

The effect of formulation morphology on stimuli-triggered co-delivery of chemotherapeutic and MRI contrast agents

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Abstract

Most conventional chemotherapeutics have narrow therapeutic windows, and thus their delivery remains challenging and often raises safety and efficacy concerns. Theranostic platforms, with simultaneous encapsulation of therapeutic and diagnostic agents, have been proposed as next-generation formulations which can overcome this issue. In this work, we fabricated core@shell formulations comprising a pH responsive Eudragit L100 shell embedded with superparamagnetic iron oxide nanoparticles (SPIONs), and a thermo-responsive poly(N-isopropylacrylamide) (PNIPAM)/ethyl cellulose core loaded with the model drug carmofur. The key aim was to explore the effect of morphology (particles/fibres) on stimuli-responsive release. By varying the weight ratio of core polymer to shell polymer, the morphology of PNIPAM/ethyl cellulose@Eudragit L100 microparticles changed from concave microparticles to spherical particles. Smooth cylindrical fibres could also be generated. All the formulations exist as amorphous solid dispersions of drug-in-polymer, with distinct core@shell architectures. The fibres have clear thermo-responsive drug release profiles, while no thermo-responsive properties can be seen with the particles. All the formulations can protect SPIONs from degradation in gastric fluids (pH ~ 1.5), and around the physiological pH range the materials offer effective and pH-responsive relaxivity. The r_2 values also display clear linear relationships with drug release data, suggesting the potential of using MRI signals to track drug release *in vivo*. Mathematical equations were established to track drug release *in vitro*, with very similar experimental and predicted release profiles obtained.

1. Introduction

Advances in nanotechnology have significantly expanded the range of possible strategies for chemotherapy. Theranostic systems targeting specific sites offer the potential for major improvements in anticancer therapy, as they are capable of selectively killing tumors while also

37 enabling non-invasive assessment of local disease progression, quantification of carrier accumulation,
38 and drug release (Johnson et al., 2014, Hei et al., 2017, Sokolov et al., 2017). Among a broad variety
39 of theranostic chemical constructs and functionality, smart stimuli-responsive delivery represents one
40 of the most commonly pursued strategies. This is because small differences in local properties
41 between a tumor and healthy tissues can permit precise temporal and spatial delivery of therapeutic
42 and diagnostic agents. In an effort to achieve this goal, a variety of systems have been developed
43 responding to stimuli including temperature, ultrasound, magnetic field, light, pH, redox potential, or
44 the presence of specific biomolecules (Chang et al., 2011, Zhao et al., 2015, Lin et al., 2017, Jha et al.,
45 2020, Patil et al., 2020).

46 Thermosensitive delivery systems have been widely explored, based on the fact that body-site
47 temperature can shift upon local infection or disease, or be changed intentionally by the application
48 of external stimuli such as magnetic hyperthermia. Poly(N-isopropylacrylamide), PNIPAM, is the most
49 studied thermo-responsive polymer. It exhibits typical lower critical solution temperature (LCST)
50 behaviour: when the temperature is raised above 32 °C, a conformational change takes place from an
51 expanded coil to a compact globule (Mano, 2008). Liu utilized PNIPAM and alginate to fabricate a
52 thermo-sensitive hydrogel that displayed gel formation around the physiological temperature and was
53 applied as a drug delivery vehicle for the chemotherapeutic doxorubicin (Liu et al., 2017). A dual pH
54 and thermo-responsive gel made of carboxymethyl chitosan-graft-PNIPAM-glycidyl methacrylate was
55 reported to give temperature-dependent release of fluorouracil (Zhang et al., 2014). The release of a
56 hydrophilic drug incorporated inside a swollen gel can be triggered by increasing diffusion when the
57 temperature is below the LCST, while in the case of a hydrophobic agent release can be promoted by
58 a “squeezing” effect caused by gel collapse as the temperature is raised.

59 Core@shell microspheres have attracted much attention in pharmaceutical applications to enhance
60 therapeutic efficacy and reduce the side effects of drugs (Hei et al., 2017, Hudecki et al., 2017). In
61 terms of synthetic route, implementing consistent and reproducible methods is still challenging, and
62 the typically low yields and time-consuming processing required also remain issues preventing such
63 formulations from further development. Thus, facile and reproducible technologies that can produce
64 core@shell particles are highly desirable. One such route is co-axial electrohydrodynamic atomization
65 (EHDA). This involves the application of an electric field to a co-flowing electrically conductive fluid
66 system to generate submicron-to-micron sized core@shell particles or fibres.

67 Co-axial EHDA makes it straightforward to fabricate core-shell microstructures and thus has become
68 popular in the development of advanced carriers for multiple functional agents (Komur et al., 2017,
69 Wen et al., 2018). For example, an acid-sensitive core-shell nanoparticle was prepared using co-axial
70 electrospinning and subsequently linked with an antibody for the purpose of tumor-targeted, pH
71 responsive, drug delivery. *In vitro* drug release profiles and outcomes of cytotoxicity tests showed the
72 formulation to have targeting potential in cancer treatment (Xu et al., 2013). EHDA can easily combine
73 a number of ingredients, including small molecules, inorganic nanoparticles or proteins, in different
74 compartments of a formulation (Jin et al., 2016, Williams et al., 2018) Jin et al. reported a core@shell
75 fibre system for simultaneous magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and drug delivery in irritable bowel
76 disease or colon cancer. Such co-delivery of therapeutic and diagnostic ingredients makes it possible
77 to monitor disease progression during the treatment process, therefore enhancing efficacy and
78 minimizing potential adverse effects (Jin et al., 2016).

79 While various researchers have looked at either particles or fibres, there is very little understanding
80 of how the formulation morphology affects performance of theranostics from EHDA. In this study, co-
81 axial EHDA was employed to fabricate dual-responsive MRI-based theranostic systems comprising a
82 pH responsive polymer shell loaded with superparamagnetic iron oxide nanoparticles (SPIONs), and a
83 thermo-responsive core containing the model chemotherapeutic drug carmofur. We prepared both
84 fibres and particles through a systematic variation of the processing parameters. MRI was chosen as
85 the imaging modality because of its ability to obtain high spatial and temporal resolution without the
86 risk of radiation exposure (Davies et al., 2013, Haacke and Reichenbach, 2014). To improve the
87 sensitivity and precision of diagnosis, contrast agents (CAs) are often utilized to obtain MRI images
88 with high resolution and contrast. SPIONs represent an important class of MRI CAs (Mahmoudi et al.,
89 2011), creating local magnetic field gradients to significantly decrease proton transverse relaxation
90 times (T_2) and thus boosting signal contrast (Jin et al., 2014, Neuwelt et al., 2015). Their relatively low
91 cytotoxicity and ability to be metabolized by normal biochemical pathways, alongside their magnetic
92 properties, also make SPIONs useful for a range of other biological applications, including
93 hyperthermia and magnetic targeting (Jordan et al., 1999, Laurent et al., 2011, Kang et al., 2017,
94 Perera et al., 2018).

95 Eudragit L100 was chosen to fabricate the shell. This polymer only dissolves in aqueous media with
96 pH > 6.0. To obtain good MRI contrast, SPIONs were loaded in the pH-sensitive sheath, where they
97 can be released and interact with water upon dissolution of the polymer shell. Carmofur, the
98 therapeutic agent, was confined to the core to minimise the risk of undesired premature drug release,
99 which is commonly seen in monolithic formulations. PNIPAM and ethyl cellulose, a low-cost
100 biocompatible polymer, were used to produce a thermoresponsive core compartment. Our
101 theranostic systems aimed to target co-delivery of a chemotherapeutic and MRI contrast agent to the
102 small intestine and colon. Three formulations were prepared with different ratios of core and shell
103 components and loadings of active ingredients. These were fully characterized, and their functional
104 performance assessed to elucidate the effect of morphology on potential applications.

