



## A facile strategy for fine-tuning the drug release efficacy of poly-L-lactic acid-polycaprolactone coatings by liquid flame spray

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### ABSTRACT

The diversity of medical application scenarios demands fine-tuning of drug release profiles for better patient care. Here we report a facile strategy to construct composite coatings as universal drug delivery systems with tunable release efficacy. A poly-L-lactic acid (PLLA)-polycaprolactone (PCL) coating was fabricated by liquid flame spray and its performance was verified by loading chloramphenicol (CAM) as bactericidal component. Physicochemical analyses revealed the homogeneity of chemistry and integrity of functional groups of the composite coatings. Release of CAM was enhanced by the increase of the PCL content in the composite coatings, showing a controllable manner. Kinetics analysis suggested the release mechanism of Korsmeyer-Peppas model for both the PLLA-CAM and the PCL-CAM coatings, and the release regime for the PLLA-PCL composite coatings transitioned from the Higuchi model to the Korsmeyer-Peppas model when the PCL content increased from 30 % to 70 %. Further antibacterial testing revealed tailorable antibacterial activity of the coatings against both *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus*. Regulating the release of the drug CAM through altering PCL content in the PLLA-PCL coating would give inspiring insight into green fabrication of polymeric coatings with tunable drug release for versatile applications.

### 1. Introduction

Controllable drug release offers the possibility of enabling the active drug to achieve a desired therapeutic response for preventing or treating diseases, including the location, rate, and duration of release of a particular drug in the body [1,2]. The strategy of colonic, cancer and transplantation delivery require the rapid release of the drug to a target in a short period of time, maximizing the release rate and efficiency of the active ingredient [3,4]. On the contrary, one strategy for treating implant-associated infections, wounds and inflammation is the sustained and prolonged release of low-concentration drugs to obtain therapeutic efficacy [5,6]. To address the diverse requirement of clinical drug delivery, many different carriers and drug delivery systems have

been investigated [7–9]. However, the variety of delivery routes and manufacturing processes will undoubtedly increase the complexity of clinical application and hinder the development of precision therapy based on individualized needs.

To accomplish controlled drug release, searching for carriers whose drug release can be facilely programmed has the potential to address a variety of unmet clinical needs and is one of the most tricky challenges for the drug delivery applications [10]. Compared with the existing delivery materials like liposomes [7], nanocrystals [8], and metal-organic frameworks [9], biopolymer-based biodegradable materials opt to be more promising for the drug delivery [11,12]. Among them, biodegradable poly (L-lactic acid) (PLLA) and polycaprolactone (PCL) can be extracted from renewable resources such as corn, cassava and

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sugarcane. They are environment-friendly and possess excellent properties such as high mechanical strength, desired biodegradability and biocompatibility, low toxicity, fast bone regeneration, and ease for printing [13–15]. Owing to the abovementioned properties, they have been widely used in biomedical devices, such as surgical sutures, artificial skin and bone, orthopedic fixation devices, and controlled drug-delivery systems [16,17]. Studies showed that blends of polymers with different biodegradable characteristics are an effective measure to provide different pathways for tunable drug release [18,19]. Yet selection and fabrication of biodegradable polymers for appropriate drug release keeps elusive.

As an important biodegradable polymer, PLLA was explored extensively for drug release applications because of its fast hydrolysis [20], however problems persist as how to overcome its brittle feature that usually results in inadequate toughness and low thermal resistance [21]. PCL, an FDA-approved polymer with a low glass transition temperature of  $-60\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  and remarkable elongation rate at break, is often used with blending of PLLA to improve its toughness [22]. However, PCL has been reported to possess slow hydrolysis [23]. Some studies claimed that melt-blending PLLA with PCL is a feasible way to toughen PLLA while maintaining its biodegradability [24–26]. Thus, the biocompetitive PLLA-PCL composite coatings could therefore be a potential candidate for carrying drugs for appropriate release in the body.

Fabrication of polymer composite coatings can be accomplished via several processing techniques, such as spin coating processing [27], solution electrospinning [28], ultrasonic spraying atomization [29], and dip coating processing [30], etc. Regardless of the ease of operation, there are a number of inherent shortcomings for the abovementioned processing techniques, such as high cost of organic solvents, pronounced toxicity of the residual solvents in the coatings that posed environmental and health issues [31]. To overcome these limitations, alternative coating techniques have to be explored. Among the possible techniques, hot melt method [32], hot melt extrusion [33], and melt electrospinning [34] are basically safe and eco-friendly methods and do not involve the use of solvents. However, for these methods, excessive processing temperatures, high-energy input and low thermal stability and production efficiency are the major concerns. As an alternative processing route, thermal spray offers the advantages of easy operation, cost-efficiency, environmental protection, and have attributes that are beneficial to applications in many fields like drug delivery systems using polymer materials [35,36]. Liquid flame spray processing temperature is the lowest among the thermal spray techniques, which already showed feasibility in fabricating polymer coatings [37,38]. For the processing, the use of water or ethanol as a solvent eliminates many of the shortcomings associated with organic solvent-based coating techniques. Particularly, liquid flame spray usually involves heating the polymers to the temperatures above their melting temperature ( $T_m$ ) to make uniform coatings. In addition, this processing offers the advantages of incorporating various additives with ease into polymer to fabricate desired composites. Zhou et al. have reported polyimide-alumina composite coatings fabricated by liquid flame spraying [39]. Liu et al. found constrained release of copper from liquid flame sprayed polyimide-copper coatings [40]. Despite the successes of liquid flame spray in depositing polymer coatings, to the best of our knowledge, flame spray construction of biodegradable-polymer based coatings loaded with drugs keeps elusive, and related knowledge of tunable release of drugs from flame sprayed coatings is still lacking.

In this study, chloramphenicol (CAM), a broad-spectrum antibiotic with bacteriostatic activity [41], was used as a model drug for constructing CAM-containing polymer coating deposited by liquid flame spraying. CAM was added in PLLA and PCL as a carrier suspension for subsequent coating fabrication. Physicochemical properties of the coatings were characterized by differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) measurements, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and X-ray diffraction (XRD), and *in vitro* release profiles have been evaluated. Herein, our study aimed at providing a novel approach towards the preparation of

**Table 1**

Sample designation and composition of the composites.

Composition (wt%) PLLA: PCL	Drug-free coating sample code	Drug-loaded coating <hr/> Sample code
100:0	100PLLA	100PLLA-CAM
70:30	70PLLA-30PCL	70PLLA-30PCL- CAM
50:50	50PLLA-50PCL	50PLLA-50PCL- CAM
30:70	30PLLA-70PCL	30PLLA-70PCL- CAM
0:100	100PCL	100PCL-CAM

cost-effective and tunable drug delivery coatings as controlled-release materials. These materials have widespread applications for future drug loading and shed light on the design of new drug delivery systems.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Materials and reagents

Commercially available polylactic acid (PLLA-4032D, Nature Works, USA) with an average molecular weight of 50,000 and polycaprolactone (PCL, Nature Works, USA) with an average molecular weight of 80,000 were used. Other reagents and chemicals, sodium chloride, potassium chloride, disodium hydrogen phosphate, potassium dihydrogen phosphate, and chloramphenicol, were purchased from Aladdin (Shanghai, China) and used as received.

### 2.2. Suspension processing of PLLA-PCL composite

PLLA-PCL composite suspensions with various weight ratios (100/0, 70/30, 50/50, 30/70, and 0/100 wt%) were prepared with a concentration of 10 % (w/w) in the mixture of deionized water and ethanol (1:1 v/v) and mixed for 1 h with a magnetic stirrer at room temperature. For CAM-loaded samples, 2.5 % (w/w) of CAM powders relative to the total weight of PLLA and PCL were added into the above suspensions. Sample designations and corresponding compositions are listed in Table 1 as below.

