

● *Original Contribution*

ACOUSTIC CHARACTERIZATION OF ECHOGENIC POLYMERSOMES PREPARED FROM AMPHIPHILIC BLOCK COPOLYMERS

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(Received 22 May 2017; revised 6 October 2017; in final form 24 October 2017)

Abstract—Polymersomes are a class of artificial vesicles prepared from amphiphilic polymers. Like lipid vesicles (liposomes), they too can encapsulate hydrophilic and hydrophobic drug molecules in the aqueous core and the hydrophobic bilayer respectively, but are more stable than liposomes. Although echogenic liposomes have been widely investigated for simultaneous ultrasound imaging and controlled drug delivery, the potential of the polymersomes remains unexplored. We prepared two different echogenic polymersomes from the amphiphilic copolymers polyethylene glycol–poly-DL-lactic acid (PEG-PLA) and polyethylene glycol–poly-L-lactic acid (PEG-PLLA), incorporating multiple freeze-dry cycles in the synthesis protocol to ensure their echogenicity. We investigated acoustic behavior with potential applications in biomedical imaging. We characterized the polymeric vesicles acoustically with three different excitation frequencies of 2.25, 5 and 10 MHz at 500 kPa. The polymersomes exhibited strong echogenicity at all three excitation frequencies (about 50- and 25-dB enhancements in fundamental and subharmonic, respectively, at 5-MHz excitation from 20 µg/mL polymers in solution). Unlike echogenic liposomes, they emitted strong subharmonic responses. The scattering results indicated their potential as contrast agents, which was also confirmed by clinical ultrasound imaging. (E-mail: sarkar@gwu.edu) © 2018 World Federation for Ultrasound in Medicine & Biology. All rights reserved.

Key Words: Ultrasound imaging, Contrast agent, Microbubble, Polymersomes, Echogenic, Drug delivery.

INTRODUCTION

Ultrasound imaging is one of the most widely employed diagnostic tools in the medical field. However, it suffers from poor contrast. To improve the contrast of ultrasound imaging, coated microbubbles are used as contrast agents (deJong et al. 1991; Goldberg et al. 2001; Paul et al. 2014). They are also being investigated as potential drug delivery agents (Bull 2007; Eisenbrey et al. 2010; Klibanov 2006; Paul et al. 2014). These microbubbles (diameter: 0.5–5 µm), although ideal as vascular agents, cannot extravasate through pores of blood vessels. The leaky vasculature of a solid tumor with pores typically 100–700 nm offers great potential for targeted delivery into tumors through enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) (Maeda et al. 2000).

Nanometer-size lipid bilayer vesicles or liposomes are ideal extravascular drug delivery agents for tumors. Recently, we and other groups have reported that when prepared in the presence of mannitol as an excipient, liposomes can be made echogenic (echogenic liposomes [ELIPs]) (Coussios et al. 2004; Huang 2008; Huang et al. 2001; Kee et al. 2007; Kopechek et al. 2011; Nahire et al. 2012, 2013, 2014b; Paul et al. 2012, 2014). Here we report on a novel echogenic vesicle, which, unlike liposomes, is enclosed by an amphiphilic polymer bilayer.

As noted above, ELIPs have been widely studied. Huang and co-workers optimized the protocol for their preparation (Hamilton et al. 2002; Huang et al. 2001, 2002a, 2002b). The first acoustical characterization of ELIPs was performed employing a 20-MHz frequency catheter for both *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments (Alkan-Onyuksel et al. 1996). Videodensitometry analysis was used to measure the echogenicity of liposomes (Buchanan et al. 2008; Huang 2008). Coussios et al. (2004) reported an *in vitro* characterization of ELIPs, in which they found backscattering

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signals from these liposomes to be comparable to those of the microbubble-based contrast agent Optison. The echogenicity of liposomes was detected with a Philips L12-5 linear array transducer system using B-mode pulses (Smith et al. 2007). Although the exact mechanism underlying the echogenicity of ELIPs remains unknown—specifically the exact location of the gas body in the small vesicles responsible for generating the reflected signals—careful *in vitro* characterization has convincingly indicated its echogenicity for both fundamental and second harmonic signals. (Paul et al. 2012). Modeling of ELIP acoustic behaviors has also been attempted by assuming gas pockets of comparable size (Raymond et al. 2015).

Polymersomes (Discher et al. 1999) are 100- to 600-nm vesicles enclosed by bilayer membranes that are made of amphiphilic block copolymers, instead of lipids. The vesicles carry hydrophobic drugs in the polymer bilayer and hydrophilic molecules in the aqueous core. They provide unique advantages in biomedical applications (Zhang and Zhang 2017). For example, the membrane of the polymersomes is almost an order of magnitude tougher, sustains far greater areal strain before rupture, and is at least 10 times less permeable to water than phospholipid bilayers (Discher et al. 1999). Incorporation of the biocompatible polyethylene glycol (PEG) as the hydrophilic block renders the vesicles long circulating (Mohammadi et al. 2017). A targeting peptide or ligand actively transports the polymersomes to the cancer tissues and inside the cytosol (Simon-Gracia et al. 2016). We recently reported that the presence of small organic molecules can successfully target the polymeric vesicles to cancer cell nuclei (Anajafi et al. 2016) or mitochondria (Kulkarni et al. 2016b). Because of their stability, after targeting, the polymersome requires a trigger to release the encapsulated drugs (Hu et al. 2017; Thambi et al. 2016). We have used enhanced concentrations of reducing agents and hypoxia (internal triggers) of solid tumors to deliver anticancer drugs from polymersomes successfully (Anajafi et al. 2016; Karandish et al. 2016; Kulkarni et al. 2016a).

