

This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. This Accepted Manuscript will be replaced by the edited, formatted and paginated article as soon as this is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



www.rsc.org/advances

1				ļ
	1	0	$\sim$	)
1	ļ			
	ì	ļ		
		Ċ	2	)
		ł	h	١
	Ì		4	/
			2	
	(	Ē		
	ļ			
	(	5	9	
1				í
Ĩ	(			Ĵ
	l	Ì	1	1
	ì	1	1	1
1		1	1	ĺ
	Ì			2
	(	0	b	)
		ī	1	1
	ļ			/
		G	)	)
	į		ſ	1
				1
	,		è	
	(	Y	l	J
	(		b	)
	l	i	1	)
	ļ			/
	1	C		ĺ
	l	1	D	ł
	ì			/
	j	Ì	2	1
1				)
			í	1
	5		Ļ	i
	ř.			)
1	1	1		ĺ
				)
ĺ				l
1		ľ		

1 Preparation, characterization and bioavailability of oral puerarin nanoparticles by emulsion 2 solvent evaporation method Yin Zhang, Yong Li, Xiuhua Zhao<sup>\*</sup>, Yuangang Zu<sup>\*</sup>, Weiguo Wang, Weiwei Wu, Chen Zhong, Zhao 3 Li 4 5 (Key Laboratory of Forest Plant Ecology, Northeast Forestry University, Ministry of Education, 6 Harbin 150040, Heilongjiang, China) 7 Abstract: 8 To improve the water solubility and dissolution rate, puerarin (PUE) was nanocrystallized by an 9 emulsion solvent evaporation (ESE) method, followed by freeze-drying. The optimization conditions 10 of preparation process were obtained by single-factor method. Under the optimum conditions, PUE 11 nanoemulsion with mean particle size (MPS) of  $185.2 \pm 39.8$  nm and polydispersity index value (PI) 12 of 0.005 were prepared. PUE nanosuspension with an MPS of 67.9 nm (PI=0.280) was obtained after removing solvent by rotary evaporation. Puerarin nanoparticles (PUENs) with an MPS of 132.6 13 14 nm (PI=0.173) and zeta potential of  $23.60 \pm 2.55$  mV were successfully prepared via further 15 freeze-drying. PUENs were characterized by SEM, TEM, FTIR, XRD, DSC, TGA, equilibrium 16 solubility, dissolution rate, oral bioavailability, hemorheology, cytotoxicity and solvent residue 17 analysis. These results showed PUENs had a smaller particle size lower than raw PUE, and were 18 changed into amorphous structure from crystal structure of raw PUE. The solubility and dissolution

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Tel.: +86-451-82191517; fax: +86-451-82102082. *E-mail address*: xiuhuazhao@nefu.edu.cn (Xiuhua Zhao).

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Tel.: +86-451-82191517; fax: +86-451-82102082.

E-mail address: yuangangzu@163.com (Yuangang Zu)

19	rate of PUENs were significantly improved in simulated gastric fluid (SGF), simulated intestinal
20	fluid (SIF) and deionized water compared with raw PUE. The oral bioavailability of PUENs was
21	2.83 times of raw PUE. PUENs improved hemorheology and did not enhance the cytotoxicity on
22	normal cells. The residual amounts of ethyl acetate and ethanol were separately less than ICH limit
23	for class III solvents. According to the results above, PUENs show the potential application value on
24	its oral absorption.
25	
26	Keywords: Puerarin; Emulsion solvent evaporation; Nanoparticles; Oral formulation; Solubility;
27	Bioavailability
28	
29	
30	
31	
32	
33	
34	
35	
36	
37	
38	
39	
40	

# 41 1. Introduction

42	Puerarin, a major isoflavonoid derived from the Chinese medical herb Radix Puerariae (kudzu
43	root), has been documented to have numerous biological activities, such as antioxidant,
44	hepatoprotective, estrogenic effects (1, 2) and anticancer activity (3). It is precisely because of such
45	many beneficial physiological activities that it is widely prescribed for patients with diabetes
46	mellitus (4) and cardio-cerebrovascular diseases (5), including myocardial ischemia (6), angina
47	pectoris, arteriosclerosis (7), cerebral ischemia (8), and hypertension (9) in the world. However, PUE,
48	as a Class IV drug in Biopharmaceutics Classification System (BCS) (10, 11), encounters poor water
49	solubility and low oral bioavailability which strictly restrict clinical application. Pharmacokinetic
50	studies indicated that the oral bioavailability of PUE was very low (<3%) (11). Now PUE is
51	administrated mainly by vein injection in clinic. To solve the low water solubility issues, 1,
52	2-propanediol as a co-solvent was added into the current PUE injection formulation. Unfortunately,
53	1, 2-propanediol and its metabolites may be one of the sensitizing agents, leading to side effects,
54	such as pruritus, chest tightness and shortness of breath (11). Hence, increasing the water solubility
55	of PUE, enhancing the impact of its oral absorption, and improving its lower oral bioavailability are
56	issues that need to be addressed urgently.

57 Researchers have been increasingly paying attention to new solubilization technologies, such as 58 synthetic water-soluble prodrug, cyclodextrin inclusion (12), anionic polymerization (13), solid lipid 59 nanoparticle (14), microemulsions (15), phospholipid complex (16) to improve the efficacy of poorly 60 soluble drugs.

Nanoparticles preparation technique was first introduced into pharmaceutical field in the early
 time of 1990s, and quickly got researchers' attention from then on. So far, there are already several

commercial drug products based on drug nanoparticles technology, and more than twenty drug 64 products are in different clinical stages (17-19). With the development of nanotechnology, this technique has become an important aspect in pharmaceutical research. In 2012, Wang used 65 nanosuspension technique on PUE (20), but this work only focused on intravenous administration. 66 67 Tu and Yi prepared PUE nanocrystals and microcrystals by using the high pressure homogenization 68 method for oral administration in 2013 (11). But they only focused on pharmacokinetic studies of 69 different particle size micro- and nano-crystals, not preparation process of nanocrystals. 70 In this study, to our knowledge, puerarin nanoparticles (PUENs) were first prepared using 71 emulsion solvent evaporation (ESE) method, which has not been reported in literature up to now. 72 Single-factor method of six main parameters affecting the mean particle size (MPS) was used to 73 optimize the preparation of nanoparticles. The physico-chemical properties of PUENs powder 74 obtained were characterized by scan electronic microscope (SEM), Transmission electron 75 microscopy (TEM), Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), X-ray diffraction (XRD), 76 differential scanning calorimetry (DSC), thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA), dissolution test and 77 solvent residual determination. Cytotoxicity in vitro, oral bioavailability in vivo and hemorheology 78 as essential assessments were also performed.

#### 79 Material and methods 2.

#### 80 2.1. Materials

63

PUE (purity = 99.2%) was obtained from Shanxi Sciphar Hi-tech Industry Co., Ltd. (Shanxi, 81 82 PR China). Poloxamer 188 was obtained from Hubei Hong Qi Chemical Co., Ltd. (Hubei, PR China). 83 Ethanol, ethyl acetate and other organic reagents were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Co. LLC. (St.

84 Louis, MO, USA). Methanol and acetonitrile were all HPLC-grade.

## 85 2.2. Preparation of PUENs

PUENs were prepared by ESE method, and followed by freeze-drying. A flow chart of the 86 87 experimental processes to prepare PUENs was shown in Fig. 1. In the process, ethyl acetate 88 containing 30% (v/v) ethanol as co-emulsifier was the organic phase of emulsions. The following 89 detailed operation parameters were depended on single factor experiments. A certain amount of raw 90 PUE powder was completely dissolved in the organic phase with concentration of 20 mg/mL. The 91 obtained drug solution was slowly added dropwise to deionized water containing a certain 92 concentration of poloxamer 188, a high macromolecule non-ionic surfactant with average molecular 93 weight between 7,680 and 9,510, as surfactant under a vigorous stirring by using an FSH-II 94 Adjustable High-Speed Homogenizer Stirrer (Jiangsu Zhengji Instruments Co., Ltd., Jintan City, PR 95 China) at room temperature. Then, the obtained primary emulsions was homogenized in a high 96 pressure nano homogenizer (AH-100D, ATS Engineering Inc., Vancouver, Canada), generating the 97 nanoemulsions. The organic phase was removed by rotary evaporation using a rotary evaporator 98 (R205, Shanghai Shensheng Biotech Co., Ltd., Shanghai, PR China) at an evaporation temperature 99 of 40 °C. The remaining nanosuspension was freeze-dried at -50 °C for 48 h. The resulting was the 100 desired PUENs.

