




# Transferosomes: Advanced nanocarriers for enhanced drug delivery

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Received: 3 July 2024 / Revised: 19 October 2024 / Accepted: 22 October 2024

**ABSTRACT:** Transferosomes represent a groundbreaking advancement in drug delivery systems, characterized by their unique ability to encapsulate a diverse range of drugs, including hydrophilic, lipophilic, and amphiphilic compounds. These vesicles offer benefits such as biocompatibility, biodegradability, enhanced drug stability, improved absorption, extended duration of action, and reduced toxicity. This review critically examines recent advancements in transferosome technology, focusing on innovative formulation strategies and their therapeutic applications, such as enhanced drug delivery, vaccines, transdermal and ocular applications, among others. By synthesizing insights from current literature, this article aims to provide valuable guidance for researchers, clinicians, and pharmaceutical developers seeking to harness the full potential of transferosome-based therapies for improved medical outcomes.

**KEYWORDS:** Transferosomes; Drug absorption; controlled drug release; therapeutic efficacy.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The advancement in the drug delivery systems and its development was not much in earlier times but from the 1980s, 3D printing has emerged as the most futuristic technology in pharmaceutical sciences. This has precipitated the development of several drug delivery systems for instance the tablet, capsule, implant, and transdermal delivery systems [1]. These technologies have improved patient care as the forms of treatment have evolved from the conventional molecules targeted delivery of therapy and reduction of off-target side effects due to the new therapeutic agents such as nucleic acids, peptides, proteins and antibodies [2]. New accomplishments in drug delivery systems have created a way for some significant drugs like the injectable biodegradable polymeric microspheres for different diseases, and nanoparticle formulation to enhance the therapeutic effect of drugs in different diseases [3]. These changes that take place in drug modalities indicate the growth of the role of pharmaceutical delivery researchers in the formulation of new drugs and overcoming of problems in the pharmaceuticals and biotechnology fields [4].

The use of nanoparticle vehicles to increase the range of drug delivery activities has become more popular during the last 20 years. Lately, nanoparticles (NPs) have high impact in varied uses in biological, pharmaceutical, and medical fields [5]. NPs have small size (barely touching the 100 nm range) and extensive surface area which acts as key advantages for becoming ideal solutions for various applications and helping them overcoming problems of conventional medications, albeit partially. Medications involving minute lipophilic and hydrophilic pharmaceuticals, vaccinations, and biological molecules can be controlled by using these NPs [6]. Liposomes are mainly composed of lipids and are spherical membrane vesicles. Lipid nanoparticles that may or may not have an encapsulated bilayer, contain therapeutics. Most of those with clinical authorization fall within the 50–300 nm size range [7]. Some disadvantages of conventional liposomes include short half-life, inability to effectively penetrate live skin and blood circulation, instability of the membrane that allows medication to ooze out, and poor ability to encapsulate hydrophilic medications [8-12]. Transferosomes are highly flexible liposomes that have been studied extensively for their potential of encapsulating hydrophilic, lipophilic, and amphiphilic drugs which has provided greater absorption and stability [13]. In addition to their inherent qualities of being biocompatible, biodegradable, and capable of

**How to cite this article:** Nair SS, Sanap DP, Jadhav KR. Transferosomes: Advanced nanocarriers for enhanced drug delivery . J Res Pharm. 2025; 29(5): 1978-1993.

protecting medications from deterioration, they also help increase the bioavailability of drugs, prolong the drug circulation time period, which prolongs its action, and reduce the toxicity of drugs when administered [14].

This review seeks to provide an extensive and critical evaluation of the recent developments and issues in the design and use of transferosomes. It will briefly discuss the current advancements in their synthesis and properties, and assess the effectiveness of their use in treating diseases in different fields. The review will also describe potential future research trends and approaches to addressing current problems such as the integration of hybrid systems and the application of new technologies. In offering these insights, the review aims at assisting researchers, clinicians, and industries involved in the development of transferosome-based therapeutic systems.

