

Analyst

Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this *Accepted Manuscript* with the edited and formatted *Advance Article* as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.

Nanoparticles of Gadolinium-Incorporated Prussian Blue with PEG Coating as an Effective Oral MRI Contrast Agent for Gastrointestinal Tract Imaging

Vindya S. Perera^a, Guojun Chen^a, Qing Cai^{*b}, and Songping D. Huang^{*a}

^aDepartment of Chemistry and Biochemistry, Kent State University, Kent, OH 44240, USA. To whom correspondence should be addressed Fax: +1-330-672-3816; E-mail: shuang1@kent.edu

^bDepartment of Radiology, Suzhou University-Affiliated Hospital, Nanjing Medical University, Suzhou, Zip Code 215123, Jiangsu Province, China. E-mail: caiq1202@163.com

Keywords

Prussian blue, nanoparticles, magnetic resonance imaging, contrast agents, relaxivity, and coordination polymers.

1. INTRODUCTION

For many years, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) was not considered the method of choice for imaging the gastrointestinal (GI) tract due to the presence of respiratory, cardiac motion and intestinal peristaltic artifacts.¹⁻² Recent technical advances in the MRI data acquisition field, specifically the rapid imaging and artifact suppression techniques as well as the development of torso phased array coils, have made it possible to use MRI to image the abdomen.³⁻⁵ However, the lack of reliable oral MRI contrast agents (CAs) is still a limiting factor for the wide spread clinical applications of MRI in the diagnosis of the GI tract diseases and conditions.⁶ Although several oral CAs for MRI are commercially available, each one of them suffers certain problems, and thus none of them is used routinely in clinical practice.⁷⁻⁸ For example, ammonium ferric citrate (AFC) has been used as an oral T_1 -weighted (i.e. positive) MRI contrast agent in Japan since 1993.^{7,9-10} Because AFC slowly decomposes in the stomach juice, a large dosage of AFC (i.e. 600 to 1200 mg in 600 mL of solution) is required to show an effective contrast

1
2
3 enhancement. Satisfactory contrast enhancement can be obtained only in the upper abdomen due
4
5 to the lack of temporal stability of AFC in the GI tract. In addition to a reduction of signals in the
6
7 lower abdomen, about 15% of patients experience some kind of GI discomfort or minor side
8
9 effects caused by AFC. Manganese chloride (LumenHance®) has been used as an oral contrast
10
11 agent. Because the Mn^{2+} ions can be absorbed by the linings of the GI tract, signal intensity (SI)
12
13 on T_1 -weighted images is increased, while SI on T_2 -weighted images is suppressed.¹¹⁻¹²
14
15 However, the adsorption of Mn^{2+} ions in the GI tract also makes adequate distension of the small
16
17 intestine problematic. Furthermore, homogeneous and stable signals are difficult to obtain
18
19 throughout the entire GI tract. Magnevist Enteral®, a dimeglumine salt of Gd-DTPA mixed with
20
21 mannitol, was initially marketed by Schering AG in Berlin, Germany as an oral contrast agent
22
23 for imaging the bowel. Due to various side effects and the safety concern of the Gd^{3+} adsorption,
24
25 enteral and rectal administration is often used in the otherwise difficult diagnosis of pancreatic
26
27 disease.¹³ There exist several negative oral MRI contrast agents such as perfluorooctylbromide
28
29 (Imagent GI®)¹⁴ and various formulations of superparamagnetic iron oxide nanoparticles.¹⁵⁻¹⁷
30
31 These agents can enhance image contrast by shortening the T_2 relaxation of water's protons, and
32
33 thus causing the image to darken. In general, negative contrast agents are of limited clinical
34
35 value because the image produced from the T_2 -weighed mode are prone to the interference with
36
37 internal bleeding, metal deposits, or other artifacts from the background.¹⁸
38
39 Previously, we have demonstrated that nanoparticles of Prussian blue can penetrate the cell
40
41 membrane *via* endocytosis to act as an effective cellular T_1 -weighted MRI contrast agent.¹⁹⁻²⁰
42
43 Prussian blue (PB) is iron(III) hexacyanoferrate(II) with a face-centered cubic structure in which
44
45 two different iron centers Fe^{3+} and Fe^{2+} are bridged by the CN^- groups. In the crystal structure of
46
47 the most common form of PB, $KFe^{III}[Fe^{II}(CN)_6]nH_2O$ (n=14-16), the interstitial positions
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 occupied by K^+ ions may be replaced with Gd^{3+} ions to create the Gd-incorporated Prussian blue
4 nanoparticles ($Gd@PBNPs$) in which an active inner-sphere relaxation mechanism can be active
5
6 due to the interactions between the zeolitic water molecules with the encaged Gd^{3+} ions. We
7
8 have noted that nanoparticles of pure PB can function as an effective T_1 -weighed MR contrast
9
10 agent, but the r_1 relaxivity value of PBNPs is rather low (i.e. $r_1=0.2 \text{ mM}^{-1}\times\text{S}^{-1}$ per Fe^{3+} ion),
11
12 which renders these NPs insensitive as a cellular MR contrast agent for the GI tract imaging. On
13
14 the other hand, partial replacement of Fe^{3+} ions in the pure PBNPs with Mn^{3+} ions causes the
15
16 r_2/r_1 ratio to go beyond 10, making T_1 -weighted MR imaging acquisition using the Mn-doped
17
18 PBNPs impossible. In light of the extremely high stability of PB in the acidic medium and the
19
20 nontoxic nature of PB administered orally, we hypothesize that aqueous dispersions of
21
22 $Gd@PBNPs$ may be useful as an oral MRI contrast agent, thus fulfilling the unmet clinical need
23
24 of contrast enhancement for the GI tract imaging. It should be noted that PB and its several
25
26 analogues have recently attracted increasing research attention for their potential applications in MRI
27
28 contrast enhancement, bio-molecular sensing and cancer research.²¹⁻²⁷
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38

