Scholars Academic Journal of Pharmacy

Abbreviated Key Title: Sch Acad J Pharm ISSN 2347-9531 (Print) | ISSN 2320-4206 (Online) Journal homepage: http://saspublishers.com **3** OPEN ACCESS

Pharmacy

Nanosuspensions: A Novel Drug Delivery System

Shikha Singh^{1*}, Divya Bharati¹

¹Buddha Institute of Pharmacy, GIDA, Gorakhpur (U. P.), India, 273209

DOI: 10.36347/sajp.2024.v13i05.004 | **Received:** 05.04.2024 | **Accepted:** 13.05.2024 | **Published:** 17.05.2024

*Corresponding author: Shikha Singh

Buddha Institute of Pharmacy, GIDA, Gorakhpur (U. P.), India, 273209

Abstract Review Article

The current article cites the importance of the emerging and promising future of new age dosage form, 'nano suspensions'. Particle size reduction, particularly nanonization, is a non-specific, universal approach to improve the bioavailability of poorly soluble drugs. The article emphasizes importance in the preparation, evaluation and the research work going on with various drugs and their appropriate applications. Nano suspensions have emerged as a promising strategy for the efficient delivery of hydrophobic drugs because of their versatile features and unique advantages. Techniques such as media milling and high-pressure homogenization have been used commercially for producing nano suspensions. The unique features of nano suspensions have enabled their use in various dosage forms, including specialized delivery systems such as mucoadhesive hydrogels. Rapid strides have been made in the delivery of nano suspensions by parenteral, peroral, ocular and pulmonary routes. Currently, efforts are being directed to extending their applications in site-specific drug delivery.

Keywords: Nanosuspensions, homogenization, Quasi-emulsion solvent technique.

Copyright © 2024 The Author(s): This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY-NC 4.0) which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium for non-commercial use provided the original author and source are credited.

INTRODUCTION

Nanosuspensions are defined as the submicron colloidal dispersions of pharmaceutical active in gradient particles in a liquid phase, size below1µm, without any matrix material which are stabilized by surfactants and polymers [1]. Nanosuspensions differ from nanoparticles and solid lipid nanoparticles with respect to the fact that nanoparticles are polymeric colloidal carriers of drug while solid lipid nanoparticles are lipid carrier of drugs. An increasing number of newly developed drugs are poorly soluble; in many cases drugs are poorly soluble in both aqueous and organic media excluding the traditional approaches of overcoming such solubility factors and resulting in bioavailability problems. An alternative and promising approach is the production of drug nanoparticles (i.e. nanosuspensions) to overcome these problems. Nanosuspensions have emerged as a promising strategy for the efficient delivery of hydrophobic drugs because of the rivers a tile features and unique advantages. The unique features of nanosuspensions have enabled their use in various dosage forms, including specialized delivery systems such as mucoadhesive hydrogels. The major advantages of this technology are its general applicability to most drugs and its simplicity [2]. Preparation nanosuspension is simple and applicable to all drugs which are water insoluble. Nanosuspensions are

prepared by using wet mill, high pressure homogenizer, emulsion solvent evaporation, melt emulsification and supercritical fluid techniques. Nano-suspensions can be delivered by oral, parenteral, pulmonary and ocular routes. Nanosuspensions can also be used for targeted drug delivery when incorporated in the ocular inserts and mucoadhesive hydrogels. Currently, efforts are being directed to extending their applications in site- specific drug delivery. Rapid strides have been made in the delivery of nanosuspensions by parenteral, preoral, ocular and pulmonary routes.

TECHNIQUES FOR PREPARATION OF NANOSUSPENSIONS

Technically preparations of nanosuspensions are simpler alternative than liposomes and other conventional colloidal drug carriers but reported to be more cost effective. It is particularly for poorly soluble drugs and to yield a physically more stable product. For manufacturing nanosuspensions there are two converse methods, "Top-down process technology" and "Bottom-up process technology". The top-down process follows disintegration approach from large particles, microparticles to Nanosized particles [3].

Examples are:

• High pressure homogenization

- Nano edge
- Nano pure
- Media milling (Nanocrystals).

Bottom-up process is an assembly method forms nanoparticles from molecules [4]. Examples includes:

- Solvent-Antisolvent method
- Super critical fluid process
- Emulsification Solvent evaporation technique
- Lipid emulsion/Micro-emulsion template.

The principle techniques used in recent years for preparing nanosuspensions are:

A. High Pressure Homogenization:

It is most widely used method for preparing nanosuspensions of many poorly aqueous soluble drugs [5]. It involves three steps. First drug powders are dispersed in stabilizer solution to form pre suspension, and then the pre suspension is homogenized in high pressure homogenizer at a low pressure for pre milling, and finally homogenized at high pressure for 10 to 25 cycles until the nanosuspensions of desired size are formed. Different methods are developed based on this principle for preparations of nanosuspensions such as Dissocubes, Nanopore, Nano edge and Nanojet [6].

Homogenization in aqueous media (Disso cubes):

This technology was developed by R. H. Muller using apiston-gaptypehighpressurehomogenizerin1999 [7]. In this method, the suspension containing a drug and surfactant is forced under pressure through a Nanosized aperture valve of a high pressure homogenizer.

Principle:

During homogenization, the fracture of drug particles is brought about by cavitation, high-shear forces and the collision of the particles against each other. The drug suspension, contained in a cylinder of diameter about 3mm, passes suddenly through a very narrow homogenization gap of 25µm, which leads to a high streaming velocity. In the homogenization gap, according to Bernoulli's equation, the dynamic pressure of the fluid increases with the simultaneous decrease in static pressure below the boiling point of water at room temperature. In consequence, water starts boiling at room temperature, leading to the formation of gas bubbles, which implode when the suspension leaves the gap (called cavitation) and normal air pressure is reached again. The implosion forces are sufficiently high to break down the drug microparticles into nanoparticles. Additionally, the collision of the particles at high speed helps to achieve the nano-sizing of the drug. To improve the efficiency of nano-sizing, the addition of viscosity enhancers is advantageous in certain cases as increasing the viscosity increases the powder density within the dispersion zone (homogenization gap). In order to obtain an optimized formulation, the effect of the following process variables should be investigated.

