

## Novel Approaches for Lipid Based Drug Delivery System: An Updated Review

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### **Abstract**

In designing a new drug, considering the preferred route of administration, various requirements must be fulfilled. Active molecules pharmacokinetics should be reliable with a valuable drug profile as well as well-tolerated. Associated with the old/traditional of method of drug delivery are several limitation ranging from first-pass effect, low tolerance, minimal bioavailability, fluctuation of plasma drug concentration which result to less or no desired effect produced. This call for the demand for a more efficient drug administration technique. Over the past 20 years, nanotechnologies have provided alternative and complementary solutions to those of an exclusively pharmaceutical chemical nature since scientists and clinicians invested in the optimization of materials and methods capable of regulating effective drug delivery at the nanometer scale.

Among the many drug delivery carriers, lipid nano vesicular ones successfully support clinical candidates approaching such problems as insolubility, biodegradation, and difficulty in overcoming the skin and biological barriers such as the blood-brain one. In this review, the authors discussed the structure, the biochemical composition, and the drug delivery applications of lipid nanovesicular carriers, namely, niosomes, proniosomes, ethosomes, transferosomes, pharmacosomes, ufasomes, phytosomes, catanionic vesicles, and extracellular vesicles.

**Keywords:** lipid vesicles, biocompatible, biodegradable, bioavailability, lipidsniosomes, proniosomes, ethosomes, transferosomes, pharmacosomes, ufasomes, phytosomes, extracellular vesicles

### **Introduction**

Drug delivery technique utilizes elegant chemical substances capable of crossing different animal system barriers to deliver a drug compound to a target tissue or cell in order to produce a needed therapeutic effect. The popular techniques for drug delivery follows the traditional means of administering drugs which includes; oral delivery, submucosal (tissues having mucosal lining such as mouth, anus, vagina, nose etc.) topical and intramuscular. Dosing is preferred in the conventional delivery method as it enhance immediate release (IR) as soon as it get into systemic circulation [1].

Treatment related factors ranging from rate of drug administration and target site delivery as well as time frame of drug treatment have all been devised and improved for the past two decades.

### **General Routes of DDS**

1. Through the vein (Intravenous)
2. Via anus (Rectal)
3. Under skin (Subcutaneous)
4. Administered in the muscles (Intramuscular)
5. Under the tongue or between cheeks (Sublingual/ buccal)

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Associated with the old system of drug delivery are several limitations ranging from first-pass effect, low tolerance, minimal bioavailability, fluctuation of plasma drug concentration which result to less or no desired effect produced. Hence, these call for innovative means for drug delivering techniques to match current medical challenges.

In these modern days, many significant efforts have been applied to use the potentials of lipid-based drug delivery systems, as it provides the suitable means of site specific as well as time controlled delivery of drugs with different molecular weight, either small or large, and also the bioactive agents [1, 2]. Poorly water-soluble drugs are challenging for the formulation scientists with regard to solubility and bioavailability. Lipid-based drug delivery systems (LBDDS) have shown the effective size dependent properties so they have attracted a lot of attention. Also LBDDS have taken the lead because of obvious advantages of higher degree of biocompatibility and versatility. These systems are commercially viable to formulate pharmaceuticals for topical, oral, pulmonary, or parenteral delivery. Lipid formulations can be

modified in various ways to meet a wide range of product requirements as per the disease condition, route of administration, and also cost product stability, toxicity, and efficacy. Lipid-based carriers are safe and efficient hence they have been proved to be attractive candidates for the formulation of pharmaceuticals, as well as vaccines, diagnostics, and nutraceuticals [3-5]. Hence, lipid-based drug delivery (LBDD) systems have gained much importance in the recent years due to their ability to improve

### Lipid Formulation Classification System

The lipid formulation classification system (LFC) was introduced as a working model in 2000 and an extra “type” offormulation was added in 2006 [6-8]. In recent years the LFCs have been discussed more widely within the pharmaceutical industry to seek a consensus which can be adopted as a framework for comparing the performance of lipid-based formulations. The main purpose of the LFCs is to enable *in vivo* studies to be interpreted more readily and subsequently to facilitate the identification of the most appropriate formulations for specific drugs, that is, with reference to their physiochemical properties [9-10].

**Table 1: The lipid formulation classification system: characteristic features, advantages, and disadvantages of the four essential types of “lipid” formulations**

Formulation Type	Material	Characteristics	Advantages
Type I	Oils without surfactants (e.g., tri-, di-, and monoglycerides)	Nondispersing requires digestion	Generally recognized as safe(GRAS) status; simple; and excellent capsule compatibility
Type II	Oils and water insoluble surfactants	SEDDS formed without water-soluble components	Unlikely to lose solvent capacity on dispersion
Type III	Oils, surfactants, and cosolvents ( both water-insoluble and water-soluble excipients)	SEDDS/SMEDDS formed with water-soluble components	Clear or almost clear dispersion, drug absorption without digestion
Type IV	Water-soluble surfactants andcosolvents	Formulation disperses typically to form a micellar solution	Formulation has good solvent capacity for many drugs

### Points to Be Considered for the Formulation

**Solubility:** While the lipids (fatty acid derivatives) are the core ingredient of the formulation, one or more surfactants, as well as perhaps a hydrophilic cosolvent, may be required

to aid solubilization and to improve dispersion properties. Surfactants are categorized by their hydrophilic-lipophilic balance (HLB) number, with a low value ( $\leq 10$ ) corresponding to greater lipophilicity and a higher value ( $\geq 10$ )

corresponding to higher hydrophilicity. As a guideline as a starting point for formulation design, most of the lipids used in these oral formulations have a known “required HLB” value (generally available from the vendors), which

corresponds to the optimal HLB for the surfactant blend necessary to emulsify the oil in water. Various emulsifiers can be used for the various formulations depending on their HLB values as depicted in Table [11–13].