101 2.3. Optimization of the ESE process

In this study, a single-factor method was used to determine the optimal conditions of PUE
 nanoemulsions by ESE process. Through the preliminary experiment, six main variables were picked
 out, included volume ratio of water to organic phase, the concentration of surfactants, speed and

duration of homogenate as well as homogenization pressure and cycles at certain pressures. The
volume ratios of water to organic phase tested ranged from 2:1 to 5:1. The range of poloxamer 188
concentration tested was from 1 to 4 mg/mL (1‰ - 4‰). The homogenate speeds tested ranged from
4,500 to 10,500 rpm, and the duration of each time ranged from 1 to 7 min. The homogenization
pressures were from 100 to 700 bar. And the homogenization cycles ranged from 2 to 14. All specific
parameters and results are shown in Table 1. The optimum condition for every factor was determined
based on the smallest MPS.

#### 112 2.4. Characterization of PUENs

#### 113 2.4.1. Morphology

114 The states of the emulsified system after homogenate and high-pressure homogenization were 115 respectively observed by optical microscope (Olympus Corporation, BH-2, Tokyo, Japan). Before 116 and after the freeze-drying, the morphology of the PUENs dispersed in deionized water were 117 evaluated as well (3). Furthermore, the surface morphology of raw PUE and PUENs powder was 118 ascertained by SEM (S4800, Hitachi, Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). The suitable amount of powders was fixed 119 on the surface of the aluminum stub by using the carbon tape, respectively. Before analysis, the 120 samples were sputter coated with gold under an argon atmosphere. TEM (H-7650, Hitachi, Ltd., 121 Tokyo, Japan) was used to detect the morphology of PUENs. Samples were mounted on a microgrid 122 carbon polymer supported on a copper grid by placing a few droplets of PUENs aqueous dispersions 123 on the grid, followed by drying under ambient conditions, all in an Ar glovebox. The samples were 124 transferred to the microscope in a special vacuum-transfer sample holder under exclusion of air.

# 125 2.4.2. Mean particle size and zeta potential analysis

126	The MPS and zeta potential of the obtained emulsions and nanoparticles were analyzed by
127	dynamic light scattering (DLS) equipment (ZetaPALS, Brookhaven Instruments, Long Island, NY,
128	USA). The samples of PUE primary or nano-emulsions obtained were analyzed directly. The
129	samples of PUENs powder were prepared by dispersing in deionized water under an ultrasonic bath.
130	Each experimental preparation was executed in triplicate, and data were obtained from the average
131	of three measurements.

#### 132 2.4.3. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)

133	The surface chemical character of poloxamer 188, raw PUE, PUENs, physical mixture of raw
134	PUE and poloxamer 188 at the same mass ratio as PUENs (MIX-PUE) were detected through FTIR
135	by use of IRAffinity-1 spectroscope (Shimadzu Corporation, Tokyo, Japan). The samples were
136	diluted with KBr mixing powder at 1% and pressed to self-supporting discs respectively. The FTIR
137	spectra were obtained in KBr discs. The analytical range of the spectra at room temperature was
138	from 4000 to 400 $\text{cm}^{-1}$ at the resolution of 2 $\text{cm}^{-1}$ .

139 2.4.4. X-ray diffraction studies (XRD)

The XRD patterns were used to confirm the crystal forms of poloxamer 188, raw PUE, PUENs and MIX-PUE, which were recorded by use of a Cu target tube at 30 mA and 40 kV with an X-ray diffractometer (Philips, X'pert-Pro, Amsterdam, The Netherlands) with a rotating anode. The scanning rate (5 °/min) was constant for all XRD analysis. The scanning ranged from 5 ° to 60 ° with a step size of 0.02 °.

## 145 2.4.5. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)

DSC (TA instruments, DSC 204, Woodland, CA, USA) was conducted for poloxamer 188, raw
 PUE, PUENs and MIX-PUE. Five milligrams of the sample was weighed into the sample pool to be
 scanned from 45 to 300 °C at a rate of 10 °C/min under N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere.

#### 149 2.4.6. Thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA)

TGA of poloxamer 188, raw PUE, PUENs and MIX-PUE were performed by a Thermo-gravimetrical Analyzer (Diamond TG/DTA from Perkin–Elmer, Waltham, MA, USA) at a heating rate of 10 °C/min using a nitrogen purge. The heating temperature of samples weighing 3-5 mg ranged from 50 to 500 °C.

## 154 2.4.7. Residual solvent determination

155 The residual ethyl acetate and ethanol in the PUENs were analyzed using an Agilent 7890A gas 156 chromatograph (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA) with DB-WAX polyethylene glycol 157 capillary column (30.0 m×250 μm×0.25 μm, nominal) equipped with a G1540N-210 FID detector. 158 PUENs (50 mg) were dissolved in 0.6 mL of chloroform in an ultrasonic bath for 30 min, followed by centrifuging at 10000 g for 5 min. Peaks areas were used for obtaining quantitative data. The 159 160 conditions of GC analysis of chromatograph were as follows: oven temperature was maintained at 40 °C for 5 min initially, and then raised at the rate of 10 °C/min to 200 °C, which was maintained 161 162 for 3 min at last. The injector and the detector temperatures were set 200 °C and 250 °C, respectively. 163 Nitrogen was used as carrier gas at a flow rate of 25 mL/min, and 2 µL samples were injected 164 manually in the split mode with a split ratio 25:1. Hydrogen gas and air flow rate were 30 and 400

165 mL/min.

184

2.4.9. Dissolution rate study

166 2.4.8. Equilibrium solubility study

167	In this test, raw PUE and PUENs were compared qualitatively by the USP apparatus (II) paddle
168	method. Simulated gastric fluid (SGF) without enzymes was made by mixture of 5 mL 37%
169	hydrochloric acid and 1000 mL deionized water (21), simulated intestinal fluid (SIF) without
170	enzymes was composed of 6.8 g/L $KH_2PO_4$ (22, 23), adjusted to pH 6.8 with NaOH and deionized
171	water, which were used as the dissolution medium. The paddle speed and bath temperature were set
172	at 100 rpm and 37.0 $\pm$ 0.5 °C, respectively. Raw PUE (100 mg), PUENs (containing 100 mg PUE)
173	and MIX-PUE (containing 100 mg PUE) were added to 5 mL of each dissolution medium for 48 h,
174	respectively. In the pre-experiments, the nanoparticles completely dissolved in all dissolution
175	mediums after 24 h. In the formal experiments, we made it 48 h for sure. After 48 h, samples (1 mL)
176	were withdrawn and centrifuged at 12,000 g for 10 min. Then 10 $\mu L$ of the supernatant was directly
177	injected into the HPLC system and assayed for PUE concentration. The analysis condition is as
178	follows: The drug concentration was determined by a Waters HPLC (Waters Corporation, Milford,
179	MA, USA) consisting of a pump (Waters 1525 binary) and UV detector (Waters 2478 Tunable
180	Absorbance Detector), which was equipped with the DIKMA Diamonsil $C_{18}$ column (5 $\mu$ m, 4.6 mm
181	$\times$ 150 mm). The integrator system is Breeze 2. The mobile phase, consisted of 30% acetonitrile, 70%
182	deionized water, was delivered at 0.8 mL/min. The samples were detected at 250 nm. The
183	experiment was conducted in triplicate.

