1	Cross-linked and hydrophobized hyaluronic acid-based controlled drug						
2	release systems						
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12							
13	Abstract						
14	This work demonstrates the preparation, structural characterization, and the kinetics of the						
15	drug release of hyaluronic acid (HyA)-based colloidal drug delivery systems which contain						
16	hydrophobic ketoprofen (KP) as model molecule. Because of the highly hydrophilic character						
17	of HyA the cross-linked derivatives at different cross-linking ratio have been synthesized. The						
18	hydrophobized variants of HyA have also been produced by modifying the polymer chains						
19	with cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) at various HyA/CTAB ratios. Due to						
20	modifications the coherent structure of HyA changes into an incoherent colloidal system that						
21	were verified by rheological investigations. Nearly 70% of the encapsulated KP dissolve from						
22	the totally cross-linked HyA carrier but the release rate of KP is about 20% (after 8h) from the						
23	CTAB-modified colloidal system at HyA monomer/CTAB 1:0.8 mass ratio. It has been						
24	verified that the modified HyA may be a potential candidate for controlled drug release of						
25	hydrophobic KP molecules.						
26							
27	Keywords: hyaluronic acid, cross-linking, hydrophobization, nanocarrier, rheology,						
28	controlled drug release						

29 **1. Introduction**

30 All areas encapsulating nano- or microparticle-based drug delivery systems have 31 become some of the most fascinating research areas in modern pharmaceutical development. 32 Several biodegradable macromolecules such as polyesters, proteins, polysaccharides, 33 polyelectrolytes, lipids etc. (Benkő et al., 2015; Csapó et al., 2016; Danhier et al., 2012; 34 Kumari et al., 2010; Padilla et al., 2002; Palumbo et al., 2006; Pasqui et al., 2012), or 35 inorganic materials (layer double hydroxides (LDH), clays, mesoporous silica etc. (Deák et 36 al., 2018; Varga, Benko, Sebok, Bohus, et al., 2014) are used as drug carriers in order to 37 achieve a targeted drug delivery system and also a controlled drug release process. Generally, 38 albumin proteins, biocompatible polymers, liposomes, or solid lipid NPs have been utilized 39 for encapsulation of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAID) such as ibuprofen, 40 meloxicam etc. (Benkő et al., 2015; Csapó et al., 2016; Varga et al., 2014). Ketoprofen (KP) 41 also belongs to NSAID and is widely used to treat postoperative pain, including patients after 42 a gastric resection.

43 Hyaluronic acid (HyA) is a well-known linear polysaccharide of alternating units of β-44 1,4-D-glucuronic acid and β-1,3-N-acetyl-D-glucosamine. (Berkó et al., 2013; Bodnár et al., 2009; Hashad et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2015; Maroda et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2017) Because 45 46 of the biocompatible, biodegradable, non-toxic, non-immunogenic and non-inflammatory 47 features this biomaterial is an ideal candidate for several medical and pharmaceutical 48 applications. At physiological conditions (pH, ionic strength) the HyA molecules have a 49 negative charge (hyaluronate form) which results in an extremely high hydrophilic property. 50 Thanks to the hydrophilic character of HyA it is present in several biological fluids, the 51 highest amount can be found in the extracellular matrix of the soft connective tissues. The 52 main disadvantage of this hydrophilic character is that HyA molecules, without chemical 53 structural modification, cannot be simply used as a carrier. In most cases chemical preparation 54 routes have been selected in order to synthesize the hydrophobized derivatives of HyA (e.g. 55 biocompatible polymer (HyA/polylactic acid (Mayol et al., 2014)) or different alkyl- and aryl-56 functionalized derivatives (HyA/decylamine(DA)) (Lee et al., 2015; Vafaei et al., 2016). 57 Some cases the HyA has been used as surface functionalizing agent for preparation of *e.g.* 58 core-shell type NPs (HyA/Human serum albumin-covered chitosan NPs) via electrostatic 59 adsorption of the negatively charged HyA onto the surface of core NPs which has a positive surface charge (Hashad et al., 2017). Besides these derivatives the cross-linked variants of 60 HyA can also be used to encapsulate different drugs (Berkó et al., 2013; Bodnár et al., 2009; 61