Although ultrasound is known primarily for its imaging capabilities, it is also widely used as an external trigger to release encapsulated drugs from liposomes (Moussa et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2016). However, to date, ultrasound-sensitive polymersomes have hardly been studied. In a preliminary investigation of polymersomes prepared with PEG–poly-DL-lactic acid (PEG-PLA) block co-polymers in the presence of mannitol, Zhou et al. (2006) reported acoustic activity in a diagnostic imaging system. We recently reported the preparation of echogenic polymersomes from the reduction-sensitive, amphiphilic block copolymer PEG–S–S–PLA with 10-dB enhancement in the scattering signal for a concentration of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ (Nahire et al. 2014a). To our knowledge, there has not been another report on interactions between

ultrasound and polymersomes. Moreover, detailed acoustic characterization of such polymersomes is lacking.

The meager literature on echogenic polymersomes and, at the same time, their potential for dual drug delivery and imaging capabilities warrant further careful investigation. Also, polymersome (as well as liposome) suspensions, although of an average size of 100–600 nm, have significant polydispersity (Nahire et al. 2014a), indicating the possibility of excitation frequency-dependent responses. The resonant frequency of an entrapped air pocket responsible for echogenicity depends on its size. As noted earlier, the exact location and size of the air pocket responsible for the echogenicity of ELIPs or echogenic polymersomes remain uncertain. It is possible that the vesicles act as cavitation nuclei that are responsible for generating air bubbles, which then determine the echogenicity. In any event, investigation of the acoustic response of echogenic polymersomes as a function of frequency is key to their desired clinical use. Such an investigation, in turn, could shed light on the mechanism of echogenicity of ELIPs or polymersomes. In the work described here, we investigated the scattered responses of echogenic polymersomes to ultrasound waves as a function of frequency (2.25, 5 and 10 MHz. We also studied polymersomes made of two different amphiphilic polymers, PEG-PLA and PEG–poly-L-lactic acid (PEG-PLLA) (PLA and PLLA are stereoisomers) to investigate the effects of stereochemistry and how they might affect the packing of the bilayer and thereby the mechanical properties and scattered response.

METHODS

Preparation of polymersomes

Echogenic polymersomes were prepared by the solvent exchange method (Lee and Feijen 2012) using the synthesized PEG(2000)-PLA(5000) and commercially available PEG(2000)-PLLA(5000) (Akina, West Lafayette, IN, USA). Polymers (6 mg/mL) were dissolved in tetrahydrofuran (THF). Note that the choice of molecular weight of the polymers is determined by the ability to form bilayers and polymersomes. In the future, we plan to explore the effects of molecular weight variation with these or other polymersomes. Each polymersome batch was prepared by adding 2.5 mg of polymer dropwise to 5 mM HEPES (4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid) buffer solution (pH 7.4) containing 0.32 M mannitol. The solutions were stirred for 20 min at room temperature, and then air was passed through the mixture for 45 min to remove the organic solvent. The polymersomes formed were sonicated at 25 °C for 60 min (Symphony 117 V, 60 Hz, power level: 9). Subsequently, the polymersomes were freeze-thawed for 3 cycles (–80 °C and 65 °C) and then freeze-dried using a Labconco instrument for 4 d. The

reconstituted echogenic polymersomes in buffer were used to conduct the experiments.

Atomic force microscopy imaging

The two polymersome solutions (PEG-PLA and PEG-PLLA, both 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) were prepared by reconstituting the freeze-dried powder in an aqueous buffer (5 mM HEPES buffer, pH 7.4). The samples were prepared by incubating 10 μL of each solution on silicon substrates for 20 min in a sealed compartment to protect from evaporation at room temperature. The samples were gently dried under purified airflow. The imaging measurements were performed using a commercial atomic force microscope (NT-MDT NTEGRA AFM). Samples were imaged under ambient conditions in semi-contact mode with a resonant frequency of 190-kHz AFM probes (Budget sensors).

Ultrasound imaging

Dried polymersomes were reconstituted in 5 mM HEPES buffer, pH 7.4, at a concentration of 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$. In a 96-well plate, 200 μL of echogenic polymersomes was dispensed into each well, and the plate was covered with parafilm. Ultrasound gel (Aquasonic 100, Parker Laboratories) was applied to a 15-MHz linear ultrasound transducer. Diagnostic ultrasound Terason t3200 (MediCorp LLC) was employed to image the polymersomes. In another set of experiment, we performed the same experiment, but with degassed HEPES buffer. Integrated density was measured with ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, USA) using the following correlation: corrected integrated density = integrated density of echogenic area - (area of echogenic polymersomes \times mean intensity of control reading).

Experimental setup to measure scattering

The scattering setup (Fig. 1) employed two spherically focused transducers with the same specifications (V310-SU, Olympus NDT, Waltham, MA, USA). All

transducers were calibrated using a needle hydrophone (HNC400, ONDA, Sunnyvale, CA). Each measurement was made with two transducers of the same central frequency, either 2.25 MHz (with a -6 dB: 1.48–2.90 MHz), 5 MHz (with a -6 dB: 2.95–6.77 MHz) or 10 MHz (with a -6 dB: 6.96–13.16 MHz). The transmitting and receiving transducers were fixed confocally perpendicular to each other in a 100-mL polycarbonate tank filled with de-ionized water, as illustrated in Figure 1. The alignment of the transducers was confirmed by checking for a strong reflection from a thin metal wire placed in the focal region. An 8-mL triangular prism was used as a sample chamber, in which the polymersome suspension was dispersed and filled. The chamber is made of a 3-D printed frame of acrylonitrile butadiene styrene (ABS) with acoustically transparent windows made of Saran Wrap. A function generator (Model AFG 3251; Tektronix, Beaverton, OR, USA) was utilized to generate a 32-cycle sinusoidal pulse of 2.25-, 5- or 10-MHz frequency at a pulse repetition frequency of 100 Hz. This signal was then amplified using a 55-dB power amplifier (Model A-300; ENI, Rochester, NY, USA) and fed to the transmitting transducer. The polymersomes at the focal volume of the transducer scattered the input signal, which was received by the receiving transducer and amplified by the pulser/receiver (Panametrics 5800, Waltham, MA USA) in through mode with a 20-dB gain. The amplified signals were then sent to the oscilloscope to be viewed in real time. Voltage-time radiofrequency signals were averaged with every 64 sequences by the oscilloscope and then were transmitted and saved onto a desktop computer using the software Signal Express Tektronix Edition (Xia *et al.* 2014).

