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3 Evaluation of the mucoadhesive properties of chitosan
4 nanoparticles prepared using different chitosan to
5 tripolyphosphate (CS:TPP) ratios
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33 **Highlights**

- 34 • the interactions between CS:TPP nanoparticles and mucin were evaluated
- 35 • the degree of interaction depends on the CS:TPP ratio, ζ -potential and viscosity
- 36 • a CS:TPP ratio of 4:1 displayed the strongest interaction with mucin
- 37 • greater mucin binding efficiencies achieved at CS:TPP ratios of 4:1 and higher
- 38 • a minimum CS:TPP ratio of 4:1 is required for stable interactions with mucin
- 39

40 **Abstract**

41 Mucoadhesive molecules such as chitosan, can allow targeting of a particular tissue to prolong
42 residence time and subsequently improve bioavailability. The purpose of this study was to
43 investigate chitosan-tripolyphosphate (CS:TPP) nanoparticles and to evaluate the interaction
44 between nanoparticles of different CS:TPP ratios with mucin using viscosity, particle size
45 analysis and ζ -potential. For all CS:TPP ratios examined, a minimum value of viscosity was
46 reached for a 3:1 CS:TPP ratio, however chitosan nanoparticles at this ratio were not stable ($<$
47 $+30$ mV), whereas a CS:TPP ratio of 4:1 displayed the strongest interaction. This suggests a
48 minimum CS:TPP ratio of 4:1 is required to produce stable nanoparticles able to form strong
49 interactions, which is consistent with a greater mucin binding efficiencies at CS:TPP ratios of
50 4:1 and higher, which were quantified using a colorimetric assay. Further analysis of similar
51 systems could lead potentially to tuneable chitosan nanoparticles for specific applications.

52

53 **Keywords:** chitosan-tripolyphosphate (CS:TPP) nanoparticles; tuneable ionotropic gelation;
54 mucoadhesiveness

55 1. Introduction

56 A large number of polymers both natural (*e.g.* chitosan, alginate, guar gum, xanthan gum,
57 pectin, *etc.*) and synthetic (*e.g.* Poly(ethylene oxide), Poly(acrylic acid), Poly(vinyl amine),
58 *etc.*) have been studied for their mucoadhesive properties. Some of the reported advantages of
59 these systems include targeting and localisation of the drug dosage form to a specific site,
60 providing an area of intimate contact between the dosage form and the mucosa [1] and
61 disadvantages include cytotoxicity, natural variations in both composition and molecular
62 weight [2]. However, these disadvantages could be mitigated by the preparation of
63 nanoparticles of controlled size and composition from an appropriate natural source for
64 example chitosan.

65
66 Chitosan (CS), is the second most abundant naturally occurring polymer on the planet, it is a
67 nontoxic, biocompatible, biodegradable, cationic polysaccharide, which can be easily cross-
68 linked with tripolyphosphate (TPP polyanions) under mild conditions to form nanoparticles.
69 Chitosan and chitosan nanoparticles (CSNPs) have been of particular interest in the
70 pharmaceutical industry, for use in drug delivery systems especially in those, which target
71 specific delivery sites as they demonstrate mucoadhesive characteristics. Amongst the different
72 methods developed for the preparation of nanoparticles, ionotropic gelation with TPP is
73 perhaps the simplest process and it can be easily optimised [3-7] to produce nanoparticles of
74 the required particle size and charge such that the nanoparticles and any encapsulated drugs
75 could penetrate the epithelial membrane [8] or interact with mucin in a controlled manner.
76 Furthermore, the pH dependent solubility of chitosan enables tuneable pH-dependent release
77 [9], which can be further tailored by derivatisation [10] or cross-linking (with TPP for example)
78 as this would change the electrophoretic properties (net charge) [11] and nanoparticle size.
79 Tuning the physical properties of nanoparticles can therefore, influence the pharmacokinetic
80 profile of a loaded drug [12] and have an influence on the degree of mucin binding.

81
82 Chitosan has great potential as a drug delivery vehicle due to its mucoadhesive behaviour,
83 however the interactions of chitosan with mucus are complicated. In general, mucoadhesive
84 drug delivery systems are designed with the aim of increasing the residence time of drugs at a
85 specific site of absorption/action, to sustain drug release over a prolonged period and to
86 minimize the degradation of drugs [13]. However, for specific applications it may be desirable
87 to minimise nanoparticle-mucus interactions where the aim is for example, to rapidly penetrate
88 mucosal barriers [14]. Therefore, controlling the physico-chemical properties of chitosan

89 nanoparticles (viscosity, charge and particle size, for example) via ionotropic cross-linking can
90 be used as a method of controlling the strength of chitosan-mucus interactions [14].

91
92 The components of mucus which are responsible for the viscous and elastic gel-like properties
93 are mucins [15]. Mucins are a family of complex high molecular weight ($5 - 20 \times 10^5$ g/mol)
94 glycoproteins secreted by the epithelia of the intestinal, respiratory and urogenital tracts,
95 consisting of linear or branched oligosaccharides attached to the protein core. These
96 glycoproteins are mostly carbohydrate, which can account for 60 - 80 % of its weight. The
97 carbohydrate fraction consists of five sugars N-acetyl-glucosamine, N-acetyl-galactosamine,
98 galactose, and fucose and sialic acid (N-acetyl-neuraminic), as well as traces of mannose and
99 sulfate esters [16, 17].

100
101 The rigidity of the structure of mucin is mostly due to the high sialic acid and sulfate ester
102 contents which leads to a negative charge on mucin which is the main reason for its gelling and
103 mucoadhesive properties [18], although interactions with chitosan can vary depending on
104 biological target tissues [19, 20]. Sialic acid, which is distributed throughout human tissues, is
105 present in several fluids, including, cerebrospinal fluid, serum, urine, amniotic fluid saliva, and
106 breast milk. Depending on the physiological conditions and physiochemical properties such as
107 pH, the carboxylate group of sialic acid residues on mucin can interact with the positive charge
108 on the chitosan particles, due to the protonated amino group (NH_3^+) to form electrostatic and
109 hydrogen bonds [21]. Hydrophobic and hydrophilic interactions are also very important [22].
110 It is therefore clear that the surface charge (ζ -potential), the size and occupied space (viscosity)
111 of the nanoparticles will have an influence on their interactions with mucin. Previous studies
112 which have attempted to alter the charge on chitosan nanoparticles have involved modification
113 with poly-ethylene glycol for example [23] and have clearly demonstrated that mucin binding
114 and drug release are influenced by nanoparticle charge [14, 23].

