

Chapter 8

Vesicular Systems for Intranasal Drug Delivery

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Abstract

Recently, the nasal route for systemic drug delivery has gained great interest. It provides several advantages over other routes of drug administrations. These include rapid absorption, avoidance of the intestinal and hepatic presystemic disposition, and high potential for drug transfer to the cerebrospinal fluid. Unfortunately, the mucociliary clearance, which reduces the residence time of the nasally applied drugs, and the poor nasal permeability made it difficult for many drugs to be delivered through this route. Alternative approaches have been adopted to overcome these problems. These include the use of mucoadhesive formulations or chemical penetration enhancers. Vesicular drug delivery systems provide promising alternative for enhanced and controlled nasal drug delivery.

Alternative terms have been used to describe the vesicular systems. These include liposomes, niosomes, ethosomes, and transfersomes. These systems are morphologically similar but differ in composition and function. Nasal delivery employs liposomes and niosomes, and their corresponding proconcentrates, proliposomes and proniosomes. Encouraging results have been recorded for these systems after nasal application with the possibility of achieving many objectives such as systemic delivery of small and large molecular weight drugs. This review article discusses such systems for intranasal vaccination and for improvement of nasal drug delivery to the central nervous system. The review critically evaluates the potential of such systems for systemic drug delivery after intranasal applications.

Key words: Nasal mucociliary clearance, olfactory route, nose-to-brain delivery, targeted brain delivery, blood–brain barrier, colloidal carriers, polymeric hydrogels, liposomes, mucoadhesion, vaccine delivery.

1. Introduction

The history of nasal drug delivery dates back to earlier topical applications of drugs intended for local effects. The early 1980s saw the introduction of nasal route as a promising systemic delivery alternative to other conventional drug delivery routes (1). Intranasal drug delivery has many advantages over other routes of drug

administration. It is easily accessible, convenient, and a reliable method, with a porous endothelial membrane, and a highly vascularized epithelium that provides a rapid absorption of compound into the systemic circulation, avoiding the hepatic first pass elimination.

In addition, intranasal drug delivery enables dose reduction, rapid attainment of therapeutic blood levels, quicker onset of pharmacological activity, and fewer side effects (2, 3). It was reported that lipophilic drugs are generally well absorbed from the nasal cavity with pharmacokinetic profiles, which are often identical to those obtained after an intravenous injection with a bioavailability approaching 100% (1). The unique characteristic of intranasal drug delivery is the high potential for drug transfer to the cerebrospinal fluid through the olfactory region which is situated in nasal cavity (4). Recent developments in nasal drug delivery have suggested intranasal administration as a safe and acceptable route for brain targeting, especially for drugs with biological effects on the central nervous system (CNS) and limited blood–brain permeability (BBB) (5). The brain targeting research attempts of large molecular weight molecules investigated nerve growth factor, insulin, desmopressin, cholecystokinin, and insulin-like growth factor-1 demonstrated the potential of nose-to-brain pathway (6–9). These advantages have provided the intranasal route some superiority over the parenteral as well as oral routes (10).

The major problems with nasal delivery are the mucociliary clearance, which reduces the residence time of nasally applied dosage forms and the poor nasal permeability of many drugs (11). Several alternative strategies have been employed to overcome these limitations. Bioadhesive polymers, for example, can be used to achieve long residence time on nasal mucosa which results in higher concentration gradient and subsequent increased absorption of the drugs (12). Polymers may widen the tight junctions (Fig. 8.1) producing absorption enhancing effect (13).

Successful nasal delivery has been obtained with solutions, powders, gels, and microspheres as delivery systems (14–16). However, these systems suffer from number of disadvantages; solutions show rapid clearance from nasal cavity and do not allow extended drug release (17). In addition, chemical instability problems may be encountered in solutions, particularly in case of peptide or protein drugs (18). Powders and microspheres require sophisticated delivery devices for deposition and accurate dosing (19), with insufficient wetting at mucosa resulting in low bioadhesive force and incomplete drug release (20).

Vesicular drug delivery systems provide promising alternatives with many advantages over the conventional systems. Various pharmaceutical approaches can be employed to render their final formulation more effective. Liposomes are preferred over other

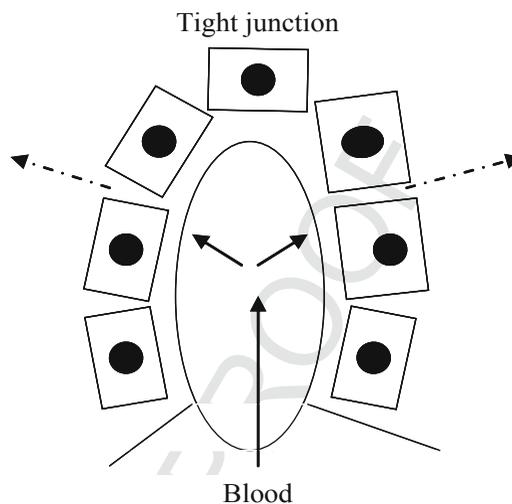


Fig. 8.1. Methods of brain selective drug delivery.

vesicular systems in nasal drug delivery. Liposomes are known to sustain the release of the entrapped drug and in the case of nasal administration are able to decrease mucociliary clearance due to their surface viscosity. The action of liposomes on nasal mucosa is related to the incorporation of phospholipids in the membrane, opening “new pores” in the paracellular tight junctions (21).

2. Nasal Anatomy and Physiology

The nasal cavity (**Fig. 8.2**) is subdivided along the centre into two halves by the nasal septum. The two cavities open to the facial side through the anterior nasal apertures and to the rhinopharynx via the posterior nasal apertures and each of two nasal cavities can be subdivided into different regions: nasal vestibule, inferior turbinate, middle turbinate, superior turbinate, olfactory region, frontal sinus, sphenoidal sinus, and cribriform plate of ethmoid bone. The nasal cavity also contains the nasal associated lymphoid tissue (NALT), which is mainly situated in the nasopharynx (22). The NALT contains specialized M-like cells similar to those present in the Peyer’s patches in the gut. However, mucosal lymphoid tissue is located immediately under the nasal mucosa, where B and T lymphocyte follicles, macrophages, and dendritic cells are present (23). The cells are capable of taking up antigen and processing these for immune stimulation. It is generally recognized that

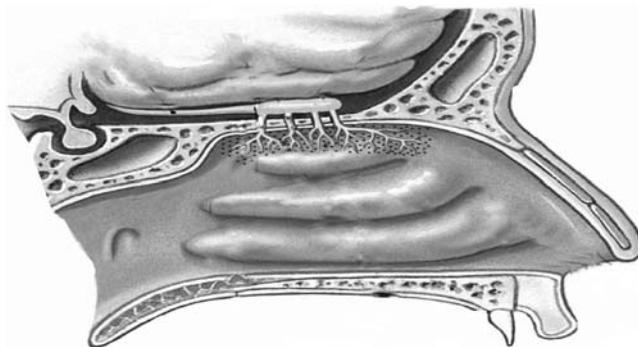


Fig. 8.2. A model for intraarterial drug delivery to the brain. Model of intracarotid drug delivery, C_1 C_2 and V_1 V_2 are concentrations and volumes in the brain (1) and remainder of the body (2), respectively. Q is the regional blood flow and CL_1 and CL_2 are cerebral and remaining body clearances. Modern microcatheters can restrict intraarterial interventions to tumor tissue. See Dedrick 1988 for details.

soluble antigens can penetrate the whole of the nasal mucosa and reach the superficial cervical lymph nodes to produce mainly a systemic immune response (24).