**Table 2: Emulsifiers used in lipid-based formulations**

Common name/type	Examples
<b>Low HLB (&lt;10) emulsifier</b>	
Phosphatidylcholine and phosphatidylcholine/solvent mixtures	Phosphatidylcholine, phosphatidylcholine in propylene glycol, phosphatidylcholine in medium chain triglycerides, and phosphatidylcholine in safflower oil/ethanol
Unsaturated polyglycolized glycerides	Oleoyl macroglycerides, linoleoyl macroglycerides
Sorbitan esters	Sorbitan monooleate, sorbitan monostearate, sorbitan monolaurate, and sorbitan monopalmitate
<b>High HLB (&gt;10) emulsifier</b>	
Polyoxyethylene sorbitan esters	Polysorbate 20, polysorbate 40, polysorbate 60, and polysorbate 80
Polyoxyl castor oil derivatives Polyoxyethylene	Polyoxyl 35 castor oil, polyoxyl 40 hydrogenated castor oil
polyoxypropylene block copolymer	Poloxamer 188, poloxamer 407
Saturated polyglycolized glycerides	Lauroyl macroglycerides, stearoyl macroglycerides

### Dispersion:

Formulations that exhibits sufficient solubility of the drug candidate should be examined for emulsification and dispersion properties in aqueous vehicles. A preliminary screening can be carried out by microscopic observation of the formulation when mixed with water. Vigorous mixing, accompanied by diffusion and stranding mechanisms, occurring at the water/formulation interface is indicative of an efficient emulsification. Absence of drug precipitate after complete mixing of the formulation with aqueous medium is another requirement. Particle size measurement of emulsion droplets by laser light scattering or other techniques is useful to select promising formulations [12-13].

**Digestion:** The actions of intestinal lipases can have a profound effect on the behaviour of lipid-based formulations in the GI tract and must be considered in their design. It has long been recognized that nondispersible but digestible lipids such as triglycerides can be metabolized by lipases to mono-/diglycerides and fatty acids

which will emulsify any remaining oil. Thus, the presence of high amounts of surfactants may be unnecessary to assure creation of the requisite small particle sizes and large surface areas for drug release [14].

**Absorption:** Efficient absorption of the drug by the intestinal mucosal cells is of course the ultimate goal of any oral lipid-based formulation [13]. First the components are dispersed to form lipid droplets (for type I formulations) or emulsion droplets (for types II-III), followed by lipolysis and solubilization of the digestion products by bile acids, forming colloidal mixed micelles. It is believed that drug then partitions from the emulsion oil droplets and bile salt mixed micelles to be absorbed by the mucosal cells of the intestinal wall.

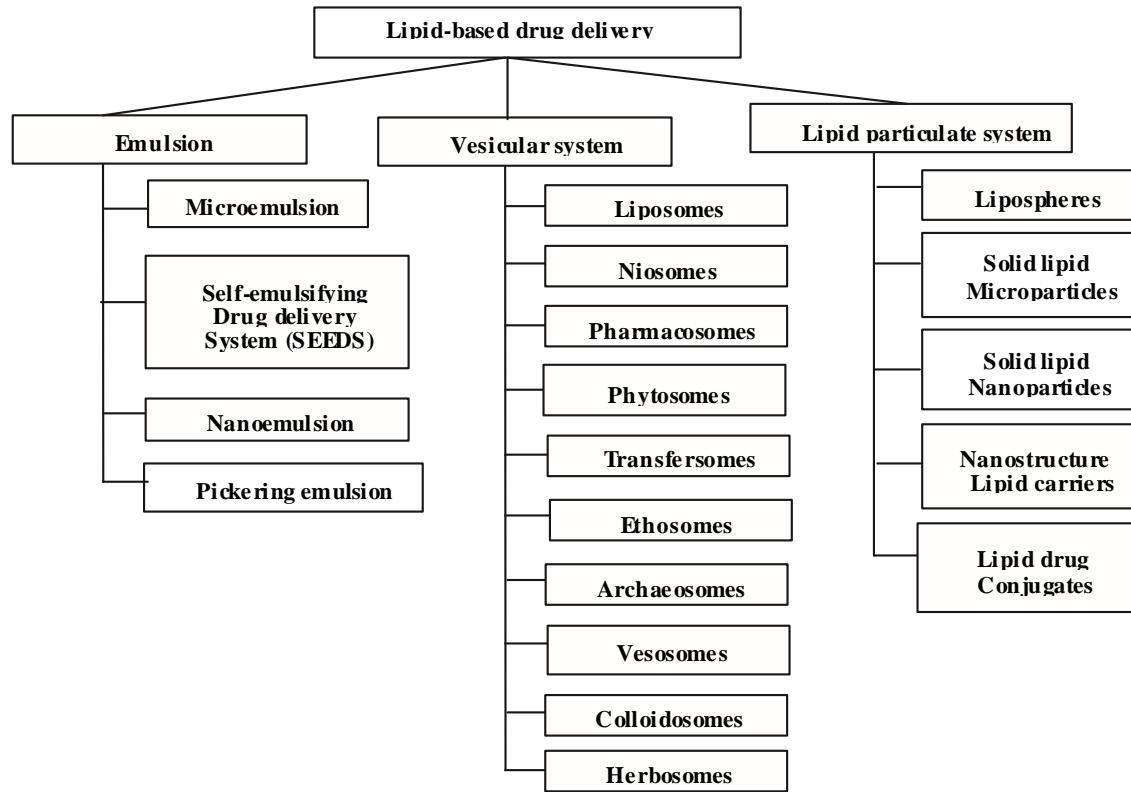
### Advantages of LBDDS [15]

- Drug release in controlled and targeted way.
- Pharmaceutical stability.
- High and enhanced drug content (compared to other carriers).