62 Maroda et al., 2011). Various techniques have been developed for the production of cross-63 linked HyA, but one of the commonly used method is the carbodiimde technique. (Bodnár et 64 al., 2009; Maroda et al., 2011) During this procedure the covalent cross-linking of the 65 carboxyl functional groups of HyA molecules is carried out with a diamine in an aqueous 66 medium at room temperature. The main advantage of this technique is that stable colloidal 67 particles can be formed in water without the use of any surfactant or other organic solvent. 68 Another possibility is the chemical modification of the HyA molecules by linking aliphatic or 69 aromatic functional groups to the previously mentioned carboxyl moiety which gives the HyA 70 macromolecules hydrophobicity.(Choi et al., 2009) Moreover, the less-known neutralization 71 of HyA via the formation of electrostatic interactions using positively charged amines 72 containing long aliphatic chains like cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) also results 73 in HyA particles having hydrophobic nature. (Kargerová et al., 2014; Oueslati et al., 2014; 74 Sauerová et al., 2015) In previous work by other research groups, the KP was encapsulated in 75 different polymers (e.g. poly (D, L-lactic acid) (PDLLA) or Eudragit) or alginate and gelatin-76 based carriers but the HyA has not been used before for the direct encapsulation of KP 77 molecules. (Arida & Al-Tabakha, 2007; Del Gaudio, Russo, Rosaria Lauro, Colombo, & 78 Aquino, 2009; Vučen et al., 2013)

79 In this work hydrophobic KP, as the model drug molecule, has been used to develop 80 and characterize different types of modified HyA-based systems for controlled drug release. 81 The cross-linking of HyA has been carried out in aqueous media at different ratios of cross-82 linking (50; 75 and 100%). Moreover, the hydrophobized derivatives of HyA have also been 83 prepared by using CTAB at three different HyA monomer/CTAB mass ratios (1:0.2; 1:0.5; 84 1:0.8). Besides structural characterizations the drug release process has also been investigated 85 and the experimental results of different colloidal systems were interpreted. One of the main 86 motivation of this work was to introduce that the extreme hydrophilic HyA after structural 87 modifications is applicable for encapsulation of highly hydrophobic KP small molecules 88 which results in the formation of an effective HyA-based nanosized colloidal systems and a 89 controlled KP release is also feasible.

90 2. Materials and Methods

91 2.1 Materials

92 Hyaluronic acid sodium salt (HyA, 200-500 kDa) was obtained from Gedeon Richter 93 Plc. Ketoprofen (KP; $C_{16}H_{14}O_3$; \geq 98%) and CTAB (CH₃(CH₂)₁₅N(Br)(CH₃)₃; 95%), sodium 94 phosphate dibasic dodecahydrate (Na₂HPO₄×12H₂O; 98.5%) and sodium phosphate

- 95 monobasic monohydrate (NaH₂PO₄×H₂O; \geq 99%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. 96 Sodium chloride (NaCl; a.r.), from Molar Chemicals, was used to prepare isotonic (150 mM) 97 NaCl solution. For the cross-linking reaction 2,2'(ethylenedioxy)bis(ethylamine) (EDEA; 98 NH₂CH₂CH₂OCH₂CH₂OCH₂CH₂NH₂; 98%) and 1-[3-(dimethylamino)propyl]-3-99 ethylcarbodiimid methiodide (EDC methiodide; C₂H₅N=C=N(CH₂)₃N(CH₃)₃I) were obtained 100 from Sigma-Aldrich. Highly purified water was obtained by deionization and filtration with a
- 101 Millipore purification apparatus (18.2 M Ω ·cm at 25 °C). All solvents and reagents used were
- 102 of analytical grade and no further purification were made.

