



CODEN [USA]: IAJPBB

ISSN : 2349-7750

**INDO AMERICAN JOURNAL OF
PHARMACEUTICAL SCIENCES**

SJIF Impact Factor: 7.187

<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18838467>Available online at: <http://www.iajps.com>

Review Article

**POLYMERIC NANOPARTICLES FOR ORAL,
PARENTERAL, AND TRANSDERMAL DRUG DELIVERY:
DESIGN PRINCIPLES, PERFORMANCE OPTIMIZATION,
AND TRANSLATIONAL CHALLENGES****Vaishnavi Anil Nale¹, Dhanashree Sharad Nikam², Pol Dipali Balu³, Mujawar suhana salim^{4*}, Dr. Rahul ishvara jadhav⁵**¹⁻⁵Dalit Mitra Kadam Guruji College of Pharmacy, Mangalwedha, Maharashtra 413305**Abstract:**

Polymeric nanoparticles have emerged as a versatile and scientifically robust platform for advanced drug delivery across oral, parenteral, and transdermal routes. Their structural adaptability, tunable degradation behavior, and surface modification capability allow precise control over drug release kinetics, biodistribution, and therapeutic performance. Conventional dosage forms often face limitations such as poor solubility, first-pass metabolism, systemic toxicity, and restricted barrier penetration. Polymeric nanoparticles address these challenges through controlled release, enhanced bioavailability, targeted delivery, and improved safety profiles.

This review comprehensively examines the fundamental aspects of polymeric nanoparticles, including structural classification into nanospheres and nanocapsules, polymer selection criteria, and preparation methodologies such as emulsion-solvent evaporation, nanoprecipitation, ionic gelation, and microfluidic techniques. Route-specific considerations are discussed in detail, highlighting systemic barriers in parenteral delivery, skin barrier constraints in transdermal systems, and physiological challenges associated with oral administration. Design optimization strategies including Quality by Design principles, identification of critical quality attributes and process parameters, application of statistical experimental design, and establishment of in vitro-in vivo correlation are elaborated to emphasize translational relevance. Furthermore, stability enhancement strategies such as lyophilization, cryoprotection, and long-term storage optimization are analyzed to address shelf-life and scalability concerns. Clinical applications in oncology, hormone therapy, vaccine delivery, and gene therapy demonstrate the expanding therapeutic potential of polymeric nanoparticles. Despite promising advancements, challenges related to immune recognition, manufacturing reproducibility, and regulatory standardization remain critical considerations for successful clinical translation.

Overall, polymeric nanoparticles represent a strategically engineered drug delivery system capable of overcoming biological barriers and optimizing therapeutic outcomes. Continued integration of mechanistic understanding with quality-based development frameworks will accelerate their transition from laboratory research to clinical application.

Keywords: Polymeric nanoparticles; oral drug delivery; parenteral delivery; transdermal delivery; controlled release; targeted delivery; Quality by Design; critical quality attributes; in vitro-in vivo correlation; stability enhancement; nanomedicine; biodegradability; drug delivery systems.

Corresponding author:**Mujawar suhana salim,**

Dalit Mitra Kadam Guruji

College of Pharmacy, Mangalwedha, Maharashtra 413305

Email Id : mujawarsuhana41@gmail.com

QR CODE



Please cite this article in press Mujawar suhana salim et al., Polymeric Nanoparticles For Oral, Parenteral, And Transdermal Drug Delivery: Design Principles, Performance Optimization, And Translational Challenges., Indo Am. J. P. Sci, 2026; 13(03).

INTRODUCTION:

Nanotechnology has transformed the conceptual framework of drug delivery by enabling manipulation of materials at the nanometer scale to optimize pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic performance. Polymeric nanoparticles, in particular, have emerged as a versatile and adaptable platform capable of addressing the multifactorial limitations of conventional dosage forms. Their structural integrity, tunable degradation profile, and surface modification capability make them suitable for oral, parenteral, and transdermal administration. This section discusses the scientific background, rationale, and scope of polymeric nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems in a cohesive and integrated manner.

Background of Nanotechnology in Drug Delivery

Conventional pharmaceutical dosage forms such as tablets, capsules, injections, and topical preparations are often limited in their ability to deliver drugs efficiently to the desired site of action. A significant proportion of modern drug molecules exhibit poor aqueous solubility, leading to dissolution-limited absorption and low oral bioavailability. Additionally, drugs administered orally are frequently subjected to extensive first-pass metabolism in the liver, reducing systemic drug concentration. Parenteral formulations, although bypassing gastrointestinal degradation, often result in non-specific biodistribution, causing systemic toxicity and adverse effects. Similarly, topical and transdermal systems face substantial resistance from the stratum corneum, which acts as a highly effective barrier against permeation. Frequent dosing requirements due to rapid elimination and short biological half-life further

compromise patient adherence. Moreover, biological barriers such as mucus layers, epithelial tight junctions, phagocytic clearance mechanisms, and enzymatic degradation pathways restrict drug absorption and therapeutic efficacy. These limitations necessitated the development of advanced delivery systems capable of improving stability, enhancing permeation, and modifying drug release profiles.

The evolution of nanoparticulate systems represents a progressive refinement of drug carrier technology. Early colloidal carriers such as liposomes improved solubilization but faced stability concerns and drug leakage. Polymeric nanoparticles were subsequently developed to provide a solid matrix structure that allows controlled drug entrapment and sustained release. Advances in polymer chemistry have enabled the design of nanoparticles with precise control over size distribution, surface charge, hydrophilicity, and degradation kinetics. These characteristics facilitate interaction with cellular membranes, promote endocytosis, and enable site-specific accumulation under certain physiological conditions.

Compared to liposomes, micelles, and dendrimers, polymeric nanoparticles exhibit superior mechanical stability and more predictable release kinetics. Micelles may disassemble upon dilution, limiting their in vivo stability, while dendrimers require complex synthesis and may present toxicity concerns due to surface functional groups. Polymeric nanoparticles, in contrast, offer structural robustness, scalable preparation methods, and adaptability to diverse therapeutic agents including hydrophobic drugs, hydrophilic compounds, peptides, and nucleic acids.

Table 1: Comparative Features of Nanosystems

Parameter	Polymeric Nanoparticles	Liposomes	Micelles	Dendrimers
Structural integrity	High (solid polymer matrix)	Moderate (bilayer membrane)	Low (dilution sensitive)	High
Drug loading capacity	Broad (hydrophilic & hydrophobic)	Amphiphilic preference	Hydrophobic core drugs	Small molecules primarily
Release control	Sustained and programmable	Limited control	Rapid release	Moderate
In vivo stability	High	Moderate	Low	Moderate
Scale-up feasibility	Relatively feasible	Complex processing	Moderate	Expensive synthesis

Rationale for Polymeric Nanoparticles

The rationale for employing polymeric nanoparticles in drug delivery lies in their ability to modulate drug release, enhance targeting efficiency, improve bioavailability, and minimize toxicity. These systems function as protective carriers that shield drug molecules from premature degradation while enabling controlled release at the desired site of action.

Controlled release is achieved through diffusion of drug molecules across the polymeric matrix and gradual polymer degradation. The release kinetics are influenced by polymer molecular weight, crystallinity, hydrophilicity, and particle size. By maintaining drug concentration within the therapeutic window for prolonged durations, polymeric nanoparticles reduce dosing frequency and minimize peak-related adverse effects. This feature is particularly valuable for parenteral depot formulations and sustained oral therapies.

Targeted delivery can be accomplished through passive, active, or stimuli-responsive mechanisms. Passive targeting exploits size-dependent accumulation in pathological tissues. Active targeting involves surface modification with ligands that recognize specific cellular receptors, enhancing uptake through receptor-mediated

endocytosis. Stimuli-responsive systems are designed to release drug in response to environmental triggers such as pH variations or enzymatic activity. Surface engineering also allows modulation of hydrophilicity and charge to avoid rapid immune clearance or enhance mucosal adhesion.

