

Liposomes – the potential drug carriers

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Abstract—Liposomes have been widely investigated since 1970 as drug carriers for improving the delivery of therapeutic agents to specific sites in the body. As a result, numerous improvements have been made, thus making this technology potentially useful for the treatment of certain diseases in the clinics. The success of liposomes as drug carriers has been reflected in a number of liposome-based formulations, which are commercially available or are currently undergoing clinical trials. This review is focused on the various aspects of liposomes starting from the evolution and the current research including the detailed summary such as classification, methods of preparation, characterization and the potential use of liposomes in the treatment of various diseases and the various sites to which these are targeted. Liposomes have covered predominantly medical, albeit some non-medical areas like bioreactor, catalysts, cosmetics and ecology. However, their predominance in drug delivery and targeting has enabled them to be used as a therapeutic tool in fields like tumor targeting, gene and antisense therapy etc.

Keywords—Characterization, Constraints, Industrial production, Liposomes, Phospholipids.

I. INTRODUCTION^[2]

The rising number of complications associated with drugs from varied chemical and biological background not only made scientists worldwide to search for newer molecules but also to discover the new ways and means for the proper delivery of molecules. With the help of new delivery systems known as novel drug delivery systems [NDDS] both old and new molecules can be delivered to the site in demand in a defined manner. With this targeted delivery, the molecules can be made to produce the desired effect without disturbing the delicate bio-environment. The investment on drug delivery research in contrast to search for the basic therapeutic molecules of synthetic origin may well prove to be less taxing in terms of money, labor and time. This led to the development of an array of approaches based on varied physicochemical and biological tools and techniques which can be used to deliver the drug to the desired targeted site with reduced or no toxicity. Among many available colloidal drug delivery systems, a class based on phospholipids has fetched much more attention than the other systems because of its meritorious

Features. These vesicular systems have displayed their potential to a great extent in delivering the various drugs to the target site i.e., Liposomes. These have emerged as most practically useful carriers for in-vivo drug delivery as majority of reports has concentrated on the use of phospholipid vesicles or liposomes as potential drug carrier systems.^[2]

1.1. Evolution of liposomes^[2]

The history of liposomes goes back to mid-1960's and the credit of their birth goes to Bangham and his coworkers, who discovered that phospholipids in presence of suitable solvents form bi-layered membranes which finally curl-on to form uni-lamellar or multi-lamellar vesicles. The history of liposomes can be divided into three periods:

1.1.1. Genesis [1968-75]

The physicochemical characterization of liposomes had been carried out in this period. Moreover, thin lipid film hydration method had been developed to prepare multi-lamellar vesicles [MLVs].

1.1.2. Middle Age [1975 – 85]

Liposome's utility was improved following basic research that increased the understanding of their stability and interaction characteristic within the system. This period also dealt with the discovery of various alternative methods for the preparation of liposomes. Also, due to the availability of vast knowledge about the physio-chemical properties of liposomes, their behavior within the body, their interaction with the cells, attempts had been made to improve their performance as drug carrier systems.

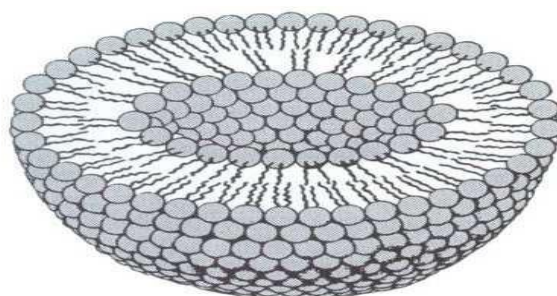
1.1.3. Modern Era [1985 onwards]

Today, liposomes are used successfully in various scientific disciplines, including mathematics and theoretical physics [topology of two-dimensional surfaces floating in a three dimensional continuum], biophysics [properties of cell membranes and channels], chemistry [catalysis, energy conversion, photosynthesis], colloid science [stability, thermodynamic of finite systems], biochemistry [function of membrane proteins] and biology [excretion, cell function, trafficking and signaling, gene delivery and function]. Moreover, renaissance in the liposome research is promising many more products to come in the near future.^[2]

1.2. Definition^[1]

“Liposomes are simple microscopic vesicles in which an aqueous volume is entirely enclosed by a membrane composed of lipid molecule.” Various amphipathic molecules have been used to form liposome. The drug molecules can either be encapsulated in aqueous space or intercalated into the lipid bilayer. It is a spherical vesicle with a membrane composed of a phospholipid bilayer used to deliver drug or genetic material into a cell.

These can be composed of naturally-derived phospholipids with mixed lipid chain like egg phosphatidylethanolamine or of pure components like DOPE [dioleoylphosphatidylethanolamine].^[1]



Liposome structure formed by phospholipids

Fig.1. Liposomal Structure

1.2.1. Advantages^[1]

- Provides selective passive targeting to tumor tissue [liposomal doxorubicin]
- Liposomes have increased efficacy and therapeutic index of drug [Actinomycin-D].
- Liposomes have increased stability via encapsulation.
- Liposomes are biocompatible, completely biodegradable, non-toxic, flexible and non-immunogenic for systemic and non-systemic administrations.
- Liposomes have reduction in toxicity of the encapsulated agent [Amphotericin B, Taxol].
- Liposomes help to reduce exposure of sensitive tissues to toxic drugs.
- Site avoidance effect.
- Flexibility to couple with site-specific ligands to achieve active targeting.

