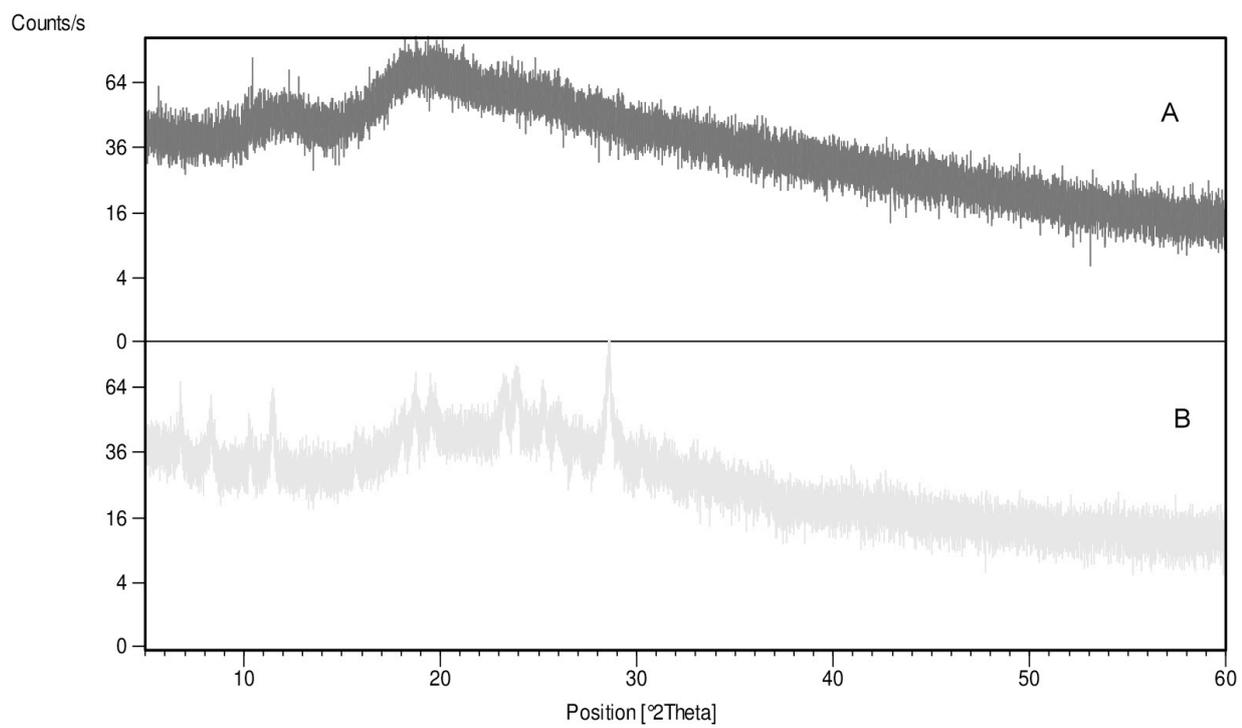


Fig.6

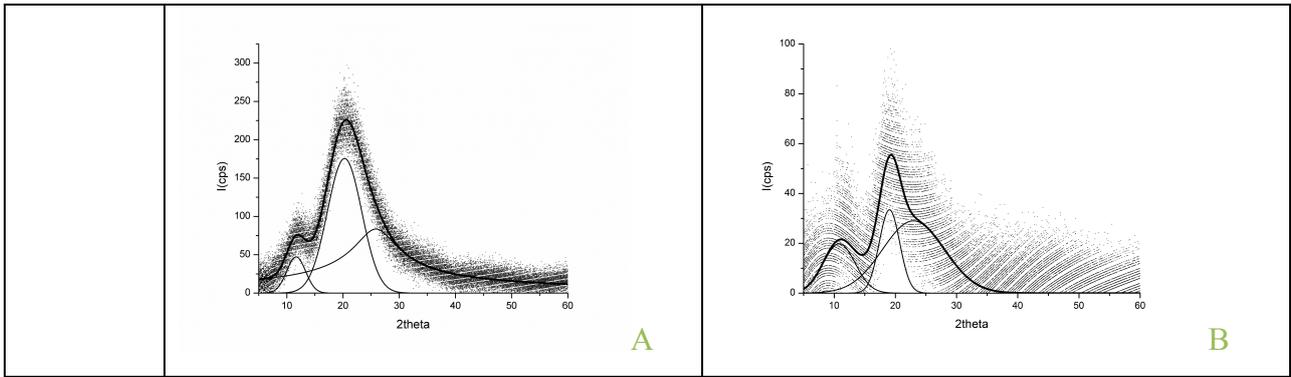


Fig 7