- ➤ Effect of homogenization pressure: As the homogenizer can handle varying pressures, ranging from 100 to 1500 bars, the effect of the homogenization pressure on the particle size should be investigated in each case in order to optimize the process parameters. It is expected that the higher the homogenization pressure, the lower the particle size obtained.
- Number of homogenization cycles: For many drugs it is not possible to obtain the desired particle size in a single homogenization cycle. Typically, multiple cycles are required. Hence, depending on the hardness of the drug, the desired mean particle size and the required homogeneity of the product, homogenization can be carried out in three, five or 10 cycles. It is anticipated that the higher the number of homogenization cycles, the smaller the particle size obtained. The optimum number of homogenization cycles can be arrived at by analysing the particle size and poly dispersity index of the drug after each cycle.

Advantages

- Drugs that are poorly soluble in both aqueous and organic media can be easily formulated into nanosuspensions.
- Ease of scale-up and little batch-to-batch variation [8].
- Narrow size distribution of the nanoparticulate drug present in the final product [9].
- Allows as eptic production of nanosuspensions for parenteral administration.
- Flexibility in handling the drug quantity, ranging from 1 to 400mg/mL, thus enabling formulation of very dilute as well as highly concentrated nanosuspensions [10].

Disadvantages

- Pre requisite of micronized drug particles.
- Prerequisite of suspension formation using highspeed mixers before subjecting it to homogenization.

Homogenization in nonaqueous media (Nanopure):

Nanopure is suspensions homogenized in water-free media or water mixtures like PEG 400, PEG 1000etc. The homogenization can be done at room temperature, 0°C and below freezing point (-20°C), hence it is known as "deep freeze" homogenization [11].

Nano edge:

Nano edge technology is the combination of both precipitation and homogenization. The basic principle is same as that of precipitation and homogenization [12]. The major disadvantage of precipitation technique such as crystal growth and long term stability can be overcome by using the Nano edge technology. Particles of smaller size and better stability in short time can be achieved.

Nanojet:

It is also called as opposite stream technology, uses a chamber where a stream of suspension is divided into two or more parts, which colloid with each other at high pressure, due to the high shear forces produced during the process particle size is reduced [13].

B. Milling Techniquesi) Media Milling:Principle:

The high energy and shear forces generated as are sult of the impaction of the milling media with the drug provide the energy input to break the microparticulate drug into nano-sized particles. The milling medium is composed of glass, zirconium oxide or highly cross-linked polystyrene resin. The process can be performed in either batch or recirculation mode. In batch mode, the time required to obtain dispersions with unimodal distribution profile sand me an diameters<200nmis30–60min [14].

The media milling process can successfully process micronized and non-micronized drug crystals. Once the formulation and the process are optimized, very little batch-to-batch variation is observed in the quality of the dispersion.

Advantages

- Drugs that are poorly soluble in both aqueous and organic media can be easily formulated into nanosuspensions.
- Ease of scale-up and little batch-to-batch variation.
- Narrow size distribution of the final nano-sized product. A comparison of the size of naproxen crystals before and after media milling
- Flexibility in handling the drug quantity, ranging from1 to 400 mg/mL enabling formulation of very dilute as well as highly concentrated nanosuspensions.

Disadvantages

- The media milling technique is time consuming.
- Some fractions of particles are in the micrometer range.
- Scale up is not easy due to mill size and weight.

ii) Dry-Co-grinding:

Recently many nanosuspensions are prepared by dry milling technique. Dry-co-grinding can be carried out easily and economically and can be conducted without organic solvents [15]. Physicochemical properties and dissolution of poorly water soluble drugs are improved by Co-grinding because of an improvement in the surface polarity and transformation from a crystalline to an amorphous drug.

Advantages

- Easy process and no organic solvent required.
- Require short grinding time.

Disadvantages

Generation of residue of milling media.

C. Emulsification-Solvent Evaporation Technique

This technique involves preparing a solution of drug followed by its emulsification in another liquid that is an on solvent for the drug. Evaporation of the solvent leads to precipitation of the drug. Crystal growth and particle aggregation can be controlled by creating high shear forces using a high-speed stirrer.

D. Precipitation

Within the last decade, precipitation has been applied to prepare submicron particles, especially for the poorly soluble drugs [16]. The drug is first dissolved in a solvent, then this solution is mixed with a miscible anti solvent in the presence of surfactants.

Rapid addition of a drug solution to the antisolvent leads to sudden super saturation of drug and formation of ultrafine crystalline or amorphous drug solids [17].

Advantages

Simple process, Ease of scale up and Economical production.

Disadvantages

 Growing of crystals needs to be limit by surfactant addition. Drug must be soluble at least in one solvent.

E. Supercritical Fluid Process

The particle size reduction was achieved more by the solubilization and nanosizing technologies through the super critical fluid process. Super critical fluids (SCF) are non condensable dense fluids whose temperature and pressure are greater than its critical temperature (Tc) and critical pressure (Tp). This process allows the micro nization of drug particles to sub micron level. Recent advances in SCF process are to create nanoparticulate suspension of particle size of 5 to 2000nm in diameter [18]. The low solubility of poorly water-soluble drugs and surfactants in supercritical CO_2 and the high pressure required for these processes restrict the utility of this technology in the pharmaceutical industry.

F. Melt Emulsification Method

In this method drug is dispersed in the aqueous solution of stabilizer and heated above the melting point of the drug and homogenized to give an emulsion. During this process, the sample holder was enwrapped with a heating tape fitted with temperature controller and the temperature of emulsion was maintained above the melting point of the drug. The emulsion was then cooled

down either slowly to room temperature or on an icebath.

Advantages

 Melt emulsification technique relative to the solvent evaporation method is total avoidance of organic solvents during the production process.

