

Innovative Niosome- Based Dermal Drug Delivery System: A Potential Advancement in Transdermal Therapeutics

Vidhyalakshmi.R^{*1}, Saraswathi.V, Kowsika.M, Pratheeba.G, Abinaya.S, Blessy Flarance.T, Punithavalli.S, Dr.K.Rajaganapathy², Dr.R.Srinivasan³

R.Vidhyalakshmi, Dr.K.Rajaganapathy

*Bharath Institute Of Higher Education And Research, Selaiyur, Chennai 600073, Tamil Nadu, Chennai.
Department Of Pharmacology, Faculty Of Pharmacy, Bharath Institute Of Higher Education And Research,
Selaiyur, Chennai-600073*

Date of Submission: 25-03-2025

Date of Acceptance: 05-04-2025

ABSTRACT:

Niosomes, non-ionic surfactant-based vesicles, represent an advanced platform for enhancing dermal drug delivery. Their structure, consisting of a bilayer membrane, allows for controlled and targeted drug release, making them an attractive alternative to conventional topical delivery systems. This review explores the principles, components, and excipients of niosomes and their significant role in improving drug permeation through the skin barrier. Applications of niosomes in dermal drug delivery, including antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory, and rheumatoid arthritis treatments, are also examined, highlighting their superior performance compared to traditional formulations. The potential of niosomes to offer improved efficacy, reduced side effects, and enhanced patient compliance makes them a promising approach for future dermal therapeutic interventions.

Keywords: Niosomes, Dermal Drug Delivery, Bilayer Membrane, Controlled Release, Skin Permeation.

I. INTRODUCTION:

Transdermal drug delivery systems (TDDS) provide an attractive alternative to oral or parenteral drug administration by offering controlled drug release directly to the systemic circulation through the skin. However, the skin's natural barrier, the stratum corneum, limits the penetration of many drugs, particularly those that are hydrophilic or have large molecular weights. To overcome this limitation, innovative delivery systems such as niosomes have been developed. Niosomes are vesicular systems composed of non-ionic surfactants that form bilayered structures capable of encapsulating both hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs. These vesicles

enhance drug permeation through the skin by increasing the drug's retention time and reducing systemic absorption, which can minimize side effects. Moreover, niosomes can offer a sustained and controlled release of the encapsulated drug, improving the therapeutic outcomes for conditions requiring localized treatment, such as infections, inflammation, and autoimmune diseases. This paper explores the principles behind niosome technology, their structural components, and how they can be applied in dermal drug delivery, with a focus on conditions such as rheumatoid arthritis, inflammation, and infections.

II. DERMAL DRUG DELIVERY SYSTEM

The dermal drug delivery system (DDDS) is a method of administering therapeutic agents through the skin to treat local conditions or deliver drugs into systemic circulation. Dermal drug delivery provides numerous advantages, including non-invasive administration, patient convenience, and the ability to avoid first-pass metabolism. This method is particularly useful for treating skin diseases (e.g., eczema, psoriasis) and providing systemic therapy via transdermal patches (e.g., nicotine patches). In this detailed explanation, we will explore the key components, mechanisms, advantages, challenges, and innovations related to dermal drug delivery systems.

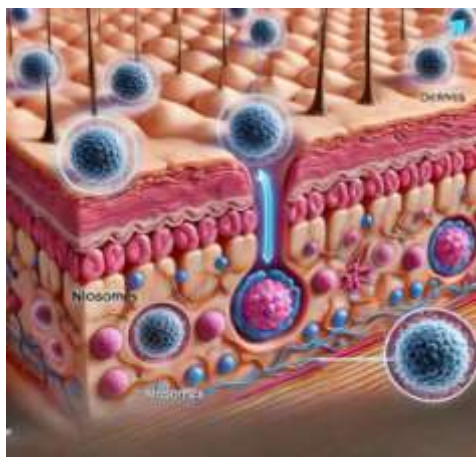


Fig-1: Dermal drug delivery system using niosomes. It illustrates how niosomes penetrate the skin layers and release drugs in a controlled manner, enhancing permeation and targeting the delivery to specific skin cells.

2.1. Structure of the Skin and Its Role in Drug Delivery:

To understand how dermal drug delivery works, it is essential to first understand the structure of the skin, which serves as the body's protective barrier. The skin consists of three primary layers. Epidermis: is the outermost layer, which includes the stratum corneum, a dense, water-resistant barrier made of dead keratinized cells. This is the major obstacle for drug delivery as it limits the penetration of substances. Dermis is the middle layer, which contains blood vessels, nerves, and connective tissue. Drugs that penetrate the dermis can enter systemic circulation through capillaries. Hypodermis (Subcutaneous Layer) is the innermost layer, composed mainly of fat and connective tissue, which serves as an energy reserve and insulator. The stratum corneum is the primary barrier to drug penetration. It is only about 10-20 micrometers thick but has a strong lipid matrix that restricts the passage of hydrophilic substances. Successful dermal drug delivery depends on overcoming this barrier while ensuring drug stability and sustained release.

2.2. Types of Dermal Drug Delivery:

There are two main categories of dermal drug delivery systems. Topical delivery is used to treat local skin conditions. Drugs are applied directly to the skin surface in the form of creams, ointments, gels, or lotions. The drug acts on the skin layers without entering systemic circulation. Some common applications including Corticosteroids for inflammatory conditions like

eczema and psoriasis, Antibiotics for bacterial skin infections, Antifungals for fungal infections like athlete's foot, Drug action is localized to the skin, Minimal systemic absorption and Reduced side effects compared to systemic therapy. Transdermal drug delivery involves administering drugs through the skin to reach systemic circulation. This is typically achieved using transdermal patches. Unlike topical delivery, transdermal systems allow drugs to bypass the gastrointestinal tract and liver, avoiding first-pass metabolism. Some examples including Nicotine patches for smoking cessation, Hormonal patches (e.g., estrogen, contraceptive patches) for hormone replacement therapy or birth control, Pain relief patches containing opioids or nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), Provides systemic drug delivery, Sustained and controlled release over time and Convenient and painless for the patient.

2.3. Mechanisms of Drug Penetration Through the Skin:

Drug penetration through the skin occurs via several routes, each influenced by the physicochemical properties of the drug (e.g., size, lipophilicity, charge). The main mechanisms including Transcellular Route involves the drug passing directly through the skin cells. The drug has to cross the hydrophobic lipid bilayers of cell membranes and the intracellular matrix. Hydrophobic (lipophilic) drugs typically use this route, as they can dissolve in the lipid-rich environment of the cell membranes. Intercellular Route the drug diffuses through the spaces between skin cells (especially through the stratum corneum). Hydrophilic (water-soluble) drugs often take this route. However, this pathway is highly restrictive due to the tightly packed lipid layers in the intercellular spaces. Appendageal Route takes advantage of skin appendages such as hair follicles, sweat glands, and sebaceous glands. These appendages provide "shunt" pathways for drug molecules, allowing drugs to bypass the tough stratum corneum. Though these appendages cover only a small portion of the skin's surface, they can be useful for delivering certain drugs.

2.4. Factors Affecting Dermal Drug Delivery:

Several factors influence how effectively a drug penetrates the skin. These include Physicochemical Properties of the Drug: Molecular Size Smaller molecules (< 500 Da) penetrate the skin more easily than larger molecules. Lipophilicity Drugs with moderate lipophilicity have better penetration through the

lipid-rich stratum corneum. Charge Neutral molecules penetrate more easily than charged (ionized) molecules. Formulation of the Drug the vehicle (cream, ointment, gel, etc.) in which the drug is delivered plays a crucial role in its penetration. Vehicles that hydrate the skin can enhance drug absorption. Penetration enhancers such as alcohols, fatty acids, and surfactants disrupt the lipid structure of the stratum corneum, allowing greater drug penetration. Skin Condition and Integrity Hydrated skin has better permeability than dry skin, making hydration a key factor in enhancing drug delivery. Damage or Disease Conditions like eczema, psoriasis, or wounds can alter skin permeability. Damaged skin often allows for increased drug penetration, but this can also increase the risk of irritation or systemic exposure. Application Site different areas of the body have varying skin thickness and permeability. For example, the skin on the face and neck is thinner and more permeable compared to the thicker skin on the palms or soles of the feet.

2.5. Advantages of Dermal Drug Delivery Systems:

Dermal drug delivery offers several advantages over traditional routes like oral or injectable administration. Unlike injections, dermal delivery does not require needles, reducing the risk of infection and pain. Bypass first-pass metabolism, Drugs delivered through the skin bypass the liver, avoiding degradation by liver enzymes, which enhances bioavailability. Sustained release in Many dermal systems provide controlled release of drugs over a long period, improving patient compliance by reducing the need for frequent dosing. In Localized treatment Topical formulations allow for targeted delivery to the affected area, reducing systemic side effects. Patient-friendly Patches and topical formulations are easy to apply and remove, making them more convenient for long-term use.

2.6. Challenges in Dermal Drug Delivery:

Despite its advantages, dermal drug delivery faces several challenges: Barrier function of the skin: The skin, especially the stratum corneum, is designed to protect the body from foreign substances, making it difficult for drugs to penetrate. Limited drug types: Only certain types of drugs with specific physicochemical properties (e.g., small, lipophilic) can effectively penetrate the skin. Irritation or allergy risk Some patients may experience skin irritation or allergic reactions to components in dermal formulations, such as preservatives or penetration enhancers. Variable

absorption: Absorption rates can vary depending on factors like skin hydration, temperature, and the application site, making it difficult to predict the exact dose.

2.7. Innovations in Dermal Drug Delivery:

Recent advancements in science and technology are helping overcome the challenges of dermal drug delivery. Some key innovations include Nanoscale Systems nanotechnology is being used to develop new delivery systems like liposomes, niosomes, solid lipid nanoparticles, and nanoemulsions. These nanoparticles can encapsulate drugs, enhance their stability, and improve their penetration through the skin by interacting with the lipid matrix of the stratum corneum. Microneedle patches are a breakthrough in transdermal drug delivery. They consist of tiny needles that painlessly penetrate the stratum corneum to deliver drugs into the dermis. Microneedles have been explored for delivering vaccines, insulin, and other biologic drugs that cannot penetrate the skin on their own. Iontophoresis and Electroporation these techniques use electrical currents to enhance drug penetration. Iontophoresis drives charged drug molecules through the skin using a low electrical current, while electroporation uses short electrical pulses to temporarily disrupt the stratum corneum, allowing for drug entry. Chemical Penetration Enhancers Ongoing research is focused on developing new penetration enhancers that can transiently disrupt the stratum corneum without causing irritation or long-term damage to the skin. These enhancers can be combined with other delivery technologies to improve the bioavailability of drugs.

2.8. Applications of Dermal Drug Delivery Systems:

Dermal drug delivery systems have become increasingly popular in recent years as an effective alternative to traditional methods of drug administration, such as oral or intravenous routes. These systems involve the delivery of drugs through the skin, either for local or systemic therapeutic effects. The advantages of this route include improved patient compliance, reduced systemic side effects, and the ability to bypass first-pass metabolism in the liver. Moreover, dermal drug delivery allows for controlled, sustained release of the drug over time, which can improve therapeutic outcomes. This essay provides a detailed overview of the key applications of dermal

drug delivery systems in medicine, covering both therapeutic and cosmetic uses.

One of the most significant applications of dermal drug delivery systems is the transdermal route for systemic drug delivery. Transdermal patches, for instance, allow drugs to permeate through the skin into the systemic circulation, delivering medication continuously over a period of time. This method is particularly useful for drugs that require a consistent plasma concentration to be effective. Transdermal drug delivery is commonly employed in managing chronic conditions. For example, nicotine patches are widely used in smoking cessation therapy. These patches provide a steady supply of nicotine, helping to reduce withdrawal symptoms and cravings without the harmful effects of smoking. Similarly, hormone replacement therapy (HRT) for menopause often utilizes transdermal patches to deliver estrogen and progesterone, which minimizes gastrointestinal side effects compared to oral HRT. Other drugs administered transdermally include fentanyl for pain management, especially in cancer patients, and nitroglycerin for angina pectoris. The ability of these drugs to bypass the digestive system reduces the potential for drug-drug interactions and enhances bioavailability. Moreover, in the case of chronic pain, transdermal delivery of analgesics such as fentanyl can provide long-lasting relief without the peaks and troughs in drug levels that are often seen with oral administration.

While transdermal drug delivery is aimed at systemic effects, topical drug delivery is designed for localized treatment, where the medication acts directly on the skin or underlying tissues. This is especially useful for dermatological conditions like eczema, psoriasis, and acne, where the goal is to target the skin directly. Corticosteroid creams are a common example of topical drug delivery, used to reduce inflammation in skin disorders such as dermatitis. In addition, antifungal creams, such as those used to treat athlete's foot or ringworm, act locally on the skin to eradicate fungal infections. Topical antibiotics, like mupirocin, are also widely used to treat bacterial infections of the skin, including impetigo. Wound care is another significant area where topical drug delivery systems are applied. Dressings containing antimicrobial agents like silver sulfadiazine are used to prevent infection in burn wounds and chronic ulcers. These treatments are vital in promoting healing and preventing complications like sepsis in patients with severe skin injuries.

Beyond therapeutic uses, dermal drug delivery systems have found extensive applications

in the cosmetic and aesthetic industry. Skincare products containing active ingredients such as retinoids, peptides, and hyaluronic acid are formulated to penetrate the skin's surface layers, promoting anti-aging effects, hydration, and skin regeneration. These cosmetic formulations rely on sophisticated delivery mechanisms to enhance the bioavailability of these active compounds, ensuring they reach the deeper layers of the skin where they are most effective. Another example is the use of dermal fillers and injectables in aesthetic medicine. Although not a traditional "drug delivery system," injectables like Botox (botulinum toxin) and hyaluronic acid fillers can be considered a type of dermal delivery. These agents are delivered into the skin to reduce wrinkles, add volume to the face, and improve overall skin texture. Nanotechnology has also revolutionized cosmetic applications, with nano-encapsulation techniques enabling better penetration of active ingredients. These nano-carriers protect sensitive ingredients from degradation, allowing them to release gradually into the skin, prolonging their effect and enhancing their performance. For example, nano-sized liposomes and solid lipid nanoparticles are used in moisturizers and anti-aging creams to improve the stability and penetration of ingredients like vitamin C and coenzyme Q10.

Advances in dermal drug delivery technologies are expanding the range of possible applications. For instance, microneedle patches have emerged as a novel approach for delivering both drugs and vaccines through the skin. These patches consist of tiny, painless needles that create micro-channels in the skin, through which drugs can be delivered directly into the dermal layers or systemic circulation. Microneedles have shown great promise in delivering vaccines for diseases such as influenza, and their use is being explored for insulin delivery in diabetes management. Microneedle patches offer several advantages over traditional delivery systems, such as increased patient compliance, ease of administration, and reduced risk of infection. Moreover, they can be self-administered, eliminating the need for trained healthcare personnel, which is particularly beneficial in low-resource settings or during public health emergencies. Electroporation is another cutting-edge technique used in dermal drug delivery. It involves the application of a short electrical pulse to the skin, temporarily increasing skin permeability and allowing larger molecules to pass through the skin barrier. This method is particularly useful for delivering vaccines and large peptide-

based drugs that would otherwise struggle to penetrate the skin.

Dermal drug delivery systems are also instrumental in pain management and local anesthesia. Lidocaine patches, for example, are widely used to relieve post-herpetic neuralgia, a chronic pain condition following shingles. These patches provide localized pain relief without systemic side effects, making them an excellent option for long-term use. Topical anesthetics are essential in minor surgical procedures or cosmetic treatments, reducing discomfort for the patient. Eutectic mixtures of local anesthetics (EMLA), which include lidocaine and prilocaine, are commonly used before procedures such as laser treatments, tattooing, or minor skin surgeries. The local delivery of anesthetics through the skin ensures that the medication acts directly where it is needed, providing effective pain relief without affecting other areas of the body.

The application of dermal drug delivery systems for the treatment of viral and bacterial infections is another important area of use. Topical antiviral agents, such as acyclovir cream, are used to treat herpes simplex virus infections (e.g., cold sores and genital herpes). By applying the drug directly to the affected area, patients can achieve high local concentrations, reducing the severity and duration of outbreaks. In addition, transdermal drug delivery has been explored for the prevention and treatment of sexually transmitted infections (STIs). Researchers are investigating the use of microbicide gels, films, or rings that can deliver antiviral agents through the skin or mucosal surfaces to prevent the transmission of HIV and other STIs.

Despite the wide range of applications for dermal drug delivery systems, there are several challenges that must be addressed. The skin acts as a formidable barrier, and delivering drugs, especially large molecules like proteins and peptides, through the skin is often difficult. Advances in technology, such as microneedles and electroporation, have helped to overcome some of these barriers, but further research is needed to improve the efficiency and safety of these systems. Moreover, variability in skin permeability between individuals, influenced by factors such as age, ethnicity, and skin conditions, presents an additional challenge. Personalized approaches to dermal drug delivery, taking into account individual skin characteristics, may be the key to optimizing treatment outcomes in the future.