The total surface area of the nasal cavity in human adult is about 150 cm^2 and total volume is about 15 ml. The olfactory region in men covers an area of about 10 cm^2 and is positioned on superior turbinate on opposite septum (25). The respiratory region contains three nasal turbinates: superior, middle, and inferior which project from the lateral wall of each half of the nasal cavity. The presence of these turbinates creates a turbulent airflow through the nasal passages ensuring a better contact between the inhaled air and the mucosal surface (1). The nasal epithelial membrane provides a significant barrier to the free diffusion of substance across them.

2.1. Nasal Epithelium

2.1.1. Respiratory Region

The respiratory region is considered as the major site for drug absorption into systemic circulation. The mucosa consists of an epithelium resting on a basement membrane and a lamina propria. The anterior part of respiratory region is covered with squamous epithelium, while the posterior part covered by a pseudostratified columnar epithelium. The cells of respiratory epithelium are covered by about 300 microvilli per cells (25, 26).

The respiratory epithelium consists of four dominated cell types; ciliated columnar cells, non-ciliated columnar cells, goblet cells, and basal cells. The basal cells are situated on the basal membrane and do not extend to the apical epithelial surface, as do the other three cell types. The main function of the goblet cells is the secretion of mucus. The respiratory cells are covered by layer of long cilia of size $2\text{--}4 \mu\text{m}$; the cilia move in a coordinated way to propel mucus across the epithelial surface toward the pharynx with

193 a clearance half time of approximately 15–20 min. The mucus layer
194 consists of low viscosity sol layer that surrounds the cilia and a
195 more viscous gel layer forming a layer on the top of the sol layer
AQ2 and covering the tips of the cilia. The epithelial cells are closely
198 packed on apical surface, surrounded by intercellular junction
199 whose specialized sit and structural components are commonly
200 known as junction complex (22, 25). The presence of tight junc-
201 tion between neighboring epithelial cells prevents the free diffu-
202 sion of hydrophilic molecules across the epithelial by the
203 paracellular route (27). The normal diameter of the tight junctions
204 is considered to be of the order of 3.9–8.4 Å (28). Tight junctions
205 are located at the boundary between apical and boslateral domains
206 in epithelial cell periphery. On a molecular level, tight junctional
207 complex consists of a number of complexes of transmembran
208 proteins (occluding, claudine, and junction adhesion molecule)
209 and cytoplasmic proteins (27).

2.1.2. The Olfactory Region

210 The olfactory region is situated between the nasal septum and the
211 lateral walls of each of the two nasal cavities and just below the
212 cribriform plate of the ethmoid bone separating the cranial cavity
213 from nasal cavity (25). The olfactory epithelium is a pseudostrati-
214 fied epithelium, comprising olfactory sensory neurons and two
215 types of cells; basal cells that are able to differentiate into neuronal
216 receptor cells and sustentacular cells (supporting cell) that provide
217 mechanical support by ensheathing neuronal receptor cells and
218 maintain the normal extracellular potassium level for neuronal
219 activity (22). The olfactory epithelium is covered by a dense and
220 viscous layer of mucus, which is secreted from the tubuloalveolar
221 Bowman's glands and the supporting cells. The olfactory epithe-
222 lium constitutes only about 5% of the total area of the nasal cavity
223 in man (26), but is of considerable interest in drug delivery because
224 it bypasses the BBB, delivering therapeutic drugs to CNS (29).

225 It should be emphasized that the blood supply to the nasal
226 mucosa is pertinent with regards to systemic drug delivery. The
227 arterial blood supply to the nasal cavity is derived from both the
228 external and internal carotid arteries. The blood that is supplied to
229 olfactory region by anterior and posterior ethmoidal branches
230 come from the ophthalmic artery supply, which is a branch of
231 carotid artery. These vessels supply the anterior portion of the
232 nose. The venous drainage is as for respiratory system via sphen-
233 opalatine foramen into the pterygoid plexus or via superior ophthal-
234 mic vein (30). When the drug is administered intranasally, it can
235 enter into the brain via three different paths (31). The first one is
236 the systemic pathway by which the drug is absorbed into the
237 systemic circulation and subsequently reaches the brain by crossing
238 BBB (especially lipophilic drug). The others are the olfactory
239 region and the trigeminal neural pathway by which the drug is
240 transported directly from the nasal cavity to CNS (cerebrospinal

fluid and brain tissue) (32). The trigeminal nerve receptors which are present in the nasal cavity are responsible for most chemoperception and are suggested to transport the drug directly to CNS (33).

The deep and superficial cervical lymph nodes were of special interest in intranasal drug delivery because they are known to receive lymphatic afferents from portions of the nasal passages and nasolabial areas, respectively (34). The exact pathway from nasal cavity to lymph node is uncertain, but similar delivery from nasal cavity to lymphatics has been observed. This pathway is thought to mediate the efflux of large molecules and/or immune cells from sites within the CNS to the lymphatic system (35). The connection between the brain and nasal lymphatics may offer a direct pathway from the brain interstitial fluid to the nasal submucosa that excludes direct contact with the cerebrospinal fluid (36).

There are different mechanisms by which the drugs cross the olfactory membrane to reach CNS. The first mechanism involves direct transfer of the drug to primary neurons of the olfactory epithelium and transport to the olfactory bulb by intracellular axonal transport with subsequent possible distribution into more distant brain tissues. The second mechanism depends on drug permeation across the olfactory sustentacular epithelial cells, either by transcellular or paracellular mechanisms followed by uptake into CNS. The last one employs pinocytosis by olfactory neurons (26). The drug can cross olfactory lobe by one or combination of pathways.

3. Factors Influencing the Absorption of Drugs Across the Nasal Epithelium

The factors influencing nasal absorption are related to nasal physiology, the physicochemical characteristics of the drug, and the properties of specific drug formulation.

3.1. Physiological Barrier

3.1.1. Mucociliary Clearance

The function of mucociliary clearance (MCC) system is to remove foreign substances and particles from the nasal cavity, consequently preventing them from reaching the lower airways (37). Nasal clearance proceeds at an average rate of about 5–6 mm/min (4). Nasally administered formulation can be cleared from the nasal cavity with a half-life of clearance of about 15 min with the result of limiting the time available for absorption (38). The normal mucociliary transit time in humans has been reported to be 12–15 min (11).

Rapid mucociliary clearance of drug formulations that are deposited in the nasal cavity is thought to be an important factor underlying the low bioavailability of intranasally administered

289 drugs (11). Some drugs, hormonal changes in the body, pathological
290 conditions, environmental conditions, and formulation factors
291 especially rheology are reported to affect the mucociliary clear-
292 ances and in turn exert significant influence on drug permeability
293 (39). In isotonic solution, the ciliary beat frequency is best pre-
294 served. Optimal ciliary beat frequency was observed between pH
295 values of 7 and 11. Values outside this range can result in a larger
296 decrease in the beat frequency (40). Ciliary beat frequency mea-
297 surements have shown to be a good indicator of the effects of
298 substances on nasal tissue morphology (11).

