

Localization of dexamethasone within dendritic core-multishell (CMS) nanoparticles and skin penetration properties studied by multi-frequency electron paramagnetic resonance spectroscopy (EPR)

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Abstract

The skin and especially the stratum corneum (SC) act as a barrier and protect epidermal cells and thus the whole body against xenobiotics of the external environment. Topical skin treatment requires an efficient drug delivery system (DDS). Polymer-based nanocarriers represent novel transport vehicles for dermal application of drugs. In this study dendritic core-multishell (CMS) nanoparticles were investigated as promising candidates. CMS were loaded with a drug (analogue) and were applied to penetration studies of skin. We determined by dual-frequency electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) how Dexamethasone (Dx) labelled with 3-carboxy-2,2,5,5-tetramethyl-1-pyrrolidinyloxy (PCA) is associated with the CMS. The micro-environment of the drug loaded to CMS nanoparticles was investigated by pulsed high-field EPR at cryogenic temperature, making use of the fact that magnetic parameters (g -, A -matrices, and spin-lattice relaxation time) represent specific probes for

the micro-environment. Additionally, the rotational correlation time of spin-labelled Dx was probed by continuous wave EPR at ambient temperature, which provides independent information on the drug environment. Furthermore, the penetration depth of Dx into the stratum corneum of porcine skin after different topical applications was investigated. The location of Dx in the CMS nanoparticles is revealed and the function of CMS as penetration enhancers for topical application is shown.

Keywords:

Drug delivery system (DDS), dexamethasone, dendritic core-multishell systems (CMS), dual-frequency EPR, skin penetration, solvent polarity, mobility

1. Introduction

Today delivery and controlled release of drugs to specific targets are important fields in medical, pharmaceutical, and multi-disciplinary research. Different carrier systems have been developed in the last decades, ranging from macromolecules to nanoparticles. These vehicles can improve the uptake and penetration of drugs into the skin and reduce side effects [1–3] Especially for the hair follicles, an improved penetration could be demonstrated [4–7] Pharmaceutically used drugs show various physical and chemical properties, thus the use of carrier systems is depending on the respective drug and its application [8]. Polymer-based nanocarriers are candidates for drug delivery systems (DDS) [9–11] and have various advantages: drug carrier development is less time and cost demanding compared to new and more

13 efficient drugs; nanocarriers can reduce drug side effects and can enhance
14 treatment efficiency of diseases due to lower dose requirements. Another
15 nanocarrier advantage is the protection of drugs against degradation before
16 release at the target [12]. Furthermore, they enable the transport of a mul-
17 titude of different drugs with different chemical properties [13].

18 Dendritic core-multishell (CMS) nanoparticles represent a class of new nanop-
19 articles applicable as DDS [9, 14]. These particles consist of a dendritic poly-
20 glycerol core with polar properties, which is surrounded by two layers of dif-
21 ferent chemical composition, allowing the transport and storage of molecules
22 with lipophilic (inner shell) or hydrophilic (outer shell) character [15–17].
23 Recently, these CMS nanoparticles have successfully been used for dermal
24 application. Küchler et al. could show an increased penetration for the
25 lipophilic fluorescence dye nile red loaded to CMS particles into porcine skin
26 compared to a base cream or solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) [18]. Addition-
27 ally, an increased penetration for 3-carboxy-2,2,5,5-tetramethyl-1-pyrrolidi-
28 nyloxy (PCA) loaded to CMS nanoparticles was shown in comparison to ultra
29 flexible vesicles and aqueous solution by EPR [14].

30 Two major questions have to be addressed for future applications of CMS as
31 DDS in topical treatments: 1. How can a pharmaceutical be efficiently loaded
32 to the DDS, and 2. how is it released upon application onto the target? A
33 prerequisite for answering both questions is knowledge about the location of
34 the drug within the DDS and its mobility before and after topical applica-
35 tion.

36 Electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectroscopy is a well-developed
37 spectroscopic method for the determination of the micro-environment of a

38 paramagnetic molecule [19, 20].
39 The applicability of spin labels as probes within a carrier system and the
40 analysis of their penetration profile into excised porcine ear skin was previ-
41 ously shown [14, 17, 21]. In the present study the location of pharmaceuticals
42 in CMS nanoparticles, the drug penetration into the porcine ear skin, and
43 the possible release of the drug to the stratum corneum (SC) were investi-
44 gated by dual-frequency EPR spectroscopy. As a model drug we used the
45 lipophilic ($\log P = 1.83$) [22] antiinflammatory glucocorticoid Dexamethasone
46 (Dx). Since Dx is diamagnetic and thus not EPR active it was labelled
47 by the spin marker PCA, which increases the molecular weight from 392.47
48 g/mol for Dx to 560.68 g/mol for DxPCA. Even though PCA is a hydrophilic
49 compound ($\log P = -1.7$ [14, 23]), its attachment to Dx by esterification [24]
50 leaves the partitioning coefficient almost unaltered ($\log P = 1.89 \pm 0.02$ for
51 DxPCA [25]). The Zeeman interaction and the prominent nitrogen hyper-
52 fine coupling (g - and A -matrix) as well as the spin-lattice relaxation time
53 of the unpaired electron on a nitroxide are highly sensitive probes for the
54 surrounding micro-environment properties. [26, 27]. We investigated these
55 magnetic parameters for DxPCA by pulsed W-band (94 GHz) EPR spec-
56 troscopy at cryogenic temperature (80K). Room temperature EPR spectra
57 at X-band [28, 29] were used to investigate the drug mobility within the car-
58 rier and its penetration into the porcine ear skin. The latter is possible since
59 the rate of PCA reaction with the skin antioxidant system is slow enough to
60 allow investigations on porcine ear skin [30, 31].