185 The dissolution study of raw PUE, PUENs and MIX-PUE was performed by dialysis method.

**RSC Advances Accepted Manuscript** 

186	The paddle speed was set at 100 rpm at bath temperature of $37.0 \pm 0.5$ °C. SGF and SIF without
187	enzymes were used as the dissolution medium. Raw PUE (195.1 mg in SGF; 438.8 mg in SIF),
188	PUENs and MIX-PUE (both containing the same mass of PUE) were respectively loaded in two
189	same dialysis bags with 5 mL dissolution medium, which were immersed in 250 mL dissolution
190	medium. Samples (5 mL) in dissolution medium were withdrawn at 5, 15, 30, 60, 120, 240, 360, 480,
191	600, 720 and 1,440 min, and filtered by 0.22 $\mu$ m filters. After each sampling the same volume of
192	dissolution medium was supplemented immediately. The filtrate samples were directly injected into
193	the HPLC system and then the PUE concentration was assayed. The analysis conditions were the
194	same as described in last section. The experiment was repeated three times.

# 195 2.4.10. Stability study of PUENs

The stability study of PUENs was detected to analysis crystalline state by performing XRD. The sample was stored in a dryer at room temperature for 12 months. Three samples were sampled at 0 day, 180 days, and 365 days to analyze, respectively. The analysis conditions were the same as described in Section 2.4.4.

# 200 2.5. In vitro cytotoxicity test

#### 201 2.5.1. Cell culture

The IEC-6 cells (ATCC<sup>®</sup> CRL-1592<sup>TM</sup>, rat intestinal crypt epithelial cell line) were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA, USA). PUENs as an oral dosage form are mostly absorbed in the small intestine; therefore, the IEC-6 cells were chosen as an *in vitro* model system to study the cytotoxicity of PUENs. The cells were cultured in DMEM containing 4 206

# **RSC** Advances

mM L-glutamine and 4.5 g/L glucose and supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (CLARK

207	Bioscience LLC., Houston, TX, USA) in a humidified incubator at 37 °C under a 5% CO <sub>2</sub>
208	atmosphere, and the medium was replaced with fresh medium every 2 days.
209	2.5.2. MTT assay
210	In vitro cytotoxicity test was performed by using MTT assay to assess the cell viability of IEC-6
211	cells. The exponential growth-phase IEC-6 cells were seeded into 96-well plates at $1 \times 10^4$ cells/well
212	(200 $\mu L)$ and cultured in a 5% CO_2 incubator at 37 °C for 24 hours. The samples containing PUENs
213	and raw PUE were added into wells at different concentrations (0.1, 1, 10, and 100 $\mu$ g/mL),
214	respectively. Each concentration was repeated six times. After the incubation for 48 h, 10 $\mu$ L of MTT
215	solution (5 mg/mL) was added to each well and the reaction mixture was incubated for another 4 h.
216	The supernatant was discarded and 150 µL DMSO was added into each well. The 96-well plates
217	were put on a horizontal oscillator to increase the solvation of formazan crystals. The optical density
218	(OD) values were determined by a microplate reader (SpectraMax i3x, Molecular Devices, LLC.,
219	Sunnyvale, CA, USA) at the wavelength of 570 nm. The cell viability was expressed as the percent

- of the control group.
- 221 2.6. Oral bioavailability study
- 222 2.6.1. Animals and treatment

223 Sprague–Dawley female rats were provided by Harbin Medical University (Harbin, 224 Heilongjiang, PR China). 12 female Sprague-Dawley rats, weighing 200-250 g were used in this 225 study. Rats were randomly divided into two groups, each with six animals. Animals were housed

under standard conditions of temperature, humidity, and light with food and water provided freely and allowed to acclimatize in the laboratory for at least 1 week prior to the experiment. Before administration, the animals were fasted overnight with free access of water. The animal use and care protocol was reviewed and approved by the ethics committee of the Harbin Medical University, including the subsequent experiments on rats.

Raw PUE was dispersed into 1% (w/v) HPMC-water solution and PUENs was dispersed in deionized water evenly. For the oral bioavailability study, two groups of male rats (n=6) were administered with an oral dose (100 mg/kg PUE by gavage). Blood samples by puncture of the orbital venous sinus were collected into heparinized tubes before and at 5, 15, 30, 60, 120, 240, 360, 480, 600, 720 and 1,440 min after oral administration according to Tu's research (11). The samples were immediately centrifuged at 3,000 g for 10 min and aliquots of plasma were stored at -20 °C until additional extraction and analysis.

#### 238 2.6.2. Preparation of plasma sample

The treatment of frozen samples after being thawed at room temperature were referred to Tu's research (11) and as follows: each 200  $\mu$ L plasma sample was combined with 400  $\mu$ L methanol and vortexed for 3 min. Followed by ultrasonic treatment for 10 min and being centrifuged at 12,000 g for 10 min, 10  $\mu$ L of the supernatant was injected for HPLC analysis. The analysis conditions were the same as described in Section 2.4.8. The oral bioavailabilities of samples are represented by the area under the plasma concentration–time curve (*AUC*).

#### 245 2.7. Hemorheology study

246 Thirty male Sprague–Dawley rats with weight of  $200 \pm 20$  g were divided into 3 groups

247	randomly, control group, raw PUE group and PUENs group (n=10). All the groups were
248	administrated by oral dose for 30 days (100 mg/kg PUE, once a day) except the control group was
249	administrated with deionized water at the same volume of experimental groups. All rats had common
250	feedstuff and drank water freely, and weighted once a week. One hour after the final dose, 5 mL
251	blood of each rat was taken from heart by using a heparin anticoagulant vacuum blood collection
252	tube. The whole blood viscosity and whole blood reduced viscosity under high, middle and low
253	shear force, plasma viscosity, hematocrit, erythrocyte aggregation index, erythrocyte rigidity index,
254	erythrocyte deformation index and erythrocyte electrophoresis index were detected by automatic
255	hemorheology meter (LBY-N6K, Beijing Precil Instrument Co., Ltd., Beijing, PR China).

# 256 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 257 3.1. Optimization study

Particle size of water-insoluble drug powder plays a key role in the improvement of solubility (24). So particle size was chosen as response value in the optimization process. During preliminary experiments, we determined that the following factors had a significant effect on the MPS of PUE emulsions: volume ratio of water to organic phase; the concentration of surfactants; homogenate speed and time as well as homogenization pressure and cycles. The effects of above factors on the MPS were determined using a single-factor array (as seen in Table. 1).

#### 264 3.1.1. Ratio of water to organic phase

The first factor was volume ratio of water to organic phase. The ratios were examined to be within the range of 2:1 to 5:1. From Fig. 2 (a), it can be clearly seen that with the increasing volume

267 ratio of water to organic phase, the MPS of PUE emulsions fluctuated between  $207.5 \pm 76.8$  and 268  $469.0 \pm 34.4$  nm. This is caused by the influence of phase volume ratio on the emulsions droplet size. Finally, 2.5:1 was selected as the optimal proportion of water to organic phase to form a stable 269 270 emulsions system and be used in subsequent tests.

271 Surfactants concentration 3.1.2.

272 Based on the assessment of emulsification effect and freeze-dried state in preliminary 273 experiment, poloxamer 188 (25) was selected among several surfactants. Poloxamer 188 is generally regarded as nontoxic and nonirritant materials, and it is not metabolized in the body. According to 274 the available data about acute animal toxicity, its  $LD_{50}$  (rat, oral) is 9.4 g/kg. The concentration of 275 276 poloxamer 188 (26) in water phase was the second factor to be considered. Fig. 2 (b) showed the 277 effects of the concentration of surfactant on MPS. When the amount of poloxamer 188 increased from 1 to 4 mg/mL, the MPS of PUE emulsions decreased firstly and increased subsequently. The 278 279 MPS of PUE emulsions decreased obviously from  $363.6 \pm 77.6$  to  $236.9 \pm 11.9$  nm as the 280 concentration of poloxamer188 ranged from 1 to 1.5 mg/mL, then increased to about 400 nm with 281 increasing concentration of poloxamer 188. A certain concentration of surfactant in the water phase 282 is beneficial to reduce the interfacial tension, stabilizing formed emulsions and hindering particles aggregation, as a result of decreasing of particle size. However, when the concentration of surfactant 283 was increased to a certain degree, the viscosity of water phase increased, making particles difficult to 284 285 disperse, accompanied by the increase of particle size. Therefore, the optimum concentration of 286 poloxamer 188 was selected to be 1.5 mg/mL.