3.1.2. Enzymes

299
300 Despite avoiding the hepatic first pass metabolism, nasally adminis-
301 tered drugs can be subjected to a broad range of metabolic enzymes
302 in nasal mucosa with possible reduction in the bioavailability of
303 some drugs, especially those containing peptides or proteins (41).
304 In spite of this possibility, the nasal route is still considered to be
305 superior to the oral route. Various approaches have been used to
306 overcome these degradations, which include the use enzymatic
307 inhibitors of protease and peptidase such as bacitracin, amastatin,
308 boroleucin, and puromycin which have been reported to improve
309 the absorption of many drugs (42) or design prodrug (43).

3.2. Physicochemical Characteristics of the Drug

310
311 The physicochemical characteristics of the administered drug
312 include molecular weight, solubility, dissolution rate, charge, par-
313 tition coefficient, pKa, particle size, and the presence of poly-
314 morphism and these can influence drug absorption.

315 The permeation of drugs having molecular weight of less than
316 300 Da is not significantly influenced by the physicochemical
317 properties of the drug as they will mostly permeate through aqu-
318 eous channels of the membrane. In contrast, the rate of permea-
319 tion is highly sensitive to molecular size for compounds with
320 molecular weight >300 Da (44). The bioavailability of intranasally
321 administered peptides and proteins including insulin may be low
322 because of high molecular weight and hydrophilicity (45).

323 As for other routes of administration, the nasal absorption can
324 take place only after the drug's dissolution. The dissolution rate is
325 important in determining nasal absorption of powder and suspen-
326 sions dosage forms. Rapid dissolution is critical for the drug par-
327 ticles after nasal administration otherwise the particles will be
328 subjected to rapid clearance from the airway with subsequent
329 reduction of the bioavailability (30).

330 The rate and extent of absorption of a drug across a biological
331 membrane is influenced by its lipophilicity. Normally, the permea-
332 tion of the compound through nasal mucosa increases with
333 increasing the lipophilicity (46). Low molecular weight lipophilic
334 drugs are absorbed quite efficiently across the nasal epithelium,
335 whereas larger hydrophilic drugs, such as peptides and proteins,
336 have substantially lower bioavailability (45).



337 Highly lipophilic corticosteroids drugs are absorbed more
338 quickly by the nasal mucosa and may preferentially partition into
339 the systemic tissue providing a large volume of distribution at steady
340 state (47). Prodrug technique has been employed to increase the
341 lipophilicity. The aliphatic prodrug of acyclovir provides a classical
342 example of this process, which resulted in an increased drug bio-
343 availability. However, it should be noted that the 140-fold increase in
344 partition coefficient of the drug was only associated with 30%
345 increase in bioavailability. It should be also emphasized that the
346 ester form of the prodrug can show greater increase in transnasal
347 drug transport but premature hydrolysis of such ester in the nasal
348 cavity provides the main limitation of this technique (48).

349 Water-soluble prodrugs of 17β -estradiol have been evaluated
350 after intranasal administration. These prodrugs were capable of
351 producing high levels of estradiol in the cerebrospinal fluid
352 (CSF), compared to an equivalent intravenous dose. These data
353 suggest that the drug can reach the CSF via a direct pathway
354 through the nasal cavity and as a result may have a significant
355 value in the treatment of Alzheimer's disease (49).
356
357

358 4. Types 359 of Vesicular Drug 360 Delivery Systems

361 Vesicular systems have been employed as drug delivery carriers for
362 many decades. They were adopted to achieve many objectives
363 which included targeted drug delivery, enhanced drug transport
364 through various biological membranes or prolonging and control-
365 ling drug release. Alternative terminologies have been used to
366 describe such vesicular systems throughout these investigations
367 (50). These included liposomes, niosomes, transfersomes, etho-
368 somes, vesosomes, colloidosomes, and pharmacosomes. These
369 vesicles are similar to the standard liposomes in morphology but
370 may differ in function and composition. Only vesicles employed in
371 the nasal drug delivery will be discussed in the subsequent para-
372 graphs, and for detailed methods of preparation and characteriza-
373 tions, the readers are strongly encouraged to refer to the
374 constructive practical approaches published in 1990 by New (51).
375

376 4.1. Liposomes

377 Liposomes are spherical microscopic vesicles composed of one
378 (unilamellar) or more (multilamellar) concentric lipid bilayers,
379 arranged around a central aqueous core (Fig. 8.3). They are
380 made of natural, biodegradable, nontoxic, and natural constitu-
381 ents such as phospholipids and may mimic naturally occurring cell
382 membranes. They may contain cholesterol as a membrane stabili-
383 zer and may include trace amounts of charging agents (51, 52).
384 Having these desirable structure features, liposomes can encapsu-
late drugs with widely varying lipophilicities, with the lipophilic
ones being located in the lipid bilayer and the hydrophilic ones

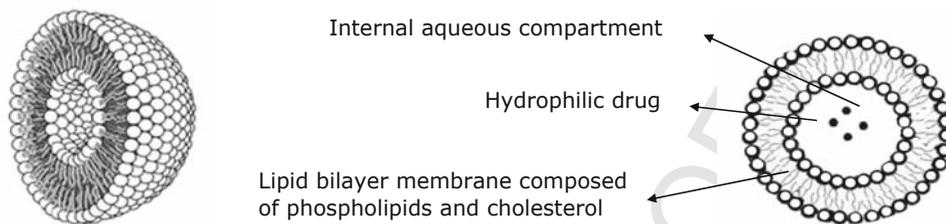


Fig. 8.3. Liposomes structure.

being retained in the aqueous core. Amphiphilic drugs can be adsorbed at the head group region of the bilayers (53). Liposomes have been investigated as carriers of various pharmacologically active agents such as antineoplastic, antimicrobial drugs, chelating agents, steroids, vaccines, and genetic materials (54). Liposomes provide an efficient drug delivery system because they can alter the pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of the entrapped drugs. Table 8.1 provides an overview of the reported liposomal administered drugs.

Table 8.1.
Liposome-encapsulated drugs studied for nasal administration

Drug	Results	Reference
Diphenhydramine	Increased drug retention in the nasal	(55)
HIVgp160-encapsulated hemagglutinating virus	HIV specific humoral and cellular immunity in mucosal and systemic sites	(56)
Meningococcal OpaB and OpaJ proteins	Induced highly significant anti-Opa responses	(57)
Influenza virus hemagglutinin from 3 viral strains	Provides an almost total prevention of virus shedding combined with a high level of immunological protection against homologous virus challenge	(58)
Trivalent influenza A/H1N1-proteosome	Produced high antibody titers in serum as well as in nasal secretions	(59)
Salmon calcitonin	Ultra-flexible liposomes significantly enhanced the hypocalcemia effect than conventional liposomes	(60)
Ovalbumin in an archaeal lipid mucosal vaccine adjuvant and delivery (AMVAD)	Eliciting robust antigen-specific mucosal and systemic immune responses	(61)
Tetanus toxoid antigen	Effective mucosal immune responses and high mucosal secretory IgA titers	(62)
<i>M. tuberculosis</i> vaccines (DNA-hsp65)	Effective protection against TB with a single dose vaccination	(63)

433 According to their size, liposomes can be classified as either
434 small unilamellar vesicles (SUV) 10–100 nm or large unilamellar
435 vesicles (LUV) 100–3000 nm. If more than one bilayers are
436 present, then they are referred to MLV (64). These character-
437 istics can be controlled by proper selection of the method of
438 preparations (51). Liposomal formulations should have high
439 entrapment efficiencies, narrow size of distributions, long-term
440 stabilities, and ideal release properties (based on the intended
441 application). These require the preparation method to have the
442 potential to produce liposomes using a wide range of ingredient
443 molecules, e.g., lipids/phospholipids that promote liposome
444 stability (65).