Feasibilities of carrying both lipophilic and hydrophilic drugs.

Biodegradable and biocompatible.

### Types of Lipid-Based Drug Delivery Systems [15]



### Various Lipid Based Drug Delivery System

**Micelles:** Micelles are therapeutic agent or a carrier to deliver a poorly water soluble drug having size of around 5-100 nm range. It consists of surfactants having a hydrophilic head and a lipophilic tail [14]. The drug is associated with the hydrophobic block of the co-polymer which is orientated toward the interior of the micelles while the hydrophilic blocks form an external shell. For applications by the oral route, pH-sensitive polymeric micelles are particularly interesting. These micelles are usually composed of block co-polymers with PEG as the hydrophilic part and a polymer derived from acrylic acid as the hydrophobic part. Such polymers self-aggregate at low pH, thus protecting an encapsulated drug in the acid environment of the stomach, but dissociate at higher pH to allow drug release in the intestine. One such polymer is the

PEG-bpoly(alkyl acrylate-co-methacrylic acid) [15].

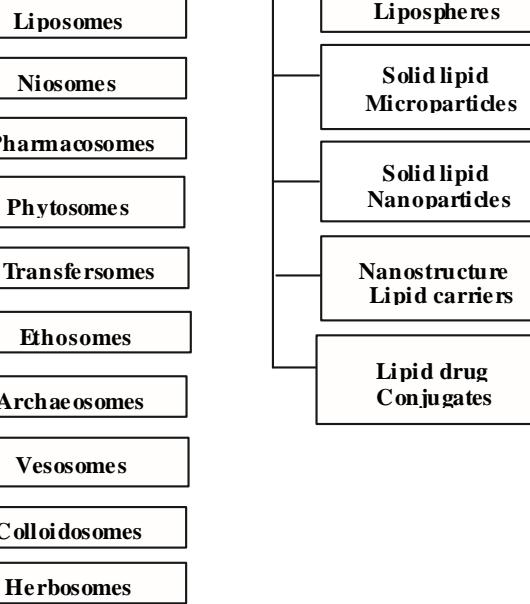
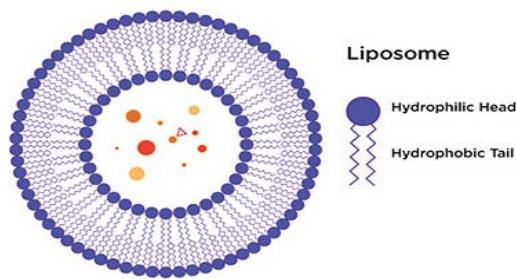


Figure 1: Micelle

**Liposome:** Liposomes are closed concentric bilayer membranes consisting of water-insoluble polar lipids. They are spherical vesicles (typically 50-500 nm in diameter), consisting of a lipid bilayer sustained through hydrophobic interactions that allow them to carry hydrophobic

and hydrophilic molecules [16]. The amphiphilic feature of liposomes explains why they are widely used to increase the penetration of hydrophilic molecules (in the aqueous core) and/or lipophilic molecules (within the membrane bilayer) [17]. They can encapsulate biomolecules and drugs for targeted delivery while protecting their bioactivity [18]. They are made up of phospholipids enclosing hydrophilic core [19] and were discovered by Bangham and co-workers in the 1960s [20]. A liposome surface decorated with PEG (PEGylated) can significantly improve the half-life of liposomes (>200 nm) in systemic circulation. Furthermore, the PEGylation approach can help to facilitate liposomal drug delivery by reducing multidrug resistance due to the over-expression of drug efflux transporter pumps such as P-glycoprotein [21]. Phospholipid vesicles demonstrate high biocompatibility, low toxicity, biodegradability, and can be produced on a large scale [22-23].



**Figure 2: Liposome**

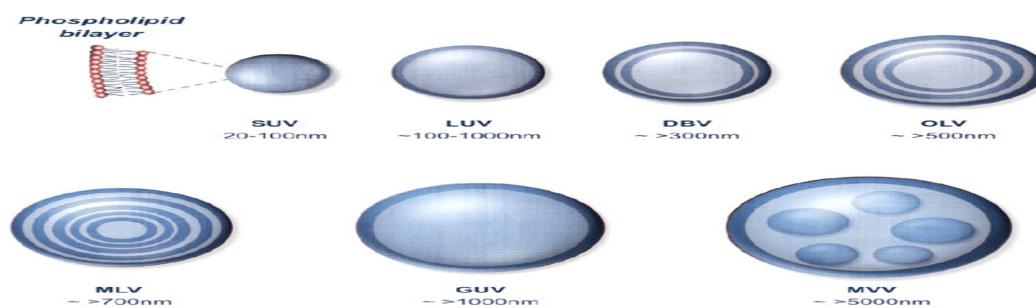
Cholesterol is sometimes added to the membranes of the liposomes for the purpose of increasing their stability and the rigidity of the lipid bilayer, reducing their permeability and inhibition of phospholipid acyl chain crystallization by modulating the bilayer fluidity. Phytosterols have been

recently used as a substitute of cholesterol in the formulation of liposomes since cholesterol may cause health problems especially for consumers who are suffering from hypercholesterolemia [24]. Alcohol and surfactant are added to liposomes to render them more elastic and transformable and flexible. They are composed of lipids and softeners (sodium cholate). This property of elasticity offers liposomes better skin permeation ability [25].

