



**A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW ON DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION
OF NOVEL NANO FORMULATIONS FOR OCULAR DRUG
DELIVERY SYSTEM**

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ABSTRACT

Nanotechnology integration has led in significant improvements in ocular medicine administration. Even though numerous standard dose forms are employed, shorter bioavailability and retention duration continue to be a serious concern in the ocular drug delivery system. In addition, a number of other barriers exist that affect. The drug's solubility and permeability are reduced as a result of It has a shorter residence duration on the ocular surface. The application of nanotechnology could be the most effective solution to these issues. The field of all nanocarriers has showed considerable potential in offering precise medicine delivery to the ocular tissues.

Compact size, biocompatibility, and surface modification improve medication solubility, lengthen release, and increase bioavailability. Nanotechnology also makes it easier to implant medicinal molecules to treat a number of eye conditions such as infections, macular degeneration, and glaucoma. The goal of these improvements is to remove barriers and issues in the ocular medication delivery system. This review emphasises how nanotechnology can change the delivery of ophthalmic drugs, potentially leading to more effective and patient friendly therapies for eye illnesses.

Keywords: Nanotechnology, Nanocarriers, Ocular drug delivery, Glaucoma

INTRODUCTION :

Drugs and other foreign particles are almost impossible for the human eye to penetrate due to its intricate anatomy, physiology, and biochemistry.

Therefore, creating an ocular drug delivery system continues to be an intriguing and challenging problem for formulation and development specialists. The basic goal of creating an ocular medication delivery system is to overcome the eye's natural barriers, resulting in high therapeutic efficacy while avoiding irreversible tissue damage. Short retention times and constraints on corneal epithelial permeability typically limit the efficiency of ophthalmic preparations. Frequent blinking (6 to 15 times/min), high tear turnover (0.5 to 2.2 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$), nasolacrimal discharge, and ineffective conjunctival absorption all contribute to high precorneal clearing rates. Furthermore, the modest retention volume ($\sim 30 \mu\text{L}$) of the conjunctival sac typically results in less medication being transmitted through the cornea or scleral membrane. This article seeks to provide a comprehensive summary of recent advances in lipid nanocarrier-based ocular medication delivery techniques [1]. Another goal of the paper is to emphasize the growing importance of these nanosystems when managing disorders affecting the front and back of the eye. Understanding the anatomical and physiological barriers in the ocular area, the biochemical pathways in the ocular tissues, and the drug transfer ac-

ross the ocular epithelial surface are critical for designing effective ocular administration systems [2].

The Significance of Ocular Drug Delivery:

The eyes, as the windows to the soul, also serve as gatekeepers for therapeutic interventions.

Ocular drug delivery holds paramount importance in the therapy of a spectrum of eye problems, ranging from basic illnesses like glaucoma and conjunctivitis to more complicated disorders such as macular degeneration and diabetic retinopathy. Unlike systemic drug delivery, where the bloodstream acts as a robust circulatory system, the ocular environment demands tailored approaches to ensure drug bioavailability, sustained release, and targeted action [3].

Anatomical and physiological characteristics of the human eye

The aqueous humour, cornea, conjunctiva, iris, ciliary body, and lens are located in the anterior chamber of the human eye, whereas the vitreous humour, retina, sclera, choroid, and optic nerve are located in the posterior chamber. The endothelium, stroma, and epithelium are the three layers that make up the cornea. Narrow, flattened epithelial cells create tight interjunctional complexes known as zonula occludens distal to Bowman's membrane. These layers serve as barriers to

the spread. 100 times more lipid is present in the outermost 6–7.

layered epithelium and the innermost simple squamous sheet of the endothelium layer than in the intermediate stroma or substantia propria.

Dense, closely spaced collagen fibrils arranged in lamellar or orthogonal layers comprise the bulk of the stroma. The collagen-rich, somewhat translucent matrix between the cornea's stroma and endothelium is called the basement membrane, sometimes referred

to as Descemet's membrane. Directly beneath the epithelium, which is mainly made up of collagen fibers a vital protein that gives the cornea structural stability is the Bowman's membrane [4]. The aqueous humour of the anterior and posterior segments preserves intraocular pressure, while the ciliary body secretes a translucent, gelatinous fluid to fill the vitreous chamber.