445 Liposomes can be formulated as dry powder or a suspension,
446 as an aerosol or in a semisolid form such as a gel or cream. In vivo,
447 they can be administered topically or parenterally. In the systemic
448 circulation, liposomes can be recognized as foreign particles and
449 consequently endocytosed by reticuloendothelial system reach-
450 ing the liver and spleen (66). MLV are considered the largest type
451 of liposomes which are capable of entrapping large percent of
452 drugs. Once they are infused, they are rapidly recognized by the
453 immune system and taken up by macrophages which subse-
454 quently remove them from the circulation. LUVs (intermediate
455 size liposomes) have a better opportunity of escaping the reticu-
456 loendothelial system (RES) and so have the ability to stay in the
457 circulation for a longer period. The small liposomes SUV show
458 the shortest circulation time in blood due to capillary extravasa-
459 tions (52).

460 The activity of liposomes as carriers for drugs depends upon
461 various factors such as encapsulation efficiency, stability, release
462 rates, body distribution after administration, size surface charge,
463 and rigidity. The properties of liposomes can be varied and con-
464 trolled by incorporating different types of lipids and by varying the
465 preparation methods (67). Poor liposomal stability is the major
466 problem in liposome research. The instability problem arises from
467 chemical degradation of the liposome components in addition to
468 physical stability problems which are manifested as loss of
469 entrapped drug and size change upon storage. Loss of entrapped
470 material can be minimized by increasing the rigidity of the bilayer
471 membrane or reducing the water content of liposome formula-
472 tions producing the so-called proliposomes (52). Furthermore,
473 addition of appropriate cryoprotectants allows storage of lipo-
474 somes in frozen or lyophilized state.

475 **4.2. Niosomes**

476 These are similar to liposomes in morphology but with different
477 compositions; they are formed from the self-assembly of non-ionic
478 amphiphilic in combination with other lipidic surfactants in aqu-
479 eous medium (68–71). Niosomes or non-ionic surfactant vesicles
480 are microscopic lamellar structures formed from admixture of

481 non-ionic surfactant of the alkyl or dialkyl polyglycerol ether class
482 and cholesterol with subsequent hydration in aqueous media
483 resulting in closed bilayer structures (72). Like liposomes, aqueous
484 dispersions of niosomes may exhibit fusion, aggregation, leaking,
485 or hydrolysis of encapsulated drugs, therefore limiting the shelf life
486 of the dispersion (73).

487 Niosomes are widely studied as an inexpensive alternative of
488 non-biological origin to liposomes. Niosomal surfactants are
489 biodegradable, biocompatible, and non-immunogenic. It has
490 greater accessibility, superior chemical stability, and relatively
491 low cost of niosomes compared with liposomes, resulting in
492 easier storage leading to the exploitation niosomes as alternatives
493 to phospholipids. Theoretically, niosomal formulation requires
494 presence of a particular class of amphiphile and an aqueous sys-
495 tem (74).

496 Niosomes improve the therapeutic performance of drug mole-
497 cules by delaying clearance from the circulation, protecting the
498 drug from biological environment and restricting effects to target
499 cells (75). Like liposomes, the surface of niosomes can be attached
500 to hydrophilic moieties by incorporation of hydrophilic groups
501 such as PEG, concanavalin A, and polysaccharide producing
502 stealth or long circulating niosomes (76). Similar to liposomes,
503 niosomes can be classified into MLV, SUV, and LUV. Non-ionic
504 surfactant-based vesicles were also investigated as potential non-
505 viral carriers for non-invasive topical delivery of plasmid DNA
506 encoding HBsAg (77).

507 **4.3. Proliposomes and** 508 **Proniosomes**

509 These are dry, free-flowing particles which immediately form
510 vesicular dispersions upon addition of water. Their free-flowing
511 particulate properties permit the fabrication of these nano-
512 aggregates into solid dosage forms, which then is converted to
513 liposomes/niosomes on contact with water or biological fluids
514 (69, 71, 78). In general, they are prepared by penetrating a
515 solution of drugs and phospholipids in volatile organic solvents
516 into the microporous matrix of water-soluble carrier particles,
517 followed by evaporation of the organic solvents. Drugs and
518 phospholipids are thus deposited in the microporous structure
519 of the carrier materials, thus maintaining the free-flowing surface
520 characteristics of the carrier materials. Because of the character-
521 istics of these preparations, the sterilization of proliposomes can
522 be achieved without influencing their intrinsic characteristics
523 (79). They have several advantages over their corresponding
524 liquid formulations. These include the minimization of physical
525 instability problems, such as aggregation, fusion, and leakage. In
526 addition, they provide ease of transportation, distribution, sto-
527 rage, and dosage. Proniosomes have shown equal or greater
528 efficacy in drug release performance when compared with con-
ventional niosomes (78).

5. Pharmaceutical Applications

5.1. Drug Therapy

Vesicular systems play an important role in nasal drug delivery into the systemic circulation by overcoming limitations of the nasal route such as ciliary clearance and breakdown by nasal peptidase enzyme. They showed promising results not only with small molecular but also with large molecules. Liposomes are one of the vesicular systems that offer better absorption and drug retention in nasal mucosa, e.g., desmopressin and insulin (80, 81). The superiority of liposomes was indicated after comparing the permeability of liposomes entrapping insulin through nasal mucosa of rabbit with the permeability of insulin from solution with or without pretreatment with sodium glycocholate (82). Intranasal administration of insulin in liposomes composed of dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine and sterylglucoside showed a greater reduction in blood glucose level with the effect lasting for 8 h (80). Jain et al. studied the usefulness of multivesicular liposomes as a mucoadhesive to prolong the release of insulin via nasal and ocular route. In their study, the multivesicular liposomes were shown to be marginally effective after nasal administration compared to ocular route although better therapeutic profile as the hypoglycemic effects were prolonged until 72 h (83).

The loading and leakage characteristics of the desmopressin-containing liposomes and the effect of liposomes on the nasal mucosal permeation were investigated. The increase of permeation of the antidiuretic, desmopressin, through the nasal mucosa was in the order of positively charged liposomes > negatively charged liposomes > solution (81).