103 **2.2 Experimental procedures of the HyA modifications**

104 Cross-linked (cl) HyA derivatives were prepared according to the previously published 105 procedure reported by Bodnár et al. (Bodnár et al., 2009) The synthesis was performed at 106 room temperature. Namely, 200 mg HyA was dissolved in water to produce 1 mg/mL solution 107 then the pH was adjusted to pH = 5.5. The stoichiometric ratio of cross-linking was 50%, 75% 108 and 100% resulting in cl-HyA/50%, cl-HyA/75% and cl-HyA/100% samples. Accordingly, 109 1.88 mL, 2.82 mL and 3.76 mL EDEA solution (1 v/v%, pH = 5.5) was added to the HyA 110 solution and mixed for 30 min. Then 80 mg, 120 mg and 160 mg EDC methiodide was 111 dissolved in water and added to the mixture drop by drop, respectively. After an overnight 112 stirring the product was purified by dialysis for 7 days against distilled water and the aqueous 113 solution of the final product was freeze-dried. For CTAB modification different calculated 114 amount of surfactant was added to the aqueous solution of HyA to change the hydrophobicity. 115 The mixture was stirred for 30 min before further use.

116 **2.3 Preparation of KP-containing systems**

117 Because of the low solubility of KP in pure Milli-Q water ($c_{max} = 0.051 \text{ mg/mL}$) all drug 118 containing samples were prepared in phosphate buffer solution (PBS) at pH = 7.4 at 25 °C 119 using constant ionic strength (0.9 % NaCl) which highly increased in the KP solubility (c_{KP} = 120 20 mg/mL). In all cases constant KP ($c_{KP} = 20$ mg/mL) and constant HyA concentrations 121 (100.0-100.0 mg lyophilized HyA and cl-HyA/mL) were used. The aqueous KP solutions 122 were added to the different individual cl-HyA and HyA/CTAB samples which resulted in the 123 formation of a gel-like structure after 24 h. After KP loading the samples were diluted to 0.1% 124 and centrifuged (8000 rpm, 10 min). The supernatant contained only 4.5-5.0 % remained KP 125 molecules determined by the previously registered spectrophotometric calibration curve. 126 According to this determination method the loading efficiency is *ca.* 95.5-95.0%.

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128 **2.4 Methods for structural characterizations**

129 High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images were recorded on a 130 Tecnai G2 instrument at 200kV accelerating voltage and they were analyzed using ImageJ 131 software. The particle size and zeta potential values were determined by dynamic light 132 scatteing (DLS) with a Zetasizer Nano ZS ZEN 4003 apparatus (Malvern Ins., UK) equipped 133 with a He-Ne laser ($\lambda = 633$ nm). The measurements were performed at 25 ± 0.1 °C, with an angle detection of 173° in a clear disposable zeta cell. In order to determine the maximum 134 135 amount of CTAB to be added prior to precipitation 0.02 M of CTAB was added stepwise (20-136 20 µL/ step) to 0.2 mg/mL concentration of HyA in PBS and the zeta potential values were 137 registered with DLS. Turbidity measurements were performed by a Precision Bench Turbidity 138 Meter LP2000 (Hanna Ins.), while the conductivity was measured by a Radelkis OK- 114 139 conductometer equipped with an electrode with sheet plates. The Fourier transform infrared 140 (FT-IR) spectroscopy studies were performed by using Jasco FT/IR-4700 spectrometer with 141 ATR PRO ONE Single-reflection accessory (ABL&JASCO, Hungary). Spectra were registered at 4 cm^{-1} optical resolution by averaging 256 interferrograms. 142