A schematic representation of the main regions and several ocular pathways of the human eye is presented in **Figure 1**.

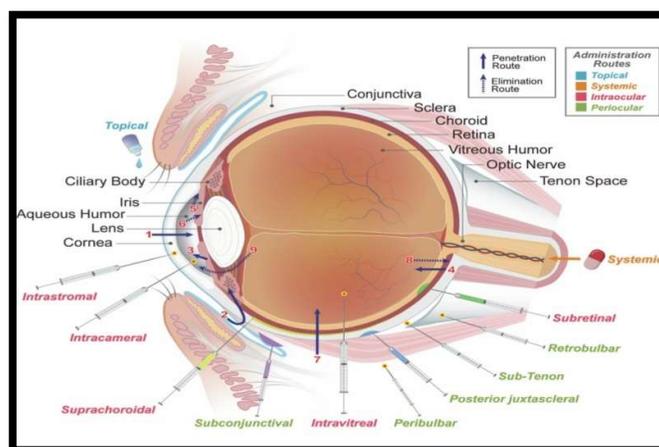


Figure 1: A schematic representation of the main regions and several ocular pathways of the human eye

DRUG TRANSPORT MECHANISM

When a drug is administered topically to the culdesac, it can penetrate the intraocular tissues through the corneal membrane or diffuse through the sclera and conjunctiva in a noncorneal fashion in addition to disorders like uveitis and glaucoma that impact the anterior part of the eye.

Topical treatment is preferable for surface infections and inflammation because of its benefits, which include hepatic metabolism,

prevention of systemic absorption, and convenience of drug delivery. Topical solutions' ocular bioavailability has been shown to be only 5 to 10% due to limited drug penetration into the inner tissues of the eyes [5]. Reaching the desired medication concentration is problematic.

Especially in the rear region. Compared to the noncorneal method, most therapeutic drugs are absorbed largely through transcellular transport via the corneal epithelial membr

ane and stroma. Surface area, diffusivity, concentration gradient, pKa, and an optimum log p value of 1 to 3, which is also comparable to other biological membranes, are the physicochemical properties of actives that govern the corneal permeability. The stroma of the cornea is highly hydrophilic and corneal epithelial cells have a tendency to act as a drug depot, releasing drugs into it.

This would provide a rate-limiting membrane barrier for extremely hydrophobic medications, while permitting the entry of polar medications with molecular weights up to 50 kDa. As a result, the degree of ionisation, lipophilicity, solubility, and molecular size all have a significant impact on how well a drug penetrates and is accessible to the eyes. The iris ciliary body expresses a number of drug transporters from the ATP-binding cassette family, as well as several proteins associated with multidrug resistance and solute carrier families [6].

According to studies, the iris ciliary body has a drug transporter that stops drugs from diffusing into the watery humour from the blood and being aggressively removed from it, lowering the drug's ocular bioavailability. Trauma, vascular disorders, inflammation, and intraocular surgery can all cause changes to the blood-aqueous barrier. These changes could compromise the eye's equilibrium and membrane integrity. Medication delivery to the anterior part of the eye is impeded by three factors: the corneal membrane and

the anterior blood-aqueous barrier are static, the conjunctival blood flow, lymphatic drainage, and tear turnover are dynamic, and the metabolism is slow. Merely lipid transfer or exchange to the cellular or subcellular membrane, fusion with the plasma membrane, adsorption to the ocular surface via weak hydrophobic or electrostatic forces, and endocytosis by phagocytic cells of the reticuloendothelial cells are some of the ways that lipid nanoparticles can carry pharmaceuticals (Figure 2).

Small molecules (less than 500 Da) can be delivered intravitreally to the vitreous humour; however, extended use of this technique of drug delivery might cause retinal issues and raised intraocular pressure.

While very invasive methods of gene transfer, including subretinal injection, have their benefits, they can also cause a variety of common problems, including increased intraocular pressure, vitreous haemorrhage, retinal detachment, recurrence of submacular haemorrhage, and postoperative development of choroidal neovascularization [7].