### 2.3. Coating deposition

Coatings were deposited on 316 L stainless steel substrates with the dimension of  $25 \times 20 \times 1\text{ mm}$  (L  $\times$  W  $\times$  H) by flame spray (CDS 8000, Castolin, Germany). Prior to the deposition, steel substrates were grit-blasted and ultrasonicated in acetone, ethanol, and deionized water in sequence. The suspensions were injected into the flame with a home-made spray atomizer. Acetylene was used as the fuel gas with a flow rate of  $1.5\text{ Nm}^3/\text{h}$  and working pressure of 0.1 MPa. Oxygen was used as the combustion-supporting gas with a flow rate of  $2.5\text{ Nm}^3/\text{h}$  and working pressure of 0.5 MPa. The precursor feed rate of polymer suspension was set as 40 mL/min and the spray distance was 200 mm.

### 2.4. Characterization of the coatings

Chemistry of the coatings was examined by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR, Nicolet iS50, Thermo Scientific, USA) operated at a spectral resolution of  $4\text{ cm}^{-1}$  with a scan range of  $4000\text{--}400\text{ cm}^{-1}$  with the highest resolution of  $0.09\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . Morphological features of the starting powder and the flame sprayed coatings were characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Regulus 8230, Hitachi, Japan). Thermal behaviors of the samples were detected using differential scanning calorimetry (DSC 2500, TA Instruments, USA) with a heating rate of  $10\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$  within the temperature range of  $-70\text{--}200\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  in nitrogen atmosphere. Melting temperature ( $T_m$ ),



**Fig. 1.** Depiction of the chemical structure and SEM images of the polymers and drug employed in this study, the corresponding magnified SEM images are shown as (–1). (a, a-1) PLLA powder, (b, b-1) PCL powder, and (c, c-1) CAM powder.

crystallization temperature ( $T_c$ ), cold crystallization temperature ( $T_{cc}$ ), and glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ) of the PLLA powder, the PCL powder, the CAM powder and the drug-containing composite coating were measured. The following equation was used to calculate the intrinsic degree of crystallinity ( $X_c$ ) [22]:

$$(X_c) \text{ Crystallinity\%} = (\Delta H_m) / (\Delta H_m^\circ \times W_f) \times 100 \quad (1)$$

where  $\Delta H_m$  is the enthalpy of crystallization of each polymer within each sample,  $W_f$  represents the weight fraction of each polymer in the sample,  $\Delta H_m^\circ$  refers to the specific melting enthalpy of 100 % crystalline PLLA and PCL, which was reported to be 93 J/g [42] and 135 J/g [43], respectively. The structure of samples was further characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD, D8 Advance, Bruker, Germany) with a Cu  $K_\alpha$  radiation operated at a voltage of 45 kV and a tube current of 40 mA. Samples were scanned at a scan step of 0.015°/s over the  $2\theta$  range of 5° - 40°. Vicker's hardness measurements were performed on the samples using a microhardness tester (Wilson, VH3300, USA), with a dwell time of 10 s and an applied force of 0.1 kg. The adhesion strength of the polymer coating was tested using a universal testing machine (MTS, CMT 5205, USA) according to ASTM-C633 standard [44]. 316 stainless steels of 25 × 25 mm<sup>2</sup> were used as substrate of polymer coatings. Samples were glued to the studs using adhesive (ResinLab, EP11HT, USA) and cured for 12 h at 37 °C under a pressure of 10 N. Surface wettability of the composite coatings was evaluated by a water contact angle measurement system (KRUSS, DSA25E, Germany). For the testing, 2  $\mu$ L of distilled water was dropped onto the coating surface using the sessile drop method before the images were captured by a video camera equipped with the system. For each sample, at least three independent readings acquired at different locations were collected for an average

value. For characterization of the size of CAM particles, CAM were dissolved in ethanol, then a small amount of the solution was dropped onto silicon plate, followed by room temperature evaporation of the ethanol. Morphologies of the CAM particles were then characterized by SEM.

### 2.5. Evaluation of the drug releasing behavior

Releasing behaviors of the CAM loaded in the composite coatings were evaluated in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) at pH 7.4 using the ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (Agilent Cary 5000) operated at 278 nm wavelength as previously reported [45]. The CAM-loaded coatings were placed in 50 mL reagent tubes containing 15 mL PBS solution at 37 °C. At different time intervals of 3 h, 6 h, 12 h, 24 h, 48 h, 72 h, 96 h, 168 h, 216 h, 264 h, 312 h, and 360 h, 3 mL of PBS was taken out and replenished with 3 mL of fresh PBS to maintain the same release conditions. To evaluate the drug loading capacity in the polymer coatings, the tested samples were placed in conical flasks containing 15 mL chloroform and underwent magnetic stirring for 4 h at 37 °C. Subsequently, the released CAM was quantified using the UV-Vis spectroscopy. The accumulated quantity of the released CAM was calculated according to the following formula [46]:

$$Q = \left( C_i^* V + V_i^* \sum_{i=0}^{t-i} C_i \right) \quad (2)$$

where  $Q$  is cumulative total released CAM in ug;  $C_i$  is the CAM concentration collected at  $t$  time point, mg/mL;  $V$  is the volume of released medium, 15 mL PBS in this case;  $V_i$  is the volume of the sample taken at



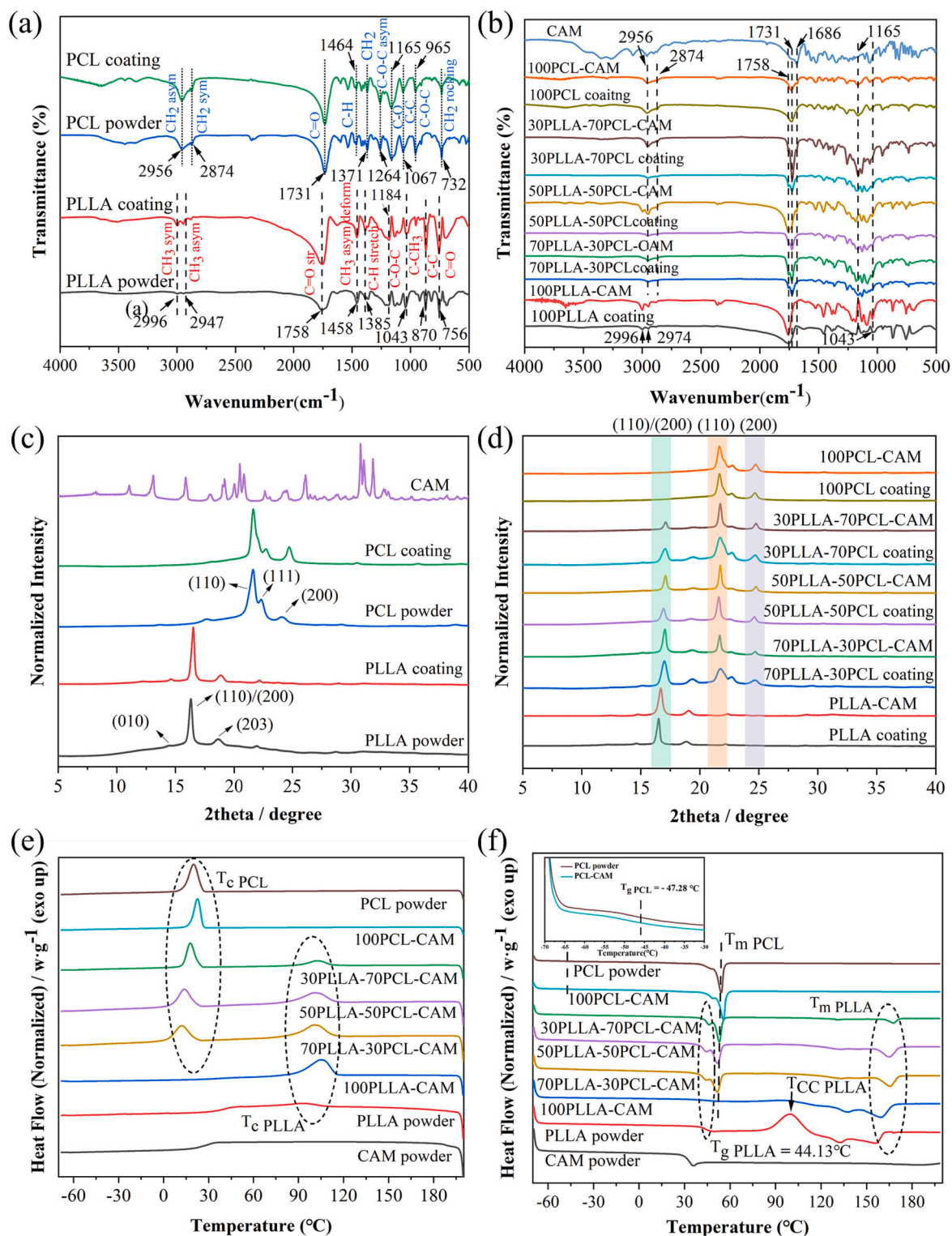


Fig. 2. (a, b) FT-IR spectra, (c, d) XRD patterns and (e, f) DSC curves of PLLA powder, PCL powder, CAM powder, PLLA coating, PCL coating, PLLA-PCL and PLLA-PCL-CAM composite coatings.