Experimental procedure and data reduction

Polymersomes in the form of a dry powder were stored in the glass vial and placed in the refrigerator at 4 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. The scattering experiment was conducted by reconstituting the dry powder in a mixture of phosphate-

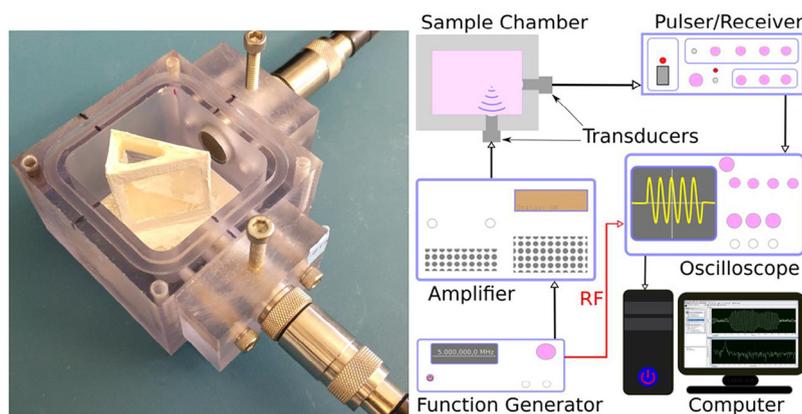
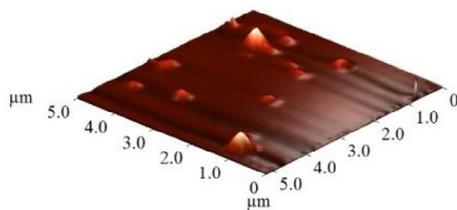


Fig. 1. Experimental setups for measuring scattering signals. RF = radiofrequency.

PEG-PLA polymersomes



PEG-PLLA polymersomes

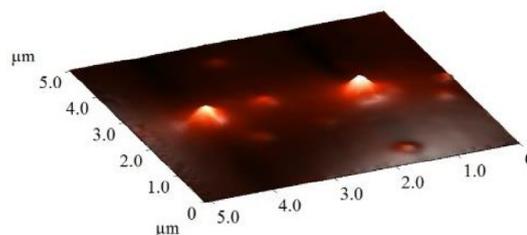


Fig. 2. Atomic force microscopic images of the echogenic polyethylene glycol–poly-L-lactic acid (PEG-PLLA) and polyethylene glycol–poly-DL-lactic acid (PEG-PLA) polymersomes.

buffered saline (PBS) and bovine serum albumin (BSA) to a concentration of 20 μg polymer/mL and injecting 8 mL into the sample chamber. For the experiments in degassed solution, the dissolved gas in the solution of PBS and BSA was removed by a vacuum pump. The measurement was repeated four times to guarantee the reliability of experimental data. The control signal, that is, without polymersomes, and the response of the polymersomes were measured as mentioned before. A MATLAB FFT program was used to obtain the average response in the frequency domain (25 voltage–time acquisitions are used). The scattered response was converted into a decibel scale by taking the reference voltage to be unity. Fundamental, second and subharmonic scattered responses were extracted from the power spectrum. The final data are reported as enhancement over the control signal (without polymersomes). Therefore, for the enhancement, effectively the reference signal of the decibel scale is the scattering from the buffer solution. Each experiment was repeated four times with fresh samples ($n = 4$). Data are presented as the mean \pm standard error of the mean. Student's t-test was performed to determine statistical significance ($p < 0.05$), which is indicated by asterisks in figures.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Size and morphology

Size and morphology of the echogenic PEG-PLA and PEG-PLLA polymersomes were characterized by atomic force microscopy. Images reveal they are spherical (Fig. 2). We observed that the average diameters of the PEG-PLA and the PEG-PLLA polymersomes were 400 and 450 nm, respectively. We also determined the hydrodynamic diameters of the two batches of polymersomes by dynamic light scattering. The average hydrodynamic diameters of the PEG-PLA and PEG-PLLA polymersomes were 407 ± 7 and 453 ± 10 nm, respectively (Fig. 3).

Echogenicity by a clinical ultrasound scanner

The scattered responses were also confirmed by using a clinical ultrasound scanner (Terason t3200) (Fig. 4). In degassed solution, however, the same setup revealed no signals because of the presence of polymersomes (Fig. 5). This indicates that the preparation protocol, which closely mimics that used for echogenic liposomes incorporating freeze-drying in the presence of mannitol, was successful in rendering the polymersomes echogenic. As noted