## 2. COMPOSITION AND STRUCTURE OF TRANSFEROSOMES

Transferosomes are formed through phospholipids, edge activators, solvents and buffering agents. The basic composition usually consists of phosphatidylcholine as the major phospholipid which offers protection to the structure and an edge activator that makes the membrane of the vesicle more flexible so that efficient delivery of the drug can be made [15-17]. The edge activator is quite vital in the deformability of transferosomes, to facilitate their penetration into the skin or other barriers [18, 19]. Other ingredients such as surfactants of sodium cholate, tween 80™, stearyl amine etc can also be included to modify the characteristics of the transferosomes including particle size, zeta potential and permeation. The components and their functions are as follows-

### 2.1 Phospholipids

Phospholipids play crucial roles in transferosomes, facilitating various biological functions. Research has shown that phospholipids are rapidly trafficked between the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and peroxisomes, indicating a direct non-vesicular pathway for lipid transfer [20]. Additionally, phospholipids are essential components of liposomes, influencing the stimulation of ATPase activity and mitochondrial protein biogenesis [21, 22]. Furthermore, phosphatidylcholine (PC), a type of phospholipid, is synthesized in organisms like *Yarrowia lipolytica* and has been successfully enhanced through genetic modifications for potential use in lipid replacement therapy and other applications [23]. The involvement of phospholipids in these processes highlights their significance in the functionality and structure of transferosomes, emphasizing their importance in cellular activities and potential therapeutic applications. Furthermore, cationic phospholipids have also been used in gene transfer experiments and have been found to have relatively higher efficiency in vitro [24]. Phospholipids possess favourable characteristics like biocompatibility and effectiveness in improving the bioavailability of the drugs, thus making them suitable for use in transferosome formulations for enhancing drug assimilation, controlled release and encapsulation of the active ingredients.

### 2.2 Edge activators

These edge activators are a part of the transferosomal system and improve the drug delivery system through the skin. The most frequently employed surfactants include sodium cholate, sodium deoxycholate, tween 80™, span 80™, and bile salts intercalate between phospholipids and alter the bilayer structure, resulting in increased membrane flexibility and usability. This makes the transferosomes able to change conformation and hence pass through the close spaces between the keratinocytes of the stratum corneum, having improved skin permeability. Besides enhancing deformability, edge activators are also useful in preventing vesicle leakage during skin passage, controlling the values of a hydrophilic-lipophilic balance of the vesicle carriers and extending the type of drugs that can be encapsulated. They also help to control the loading and the release of the drug and therefore offer a controlled and sustained mechanism of releasing the drug. Further, edge activators avoid the formation of vesicles clusters through steric or electrostatic barrier that is essential in maintaining a uniform distribution of transferosomes, thus supporting the delivery efficiency and stability. In other words, the use of edge activators remains crucial for increasing the efficiency of transferosomes in relation to the transdermal drug delivery system [25-27].

### 2.3 Solvents

The choice of solvent and the type and concentration of the solvent used in preparing transferosomes significantly affect the formulation and characteristics of transferosomes. Various studies have revealed that the selection of solvent can influence the liposomes and transferosomes depending on properties such as size,

stability and release profile [28]. Moreover, fabrication of nanoscale vesicles in polar organic solvents such as glycerol, formamide or ethylene glycol has also been described, evidencing that solvent systems are effective in forming lipid-based structures with unusual characteristics. Such aspects require a proper understanding of the solvents effects on transferosomes for the actual application in drug delivery system, importance of solvent selection for improvements in the transdermal systems [17, 29, 30].

## 2.4 Buffering agents

The formulation of transferosomes which are lipid-based vesicles used in drug delivery require the incorporation of buffering agents. It has been observed that 2-(4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazinyl)-ethanesulfonic acid (HEPES), 2-(N-morpholino) ethanesulfonic acid (MES), monosodium phosphate, saline sodium citrate, tromethamine and others can interfere with lipid bilayers and affect the hydration of interfaces for example Muscovite mica and silica-supported lipid bilayers [31]. Such agents can cause structural changes and formation of protein aggregates at soft interfaces, affecting the efficiency of transferosomes. Further, while using buffering agents together with salt, it can be easier to wash out the former from the interface [32]. It is important to consider the behaviour of buffering agents and lipid membranes to maximize transferosome properties for their use in drug delivery systems. Table 1 mentions various additives, characterization techniques and analytical instruments related transferosome technology.