1.2.2. Disadvantages^[1]

- Production cost is high.
- Leakage and fusion of encapsulated drug / molecules.
- Sometimes phospholipid undergoes oxidation and hydrolysis like reaction.
- Short half-life.
- Low solubility
- Inadequate stability due to uptake by Reticuloendothelial system.

1. 3. Structural Components of liposomes^[2]

1.3.1. Membrane forming components

1.3.1.1. Phospholipids: Bilayer formers

Phospholipids that are the major components of the biological membranes are the building blocks of the liposomes. The phospholipids have tubular shape owing to the presence of two acyl chains attached to a polar head and on hydration, results into a bilayered membrane. Two types of phospholipids are there i.e. phosphodiglycerides and sphingolipids along with their corresponding hydrolysis products.

Classification of phospholipids

- Neutral phospholipids e.g. Sphingomyelin, Phosphatidylethanolamine and Phosphatidylcholine.
- Negatively charged phospholipids e.g. Dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine, Dipalmitoylphosphatidyl acid [DDPA], Distearoylphosphatidyl choline [DSPC], Dioleoylphosphatidyl choline [DOPC] etc.
- Positively charged phospholipids e.g. 1, 2-dihexadecyl-N, N-dimethyl-N-trimethyl amine methyl ethanolamine etc.

1.3.1.2. Membrane Additives [Sterols]

Cholesterol is the most commonly used sterol, which is included in the liposomal membranes. It has been called as the ‘molar’ of bilayers because by virtue of its molecular shape and solubility properties, it fills in empty spaces among the phospholipid molecules, anchoring them more strongly into the structure. Cholesterol is an amphipathic molecule and inserts itself into the membrane with its hydroxyl groups oriented towards the aqueous phase and aliphatic chain aligned parallel to acyl chains of the phospholipid molecules. In other words, cholesterol increases the transition temperature of the system by making the membrane more ordered. Cholesterol reduces this type of interaction to a great extent and provides both physical and biological stability.

1.3.1.3. Charge inducers and steric stabilizers

Stearylamine, dicetylphosphate, solulan C-24 and diacylglycerol are commonly used to impart either a negative or a positive surface charge. Since it is a well-known fact that negatively charged and positively charged liposomes are more rapidly uptaken by the reticulo-endothelial system as compared to neutral liposomes, charge inducers are used to overcome this problem. Also they proved to be useful in reducing aggregation as neutral liposomes show higher tendency to undergo aggregation.

1.3.1.4. Other substances:

In case, the drug is very prone to oxidation, antioxidants e.g. tocopherol, butylatedhydroxy toluene and stabilizers are used. The use of preservatives is very common to increase the shelf-life of liposomal formulations.^[2]

1.3.1.5. Mechanism of liposome formation:^[1]

Phospholipids are amphipathic having affinity for both aqueous and polar moieties molecules as they have a hydrophobic tail and a hydrophilic or polar head. The hydrophobic tail is composed of two fatty acid chains containing 10-24 carbon atoms and 0-6 double bonds in each chain. The macroscopic structures most often formed include lamellar, hexagonal or cubic phases dispersed as colloidal nanoconstructs [artificial membranes] referred to as liposomes, hexosomes or cubosomes. The most common natural polar phospholipids are phosphatidylcholine. These are amphipathic molecules in which a glycerol bridge links to a pair of hydrophobic acyl hydrocarbon chains with a hydrophilic polar head group, phosphocholine. The amphipathic nature of phospholipids and their analogues render them the ability to form closed concentric bilayers in presence of water. Liposomes are formed when thin lipid films or lipid cakes are hydrated and stacks of lipid crystalline bilayers become fluid and swell. The hydrated lipid sheets detach during agitation and self-close to form large, multi-lamellar vesicles prevent interaction of water with the hydrocarbon core of the bilayer at the edges.

1.4. Formulation factors affecting the degree of drug entrapment:^[3]

The extents of drug entrapment and retention as well as factors influencing them are important considerations in the design of liposome-mediated drug delivery systems. Drugs may be entrapped in the aqueous and/or lipid phase of the liposome.