115
116 In this study, once the different ratios (CS:TPP) of chitosan nanoparticles (CSNPs) were
117 formulated their physico-chemical properties (viscosity, ζ -potential, particle size and particle
118 size distribution) were measured prior to being mixed with mucin. The physico-chemical
119 properties were then determined after mixing, in order to examine the interaction between the
120 chitosan nanoparticles and mucin. This provided an indication into how CS:TPP nanoparticles
121 may act *in vivo* and which ratios of CS:TPP show potential as drug delivery vehicles. Moreover,

122 the mucoadhesiveness was then evaluated by measuring the mucin binding efficiency. It is
123 therefore our hypothesis that by preparing CS:TPP nanoparticles of controlled viscosity, size
124 and charge [3-7] it will be possible to determine whether a minimum CS:TPP ratio or net charge
125 is required for mucoadhesion and from this gain a greater understanding of the mucoadhesive
126 process. This will provide important information which would be in essential in designing
127 tuneable mucoadhesive systems for specific applications, where for example, the degree of
128 mucin binding should be controlled.

129

130 **2 Materials and Methods**

131 **2.1 Materials**

132 Chitosan of low molar mass (LMW) of $\sim 50\,000$ g/mol as determined by capillary viscosity
133 using equations 2-5 (see section 2.2.4.2), was purchased from Sigma–Aldrich (Gillingham,
134 UK) and has an average degree of deacetylation (DD) of $\sim 90\%$ as determined by FT-IR using
135 the equation 7 (see section 2.2.6). Glacial acetic acid and tripolyphosphate in the sodium salt
136 form were also obtained from Sigma–Aldrich (Gillingham, UK). Extensively degraded pig
137 gastric mucin was a kind gift from Biofac A/S (Kastrup, Denmark) and has been fully
138 characterized previously in our group [17]. This product may differ slightly from the native
139 porcine mucus gel due to the manufacturing process. However, off-the-shelf mucin
140 formulations are often used research as they have similar functionality [24, 25] and it is
141 expected that batch-to-batch variability would be less of an issue compared to freshly prepared
142 material [24]. All materials were used without any further purification.

143

144 **2.2 Experimental**

145 **2.2.1 Preparation of chitosan and TPP solutions**

146 A 1.0 mg/mL solution of TPP was prepared in deionized water and the pH of this solution was
147 adjusted by adding 0.1 N hydrochloric acid (HCl) until a final pH of 5.0 was obtained. A 3.0
148 mg/mL solution of chitosan was dissolved in dilute acetic acid (0.5 %) and this was left stirring
149 overnight at room temperature. The solution was then filtered under Gooch crucible (AG 1 X
150 3) vacuum filtration to discard any trace insoluble material then pH was adjusted to 5.0 using
151 0.1 N sodium hydroxide (NaOH).

152

153 **2.2.2 Preparation of chitosan: TPP nanoparticles**

154 CS:TPP nanoparticles were produced by the drop wise addition of appropriate volumes of
155 chitosan solutions to appropriate volumes of TPP solutions under magnetic stirring at 600 rpm

156 for 60 min, resulting in CS:TPP ratios of 3:1, 4:1, 5:1, 6:1 and 7:1 respectively. All operations
157 above were conducted at room temperature and mixtures were sonicated for 5 min (the cycle
158 and amplitude was adjusted to 0.5 and 80 % respectively; Hielscher Ultrasonics GmbH,
159 Teltow, Germany) before being subjected to further analysis.

160

161 **2.2.3 Mucin sample preparation**

162 A 3.5 % (w/v) mucin stock solution was formulated using 3.5 g of mucin to 100 mL of
163 deionised water (pH 4.2). This was magnetically stirred overnight at room temperature (~20
164 °C). The solution was then filtered through filter paper (Whatman No.1, Sigma–Aldrich
165 Gillingham, UK).

166

167 **2.2.4 Evaluation of the mucoadhesive properties of chitosan-TPP nanoparticles**

168 **2.2.4.1 Adsorption of mucin on to chitosan-TPP nanoparticles**

169 Mucin solution (1 mL) was added to each CS:TPP nanoparticle preparation (19 mL), with
170 magnetic stirring at 600 rpm and mixtures were incubated at 37 °C for 1 h prior to analysis.
171 The mucin-nanoparticle mixtures were then centrifuged at 40 000 \times g for 60 min and the
172 supernatant was used to measure the free mucin concentration using the standard calibration
173 curve (see section 2.2.5). In addition, the mucoadhesiveness was expressed as the mucin
174 binding efficiency of the nanoparticles and was calculated from the following equation:

175

$$176 \text{ Mucin binding efficiency (\%)} = \frac{(C_o - C_s)}{C_o} \times 100 \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

177

178 where C_o is the initial concentration of mucin used for incubation, and C_s is the concentration
179 of free mucin in the supernatant [26, 27].

180

181 **2.2.4.2 Viscosity analysis of chitosan nanoparticles-mucin mixtures**

182 The relative viscosity (η_{rel}) of all samples (chitosan solution, mucin solution and chitosan
183 nanoparticle-mucin mixtures) were tested at 37.0 ± 0.1 °C by a Bohlin Gemini HR Nano
184 Rheometer (Malvern Instruments, Worcestershire, UK) using 1 mm gap and 55 mm parallel
185 plate geometry at a constant shear rate of 500 s^{-1} under precise temperature control, according
186 to the following equation:

187

$$\eta_{rel} = \left(\frac{\eta}{\eta_0} \right) \quad \text{Eq. (2)}$$

where η is the average viscosity of the samples and, η_0 is the average viscosity for the reference solvent *i.e.* dilute acetic acid (pH 5). All measurements were performed in triplicate.

The specific (η_{sp}), viscosity is defined as follows:

$$\eta_{sp} = \eta_{rel} - 1 \quad \text{Eq. (3)}$$

A useful method for measuring the intrinsic viscosity is to calculate the relative and specific viscosities at one concentration and utilise the Solomon-Ciutâ approximation [28, 29]. The intrinsic viscosity can then be accurately estimated (error generally ~ 1 %) by a single measurement at low concentration approximately ≤ 0.5 %.

$$[\eta] \approx \frac{(2\eta_{sp} - 2\ln(\eta_{rel}))^{1/2}}{c} \quad \text{Eq. (4)}$$

We can then convert intrinsic viscosities to molar mass using the following Mark–Houwink–Kuhn–Sakurada (MHKS) power law relationship [30]:

$$M_w = \left(\frac{[\eta]}{0.0074} \right)^{1/0.95} \quad \text{Eq. (5)}$$

A change in relative viscosity of nanoparticles indicates the interaction with mucin [31]. This information can then be used to give a quantitative estimation of the degree of interaction, by comparing the value for the relative viscosity with a theoretical value based on there being no interaction between the nanoparticles and mucin calculated using equation 6. In order to gain a fuller understanding of this interaction samples were not filtered prior to measurement.