each time point ( $V_0 = 0$ ), 3 mL in this case;  $C_i$  is the concentration of collected sample per time point ( $C_0 = 0$ ),  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ;  $t$  is sampling frequency. Each testing was repeated for three replicates and the data collected were treated as mean value  $\pm$  standard deviation. The percentage of released CAM was calculated based on the formula [14]:

$$\text{Release (\%)} = \frac{Q_t}{Q_\infty} \times 100 \quad (3)$$

where  $Q_t$  is the amount of the released drug at the testing time point  $t$  ( $\mu\text{g}$ ),  $Q_\infty$  is the total amount of the drug loaded in the coating ( $\mu\text{g}$ ). The data was further fitted to the release kinetics models, namely zero order, first order, Higuchi and Korsmeyer-Peppas. The fitting of each model was elucidated based on correlation coefficient ( $R^2$ ) values. The drug release dynamics were further elucidated using the zero-order model:  $Q_t/Q_\infty = K_0 t$ , the first-order model:  $\ln(1 - Q_t/Q_\infty) = -K_1 t$ , the



Higuchi model:  $Q_t/Q_\infty = K_{HI}t^{0.5}$ , and the Korsmeyer-Peppas model:  $Q_t/Q_\infty = K_{KPI}t^n$  [47,48]. For these equations,  $Q_t$  is the amount of the drug released at the time  $t$ ,  $Q_\infty$  is the total amount of the drug in the coating, and  $Q_t/Q_\infty$  is equal to the mass fraction of the drug released at the time  $t$ ,  $K_0$  is the zero-order rate constant expressed in units of concentration/time and  $t$  is the time in per unit time,  $K_1$  is first order rate constant,  $K_{HI}$  is the Higuchi's rate constant,  $K_{KPI}$  is the Higuchi's rate constant and  $n$  is the release exponent that characterizes the mechanism of release of tracers. If  $n$  is 0.45 or less, the release mechanism corresponds to a Fickian diffusion mechanism,  $0.45 < n < 0.89$  means non-Fickian transport or anomalous diffusion [14].

## 2.6. Antibacterial inhibition assay

Antibacterial activity of the coatings was measured using the agar diffusion method. For the testing, two strains of bacteria, Gram-positive bacteria *Staphylococcus aureus* (CMCC(B)26,069) and Gram-negative bacteria *Escherichia coli* (ATCC25922), were used, which were inoculated in disposable plates with the bacteria concentration of  $10^7$  to  $10^8$  colony-forming units (CFU)/mL. The coating samples were placed in 15 mL PBS buffer at 37 °C and 10  $\mu$ L of the solution were taken out at fixed time intervals (24 h, 120 h), and dropped onto Luria-Bertani (LB) and Tryptone Soybean Broth (TSB) agar plates containing *E. coli* and *S. aureus*, respectively. The plates were left at room temperature for 20 min to allow the agar surface to dry. Drops of pure chloramphenicol solution (0.1 mg/mL) were placed in the same manner on the disposable plates as positive control. A negative control was also examined for all the coatings samples to verify non-antibacterial traits of composites. The sizes of the inhibition zones formed in the bacterial agar plates were measured after 24 h of incubation at 37 °C to evaluate the antibacterial efficacy.

## 3. Results and discussion

Depictions of the chemical structures and SEM images of the PLLA, the PCL, and the CAM used in this study are shown in Fig. 1. Original PLLA and PCL powders exhibited irregular shapes. Since PLLA and PCL are thermodynamically incompatible systems, mixture of the two materials shows a physical cross-linked network structure that preserves the respective properties of the two polymers. On the other hand, CAM particles were in rod shapes. The antibacterial effect of CAM is realized by inhibiting the synthesis of bacterial protein, which mainly acts on the subunit 50S of bacterial ribosomes, inhibits the transpeptidase reaction of peptide acyltransferase, affects the extension of peptide chain, and produces antibacterial effect [49].

FT-IR spectra of the pure polymers PLLA, PCL, PLLA coating and PCL coating are shown in Fig. 2 and Table S1. FT-IR spectra of the samples show that the main peaks of the pure PLLA powder are located at 2996, 2948, 1758, 1458, 1385, 1184, 1043, 870 and 756  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (Fig. 2a), which are attributed to C—H symmetric stretching vibration, C—H asymmetric stretching vibration, C=O stretch mode, CH<sub>3</sub> asymmetric stretching deform, C—H stretching, C-O-C, C-CH<sub>3</sub>, C—C and C=O, respectively [50,51]. For the PCL powder, the characteristic adsorption peaks are clearly seen at 732  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  for CH<sub>2</sub> rocking, 965  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  for C-O-C, 1067  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  for C—C, 1165  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  for C—O, 1264  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  for C-O-C asymmetric stretching, 1371  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  for CH<sub>2</sub>, 1464  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  for C—H stretching, 1731  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  for C=O stretching, and 2956  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  for CH<sub>2</sub> asymmetric stretching and 2874  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  for symmetric CH<sub>2</sub> stretching, respectively [52]. It is noted that the starting polymer powder and their coatings samples showed the featured FT-IR absorption peaks with minor differences, indicating no chemical structure changes occurred for the polymers during the high temperature coating deposition. In addition, the PLLA-PCL composite coatings display the distinctive FT-IR peaks of C-CH<sub>3</sub> stretching at 1043  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , C=O stretching vibrations at 1758  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , C—H stretching vibrations at 2996 and 2947  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , CH<sub>2</sub> asymmetric

**Table 2**

DSC measurement data of the PLLA-PCL composite coating.