Calcitonin liposomes with different charges were administered to rabbits to evaluate the effect of liposomes charges on nasal absorption. The bioavailability of intranasally administered calcitonin liposomes was in the following order: positively charged liposomes > negatively charged liposomes > calcitonin solution. The significant bioavailability enhancement of the positively charged calcitonin liposomes may be due to interaction of positively charged liposomes with the negatively charged mucosal surface. The retention of positively charged liposomes on the negatively charged nasal mucosa resulted in an increase in the residence time of calcitonin and thus increased bioavailability (84).

Nasal administration of acyclovir mucoadhesive liposomes has been demonstrated to have good permeability characteristics with enhanced nasal penetration of acyclovir in comparison to free drug suspended in gel. Fifteen rabbits were used in this study and were divided into three groups. The first group received acyclovir liposomes as nasal gel. The second group received the free drug as nasal gel (control). The third group received an intravenous

injection of acyclovir solution. Intranasal preparations were administered by nasal droppers with a wide orifice inserted about 5 mm into the nostril of the rabbit while in a supine position. The AUC values of acyclovir mucoadhesive liposomal gel and acyclovir suspended in gel were 1.91175 and 21.90264 ($\mu\text{g h ml}$), respectively. The differences in the AUC values are due to the variations in the drug profile of acyclovir suspended in gel (Fig. 8.4). The improvement of bioavailability of the prepared liposomal formulations in comparison to free drug suspended in gel could be attributed to both encapsulation and incorporation of acyclovir in nasal mucoadhesive gel. Nasal bioavailability of acyclovir was 60.72% calculated relative to the serum acyclovir levels over a period of 8 h after intravenous injection of acyclovir. Liposomes have been demonstrated to have good permeability characteristics to enhance nasal penetration of many drugs (85).

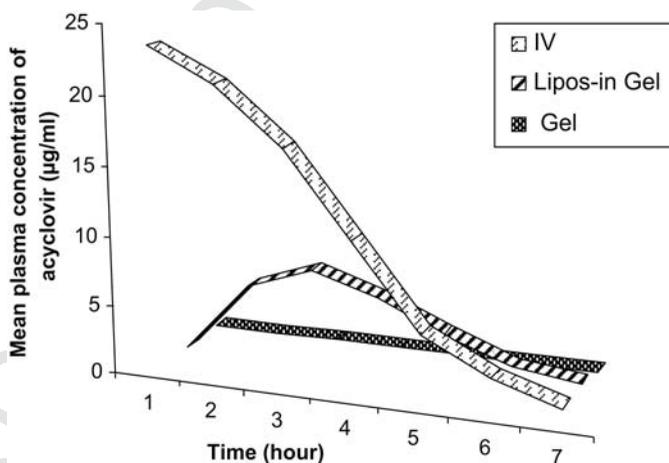


Fig. 8.4. Mean acyclovir plasma concentrations versus time profile for intravenous and nasal administration (mean \pm SD, $n = 5$). Acyclovir was administered by intravenous, acyclovir suspended in gel or acyclovir mucoadhesive liposomal gel administered by nasal route.

Ding et al. have studied nasal administration of liposomes formulation of levonorgestrel and evaluated their pharmacokinetic properties; they found that administration of levonorgestrel liposomes via nasal route increases its bioavailability when compared with levonorgestrel suspension by oral route. It was concluded that the liposomes greatly facilitated levonorgestrel nasal absorption and may provide a rapid onset of action of levonorgestrel for emergency contraception (86).

Nasal administration of a liposomal leuprorelin acetate formulation with chitosan produced contraception in rats when compared to subcutaneous (87). Liposomes also provided protection

625 of entrapped drugs from enzymatic degradation (80) and
626 disrupted the mucosal membrane to increase absorption (88).
627 Taking into considerations that leuprolerin acetate was adminis-
628 tered by nasal route at low dose, it would be expected that the nasal
629 route can increase the therapeutic index and reduce the adverse
630 effects of the drug (87).

631 Zhang and coworkers concluded that the encapsulation of
632 recombinant hirudin-2 in liposomes provided high entrapment
633 capacity, greater stability, and enhancement of nasal absorption
634 of recombinant hirudin-2 (89).

635 In a comparative study, nicotine base-proliposomes and
636 nicotine hydrogen tartarate-proliposomes and a mixture of pow-
637 dered nicotine hydrogen tartarate salt and sorbitol were adminis-
638 tered intranasally to rats at dose of 1 mg/kg. Nasal absorption of
639 nicotine from these formulations was very rapid (less than 10 min)
640 and showed substantially sustained plasma nicotine levels com-
641 pared to saline solutions of nicotine base and salt. Nicotine base-
642 proliposomes demonstrated the best characteristics in terms of the
643 area under the plasma concentration, mean residence. It was found
644 that nasal application of proliposomes containing nicotine base
645 could provide a very rapid absorption with prolonged delivery to
646 the systemic circulation (90).

647 Proliposomes containing propranolol hydrochloride were
648 also evaluated for their potential as a nasal drug delivery system
649 to sustain the plasma concentration of the drug. The prolipo-
650 somes were administered intranasally to the rats and plasma
651 concentrations of the propranolol hydrochloride obtained
652 after nasal administration of proliposomes were compared with
653 those after nasal, oral, and intravenous administrations of aqu-
654 eous solution. Nasal administration of the proliposomes
655 resulted in low propranolol concentration at the initial phase
656 and sustained at the terminal phase. Plasma concentrations of
657 oral propranolol solution were much lower than those after the
658 intravenous and nasal administrations. The absolute bioavail-
659 ability of the orally administered propranolol was only 14.2%,
660 the bioavailability obtained from nasal proliposomes reaching
661 97.5% (91).

662 **5.2. Gene Therapy**

663 Gene delivery is a challenging task in the treatment of genetic
664 disorders. In this case, the plasmid DNA has to be introduced
665 into the target cells, which should get transcribed and the genetic
666 information should ultimately be translated into the correspond-
667 ing protein. To accomplish this objective, a number of hurdles
668 are to be overcome by the gene delivery system. Transfection is
669 affected by (1) targeting the delivery system to the target cell, (2)
670 transport through the cell membrane, (3) uptake and degradation
671 in the endolysosomes, and (4) intracellular trafficking of plasmid
672 DNA to the nucleus (92).

673 Macrophages play an important role in host immune
674 functions; therefore, several strategies have been developed to trans-
675 fer genes directly into macrophages but most of them use viral
676 vectors (93). Despite the high transfection efficiency of viral vectors,
677 questions remain regarding to their potential toxicity (94).

678 The use of nonviral vectors is attractive for in vivo gene deliv-
679 ery because it is safer than using simple viral systems. Cationic
680 liposomes were considered to be one of the most promising
681 nonviral gene delivery systems. Various kinds of cationic lipids
682 have been synthesized and shown to be able to deliver genes into
683 cells both in vitro and in vivo (95). Introduction of ligands for cell-
684 surface receptors into liposomes has been attempted for achieving
685 optimum transfection efficiency in vivo (96).