105

106 **2. Materials and methods**

107 2.1 Materials

108 Chemicals were purchased as follows: sodium hydroxide and anhydrous ethanol (Fisher Scientific Ltd.);
109 poly(N-isopropyl acrylamide) (average Mn 40,000), ethyl cellulose (48% ethoxyl, viscosity 10 cP, 5 %
110 in toluene/ethanol 80:20(lit.)), sodium chloride, N,N-dimethylacetamide (DMAc), dimethylformamide,
111 acetone, anhydrous ethanol, polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP; 40 kDa), hydroxylamine hydrochloride, o-
112 phenanthroline, xanthan gum, FeCl₃·6H₂O and FeCl₂·4H₂O (Sigma-Aldrich); Eudragit L100 (MW 12,500,
113 Röhm GmbH); and, carmofur (ChemCruz™). Ultrapure water was collected from a Millipore MilliQ
114 system operated at 18.2 MΩ.

115 2.2 Synthesis of SPIONs

116 FeCl₃·6H₂O (6.5 g, 0.024 mol) and FeCl₂·4H₂O (2.48 g, 0.012 mol) were dissolved in 25 mL of
117 deoxygenated ultrapure water. This solution was added dropwise into 250 mL of an aqueous NaOH
118 solution (0.5 M) at 40 °C, and stirred for 1 h at this temperature. The resultant SPIONs were washed
119 by centrifugation with DI water until the supernatant was pH neutral, and the resultant black
120 precipitate dried under vacuum. For PVP stabilisation, SPIONs (100 mL, 10 mg/mL in water) were

121 mixed with 2 mL of an aqueous PVP solution (25.6 g/L, 0.64 mM), and the suspension was shaken (100
122 rpm) at room temperature. After 24 h, the suspension was mixed with 500 mL of aqueous acetone
123 (H₂O/acetone, 1:10 v/v) and centrifuged at 13,200 rpm for 20 min. The supernatant was removed, and
124 the resultant black precipitate washed with ethanol and dried in an oven at 50 °C for 24 h.

125 2.3 Measurement of lower critical solution temperature (LCST)

126 The LCST of PNIPAM was determined using a UV–Vis spectrophotometer (Cary 60 instrument, Agilent)
127 with 1 wt% aqueous polymer solutions, by measuring absorption at 670 nm over the temperature
128 range of 20–60 °C. The experiments were carried out with 3 heating/cooling cycle using a water bath
129 (temperature ramp of 2 °C/min) and the transmittance was recorded every 5 seconds. The LCST was
130 identified as the temperature at which the absorption of the sample was 50% of the maximum value.

131 2.4 Preparation of working fluids and EHDA

132 After a series of preliminary optimization experiments, co-axial EHDA was used to produce core@shell
133 microparticles comprising a Eudragit L100 shell loaded with SPIONs and a PNIPAM/ethyl cellulose core
134 (PNIPAM/EC) loaded with carmofur. The recipes are shown in Table 1. Eudragit L100 was dissolved in
135 a mixture of DMAc and ethanol (2:8 v/v). PNIPAM and ethyl cellulose were dissolved in a solvent
136 system comprising DMF and ethanol (3:7 v/v). Single fluid processing was employed to produce
137 PNIPAM/ethyl cellulose particles or Eudragit L100 fibres loaded with SPIONs and carmofur as controls.
138 For PNIPAM/EC particles, a solution of 4% (w/v) ethyl cellulose and 4% (w/v) PNIPAM was prepared in
139 a mixture of DMF and ethanol (3:7 v/v). For Eudragit L100 fibres and microparticles, a 12 % (w/v) or
140 4 % (w/v) solution of Eudragit L100 was prepared in a mixture of DMAc and ethanol (2:8 v/v). Polymer
141 solutions were stirred vigorously for 24 h, then carmofur (to give final concentrations of 4, 8 or 12
142 mg/mL) and PVP-SPIONs (at final concentrations of 4, 8 or 12 mg/mL) were added to the solutions of
143 PNIPAM/ethyl cellulose or Eudragit L100 with sonication for 20 min.

144

145

146 Table 1

147 Formulations of core@shell microparticles and fibres loaded with carmofur and SPIONs.

ID	Core		Sheath		EC : PNIPAM : Eudragit L100 : Carmofur : PVP-SPIONs weight ratio ^d
	Polymer (w/v) ^a	Carmofur (w/w) ^b	Polymer (w/v) ^a	PVP-SPIONs (w/w) ^c	
P-EC@EL-M1	2.5 % EC		4 %		61 : 11 : 11 : 5 : 12
	2.5 % PNIPAM	23.33 %	Eudragit L100	20 %	
P-EC@EL-M2	4 % EC		4 %		53 : 15 : 15 : 6 : 11
	4 % PNIPAM	20 %	Eudragit L100	20 %	
P-EC@EL-M3	6 % EC		4 %		45 : 19 : 19 : 7 : 10
	6 % PNIPAM	18 %	Eudragit L100	22.5 %	
P-EC@EL-F	8 % EC		12%		61 : 12 : 12 : 4 : 11
	8 % PNIPAM	18 %	Eudragit L100	18 %	

148 *(a: % w/v ratio of polymer to solvent; b: % w/w ratio of carmofur to core polymer; c: % w/w ratio of PVP-*
 149 *SPIONs to shell polymer; d: weight ratio of the different components in the final formulations)*

150 An HCP 35-35000 power supply (FuG Elektronik GmbH) was employed to provide an electric field. For
 151 single fluid EHDA, the spinning solution was loaded into a 5 mL syringe fitted with a stainless-steel
 152 needle (18G). Great care was taken to avoid air bubbles in the solution. An alligator clip (the positive
 153 electrode) was then attached to the concentric needle. The grounded electrode was connected to an
 154 aluminium plate. EHDA was performed under ambient conditions (22 ± 3 °C and relative humidity 40
 155 ± 5%). A syringe pump (KDS 100, Cole-Parmer) was used to drive the working solutions. To produce
 156 PNIPAM-EC particles, the working voltage was fixed at 18 kV, with a collector distance of 20 cm and a
 157 flow rate of 0.8 mL/h. To produce Eudragit L100 formulations, the working voltage was fixed at 16 kV,
 158 with a collector distance of 15 cm from the needle and a flow rate of 0.8 mL/h.

159 For co-axial EHDA, two syringe pumps (KDS 100, Cole Parmer) were employed to control the sheath
 160 (0.7 mL/h) and the core (0.2 mL/h) flow rates. The voltage was fixed at 14 kV, with the collector placed
 161 20 cm from the needle. A concentric spinneret was employed (core needle: 27G; outer and inner
 162 diameters of 0.42 and 0.21 mm, respectively; shell needle: 18G; outer and inner diameters of 1.25 and
 163 0.84 mm).

164 2.5 Characterization

165 A MiniFlex 600 diffractometer (Rigaku) supplied with Cu-K α radiation was used to collect XRD patterns
 166 ($\lambda = 0.15418$ nm, 40 kV, 15 mA). Patterns were recorded over the 2 θ range from 5 to 70° (step = 0.01°).
 167 The morphology of the formulations was analysed by a field emission scanning electron microscope
 168 (FEI Quanta 200F) connected to a secondary electron detector (Everheart-Thornley Detector). Samples

169 were coated with a 20 nm gold sputter (using a Quorum Q150T coater) before measurement. The size
170 distribution of the formulations was determined from the SEM micrographs by measuring at > 100
171 points in the images, with the aid of the ImageJ software (version 1.52s, National Institutes of Health).

172 Transmission electron microscopy images of specimens were obtained on a JEOL JEM-1200
173 microscope operated at 120 kV with a beam current of ca. 80 mA. A Gatan Orius 11-megapixel camera
174 was used to take images. Average particle size was measured with the ImageJ software (version 1.52s,
175 National Institutes of Health).

176 Thermogravimetric analysis was undertaken on a Discovery instrument (TA Instruments, Waters LLC).
177 Ca. 3 mg of each sample was loaded into an aluminium pan and heated from 40 to 500 °C at 10 °C/min
178 under a nitrogen flow of 25 mL/min. Data were recorded using the Trios software and analysed with
179 TA Universal Analysis. A Q2000 instrument (TA Instruments, Waters LLC) was used for DSC
180 measurements. A small amount of sample (approximately 3 mg) was loaded in a non-hermetically
181 sealed aluminium pan (T130425, TA instruments) and experiments carried out with a temperature
182 ramp of 10 °C/min and nitrogen purge of 25 mL/min. DSC data were recorded with the TA Advantage
183 software package and analysed using TA Universal Analysis.