**Table 1.** Summary of various additives, characterization techniques and analytical instruments.

Aspect	Details
Additives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b>Phospholipids:</b> Essential structural component of transferosomes forming the bilayer (e.g., phosphatidylcholine, phosphatidylserine). They enhance biocompatibility and flexibility.</li> <li>- <b>Edge Activators:</b> Surfactants that impart deformability to transferosomes, enabling them to squeeze through tight intercellular spaces (e.g., Tween 80, Span 80, sodium cholate).</li> <li>- <b>Cholesterol:</b> Provides stability to the lipid bilayer by regulating membrane fluidity and reducing leakage of the drug.</li> <li>- <b>Hydration Media:</b> Typically, an aqueous buffer such as phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) or distilled water to hydrate the lipid film and form vesicles.</li> <li>- <b>Cryoprotectants:</b> Added during freeze-drying to stabilize vesicles for long-term storage (e.g., trehalose, mannitol).</li> <li>- <b>Organic Solvents:</b> Used in lipid film preparation (e.g., chloroform, methanol) to dissolve lipids before forming a thin film.</li> <li>- <b>Drugs/Active Compounds:</b> Hydrophilic or lipophilic drugs can be loaded within the aqueous core or lipid bilayer of transferosomes, respectively.</li> </ul>
Characterization Techniques	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b>Vesicle Size and Polydispersity Index (PDI):</b> Transferosomes are typically in the nanometre range (50-300 nm), and size distribution is measured to ensure uniformity and predictability in drug delivery. A low PDI indicates a more uniform size distribution, which is critical for reproducibility.</li> <li>- <b>Entrapment Efficiency (EE%):</b> Determines how much of the drug is successfully encapsulated within the transferosomes. A high EE% is essential for therapeutic effectiveness and reducing wastage of active ingredients.</li> <li>- <b>Zeta Potential:</b> Measures the surface charge of transferosomes, providing insight into the stability of the vesicles in suspension. A zeta potential value above <math>\pm 30</math> mV typically indicates good colloidal stability.</li> <li>- <b>Morphological Analysis:</b> Transferosome shape, surface characteristics, and vesicle integrity are assessed using high-resolution imaging techniques. This analysis helps confirm proper formation and structural integrity of the vesicles.</li> <li>- <b>In-vitro Drug Release:</b> Determines the release profile of the drug from the transferosomes over time under physiological conditions, providing insights into the controlled release potential.</li> <li>- <b>Deformability Index:</b> Measures the ability of transferosomes to pass through narrow pores, mimicking their passage through the stratum corneum in the skin. A higher deformability index implies better skin penetration potential.</li> </ul>

## Analytical Instrumentation

- **Stability Testing:** Long-term stability studies are performed under different temperature and humidity conditions to assess vesicle integrity, drug leakage, and physical stability over time.
- **FTIR Studies:** Examines chemical interactions between the drug and lipid components to ensure no adverse interactions that could affect drug efficacy or vesicle formation.
- **Thermal Analysis:** Evaluates the thermal stability of the lipid bilayer and drug, providing information on phase transitions and the potential for drug degradation under heat stress.
- **Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS):** Used for measuring the size, size distribution (PDI), and zeta potential of transferosomes, offering insights into colloidal stability and uniformity.
- **Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM):** Provides detailed images at the nanoscale, allowing for visualization of transferosome morphology, size, and internal structure. TEM is ideal for confirming the formation of spherical vesicles.
- **Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM):** Analyses the surface morphology and texture of transferosomes, providing complementary data to TEM.
- **Cryo-Electron Microscopy (Cryo-EM):** Allows the visualization of transferosomes in a hydrated, frozen state, preserving their native structure. It provides high-resolution images without the artifacts seen in traditional EM.
- **UV-Visible Spectroscopy:** Measures the drug entrapment efficiency by analysing the absorbance of the drug either in solution or encapsulated within the transferosomes.
- **Fluorescence Spectroscopy:** Used when drugs or markers exhibit fluorescence, allowing for quantification of drug loading and release. Fluorescent probes can also be used to study vesicle dynamics.
- **High-Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC):** Quantifies the amount of drug encapsulated in transferosomes and evaluates drug release profiles over time, ensuring consistent therapeutic delivery.
- **Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR):** Detects chemical interactions between the drug and lipid components, ensuring drug stability and compatibility with excipients. It also helps identify specific functional groups.
- **Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC):** Studies the thermal transitions of lipid bilayers and encapsulated drugs. It helps evaluate the crystallinity or amorphous nature of the drug, indicating phase transitions or degradation under temperature variations.
- **X-Ray Diffraction (XRD):** Analyses the crystalline or amorphous nature of the encapsulated drug, helping in the determination of the physical state of the drug within the transferosomes.
- **Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM):** Provides nanoscale surface topography and mechanical properties of transferosomes, helping analyse vesicle roughness and stiffness.
- **Deformability Tester:** A specialized device used to assess the ability of transferosomes to pass through pores mimicking the stratum corneum, offering a measure of their deformability index.
- **In-vitro Release Apparatus:** Franz diffusion cells and other dissolution apparatuses are used to study the release kinetics of drugs from transferosomes under physiological conditions, mimicking drug release in skin or systemic circulation.