Liposomes have the ability to cross any cell membrane, the addition of other components to their surface to enhance their effectiveness is interesting in such a way, liposomes can include multiple brain cell membrane-targeting agents on their surface, enabling a specific interaction with target cells by molecular recognition mechanisms, and hence, improving the transport of the encapsulated Growth Factors through the BBB. RMP-7 is a molecule with the ability to increase the permeability of the BBB, when conjugated with liposomes enhances delivery of GFs [26].

Small-sized liposomes enhance transitivity, but large-sized liposomes show a higher cell affinity compared with smaller ones. It therefore appears that large particles have a higher retention [27].

**Classification of Liposomes:** Liposomes can be categorized into different groups depending on their structural association, size and lamellarity, small unilamellar vesicles (SUVs), large unilamellar vesicles (LUVs), double bilayer vesicles (DBVs), oligolamellar vesicles (OLVs), multi-lamellar vesicles (MLVs), giant unilamellar vesicles (GUVs), and multivesicular vesicles (MVV) [1,24,28].



**Figure 3: Different types of lipid vesicles**

**Transfersomes:** In order to overcome this inability of liposomes to permeate the skin, Cevc and Blume in the 1990s developed novel lipid vesicles known as deformable/elastic/flexible liposomes [17]. Transfersomes represent not only the first generation of ultra-deformable vesicles, but also one of the most successful carriers for skin delivery. The word Transfersome derives from the Latin word “transferre”, which means “to carry across”, and the Greek word “soma”, which means “body” [22].

Transfersomes are typically below 300 nm being more elastic and flexible than liposomes (typically five- eight times higher), which makes them highly suitable for skin penetration. They are mainly composed of phospholipids and edge activators. These edge activators interfere with the bilayer and confer ultra-flexibility to the vesicles which enhance their passage through small apertures of the skin. The concentration of the edge activator in the formulation (usually between 10-20 %) is crucial and ideally included in sub-lytic concentrations i.e. not able to cause destruction of vesicles [31-32]. Some widely used edge activators of Transfersomes are: Tween, deoxycholate, spans, sodium cholate. However, enhanced permeation is observed with monoterpenes as edge activator. Mixed monoterpenes (limonene-citral mixture) could significantly enhance the elasticity of Mixed Monoterpenes edge-activated PEGylated TFSs (MMPTs). CLSM analyses demonstrated that MMPTs were distributed in deep layers of the skin, indicating that MMPTs might transport deeper through the skin than conventional liposomes [32].

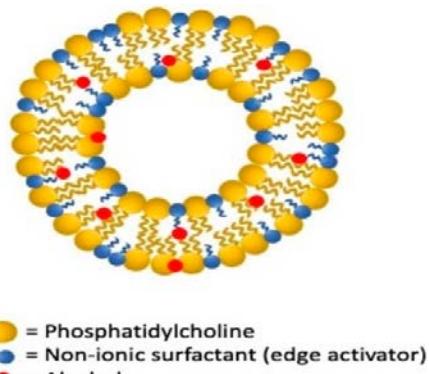


Figure 4: Transfersomes

**Ethosomes:** Similar to transfersomes, ethosomes can improve the penetration through the stratum corneum barrier due to a quick permeation and greater transdermal flow [33]. The second generation of novel vesicular drug carriers are represented by these spherical, lipid blisters mainly composed of phospholipids, ethanol and water. The high alcohol content of up to 45% is the main distinguishing feature from liposomes enabling a decrease in size and elasticity when same method of preparation is used. In order to reach deeper tissues and cause a systemic action the penetration of the natural skin barrier and the magnitude of transdermal permeation are influenced. Further adjuvants added to the ethosomal formulation are cholesterol to improve stability or gel markers for increased residence time [34].

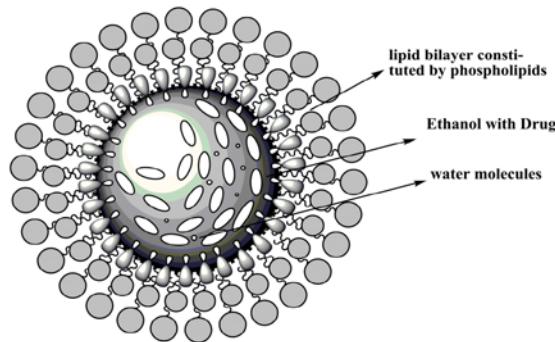
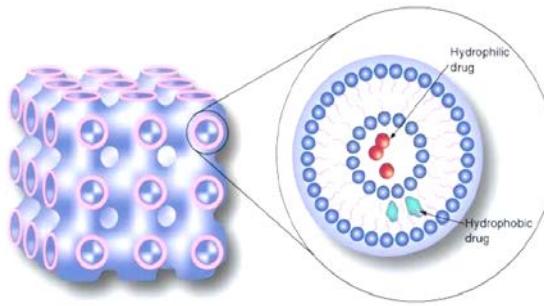


Figure 5: Ethosomes

**Cubosomes:** Cubosomes are nano-structures composed mainly of amphiphilic polar lipid. When this amphiphilic substance dissolved in water with concentration above the critical micelle concentration, it forms micellar aggregations. At higher concentration, the formed micelles are forced to form cubic structure [35].