39 2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

40 2.1 Materials

41
42 HT-29 cells were purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (Rockville MD, USA)
43
44 and preserved at $-200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ before use. Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, M0643,
45
46 Sigma-Aldrich, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 2.2 g/L $NaHCO_3$, 1 mM
47
48 sodium pyruvate, 100 U/mL penicillin, 100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ streptomycin, 0.25 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ amphotericin and
49
50 1% penicillin-streptomycin was used at $37 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ in an atmosphere of 5% CO_2 was used for cell
51
52 culture and all other cellular experiments.
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Please note that experiments using live animals were performed in full compliance with the institutional guidelines and were approved by the institutional committee.

2.2 Synthesis of PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs and the bulk Gd@PB.

We first synthesized the PVP-coated Gd@PBNPs and replaced the surface coating with PEG by a polymer displacement reaction. Specifically, an aqueous solution of FeCl₃ and Gd(NO₃)₃ in the molar ratio of 0.98 to 0.02 (0.25 mM, 50 mL) was added to an aqueous solution of K₄[Fe(CN)₆] (0.25 mM and 50 mL) containing 2.5 grams of PVP. The as-synthesized PVP-coated NP solution was placed in a dialysis bag made of regenerated cellulose tubular membrane (MWCO=12000-14000) and soaked in distilled water overnight. During this time, the outside distilled water was changed several times. The dialysis bag was then transferred to a 250 mL beaker of distilled water containing 10 grams of polyethylene glycol (PEG, MW= 8000) and left in the solution for two days. The solid product was collected by lyophilization. The complete displacement of PVP by PEG was confirmed by IR spectroscopic measurements. The bulk Gd@PB was synthesized using the same procedure without the coating polymer PVP or PEG. The product was dialyzed for 8 hours and lyophilized to afford a crystalline powder with quantitative yield. Metal analysis on the bulk Gd@PB was performed as the following: a sample of 72 mg was calcined at 680 °C for 12 hours. The resultant metal oxides were dissolved in 10 mL concentrated nitric acid. After diluted in a volumetric flask, the solution was analyzed by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES) using a Perkin-Elmer Optima 3200 system for potassium, gadolinium and iron. The elemental analysis results gave the empirical formula K_{0.94}Gd_{0.02}Fe[Fe(CN)₆].

2.3 TEM imaging and EDX measurements.

The PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs were characterized by TEM and EDX using a FEI Tecnai F20 transmission electron microscope (TEM) equipped with a field emission gun operating at 200 KV. Samples were first suspended in water, transferred as droplets onto a carbon-coated copper TEM grid (400-mesh), and dried in the air in a covered container. The energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectra were acquired with the integrated scanning TEM (STEM) unit attached with an EDAX spectrometer.

2.4 Surface conjugation of fluorescence dye to Gd@PBNPs.

First, 45 μL of ethylenediamine solution (0.25 mM) was added to a 200- μL Gd@PBNP solution (250 μM) under vigorous stirring. The resulting reaction mixture was stirred for 24 hours. The product was dialyzed in distilled water overnight to remove the unbound ethylenediamine molecules. Secondly, 10 mL of carboxyfluorescein dye (0.5 mM) was allowed to react with 1.2 eq. of 1-ethyl-3-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-carbodiimide (EDC) (1.15 mg) for 24 hours. Finally, the ethylenediamine-coated Gd@PBNPs were added to 100 μL of the above-mentioned dye solution and stirred for 24 hours. The resulting product was dialyzed again in distilled water for two days to remove the un-conjugated dye molecules. The final product was analyzed by fluorescence spectroscopy to confirm covalent attachment of the dye on the surface of nanoparticles.

2.5 Cell viability Assays.

Cytotoxicity was evaluated using an MTT viability assay. Cells were first seeded in a 96-well plate at a density of 2×10^4 cells/well with the DMEM low glucose medium and incubated for 5 hours at 37 °C in an incubator with an atmosphere consisting of 5% CO₂ and 95% air. After cells were attached to the surface, they were treated with 100 μL of fresh medium supplemented with

1
2
3 various amounts of NPs and incubated for another 12 hours or 24 hours. The cells were then
4
5 incubated in media with 0.1 mg/mL of 3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl]-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium
6
7 bromide (i.e. the MTT dye) for 3 hours. After the MTT solution was removed, the precipitated
8
9 violet dye crystals were dissolved in 200 μ L of DMSO. The absorbance was measured using a
10
11 microplate reader. The results were expressed as percent viable cells.
12
13

14 **2.6 Cellular uptake of PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs.**

15
16 We used the confocal fluorescence microscopy technique to image cellular uptake of dye-labeled
17
18 Gd@PBNPs. First, about 1.2×10^5 HT-29 cells/well were seeded in an 8-well chamber slide and
19
20 incubated for 24 hours. Then, the culture medium was replaced with a medium containing dye-
21
22 labeled nanoparticles at the concentration of ~ 150 μ M. After 3 hours of incubation, cells were
23
24 washed three times with PBS to remove free NPs. Fresh medium was finally added to the cells
25
26 before imaging.
27
28
29
30