## 2.5 Mode of action

The mode of action of transferosomes is in their ability to transdermally deliver the drugs to the tissues. When transferosomes are topically administered, they interact with skin's outermost layer known as the stratum corneum. It's postulated that the specific configuration of lipids in the stratum corneum, including edge activators like surfactants, may lead to the disruption of the transferosomes and their fusion with the lipids. Due to flexible and elastic nature of the transferosomes they can pass through the tight spaces between



the stratum corneum cells. Since the carrier vesicles are in the form of transferosomes, the preparation is capable of penetrating the skin barrier and reach the dermis layers. After the transferosomes have reached the mid dermis and lower dermis, they can deliver the encapsulated medicine by various mechanisms. This entails diffusion of the drug through the lipid bilayer of the transferosomes, release of the drug in the intercellular spaces and finally dissolution or destruction of the transferosomes membrane with that of the target cell. In addition, the electrostatic attraction between the skin surface and the transferosomes also leads to the improvement of the transferosomes' adhesion and drug penetration [33-36].

## 2.6 Pathway

Transferosomes can transport substances in the dermis through intracellular and transcellular routes [37, 38]. The phospholipid and edge activator-containing vesicles build up an osmotic gradient at the stratum corneum, which permits the vesicles to penetrate through the skin intercellularly [39]. By the intracellular route, greater concentrations of active substances are delivered successfully to deeper, intact skin after the topical application of drugs [40]. Transferosomes are preferable for transdermal drug delivery systems due to their bi-phasic transport capability for the range of drug molecules of different solubilities [41].

## 2.7 Drug release mechanism

Transferosomes are one of the types of controlled drug release carriers and were created with specific reference to transdermal drug delivery [42]. Because they are flexible vesicles, the drug is better delivered through the skin because they can fit through pores that are smaller than their diameters [43]. The release mechanism of transferred drugs in transferosomes is controlled through the disruption of the lipid bilayer membrane. This destabilization can result from changes in pH, activity or inhibition of enzymes, redox reactions or external signals such as light [44]. Through the use of stimuli-sensitive properties in the transferosomes, the drug release is made to occur at the desired site, hence, increasing drug delivery effectiveness with the least side effects to the rest body system [45].

## 2.8 Release profile studies

Studies using profile release in transferosomes have been evaluated comprehensively in numerous research studies. For example, research on transferosomes containing cyclosporine, showed that the drug release rate was characterized by the first-order kinetics on the first day with subsequent flattening in the next week and the flux of 0.78 mcg/cm<sup>2</sup>/h for the preferred tween®-based formulation [46]. In the same manner, studies conducted on lidocaine transferred by transferosomes demonstrated that it exhibited a discharge profile of 24 hours, along with the entrapment effectiveness ranging from 44 - 56 % depending on formulation factors [47]. Additionally, a few studies on berberine and curcumin transferosomes also demonstrated the sustained release of both the drugs and also lower level of haemolysis percentage than that of the free drugs, thus confirming the safety of the payload from transferosome vesicles [48]. Taken as a whole, all these findings indicate the potential of transferring for being used as a model system of sustained drug delivery systems and shows the versatility and utility of transferosomes in various therapeutic disciplines.

## 2.9 Skin penetration studies

Skin penetration research associated with transferosomes has been the subject of numerous articles present in various journals. These studies have demonstrated the need to include edge activators such as sodium cholate that enhance the transferosome formulation; thus, enhancing the delivery of medication to the affected skin area. In addition, the enhancement of transferosomes incorporated in the hydrogel patches has brought about crucial values in terms of the sustained and prolonged drug reservoir in the skin tissue, low drug diffusion in the systemic circulation, and higher drug penetration through the layers of the skin. Newer generations of transferosomes like transthesosomes, ethosomes and transferosomes have ushered a new dawn in the transdermal drug delivery systems offering non-invasive yet effective routes for the delivery of analgesics, antibiotics, antivirals and anticancer drugs [49-53].