61 2. Materials and Methods

62 2.1. Sample preparation

63 The synthesis of DxPCA will be described elsewhere [24]. DxPCA was
64 loaded to CMS nanoparticles by an entrapment film method: First, DxPCA
65 was dissolved in ethanol, afterwards the solvent was evaporated and dried
66 under vacuum condition yielding a thin DxPCA film on the surface of the
67 glass container. Second, the CMS nanoparticles in aqueous solution (5 g/L)
68 were added to the DxPCA thin film. The solution was stirred for 22 hours
69 at 1200 rpm. At the end, the solution was filtered through a 0.45 μm regen-
70 erated cellulose (RC) filter.

71 The concentration of DxPCA in different solvents used as reference samples
72 was 50 μM , except for the solvent toluene where it was 25 μM . DxPCA dis-
73 solves only poorly in water (already Dx has a poor solubility of 89 mg/L at
74 room temperature [32]). Thus, for achieving the desired DxPCA concentra-
75 tion in water, the solution was sonicated and heated up to 70 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for thirty
76 minutes and afterwards diluted. Finally, this solution was centrifuged and
77 aggregated parts were removed by taking the supernatant.

78 The samples used for the measurements at W-band frequencies were frozen
79 immediately before the experiments in liquid nitrogen. For improving the
80 sample homogeneity upon freezing, glycerol was added in a 1:1 ratio to the
81 aqueous DxPCA and PCA solution. All solvents (purity $\geq 98\%$) used were
82 purchased from Sigma-Aldrich.

83 *2.2. Skin preparation*

84 For the skin penetration studies porcine ear skin was utilised, which was
85 shown to be a suitable model for human skin [33, 34]. The porcine ears
86 were delivered by a local butcher with approval by the Veterinäramt Berlin
87 (Treptow-Köpenick) on the day of slaughter and were cleaned as previously
88 described [17]. For the EPR measurements only the backside of the ears
89 was used. The uppermost skin layer of the porcine ears was cut-off by a
90 dermatome (Dermatom Typ GA 140, Aesculap-Werke AG, Tuttlingen, Ger-
91 many) in a thickness of around 400 μm . For the penetration studies, 90 μM
92 DxPCA dissolved in an aqueous solution (water/5% EtOH) and loaded into
93 CMS particles (dissolved in water/5% EtOH) were applied (20 $\mu\text{L}/\text{cm}^2$) even
94 on porcine ear skin, followed by a storage in a skin chamber at 32 $^\circ\text{C}$ [35]. For
95 investigations into deeper porcine ear skin layers, the tape stripping method
96 was performed as previously described [36]. For these measurements, skin
97 slices with a diameter of 4.5 mm were punched-out by using a punch pliers
98 Typ3519 (R. Lühdorff GmbH Famex-Werkzeuge, Remscheid, Germany).

99 *2.3. EPR spectroscopy and analysis*

100 Cryogenic temperature (80 K) measurements at W-band (94 GHz) were
101 performed on a Eleksys E680 EPR spectrometer equipped with a Teraflex
102 EN600-1021H probe head (both Bruker Biospin, Karlsruhe, Germany). The
103 temperature was controlled by an ITC503 (Oxford Instruments, Oxfordshire,
104 United Kingdom). The magnetic field was calibrated by using N@C60 before
105 each measurement [37]. Quartz capillaries with 0.87 mm/0.7 mm outer/inner
106 diameters (OD/ID) (VitroCom Inc. Mountain Lakes, NJ, USA) were used
107 for the W-band measurements. All spectra at W-band were recorded in the

108 field sweep echo (FSE) mode [38]. A 0.5 mT pseudo modulation amplitude
109 was used to numerically calculate first derivative spectra [39]. The character-
110 istic longitudinal relaxation time T_1 was measured by an inversion recovery
111 experiment [40], i.e. a inversion π -pulse followed by a Hahn echo detection
112 sequence with incrementing time between inversion and detection.

113 Room temperature measurements were performed on two different X-band
114 (9 GHz) spectrometers. For spin label mobility measurements we used a
115 lab built spectrometer consisting of a Bruker (Rheinstetten, Germany) ER
116 041 MR microwave bridge controlled by a Bruker ER 048 R microwave
117 bridge controller, a Bruker E088 100-controlled AEG electromagnet, and
118 a Bruker 4122 SHQE-W1 microwave resonator(Bruker Biospin, Karlsruhe,
119 Germany). Lock-in amplification was done by a Stanford Research Systems
120 SR810 DSP Lock-In Amplifier and the microwave frequency measured by an
121 Agilent 53181A Frequency Counter. Here samples were placed in 2 mm/1
122 mm (OD/ID) quartz capillaries (QSIL GmbH, Langewiesen, Germany). The
123 porcine ear skin measurements were performed after 4 and 24 hours incu-
124 bation time at ambient temperature (21 °C) by using a Eleksys E500 spec-
125 trometer including a TMHS resonator, a tissue cell (ER 162TC-Q) and a
126 rapid scan unit (all Bruker BioSpin, Karlsruhe, Germany). These measure-
127 ments were performed in triplicate on different porcine ear skin samples. All
128 EPR spectra were analysed with the Easyspin [41], Matlab (The MathWorks
129 GmbH, Ismaning, Germany) toolbox.