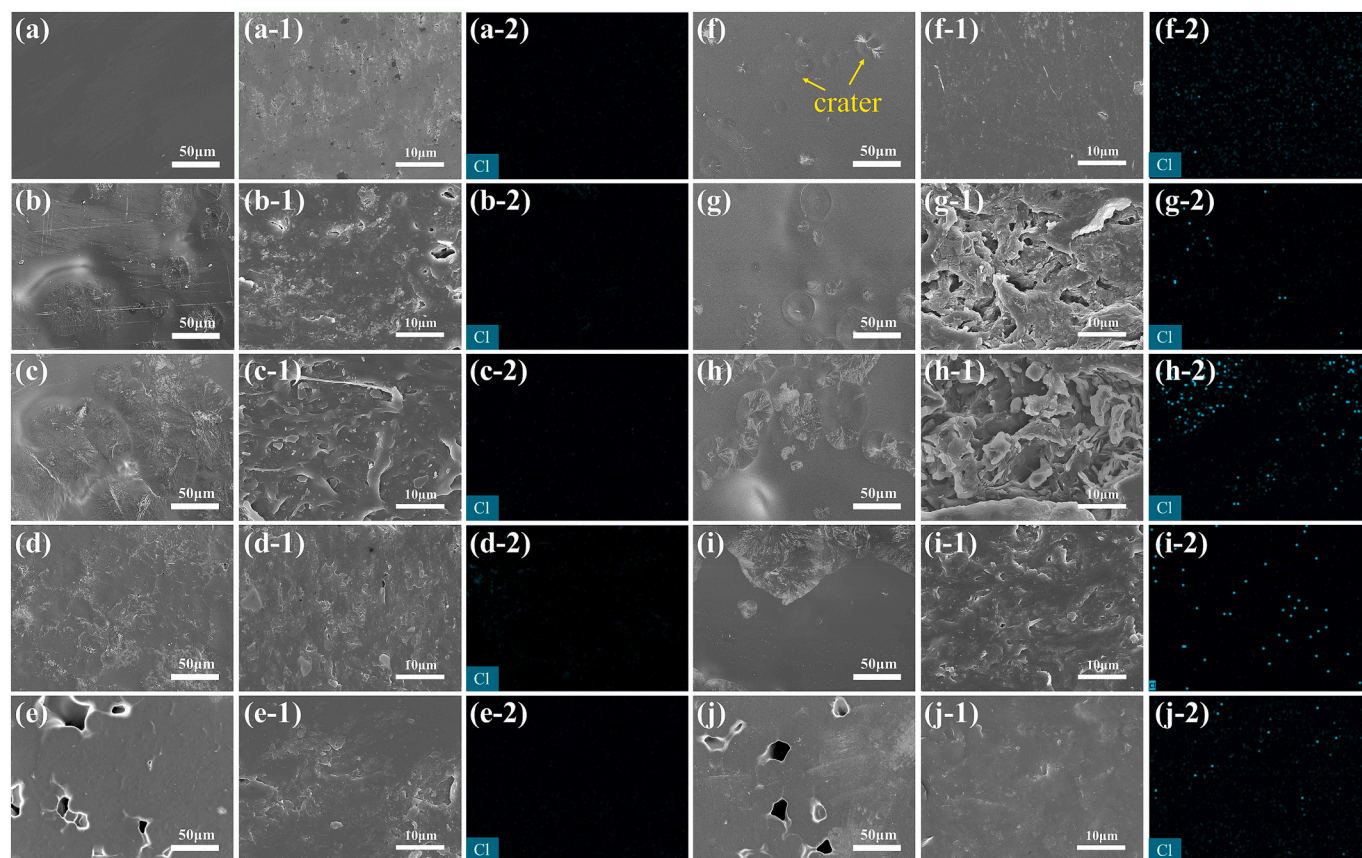
Samples	$T_c$ (°C)	$\Delta H_c$ (J·g <sup>-1</sup> )	$T_m$ (°C)	$\Delta H_m$ (J·g <sup>-1</sup> )	$X_c$ (%)
PLLA powder	93.0 ± 0.2	4.5 ± 0.4	154.2 ± 2.1	30.7 ± 0.8	32.8
PLLA-CAM	104.8 ± 0.2	36.4 ± 0.1	158.0 ± 1.7	53.8 ± 0.02	57.4
70PLLA-30PCL-CAM <sup>a</sup>	106.3 ± 0.2	25.0 ± 0.4	165.8 ± 0.1	22.5 ± 1.4	34.3
	9.5 ± 0.2	15.8 ± 1.7	51.2 ± 0.04	17.8 ± 1.5	43.9
50PLLA-50PCL-CAM <sup>a</sup>	100.5 ± 0.3	19.6 ± 0.2	165.6 ± 0.5	11.5 ± 0.4	24.5
	12.6 ± 1.4	18.57 ± 0.1	51.50 ± 0.1	19.2 ± 0.3	28.5
30PLLA-70PCL-CAM <sup>a</sup>	101.8 ± 0.3	14.5 ± 0.2	167.6 ± 0.6	5.8 ± 0.2	20.5
	17.8 ± 0.1	32.2 ± 0.5	52.2 ± 0.6	31.8 ± 1.2	33.7
PCL-CAM	23.1 ± 0.1	50.9 ± 1.5	55.32 ± 0.4	54.9 ± 0.7	40.7
PCL powder	20.2 ± 0.01	52.5 ± 0.4	55.4 ± 2.3	52.3 ± 3.3	38.7

<sup>a</sup> The values on the top within the layer represents the PLLA temperature; whereas the bottom values represent PCL temperature profiles.

stretching and CH<sub>2</sub> symmetric stretching at 2956 and 2874  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , C=O stretching at 1731  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , and C—O stretching at 1165  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . All these peaks are assigned to PLLA and PCL. The strong peak at 1686  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  is seen for the FT-IR curve of the PLLA-PCL-CAM composite coating, which refers to the amide group of the drug CAM [41]. It was reported that diminished intensity of the FT-IR peak for the amide group band of the polymer coatings was due to the breakdown of the intermolecular hydrogen bonding and the environment associated with -CONH-stretching changes [41]. These results suggest that CAM has been successfully loaded in the polymer coatings through being physically trapped within the polymer composites.

XRD detection further evidences the successful incorporation of CAM into the coatings (Fig. 2c). XRD pattern of the PLLA powder exhibits intense diffraction peaks at 14.75°, 16.69° and 19.05°, which are assigned to the planes (010), (110) or (200) and (203) of PLLA, respectively [53]. The PCL powder exhibits two sharp diffraction peaks at 21.65° and 24.05° attributing to the reflections from the (110) and (200) planes, with the shoulder peak at 22.34° assigned to the reflections from the plane (111) [54,55]. Meanwhile, the CAM powder is highly crystalline in nature as intense XRD peaks appear at 11.06°, 13.09°, 20.48°, 30.81° and 31.86° [56]. For the PLLA coating and the PCL coating, there is no big difference in shifting of the XRD peaks as compared to the XRD peak of the starting polymer powder. However, it can be seen in Fig. 2d that no diffraction peaks suggesting crystalline state of CAM are observed in the PLLA-PCL composite coatings. This suggests that CAM drug exists in amorphous form in the polymer coating, which is in agreement with the findings for hydrophobic drugs such as sirolimus, paclitaxel and progesterone in polymer-matrix composites [57–59]. It was claimed that almost complete amorphization of CAM was achieved when CAM content is below 10 wt% in polymer-based blends [60]. In addition, it is noted that the PLLA-PCL-CAM composite coating showed the prominent diffraction peaks without notable shifting as compared with the CAM-free polymer coatings, suggesting that the addition of CAM has no apparent influence on the crystal structure of the composites. This is likely due to the amorphous state of CAM particles in the composites.

Thermal behaviors of the samples were also characterized by DSC (Fig. 2(e-f)).  $T_c$ ,  $\Delta T_c$ ,  $T_m$ ,  $\Delta H_m$  and crystallinity values are listed in Table 2. The PLLA powder has a relatively broad  $T_c$  peak at ~93.17 °C, whilst the PCL powder showed  $T_c$  of 20.24 °C after annealing. The composite coating of PLLA with PCL altered their inherent individual



**Fig. 3.** Surface morphology of the composite coatings, (a) neat PLLA coating, (b)70PLLA-30PCL coating, (c) 50PLLA-50PCL coating, (d) 30PLLA-70PCL coating, (e) neat PCL coating, (f) PLLA-CAM coating, (g) 70PLLA-30PCL-CAM coating, (h) 50PLLA-50PCL-CAM coating, (i) 30PLLA-70PCL-CAM coating, (j)100PCL coating; (-1) SEM images of the fracture surfaces of the corresponding left coatings; (-2) EDS mapping of corresponding the fracture surfaces area.

crystallization behaviors (Fig. 2e). DSC of the PLLA-CAM coatings revealed that its  $T_c$  values was about 105 °C. For the 70PLLA-30PCL-CAM, 50PLLA-50PCL-CAM and 30PLLA-70PCL-CAM coatings, the remarkable decreasing of  $T_c$  peak presumably was due to the increase in the number of nuclei generated at lower temperatures, induced by the presence of PCL [61]. During the second DSC heating measurement from -70 °C to 200 °C (Fig. 2f), the PLLA powder showed a  $T_g$  of 44.13 °C and the PCL powder was -47.28 °C. PLLA exhibits a clear cold-crystallization peak at 99.76 °C. This is likely because the initial crystals in the PLLA powder serve as nucleating agent, in turn facilitating the cold-crystallization. However, it is surprising to note a common feature for both the PLLA-CAM coating and the PLLA-PCL-CAM composite coating that  $T_c$  peak of PLLA disappeared during the second-run heating. This should be attributed to the impact of the flame spray processing that this high temperature processing affects the cold-crystallization of PLLA. Under a cooling rate of 10 °C/min, the glass transition temperature of CAM is around 32 °C. Below the  $T_g$  of CAM, molecular fluidity freezes and nucleation points are no longer formed, and drug crystallization is inhibited [60]. In addition, it was found that  $T_m$  of the PLLA powder and the PCL powder was 154.20 °C and 55.42 °C, respectively. The composite coatings of PLLA, CAM and PCL showed altered  $T_m$ , being predominately attributed to the degree of immiscibility between PLLA and PCL. Meanwhile, it is notable as shown in Table 2 that  $\Delta H_m$  displayed different values for the samples that are consistent with the polymer component content.