31 **2.7 Stability of PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs against the leaching of Gd³⁺ and CN⁻ ions.**

32
33 About 10 mL of PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs (10 mM) were sealed in a dialysis bag that as then
34
35 submerged in 200 mL distilled water, or 200 mL 1% NaCl solution, or a HCl solution (pH=1).
36
37 After incubated at 37 $^{\circ}$ C for two days, the dialysis bag was removed from the solution. The
38
39 volume of the solution was then reduced to 10 mL. The CN⁻ ions were measured semi-
40
41 quantitatively using a Merk Co. cyanide test kit (EMD CO. 10044-1). In the meantime, the
42
43 concentration of the released Gd³⁺ ions in each test solution were measured using the ICP
44
45 technique.
46
47
48
49

50 **2.8 T_1 and T_2 measurements.**

51
52 The longitudinal (T_1) and transverse (T_2) relaxation times of protons induced by PEG-coated
53
54 Gd@PBNPs were measured using a Bruker minispec mq60 contrast agent analyzer at 1.4 T.
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Aqueous solutions containing PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs at different concentrations were prepared
4 and transferred into NMR tubes. Both the T_1 relaxation and T_2 relaxation times of these solutions
5 were measured at 37 ± 0.1 °C. The r_1 and r_2 relaxivity values were then extracted from the slope
6 of the linear plot of $(1/T_i)_{\text{obs}}$ ($i=1,2$) versus M^{3+} ($M=\text{Fe}$ and Gd) concentration.
7
8
9

10 11 12 **2.9. *in vivo* animal MRI imaging studies.**

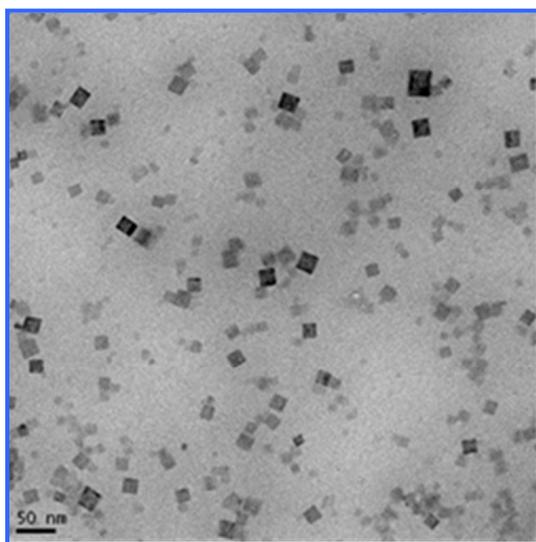
13
14 The animal was anesthetized by intramuscular injection of midazolam. The anesthetized rabbit
15 was placed on a heating pad all the time before the MRI study and then wrapped in a warm towel
16 to maintain body temperature at 35 °C during MRI scanning. MRI contrast agents were
17 administered by tubing at dose of 13.9 mL/kg or 138.9 mg NPs/kg body weight. The animal was
18 then placed in a locally built small coil and scanned in a Siemens MAGNETOM® Avanto 1.5T
19 MRI scanner at 0, 5, 15, 30, 60, and 90 minutes post-administration using a 3D FLASH
20 sequence.
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31

32 33 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

34 35 **3.1 Synthesis and characterization of both Gd@PBNPs and bulk Gd@PBN.**

36
37 The synthesis of PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs was carried out with a simple two-step aqueous
38 reaction that gave a quantitative yield based on the gadolinium nitrate used as described in the
39 Experimental Section. For characterization purposes, the bulk sample of this material was also
40 prepared using exactly the same procedure except that neither PVP nor PEG was used. In the
41 absence of any surface coating polymer, a precipitate was formed from the reaction. The solid
42 obtained from this process was separated by centrifugation, washed with water three times and
43 with acetone one time, and dried in vacuum. Transmission electron microscopic (TEM) studies
44 revealed the Gd@PBNPs are cubic-shaped single crystallites with an average size of 24 ± 9 nm
45 as shown in Figure 1. The particle size and size distribution for this specific batch of sample
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 were obtained by measuring and averaging 85 NPs from the lower left quadrant of the frame.
4
5 The energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) analysis on individual NPs clearly showed the
6
7 presence of Gd, Fe, K, C and N with the relative peak intensity for each of these elements
8
9 showing hardly any change from different selected areas of the same particle or from different
10
11 particles, suggesting that gadolinium is uniformly incorporated into the crystal lattice of the
12
13 material rather than absorbed on the outer surfaces or inner pores of the material. The metal
14
15 analysis on the bulk sample by inductively coupled plasma (ICP) spectroscopy showed that this
16
17 material to have the formula $K_{1-3x}Gd_xFe[Fe(CN)_6]$ with $x \approx 0.02$, while its X-ray powder
18
19 diffraction (XRD) patterns revealed a single phase that can be readily indexed to that of pure
20
21 Prussian blue (see Figure 2). We therefore conclude that the Gd^{3+} ion ($r=1.07 \text{ \AA}$) occupies the
22
23 same crystallographic positions with the K^+ ion ($r=1.33 \text{ \AA}$) in the crystal lattice of this material.
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31



49
50 **Figure 1** TEM image of as-prepared Gd@PBNPs
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra of both the bulk sample and PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs exhibited a strong characteristic C α N stretching vibration at 2075 cm⁻¹, which is attributable to the Fe(II)-C α N-Fe(III) bonding mode in pure Prussian blue. Additionally, the IR spectra of Gd@PBNPs contain essentially the same spectroscopic features of PEG as shown in Figure 3. Since the sample was thoroughly dialyzed in distilled water before the IR spectroscopic studies, we conclude that such NPs are surface-coated with PEG layers, which is also consistent with the fact that these PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs are highly dispersible in water (i.e. ~0.23 mole per liter of water based on iron concentration) and stable against aggregation for more than six months.