Improved bioavailability results from enhanced solubilization of poorly water-soluble drugs, increased surface area for absorption, and protection from enzymatic degradation. In oral delivery, nanoparticles may facilitate lymphatic uptake and partially circumvent hepatic first-pass metabolism. For transdermal application, nanoscale size and surface modification promote deeper penetration across the skin barrier. In parenteral systems, optimized particle size and hydrophilic coatings prolong systemic circulation.

Reduced toxicity is another critical advantage. Encapsulation prevents high systemic peak concentrations and limits drug exposure to non-target tissues. Controlled release decreases total drug requirement, thereby reducing systemic adverse effects. Additionally, the protective polymeric matrix minimizes the formation of toxic degradation products before reaching the intended site.

Table 2: Functional Advantages of Polymeric Nanoparticles

Therapeutic Objective	Mechanistic Basis	Clinical Outcome
Sustained drug action	Matrix-controlled release	Reduced dosing frequency
Enhanced targeting	Surface ligand conjugation	Improved therapeutic index
Bioavailability improvement	Nanosizing and protection	Increased absorption
Stability enhancement	Polymer encapsulation	Longer shelf life
Toxicity reduction	Controlled plasma levels	Fewer adverse effects

This review provides a systematic and comparative evaluation of polymeric nanoparticles across oral, parenteral, and transdermal drug delivery routes. Each route presents distinct anatomical and physiological barriers that require tailored nanoparticle design strategies. For oral delivery, challenges include acidic gastric conditions, enzymatic degradation, and limited epithelial permeability. Parenteral systems must overcome rapid immune recognition and clearance by the reticuloendothelial system. Transdermal delivery must address the highly organized lipid matrix of the stratum corneum that restricts drug permeation.

The objective of this review is to integrate mechanistic understanding with translational considerations.

Mechanistically, emphasis is placed on drug-polymer interactions, release kinetics, cellular uptake pathways, and biodistribution behavior. From a translational perspective, issues such as scale-up reproducibility, regulatory evaluation, toxicological assessment, and manufacturing feasibility are critically examined. By combining these dimensions, the review aims to provide a comprehensive framework for rational design and clinical translation of polymeric nanoparticle systems.

Table 3: Route-Specific Comparative Overview

Parameter	Oral Delivery	Parenteral Delivery	Transdermal Delivery
Major barrier	Gastrointestinal degradation	Immune clearance	Stratum corneum
Design priority	Enhance absorption & protection	Prolong circulation time	Improve skin permeation
Preferred size range	100–500 nm	50–200 nm	<200 nm
Surface modification	Mucoadhesive or neutral coating	Hydrophilic stealth coating	Penetration enhancers
Release profile	Sustained and protective	Controlled systemic	Localized sustained
Key translational issue	Variable absorption	Immunogenicity	Limited drug candidates

Polymeric nanoparticles represent a strategically engineered delivery platform capable of addressing the limitations of conventional dosage forms through controlled release, targeted delivery, enhanced bioavailability, and improved safety. A comparative and translational approach is essential to ensure that physicochemical design parameters align with clinical performance requirements across different routes of administration.

FUNDAMENTALS OF POLYMERIC NANOPARTICLES

Polymeric nanoparticles are solid colloidal carriers composed of biodegradable or biocompatible polymers in which active pharmaceutical ingredients are either encapsulated, entrapped, adsorbed, or chemically conjugated. Their physicochemical architecture determines drug loading behavior, release kinetics, stability, and biological interaction. A clear understanding of structural classification and polymer selection is essential for rational design and translational feasibility.

Definition and Classification

Polymeric nanoparticles generally range from 10 to 1000 nm in diameter and are characterized by a solid polymeric framework. Unlike lipid vesicles or surfactant-based systems, they possess a dense polymer matrix that allows controlled degradation and sustained release. Structurally, they are broadly categorized based on internal architecture and drug distribution pattern.

Nanospheres and Nanocapsules

Nanospheres are matrix systems in which the drug is uniformly dispersed throughout the polymer network. The active compound may be molecularly dissolved or physically entrapped within the matrix. Drug release occurs primarily through diffusion and polymer degradation. Because the drug is distributed throughout the structure, nanospheres typically provide sustained and predictable release kinetics.

Nanocapsules, in contrast, exhibit a core-shell architecture. The drug is confined within a central cavity surrounded by a polymeric membrane. The core may contain dissolved drug or a liquid phase, while the outer shell regulates diffusion. Nanocapsules are particularly useful for protecting labile drugs and for achieving controlled, membrane-regulated release.

Matrix and Reservoir Systems

The distinction between matrix and reservoir systems further clarifies release behavior:

- **Matrix systems** involve homogeneous drug distribution within the polymer bulk. Drug release depends on polymer erosion and diffusion gradients. These systems are mechanically robust and easier to manufacture reproducibly.
- **Reservoir systems** consist of a drug-rich core enclosed by a polymeric membrane. Release is controlled by membrane permeability and thickness. These systems allow fine tuning of release rates but require precise control over shell uniformity.

Table 4: Structural Comparison

Parameter	Nanospheres (Matrix)	Nanocapsules (Reservoir)
Internal structure	Solid polymer matrix	Core-shell architecture
Drug distribution	Uniformly dispersed	Confined in central core
Release mechanism	Diffusion + degradation	Membrane-controlled diffusion
Manufacturing complexity	Moderate	Higher
Drug protection ability	Moderate	High

TYPES OF POLYMERS USED

Polymer selection is a critical determinant of nanoparticle performance. The choice depends on degradation rate, compatibility with drug molecules, mechanical strength, and regulatory approval status. Polymers are broadly classified into synthetic and natural categories.

Synthetic Polymers

Poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA)

PLGA is one of the most extensively studied biodegradable polymers in drug delivery. It is a copolymer of lactic acid and glycolic acid, and its degradation rate can be tuned by adjusting the monomer ratio. PLGA undergoes hydrolytic cleavage to produce lactic acid and glycolic acid, which are metabolized via the Krebs cycle. Its predictable degradation kinetics and established safety profile make it highly suitable for controlled-release and injectable nanoparticle systems.

Polycaprolactone (PCL)

PCL is a semi-crystalline aliphatic polyester characterized by slower degradation compared to PLGA. Its hydrophobic nature enables sustained release over extended periods, making it suitable for long-acting depot formulations and transdermal applications. Due to its slow hydrolysis rate, PCL is often used when prolonged drug release is required.

Polyethylene glycol (PEG)

PEG is widely employed for surface modification rather than as a structural matrix polymer. PEGylation enhances hydrophilicity and reduces protein adsorption, thereby minimizing opsonization and immune recognition. This "stealth" effect prolongs systemic circulation time in parenteral applications.

Polymethacrylates

Polymethacrylates, including various methacrylate copolymers, are commonly used in controlled-

release oral formulations. Their pH-dependent solubility allows targeted drug release in specific regions of the gastrointestinal tract. These polymers are particularly useful in enteric-coated nanoparticle systems.

Natural Polymers

Natural polymers are derived from biological sources and are often preferred for their inherent biocompatibility and minimal toxicity.

Chitosan

Chitosan is a cationic polysaccharide obtained from chitin. Its positive charge facilitates interaction with negatively charged biological membranes and enhances mucoadhesion. Chitosan nanoparticles are widely explored for oral and nasal delivery due to their ability to transiently open tight junctions and enhance epithelial permeability.

Alginate

Alginate is an anionic polysaccharide extracted from marine algae. It forms hydrogels in the presence of divalent cations, enabling gentle encapsulation of sensitive biomolecules. Alginate nanoparticles are particularly suitable for oral delivery of proteins and peptides.

Gelatin

Gelatin is a protein-based polymer derived from collagen. It exhibits excellent film-forming properties and biodegradability. Gelatin nanoparticles are commonly used for controlled release of both hydrophilic and hydrophobic drugs.

Albumin

Albumin-based nanoparticles leverage the natural transport properties of serum albumin. They exhibit favorable biocompatibility and intrinsic binding affinity for various drugs. Albumin nanoparticles have been successfully translated into clinical oncology formulations.