216 $\eta_{\text{rel (theoretical)}} = (\eta_{\text{rel (mucin)}} \times \text{fraction of mucin}) + (\eta_{\text{rel (nanoparticles)}} \times \text{fraction of nanoparticles})$
217 Eq. (6)

218

219 where the fraction of mucin ranged from 0.49 - 0.57 and the fraction of nanoparticles was 0.43
220 - 0.51 based on the amount of chitosan in the formulation.

221

222 In the case of no interaction the difference between the theoretical and calculated relative
223 viscosity is zero [31]. The relative deviation from the theoretical additive line (or line of “no
224 interaction”) gives a quantitative estimate of mucoadhesion [32], although the formation of
225 insoluble complexes/ coacervates can lead to difficulty in interpretation [33].

226

227 **2.2.4.3 Zeta potential of chitosan nanoparticles-mucin mixtures**

228 The ζ -potential of the chitosan solution (0.3 %), mucin solution (3.5 %) and chitosan
229 nanoparticle-mucin mixtures were measured with a Malvern Zetasizer Nano-Z (Malvern
230 Instruments Limited, Malvern, UK) using the capillary cell. All measurements were taken at
231 37.0 ± 0.1 °C and the mean values and standard deviations of triplicate measurements were
232 calculated. Mucin solutions were measured at pH 4.2 and CS:TPP nanoparticle-mucin mixtures
233 were at pH 5.

234

235 **2.2.4.4 Particle Size analysis of chitosan nanoparticles-mucin mixtures**

236 The particle diameter of mucin solution (3.5 %) and chitosan nanoparticle-mucin mixtures were
237 measured by dynamic light scattering (DLS) using a Malvern Zetasizer Nano-Z (Malvern
238 Instruments Limited, Malvern, UK). The dispersion medium (water) and refractive index of
239 particles was set at 1.330 and 1.6 respectively. A glass cuvette was used and the angle of
240 scattering was 173° . The samples were measured in triplicate and the results represent the mean
241 particle diameter at 37.0 ± 0.1 °C. Mucin solutions were measured at pH 4.2 and CS:TPP
242 nanoparticle-mucin mixtures were at pH 5.

243

244 **2.2.5 Mucin adsorption assay**

245 Mucin adsorption was studied using a periodic acid /Schiff colorimetric method described by
246 Mantle and Allen [34] to determine the free mucin concentration following incubation with
247 chitosan nanoparticles. This method was divided into two steps: firstly, periodic acid reagent
248 was prepared by adding 10 μL of 50 % of periodic acid solution to 7 mL of 7 % acetic acid

249 solution. Secondly, the preparation of the Schiff reagent was prepared by adding 1 % basic
250 Fuschin aqueous solution to 20 mL of 1 M HCl, and twice mixing the resulting solution with
251 300 mg of activated charcoal. Sodium metabisulfite (0.1 g per 6 mL of Schiff reagent) was
252 added directly before use and the resultant solution was incubated at 37 °C until it became
253 colourless or pale yellow (about 90 min). A standard calibration curve was constructed by
254 adding 200 µL of freshly prepared periodic acid reagent to 2 mL of mucin standard solutions
255 (0.01 % – 0.08 %), solutions then were incubated at 37 °C for 2 h in a water bath to complete
256 periodate oxidation. Then 200 µL of the colourless Schiff reagent was added at room
257 temperature in order to react with the aldehyde (from first step) to form a pink coloured
258 solution. Colour development was complete after 30 min and the absorbance of the standard
259 solutions was measured at 555 nm using UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-160A,
260 Wolverton, UK). Samples were prepared for analysis as per section 2.2.4.1.

261

262 2.2.6 Fourier transform infrared (FTIR)

263 Spectroscopy FTIR spectra of chitosan, were recorded using a Fourier transform infrared
264 spectrophotometer (Thermo Nicolet 380 FT-IR spectrometer, Thermo Fisher Scientific,
265 Loughborough, UK), operating from 4000 to 400 cm⁻¹. The degree of deacetylation (DD) was
266 calculated from equation 7 [35].

267

$$268 \quad DD (\%) = 100 - \left(\frac{(A_{1655\text{cm}^{-1}})}{(A_{3450\text{cm}^{-1}})} \times 100 \right) \quad (\text{Eq. 7})$$

269

270 where $A_{1655\text{cm}^{-1}}$ and $A_{3450\text{cm}^{-1}}$ are the areas under the absorbance peaks for the C=O and OH
271 stretches, respectively.

272

273 2.3 Statistical analysis

274 All experiments were expressed as the mean value ± standard deviations (SD) of at least three
275 readings. Statistical significance (p <0.05) between test groups was performed by one-way
276 analysis of variance (ANOVA) and a Tukey post-hoc test.

277

278 3 Results and discussion

279 Chitosan was dissolved in glacial acetic acid at pH 5, below its pKa 6.2–6.5, to produce a
280 reactive positively charged ammonium group (NH₃⁺) (protonated amine D-glucosamine

281 monomeric unit). Due the different pKa values 0.9, 1.9, 5.3, 7.7 and 9.5 ([36, 37], multiple
282 anions ($\text{P}_3\text{O}_{10}^{5-}$, $\text{HP}_3\text{O}_{10}^{4-}$, $\text{H}_2\text{P}_3\text{O}_{10}^{3-}$, $\text{H}_3\text{P}_3\text{O}_{10}^{2-}$ and $\text{H}_4\text{P}_3\text{O}_{10}^{-}$) may be present in solution
283 depending on the pH when TPP is dissolved in water, which is undesirable as they can
284 competitively react with the protonated ammonium groups (NH_3^+) of chitosan solution (pH
285 5.0). Therefore, the pH of TPP was adjusted to 5.0 to make sure that predominantly $\text{H}_2\text{P}_3\text{O}_{10}^{3-}$
286 ($\sim 67\%$) ions exist in solution; this is also beneficial in producing less polydisperse
287 nanoparticles [38]. The formation of chitosan nanoparticles (CSNPs) by ionic gelation occurs
288 spontaneously upon the interaction with the TPP anion solution with the cationic chitosan
289 solution (ammonium groups, NH_3^+). Five different ratios of (CS:TPP) nanoparticles (3:1, 4:1,
290 5:1, 6:1 and 7:1) were spontaneously obtained upon addition of a TPP (polyanion) solution to
291 the chitosan solution (polycation). These formulations resulted in positively charged chitosan
292 nanoparticles, which should facilitate electrostatic interactions with the negatively charged
293 carboxylic acid groups of the mucin. Studies on native pig gastric mucin have previously shown
294 an isoelectric point at $\sim \text{pH } 2\text{--}2.5$ [39] and sialic acid has a pKa of 2.6 [40]. Therefore, there is
295 potential to interact with the positive charged amino groups of chitosan nanoparticles [41] when
296 both sialic acid and chitosan are oppositely charged at therefore $\sim \text{pH } 4.5 - 5$. However, other
297 contributions from, for example, hydrogen bonding and hydrophobic interactions may also
298 have an effect.