#### 287 3.1.3. Homogenate speeds and time

288 From the Fig. 2 (c), the MPS of PUE emulsions decreased from  $280.4 \pm 53.9$  to  $174.7 \pm 49.9$ 289 nm with the increasing of homogenate speeds from 4,500 rpm to 6,500 rpm, followed by a significant increase of MPS when the homogenate speeds up to 7,500 rpm until 10,500 rpm. When 290 291 the homogenate speed was under 6,500 rpm, the intensity of mass transfer between two phases was 292 too small to adequately mix up water phase and oil phase, without realizing emulsifying effect. 293 Nevertheless, excessive homogenate speed damaged the stability of emulsions to bring about the 294 increase of particle size. Therefore, the optimum homogenate speed was selected to be 6,500 rpm. 295 The effect of homogenate time was shown in the Fig. 2 (d). The MPS of PUE emulsions 296 decreased significantly from  $552.9 \pm 100.9$  to  $389.3 \pm 42.0$  nm with the increasing of homogenate 297 time from 1 to 3 min, followed by a steady increase of MPS to  $622.4 \pm 92.1$  nm with the homogenate 298 time prolonging to 7 min. It was determined that it was not useful to homogenize at 6,500 rpm for a 299 long period. Further, a longer homogenizing time may break the stability of the droplets, resulting in

a larger particle size (27). Therefore, the optimum homogenate time was determined to be 3 min.

#### 301 3.1.4. Homogenization pressure and cycles

Homogenization can ensure a smaller particle size (28) and a more uniform droplet (29). A sample was prepared under the optimal conditions just described to study the impact of homogenization pressure and cycles on MPS. First, we tested homogenization pressures in the range of 100-700 bar as it was shown in Fig. 2 (e). The MPS of PUE emulsions decreased from 289.5  $\pm$ 24.0 to 148.4  $\pm$  27.1 nm when the homogenization pressure increased from 100 to 500 bar with a small fluctuation at 400 bar. Then the MPS became larger when the homogenization pressure

308	increased over 500 bar. The increase of homogenization pressure contributed to prevent the
309	agglomeration of emulsions droplets to form small particle size. However, homogenization pressure
310	was increased to a certain degree and demulsification would follow. Thus, 500 bar was selected as
311	the optimal homogenization pressure.
312	Homogenization cycles as the final optimize parameter were tested between 2 and 14 as it was
313	shown in Fig. 2 (f). At first the MPS of PUE emulsions decreased from $458.7 \pm 85.9$ to $185.2 \pm 39.8$
314	nm with homogenization cycles were increased from 2 to 8, although there was a fluctuation at 4
315	cycles. When homogenization cycles exceeded 8, the MPS of PUE emulsions increased. The
316	increase of homogenization cycles prolonged the emulsification time at high pressure, which
317	benefited the formation of small and uniform nanoemulsions droplets. Meanwhile, small and
318	uniform nanoemulsions droplets had large surface area. The limited poloxamer 188 could not be
319	effectively adsorbed to the particle surfaces, thereby reducing the emulsification, aggregating the
320	droplets, increasing the particle size and causing instability. Ultimately, we chose 8 cycles as the
321	optimal number of homogenization cycles.
322	Data were statistically evaluated by using variation coefficient method. By comparing the
323	coefficient of variation (CV) (as shown in Table. 1), the grades of influence by six parameters were
324	as followed (from big to small): homogenization cycles (50.4%), homogenate time (42.6%),

and concentration of poloxamer 188 (18.4%).

# 327 3.1.5. Validation of the optimal conditions

325

328

According to the results of single-factor experiments above, the optimal conditions were as

homogenate speeds (32.1%), homogenization pressure (29.2%), ratios of water to oil phase (27.5%)

329 followed: 2.5:1 of volume ratio of water to organic phase, 1.5 mg/mL of poloxamer 188, 6,500 rpm 330 of homogenate speed for 3 min and a homogenization pressure of 500 bar for 8 cycles. PUE 331 nanoemulsions with MPS of  $185.2 \pm 39.8$  nm (PI=0.005) were prepared under these conditions. PUE nanosuspension with an MPS of 67.9 nm (PI=0.280) was obtained after the solvent was removed by 332 rotary evaporation. The reason why the MPS decreased should be that the drug was reconstructed to 333 334 form nanoparticles with smaller particle size and no agglomeration during the removal process of oil 335 phase using rotary evaporation. Followed by freeze-drying, PUENs with an MPS of 132.6 nm 336 (PI=0.173) and zeta potential of  $23.60 \pm 2.55$  mV were successfully prepared. The subsequent characteristics of the optimum sample were all obtained under these conditions. 337

## 338 3.2. Characterization of PUENs

#### 339 3.2.1. Morphology, particle size and zeta potential

340 The morphology of the samples was shown in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4. The raw PUE appeared as 341 irregular blocks, with particle size ranging from 1 to 200 µm in Fig. 3 (a). Fig. 3 (b) showed that 342 PUENs presented a uniform nearly ellipsoid shape and were connected together, which was due to 343 the polymer structure of poloxamer 188. PUENs had smaller particle size ranging from 50 to 100 nm. The normal distribution curves of fresh nanosuspension and freeze-dried PUENs under optimum 344 345 condition were shown in Fig. 3  $(c_1, d_1)$ . Before and after the freeze-drying, spherical particles with a 346 similar particle size distribution were observed by the light microscopy in Fig. 3 ( $c_2$ ,  $d_2$ ). The MPS of 347 fresh nanosuspension and freeze-dried PUENs were 67.9 nm and 132.6 nm, respectively. The 348 increasing of MPS could be attributed to the agglomeration of particles during freeze-drying process. 349 As seen in Fig. 4, the TEM image shows PUENs were found nearly ellipsoidal in shape with an MPS

350	about 100 nm. This evidence was consistent with the result of the SEM image shown in Fig. 3 (b). In
351	contrast, the MPS of PUE nanocrytals prepared using high pressure homogenization method by
352	Liangxing Tu was 525.8 nm (11). In Tu's study, they just used PUE suspension with HPMC as a
353	suspending agent to prepare PUE nanocrystals. Moreover, the preparation processes of PUE
354	nanocrystals were not optimized. They paid close attention to pharmacokinetic studies of different
355	particle size micro- and nano-crystals rather than the preparation process of nanocrystals. The zeta
356	potential of PUENs was $23.60 \pm 2.55$ mV. It was generally believed that absolute zeta potential value
357	of 20 mV was sufficient to maintain stable nanosuspension (30).

358 3.2.2. Surface chemical character

The molecular structures of raw PUE and PUENs were examined in the range of 400-4000 cm<sup>-1</sup> with the FTIR. As seen from Fig. 5 (a) and Fig. 5 (c), raw PUE and MIX-PUE showed the same FTIR spectrum. However, some differences have been found in spectra curves of the raw PUE (Fig. 5a) and the PUENs (Fig. 5b). PUENs presented two remarkable absorption peaks at 3367 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 2886 cm<sup>-1</sup> due to poloxamer 188. This indicated poloxamer 188 as a surfactant could prevent the agglomeration of PUENs.

# 365 3.2.3. Physical structure characterization

X-ray diffraction was performed to further investigate the crystalline structure of particles. The corresponding results for poloxamer 188, raw PUE, PUENs and MIX-PUE were shown in Fig. 6A. As seen from Fig. 6A (b, d), PUE and poloxamer 188 were highly crystallized and showed intense crystalline peaks. Fig. 6A (c) showed the MIX-PUE had both crystalline peaks of PUE and poloxamer 188 with intensity changes. However, the PUENs did not present obvious peak in Fig. 6A

(a), which indicated that the vast majority of PUENs was present in the desired amorphous state
accompanied by little crystal form.