130 3. Results and discussion

131 3.1. Micro-environment of DxPCA loaded to CMS nano-particles

132 The loading into and location of DxPCA in the CMS nanoparticles were
133 investigated by probing the DxPCA micro-environment polarity. The sensi-
134 tivity of W-band EPR spectra of DxPCA on different environments is shown
135 in Fig. 1 for the extreme cases of the highly polar solvent water and the
136 highly apolar solvent toluene together with the spectrum of DxPCA loaded
137 to CMS. Besides water and toluene, we have examined six additional solvents
138 and solvent mixtures as polarity/proticity references. The g - and A -matrices
139 for DxPCA in the different environments are listed in table 1. We have chosen
140 to use Reichardt's E_T^N value [42] as parameter for correlating the measured
141 magnetic parameters with the solvent polarity/proticity properties. The de-
142 pendence of the g_{xx} and A_{zz} components on E_T^N is plotted in Fig. 2. Figure 2
143 shows the well known trend of the g -matrix principal value g_{xx} shifting to-
144 wards lower values from apolar/aprotic to polar/protic solvents, and on other
145 hand the nitrogen hyperfine coupling A -matrix principal value A_{zz} shifting
146 towards higher values [43]. The changes in g_{xx} and A_{zz} are governed by the
147 proticity in polar micro-environments while in absence of hydrogen bound-
148 ing the relative dielectric constant ϵ_r is the main governing parameter [44].
149 Comparing two solvents with approximately the same ϵ_r , e.g. acetone and
150 1-propanol, the dominating influence of proticity on g_{xx} and A_{zz} becomes
151 evident (see table 1).

152 Previously, the unmodified spin label PCA when loaded to CMS nanoparti-
153 cles (PCA@CMS) was investigated [14]. There, a highly polar environment
154 was found for PCA and it was concluded that PCA is located at the surface

155 of the CMS. The magnetic parameters of DxPCA loaded to nanoparticles
156 (DxPCA@CMS) determined here (g -matrix principal values (2.00865, 2.0061,
157 2.0021) and A -matrix principal values (14, 14, 98) MHz) clearly deviate from
158 those found for PCA@CMS in the preceding study [14]. DxPCA@CMS val-
159 ues represent a micro-environment of intermediate polarity as visualized in
160 fig. 2. This corresponds to the interface region between the inner hydropho-
161 bic core and the hydrophilic outer shell of the CMS. Dx is a hydrophobic
162 drug ($\log P=1.83$) and even though unbound PCA shows a hydrophilic be-
163 havior ($\log P=-1.7$) DxPCA ($\log P=1.89$) shows a very similar hydrophobic
164 behavior as unmodified Dx. It is thus interesting to find DxPCA in a re-
165 gion of intermediate polarity within the CMS. The g and hfc parameters
166 determined above strongly depend on the relative unpaired spin density at
167 the nitrogen and the oxygen atoms of the NO function, and, thereby, report
168 on the micro-environment of the spin label via the electronic structure. A
169 magnetic parameter probing complementary aspects of micro-environment
170 properties is the the spin-lattice relaxation time T_1 [46, 47]. It is sensitive to
171 molecular vibrations and, thereby, provides information on mechanical prop-
172 erties of the micro-environment. Thus, inversion recovery measurements were
173 performed in addition to the EPR experiments discussed above. The corre-
174 sponding time traces are shown in fig. 3. The time traces were fitted by a
175 bi-exponential function (see Tab. 2). The obtained fit parameters are given
176 in Tab.2. The the larger time constant τ_1 occurring with about twice the
177 amplitude than the shorter time constant τ_2 was considered as the relevant
178 T_1 time [47]. Comparison of the T_1 (i.e. τ_1 in Tab. 2) for PCA and DxPCA in
179 water shows very similar T_1 times for both species, which are clearly distinct

Table 1: Magnetic Parameters of DxPCA in different solvents (Error margins in the last digit given in parenthesis), together with polarities and relative dielectric permittivities of the used solvents; (p) protic, (a) is aprotic.

Solvent	<i>g</i> -matrix	<i>A</i> -matrix (MHz)	E_T^N [42]	ϵ_r [45]
	g_{xx}, g_{yy}, g_{zz}	A_{xx}, A_{yy}, A_{zz}		
CMS	2.00865(2), 2.0061(2), 2.0021(4)	14, 14, 98(1)		
Water (p)	2.00810(2), 2.0060(2), 2.0021(4)	15, 15, 104(1)	1	80.4
Ethanol(p)	2.00844(4), 2.0060(2), 2.0021(5)	15, 15, 101(1)	0.654	24.3
1-propanol(p)	2.00853(3), 2.0060(5), 2.0021(1)	13, 13, 101(1)	0.617	20.1
1-decanol(p)	2.00860(2), 2.0061(3), 2.0021(3)	13, 12, 99(1)	0.519	8.1
DMSO(a)	2.00864(4), 2.0060(3), 2.0021(1)	15, 15, 100(1)	0.444	46.68
Acetone(a)	2.00870(3), 2.0061(2), 2.0022(1)	15, 15, 96(1)	0.355	20.7
Methyl formate(a)	2.00865(5), 2.0060(2), 2.0021(1)	15, 15, 98(1)	0.346	8.5
Toluene(a)	2.00900(5), 2.0061(3), 2.0021(3)	15, 15, 95(1)	0.099	2.4
PCA@CMS [14]	2.00890, 2.00600, 2.0012	30, 35, 72		
PCA@Water (p)	2.00805(3), 2.00596(2), 2.00212(2)	15, 15, 105(1)	1	80.4

180 from the T_1 time for DxPCA@CMS. This corroborates the finding above that
 181 DxPCA experiences an environment different from the water phase and is
 182 within the CMS.

183 3.2. Spin probe mobility in CMS nanoparticles

184 The spectral shape arising for room temperature measurements, as for
 185 the low temperature, again depends on the *g*- and *A*-matrix as well as the
 186 experimental microwave frequency, but in addition is strongly determined by

Table 2: Spin lattice relaxation time T_1 obtained by bi-exponential fitting of inversion recovery time traces to the function $f(t) = 1 - 2(A_1e^{(-t/\tau_1)} + A_2e^{(-t/\tau_2)})$.