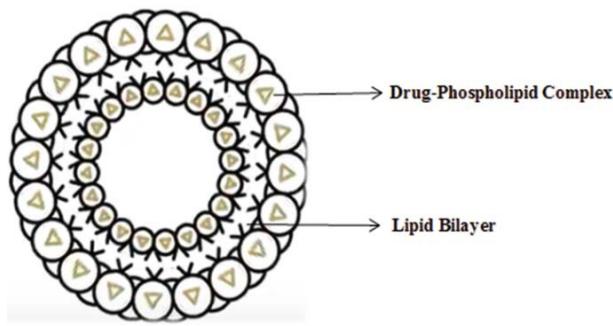
They are liquid crystalline particles in nano size range (100-300 nm), usually composed of lipid such as (Monoolein, and phytantriol) and with or without stabilizer/surfactant (Poloxamer 407) [36]. They are highly stable nanoparticles formed from the lipid cubic phase and stabilized by a polymer-based outer layer. The bicontinuous lipid cubic phases consist of a single lipid bilayer that folds in a tridimensional architecture forming a bicontinuous phase of lipid bilayered regions and aqueous channels [37]. The composition of the cubosome can be modified to control the

poresizes or to include specific types of lipids. Their outer polymer layer can be used to enhance targeting. They are highly stable forms under physiological conditions [38].



**Figure 5: Cubosomes**

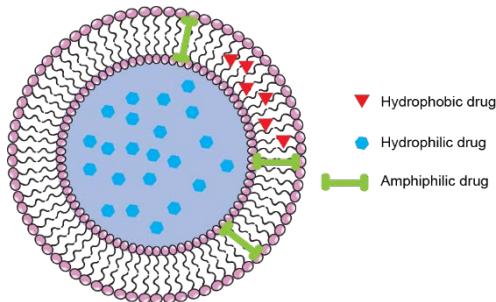
**Phytosome:** Phytosomes, also known as phytosomes, are complexes of natural bioactive materials (plant extracts or water soluble phytoconstituents) and phospholipids (phosphatidylcholine, phosphatidylethanolamine, and phosphatidylserine). In fact, there is no difference between phytosomes and liposomes. The former are liposomes loaded with phytocompounds and hence phytosomes are a special case of liposomes [34].



**Figure 6: Phytosome**

**Niosomes:** Niosomes have a multi-thin-layer vesicular structure and contain basically non-ionic surfactants, a hydration medium, and lipids such as cholesterol [38]. Niosomes are a hydrated mixture of cholesterol and nonionic surfactants such as alkyl-ether, esters, and amides. Also called non-ionic surfactant vesicles. They have great advantages, such as low cost, high stability, wide availability of nonionic surfactants, and mild

storage conditions. Niosomes are similar to liposomes but the bilayers are formed by non-ionic surfactants. Compared with liposomes, Niosomes have greater stability over a long period of time. Liposomes and Niosomes are notable to transport into deeper skin, but Ethosomes have the capability to reach the deep skin layer [28]. Niosomes have already conquered the cosmetic industry and are now being explored to determine the potential for further commercial applications [34].

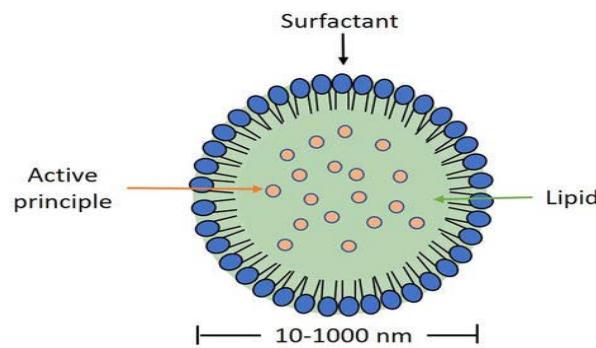


**Figure 7: Niosomes**

**Solid-Lipid Nanoparticles:** Solid lipid nanoparticles (SLNs) are lipid-based DDSs that represent an evolution of emulsions; the oil of the fat emulsion is replaced by solid lipids [40]. SLNs are formulated with lipids or lipid mixtures which are in a solid state at room and also at body temperature [41]. Their solid lipid core provides the opportunity for solubilizing essential oils (stearic acid and palmitic acid; triglycerides, such as tristearin and tripalmitin; partial glycerides, such as glyceryl behenate and glyceryl palmitostearate;) and protect them against degradation [24]. These EOs are physiological substances which are classified as "Generally Recognized as Safe" (GRAS) category [41]. Compritol® 888ATO, Precirol® ATO5, cetyl alcohol, cetyl palmitate, glycerylmonostearate, trimyristin/Dynasan® 114, tristearin/Dynasan® 118, stearic acid, Imwitor® 900 are brand names used in formulation of SLNs [42].

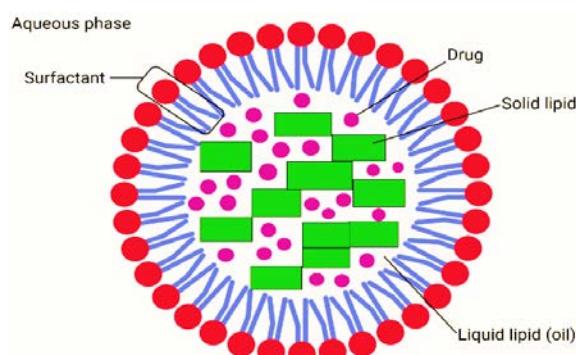
SLNs (around 10 to 200 nm) and narrow size range (100 to 200 nm) permits them to cross tight endothelial cells of the blood-brain-barrier (BBB) also in the digestion. It escapes from the reticuloendothelial system and bypass the liver [43]. The average diameter of SLNs is in the submicron range from 50 to 1000 nm.