## 3. ADVANTAGES OF TRANSFEROSOMES [54-60]

1. The carriers of transferosomes are appropriate for both hydrophilic and hydrophobic moieties.
2. They can be used for systemic as well as topical treatments.
3. As they are composed of phospholipids that are found naturally, both are biocompatible and biodegradable.
4. They have an almost 90% rate of entrapment for lipophilic medications.

5. They protect against the encapsulated medication's metabolic breakdown.
6. Because they can act as depots, they are used in sustained release delivery.
7. A wide range of active substances are administered through them, including insulin, proteins and peptides, anaesthetics, NSAIDs, corticosteroids, anticancer drugs, herbal remedies and interferons.

#### 4. DISADVANTAGES OF TRANSFEROSOMES [50-62]

1. Chemical instability is the term used to describe transferosomes because they tend towards oxidative destruction. Transferosome oxidation can be significantly decreased by degassing and purging the aqueous medium with inert gases like argon and nitrogen.
2. Lowering the storage temperature and providing light protection, can help lower the risk of oxidation. After preparation processes like freeze and spray-drying can bolster the stability of transferosome storage.
3. The inaccessibility of pure natural phospholipids poses a challenge to the application of transferosomes in drug delivery. Artificial phospholipids can therefore be used as a stand-in.
4. The price of transferosomal formulations is also influenced by the high cost of manufacturing equipment and the cost of lipid excipients as a raw ingredient. Thus, the widely accepted lipid component is phosphatidylcholine, because of its lower cost.

#### 5. METHODS OF PREPARATION

##### 5.1 Thin film hydration method

The thin film hydration method is frequently utilized for preparing transferosomes, which are ultramicroscopic vesicular systems utilized for transdermal medication. Phospholipids and edge activators are dissolved in an organic solvent for the drug if it is lipophilic. The above mixture is then transferred to a round bottom flask and the solvent is evaporated under low pressure and heating to give a thin lipid film. This step is followed by the addition of an aqueous phase, which may include a hydrophilic drug, while the flask is rotated at an appropriate temperature for approximately one hour to create multilamellar vesicles (MLVs). These MLVs are then subjected to sonication or extrusion to form smaller vesicles which are called MLVs. The transferosomes are then purified by differential centrifugation to eliminate any free drug from the system and then characterized for different parameters to check the stability of transferosomes and the effectiveness of drug delivery. The final product is then stored at 4°C, which means that its temperature needs to be within this range all the time. The said technique is accurate and consistent and therefore extensively used in the preparation of transferosomes for transdermal drug administration [63-66].

##### 5.2 Vortexing sonication method

This preparation includes the medication dissolved in a phosphate buffer with an edge activator and phospholipids. Following this, the suspension forms a milky transferosomal suspension which is vortexed. The resulting nanoparticle solution is then subjected to sonication for appropriate duration at room temperature before undergoing an extrusion process that passes it through polycarbonate membranes with pore sizes of 450 and 220 nm [67-69].

##### 5.3 Suspension homogenization method

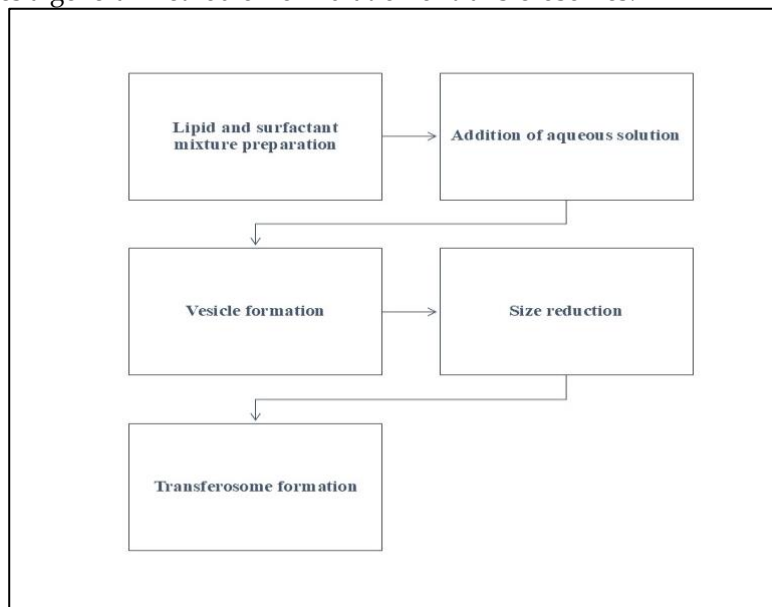
To prepare transferosomes, one must mix an adequate amount of the edge activator with an ethanolic phospholipid solution. Once the suspension is prepared, the buffer is added to measure the overall lipid content. Subsequently, the sample is frozen and thawed as well as subjected to sonication for 2-3 cycles [16, 47, 70-72].