143 **2.5 Isothermal Titration Calorimetry (ITC) studies**

144 Thermometric titration experiments were performed at 298.15 K with a computer-controlled 145 VP-ITC power-compensation microcalorimeter (MicroCal) in order to determine the degree 146 of the charge compensation of the CTAB in presence of HyA. Deionized water or HyA 147 solution (1.4 mL) in the sample cell was titrated under constant stirring with 300 μ L of CTAB 148 solution in aliquots of 10 µL in periodic time intervals of 5 min. The enthalpograms 149 (calorimeter power signal vs time) were evaluated by means of Origin Microcal 7.1. software. 150 ITC curves were successfully fitted by using the sigmoidal Boltzmann equation. The modified 151 version of Boltzmann equation has been used to improve the precision of the determination of 152 the critical micellization concentration (*cmc*).(Juhász et al., 2017; Kiraly et al., 2001)

153 **2.6 Rheological studies**

All rheological measurements were performed using an Anton Paar Physica MCR 301 Rheometer (Anton Paar, GmbH, Germany) at 25.0±0.1 °C to provide concentrationdependent structural information on the modified HyA-based drug carrier systems. The measuring system equipped with a 25 mm diameter parallel cone-plate geometry (CP25-1-SN12204), a double-gap- (DG26.7-SN12740) and a concentric cylinder geometry (CC27-SN12793). The rheometer utilized a temperature controlled water bath in combination with a Peltier heating system for accurate control. Detailed parameters of the rheologicalmeasurements, as well as the evaluation process, are summarized in the Supplementary.

162 2.7 In vitro drug release experiments

The release rate of KP molecules was determined by spectrophotometric measurements 163 164 detected the characteristic absorbance band of KP at 260 nm using a UV-1800 (Shimadzu) 165 double beam spectrophotometer with a 1 cm quartz cuvette in the range of 200-500 nm. The 166 *in vitro* drug release experiments were carried out in a phosphate buffer (PBS, pH = 7.4) at 25 167 °C. A cellulose membrane (Sigma-Aldrich) was used as a dialysis membrane. The release 168 process was followed for 480 min (8 h). Samples were taken every 10 minutes in the first hour and then once per hour. Analysis of in vitro drug release data helps evaluate the release 169 170 kinetics and mechanism. Numerous mathematical models (zero-order, first-order, Weibull, 171 Hixone-Crowell, Korsmeyere-Peppas, etc.) have been used to describe the release properties 172 of the drug molecules (Costa et al., 2001; Peppas et al., 1977). The detailed description of the 173 different kinetic models is summarized in Supplemetary. To determine the value of the 174 kinetic constants and other parameters of the applied release kinetic models, the sum of the 175 square of differences between the measured and predicted concentration values have been 176 minimalized using a spreadsheet based computer application for nonlinear parameter 177 estimation (Juhász et al., 2016; Juhász, Csapó, Vécsei, & Dékány, 2017).

178 **3. Results and Discussion**

179 **3.1 Structural characterization of the different HyA-based carriers**

Due to its highly hydrophilic nature, HyA as a possible carrier for encapsulation of hydrophobic agents requires structural modifications. Both the cross-linked (cross-linking ratio of 50, 75 and 100%) and hydrophobized derivatives (partly neutralization with positively-charged amines) of the HyA carrier have been successfully prepared. FT-IR studies, which are in good agreement with the previously published data, (Barbucci et al., 2002; Jiang et al., 2015) have been performed to identify the success of the formation of cross-linking, the results are presented in Fig.S1.

187 The different HyA modifiation methods are summarized in Scheme 1.



189 Scheme 1. Schematic representation of HyA modifications: cross-linking and neutralization 190 with positively-charged amine.