SLNs formulations for various application routes have been developed such as parenteral, oral, dermal, ocular, pulmonary, and rectal and systematically also characterized in in-vitro and in-vivo studies [43].



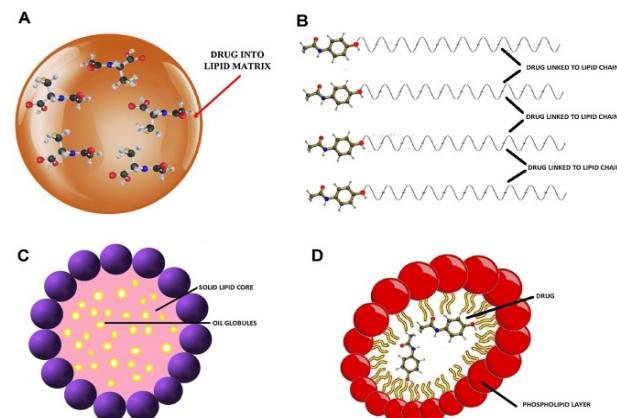
**Figure 8: Solid-Lipid Nanoparticles**

**Nanostructured Lipid Carriers:** NLCs are considered to be an upgraded version of SLNs, where the compact arrangement of the uniformly structured solid lipids has been replaced with an unstructured lipid matrix established by blending both solid and liquid lipids, which eventually provide more space for loading drug candidates [45]. NLCs offer special advantages: sustained release, good biocompatibility and biodegradable properties [46]. The development of a nanoparticulate lipid carrier with a certain nanostructure in order to increase the payload and prevent drug expulsion [47]. This could be comprehended in three ways: (1) the imperfect type, (2) the multiple type, and (3) the amorphous type [48-49].



**Figure 9: Nanostructured Lipid Carriers**

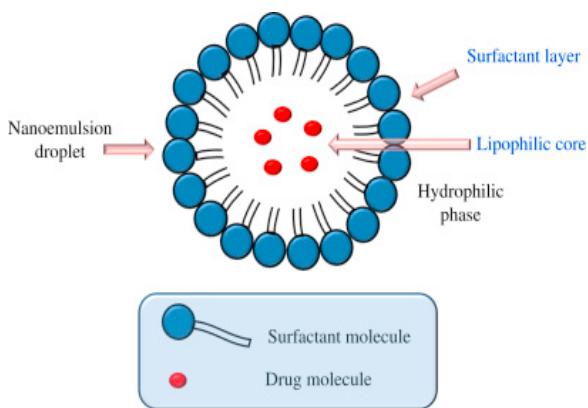
**Lipid Drug Conjugates (LDC):** SLN are useful for the incorporation of lipophilic drugs. Due to partitioning effects during the production process, only highly potent hydrophilic drugs which are effective in low concentrations (e.g. LHRH or EPO) can be firmly incorporated in the solid lipid matrix. In order to overcome this limitation, the so-called LDC nanoparticles with drug loading capacities of up to 33% have been developed at the turn of the millennium. Here, an insoluble drug-lipid conjugate bulk is prepared either by salt formation with a fatty acid, i.e. lipid drug bioconjugates through grafting of the carboxylic groups of the fatty acids (e.g., stearic acid, oleic acid) with the functional groups (e.g., amine group) of drug molecules or by covalent linking (e.g. to esters or ethers). In the salt formation process, the free drug base and fatty acid are dissolved in a suitable solvent. The solvent is then consequently evaporated under reduced pressure. For the covalent linking, the drug (salt) and a fatty alcohol react in presence of a catalyst and the LDC bulk is then purified by recrystallization [42, 47].



**Figure 10: Lipid Drug Conjugates**

**Nanoemulsions:** Nanoemulsions are fine emulsions, either water in oil or oil in water, prepared by using two immiscible phases, with the help of one or more suitable surfactants. The range of the droplet size of these forms varies approximately between a few to 200 nanometers, which makes them appear in a transparent-to-milky-white appearance to the naked eye [38]. These novel formulations enhance drug delivery when given orally, parenterally and dermally. In contrast to microemulsions, nanoemulsions diluted with water remain stable

without changing the droplet size distribution; this stability is influenced by changes in temperature and pH[21]. Lesser toxic formulation, kinetically stable systems, targeting applications, and aesthetic features forced the pharmaceutical researcher to work on nano-emulsion [50].



### Figure 11: Nanoemulsion Self-Emulsifying Drug Delivery System (SEDDS):

**(SEDDS):** In 1943, Hoar and Schulman hypothesized the existence of microscopic emulsion-like structures in a transparent mixture of oil, alcohol, water and a cationic surfactant. About fifteen years later, the presence in these systems of small emulsion like structures was confirmed by electron microscopy and coined the term “Microemulsion” to define a system consisting of water, oil and surfactants, which is a transparent, optically isotropic and thermodynamic stable Newtonian non-viscous liquid [51].

A readily dispersible isotropic mixture of oil, drug, surfactant, and co-surfactant, which forms an oil-in-water emulsion with a droplet size below 1000nm in the presence of agitation, is called a selfmicro/nanoemulsifying drug-delivery system[52]. Self-emulsifying drug-delivery systems(SEDDSS) enhance the bioavailability of APIs with low water solubility. SMEDDSs(microemulsifying) are different from SNEDDSs(nanoemulsifying) only in terms of droplet size. Compared with SMEDDSs, SNEDDSs are more effective in enhancement of bioavailability because of the high interface surface area for drug absorption due to the nanosized droplets. All components reach the GIT, which provides a suitable environment for the emulsification process, whereas preparations of

SLNs, NLCs, and liposomes need external energy. Different parameters affect the SEDDS properties such as size, bioavailability, and drug release [28].