373	The DSC analysis was used to further confirm the result of XRD. The results were shown in Fig.
374	7. The peak at 54 °C is the melting point of poloxamer 188 crystals as it was shown in Fig. 7 (d). In
375	Fig. 7 (b), the curve of raw PUE showed three endothermic peaks, a peak at 106 °C and two peaks at
376	213 °C. The first peak could be attributed to its water loss and the other peak was closer to the
377	melting point of PUE crystal. There was no difference between Fig. 7 (b) and Fig. 7 (c). In Fig. 7 (a),
378	the peak at 247 °C is in accord with the melting point of a different crystal form of PUE (31). It is
379	speculated that there was a different crystal form of PUE transformed in the heating process of DSC,
380	since PUE has the property of polymorphism. Polymorphism is very common in drugs and different
381	crystals of the same drug compound can lead to marked differences in appearance, solubility,
382	melting point, density, dissolution, etc., which accordingly will affect its stability and bioavailability
383	(31). There also is another possibility that a change of mesoform existed in this heating process.
384	Furthermore, poloxamer 188 showed an endothermic peak at about 54 °C, while the peak
385	disappeared in the thermogram of PUENs, which might be due to drug interfering in the heat flow.
386	This evidence confirmed that PUENs was mainly present in amorphous structure, which was in
387	accordance with the XRD results. In many studies, it has been reported that low crystalline form
388	could enhance dissolution and bioavailability (32).

The TGA curves of raw PUE and PUENs were shown in Fig. 8. The raw PUE showed obvious thermal weight losses since 207 °C in Fig. 8 (b). However, the PUENs began to lose weight since 230 °C in Fig.8 (a), which was in accordance with the DSC results. Before 300 °C there was no significant difference of descent rate between raw PUE and PUENs, but after 300 °C PUENs lost

393 much more weight than raw PUE. This may be due to the fact that the smaller PUENs have a higher 394 specific surface than raw PUE, which leads to easier vaporization and a faster thermal 395 decomposition rate. Generally speaking, the overall trend of PUENs is almost consistent with the 396 raw PUE.

397 3.2.4. Solvent residue analysis

The problem of solvent residues is also under consideration in pharmaceutical products. Fig. 9 398 399 showed the results of ethyl acetate and ethanol residue using the GC method. From the chromatograms of ethyl acetate and ethanol standard solutions, a regression equations between peak 400 area  $(y_1)$  and ethyl acetate concentration  $(x_1)$  can be fitted as  $y_1=30205.5217x_1-30.3243$ , (R=0.9999); 401 402 a regression equations between peak area  $(y_2)$  and ethanol concentration  $(x_2)$  can be fitted as 403  $y_2=34001.4502x_2+16.4365$ , ( $R^2=0.9992$ ). The linear range of solvents was 0.003125-0.2 mg/mL. According to the regression equation, the residual ethyl acetate and ethanol content in PUENs were 404 405 9.3 ppm and 8.0 ppm, respectively. Since the International Conference on Harmonization (ICH) limit 406 for ethyl acetate and ethanol in class III solvents is 5000 ppm or 0.5%, the PUENs met ICH 407 requirements and are suitable for pharmaceutical use.

408 3.2.5. Equilibrium solubility

The equilibrium solubility of raw PUE, PUENs and MIX-PUE was shown in Fig. 10. The terminal solubility of raw PUE, PUENs and MIX-PUE were  $2.18 \pm 0.21$ ,  $3.90 \pm 0.37$  and  $3.75 \pm 0.27$ mg/mL in SGF;  $3.90 \pm 0.28$ ,  $8.78 \pm 0.61$  and  $6.38 \pm 0.26$  mg/mL in SIF;  $1.72 \pm 0.19$ ,  $7.05 \pm 0.48$  and  $4.95 \pm 0.20$  mg/mL in deionized water, respectively. The equilibrium solubility of PUENs was increased 1.79 times in SGF, 2.25 times in SIF and 4.10 times in deionized water of raw PUE. The

414	equilibrium solubility of MIX-PUE in such three medium showed advantages compared with raw
415	PUE. Meanwhile, PUENs were superior to MIX-PUE in equilibrium solubility. The results indicated
416	poloxamer 188 enhanced the solubility of MIX-PUE to some extent, and high solubility of PUENs
417	was primarily ascribed to the reduction of particle size and amorphous structure of PUE. Moreover,
418	the nanoscale of PUE in PUENs played a more important role in improving the solubility.

#### 419 *3.2.6. Dissolution rate*

420 The dissolution profiles of raw PUE, PUENs and MIX-PUE in two different dissolution medium were shown in Fig. 11 and Fig. 12. In SGF the three samples all presented the fastest release 421 rate at different levels in the time interval of the initial 6 h, followed by gradual and sustained release 422 423 until 24 h, as shown in Fig. 11. The dissolution percentages of raw PUE, MIX-PUE and PUENs 424 almost achieved  $55.29 \pm 4.65\%$ ,  $57.79 \pm 3.75\%$  and  $92.94 \pm 5.95\%$  at 12 h., respectively. As for Fig. 425 12, all three samples exhibited similar dissolution characteristics up to 2 h in SIF. The dissolution 426 rate of PUENs was obviously faster than raw PUE and MIX-PUE until 12 h. Moreover, the 427 dissolution percentage of PUENs at 12 h almost achieved up to 100% which was nearly twice of raw 428 PUE and. In conclusion, the dissolution rate of PUENs was the fastest, followed by MIX-PUE and 429 raw PUE. The dissolution characteristic of PUENs was in accordance with the Higuchi equation of  $y=-12.2022e^{(-x/0.1884)}-89.5908e^{(-x/5.4301)}+101.2122$ , ( $R^2=0.9941$ ) in SGF and y=101.61335/(1+430 58.0271 $e^{(-0.64029x)}$ ), ( $R^2$ =0.9875) in SIF. The results showed that the drug dissolution of PUENs was 431 432 in conformity with the first-order kinetics equation.

The introduction of poloxamer 188 acting as co-emulsifier in MIX-PUE accelerated the
dissolution of PUE in some degree. According to Noyes-Whitney equation, the drug dissolution rate

435 is linear relationship to the surface area exposed to the dissolution medium (33, 34). Dissolution rate 436 of MIX-PUE and raw PUE did not differ much, since there was no change in particles size of MIX-PUE, resulting in no change in surface area. The accelerated dissolution rate of PUENs could 437 be mainly attributed to their greater surface area induced by the great reduction of particles size (35). 438 439 Another reason for the increase of dissolution rate is the amorphous state of PUENs. The amorphous 440 state would lead to a higher surface disorder, resulting in higher equilibrium solubility as well as 441 dissolution rate than crystalline materials (36). Therefore, PUENs with amorphous structure have a 442 higher dissolution rate and solubility than raw PUE. In addition, PUENs powder can be made into

444 3.2.7. Stability study of PUENs

443

oral tablets which would improve oral bioavailability of PUE.

- The crystalline states of 0 day, 180 days and 365 days PUENs were shown in Fig. 6B. The long-term data showed the PUENs in amorphous state had little change over time, which declared that PUENs remained well for up to 365 days.
- 448 3.3. In vitro cytotoxicity test

MTT assay was adopted to perform cytotoxicity test of IEC-6 cells with raw PUE and PUENs. As shown in Fig. 13, all the cell viability of experiment groups were over 90%, which indicate that the cell viability was not remarkable affected by raw PUE and PUENs under these concentrations. The result shows PUENs did not change the biocompatibility of raw PUE on normal cells. In addition, there was no significant difference among the tested concentration (p>0.05).

# 454 3.4. Oral bioavailability studies of PUENs in rats

455	The main pharmacokinetic parameters $(C_{max}, T_{max}, AUC_{(0-t)}, AUC_{(0-\infty)})$ were listed in Table 2 and
456	the blood concentration-time curves of PUE suspension and PUENs suspension after oral
457	administration in rats were shown in Fig. 14. The results showed the $C_{max}$ was increased with the
458	reducing of particle size, which could be explained as that comparing to raw PUE, the PUENs had a
459	higher equilibrium solubility and dissolution velocity in digestive juice owing to their reduced MPS
460	(28, 37). Hence, a high drug concentration gradient between gastrointestinal tract and blood vessel
461	occurred, accompanied by distinctly enhanced absorption and a high $C_{max}$ . The raw PUE and the
462	PUENs groups attained their maximum of PUE concentration in rat plasma, namely $0.81 \pm 0.09$ and
463	$3.63 \pm 0.21 \ \mu\text{g/mL}$ after 1 h and 15 min of taking drugs, respectively. Moreover, there was a second
464	peak value of 1.06 $\pm$ 0.10 $\mu g/mL$ in PUENs group at 6 h. The bimodal phenomena of PUENs group
465	may attribute to the different PUE forms in PUENs, which lead to the different absorption time. Fig.
466	15 shows the schematic diagram of in vivo drug release mechanism. In vivo, the vast majority
467	amorphous PUEs first release and be absorbed into the system, then little PUE crystals release later.
468	The oral relative bioavailability of PUENs was calculated by the ratio of the AUC values between
469	PUENs and PUE groups, namely 12.20 and 4.31 mg/L·h. The AUC values indicated the oral
470	bioavailability of the PUENs increased 2.83 times compared with the raw PUE. The significant
471	enhancement of oral bioavailability is also in accordance with the results of the dissolution test and
472	above characterization tests.