188

191 Due to structural modifications it was found that increasing cross-linking ratio from 50 % to 192 100% results in the formation of nanosized particles, with an increasing size of ca. 45 nm (cl-193 HyA/50%) and ca. 110 nm (cl-HyA/100%). Figure 1. shows the particle size distributions of 194 cl-HyA carrier systems determined by DLS with a representative TEM image of the cl-195 HyA/100% particles. The registered TEM image is in accord with the DLS results, the slight 196 difference between the results can be explained by the hydrodynamic diameter. However the 197 particle size increases with the cross-linking ratio, the presence of more polydispersed 198 systems can be confirmed by DLS. In contrast, the measured Zeta-potential values at neutral 199 pH (pH ~ 7.0) shows an increased stability (cl-HyA/50%: $\zeta = -13.8 \pm 0.1$ mV, cl-HyA/75%: ζ 200 = -20.0 \pm 2.1 mV, cl-HyA/100%: ζ = -23.6 \pm 0.6 mV) for the application of higher 201 concentration of cross-linker. For HyA/CTAB systems the structure, the charge, as well as the 202 optimal ratio of HyA and CTAB, were determined by conductometric, turbidity, Zeta-203 potential and ITC measurements in an aqueous solution at 25 °C. It is well known that the 204 CTAB molecules are capable of forming micelles when the concentration reaches the *cmc*.





Figure 1. Particle size distribution of the different cl-HyA carriers determined by DLS (A)
 and a representative HRTEM image and particle size distribution of the cl-HyA/100% system
 (B).

According to the parallel conductometric measurements 0.94 ± 0.01 mM of *cmc* value is obtained for CTAB (**Figure 2A**), while same 0.94 ± 0.01 mM value was determined by ITC as the grey continuous line represents on **Fig. 3.B**.





215 Both the conductometric and ITC studies have been carried out in the presence of 0.1 mg/mL

of HyA and as **Figure 2B and Figure 3B** represent, the *cmc* value shifted to 1.16 ± 0.02 mM,

217 respectively.



Figure 3. Calorimetric enthalpies of dilution obtained from ITC experiments for CTAB in the presence of HyA ($c_{HyA} = 0.1 \text{ mg/mL}$) at $c_{CTAB} = 12 \text{ mM}$ (A) and $c_{CTAB} = 5 \text{ mM}$ (B) at 298 K.

221 The continuous grey lines in Fig. 3 represent the enthalpogram of pure CTAB in the absence 222 of HyA under the same conditions. The degree of this shift (presence of excess CTAB) 223 strongly depends on the total amount of HyA in the sample. Calculating with the HyA 224 concentration we can conclude that the negatively charged HyA, before the formation of 225 micelles, is totally neutralized by CTAB. At the neutralization point the CTAB/HyA 226 monomer ratio is ca. 1:1 molar (0.96:1.0 mass ratio) obtained by conductometry and ITC 227 studies. In order to determine the equivalent charge of the linear HyA, an additional ITC 228 measurement was performed with diluted surfactant solution ($c_{CTAB} = 5 \text{ mM}$, $c_{HvA} = 0.1$ 229 mg/mL). As can be seen in Figure 3A an inflection point is observed at 0.2 ± 0.01 mM which 230 corresponds to nearly 1.2:1.0 surfactant/HyA monomer molar ratio. This observation also 231 supports the equivalent charge compensation of HyA monomer with CTAB. As Fig. 4 shows 232 the Zeta potential of the negatively-charged polymer reaches the zero value at 0.95:1.0 233 CTAB/HyA monomer mass ratio which is in accord with the conductometry, and ITC 234 Both the turbidity measurements and the change of the average particle experiments. 235 diameter of the CTAB/HyA system confirm the aggregation of the polymer chains after the 236 charge compensation of the carboxyl groups of HyA.



Figure 4. Zeta potential (A), turbidity and hydrodynamic diameter (B) of the HyA/CTAB system as a function of increasing CTAB/HyA monomer mass ratio ($c_{HyA} = 0.2 \text{ mg/mL}$) The (B) represents the photos of the samples before (at $m_{CTAB}/m_{HyA}=0.2$) and after (at $m_{CTAB}/m_{HyA}=0.95$) charge compensation of HyA.

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Above this surfactant concentration (0.95 mg CTAB/1.0 mg HyA monomer) the particle size rises dramatically (from 50 nm to *ca*. 750 nm) while the turbidity decreases due to the aggregation of the hydrophobized and neutralized polymer chains. The registered DLS curves of HyA/CTAB system at different m_{HyA}/m_{CTAB} ratios are presented in Fig. S2.