Material	A_1	τ_1 (us)	A_2	τ_2 (us)
DxPCA@CMS	0.67	240	0.33	31
DxPCA	0.70	379	0.30	26
PCA	0.68	398	0.32	32

187 the mobility of the spin probe [48, 49]. Variations in the mobility due to the
188 different spin probe micro-environments manifest clearly in the line-width,
189 line shape and hyperfine splitting in X-band (9 GHz) spectra recorded at
190 ambient temperatures. The spectrum of small free nitroxide spin probes in
191 isotropic solution with low viscosity, corresponding to rotational correlation
192 times (τ_{corr}) of 100 ps or faster at X-band frequencies, consists of three sharp
193 lines. For slower tumbling due to a more viscous or anisotropic environment,
194 the three lines become broader. The characteristic rotational correlation time
195 τ_{corr} for this regime is in the range of 300–1000 ps at X-band frequencies. The
196 spectra become significantly broadened for further immobilized spin probes,
197 where particularly the low field peak (1st line) and high field peak (3rd line)
198 are sensitive for broadening. Quantitative values for τ_{corr} can be extracted
199 from the spectra by simulation [48]. The optimum EPR frequency band for
200 monitoring spin label dynamics depends on the relevant rotational correlation
201 times. Here, experiments at X-band frequencies were found to be adequate.

202 Both the spectra of PCA and DxPCA show three sharp lines in aqueous so-
203 lution with approximately equal height (Figure: 4, top and middle spectra)
204 in agreement with the small effective radius and the low viscosity solvent.

205 The slightly larger effective radius of DxPCA compared to PCA results in
206 a slower rotation and in consequence yields the slightly broadened and less
207 intense high field peak for DxPCA. Spectral simulation reveals rotational
208 correlation times of about 10 ps and 80 ps for PCA and DxPCA, respec-
209 tively. These numbers are in good agreement with the rotational correla-
210 tion times calculated for both molecules using the Stokes-Einstein equation
211 ($\tau = \frac{8\pi\eta R^3}{6kT}$). In the DxPCA spectrum a further spectral contribution can
212 be seen as a broad unstructured line between the first and the second sharp
213 line. This contribution is due to the low solubility of Dx in water, causing
214 a partial aggregation of DxPCA. These aggregates likely contain a high Dx-
215 PCA concentration with distances between DxPCA molecules giving rise to
216 substantial spin-spin coupling, which in turn results in a strongly broadened
217 spectrum devoid of the otherwise characteristic hyperfine structure.

218 The spectrum of DxPCA@CMS (Figure: 4, bottom spectrum) clearly con-
219 sists of two components. The first component consists of the characteristic
220 three narrow and sharp lines. The second component is in this case a broad
221 signal well visible to the left of the first sharp line. Again, the sharp lines
222 represent a highly mobile fraction of DxPCA, indicative for the presence
223 of free DxPCA in solution not loaded to CMS. The broad spectral contri-
224 bution (see fig. 5, bottom spectrum) was extracted by subtracting the free
225 DxPCA component from the DxPCA@CMS spectrum. The resulting spec-
226 tral component is representative for the intermediate mobility range between
227 the fast tumbling and the solid state regime and can be qualitatively simu-
228 lated under the assumption of a rotational correlation time $\tau_{corr} \approx 7$ ns. This
229 number clearly shows a severely slowed rotational motion of DxPCA loaded

230 to CMS compared to DxPCA in aqueous solution. An interpretation of the
231 rotational correlation time in terms of the DxPCA mobility within CMS is
232 possible, when first considering the rotational correlation time of the CMS
233 nanoparticles. Their average diameter was determined by dynamic light scat-
234 tering (DLS) as $r_{CMS} \simeq 18$ nm. Again using the Stokes-Einstein equation
235 ($\tau = \frac{8\pi\eta R^3}{6k_T T}$), we calculate a rotational correlation time ($\tau_{CMS} \simeq 1\mu s$). Such
236 a very slow rotational correlation time yields in simulations spectra virtu-
237 ally indistinguishable from the solid state limit. Thus, we can conclude that
238 the rotational motion of the whole CMS nanoparticles has no influence on
239 the observed spectral shape and the $\tau_{corr} \approx 7$ ns derived for DxPCA@CMS
240 exclusively reports the residual mobility of DxPCA within the CMS. The
241 deconvolution of the DxPCA@CMS spectrum allows a further conclusion
242 on the relative amounts of free DxPCA in solution and DxPCA loaded to
243 CMS. Even though the peak amplitudes of the narrow three lines for the
244 free DxPCA component are substantially larger than that of the broad Dx-
245 PCA@CMS component, the ratio between free and loaded DxPCA amounts
246 to 1:20. This shows that the equilibrium between DxPCA@CMS and free
247 DxPCA in the aqueous solution is strongly shifted to DxPCA loaded to the
248 CMS.

249 3.3. Skin penetration of DxPCA loaded to CMS

250 The penetration of DxPCA@CMS into porcine ear skin was investigated
251 again by room temperature X-band EPR in comparison to DxPCA dissolved
252 in a water/5% EtOH solution 4 and 24 hours after topical application of
253 both sample types. In both cases an increase of the EPR signal can be seen
254 between the measurements performed after 4 h incubation and that after

255 24 h (fig. 6). For DxPCA dissolved in a water/5% EtOH solution one sin-
256 gle broadened peak is hardly visible in the spectrum recorded after 4 h and
257 becomes better visible after 24 h (fig. 6 left) at the spectral position corre-
258 sponding to the center line of the typical three line nitroxide spectrum. In
259 contrast to this result, the spectra for DxPCA@CMS show for both times
260 the characteristic three line nitroxide EPR spectrum (fig. 6 right). The in-
261 tensity of this spectral contribution remains largely unchanged. In addition
262 to the narrow line spectrum, a second broadened contribution is visible at
263 both times, mainly as intensity between the first and second peaks of the
264 narrow line spectrum. This spectral contribution increases in intensity rela-
265 tive to the narrow component in the spectrum taken after 24 h. We assign
266 the two spectral contributions visible for DxPCA@CMS again as before. The
267 three line spectrum represents free DxPCA while the broadened component
268 is due to DxPCA still incorporated into CMS. The increased intensity of the
269 broad component after 24 h compared to the 4 h spectrum recorded for Dx-
270 PCA@CMS incubation on skin reports thus an enhanced CMS nanoparticle
271 penetration into the porcine ear skin with time.