Dermal drug delivery systems offer a versatile and effective means of delivering drugs

both locally and systemically. From transdermal patches used in chronic disease management to topical creams for skin disorders, the applications of this technology are vast. Recent advances in nanotechnology, microneedles, and other innovative delivery systems are expanding the possibilities, offering new hope for treating a wide range of conditions. As research continues, it is likely that dermal drug delivery will become an increasingly important tool in both medicine and cosmetics, offering patients more effective and less invasive treatment options.

III. NIOSOMES : A OVERVIEW

Niosomes are non-ionic surfactant-based vesicles used as drug carriers in a wide range of pharmaceutical applications. Structurally, they resemble liposomes, but unlike liposomes (which are made of phospholipids), niosomes are composed of synthetic surfactants, making them more stable and cost-effective. These vesicular systems have gained considerable attention due to their ability to encapsulate a wide variety of drugs, enhance drug bioavailability, provide targeted delivery, and improve the therapeutic efficacy of drugs. In this brief yet comprehensive overview, we will explore the key aspects of niosomes, including their structure, components, preparation methods, advantages, and applications in drug delivery.

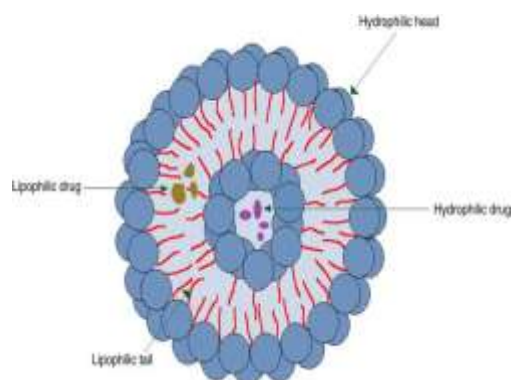


Fig-2 Structure and nature of niosome

3.1. Niosome in Dermal Drug Delivery:

Niosomes work on the principle of vesicular encapsulation and controlled release. The non-ionic surfactants used to form niosomes create vesicular bilayers similar to liposomes, which enhance the drug's stability and allow for better penetration through the skin. The main mechanisms by which niosomes enhance drug delivery through the skin are niosomes encapsulate both hydrophilic

and lipophilic drugs, improving their stability and bioavailability. Niosomes provide sustained and controlled release of drugs at the site of action, reducing the frequency of application. Niosomes alter the skin's permeability by interacting with the lipids in the stratum corneum, making it easier for drugs to penetrate. Niosomes help localize the drug's effect, reducing the risk of systemic side effects.

3.2. Structure of Niosomes:

Niosomes are bilayer vesicles that consist of an aqueous core enclosed by a membrane made of non-ionic surfactants. The amphiphilic nature of surfactants enables them to form a closed spherical structure, where the hydrophilic (water-attracting) head groups face outward toward the aqueous environment, and the hydrophobic (water-repelling) tails face inward, away from water. This bilayer structure is similar to biological membranes and allows niosomes to encapsulate both hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs. Hydrophilic drugs are encapsulated within the aqueous core. Lipophilic drugs are incorporated into the lipid bilayer. The size of niosomes can vary, typically ranging from 10 nm to several microns, depending on the preparation method and formulation. This versatility allows them to be used in a range of drug delivery applications.

3.3. Components of Niosomes:

Niosomes are vesicular systems formed by the self-assembly of non-ionic surfactants in an aqueous environment. These vesicles have a bilayer structure similar to liposomes and can encapsulate both hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs, making them an effective system for drug delivery. The components of niosomes are critical in determining their structure, stability, and functionality. This section delves into the primary and auxiliary components of niosomes, exploring their roles and the impact on the formulation's performance.

Non-ionic surfactants:

It is the most important component of niosomes, as they form the bilayer structure of the vesicle. The choice of surfactant determines many of the physicochemical properties of the niosomes, including their size, stability, encapsulation efficiency, and drug release characteristics. Non-ionic surfactants consist of a hydrophilic (water-attracting) head and a hydrophobic (water-repelling) tail. In aqueous environments, these surfactants align themselves into a bilayer, with the hydrophilic heads facing the aqueous environment and the hydrophobic tails pointing inward, away from the water. Common Non-Ionic Surfactants Used in Niosomes Several non-ionic surfactants are commonly used in niosomal formulations. These include Spans (Sorbitan Esters): Spans, such as Span 20 (Sorbitan Monolaurate), Span 40 (Sorbitan Monopalmitate), Span 60 (Sorbitan Monostearate), and Span 80 (Sorbitan Monooleate), are widely used due to their hydrophobicity and ability to form stable vesicles. The surfactants differ in their fatty acid chains, which influence the properties of the niosomes. Tweens (Polysorbates): Tweens, such as Tween 20, Tween 40, and Tween 80, are hydrophilic surfactants commonly used in combination with Spans. They help to adjust the hydrophilic-lipophilic balance (HLB) of the formulation, which affects the size and stability of the niosomes. Tweens are often used to create vesicles with smaller diameters and more efficient drug encapsulation. The balance between the hydrophilic and hydrophobic regions of the surfactant is key to forming stable niosomes. The hydrophilic-lipophilic balance (HLB) of the surfactant influences the ability of the molecules to self-assemble into bilayers. An appropriate HLB value ensures the formation of vesicles rather than micelles or other structures.

Table-1 Non-ionic surfactants commonly used in niosome formulations, along with their properties, including Hydrophilic-Lipophilic Balance (HLB), and typical roles in niosome formation.

| Surfactant | Chemical Class | HLB Value | Nature | Role in Niosome Formation | Common Example |
|--------------------------------|----------------|-----------|-------------|---|--|
| Span 20 (Sorbitan Monolaurate) | Sorbitan ester | 8.6 | Hydrophobic | Forms the bilayer in niosomes, suitable for forming smaller, more | Frequently used in combination with cholesterol to adjust membrane fluidity. |

| | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|------|--------------------|---|---|
| | | | | stable vesicles. | |
| Span 40 (Sorbitan Monopalmitate) | Sorbitan ester | 6.7 | Hydrophobic | Creates rigid and stable bilayers; good for sustained-release drug delivery systems. | Suitable for encapsulating hydrophobic drugs in the bilayer. |
| Span 60 (Sorbitan Monostearate) | Sorbitan ester | 4.7 | Highly hydrophobic | Forms a highly stable bilayer structure with cholesterol; increases encapsulation efficiency of hydrophobic drugs. | Commonly used for longer shelf life formulations, very stable vesicles. |
| Span 80 (Sorbitan Monooleate) | Sorbitan ester | 4.3 | Hydrophobic | Offers flexibility in the bilayer structure, suitable for large multilamellar vesicles. | Frequently used in conjunction with cholesterol to enhance membrane rigidity. |
| Tween 20 (Polysorbate 20) | Polysorbate | 16.7 | Hydrophilic | Acts as a co-surfactant, enhances fluidity, often used in combination with Span surfactants to form more stable vesicles. | Used to reduce vesicle size and stabilize the niosomal membrane. |
| Tween 40 (Polysorbate 40) | Polysorbate | 15.6 | Hydrophilic | Improves fluidity of the bilayer membrane; often used in systems with more hydrophilic drugs | Reduces vesicle size and helps maintain drug stability. |
| Tween 60 (Polysorbate 60) | Polysorbate | 14.9 | Hydrophilic | Provides better encapsulation of hydrophilic drugs within the aqueous core of the niosomes. | Stabilizes the bilayer while preventing aggregation of vesicles. |
| Tween 80 (Polysorbate 80) | Polysorbate | 15.0 | Hydrophilic | Used as a co-surfactant to reduce vesicle | Common in formulations where high |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----------------------|------|-------------|---|---|
| | | | | size and increase membrane fluidity, especially for water-soluble drugs. | solubility of the encapsulated drug is required. |
| Brij 30 (Polyoxyethylene lauryl ether) | Polyoxyethylene ether | 9.7 | Hydrophilic | Helps in stabilizing bilayer membrane by providing flexibility, often used in drug delivery systems requiring prolonged release | Useful for encapsulating both hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs. |
| Brij 35 (Polyoxyethylene stearyl ether) | Polyoxyethylene ether | 16.9 | Hydrophilic | Enhances membrane permeability and fluidity, leading to better drug entrapment efficiency for hydrophilic compounds | Often used in formulations requiring long circulation times. |
| Brij 52 (Polyoxyethylene cetyl ether) | Polyoxyethylene ether | 5.3 | Hydrophobic | Forms stable niosomal bilayers, suitable for encapsulating lipophilic drugs within the membrane. | Improves vesicle stability, particularly in multilamellar vesicles. |

Surfactant:

It is used in niosomal formulations affects drug encapsulation efficiency and release characteristics. Hydrophilic drugs are encapsulated in the aqueous core of the vesicle, while hydrophobic or lipophilic drugs are integrated into the lipid bilayer. A proper surfactant selection

ensures maximum drug loading and stability. The bilayer structure can be manipulated to control the release of drugs over time. Some surfactants form more rigid bilayers, which result in slower drug release, while others form more fluid bilayers, allowing for a faster release of the encapsulated drug.

Table-2 Role of surfactants in drug encapsulation and release for niosomes. Each row includes the type of surfactant, its characteristics, and how it influences drug encapsulation and release.

| Surfactant Type | Characteristics | Role in Drug Encapsulation | Role in Drug Release |
|---|--|---|--|
| Sorbitan Esters (e.g., Span 20, 40, 60, 80) | Low HLB values (hydrophobic), form stable bilayer membranes. | -Hydrophobic surfactants encapsulate lipophilic drugs efficiently by trapping | - Slow and sustained drug release due to their rigid bilayer. -Increased membrane |

| | | | |
|---|--|---|---|
| | | <p>them in the bilayer.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Offer high stability to the vesicle structure. | <p>rigidity results in prolonged drug retention.</p> |
| Polysorbates (e.g., Tween 20, 40, 60, 80) | High HLB values (hydrophilic), increase membrane fluidity. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Improve encapsulation of hydrophilic drugs within the aqueous core of niosomes. - When used with Span surfactants, they can enhance the overall encapsulation efficiency | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Faster release due to their ability to create more fluid bilayers. - May lead to faster drug leakage if used in excess. |
| Polyoxyethylene Ethers (e.g., Brij 30, Brij 35) | Moderate HLB values, amphiphilic nature. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Facilitate the encapsulation of both hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs. - Promote better membrane permeability for encapsulated drugs. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enhance controlled drug release profiles due to their balance of hydrophobic and hydrophilic properties. - Can modulate release by adjusting surfactant ratio. |
| Cholesterol (often used with surfactants) | Amphiphilic, adds stability to vesicle bilayer. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reduces leakage of both hydrophilic and hydrophobic drugs. - Enhances encapsulation efficiency by improving membrane stability. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Slows down drug release by increasing membrane rigidity. - Prevents premature drug release, especially in biological environments. |
| Sorbitan Monostearate (Span 60) | Low HLB value, high melting point, forms rigid bilayer. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Highly effective for encapsulating hydrophobic drugs within the bilayer. - Offers long-term stability and prevents drug leakage. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Results in slow drug release due to its high rigidity. - Prolongs drug retention within niosomes, ideal for sustained release formulations. |
| Polysorbate 80 (Tween 80) | High HLB value, increases membrane flexibility. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enhances encapsulation efficiency for hydrophilic drugs by creating more fluid bilayers. - Reduces vesicle size, increasing the surface area for drug encapsulation. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Faster drug release due to increased membrane fluidity. - Can be combined with more hydrophobic surfactants (Span) to balance release rate. |
| Sorbitan Monooleate (Span 80) | Hydrophobic, low HLB, forms less rigid vesicles. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Allows better encapsulation of hydrophobic drugs. - Provides flexible bilayers, leading to improved drug encapsulation and distribution. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provides intermediate drug release profiles. - Less rigid bilayers offer moderate release kinetics, balancing between slow and fast release. |
| Sorbitan Monolaurate (Span 20) | Higher HLB compared to other Spans, more hydrophilic. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Effective for encapsulating hydrophilic drugs. - When used with | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Moderate to fast release depending on the drug's solubility profile. - Works well for faster |

| | | | |
|---|--|--|---|
| | | cholesterol, enhances drug retention in both hydrophilic and hydrophobic regions. | release of water-soluble drugs. |
| Decyl Glucoside (Alkyl Polyglucosides) | Mild surfactant, biodegradable, non-ionic. | - Can encapsulate both hydrophilic and hydrophobic drugs due to its mild amphiphilic nature. - Provides biocompatibility. | - Moderate drug release; the mild nature of the surfactant results in balanced release rates. - Non-toxic and biodegradable for controlled release applications. |
| Polyethylene Glycol (PEG)-Based Surfactants | Hydrophilic, long polymer chains, high molecular weight. | -Enhances encapsulation of hydrophilic drugs. -PEGylation increases drug solubility and improves stability in aqueous environments. | - Slower drug release due to steric hindrance provided by PEG chains. - Provides prolonged circulation time and reduces drug clearance from the body. |

Cholesterol:

Cholesterol is a crucial component in the formation of niosomes. It is incorporated into the bilayer membrane of the vesicle to stabilize the structure. Cholesterol interacts with the surfactants in the bilayer and plays an important role in maintaining the integrity and rigidity of the vesicles.

Functions of Cholesterol in Niosomes: Stabilization of the Bilayer it reduces the fluidity of the niosomal bilayer, making it more stable and less prone to leakage. Without cholesterol, the bilayer may be too flexible, leading to rapid drug release or the collapse of the vesicle structure. Cholesterol helps prevent the aggregation of niosomes by

stabilizing the membrane and preventing the fusion of adjacent vesicles. Modulation of Drug Release: By altering the ratio of cholesterol to surfactant in the niosome formulation, the rigidity of the bilayer can be adjusted, influencing the rate at which the drug is released. A higher cholesterol content generally results in slower drug release. The concentration of cholesterol in niosomes must be optimized to balance vesicle stability and drug release. Too much cholesterol can make the bilayer too rigid, impeding drug release, while too little cholesterol may lead to instability and drug leakage. The ideal cholesterol-to-surfactant ratio varies depending on the drug being encapsulated and the desired release profile.

Table-3 Role of cholesterol in niosomes, including examples with a description of how cholesterol influences niosomal characteristics and drug delivery.

| Cholesterol Role | Description | Example | Effect on Niosome Properties |
|----------------------------|--|---|--|
| Membrane Stabilization | Cholesterol intercalates between the surfactant molecules in the bilayer, increasing membrane rigidity. It helps form a stable, more robust membrane by reducing membrane fluidity and preventing deformation. | Span 60 + Cholesterol: Cholesterol is incorporated into the Span 60 bilayer to enhance membrane strength. | - Improves niosome structural integrity. - Prevents vesicle collapse and deformation, especially in biological environments. - Reduces the risk of drug leakage. |
| Prevention of Drug Leakage | Cholesterol reduces membrane permeability by decreasing the fluidity of the bilayer, preventing the escape of | Tween 80 + Cholesterol: Cholesterol is added to niosomes to counteract the high fluidity of Tween 80, | - Reduces leakage of encapsulated drugs, particularly hydrophilic drugs, by stabilizing the bilayer. |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | encapsulated drugs, especially hydrophilic ones, from the aqueous core | preventing drug leakage. | - Provides better control over drug retention and release over time. |
| Control of Drug Release Rate | Cholesterol slows the release of drugs by increasing the rigidity and reducing the permeability of the niosome membrane, leading to more controlled or sustained drug release profiles. | Span 40 + Cholesterol: Used in sustained-release formulations, cholesterol slows down the release of hydrophobic drugs. | - Prolongs drug retention within the vesicles, enabling sustained or delayed drug release. - Cholesterol content can be adjusted to fine-tune the release profile of the drug. |
| Reduction of Vesicle Aggregation | Cholesterol reduces vesicle aggregation by preventing fusion of vesicles and improving colloidal stability, especially for multilamellar vesicles. | Span 80 + Cholesterol: Addition of cholesterol prevents multilamellar vesicles from fusing together, improving their stability. | - Increases colloidal stability by reducing the likelihood of vesicle fusion. - Ensures long-term stability of niosomes in suspension, preventing sedimentation or aggregation. |
| Protection Against Environmental Stress | Cholesterol protects niosomes from environmental stressors such as temperature fluctuations, pH changes, and osmotic pressure by providing rigidity to the bilayer. | Span 60 + Tween 20 + Cholesterol: Cholesterol provides stability to a formulation exposed to variable environmental conditions. | - Enhances the durability of niosomes under stress, such as in fluctuating pH or temperature environments. - Prevents rupture or leakage in dynamic biological conditions. |
| Optimizing Vesicle Size and Shape | Cholesterol influences the size and shape of niosomes by modulating the membrane's fluidity and stability. Higher cholesterol content can lead to more uniform and smaller vesicles. | Brij 30 + Cholesterol: Addition of cholesterol results in smaller, more uniform vesicles by reducing membrane fluidity. | - Helps produce uniform-sized vesicles, especially when precise control over vesicle size is required. - Reduces polydispersity, leading to a more homogeneous vesicle population. |
| Compatibility with Various Surfactants | Cholesterol can be used with a wide range of non-ionic surfactants, adjusting the properties of the bilayer according to the surfactant's characteristics, enhancing compatibility. | Span 60 + Tween 80 + Cholesterol: Combination of surfactants with cholesterol results in balanced membrane properties. | - Enhances the flexibility of niosome formulations by allowing the use of different surfactants. - Modifies bilayer properties based on the surfactant and drug requirements. |

Hydration medium:

The hydration medium is the aqueous phase used during the preparation of niosomes. It can be a simple buffer or a drug solution, depending on the formulation. The aqueous phase plays a crucial role in determining the size and

structure of the vesicles formed. The hydration medium provides the environment for hydrophilic drugs to be encapsulated within the aqueous core of the niosomes. The concentration of the drug in the hydration medium affects the encapsulation efficiency of the formulation. The higher the drug

concentration in the hydration medium, the higher the encapsulation efficiency in most cases. In Buffer Composition the pH and ionic strength of the hydration medium can also influence niosome formation and stability. Common buffers used in

niosomal formulations include phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and citrate buffers. The buffer must be chosen to maintain the stability of both the surfactant and the drug throughout the preparation process.