3.2 Concentration-dependent rheological characterization of the aqueous HyA solutions and hydrogels before structural modifications

248 Based on the rheological studies we found that, the increase in polymer concentration resulted 249 in a dramatic change in the rheological behavior. The HyA solutions show Newtonian, non-250 Newtonian and viscoelastic behavior as the concentration increases from 0.05 to 100 mg/mL. 251 The viscosities of diluted and moderately concentrated polymer solutions were determined by 252 a rotational technique based on the fitting of registered flow curves. In the case of much dilute 253 solutions, the linear flow curves prove the validity of the Newton law (Figure S3). For these 254 extremely diluted polymer solutions, which are usually considered as a molecular solution, 255 the viscosity variations are associated with a behavior (deformation, orientation etc.) of 256 separate molecules under flow conditions. Generally, the viscosities of moderately 257 concentrated solutions of high-molecular weight polymers are known to be variable quantities 258 which decrease with increasing shear rate. This shear-thinning effect has been understood for 259 a long time and as Fig. S4 shows similar behavior was observed for HyA above 1.00 mg/mL 260 concentration. In the case of these concentrated solutions, a varying viscosity is assumed to be 261 due to the entanglement of linear polymer chains. An alternative explanation of this effect, is

262 based on an assumption of weak macromolecular cross-linking. These secondary bindings 263 disappear and reappear again as a result of thermal motion, and the average number of these 264 weak cross-links in the shear flow decreases when the shear rate is increased. While this 265 characteristic is very desirable, it creates problems when attempting to measure the viscosity 266 of HyA solutions and concentrated gels. A single-point viscosity test such as that typically 267 conducted on a simple viscometer is insufficient to fully characterize the material. Instead of 268 this, a viscosity/shear rate profile (such as that shown in Figure S4) is more suitable as a 269 means of measuring this material. Moreover, we report the results of the dynamic 270 measurements, which show the change of the loss and the storage modulus (G' and G'') as a function of amplitude, under 10 $\ensuremath{\mathrm{s}}^{\ensuremath{\mathrm{-1}}}$ oscillation frequency . All the samples were tested but 271 only some results are presented for clarity. For the linear polymer (Figure 5), we observe the 272 273 expected behavior. Polymer gels essentially show elastic character at low strain, while at high strain the loss modulus dominates (G'' > G'). The distance between the G', and G'' curves has 274 no such relevance as the ratio G''/G' which is equal to $\tan \delta$, this parameter is a measure of the 275 internal friction of the material in that condition. 276



Figure 5. Strain (A) and concentration (B) dependence of the viscoelastic parameters (storage
 modulus (solid symbols) and loss modulus (hollow symbols), flow point and phase angle) of
 linear HyA hydrogels.

When G'' is higher than G', $\tan \delta$ is the larger one we can say that the sample is more viscous than elastic, and when G' is higher and $\tan \delta$ is the smaller one the sample shows an elastic property. Amplitude scans of the solvated linear HyA shows that the G''/G' ratio does not change as strain increases from 0.1 to 10.0%, it means that the internal friction is independent of strain in this region. Above strain value of 10%, the samples show non-linear dependence,

according to the pseudo-plastic or plastic behavior. The point where *G*^{''} crosses *G*' is denoted as the flow point, and above this strain value the viscous behavior dominates. **Figure 5.B** clearly shows that the flow points increase dramatically, while the phase angle decreases as the polymer concentration increases. The decrease of the phase angle indicates the change from Newtonian behavior to elastic behavior, which confirms viscoelastic fingerprint characterizing concentrated HyA solutions with weak gel-like behavior (Iannitti et al., 2013; Liang et al., 2007).