272 Whether DxPCA@CMS and the free DxPCA penetrate into the porcine
273 ear skin or only form a surface layer can be tested by the tape stripping
274 method (see e.g. [36]). Figure 7 shows X-band EPR spectra of DxPCA ap-
275 plied onto porcine ear skin after 24 h incubation time and removal of the
276 supernatant followed by removal of 1, 2, and 3 tapes. After removal of the
277 first layers of the SC a strong difference in the penetration efficiency for two
278 different DxPCA application schemes becomes apparent: DxPCA dissolved
279 in the water/5% EtOH solution shows for the whole porcine ear

280 skin one broadend EPR signal, which strongly diminishes after removing the
281 first adhesive tape and has virtually disappeared after removing the second.
282 For DxPCA@CMS the EPR signal decreases gradually after stripping of one
283 to three adhesive tapes. Within the limited signal-to-noise ratio, the ratio
284 between the free DxPCA and the DxPCA@CMS components seems to be
285 unchanged (Fig. 7). These results are in agreement with the investigation
286 of K uchler *et al.* showing the skin penetration of CMS using a lipophilic
287 fluorescent dye [18] .

288 A remaining question is whether the CMS particles transport only DxPCA
289 loaded into them or whether they act as a general penetration enhancer pro-
290 moting co-transport of the DxPCA outside them. To address this question
291 we prepared a mixture of 90 μ M DxPCA aqueous/5% EtOH solution and
292 empty CMS particles. This mixture was applied in the same way as the
293 DxPCA@CMS sample onto porcine ear skin, incubated for 24 hours and
294 subjected to tape stripping (fig. 7C). Again only a single line EPR signal is
295 visible for the porcine ear skin before and after tape stripping, and signal in-
296 tensity is - if at all - only weakly increased compared to the aqueous DxPCA
297 solution without CMS (fig. 7A). Thus, a co-transport of DxPCA by CMS
298 can be only of minor importance and the deeper penetration of DxPCA into
299 the skin when applied after loading into CMS is in the vast majority due to
300 direct transport as cargo within the CMS.

301 4. Conclusion

302 The presented investigations have shown that EPR is able to provide
303 evidence for the loading of Dx into CMS nanoparticles and for the Dx loca-

304 tion within the nanoparticles. Thereby, we have made use of complementary
305 magnetic parameters of the spin label PCA covalently attached to the drug
306 Dexamethasone. The g - and A -matrices of DxPCA report on the polar-
307 ity/proticity of its micro-environment while the spin-lattice relaxation time
308 T_1 probes vibrational properties of the DxPCA micro-environment. These
309 magnetic parameters were measured by pulsed high-field EPR and clearly
310 show a location of DxPCA within the CMS nanoparticles in a region of
311 intermediated polarity, likely the interface between the hydrophobic and hy-
312 drophilic shells of the CMS. Furthermore, we determined dynamical informa-
313 tion on the drug in aqueous solution and loaded into the CMS nanocarriers
314 using continuous wave EPR at ambient temperature. The differences found
315 in the dynamics between freely dissolved DxPCA and DxPCA loaded into
316 CMS was used to analyse the drug/carrier penetration behaviour into skin.
317 Thereby, we could show that the penetration of the drug into the porcine
318 ear skin is facilitated only for the drug loaded into the CMS and that a co-
319 transport of the drug through a lowered skin barrier by CMS is of only minor
320 importance if at all relevant.

321 **Chemical compounds studied in this article**

- 322 • Dexamethasone (PubChem CID: 5743)
- 323 • 3-(Carboxy)-2,2,5,5-tetramethyl-1-pyrrolidinyloxy (PubChem CID: 519874)
- 324 • Ethanol (PubChem CID: 702)
- 325 • 1-propanol (PubChem CID: 1031)
- 326 • 1-decanol (PubChem CID: 8174)

- 327 • DMSO (PubChem CID: 679)
- 328 • Acetone (PubChem CID: 180)
- 329 • Methyl formate (PubChem CID: 7865)
- 330 • Toluene (PubChem CID: 1140)