Table 5: Types of Polymers

Polymer	Type	Degradation Rate	Key Application	Regulatory Status
PLGA	Synthetic	Moderate (tunable)	Injectable, oral	Widely accepted
PCL	Synthetic	Slow	Long-acting systems	Accepted
PEG	Synthetic	Non-degradable (surface modifier)	Stealth coating	Accepted
Polymethacrylates	Synthetic	pH-dependent	Oral delivery	Accepted
Chitosan	Natural	Enzymatic	Mucoadhesive systems	Generally recognized
Alginate	Natural	Enzymatic	Protein delivery	Accepted
Gelatin	Natural	Enzymatic	Controlled release	Accepted
Albumin	Natural	Enzymatic	Oncology formulations	Clinically established

BIODEGRADABILITY, BIOCOMPATIBILITY, AND REGULATORY ACCEPTABILITY

Biodegradability

Biodegradable polymers undergo enzymatic or hydrolytic degradation into non-toxic metabolites that are eliminated via physiological pathways. The degradation rate influences drug release kinetics and duration of therapeutic action. Synthetic polyesters such as PLGA and PCL degrade via ester bond hydrolysis, while natural polymers are degraded enzymatically. Controlled biodegradation prevents long-term accumulation and reduces chronic toxicity risk.

Biocompatibility

Biocompatibility refers to the ability of a polymer to perform its intended function without eliciting adverse immune or inflammatory responses. Factors affecting biocompatibility include surface charge, degradation products, and molecular weight. Neutral or slightly negative surface charges typically exhibit better systemic tolerance, while excessive positive charge may induce cytotoxicity.

Regulatory Acceptability

Regulatory approval depends on established safety data, reproducibility, and compliance with Good Manufacturing Practices (GMP). Polymers with prior clinical use or inclusion in pharmacopeial monographs have higher translational feasibility. Synthetic polymers such as PLGA and PEG have extensive toxicological documentation, whereas novel polymers require comprehensive preclinical evaluation.

The fundamental properties of polymeric nanoparticles are governed by their structural architecture and polymer composition. The choice between nanosphere and nanocapsule design, as well as the selection of synthetic or natural polymers, directly influences degradation behavior, release kinetics, safety profile, and regulatory feasibility. A mechanistic understanding of these parameters is essential for route-specific optimization and successful clinical translation.

METHODS OF PREPARATION

The preparation technique selected for polymeric nanoparticles significantly influences their particle size, surface characteristics, drug loading capacity, release kinetics, and overall stability. The choice of method depends on polymer solubility, drug physicochemical properties, sensitivity to temperature or shear stress, scalability requirements, and the intended route of administration. Careful optimization of formulation and process variables is essential to achieve reproducible nanoparticle systems suitable for translational development.

Emulsion–Solvent Evaporation

The emulsion–solvent evaporation method is one of the most widely employed techniques for fabricating polymeric nanoparticles, particularly when using hydrophobic polymers such as Poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) and Polycaprolactone. In this method, the polymer and drug are dissolved in a volatile organic solvent to form an oil phase, which is then emulsified into an aqueous phase containing a stabilizer or surfactant. High-speed homogenization or ultrasonication reduces droplet size and promotes uniform dispersion. Upon continuous stirring or reduced-pressure evaporation, the organic solvent is removed, leading to polymer precipitation and formation of solid nanoparticles.

The final particle size is influenced by polymer concentration, emulsifier type and concentration, phase ratio, and homogenization speed. This method provides relatively good control over particle size distribution and drug entrapment efficiency for hydrophobic drugs. However, residual solvent removal must be carefully monitored to ensure safety and regulatory compliance. When encapsulating hydrophilic drugs, a modified double-emulsion approach is generally employed to minimize drug diffusion into the external aqueous phase.

Double Emulsion

The double emulsion technique, typically described as a water–oil–water system, is specifically designed for encapsulating hydrophilic drugs, peptides, proteins, or nucleic acids. In this approach, an aqueous drug solution is first emulsified into a polymer-containing organic phase to form a primary emulsion. This primary emulsion is subsequently dispersed into a second aqueous phase containing a stabilizer, generating a multiple emulsion system. Following solvent evaporation, nanoparticles with internal aqueous compartments are formed.

Drug retention in this system depends on osmotic balance between internal and external phases, polymer viscosity, and stabilizer concentration. Although the method is effective for entrapping water-soluble molecules, drug leakage during emulsification remains a challenge. Careful process optimization is required to maintain structural integrity and maximize entrapment efficiency.

Nanoprecipitation

Nanoprecipitation, also known as the solvent displacement method, is based on rapid mixing of a polymer solution with a non-solvent in which the polymer is insoluble. The polymer and drug are dissolved in a water-miscible organic solvent and

then added dropwise to an aqueous phase under moderate stirring. Immediate diffusion of the solvent into the aqueous phase induces supersaturation and spontaneous polymer precipitation, resulting in nanoparticle formation.

This method is relatively simple, does not require high shear energy, and typically produces nanoparticles with narrow size distribution. It is particularly suitable for hydrophobic drugs and for producing particles below 200 nm in diameter. However, the technique is limited to polymers that are soluble in water-miscible organic solvents and may not be ideal for highly hydrophilic drugs.

Ionic Gelation

Ionic gelation is primarily used for natural polymers such as Chitosan and alginate. This technique relies on electrostatic interactions between oppositely charged polymers and crosslinking agents. For example, positively charged chitosan can be crosslinked with negatively charged tripolyphosphate ions to form nanoparticles under mild aqueous conditions.

The absence of organic solvents and high temperatures makes this method particularly suitable for sensitive biomolecules. The process is relatively straightforward and energy-efficient. However, nanoparticles produced by ionic gelation may exhibit lower mechanical strength and limited long-term stability compared to synthetic polymer systems. Surface charge and crosslinking density strongly influence particle stability and drug release behavior.

Spray Drying

Spray drying is a scalable technique in which a polymer–drug solution or suspension is atomized into a heated chamber. Rapid solvent evaporation during atomization results in the formation of dry nanoparticulate powder. This method is advantageous for large-scale production and for converting nanoparticle suspensions into stable dry formulations.

Process parameters such as inlet temperature, feed rate, and atomization pressure significantly influence particle morphology and size distribution. While spray drying offers industrial feasibility, exposure to elevated temperatures may affect thermolabile drugs. Proper control of drying conditions is essential to preserve drug stability and ensure consistent product quality.

Microfluidics

Microfluidic technology enables controlled nanoparticle formation within microscale channels, allowing precise regulation of fluid mixing and flow rates. By manipulating laminar flow conditions, nanoparticles with highly uniform size distribution can be produced. This technique improves batch-to-batch reproducibility and minimizes human variability.

Although microfluidics offers significant advantages in precision and scalability potential, the requirement for specialized equipment and optimization of flow parameters may limit widespread implementation in conventional pharmaceutical manufacturing settings. Nonetheless, it represents a promising approach for future industrial translation.

Table 6: Comparative Overview of Preparation Methods

Method	Suitable Drug Type	Particle Size Control	Process Complexity	Scalability	Major Limitation
Emulsion–solvent evaporation	Hydrophobic	Good	Moderate	Moderate to High	Residual solvent risk
Double emulsion	Hydrophilic	Moderate	Higher	Moderate	Drug leakage
Nanoprecipitation	Hydrophobic	Excellent	Simple	Moderate	Solvent restrictions
Ionic gelation	Hydrophilic biomolecules	Moderate	Simple	Limited	Lower mechanical stability
Spray drying	Both	Moderate	Industrial	High	Heat exposure
Microfluidics	Both	Excellent	Advanced	Emerging	Equipment cost

Overall, the method of preparation directly determines nanoparticle architecture, drug encapsulation efficiency, release kinetics, and translational feasibility. Selection of an appropriate fabrication technique must align with the physicochemical properties of the drug and polymer, desired therapeutic profile, and regulatory considerations.

ROUTE-SPECIFIC DESIGN AND PERFORMANCE PARENTERAL DRUG DELIVERY

Parenteral administration offers direct access to systemic circulation, bypassing gastrointestinal degradation and hepatic first-pass metabolism. However, polymeric nanoparticles introduced into the bloodstream encounter complex biological barriers that significantly influence circulation time, biodistribution, cellular uptake, and therapeutic performance. Rational design of nanoparticle systems for parenteral delivery requires an in-depth understanding of systemic defense mechanisms and strategic surface engineering to enhance stability and targeting efficiency.