Disadvantages

 Formation of larger particles and few compliant objects than solvent evaporation.

G. Lipid Emulsion/Microemulsion Template:

This method is mostly applicable for drugs that are soluble in either volatile organic solvents or partially water miscible solvents. In this method, the drug was dissolved in suitable organic solvent and then it is emulsified in aqueous phase using suitable surfactants. Then the organic solvent was slowly evaporated under reduced pressure to form drug particles precipitating in the aqueous phase forming the aqueous suspension of the drug in the required particle size. Then the suspension formed can be suitably diluted to get nano suspensions. Moreover, micro emulsions as templates can produce nanosuspensions. Micro emulsions are the rmody namically stable and is tropically clear dispersions of two immiscible liquids such as oil and water stabilized by an interfacial film of surfactant and co-surfactant. The drug can be either loaded into the in ternal phase or the preformed microemulsion can be saturated with the drug by intimate mixing. Suitable dilution of the micro emulsion yields the drug nano suspension. The advantages of lipidemulsions as templates for nanosuspension formation are that they easy to produce by controlling the emulsion droplet and easy for scale up. However, the use of organic solvents affects the environment and large amounts of surfactant or stabilizer are required.

Advantages

- High drug solubilization
- Long shelf life
- Easy to manufacture

Disadvantages

- Use of hazardous solvent
- Use of high amount of surfactant and stabilizers

H. Solvent Evaporation:

In the solvent evaporation method, the solutions of polymer are prepared in volatile solvents and emulsions. But from the past years dichloromethane and chloroform were used which was now replaced by ethyl acetate which has a better profile of toxicology. The emulsion is converted into a nanoparticle suspension on evaporation of the solvent for the polymer, which is allowed to diffuse through the continuous phase of the emulsion. In the conventional methods, two main strategies are being used for the formation of emulsions, the preparation of single-emulsions, e.g., oil-in-water

(o/w) or double-emulsions, e.g., (water-in-oil)-in-water, (w/o)/w. These methods require high-speed homogenization or ultrasonication, followed by evaporation of the solvent, either by continuous magnetic stirring at room temperature or under reduced pressure. By ultracentrifugation the solidified nanoparticles are collected which was washed with distilled water to remove the additives like surfactants, and then it was lyophilized. The particle size was influenced by the concentration of polymer, stabilizer and the speed of homogenizer.

FORMULATIONCONSIDERATIONS Stabilizer

Stabilizer plays an important role in the formulation of nanosuspensions. In the absence of an appropriate stabilizer, the high surface energy of nanosized particles can induce agglomeration or aggregation of the drug crystals. The main functions of a stabilizer are to wet the drug particles thoroughly, and to prevent Ostwald's ripening [19, 20] and agglomeration of nanosuspensions in order to yield a physically stable formulation by providing steric or ionic barriers. The type and amount of stabilizer has a pronounced effect on the physical stability and in-vivo behaviour of nanosuspensions. In some cases, a mixture of stabilizers is required to obtain a stable nanosuspension. The drugto-stabilizer ratio in the formulation may vary from 1:20 to 20:1 and should be investigated for a specific case. Stabilizers that have been explored so far include cellulosics, poloxamers, polysorbates, lecithins and povidones [21]. Lecithin is the stabilizer of choice if one intends to develop a parenterally acceptable and auto clavable nano suspension.

Organicsolvents

Organic solvents may be required in the formulation of nanosuspensions if they are to be prepared using an emulsion or microemulsion as a template. As these techniques are still in their infancy, elaborate information on formulation considerations is not available. The acceptability of the organic solvents in the pharmaceutical arena, their toxicity potential and the ease of their removal from the formulation need to be considered when formulating nanosuspensions using emulsions or microemulsions as templates. The pharmaceutically acceptable and less hazardous watermiscible solvents, such as ethanol and isopropanol, and partially water-miscible solvents, such as ethyl acetate, ethyl formate, butyl lactate, triacetin, propylene carbonate and benzyl alcohol, are preferred in the formulation over the conventional hazardous solvents, such as dichloromethane. Additionally, partially watermiscible organic solvents can be used as the internal phase of the microemulsion when the nanosuspensions are to be produced using a microemulsion as a template.

Co-surfactants

The choice of co-surfactant is critical when using microemulsions to formulate nanosuspensions.

Since co-surfactants can greatly influence phase behaviour, the effect of co-surfactant on uptake of the internal phase for selected micro emulsion composition and on drug loading should be investigated. Although the literature describes the use of bile salts and dipotassium glycerrhizinate as co-surfactants, various solubilizers, such as Transcutol, glycofurol, ethanol and isopropanol, can be safely used as co-surfactants in the formulation of microemulsions.

Other additives

Nanosuspensions may contain additives such as buffers, salts, polyols, osmogent and cryoprotectant, depending on either the route of administration or the properties of the drug moiety

CHARACTERIZATIONOF NANOSUSPENSIONS Mean particle size and particle size distribution:

The mean particle size and the width of particle size distribution are important characterization parameters as they govern the saturation solubility, dissolution velocity, physical stability and even biological performance of nanosuspensions. It has been indicated by [22] that saturation solubility and dissolution velocity show considerable variation with the changing particle size of the drug. Photon correlation spectroscopy (PCS) [23] can be used for rapid and accurate determination of the mean particle diameter of nanosuspensions. Moreover, PCS can even be used for determining the width of the particle size distribution (polydispersity index, PI). The PI is an important parameter that governs the physical stability of nano suspensions and should be as low as possible for the long-term stability of nanosuspensions. A PI value of 0.1-0.25 indicates a fairly narrow size distribution whereas aPI value greater than 0.5 indicates a very broad distribution. No logarithmic normal distribution can definitely be attributed to such a high PI value. Although PCS is a versatile technique, because of its low measuring range (3nm to 3µm) it becomes difficult to determine the possibility of contamination of the nanosuspension by microparticulate drugs (having particle size greater than 3µm). Hence, in addition to PCS analysis, laser diffractometry (LD) analysis of nanosuspensions should be carried out in order to detect as well as quantify the drug microparticles that might have been generated during the production process. Laser diffractometry yields a volume size distribution and can be used to measure particles ranging from 0.05-80 µm and in certain instruments particle sizes up to 2000µm can be measured. The typical LD characterization includes determination of diameter 50%LD (50) and diameter 99% LD (99) values, which indicate that either 50 or 99% of the particles are below the indicated size. The LD analysis becomes critical for nanosuspensions that are meant for parenteral and pulmonary delivery. Even if the nanosuspension contains a small number of particles greater than 5-6µm, there could be a possibility of capillary blockade or emboli formation, asthesizeofthesmallestbloodcapillaryis56µm.It should be noted that the particle size data of a nanosuspension obtained by LD and PCS analysis are not identical as LD data are volume based and the PCS mean diameter is the light intensity weighted size. The PCS mean diameter and the 50 or 99% diameter from the LD analysis are likely to differ, with LD data generally exhibiting higher values. The nanosuspensions can be suitably diluted with deionized water before carrying out PCS or LD analysis. For nanosuspensions that are intended for intravenous administration, particle size analysis by the Coulter counter technique is essential in addition to PCS and LD analysis. Since the Coulter counter gives the absolute number of particles per volume unit for the different size classes, it is a more efficient and appropriate technique than LD analysis for quantifying the contamination of nanosuspensions by microparticulate drugs.

Saturation solubility and dissolution velocity:

The determination of the saturation solubility and dissolution velocity is very important as these two parameters together help to anticipate any change in the in-vivo performance (blood profiles, plasma peaks and bioavailability) of the drug. As nanosuspensions are known to improve the saturation solubility of the drug, the determination of the saturation solubility rather than an increase in saturation solubility remains an important investigational parameter. The saturation solubility of the drug in different physiological buffers as well as at different temperatures should be assessed using methods described in the literature. The investigation of the dissolution velocity of nano suspensions reflects the advantages that can be achieved over conventional formulations, especially when designing the sustainedrelease dosage forms based on nanoparticulate drugs. The dissolution velocity of drug nanosuspensions in various physiological buffers should be determined according to methods reported in the pharmacopoeia.

In-vivo biological performance:

The establishment of an in-vitro/in-vivo correlation and the monitoring of the in-vivo performance of the drug is an essential part of the study, irrespective of the route and the delivery system employed. It is of the utmost importance in the case of intravenously injected nanosuspensions since the in-vivo behaviour of the drug depends on the organ distribution, which in turn depends on its surface properties, such as surface hydrophobicity and interactions with plasma proteins [27, 28]. In fact, the qualitative and quantitative com position of the protein absorption pattern observed after the intravenous injection of nanoparticles is recognized as the essential factor for organ distribution [27-29]. Hence, suitable techniques have to be used in order to evaluate the surface properties and protein interactions to get an idea of in-vivo behaviour. such Techniques as hydrophobic interaction chromatography can be used to determine surface hydrophobicity, whereas 2-D PAGE [27] can be employed for quantitative and the qualitative

measurement of protein adsorption after intravenous injection of drug nanosuspensions in animals.

APPLICATIONOFNANOSUSPENSIONS

Nanosuspensions are used as oral, parenteral, ocular, and pulmonary drug delivery systems.

> Oral Administration

Oral administration is the first patient choice because of painless and noninvasive administration [30, 31]. In addition, oral formulations have several advantages for the pharmaceutical industry such as easy manufacturing, short production time, and reasonable production cost [30]. Oleanolic acid, which has many applications such as hepatoprotective, anti tumour, antibacterial, anti-inflammatory, and antiulcer effects, has low aqueous solubility which results in erratic pharmacokinetics after oral administration. Applying oleanolic acid in the form of nanosuspension increases dissolution rate to about 90% in the first 20min compared to just 15% for micronized drug powder [32]. Reduction of drug particle size to the nanoscale leads to an increased dissolution rate and can improve adhesion of the drug particles to the mucosa. Better contact with intestinal cells (bioadhesive phase) and a greater concentration gradient between blood and GIT increase drug intestinal absorption [32-34]. Nanosuspensions are also used to control infections. Atovaquone and buparvaquone for the treatment of leishmaniasis and opportunistic Pneumocystis carinii infections in HIV patients are effective in high doses due to low bio availability. A comparative study of atovaquonein the form of micronized particles and nano suspensions showed that the latter decreased infectivity from 40% to 15%. In another example, buparvaquone nano suspensions reduced infection from 2.0 to 1.02 and micronized particles only to 1.47.

> Parenteral Administration

In emergency cases such as cardiac arrest and anaphylactic shock parenteral administration is the first [35]. Parenteral administration includes administration of dosage forms by subcutaneous, i.v., intramuscular. and intra-arterial methods Advantages of this type of administration include avoidance of first-pass metabolism, reliable doses, and higher bioavailability. Control over the dose and rate allows more predictable pharmacodynamic pharmacokinetic profiles after i.v. administration compared to oral administration [37]. Administered drug particles are required to be smaller than 5µm to prevent blockage of capillaries [39]. A study on mice investigated tumour growth inhibition rate and showed that oridonin in the form of nanosuspension decreased considerably the volume and weight of the tumour. Oridonin in the form of nanosuspension raised the rate of tumour inhibition to 60.23% compared to 42.49% for the conventional form [38]. Nanosuspensions improve therapeutic efficiency and reduce the cost of therapy

through improved dosing efficiency and smaller injection volumes.

