# Biologically triggered liberation of sub-micron particles from alginate microcapsules

Jitka Čejková, Petra Haufová, Damian Gorný, Jaroslav Hanuš and František Štěpánek

Department of Chemical Engineering, Institute of Chemical Technology, Prague, Technicka 5, Prague 6, 166 28, Czech Republic.

Tel: +420 22044 3236; E-mail: frantisek.stepanek@vscht.cz

Abstract - A new method for triggering the burst liberation of encapsulated sub-micron particles from carrier particles using embedded microorganisms has een developed. Triggering mechanisms such as chemical, light, thermal, or magnetic are kn made particles are not yet able to replicate the concept of "hiberna und in systems in the form of spores or seeds that survive in inactiv te and s grow only once favourable environmental conditions are encountere An eng ered particle system that mimics this property by embedding viable yeast ynthet cally made alginate lls in microcapsules is reported in this work. Cell gr n is used as a trigger h and divis mechanism for stimuli-responsive release the apsulated content. The hybrid living/artificial capsules were formed by a inting process and the mechanism of n inkje biologically triggered release was shown fluores ently labelled liposomes.

### 1 Introduction

The concelled reliese of accessules substances (e.g. drugs, fragrances, probiotics, nutrient preservative aftern man-made capsules is of considerable interest in many fields of science and technology. Cariety of chemical and physical methods have been developed to release the capsule content, cf. e.g. a review by Esser-Kahn et al. The release triggers are frequently based on mechanical, chemical, electrical, thermal, photo, or magnetic stimuli. While these stimuli are well-defined in terms of their timing and the threshold value of a physical quantity that characterises each stimulus (e.g. voltage, temperature, concentration, etc.), release triggers occurring in nature are often more complex and comprise the simultaneous occurrence of several stimuli – for example, the combination of specific temperature, humidity and light conditions is necessary for seed germination.

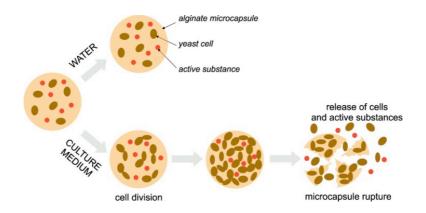
The use of actual living microorganisms or their spores offers a possible way of achieving such complex triggers even in synthetically made particles. To achieve this, a necessary condition is the ability to fabricate composite microcapsules that incorporate the

chosen microorganism or its spores, and to ensure their viability. In the specific case of yeast cell encapsulation into alginate gel, currently available encapsulation techniques include microfluidic approaches<sup>2</sup>, electrostatic droplet generation<sup>3</sup>, spinning disk atomization<sup>4</sup> or simply dropping an alginate solution into CaCl<sub>2</sub> by a syringe<sup>5,6</sup>. At present, the main reasons for microbial cell encapsulation into various matrix materials include cell protection from negative environmental influences such as shear forces, phagocytosis or digestion. Immobilized microbial cells can also be handled more easily<sup>7</sup>.

In most current applications of immobilised cells, microcapsule rupture due to internal pressure of proliferating cells is usually not of interest. In the case of cell-based biosensor applications, the cell division and capsule disintegration would be outright undesirable. Cases where the capsules rupture due to CO<sub>2</sub> formation when are placed in a growth medium have been reported<sup>8</sup> and the surfactant Tween-20 has been to to improve the permeability of the capsule for easier CO<sub>2</sub> liberation<sup>6</sup>. A silica the mechanical resistance of capsules<sup>9</sup>. A case where the cell div n is a w been reported by Hamad et al. 10 who fabricated composit multi-ce nellae microcapsules that contained living yeast cells. Cell release from t psule after incubation in a cultivation medium has been demonstrated. However the best of ar knowledge, the use of cell growth as a trigger for the release of another activ bstance also embedded within the carrier particle has not been reported in the l yet.