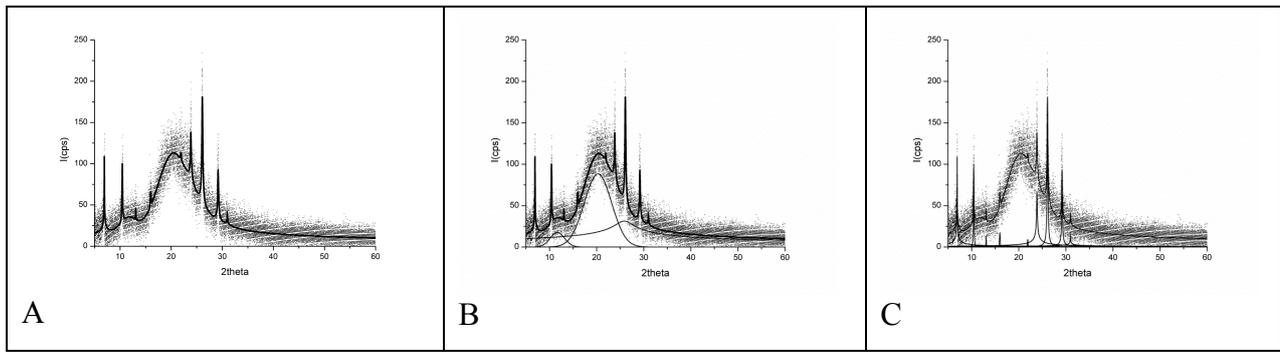


Fig.8

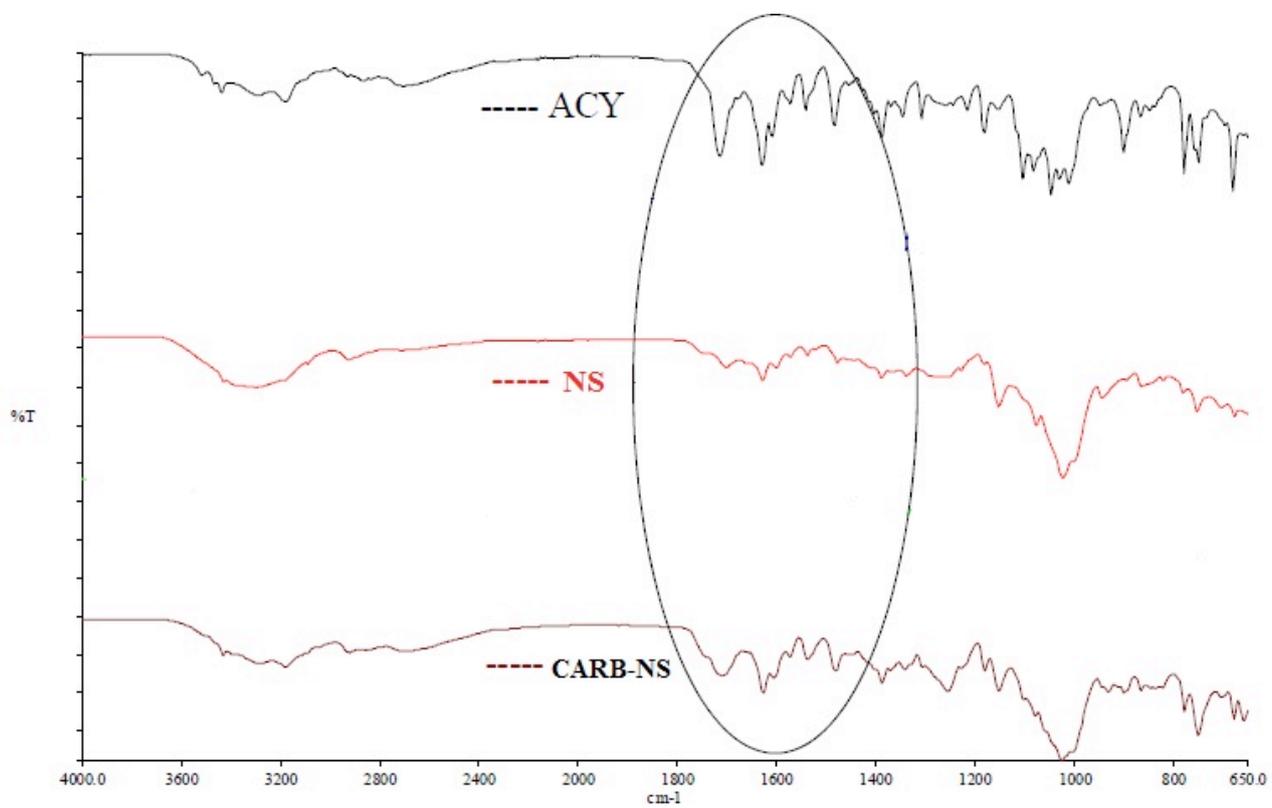


Fig. 9