184 2.6 Stability assay

185 Stability studies were carried out by dispersing 10 mg of the formulations or 2 mg of PVP-SPIONs in 25
186 mL of an aqueous HCl solution (pH 1.5). Experiments were carried out in a shaking incubator (100 rpm)
187 at 37 °C for 2 h. The resulting solutions were centrifuged for 15 min (13,200 rpm) to sediment any
188 undissolved particles. 5 mL samples of the supernatants were removed and neutralized with a few
189 drops of aqueous 0.2 M NaOH. 0.9 mL of the neutralized sample was added to 0.3 mL of a 10 % (w/v)
190 hydroxylamine hydrochloride solution in water and 0.6 mL of an aqueous 0.2 % (w/v) o-
191 phenanthroline solution.

192 2.7 Loading capacity and encapsulation efficiency

193 To calculate the loading capacity (LC) and encapsulation efficiency (EE) of carmofur, 10 mg of the
194 formulations was added into 10 mL of ethanol and sonicated until the polymer was fully dissolved. A
195 PVDF-type syringe filter (0.22 µm) was used to filter the resultant solutions, and the filtrates
196 centrifuged for 10 min (13,200 rpm) to remove the SPIONs. The supernatants were analyzed with UV
197 spectroscopy at 262 nm (Cary 100 instrument, Agilent), and the LC and EE calculated based on a pre-
198 determined calibration curve.

199 2.8 *In vitro* drug release

200 To mimic the conditions encountered in oral administration, drug release experiments were first
201 performed in an acidic solution (pH 1.5, HCl) to simulate the gastric fluid (37 °C) for 1 hour, and then
202 in a PBS buffer (pH 7.4) or acetate buffer (pH 5.5) at 37 °C or 25 °C. 20 mg samples and 10 mL of pre-
203 heated pH 1.5 media were added into dialysis bags (MWCO 3500) and transferred to 30 mL of the
204 same buffer at 37 °C. After a 1 h incubation, some of dialysis bags were removed and the acidic media
205 replaced with 10 mL of fresh PBS buffer (pH 7.4) or acetate buffer (pH 5.5) at 37 or 25 °C. The refreshed
206 samples in dialysis bags were transferred to 30 mL of the relevant buffer at the appropriate
207 temperature. Experiments were undertaken in a shaking incubator (100 rpm). 1 mL aliquots were
208 withdrawn from the dissolution medium at predetermined time points and filtered through a PVDF-
209 type syringe filter (0.22 µm). To maintain a constant volume, 1 mL of fresh pre-heated buffer was

210 added to the dissolution vessel. In the temperature-triggered release experiments, samples (n=6)
211 were immersed in 5 mL of pre-heated acetate buffer (pH 5.5, 37 °C) and transferred into a dialysis bag
212 (MW 3500), which was in turn submerged into 20 mL of the same buffer (pH 5.5) and incubated at
213 37 °C (100 rpm). After a 45 min incubation, half the samples (n=3) were transferred to the same buffer
214 pre-heated at 25 °C (100 rpm). 0.5 mL aliquots were periodically withdrawn from the dissolution
215 medium and filtered through a PVDF-type syringe filter (0.22 µm). To maintain a constant volume, 0.5
216 mL of fresh pre-heated buffer was added to the dissolution vessel.

217 In all cases, the filtrates were centrifuged for 15 min (13,200 rpm) to remove any SPIONs, and then
218 analysed with an Agilent Cary 100 spectrophotometer. Carmofur quantification was performed at λ_{\max}
219 of 262 nm. Dilutions were undertaken where necessary to bring concentrations into the linear range
220 of the calibration curve. Experiments were performed in triplicate and the results are reported as
221 mean \pm standard deviation (S.D.).

222 2.9 Proton relaxivity

223 First, the SPION contents in the samples were determined. Samples (containing ca. 0.06 mg SPIONs)
224 were digested using hot HNO₃ digestion and then diluted to 10 mL with deionized water. The iron
225 concentrations (mM) were quantified on a Varian 720-ES inductively coupled plasma atomic emission
226 spectroscopy (ICP-AES). The samples were measured against a standard containing Fe ions (100 mg·L⁻¹
227 in 5% HNO₃).

228 An MQC+ benchtop NMR analyser (Oxford Instruments) was used to measure the transverse
229 relaxation times (T_2) of protons at 37 °C and 23 MHz. The Carr-Purcell-Meiboom-Gill (CPMG) method
230 was used to measure T_2 , with 4 scans per experiment. The water relaxation rate enhancement per
231 mmol of contrast agent (relaxivity) is defined by Equation 1.

$$232 \quad r_2 = \frac{R_{2,obs} - R_{2,sol}}{[CA]} \quad (1)$$

233 Where r_2 is the relaxivity, $R_{2,obs}$ is the observed transverse relaxation rate of the agent in aqueous
234 suspension ($R_2 = 1/T_2$), $R_{2,sol}$ is the relaxation rate of the unaltered solvent system (*i.e.* in the absence
235 of contrast agent) and [CA] is the mM concentration of the contrast agent in suspension, as measured
236 by ICP-MS.

237 To monitor changes in proton relaxivity with pH and temperature, a dispersion of approximately 16
238 mg of each formulation in 8 mL of a 0.1 % (w/v) aqueous xanthan gum solution was placed into a 10
239 mm-diameter NMR tube, which was held at 37 °C. The transverse relaxation time (T_2) was directly
240 monitored over 24 h. At predetermined time points, 0.3 mL of suspension was taken from the NMR
241 tube, diluted, and filtered through a PVDF-type syringe filter (0.22 µm). To measure the free iron
242 concentration, suspensions were analysed by ICP-MS after hot nitric acid digestion. To measure the
243 carmofur concentration, centrifugation (13,200 rpm for 10 min) was conducted to remove the SPIONs,
244 and the supernatant analysed on an Agilent Cary 100 spectrophotometer. All experiments were
245 performed in triplicate and the results are reported as mean \pm S.D. In a set of experiments to predict
246 drug release, dispersions of fibre samples (1.0 mg/mL) in 0.1% w/v xanthan gum at pH 7.4 (n=3) were
247 placed into 10 mm NMR tubes. At selected time points, 0.3 mL aliquots were taken from the NMR
248 tube and the carmofur content in each aliquot quantified as above.