Popular periocular drug delivery techniques that give medications directly to posterior ocular regions while lowering the risk of endophthalmitis and retinal damage include subconjunctival, intrascleral, sub-Tenon's retrobulbar, and peribulbar injections.

To increase the precorneal residence duration and corneal penetration of medications, various methods can be employed, including

g eye drops, hydrogels, in situ gels, nanoparticles, nano micelles, polymeric ocular inserts, implants, dendrimers, nanosuspensions,

and microneedles. Thus, ocular bioavailability is increase [8].

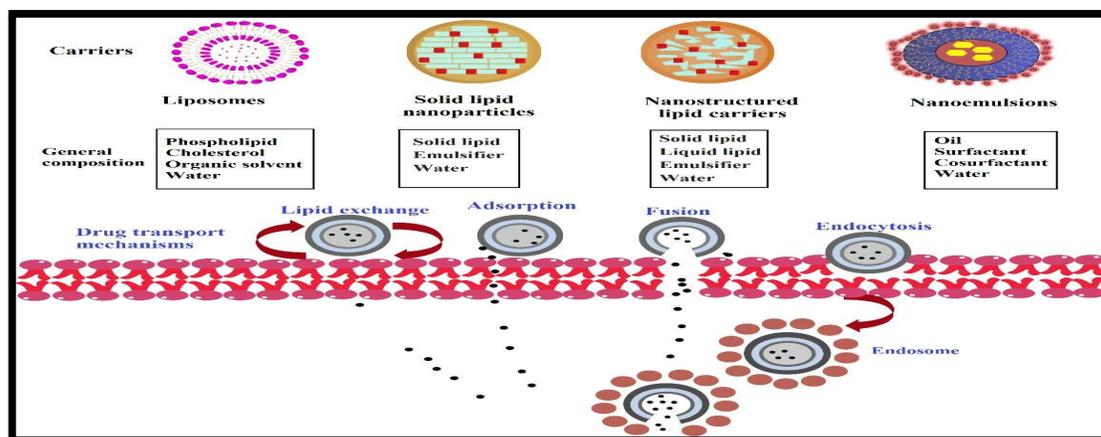


Figure 2: Drug transport mechanism in human eye

NANOCARRIERS FOR OCULAR DRUG DELIVERY

Nanocarriers, with its submicron particle size and unique physicochemical properties, can be an effective technique of delivering active substances to precise locations. For a range of drug delivery applications, nanocarriers are often made of materials that dissolve in particulate matter or combined with ligands that are particular to a given target. They can encapsulate several active formulations from different sources by employing a range of preparation techniques.

Nanoparticles are frequently Used in the creation of novel medication delivery technologies that allow active chemicals to pass past many[9].

The ocular area has physiological barriers. After the medication has been endocytosed by the cornea's epithelial cells, these nanoc

arriers can also function as a depot or reservoir for the drug's gradual release. This helps to decrease rapid medication loss caused by nasolacrimal discharge and tear turnover. Furthermore, nonionic surfaceactive formulation components that inhibit glycoprotein activity in epithelial cells and open the cornea's tight junction may improve ocular bioavailability.anytime the posterior area of the eye is addressed. They can avoid recurring medication administration by serving as a control release mechanism[10]. Drugs can be dissolved, dispersed, or surfacebonded in nanoparticles comprised of biodegradable and biocompatible polymers.

Precorneal contact duration and transcorneal permeability are two factors that are being studied to improve intraocular bioavailability.

Colloidal nanoparticulate lipid systems, inc

cluding liposomes, nanoemulsions, solid lipid nanoparticles, and nanostructure lipid carriers, have received a lot of attention as viable drug delivery techniques for both anterior and posterior ocular disorders. Lipid nanoparticles have numerous advantages, including increased absorption, modified release, minimal degradation, high stability, in vivo compatibility, and flexibility to various delivery modalities [11]. The lipids employed to create this nano system are biocompatible and biodegradable, and they have the potential to significantly reduce the deleterious effects of the ophthalmic preparation.