Table-4 Hydration mediums used in the preparation of niosomes, including examples and their characteristics.

| Hydration Medium | Example | Characteristics | Role in Niosome Formation | Effect on Drug Encapsulation and Release |
|------------------------|--|--|---|--|
| Phosphate Buffer (PBS) | Phosphate Buffer Saline (pH 7.4) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Isotonic and pH-buffered. - Mimics physiological conditions. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Helps form stable niosomal vesicles. - Provides a suitable medium for biological applications. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enhances drug stability in the vesicles. - Reduces drug degradation and allows for controlled drug release. |
| Distilled Water | Pure H ₂ O | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - pH neutral (7.0), highly pure. - Free from ions and contaminants. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Simple and widely used for the formation of niosomes. - Provides a neutral hydration medium. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Suitable for encapsulating water-soluble drugs. - May result in faster drug release due to higher permeability. |
| Saline Solution | 0.9% NaCl Solution | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Isotonic with blood plasma. - Non-buffered and easily available. - Prevents vesicle swelling or shrinking. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Maintains osmotic balance during niosome formation. - Prevents vesicle rupture or aggregation. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provides stability for the encapsulated drugs in physiological conditions. - Ensures slower drug release. |
| Tris Buffer | Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane (pH 7.4) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Buffering capacity between pH 7.0 and 9.0. - Non-ionic, does not interfere with surfactants. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Maintains pH during niosome formation. - Suitable for pH-sensitive drugs. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Helps maintain drug stability, especially for pH-sensitive drugs. - Ensures controlled drug release over time. |
| Hepes Buffer | Hepes (pH 7.4) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Non-toxic, maintains pH balance. - Strong buffering capacity at physiological | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provides stability for drug-loaded niosomes. - Maintains the pH in biological | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enhances the stability of pH-sensitive drugs. - Suitable for controlled release of drugs in physiological |

| | | | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|---|--|--|
| | | pH (6.8–8.2). | systems and in vitro studies. | conditions. |
| Glucose Solution | 5% Glucose Solution | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Isotonic, used for balancing osmotic pressure. - Provides an energy source for cells. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Helps in forming stable niosomes by balancing osmotic pressure. - Prevents shrinkage of niosomes in vivo. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reduces osmotic stress on vesicles, improving drug retention. - Ensures gradual drug release in biological systems. |
| Ethanol-Water Mixture | Ethanol (1:1 or 2:1 ratio) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Organic solvent mixture. - Increases membrane permeability. - Ethanol acts as a stabilizer for hydrophobic drugs. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enhances the formation of bilayers. - Improves solubility for poorly soluble or hydrophobic drugs | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Faster drug release due to enhanced permeability. - May lead to vesicle instability at high ethanol concentrations. |
| Sodium Citrate Buffer | Sodium Citrate (pH 4-6) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mildly acidic buffer. - Commonly used for drugs that are stable at low pH levels. - Non-ionic. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Suitable for the encapsulation of weakly acidic drugs. - Maintains drug stability in acidic environments | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Slows down drug release in acidic environments. - Suitable for drugs that require release in acidic conditions. |
| Acetate Buffer | Acetate Buffer (pH 4-5) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Low pH buffer. - Used for acid-stable drugs. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Forms niosomes in acidic conditions. - Suitable for drugs that require release in low pH environments. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provides slow release in low pH environments. - Useful for targeted delivery in acidic environments (e.g., tumors). |
| Sucrose Solution | 10% Sucrose Solution | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Isotonic solution. - Provides stability to niosomes by preventing osmotic imbalance. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Maintains osmotic pressure. - Helps stabilize niosomes in suspension, preventing vesicle | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Stabilizes vesicles, reducing leakage. - Suitable for prolonged drug retention and slow release. |

| | | | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------|--|--|---|
| | | | rupture. | |
| Glycerol-Water Mixture | Glycerol (10% Glycerol) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Viscous medium. - Prevents rapid diffusion of encapsulated drugs. - Reduces osmotic stress. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Forms viscous niosome dispersions. - Prevents leakage by reducing membrane permeability. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Slows down drug release significantly. - Suitable for formulations requiring prolonged drug retention. |
| Polyethylene Glycol (PEG) Solution | PEG-400 (5-10% solution) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Biocompatible and non-toxic. - Acts as a stabilizer. - Can enhance circulation time of niosomes in vivo. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enhances niosome stability and reduces aggregation. - Forms sterically stabilized niosomes. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Prolongs drug retention and circulation in vivo. - Provides slow and sustained drug release. |

Charge inducers:

Charge inducers are additives that introduce a charge to the surface of the niosomes. The inclusion of charge inducers helps to prevent the aggregation of niosomes, thereby improving their stability and storage characteristics.

Examples of Charge Inducers: **Dicetyl phosphate (DCP):** DCP is a negatively charged lipid that can be incorporated into niosomes to provide a net negative charge on the surface. This negative charge creates electrostatic repulsion between vesicles, preventing them from aggregating. **Stearylamine:** This is a positively charged lipid that can be added to niosomes to introduce a positive charge on the surface. Like DCP, stearylamine helps to prevent aggregation through electrostatic repulsion.

Impact on Stability and Drug Delivery the addition of charge inducers improves the physical stability of niosomes by preventing vesicle fusion and aggregation. This is especially important in formulations intended for long-term storage. Moreover, the surface charge can influence the interaction of niosomes with biological membranes and tissues, potentially enhancing the targeting and uptake of the drug by specific cells or tissues.

In some formulations, particularly for transdermal drug delivery, penetration enhancers are added to niosomes to improve the drug’s ability to penetrate through biological barriers, such as the skin or mucous membranes. Common Penetration Enhancers are Fatty acids (e.g., oleic acid), Surfactants (e.g., sodium lauryl sulfate) and Alcohols (e.g., ethanol). These substances

temporarily disrupt the lipid structure of the stratum corneum (the outermost layer of the skin), allowing for enhanced permeation of the drug through the skin. Penetration enhancers are especially useful in transdermal drug delivery systems where the natural barrier properties of the skin impede drug absorption. Mechanism of Action of charge inducer enhance Penetration function by fluidizing the lipids in the skin or biological membrane, making it easier for the niosomes and their encapsulated drugs to pass through. This improves the drug’s bioavailability and efficacy when applied topically.

Solvents:

In some niosome preparation methods, organic solvents are used to dissolve the surfactants and cholesterol before they are hydrated to form vesicles. Common organic solvents include Chloroform, Methanol and Ethanol. The choice of solvent depends on the solubility of the surfactants and cholesterol used in the formulation. After the solvent is removed, usually through evaporation, the remaining thin lipid film is hydrated with an aqueous phase to form niosomes.

Niosomes are versatile drug delivery systems composed of several key components, including non-ionic surfactants, cholesterol, charge inducers, and penetration enhancers. Each component plays a specific role in determining the size, stability, drug release profile, and overall functionality of the niosomes. By carefully selecting and optimizing these components, researchers can create niosomal formulations

tailored to deliver a wide range of therapeutic agents, from small molecule drugs to large macromolecules like proteins and vaccines. As drug delivery technologies continue to evolve,

niosomes hold promise as a flexible and efficient platform for improving the delivery, bioavailability, and therapeutic efficacy of drugs across multiple fields of medicine.

Table-5 This table outlines various solvents used in niosomes and their roles, advantages, and limitations.

| Solvent | Type | Role in Niosome Formation | Example Solvents | Advantages | Disadvantages | Compatibility with Drugs |
|------------------|----------------------|---|-------------------------------|--|--|--|
| Chloroform | Organic | Dissolves lipids during film formation | Chloroform, Methanol | Effective in lipid solubilization | Toxic, needs removal | Moderate compatibility with drugs |
| Methanol | Organic | Used in combination with other solvents | Methanol, Ethanol | Helps in homogeneous lipid distribution | Toxic at higher concentrations | Can be compatible with hydrophilic drugs |
| Ethanol | Organic | Solubilizes lipids and surfactants | Ethanol, Propanol | Less toxic than chloroform and methanol | May affect drug stability | Suitable for both hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs |
| Diethyl Ether | Organic | Used in ether injection method | Diethyl Ether | Helps in controlled solvent evaporation | Highly volatile, flammable | Limited compatibility with drugs due to volatility |
| Acetone | Organic | Used for solvent evaporation | Acetone, Ethyl Acetate | Volatile, easy to remove | May cause lipid degradation | Not compatible with all drug types |
| Water | Aqueous | Hydration medium for niosome formation | Distilled Water | Non-toxic, biocompatible | Limited solubility for lipophilic drugs | Compatible with hydrophilic drugs |
| Phosphate Buffer | Aqueous (pH control) | Hydrates lipid film and maintains pH | PBS (Phosphate Buffer Saline) | Maintains niosome stability and drug release | Not suitable for unstable drugs in acidic/basic pH | High compatibility with pH-sensitive drugs |

3.4. NIOSOMES DIFFER FROM TRADITIONAL DRUG CARRIERS: AN IN-DEPTH ANALYSIS:

Niosomes are a unique and advanced drug delivery system that has gained attention for its ability to enhance the therapeutic efficacy of various drugs. They offer distinct advantages over traditional drug carriers, such as improved stability, encapsulation efficiency, biocompatibility, and targeted drug delivery. Understanding how niosomes differ from traditional drug carriers is essential for appreciating their role in modern pharmaceutical science. This in-depth analysis will explore the fundamental differences between niosomes and traditional drug carriers, examining various aspects such as their composition,

mechanisms of drug delivery, stability, biocompatibility, and applications in drug delivery systems.

Structural Differences:

The structure of niosomes sets them apart from traditional drug carriers like liposomes, emulsions, and polymeric nanoparticles. Niosomes are vesicular systems formed by non-ionic surfactants in aqueous environments. They have a bilayer structure similar to liposomes, with an aqueous core surrounded by one or more layers of non-ionic surfactants. The amphiphilic nature of surfactants allows niosomes to encapsulate both hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs. Hydrophilic drugs are encapsulated in the aqueous core. Lipophilic

drugs are incorporated into the lipid bilayer. The bilayer of niosomes is composed of synthetic surfactants like Spans (sorbitan esters) or Tweens (polysorbates), along with cholesterol, which enhances the stability of the vesicle. This structural design allows niosomes to deliver a wide variety of drugs effectively.

Traditional drug carriers include a wide range of systems, such as liposomes, micelles, emulsions, polymeric nanoparticles, and solid lipid nanoparticles. Each of these systems has a different structure. Liposomes are similar to niosomes, liposomes have a bilayer structure, but their bilayer is made of natural phospholipids. Liposomes are prone to degradation, which limits their stability compared to niosomes. Micelles are spherical structures formed by surfactants in aqueous solutions. They have a hydrophobic core and a hydrophilic shell but lack the bilayer structure of niosomes. Micelles are primarily used to deliver hydrophobic drugs. Emulsions are liquid dispersions of oil and water stabilized by surfactants. They can encapsulate lipophilic drugs in the oil phase, but their drug delivery efficiency is lower compared to vesicular systems like niosomes. Polymeric Nanoparticles are solid colloidal particles made from biocompatible polymers. Drugs are either encapsulated within or adsorbed onto the polymer matrix. While effective for certain drugs, they often lack the versatility of niosomes in encapsulating both hydrophilic and lipophilic compounds. The bilayer structure of niosomes offers greater versatility in encapsulating various types of drugs compared to traditional carriers, which are often more limited in their encapsulation capacities and stability.

Composition and Material Differences:

One of the most significant differences between niosomes and traditional drug carriers lies in the materials used for their formation. Niosomes are composed of synthetic non-ionic surfactants, such as Span and Tween series, and cholesterol. The non-ionic nature of these surfactants imparts better stability to the niosomal vesicles, making them more resistant to environmental stress and chemical degradation. Cholesterol, a key component, improves membrane stability by reducing the fluidity of the surfactant bilayer. Advantage of the synthetic nature of surfactants used in niosomes makes them more stable against oxidative degradation and hydrolysis, leading to better shelf-life and long-term stability.

In traditional drug Carriers Liposomes are made of natural phospholipids, such as

phosphatidylcholine. While biocompatible, phospholipids are prone to oxidative degradation, especially in the presence of oxygen, which reduces the stability of liposomal formulations. Polymeric Nanoparticles consist of biodegradable polymers like PLGA (poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid)) or chitosan. Though effective for controlled drug release, the preparation of polymeric nanoparticles can be complex and expensive. Micelles and Emulsion systems primarily rely on amphiphilic surfactants, but their stability is generally lower than that of niosomes, as micelles tend to break apart at low surfactant concentrations. Niosomes offer greater stability due to the use of non-ionic surfactants, which are less susceptible to oxidative and hydrolytic degradation than the materials used in traditional carriers like liposomes.

Stability:

One of the major advantages of niosomes over traditional drug carriers is their superior stability, which directly impacts their efficacy in drug delivery. Niosomes are known for their excellent stability in both storage and biological environments. The use of synthetic surfactants and cholesterol enhances the rigidity of the vesicles, making them less prone to leaking or degrading over time. Long shelf life of Niosomes have better resistance to environmental factors such as temperature, pH, and enzymatic degradation. Low leakage rate of Niosomal bilayers are less fluid compared to liposomes, reducing the risk of premature drug release.

Traditional Drug Carriers Liposomes are often less stable than niosomes due to the susceptibility of phospholipids to oxidation and hydrolysis. This can lead to vesicle breakdown and drug leakage. Micelles and Emulsion systems can be unstable, especially when diluted in biological fluids, leading to premature breakdown and drug release. polymeric nanoparticles can be stable, their production process can be more complex and less reproducible compared to the simpler methods used for niosomes. Niosomes generally offer better stability than liposomes and other traditional carriers, making them more suitable for long-term drug storage and effective delivery.

Encapsulation Efficiency and Drug Release Profile:

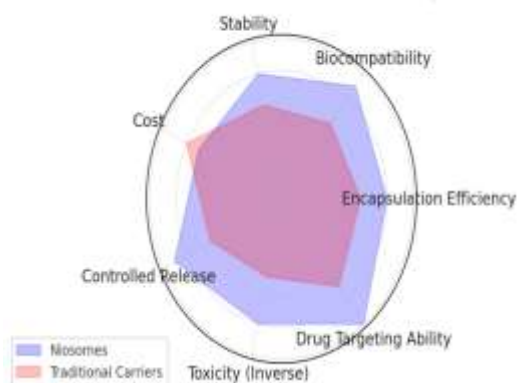
Encapsulation efficiency refers to the ability of a carrier system to encapsulate a drug, while the drug release profile determines how the drug is released over time. Niosomes can encapsulate both hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs

due to their bilayer structure and aqueous core. The encapsulation efficiency of niosomes is often higher than traditional systems, especially for hydrophilic drugs. The presence of cholesterol in the bilayer also allows for controlled drug release, enabling sustained release of the drug over time. Controlled release of niosome modify the composition of the bilayer (e.g., the ratio of surfactants to cholesterol), niosomes can be engineered to release drugs over a prolonged period, improving therapeutic outcomes.

Traditional Drug Carriers Liposomes can encapsulate hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs, but their encapsulation efficiency is often lower than that of niosomes. Liposomes also tend to release drugs faster due to their more fluid bilayers. Micelles and Emulsion systems are limited in encapsulating hydrophilic drugs and often have lower encapsulation efficiency compared to niosomes. Polymeric nanoparticles can provide controlled release, but the encapsulation process can be more complex and less versatile than niosomes. Niosomes generally exhibit higher encapsulation efficiency and can be engineered for controlled, sustained drug release compared to traditional drug carriers.