686 Dioleoylphosphatidyl-ethanolamine (DOPE) is one of lipo-
687 somes constituent; this type phospholipids is known to accelerate
688 the endosomal escape of plasmid DNA due to its pH-sensitivity
689 and high transfection efficiency (97). Plasmid DNA complex with
690 mannoseylated liposomes is recognized and taken up by mannose
691 receptors, mannoseylated exhibited a higher transfection in macro-
692 phages based on a receptor-mediated mechanism. A mannoseylated
693 cholesterol derivative itself has a positive charge, and a high density
694 of mannose residues that can be deposited on the liposome surface
695 without affecting the binding ability of cationic liposomes to
696 DNA. These properties reflected in their superior in vivo gene
697 transfection and it can be effectively introduced in cell-specific
698 ligand structures to liposomes.

699 Goncharova et al. demonstrated the importance of nasal
700 mucosa for the immunization against Tick-Borne encephalitis.
701 To study intranasal immunization against TBE virus, they chose
702 biodegradable micelles, cationic liposomes, and live attenuated
703 bacterial/viral vectors. Their results showed the expression of the
704 gene in transfected cells, thereby indicating that the liposomal
705 formulations are suitable for mucosal immunization (98). Com-
706 plexes of cationic lipid and plasmid DNA (lipoplexes) are the most
707 widely used nonviral vectors for gene delivery. To improve the
708 efficiency of nonviral gene delivery, pharmacological agents such
709 as sex hormones and glucocorticoids have been shown to enhance
710 liposome-mediated gene uptake (99). Estradiol is a female sex
711 hormone steroid that can enhance liposome-mediated gene deliv-
712 ery by increasing gene uptake in vitro and promote nuclear accu-
713 mulation of the transgene (100). Incorporating β -estradiol into
714 lipoplexes consistently increased gene expression in the lungs and
715 nasal epithelia (sub-confluent and confluent) to human airway
716 epithelial cells, in particular the bronchial epithelial cell line. The
717 greatest enhancement was found using polarized cells (101).
718 These data indicated that β -estradiol and methyl-prednisolone
719 are promising adjuvants for improving gene delivery. Methyl-pre-
720 dnisolone has also been incorporated into lipoplexes and assessed

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721 on confluent and polarized cells where it increased delivery 70-fold
722 and 48-fold, respectively, compared with lipoplex alone. This
723 represents a considerably larger enhance calcium phosphate
724 based delivery to human myoblasts (102).

725 Tanaka et al. reported that nasal administration of insulin
726 gene packed in cationic liposome produced a sufficiently high
727 expression, processing, and secretion of insulin in mice with strep-
728 tozocin-induced type 1 diabetes. Within 8 days of treatment,
729 plasma insulin levels in streptozocin-injected mice given the luci-
730 ferase gene decreased to <100 pg/ml. In comparison, streptozo-
731 cin-injected mice given the insulin gene exhibited plasma insulin
732 levels at least ten times higher and is actually greater than the
733 mean level in normal nondiabetic mice. These high levels of total
734 insulin corrected hyperglycemia without producing hypoglycemia
735 even after a 16-h fast and devoid of adverse effect of insulin gene
736 expression in treated mice. Using fluorescence in situ hybridiza-
737 tion (FISH) analysis, intracellular plasmids observed in alveolar
738 epithelial cells of the lung, where extracellular plasmids were
739 observed in muscle, kidney, gastrointestinal system, and immune
740 cells, as well as the respiratory system, suggesting plasmid dissemi-
741 nation, possibly due to hematogeneous spread (103).

742 Inclusion of free liposomes into DNA/lipid complexes may be
743 important to accomplish optimal transfection activity in vivo
744 (104). Liposome/DNA complexes can be delivered into organs
745 with high cationic lipid to DNA ratios when administered intrave-
746 nously. However, through nasal inoculation of liposome/DNA
747 complexes, liposomes are trapped within the lung epithelium.
748 Thus, the cationic lipid to DNA ratio is changed during transit
749 through the lung epithelial cells. In addition, there are inhibitors
750 which inhibit the transfection activity of DNA/lipid complexes in
751 serum. Therefore, in other organs, transfection efficiency was very
752 low, and plasmid DNA was detected only in the extracellular
753 spaces. Liposome-mediated in vivo gene transfer via nasal admin-
754 istration may provide an efficacious route for delivery of hormonal
755 and other gene products into the blood stream.

756 The major cause of mortality in patients with cystic fibrosis is a
757 lung malfunction. Therefore, gene transfer to correct the under-
758 lying genetic defect is a potential treatment for cystic fibrosis. A
759 DNA-liposome formulation was delivered to the patients with no
760 immune tolerance, in repeated doses (three doses). It was con-
761 cluded that the DNA containing liposomes can be successfully
762 re-administered without apparent loss of efficacy for cystic fibrosis
763 treatment (105).

765 **5.3. Vaccine Delivery**

766 Many of the available vaccines including protein antigens and
767 DNA vaccines are very unstable and need to be protected from
768 degradation in the biologic environment. In addition, their effi-
cacy is limited by their poor capacity to cross biologic barriers and

769 reach the target sites. Usually parenteral vaccination involves
770 intramuscular administration of antigens. This route of immuniza-
771 tion stimulates the immune system to produce IgG antibody in the
772 serum but fails to generate a mucosal antibody response. In con-
773 trast, intranasally administered vaccines stimulate IgA antibody
774 response along the mucosal surfaces. IgG facilitates the phagocy-
775 tosis of bacteria and activates the complement, whereas IgA prin-
776 cipally acts by preventing attachment and colonization of bacteria
777 on mucosal surfaces (106).

778 Mucosal delivery is a highly effective route for the stimulation
779 of local and systemic immunity. However, soluble drugs usually
780 provide poor immunization when administered by mucosal routes
781 and require the adjunct of a mucosal adjuvant or a drug delivery
782 system (107). Mucosal immunization required five times less
783 DNA than epidermal inoculation to induce the same level of
784 protection against rotavirus challenge. This result indicated that
785 mucosal immunization was superior to epidermal inoculation
786 using the same vaccine dose (108). Many diseases such as measles,
787 pertussis, tuberculosis, meningitis, and influenza are associated
788 with the entry of pathogenic microorganisms across the respiratory
789 mucosal surfaces. Therefore nasal vaccines delivery system is a
790 good candidate for induction of both mucosal and systemic
791 immune responses.

792 A range of different vaccine systems have been described in
793 literature using either whole cells, spilt cells surface antigens, or
794 DNA vaccine (genetic immunization) with or without adjuvant
795 (109). Genetic immunization works by using host cells as protein
796 factories to produce the plasmid encoded antigen. The translated
797 protein is then processed and presented by the immune system in a
798 mode similar to that, which occurs following a natural infection
799 (110). The DNA was administered either directly in saline solution
800 or in combination with carriers or adjuvants such as saponin,
801 liposomes, and cochleates (108). The efficacy of DNA vaccines
802 was monitored by humoral or cellular immune responses or
803 resistance to virus challenges (111). Additionally, DNA vaccine
804 was combined with liposomes or bioadhesive polymers and
805 delivered by the mucosal route. These polymers can form highly
806 viscous aqueous solutions that are thought to attach to mucosal
807 surfaces (112).