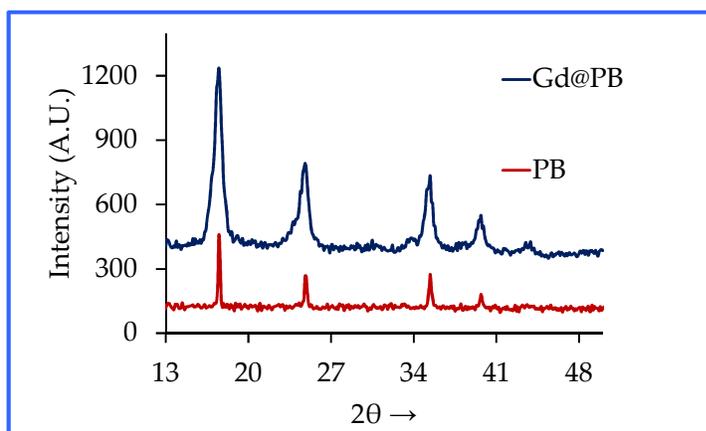


Figure 2 XRD patterns of the bulk Gd@PB in comparison with those of Prussian blue

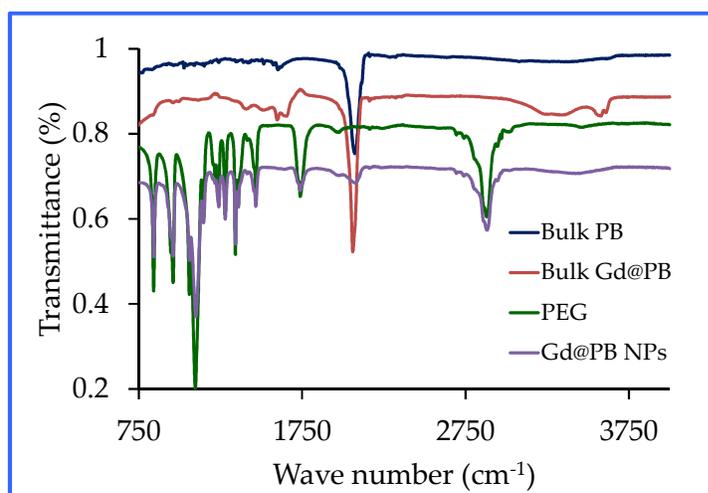


Figure 3 FT-IR spectra of PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs in comparison with those of the bulk PB, bulk Gd@PB and PEG

3.2 Proton relaxivity measurements of Gd@PBNPs.

In order to evaluate the efficiency of the PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs as an MRI contrast agent we measured both longitudinal (i.e. T_1) and transverse (i.e. T_2) proton relaxivities in aqueous solution. The r_1 and r_2 values, expressed on a per M^{3+} -ion basis (i.e. the total paramagnetic species $M=Fe(III) + Gd(III)$ in the structure), extracted from the measurements carried out at the magnetic field of 1.4 Tesla using a Bruker MiniSpec relaxometer are $r_1= 16.4 \text{ mM}^{-1}\times\text{s}^{-1}$ and $r_2=20.9 \text{ mM}^{-1}\times\text{s}^{-1}$ (see Figure 4).²⁸ In addition, the low ratio of $r_2/r_1 = 1.27$ ensures that the PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs can be used as an effective and reliable T_1 contrast agent.²⁹⁻³⁰ The latter notion was further confirmed by our *in vivo* MRI imaging studies of the GI tract in a domestic rabbit (*vid infra*). These results would readily place the current Gd@PBNP system above all the known oral contrast agents such as LumenHance® and Magnevist Enteral® in terms of the r_1 relaxivity. It should be noted that Magnevist Enteral®, the contrast agent with the highest r_1 relaxivity among these three has an r_1 value of $3.4 \text{ mM}^{-1}\times\text{s}^{-1}$ at the magnetic field strength of 1.4 T.