In comparison with the PLLA coatings fabricated by electrophoretic deposition [62] and electrochemical polymerization [63], the pure PLLA coating deposited by flame spray displayed smooth and homogeneous topography (Fig. 3a). The PLLA-CAM coating presented similar uniform and smooth surface morphology (Fig. 3f), indicating uniform dispersion

of CAM drug in the PLLA coating. No significant morphological changes in the PLLA-CAM coating are seen. However, for the PLLA-CAM coating, as shown in Fig. 3f, craters on its surface are obvious, which are likely formed during the melting to crystallizing stage of PLLA as a result of contraction of its molecular chain after crystallization [64]. For the pristine PLLA-PCL composite coatings and PLLA-PCL-CAM composite coatings, their SEM images shown in Fig. 3(b-d, j-i) evidenced the “sea-island” phase of polymer blending, which was also reported by Guan et al. [65]. Clearly, the properties of each matrix component, the processing conditions and their internal posture structures affect macroscopic properties of polymer blends [66,67]. Interestingly, the PCL-CAM coating showed more pronounced porous structure than the PLLA-CAM coating (Fig. 3j), and this might be due to the different evaporation rates of deionized water and ethanol. Ethanol volatilizes more rapidly than water under the high temperature flame spray processing, giving rise to a more porous structure through the volatilization of water [68–70]. Under the same flame spray conditions, the PLLA-CAM coating showed smooth pore-free surface, for the viscosity of PLLA is lower than that of PCL. Lower viscosity usually means better fluidity [71]. Taking advantage of abovementioned features of PCL, PCL nanofibrous scaffolds with hierarchical pores and PCL porous microspheres were synthesized and characterized by other research teams [72,73]. Furthermore, the morphology of the cross-sections of the coatings was characterized by SEM imaging. The images show flatcross-sectional morphologies of both the PLLA and the PLLA-CAM coatings (Fig. 3(a-1, e-2, f-1, j-2)), being similar to the PCL and the PCL-CAM coatings. The results indicate that the addition of CAM has no remarkable effect on the internal structure of the coatings. Compared to single polymer coating, however, the image of PLLA-PCL composite coating presented in Fig. 3(b-1, c-1, d-1, g-1, h-1, i-1) reveals phase-separated morphology, indicating poor compatibility

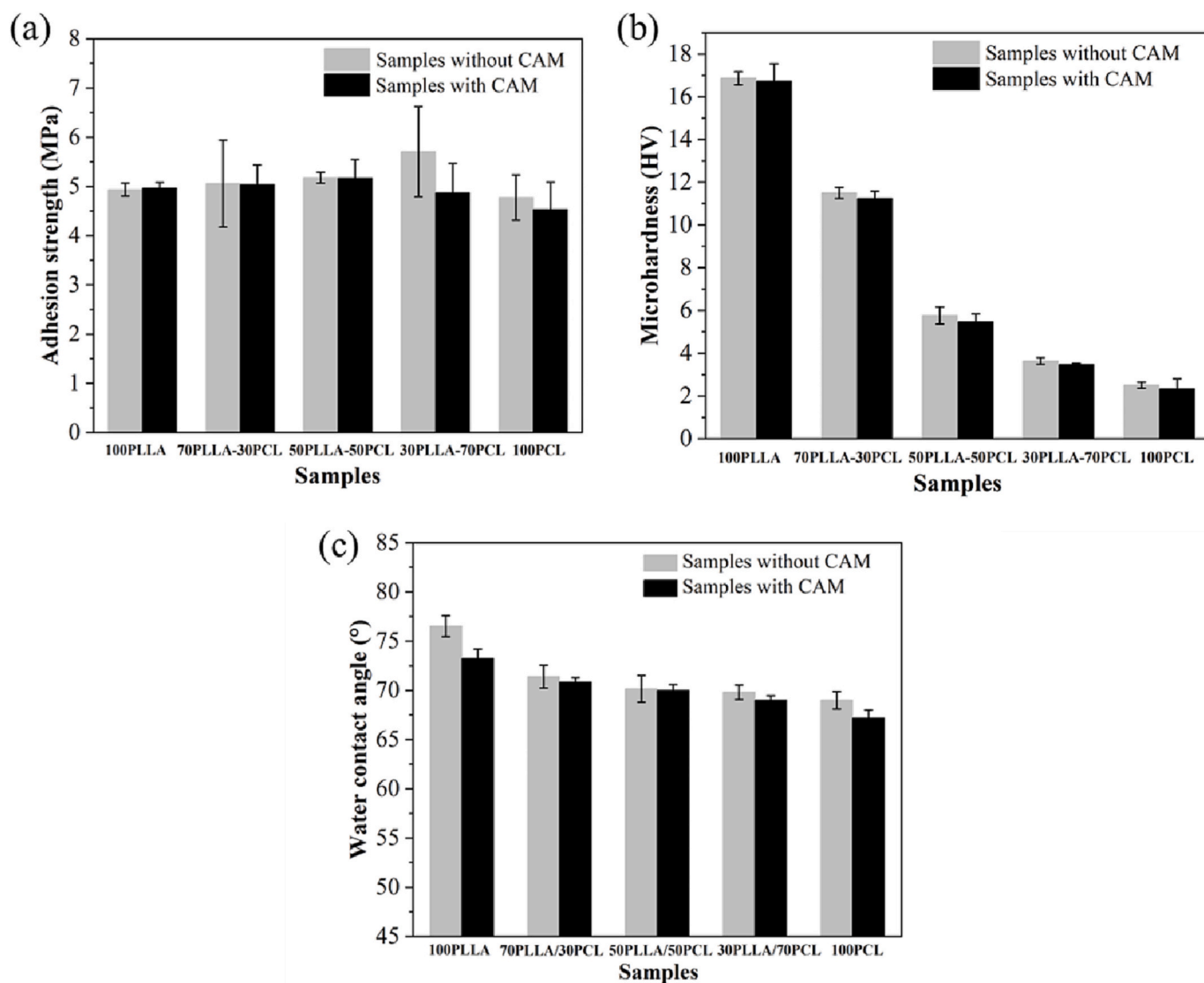


Fig. 4. (a) Adhesion strength, (b) Microhardness data and (c) Water contact angle of the drug-free and drug-loaded PLLA-PCL composite coatings with different ratio.