The present paper describes the pr ration o hybrid alginate microcapsules capable elled liposomes in this case – as a result of releasing encapsulated payloag rupture caused by proliferating d The sc trueture and mechanism of action of the emati microcapsules is shown in nfavourable conditions (absence of nutrients, low s not occur and the microcapsules are stable in aqueous medium temperature Yout disintegration or release of their content. Once the for ext ed perio of time ounter favourable conditions (presence of nutrients, higher temperature), microcapsu cell division and with causes an eventual rupture of the alginate capsule and release of the Additionally, magnetic iron oxide nanoparticles were also embedded embedded liposome within the composite microcapsules to facilitate their manipulation and separation by a magnetic field. Liposomes loaded with fluorescein represent a model "active" particulate substance that is to be liberated from the composite microcapsules. Calcium alginate hydrogel was chosen as a matrix material in which the three types of internal components (yeast cells, liposomes, magnetic nanoparticles) were embedded due to its ability to form microcapsules by means of an ink-jet printing process, which has been demonstrated in our previous work<sup>11</sup>, 12

2



**Fig.1** Schematic principle of microcapsule rupture and liberation of an active substance into the environment caused by yeast cell growth in the culture medium.

### 2 Materials and methods

## 2.1 Materials

Sodium alginate, calcium chloride (CaCl<sub>2</sub>), fluorescein di yeast extract and etate () abeta .s., Czech Republic) glucose were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Instant y cel were suspended in deionised water in various ncentration I mg of dry powder corresponds to  $3\times10^7$  cells). Hydrophilic iron oxide nar rticles were prepared according to a synthesis described in 13. Fluorescently lab aled by omes molar ratio of DPPC:cholesterol d in<sup>14</sup>. Deionised water was produced was 2:1) were synthesized in the same was s descril by a ionex filter (Aqual 25).

# 2.2 Microcapsule formation

duced by majet printing<sup>15</sup>. A piezoelectric drop-on-demand printsupplied by Microfab, Inc. (Plano, Texas, USA) was used, head type 1-80-6coupled v rol unit type JetDrive III and a pressure controller type CT-PT-01 also fab, Inc. 2 ml of aqueous solutions of 2% (w/w) sodium alginate and 2 ml supplied by M of aqueous suspen of yeast cells were mixed and printed into approximately 50 ml of aqueous solution of 2% (w/w) CaCl<sub>2</sub> where a rapid ionic cross-linking of the microdroplets occurred. The receiving CaCl<sub>2</sub> solution was constantly agitated to avoid microdroplets coalescence after impact. To prepare magnetic microcapsules, one half of the cell suspension was replaced by citrate-stabilized iron oxide nanoparticle dispersion in water (15 mg/ml). The solution for printing of magnetic capsules containing liposomes was mixed from a sodium alginate solution, the cell suspension, the iron oxide nanoparticle solution and a liposome solution in the volume ratio 4:1:1:2. Cross-linked calcium alginate microcapsules were separated from the CaCl<sub>2</sub> solution by using a filter or magnet and suspended in deionized water in which they were stored at room temperature until further use. In this state the

composite microcapsules were stable for up to 4 months without any significant loss of yeast cell viability.

## 2.3 Microcapsule characterization

The microcapsules were characterized by means of inverted optical microscope (Olympus CK40) and a laser scanning confocal microscope - LSCM (Olympus Fluoview FV1000). The particle size was evaluated by laser diffraction (Horiba Partica LA 950/V2). The viability of yeast cells was confirmed by using the standard fluorescein diacetate solution method.

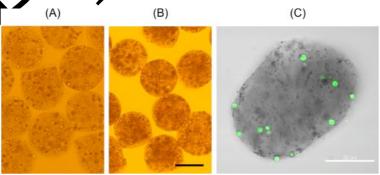
# 2.4 Yeast cell division and microcapsules disruption study

For a study of the cell division and disintegration of microcapsules, the composite microcapsules were placed into a Petri dish containing a culture media (consisting of glucose in a concentration of 10 g/l and yeast extract in a concentration (5 g/l) and monitored by an optical microscope for 24 hours. The cell growth curves were measured by means of visible spectrophotometer (Specord 205 JU, Aran, & Jena, Aran, which wavelength used for the measurement of optical density was 20 nm (c. 600).