Niosomes represent a significant advancement over traditional drug carriers in terms of structure, stability, drug encapsulation, controlled release, targeted delivery, and biocompatibility. Their ability to encapsulate a wide range of drugs, combined with their superior stability and flexibility in design, makes them a promising platform for modern drug delivery systems. While traditional carriers like liposomes and polymeric nanoparticles have their merits, niosomes offer a unique set of advantages that position them as an important tool in the future of pharmaceutical sciences.

Comparison of Niosomes vs Traditional Drug Carriers



Graph-1 chart comparing niosomes and traditional drug carriers across seven key factors. Niosomes generally outperform traditional carriers in aspects such as encapsulation efficiency, biocompatibility, controlled release, and drug targeting ability, while traditional carriers tend to be more cost-effective.

3.5. THE BILAYER STRUCTURE OF NIOSOMES:

Niosomes, as vesicular drug delivery systems, exhibit a bilayer structure that is central to their function and efficiency in encapsulating and delivering therapeutic agents. This bilayer is made up of non-ionic surfactants and is analogous to the phospholipid bilayer found in liposomes, but with several distinctive characteristics that make it more versatile and stable. The bilayer structure of niosomes plays a critical role in their ability to encapsulate both hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs, control drug release, and ensure stability over time. This detailed explanation explores the composition, formation, properties, and functionality of the niosomal bilayer, highlighting its advantages and potential applications. The niosomal bilayer is primarily composed of non-ionic surfactants, which self-assemble in an aqueous environment. Surfactants are amphiphilic molecules, meaning they possess both hydrophilic (water-attracting) and hydrophobic (water-repelling) regions. In niosomes, these molecules arrange themselves in such a way that their hydrophilic heads face the aqueous environment (inside and outside the vesicle), while their hydrophobic tails align inward, away from the water, forming the bilayer. This structure is crucial because it creates an aqueous core inside the vesicle, which can encapsulate hydrophilic drugs. Simultaneously, the hydrophobic regions of the bilayer can incorporate lipophilic drugs, making niosomes capable of carrying a wide variety of therapeutic agents. The bilayer acts as a barrier, protecting the encapsulated drug from the external environment, and provides a controlled environment for drug release.

Self-Assembly of Surfactants:

The formation of the bilayer in niosomes occurs through the self-assembly of non-ionic surfactants in an aqueous medium. When surfactants are hydrated, their amphiphilic nature drives them to minimize the contact between their hydrophobic tails and water. This results in the formation of bilayers, with the hydrophobic tails sandwiched between the hydrophilic heads, creating a stable vesicle. The ability of surfactants to form bilayers rather than micelles or other

structures depends on their hydrophilic-lipophilic balance (HLB), which is a measure of the relative affinity of the surfactant for water and oil. Surfactants with an appropriate HLB value (typically between 4 and 8 for niosome formation) will form bilayers, ensuring the structural integrity of the niosome.

Cholesterol as a Stabilizing Agent:

In addition to surfactants, cholesterol is often incorporated into the niosomal bilayer to enhance its stability. Cholesterol interacts with the hydrophobic tails of the surfactants, reducing their mobility and making the bilayer more rigid and less permeable. This stabilization is crucial for preventing leakage of encapsulated drugs and prolonging the shelf life of niosomal formulations. Cholesterol's role in stabilizing the bilayer is similar to its function in biological membranes, where it regulates membrane fluidity and stability. By reducing the fluidity of the surfactant molecules, cholesterol helps to maintain the structural integrity of the niosomes, even under stress conditions such as temperature fluctuations or mechanical forces.

Encapsulation of the bilayer structure:

The bilayer structure of niosomes provides a unique environment for drug encapsulation, allowing them to carry both hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs. The ability to encapsulate diverse types of drugs is one of the key advantages of niosomes over other drug delivery systems.

Encapsulation of Hydrophilic drugs water-soluble, are encapsulated in the aqueous core of the niosomes. The bilayer structure surrounds the aqueous core, isolating the drug from the external environment. This protection is particularly important for drugs that are unstable or prone to degradation in the presence of environmental factors such as light, oxygen, or enzymes. The efficiency of encapsulating hydrophilic drugs depends on several factors, including the size of the niosomes and the thickness of the bilayer. Larger niosomes with thicker bilayers tend to have a larger aqueous core, allowing for greater encapsulation of hydrophilic drugs.

Encapsulation of Lipophilic (fat-soluble) drugs are incorporated into the hydrophobic region of the bilayer itself. The hydrophobic tails of the surfactants form a natural reservoir for lipophilic drugs, which are stably embedded within the bilayer. This dual-encapsulation capability allows niosomes to carry both hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs simultaneously, making them highly versatile

in drug delivery applications. The presence of cholesterol in the bilayer enhances the encapsulation of lipophilic drugs by increasing the rigidity of the membrane, thereby reducing drug leakage. The ability to modulate the cholesterol content allows researchers to fine-tune the release profile of lipophilic drugs from niosomes, providing a means of achieving sustained or controlled drug release.

Bilayer Properties and Functionality:

The unique properties of the niosomal bilayer contribute to the overall functionality of niosomes as drug carriers. These properties include membrane fluidity, permeability, and the ability to respond to external stimuli.

Membrane fluidity refers to the ease with which the surfactant molecules within the bilayer move relative to one another. This fluidity is influenced by the composition of the bilayer, particularly the ratio of surfactant to cholesterol. A more fluid bilayer allows for faster drug release, while a more rigid bilayer slows the release of the drug, providing a mechanism for controlled drug delivery. By adjusting the composition of the bilayer, researchers can tailor the drug release profile of niosomes to suit specific therapeutic needs. For example, increasing the cholesterol content in the bilayer decreases membrane fluidity, leading to slower drug release. Conversely, decreasing cholesterol or using surfactants with shorter hydrophobic chains increases membrane fluidity, resulting in faster drug release.

The permeability of the niosomal bilayer determines how easily encapsulated drugs can diffuse out of the vesicle. The bilayer's permeability is influenced by factors such as the length of the surfactant tails, the presence of cholesterol, and the temperature. Generally, niosomes with more rigid bilayers are less permeable, which enhances their ability to retain drugs and prolong their release. The stability of the bilayer is also crucial for the long-term viability of niosomal formulations. A stable bilayer prevents drug leakage and degradation, ensuring that the therapeutic agent remains effective until it reaches the target site. The incorporation of cholesterol into the bilayer significantly enhances stability by reducing the fluidity and permeability of the membrane, making niosomes more resistant to environmental stress.

In some cases, the bilayer of niosomes can be engineered to respond to external stimuli such as pH, temperature, or enzymatic activity. These stimuli-responsive niosomes release their drug

payload in response to changes in the external environment, providing a means of targeted drug delivery. For example, pH-sensitive niosomes may release their encapsulated drug in response to the acidic environment of a tumor or an inflamed tissue. Similarly, temperature-sensitive niosomes may release their drug when exposed to elevated temperatures, such as those encountered during hyperthermia treatments. These stimuli-responsive systems offer the potential for more precise and controlled drug delivery.

Formation Methods and Their Impact on the Bilayer:

The method used to form niosomes directly impacts the structure and properties of the bilayer. Several techniques can be used to prepare niosomes, each with its advantages and limitations.

The thin-film hydration method is one of the most common techniques for preparing niosomes. In this method, surfactants and cholesterol are dissolved in an organic solvent, which is then evaporated to form a thin lipid film. This film is subsequently hydrated with an aqueous solution, causing the surfactants to self-assemble into bilayers and form niosomes. This method produces niosomes with well-defined bilayers and good encapsulation efficiency. However, the size and uniformity of the niosomes may vary depending on the hydration conditions.

In the reverse phase evaporation method, the surfactants and cholesterol are dissolved in an organic solvent and mixed with an aqueous phase to form a water-in-oil emulsion. The organic solvent is then evaporated, causing the formation of niosomes with a bilayer structure. This method is particularly useful for encapsulating hydrophilic drugs, as it produces niosomes with a large aqueous core.

Sonication and Microfluidization methods involve applying mechanical energy to disrupt large niosomes into smaller, more uniform vesicles. Sonication uses high-frequency sound waves to break down niosomes, while microfluidization forces the niosomal solution through narrow channels under high pressure. Both methods produce niosomes with smaller, more uniform bilayers, which can enhance drug encapsulation and release properties.

Bilayer Integrity and Drug Release:

The integrity of the bilayer is critical for controlling drug release. A well-formed, stable bilayer ensures that the drug remains encapsulated until it reaches its target. Drug release from

niosomes occurs primarily through diffusion across the bilayer or by vesicle breakdown.

Controlled Release of the bilayer can be engineered to release drugs in a controlled manner over time. This is achieved by adjusting the composition of the bilayer, such as by modifying the ratio of surfactant to cholesterol or incorporating stimuli-responsive materials. Controlled release is particularly beneficial for drugs that require sustained delivery, as it reduces the need for frequent dosing and minimizes side effects. By modulating the bilayer properties, niosomes can provide a steady release of the drug over an extended period. In some cases, niosomes may exhibit an initial burst release, where a large amount of the drug is released shortly after administration. This is often due to the presence of loosely bound drug molecules on the surface of the bilayer. Burst release can be advantageous for drugs that require a rapid onset of action, such as in acute treatments. The bilayer structure of niosomes is a key factor in their effectiveness as drug delivery systems. Composed of amphiphilic surfactants and stabilized by cholesterol, the bilayer enables the encapsulation of both hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs, providing versatility in drug delivery. The ability to modulate the bilayer's fluidity, permeability, and response to external stimuli allows for precise control over drug release, making niosomes a promising platform for a wide range of therapeutic applications. The bilayer's stability and integrity ensure that encapsulated drugs are protected from degradation and delivered efficiently to their target site, highlighting the potential of niosomes in advancing drug delivery technologies.

3.6. DIFFERENT TYPES OF NIOSOMES: CONVENTIONAL, STERICALLY STABILIZED AND PH-SENSITIVE NIOSOMES:

Niosomes, as versatile drug delivery systems, can be engineered into various types to cater to specific therapeutic needs. The differences among niosome types primarily arise from the modifications in their composition, surface characteristics, and responsiveness to environmental factors. Each type of niosome offers unique advantages in terms of drug encapsulation, release profile, and targeting potential. In this discussion, we will explore three significant types of niosomes: conventional niosomes, sterically stabilized niosomes (stealth niosomes), and pH-sensitive niosomes, delving into their composition, mechanisms, and applications.

Conventional niosomes represent the most basic form of niosomes. These vesicles consist of non-ionic surfactants and cholesterol, which self-assemble into a bilayer structure in an aqueous environment. The surfactants used in these systems are amphiphilic molecules, with hydrophilic heads facing outward toward the aqueous environment and hydrophobic tails aligning inward to form the bilayer. Cholesterol is often added to enhance the stability of the bilayer by reducing membrane fluidity and permeability. Conventional niosomes can encapsulate both hydrophilic drugs in their aqueous core and lipophilic drugs within the hydrophobic region of the bilayer. This versatility makes them suitable for delivering a wide range of drugs, from small molecules to large proteins. Drug release from conventional niosomes generally occurs through diffusion or vesicle degradation. The bilayer acts as a protective barrier, ensuring that the encapsulated drug is retained until it reaches its target site. Over time, the drug either diffuses through the bilayer or is released when the vesicle breaks down in the biological environment. The rate of drug release can be controlled by modulating the composition of the niosomes. For example, increasing the cholesterol content makes the bilayer more rigid, slowing drug release. Conversely, reducing cholesterol or using surfactants with shorter hydrophobic chains increases membrane fluidity, accelerating drug release. Conventional niosomes are widely used in drug delivery applications due to their simple preparation and ability to carry both hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs. They are particularly useful for delivering drugs that need to be protected from the external environment, such as chemotherapeutic agents, antibiotics, or antiviral drugs. Moreover, they can be employed for topical and transdermal drug delivery, as their bilayer structure enhances skin penetration. However, one of the limitations of conventional niosomes is their susceptibility to clearance by the reticuloendothelial system (RES), particularly the liver and spleen. This reduces their circulation time in the bloodstream, limiting their effectiveness for systemic drug delivery. To overcome this limitation, advanced niosome formulations like sterically stabilized and pH-sensitive niosomes have been developed.

Sterically stabilized niosomes, also known as stealth niosomes, are a modified form of conventional niosomes that are designed to evade the immune system and prolong circulation time in the bloodstream. This is achieved by incorporating polyethylene glycol (PEG) or similar hydrophilic polymers into the niosomal bilayer. The PEG

chains form a protective, hydrated layer around the vesicle, which reduces its recognition by macrophages of the reticuloendothelial system. The PEG coating provides a "stealth" effect, preventing the opsonization process, where proteins in the blood bind to the surface of the niosome, marking it for clearance by the immune system. By reducing the clearance rate, sterically stabilized niosomes can remain in the bloodstream for longer periods, increasing the likelihood of reaching their target tissue. Drug release from sterically stabilized niosomes follows a similar mechanism to that of conventional niosomes, with the drug being released either by diffusion through the bilayer or by degradation of the vesicle. However, the presence of the PEG coating can slow down drug release, as it adds an additional barrier that the drug must diffuse through. The primary advantage of sterically stabilized niosomes lies in their extended circulation time. This makes them particularly suitable for delivering drugs that require systemic distribution, such as chemotherapeutic agents for cancer treatment or drugs targeting organs like the liver, lungs, or brain. Applications of the Sterically stabilized niosomes have been extensively studied for their potential in targeted drug delivery and long-circulating drug delivery systems. They are ideal for delivering anticancer drugs, as the prolonged circulation time allows the niosomes to accumulate in tumors through the enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) effect, a phenomenon where leaky blood vessels in tumors allow nanoparticles to penetrate and remain in the tumor tissue. In addition to cancer therapy, stealth niosomes are also used in gene delivery and vaccine development. The PEG coating reduces the likelihood of immune system activation, making these niosomes an attractive option for delivering vaccines or gene therapies that require multiple doses over time.

pH-sensitive niosomes are designed to release their drug payload in response to changes in the pH of the surrounding environment. These niosomes are typically composed of surfactants or other materials that are sensitive to acidic or basic conditions, such as cholesteryl hemisuccinate (CHEMS) or fatty acids. In their stable state, the niosomal bilayer remains intact, but when exposed to an acidic environment, such as the interior of a tumor or endosome, the bilayer destabilizes, releasing the encapsulated drug. The design of pH-sensitive niosomes takes advantage of the fact that certain pathological conditions, such as cancer or inflammation, create localized areas of low pH. By releasing the drug only in these acidic

environments, pH-sensitive niosomes provide targeted drug delivery while minimizing the release of the drug in healthy tissues, thereby reducing systemic toxicity. Drug release from pH-sensitive niosomes occurs through bilayer destabilization. Under neutral pH conditions, the bilayer remains intact, and the drug is retained within the vesicle. However, when the niosomes encounter an acidic environment, the surfactant molecules undergo conformational changes that disrupt the bilayer, allowing the drug to escape into the surrounding environment. This pH-triggered release is particularly useful for targeting diseases like cancer, where the tumor microenvironment is often more acidic than normal tissues. Additionally, pH-sensitive niosomes can be used for intracellular drug delivery, as they are taken up by cells via endocytosis and release their drug payload when they are trafficked to the acidic compartments of the endosome or lysosome. pH-sensitive niosomes are ideal for tumor-targeted drug delivery, as they can exploit the acidic tumor microenvironment to release chemotherapeutic agents directly at the site of the tumor. This targeted delivery reduces the exposure of healthy tissues to toxic drugs, minimizing side effects and enhancing the efficacy of the treatment. In addition to cancer therapy, pH-sensitive niosomes have been investigated for the delivery of proteins, peptides, and nucleic acids, where controlled release in the intracellular environment is crucial for therapeutic efficacy. These niosomes are also used in the treatment of inflammatory diseases, where local areas of low pH are common.

Niosomes offer a flexible and adaptable platform for drug delivery, with different types of niosomes—conventional, sterically stabilized, and pH-sensitive—designed to meet specific therapeutic challenges. Conventional niosomes are simple and versatile, capable of encapsulating a wide range of drugs, but they have limitations in terms of circulation time and targeting. Sterically stabilized niosomes overcome these limitations by incorporating PEG to avoid immune clearance, making them suitable for long-circulating, systemic drug delivery. pH-sensitive niosomes take advantage of environmental triggers, such as changes in pH, to release drugs in specific locations, such as tumor tissues or intracellular compartments. Each type of niosome has its strengths and applications, offering solutions for drug delivery challenges in areas such as cancer therapy, inflammation, gene delivery, and vaccine development. By carefully selecting and designing the appropriate type of niosome, researchers and

clinicians can enhance drug efficacy, minimize side effects, and improve patient outcomes. Niosomes, as non-ionic surfactant-based vesicles, offer an effective platform for drug delivery by improving permeation through biological barriers and enabling targeted delivery to specific tissues or cells. The mechanism of action that allows niosomes to enhance permeation and achieve targeting is multifaceted and revolves around their ability to encapsulate drugs, interact with cell membranes, and respond to specific environmental or physiological conditions. This process involves improved Drug Encapsulation and Stability, Enhanced Permeation Through Biological Barriers, Targeted Drug Delivery, Controlled and Sustained Drug Release

Niosomes can encapsulate a wide range of therapeutic agents, including hydrophilic, lipophilic, and amphiphilic drugs. This broad compatibility is due to their unique bilayer structure, composed of non-ionic surfactants and cholesterol. Hydrophilic drugs are housed within the aqueous core of the niosome. Lipophilic drugs are integrated into the hydrophobic regions of the bilayer. Amphiphilic drugs can interact with both regions, depending on their polarity. The encapsulation within niosomes provides a protective environment, shielding the drug from degradation by external factors such as enzymes, pH changes, and light. This increases the stability and bioavailability of the drug, particularly in conditions like the gastrointestinal tract or bloodstream where degradation can occur. How this impacts permeation and targeting: Improved stability ensures that the drug remains intact during transport, while the encapsulation within niosomes prevents premature release and degradation before the drug reaches its target.