249

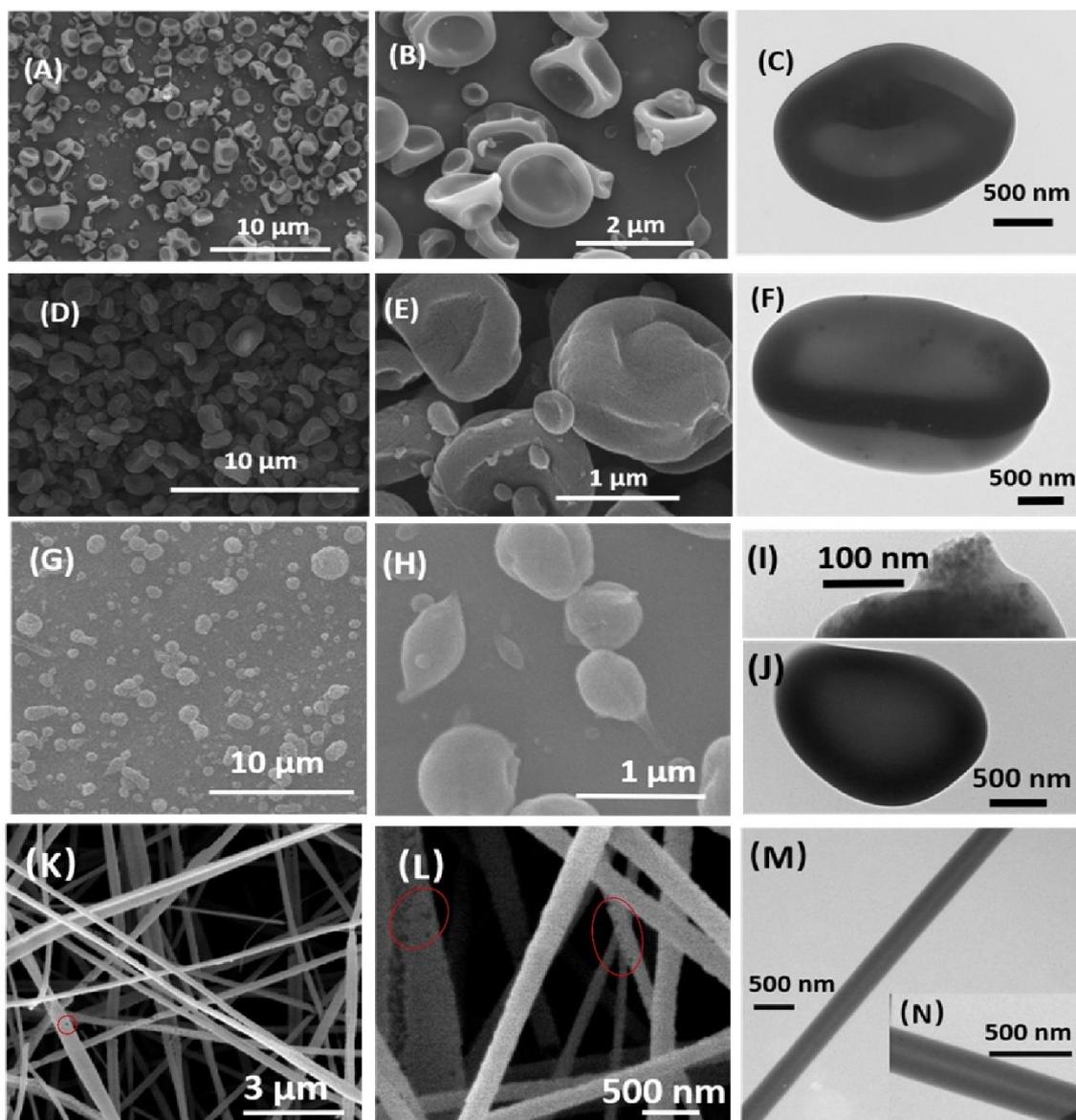
250 3. Results

251 3.1 Physicochemical and structural properties

252 Polyvinyl pyrrolidone (PVP) stabilized superparamagnetic iron oxide nanoparticles (PVP-SPIONs) were
253 synthesized using the method described in our previous study (Zhang et al., 2020). The PVP-SPIONs
254 possessed a mean size of 8.5 ± 2.7 nm, as determined by transmission electron microscopy (TEM;
255 Supplementary Information, Fig. S1A). X-ray diffraction (XRD) confirms the synthesis of SPIONs (Fig.
256 S1B). The reflections at 30.2, 35.5, 43.7, 53.6, 57.1 and 62.9° can be indexed to the (022), (311), (004),
257 (333), (115), and (044) planes of the cubic inverse spinel Fe_3O_4 (ICSD entry 77592).

258 The LCST of PNIPAM were determined by measuring the turbidity changes of the polymer solution
259 with temperature. The LCST is defined here as the temperature corresponding to 50% of the maximum
260 transmittance at 670 nm (with a polymer concentration of 1 wt%). Fig. S1C shows PNIPAM has an LCST
261 of 35.7 °C. The polymer is found to be able to transition through the LCST reversibly, without any shift
262 in the cloud point being seen after three cycles of cooling and heating. Hysteresis can be observed in
263 all the heat/cool curves; this is seen because a water bath was used to control the temperature ramp
264 (2 °C/min), leading to a slight delay in temperature changes of the polymer solutions, and thus
265 hysteresis in the PNIPAM conformational changes.

266 A mixed solution of PNIPAM and ethyl cellulose (EC) can be independently electrospayed. Prior to
267 preparing core@shell microparticles, the electrospaying parameters were optimized for a core
268 polymer blend loaded with 10 wt% SPIONs and 10 wt% carmofur. The resultant PNIPAM-EC particles
269 had a broad size distribution and rough surfaces, with mean particle diameters of 0.75 ± 0.50 μm as
270 measured by ImageJ (Fig. S2). The processing parameters for the shell polymer, Eudragit L100 were
271 also optimized. Monolithic Eudragit L100 fibres and microparticles loaded with 10 wt% PVP-SPIONs
272 and 10 wt% carmofur were obtained (Fig. S3), with mean fibre diameter of 0.61 ± 0.16 μm and particle
273 size of 0.38 ± 0.22 μm , respectively.



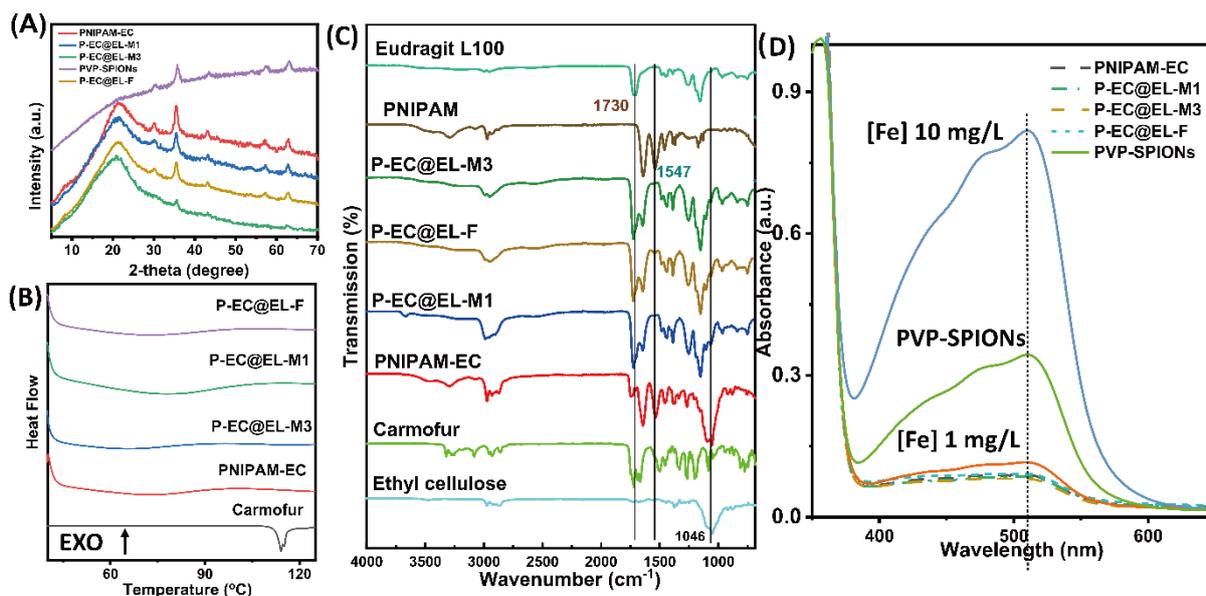
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275 Fig. 1. SEM and TEM images for P-EC@EL-M1 (A, B, C); P-EC@EL-M2 (D, E, F); P-EC@EL-M3 (G, H, I, J);
 276 and, P-EC@EL-F (K, L, M, N).

277

278 Three microparticle and one fibre formulations were produced with a range of core@shell
 279 compositions, as shown in Table 1. SEM and TEM images of P-EC@EL-M1, 2, 3 and P-EC@EL-F are
 280 shown in Fig. 1. The core@shell microparticles have distinct morphology from the PNIPAM-EC material.
 281 SEM images of P-EC@EL-M1 (Fig. 1A,B) display a concave shape with smooth surface, and a mean size
 282 of $0.98 \pm 0.40 \mu\text{m}$ (Fig. S4). P-EC@EL-M2 comprises concave particles, but these are more spherical in
 283 shape due to the larger w/w ratio of core polymer to shell polymer, and have sizes of $1.05 \pm 0.44 \mu\text{m}$
 284 (Fig. 1D,E, Fig. S4). The SEM images of P-EC@EL-M3 depict roughly spherical particles with a diameter
 285 of $1.00 \pm 0.41 \mu\text{m}$ (Fig. 1G,H, Fig. S4). It is clear that the morphology of the microparticles is related to
 286 the core to shell polymer w/w ratio, with an increasing proportion of core polymer leading to more
 287 spherical particles. TEM images (Fig. 1C, F, I, J) showed that all three particles have two compartments.
 288 For P-EC@EL-M3, a clear dark halo can be found, consistent with a shell compartment containing PVP-

289 SPIONs. The two compartments in P-EC@EL-M1 and 2 are overlaid, which might be due to the concave
 290 shape of the particles. The shell compartment is darker, indicating the encapsulation of SPIONs, while
 291 the core loaded with carmofur is lighter. For P-EC@EL-F, SEM images (Fig. 1K, L) reveal linear cylindrical
 292 structures with mean diameters of $0.42 \pm 0.13 \mu\text{m}$ (Fig. S4). A small number of pores were present on
 293 the fibre surface (marked in red circles, Fig. 1K, L), which might because of the slower evaporation rate
 294 of the core solvent. No ‘beads-on-a-string’ morphology was observed and no evidence for any particles
 295 or phase separation was present, which indicates the components of the fibres are homogeneously
 296 mixed. P-EC@EL-F also has a clear core@shell structure (Fig. 1M, N). P-EC@EL-M1, 3 and P-EC@EL-F
 297 were selected for further study, since they have very distinct morphologies.