1.4.1. Aqueous entrapment

This relates to the aqueous volume in the liposome. The larger the aqueous volume the greater the amounts of polar drugs that can be encapsulated. Multiple compartment liposomes encapsulate higher percentages of aqueous soluble drugs than single compartment vesicles, because of the larger volume of encapsulated aqueous space in the former. Formulations that promote formation of MLVs are thus associated with higher aqueous entrapment. Osmotic swelling and/or incorporation of charged lipids, e.g., phosphatidylserine into bilayers are measures for increasing the aqueous volume in liposomes. The latter is due to charge repulsion separating adjacent bilayers, resulting in increases in trapped aqueous volume. Aqueous solubility of the drug is another factor, hence, the extent of drug entrapment in liposomes [MLVs] can vary markedly as seen in the following examples: 2.2–8.4% for penicillin, 2.3–11.6% for actinomycin D, 18% for methotrexate and up to 60% for bleomycin. Leakage of entrapped solute is another formulation problem. Cholesterol modifies the fluidity of lipid membranes, thereby influencing the degree of retention of drugs by vesicles as well as stabilising the system against enzymatic degradation. Large molecules [e.g., peptides and proteins] are better retained than smaller molecules, which can diffuse slowly through the lipid layers.^[3]

1.4.2. Lipid entrapment

Lipid soluble drugs are entrapped in the lipid layers of liposome. Here, the entrapment efficiency can be as high as 100%, irrespective of liposomal type and composition. An example of a drug that is hydrophobic in nature is camptothecin. The retention of such hydrophobic drugs is also high when the liposomes are placed in aqueous biological environment because of their high lipid-water partition coefficients.^[3]

1.5. Preparation methods^[28]

1. Active Loading Technique
2. Passive Loading Techniques are as follows:^[28]

Table.1. List of various methods of preparation of liposomes.

Mechanical Dispersion methods	Solvent Dispersion methods	Detergent Removal methods
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lipid film hydration- Hand shaking ,Non Hand shaking, Freeze Drying • Micro emulsification • Sonication • French Pressure Cell • Membrane extrusion • Dried reconstituted vesicles • Freeze-thawed liposomes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ethanol injection • Ether Injection • Double Emulsion Vesicles • Reverse Phase evaporation vesicles • Stable plurilamellar vesicles 	Detergent Removal from mixed micelles by <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dialysis • Dilution • Column chromatography

Some of the methods of preparation are described as follows:^[4]

1.5.1. Lipid Hydration Method

This is the most widely used method for the preparation of MLV. The method involves drying a solution of lipids so that a thin film is formed at the bottom of round bottom flask and then hydrating the film by adding aqueous buffer and vortexing the dispersion for some time. The hydration step is done at a temperature above the gel-liquid crystalline transition temperature of the lipid or above the T_c of the highest melting component in the lipid mixture. The compounds to be encapsulated are added either to aqueous buffer or to organic solvent containing lipids depending upon their solubilities. MLV are simple to prepare by this method and a variety of substances can be encapsulated in these liposomes. The drawbacks of the method are low internal volume, low encapsulation efficiency and the size distribution is heterogeneous.

1.5.2. Solvent Dispersion Method

A method for the preparation of MLVs of homogeneous size distribution was proposed by Kim et al. The process involved dispersing in aqueous solution the small spherules of volatile hydrophobic solvent in which lipids had been dissolved. MLVs were formed when controlled evaporation of organic solvent occurred in a waterbath.

1.5.3. Sonication Method

Here MLVs are sonicated either with a bath type sonicator or a probe sonicator under an inert atmosphere. The main drawbacks of this method are very low internal volume/encapsulation efficiency, possibly degradation of phospholipids and compounds to be encapsulated, exclusion of large molecules, metal contamination from probe tip and presence of MLV along with SUV. Recently, Oezden and Hasirci [1991] prepared a polymer coated liposomes by this method.

1.5.4. French Pressure Cell Method

The method involves the extrusion of MLV at 20,000 psi at 4°C through a small orifice. The method has several advantages over sonication method. The method is simple rapid, reproducible and involves gentle handling of unstable materials [Hamilton and Guo, 1984]. The resulting liposomes are somewhat larger than sonicated SUVs. The drawbacks of the method are that the temperature is difficult to achieve and the working volumes are relatively small [about 50 mL maximum].

1.5.5. Solvent Injection Methods

1.5.5.1. Ether Infusion Method

A solution of lipids dissolved in diethyl ether or ether/methanol mixture is slowly injected to an aqueous solution of the material to be encapsulated at 55-65°C or under reduced pressure. The subsequent removal of ether under vacuum leads to the formation of liposomes. The main drawbacks of the method are that the population is heterogeneous [70-190 nm] and the exposure of compounds to be encapsulated to organic solvents or high temperature [Dcamcr and Bangham, 1976; Schieren et al., 1978].

1.5.5.2. Ethanol Injection Method

A lipid solution of ethanol is rapidly injected to a vast excess of buffer. The MLVs are immediately formed. The drawbacks of the method are that the population is heterogeneous [30-110 nm], liposomes are very dilute, it is difficult to remove all ethanol because it forms azeotrope with water and the possibility of various

biologically active macromolecules to inactivation in the presence of even low amounts of ethanol [Batzri and Korn, 1973].

1.5.6. Reverse Phase Evaporation Method

First water in oil emulsion is formed by brief sonication of a two phase system containing phospholipids in organic solvent [di-ethylether or isopropylether or mixture of isopropyl ether and chloroform] and aqueous buffer. The organic solvents are removed under reduced pressure, resulting in the formation of a viscous gel. The liposomes are formed when residual solvent is removed by continued rotary evaporation under reduced pressure. With this method high encapsulation efficiency up to 65% can be obtained in a medium of low ionic strength for example 0.01 M NaCl. The method has been used to encapsulate small, large and macromolecules. The main disadvantage of the method is the exposure of the materials to be encapsulated to organic solvents and to brief periods of sonication. These conditions may possibly result in the denaturation of some proteins or breakage of DNA strands [Szoka and Papahadjopoulos, 1978]. We get a heterogeneous sized dispersion of vesicles by this method. Modified Reverse Phase Evaporation Method was presented by Handa et al. [1987] and the main advantage of the method is that the liposomes had high encapsulation efficiency [about 80%].