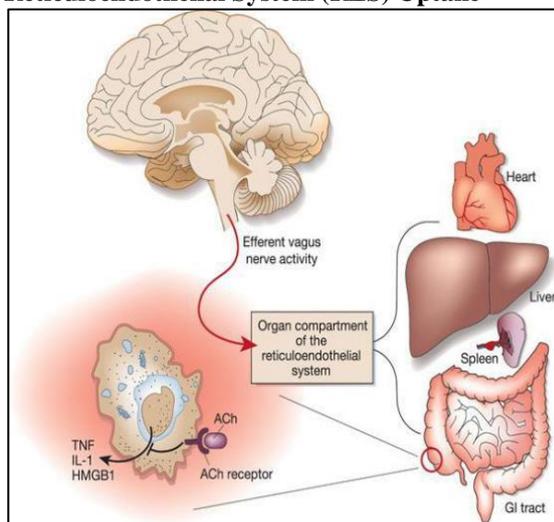
SYSTEMIC BARRIERS

Opsonization

Upon intravenous administration, nanoparticles are rapidly exposed to plasma proteins. Adsorption of opsonins such as immunoglobulins and complement proteins onto the nanoparticle surface marks them for recognition by phagocytic cells. This protein corona formation alters surface characteristics, potentially triggering immune activation and reducing circulation half-life.

The extent of opsonization depends on particle size, surface charge, hydrophobicity, and polymer composition. Hydrophobic and highly charged particles tend to adsorb more plasma proteins, leading to rapid clearance.

Reticuloendothelial System (RES) Uptake



The reticuloendothelial system (also referred to as the mononuclear phagocyte system) consists primarily of macrophages located in the liver (Kupffer cells), spleen, and bone marrow. These cells efficiently remove foreign particulates from circulation. Nanoparticles recognized by opsonins

are rapidly internalized by macrophages, leading to accumulation in hepatic and splenic tissues.

While this phenomenon limits systemic availability, it may be advantageous in diseases targeting macrophage-rich tissues. Nonetheless, for most therapeutic indications, minimizing RES uptake is essential to prolong circulation and improve target-site delivery.

Renal Clearance

Nanoparticles below a critical size threshold (typically $10\text{--}20\text{ nm}$) are susceptible to glomerular filtration and rapid elimination through the kidneys. Conversely, excessively large particles (>300–400 nm) are prone to splenic filtration. Therefore, maintaining an optimal particle size range (generally 50–200 nm) is crucial for achieving prolonged systemic retention.

Surface hydrophilicity and neutral charge also reduce nonspecific interactions that accelerate clearance.

Design Optimization

Effective parenteral nanoparticle design focuses on prolonging systemic circulation, enhancing site-specific accumulation, and ensuring controlled drug release.

PEGylation (Stealth Effect)

Surface modification with Polyethylene glycol creates a hydrophilic steric barrier around nanoparticles. This reduces protein adsorption and minimizes opsonization. PEG chains form a hydration shell that sterically hinders recognition by macrophages, thereby prolonging circulation half-life.

The density and molecular weight of PEG influence the effectiveness of the stealth effect. Optimized PEGylation improves pharmacokinetics and enhances passive targeting, particularly in tumor tissues exhibiting enhanced vascular permeability.

Targeted Ligands

Active targeting strategies involve conjugating ligands such as monoclonal antibodies, peptides, or small molecules onto the nanoparticle surface. These ligands bind to overexpressed receptors on specific cell types, facilitating receptor-mediated endocytosis.

Examples include:

- Antibodies targeting tumor-associated antigens
- Peptides recognizing integrins or growth factor receptors
- Sugar moieties targeting hepatic receptors

Surface functionalization must balance targeting efficiency with preservation of stealth

characteristics to prevent rapid immune recognition.

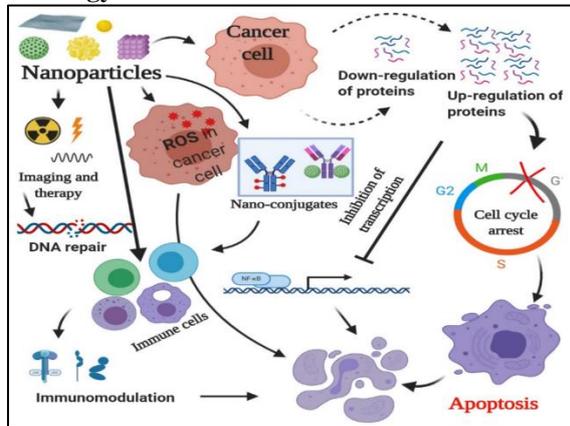
Controlled Degradation

Polymer degradation rate directly influences drug release kinetics and systemic exposure. Polymers such as Poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) degrade through hydrolysis into metabolizable by-products. By adjusting polymer molecular weight and composition, degradation can be modulated from days to months.

Controlled degradation ensures sustained therapeutic concentration while preventing sudden dose dumping. For depot injections, this property enables long-acting formulations that improve patient compliance.

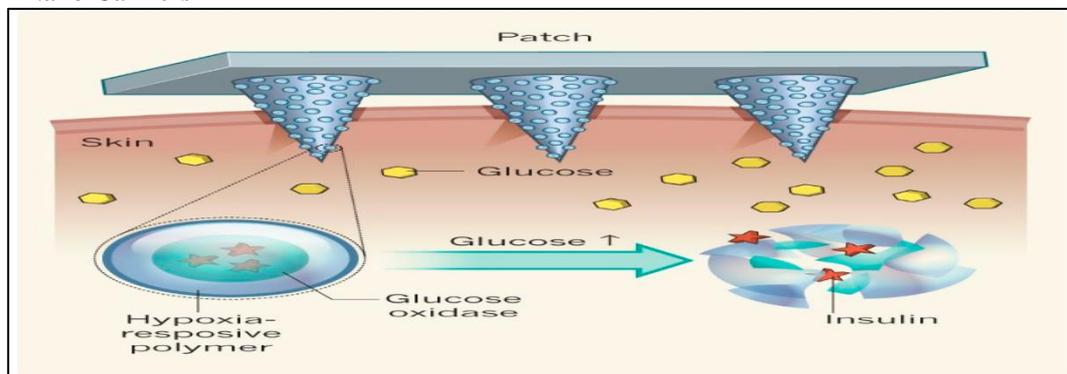
Applications

Oncology



Parenteral polymeric nanoparticles are extensively explored in oncology. Tumor vasculature often exhibits enhanced permeability, allowing nanoparticles within the optimal size range to accumulate passively in tumor tissue. This phenomenon improves local drug concentration while reducing systemic toxicity.

Insulin Nano-Carriers



Encapsulation of chemotherapeutic agents enables controlled release and reduced cardiotoxicity or myelosuppression compared to conventional formulations. Surface-targeted nanoparticles further enhance tumor cell uptake.

Vaccines

Nanoparticles serve as antigen carriers and adjuvant systems in vaccine delivery. Their particulate nature enhances uptake by antigen-presenting cells such as dendritic cells and macrophages. Controlled release of antigen improves immune stimulation and can reduce the need for booster doses.

Polymeric nanoparticles also protect antigenic proteins from premature degradation and can facilitate lymph node targeting.