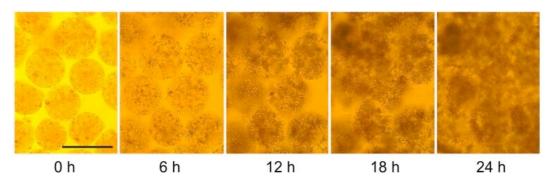
## 3 Results and discussion

# 3.1 Microcapsule characterization

The drop-on-demand inkjet technology r the formation of calcium alginate as used roplets of a sodium alginate precursor microcapsules with embedded yeast alls by cting of the formed microcapsules was mostly into a pool of calcium chloride oluti rted (fla ened) due to droplet deformation upon spherical, however, some were dis landing into the CaCl<sub>2</sub> s ion<sup>4</sup>. Figur (A)-(B) shows the composite alginate microcapsules with two atrations; both spherical and flattened capsules are evident irrespecti f the ll concentra on used.



**Fig.2** Magnetic alginate microcapsules with various cell concentrations. Optical microscope images: (A)  $2.25 \cdot 10^8$  cell/ml, (B)  $3.75 \cdot 10^8$  cell/ml. (C) Laser scanning confocal microscope image (single slice in x-y plane) of a 1 month old magnetic alginate microcapsule with  $2.25 \cdot 10^8$  cell/ml labelled by FDA. Scale bars represent 50 μm.



**Fig.3** Yeast cell division in alginate microcapsules incubated in a Petri dish with culture medium. The initial concentration of yeast cells in the microcapsules was  $3.75 \cdot 10^8$  cell/ml. Scale bar represents  $100 \ \mu m$ .

The mean size of freshly precipitated capsules measured in  $CaCl_2$  so the by mean  $\ell$  static light scattering was 61  $\mu$ m; in water the mean size is reased to 59  $\mu$ m do not swelling of calcium alginate. This is provoked by the relaxation of the polymer has ork at the presence of osmotic pressure. Swelling of the calcium alginate beads in other occurs until the osmotic pressure equals the forces of the cross-linking books that make in the structure of the polymer network  $\ell$ 16.

The viability of yeast cells in the q micre psules was confirmed by using fluorescein diacetate (FDA)<sup>17</sup>. This colo nd exhibits no fluorescence, however, s compo it is known that it diffuses through d living cells are able to hydrolyse it by FD. into fluorescein. Typically, 2 ml of their enzymatic apparatus an nsforn ith a few droplets of FDA in acetone for 20 microcapsule suspension bserved under LSCM. By this test it was proven that the cells are minutes, then able to during the ink-jet printing process. Figure 2(C) shows a viabilit, after one month of its fabrication and storage in water that was incubated with microcapse pots correspond to living cells, which confirms that the cell viability is FDA. The gree eeks. The viability tests also excluded that the magnetic iron oxide preserved for man nanoparticles have a harmful effect on yeast cells. Viable yeast cells clearly exist in the composite microcapsules in the presence of inorganic nanoparticles.

# 3.2 Yeast cell growth in microcapsules

The hybrid microcapsules with embedded yeast cells were stored in water for a few weeks and no microcapsule changes or cell division in capsules were observed. Radical changes occurred only after incubation with a growth medium containing yeast extract and glucose. For the preparation of the culture medium we have used water instead of phosphate buffer,

which is normally used, due to the fact that the phosphate buffer would precipitate calcium ions and reverse the alginate crosslinking<sup>18</sup>.

To observe the division of encapsulated yeast cells, composite microcapsules were suspended in a Petri dish with the growth medium and placed under a microscope at laboratory temperature (~25 °C). Images in 1-minutes intervals were grabbed for at least 24 hours and compiled into a movie (see Supplementary material  $S1^{\dagger}$ ). A series of experiments starting from capsules containing different initial cell concentrations with and without magnetic nanoparticles were performed. Typical results are summarized in Figures 3 and 4 for microcapsules containing iron oxide nanoparticles and yeast cells in concentration  $3.75 \times 10^8$  cell/ml.