### Formulation Approaches for LBDDS

**Spray Congealing.** This is also referred to as spray cooling. In this method, molten lipid is sprayed into a cooling chamber and, on contact with the cool air, congeals into spherical solid particles. The solid particles are collected from the bottom of the chamber, which can be filled into hard gelatin capsules or compressed into tablets. Ultrasonic atomizers are frequently used to produce solid particles in this spray cooling process. The parameters to be considered are the melting point of the excipient, the viscosity of the formulation, and the cooling air temperature inside the chamber to allow instant solidification of the droplets.

**Spray Drying.** This method is somewhat similar to preceding one but differs in the temperature of the air inside the atomizing chamber. In this method, the drug solution(drug in organic solution/water) is sprayed into a hot air chamber, where the organic solvent or water evaporates giving rise to solid microparticles of drug. During this process, along with the lipid excipients, solid carriers like silicon dioxide can be used. Gelucire (lipid excipient) enhances the drug release process by forming hydrogen bonds with the active substance, leading to the formation of stable solids of amorphous drug in microparticles [17, 18].

**Adsorption onto Solid Carrier.** This is a simple and economical process (in the context of equipment investment) in which a liquid-lipid formulation is adsorbed onto solid carrier like silicon dioxide, calcium silicate, or magnesium alumina metasilicate. The liquid-lipid formulation is added to the carrier by mixing in a blender. The carrier must be selected such that it must have greater ability to adsorb the liquid formulation and must have good flow property after adsorption. Gentamicin and erythropoietin with caprylocaproyl polyoxylglycerides (Labrasols) formulations were successfully converted into solid intermediates whose bioavailability was maintained even after adsorption on carriers. Advantages of this method include good content uniformity and high lipid exposure [19–21].

**Melt Granulation.** This is also referred to as pelletization, which transforms a powder mix (with drug) into granules or pellets [22–24]. In this method a melt able binder (molten state) is sprayed onto the powder mix in presence of high shear mixing. This process can be referred to as a “pump on” technique. Alternatively, the melt able binder is blended with powder mix and, due to the friction of particles (solid/semisolid) during the high-shear mixing, the binder melts. The melted binder forms liquid bridges between powder particles and forms small granules which transform into spheronized pellets under controlled conditions. Depending on the fineness of the powder, 15%–25% of the lipid-based binder can be used. The parameters to be considered during the process are binder particle size, mixing time, impellers speed, and viscosity of the binder on melting [25]. The dissolution rate of diazepam was enhanced by formulating melt agglomerates containing solid dispersions of diazepam [26–27].

**Supercritical Fluid-Based Method.** This method uses lipids for coating drug particles to produce solid dispersions. In this method, the drug and lipid-based excipients are dissolved in an organic solvent and supercritical fluid (carbon dioxide) by elevating the temperature and pressure [28, 29]. The coating process is facilitated by a gradual reduction in pressure and temperature in order to reduce the solubility of the coating material in the fluid and hence precipitate onto the drug particles to form a coating [30, 31]. The solubility of the formulation components in the supercritical fluid and stability of the substance during the process are important considerations of this method [32].

#### **Characterization of Lipid-Based Drug Delivery Systems**

**Appearance.** The appearance can be checked in graduated glass cylinder or transparent glass container for its uniformity and colour at equilibrium [33].

**Color, Odor, and Taste.** These characteristics are especially important in orally administered formulation. Variations in taste, especially of active constituents, can often be accredited to changes in particle size, crystal habit, and subsequent particle dissolution. Changes in color, odor, and taste can also indicate chemical instability [34].

**Density.** Specific gravity or density of the formulation is an essential parameter. A decrease in density often indicates the entrapment air within the structure of the formulation. Density measurements at a given temperature can be made using high precision hydrometers [34].

**pH Value.** The pH value of aqueous formulation should be taken at a given temperature using pH meter and only after settling equilibrium has been reached, to minimize “pH drift” and electrode surface coating with suspended particles. Electrolyte should not be added to the external phase of the formulation to stabilize the pH, because neutral electrolytes disturb the physical stability of the suspension [34].

**Self-Dispersion and Sizing of Dispersions.** Assessment of the dispersion rate and resultant particle size of lipid-based systems is desirable so attention has been given to measuring dispersion rate. The particle size measurement can be performed by optical microscope using a compound microscope for the particles with measurement within microns. Particle size analyzer can be used for the measurement of the particle size.

**Droplet Size and Surface Charge (Zeta Potential).** The droplet size distribution of microemulsion vesicles can be determined by either electron microscopy or light-scattering technique. The dynamic light-scattering measurements are taken at 90° in a dynamic light-scattering spectrophotometer which uses a neon laser of wavelength 632 nm. The data processing is done in the built-in computer with the instrument. Recently, with respect to the importance of particle size distribution in terms of particle characterization and product physical stability testing, there has been interest in newer light-scattering methods for particle detection called photon correlation spectroscopy (PCS). The surface charge is determined using a zeta potential analyzer by measuring the zeta potential (ZP) of the preparations. ZP characterizes the surface charge of particles and thus it gives information about repulsive forces between particles and droplets. To obtain stable nanoemulsions by preventing flocculation and coalescence of the Nano droplets, ZP should typically reach a value above 30 mV [34].

**Viscosity Measurement.** Brookfield type rotary viscometer can be used to measure the viscosity of lipid-based formulations of several compositions at different shear rates at different temperatures. The samples for the measurement are to be immersed in it before testing and the sample temperature must be maintained at  $37 \pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$  by a thermo bath. The viscometer should be properly calibrated to measure the apparent viscosity of the suspension at equilibrium at a given temperature to establish suspension reproducibility. Apparent viscosity, like pH, is an exponential term, and therefore the log-apparent viscosity is a suitable way of reporting the results [34].