Gene Delivery

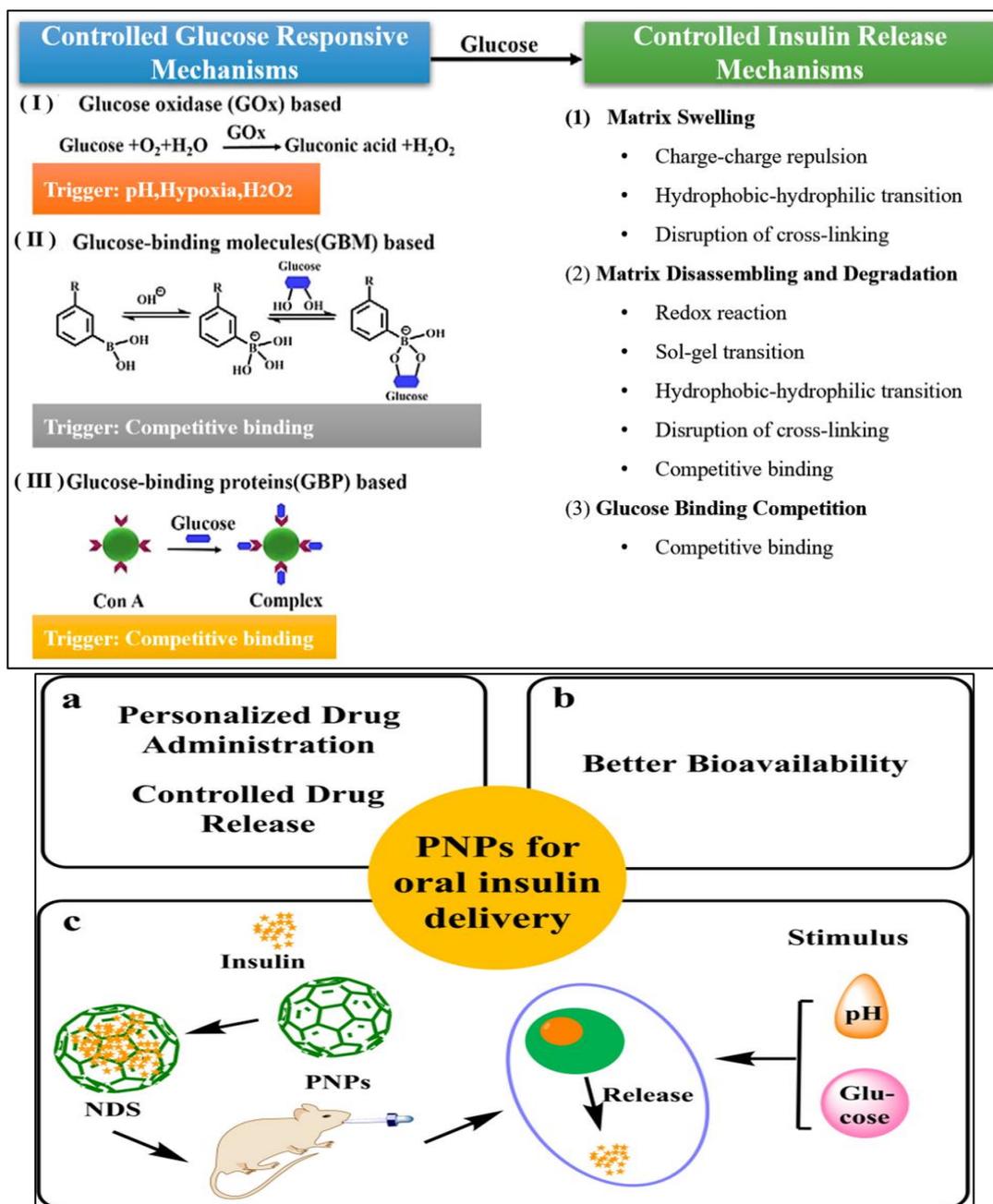
Polymeric nanoparticles are investigated for delivery of plasmid DNA, siRNA, and mRNA. Cationic polymers facilitate complexation with negatively charged nucleic acids, enabling cellular uptake and endosomal escape. Surface modifications improve transfection efficiency while minimizing cytotoxicity.

Controlled release and protection against enzymatic degradation are critical advantages in nucleic acid delivery systems.

Approved and Investigational Systems

Doxorubicin Nanoparticle Formulations

Doxorubicin has been formulated in nanoparticulate systems to reduce cardiotoxicity and enhance tumor targeting. Encapsulation modifies pharmacokinetics, prolongs circulation time, and reduces peak plasma concentrations responsible for adverse effects. Investigational polymeric systems aim to further improve tumor selectivity through active targeting mechanisms.



Insulin nano-carriers have been explored to achieve sustained release and improved glycemic control. Polymeric nanoparticles protect insulin from enzymatic degradation and allow controlled subcutaneous release, reducing injection frequency. Research continues toward optimizing stability, release consistency, and patient convenience.

Table 7: Comparative Summary of Parenteral Design Considerations

Design Parameter	Role in Performance	Desired Characteristic
Particle size	Influences circulation & tissue accumulation	50–200 nm
Surface charge	Affects protein adsorption	Neutral/slightly negative
PEGylation	Reduces opsonization	Optimal surface density
Ligand conjugation	Enhances active targeting	Stable and specific binding
Polymer degradation	Controls drug release	Predictable, sustained

Parenteral polymeric nanoparticle systems must overcome systemic immune barriers while maintaining structural stability and controlled drug release. Strategic surface engineering, optimal particle sizing, and controlled biodegradation are fundamental to achieving prolonged circulation, targeted delivery, and improved therapeutic index. Applications in oncology, vaccines, and gene therapy highlight the clinical relevance of this approach, though continued optimization is required to enhance translational success.

TRANSDERMAL DRUG DELIVERY

Transdermal drug delivery offers a non-invasive route capable of providing sustained systemic or localized therapeutic effects while avoiding gastrointestinal degradation and hepatic first-pass metabolism. However, the skin is an exceptionally efficient protective barrier. Polymeric nanoparticles are increasingly investigated to enhance dermal permeation, improve drug stability, and enable controlled release across or within skin layers. Successful design requires a detailed understanding of skin anatomy and barrier function, along with optimization of nanoparticle physicochemical characteristics.

Skin Barrier

Stratum Corneum Structure

The outermost layer of the skin, the stratum corneum, is the principal barrier to transdermal drug delivery. It consists of flattened, keratin-rich corneocytes embedded in a lipid matrix, commonly described as a “brick-and-mortar” arrangement. The corneocytes (bricks) provide structural rigidity, while the intercellular lipids (mortar) restrict molecular diffusion.

This layer is typically 10–20 μm thick but exhibits extremely low permeability to hydrophilic and high molecular weight compounds. Drug transport across the skin can occur through three primary pathways:

- Intercellular route (between lipid layers)
- Transcellular route (through corneocytes)
- Appendageal route (via hair follicles and sweat glands)

Nanoparticles predominantly utilize the intercellular and appendageal pathways, depending on their size and surface characteristics.

Lipid Matrix Barrier

The lipid matrix of the stratum corneum consists mainly of ceramides, cholesterol, and free fatty acids arranged in highly ordered lamellar structures. This organization creates a hydrophobic barrier that restricts penetration of polar molecules. The tight packing of lipid bilayers results in low diffusivity, especially for large or water-soluble drugs.

Polymeric nanoparticles must either transiently disrupt this lipid organization or exploit follicular pathways to achieve meaningful penetration. The barrier function varies depending on hydration level, anatomical site, and pathological condition, which must be considered during formulation design.

Strategies to Enhance Penetration

Effective transdermal nanoparticle systems are engineered to overcome the structural and biochemical resistance of the stratum corneum while maintaining skin integrity.

Size Optimization (<200 nm)

Particle size significantly influences dermal penetration. Nanoparticles below 200 nm exhibit improved ability to localize within hair follicles and diffuse into deeper epidermal layers. Smaller particles possess higher surface area and greater interaction with skin lipids, facilitating enhanced drug partitioning.

However, extremely small particles may risk systemic absorption beyond the intended level. Therefore, size must be carefully optimized according to therapeutic objectives, whether localized dermal therapy or systemic delivery.

Surface Modification

Surface characteristics such as charge and hydrophilicity determine interaction with skin components. Slightly positive or neutral nanoparticles demonstrate improved adhesion to negatively charged skin surfaces. Incorporation of penetration enhancers or lipid-compatible polymers increases affinity for the lipid matrix.

Hydrophilic coatings can improve dispersion stability, whereas hydrophobic surface properties may enhance lipid partitioning. Balancing these properties ensures sufficient penetration without causing irritation or barrier disruption.

Use with Microneedles

Microneedle-assisted delivery is an advanced strategy that physically bypasses the stratum corneum barrier. Arrays of microscopic needles create transient microchannels in the skin, allowing nanoparticle entry into viable epidermis or dermis without causing significant pain.

Polymeric nanoparticles can be administered through:

- Pre-formed microneedle-treated skin
- Coated microneedles
- Dissolving microneedle matrices containing nanoparticles

This approach dramatically enhances penetration efficiency and enables delivery of macromolecules and vaccines.