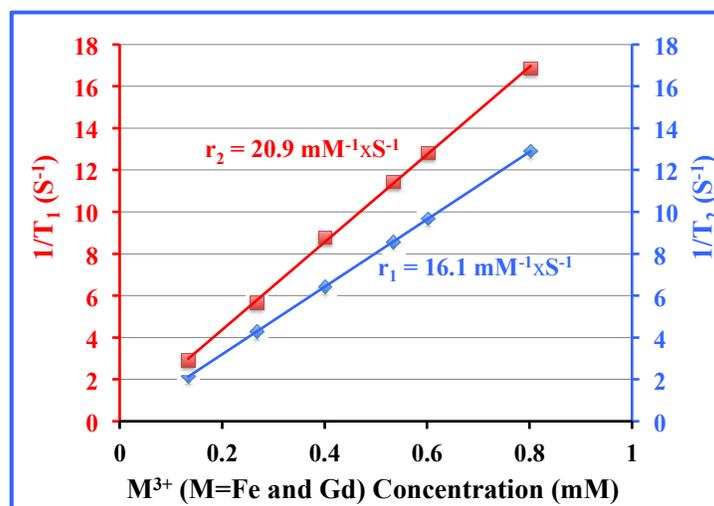
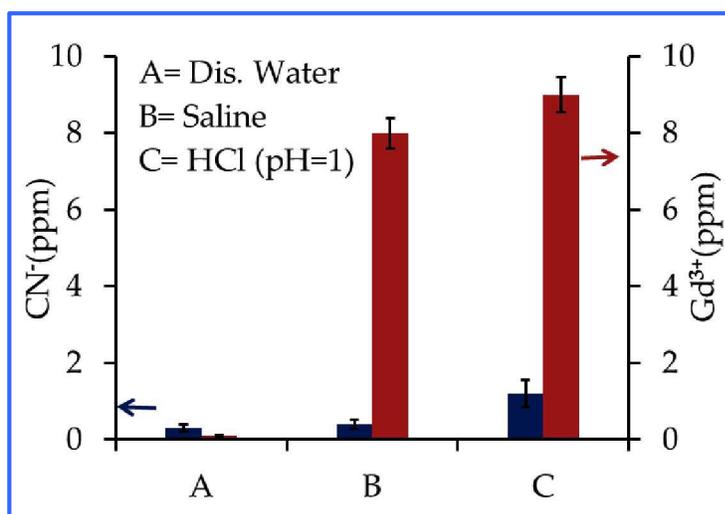


Figure 4 Plots of $1/T_i$ ($i=1,2$) versus M^{3+} -concentration at 1.4 T for PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs

3.3 Stability of Gd@PBNPs against the leaching of Gd³⁺ and CN⁻ ions.

We studied the release of Gd³⁺ and CN⁻ ions from PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs under various physiologically relevant conditions including distilled water, saline solution, and 0.1 M HCl as the simulated gastric juice (pH=1.0) under the pseudo-equilibrium conditions, i.e. the Gd@PBNPs sealed in a dialysis bag were equilibrated with these media for over 24 hours. As shown in Figure 5, the highest Gd³⁺ concentration released from the nanoparticles was found to be 9.0 ± 8 ppm. The minute amount of Gd³⁺ ions released from the NPs to aqueous solution is the testimony that the metal ions (K⁺, Gd³⁺, Fe³⁺ and Fe²⁺) in this compound with the cubic structure are completely locked in their respective crystallographic positions and cannot be readily dissociated in solution due to the extremely low solubility-product constant. Given the fact that the oral LD₅₀ in rats for gadolinium nitrate is 300 mg/kg, corresponding to 105 mg Gd/kg, the release of Gd³⁺ ions in gastric juice will not be a safety concern.³¹ On the other hand, the highest CN⁻ concentration detected after 24-hour incubation in these media was below $\sim 1 \pm 1$ ppm. This level of cyanide is comparable to that allowed in the drinking water set by the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA).³² Free cyanide ions occur naturally in water due to the release from

1
2
3 certain plants and fruit seeds.³³ Intake of cyanide at this level by humans or animals is not
4
5 harmful because the mitochondrial enzyme, Rhodanese can rapidly convert it into thiocyanate. It
6
7 is worth pointing out that the toxicity of Gd@PBNPs is so low that we have been unable to
8
9 determine the oral lethal dosage (LD₅₀) in lab mice.
10
11