Enhanced permeation through biological barriers is one of the key challenges in drug delivery is crossing biological barriers such as the skin, mucosal membranes, and the blood-brain barrier. Niosomes enhance permeation through these barriers due to the following mechanisms. Niosomes, due to their lipid-like bilayer structure, can easily interact with biological membranes. Their non-ionic surfactant bilayer is similar to the phospholipid bilayers of cell membranes, allowing them to fuse or penetrate these membranes more effectively. This interaction facilitates the transport of the encapsulated drug across the membrane into deeper tissues or cells. Niosomes improve permeation by disrupting the skin's stratum corneum, the outermost layer that serves as a major barrier to drug penetration. The flexible bilayer of

niosomes interacts with skin lipids, loosening the tight lipid structure of the stratum corneum and allowing the drug to pass through. In the bloodstream, niosomes can fuse with or be taken up by cell membranes, allowing the drug to be delivered directly into the cytoplasm or intracellular organelles, such as lysosomes or the endoplasmic reticulum. The size of niosomes, typically in the nanometer range (100-200 nm), is advantageous for permeation. Smaller vesicles can navigate through tight junctions in biological membranes, such as capillary endothelial cells in the brain or lung tissues. The surface charge of niosomes can also be optimized to enhance permeation. Positively charged niosomes, for instance, interact more readily with negatively charged cell membranes, leading to improved adhesion and uptake. The fluidity of the surfactant molecules within the niosomal bilayer influences their ability to permeate membranes. By modifying the type of surfactant or adjusting the cholesterol content, the fluidity of the bilayer can be fine-tuned to enhance interaction with and penetration through biological membranes. How this impacts permeation: Niosomes facilitate the transport of drugs across difficult-to-penetrate barriers like the skin or mucosal surfaces, thereby improving drug absorption and bioavailability. For transdermal drug delivery, this reduces the need for injections or oral administration, making treatment less invasive.

In targeted drug delivery niosomes are engineered for targeted drug delivery, ensuring that the therapeutic agent is delivered specifically to the disease site, while minimizing exposure to healthy tissues. This selective targeting can occur through passive targeting, active targeting, or stimuli-responsive targeting.

In passive targeting, niosomes leverage the natural biological environment to accumulate at specific sites, such as tumor tissues. This is due to the enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) effect, which occurs in tumors and inflamed tissues where the vasculature is leaky, allowing niosomes to extravasate and accumulate in the tissue. Tumor Targeting: Niosomes can accumulate in tumor tissues due to the EPR effect, leading to higher drug concentrations at the tumor site without affecting healthy tissues.

Active targeting involves modifying the surface of niosomes with specific ligands, such as antibodies, peptides, or folic acid, that can recognize and bind to receptors overexpressed on target cells (e.g., cancer cells). Once bound, the niosomes are taken up by the target cells through receptor-mediated endocytosis, releasing the drug

inside the cell. Folic Acid-Targeted Niosomes: Cancer cells often overexpress folate receptors. Niosomes modified with folic acid can selectively bind to these receptors, ensuring that the drug is delivered specifically to the cancerous cells. Some niosomes can be designed to respond to environmental stimuli, such as pH, temperature, or enzymatic activity. For example, pH-sensitive niosomes release their drug payload when they encounter the acidic environment of a tumor or an inflamed tissue. Similarly, temperature-sensitive niosomes can release their drug in response to elevated temperatures, such as those used in hyperthermia treatments. Through passive and active targeting, niosomes enhance the delivery of drugs to specific tissues, increasing therapeutic efficacy while minimizing off-target effects and toxicity. This targeted delivery is particularly valuable in treating cancer, where precise drug delivery can reduce harmful side effects associated with chemotherapy.

Niosomes can be formulated to achieve controlled and sustained release of drugs. This is a crucial aspect of their mechanism of action, as it allows for a consistent and prolonged therapeutic effect, reducing the need for frequent dosing. The composition of the niosomal bilayer, particularly the ratio of surfactant to cholesterol, plays a significant role in controlling the rate of drug release. A more rigid bilayer, typically achieved by increasing the cholesterol content, results in slower drug release. In contrast, a more fluid bilayer accelerates drug release. Niosomes can be engineered to release their drug payload in response to specific environmental conditions. For instance, pH-sensitive niosomes will remain stable in neutral pH environments but will release their drug in acidic conditions. This is particularly useful for targeting tumors, as the microenvironment of tumors is often more acidic than healthy tissues. The encapsulation of drugs within niosomes provides a sustained release profile, where the drug is gradually released over time. This controlled release is beneficial for maintaining a steady therapeutic concentration of the drug in the body, reducing peak-trough fluctuations and improving patient compliance. By offering controlled and sustained drug release, niosomes ensure that the drug remains effective for a longer duration, reducing the need for repeated administration. This is particularly advantageous in chronic conditions where maintaining a consistent drug level is crucial for treatment efficacy.

The mechanism of action of niosomes in enhancing permeation and targeting revolves

around their unique bilayer structure, which improves drug stability, enables passage through biological barriers, and allows for targeted delivery. By interacting with cell membranes, niosomes enhance the absorption of drugs, while their modifiable surface characteristics allow for both passive and active targeting. Additionally, their ability to release drugs in a controlled manner ensures sustained therapeutic effects, making niosomes a highly versatile and effective drug delivery system. These capabilities highlight the potential of niosomes to revolutionize drug delivery in areas such as cancer therapy, transdermal delivery, and systemic drug administration.

3.7. Advantages of Niosomes in Drug Delivery Systems: A Comprehensive Overview:

Niosomes, non-ionic surfactant-based vesicles, have emerged as a versatile and promising platform for drug delivery. These nanoscale carriers are capable of encapsulating both hydrophilic (water-soluble) and hydrophobic (water-insoluble) drugs, making them highly adaptable for delivering a wide range of therapeutic agents. Their unique bilayer structure, resembling that of liposomes but more stable and cost-effective, allows for improved drug stability, targeted delivery, and controlled release. As a result, niosomes have gained attention in pharmaceutical research and clinical trials, offering significant advantages over conventional drug delivery systems. This section provides a detailed examination of the key advantages of niosomes, emphasizing their role in improving drug bioavailability, enhancing patient compliance, and reducing side effects.

One of the primary advantages of niosomes is their ability to improve the stability of encapsulated drugs. Many pharmaceutical compounds, especially those used in cancer therapy, antibiotics, and anti-inflammatory treatments, are sensitive to environmental factors such as light, pH changes, and enzymatic degradation. When encapsulated in niosomes, drugs are protected from these external conditions, leading to increased stability and shelf life. Niosomes can form a barrier around the drug molecules, shielding them from degradation and preventing premature release. This is particularly valuable for drugs with short half-lives or those prone to oxidation and hydrolysis. For example, niosome-based formulations of doxorubicin, a widely used chemotherapeutic agent, have shown enhanced stability compared to free doxorubicin. The niosomal encapsulation protects the drug from degradation in the bloodstream, allowing for a

longer circulation time and improved accumulation at the tumor site. This advantage not only preserves the efficacy of the drug but also ensures that a larger proportion of the administered dose reaches the target tissue, leading to better therapeutic outcomes.

Niosomes are capable of encapsulating both hydrophilic and hydrophobic drugs, offering a versatile delivery platform for a wide variety of therapeutic agents. Hydrophilic drugs are typically entrapped in the aqueous core of the niosome, while hydrophobic drugs are incorporated into the lipid bilayer. This dual-encapsulation capability allows niosomes to be used for a broad spectrum of drugs, from antibiotics and antiviral agents to anticancer and anti-inflammatory drugs. In contrast, conventional drug delivery systems often face limitations based on the solubility of the drug. For instance, hydrophobic drugs often require solubilizing agents, which can lead to undesirable side effects or reduced drug efficacy. Niosomes circumvent this issue by providing a stable and biocompatible environment for hydrophobic drugs, enhancing their solubility and bioavailability. Similarly, for hydrophilic drugs that may be rapidly cleared from the body, niosomes offer sustained release, prolonging the drug's presence in the system and improving therapeutic efficacy.

Another significant advantage of niosomes is their ability to facilitate targeted drug delivery. In conventional drug delivery systems, drugs are often distributed throughout the body, which can result in non-specific action and undesirable side effects. Niosomes, however, can be designed to deliver drugs specifically to the site of action, reducing systemic exposure and minimizing off-target effects. This is particularly advantageous in cancer therapy, where targeted delivery to tumor cells is essential to maximize efficacy while minimizing damage to healthy tissues. Niosomes can be engineered to enhance their targeting capabilities in several ways. For instance, surface modification with ligands such as antibodies, peptides, or aptamers can allow niosomes to recognize and bind to specific receptors on target cells. Once bound, the niosomes are internalized by the target cells, where they release their drug payload in a controlled manner. This type of targeted delivery is especially useful in treating diseases where drug specificity is critical, such as cancer, autoimmune diseases, and chronic infections. In addition to targeted delivery, niosomes offer controlled release of encapsulated drugs. The rate of drug release from niosomes can be modulated by adjusting the composition of the bilayer, the size of the vesicles,

and the method of preparation. This controlled release ensures a steady supply of the drug over an extended period, reducing the need for frequent dosing and improving patient compliance.

One of the major challenges in drug therapy is balancing efficacy with safety. Many potent drugs, especially chemotherapeutics and antibiotics, are associated with significant toxicity and side effects when administered systemically. Niosomes offer a solution to this problem by allowing for localized and controlled drug release, thereby reducing the systemic exposure of the drug and minimizing side effects. For example, the use of niosomal amphotericin B, an antifungal agent, has been shown to reduce the drug's nephrotoxicity, a serious side effect associated with conventional formulations of amphotericin B. By encapsulating the drug in niosomes, the toxic effects on the kidneys were significantly minimized, while maintaining the drug's antifungal efficacy. Similarly, in cancer therapy, niosomal formulations of chemotherapeutic agents such as paclitaxel and cisplatin have demonstrated reduced cardiotoxicity and neurotoxicity, which are common side effects of these drugs when delivered via conventional methods. This reduction in toxicity not only improves patient safety but also allows for higher doses of the drug to be administered, potentially enhancing therapeutic outcomes without compromising the patient's quality of life. In chronic diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis and diabetes, niosomes provide a means of delivering drugs in a way that reduces the risk of long-term side effects associated with oral or injectable administration.

Niosomes have been extensively studied for their ability to enhance drug permeation across biological barriers, particularly the skin and the gastrointestinal tract. This advantage is especially important for transdermal drug delivery, where the stratum corneum (the outermost layer of the skin) acts as a significant barrier to drug penetration. Niosomes can improve drug permeation by interacting with the lipid components of the skin, loosening the tight junctions between cells, and facilitating the passage of drugs into the deeper layers of the skin. In clinical studies, niosomes have demonstrated superior permeation and bioavailability of drugs such as diclofenac (for pain relief), methotrexate (for psoriasis treatment), and miconazole (for fungal infections). The enhanced permeation provided by niosomes allows for lower doses of the drug to be used while achieving the same or better therapeutic effect, reducing the risk of side effects associated with higher

doses. Niosomes are also effective in improving the oral bioavailability of drugs that are poorly absorbed in the gastrointestinal tract. By protecting drugs from enzymatic degradation and facilitating their absorption through the intestinal wall, niosomes can increase the bioavailability of oral medications, making them more effective at lower doses. This is particularly beneficial for drugs such as insulin, which are typically administered via injection due to their poor oral bioavailability. Niosomal insulin formulations have shown promise in clinical trials, offering a potential non-invasive alternative to insulin injections for diabetes management.

Niosomes are composed of non-ionic surfactants, cholesterol, and other biocompatible materials, which make them highly suitable for pharmaceutical applications. Their non-toxic and non-immunogenic nature ensures that they are well-tolerated by the body, reducing the risk of allergic reactions or immune responses. Unlike some other drug delivery systems, such as liposomes, which may trigger immune responses, niosomes have a low propensity for causing hypersensitivity reactions, making them safer for long-term use. Furthermore, niosomes can be easily tailored to meet specific therapeutic needs by adjusting their composition, size, and surface characteristics. This adaptability allows for the design of personalized drug delivery systems that can be optimized for individual patients, enhancing treatment efficacy and safety.

Niosomes offer a multitude of advantages as drug delivery vehicles, including improved drug stability, the ability to encapsulate both hydrophilic and hydrophobic drugs, targeted and controlled drug delivery, reduced toxicity, enhanced permeation, and excellent biocompatibility. These advantages make niosomes a versatile and powerful tool for addressing the limitations of conventional drug delivery systems, particularly in the treatment of chronic diseases, cancer, infectious diseases, and dermatological conditions. As research and development in niosomal technology continue to advance, their potential to revolutionize drug delivery and improve patient outcomes becomes increasingly apparent.

3.8. Characterization of Niosomes:

Niosomes, also known as non-ionic surfactant vesicles, represent a novel drug delivery system that holds immense potential for improving dermal drug delivery. Characterization of niosomes is crucial for understanding their behavior, stability, and efficacy in delivering therapeutic agents.

Proper characterization provides insights into the physicochemical properties of niosomes, such as their size, shape, surface charge, lamellarity, encapsulation efficiency, and stability, all of which directly influence their performance in drug delivery. This comprehensive characterization allows for optimization of niosome formulations, ensuring that they deliver drugs effectively and safely while minimizing unwanted side effects.

The first and foremost parameter in the characterization of niosomes is vesicle size and size distribution. These properties are vital because they affect the biodistribution, drug release, and cellular uptake of the niosomes. Niosomes can range in size from 10 nm to several micrometers, and this variability can be influenced by the preparation method, surfactant concentration, and the type of non-ionic surfactants used. Small unilamellar vesicles (SUVs), multilamellar vesicles (MLVs), and large unilamellar vesicles (LUVs) are common types of niosomes based on size and lamellarity. Techniques like dynamic light scattering (DLS) and photon correlation spectroscopy (PCS) are commonly employed to determine the size and polydispersity index (PDI) of niosomes. A low PDI value indicates a homogenous vesicle population, which is desirable for consistent drug release profiles and targeted drug delivery.

Another important aspect is the morphology and shape of niosomes, which are typically spherical or near-spherical in shape. The vesicular shape and structure can be observed using techniques such as transmission electron microscopy (TEM), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and cryogenic electron microscopy (Cryo-EM). These methods allow for detailed visualization of the niosomal bilayer structure, confirming the presence of a well-defined bilayer membrane. A spherical shape is preferred for dermal drug delivery as it facilitates a more uniform distribution on the skin and better interaction with the stratum corneum.

The surface charge or zeta potential of niosomes is another critical parameter in their characterization, as it provides information on the stability of the colloidal system. Zeta potential measures the electrical charge on the surface of the vesicles, which affects their aggregation and dispersion properties. A high absolute zeta potential value (whether positive or negative) indicates that the niosomes are less likely to aggregate, resulting in a more stable formulation. On the other hand, low zeta potential values can lead to vesicle aggregation and instability over time. Measuring the zeta potential helps in predicting the long-term

physical stability of the niosomes in suspension. Additionally, surface charge plays a role in the interaction of niosomes with biological membranes and cells, influencing the uptake and permeation of drugs through the skin barrier.

Lamellarity, or the number of bilayer membranes in niosomes, is another important factor that influences drug loading capacity and release behavior. Niosomes can be unilamellar, having a single lipid bilayer, or multilamellar, having multiple concentric bilayers. Multilamellar vesicles (MLVs) can encapsulate a larger volume of hydrophilic drugs in the aqueous core and lipophilic drugs in the bilayers, providing a higher drug loading efficiency. Small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) and freeze-fracture electron microscopy (FFEM) are commonly used techniques to assess the lamellarity of niosomes. The choice between unilamellar and multilamellar niosomes depends on the intended application, as the lamellarity affects drug release kinetics. Multilamellar niosomes, for instance, tend to offer a slower and more sustained release of drugs compared to unilamellar vesicles.