Lipid nanoparticles have numerous advantages over polymeric nanoparticles, such as modified release, improved stability, less lipid breakdown, invitro tolerability, and flexibility to various delivery systems. This makes lipid nanoparticles a suitable and efficient drug delivery medium for use in a variety of delivery systems [12].

BULK MATERIALS USED FOR PREPARATION OF LNS

The ultimate physicochemical and biological qualities of every formulation are greatly influenced by the appropriate selection of bulk components.

Lipids:

The impact of constituent mix on LNs' ultimate quality. Crucial elements for the production of nanoparticles include lipid type and characteristics, including hydrophobicity,

crystallisation behaviour, and lipid crystal structure. Lipid and its physical condition are further factors influencing the characteristics of LNs [13].

Solid lipids:

Solid lipids used to manufacture LNs include steroids, waxes, fatty acids, triglycerides, and partial glycerides. Tricaprin, trilaurin (Dynasan® 112), trimyristin (Dynasan® 114), tripalmitin (Dynasan® 116), tristearin (Dynasan® 118), and other triglycerides have all been used in the production of LN.

Longer hydrocarbon chains are generally linked to higher melting points and more stable nanoparticles. To enhance drug loading and avoid aberrant lipid crystallisation, experts advice utilising a blend of lipids with varying chain lengths. It is significant to remember that the behaviour of lipid bulk material and colloidal nanosystems might vary significantly.

As a result, the qualities required for the finished product should be taken into consideration while choosing the type of lipid. Mixtures of mono, di, and triglycerides called partial glycerides are frequently utilised to create SLNs with poorly soluble medications. (e.g. Compritol®, Gelucire®, Precirol®).

Several glyceride combinations promote SLN drug loading while inhibiting lipid recrystallization [19]. One common fatty acid utilised to prepare SLNs for ODD is stearic acid. It is preferable to use a lipid mixture of stearic acid and Compritol® rather than just the

fatty acid alone. They noticed that the combination of the two lipids produced SLN with low crystallinity, which led to higher drug loading and improved stability.

One steroid that is frequently employed in liposome construction is cholesterol, which has also been used to elaborate LNs.

Following interaction with ocular structures the proposed formulation exhibited appropriate physicochemical parameters and no tissue injury. Compared to SLNs made with glycerides, those formulated with waxes showed reduced drug entrapment but improved physical stability.

They attributed these findings to waxes' high degree of crystallinity after particle solidification, as opposed to the SLN's disorganized lattices that were polished with glycerides [14].

Liquid lipids

Oils having medium to short hydrocarbon chains and a melting point lower than body temperature are referred to as liquid lipids.

Liquid and solid lipids are combined in ratios ranging from 70:30 to 99.9:0.1 to generate NLCs. Liquid lipids like oleic acid, castor oil, squalene, Mygliol®, and their combinations are used to make NLCs for ODD. A 70:30 combination of castor oil and Mygliol® is used to make NLCs for topical ocular treatment.

These liquid lipids were chosen for their drug solubility potential as well as safety concerns for ocular delivery.

Furthermore, even when the overall lipid content exceeded 10%, this lipid mixture facilitated the formation of NLCs with small particle sizes [15].

Cationic lipids

A positively charged head group and one or more hydrocarbon chains or steroid structures make up cationic lipids.

Topical ODD medicines such as DOTAP (1,2-dioleoyl-3-TrimethylAmmoniumPropane) or DDAB are commonly utilised.

The nanosystem's surface contains cationic moieties, which endow the LNs with a positive charge, allowing them to interact with the negatively charged corneal epithelium through electrostatic forces. Leonardi *et al.* discovered that mixing melatonin-loaded SLNs with the cationic lipid DDAB improved both mucoadhesion and precorneal retention in rabbit eyes.

In fact, the medication's hypotensive effect lasted up to 24 hours following just one topical application. Cationic lipids are also used in some types of ocular gene therapy.