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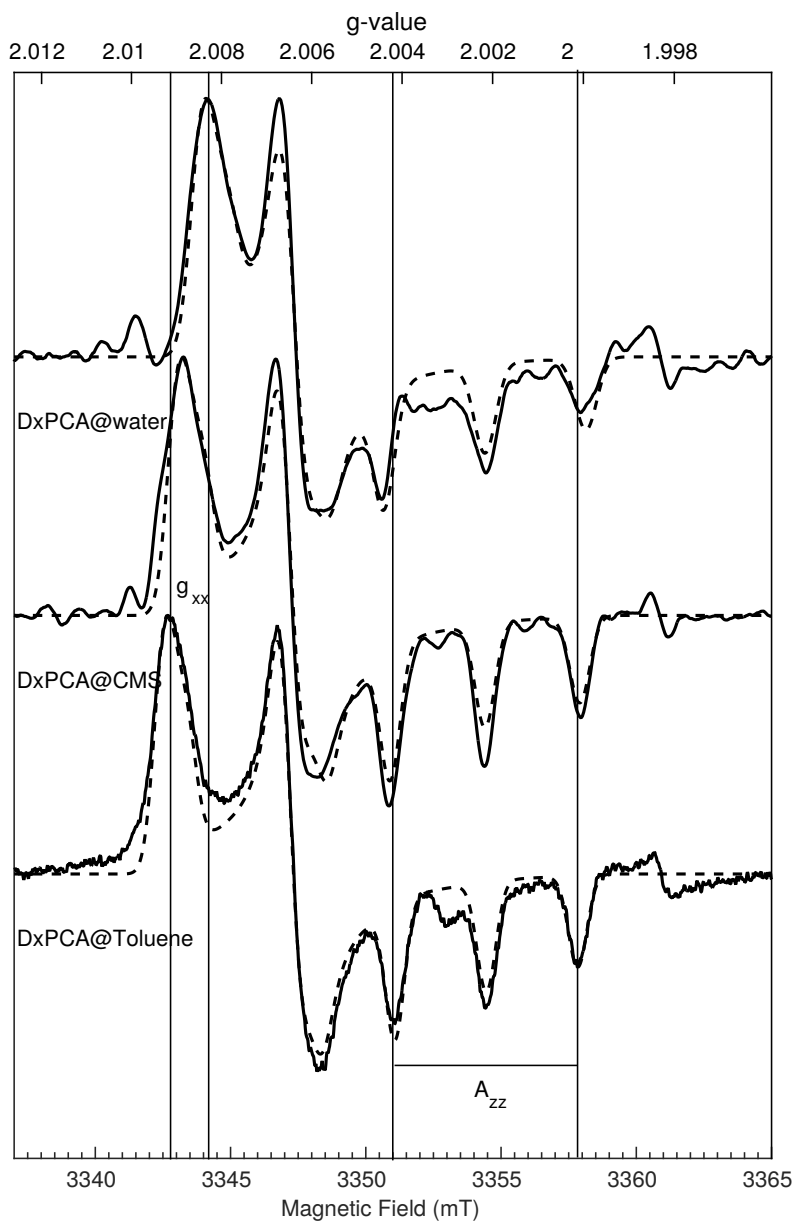


Figure 1: W-Band EPR spectra of DxPCA in different environments at 80 K; solid line: experiment, dashed line: simulation, All spectra were normalised to a frequency of 94 GHz

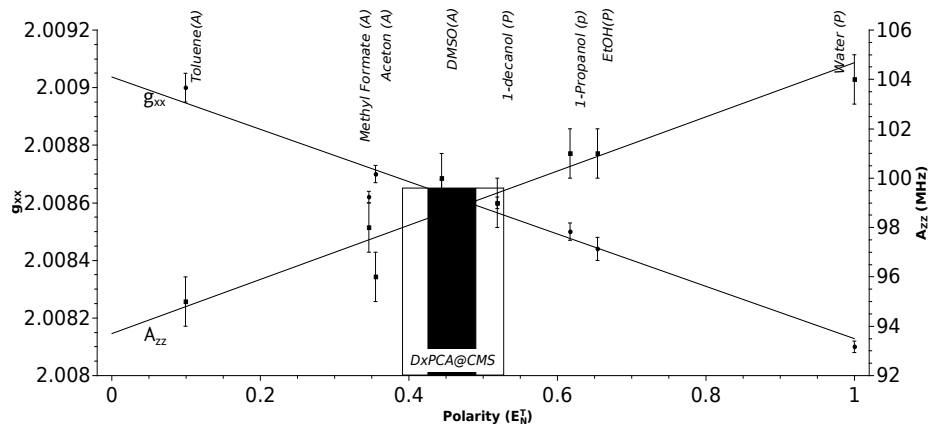


Figure 2: Dependence of g_{xx} and A_{zz} of DxPCA on different solvents and linear fits (both lines, respectively). The areas filled in black and white mark the polarity range compatible with the DxPCA@CMS g_{xx} and A_{zz} parameters, respectively