Hydration Enhancement

Hydration increases stratum corneum permeability by disrupting lipid packing and swelling corneocytes. Occlusive formulations and hydrogel-based nanoparticle systems promote localized hydration, facilitating enhanced diffusion.

Polymeric nanoparticles embedded within hydrogels can provide sustained drug release while maintaining a hydrated microenvironment. This dual mechanism enhances both penetration and therapeutic consistency.

Applications

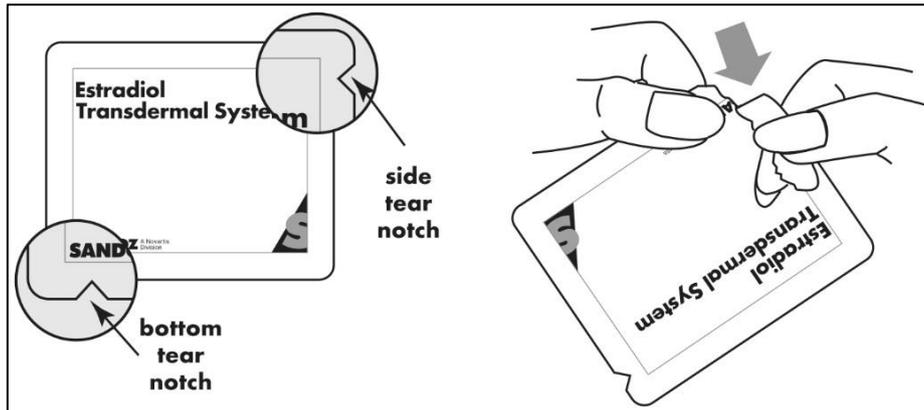
Anti-Inflammatory Drugs

Polymeric nanoparticles are widely investigated for delivering non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs

and corticosteroids for localized treatment of dermatitis, arthritis, and psoriasis. Encapsulation enhances drug retention within dermal layers, reduces systemic exposure, and minimizes gastrointestinal side effects commonly associated with oral administration.

Sustained release from nanoparticle-loaded gels ensures prolonged therapeutic action and improved patient adherence.

Hormones



Hormonal therapies, including estrogen and testosterone replacement, benefit from transdermal nanoparticle systems due to avoidance of first-pass metabolism and stable plasma concentration profiles. Nanoparticles improve solubilization of lipophilic hormones and enhance controlled release through skin layers.

This route offers improved compliance and reduced systemic fluctuations compared to oral formulations.

Vaccines

The skin contains abundant antigen-presenting cells such as Langerhans cells and dermal dendritic cells, making it an attractive site for immunization. Polymeric nanoparticles can encapsulate antigens and adjuvants, protecting them from degradation and enhancing uptake by immune cells.

When combined with microneedle systems, nanoparticle vaccines can induce strong immune responses with minimal invasiveness, offering promising alternatives to conventional injections.

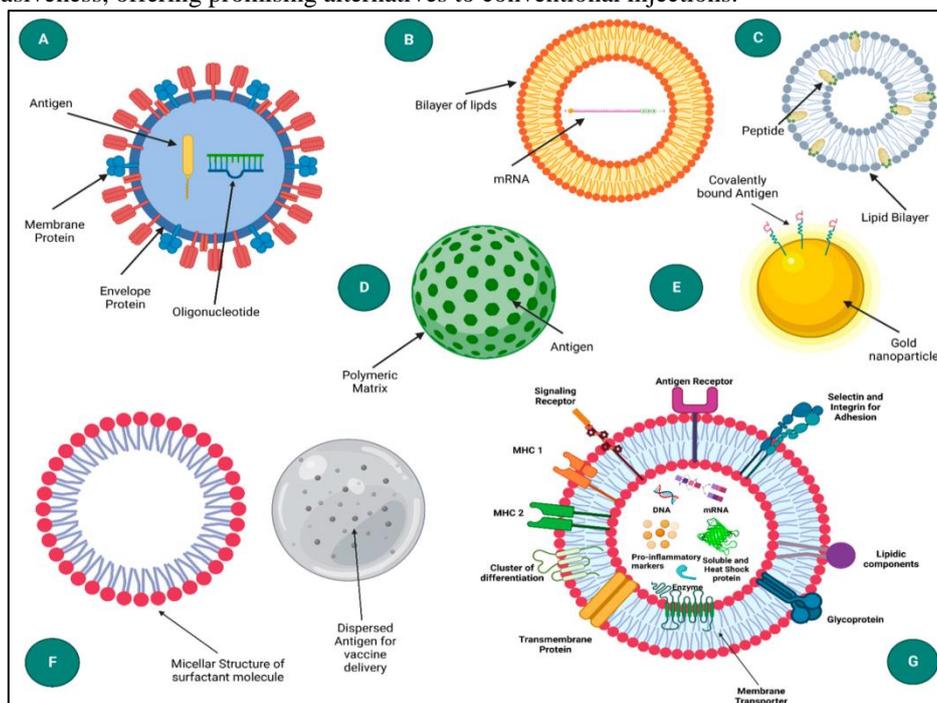


Table 8: Transdermal Design Considerations

Parameter	Role in Delivery	Desired Characteristic
Particle size	Influences follicular penetration	<200 nm
Surface charge	Affects adhesion to skin	Neutral to mildly positive
Hydration effect	Disrupts lipid packing	Controlled occlusion
Penetration strategy	Enhances barrier bypass	Microneedle-assisted when needed
Release profile	Maintains local/systemic effect	Sustained and predictable

Transdermal delivery of polymeric nanoparticles requires precise control over particle size, surface properties, and penetration-enhancing strategies to overcome the formidable barrier of the stratum corneum. Integration of physicochemical optimization with mechanical approaches such as microneedles has expanded the scope of this route beyond conventional small molecules to include hormones and vaccines, highlighting its growing clinical potential.

PERFORMANCE OPTIMIZATION STRATEGIES

The successful development of polymeric nanoparticle systems requires systematic optimization to ensure consistent quality, reproducibility, and predictable therapeutic performance. Because nanoparticle formulations are highly sensitive to variations in formulation composition and processing conditions, a structured scientific approach is essential. Performance optimization integrates quality-based development principles, statistical modeling, mechanistic evaluation of drug release, and long-term stability planning to ensure scalability and regulatory acceptance.

Quality by Design (QbD) Approach

Quality by Design is a scientific framework that emphasizes understanding formulation variables and process parameters during development rather than relying solely on final product testing. In nanoparticle formulation, the process begins with defining the Quality Target Product Profile (QTPP), which outlines the intended therapeutic objective, route of administration, dosage form, release characteristics, and stability requirements. Based on this profile, critical quality attributes (CQAs) are identified.

For polymeric nanoparticles, CQAs typically include particle size, poly-dispersity index, zeta potential, drug loading, entrapment efficiency, release profile, and residual solvent content. These attributes directly influence biological performance such as biodistribution, cellular uptake, and clearance. For parenteral formulations, sterility and endotoxin levels are additional essential quality attributes.

Critical process parameters (CPPs) are operational variables that significantly impact CQAs. Parameters such as polymer concentration, drug-to-polymer ratio, homogenization speed, organic-to-aqueous phase ratio, solvent evaporation rate, temperature, and mixing time can alter particle size and drug entrapment. Identifying and controlling CPPs through systematic experimentation minimizes batch-to-batch variability and ensures reproducibility during scale-up. By establishing a design space within which product quality remains consistent, QbD enhances regulatory confidence and manufacturing robustness.

Design of Experiments (DoE)

Design of Experiments is a statistical tool used to evaluate the combined influence of multiple formulation and process variables on nanoparticle characteristics. Unlike traditional one-variable-at-a-time approaches, DoE allows simultaneous investigation of interactions between variables and generation of predictive mathematical models.

In polymeric nanoparticle development, independent variables such as polymer concentration, surfactant level, stirring speed, or solvent ratio are systematically varied according to predefined experimental designs such as factorial, central composite, or Box–Behnken models. The resulting responses—particle size, entrapment efficiency, and release rate—are analyzed statistically to determine significance and interaction effects.