In these situations, the lipid serves two purposes. To shield the negatively charged genetic material from enzymatic destruction, it first promotes its adsorption on the nanoparticle's surface. Second, the LN genetic complex's positive charge facilitates contact with the corneal epithelium, lengthening its residence period and boosting transfection efficiency. Other cationic lipids authorised for use

e in ophthalmology are cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB), benzalkonium chloride, cetylpyridinium chloride, and benzethonium chloride [16].

Surfactants

Surface tension between phases is typically decreased by surfactants, which are amphiphilic molecules with a polar head and a non polar tail, to stabilise emulsions. When developing lipophilic substances (LNs) for ocular distribution, it is critical to choose appropriate surfactants and cosurfactants.

The kind of surfactant influences both the biocompatibility and physicochemical aspects of the nanosystem [17].

Crucially, the type of surfactant utilised in LNs influences their cytotoxicity more than the type of lipids used to make them.

As a result, choosing the best surfactant type and concentration requires striking a balance between toxicity and stability. Surfactants are classed as either ionic or non-ionic. The charge indicates whether it is ionic or amphoteric.

Nonionic surfactants, like polysorbates (Tween® 80) and sorbitan esters (Span 80), are less irritating and harmful than ionic surfactants. Pensado *et.al.* used Span 80 and oleylamine to create a new type of solid nanoparticle for gene therapy in the eyes.

Here, Span 80 rather than a surfactant was the primary component of the nanoparticle.

The nanosystem showed excellent biocomp

patibility and high transfection efficiency.

Tyloxapol, poloxamers, cremophors, and vitamin E TPGS (D-tocopherol polyethylene glycol 1000 succinate) are other surfactants that are frequently employed in ODD [18].

Surface modifiers

Researchers have proposed a variety of methods for increasing nanoparticle residency time in the precorneal region, including the use of surface modifiers for nanoparticles and viscosity enhancers for in situ gelling polymers.

Enhancing the interaction between LNs and OS structures and/or facilitating nanoparticle penetration are the main objectives of surface modifiers. These two surface modifications that are most frequently used are chitosan and hyaluronic acid [19].

Surfactants and Lipid Functions in Formulation Design

The surfaceactive chemicals' properties and concentrations have a significant impact on the efficacy and efficiency of nano lipid particles and carriers.

Because of their amphiphilic nature, these surfactants are more typically found near interfaces, reducing interfacial tension between the lipid and aqueous phases.

Nonionic emulsifiers, particularly Poloxamer 188, provide an extrasteric stabilising action to prevent microscopic particles in the colloidal system from aggregating [20].

Table 1: Example of lipid base drug delivery system

Sr. No.	Model Drug	Summary	Excipients Used	Method of Preparation	Reference
1.	Bimatoprost (2023)	Sandeep Divate Satyanarayana <i>et al</i> Ocular Delivery of Bimatoprost-Loaded Solid Lipid Nanoparticles for Effective Management of Glaucoma	Lipid : Glycerol monostearate Surfactant : poloxamer 407	Solvent evaporation method	(21)
2.	Dexamethasone (2023)	Junfeng Ban <i>et al</i> Corneal permeation properties of a charged lipid nanoparticle carrier containing dexamethasone	Lipid : Soy and egg yolk lecithins Surfactant : Soybean oil and Pluronic F68	Film-dispersion high-pressure homogenization method	(22)
3.	Brinzolamide- and latanoprost (2022)	Liping Chen <i>et al</i> Brinzolamide- and latanoprost-loaded nano lipid carrier prevents synergistic retinal damage in glaucoma	Lipid : Soya lecithin Surfactant : Polysorbate 80	Hot microemulsion method	(23)
4.	Tetrandrine (2022)	Radwan S. <i>et al</i> Chitosan-coated bovine serum albumin nanoparticles for topical tetrandrine delivery in glaucoma: in vitro and in vivo assessment	Lipid : Chitosan Surfactant: Bovine albumin	Desolvation method	(24)
5.	Dorzolamide (2022)	Mohammed Shadab <i>et al</i> Formulation, optimization and evaluation of vitamin E TPGS emulsified dorzolamide solid lipid nanoparticles	Lipid :Glycerol monostearate Surfactant : Vitamin E TPGS	Ultrasonic emulsification method	(25)
6.	Latanoprost (2022)	Hui Dang <i>et al</i> Sustained latanoprost release from PEGylated solid lipid nanoparticle-laden soft contact lenses to treat glaucoma	Lipid :Glycerol monostearate Surfactant : PEG	High shear homogenization followed by ultrasonication method	(26)
7.	Methazolamide (2021)	John Youshia <i>et al</i> Gamma sterilization and in vivo evaluation of cationic nanostructured lipid carriers as potential ocular delivery systems for antiglaucoma drugs	Lipid :Compritol ATO 888 Surfactant : Polysorbate 80	High shear homogenization followed by ultrasonication method	(27)
8.	Brimonidine Tartrate (2021)	Pankaj Kumar Sharma <i>et al</i> Optimization and Characterization of Brimonidine Tartrate Nanoparticles-loaded In Situ Gel for the Treatment of Glaucoma	Lipid : PLGA Surfactant : TPGS, , Poloxamer 407	Nanoprecipitation method	(28)
9.	Brimonidine (2021)	Sven Schnichels <i>et al</i> Improved Treatment Options for Glaucoma with BrimonidineLoaded Lipid DNA Nanoparticles	Lipid :oligonucleotides	Hydrophobic interactions with double stranded micelles method	(29)