293 3.3. Rheological characterization of the hydrophobized CTAB/HyA systems

294 To characterize the hydrophobized form of the polymer, a constant (0.1 mg/mL) initial HyA 295 concentration was chosen for the steady shear rate measurements of the CTAB solution 296 diluted HyA samples and a larger concentration (50 mg/mL) was applied in the case of 297 amplitude sweep investigations. As can be seen in Figure 6. the apparent viscosity of the 298 polymer solution continuously decreases, due to the added surfactant, and a breakpoint can be 299 observed on the viscosity vs. molar ratio $(n_{CTAB} / n_{monomer})$ curve. After extraction the dilution 300 effect only in the pre-break region can be observed. Above ca. 1:1 surfactant/monomer molar 301 ratio, the viscosity of the neutralized and thus the hydrophobized polymer solution, shows a 302 rising trend. After this observation it can be stated that in addition to conductivity and ITC 303 measurement a modified rheological investigation also suitable for detection of the structural 304 change of the polymer – surfactant colloid system.



305

306Figure 6. Steady shear rate determined apparent viscosity of linear HyA ($c_{HyA} = 0.1 \text{ mg/mL}$)307titrated with CTAB ($c_{CTAB} = 25.0 \text{ mM}$) solution.

308 As illustrated in **Figure 7.** the varying degrees of hydrophobized polymer based hydrogels, 309 show elasticity at low strain, while at high strain range the loss modulus dominates (G'' > G')310 as the above reported linear HyA hydrogels. As a result of added surfactant at 10 mg/mL 311 CTAB concentration (20% of the neutralization needed surfactant amount) the flow point 312 increased dramatically and it is slightly reduced by the effect of the following (50% and 80%) 313 additional surfactant. The opposite tendency can be observed with regard to the change of 314 phase angle value in the function of CTAB concentration. When the concentration of polymer 315 is over the 50 mg/mL and surfactant is 10.0 mg/mL or lower the hydrogel becomes more 316 elastic than without surfactant while above this surfactant amount the elastic behavior turns 317 Newtonian. The same trend was observed in the case of varying degrees of cross-linked 318 polymer hydrogels (Figure S5.) where the flow point almost reaches the zero value due to the 319 structure modification of polymer chains, and the changes of phase angle showed a more and 320 more viscous character. The latter outlined two observations confirm the assumption that both the added CTAB, and the cross-linking agent break the spontaneously formed coherent 321 322 structure from the solvated biopolymer.



Figure 7. Amplitude sweep determined rheological parameters (A: storage modulus and loss modulus; B: flow point and phase angle) of linear HyA hydrogels ($c_{HyA} = 50 \text{ mg/ mL}$) as a function of c_{CTAB} .

327 **3.4** *In vitro* drug release experiments

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The detailed rheological characterization of the pure and modified drug carrier systems greatly contributes to the better understanding the mechanism of the drug release process. The mechanism of drug release from the HyA-based carriers was investigated using modeldependent methods. The drug release results were fitted into first-order kinetics, Korsmeyer–

Peppas and Weibull models. Drug release curves of KP from varying degrees of 332 333 hydrophobized or cross-linked polymer-based carriers are depicted in Figure 8. As it can be 334 seen, all the formulations are able to impede KP release for more than 6 h, but the release of 335 the drug from the cross-linked polymer is almost complete within 7 h. In particular, the 336 release kinetic of KP from cl-HyA/50% is the fastest and, above all, poorly controlled. By 337 adding the linker from 50% to 75 and 100% into the polymer it was possible to achieve a 338 more accurate control over drug release from the polymeric carrier. However, it should be 339 noted that nearly 80% is released from the total drug content in the case of cl-HyA/100% at 340 the end of the seventh hour (Figure 8A). On the other hand, using the least amount of 341 surfactant (Figure 8B) caused only 60% of the active ingredient to dissolve during the 342 experiment.