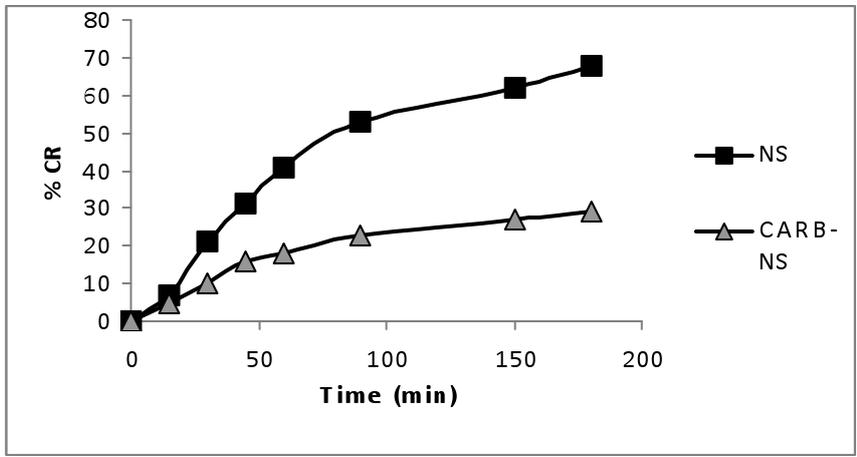


Fig.10

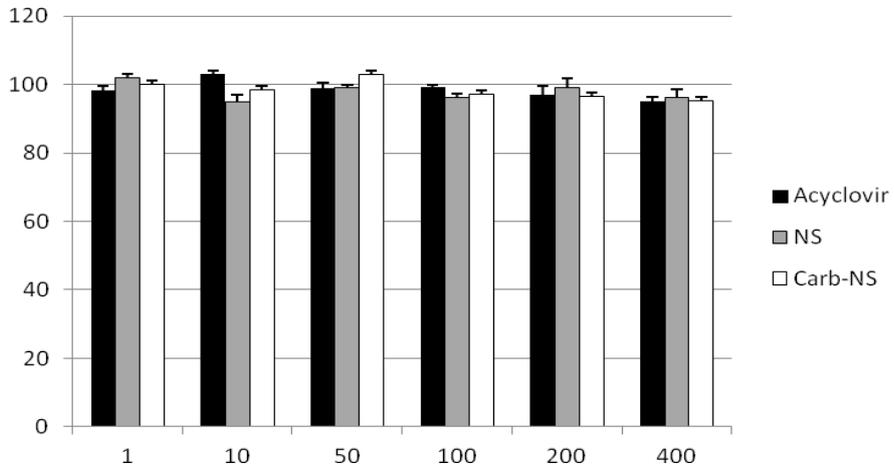


Fig 11