##### 5.4 Reverse phase evaporation method

The procedure for this method is as follows: In the presence of nitrogen purging, lipids and organic solvent were stirred in the round-bottomed flask with aqueous media and edge activators. Drug solubility in the media determines whether the drug is combined with lipophilic or lipophobic media. After sonication, it is allowed to stand for 30 minutes or until the mixture appears like a homogenous mix. When pressure is scaled down to its lowest level, the organic phase is removed. The material transforms to a gel that has a sluggish flow resembling that of a viscous solution [73-74].

##### 5.5 Centrifugation method

Organic solvent dissolves the lipophilic medication, edge activator, and phospholipids. Then, the solvent necessary for extraction at the proper temperature is removed using a low-pressure rotating evaporator. Under vacuum, the solvent's last part is eliminated. Resuspending the lipid film at room temperature standardises it with the right buffer solution through centrifugation. It is now possible to incorporate the hydrophilic medication. Similarly, when the vesicles are allowed to remain at room temperature, they rupture and swell. Finally, at the room temperature, the lipid vesicles with several layers obtained are additionally sonicated [75-79]. Figure 1 illustrates a general method of formulation of transferosomes.



**Figure 1.** Formulation process of transferosomes

## 6. CHARACTERIZATION OF TRANSFEROSOMES [80-84]

The characterization parameters of transferosomes can be obtained using several published techniques, each described in more detail below-

### 6.1 Vesicle Size, Zeta Potential and Morphology

The vesicle-containing sample is filtered using a 0.2 mm membrane filter after its preparation in distilled water. Filtering is carried out before diluting the sample with filtered saline to estimate the size of the vesicles using Dynamic light scattering (DLS) or Photon correlation spectroscopy (PCS) method. Moreover, although, transmission electron microscopy (TEM) can determine the structural changes, the DLS method linked with the computerized inspection system by Malvern Zetasizer can effectively calculate the size distribution of the vesicles. In the electrophoretic mobility technique, the zeta potential is determined with the help of Malvern Zetasizer. Phase contrast microscopy (PCM) or TEM can observe transferosome vesicles.

### 6.2 Number of Vesicles Per Cubic mm

The transferosomal formulations are mixed with a 0.9% sodium chloride solution at a concentration that is five times more concentrated than the original. The sample is analyzed with an optical microscope and a hemocytometer. Transferosomes containing vesicles larger than 100 nm are visible when examined using an optical microscope. The number of transferosomes is calculated by the formula -

Total number of Transferosomes per cubic mm = (Total number of Transferosomes counted × dilution factor × 4000) / Total number of squares counted

### 6.3 Entrapment Efficiency (% EE)

The untrapped drugs are separated from the vesicles and the Entrapment efficiency is calculated using different methods such as mini-column centrifugation. The method involves to centrifuge and eliminate the supernatant from ultracentrifugation and then employ an acceptable solvent which may lyse the sediment and break the sedimented vesicles. The impurities can be further eliminated by diluting the solution and

passing it through a syringe filter with a pore size ranging from 0.22 to 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$ . The drug's content is ascertained through techniques like modified High-Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC).

#### 6.4 Degree of Deformability

Pure water is used as the standard in this study. The mixture is passed through many microporous filters with known pore size that ranges from 50 to 400 nm. Dynamic light scattering (DLS) techniques are employed for the purpose of measuring both the particle size as well as the distribution of sizes. The expression for the degree of deformability is:

$$D = J(rv/rp)$$

where D is the degree of deformability, J is the amount of suspension extruded over the course of five minutes, rv is the vesicle's size, and rp is the barrier's pore size.