474 The objective of this study is to investigate the change of hemorheology in rats after oral

475	administration of raw PUE and PUENs. And all the measured parameters and data are shown in
476	Table 3. The data shows that after 30 days of treatment PUENs improved whole blood viscosity and
477	whole blood reduced viscosity obviously, and had better effect than raw PUE. And PUENs reduced
478	erythrocyte aggregation and rigidity to some extent, which can improve microcirculation to restore
479	blood supply. In conclusion, its contribution of improving hemorheology can effectively prevent the
480	occurrence and development of cardiovascular disease. There is statistically significant difference of
481	whole blood viscosity and whole blood reduced viscosity (high, medium, low shear rate) between
482	PUENs group and control group ( $p < 0.05$ ).
483	There have been several methods to prepare nano-PUE in existing literatures. Luo (14) prepared
484	PUE solid lipid nanoparticles by using the solvent injection method. Their MPS (160 nm) and the
485	bioavailability increment (about 3 times) are similar to ours. However, the preparation of solid lipid
486	nanoparticles needs high cost and phospholipids tends to be easily oxidized. According to Tu's
487	research (11), PUE microcrystals (1875.6 nm) and nanocrystals (525.8 nm) were prepared by using
488	high pressure homogenization method, with $AUC_{0-t}$ of 4.98 and 15.12 mg·h/L, respectively. The
489	possible cause of difference on the oral bioavailability between Tu's and our research may be the
490	experimental animals, HPMC as a kind of nanocrystals stabilizer and test error. Moreover, the drug
491	content is only 50% and has low zeta potential. The long-term stability of this drug is not reported in
492	this literature. By contrast, 84.21% of higher drug content, 23.6 mV of higher potential and good
493	long-term stability emerged on the PUENs in this research. Furthermore, this research results
494	indicate PUENs did not change the biocompatibility of raw PUE on normal cells and improved the
495	hemorheology indexes of rats. In summary, this paper has conducted a more comprehensive and
496	in-depth research on PUENs prepared by ESE method.

498	This study attempts to improve the oral bioavailability of PUE. PUENs were successfully
499	prepared by emulsions solvent evaporation method, followed by freeze-drying. In this process,
500	poloxamer 188 was used as surfactant and co-emulsifier. Single-factor experiment was used to
501	obtain the optimal conditions for nanoparticles. The optimal conditions are as follows: 2.5:1 of
502	volume ratio of water to organic phase; 1.5 mg/mL of poloxamer 188, 6,500 rpm of homogenate
503	speed for 3 min and at a homogenization pressure of 500 bar for 8 cycles. PUENs were nearly
504	ellipsoid with uniform particle size distribution. Solubility and dissolution test showed the enhanced
505	dissolubility of PUENs. In vivo bioavailability study of drugs showed that PUENs had better
506	absorption in the body, in which the relative oral bioavailability was increased 2.83 times compared
507	with raw PUE. Results indicated that the nanoparticle drug system could improve the water
508	solubility of PUE, promote the absorption of PUE in vivo, correspondingly along with the
509	enhancement of oral bioavailability. PUENs improved hemorheology and did not enhance the
510	cytotoxicity on normal cells compared to the raw PUE. In addition, the residual ethyl acetate is less
511	than the ICH limits for class III solvents. In summary, this article provides a theoretical and
512	experimental basis for solving poor water solubility and low oral bioavailability of PUE.

### 513 Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful for the precious comments and careful corrections made by anonymous reviewers. The authors would also like to acknowledge the financial support from the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (2572016AA49), the National Key Technology R&D Program (2012BAD21B0501), and the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 21473023).

#### 519 References

Zhang S, Ji G, Liu J. Reversal of chemical-induced liver fibrosis in Wistar rats by puerarin. The
 Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry. 2006;17(7):485-91.

Xia D-Z, Zhang P-H, Fu Y, Yu W-F, Ju M-T. Hepatoprotective activity of puerarin against carbon
 tetrachloride-induced injuries in rats: A randomized controlled trial. Food and Chemical Toxicology.
 2013;59(0):90-5.

Wang Y, Ma Y, Zheng Y, Song J, Yang X, Bi C, et al. In vitro and in vivo anticancer activity of a
novel puerarin nanosuspension against colon cancer, with high efficacy and low toxicity. Int J Pharm.
2013;441(1-2):728-35.

4. Hu W, Zhang Q, Yang X, Wang Y, Sun L. Puerarin inhibits adhesion molecule expression in
tnf-alpha-stimulated human endothelial cells via modulation of the nuclear factor kappaB pathway.
Pharmacology. 2010;85(1):27-35.

531 5. Chen R, Xue J, Xie M. Puerarin prevents isoprenaline-induced myocardial fibrosis in mice by 532 reduction of myocardial TGF-beta1 expression. J Nutr Biochem. 2012;23(9):1080-5.

533 6. Zhang S, Chen S, Shen Y, Yang D, Liu X, Sun-Chi AC, et al. Puerarin induces angiogenesis in
534 myocardium of rat with myocardial infarction. Biological & pharmaceutical bulletin. 2006;29(5):945-50.

535 7. Yan LP, Chan SW, Chan AS, Chen SL, Ma XJ, Xu HX. Puerarin decreases serum total cholesterol
536 and enhances thoracic aorta endothelial nitric oxide synthase expression in diet-induced
537 hypercholesterolemic rats. Life sciences. 2006;79(4):324-30.

Gao L, Ji X, Song J, Liu P, Yan F, Gong W, et al. Puerarin protects against ischemic brain injury in a
 rat model of transient focal ischemia. Neurol Res. 2009;31(4):402-6.

540 9. Jin G, Yang P, Gong Y, Fan X, Tang J, Lin J. Effects of puerarin on expression of apelin and its
541 receptor of 2K1C renal hypertension rats. Zhongguo Zhong yao za zhi = Zhongguo zhongyao zazhi =
542 China journal of Chinese materia medica. 2009;34(24):3263-7.

Li H, Dong L, Liu Y, Wang G, Wang G, Qiao Y. Biopharmaceutics classification of puerarin and
comparison of perfusion approaches in rats. Int J Pharmaceut. 2014;466(1–2):133-8.

Tu L, Yi Y, Wu W, Hu F, Hu K, Feng J. Effects of particle size on the pharmacokinetics of puerarin
 nanocrystals and microcrystals after oral administration to rat. Int J Pharm. 2013;458(1):135-40.

Tao HQ, Meng Q, Li MH, Yu H, Liu MF, Du D, et al. HP-beta-CD-PLGA nanoparticles improve the
penetration and bioavailability of puerarin and enhance the therapeutic effects on brain
ischemia-reperfusion injury in rats. Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's archives of pharmacology.
2013;386(1):61-70.

I. Zhao L, Liu A, Sun M, Gu J, Wang H, Wang S, et al. Enhancement of Oral Bioavailability of
Puerarin by Polybutylcyanoacrylate Nanoparticles. Journal of Nanomaterials. 2011;2011:1-8.

14. Luo CF, Yuan M, Chen MS, Liu SM, Zhu L, Huang BY, et al. Pharmacokinetics, tissue distribution

and relative bioavailability of puerarin solid lipid nanoparticles following oral administration. Int J Pharm.
 2011;410(1-2):138-44.