Figure 3 shows the evolution of microcapsule structure in time under st conditions in a Petri dish with a cultivation medium. During ink-jet fabrication of the micro iles, no cell loss was observed and the cell number per microcapsule was therefor mined concentration in the initial alginate solution (approximately 1 ells pe t = 0 h corresponds to the moment of placing microcapsy into cultivation medium. About two hours after incubation, first buds on the ce extensive budding d but r appe was observed yet. Around the time t = 7 h, the cell developed and around sion was hi t = 15 h the alginate microcapsules were almost full of t = 15At time t = 18 h the first ruptures of the composite microcapsules started. Du e cell division all microcapsules tensi eventually disintegrated and essentially and nd microcapsules were evident at time iginal ro t = 24 h. Only clusters of yeast ce ie Petri dish.

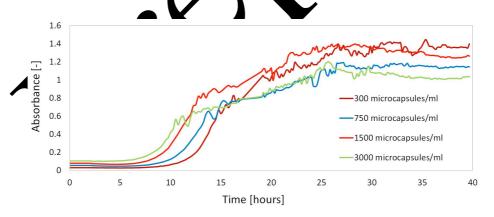
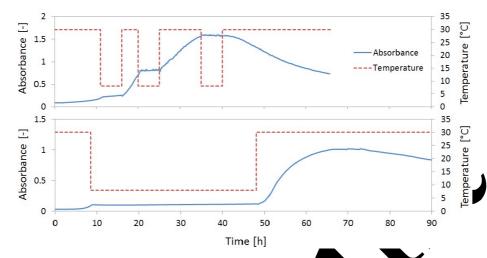


Fig. 4 Growth curves of yeast cells in the microcapsules (initial concentration  $3.75 \cdot 10^8$  cell/ml) for various concentrations of microcapsules in growth medium. The corves correspond to different microcapsule dilutions as indicated in the legend.

The growth kinetics was also evaluated by using visible spectrophotometry, when the growth curves of cells in alginate microcapsules were measured as a function of optical density at the wavelength of 600 nm. These two types of experiments differ in conditions. Observation by

microscope was under static conditions without any mixing whereas microcapsules in the spectrophotometer cuvettes were intensively stirred by a magnetic stirrer in order to keep them suspended. Mixing might affect the microcapsule disintegration, therefore the capsule disintegrate somewhat earlier than on the Petri dishes.



**Fig. 5** Control of yeast growth by temperature modulation (interruption of growth by temperature decrease and resumption of growth by temperature increase). (A) Three interruptions of cell growth at times 11-16 h, 20-1 h, 35-40 h. (B) One cell growth interruption for almost two days (8-48 h).

Figure 4 shows the changes in op ocapsule suspension at 600 nm. During nsity the first few hours no changes v yeast cells were still in the lag phase of vident beca their growth, they adapted growth conditions and rarely divided. At about t = 7 h, the ca the exponential growth phase and at about t = 12 h since the addition angules ruptured. Despite mixing, the measured absorbance at this stage. Nevertheless, a continuous increase of absorbance is evident started to t = 24 h, which indicates continuing cell division. After the time t = 24 h, until approxim er increased as the cells entered into the stationary phase due to lack of the absorbance no nutrients.

To confirm that the disruption of alginate microcapsules was caused solely by the growth of encapsulated yeast cells, a blind experiment was performed. When alginate microcapsules without yeast cells were prepared and placed into the growth medium, no decomposition of the microcapsules was observed. Such a blind experiment excluded the growth medium as a possible factor causing the microcapsule rupture and confirmed the role of the dividing cells. To exclude the effect of yeast cell and their metabolites presence on the decomposition of alginate microcapsules, another blind experiment was performed. Alginate microparticles without embedded yeast were placed into a growth medium together with

freely suspended yeast cells. Again, no microcapsule disintegration was observed, the cells have grown outside the microcapsules and did not affect the alginate integrity.

## 3.3 Mimicking spore behaviour

To demonstrate the concept of "artificial spores" or "artificial seeds", additional experiments with switching favourable/unfavourable conditions and drying of microcapsules were performed. In biology, a spore is defined as a reproductive structure that is adapted for dispersion and survival for extended periods of time in unfavourable conditions. Once conditions are favourable, spores can develop into new organisms. The activators of such a transformation from spore to cell could be *e.g.* nutrients, temperature, pH, or combination of these parameters. The interesting property of this transformation is that the conditions are suitable for germination, the spores enter a lag phase and activate species genes that trigger signal pathways leading to swelling and cell emergence. Once the wollen, germination becomes irreversible, but during the lag hase are sted sport can return to dormancy<sup>19</sup>.