299

300 **3.1 Mucoadhesion studies**

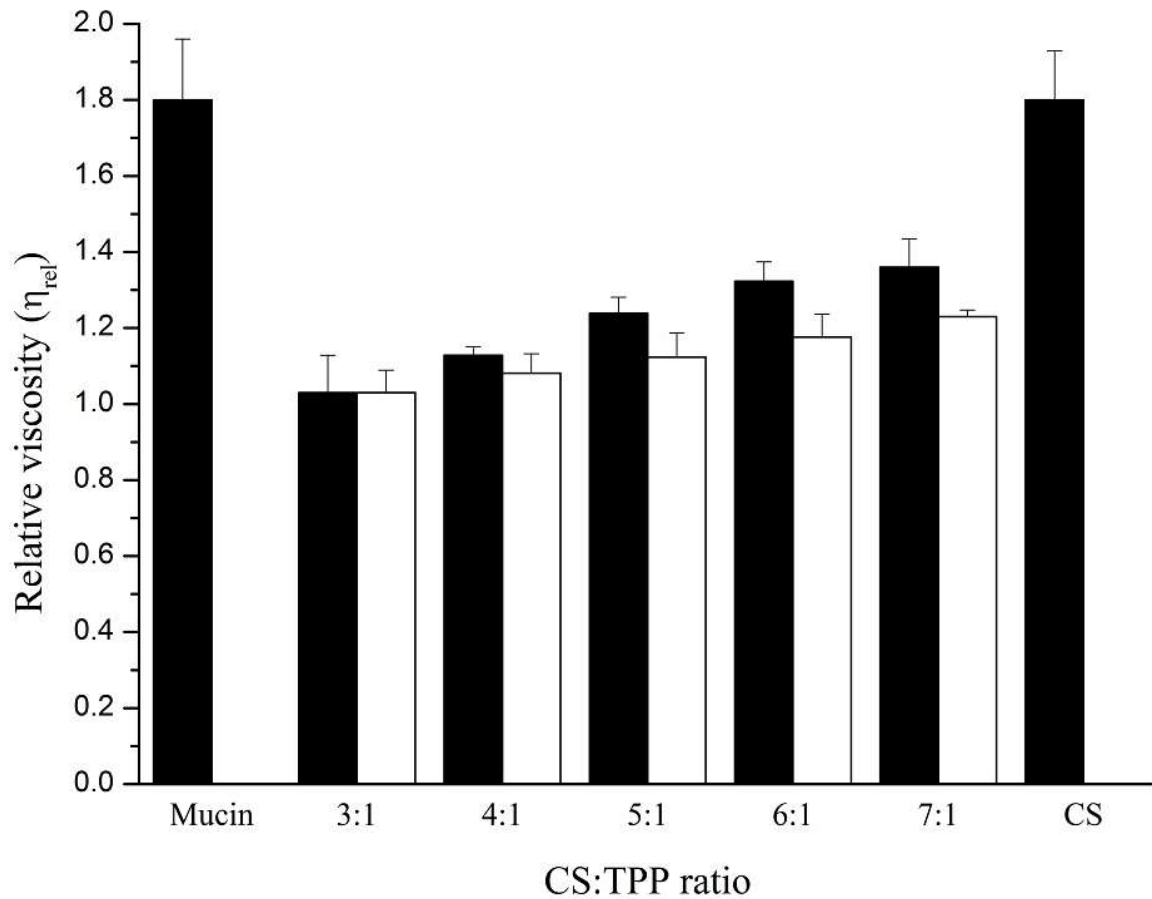
301 The mucoadhesive properties and the influences of different CS:TPP ratio at 3:1, 4:1, 5:1, 6:1
302 and 7:1 nanoparticles were evaluated by measuring the relative viscosity, particle size and
303 change of ζ -potential on interaction with negatively charge mucin. Chitosan nanoparticle
304 mixing with mucin was used to assess the stability and interaction of nanoparticles prepared
305 using various CS:TPP ratios and mucin which could lay the foundations for potential future
306 use as a drug carrier and/ or other pharmaceutical applications. All formulations were based on
307 the measurements of the viscosity, ζ -potential (surface charge) and particle size of chitosan
308 nanoparticles before and after incubation with mucin at 37°C under moderate stirring.

309

310 **3.1.1 Assessment of chitosan nanoparticle-mucin interactions by relative viscosity**

311 The interactions between chitosan nanoparticles (CS:TPP) and mucin were initially studied by
312 relative viscosity (η_{rel}). Chitosan solution (0.3 %) and mucin solution (3.5 %) were prepared in
313 order to produce a relative viscosity (η_{rel}) close to 1.8. Relative viscosities of this order of

314 magnitude are required as at higher relative viscosities for example >2 the onset in polymer
 315 entanglement is observed. Therefore, the relative viscosities were kept below two with the aim
 316 of minimising these polymer entanglement effects, which would obscure changes in viscosity
 317 due to interactions with mucin [42].



318
 319 **Figure 1:** Relative viscosity of mucin, chitosan, native chitosan nanoparticles (black columns)
 320 and chitosan nanoparticle-mucin mixtures (white columns) at 37 °C. All values represent the
 321 mean ± 2SD (n = 3). The deviations from the theoretical viscosity of no interaction were -27.7,
 322 -25.5, -24.9, -23.3 and -20.6 % for CS: TPP ratios of 3:1, 4:1, 5:1, 6:1 and 7:1, respectively.

323
 324 When chitosan nanoparticles were mixed with mucin at different CS:TPP ratios (3:1, 4:1, 5:1,
 325 6:1 and 7:1), the formation of chitosan nanoparticles-mucin interaction products were
 326 determined on the basis of the changes in relative viscosities of the nanoparticle-mucin
 327 mixtures [43]. The relative viscosity of chitosan nanoparticle (CS:TPP)-mucin mixtures
 328 increased with increasing CS:TPP ratios (**Figure 1**).