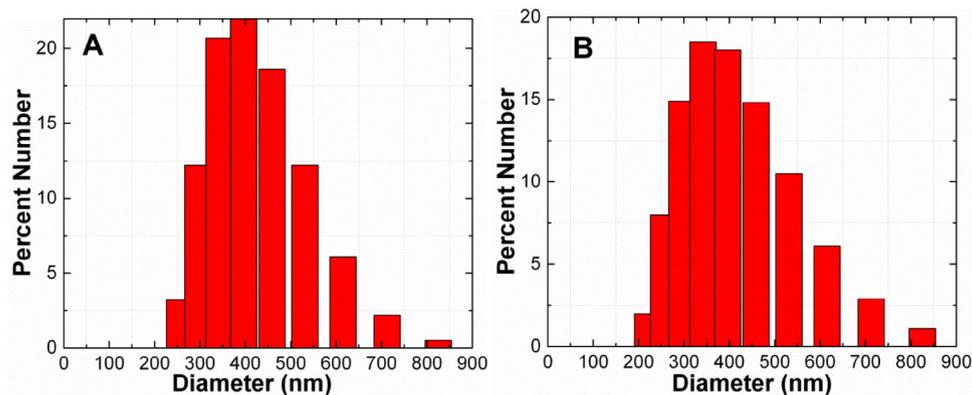


Fig. 3. Hydrodynamic diameters of the (A) polyethylene glycol–poly-DL-lactic acid and (B) polyethylene glycol–poly-L-lactic acid polymersomes, as determined by dynamic light scattering.

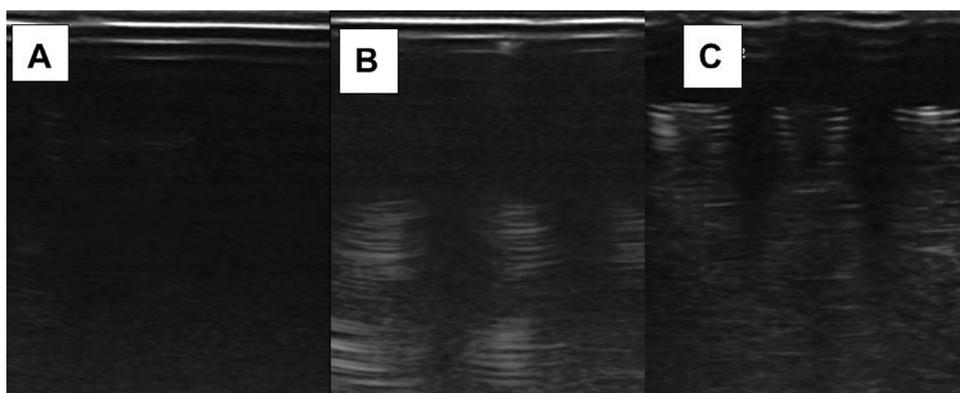


Fig. 4. Ultrasound images of (A) control (4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid [HEPES] pH 7.4), (B) polyethylene glycol–poly-DL-lactic acid (PEG-PLA) echogenic polymersomes and (C) polyethylene glycol–poly-L-lactic acid (PEG-PLLA) echogenic polymersomes using Terason t3200.

earlier, the exact mechanism underlying echogenicity remains unknown. However, freeze-drying in the presence of mannitol is presumed to leave echo-generating air pockets trapped in the bilayer (Huang 2008; Huang *et al.* 2001, 2002a, 2002b; Huang and MacDonald 2004). The intensity of the ultrasound images in Figure 4 was determined with ImageJ software and is illustrated Figure 6. The integrated density of the ultrasound echo shows that the PEG-PLA polymersomes were more echogenic than the PEG-PLLA polymersomes.

Linear and non-linear scattering

Microbubbles generate non-linear signals (sub- and second harmonics) at higher excitation pressures (deJong *et al.* 1994; Katiyar and Sarkar 2011; Katiyar *et al.* 2011; Paul *et al.* 2010, 2013; Sarkar *et al.* 2005). They can be used for harmonic (imaging at twice the excitation frequency) (Chang *et al.* 1995) and subharmonic (imaging at half the excitation frequency) imaging (Shankar *et al.* 1998; Shi and Forsberg 2000). Here, we investigated the

scattered responses, including non-linear activities, of the polymersome suspension at an excitation pressure amplitude of 500 kPa to obtain possible non-linear responses without substantial destruction for all reported frequencies. In Figure 7a are the frequency spectra of scattered responses from both PEG-PLA and PEG-PLLA at the excitation pressure of 500 kPa and excitation frequency of 5 MHz. The fundamental response at 5 MHz is almost 50 dB higher than that of the control (without polymersomes) for both polymersomes, which indicates that they are highly echogenic at this concentration. In contrast, Figure 7b, which is a plot of the scattering responses of both polymersomes in a degassed solution, indicates that neither of them is echogenic, a finding consistent across four repeated measurements. This means that the presence of dissolved gas is essential to the echogenicity of the polymersomes. We do find a weak second harmonic peak for PEG-PLA polymersomes (Fig. 7a).

Figure 8 provides a detailed analysis of the acoustic scattering, illustrating responses at the fundamental and

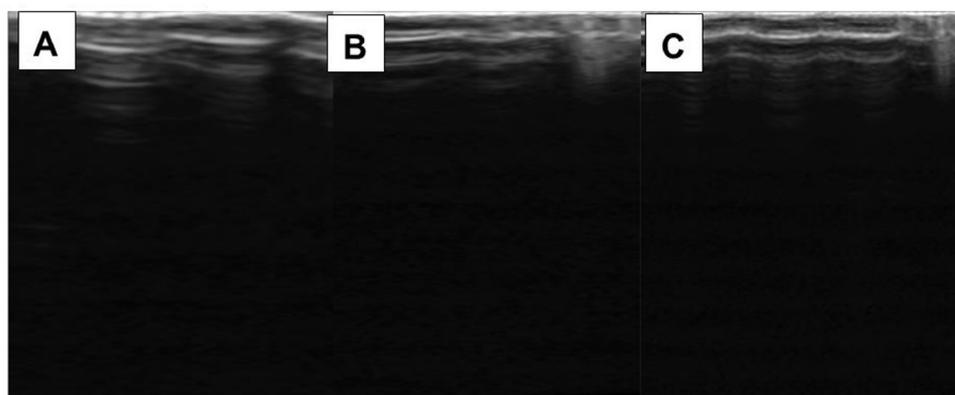


Fig. 5. Ultrasound images with degassed buffer with Terason t3200. (A) Control (4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid [HEPES] buffer, pH 7.4). (B) Polyethylene glycol–poly-DL-lactic acid (PEG-PLA) echogenic polymersomes. (C) Polyethylene glycol–poly-L-lactic acid (PEG-PLA) echogenic polymersomes.