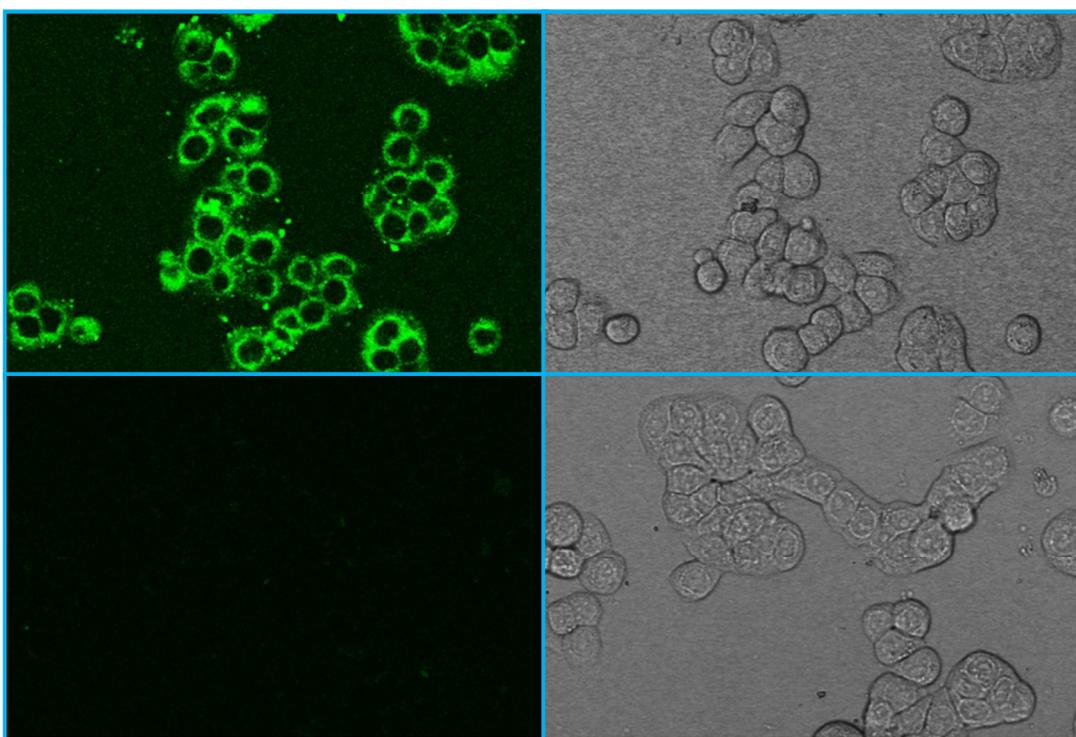


32 **Figure 5** The release of Gd³⁺ (red) and CN⁻ (blue) ions from Gd@PBNPs into different media
33

34 35 **3.4 Cellular uptake and cytotoxicity of Gd@PBNPs.**

36
37 The ability to penetrate the cell membrane is a crucial pre-requisite for developing such NPs as a
38
39 cellular MR probe for early cancer detection in the GI system. Therefore, we used the fluorescent
40
41 confocal microscopic imaging technique to visualize the cellular uptake of the NPs in HT-29
42
43 cells. The latter are human colorectal adenocarcinoma cells commonly used as an *in vitro* model
44
45 of intestinal cancers. Colorectal cancer is the most malignant disease in the GI tract. It is the
46
47 second most common cause of cancer in women, and the third most common cause of cancer in
48
49 men worldwide. For live cell imaging, HT-29 cells were first incubated with the
50
51 carboxyfluorescein (CbF) dye-labeled Gd@PBNPs, washed with PBS and then directly imaged
52
53 without fixation. Note that the CbF dye molecule itself is membrane impermeable due to its high
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 anionic charge and poor water solubility.³⁴ Figure 6 shows the typical confocal fluorescent
4 images of HT-29 cells treated with the dye-labeled Gd@PBNPs in comparison with the
5 fluorescent images of control cells. The uniform fluorescent emission in the perinuclear region of
6 the cells treated with dye-labeled Gd@PBNPs suggests an untargeted cytoplasmic distribution of
7 NPs inside the cell with no specific binding to any small organelle in the region, indicating that
8 cellular uptake occurs through endocytosis. On the other hand, the fluorescent signals from the
9 nuclei are very weak, suggesting that the nuclear uptake of the NPs is negligible.



44 **Figure 6** Confocal microscopic images of HT-29 cells: (upper left) fluorescence image of cells incubated
45 with dye-conjugated NPs for 3 hours; (upper right) bright field image of cells incubated with dye-
46 conjugated NPs for 3 hours; (lower left) fluorescence image of the untreated cells; (lower right) bright field
47 image of the untreated cells
48
49
50

51
52 To assess the cytotoxicity, we performed cell viability assays in HT-29 cells using MTT method.
53
54 The cells were incubated for 12 hours or 24 hours at 37 °C under 5% CO₂ with varying
55 concentrations of Gd@PBNPs suspended in PBS and Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium
56
57
58
59
60

(DMEM). Three independent trials were conducted, and the averages and standard deviations were reported. The reported percent cell survival values are relative to the control cells. Figure 7 shows the viability of HT-29 cells treated with Gd@PBNPs. The results clearly indicate that the NPs are nontoxic to cells. More than 96% of the cells were viable after incubation with the NPs at the concentration of 0.5 mM Fe^{3+} ion (or 0.01 mM Gd^{3+} ion) for 24 hours.

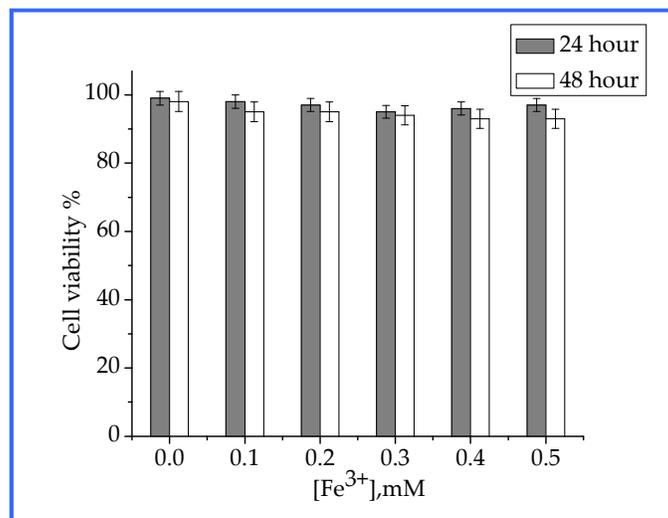
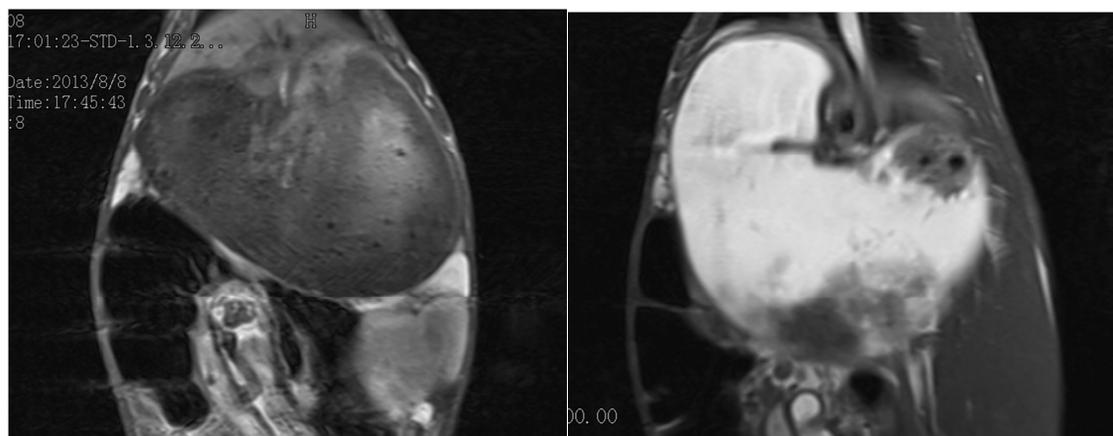