329
 330 Increasing the CS:TPP ratio (no mucin), caused an increase in relative viscosity which was
 331 expected due to the increased concentration of chitosan used (higher charge on chitosan

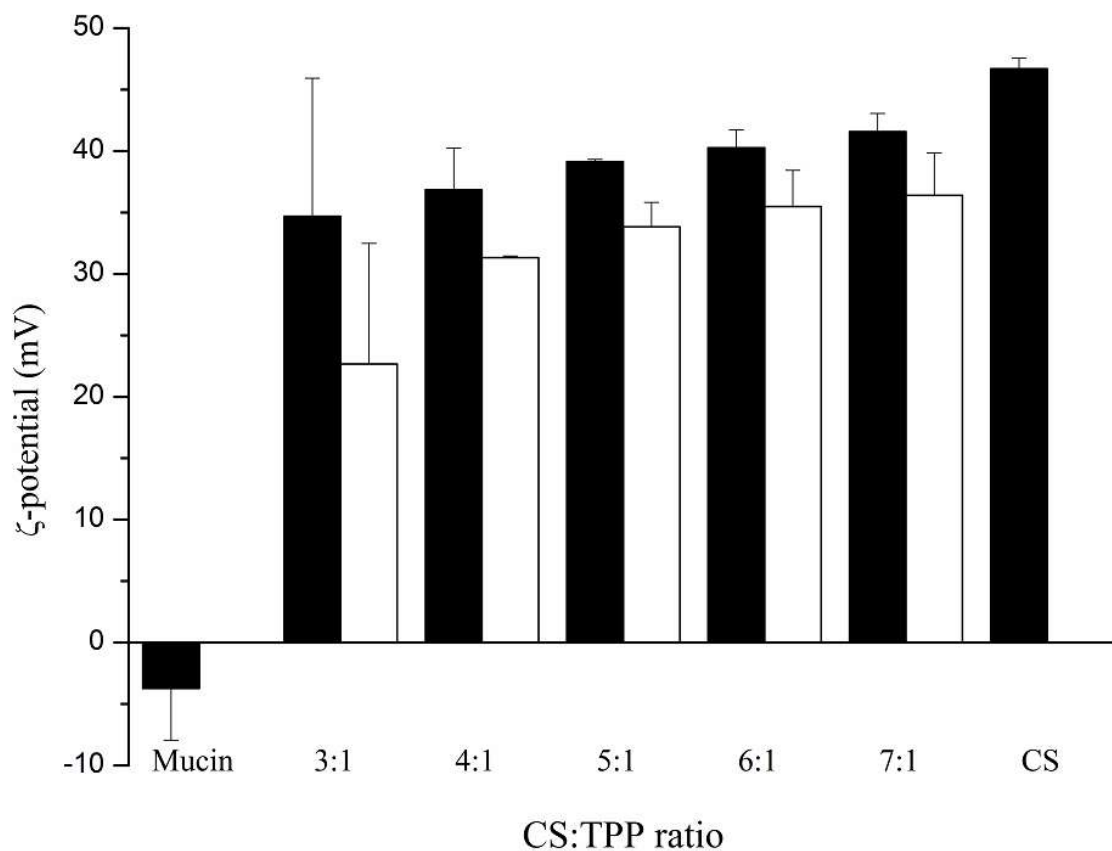
332 nanoparticles) [44, 45]. It was observed however, that chitosan nanoparticle-mucin mixtures
333 decreased the relative viscosities compared with CS:TPP nanoparticles (blank). This could be
334 due to the electrostatic interactions between positively charged ammonium group on the
335 chitosan nanoparticles and the negatively charged sialic acid residue on mucin, perhaps with a
336 contribution from hydrogen bonds. The difference between the native chitosan nanoparticle
337 and chitosan nanoparticle-mucin mixture was not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$) on relative
338 viscosity at (CS:TPP) 3:1. This could be attributed to a small amount of chitosan nanoparticles
339 interacting with the mucin causing a limited viscosity change. However, other CS:TPP ratios
340 (4:1, 5:1, 6:1 and 7:1) did significantly affect relative viscosity ($p < 0.05$), where the largest
341 absolute decrease in relative viscosity is at CS:TPP ratio of 6:1. The percentage deviation from
342 theoretical line of no interaction is similar for all ratios ($\sim -25\%$), albeit the deviation is less in
343 nanoparticles with higher CS:TPP ratios. A percentage deviation of $\sim -25\%$ is consistent with
344 native chitosan-mucin interactions in the presence of salt [31]. This suggests an important
345 interaction occurring between chitosan nanoparticles and mucin. This observed reduction in
346 relative viscosity and the increased deviation from the “no interaction” line is consistent with
347 a reduction in the concentration of macromolecules in solution (*e.g.* the formation of a
348 precipitate [46], which was observed when mucin was mixed with CS:TPP nanoparticles in
349 larger amounts (data not shown)). However, in this case it is most likely due to a conformational
350 change to a more compact structure (*i.e.* a reduction in the hydrodynamic volume [32]) for one
351 or more of the macromolecules due to an interaction [6, 31, 32]. The latter would be consistent
352 with a decrease in net charge/ ζ -potential [47]. A decrease in viscosity may also be
353 advantageous from a formulation point of view, for example in ocular delivery systems where
354 an increase in viscosity would be unacceptable due the blink process requiring low shear
355 viscosities in order to avoid unnecessary damage to the corneal epithelium [41], low viscosity
356 aids the sprayability of liquid nasal formulations [21, 32]. Although not explicitly evaluated,
357 changes in viscosity are related to the swelling and stiffness of polymeric systems and could
358 therefore be probed further, this would be influenced greatly by the CS:TPP ratio and the pH
359 at which nanoparticles were formed [37] where chain stiffness has been shown to influence
360 mucin interactions [31, 32].

361

362 **3.1.2 Zeta potential of chitosan nanoparticles-mucin mixtures**

363 In order to further support the interactions between chitosan nanoparticles and mucin, ζ -
364 potential were investigated. Determination of the ζ -potential of chitosan nanoparticles in the

365 presence of mucin has been demonstrated to be a good means of studying the mucoadhesive
 366 interactions of the chitosan nanoparticle–mucin mixtures [24, 25, 31]. Furthermore, ζ -
 367 potentials of less than +30 mV indicate lower chitosan nanoparticle stability due to lower
 368 electrostatic repulsion, however, ζ -potential of native chitosan nanoparticles increased linearly
 369 ($r^2 > 0.99$) as the CS:TPP ratio is increased (**Figure 2**) which is a highly attractive property
 370 amongst nanoparticles. Furthermore, this would theoretically allow the preparation of
 371 nanoparticles of controlled ζ -potential in the range +34 - +42 mV by varying the CS:TPP ratio.
 372 Nanoparticles outside of this range could be prepared under different pH conditions or by using
 373 different CS:TPP ratios, for example.