556 15. Tang TT, Hu XB, Liao DH, Liu XY, Xiang DX. Mechanisms of microemulsion enhancing the oral

bioavailability of puerarin: comparison between oil-in-water and water-in-oil microemulsions using the
single-pass intestinal perfusion method and a chylomicron flow blocking approach. Int J Nanomedicine.
2013;8:4415-26.

- 560 16. Li Y, Pan WS, Chen SL, Xu HX, Yang DJ, Chan ASC. Pharmacokinetic, Tissue Distribution, and
- 561 Excretion of Puerarin and Puerarin-Phospholipid Complex in Rats. Drug Development and Industrial

- 563 17. Gao L, Liu G, Ma J, Wang X, Zhou L, Li X. Drug nanocrystals: In vivo performances. J Control
  564 Release. 2012;160(3):418-30.
- 565 18. Keck CM, Muller RH. Drug nanocrystals of poorly soluble drugs produced by high pressure
   566 homogenisation. European journal of pharmaceutics and biopharmaceutics : official journal of
   567 Arbeitsgemeinschaft fur Pharmazeutische Verfahrenstechnik eV. 2006;62(1):3-16.
- Mueller RH, Keck CM. Second generation of drug nanocrystals for delivery of poorly soluble drugs:
   smartCrystal technology. Eur J Pharm Sci. 2008;34(1):S20-S1.
- 570 20. Wang Y, Ma Y, Ma Y, Du Y, Liu Z, Zhang D, et al. Formulation and pharmacokinetics evaluation of
- 571 puerarin nanocrystals for intravenous delivery. Journal of nanoscience and nanotechnology. 572 2012;12(8):6176-84.
- 573 21. Hu J, Ng WK, Dong Y, Shen S, Tan RB. Continuous and scalable process for water-redispersible
  574 nanoformulation of poorly aqueous soluble APIs by antisolvent precipitation and spray-drying. Int J
  575 Pharm. 2011;404(1-2):198-204.
- Wasan EK, Bartlett K, Gershkovich P, Sivak O, Banno B, Wong Z, et al. Development and
  characterization of oral lipid-based amphotericin B formulations with enhanced drug solubility, stability
  and antifungal activity in rats infected with Aspergillus fumigatus or Candida albicans. Int J Pharm.
  2009;372(1-2):76-84.
- Li Y, Wang L, Tu Y, Yan J, Xu K, Li H. A new dosage form of emodin: For solubility and dissolution
  rate enhancement and application in Alzheimer's disease and bacteriostasis. Journal of Drug Delivery
  Science and Technology. 2015;29:261-8.
- Zu Y, Sun W, Zhao X, Wang W, Li Y, Ge Y, et al. Preparation and characterization of amorphous
  amphotericin B nanoparticles for oral administration through liquid antisolvent precipitation. Eur J Pharm
  Sci. 2014;53:109-17.
- Stan F, Zhang C, Zheng Y, Mei L, Tang L, Song C, et al. The effect of poloxamer 188 on
  nanoparticle morphology, size, cancer cell uptake, and cytotoxicity. Nanomedicine: Nanotechnology,
  Biology and Medicine. 2010;6(1):170-8.
- 589 26. Newa M, Bhandari KH, Li DX, Kwon T-H, Kim JA, Yoo BK, et al. Preparation, characterization and
  590 in vivo evaluation of ibuprofen binary solid dispersions with poloxamer 188. Int J Pharmaceut.
  591 2007;343(1-2):228-37.
- Zu Y, Meng L, Zhao X, Ge Y, Yu X, Zhang Y, et al. Preparation of 10-hydroxycamptothecin-loaded
   glycyrrhizic acid-conjugated bovine serum albumin nanoparticles for hepatocellular carcinoma-targeted
   drug delivery. Int J Nanomedicine. 2013;8:1207-22.
- 595 28. J H, M D, D F, H V, K A. Preparation and characterization of nanocrystals for solubility and 596 dissolution rate enhancement of nifedipine. Int J Pharmaceut. 2005(1-2).
- Affandi MM, Julianto T, Majeed A. Development and stability evaluation of Astaxanthin
   Nanoemulsion. Asian Journal of Pharmaceutical and clinical research. 2011;4:142-48.
- 599 30. He W, Lu Y, Qi J, Chen L, Hu F, Wu W. Food proteins as novel nanosuspension stabilizers for 600 poorly water-soluble drugs. Int J Pharmaceut. 2013;441(1–2):269-78.
- Li Y, Yang DJ, Zhou W, Chen SB, Chen SL. Recrystallization of puerarin using the supercritical
  fluid antisolvent process. J Cryst Growth. 2012;340(1):142-8.
- 603 32. Kim JS, Kim MS, Park HJ, Jin SJ, Lee S, Hwang SJ. Physicochemical properties and oral
- bioavailability of amorphous atorvastatin hemi-calcium using spray-drying and SAS process. Int J Pharm.
- 605 2008;359(1-2):211-9.

Page 28 of 47

33. Dong Y, Ng WK, Hu J, Shen S, Tan RB. A continuous and highly effective static mixing process for
antisolvent precipitation of nanoparticles of poorly water-soluble drugs. Int J Pharm.
2010;386(1-2):256-61.

- 34. Mosharraf M, Nystrom C. Apparent solubility of drugs in partially crystalline systems. Drug Dev
  Ind Pharm. 2003;29(6):603-22.
- 611 35. Kocbek P, Baumgartner S, Kristl J. Preparation and evaluation of nanosuspensions for enhancing the
  612 dissolution of poorly soluble drugs. Int J Pharmaceut. 2006;312(1-2):179-86.
- 613 36. Kim S, Ng WK, Dong Y, Das S, Tan RB. Preparation and physicochemical characterization of < i>
- 614 trans</i>614 trans</i>i>-resveratrol nanoparticles by temperature-controlled antisolvent precipitation. Journal of food 615 engineering. 2012;108(1):37-42.
- 616 37. Brough C, Williams RO, 3rd. Amorphous solid dispersions and nano-crystal technologies for poorly
- 617 water-soluble drug delivery. Int J Pharm. 2013;453(1):157-66.
- 618

619

#### 620 Figure legends

- 621 Fig.1. The flow chart of the experimental processes.
- 622 Fig.2. Effect of six main factors on the MPS of PUE emulsions. (a) the volume ratio of water to
- organic phase; (b) the concentration of poloxamer 188; (c) homogenized speed; (d) homogenized
- 624 time; (e) high-pressure homogenization pressure; (f) high-pressure homogenization cycles.
- 625 Fig.3. SEM pictures of (a) raw PUE powder and (b) PUENs powder; the normal distribution curves
- 626 of PUENs (c<sub>1</sub>) before and (d<sub>1</sub>) after the freeze-drying; the light microscopy images of the
- hanosuspensions ( $c_2$ ) before and ( $d_2$ ) after the freeze-drying (10×40).
- 628 Fig.4. TEM image of PUENs.
- 629 Fig.5. Infrared spectrograms of (a) raw PUE; (b) PUENs; (c) MIX-PUE; (d) poloxamer 188.
- 630 Fig.6. A: XRD patterns of (a) PUENs; (b) raw PUE; (c) MIX-PUE; (d) poloxamer 188. B:
- 631 Crystalline states of PUENS at (e) 0 d; (f) 180 d; (g) 365 d.
- 632 Fig.7. DSC thermograms of (a) PUENs; (b) raw PUE; (c) MIX-PUE; (d) poloxamer 188.
- 633 Fig.8. TGA thermograms of (a) PUENs; (b) raw PUE; (c) MIX-PUE; (d) poloxamer 188.