The experiment mimicking spore response to change was performed in a spectrophotometer equipped with heating/cooling f ty. The grd curves were measured and temperature changes applied. The experiment star at unfavourable conditions, where The first change consisted in placing microcapsules were stored in water (without nutries of capsules in the culture medium at temp (corresponding to time t = 0 h in the ture 30 ours the yeast cells embedded in the growth curves in Figure 5). F first microcapsules were still dormar nce the the exponential phase of their growth, ente temperature was rapidly de reased uch a temperature shock stopped the cell growth, ermancy. During this time no change of optical density was resulting in ision of cells. When temperature was increased back to 30 observe orrespo ing to no °C, rapid with was restarted and the next temperature decrease again caused an interruption of division. An example of three repetitions heating/cooling is shown in B) shows the possibility to "freeze" the cell growth in microcapsule for Figure 5(A). Figure almost two days and then restart growth by a return to favourable conditions.

## 3.4 Cell growth triggered liberation of active substances from microcapsule

As was shown above, composite microcapsules are stable in water, whereas after cultivation in a growth medium they are able to disintegrate. To demonstrate that capsule disintegration can be used for the release of a previously encapsulated payload, the liberation of fluorescently labelled liposomes was observed by a laser scanning confocal microscope. Figure 6(A) shows the composite particles directly after their fabrication. The fluorescence

signal is obtained only in the microcapsules, which confirms the presence of liposomes. In Figure 6(B), the same microcapsules were imaged one day after fabrication and storage in pure water. Again, the fluorescence signal comes only from microcapsules, no liberation of liposomes from microcapsules occurred. On the other hand, Figure 6(C) confirms that after cultivation of the microcapsules in a growth medium, the cells divide and cause the rupture of capsules, liberating the encapsulated substances into the surroundings. After one day of incubation in culture medium, no compact microcapsules were present, only clusters of cells were evident and the fluorescence signal was detectable from the whole medium in a diluted way because the liposomes were released during the microcapsule disintegration. It should be noted that although the fluorescence signal appears uniform throughout the medium once the particles disintegrate, it is not possible to distinguish truly free individu aposomes form small clusters of liposomes that may still be associated with fragments of t lginate gel. However, what is clear is that sub-micron object have been libera hal gel particle.

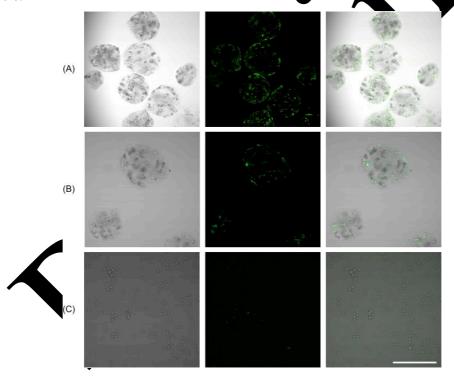


Fig. 6 Alginate microcapsules with fluorescently labelled liposomes. (A) Freshly prepared microcapsules in water. (B) Microcapsules after one day in water. (C) Disintegrated microcapsules after one day of incubation in a culture medium. (Left column – optical image, middle column – fluorescence signal, right column – superposition of both signals. The scale bar represents  $100 \, \mu m$ .)

A final experiment has been carried out in order to investigate whether the time of rupture can be controlled by the initial state of the particles – namely the initial cell concentration – on the

time to particle rupture. Particles prepared from yeast cells at three different dilutions  $(1\cdot10^7 \text{ cell/ml}, 1\cdot10^8 \text{ cell/ml}, \text{ and } 1\cdot10^9 \text{ cell/ml})$  were cultured under favourable conditions and the fraction of intact particles.