374
 375 **Figure 2:** Zeta potential values obtained for mucin, chitosan and native chitosan nanoparticles
 376 (black columns) and chitosan nanoparticle-mucin mixtures (white columns) at 37 °C. All
 377 values represent the mean \pm 2SD (n = 3).

378
 379 Chitosan has a mucoadhesive properties, therefore it would be expected that the surface charge
 380 of chitosan nanoparticles might be changed by the adhesion of mucin and in this case a decrease
 381 in ζ -potential was observed upon mixing with mucin at all CS:TPP ratios (**Figure 2**). The
 382 occurrence of such change was detected by measuring the changes in ζ -potential of chitosan

383 nanoparticle-mucin mixtures with different of CS:TPP ratios. The ζ -potential of mucin and
384 chitosan were -4 ± 3 and $+46.7 \pm 0.4$ mV, respectively. It is known that chitosan has positive
385 charge at this pH due to presence of ammonium ions (NH_3^+) [48]. The negative charge,
386 however, of mucin is as a result of the ionization of sialic acid (COO^-). Therefore, chitosan
387 nanoparticles could lead to a strong electrostatic interaction with the mucin. An addition of
388 mucin to the different ratios of CS:TPP nanoparticles results in a significant ($p < 0.05$) decrease
389 in ζ -potential for all CS:TPP ratios, except 3:1 (**Figure 2**). The reduction of ζ -potential could
390 be due to the ionic interaction between negatively charged sialic acid in mucin and positively
391 charged amino groups in chitosan nanoparticles [49]. Moreover, as shown in **Figure 2**, the ζ -
392 potential decreased sharply as the CS:TPP ratio decreased from mixtures 4:1 to 3:1, which
393 might be caused by the decreased amount of chitosan in these nanoparticles which leads to
394 most of the NH_3^+ groups interacting with COO^- groups on the sialic acid. These results were in
395 agreement with lowest relative viscosity of 3:1 mixture (**Figure 1**). Furthermore, this may be
396 attributed to the fact that native (3:1) ratio nanoparticles had lower ζ -potential values ($+34.7$
397 mV) than other ratios including 4:1, 5:1, 6:1 and 7:1. On the other hand, a small increase in ζ -
398 potential of chitosan nanoparticle-mucin mixtures was observed as the CS:TPP ratio increased
399 from 5:1 to 7:1, which might be due to increase positive charge surfaces on the particles. This
400 may also be confirmed by the changes in particle size and polydispersity index (PDI) of native
401 CS:TPP nanoparticles. At all CS:TPP ratios greater than 3:1 the ζ -potential decreased by ~ 5
402 mV which is in the range of the overall charge on mucin and may be indicative of the majority
403 of the mucin being bound to the nanoparticles at these ratios.

404

405 **3.1.3 Particle size of chitosan nanoparticle-mucin mixtures**

406 In all cases there is an increase in particle size upon addition of CS:TPP nanoparticles to mucin,
407 clearly indicating an interaction (**Table 1**), although this increase in particle size is generally
408 not as pronounced when the CS:TPP nanoparticles are larger *i.e.* those containing greater
409 amounts of chitosan [2]. This is consistent with the smaller deviation from the no interaction
410 line for CS:TPP nanoparticles containing larger amounts of chitosan. The change in ζ -potential
411 is related to a change particle size [21] and it is clear that as the CS:TPP ratio increases both
412 the ζ -potential and particle size also increase. This is true both in the presence and absence of
413 mucin which is related to the reduction in TPP available to interact with chitosan and therefore
414 a decrease in the density internal cross-linking and hence larger particles [50] (**Table 1**).
415 Nanoparticles at all ratios, other than 3:1, were in the optimal range (200 – 500 nm) for mucosal

416 interaction [51]. When the mucin solutions were mixed with different CS:TPP ratios from 3:1
 417 to 7:1, the particle size increased significantly (**Table 1**), This is probably due to adsorption
 418 (binding) of mucin on the chitosan nanoparticle surfaces [24]. In addition, the increase in
 419 particle size, together with a decrease in ζ -potential demonstrates that the mucin is binding to
 420 the surface of the chitosan nanoparticles, when the CS:TPP ratios varied from 3:1 to 7:1. This
 421 result may be attributed to the overall negative charge of mucin, due to the presence of sialic
 422 acid, and the overall positive charge of the chitosan nanoparticles. The interaction at the
 423 CS:TPP ratio (4:1) between CSNPs and mucin was the strongest as the nanoparticles binding
 424 the mucin more strongly and hence reducing the particle size.

425

426 **Table 1:** Particle size and polydispersity index of chitosan TPP nanoparticles (CSNPs) in the
 427 presence and absence of mucin.

Sample	Mean particle size (nm) ± 2 standard deviations	Polydispersity index (PDI) ± 2 standard deviations
Mucin	41 ± 5	0.48 ± 0.02
CSNPs		
3:1	195 ± 16 ^g	0.30 ± 0.02 ^{b,c}
4:1	216 ± 8 ^g	0.22 ± 0.03 ^c
5:1	247 ± 4 ^f	0.24 ± 0.00 ^{b,c}
6:1	283 ± 8 ^e	0.25 ± 0.02 ^{b,c}
7:1	293 ± 22 ^{d,e}	0.27 ± 0.03 ^{b,c}
CSNPs with mucin		
3:1	336 ± 14 ^{b,c}	0.44 ± 0.05 ^a
4:1	305 ± 19 ^d	0.29 ± 0.08 ^{b,c}
5:1	332 ± 12 ^c	0.31 ± 0.07 ^{b,c}
6:1	356 ± 8 ^b	0.30 ± 0.02 ^{b,c}
7:1	387 ± 30 ^a	0.35 ± 0.05 ^{a,b}

428 Means sharing the same letters in a column are not significantly ($p > 0.05$).

429

430 Furthermore, this increase in interaction is important in respect to potential applications as
 431 increased interaction with mucin is indicative of increased mucoadhesion, which depending on