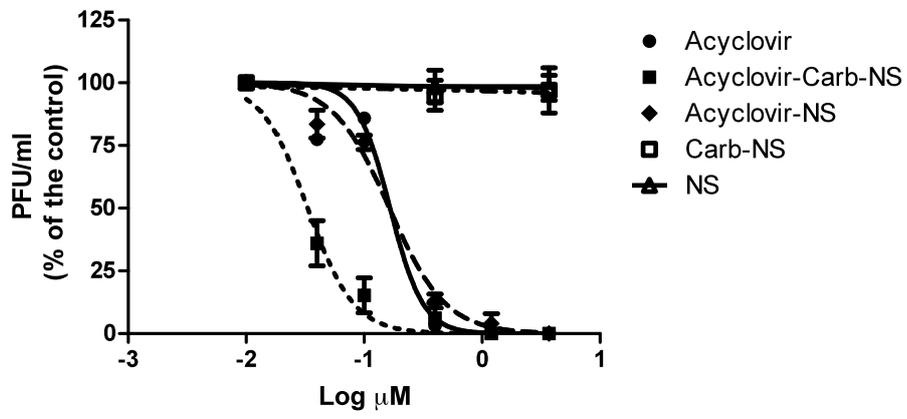


Fig. 12

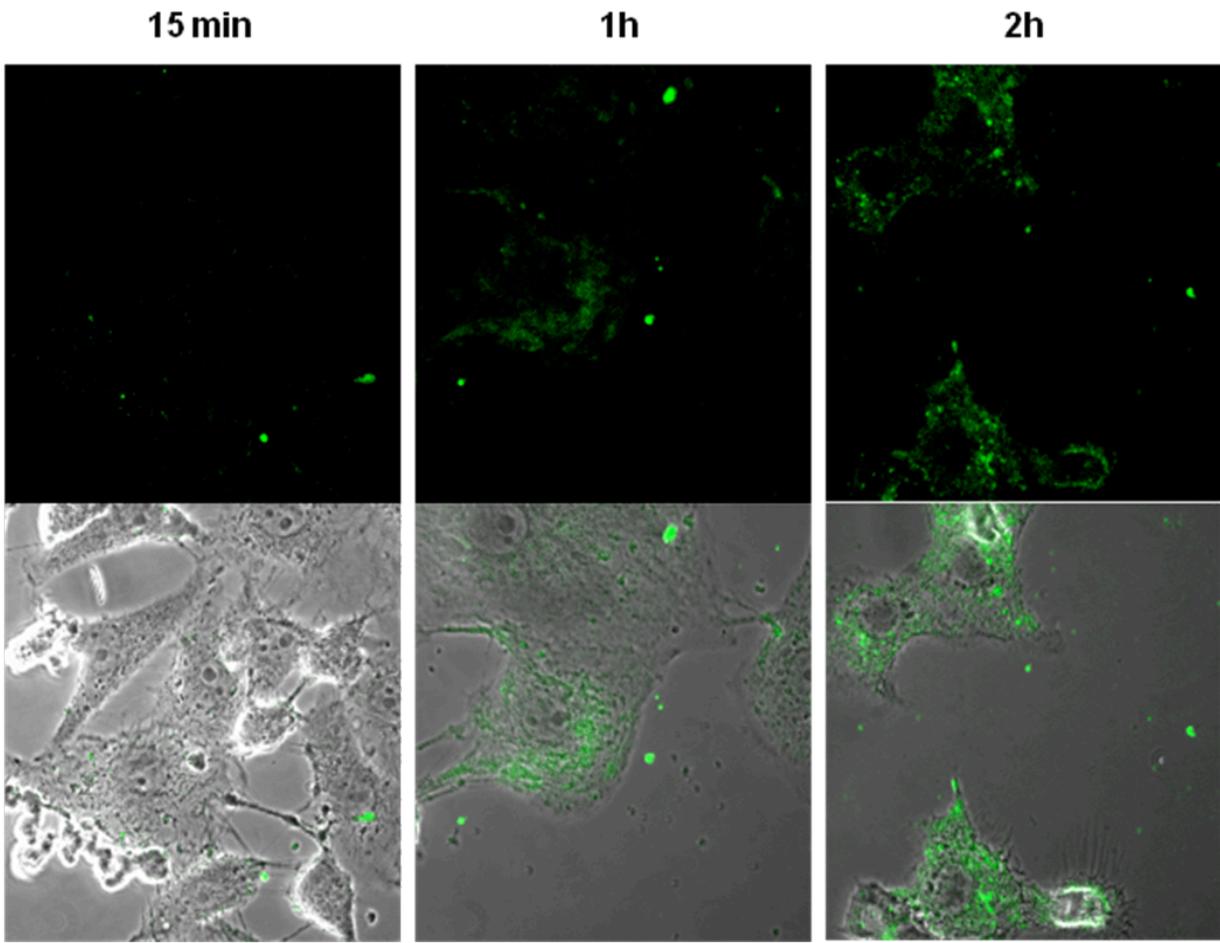


Fig. 13