808 Nasal vaccination has received a lot of attention since the nasal
809 cavity is rich in NALT through which viral infections can be
810 acquired. Intranasal vaccination has proven to be safe, easy, with
811 less antigens being required via this route as compared to that
812 needed for oral immunization. Nasal vaccination is thus a cost-
813 effective means for controlling viral and bacterial diseases. The
814 mucosal surfaces are rich in B-cells, T-cells, and plasma cells and
815 such antigen-reactive cells are essential for the induction and main-
816 tenance of specific immune responses. Concerning both nasal

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817 vaccination and delivery of therapeutics, it has been shown that
818 nanoscale drug carriers exhibiting mucoadhesive and permeation-
819 enhancing properties have a great potential for improving the
820 delivery through the nasal route (113).

821 Liposomes might be taken in by M-cell, and transported
822 across the mucosal boundary, thereby transfect immune cells
823 within NALT (114). Liposomes constitute attractive immunoad-
824 juvants that can provide a vehicle or a carrier system into which
825 antigens and adjuvants can be incorporated (115). The adjuvant
826 potential of liposomes in enhancing the systemic and mucosal
827 immune responses was compared to immunopotentiating adju-
828 vant which could directly activate the cells of the immune system.
829 Intranasal administration of liposomes encapsulated with tetanus
830 toxoid produced high mucosal IgA responses compared to liquid
831 formulation. While liposomes loaded with tetanus toxoid and
832 CpG-ODN produced higher serum IgG, antitoxin titers, and
833 lower nasal IgA titers, compared with tetanus liposomes without
834 adjuvant (116).

835 It is well established that liposomes possess immunoadjuvant
836 activity and have a potential for the intranasal and oral delivery of
837 protein antigen. Immunogenicity of tetanus toxoid has been
838 improved when delivered mucosally (orally and nasally) associated
839 with liposomes producing anti-toxoid IgG antibody titer similar to
840 those obtained via the intramuscular delivery. Nasal delivery of
841 tetanus toxoid entrapped in liposomes improved the immune
842 response compared to delivery of free antigen. Furthermore, if
843 the liposomes were taken up intact, the superficial layer of nose is
844 highly vascularized and therefore a quantity of liposomes will pass
845 directly into systemic circulation resulting in a systemic immune
846 response and some liposomes would probably be taken up and
847 delivered to underlying lymphoid cells of nasal associated lym-
848 phoid tissue (117). Antigen uptake by NALT is very important
849 for stimulation immune responses.

850 Intranasal immunization with liposome-encapsulated
851 influenza hemagglutinin (HA) DNA vaccine-induced T cell pro-
852 liferation, indicative of CD4⁺ activity and humoral immune
853 responses, in addition to increasing serum IgG and IgA titres
854 (118). Intranasal immunization with the liposome-supplemented
855 vaccine conferred a better protection against an influenza infection
856 than did intradermal immunization with the antigen alone (119).

857 Mucosal immunization required five times less DNA than
858 epidermal inoculation to induce the same level of protection
859 against rotavirus challenge. This result indicated that mucosal
860 immunization was superior to epidermal inoculation using the
861 same vaccine dose (108).

862 Liposome mediated DNA immunization by promoting
863 the disruption of the endosomal membrane after endocytosis/
864 phagocytosis of liposomal-DNA systems and ensuring escape

865 of the plasmid DNA into the cytoplasm was recorded (120).
866 Entrapment of plasmid DNA into liposomes will protect the
867 nucleic acids against desoxyribonuclease attack which led to
868 enhancing the efficacy the DNA vaccine (121).

869 Aramaki et al. studied the activation and mucosal response
870 following nasal administration of liposomes in mice and found
871 that IgG level was significantly elevated when bovine serum
872 albumin (BSA)-associated liposomes were administrated intrana-
873 sally twice with 4-week intervals. They also observed that the
874 contribution of antigen-presenting cells in activation of systemic
875 and mucosal immunity following intranasal administration was
876 different (122).

877 Intranasal administration of glycol chitosan coated liposomes
878 encapsulating plasmid DNA encoding surface protein of Hepatitis
879 B virus induced significantly higher systemic, humoral, mucosal,
880 and cellular immune responses when compared to naked DNA.
881 This could have resulted from coating liposomes with glycol chit-
882 osan which may be able to remain homogeneously dispersed in the
883 mucus, allowing good contact with respiratory mucosa at physio-
884 logical pH due to electrostatic interaction by chitosan and mucosal
885 surface. In addition, DNA encapsulated into both plain and chit-
886 osan-coated liposomes was protected against degradation by
887 DNase, presumably because of the inability of the enzyme to
888 reach its substrate, whereas naked DNA was completely degraded
889 after 15 min (123). It has been reported that intranasal adminis-
890 tration of liposomes can provide a promising adjuvant system for
891 stimulation of antibody responses in general and mucosal secretory
892 immunoglobulin (sIgA) responses in particular (124).

893 The effectiveness of immunizing humans by the intranasal route
894 with *Streptococcus mutans* antigens, either incorporated into lipo-
895 somes or in free form was investigated, in order to design a more
896 effective approach to prevent oral diseases. Intranasal immunization
897 resulted in primarily a nasal response and the liposomal antigen
898 vaccine induced higher nasal but similar salivary IgA responses,
899 when compared to responses induced with the free antigen vaccine.
900 There may be a mucosal IgA inductive site which preferentially
901 promoted a salivary response resulting in immune responses in
902 nasal secretions, parotid saliva and serum (125).

903 Effective enhancement of mucosal immune responses was
904 also observed with single intranasal immunization with
905 liposome-formulated *Yersinia pestis* vaccine (formaldehyde-killed
906 whole cell vaccine; KWC). Liposomes significantly enhanced the
907 mucosal and systemic immune responses which were assessed
908 14 days following a single immunization. Immune responses
909 were characterized by increased levels of specific IgA and IgG in
910 mucosal secretions compared to *Y. pestis* KWC vaccine alone
911 which induced low antibody titers (126). The ability of liposomes
912 to enhance immune responses to vaccine antigens has been

193 attributed primarily to an increased antigen uptake by antigen
194 presenting cells and consequently increased antigen presentation
195 to T-cells (127). In another study, it was illustrated that single
196 nasal vaccinations with heat-labile toxin (HLT) adjuvant virosomal
197 influenza vaccine can elicit humoral immune response that
198 was comparable to that obtained after a single parenteral vaccina-
199 tion with the same total influenza virus hemagglutinin (HA) con-
200 tent (128).