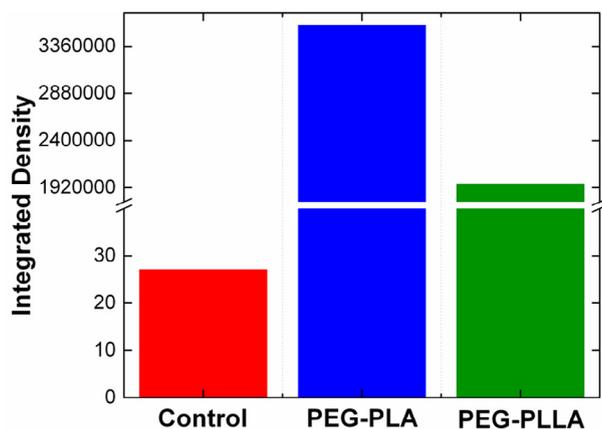


Fig. 6. Integrated density calculated with ImageJ software for control (red bar), polyethylene glycol–poly-L-lactic acid (PEG-PLLA) echogenic polymersomes (blue bar) and polyethylene glycol–poly-DL-lactic acid (PEG-PLA) echogenic polymersomes (green bar).

subharmonic frequencies. At the excitation frequency of 2.25 MHz, both PEG-PLA and PEG-PLLA enhance the fundamental frequency by almost 20 dB. The enhancement is similar to what we observed previously for echogenic liposomes (15- to 20-dB enhancement at a concentration of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) that were obtained with a similar setup at an excitation frequency of 3.5 MHz (Paul et al. 2012). Note that comparison of the lipid (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) and polymer (20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) concentrations in ELIPs and polymersomes is difficult because of the difference in their molecular weight: $\sim 13 \mu\text{M}$ for lipids (molecular weight of DSPC [1,2-distearoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphorylcholine] 790) and 2.5 μM for polymers (molecular weight: 8000). Note that concentration here was chosen to find sufficiently strong scattered signal. Future studies in appropriate

animal models are needed to determine the proper clinical dosage. At 2.25 MHz, both polymersomes generate significant intensities at subharmonic frequency, exhibiting their potential to be used in subharmonic imaging. Note that ELIPs did not generate subharmonic responses even at 750-kPa excitation (Paul et al. 2012). The scattered responses of the two different polymersomes are statistically similar. At 5-MHz excitation frequency, the polymersomes produce an enhancement of more than 50 dB in the fundamental component, which is significant compared with conventional microbubble-based ultrasound contrast agents. Even the subharmonic response is strong (30 dB) at 5-MHz excitation. At 10-MHz excitation, these polymersomes provide an enhancement of 30 dB. Generally, for microbubble-based contrast agents far off the resonant frequency, the scattering responses are lower. Comparison of the scattered responses at these three frequencies and the observation of maximum scattering at 5 MHz suggest that 5 MHz is closer to the average resonance frequency of the gas pockets associated with the polymersome population. However, also note that the broadband signal seen in Figure 7a indicates the possibility of inertial cavitation. Polymersomes with small air pockets may act as cavitation nuclei and, under acoustic excitation, may have grown to become coated bubbles to generate the echogenicity.

From the preceding results, we see that the polymersomes are good at scattering ultrasound. However, to be a viable ultrasound contrast agent, polymersomes should be stable until reaching the target tissue and continue to scatter ultrasound for a sufficient period. To check this aspect, we performed the time-dependent scattering experiments on the polymersomes. The fundamental responses for PEG-PLLA and PEG-PLLA are compared in

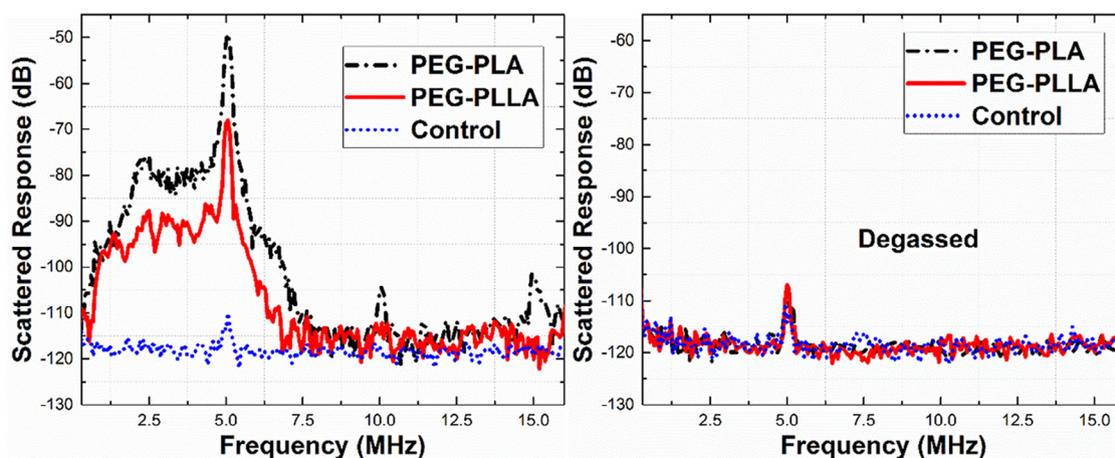


Fig. 7. Frequency spectra of polyethylene glycol–poly-L-lactic acid (PEG-PLLA) and polyethylene glycol–poly-DL-lactic acid (PEG-PLA) polymersomes and control (4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid [HEPES] buffer, pH 7.4) at an excitation frequency of 5 MHz and excitation pressure of 500 kPa. Left: In solution with dissolved gas. Right: In degassed solution.