298
 299 Fig. 2. Physicochemical characterisation of the materials. (A) XRD patterns of PNIPAM-EC, P-EC@EL-
 300 M1, M3, P-EC@EL-F and PVP-SPIONs. (B) DSC profiles and (C) FTIR spectra of PNIPAM-EC, P-EC@EL-
 301 M1, M3, P-EC@EL-F and carmofur. (D) The results of colorimetric assays to determine [Fe] in solution
 302 for PVP-SPIONs, P-EC@EL-M1, P-EC@EL-M3 and P-EC@EL-F after immersion in pH 1.5 aqueous HCl
 303 for 2 h, with two control FeCl₃ aqueous solutions (blue and orange, 1 and 10 mg/L respectively).

304
 305 The XRD patterns of the formulations are displayed in Fig. 2A. The characteristic reflections of cubic
 306 inverse spinel Fe₃O₄ can be observed in P-EC@EL-M1, M3 and P-EC@EL-F, indicating successful loading
 307 of PVP-SPIONs into the formulations. The broad peak between 10-30° arises due to the amorphous
 308 nature of the polymers after processing by EHDA. The characteristic reflections of carmofur and EC
 309 (Fig. S5A) are not observed in the XRD patterns of any of the formulations, demonstrating that they
 310 are present in the amorphous form owing to the very rapid drying which occurs during EHDA. This is
 311 supported by DSC analysis (Fig. 2B and Fig. S5B). Pure carmofur clearly exists as a crystalline material
 312 with two sharp endothermic melting peaks visible at ca. 114 and 115 °C, consistent with the literature
 313 (Sanchez-Vazquez et al., 2017). The raw Eudragit, EC and PNIPAM polymers have a broad endothermic
 314 peak between 60 to 120 °C, attributed to the loss of adsorbed water and solvent (ethanol, DMF). No
 315 events can be observed in the DSC profile for PVP-SPIONs. The absence of the carmofur melting
 316 endotherm in the DSC curves of the drug loaded microparticles confirms that it is present in the form
 317 of an amorphous solid dispersion, which is consistent with our previous study (Zhang et al., 2020).

318 Fig. 2C displays the FTIR spectra of PNIPAM-EC, P-E@EL-M1, M3 and P-E@EL-F, together with the raw
319 materials. Carmofur displays typical absorption bands at $1666\text{-}1720\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and at 1495 cm^{-1} , related to
320 C=O stretching vibrations. As a co-polymer of methacrylic acid and methyl methacrylate, Eudragit L100
321 has a characteristic stretch at 1730 cm^{-1} that arises from C=O vibrations of ester groups. For EC, a
322 strong band at 1046 cm^{-1} can be attributed to C-O stretching, while the vibration at 1547 cm^{-1} in the
323 PNIPAM spectra is the amide N-H bending. For the PNIPAM-EC microparticles, the characteristic
324 stretches of ethyl cellulose, carmofur and PNIPAM can be clearly identified in the spectra. With the
325 core@shell formulations, characteristic stretches of Eudragit L100, ethyl cellulose and PNIPAM also
326 can be seen. The C=O stretching vibrations around 1730 cm^{-1} become more intense in the composites,
327 as they incorporate the stretches of carmofur between $1666\text{-}1720\text{ cm}^{-1}$. This suggests the successful
328 incorporation of carmofur in the formulations.

329 TGA and DTA profiles (Fig. S6) confirmed the existence of both carmofur and PVP-SPIONs within the
330 composite formulations. P-EC@EL-M1, M3 and P-EC@EL-F display multistage decomposition
331 processes. The small mass loss of about 3 % before $100\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ can be attributed to solvent loss (e.g.
332 ethanol, DMF, physisorbed water). Two processes at around 120 and $240\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ can be attributed to the
333 decomposition of carmofur, and the mass loss beyond $300\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ is associated with polymer matrix
334 degradation. From the TGA results of the microspheres, we can calculate that the iron oxide content
335 is 12.1 % w/w for P-EC@EL-M1, 10.4 % w/w for P-EC@EL-M1, and 10.3 % w/w for P-EC@EL-F. This
336 corresponds to an encapsulation efficiency (EE) of ca. 100%, consistent with the theoretical SPION
337 loading amount (12, 10, 10 % w/w, respectively). The carmofur loadings of P-EC@EL-M1, P-EC@EL-
338 M3 and P-EC@EL-F were calculated by UV-vis spectroscopy, and found to be $4.9 \pm 0.3\%$, $7.1 \pm 0.8\%$
339 and $5.1 \pm 0.4\%$ w/w respectively, with EEs of $96.6 \pm 6.0\%$, 93.5 ± 11 and $94.8 \pm 7.0\%$ (mean \pm S.D., n
340 = 3).

341 3.2 Stimuli responsive properties

342 Bare SPIONs are unstable in highly acidic environments such as those found in the stomach, resulting
343 in their oxidation and eventual degradation. Their encapsulation in Eudragit L100-coated formulations
344 is expected to resolve this issue, with the protective sheath preventing degradation in gastric fluids
345 (Rose et al., 2016). To test the stability of encapsulated SPIONs, 10 mg of our formulations were
346 incubated in 25 mL of pH 1.5 aqueous HCl solution, similar to the pH of gastric liquids (Evans et al.,
347 1988). 2 mg of PVP-SPIONs was treated under the same conditions. The Fe concentration freed into
348 solution was measured using an *o*-phenanthroline colorimetric assay after incubation at $37\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 2 h,
349 mimicking the gastric transit time, and subsequent neutralisation. The λ_{max} of the ferrous tris-*o*-
350 phenanthroline product of dissolved iron and *o*-phenanthroline is around 512 nm at neutral pH. Fig.
351 2D shows that the [Fe] released from the core@shell materials was below that of a control FeCl_3
352 aqueous solution ([Fe] 1 mg/L, orange line), indicating less than 2.5 wt.% of the total SPION content
353 was degraded in the loaded fibres This concentration is significantly lower than the [Fe] released from
354 bare PVP-SPIONs at equivalent concentrations (between 1-10 mg/L, equating to up to 12.5 wt.%
355 degradation, green line). These results show that the Eudragit L100 coating can protect the SPIONs
356 from degradation in an acidic environment. SEM images (Fig. S7) of the formulations following acid
357 incubation confirm the stability of the formulations: as a result of matrix swelling, P-EC@EL-M1
358 become more spherical, while hollow structures still can be observed for the P-EC@EL-M3
359 microparticles. The morphology of P-EC@EL-F appears largely unaffected after exposure to the acidic
360 conditions.

361 To mimic the conditions encountered during oral delivery, drug release experiments were carried out
362 at different pHs. Initially, samples were incubated at pH 1.5 (aqueous HCl solution, mimicking the
363 gastric pH) for 1 h at 37 °C, and then subsequently transferred to pH 7.4 or 5.5 buffer at 37 or 25 °C
364 (representing the pH of the intestinal tract and the tumor microenvironment, respectively). 25 °C (a
365 temperature below the LCST of PNIPAM) was used as the second test temperature to explore the
366 dissolution profile of our formulations in intestinal tract. Although 25 °C is lower than the physiological
367 temperature, these experiments offer a good insight into the temperature-responsive behavior of the
368 formulation matrix and how it might affect the drug release. Furthermore, low temperature treatment
369 such as cryotherapy has been used in ablation of colorectal and intestinal tumor (Primrose 2002, Parsi,
370 Trindade et al. 2017), and thus there is a possibility to utilize hypothermia to manipulate drug release
371 in the intestinal tract.