Another important aspect of niosome characterization is encapsulation efficiency (EE), which refers to the percentage of drug successfully incorporated into the niosomal vesicles. High encapsulation efficiency is desired to ensure that a significant amount of the drug is delivered to the target site without wastage. The encapsulation efficiency depends on factors such as the type of drug, the nature of the surfactants, the preparation method, and the composition of the bilayer. Techniques like ultracentrifugation, dialysis, and gel filtration are used to separate the free drug from the encapsulated drug, and the drug content is then quantified using appropriate analytical methods such as UV-visible spectrophotometry or high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). High EE ensures better therapeutic efficacy by delivering a larger fraction of the drug to the skin.

In vitro drug release studies are also crucial for characterizing niosomes, as they provide insights into the release kinetics of the encapsulated drug. The release profile of a drug from niosomes can be influenced by factors such as vesicle size, bilayer composition, and surface charge. Controlled release of drugs is one of the primary advantages of niosomes, as it allows for sustained and prolonged drug action, reducing the frequency of administration and improving patient compliance. Drug release studies can be performed using dialysis bags, Franz diffusion cells, or modified release chambers, and the drug concentration in the

release medium is measured at specific time intervals. Niosomes can exhibit a variety of release kinetics, including zero-order, first-order, or Higuchi release, depending on the formulation.

Stability studies are essential for evaluating the physical and chemical stability of niosomes over time. Stability testing involves monitoring changes in vesicle size, surface charge, encapsulation efficiency, and drug release profiles under different storage conditions such as temperature, humidity, and light exposure. Niosomes can undergo physical instability due to aggregation, fusion, or leakage of encapsulated drugs, which compromises their effectiveness as drug carriers. Chemical degradation of surfactants and drugs can also occur, particularly in the presence of light, oxygen, or high temperatures. Long-term stability studies help determine the shelf life of niosome formulations and are a critical part of the development process for commercial drug delivery systems.

Finally, the interaction of niosomes with the skin plays a pivotal role in their characterization, especially in the context of dermal drug delivery. Niosomes enhance drug permeation through the skin by interacting with the stratum corneum, the outermost layer of the skin, which acts as the primary barrier to drug absorption. The surfactants in niosomes can disrupt the lipid structure of the stratum corneum, increasing skin permeability and facilitating the delivery of drugs to deeper layers. In vitro skin permeation studies using Franz diffusion cells and ex vivo skin models are commonly employed to assess the permeation and deposition of drugs delivered by niosomes. These studies provide valuable information about the effectiveness of niosomes in overcoming the skin barrier and delivering drugs to the target site.

The characterization of niosomes is a multifaceted process that involves the evaluation of various physicochemical parameters such as vesicle size, morphology, surface charge, lamellarity, encapsulation efficiency, drug release profiles, stability, and skin permeation. Each of these parameters plays a crucial role in determining the effectiveness of niosomes as a drug delivery system, particularly for dermal applications. Proper characterization ensures that niosomes are optimized for delivering drugs in a controlled, sustained, and targeted manner, improving therapeutic outcomes and patient compliance while minimizing side effects. With continued advancements in niosome technology and characterization techniques, niosomes hold great promise for revolutionizing dermal drug delivery

systems and enhancing the treatment of various skin conditions.

3.9. Advantages of Niosomes in Drug Delivery Systems:

Niosomes, non-ionic surfactant-based vesicles, have emerged as a versatile and promising platform for drug delivery. These nanoscale carriers are capable of encapsulating both hydrophilic (water-soluble) and hydrophobic (water-insoluble) drugs, making them highly adaptable for delivering a wide range of therapeutic agents. Their unique bilayer structure, resembling that of liposomes but more stable and cost-effective, allows for improved drug stability, targeted delivery, and controlled release. As a result, niosomes have gained attention in pharmaceutical research and clinical trials, offering significant advantages over conventional drug delivery systems. This section provides a detailed examination of the key advantages of niosomes, emphasizing their role in improving drug bioavailability, enhancing patient compliance, and reducing side effects.

One of the primary advantages of niosomes is their ability to improve the stability of encapsulated drugs. Many pharmaceutical compounds, especially those used in cancer therapy, antibiotics, and anti-inflammatory treatments, are sensitive to environmental factors such as light, pH changes, and enzymatic degradation. When encapsulated in niosomes, drugs are protected from these external conditions, leading to increased stability and shelf life. Niosomes can form a barrier around the drug molecules, shielding them from degradation and preventing premature release. This is particularly valuable for drugs with short half-lives or those prone to oxidation and hydrolysis. For example, niosome-based formulations of doxorubicin, a widely used chemotherapeutic agent, have shown enhanced stability compared to free doxorubicin. The niosomal encapsulation protects the drug from degradation in the bloodstream, allowing for a longer circulation time and improved accumulation at the tumor site. This advantage not only preserves the efficacy of the drug but also ensures that a larger proportion of the administered dose reaches the target tissue, leading to better therapeutic outcomes.

Niosomes are capable of encapsulating both hydrophilic and hydrophobic drugs, offering a versatile delivery platform for a wide variety of therapeutic agents. Hydrophilic drugs are typically entrapped in the aqueous core of the niosome, while hydrophobic drugs are incorporated into the

lipid bilayer. This dual-encapsulation capability allows niosomes to be used for a broad spectrum of drugs, from antibiotics and antiviral agents to anticancer and anti-inflammatory drugs. In contrast, conventional drug delivery systems often face limitations based on the solubility of the drug. For instance, hydrophobic drugs often require solubilizing agents, which can lead to undesirable side effects or reduced drug efficacy. Niosomes circumvent this issue by providing a stable and biocompatible environment for hydrophobic drugs, enhancing their solubility and bioavailability. Similarly, for hydrophilic drugs that may be rapidly cleared from the body, niosomes offer sustained release, prolonging the drug's presence in the system and improving therapeutic efficacy.

Another significant advantage of niosomes is their ability to facilitate targeted drug delivery. In conventional drug delivery systems, drugs are often distributed throughout the body, which can result in non-specific action and undesirable side effects. Niosomes, however, can be designed to deliver drugs specifically to the site of action, reducing systemic exposure and minimizing off-target effects. This is particularly advantageous in cancer therapy, where targeted delivery to tumor cells is essential to maximize efficacy while minimizing damage to healthy tissues. Niosomes can be engineered to enhance their targeting capabilities in several ways. For instance, surface modification with ligands such as antibodies, peptides, or aptamers can allow niosomes to recognize and bind to specific receptors on target cells. Once bound, the niosomes are internalized by the target cells, where they release their drug payload in a controlled manner. This type of targeted delivery is especially useful in treating diseases where drug specificity is critical, such as cancer, autoimmune diseases, and chronic infections. In addition to targeted delivery, niosomes offer controlled release of encapsulated drugs. The rate of drug release from niosomes can be modulated by adjusting the composition of the bilayer, the size of the vesicles, and the method of preparation. This controlled release ensures a steady supply of the drug over an extended period, reducing the need for frequent dosing and improving patient compliance.

One of the major challenges in drug therapy is balancing efficacy with safety. Many potent drugs, especially chemotherapeutics and antibiotics, are associated with significant toxicity and side effects when administered systemically. Niosomes offer a solution to this problem by allowing for localized and controlled drug release, thereby reducing the systemic exposure of the drug

and minimizing side effects. For example, the use of niosomal amphotericin B, an antifungal agent, has been shown to reduce the drug's nephrotoxicity, a serious side effect associated with conventional formulations of amphotericin B. By encapsulating the drug in niosomes, the toxic effects on the kidneys were significantly minimized, while maintaining the drug's antifungal efficacy. Similarly, in cancer therapy, niosomal formulations of chemotherapeutic agents such as paclitaxel and cisplatin have demonstrated reduced cardiotoxicity and neurotoxicity, which are common side effects of these drugs when delivered via conventional methods. This reduction in toxicity not only improves patient safety but also allows for higher doses of the drug to be administered, potentially enhancing therapeutic outcomes without compromising the patient's quality of life. In chronic diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis and diabetes, niosomes provide a means of delivering drugs in a way that reduces the risk of long-term side effects associated with oral or injectable administration.

Niosomes have been extensively studied for their ability to enhance drug permeation across biological barriers, particularly the skin and the gastrointestinal tract. This advantage is especially important for transdermal drug delivery, where the stratum corneum (the outermost layer of the skin) acts as a significant barrier to drug penetration. Niosomes can improve drug permeation by interacting with the lipid components of the skin, loosening the tight junctions between cells, and facilitating the passage of drugs into the deeper layers of the skin. In clinical studies, niosomes have demonstrated superior permeation and bioavailability of drugs such as diclofenac (for pain relief), methotrexate (for psoriasis treatment), and miconazole (for fungal infections). The enhanced permeation provided by niosomes allows for lower doses of the drug to be used while achieving the same or better therapeutic effect, reducing the risk of side effects associated with higher doses. Niosomes are also effective in improving the oral bioavailability of drugs that are poorly absorbed in the gastrointestinal tract. By protecting drugs from enzymatic degradation and facilitating their absorption through the intestinal wall, niosomes can increase the bioavailability of oral medications, making them more effective at lower doses. This is particularly beneficial for drugs such as insulin, which are typically administered via injection due to their poor oral bioavailability. Niosomal insulin formulations have shown promise in clinical trials, offering a potential non-invasive

alternative to insulin injections for diabetes management.

Niosomes are composed of non-ionic surfactants, cholesterol, and other biocompatible materials, which make them highly suitable for pharmaceutical applications. Their non-toxic and non-immunogenic nature ensures that they are well-tolerated by the body, reducing the risk of allergic reactions or immune responses. Unlike some other drug delivery systems, such as liposomes, which may trigger immune responses, niosomes have a low propensity for causing hypersensitivity reactions, making them safer for long-term use. Furthermore, niosomes can be easily tailored to meet specific therapeutic needs by adjusting their composition, size, and surface characteristics. This adaptability allows for the design of personalized drug delivery systems that can be optimized for individual patients, enhancing treatment efficacy and safety.

Niosomes offer a multitude of advantages as drug delivery vehicles, including improved drug stability, the ability to encapsulate both hydrophilic and hydrophobic drugs, targeted and controlled drug delivery, reduced toxicity, enhanced permeation, and excellent biocompatibility. These advantages make niosomes a versatile and powerful tool for addressing the limitations of conventional drug delivery systems, particularly in the treatment of chronic diseases, cancer, infectious diseases, and dermatological conditions. As research and development in niosomal technology continue to advance, their potential to revolutionize drug delivery and improve patient outcomes becomes increasingly apparent.

3.10. NIOSOME- BASED DERMAL DRUG DELIVERY SYSTEM: APPLICATIONS IN DERMATOLOGICAL DISEASES:

Niosomes are non-ionic surfactant-based vesicular systems that have emerged as promising carriers for drug delivery. They are similar to liposomes but are formed using non-ionic surfactants, cholesterol, and sometimes charged lipids. Due to their unique properties, niosomes have been extensively studied for dermal drug delivery, particularly in treating dermatological diseases such as acne, psoriasis, and in wound healing. This article delves into the potential applications and benefits of niosome-based drug delivery systems in these contexts.

Niosomes in Acne Treatment is a common dermatological condition characterized by inflammation and the presence of comedones (blocked pores). Traditional treatments include

topical retinoids and antibiotics, which can have limited efficacy and side effects. Niosome-based drug delivery systems offer several advantages:

Niosomes can encapsulate anti-acne agents like benzoyl peroxide and clindamycin, enabling targeted delivery to sebaceous glands. This localization minimizes systemic absorption and potential side effects. Studies have shown that niosome-encapsulated drugs exhibit higher penetration levels in the skin. For example, niosomes containing benzoyl peroxide demonstrated enhanced therapeutic action and reduced irritation compared to conventional formulations. The controlled release profile of niosomes can mitigate the irritation commonly associated with topical retinoids, making treatment more tolerable for patients. Niosomes can co-encapsulate multiple active ingredients, allowing for combination therapies that target various aspects of acne pathogenesis simultaneously. This approach can lead to more comprehensive management of the condition.

Niosomes in Psoriasis Management is an autoimmune condition that leads to rapid skin cell proliferation and inflammation, resulting in red, scaly patches. Treatment often involves topical corticosteroids, vitamin D analogs, or retinoids. Niosome technology offers several innovative solutions for managing psoriasis. Niosomes can improve the skin penetration of drugs like calcipotriene and betamethasone, which are commonly used in psoriasis management. By enhancing the bioavailability of these agents, niosomes can potentially reduce the frequency of application and increase treatment efficacy. By targeting specific skin layers, niosomes can deliver therapeutic agents more effectively to the sites of inflammation, thus improving the therapeutic outcome while minimizing systemic exposure and side effects. The sustained release characteristics of niosomes can prolong the therapeutic effects of topical treatments, reducing the need for frequent applications and improving patient compliance. Some studies suggest that niosomes themselves may have intrinsic anti-inflammatory properties, potentially contributing to the overall management of psoriasis beyond mere drug delivery.

Niosomes in Wound Healing is a complex biological process that can be impaired by various factors, including infection, inflammation, and insufficient blood supply. Niosomes can play a significant role in enhancing wound healing. Niosomes can encapsulate growth factors, anti-inflammatory drugs, and antimicrobial agents,

facilitating localized delivery to the wound site. For instance, niosomes loaded with growth factors can enhance cell proliferation and migration, crucial for tissue repair. Niosomes can improve the delivery of antibiotics or antimicrobial peptides, helping to prevent or treat infections in wounds. This is especially important in chronic wounds, which are often complicated by biofilm-forming bacteria. By providing a hydrating environment, niosomes can help maintain moisture at the wound site, promoting better healing conditions. The encapsulation of anti-inflammatory agents in niosomes can help reduce inflammation at the wound site, facilitating a faster healing process.

3.11. CLINICAL TRIALS AND STUDIES:

Niosomes, non-ionic surfactant-based vesicles, have garnered considerable attention in drug delivery research due to their ability to encapsulate both hydrophilic and hydrophobic drugs, improve drug stability, and enhance bioavailability. Their flexible structure, ease of preparation, and ability to deliver drugs through various routes, including dermal, oral, and intravenous, make them a versatile platform for therapeutic delivery. Over the past few decades, clinical trials and studies have explored the potential of niosomes in various therapeutic areas, particularly in dermatology, oncology, infectious diseases, and chronic conditions such as rheumatoid arthritis. This overview provides a detailed analysis of the clinical trials and studies conducted on niosomal drug delivery systems, highlighting their efficacy, safety, and potential as future therapeutics.

One of the most prominent areas where niosomes have been extensively studied is dermatology, particularly for enhancing dermal drug delivery. Niosomes have demonstrated an ability to improve the permeation of drugs across the skin barrier, a significant challenge in topical formulations. Clinical studies have explored their application in delivering anti-inflammatory agents, antimicrobial drugs, and treatments for chronic skin diseases like psoriasis and atopic dermatitis.

For instance, a clinical study investigated the use of niosomes in delivering diclofenac, a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID), for the treatment of localized pain and inflammation. The niosomal formulation of diclofenac demonstrated superior permeation through the stratum corneum, leading to enhanced drug delivery to the inflamed tissues. Patients reported faster and more prolonged pain relief compared to conventional diclofenac gels. This study underlined

the ability of niosomes to act as carriers for anti-inflammatory drugs, improving efficacy while minimizing systemic absorption and related side effects.

Similarly, niosomes have been used in the treatment of psoriasis, a chronic autoimmune skin condition characterized by hyperproliferation of keratinocytes and inflammation. Clinical trials have evaluated niosome-based delivery of methotrexate, a cornerstone drug in psoriasis treatment. Niosomal methotrexate showed better therapeutic outcomes due to improved skin retention and targeted delivery to psoriatic lesions. Patients in these studies exhibited reduced lesion size, decreased scaling, and improved skin texture compared to those using conventional formulations. Moreover, the niosomal system minimized methotrexate's systemic toxicity, a significant issue with traditional oral and parenteral routes.

Another noteworthy application is the use of niosomes for delivering antimicrobial agents to treat bacterial and fungal infections. A study investigated niosome-encapsulated miconazole, an antifungal drug, for the treatment of cutaneous mycoses. The clinical trial demonstrated that niosomal miconazole had better skin retention, resulting in higher drug concentrations at the site of infection. Patients treated with the niosomal formulation showed faster recovery and a lower recurrence rate of fungal infections, as the sustained release of the drug prevented the re-emergence of pathogenic organisms. These findings suggest that niosomes could significantly improve the management of dermal infections by providing localized, controlled drug release.

Beyond dermatology, niosomes have shown immense promise in cancer therapy, where targeted drug delivery is crucial for maximizing therapeutic efficacy while minimizing adverse effects. Several clinical studies have evaluated the potential of niosomes in delivering chemotherapeutic agents directly to tumor tissues, improving drug concentration at the site of action and reducing systemic toxicity. This approach has been particularly explored for the treatment of breast cancer, lung cancer, and other solid tumors. One of the most significant clinical trials involved niosome-based delivery of doxorubicin, a commonly used chemotherapeutic agent with well-known cardiotoxicity. In this study, patients with metastatic breast cancer were treated with niosomal doxorubicin, and the results showed a marked reduction in tumor size compared to standard doxorubicin therapy. More importantly, the niosomal formulation significantly reduced

cardiotoxic side effects, which are a major limiting factor in the use of doxorubicin. The targeted delivery enabled by the niosomes allowed for a higher concentration of the drug in tumor tissues while protecting healthy cells, thereby improving the therapeutic index of doxorubicin.