#### 6.5 In Vitro Drug Release

In the investigation of drug release *in vitro*, the Franz diffusion cells are utilized. The donor chamber is attached to the receptor chamber using adhesive tape. A magnetic bar is positioned in the receptor chamber to agitate the sample fluid continuously. To mimic the average skin temperature of 32  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , the receptor fluid temperature during the release study must be maintained at the same level. A mixed cellulose ester membrane with an average pore diameter of 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  is utilized. The membrane pores are swollen using phosphate buffer, and the membranes are soaked in this solution at room temperature for approximately 12 hours. To ensure sink conditions, 1 mL aliquots of the receptor medium are collected at specific time intervals (0 hr, 0.5 hr, 1 hr, 2 hr, 3 hr, 4 hr, 5 hr, and 6 hr). At the same time, an equal volume of fresh Phosphate buffer saline (PBS) is added to the receptor medium in the same proportion. Subsequently, these samples can be subjected to appropriate analytical techniques.

#### 6.6 In Vitro Skin Permeation Studies

Skin penetration also requires Franz diffusion cells. Since the stratum corneum of the skin model is oriented upward towards the donor compartments, the chosen membranes are placed horizontally in the receptor compartments. PBS solution is added to the receptor compartments and fluid motion is created by a magnetic stirrer. Keeping temperature at  $37 \pm 0.5$   $^{\circ}\text{C}$  will help to replicate blood circulation beneath the skin's surface. After positioning each donor compartment on the membrane, the testing formulation is applied in the recommended volume. The diffusion cell lid is removed to imitate the nonoccluded skin model. In order to uphold the sink conditions, it is necessary to periodically extract a specific volume of aliquots from the receptor medium and replace it with an equal volume of fresh receptor medium. The acquired samples can then be subjected to analytical techniques for further investigation.

#### 6.7 Stability of Transferosomes

By evaluating the vesicles' size and structure over time, one can determine the stability of transferosome vesicles. DLS and TEM methods are used to determine the size and structural details.

### 7. APPLICATIONS OF TRANSFEROSOMES

#### 7.1 Transdermal drug delivery

Transferosomes have been extensively researched concerning their ability to deliver drugs through the skin. As they can elongate and permeate the stratum corneum, they are suitable for use in delivering drugs across the epidermal layer. They can encapsulate both lipophilic and hydrophilic drugs and the delivery of diverse therapeutic agents across the skin [50, 85, 86].

#### 7.2 Drug delivery through mucosal barriers

Transferosomes have been established to be capable of effecting drug delivery through mucosal surfaces including the vaginal, oral, nasal, and ocular mucosa. One notable feature about them is that they can easily penetrate epithelial layers and transport the drugs to the deeper tissues eradicating the necessity of other conventional drug delivery methods [87, 88].

#### 7.3 Targeted drug delivery

The transferosomes can also have targeting ligands on their surface that help specifically bind and recognize target cells or tissues. It is a targeted delivery that ensures the drugs are delivered to the intended



area while minimizing harm. Cytosolic anticancer agents can be transported by transfersomes that are particular to tumour cells and are considered as potential tools for cancer therapy [89, 90].

#### **7.4 Vaccine delivery**

Transfersomes have been found useful in delivering vaccines due to their ability to enhance the immunogenicity and potency of vaccinating agents. They have the capacity to encapsulate adjuvants and antigens and thereby delivering them to the antigen presenting cells and also stimulate a significant immune response. Vaccine delivery systems based on transfersomes have been an area of research interest in disease agents such as hepatitis B, malaria, flu, tetanus, etc [91-93].

#### **7.5 Topical delivery**

Topical administration of drugs can be done using transfersomes. Drug delivery systems have been applied in treating many skin conditions including; arthritis, gangrene, acne, etc. The fact that transfersomes are deformable makes sure that the medication gets to the required site, enhancing the therapeutic efficiency [82, 94-96].

### **8. CLINICAL APPLICATIONS [97,98]**

Transfersomes represent a cutting-edge approach to drug delivery systems, demonstrating considerable promise across a variety of clinical settings. The following are notable applications-

#### **8.1 Transdermal Drug Delivery**

Transfersomes enable the effective administration of diverse pharmaceuticals through the skin, successfully navigating the challenges posed by the stratum corneum. This technique is especially advantageous for medications that necessitate controlled release and targeted delivery to specific tissues.

#### **8.2 Anti-inflammatory Drugs**

Compounds such as ketoprofen and indinavir sulfate have been effectively encapsulated within transfersomes, significantly improving their skin absorption and therapeutic effectiveness in treating conditions like inflammation and AIDS.

#### **8.3 Hormonal Therapies**

Transfersomes have enhanced the transdermal delivery of hormones, including norgesterol and oestradiol, rendering them suitable for hormone replacement therapies.