DoE enables identification of optimal formulation conditions with fewer experimental trials, reduces development time, and provides quantitative understanding of formulation behavior. The response surface plots generated through DoE help define a robust operating range that ensures consistent nanoparticle quality, thereby supporting QbD implementation.

In Vitro–In Vivo Correlation (IVIVC)

In vitro–in vivo correlation establishes a predictive relationship between laboratory release data and biological performance. For polymeric nanoparticles, drug release kinetics strongly influence plasma concentration profiles and therapeutic outcomes. Developing a meaningful IVIVC allows researchers to use *in vitro* data as a

surrogate for in vivo performance during formulation refinement.

The process involves conducting controlled in vitro release studies under physiologically relevant conditions and comparing the results with pharmacokinetic parameters obtained from in vivo studies. A strong correlation indicates that the release mechanism in vitro reflects actual absorption or systemic exposure patterns.

Achieving IVIVC is particularly important for sustained-release parenteral systems and controlled transdermal formulations, where degradation-controlled release governs therapeutic duration. Although complex biological variables may complicate correlation development, successful IVIVC reduces reliance on extensive animal or clinical studies during post-approval modifications and enhances regulatory acceptance.

Stability Enhancement

Polymeric nanoparticles are prone to aggregation, hydrolytic degradation, and drug leakage during storage. Stability optimization ensures maintenance of physicochemical integrity, therapeutic efficacy, and shelf life throughout the product lifecycle.

Lyophilization, or freeze-drying, is commonly employed to convert aqueous nanoparticle suspensions into dry powder form. The process involves freezing followed by sublimation of ice under reduced pressure, thereby removing water that could otherwise accelerate hydrolytic degradation. However, freezing stresses may induce aggregation or structural alteration.

To prevent instability during freezing and drying, cryoprotectants such as sugars or polyols are added prior to lyophilization. These agents form a protective matrix around nanoparticles, minimizing fusion and preserving particle size distribution upon reconstitution. Optimization of cryoprotectant type and concentration is critical to ensure efficient redispersion and retention of release characteristics.

Long-term storage studies are conducted under controlled temperature and humidity conditions to evaluate changes in particle size, zeta potential, drug content, and release profile over time. For parenteral systems, sterility and absence of microbial contamination must also be maintained. Appropriate packaging materials may be required to protect formulations from moisture, light, and oxidation.

Overall, performance optimization of polymeric nanoparticles requires integration of structured quality frameworks, statistical design methodologies, mechanistic release evaluation, and robust stability planning. These strategies

collectively enhance reproducibility, facilitate scale-up, and improve the likelihood of successful clinical translation.

CONCLUSION:

Polymeric nanoparticles constitute a highly adaptable and performance-driven drug delivery platform capable of addressing the multifactorial limitations of conventional dosage forms. Their classification into matrix-based nanospheres and reservoir-type nanocapsules enables structural customization according to therapeutic objectives. Selection of appropriate synthetic or natural polymers governs degradation kinetics, biocompatibility, and regulatory feasibility.

Route-specific optimization is essential for achieving desired clinical outcomes. In parenteral delivery, overcoming opsonization, reticuloendothelial system uptake, and renal clearance requires strategic surface engineering and controlled degradation. For transdermal systems, overcoming the structural resistance of the stratum corneum demands particle size optimization, surface modification, and integration with microneedle technologies. Oral applications require protection against gastrointestinal degradation and enhancement of mucosal permeation.

Implementation of Quality by Design principles, supported by Design of Experiments and robust identification of critical quality attributes and process parameters, ensures reproducible and scalable formulation development. Establishing meaningful in vitro–in vivo correlations strengthens predictive capability and supports regulatory approval pathways. Stability enhancement through lyophilization and optimized storage conditions further contributes to product viability.

Although significant progress has been achieved, challenges related to large-scale manufacturing, immune interactions, and long-term safety evaluation continue to influence translational success. Future research must focus on refining surface engineering strategies, improving predictive modeling of biological interactions, and harmonizing regulatory standards. With continued multidisciplinary collaboration, polymeric nanoparticle systems are positioned to play a central role in next-generation therapeutic delivery across multiple routes of administration.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST:

None

REFERENCES:

1. Kreuter J. Nanoparticles—A historical perspective. *Int J Pharm.* 2007;331(1):1–10.

2. Couvreur P, Vauthier C. Nanotechnology: Intelligent design to treat complex disease. *Pharm Res.* 2006;23(7):1417–50.
3. Alexis F, Pridgen E, Molnar LK, Farokhzad OC. Factors affecting the clearance and biodistribution of polymeric nanoparticles. *Mol Pharm.* 2008;5(4):505–15.
4. Soppimath KS, Aminabhavi TM, Kulkarni AR, Rudzinski WE. Biodegradable polymeric nanoparticles as drug delivery devices. *J Control Release.* 2001;70(1–2):1–20.
5. Danhier F, Ansorena E, Silva JM, Coco R, Le Breton A, Préat V. PLGA-based nanoparticles: An overview of biomedical applications. *J Control Release.* 2012;161(2):505–22.
6. Bala I, Hariharan S, Kumar MN. PLGA nanoparticles in drug delivery: The state of the art. *Crit Rev Ther Drug Carrier Syst.* 2004;21(5):387–422.
7. Makadia HK, Siegel SJ. Poly lactic-co-glycolic acid (PLGA) as biodegradable controlled drug delivery carrier. *Polymers.* 2011;3(3):1377–97.
8. Panyam J, Labhasetwar V. Biodegradable nanoparticles for drug and gene delivery to cells and tissue. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2003;55(3):329–47.
9. des Rieux A, Fievez V, Garinot M, Schneider YJ, Préat V. Nanoparticles as potential oral delivery systems of proteins and vaccines. *J Control Release.* 2006;116(1):1–27.
10. Mohanraj VJ, Chen Y. Nanoparticles—A review. *Trop J Pharm Res.* 2006;5(1):561–73.
11. Torchilin VP. Multifunctional and stimuli-sensitive pharmaceutical nanocarriers. *Eur J Pharm Biopharm.* 2009;71(3):431–44.
12. Owens DE, Peppas NA. Opsonization, biodistribution, and pharmacokinetics of polymeric nanoparticles. *Int J Pharm.* 2006;307(1):93–102.
13. Gref R, Minamitake Y, Peracchia MT, Trubetskoy V, Torchilin V, Langer R. Biodegradable long-circulating polymeric nanospheres. *Science.* 1994;263(5153):1600–3.
14. Peer D, Karp JM, Hong S, Farokhzad OC, Margalit R, Langer R. Nanocarriers as emerging platforms for cancer therapy. *Nat Nanotechnol.* 2007;2(12):751–60.
15. Kumari A, Yadav SK, Yadav SC. Biodegradable polymeric nanoparticles-based drug delivery systems. *Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces.* 2010;75(1):1–18.
16. Vauthier C, Bouchemal K. Methods for the preparation and manufacture of polymeric nanoparticles. *Pharm Res.* 2009;26(5):1025–58.
17. Fessi H, Puisieux F, Devissaguet JP, Ammoury N, Benita S. Nanocapsule formation by interfacial deposition. *Int J Pharm.* 1989;55:R1–R4.
18. Quintanar-Guerrero D, Allémann E, Doelker E, Fessi H. Preparation techniques and mechanisms of formation of biodegradable nanoparticles. *Drug Dev Ind Pharm.* 1998;24(12):1113–28.
19. Mora-Huertas CE, Fessi H, Elaissari A. Polymer-based nanocapsules for drug delivery. *Int J Pharm.* 2010;385(1–2):113–42.
20. Hans ML, Lowman AM. Biodegradable nanoparticles for drug delivery. *Curr Opin Solid State Mater Sci.* 2002;6(4):319–27.
21. Shaji J, Shaikh M. Polymeric nanoparticles: A review. *Indian J Pharm Sci.* 2011;73(5):469–77.
22. Liechty WB, Kryscio DR, Slaughter BV, Peppas NA. Polymers for drug delivery systems. *Annu Rev Chem Biomol Eng.* 2010;1:149–73.
23. Kwon GS, Kataoka K. Block copolymer micelles as long-circulating drug vehicles. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2012;64:237–45.
24. Duncan R. Polymer conjugates as anticancer nanomedicines. *Nat Rev Cancer.* 2006;6(9):688–701.
25. Moghimi SM, Hunter AC, Murray JC. Long-circulating and target-specific nanoparticles. *Pharmacol Rev.* 2001;53(2):283–318.
26. Fang J, Nakamura H, Maeda H. The EPR effect in tumor targeting. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2011;63(3):136–51.
27. Bobo D, Robinson KJ, Islam J, Thurecht KJ, Corrie SR. Nanoparticle-based medicines. *Pharm Res.* 2016;33(10):2373–87.
28. Blanco E, Shen H, Ferrari M. Principles of nanoparticle design for drug delivery. *Nat Biotechnol.* 2015;33(9):941–51.
29. Ventola CL. Progress in nanomedicine. *P T.* 2017;42(12):742–55.
30. Kamaly N, Yameen B, Wu J, Farokhzad OC. Degradable controlled-release polymers and polymeric nanoparticles. *Chem Rev.* 2016;116(4):2602–63.
31. Torchilin VP. Targeted pharmaceutical nanocarriers. *Mol Pharm.* 2008;5(4):505–15.
32. Allen TM, Cullis PR. Liposomal drug delivery systems. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2013;65(1):36–48.
33. Jain KK. Nanomedicine: Application of nanobiotechnology in medical practice. *Med Princ Pract.* 2008;17(2):89–101.
34. Reddy LH, Couvreur P. Nanotechnology for therapy and imaging. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2012;64:117–8.
35. des Rieux A, Ragnarsson EG, Gullberg E, Préat V, Schneider YJ, Artursson P. Transport of nanoparticles across intestinal epithelium. *Eur J Pharm Sci.* 2005;25(4–5):455–65.
36. Ensign LM, Cone R, Hanes J. Oral drug delivery with polymeric nanoparticles. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2012;64(6):557–70.