The Reverse Phase Evaporation Method of Szoka and Papahadjopoulos [1978] have also been modified to entrap plasmids without damaging DNA strands [Haga and Yogi, 1989].

1.5.7. Detergent Removal Methods

The detergents at their critical micelles concentrations have been used to solubilize lipids. As the detergent is removed the micelles become progressively richer in phospholipid and finally combine to form LUVs. The detergents were removed by dialysis [Kagawa and Rocker, 1971; Milsman et al., 1978; Alpes et al., 1986]. The advantages of detergent dialysis method are excellent reproducibility and production of liposome populations which are homogenous in size. The main drawback of the method is the retention of traces of detergent[s] within the liposomes. A commercial device called LIPOPREP [Diachema AG, Switzerland] which is a version of dialysis system is available for the removal of detergents. Other techniques have been used for the removal of detergents: [a] by using Gel Chromatography involving a column of Sephadex G-25 [Enoch and Suitt matter, 1979], [b] by adsorption or binding of Triton X-100 [a detergent] to Bio-Beads SM-2 [Gerristen et al., 1978]. [c] by binding of octylglucoside [a detergent] to Amberlite XAD-2 beads [Philippot et al., 1985].^[4]

1.6. Industrial Production of Liposomes^[4]

Of the several preparation methods described in the literature, only a few have potential for large scale manufacture of liposomes. The main issues faced to formulation and production supervisor are presence of organic solvent residues, physical and chemical stability, pyrogen control, sterility, size and size distribution and batch to batch reproducibility. Liposomes for parenteral use should be sterile and pyrogen free. For animal experiments, adequate sterility can be achieved by the passage of liposomes through up to approximately 400 nm pore size Millipore filters. For human use, precautions for sterility must be taken during the entire preparation process: that is, the raw materials must be sterile and pyrogen free, preparation in sterile system: working areas equipped with laminar flow and use of sterile containers [Freise, 1984]. Some issues related to phospholipids need attention. The liposomes based on crude egg yolk phospholipids are not very stable. The cost of purified lipids is very high. Recently, liposomes have been prepared using synthetic [Yamauchi et al., 1994] and polymerizable lipids [Fiona et al., 1987]. The liposomes prepared from polymerizable phospholipids are exposed to UV light. The polymerization process takes place in the bilayer[s]. Such liposome preparations usually have better storage stability. It should be noted that such materials usually are phospholipid analogues and their metabolic fates have yet to be established.^[4]

The various methods meant for the industrial production of liposomes are:

1.6.1. Detergent Dialysis

A pilot plant under the trade name of LIPOPREPR II-CIS is available from Diachema, AG, and Switzerland. The production capacity at higher lipid concentration [80mg/ml] is 30 ml liposomes/minute. But when lipid concentration is 10-20 mg/ml 100mg/ml then up to many litres of liposomes can be produced. In USA, LIPOPREPR is marketed by Dianorm-Geraete [Maierhofer, 1985].

1.6.2. Microfluidization

A method based on microfluidization/microemulsification/homogenization was developed for the preparation of liposomes. MICROFLUIDIZER is available from Microfluidics Corporation, Massachusetts, USA. A pilot plant based on this technology can produce about 20 gallon/minute of liposomes in 50-200 nm size range. The encapsulation efficiency up to 75% could be obtained

1.6.3. Aqueous dispersions of liposomes often have tendency to aggregate or fuse and may be susceptible to hydrolysis and or oxidation. Two solutions have been proposed:

1.6.3.1. Pro-liposomes

In pro-liposomes, lipid and drug are coated onto a soluble carrier to form free-flowing granular material which on hydration forms an isotonic liposomal suspension. The pro-liposome approach may provide an opportunity for cost-effective large scale manufacture of liposomes containing particularly lipophilic drugs [Payne et al., 1986].

1.6.3.2. Lyophilization

Freeze-drying [lyophilization] involves the removal of water from products in the frozen state at extremely low pressures. The process is generally used to dry products that are thermolabile and would be destroyed by heat-drying. The technique has a great potential as a method to solve long term stability problems with respect to liposomal stability. It is exposed that leakage of entrapped materials may take place during the process of freeze-drying and on reconstitution. Recently, it was shown that liposomes when freeze-dried in the presence of adequate amounts of trehalose [a carbohydrate commonly found at high concentrations in organism] retained as much as 100% of their original contents. It shows that trehalose is an excellent cryoprotectant [freeze-protectant] for liposomes [Crowe et al., 1987]. Freeze-driers range in size from small laboratory models to large industrial units available from Pharmaceutical Equipment Suppliers. Recently Schrier et al. [1994] have studied the in vitro performance of formulations prepared from lyophilized liposomes.^[4]