**In-Vitro Studies.** In vitro evaluation of lipid-based drug delivery systems can be done with the use of lipid digestion models. In order to assess the performance of an excipient during formulation development and to predict in vivo performance, it is necessary to design an in vitro dissolution testing method. This can be termed as "simulated lipolysis release testing" [35]. The basic principle on which this system works requires maintaining a constant pH during a reaction which releases or consumes hydrogen ions. If any deviation is found, it is compensated by the reagent addition. The model consists of a temperature-controlled vessel ( $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ ), which contains a model intestinal fluid, composed of digestion buffer, bile salt (BS), and phospholipid (PL). Into this model a lipid-based formulation is added and to initiate the digestion process pancreatic lipase and colipase were added. As the digestion process starts it results in the liberation of fatty acids, causing a transient drop in pH. This drop in pH is quantified by a pH electrode. The pH electrode is coupled with a pH-stat meter controller and auto burette. An equimolar quantity of sodium hydroxide is added to titrate the liberated fatty acids by the auto burette, so as to prevent a change in pH of the digestion medium from a preset pH value. By quantifying the rate of sodium hydroxide addition and considering the stoichiometric relationship between fatty acids and sodium hydroxide, the extent of digestion can be quantized. During the digestion process, samples can be withdrawn and separated into a poorly dispersed oil phase, highly dispersed aqueous phase, and precipitated pellet phase by

centrifugation. Quantification of drug in the highly dispersed aqueous phase indicates that drug has not precipitated, from which an assumption can be made with respect to in vivo performance of the lipid-based formulation.

**In Vivo Studies.** The impact of excipients on the bioavailability and pharmacokinetic profile of drugs can be estimated by designing appropriate in vivo studies. A detailed study of intestinal lymphatic absorption is required, since lipid-based formulations enhance bioavailability by improving the intestinal uptake of drug. Due to insufficient clinical data and differences in methods and animal models used, studies related to the drug transport by lymphatic system have become difficult [36].

**In Vitro-In Vivo Correlation (IVIVC).** In vitro-in vivo correlation will help to maximize the development potential and commercialization of lipid-based formulations. A shortened drug development period and improved product quality could be achieved by developing a model that correlates the in vitro and in vivo data. Determining the solubility, dissolution, lipolysis of the lipid excipient, and intestinal membrane techniques (isolated animal tissue and cell culture models) are various in vitro techniques that can be used to assess lipid-based formulations [37]. Such techniques provide information about specific aspects of the formulation only. But it is important to know the in vivo interaction and performance of these systems. Similar to that of in vivo enterocytes, Caco-2 cells produce and secrete chylomicrons on exposure to lipids. More study has to be carried out on the choice of the most suitable in vivo model for assessing the lipid-based formulations.

#### Applications

So far, the design of successful lipid-based delivery systems has been based largely upon empirical experiences. Systematic physicochemical investigations of structure and stability do not only help to speed up the development of new and improved formulations, but may also aid in the understanding of the complex mechanisms governing the interaction between the lipid carriers and the living cells. Hence they sought to be safe, efficient, and specific carriers for gene and drug delivery.

- LBDDS can be used to deliver various types of drugs from new chemical entities to more recent new developments for proteins and peptides, nucleic acids (DNA, siRNA), and cellular site specific delivery [38–40].
- The utility of lipid-based formulations to enhance the absorption of poorly water-soluble, lipophilic drugs has been recognized for many years. Lipids are perhaps one of the most versatile excipients classes currently available, providing the formulator with many potential options for improving and controlling the absorption of poorly water-soluble drugs. These formulation options include lipid suspensions, solutions, emulsions, microemulsions, mixed micelles, SEDDS, SMEDDS, thixotropic vehicles, thermosoftening matrices, and liposomes.
- Lipid-based formulations, which are by no means a recent technological innovation, have not only proven their utility for mitigating the poor and variable gastrointestinal absorption of poorly soluble, lipophilic drugs, but also, in many cases, have shown the ability to reduce or eliminate the influence of food on the absorption of these drugs. Despite these realities, marketed oral drug products employing lipid-based formulations are currently outnumbered 25 to 1 by conventional formulations. Some of the commercially available lipid-based formulations.

### Future Prospects

More consideration needs to be paid to the characteristics of various lipid formulations available, so that guidelines and experimental methods can be established that allow identification of candidate formulations at an early stage. Methods need to be sought for tracking the solubilisation state of the drug *in vivo*, and there is a need for in vitro methods for predicting the dynamic changes, which are expected to take place in the gut. Attention to the physical and chemical stability of drugs within lipid systems and the interactions of lipid systems with the components of capsules shells will also be required. Whilst these present challenges there is a great potential in the use of lipid formulations. The priority for future research should be to conduct human bioavailability studies and to conduct more basic studies on the mechanisms of action of this fascinating and diverse group of formulations.

### Conclusion

Lipid-based drug delivery systems provide the vast array of possibilities to formulations as they potentially increase the bioavailability of number of poorly soluble drugs along with the formulations of physiologically well tolerated class. The development of these systems requires proper understanding of the physicochemical nature of the compound as well as the lipid excipients and gastrointestinal digestion. One of the major challenges of lipid excipients and delivery systems is the varying range of compounds they contain. Proper characterization and evaluation of these delivery systems, their stability, classification, and regulatory issues consequently affect the number of these formulations. On the way of conclusion, the prospect of these delivery systems looks promising.

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