432 the specific application may not always be optimum. At the lowest CS:TPP ratio (3:1) mucin
433 in mixture is potentially available in greater amounts. Therefore, we would expect more mucin
434 to be adsorbed on to the chitosan nanoparticle surface, which would increase aggregation due
435 to, for example, the formation of mucin bridges between chitosan nanoparticles [24], or the
436 aggregation of nanoparticles due to their instability the latter is consistent with the low ζ -
437 potential value of the 3:1 mixture (+22.6 mV). The PDI value was used as a reflection of
438 uniformity and stability of particles [50]. Moreover, the highest value (0.44) of PDI at CS:TPP
439 ratio 3:1 mixture indicated a wider range of particle size distribution in chitosan nanoparticle-
440 mucin mixtures relative to other CS:TPP ratios. At a CS:TPP ratio of 4:1 mucin mixture,
441 chitosan nanoparticles with the smallest size and lower PDI were formed. Above the CS:TPP
442 ratio 4:1 mixture, a clear increase in chitosan nanoparticle-mucin mixture size is obtained,
443 thereby confirming the adsorption of negative mucin onto the surface of the chitosan
444 nanoparticles. In addition, as is shown in **Table 1**, the CS:TPP ratios from 5:1 to 7:1 mixtures
445 have PDI values of 0.30 - 0.35, indicating a narrow size range and a homogenous dispersion of
446 chitosan nanoparticle-mucin mixtures were obtained [52]. This is important in terms of the
447 movement/ diffusion of nanoparticles through a mucosal layer *in vivo* [53]. On the basis of
448 these observations, the strongest interaction, which can be related to the smallest particle size
449 was a CS:TPP ratio of 4:1.

450

451 **3.2 Mucin binding test (adsorption) as indicator of mucoadhesiveness**

452 **3.2.1 Mucin colorimetric assay and calibration curve**

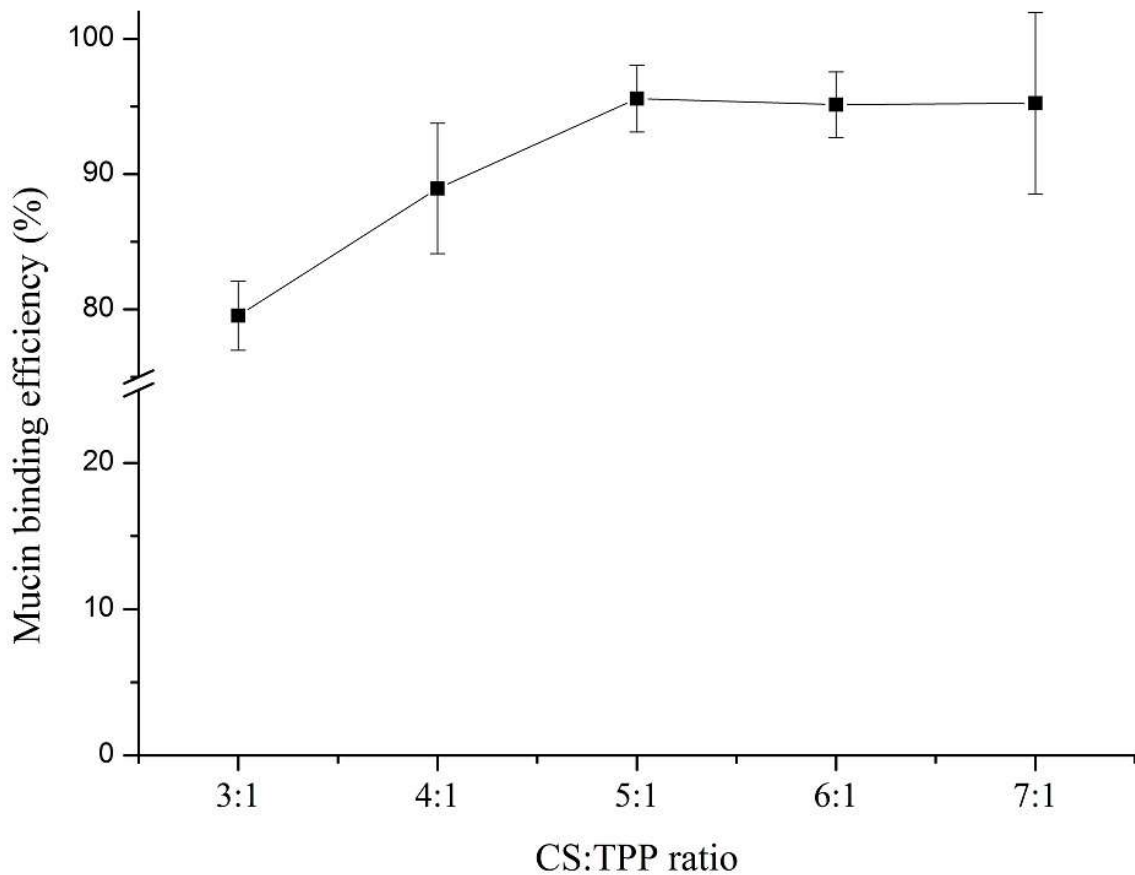
453 The colorimetric assay described in section 2.2.5 was used to provide an effective method of
454 detection and analysis of mucin glycoproteins. This assay showed a high sensitivity with LOD
455 and LOQ being <0.01 and <0.02 %, respectively with a high linearity ($R^2 > 0.99$) and
456 reproducibility: RSD < 3.7 % (data not shown).

457

458 Mucin is predicted to spontaneously adsorb onto the surface of the chitosan nanoparticles [52].
459 The mucoadhesive behaviour of chitosan nanoparticles was assessed by the suspension of
460 different CS:TPP ratios in a fixed amount of mucin in aqueous solution at 37 °C. Furthermore,
461 the amount of mucin adsorbed was measured from the change in free concentration of mucin
462 in the reaction mixtures according to Eq. 1.