Figure 7 Effect of Gd@PBNPs on viability of HT-29 cells after 12-hour and 24-hour incubation.

3.6 *in vivo* MR imaging studies of the GI tract using Gd@PBNPs.

We carried out preliminary *in vivo* MRI imaging studies of the GI tract in a domestic rabbit. The imaging was performed on a Siemens MAGNETOM® Avanto 1.5T clinical whole-body system using a locally built small flexible receiver coil. A male rabbit weighing 2.6 kg was sedated by intramuscular injection of midazolam, followed by the introduction of 50 mL solution of PEG-coated Gd@PBNPs (10 mg/mL) into the stomach *via* tabulation. The animal was restrained and the receiver coil was fastened outside the restraining device. For the detection of Gd@PBNP enhancement a standard multislice T_1 -weighted spin echo (SE) sequence was used. Approximately 5 minutes after the oral administration of the PEG-coated Gd@PBNP

1
2
3 suspension, a clear T_1 -weighted signal enhancement was detected in the stomach of the animal
4
5 (see Figure 8). The increased positive MRI signal in the stomach remained stable for 60 minutes.
6
7 before it began to gradually decline to the background level in *ca.* 90 minutes. The T_1 -weighted
8
9 signal enhancement in the abdomen could be seen approximately 30 minutes after the oral
10
11 administration, signifying the passing of Gd@PBNPs into the lower digestive tract (see Figure
12
13 9). The positive MRI signal in the abdomen remained visible even after 90 minutes, albeit the
14
15 intensity was reduced.
16
17
18
19
20
21
22



37
38 **Figure 8** T_1 -weighted images of the stomach taken using saline solution as the negative control (left) and
39 5 minutes after the oral administration of the PEG-coated Gd@PBNP suspension (right), showing a
40 significant enhancement of the positive contrast (i.e. T_1 -weighted) of MRI signals in the stomach
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60



Figure 9 T_1 -weighted images of the abdomen taken using saline solution as the negative control (left) and 30 minutes after the oral administration of the PEG-coated Gd@PBNP suspension (right), showing an unequivocal enhancement of the positive contrast (i.e. T_1 -weighted) of MRI signals in the abdomen

4. CONCLUSION

In summary, we have developed a novel nanoplatform to deliver gadolinium as an effective oral MRI contrast agent with extreme stability in acidic environment. The other two important features that are desirable for oral administration and the GI tract imaging using the Gd@PBNPs include high r_1 relaxivity (i.e. high sensitivity) and excellent temporal stability with the characteristics of contrast enhancement remaining almost unchanged when passing throughout the GI tract. Up until now, the three commonly used oral contrast agents, i.e. AFC, LumenHance® and Magnevist Enteral®, all have modest relaxivity values, and poor temporal stability when administered to the GI tract, in addition to their lack of the ability to penetrate the cell membrane in order to function as a cellular MRI probe. Given our findings that the current MRI contrast agent based on the Gd@PBNPs has very high r_1 relaxivity, and can readily enter

1
2
3 the cell, it is tempting to conjecture that gadolinium-incorporated Prussian blue offers a unique
4
5 opportunity to develop a sensitive cellular MRI probe for early cancer detection in the GI tract.
6
7
8 Research on the use of such nanoparticles in animal models with orthotopic xenograft tumors is
9
10 currently under way at this lab.
11

12 13 14 ACKNOWLEDGMENT

15
16 This research is supported by the NIH-NCI grant 1R21CA143408-01A1. The TEM data reported
17
18 in this work were obtained using the Cryo TEM Facility at Liquid Crystal Institute, KSU that is
19
20 supported by the Ohio Research Scholars Program.
21
22
23