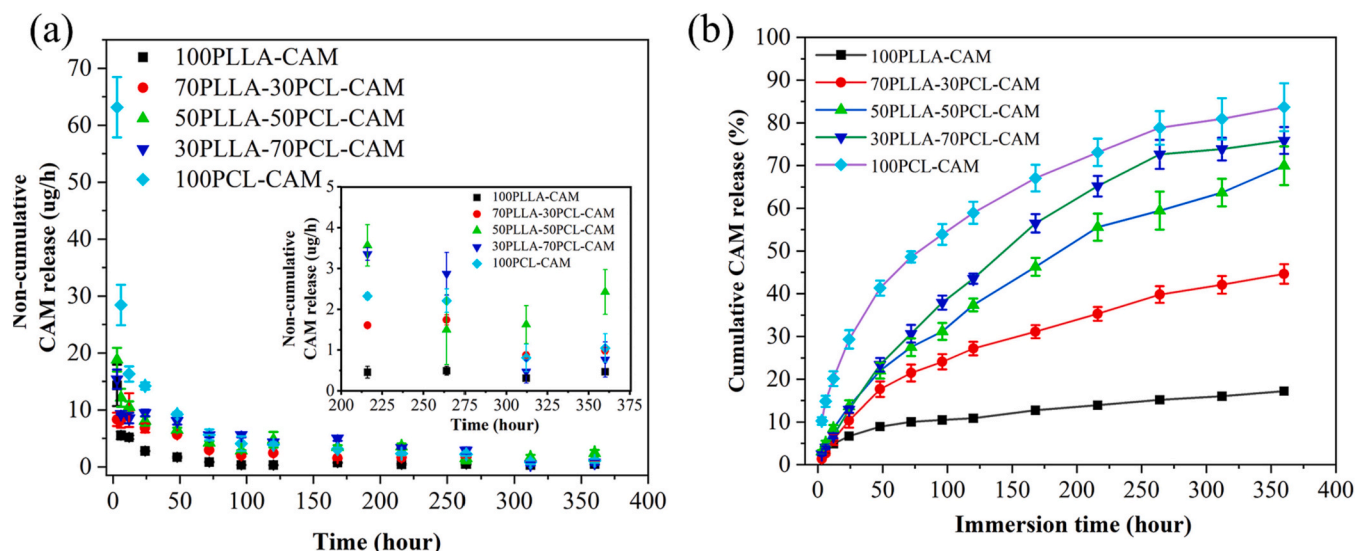
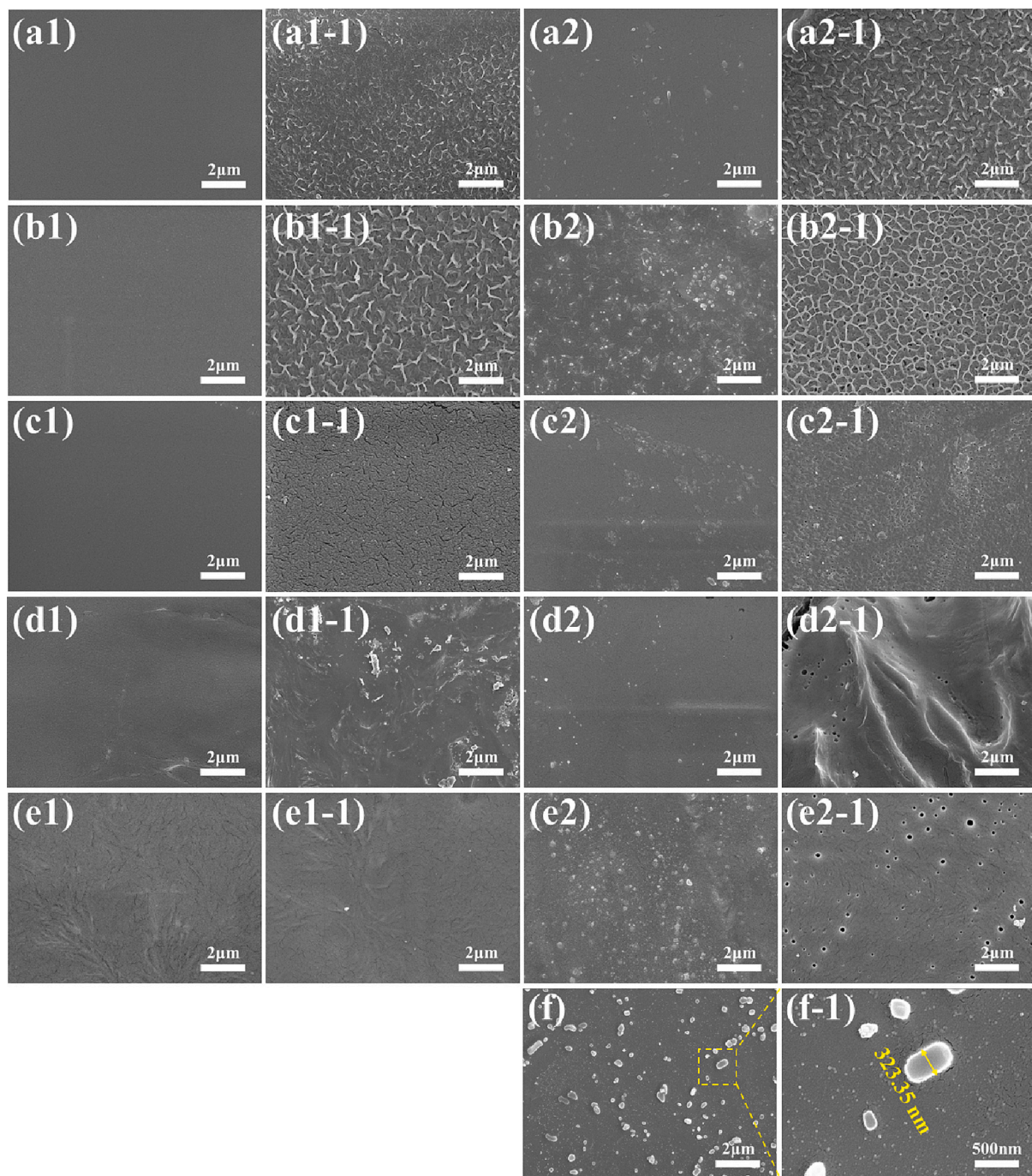


Fig. 5. The non-cumulative (a) and cumulative (b) release behaviors of CAM from the composite coatings.





**Fig. 6.** Surface morphologies of the CAM-free coatings and the CAM-containing coatings with different ratios exposed to the PBS solution after 0 day and 15 days, (a1, b1, c1, d1, e1) 100PLLA, 30PLLA-70PCL, 50PLLA-50PCL, 30PLLA-70PCL and 100PCL coating, (a2, b2, c2, d2, e2) 100PLLA-CAM, 30PLLA-70PCL-CAM, 50PLLA-50PCL-CAM, 30PLLA-70PCL-CAM and 100PCL-CAM coating after 0 day and (-1) after 15 days release testing in PBS; (f, f-1) SEM pictures showing the CAM particles after evaporation on silicone plate.

between PLLA and PCL, thus immiscible characteristics [67]. EDS detection shows presence of Cl within the CAM-loaded coating (Fig. 3(f-2, i-2, j-2, k-2, l-2)), suggesting well dispersion of the drug CAM inside.

The adhesion and microhardness of the drug-free and drug-loaded PLLA-PCL composite coatings were studied and shown in Fig. 4. It can be seen that there is no significant difference in adhesion among the drug-free and drug-loaded coatings, suggesting excellent consistence of the flame spray process (Fig. 4(a)). Fig. 4(b) shows the microhardness of the PLLA coating, PCL coating and the composite system. It is obvious that the microhardness of the PLLA coatings was much higher than that of the PCL coating, and the microhardness of the PLLA-PCL composite

coatings decreased with the content of PCL. In addition, the incorporation of drugs did not result in significant change in the microhardness compared with the drug-free counterparts. Surface wettability of the coatings was further assessed using the sessile drop method, since it participates in regulating interaction of the coatings with microorganisms contacting their surfaces [74]. The water contact angle values of the coatings with/without CAM are presented in Fig. 4(c). The contact angle is  $76.52^\circ \pm 1.08^\circ$  for the PLLA coating and  $73.22^\circ \pm 0.99^\circ$  for the PLLA-CAM coating. This is not surprising since CAM is hydrophilic in nature. The wettability values are consistent with other studies on poly (L-lactide) [75,76]. The slight changes in wettability caused by the