> Pulmonary Drug Delivery

Pulmonary drug delivery aims at treating several respiratory conditions such as asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary diseases [40, 41]. Advantages of pulmonary drug delivery over oral and parenteral drug administration include direct delivery to the site of action which leads to decreased dosage and side effects [42]. Conventional pulmonary delivery systems provide only rapid drug release, poor residence time, and lack of selectivity [43]. Nanosuspensions can solve problems of poor drug solubility in pulmonary secretions and lack of selectivity through direct delivery target pulmonary cells. Adhesiveness nanosuspensions to mucosal surfaces leads to improved selectivity because of minimal drug loss and prolonged residence time at target site. Pulmonary nanosuspensions improve drug diffusion and dissolution rate and consequently increase bioavailability and prevent undesirable drug deposition in the mouth and pharynx. Surface engineered nanosuspensions may provide quick on set followed by controlled drug release which is optimal drug delivery pattern for most pulmonary diseases. Moreover, nanosuspensions for treating lung infections have demonstrated good proportion between actual and delivered drug concentrations in each actuation [44]. The internalisation rate for nanoparticles of 0.5µm diameter into the pulmonary epithelial cell has been reported to be 10 times higher compared to particles of 1 µm and 100 times higher compared to particles of 2-3 μm [45, 46].

> Ocular Administration

Major problems in ocular therapy include (i) poor drug solubility in lachrymal fluids, (ii) repeated instillation of conventional eye drops due to drainage through the nasolacrimal duct, (iii) repeated instillation and systematic drug absorption often causing side effects [47].

Nano suspensions as ocular drug delivery systems offer several advantages.

(i) Nano particle modified surface by appropriate bio erodible polymer causes prolonged residual time in cul-de-sac desired for effective treatment. Commonly reported polymer in ocular nanosuspensions are poly (alkyl cyanoacrylates), poly caprolactone, and poly (lacticacid)/poly (lactic- coglycolicacid) [48]. Employing polymers in ocular drug delivery significantly prolongs drug ocular residence time and improves bioavailability [49]. (ii) Positively charged nano particles have strong adhesion to negatively charged mucin which extends the drug release. For example, polymer Eudragit RS 100 was used in ibuprofen nanosuspensions to increase drug residence time by creating positively charged surface which resulted in improved corneal adhesion [50]. Flurbiprofen nano suspensions covered by Eudragit polymers RS 100 and RL 100 exhibited prolongeddrugrelease [51]. Chitosanisanother mucoadhesive cationic polymer used in ocular drug delivery to bond with negatively charged mucin and enhance drug residence time.

- Reduced drug loss because of the natural adhesiveness of drug nanoparticles.
- Enhanced rate and extent of drug absorption: for instance, in a study by Kassem *et al.*, nano suspensions of hydrocortisone, prednisolone, and dexamethasone were prepared by high pressure homogenisation. Measured intraocular pressure of normotensive Albino rabbits demonstrated that glucocorticoid drugs in the form of nanosuspensions unlike conventional dosage forms significantly increase the absorption rate and the therapeutic efficiency [52].

Employing polymers with the ability of in sit gelling (instilled in a liquid form and transformed to a gel in the cul-de-sac) controls the drug release. Study by Gupta *et al.*, suggested that formulating forskolin nanoparticles in conjunction with in situ gel forming polymersnoveonAA-1polycarbophil/poloxamer407 controls drug release through increased corneal contact time and slower drug diffusion within the viscous polymer medium [51].

RESEARCH WORK AND SUCCESSFUL FORMULATIONS BASEDON NANOSUSPENSIONS

A suspension containing 20 nm silica particles in ethylene glycol was subjected to electrohydrodynamic atomization (EHDA) in the stable cone-jet mode using a ring-shaped ground electrode. The droplets produced were sized by laser diffraction and were in the range 0.5-20 mum. Immediately after deposition, droplet relics were analysed by optical microscopy and were found to be inthe size range 1-80 mum. Subsequently, using a pointed rod-electrode (rather than a ring), and by increasing the intensity of the electric field and by reducing the flow rate of suspension subjected to EHDA, relics of similar to 50 mum in size were deposited using a patterning device. In both of the above instances, the relics contained two distinct zones, an outer ring of ethylene glycol and a much smaller dense inner region of silica nanoparticles. These results show that, by using EHDA, a novel controlled deposition method of nanosuspensions has been developed [53].

All-Trans Retinoic Acid (ATRA) nanosuspensions were prepared with a modified precipitation method. The ATRA solution in acetone was injected into pure water by an air compressor under the action of ultrasonication. Photon correlation spectros copy results showed that the mean particle size of ATRA nanoparticles in nanosuspensions reduced from 337 nm to 155 nmas the injection velocity increased and the polydispersity index was 0.45-0.50. The morphology of Ananoparticlesvaried withthe concentration of ATRA solution in acetone. ATRA nanoparticles showed anamorphous state and stable in 6

- months. It could be concluded that this modified precipitation method could produce stable and controllable ATRA nanosuspension to a certain extent, thus benefit for higher saturation solubility [54].
 - Albendazole, an anthelmintic drugbelonging to BCS class II, has poor bioavailability. Bioavailability is dissolution rate dependent and hence needs novel approach enhancement of bioavailability. The aim of the nanosuspension studywastodevelop albendazole by using various techniques like nanoprecipitation, emulsion template and sonication. Nanosuspensions were prepared using polyvinylpyrrolidone K30 as a stabilizer and Tween 80 as a surfactant. Average particle size, zeta potential, particle sizedistribution, photomicrography, viscosity, sedimentation, redispersibility and % drug content were determined to characterize prepared nanosuspensions. In vitro release performedin 0.1 NHClusing cellophanemembran e and with marketed product. Residual solvent compared determination was carried out by gas chromatography for nanosuspensions prepared nanoprecipitation and emulsion templatetechniques. All the results obtained for characterization were satisfactory. prepared nanosuspensions showed particle size 673±9.18 nm to 893±21.6 nm, zeta potential - 8.70 ± 0.5 mV to - 8.96 ± 0.8 , polydispersity index 0.204 ± 0.04 to 0.644 ± 0.07 . In vitro release study of the nanosuspensions showed 33.80% to 42.92% drug release in first hour which was higher than the marketed suspension (16.19% release in first hour). The optimized nano suspensions showed up to 97.05% drug release within 6-8 hours while marketed product showed up to 91.03% drug release within 10 hours [55].
 - Oleanolic acid is a naturally derived triterpene used clinically in the treatment of hepatitisin China, butitspoorsolubilityoftenleads to poor bioavailability. In the present study, oleanolic acid nanosuspensions were prepared by the nanoprecipitation method and systematically characterized. The average particle size of the obtainednanosus pensions was 284.9nm, with a poly dispersity index of 0.216. Transmissionelectron microscopy and atomic force microscopy showed that the drug existed as spherical or near- spherical nanoparticles in the nanosuspensions. Differential scanning calorimetry and X-ray diffraction studies indicated that oleanolic acid was present in an amorphous state in the lyophilized nanosuspensions. At 25°C, the saturation solubility of oleanolic acid was increased by about 6 times after nanoation (25.72 microgmL(-1) vs 4.37 microg mL(-1)).