24 25 26 NOTES AND REFERENCES

- 27 1. M. R. Paley and P. R. Ros, *Eur. Radio.* 1997, **7**, 1387-1397.
 - 28 2. J. Zhu, J-R Xu and H-X Gong, *World J. Gastroenterol.* 2008, **14**, 3403-3409.
 - 29 3. J. F. Debatin and M. A. Patak, *Eur. Radiol.* 1999, **9**, 1523-1534.
 - 30 4. M. A. Patak, D. Weishaupt and J. M. Frohlich *J. Magn. Reson. Imaging* 1999, **10**, 474-
31 476.
 - 32 5. D. Bilincen, K. Scheffler and E. Seifritz, *Abdom. Imaging* 2000, **25**, 30-34.
 - 33 6. A. Giovagnoni, A. Fabbri and F. Maccioni, *Abdom. Imaging* 2002, **27**, 367-375.
 - 34 7. H. Tammo, P. Rijcken and M. A. Davis, *J. Magn. Reson. Imaging.* 1994, **4**, 291-300.
 - 35 8. X. Wan, P. Wedeking and M. F. Tweedle, *J. Magn. Reson. Imaging* 1995, **13**, 215-218.
 - 36 9. B. H. Kraus, D. C. Rappaport and P. R. Ros *J. Magn. Reson. Imaging* 1994, **12**, 847-858.
 - 37 10. P. N. Malcolm, J. J. Brown and P. F. Hahn, *J. Magn. Reson. Imaging* 2000, **12**, 702-707.
 - 38 11. W. C. Small, D. DeSimone-Macchi and J. R. Parker *J. Magn. Reson. Imaging* 1999, **10**,
39 15-24.
 - 40 12. M. E. Bernardino, J. C. Weinreb and D. G. Mitchell *J. Magn. Reson. Imaging* 1994, **4**,
41 872-876.
 - 42 13. S. Kaminsky, M. Laniado, and M. Gogoll *Radiology* 1991, **178**, 503-508.
 - 43 14. R. F. Mattrey, M. A. Trambert and J. J. Brown *Radiology* 1994, **191**, 841-848.
 - 44 15. M. Lonnemark, A. Hemmingson and T. Bach-Gansmo *Acta Radiol.* 1989, **30**, 193-196.
- 45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
16. D. F. Hahn, D. D. Stark and J. M. Lewis *Radiology* 1990, **175**, 695-700.
 17. A. N. Oksendal, T. F. Jacobsen and H. G. Gundersen *Invest. Radiol.* 1991, **26**, S67-S70.
 18. H. B. Na, J. H. Lee, K. An, Y. Park, M. Park, I. S. Lee, D.-H. Nam, S. T. Kim, S.-H. Kim, S.-W. Kim, K.-H. Lim, K.-S. Kim, S.-O. Kim and T. Hyeon, *Angew. Chem., Int. Ed.* 2007, **46**, 5397-5401.
 19. M. Shokouhimehr, E.S. Soehnlen, A. Khitrin, S. Basu and S. D. Huang, *Inorg. Chem. Commun.* 2010, **13**, 58-61.
 20. M. Shokouhimehr, E.S. Soehnlen, H. Hao, M. Griswold, C. Flask, X. D. Fan, J. P. Basilion, S. Basu and S. D. Huang, *J. Mater. Chem.* 2010, **20**, 5251-5259.
 21. E. Chelebaeva, J. Larionova, Y. Guari, R. A. S. Ferreira, L. D. Carlos, A. A. Trifonov, T. Kalaivani, A. Lascialfari, Ch. Guérin, K. Molvinger, L. Datas, M. Maynadier, M. Gary-Bobo and M. Garcia, *Nanoscale* 2011, **3**, 1200-1210.
 22. G. Fu, W. Liu, S. Feng and X. Yue, *Chem. Comm.* 2012, **48**, 11567-11569.
 23. H.-Y. Lian, M. Hu, C.-H. Liu, Y. Yamauchi and K. C. W. Wu, *Chem. Comm.* 2012, **48**, 5151-5153.
 24. M. Perrier, S. Kenouche, J. Long, K. Thangavel, J. Larionova, C. Goze-Bac, A. Lascialfari, M. Mariani, N. Baril, C. Guerin, B. Donnadieu, A. Trifonov and Y. Guari, *Inorg. Chem.* 2013, **52**, 13402-13414.
 25. X. Liang, Z. Deng, L. Jing, X. Li, Z. Dai, C. Li and M. Huang, *Chem. Comm.* 2013, **49**, 11029-11031.
 26. G. Paul, Y. Prado, N. Dia, E. Riviere, S. Laurent, M. Roch, L. V. Elst, R. N. Muller, L. Sancey, P. Perriat, O. Tillement, T. Mallaha and L. Catala, *Chem. Comm.* 2014, **50**, 6740-6743.
 27. M. F. Dumont, H. A. Hoffman, P. R. S. Yoon, L. S. Conklin, S. R. Saha, J. Paglione, R. W. Sze and R. Fernandes, *Bioconjugate Chem.* 2014, **25**, 129-137.
 28. S. H. Koenig and R. D. Brown, *Prog NMR Spectrosc.* 1990, **22**, 487-567.
 29. H. Hifumi, S. Yamaoka, A. Tanimoto, D. Citterio and K. Suzuki, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 2006, **128**, 15090-15091.
 30. R. Weissleder, G. Elizondo, J. Wittenberg, C. A. Rabito, H. H. Bengele and L. Josephson, *Radiology* 1990, **175**, 489-493.
 31. D. W. Bruce, B. E. Hietbrink and K. P. DuBois, *Toxicol. Appl. Pharm.* 1963, **5**, 750-759.

- 1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
32. See <http://water.epa.gov/drink/contaminants/index.cfm#List> last accessed on September 9, 2015.
33. J. Vetter, *Toxicon*. 2000, **38**, 11-36.
34. T. O. Pangburn, K. Georgiou, F. S. Bates, and E. Kokkoli, *Langmuir* 2012, **28**, 12816-12830.