Another promising study evaluated the use of niosomes for delivering paclitaxel, another key anticancer drug, in patients with non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC). The niosomal formulation of paclitaxel demonstrated enhanced drug solubility and stability, leading to improved bioavailability and better therapeutic outcomes. The clinical trial reported higher progression-free survival rates and overall response rates in patients treated with niosomal paclitaxel compared to conventional formulations. Additionally, the niosomal system reduced the incidence of peripheral neuropathy, a common side effect of paclitaxel therapy, highlighting the potential of niosomes to mitigate drug-related toxicity in cancer patients.

In addition to chemotherapy, niosomes have been explored for delivering gene therapy in cancer treatment. Clinical trials have investigated niosomes as vectors for the delivery of small interfering RNA (siRNA) and DNA plasmids to silence oncogenes and restore tumor-suppressor gene function. These studies have shown that niosomal systems provide a safe and effective means of delivering nucleic acids to cancer cells, enhancing gene expression regulation and offering new avenues for personalized cancer therapy.

Niosomes have also been explored in clinical trials for the treatment of infectious diseases, particularly in delivering antimicrobial and antiviral agents. The ability of niosomes to improve drug stability and bioavailability makes them an attractive option for treating infections where drug resistance and poor pharmacokinetics are challenges.

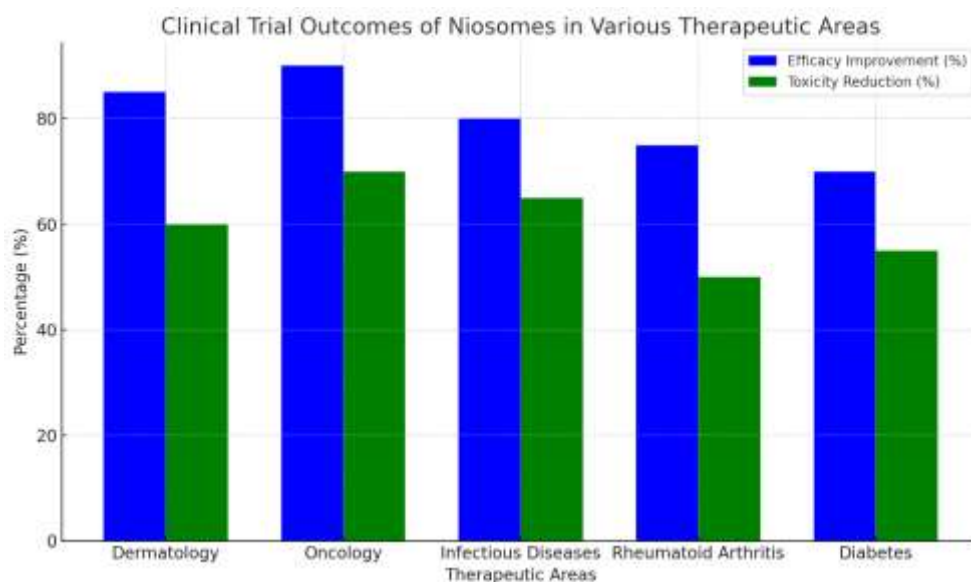
One such clinical study focused on niosome-based delivery of amphotericin B, an antifungal drug used to treat systemic fungal infections. Amphotericin B, though highly effective, is notorious for its nephrotoxicity and poor bioavailability. The niosomal formulation of amphotericin B demonstrated a significant reduction in toxicity while maintaining its antifungal efficacy. Patients treated with niosomal amphotericin B experienced fewer adverse effects, such as kidney damage, compared to those receiving the conventional drug. These findings have significant implications for the treatment of life-threatening fungal infections, particularly in immunocompromised patients.

Niosomes have also been studied in the context of antiviral therapy, particularly for delivering drugs targeting HIV and hepatitis infections. A clinical trial explored the use of niosomes for delivering zidovudine, an antiretroviral drug used in HIV treatment. The niosomal zidovudine formulation demonstrated enhanced bioavailability, allowing for lower doses and reducing the drug's systemic toxicity, particularly the bone marrow suppression commonly associated with its use. Patients in the trial exhibited improved viral suppression and better immune recovery compared to those receiving standard zidovudine therapy. These results highlight the potential of niosomes to optimize the pharmacokinetics of antiviral drugs, potentially improving adherence and long-term outcomes in chronic viral infections.

In addition to cancer and infectious diseases, niosomes have shown potential in managing chronic conditions such as rheumatoid arthritis (RA) and diabetes. In RA, niosomes have been used to deliver methotrexate and prednisolone to inflamed joints, aiming to reduce systemic side effects and improve local drug concentrations. Clinical studies demonstrated that niosomal methotrexate and prednisolone formulations significantly reduced joint swelling and inflammation in RA patients, with fewer gastrointestinal side effects compared to oral formulations. The controlled release provided by niosomes also allowed for less frequent dosing, improving patient compliance in the long-term management of the disease. In diabetes, niosomes have been explored for delivering insulin orally, addressing the challenge of insulin degradation in the gastrointestinal tract. Clinical trials have shown that niosomal insulin formulations protect the hormone from enzymatic degradation, leading to improved bioavailability and better glycemic control in diabetic patients. These studies indicate that niosomes could revolutionize diabetes management by offering a non-invasive alternative to insulin injections. The clinical trials and studies conducted on niosomes reveal their potential as a versatile and effective drug delivery system across a wide range of therapeutic areas, including dermatology, oncology, infectious diseases, and chronic conditions. Niosomes improve drug bioavailability, enhance targeted delivery, and reduce toxicity, making them an attractive platform for future therapeutic interventions. While more large-scale clinical trials are needed to fully establish their efficacy and safety profiles, the existing evidence suggests that niosomes could

play a significant role in advancing personalized medicine and improving patient outcomes in

various medical fields.



Graph-2: The graph above illustrates the outcomes of clinical trials using niosomes for drug delivery across various therapeutic areas, comparing two key factors: efficacy improvement and toxicity reduction. Niosome-based delivery systems have shown significant improvement in efficacy, especially in oncology (90%) and dermatology (85%), while reducing toxicity substantially, particularly in oncology (70%) and infectious diseases (65%). This data highlights the potential of niosomes to enhance therapeutic outcomes by improving drug bioavailability and minimizing adverse effects across multiple medical fields.

IV. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, innovative niosome-based dermal drug delivery systems represent a promising advancement in transdermal therapeutics, offering enhanced stability, targeted delivery, and improved bioavailability of active ingredients. By effectively encapsulating and transporting a variety of therapeutic agents, niosomes can significantly improve treatment outcomes for conditions ranging from skin disorders to systemic diseases. Their ability to penetrate the skin barrier while minimizing systemic side effects positions niosomes as a versatile solution in both pharmaceutical and cosmetic applications. Despite challenges such as skin irritation, stability issues, and scalability concerns, ongoing research and technological advancements continue to address these limitations. As the field of transdermal drug delivery evolves, niosomes hold the potential to revolutionize patient care, making therapies more effective, efficient, and accessible. This innovative approach could pave the way for a new generation of transdermal formulations that enhance patient compliance and therapeutic efficacy.

REFERENCE

- [1]. Anselmo A.C., Mitragotri S. An Overview of Clinical and Commercial Impact of Drug Delivery Systems. *J. Control. Release.* 2014;190:15–28.
- [2]. Han T., Das D.B. Potential of Combined Ultrasound and Microneedles for Enhanced Transdermal Drug Permeation: A Review. *Eur. J. Pharm. Biopharm.* 2015;89:312–328.
- [3]. Brambilla D., Luciani P., Leroux J. Breakthrough Discoveries in Drug Delivery Technologies: The Next 30 years. *J. Control. Release.* 2014;190:9–14.
- [4]. Ita K. Transdermal Drug Delivery: Progress and Challenges. *J. Drug Deliv. Sci. Technol.* 2014;24:245–250.
- [5]. Schoellhammer C.M., Blankschtein D., Langer R. Skin Permeabilization for Transdermal Drug Delivery: Recent Advances and Future Prospects. *Expert Opin. Drug Deliv.* 2014;11:393–407.
- [6]. McCrudden M.T., Singh T.R.R., Migalska K., Donnelly R.F. Strategies for Enhanced

- Peptide and Protein Delivery. *Ther. Deliv.* 2013;4:593–614.
- [7]. Kermode M. Unsafe Injections in Low-Income Country Health Settings: Need for Injection Safety Promotion to Prevent the Spread of Blood-Borne Viruses. *Health Promot. Int.* 2004;19:95–103.
- [8]. Donnelly R.F., Singh T.R.R., Morrow D.I., Woolfson A.D. *Microneedle-Mediated Transdermal and Intradermal Drug Delivery.* Wiley; Hoboken, NJ, USA: 2012.
- [9]. Kretsos K., Kasting G.B. A Geometrical Model of Dermal Capillary Clearance. *Math. Biosci.* 2007;208:430–453.
- [10]. Donnelly R.F., Singh T.R.R., Garland M.J., Migalska K., Majithiya R., McCrudden C.M., Kole P.L., Mahmood T.M.T., McCarthy H.O., Woolfson A.D. Hydrogel-Forming Microneedle Arrays for Enhanced Transdermal Drug Delivery. *Adv. Funct. Mater.* 2012;22:4879–4890.
- [11]. Arora A., Prausnitz M.R., Mitragotri S. Micro-Scale Devices for Transdermal Drug Delivery. *Int. J. Pharm.* 2008;364:227–236.
- [12]. Tuan-Mahmood T., McCrudden M.T., Torrisi B.M., McAlister E., Garland M.J., Singh T.R.R., Donnelly R.F. Microneedles for Intradermal and Transdermal Drug Delivery. *Eur. J. Pharm. Sci.* 2013;50:623–637.
- [13]. Prausnitz M.R., Langer R. Transdermal Drug Delivery. *Nat. Biotechnol.* 2008;26:1261–1268.
- [14]. Suh H., Shin J., Kim Y. Microneedle Patches for Vaccine Delivery. *Clin. Exp. Vaccine Res.* 2014;3:42–49.
- [15]. Peasah S.K., Azziz-Baumgartner E., Breese J., Meltzer M.I., Widdowson M. Influenza Cost and Cost-Effectiveness Studies globally—A Review. *Vaccine.* 2013;31:5339–5348.
- [16]. Menon G.K. New Insights into Skin Structure: Scratching the Surface. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 2002;54:S3–S17.
- [17]. Liu X., Kruger P., Maibach H., Colditz P.B., Roberts M.S. Using Skin for Drug Delivery and Diagnosis in the Critically Ill. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 2014;77:40–49.
- [18]. Williams A.C., Barry B.W. Penetration Enhancers. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 2012;64:128–137.
- [19]. Benson H.A., Watkinson A.C. *Topical and Transdermal Drug Delivery: Principles and Practice.* Wiley; Hoboken, NJ, USA: 2012.
- [20]. Gratieri T., Alberti I., Lapteva M., Kalia Y.N. Next Generation Intra- and Transdermal Therapeutic Systems: Using Non- and Minimally-Invasive Technologies to Increase Drug Delivery into and Across the Skin. *Eur. J. Pharm. Sci.* 2013;50:609–622.
- [21]. Lambert P.H., Laurent P.E. Intradermal Vaccine Delivery: Will New Delivery Systems Transform Vaccine Administration? *Vaccine.* 2008;26:3197–3208.
- [22]. van der Maaden K., Jiskoot W., Bouwstra J. Microneedle Technologies for (Trans) Dermal Drug and Vaccine Delivery. *J. Control. Release.* 2012;161:645–655.
- [23]. Domínguez-Delgado C.L., Rodríguez-Cruz I.M., López-Cervantes M., Escobar-Chávez J., Merino V. The Skin a Valuable Route for Administration of Drugs. Current Technologies to Increase the Transdermal Delivery of Drugs. Bentham Science; Sharjah, UAE: 2010. pp. 1–22.
- [24]. El Maghraby G., Barry B., Williams A. Liposomes and Skin: From Drug Delivery to Model Membranes. *Eur. J. Pharm. Sci.* 2008;34:203–222.
- [25]. Walters K.A. *Dermatological and Transdermal Formulations.* CRC Press; Boca Raton, FL, USA: 2002.
- [26]. Alexander A., Dwivedi S., Giri T.K., Saraf S., Saraf S., Tripathi D.K. Approaches for Breaking the Barriers of Drug Permeation through Transdermal Drug Delivery. *J. Control. Release.* 2012;164:26–40.
- [27]. Sherwood A., Bower J.K., McFetridge-Durdle J., Blumenthal J.A., Newby L.K., Hinderliter A.L. Age Moderates the Short-Term Effects of Transdermal 17 β -Estradiol on Endothelium-Dependent Vascular Function in Postmenopausal Women. *Arterioscler. Thromb. Vasc. Biol.* 2007;27:1782–1787.
- [28]. McLennan D.N., Porter C.J., Charman S.A. Subcutaneous Drug Delivery and the Role of the Lymphatics. *Drug Discov. Today Technol.* 2005;2:89–96.
- [29]. Schuetz Y.B., Naik A., Guy R.H., Kalia Y.N. Emerging Strategies for the Transdermal Delivery of Peptide and

- Protein Drugs. *Expert Opin. Drug Deliv.* 2005;2:533–548.
- [30]. Shahzad Y., Louw R., Gerber M., du Plessis J. Breaching the Skin Barrier through Temperature Modulations. *J. Control. Release.* 2015;202:1–13.
- [31]. Dhote V., Bhatnagar P., Mishra P.K., Mahajan S.C., Mishra D.K. Iontophoresis: A Potential Emergence of a Transdermal Drug Delivery System. *Sci. Pharm.* 2012;80:1–28..
- [32]. Dragicevic N., Maibach H.I. *Percutaneous Penetration Enhancers Chemical Methods in Penetration Enhancement: Drug Manipulation Strategies and Vehicle Effects.* Springer; New York, NY, USA: 2015.
- [33]. Subramony J.A. Needle Free Parenteral Drug Delivery: Leveraging active transdermal technologies for pediatric use. *Int. J. Pharm.* 2013;455:14–18.
- [34]. Wiedersberg S., Guy R.H. Transdermal Drug Delivery: 30 Years of War and Still Fighting! *J. Control. Release.* 2014;190:150–156.
- [35]. Ghosh T.K., Jasti B.R. *Theory and Practice of Contemporary Pharmaceutics.* CRC press; Boca Raton, FL, USA: 2004.
- [36]. Choy Y.B., Prausnitz M.R. The Rule of Five for Non-Oral Routes of Drug Delivery: Ophthalmic, Inhalation and Transdermal. *Pharm. Res.* 2011;28:943–948.
- [37]. Lipinski C.A., Lombardo F., Dominy B.W., Feeney P.J. Experimental and Computational Approaches to Estimate Solubility and Permeability in Drug Discovery and Development Settings. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 2012;64:4–17.
- [38]. Barry B. Novel Mechanisms and Devices to Enable Successful Transdermal Drug Delivery. *Eur. J. Pharm. Sci.* 2001;14:101–114.
- [39]. Park D., Park H., Seo J., Lee S. Sonophoresis in Transdermal Drug Deliverys. *Ultrasonics.* 2014;54:56–65.
- [40]. Naik A., Kalia Y.N., Guy R.H. Transdermal Drug Delivery: Overcoming the skin's Barrier Function. *Pharm. Sci. Technol. Today.* 2000;3:318–326.
- [41]. Chen Y., Shen Y., Guo X., Zhang C., Yang W., Ma M., Liu S., Zhang M., Wen L. Transdermal Protein Delivery by a Coadministered Peptide Identified Via Phage Display. *Nat. Biotechnol.* 2006;24:455–460.
- [42]. El Maghraby G.M., Williams A.C., Barry B.W. Can drug-bearing Liposomes Penetrate Intact Skin? *J. Pharm. Pharmacol.* 2006;58:415–429.
- [43]. Rehman K., Zulfakar M.H. Recent Advances in Gel Technologies for Topical and Transdermal Drug Delivery. *Drug Dev. Ind. Pharm.* 2013;40:433–440.
- [44]. Zorec B., Pr at V., Miklav i  D., Pav elj N. Active Enhancement Methods for Intra- and Transdermal Drug Delivery: A Review. *Zdravni ki Vestnik.* 2013;82:339–356. (In Slovenian)
- [45]. Paudel K.S., Milewski M., Swadley C.L., Brogden N.K., Ghosh P., Stinchcomb A.L. Challenges and Opportunities in dermal/transdermal Delivery. *Ther. Deliv.* 2010;1:109–131.
- [46]. Marianecchi C., Di Marzio L., Rinaldi F., Celia C., Paolino D., Alhaique F., Esposito S., Carafa M. Niosomes from 80s to Present: The State of the Art. *Adv. Colloid Interface Sci.* 2014;205:187–206.
- [47]. Karande P., Mitragotri S. Enhancement of Transdermal Drug Delivery via Synergistic Action of Chemicals. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta Biomembr.* 2009;1788:2362–2373.
- [48]. Mitragotri S. Devices for Overcoming Biological Barriers: The use of physical forces to disrupt the barriers. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 2013;65:100–103.
- [49]. Lee J.W., Gadiraju P., Park J., Allen M.G., Prausnitz M.R. Microsecond Thermal Ablation of Skin for Transdermal Drug Delivery. *J. Control. Release.* 2011;154:58–68.
- [50]. Azagury A., Khoury L., Enden G., Kost J. Ultrasound Mediated Transdermal Drug Delivery. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 2014;72:127–143.
- [51]. Zhang D., Rielly C.D., Das D.B. Microneedle-Assisted Microparticle Delivery by Gene Guns: Experiments and Modeling on the Effects of Particle Characteristics. *Drug Deliv.* 2014;22:1–16.
- [52]. Katsumi H., Liu S., Tanaka Y., Hitomi K., Hayashi R., Hirai Y., Kusamori K., Quan Y., Kamiyama F., Sakane T. Development of a Novel self-dissolving Microneedle Array of Alendronate, a nitrogen-