463

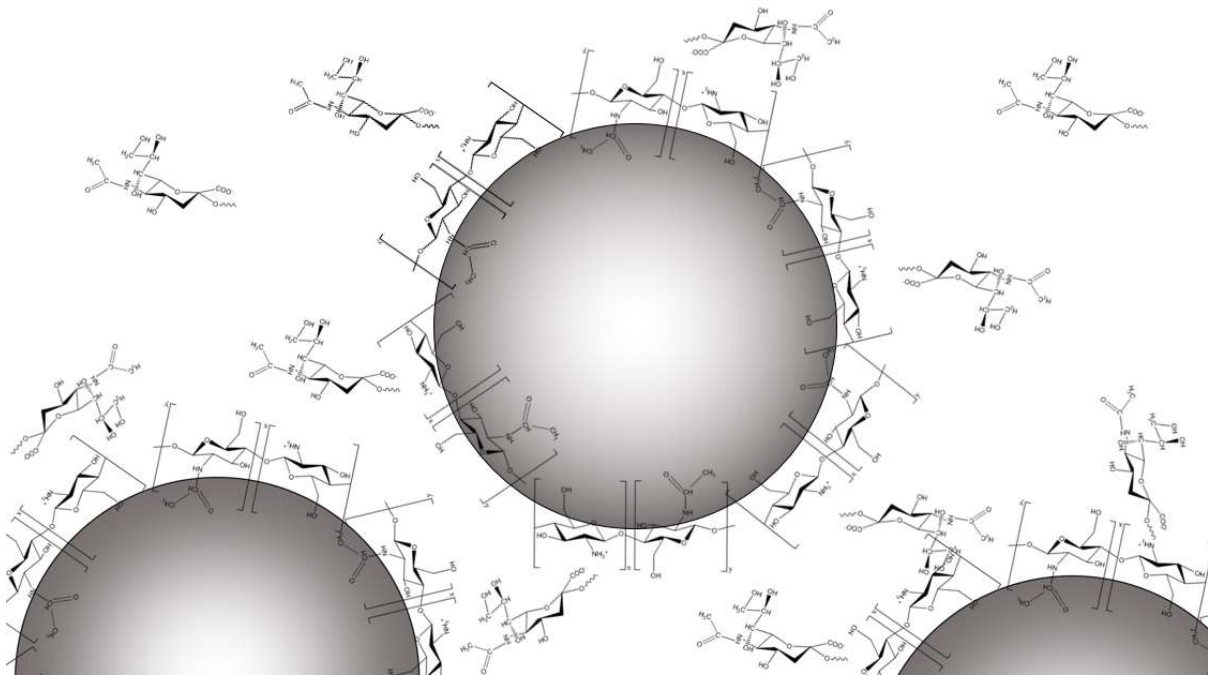
464 After confirming the high surface charge (ζ -potential $> +30$ mV) for all native CS:TPP ratios
465 (**Figure 2**), a mucin binding efficiency assay was applied to confirm the system's adhesiveness
466 (**Figure 3**).



467
468 **Figure 3:** Mucin binding efficiency (adsorption) of chitosan nanoparticles of different CS:TPP
469 ratios. All values represent the mean \pm 2SD (n = 3).

470
471 The mucin binding efficiency (mucin adsorbed onto the chitosan nanoparticle surface)
472 increased from 80 ± 3 % to 89 ± 5 % ($p < 0.05$) as CS:TPP ratio increased from 3:1 to 4:1
473 (**Figure 3**). However, it was demonstrated that, there were no significant differences ($p > 0.05$)
474 in the mucin binding efficiency values (~ 95 %) when increase in CS:TPP ratios from 5:1 to
475 7:1. This result may be attributed to more NH_3^+ functional groups being present to interact with
476 the sialic acid residues on mucin. This also agrees with the findings from ζ -potential which
477 suggests a large amount of mucin has been bound to the nanoparticles at CS:TPP ratios greater
478 than 3:1 and that native CS:TPP nanoparticles of ratios from 5:1 to 7:1 were shown to have
479 more available surface charges ($> +39$ mV). Based on these observations the chemical
480 interaction between the CS: TPP nanoparticles is shown diagrammatically in **Figure 4**. In this

481 very simplistic model the CS:TPP is shown as a spherical particle, although this is generally
482 not the case [54].



483
484 **Figure 4:** Diagrammatic representation of the interaction between CS:TPP nanoparticles and
485 mucin. For simplicity and clarity, the CS:TPP nanoparticles are represented as spheres with
486 chitosan residues on the exterior and only the negatively charged sialic acid residues are shown
487 in the mucin (*N.B.* sizes of residues and nanoparticles are not to scale). Adapted from [55]. At
488 lower CS:TPP ratios, for example 3:1 there will be less chitosan (positive charge) on the
489 nanoparticle surface which may lead to an excess of mucin and potentially aggregation due to
490 mucin bridges between nanoparticles [56] or due to nanoparticle instability if the zeta potential
491 is in the range -30 mV – +30 mV.

492
493 It is known that the smaller particles are able to penetrate to the sub-mucosal layers whereas
494 the larger particles are localised in the epithelial lining [57]. Based on our results an optimal
495 minimum chitosan nanoparticle CS:TPP ratio of 4:1 is required to interact with mucin,
496 nanoparticles with lower amounts of chitosan are unstable and prone to aggregation. The ζ -
497 potential of 4:1 mixture is +31.3 mV (**Figure 2**), its particle size is the smallest and has lowest
498 PDI value (**Table 1**). At 4:1 there are sufficient levels of CS:TPP particles for the mucin to
499 interact with. This result may be attributed to a critical point of binding to sialic acid being
500 saturated at the CS:TPP ratio of 4:1 and all of the mucin being adsorbed on to the particles.
501 Although not significant statistically the CS:TPP ratio of 6:1 appears to be particularly
502 interesting as at this ratio there is the greatest difference in relative viscosity upon the

503 interaction with mucin (although not the greatest deviation from the additive line), and there is
504 also the smallest change in zeta potential, particle size and polydispersity index and may be
505 related to decreased mucoadhesion at larger particle sizes [2].

506

507 **4 Conclusions**

508 In this study, CS:TPP nanoparticles of different ratios, prepared by the ionotropic gelation
509 method, were evaluated for their mucoadhesive properties for potential use as in
510 pharmaceutical applications. The incubation (at 37 °C) of CS:TPP nanoparticles solutions of
511 different CS:TPP ratios from 3:1 - 7:1 with mucin led to a modification in their physiochemical
512 properties such as decreased ζ -potential and increased particle size.

513

514 For all CS:TPP ratios examined, a minimum value of viscosity was reached for a 3:1 CS:TPP
515 ratio, however chitosan nanoparticles at this ratio (3:1) were not stable (ζ -potential < +30 mV),
516 whereas a CS:TPP ratio of 4:1 displayed the strongest interaction with mucin (greatest
517 deviation from the interaction additive line). Taken all together we can conclude that a
518 minimum CS:TPP ratio of 4:1 is required to produce stable nanoparticles able to form strong
519 interactions with mucin, which is consistent with a greater mucin binding efficiency at CS:TPP
520 ratios of 4:1 and higher. Clearly, the potential ability to fine tune the physico-chemical
521 properties (viscosity, charge and size) of chitosan nanoparticles demonstrates that cross-linking
522 with tripolyphosphate could lead to advances in transmucosal drug delivery. Further analysis,
523 including for example drug release kinetics and swelling properties of CS:TPP nanoparticles
524 should be the next step in this process and would ideally lead to tuneable chitosan nanoparticles
525 for specific drug delivery applications.

526

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