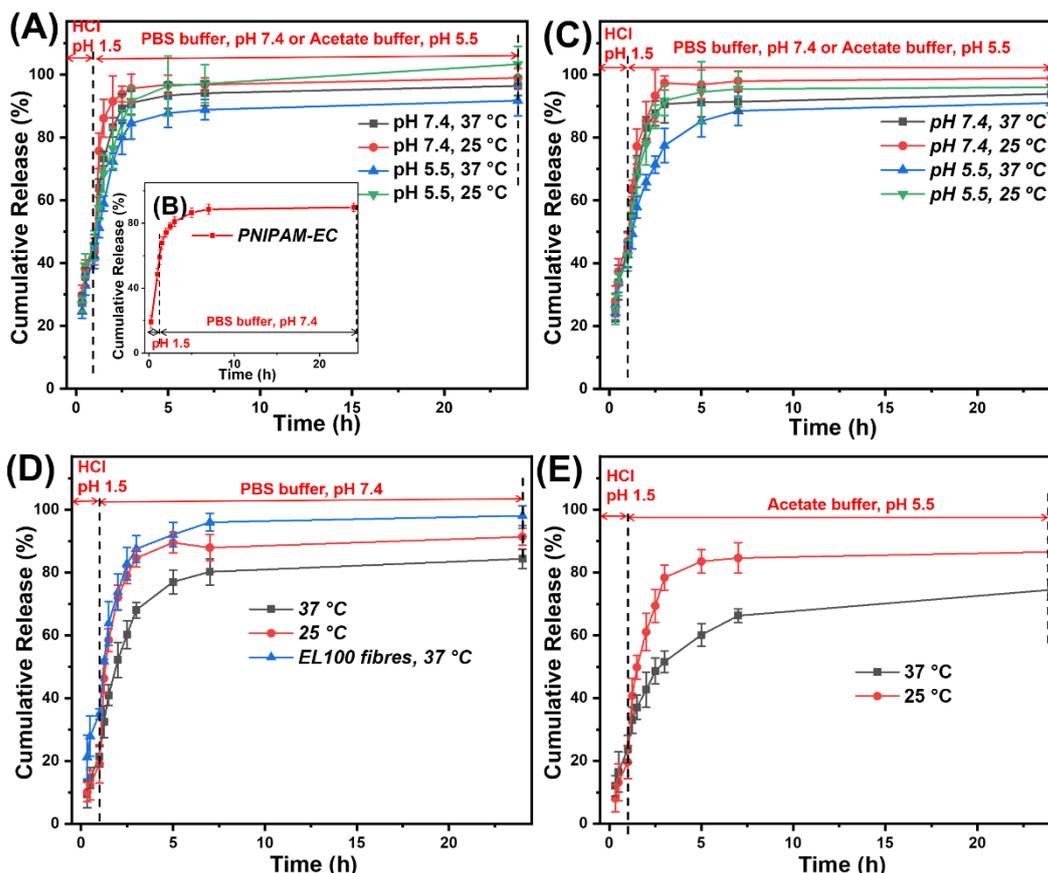
372 The results of *in vitro* dissolution tests are given in Fig. 3. In the first hour, as a result of Eudragit L100
373 being insoluble in acidic conditions and the drug embedded in the core, there is relatively little
374 carmofur release. Only 20 % of the drug in P-EC@EL-F was released into the dissolution medium, much
375 reduced compared to the monolithic Eudragit L100 fibres (35 %, Fig. S8A). However, over 40% of
376 carmofur was freed from PNIPAM-EC, P-EC@EL-M1 and M3 into the acidic environments. The rapid
377 release from the core@shell particles might be due to the particle structure. Though the core@shell
378 microparticles seem to possess clear edges between the two compartments in TEM images, some of
379 the core and shell solutions may have mixed during EHDA processing leading to carmofur being
380 present at the particle surface. This drug on the surface will be freed quickly into solution and generate
381 pores on the particle surface. This effect is magnified since the core@shell particles have very high
382 surface area to volume ratios as a result of their small size. Once pores are created, drug from further
383 inside the particles can easily diffuse out. Pores through which drug molecules could escape from the
384 microparticles could also be created by swelling of the L100 shell and the permeation of water into
385 the particle centre.

386 When the microparticles were transferred into a neutral PBS or pH 5.5 acetate medium there was very
387 rapid release noted, with 80 % cumulative release reached in 3 hours (see Fig. 3A-C). This is observed
388 at both 25 and 37 °C, with only slightly reduced rates observed at the lower temperature. Release is
389 also marginally slower at pH 5.5 than 7.4, but again this trend is not particularly marked. The particle
390 formulations thus have only minimal ability to discriminate between different conditions of
391 temperature and pH. To test this hypothesis, an experiment was performed where particles or fibres
392 were immersed in a pH 1.5 solution for 24 h (Fig. S8B). Here, all three microparticles gave more than
393 80 % release of carmofur with a plateau reached after 5 h, confirming their lack of pH-responsive
394 properties.

395 For P-EC@EL-F (Fig. 3D), a burst release can be seen in the first 4 h after transfer from the pH 1.5
396 buffer to PBS, reaching > 80 % cumulative release, while in HCl only around 50% of the drug were
397 released over 4 h (Fig. S8B). Release at 37 °C is notably lower than at 25 °C. At pH 5.5 (Fig. 3E), the
398 fibres display slower release and a distinctly thermo-responsive release profile. Faster release rates
399 and higher cumulative release percentages are found at 25 °C. The difference in release profile at the
400 two pHs can be attributed to the solubility of the Eudragit L100 shell, which can reduce the release of
401 carmofur at pH 5.5 and triggers rapid release when in pH 7.4 PBS.

402 In contrast to the microparticles therefore, the core@shell fibres display thermo-responsive
403 properties. This difference in behaviour is thought to be because of the difference in structures. The

404 microparticles have smaller sizes and are more easily dispersed in buffers, allowing water to effectively
 405 get access to their core via swelling of the Eudragit L100 shell. The higher surface area to volume ratios
 406 of the particles can further facilitate interactions between water and the formulations, resulting in
 407 rapid carmofur release. In contrast, the Eudragit L100 shell of the fibres can minimize release at pH
 408 1.5, but triggers rapid release at neutral pH. This is promising for the treatment of intestinal diseases
 409 via oral administration.



410
 411 Fig. 3. Plots showing the release of carmofur from (A) P-EC@EL-M1, (B) PNIPAM-EC, (C) P-EC@EL-M3
 412 and (D and E) P-EC@EL-F, as measured by UV-vis spectroscopy. Data are given from three independent
 413 experiments as mean \pm S.D.