201 Liposomes prepared from conventional ester lipids are usually
202 ineffective as mucosal adjuvants, leading to the use of additional
203 known adjuvants or targeting molecules such cholera toxin B
204 subunit, lipid A, or interleukin-2 to improve the liposomal vaccine
205 effectiveness (126, 129). Therefore, polar archaeal lipids have
206 potential advantages for developing a non-replicating mucosal
207 adjuvant and vaccine delivery system. Intranasal immunization of
208 unilamellar archaeosomes (liposomes made from archaeal polar
209 lipids) with encapsulated ovalbumin (OVA/archaeosomes),
210 induced anti-OVA IgG, IgG1, and IgG2a antibody responses in
211 sera and OVA-specific mucosal IgA in several mucosal sites. Cal-
212 cium was added in the formulation to interact with the negatively
213 charged archaeal polar lipids and to convert OVA/archaeosomes
214 into an archaeal lipid mucosal vaccine adjuvant and delivery
215 (AMVAD) vaccine (OVA/AMVAD). The ability to induce muco-
216 sal immune responses was demonstrated with OVA/AMVAD
217 formulations prepared from a range of different polar lipid com-
218 positions (archaeol *H. salinarum*) or caldarchaeol (*T. acidophilum*)
219 or a mixture of these core lipids (*M. smithii*), suggesting a broad
220 applicability of archaeal polar lipids for intranasal immunization
221 (130). AMVAD vaccines consisting of archaeal polar lipids
222 could have potential advantages over the use of other vesicular
223 delivery systems such as those based on ester lipids. Fatty acyl
224 chains of many ester lipids used for preparing liposomes and
225 cochleate formulations were shown to have some degree of unsat-
226 uration. Consequently, manufacturing and storage of these for-
227 mulations should be conducted under nitrogen to prevent lipid
228 oxidation (131).

5.4. CNS Delivery

229 Intranasal administration offers a non-invasive alternative route to
230 deliver drugs to the central nervous system, effectively by passing
231 the BBB (**Fig. 8.5**) (132). It was proposed to be an excellent route
232 of administration to target drugs directly to the brain via the
233 olfactory neurons, which provide extracellular and intracellular
234 pathways into CNS (133). It was suggested that substances
235 could be absorbed via the olfactory route by two different mechan-
236 isms: the olfactory nerve pathway (axonal transport) and the olfac-
237 tory epithelial pathway (26). The neural connections between the
238 nasal mucosa and the brain provide a unique pathway for the non-
239 invasive delivery of therapeutic agents to the CNS (134). The
240



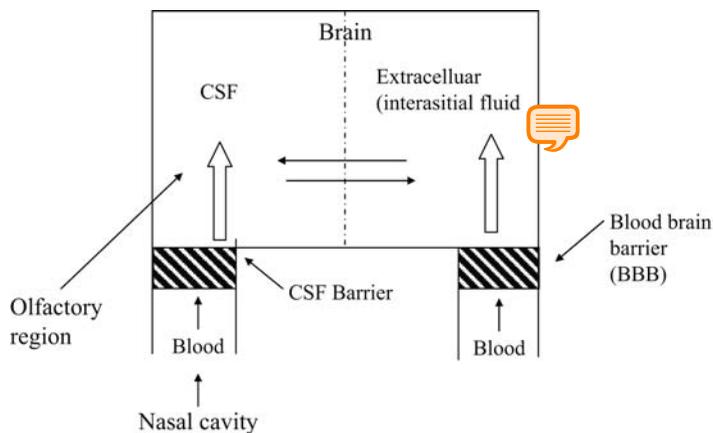


Fig. 8.5. Suggested transport pathways from nose to central nervous system.

olfactory neural pathway provides both an intraneuronal and extraneuronal pathway into the brain (134). The intraneuronal pathway involves axonal transport (olfactory nerve pathway) and it is considered a slow route where substance enters the olfactory neuron via endocytotic or pinocytotic mechanisms and diffuses to the olfactory bulb by utilizing the same mechanisms the cell uses to transport endogenous substances to the rest of the brain (135). The extraneuronal pathway (epithelial pathway) is a faster route for direct nose-to-brain transfer as compounds pass paracellularly across the olfactory epithelium into the perineural space, which is continuous with the subarachnoid space before transport to basolateral side of the olfactory epithelium which delivers drugs directly to the brain parenchymal tissue and/or CSF. Then the molecules can diffuse into the brain tissue or will be cleared by the CSF flow into the lymphatic vessels and subsequently into the systemic circulation (136).

Depending on the substance administered, axonal transport rates range from 20–400 mm/day to a slower 0.1–4 mm/day (137). Lipophilicity, molecular size, degree of dissociation, and route of administration are very important physicochemical factors must be considered when designing intranasal delivery for brain targeting (31). Formulation factors are also to be considered while designing brain targeted nasal drug delivery systems. The liquid formulations, liquid spray, and drops are the most widely used preparations for intranasal drug delivery. The nasal spray deposits anteriorly in the nasal atrium provide greater residence time, while the drops are dispersed throughout the length of the nasal cavity. Nasal sprays deposit more anteriorly, having more potential for brain delivery. The permeability of the posterior nasal passage is generally higher than the anterior passage (30).

Intranasal delivery is a promising route for delivery of drugs into the CNS and there are 35–40 drugs, which have been reported to reach CNS after nasal administration. Example of these drugs that rapidly pass into CSF include estradiol and progesterone (138), carbamazepine (139), dopamine (140), risperidone (141), tacrine (142), and neuropeptide (143).

Nasal mucosa in the olfactory region is likely to be a promising target for mucosal immunization to protect the CNS from neurotropic viral infections. Intranasal immunization inducing mucosal and systemic immune responses blocks the propagation of neurotropic virus into the brain via the olfactory pathway and neutralizes the multiplication of virus in visceral organs, allowing more effective protection against neurotropic infections (98).

Rivastigmine is an acetyl cholinesterase which can be rapidly absorbed after oral administration but extensively metabolized by cholinesterase-mediated hydrolysis. Liposomes may provide carrier system for this drug through nasal route to CNS. In a comparative study intranasal liposome was compared with the oral free drug and it was recorded that liposomal formulation can provide ten times higher C_{max} , higher systemic AUC, and higher concentration in the brain compared to oral administration. The liposomal formulation provided better absorption into the brain following intranasal administration compared to the free drug. This might also be due to direct transfer of the drug from nasal mucosa to the brain via the olfactory route (144).

The intranasal administration of quercetin liposome to rats provided opportunity for the drug to enter the central nervous system and act on the central nervous system to promote anxiolytic activity and cognitive enhancing effect with high efficiency (145). The anxiolytic activity of oral quercetin liposomes was compared with intranasal quercetin liposomes, both routes showed anxiolytic and cognitive-enhancing effects. A lower dose and a faster rate were observed with intranasal quercetin liposomes when compared with oral quercetin liposomes. The intranasal quercetin liposome was thus considered as effective in the delivery of quercetin to the central nervous system (146).

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Chapter 8

Query No.	Line No.	Query
AQ1	18	Please check whether the edit made to the sentence “Unfortunately, the mucociliary clearance. . .” is ok.
AQ2	195	In this sentence (“The epithelial cells are. . .”), please confirm if “sit” can be changed to “slit.”
AQ3	310	Please check whether the edit made to the senetnec “The physicochemical characteristics of the. . .” is ok.
AQ4	688	In this sentence (“Plasmid DNA complex with mannosylated. . .”), please check if a word or phrase is missing after “receptors, mannosylated.”
AQ5	710	“Estradiol is a female sex hormone steroids can enhance liposome-mediated gene delivery. . .” has been changed to “Estradiol is a female sex hormone steroid that can enhance liposome-mediated gene delivery. . .” Please check if it is OK.
AQ6	792	Please chec whether the edit made to the sentence “A range of different vaccine . . .” is OK.
AQ7	934	In this sentence (“The ability to induce. . .”), please spell out the genus names for “H. salinarum,” “T. acidophilum,” and “M. smithii.”