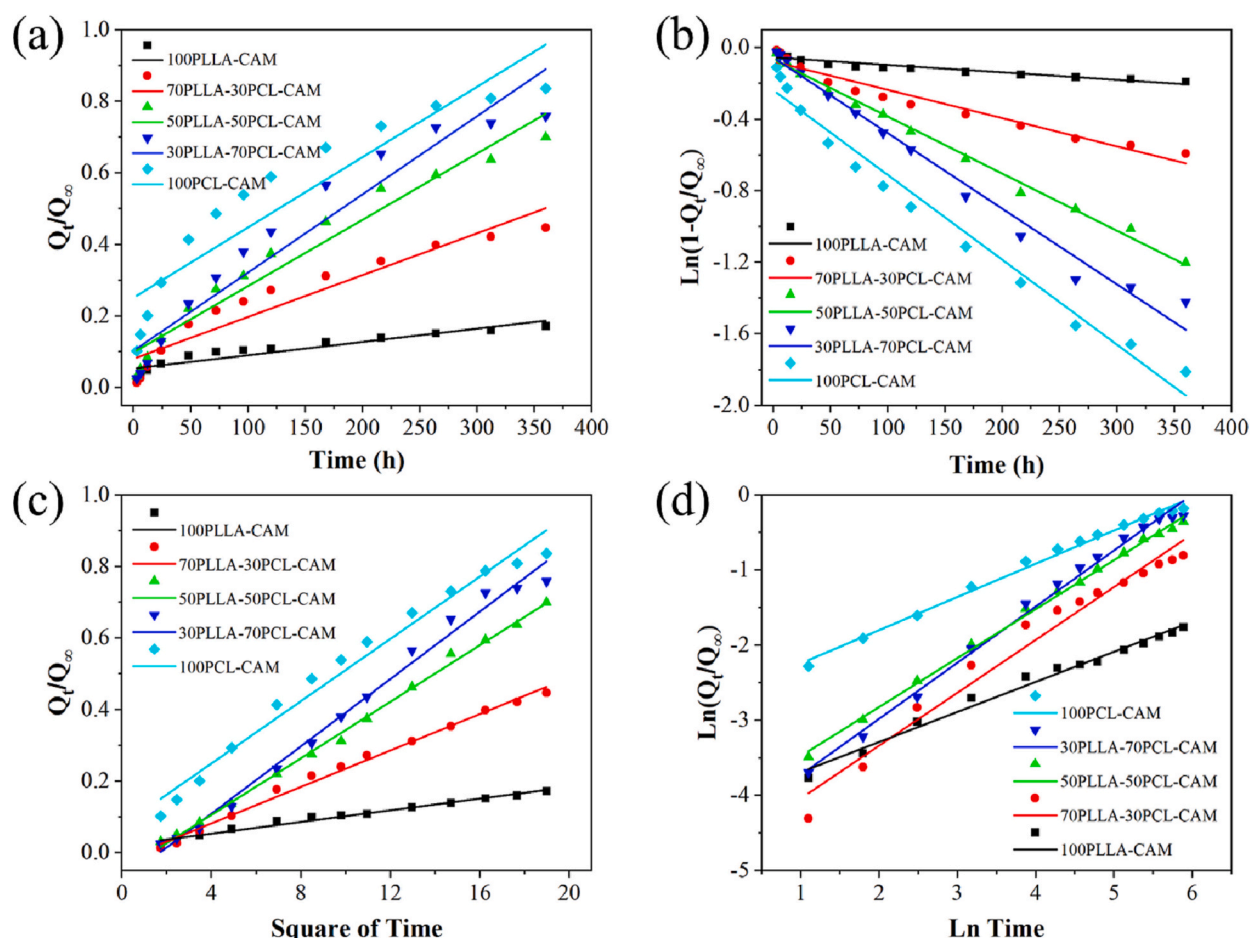


Fig. 7. Characteristics of the drug release behaviors of the CAM-containing coatings by applying the Zero-order model (a), the first-order model (b), the Higuchi model (c), and the Korsmeyer-Peppas model (d).

addition of CAM would be beneficial to prevent non-specified protein adsorption and platelet adhesion [77].

The drug release behaviors of the fabricated coatings were then analyzed. As shown in Fig. 5(a), all the coatings showed quick release of CAM at the starting hours, which is likely due to its extensive concentration gradient on their surfaces, and then sustained slow release over the duration of the experiment. The sample without PCL, i.e. 100PLLA-CAM, showed the minimum CAM release and the amount of released CAM increased with the increase of PCL content in the coating. It can be seen from Fig. 5(b) that  $6.71 \pm 0.60\%$ ,  $10.34 \pm 1.67\%$ ,  $13.63 \pm 1.41\%$ ,  $12.92 \pm 0.75\%$  and  $29.35 \pm 2.15\%$  of CAM were released at 100PLLA-CAM, 70PLLA-30PCL-CAM, 50PLLA-50PCL-CAM, 30PLLA-70PCL-CAM and 100PCL-CAM coating, respectively, in one day. The release of CAM from the PLLA-CAM coating is significantly slower than that of the PCL-CAM coating during the whole release time. This is presumably because the PLLA-CAM coating has more pronounced

hydrophobic structure owing to the presence of larger aliphatic hydrocarbon chains. The PCL-CAM coating with hydrophilicity and porous structure showed remarkably fast releasing of CAM. As shown in above DSC analysis (Fig. 2(f)), PCL is a semi-crystalline polymer with a  $T_g$  of  $-47.28^\circ\text{C}$  while PLLA is an amorphous polymer with a  $T_g$  of  $44.13^\circ\text{C}$ . The PCL backbone chain is presumed to be in a highly flexible state at  $37^\circ\text{C}$  and therefore free volume can well swell well and releases drug relatively easily. On the contrary, the entanglement of the molecular chains makes the movement of the PLLA chains difficult, which limits the drug release rate. The release performance of PLLA-PCL-CAM composite coatings can be ascribed to the combined effect of PLLA and PCL polymer. Our finding is consistent with the release profiles of naproxen sodium from electrospun-aligned PLLA-PCL scaffolds reported by Lui et al. [78].

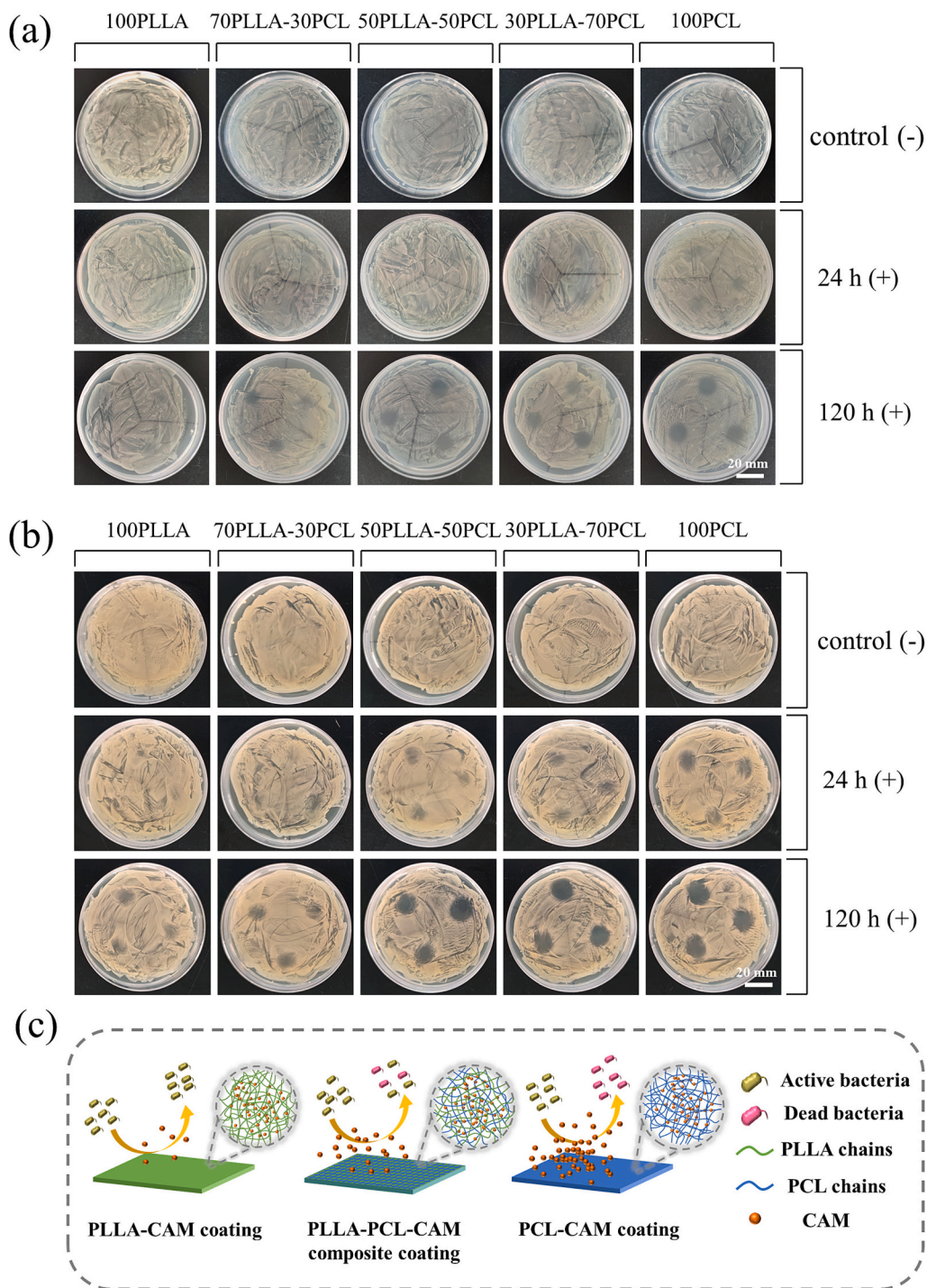
To further understand the release behaviors of CAM, surface morphologies of the drug-free and drug-loaded coatings with different ratio

Table 3

The variables calculated from the release kinetics of CAM.