- containing Bisphosphonate: Evaluation of Transdermal Absorption, Safety, and Pharmacological Effects After Application in Rats. *J. Pharm. Sci.* 2012;101:3230–3238.
- [53]. Simonin J. On the Mechanisms of in Vitro and in Vivo Phonophoresis. *J. Control. Release.* 1995;33:125–141.
- [54]. Skauen D.M., Zentner G.M. Phonophoresis. *Int. J. Pharm.* 1984;20:235–245.
- [55]. Polat B.E., Hart D., Langer R., Blankschtein D. Ultrasound-Mediated Transdermal Drug Delivery: Mechanisms, Scope, and Emerging Trends. *J. Control. Release.* 2011;152:330–348.
- [56]. Singer A.J., Homan C.S., Church A.L., McClain S.A. Low-frequency Sonophoresis: Pathologic and Thermal Effects in Dogs. *Acad. Emerg. Med.* 1998;5:35–40.
- [57]. Adamo A., Roushdy O., Dokov R., Sharei A., Jensen K. Microfluidic Jet Injection for Delivering Macromolecules into Cells. *J. Micromech. Microeng.* 2013;23:35026–35033.
- [58]. Lakshmanan S., Gupta G.K., Avci P., Chandran R., Sadasivam M., Jorge A.E.S., Hamblin M.R. Physical Energy for Drug Delivery; Poration, Concentration and Activation. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 2014;71:98–114.
- [59]. Neumann E., Schaefer-Ridder M., Wang Y., Hofschneider P.H. Gene Transfer into Mouse Lyoma Cells by Electroporation in High Electric Fields. *EMBO J.* 1982;1:841–845.
- [60]. Preat V., Vanbever R. Skin Electroporation for Transdermal and Topical Drug Delivery. *Transdermal Drug Deliv.* 2002;123:227–254.
- [61]. Denet A., Preat V. Transdermal Delivery of Timolol by Electroporation through Human Skin. *J. Control. Release.* 2003;88:253–262.
- [62]. Prausnitz M.R., Bose V.G., Langer R., Weaver J.C. Electroporation of Mammalian Skin: A Mechanism to Enhance Transdermal Drug Delivery. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 1993;90:10504–10508.
- [63]. Prausnitz M.R., Edelman E., Gimm J., Langer R., Weaver J. Transdermal Delivery of Heparin by Skin Electroporation. *Biotechnology.* 1995;13:1205–1209. doi: 10.1038/nbt1195-1205.
- [64]. Bommannan D.B., Tamada J., Leung L., Potts R.O. Effect of Electroporation on Transdermal Iontophoretic Delivery of Luteinizing Hormone Releasing Hormone (LHRH) in Vitro. *Pharm. Res.* 1994;11:1809–1814.
- [65]. Chang S., Hofmann G.A., Zhang L., Deftos L.J., Banga A.K. The Effect of Electroporation on Iontophoretic Transdermal Delivery of Calcium Regulating Hormones. *J. Control. Release.* 2000;66:127–133.
- [66]. Lombry C., Dujardin N., Pr eat V. Transdermal Delivery of Macromolecules using Skin Electroporation. *Pharm. Res.* 2000;17:32–37
- [67]. Yi J., Barrow A.J., Yu N., O'Neill B.E. Efficient Electroporation of Liposomes Doped with Pore Stabilizing Nisin. *J. Liposome Res.* 2013:1–6.
- [68]. Badkar A.V., Banga A.K. Electrically Enhanced Transdermal Delivery of a Macromolecule. *J. Pharm. Pharmacol.* 2002;54:907–912.
- [69]. Kotzki S., Roustit M., Arnaud C., Godin-Ribuot D., Cracowski J. Effect of Continuous Vs Pulsed Iontophoresis of Trepstinil on Skin Blood Flow. *Eur. J. Pharm. Sci.* 2015;72:21–26.
- [70]. Gratieri T., Kalia Y.N. Mathematical Models to Describe Iontophoretic Transport in Vitro and in Vivo and the Effect of Current Application on the Skin Barrier. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 2013;65:315–329.
- [71]. Toyoda M., Hama S., Ikeda Y., Nagasaki Y., Kogure K. Anti-Cancer Vaccination by Transdermal Delivery of Antigen Peptide-Loaded Nanogels via Iontophoresis. *Int. J. Pharm.* 2015;483:110–114.
- [72]. Dixit N., Bali V., Baboota S., Ahuja A., Ali J. Iontophoresis—An Approach for Controlled Drug Delivery: A Review. *Curr. Drug Deliv.* 2007;4:1–10
- [73]. Khan A., Yasir M., Asif M., Chauhan I., Singh A.P., Sharma R., Singh P., Rai S. Iontophoretic Drug Delivery: History and Applications. *J. Appl. Pharm.*
- [74]. Miller L.L., Blankespoor R.L., Zinger B. Electrochemical controlled release drug delivery system. 4585652 A. U.S. Patent. 1986 Apr 29;

- [75]. Green P.G., Hinz R.S., Cullander C., Yamane G., Guy R.H. Iontophoretic Delivery of Amino Acids and Amino Acid Derivatives Across the Skin in Vitro. *Pharm. Res.* 1991;8:1113–1120.
- [76]. Green P.G., Hinz R.S., Kim A., Cullander C., Yamane G., Szoka Jr F.C., Guy R.H. Transdermal Iontophoresis of Amino Acids and Peptides in Vitro. *J. Control. Release.* 1992;21:187–190.
- [77]. Burnette R.R., Ongpipattanakul B. Characterization of the Permselective Properties of Excised Human Skin during Iontophoresis. *J. Pharm.*
- [78]. van der Geest R., Hueber F., Szoka Jr F.C., Guy R.H. Iontophoresis of Bases, Nucleosides, and Nucleotides. *Pharm. Res.* 1996;13:553–558.
- [79]. Banga A.K. *Electrically Assisted Transdermal and Topical Drug Delivery.* Taylor & Francis; Oxford, UK: 1998
- [80]. Roustit M., Gaillard-Bigot F., Blaise S., Stanke-Labesque F., Cracowski C., Seinturier C., Jourdil J., Imbert B., Carpentier P.H., Cracowski J. Cutaneous Iontophoresis of Trepstinil in Systemic Sclerosis: A Proof-of-Concept Study. *Clin. Pharmacol. Ther.* 2014;95:439–445.
- [81]. Pillai O., Nair V., Panchagnula R. Transdermal Iontophoresis of Insulin: IV. Influence of Chemical Enhancers. *Int. J. Pharm.* 2004;269:109–120.
- [82]. Cázares-Delgado J., Naik A., Ganem-Rondero A., Quintanar-Guerrero D., Kalia Y. Transdermal Delivery of Cytochrome C—A 12.4 kDa protein—across Intact Skin by constant-current Iontophoresis. *Pharm. Res.* 2007;24:1360–1368.
- [83]. Gratieri T., Kalia Y.N. Targeted Local Simultaneous Iontophoresis of Chemotherapeutics for Topical Therapy of Head and Neck Cancers. *Int. J. Pharm.* 2014;460:24–27.
- [84]. Dubey S., Kalia Y. Non-Invasive Iontophoretic Delivery of Enzymatically Active Ribonuclease A (13.6 kDa) Across Intact Porcine and Human Skins. *J. Control. Release.* 2010;145:203–209.
- [85]. Dubey S., Perozzo R., Scapozza L., Kalia Y. Non-Invasive Electrically-Assisted Transdermal Delivery of Human Basic Fibroblast Growth Factor. *Mol. Pharm.* 2011;8:1322–1331
- [86]. Dubey S., Kalia Y. Understanding the Poor Iontophoretic Transport of Lysozyme across the Skin: When High Charge and High Electrophoretic Mobility are not enough. *J. Control. Release.* 2014;183:35–42.
- [87]. LeGrys V.A., Yankaskas J.R., Quittell L.M., Marshall B.C., Mogayzel Jr P.J. Diagnostic Sweat Testing: The Cystic Fibrosis Foundation Guidelines. *J. Pediatr.* 2007;151:85–89.
- [88]. Sun T., Shieh H., Ching C.T. Carbon Nanotube Composites for Glucose Biosensor Incorporated with Reverse Iontophoresis Function for Noninvasive Glucose Monitoring. *Inter. J. Nanomed.* 2014;9:3069–3076.
- [89]. Krueger E., Claudino Junior J.L., Scheeren E.M., Neves E.B., Mulinari E., Nohama P. Iontophoresis: Principles and Applications. *Fisioterapia Movimento.* 2014;27:469–481.
- [90]. Kalia Y., Naik A., Garrison J., Guy R., Naik A., Garrison J., Guy R. Iontophoretic Drug Delivery. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 2004;56:619–658.
- [91]. Mitragotri S. Current Status and Future Prospects of Needle-Free Liquid Jet Injectors. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.* 2006;5:543–548.
- [92]. Stachowiak J.C., Li T.H., Arora A., Mitragotri S., Fletcher D.A. Dynamic Control of Needle-Free Jet Injection. *J. Control. Release.* 2009;135:104–112.
- [93]. Mitragotri S. Immunization without Needles. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* 2005;5:905–916.
- [94]. Arora A., Hakim I., Baxter J., Rathnasingham R., Srinivasan R., Fletcher D.A., Mitragotri S. Needle-Free Delivery of Macromolecules Across the Skin by Nanoliter-Volume Pulsed Microjets. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 2007;104:4255–4260.
- [95]. Kelly K., Loskutov A., Zehring D., Puaa K., LaBarre P., Muller N., Guiqiang W., Ding H., Hu D., Blackwelder W.C. Preventing Contamination between Injections with Multiple-use Nozzle Needle-Free Injectors: A Safety Trial. *Vaccine.* 2008;26:1344–1352.
- [96]. Cassaday R.D., Sondel P.M., King D.M., Macklin M.D., Gan J., Warner T.F., Zuleger C.L., Bridges A.J., Schalch H.G., Kim K.M. A Phase I Study of

- Immunization using Particle-Mediated Epidermal Delivery of Genes for gp100 and GM-CSF into Uninvolved Skin of Melanoma Patients. *Clin. Cancer Res.* 2007;13:540–549.
- [97]. Sarno M.J., Blase E., Galindo N., Ramirez R., Schirmer C.L., Trujillo-Juarez D.F. Clinical Immunogenicity of Measles, Mumps and Rubella Vaccine Delivered by the Injex Jet Injector: Comparison with Standard Syringe Injection. *Pediatr. Infect. Dis. J.* 2000;19:839–842.
- [98]. Jackson L.A., Austin G., Chen R.T., Stout R., DeStefano F., Gorse G.J., Newman F.K., Yu O., Weniger B.G., Vaccine Safety Datalink Study Group Safety and Immunogenicity of Varying Dosages of Trivalent Inactivated Influenza Vaccine Administered by Needle-Free Jet Injectors. *Vaccine.* 2001;19:4703–4709.
- [99]. Kendall M., Mitchell T., Wrighton-Smith P. Intradermal Ballistic Delivery of Micro-Particles into Excised Human Skin for Pharmaceutical Applications. *J. Biomech.* 2004;37:1733–1741.
- [100]. Hussain A., Wahab G.M.K.A., ur Rahman M.A.S., Altaf H., Akhtar N., Qayyum M.I. Potential Enhancers for Transdermal Drug Delivery: A Review. *Inter. J. Basic Med. Sci. Pharm.* 2014;4:19–22.
- [101]. Sklar L.R., Burnett C.T., Waibel J.S., Moy R.L., Ozog D.M. Laser Assisted Drug Delivery: A Review of an Evolving Technology. *Lasers Surg. Med.* 2014;46:249–262.
- [102]. Giannos S. Skin Microporation: Strategies to Enhance and Expand Transdermal Drug Delivery. *J. Drug Deliv. Sci. Technol.* 2014;24:293–299.
- [103]. Brown M.B., Traynor M.J., Martin G.P., Akomeah F.K. *Drug Delivery Systems.* Springer; New York, NY, USA: 2008. Transdermal drug delivery systems: Skin perturbation devices; pp. 119–139.
- [104]. Gomez C., Costela A., García-Moreno I., Llanes F., Teijon J.M., Blanco D. Laser Treatments on Skin Enhancing and Controlling Transdermal Delivery of 5-fluorouracil. *Lasers Surg. Med.* 2008;40:6–12.
- [105]. Nelson J.S., McCullough J.L., Glenn T.C., Wright W.H., Liaw L.L., Jacques S.L. Mid-Infrared Laser Ablation of Stratum Corneum Enhances in Vitro Percutaneous Transport of Drugs. *J. Investig. Dermatol.* 1991;97:874–879.
- [106]. Baron E.D., Harris L., Redpath W.S., Shapiro H., Hetzel F., Morley G., Bar-Or D., Stevens S.R. Laser-Assisted Penetration of Topical Anesthetic in Adults. *Arch. Dermatol.* 2003;139:1288.
- [107]. Dhamecha D.L., Rajendra V.B., Rathi A.A., Ghadlinge S.V., Saifee M., Dehghan M.H.G. Physical Approaches to Penetration Enhancement. *Inter. J. Health Res.* 2010;3:57–70.
- [108]. Kumar R., Philip A. Modified Transdermal Technologies: Breaking the Barriers of Drug Permeation via the Skin. *Trop. J. Pharm. Res.* 2007;6:633–644.
- [109]. Wang K., Fang J., Hu C., Lee W. Erbium: YAG Laser Pretreatment Accelerates the Response of Bowen’s Disease Treated by Topical 5-Fluorouracil. *Dermatol. Surg.* 2004;30:441–445.
- [110]. Lin C.H., Aljuffali I.A., Fang J.Y. Lasers as an Approach for Promoting Drug Delivery via Skin. *Expert Opin. Drug Deliv.* 2014;11:599–614.
- [111]. Hong X., Wu Z., Chen L., Wu F., Wei L., Yuan W. Hydrogel Microneedle Arrays for Transdermal Drug Delivery. *Nano-Micro Lett.* 2014;6:191–199.
- [112]. Laurent P.E., Bonnet S., Alchas P., Regolini P., Mikszta J.A., Pettis R., Harvey N.G. Evaluation of the Clinical Performance of a New Intradermal Vaccine Administration Technique and Associated Delivery System. *Vaccine.* 2007;25:8833–8842.
- [113]. Daddona P.E., Matriano J.A., Mandema J., Maa Y. Parathyroid Hormone (1–34)-Coated Microneedle Patch System: Clinical Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics for Treatment of Osteoporosis. *Pharm. Res.* 2011;28:159–165.
- [114]. Zhang Y., Brown K., Siebenaler K., Determan A., Dohmeier D., Hansen K. Development of Lidocaine-Coated Microneedle Product for Rapid, Safe, and Prolonged Local Analgesic Action. *Pharm. Res.* 2012;29:170–177. doi: 10.1007/s11095-011-0524-4.
- [115]. Donnelly R.F., Singh T.R.R., Woolfson A.D. Microneedle-Based Drug Delivery Systems: Microfabrication, Drug Delivery, and Safety. *Drug Deliv.* 2010;17:187–207.



- [116]. Watanabe T., Hagino K., Sato T. Evaluation of the Effect of Polymeric Microneedle Arrays of Varying Geometries in Combination with a High-Velocity Applicator on Skin Permeability and Irritation. *Biomed. Microdevices*. 2014;16:591–597.
- [117]. Wang Q., Yao G., Dong P., Gong Z., Li G., Zhang K., Wu C. Investigation on Fabrication Process of Dissolving Microneedle Arrays to Improve Effective Needle Drug Distribution. *Eur. J. Pharm. Sci.* 2015;66:148–156.
- [118]. Yang S., Feng Y., Zhang L., Chen N., Yuan W., Jin T. A Scalable Fabrication Process of Polymer Microneedles. *Inter. J. Nanomed.* 2012;7:1415.