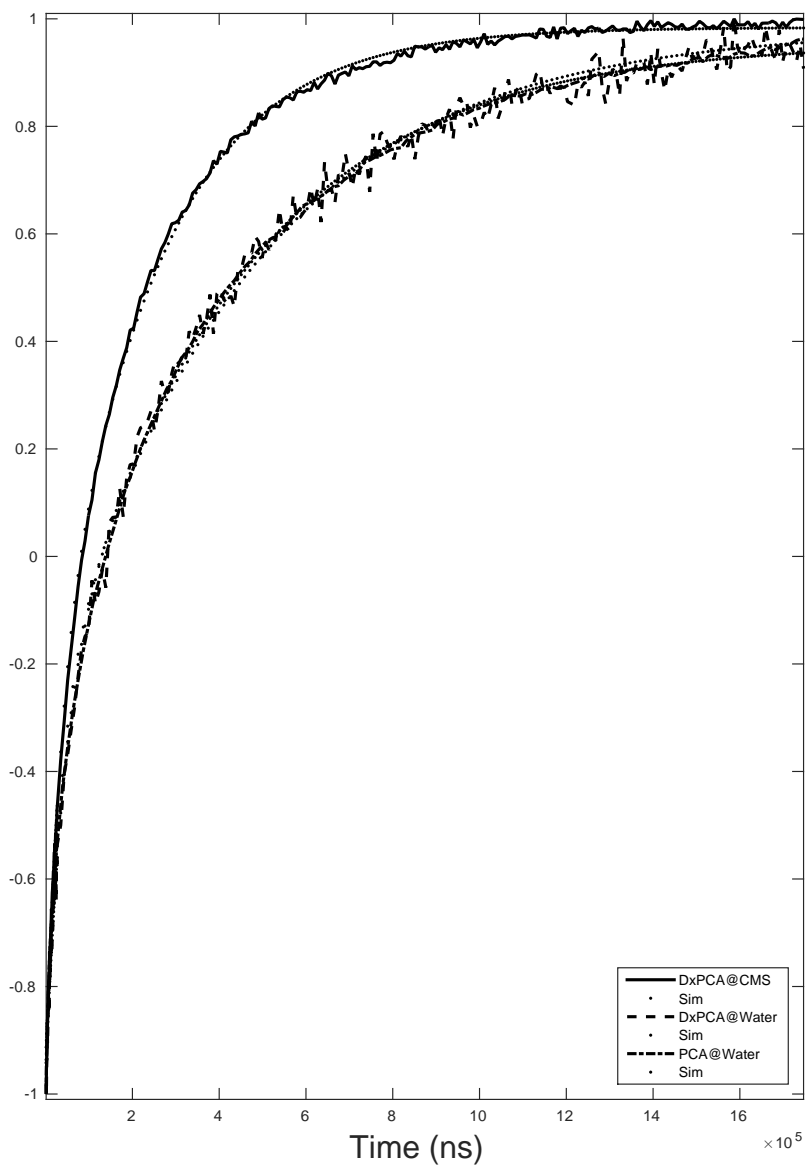


Figure 3: Inversion recovery spin-lattice relaxation time (T_1) measurement for DxPCA@CMS (solid line), DxPCA@Water(dash line) and PCA@Water(dot dash) at W-band, 80 K; solid line: experiment, dashed line: bi-exponential fit)

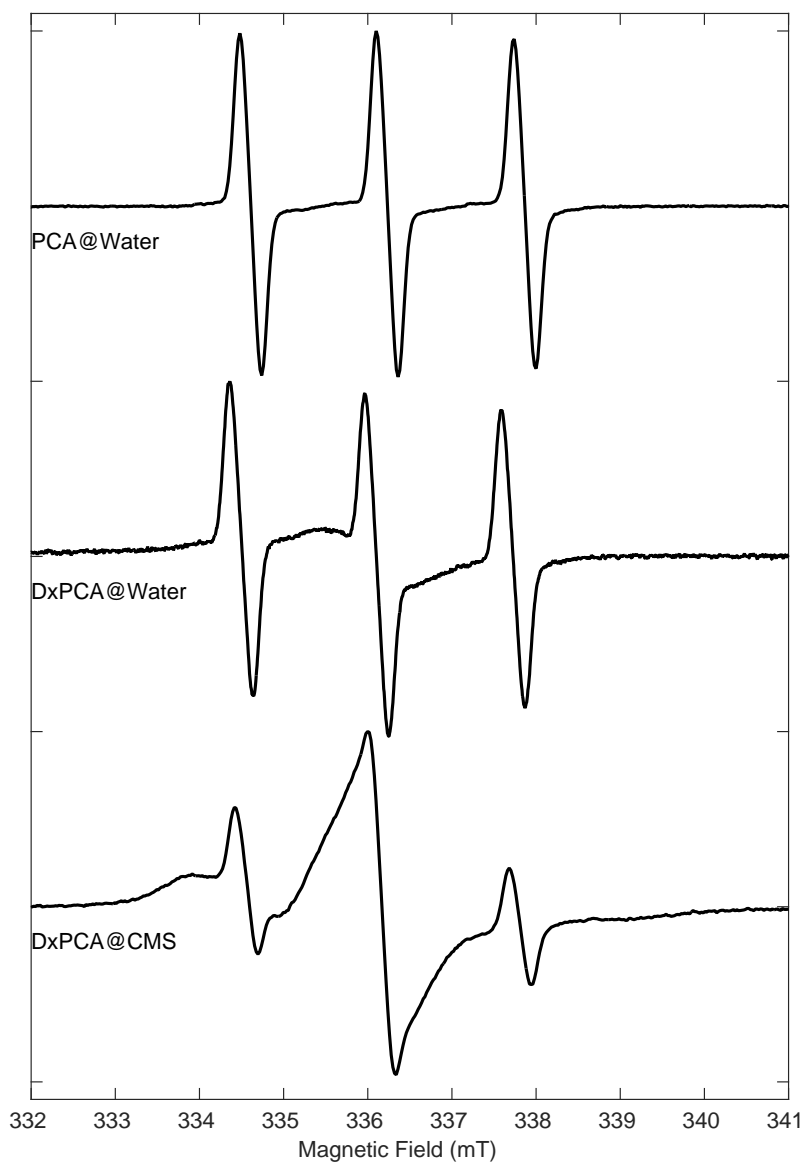


Figure 4: EPR spectra DxPCA@CMS (bottom spectrum), DxPCA in water (middle spectrum) and PCA in water (top spectrum) measured at X-band and room temperature. Experimental parameters are for DxPCA@CMS: microwave power: 50 mw, field modulation amplitude: 3 G,²⁸ for DxPCA in water: microwave power: 20mW, field modulation amplitude: 5 G, PCA in water: microwave power: 25 mW, field modulation amplitude: 3 G). All spectra were normalised to a frequency of 9.4 GHz