37. Florence AT. The oral absorption of micro- and nanoparticulates. *Int J Pharm.* 1997;150(1):1-4.
38. Patel A, Cholkar K, Agrahari V, Mitra AK. Ocular drug delivery systems. *J Ocul Pharmacol Ther.* 2013;29(2):106-23.
39. Prausnitz MR, Langer R. Transdermal drug delivery. *Nat Biotechnol.* 2008;26(11):1261-8.
40. Ita K. Transdermal delivery of drugs with microneedles. *J Pharm Pharmacol.* 2015;67(7):964-77.
41. Barry BW. Drug delivery routes in skin. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2002;54:S31-S40.
42. Benson HA. Transdermal drug delivery. *Curr Drug Deliv.* 2005;2(1):23-33.
43. Bouwstra JA, Honeywell-Nguyen PL. Skin structure and mode of action. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2002;54:S41-S55.
44. Kim YC, Park JH, Prausnitz MR. Microneedles for drug and vaccine delivery. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2012;64(14):1547-68.
45. Shakweh M, Besnard M, Nicolas V, Fattal E. Polymeric nanoparticles for oral vaccine delivery. *Int J Pharm.* 2005;297(1-2):132-43.
46. Zhao L, Seth A, Wibowo N, et al. Nanoparticle vaccines. *Vaccine.* 2014;32(3):327-37.
47. Mintzer MA, Simanek EE. Nonviral vectors for gene delivery. *Chem Rev.* 2009;109(2):259-302.
48. Pack DW, Hoffman AS, Pun S, Stayton PS. Design of polymers for gene delivery. *Nat Rev Drug Discov.* 2005;4(7):581-93.
49. Koo H, Huh MS, Sun IC, et al. In vivo targeted delivery of nanoparticles. *Nano Today.* 2011;6(2):204-20.
50. Nair LS, Laurencin CT. Biodegradable polymers as biomaterials. *Prog Polym Sci.* 2007;32(8-9):762-98.
51. Anderson JM, Shive MS. Biodegradation and biocompatibility of PLA and PLGA microspheres. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2012;64:72-82.
52. Muthu MS, Singh S. Targeted nanomedicines. *Nanomedicine.* 2009;4(3):249-57.
53. Langer R. Drug delivery and targeting. *Nature.* 1998;392:5-10.
54. Wang AZ, Langer R, Farokhzad OC. Nanoparticle delivery of cancer drugs. *Annu Rev Med.* 2012;63:185-98.
55. Jain S, Hirst DG, O'Sullivan JM. Gold nanoparticles as radiosensitizers. *Br J Radiol.* 2012;85(1010):101-13.
56. Yallapu MM, Jaggi M, Chauhan SC. Polymeric nanoparticles for cancer therapy. *J Nanobiotechnology.* 2010;8:9.
57. Brigger I, Dubernet C, Couvreur P. Nanoparticles in cancer therapy. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2012;64:24-36.
58. Farokhzad OC, Langer R. Impact of nanotechnology on drug delivery. *ACS Nano.* 2009;3(1):16-20.
59. ICH Harmonised Guideline Q8(R2): Pharmaceutical Development. International Council for Harmonisation; 2009.
60. ICH Harmonised Guideline Q9: Quality Risk Management. ICH; 2005.
61. Montgomery DC. Design and analysis of experiments. 8th ed. New York: Wiley; 2013.
62. Singh B, Kumar R, Ahuja N. Optimizing drug delivery systems using DoE. *Crit Rev Ther Drug Carrier Syst.* 2005;22(2):105-42.
63. Dressman JB, Reppas C. In vitro-in vivo correlations. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2000;46(1-3):33-45.
64. Costa P, Sousa Lobo JM. Modeling and comparison of dissolution profiles. *Eur J Pharm Sci.* 2001;13(2):123-33.
65. Abdelwahed W, Degobert G, Stainmesse S, Fessi H. Freeze-drying of nanoparticles. *Int J Pharm.* 2006;324(1):74-83.
66. Wang W. Lyophilization and development of solid protein pharmaceuticals. *Int J Pharm.* 2000;203(1-2):1-60.
67. Crowe JH, Carpenter JF, Crowe LM. Stabilization of dry phospholipid bilayers and proteins. *Annu Rev Physiol.* 1998;60:73-103.
68. Maa YF, Hsu CC. Freeze-drying of pharmaceutical proteins. *Biotechnol Bioeng.* 1999;64(6):742-50.
69. FDA. Guidance for Industry: Considering Whether an FDA-Regulated Product Involves Nanotechnology. 2014.
70. EMA. Reflection paper on nanotechnology-based medicinal products. EMA; 2011.
71. Ventola CL. The nanomedicine revolution. *P T.* 2012;37(9):512-25.
72. Shi J, Kantoff PW, Wooster R, Farokhzad OC. Cancer nanomedicine. *Nat Rev Cancer.* 2017;17(1):20-37.
73. Kamaly N, Xiao Z, Valencia PM, Radovic-Moreno AF, Farokhzad OC. Targeted polymeric therapeutics. *Chem Soc Rev.* 2012;41(7):2971-3010.
74. Tiwari G, Tiwari R, Sriwastawa B, et al. Drug delivery systems. *Int J Pharm Investig.* 2012;2(1):2-11.
75. Yoo JW, Doshi N, Mitragotri S. Adaptive micro and nanoparticles. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2011;63(14-15):1247-56.
76. Letchford K, Burt H. A review of PEG-PLA block copolymer nanoparticles. *Eur J Pharm Biopharm.* 2007;65(3):259-69.
77. Mu L, Feng SS. Fabrication of biodegradable polymeric nanoparticles. *J Control Release.* 2003;86(1):33-48.
78. Wang Y, Li P, Truong-Dinh Tran T, Zhang J, Kong L. Manufacturing techniques of

- polymeric nanoparticles. *Int J Pharm.* 2016;515(1-2):35-48.
79. Batzri S, Korn ED. Single emulsion method for nanoparticle preparation. *Biochim Biophys Acta.* 1973;298:1015-9.
80. Couvreur P, Barratt G, Fattal E, Legrand P, Vauthier C. Nanocapsule technology. *Crit Rev Ther Drug Carrier Syst.* 2002;19(2):99-134.