1.7. Classification of Liposomes^[28]

1.7.1. Based on structural parameters

- Multi-lamellar large vesicles- $>0.5\mu\text{m}$ -MLV
- Oligo-lamellar vesicles- $0.1-1\mu\text{m}$ -OLV
- Uni-lamellar vesicles [all size range]-UV
- Small Uni-lamellar vesicles- 20-100nm-SUV
- Medium sized Uni-lamellar vesicles-MUV
- Large Uni-lamellar vesicles- $>100\text{nm}$ -LUV
- Giant Uni-lamellar vesicles- $>1\mu\text{m}$ -GUV
- Multi-vesicular vesicles- $1\mu\text{m}$ -MV

1.7.2. Based on method of liposome preparation^[28]

- Single or oligo-lamellar vesicles made by reverse phase evaporation method-REV
- Multi lamellar vesicles made by reverse phase evaporation method-MLV-REV
- Stable pluri-lamellar vesicles-SPLV
- Frozen and thawed MLV-FATMLV
- Vesicles prepared by extrusion technique-VET
- Dehydration-rehydration method-DRV

1.7.3. Based on composition and application^[28]

- Neutral or negatively charged phospholipids and cholesterol – Conventional liposomes [CL]
- Reconstituted sendai virus envelopes – Fusogenic liposomes [RSVE]
- Phospholipid such as PE or DOPE with either CHEMS or OA- pH sensitive liposomes
- Cationic lipids with DOPE – Cationic liposomes
- Neutral high T_c^0 , Cholesterol and 5-10% of PEG-DSPE or GMI – Long circulatory liposomes [LCL]^[16]
- CL or LCL with attached monoclonal antibody or recognition sequence – Immunoliposomes^[28]
- Phospholipids with alcohol [ethanol and isopropyl alcohol] – Ethosomes^[11]
- Phospholipids with surfactant mixture – Transferosomes^[15]
- Phospholipids coated with chitosan – Chitosomes^[7]

1.8. Characterization of Liposomes^{[2], [28]}

Table.2: characterization of liposomes.

Characterization Parameters	Analytical Methods/Instrumentation
Chemical Characterization	
Concentration	Barlett/Stewart assay, HPLC
Phospholipid	Cholesterol oxidase assay,HPLC
Cholesterol	Method as in individual monograph
Drug	
Phospholipid Peroxidation	UV absorbance,TBA,iodometric,GLC
Hydrolysis	HPLC, TLC, Fatty Acid Conc.
Cholesterol auto-oxidation	HPLC,TLC,
Anti-oxidant degradation	HPLC,TLC,
pH	pH meter,
Osmolarity	Osmometer
Physical Characterization	
Vesicle Size & Surface morphology	TEM, Freeze fracture electron microscopy
Vesicle Size distribution	DLS,Zetasizer,TEM,PCR,gel permeation,exclusion
Surface charge	Free flow electrophoresis
Electric surfacepotential &pH	Zeta potential measurement, pH probes
Lamellarity	SAXS,NMR, Freeze fracture EM
Phase behavior	Freeze fracture EM,DSC
% Entrapment Efficiency	Minicolumn centrifugation, gel exclusion, Ionexchange,protamine aggregation,radiolabelling
Drug release	Diffusion
Biological characterization	
Sterility	Aerobic or anaerobic cultures
Pyrogenicity	LAL Test
Animal toxicity	Monitoring survival rates, Histopathology

The most important parameters of liposome characterization include visual appearance,turbidity,size distribution, lamellarity, concentration, composition, presence of degradation products, and stability.^[1]

1.8.1. Visual Appearance^[1]

Liposome suspension can range from translucent to milky, depending on the composition and particle size. If the turbidity has a bluish shade this means that particles in the sample are homogeneous; a flat, gray color indicates the presence of a non-liposomal dispersion and is most likely a dispersed inverse hexagonal phase or dispersed microcrystallites. An optical microscope [Phase contrast] can detect liposomes $> 0.3 \mu\text{m}$ and contamination with larger particles.

1.8.2. Determination of Liposomal Size Distribution^[1]

Size distribution is normally measured by dynamic light scattering. This method is reliable for liposomes with relatively homogeneous size distribution. A simple but powerful method is gel exclusion chromatography, in which a true hydrodynamic radius can be detected. Sephacryl-S100 can separate liposomes in size range of 30-300 nm. Sepharose 4B and 2B columns can separate SUV from micelles.

1.8.3. Determination of Lamellarity^[1]

The lamellarity of liposomes is measured by electron microscopy or by spectroscopic techniques. Most frequently the nuclear magnetic resonance spectrum of liposome is recorded with and without the addition of a paramagnetic agent that shifts or bleaches the signal of the observed nuclei on the outer surface of liposome. Encapsulation efficiency is measured by encapsulating a hydrophilic marker.

1.8.4. Liposome Stability^[1]

Liposome stability is a complex issue, and consists of physical, chemical, and biological stability. In the pharmaceutical industry and in drug delivery, shelf life stability is also important. Physical stability indicates mostly the constancy of the size and the ratio of lipid to active agent. The cationic liposomes can be stable at 4°C for a long period of time, if properly sterilized.