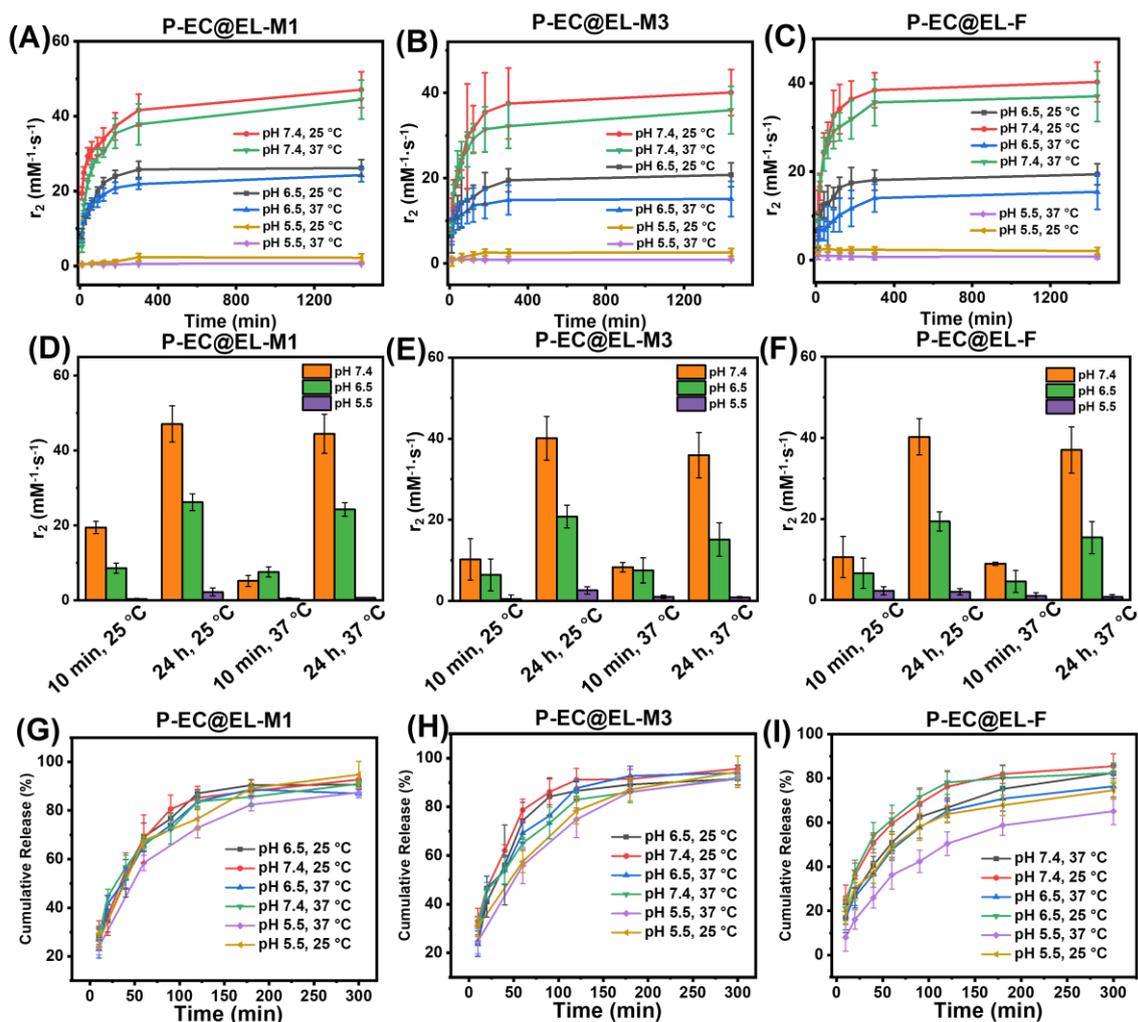
414 Further experiments were performed to investigate the thermo-responsiveness of the P-EC
 415 formulations, as shown in Fig. S9. Samples (n=6) were firstly incubated at pH 5.5 and 37 °C for 45 min,
 416 and then half of these samples were transferred to a 25 °C water bath (stirred at 50 rpm). Carmofur
 417 release was monitored by UV-vis measurement of the supernatant at selected time points. The results
 418 further confirm the thermo-responsive release profile of P-EC@EL-F. Compared to the release curves
 419 at 37 °C, with approx. 62 % release over 180 min, faster release was observed when the formulations
 420 were transferred to 25 °C conditions, where over 80 % of the total drug content was released. Much
 421 reduced differences were observed with the core@shell microparticles.

422 SPIONs are typically T_2 contrast agents, providing negative contrast by decreasing the transverse
 423 relaxation time of local protons. To explore the efficiency of their contrast behaviour when
 424 encapsulated within the composite formulations, the relaxivity (r_2) was calculated according to

425 Equation 1. In a previous study, we fabricated monolithic Eudragit fibres loaded with SPIONs and
426 carmofur and monitored the r_2 relaxivity as a function of time. The resultant r_2 relaxivity could be
427 correlated with the extent of drug and SPIONs release (Zhang et al., 2020). In this work, SPIONs and
428 carmofur were separately embedded into the pH-sensitive Eudragit L100 shell and thermoresponsive
429 core. The r_2 relaxivity was monitored as a function of time during incubation in different pH buffers
430 with 0.1 % w/v xanthan gum (pH 5.5, 6.5 or 7.4) at 37 or 25 °C. The resultant r_2 relaxivity profiles were
431 evaluated to determine whether the changing MRI signal with SPION release could be employed to
432 track coincident carmofur release.

433 Firstly, the relaxivity of the PNIPAM-EC microparticles was explored. A very low (less than $4 \text{ mM}^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)
434 increase in relaxivity over 24 h was observed at both temperatures (Fig. S10), with r_2 increasing from
435 $0.30 \pm 0.1 \text{ mM}^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ at 10 min to $2.5 \pm 1.5 \text{ mM}^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ after 24 hours at 25 °C. The low relaxivity is thought
436 to be due to many of the SPIONs being encapsulated into insoluble EC regions of the matrix, preventing
437 their effective magnetic interactions with diffusive water protons (Angelakeris, 2017).

438 Fig. 4A-C displays the r_2 relaxivity profiles of the core@shell materials as a function of incubation time.
439 Due to the very low initial relaxivity values, profiles were monitored from 10 min immersion onwards.
440 The recovery of r_2 can be regarded as a kinetic process which is proportional to the dissolution of the
441 ES100 shell layer (Zhang et al., 2020). For P-EC@EL-M1, it can be seen that the transverse relaxivity
442 gradually increases over 24 hours at pH 7.4. At all timepoints studied and both temperatures, relaxivity
443 at pH 7.4 is higher than at pH 6.5. The pH-responsive relaxation profile is analogous to previous results,
444 and expected to arise from the release and potential micellisation of SPIONs during the dissolution of
445 Eudragit L100. At pH 5.5, the relaxivity remains low over 24 hours (less than $2.2 \text{ mM}^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) because the
446 Eudragit L100 is insoluble. While some drug release can occur via carmofur in the core reaching the
447 dissolution medium through diffusion or swelling of the polymer and the permeation of water into
448 the centre of the polymer matrix, the larger SPIONs cannot exit the formulations via the same route.
449 The relaxation behaviors of P-EC@EL-M3 and P-EC@EL-F are similar to that of P-EC@EL-M1. As shown
450 in Fig. 4D-F, the transverse relaxivity of all three formulations is largely influenced by pH, but much
451 less so by temperature.



452

453 Fig. 4. Plots showing the change in transverse relaxation (r_2) of (A) P-EC@EL-M1; (B) P-EC@EL-M3; and,
 454 (C) P-EC@EL-F and the transverse relaxation (r_2) under different conditions (as labelled) of (D) P-
 455 EC@EL-M1; (E) P-EC@EL-M3; and (F) P-EC@EL-F. Also displayed are plots showing carmofur release
 456 (by UV-vis spectroscopy) from (G) P-EC@EL-M1; (H) P-EC@EL-M3; and, (I) P-EC@EL-F.

457

458 In order to directly compare with the relaxivity data, carmofur release was repeated in PBS at pH 7.4
 459 or 6.5 with 0.1% xanthan gum and quantified by UV-vis spectroscopy alongside relaxivity changes (Fig.
 460 4G-I). 0.1 % w/v xanthan gum were used to prevent the aggregation of microparticles and provide
 461 homogenous suspension for relaxivity measurement, which has little influence on r_2 values. The
 462 presence of xanthan gum causes the release milieu to have a gel-like consistency, which makes it
 463 impossible to transfer between different pH media; thus, experiments were performed only at pH 6.5
 464 or 7.4, with no initial acid stage. All the systems displayed rapid release of carmofur over 3 hours,
 465 consistent with the *in vitro* drug release tests performed without xanthan (Fig. 3). When the pH is
 466 above 5.5, the r_2 value also consistently increased over 3 hours (Fig. 4A-C). To explore the relationship
 467 between carmofur release and relaxivity at these pHs, plots of cumulative carmofur release vs r_2 were
 468 constructed. These reveal a clear linear correlation between the two parameters, with R^2 ranging from
 469 0.92 to 0.99 except for P-EC@EL-F at pH 6.5 and 37 °C, whose R^2 was slightly lower at 0.86 (Fig. S11).
 470 This indicates that changes in r_2 signal directly correspond to carmofur release, meaning that MRI