In the in-vitro drug release experiments, the lyophilized nanosuspensions showed a faster drug dissolution rate than that of the coarse drug powder (approx. 90% vs 15% during the first 20 min), and nearly 95% of the oleanolic acid was released by 120 min. As evidenced by the lower serum alanine aminotransferase activity and livermalondialdehyde content, pre-treatment with oleanolic acid nanosuspensions significantly enhanced the hepatoprotective effect of oleanolic acid against carbon tetrachloride-induced liver injury [56].

A study was performed to investigate potential of Eudragit RLPO-based nanosuspension of glimepiride (Biopharmaceutical Classification System class II drug), for the improvement of its solubility and overall therapeutic efficacy, suitable for peroral administration. Nanoprecipitation method being simple and less sophisticated was optimized for the preparation of nanosuspension. Physicochemical characteristics of nanosuspension in terms of size, zetapotential, poly dispersity index, entrapment efficiency (% EE) and in vitro drug release were found within their acceptable ranges. The size of the nanoparticles was most strongly affected by agitation time while % EE was more influenced by the drug/polymer ratio. Differential scanning calorimetry and X-ray diffraction studies provided evidence that enhancement insolubility of drug resulted due to change in crystallinity of drug within the Stability formulation. study revealed nanosuspension was more stable at refrigerated condition with no significant changes in particle size distribution, % EE, and release characteristics for 3 months. In vivo studies were performed on nicotinamide-streptozotocininduced diabetic rat models for pharmacokinetic and anti hyperglycaemic activity. Nanosuspension increased maximum plasma concentration, area under the curve, and mean residence time values significantly as compared to aqueous suspension. Oral glucose tolerance test and anti hyperglycaemic studies demonstrated plasma glucose levels were efficiently controlled in case of nanosuspension than glimepiride suspension. Briefly, sustained and prolonged activity of nanosuspensions could reduce dose frequency, decrease drug side effects, and improve patient compliance. Therefore, glimepiride nanosuspensions can be expected to gain considerable attention in the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus due to its improved therapeutic activity [57].

CONCLUSIONANDPROSPECTIVE

This review presents the recent progress in the rapeutic nanosuspensions produced by various techniques such as high pressure homogenisation, media milling, and emulsification. However, in early stages, several in vivo studies clearly demonstrate the potential of these drug delivery vehicles in parenteral, oral, ocular, and pulmonary administration, where not only a controlled release but also an appropriate bio adhesion is required. The research on drug nanosuspensions is in its

infancy. However, these systems carry flexibility and opportunity for further tailoring particles, surface properties to optimise in vivo responses, and generation of new clinical approaches for treating a number of diseases (heart, cancer, diabetes, Parkinson's. Alzheimer's, etc.) are required. Considering that nanoparticle uptake is size dependent, working on the size optimization of drug nanosuspension can help us prepare an appropriate nanosuspension formulation with better diffusion through the mucus gel layer. In addition, incorporation of polymers on the particle surface and size reduction can be regarded as the future step in nanosuspension research.

Tosummarise future research directions include:

- Increasing in vivo bioavailability and correlating in vitro and in vivo bioavailability data:
- Achieving controlled and sustained drug release over extended period of time using biocompatible matrix polymers;
- Development of stimuli-responsive systems such as magnetic field, light, temperature, and pH, which is particularly important for highly toxic drugs;
- Further studies that are necessary to understand the behaviour of nanosuspensions in vivo, including interactions with cells and different biological barriers such as the blood-brain barrier; surface engineering of nanosuspensions for active or passive targeting in order to enhance their ability to reach the target.

REFERENCES

- 1. Geetha, G., Poojitha, U., & Khan, K. A. A. (2014). Various techniques for preparation of nanosuspension-a review. *International Journal of Pharma Research & Review*, 3(9), 30-37.
- 2. Patravale, V. B., Abhijit, A., & Date Kulkarni, R. M. (2004). *Journal of pharmacy and pharmacology*, 5(6), 67-69.
- 3. Van Eerdenbrugh, B., Van den Mooter, G., & Augustijns, P. (2008). Top-down production of drug nanocrystals: nanosuspension stabilization, miniaturization and transformation into solid products. *International journal of pharmaceutics*, 364(1), 64-75.
- De Waard, H., Hinrichs, W. L. J., & Frijlink, H. W. (2008). A novel bottom–up process to produce drug nanocrystals: controlled crystallization during freeze-drying. *Journal of controlled release*, 128(2), 179-183.
- 5. Keck, C. M., & Müller, R. H. (2006). Drug nanocrystals of poorly soluble drugs produced by high pressure homogenisation. *European journal of pharmaceutics and biopharmaceutics*, 62(1), 3-16.
- Nash, R. A. (2002). Suspensions. In: Swarbrick, J., Boylan, J. C (Ed). Encyclopedia of pharmaceutical technology. Second edition vol. 3. New York, Marcel Dekker, p. 2045-3032.