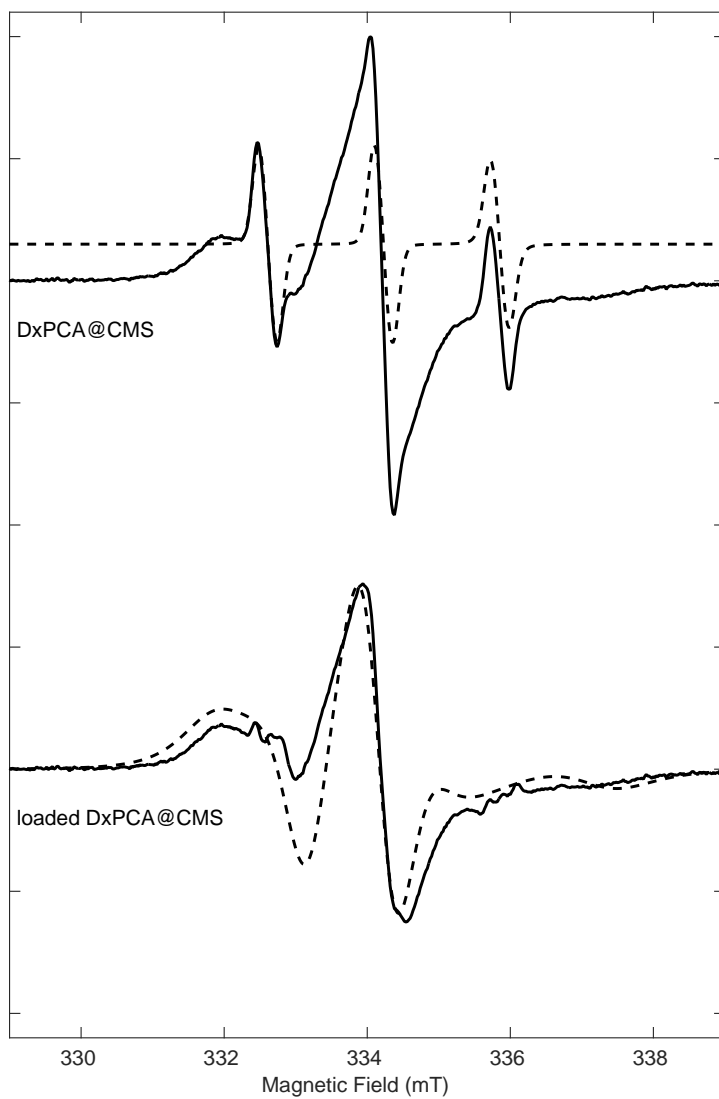


Figure 5: Deconvolution of the DxPCA@CMS spectrum into the free DxPCA spectral contribution and a partly immobilised DxPCA spectral contribution. The experimental DxPCA@CMS spectrum (top spectra) is as in fig. 4; the free DxPCA in water spectrum (top dash line) is a simulation of corresponding spectrum in fig. 4. The resulting spectrum after subtraction is given by the bottom line.

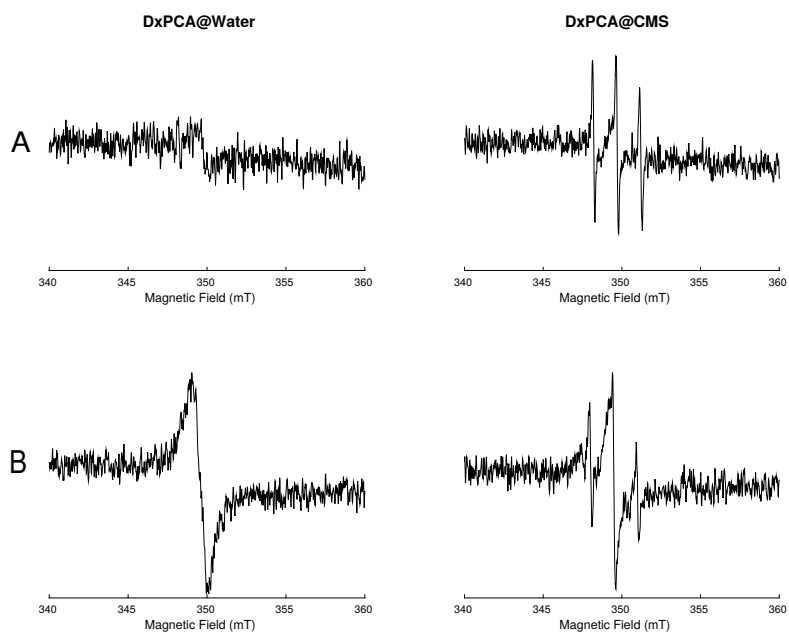


Figure 6: EPR spectra of DxPCA after topical application on porcine ear skin: (left) DxPCA dissolved in a water/5% EtOH solution ($90 \mu\text{M}$) and (right) DxPCA@CMS, both after an incubation time of 4 h (A) and 24 h (B). Each spectrum is an average of three measurements at X-band and room temperature.

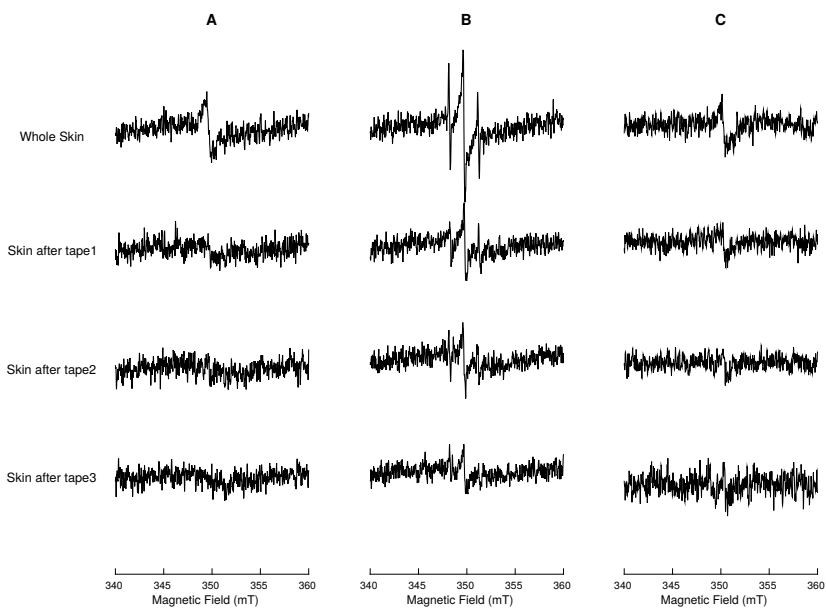


Figure 7: EPR spectra of DxPCA after topical application on porcine ear skin (A): DxPCA dissolved in a water/5% EtOH solution ($90 \mu\text{M}$), (B) DxPCA@CMS, and (C) a mixture of DxPCA dissolved in a water/5% EtOH solution ($90 \mu\text{M}$) and empty CMS particles, all after an incubation time of 24 h and after the indicated numbers of tape stripping. Each spectrum is an average of three measurements at X-band and room temperature.