1.8.5. Entrapped Volume^[1]

The entrapped volume of a population of liposome [in μL / mg phospholipid] can often be deduced from measurements of the total quantity of solute entrapped inside liposome assuring that the concentration of solute in the aqueous medium inside liposomes is the same after separation from untrapped material. For example, in two phase method of preparation, water can be lost from the internal compartment during the drying down step to remove organic solvent.

1.8.6. Surface Charge^[1]

Liposomes are usually prepared using charge imparting constituting lipids and hence it is imparting to study the charge on the vesicle surface. In general two methods are used to assess the charge, namely free flow electrophoresis and zeta potential measurement. From the mobility of the liposomal dispersion in a suitable buffer, the surface charge on the vesicles.

1.9. Pharmacokinetics^[3]

Most small molecular chemotherapeutic agents have a large volume of distribution on intravenous [IV] administration of liposomes. The result of this wide distribution is often a narrow therapeutic index due to a high level of toxicity on healthy tissues. Through encapsulation of drugs in liposomes, the volume of distribution is significantly reduced and the concentration of drug at the desired site of action increased. For instance, liposomal drug delivery led to an increase in the amount of drug that can be effectively delivered to tumor sites in anticancer therapy. Liposomes are predominantly removed from circulation by phagocyte cells of the reticuloendothelial system [RES], thus accumulating to a large extent in organs like liver and spleen. This bio-distribution pattern can be used for passive targeting of diagnostics to these organs. The RES should, therefore, be saturated with empty vesicles when other sites are the drug targets. Information on bio-distribution is, therefore, important for

Drug targeting by liposomes. Liposomes given intravenously usually interact with at least two distinct groups of plasma proteins. These are the plasma high density lipoproteins and the so-called opsonins, which bind to the surface of vesicles and mediate their endocytosis by the mononuclear phagocyte system [macrophages]. The rate of liposome clearance from blood circulation will, therefore, depend on the ability of opsonins to bind to the liposome

Surface. The rate can be manipulated through appropriate selection of liposome characteristics. For instance, "fluid" vesicles are removed more rapidly from blood circulation than "rigid" ones. Clearance from the bloodstream is also influenced by vesicle size and surface charges. The longest half-life is obtained when liposomes are relatively small [diameter $< 0.05 \mu\text{m}$] and carry no net surface charge. The pharmacokinetic behaviour of liposomes depends on the route of injection such as intraperitoneal, subcutaneous or intramuscular route. Lasic and Papahadjopoulos have shown that coating the liposome surface with polyethylene glycol and other hydrophobic part of phospholipids substantially prolongs the half-life of liposomes in the blood.

II. STORAGE OF LIPOSOMES: FREEZE-DRYING^[3]

Liposome dispersions are potentially prone to hydrolytic degradation and leakage. Hence, it is desirable to freeze-dry the suspension to a powder and store in this dried form. The powder can be reconstituted to an aqueous suspension immediately before use. By doing so, SUVs may be converted to MLVs dispersion upon rehydration. Addition of a carbohydrate [trehalose] during freeze-drying prevents fusion and leakage of the vesicles.

III. STABILITY

3.1. Physical stability^[1]

There is no established protocol for either accelerated or long-term stability studies for the liposomal formulation. Classical models from colloid science can be used to describe liposome stability. Colloidal systems are stabilized electrostatically, sterically or electrosterically. In addition the self-assembling colloids can undergo fusion or phase change after aggregation. Liposomes exhibit both physical and chemical stability characteristics. Generally, the physical characteristic describes the preservation of liposome structure and the chemical characteristic refers to molecular structure of liposomal components. [hydrolysis and oxidation of phospholipid] Physically stable formulations preserve both liposome size distribution and the amount of material encapsulated. The stability problem is overcome by using appropriate techniques like freezing, lyophilization and osmification. It is also prevented by using fresh solvents and freshly purified lipid, using inert nitrogen gas, avoid high temperature and include anti-oxidants.

3.2. Temperature studies

High-temperature testing [greater than 25⁰C] is almost universally used for heterogeneous products. For liposomes, elevated temperatures may dramatically alter the nature of the interfacial film, especially if the phase-transition temperature is reached. If one expects the product to be exposed to a temperature of 45⁰C for extended periods [or even for short durations], studies at 45–50⁰C are quite justified. Studying a liposomal product at such temperatures determines how the product will hold up and whether any damage is reversible when the product is brought back to room temperature. If temperatures higher than the system will ever encounter are used even in short-term heat-cool cycling one risks irreversibly damaging the bilayers such that the membrane cannot heal when brought back to room temperature. If a liposomal dispersion is partially frozen and then thawed, ice crystals nucleate and grow at the expense of water. Liposomes then may press together against the ice crystals under great pressure. If crystals grow to sizes greater than the void spaces, instability is more likely. That phenomenon is well noted with a slower rate of cooling, causing formation of larger ice crystals, which leads to greater instability. Certain polymers are known to retard ice crystal growth.^[9]

3.3. Plasma Stability^[1]

Although liposomes resemble biomembranes, they still are foreign objects for the host. Therefore, liposomes are recognized by the mononuclear phagocytic system [MPS] after interaction with plasma proteins. As a result, liposomes are cleared from the blood stream. These stability problems are solved by using synthetic phospholipids, gangliosides, polymerization, coating liposomes with chitin derivatives, freeze drying, microencapsulation and particle coated with amphipathic polyethylene glycol.