- 7. Muller, R. H., Jacobs, C., & Kayer, O. (2000). Nanosuspensions for the formulation of poorly soluble drugs. In: Nielloud, F., Marti-Mestres, G. (Ed). Pharmaceutical emulsion and suspension. New York, Marcel Dekker, p. 383-407.
- 8. Grau, M. J., Kayser, O., & Müller, R. H. (2000). Nanosuspensions of poorly soluble drugs—reproducibility of small scale production. *International journal of pharmaceutics*, 196(2), 155-159.
- Muller, R. H., Bohm, B. H. L. (1998). Nanosuspensions. In: Muller, R. H., Benita, S., Bohm, B. H. L. (eds) Emulsions and nanosuspensions for the formulation of poorly soluble drugs. *Med pharm Scientific Publishers*, Stuttgart, 149–174.
- 10. Krause, K., & Muller, R. H. (2012). *International journal of pharmacy*, 14, 21–24.
- 11. Keck, C. M., & Müller, R. H. (2006). Drug nanocrystals of poorly soluble drugs produced by high pressure homogenisation. *European journal of pharmaceutics and biopharmaceutics*, 62(1), 3-16.
- 12. Deans, R. (2000). Atovaquone pharmaceutical compositions. US Patent US6018080.
- 13. Prassanna, L., & Giddam, A. K. (2010). Nanosuspensions technology, a review. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, 2(4), 35-40.
- 14. Liversidge, G. G., Cundy, K. C., Bishop, J. F., & Czekai, D. A. (1999). Surface modified drug nanoparticles. US Patent 5.
- 15. Patravale, V. B., Date, A. A., & Kulkarni, R. M. (2004). Nanosuspensions: a promising drug delivery strategy. *Journal of pharmacy and pharmacology*, 56(7), 827-840.
- Bodmeier, R., & McGinity, J. W. (1988). Solvent selection in the preparation of poly (DL-lactide) microspheres prepared by the solvent evaporation method. *International journal of pharmaceutics*, 43(1-2), 179-186.
- 17. Trotta, M., Gallarate, M., Carlotti, M. E., & Morel, S. (2003). Preparation of griseofulvin nanoparticles from water-dilutable microemulsions. *International journal of pharmaceutics*, 254(2), 235-242.
- Young, T. J., Mawson, S., Johnston, K. P., Henriksen, I. B., Pace, G. W., & Mishra, A. K. (2000). Rapid expansion from supercritical to aqueous solution to produce submicron suspensions of water-insoluble drugs. *Biotechnology* progress, 16(3), 402-407.
- 19. Rawlins, E. A. (1982). Solutions. In: Rawlins, E. A. (ed.) Bentley's textbook of pharmaceutics. 8th edn, Bailliere Tindall, London, p 6.
- Muller, R. H., & Bohm, B. H. L. (1998). Nanosuspensions. In: Muller, R. H., Benita, S., Bohm, B. H. L. (eds) Emulsions and nanosuspensions for the formulation of poorly soluble drugs. Medpharm Scientific Publishers, Stuttgart, pp 149-174.
- 21. Chen, Y., Liu, J., Yang, X., Zhao, X., & Xu, H.

- (2005). Oleanolic acid nanosuspensions: preparation, in-vitro characterization and enhanced hepatoprotective effect. *Journal of pharmacy and pharmacology*, 57(2), 259-264.
- Venkatesh, T., Reddy, A. K., Maheswari, J. U., Dalith, M. D., & Kumar, C. A. (2011).
 Nanosuspensions: ideal approach for the drug delivery of poorly water soluble drugs. *Der Pharmacia Lettre*, 3(2), 203-213.
- 23. Arunkumar, N., Deecaraman, M., & Rani, C. (2009). Nanosuspension technology and its applications in drug delivery. *Asian Journal of Pharmaceutics (AJP)*, 3(3), 168–173.
- 24. Shi, Y., Porter, W., Merdan, T., & Li, L. C. (2009). Recent advances in intravenous delivery of poorly water-soluble compounds. *Expert opinion on drug delivery*, *6*(12), 1261-1282.
- 25. Jain, K. K. (2008). Methodsin Molecular Biology, 437, 1–50.
- Bhalla, S. (2007). Parenteral drug delivery, in Gibaldi's Drug Delivery Systems in Pharmaceutical Care, M. Lee and A. Desai, Eds., p. 107, ASHP, Bethesda, Md, USA.
- Lou, H., Zhang, X., Gao, L., Feng, F., Wang, J., Wei, X., ... & Zhang, Q. (2009). In vitro and in vivo antitumor activity of oridonin nanosuspension. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, 379(1), 181-186.
- Müller, R. H., Becker, R., Kruss, B., & Peters, K. Pharmaceutical nanosuspensions for medicament administration as system of increased saturation solubility and rate of solution. 1999. *United States Patent*, 5858410.
- 29. Borgström, L. (2001). The importance of the device in asthma therapy. *Respiratory medicine*, *95*, S26-S29.
- Courrier, H. M., Butz, N., & Vandamme, T. F. (2002). Pulmonary drug delivery systems: recent developments and prospects. *Critical Reviews*TM in Therapeutic Drug Carrier Systems, 19(4-5), 425–498.
- 31. Liao, X., & Wiedmann, T. S. (2003). Solubilization of cationic drugsinlung surfactant, *Pharmaceutical Research*, 20(11), 1858–1863.
- 32. Beck-Broichsitter, M. (2011). Pulmonary drug delivery with nanoparticles, in Nanomedicine in Health and Disease, Hunter, R. J., & Preedy V. R., Eds, 229–248, CRC Press, New York, NY, USA.
- 33. Dhiman, S., & Thakur, G. S. (2011). Nanosuspension: A recent approach for nano drug delivery system. *International journal of current pharmaceutical research*, *3*(4), 96-101.
- 34. Bailey, M. M., & Berkland, C. J. (2009). Nanoparticle formulations in pulmonary drug delivery. *Medicinal research reviews*, 29(1), 196-212.
- 35. Foster, K. A., Yazdanian, M., & Audus, K. L. (2001). Microparticulate uptake mechanisms of invitro cell culture models of the respiratory epithelium. *Journal of pharmacy and pharmacology*, 53(1), 57-66.
- 36. Gaudana, R., Jwala, J., Boddu, S. H., & Mitra, A. K. (2009). Recent perspectives in ocular drug