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Keeping regard the values of coefficient of determination, (R^2) from **Table 1**, the Weibull 347 model was the best and the Korsmeyer and Peppas model was the second best model for the 348 349 hydrophobized polymer. While in the case of cl-polymers the Weibull model was the best, 350 and first order model is the second best model for describing the release profiles. Although 351 the fitting of the Korsmeyer and Peppas equation does not produce a good description of 352 dissolution profile as well as the Weibull model, the values of the matching parameters (k_m) 353 and *n*) also carry important information. Hydrophobized HyA exhibited a release exponent n, 354 values of 0.60; 0.70 and 0.75, indicating that the drug release from surfactant - polymer 355 system might have followed both drug diffusion and the erosion of matrix in an anomalous356 non-Fickian manner.

Formulation	First-order		Korsmeyer-Peppas			Weibull		
r or mutation	$k (h^{-1})$	R^2	k_m (h ⁻ⁿ)	n	R^2	a	b	R^2
20% CTAB	0.16	0.9881	524	0.6039	0.9819	0.0003	0.7935	0.9971
50% CTAB	0.10	0.9892	149	0.6975	0.9941	0.0002	0.8210	0.9978
80% CTAB	0.04	0.9907	41	0.7484	0.9989	0.0001	0.7950	0.9995
cl-HyA/50%	0.50	0.9995	1401	0.5539	0.9799	0.0001	0.9913	0.9995
cl-HyA/75%	0.34	0.9977	698	0.6127	0.9783	0.0001	1.0095	0.9977
cl-HyA/100%	0.26	0.9901	1126	0.5497	0.9886	0.0005	0.7950	0.9986

357 Table 1. Fitting results of the experimental KP release data to different kinetic equations, for358 several formulations

359 Release exponents of the cross-linked carriers are much closer to the limit (n = 0.45) which 360 indicates the diffusion-controlled Fickian drug release. In addition, the fact that the value of 361 the release exponent of the hydrophobized matrix continually decreases as the amount of 362 surfactant increases, shows that the contribution of anomalous diffusion is gets stronger. 363 Based on the observation of previous parts (change of the zeta potential, turbidity and particle 364 size values as a function CTAB amount), it can also be established that the release of KP from 365 the carrier faster and rather diffusion controlled when relatively small amount of electrostatic 366 adsorbed surfactant molecules are present in the system. As the polymer-ionic surfactant 367 interactions lead to changes in polymer structure the dissolution of the drug becomes slower, 368 and the release turns to diffusion and erosion controlled way.

369 4. Conclusion

370 Since KP has some disadvantages as of low bioavailability and short half-life the 371 formulation of controlled release dosage forms is needed. The results from both rheology and 372 conductometric measurements verified the successful synthesis of two types of formulation by 373 cross-linking of HyA or surface modification by CTAB. Turbidity, Zeta-potential and particle 374 size analysis enabled the determination of optimal CTAB amount. The concentration-375 dependent structure of the HyA-based carrier was clearly confirmed by several rheological 376 investigations. The release mechanism of KP from each formulation tested was evaluated in 377 light of the first-order, Korsmeyer-Peppas and Weibull kinetic models. The release of KP 378 from the carrier is faster and rather diffusion controlled when relatively small amount of 379 electrostatic adsorbed CTAB are present in the system. As the polymer-ionic surfactant 380 interactions lead to changes in polymer structure the dissolution of drug becomes slower and 381 the release turns to diffusion and erosion controlled way. However, the loading efficiency 382 shows similar values (93-95%) but comparing the controlled drug release studies of our 383 modified-HyA based systems with e.g. alginate-, gelatin- or acrylic polymer-based KP-384 containing systems we can conclude that after 4-6 h all of the amount of the encapsulated 385 drug was dissolved from the above mentioned composites while in case of our systems (e.g. 386 cl-HyA/100%) after 7 h only 70% but for CTAB/HyA 50% ca. only 40% of the KP content 387 was dissolved. These results support the better applicability of cl-HyA NPs instead of the 388 above mentioned other biocompatible carriers. We presented a potential applications of 389 effective HyA biomaterial-based colloidal controlled drug release systems which contain 390 hydrophobic NSAID KP molecule.

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Cross-linked and hydrophobized hyaluronic acid-based controlled drug

release systems

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Graphical abstract