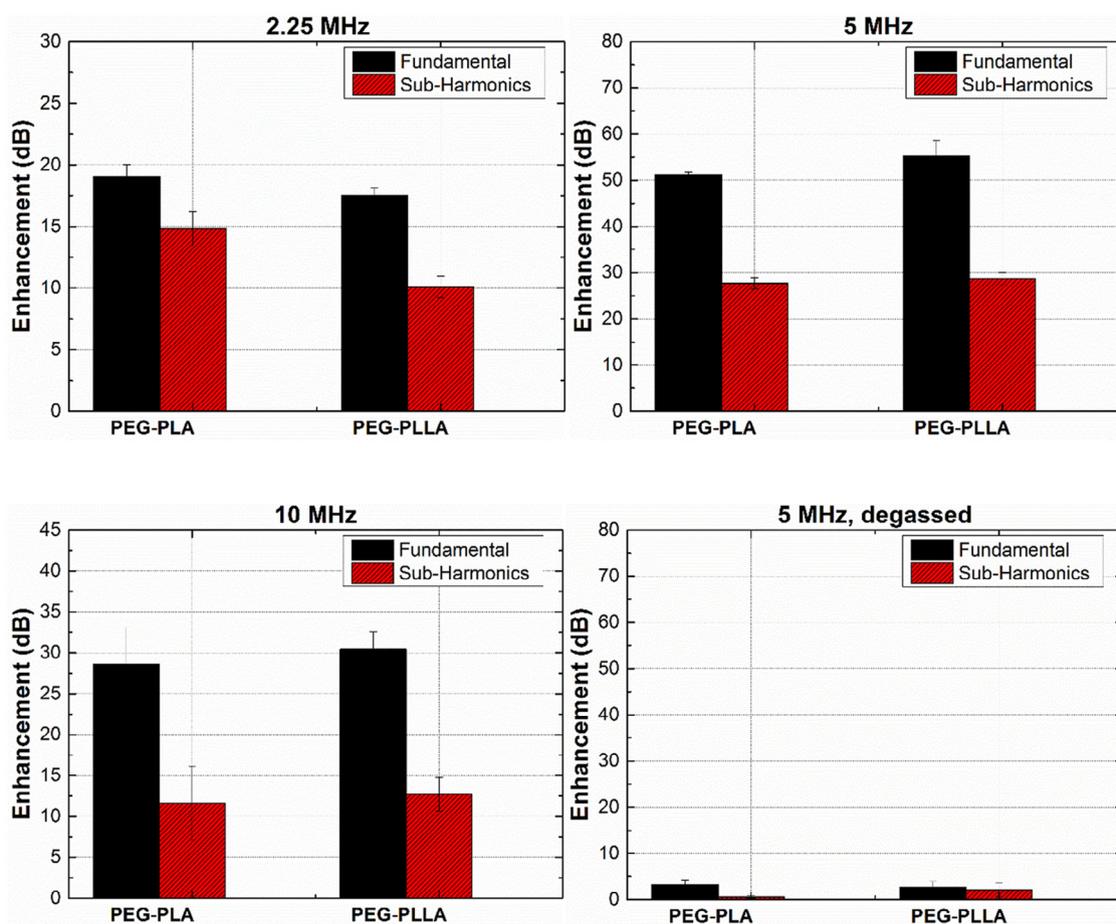


Fig. 8. Enhancement of scattering signals for the echogenic polymersomes at excitation pressure of 500 kPa excitation pressure and excitation frequencies of 2.25, 5 and 10 MHz. PEG-PLLA = polyethylene glycol–poly-L-lactic acid, PEG-PLA = polyethylene glycol–poly-DL-lactic acid.

Figure 9 as functions of time. At the excitation frequency of 2.25 MHz, PEG-PLA has a slightly higher response than PEG-PLLA, whereas at 5 MHz, the response of PEG-PLLA is higher. There is no significant difference in time-dependent scattering responses of the two polymersomes at 10 MHz. The curves all exhibit the tendency for fundamental responses to first increase with increasing time and then decrease, resulting in a peak amplitude within the time interval investigated. The eventual decrease in signal with time indicates slow destruction. Even though the signals decrease, PEG-PLLA polymersomes generate signals sufficiently long, especially at 5 MHz, to be explored for clinical use. We, however, note that their stability may differ greatly under physiologic pressure and flow conditions, a possibility that can be ascertained by further studies in animal models. We also note that the observation could also be affected by polymersome replenishment in the probe area induced by acoustic streaming. The results seen are an integrated effect of all such phenomena. As noted before, echogenicity is believed to

be caused by air pockets trapped in the polymersomes, the scattering cross sections of a bubble being orders of magnitude higher than those of a solid or liquid sphere (Pierce 2007). The rise in echogenicity with time indicates growth or generation of air bubbles. Note that perfluorocarbon-based microbubbles have been reported to grow after introduction into a suspension because of the influx of dissolved air from the surrounding liquid (Chatterjee *et al.* 2005; Shi and Forsberg 2000). The gas diffusion and resulting growth have been mathematically modeled (Chen *et al.* 2002; Kabalnov *et al.* 1998) to account for the effects of the encapsulation (Katiyar *et al.* 2009; Sarkar *et al.* 2009). However, here for polymersomes, in the absence of a second gas, the transient increase in echogenicity is puzzling. It indicates a growth in the air pockets trapped after the introduction of polymersomes into the solution over time in the presence of ultrasound. The growth could be due to rectified diffusion—imbalance in diffusion of dissolved air in the surrounding medium into and out of the bubble during expansion and contraction because of