- delivery. Pharmaceutical research, 26, 1197-1216.
- 37. Gupta, H., Aqil, M., Khar, R. K., Ali, A., Bhatnagar, A., & Mittal, G. (2010). Sparfloxacin-loaded PLGA nanoparticles for sustained ocular drug delivery. *Nanomedicine: nanotechnology, biology and medicine*, 6(2), 324-333.
- 38. Nagarwal, R. C., Kant, S., Singh, P. N., Maiti, P., & Pandit, J. K. (2009). Polymeric nanoparticulate system: a potential approach for ocular drug delivery. *Journal of controlled release*, *136*(1), 2-13.
- Gao, L., Zhang, D., & Chen, M. (2008). Drug nanocrystals for the formulation of poorly soluble drugs and its application as a potential drug delivery system. *Journal of Nanoparticle Research*, 10, 845-862.
- 40. Gupta, S., Samanta, M. K., & Raichur, A. M. (2010). Dual-drug delivery system based on in situ gelforming nanosuspension of forskolin to enhance antiglaucoma efficacy. *Aaps Pharmscitech*, *II*(1), 322-335.
- Kassem, M. A., Rahman, A. A., Ghorab, M. M., Ahmed, M. B., & Khalil, R. M. (2007). Nanosuspension as an ophthalmic delivery system for certain glucocorticoid drugs. *International journal of pharmaceutics*, 340(1-2), 126-133.
- 42. Jayasingheb, S. N., Edirisinghe, M. J., & Wang, D. Z. (2004). *Nanotechnology*, *15*(11), 1519-152.
- 43. Zhang, X., Xia, Q., & Gu, N. (2006). Preparation of all-trans retinoic acid nanosuspensions using a modified precipitation method. *Drug development and industrial pharmacy*, 32(7), 857-863.
- 44. Koli, A., Bhatt, H., Patel, A., Bhagat, S., Shah, S., & Ranch, K. (2014). Development of albendazole nanosuspension by various techniques. *Drug Delivery Letters*, 4(2), 87-95.
- 45. Chen, Y., Liu, J., Yang, X., Zhao, X., & Xu, H. (2005). Oleanolic acid nanosuspensions: preparation, in-vitro characterization and enhanced hepatoprotective effect. *Journal of pharmacy and pharmacology*, *57*(2), 259-264.
- 46. Yadav, S. K., Mishra, S., & Mishra, B. (2012). Eudragit-based nanosuspension of poorly water-soluble drug: formulation and in vitro—in vivo evaluation. *AAPS pharmscitech*, *13*, 1031-1044.
- 47. Kocbek, P., Baumgartner, S., & Kristl, J. (2006). Preparation and evaluation of nanosuspensions for enhancing the dissolution of poorly soluble drugs. *International journal of pharmaceutics*, 312(1-2), 179-186.
- 48. Pignatello, R., Bucolo, C., Ferrara, P., Maltese, A., Puleo, A., & Puglisi, G. (2002). Eudragit RS100® nanosuspensions for the ophthalmic controlled delivery of ibuprofen. *European journal of*

- pharmaceutical sciences, 16(1-2), 53-61.
- Pignatello, R., Bucolo, C., Spedalieri, G., Maltese, A., & Puglisi, G. (2002). Flurbiprofen-loaded acrylate polymer nanosuspensions for ophthalmic application. *Biomaterials*, 23(15), 3247-3255.
- Langguth, P., Hanafy, A., Frenzel, D., Grenier, P., Nhamias, A., Ohlig, T., ... & Spahn-Langguth, H. (2005). Nanosuspension formulations for low-soluble drugs: pharmacokinetic evaluation using spironolactone as model compound. *Drug development* and industrial pharmacy, 31(3), 319-329.
- Merisko-Liversidge, E., Sarpotdar, P., Bruno, J., Hajj, S., Wei, L., Peltier, N., ... & Liversidge, G. G. (1996). Formulation and antitumor activity evaluation of nanocrystalline suspensions of poorly soluble anticancer drugs. *Pharmaceutical* research, 13(2), 272-278.
- 52. Agnihotri, S. M., & Vavia, P. R. (2009). Diclofenacloaded biopolymeric nanosuspensions for ophthalmic application. *Nanomedicine:* nanotechnology, biology and medicine, 5(1), 90-95.
- Dolenc, A., Kristl, J., Baumgartner, S., & Planinšek, O. (2009). Advantages of celecoxib nanosuspension formulation and transformation into tablets. *International journal of* pharmaceutics, 376(1-2), 204-212.
- 54. Muthu, M. S., & Singh, S. (2009). Poly (D, L-lactide) nanosuspensions of risperidone for parenteral delivery: formulation and in-vitro evaluation. *Current drug delivery*, 6(1), 62-68.
- 55. Ganta, S., Paxton, J. W., Baguley, B. C., & Garg, S. (2009). Formulation and pharmacokinetic evaluation of an asulacrine nanocrystalline suspension for intravenous delivery. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, 367(1-2), 179-186.
- 56. Zhang, D., Tan, T., Gao, L., Zhao, W., & Wang, P. (2007). Preparation of azithromycin nanosuspensions by high pressure homogenization and its physicochemical characteristics studies. *Drug development and industrial pharmacy*, 33(5), 569-575.
- Arunkumar, N., Deecaraman, M., Rani, C., Mohanraj, K. P., & Venkateskumar, K. (2010). Formulation development and in vitro evaluation of nanosuspensions loaded with Atorvastatin calcium. *Asian Journal of Pharmaceutics* (AJP), 4(1), 28-33.
- 58. Gao, L., Zhang, D., Chen, M., Zheng, T., & Wang, S. (2007). Preparation and characterization of an oridonin nanosuspension for solubility and dissolution velocity enhancement. *Drug development and industrial pharmacy*, *33*(12), 1332-1339.