IV. VARIOUS TECHNOLOGIES OF LIPOSOMES FOR SPECIALIZED DRUG DELIVERY^[16]

4.1 liposome-Based Technology

- Conventional liposomes
- Stealth liposomes
- Targeted liposomes
- Other types of liposomes such as virosomes and gene based liposomes

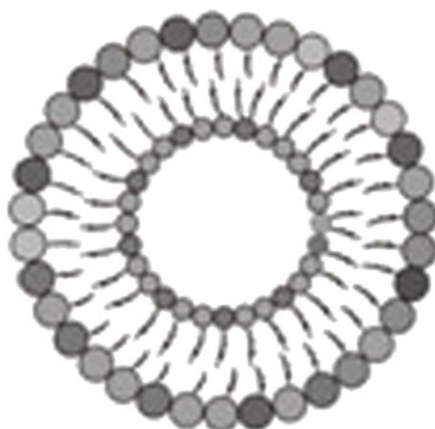


Fig. 2. Conventional Liposome [16]

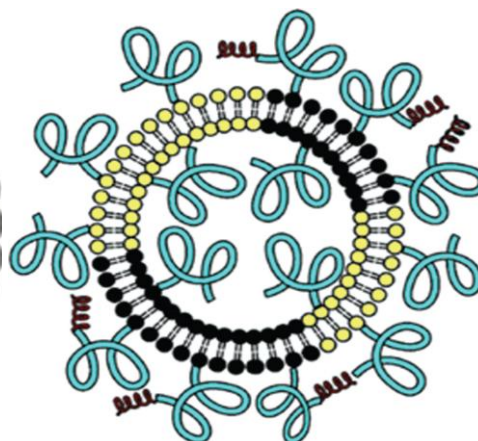


Fig. 3. PEGylated Liposome [16]

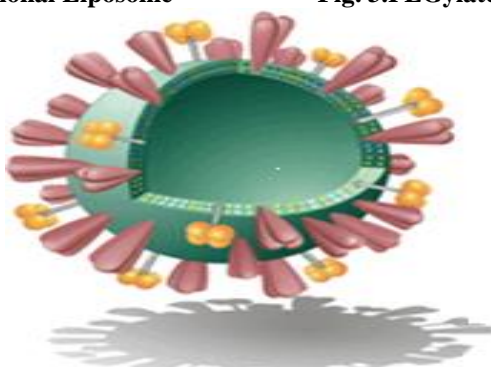


Fig: 4 Virosome [16]

V. VARIOUS LIPOSOMAL DRUG DELIVERIES

5.1. Temporary Depot Polymeric-Based Systems for Liposomal Coupling

- Injectable Polymeric Scaffolds.
- Prefabricated Polymeric Scaffolds.

5.2. Natural Product-Based Liposomal Drug Delivery Systems

- Collagen-Based Liposomal Drug Delivery Systems
- Gelatin-Based Liposomal Drug Delivery Systems.
- Chitosan-Based Liposomal Drug Delivery Systems.
- Fibrin-Based Liposomal Drug Delivery Systems.
- Alginate-Based Liposomal Drug Delivery Systems.
- Dextran-Based Liposomal Drug Delivery Systems.

5.3. Liposomal Drug Delivery Systems Based on Synthetic Polymers

- Carbopol-Based Liposomal Drug Delivery Systems
- Polyvinyl Alcohol-Based Liposomal Drug Delivery Systems

5.4. Techniques for Embedding Drug-Loaded Liposomes within Depot Polymeric-Based systems:

5.5. Modulating Drug Release from Liposomes within Polymeric Depot Systems

VI. APPLICATIONS: [1], [16]

6.1. Liposome as drug/protein delivery vehicles

- Controlled and sustained drug release
- Enhanced drug solubilization
- Altered pharmacokinetics and bio-distribution
- Enzyme replacement therapy and bio-distribution
- Enzyme replacement therapy and lysosomal storage disorders

6.2. Liposome in anti-microbial, antifungal and antiviral therapy

- Liposomal drugs
- Liposomal biological response modifiers
-

6.2. Liposome in tumor therapy

- Carrier of small cytotoxic molecules
- Vehicle for macromolecules as cytokines or genes

6.3. Liposome in gene delivery

- Gene and antisense therapy
- Genetic [DNA] vaccination

6.4. Liposome in immunology

- Immunoadjuvant
- Immunomodulator
- Immunodiagnosis

6.5. Liposome as artificial blood surrogates**6.6. Liposome as radiopharmaceutical and radiodiagnostic carriers****6.7. Liposome in cosmetics and dermatology****6.8. Liposome in enzyme immobilization and bioreactor technology****VII. MISCELLANEOUS APPLICATIONS**