ADVANCED OCULAR DRUG DELIVERY SYSTEM [31-34]

Table 2: Advanced Ocular Drug Delivery System

Sr no.	Drug delivery system	Principle	Application
1.	Liposomes and nanoparticles	Drugs can be better dissolved, stabilised, and released under regulated conditions by being encapsulated in nanoparticles and liposomes. Benefits include improved drug penetration, prolonged drug release, and defence against drug deterioration	Management of glaucoma and macular degeneration, among other eye conditions

2.	Gels in-situ	The goal of in situ gel is to increase the length of medicine retention on the ocular surface by giving liquid formulation that convert to the gel state. Benefit includes simple administration, longer contact length and increase absorption.	Use of Contact Lenses for Drug delivery
3.	Contact lenses	Contact lenses provide a continuous and non-invasive drug delivery system by medications gradually into the tear film.[6] Benefits include less systemic adverse effects, increased patient compliance, and prolonged medication release	include increased patient compliance, prolonged medication release, and less systemic adverse effectMedicine delivery for ailments including dry eye and glaucoma
4.	Inserts & Implants	Drugs are released gradually by tiny devices called implants and inserts that are inserted into the eye. Benefits include localised medication distribution, sustained release, and a decrease in dosage frequency	Management of long-term diseases such uveitis and diabetic retinopathy.
5.	Nanomicelles	Self-assembling nanoparticles called nanomicelles increase the stability and solubility of drugs. Benefits include tailored medication administration, less adverse effects, and increased bioavailability	Management of different ocular conditions, particularly those that need exact medication targeting.
6.	Inserts for the eyes	Ocular inserts are solid dosage form that are place in the conjunctiva and gradually release drug .controlled pharmaceutical release, ease of administration and improve patient adherence.	The treatment of disease like inflammation and bacterial infection.
7.	emulsions	Theoretically stable formulations known as microemulsions enhance medication solubility and promote quick absorption. Better ocular penetration and increased medication absorption	Inflammation and infection management.
8.	Nanofibers Electrospun	The idea behind electrospun nanofibers is that they are high-surface-area polymeric fibres that help with regulated medication release. Benefits include increased bioavailability, prolonged release, and improved medication stability.	Management of infections and diseases of the ocular surface

CONCLUSION:

Nanotechnologybased ophthalmic medication delivery devices show great promise in the field of ocular therapies.

Using allnano drug carriers provides various benefits, including greater drug solubility, extended release periods, and higher bioavailability.

Traditional ocular pharmaceutical delivery systems may be ineffective and have poor drug retention, however new nanoscale delivery devices may address this.

In order to decrease dosage intervals, administered doses, and side effects while increasing ocular retention time, drug penetration efficacy, and ocular bioavailability, a variety of techniques and technologies have been

used in a controlled and sustained drug delivery system.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST:

The authors have no conflicts of interest regarding this investigation.

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