- 634 Fig.9. Gas chromatograms of (a) ethyl acetate and ethanol standard solution; (b) PUENs solution.
- 635 Fig.10. Equilibrium solubility in SGF, SIF and deionized water.
- 636 Fig.11. Dissolution rate in SGF (a) PUENs; (b) MIX-PUE; (c) raw PUE.
- 637 Fig.12. Dissolution rate in SIF (a) PUENs; (b) MIX-PUE; (c) raw PUE.
- 638 Fig.13. Effect of raw PUE and PUENs on IEC-6 cell viability
- 639 Fig.14. Concentration-time curves of (a) PUENs; (b) raw PUE.
- 640 Fig.15. Schematic diagram of *in vivo* drug release mechanism







Fig.2. Effect of six main factors on the MPS of PUE emulsions. (a) the volume ratio of water to organic phase; (b) the concentration of poloxamer 188; (c) homogenized speed; (d) homogenized time; (e) high-pressure homogenization cycles. Fig. 2

84x106mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Fig.3. SEM pictures of (a) raw PUE powder and (b) PUENs powder; the normal distribution curves of PUENs (c1) before and (d1) after the freeze-drying; the light microscopy images of the nanosuspensions (c2) before and (d2) after the freeze-drying (10×40).

Fig. 3 82x92mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Fig.4. TEM image of PUENs. Fig. 4 73x64mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Fig.5. Infrared spectrograms of (a) raw PUE; (b) PUENs; (c) MIX-PUE; (d) poloxamer 188. Fig. 5 134x190mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Fig.6. A: XRD patterns of (a) PUENs; (b) raw PUE; (c) MIX-PUE; (d) poloxamer 188. B: Crystalline states of PUENS at (e) 0 d; (f) 180 d; (g) 365 d. Fig. 6 76x61mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Fig.7. DSC thermograms of (a) PUENs; (b) raw PUE; (c) MIX-PUE; (d) poloxamer 188. Fig. 7 134x190mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Fig.8. TGA thermograms of (a) PUENs; (b) raw PUE; (c) MIX-PUE; (d) poloxamer 188. Fig. 8 63x47mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Fig.9. Gas chromatograms of (a) ethyl acetate and ethanol standard solution; (b) PUENs solution. Fig. 9 56x41mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Fig.10. Equilibrium solubility in SGF, SIF and deionized water. Fig. 10  $$58x41mm\ (600\ x\ 600\ DPI)$$ 



Fig.11. Dissolution rate in SGF (a) PUENs; (b) MIX-PUE; (c) raw PUE. Fig. 11 58x41mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Fig.12. Dissolution rate in SIF (a) PUENs; (b) MIX-PUE; (c) raw PUE. Fig. 12 58x41mm (600 x 600 DPI)







Fig.14. Concentration-time curves of (a) PUENs; (b) raw PUE. Fig. 14 54x40mm (600 x 600 DPI)



Fig.15. Schematic diagram of in vivo drug release mechanism Fig. 15 59x17mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Variable	level	Mean particle size(nm)±SD	CV
Ratios of water to oil phase	2:1	$244.9 \pm 45.8$	
(v/v)	2.5:1	$207.5 \pm 76.8$	
	3:1	$438.9 \pm 2.3$	
	3.5:1	$469.0 \pm 34.4$	27.5%
	4:1	$431.8 \pm 46.1$	
	4.5:1	$409.8 \pm 75.7$	
	5:1	$400.4 \pm 38.7$	
Concentration of poloxamer	1	$363.6 \pm 77.6$	
188 (mg/mL)	1.5	$236.9 \pm 11.9$	
	2	$409.1 \pm 75.7$	
	2.5	$384.2 \pm 73.6$	18.4%
	3	$409.5 \pm 82.6$	
	3.5	$453.9 \pm 58.9$	
	4	$421.4 \pm 35.8$	
Homogenate speeds (rpm)	4500	$280.4 \pm 53.9$	
	5500	$247.7 \pm 60.4$	
	6500	$174.7 \pm 49.9$	
	7500	$444.4 \pm 45.8$	32.1%
	8500	450.1 ± 9.7	
	9500	$417.4 \pm 20.9$	
	10500	$423.7 \pm 14.5$	
Homogenate time (min)	1	$552.9 \pm 100.9$	
	2	$459.6 \pm 54.1$	
	3	$389.3 \pm 94.3$	
	4	$560.6 \pm 42.0$	42.6%
	5	$624.1 \pm 116$	
	6	$620.5 \pm 46.2$	
	7	$622.4 \pm 92.1$	
Homogenization pressure (bar)	100	$289.5 \pm 24.0$	
	200	$231.1 \pm 19.1$	
	300	$210.9 \pm 31.5$	
	400	$219.0 \pm 30.8$	29.2%
	500	$148.4 \pm 27.1$	
	600	$228.1 \pm 34.6$	
	700	$374.3 \pm 23.9$	
Homogenization times	2	$458.7 \pm 85.9$	
	4	$600.2 \pm 53.1$	
	6	$352.2 \pm 63.5$	
	8	$185.2 \pm 39.8$	50.4%
	10	$304.1 \pm 48.5$	
	12	$776.6 \pm 64.5$	
	14	$882.5 \pm 73.6$	

Parameter	Unit	Raw PUE	PUENs
C <sub>max</sub>	mg/L	0.81	3.63
T <sub>max</sub>	h	1	0.25
AUC <sub>(0-t)</sub>	mg/L·h	4.31	12.20
AUC <sub>(0-∞)</sub>	mg/L·h	9.75	16.69
K <sub>10</sub>	1/h	0.35	1.00
K <sub>12</sub>	1/h	1.92	7.92
K <sub>21</sub>	1/h	0.10	0.50

Table 2: In vivo parameters of the raw PUE and PUENs

Table 3: Effects of raw PUE and PUENs on hemorheology in rats (n=10,  $\overline{x} \pm SD$ )

Measured parameter		Control	<b>Raw PUE</b>	PUENs
Whole blood viscosity (mPa·s)	$10s^{-1}$	$8.38\pm0.28$	$8.02\pm0.76$	$6.56 \pm 1.12*$
	60s <sup>-1</sup>	$4.98\pm0.13$	$4.55\pm0.19$	$4.09 \pm 0.53*$
	$150s^{-1}$	$3.97\pm0.14$	$3.72\pm0.17$	$3.36 \pm 0.36*$
Plasma viscosity (mPa·s)	120s <sup>-1</sup>	$1.18\pm0.16$	$1.30\pm0.22$	$1.20\pm0.22$
Hematocrit (%)		$36.00\pm3.46$	$36.13 \pm 1.81$	$35.00 \pm 1.94$
Whole blood reduced viscosity	$10s^{-1}$	$20.10\pm1.99$	$18.69\pm2.68$	$15.26 \pm 2.47*$
(mPa·s)	60s <sup>-1</sup>	$10.61\pm0.98$	$9.03 \pm 1.16$	$8.26 \pm 1.34*$
	$150s^{-1}$	$7.79\pm0.69$	$6.75 \pm 1.00$	$6.17 \pm 0.94*$
Erythrocyte aggregation index		$2.11\pm0.12$	$2.16\pm0.16$	$1.94\pm0.14$
Erythrocyte rigidity index		$6.61\pm0.37$	$5.41 \pm 1.48$	$5.34 \pm 1.37$
Erythrocyte deformation index		$1.07\pm0.04$	$0.96\pm0.15$	$0.97\pm0.15$
Erythrocyte electrophoresis index		$5.90\pm0.58$	$5.98\pm0.64$	$5.55\pm0.32$

\*p < 0.05 vs. control group

#### Preparation, characterization and bioavailability of oral puerarin nanoparticles by emulsion

#### solvent evaporation method

Yin Zhang, Yong Li, Xiuhua Zhao\*, Yuangang Zu1\*, Weiguo Wang, Weiwei Wu, Chen Zhong,

Zhao Li

(Key Laboratory of Forest Plant Ecology, Northeast Forestry University, Ministry of Education,

Harbin 150040, Heilongjiang, China)

#### **Graphical Abstract:**



To improve the water solubility and dissolution rate, puerarin (PUE) was nanocrystallized by an emulsion solvent evaporation (ESE) method, followed by freeze-drying. The solubility, dissolution rate and oral bioavailability of PUENs were significantly improved compared with raw PUE. According to the results above, PUENs show the potential application value on its oral absorption.

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Tel.: +86-451-82191517; fax: +86-451-82102082. *E-mail address*: xiuhuazhao@nefu.edu.cn (Xiuhua Zhao).

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Tel.: +86-451-82191517; fax: +86-451-82102082.

*E-mail address*: yuangangzu@163.com (Yuangang Zu)