- PEGylated Liposomal doxorubicin in the treatment of ovarian cancer.^[6]
- Liposomal daunorubicin in the treatment of leukaemia.^[5]
- Liposomal neomycin and penicillin are widely used in antimicrobial therapy.^[5]
- Liposomal rifabutin is active against *M. avium* infection.^[5]
- Liposomes are used for gene therapy such as Allovectin-7™ for treatment of metastatic melanoma and colorectal carcinoma.^[5]
- Leuprolide acetate liposomes are widely used in the intravenous administration of peptide drugs.^[8]
- Liposomal antioxidants are widely used for the treatment of oxidative stress such as quercetin, Astaxanthin, Resveratrol^[10]
- Liposomal verteporfin is used for the treatment of ocular histoplasmosis and subfoveal Choroidal neovascularization [CNV].^[12]
- Silica coated liposomes showed enhanced insulin delivery and were very active in reducing the Glucose levels.^[13]
- Stealth liposomes are used in vaccines, diagnostic imaging, inflammatory diseases, Gene transfection and targeted drug delivery.^[14]
- Transferosomes are widely used for the treatment of skin diseases by employing corticosteroids.^[15]

Table.3: List of Marketed Liposomal Products^[5]

Product name	Drug	Manufacturer [country]
Abelcet	Amphotericin B	The Liposome Company [USA]
Allovectin-711	HLA-B7 Plasmid	Vical Incorporation [USA]
AmBisome	Amphotericin B	NeXatar Pharmaceuticals [USA]
Amphocil	Amphotericin B	SEQUUS Pharmaceuticals [USA]
DoxilT	Doxorubicin	SEQUUS Pharmaceuticals [USA]
Doxosome	Doxorubicin	Indian Institute of Chemical Biology [India]
L-AMP-LRC-1	Amphotericin B	Seth G.S. Medical College and K.E.M. Hospital [India]
MiKasome™	Amikacin	NeXatar Pharmaceuticals [USA]

7. *A Few Examples Of Past research investigations on liposomes*

- Eric A. Foressen et al., [1981] reported the study on the usage of anionic liposomes for the reduction of chronic doxorubicin induced cardiotoxicity.^[18]
- M. Schaller et al., [1996] reported the study on the interaction of liposomes with human Skin: the role of the stratum corneum.^[19]
- Ahmed. H. Hikal et al., [1997] reported the study on the preparation and evaluation of Acetazolamide liposomes as an ocular delivery system.^[20]
- Chang-koo Shim et al., [1997] reported the study on the invitro skin permeation of nicotine from proliposomes.^[21]
- Naoto Oku et al., [1999] reported the study on the anticancer therapy using glucuronate modified long circulating liposomes.^[22]
- M. Brisaert et al., [2001] reported the study on liposomes with tretinoin: a physical and chemical evaluation.^[23]
- Brian W. Barry et al., [2002] reported the study on Iontophoretic estradiol skin delivery and tritium exchange in ultra-deformable liposomes.^[24]
- Luigi Cattel et al., [2003] reported the study on preparation, characterization, cytotoxicity and pharmacokinetics of liposomes containing docetaxel.^[25]
- Ayla Gursoy et al., [2004] reported the study on the co-encapsulation of isoniazid and rifampicin in liposomes and characterization of liposomes by derivative spectroscopy.^[26]
- Dae-Duk Kim et al., [2006] reported the study on formulation of liposome for topical delivery of Arbutin.^[27]
- Yechezkel Barenholz et al., [2009] reported the study on ultra sound triggered release of cisplatin from liposomes in murine tumours.^[28]

VIII. CONSTRAINTS OF LIPOSOMES

The first constraint is the lipids, required for the production of liposomes are very scarce, should be of highly pure and expensive. The second one is instability of liposomes which requires specialized storage conditions even if the products are freeze dried.^[3] The large scale production of liposomes is highly difficult as it involves the usage of large amounts of organic solvents in high concentrations which are not recommended as per regulatory norms. Even if it crosses all the barriers which are mentioned above, still the liposomal preparations encounter problems in the systemic circulation because they are recognized as foreign particles and they will be up taken by the reticuloendothelial system.^[2]

IX. CONCLUSION

Liposomes are one of the unique drug delivery systems, which can be of potential use in controlling and targeting drug delivery. These are administered orally, parenterally and topically as well as used in cosmetic and hair technologies, sustained release formulations, diagnostic purposes and as good carriers in gene delivery. Various drugs with liposomal delivery systems have been approved. Nowadays liposomes are used as versatile carriers for targeted delivery of drugs. In a glance, this article reviewed the liposomes in brief starting from the historical evolution, types and methods of preparation, characterization, applications up to the availability of some marketed liposomal products and various constraints regarding the formulation of liposomes. With the recent development in the field, several companies are already actively engaged in expansion and evaluation of liposome products for anticancer, antifungal therapy and for prophylaxis. The future of drug therapeutics may not lie in the development of new chemical entities but in the modification of the existing drug molecules using liposomes to eliminate toxicity and improve activity of the old drugs. Further refinements in the liposomal technology will spur the full-fledged evolution of liposomes as drug carriers.

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