#### **4 Conclusions**

Composite hydrogel microcapsules with embedded yeast cells that can act as a biological trigger for controlled opening of the microcapsules and locally liberate sub-micrometer objects have been fabricated. Additionally, magnetic nanoparticles were added into the microcapsules to enable manipulation by external magnetic field. The composite capsules were stable in aqueous media for up to several months and retained th viability. Once favourable conditions were encountered - i.e. the presence or nutrients a suitable temperature – the proliferation of yeast cells within the microcap disintegration and the liberation of other embedded obj namel labelled liposome. It has been shown that biologically dease can be used iggere not only for a one-off rupture of the micro also for a repeated sules. interruption and 'restart' of the growth process es due to variations in external conditions. This behaviour contrasts ditional man-made triggered of esses te d to dominate. Systems based on release systems where irreversible الله fin biologically triggered release ation in fields such as controlled release of bactericides or fun ici es, or the a ction of potential food contamination s. Hybrid particles combining biologically due to inappropriate st rage plated colloidal carriers<sup>20</sup> can also be envisaged, whereby triggered re structure by other means than mechanical force (e.g. the cell an disru the par refraction with a polyelectrolyte). Additionally, yeast cells (typical size pH change 2-3 µm) do not expresent the only option for the concept of biologically triggered release; other mic organisms or their spores could potentially be used, enabling a reduction of particle size or functionality at different temperatures (e.g. thermophilic bacteria).

## Acknowledgments

Financial support from the European Research Council (grant number 200580-Chobotix) and the European Union 7th Framework Program (Grant Agreement 318671-MICREAgents) is gratefully acknowledged.

## References

- 1. A. P. Esser-Kahn, S. A. Odom, N. R. Sottos, S. R. White and J. S. Moore, *Macromolecules*, 2011, **44**, 5539-5553.
- 2. C. J. Martinez, J. W. Kim, C. Ye, I. Ortiz, A. C. Rowat, M. Marquez and D. Weitz, *Macromolecular Bioscience*, 2012, **12**, 946-951.
- 3. V. A. Nedović, B. Obradović, I. Leskošek-Čukalović, O. Trifunović, R. Pešić and B. Bugarski, *Process Biochemistry*, 2001, **37**, 17-22.
- 4. Y. Senuma, C. Lowe, Y. Zweifel, J. G. Hilborn and I. Marison, *Biotechnology and Bioengineering*, 2000, **67**, 616-622.
- 5. K. Koyama and M. Seki, Journal of Bioscience and Bioengineering 2004, 2011 18.
- 6. H. N. Chang, G. H. Seong, I.-K. Yoo, J. K. Park and J.-H. Seo, intechnology and Bioengineering, 1996, 51, 157-162.
- 7. J. K. Park and H. N. Chang, Biotechnology Advances, 2 18, 30, 319
- 8. S. Cheong, J. Park, B. Kim and H. Chang, Biotech. Tech, 23, 7,879-884.
- 9. T. Coradin, E. Mercey, L. Lisnard and J. Livago, hemical Corphunications, 2001, 2496-2497.
- 10. S. A. Hamad, S. D. Stoyanov and V. N. Paunov, ft Matter, 2012, 8, 5069-5077.
- 11. J. Dohnal and F. Štěpánek, Chemical Englering science, 2011, 66, 3829-3835.
- 12. P. Haufová, J. Dohnal, Hazuš and Štěpánek, Colloids and Surfaces A: Physicochemical and Engineering Asperts, 2012. 10, 52-58.
- 13. V. Tokárová, A. Pit rnannova, P. Ulbrich and F. Štěpánek, *Soft Matter*, 2012, 8, 1087 1095
- 14. M. Science, 13, 394, 380-385.
- 15. J. Dohnal and Štěpánek, Powder Technology, 2010, 200, 254-259.
- 16. G. Pasparakis and N. Bouropoulos, *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, 2006, **323**, 34-42.
- 17. G. Adam and H. Duncan, Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 2001, 33, 943-951.
- 18. R. Yao, R. J. Zhang, J. Luan and F. Lin, Biofabrication, 2012, 4.
- 19. P. Van Dijken and P. Van Haastert, BMC Cell Biology, 2001, 2, 25.
- 20. X. Yan, J. Li and H. Möhwald, Advanced Materials, 2012, 24, 2663.