Samples		100PLLA-CAM	70PLLA-30PCL-CAM	50PLLA-50PCL-CAM	30PLLA-70PCL-CAM	100PCL-CAM
Zero-order model	$K_0$ ( $\times 10^{-4}$ )	3.72	11.70	18.50	21.90	19.70
	$R^2$	0.877	0.903	0.951	0.923	0.857
First-order model	$K_1$ ( $\times 10^{-3}$ )	-0.42	-1.58	-3.19	-4.23	-4.74
	$R^2$	0.893	0.946	0.993	0.981	0.975
Higuchi model	$K_{HI}$ ( $\times 10^{-2}$ )	0.815	2.55	3.95	4.71	4.35
	$R^2$	0.979	0.992	0.997	0.989	0.978
Korsmeyer-Peppas model	$K_{KP}$ ( $\times 10^{-2}$ )	1.68	1.58	1.62	1.14	6.80
	$R^2$	0.985	0.968	0.997	0.992	0.992
	n	0.400	0.703	0.652	0.747	0.442





**Fig. 8.** Digital images of inhibition zones created after pouring on agar plates with *E. coli* (a) and *S. aureus* (b) 10  $\mu$ L drops of the leachates obtained from PLLA-PCL composite coatings: (-) composite coating without CAM and (+) composite coating containing CAM. (c) Schematic diagram for drug release and antibacterial effect of different composite coatings.

of PLLA and PCL were characterized after 15 days incubation in PBS. The releasing of CAM from CAM-loaded coatings is clearly seen as evidenced by the pores located on their surfaces (Fig. 6). To confirm the fact that the pores were induced by CAM release, the size of the drug particles was characterized separately by SEM (Fig. 6(f, f-1)). CAM particles showed an irregular shape with the particle size of  $<323.35$  nm, which matches very well the size of the holes seen on the surfaces of the coatings after drug releasing. This nevertheless proves the continuous releasing of CAM from the coatings. Furthermore, it was noted that the surface-pore density of the CAM-loaded coatings with 100 % or 70 % PCL is higher

than that of the coatings with 50 % or 30 % PCL, this in turn suggests that the release of CAM can be tuned by adjusting the percentage of PCL in the PLLA-PCL composite coatings.

The dynamics data are fitted with four commonly used drug release models (Fig. 7(a-d)) and listed in Table 3. It is noted that for the 100PLLA-CAM and the 100PCL-CAM coatings, the drug release fitted the Korsmeyer-Peppas model with the highest linearity correlation coefficient ( $R^2 = 0.985, 0.992$ ). The release exponent  $n$  for both of them was  $\leq 0.45$ , suggesting the drug release mechanism to follow Fick's laws of diffusion. However, changing the polymer mass ratios of the PLLA and



PCL in the composite coatings also altered the release kinetics. The drug release of the 70PLLA-30PCL-CAM coating was best interpreted by the Higuchi's equation ( $R^2 = 0.992$ ), indicating that the drug diffused from the insoluble matrix to the solution at a relatively slower rate. On the contrary, the drug release of the 30PLLA-70PCL-CAM coating fits the Korsmeyer-Peppas model with an  $R^2$  value of 0.992. Moreover, the 50PLLA-50PCL-CAM coating agrees well with both the Higuchi model and Korsmeyer-Peppas model with a same  $R^2$  value of 0.997, further confirming the transition of release mechanism as increasing PCL content in the composite coatings. Furthermore, the release exponent  $n$  for the 50PLLA-50PCL-CAM and the 30PLLA-70PCL-CAM coatings were higher than 0.45, indicating combined release regimes of erosion and diffusion, named non-Fickian transport. Interestingly, the releasing of drugs from polymer mixtures produced by various fabrication techniques usually follows a specific model and does not show the transition process between release mechanisms. Li et al. [19] reported the Korsmeyer-Peppas model of the drug release from a series of ultrasonic sprayed PDLLA-PLCL blend films with different ratios of PLCL. Liu et al. [79] found that the release curve of CPFX-PCL-PGA coatings conforms to the Ritger-Peppas model. Nevertheless, the release model of our PLLA-PCL-CAM coatings deposited by flame spraying exhibits the features of the initial Korsmeyer-Peppas model, subsequently Higuchi model, and then Korsmeyer-Peppas model, depending on the content of PCL in the coatings. This on the other hand suggests the controllable manner of the drug release, which can be achieved by altering the relative content of PCL in the PLLA-PCL-CAM coatings. These results make it possible that by taking into account the relevant pharmaceutical requirement, such as the maximum release rate and the dissolution efficiency of drugs [80], drug-loaded composite coating formulation can be easily designed. Our findings are inspiring since by using the flame spray processing route, the PLLA-PCL composite coatings offer potential options to design the drug delivery systems with different drug release mechanisms through altering the percentages of either PLLA or PCL in the starting powder.

The ultimate purpose of tailoring the structure of the CAM-containing polymer coatings was to accomplish long-term bactericidal performances. Their anti-microbial performances were assessed using the bacteria *E. coli* and *S. aureus* (Fig. 8). The CAM-free PLLA-PCL coatings were used as the negative control and no inhibition activity against the bacteria was observed. For the CAM-containing coatings, it is notable that their antibacterial activities clearly increase with the content of PCL in composite coatings, and elongated incubation triggered enhanced antibacterial performances for all the CAM-containing coatings. This agrees well with our previous testing result that continuous release of CAM from the coatings with different speed was detected (Fig. 5). These on the other hand imply the feasibility of regulating the release rate of CAM through altering the concentration of PCL in the PLLA - PCL composite coatings. As shown in Fig. 8(c), the release of CAM in a controllable manner from the PLLA-PCL composite coatings gives encouraging insight into design and construction of polymer coatings for long-term antibacterial applications.

#### 4. Conclusions

The PLLA-PCL-CAM composite coatings were successfully fabricated by flame spray technique. The *in vitro* release profiles of CAM from PLLA-PCL composite coatings with different ratios of PCL showed significant dependence of the release behaviors on the content of PCL in the coatings. The physicochemical features of the PLLA-PCL composite coatings were not affected by the addition of the drug. The CAM release data were better fitted with the Higuchi and the Korsmeyer-Peppas models, and the drug release followed the Fick's laws of diffusion in the PLLA-CAM composite coating and the PCL-CAM composite coating. The 70PLLA-30PCL-CAM coating followed the Higuchi model, and the release of CAM was closely related to the drug diffusion distance. The 50PLLA-50PCL-CAM coating well fitted both the Higuchi model and the Korsmeyer-Peppas model, and for the 30PLLA-70PCL-CAM coating,

drug release was controlled by anomalous diffusion mechanism. Modulation of the drug release can be achieved by altering the ratio of PLLA to PCL in the composites. The agar diffusion test against *E. coli* and *S. aureus* further suggested that CAM can be released in a controllable way from the PLLA-PCL composite coatings through changing the content of PCL. Our results shed light on potential applications of the flame sprayed drug-loaded coatings for their cost-efficiency, ease of large-scale coating fabrication, and controllable drug release behaviors.

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.porgcoat.2023.107807>.

#### CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Yonghong Pan:** Methodology, Investigation, Writing – original draft, Software. **Daofeng Zhou:** Investigation. **Tingting Cui:** Methodology, Investigation. **Yu Zhang:** Software. **Lei Ye:** Investigation. **Ye Tian:** Methodology, Investigation. **Ping Zhou:** Software. **Yi Liu:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Hidetoshi Saitoh:** Writing – review & editing. **Botao Zhang:** Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition. **Hua Li:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition.

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

#### Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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