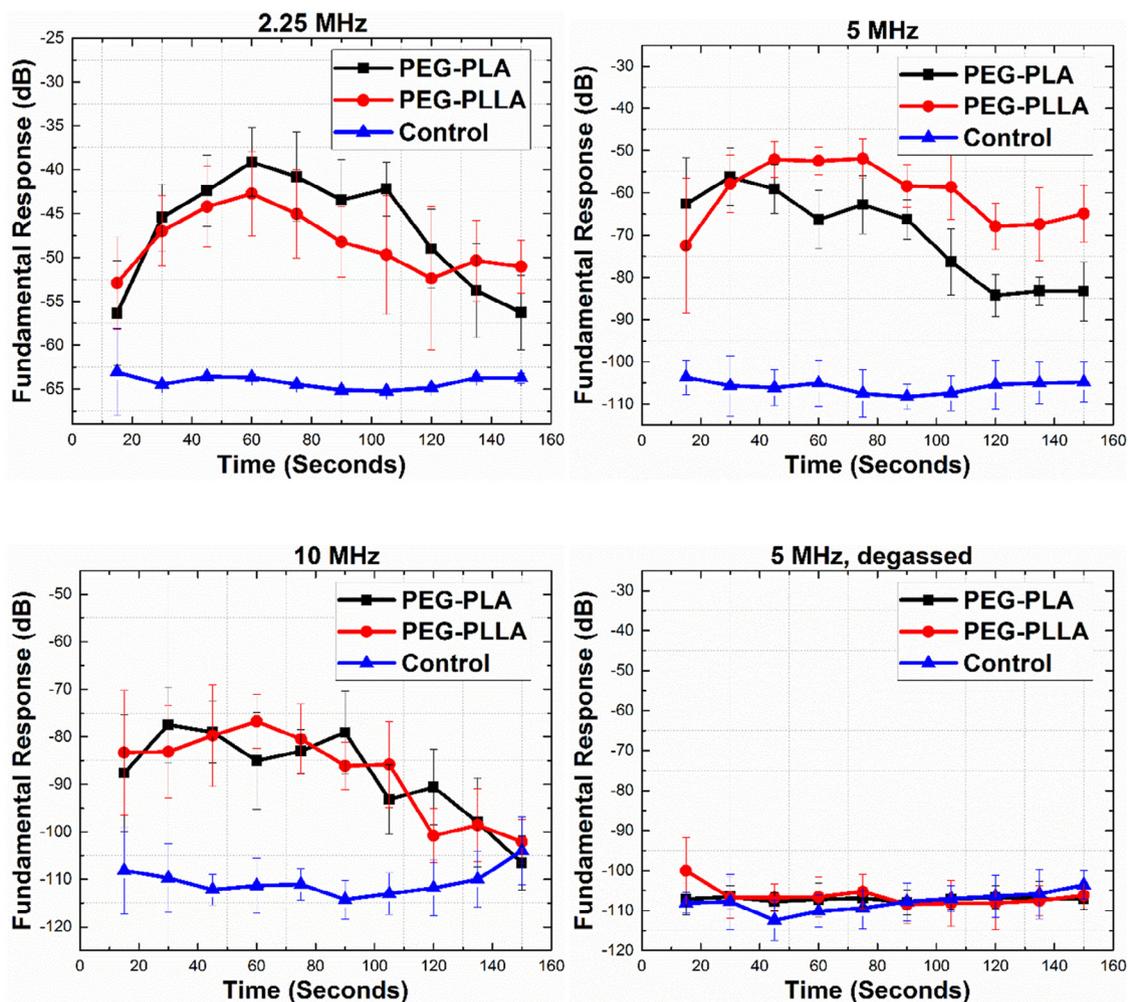


Fig. 9. Evolution of fundamental responses from echogenic polymersomes with respect to time. PEG-PLLA = polyethylene glycol–poly-L-lactic acid, PEG-PLA = polyethylene glycol–poly-DL-lactic acid.

differences in surface area (Crum 1984; Eller and Flynn 1965). Using the Gilmore–Akulichev equation, Church (1988) computed the threshold pressure for rectified diffusion as ~ 300 kPa in the range 1–5 MHz for an initial bubble radius of ~ 250 nm. The results are for clean air–water surface tension values. For any coating, the surface tension will be reduced, facilitating growth, but the coating also impedes air transport.

The non-linear signals—sub- and superharmonics—scattered by contrast microbubbles offer opportunities for novel non-linear imaging modalities. Time-dependent subharmonic responses of both polymersomes, plotted in Figure 10, reveal trends similar to those of the fundamental responses in Figure 9. The degradation with time is maximum at 10 MHz, but at 5 MHz, the signal from PEG-PLLA retains its echogenicity for a long period, a scenario similar to what was seen for fundamental responses (Fig. 9). In view of the results, we conclude that the difference in

stereochemistry between the two polymers, PEG-PLLA and PEG-PLA, does not lead to large differences in the scattering properties of the corresponding polymersomes. One would have expected differences because of better packing in the homogeneous PEG-PLLA bilayer, in contrast to PEG-PLA, which consists of a racemic mixture of two PEG-conjugated stereochemical forms: poly (L-lactide) (PLLA) and poly (D-lactide) (PDLA).