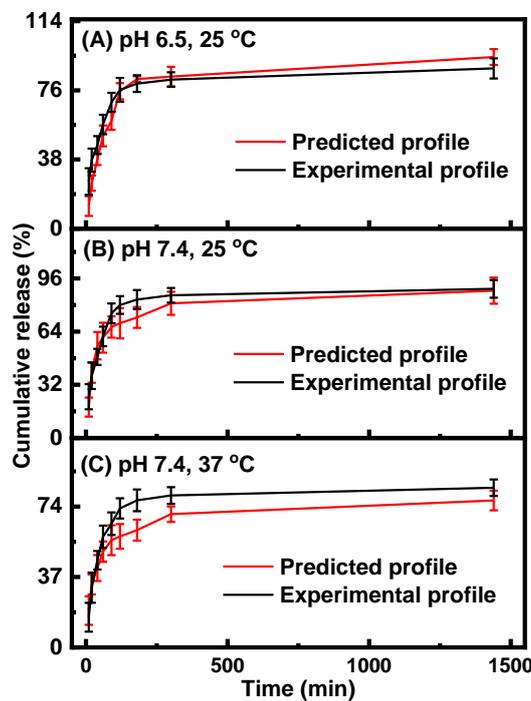
471 could be exploited as a non-invasive means of monitoring *in situ* drug release in environments such as
472 the small intestine and colon. This approach could provide a non-invasive route to quantification of
473 drug release at a site of interest, and could prove particularly helpful in treatments using highly toxic
474 chemotherapy.

475 To validate the predictive ability of the r_2 data, equations correlating carmofur release (%) with
476 relaxation behaviour of P-EC@EL-F (Table 2 and Fig. S12) were established as examples to predict
477 carmofur release in a new series of experiments. In these, relaxation behaviour changes were
478 determined for P-EC@EL-F (n=3) and used to predict the extent of carmofur release. The latter was
479 then quantified by UV-vis spectroscopy and compared with r_2 predictions. The r_{2_max} is the maximum
480 relaxivity value possible with the formulation, which manifests in our experiments as the relaxivity
481 after 24 h, r_{2_24} . In the predictive equations we use r_{2_t}/r_{2_24} instead of r_2 because the MRI signal
482 intensity is related both to the relaxivity properties of the CA and also to its local concentration. In the
483 clinic, the local CA concentration might differ as a result of varied dosages, body volumes or other
484 pathological conditions. Hence, the r_2 values in each system were normalised by calculating r_{2_t}/r_{2_max} .
485 Plots comparing the predicted and observed release profiles are presented in Fig. 5.

486 Table 2.
 487 Mathematical relationships between cumulative drug release (DR) and relaxation profiles ($r_{2,t}/r_{2,24}$)
 488 for P-EC@EL-F.

Temperature(°C)	pH	Fitting equation	R ²
25	7.4	$DR (\%) = 89.4 \frac{r_{2,t}}{r_{2,24}} - 0.74$	0.9904
37	7.4	$DR (\%) = 80.3 \frac{r_{2,t}}{r_{2,24}} - 3.1$	0.9683
25	6.5	$DR (\%) = 116.6 \frac{r_{2,t}}{r_{2,24}} - 19.3$	0.9526

489



490

491 Fig. 5. Plots of experimental (black) and predicted (red) carmofur release from P-EC@EL-F at (A) pH
 492 6.5, 25 °C; (B) pH 7.4, 25 °C (B); and (C) pH 7.4, 37 °C. Experiments were performed in PBS buffers at 2
 493 mg/mL.

494

495 From Fig. 5 it is clear that the predicted drug release curves based on r_2 are very similar to the data
 496 obtained by UV-vis spectroscopy, indicating the potency of our theranostic approach. Two fit factors
 497 F_1 (the difference factor) and F_2 (the similarity factor) (Equations 2 and 3, respectively) were applied
 498 to statistically compare the experimental dissolution profile acquired by UV-vis and that calculated
 499 based on relaxivity (Moore and Flanner, 1996).

500

$$F_1 = \left(\frac{\sum |R_t - T_t|}{\sum R_t} \right) \times 100 \quad (2)$$

501

$$F_2 = 50 \times \log \left\{ 100 \times \left[1 + \frac{\sum (R_t - T_t)^2}{n} \right]^{-0.5} \right\} \quad (3)$$

502 R_t and T_t represents the percentage of active pharmaceutical ingredient released from reference and
 503 test samples at time point t , respectively, and n is the number of time points. Two dissolution profiles
 504 are regarded to be “same” or “equivalent” when F_1 is less than 15 and F_2 is greater than 50 (Freitag,
 505 2001). Here we use the experimental release data obtained by UV-vis spectroscopy as the reference
 506 (R_t), and the predicted data as the test (T_t). The results are shown in Table 3. The F_1 and F_2 values of
 507 P-EC@EL-F all lie in the range of “equivalent”, suggesting the reliability of our predicted curves.

508

509 **Table 3. F_1 (difference factor) and F_2 (similarity factor) values comparing the predicted vs**
 510 **experimental release plots of P-EC@EL-F.**

Sample	F_1	F_2
pH 6.5, 25 °C	10.6	54.4
pH 7.4, 25 °C	9.2	58.1
pH 7.4, 37 °C	14.1	51.2

511

512 This work presents a proof-of-concept study looking to prepare dual responsive theranostic systems
 513 by EHDA, and exploring the effect of formulation morphology on performance. Overall, it is clear that
 514 the core@shell fibre formulation developed has pH- and temperature-responsive drug release and
 515 MRI properties, while the microparticles do not. The fibres are able to prevent SPION and carmofur
 516 release in the low-pH environments of the stomach. Drug release profiles can be accurately predicted
 517 using relaxivity values. The increase in drug release rate and relaxivity at lower temperatures could be
 518 exploited to accelerate carmofur release via a hypothermia treatment. It should be noted that both
 519 carmofur and SPION release is generally higher at the physiological pH than at the slightly acidic pH
 520 typical of the tumour. The increased release of SPIONs at pH 7.4 is not problematic, because SPIONs
 521 are negative contrast agents that make MR images darker. Hence, the higher r_2 values observed at
 522 neutral pH values will lead to healthy tissue having darker contrast in the images, and cancerous sites
 523 at lower pHs can be distinguished by dint of their appearing brighter. However, more work is required
 524 to develop the formulations further and effectively exploit the small differences between physiological
 525 and tumour microenvironment pH to target drug release to a tumour. That said, the differences in
 526 release at pH 5.5 and 7.5 are small and the fibre formulation is effective at preventing release in the
 527 acidic pH of the stomach, and thus targeting to the small intestine and colon is possible using the P-
 528 EC@EL-F system.

529

530 Conclusions

531 In this study, two core@shell microparticles and a core@shell fibre were fabricated via
 532 electrohydrodynamic methods and fully characterized. All the formulations have pH responsive
 533 polymer shells loaded with SPIONs, and a thermo-responsive core with an amorphous dispersion of a
 534 model chemotherapeutic drug, carmofur. Electron microscopy images showed that microparticle
 535 shape changes with the w/w ratio of core to shell polymer, from a concave shape with a low core

536 polymer mass content to a spherical shape with greater weight percentage of core polymer. The fibres
537 generally have regular core@shell morphology. The encapsulation of SPIONs in the shell polymer can
538 prevent them from digestion in acidic conditions such as gastric fluids. *In vitro* drug release studies
539 reveal that the core@shell fibres displayed a thermo-responsive release profile, and can work as
540 potent delayed-release oral treatments for colon cancer. In contrast, the microparticles do not show
541 notable stimuli-responsiveness. This difference is attributed to the different surface area to volume
542 ratios of the two types of formulation. The MRI contrast agent behavior (relaxivity) was monitored
543 and showed a pH responsive profile between pH 5.5 to 7.4. The relaxivity of suspensions of the
544 formulations could be used to predict the extent of drug release. The systems developed in this work
545 thus have the potential to allow non-invasive monitoring of drug release *in vivo* via changes in MRI
546 signal intensity.

547

548 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

549 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

550

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555

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