CONCLUSIONS

We prepared two different echogenic polymersomes from the amphiphilic polymers PEG-PLA and PEG-PLLA, respectively, and performed acoustic investigations of their dynamic behaviors. The strong acoustic responses, fundamental as well as subharmonic, of both polymersome suspensions indicated their ability to be used as contrast agents. Both samples produce about 20-dB fundamental

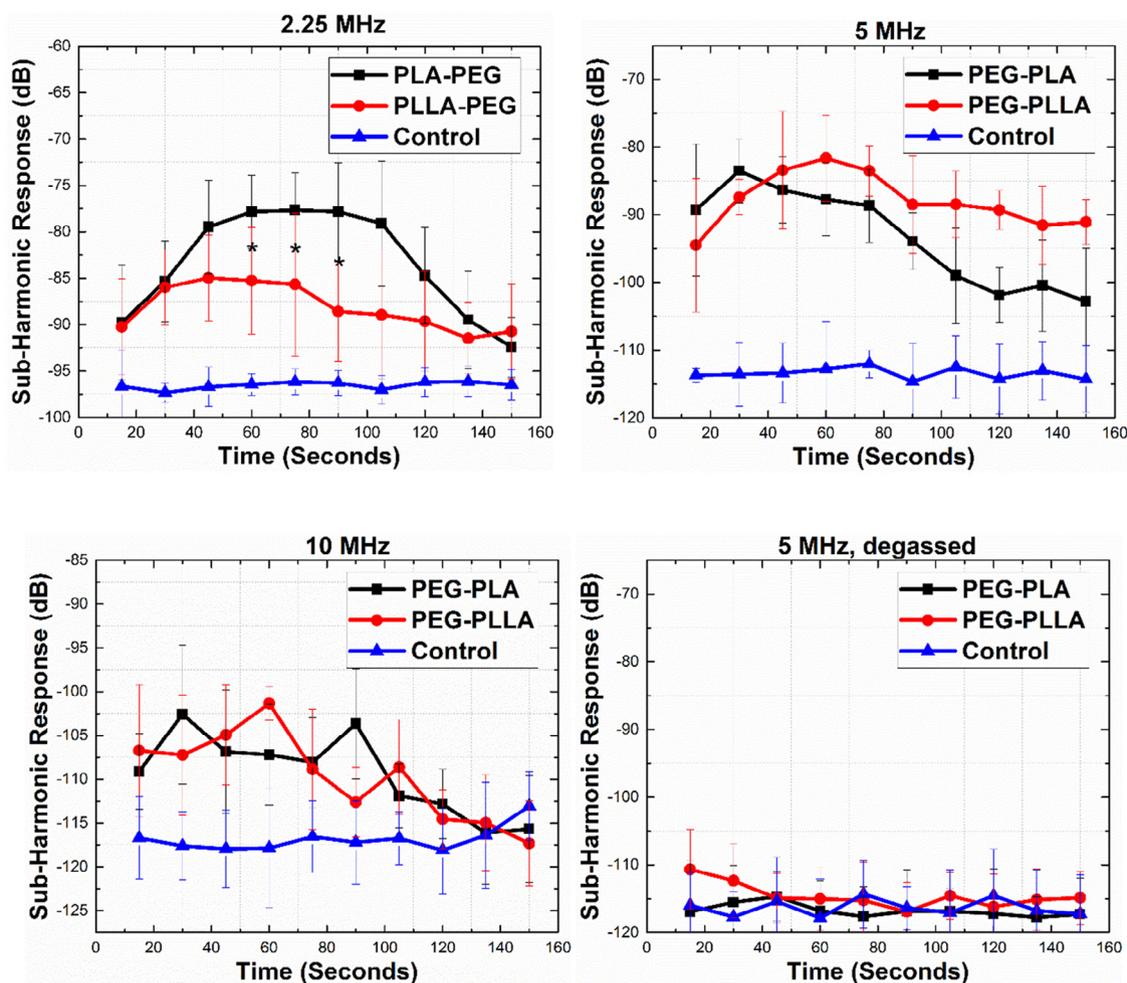


Fig. 10. Evolution of subharmonic responses from echogenic polymersomes with respect to time. $*p < 0.05$, Student's *t*-test for differences between the responses of glycol-poly-L-lactic acid (PEG-PLLA) and polyethylene glycol-poly-DL-lactic acid (PEG-PLA) polymersomes.

enhancement and 15-dB subharmonic enhancement at the excitation frequency of 2.25 MHz. The corresponding enhancements at 5-MHz excitation frequency are stronger—50 dB for fundamental and 25 dB for subharmonic. Finally, at 10 MHz, enhancements are 30 dB (fundamental) and 10 dB (subharmonic). The strong acoustic emission at subharmonic frequency is in sharp contrast to observation of no such emission from echogenic liposomes. PEG-PLA and PEG-PLLA, despite the differences in their stereochemistry, exhibited similar behavior at the excitation frequencies examined. Both polymersome suspensions had relatively consistent signals in the time-dependent scattering experiments. Experiments performed in degassed solutions revealed no echogenicity, confirming the key role played by the dissolved gas in ensuring the echogenicity of the polymersomes. Meanwhile, emission of subharmonics suggests the presence of air-filled microbubbles that are responsible for the echogenicity as the subharmonic signal is the unique signature of

microbubbles. Polymersome echogenicity was found to increase with time initially, similar to what has been observed for perfluorocarbon gas-filled microbubbles. Future studies should include attenuation through a polymersome suspension, which can provide additional important information critical to ultrasound imaging. Furthermore, investigation should be directed to the *in vivo* stability of polymersomes, as well as the mechanism of microbubble generation in the polymersome suspension.

Acknowledgments—K.S. and S.M. acknowledge partial support from National Institutes of Health Grant R01 GM114080. K.S. also acknowledges partial support from National Science Foundation Chemical, Bioengineering, Environmental, and Transport Systems Grant 1603639.

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