#### **8.4 Pain Management**

Local anesthetics, such as tetracaine and lignocaine, can be efficiently administered via transfersomes, offering a non-invasive solution for localized pain relief.

#### **8.5 Immunization**

Transfersomes are employed in transdermal immunization strategies, facilitating the delivery of proteins and peptides, including human serum albumin and gap junction proteins. This approach can elicit robust immune responses without the necessity for injections, resulting in elevated antibody titers and IgA levels.

#### **8.6 Delivery of Biologics**

Transfersomes are particularly adept at transporting large biomolecules, such as proteins and peptides, which are often susceptible to degradation when taken orally. They can achieve bioavailability levels comparable to subcutaneous injections, making them a promising alternative for biologic therapies.

#### **8.7 Controlled Release of Interferons**

Transfersomes have been utilized for the delivery of interferons, such as interferon- $\alpha$ , which possess antiviral and immunomodulatory properties. This application underscores their potential in the treatment of viral infections and certain malignancies.

#### **8.8 Enhanced Drug Stability**

The distinctive architecture of transfersomes contributes to the stabilization of sensitive drugs, ensuring their efficacy throughout the delivery process.

The development of non-invasive methods for insulin administration has gained significant attention, particularly for improving patient compliance in diabetes management. One promising approach involves the use of transferosomes, ultra-deformable vesicles capable of penetrating the skin's stratum corneum to deliver therapeutic agents. In a clinical study, insulin-loaded transferosomes were formulated to enhance transdermal insulin delivery, offering an alternative to conventional subcutaneous injections. The study demonstrated that the transferosomes could successfully encapsulate insulin and facilitate its permeation through the skin, providing sustained release and stable plasma insulin levels. This delivery method was shown to significantly reduce the discomfort and inconvenience associated with multiple daily injections, thereby improving overall patient adherence to treatment. Moreover, the transferosomal system allowed for a controlled release of insulin, which contributed to more consistent glycemic control in diabetic patients. These findings highlight the potential of transferosomes as a novel and effective strategy for the transdermal administration of insulin, addressing key limitations of traditional insulin delivery methods.

## **9. MANUFACTURING CHALLENGES [99]**

Transferosomes represent a promising avenue for drug delivery; however, their manufacturing is fraught with several challenges that may compromise their effectiveness and stability. Some critical issues are as follows-

### **9.1 Chemical Instability**

Transferosomes exhibit a tendency toward chemical instability and oxidative degradation. Such instability can diminish the therapeutic efficacy of the delivered drug, posing a significant concern during the manufacturing phase.

### **9.2 Cost of Production**

The production of transferosomes can incur substantial costs. This encompasses the expenses related to sourcing high-quality raw materials and employing advanced techniques for their preparation, which may restrict their broader application.

### **9.3 Purity of Natural Phospholipids**

The integrity of the natural phospholipids utilized in the formulation is vital. The presence of impurities can disrupt the formation of transferosomes, complicating the manufacturing process and potentially leading to variability in the quality and performance of the final product.

### **9.4 Process Variables**

Numerous process parameters, including the lecithin-to-surfactant ratio, solvent selection, and hydration medium, are pivotal in the formulation of transferosomes. Optimizing these factors is essential, yet it can be intricate and time-intensive.

### **9.5 Characterization and Quality Control**

Achieving consistent quality in transferosomes necessitates comprehensive characterization techniques. This involves assessing parameters such as entrapment efficiency, drug content, and deformability. The demand for stringent quality control can further complicate the manufacturing process.

### **9.6 Scalability**

The transition from laboratory-scale production to large-scale manufacturing poses significant challenges. Ensuring that the quality and performance remain consistent at a larger scale is often problematic, which can impede the commercial viability of transferosomes.

Transferosomes, as advanced drug delivery systems, face significant challenges in terms of scalability and cost-effectiveness due to their complex formulation and production processes, which can limit their widespread application. The intricate steps involved in optimizing formulation variables make it difficult to scale up production from the laboratory to industrial levels. Additionally, maintaining consistency in vesicle size and drug entrapment efficiency during large-scale production poses a significant hurdle. In terms of cost-effectiveness, the use of specialized phospholipids and edge activators increases the overall material costs, making transferosome production less economically viable compared to conventional drug delivery systems. Furthermore, navigating the regulatory landscape for nanotherapeutics adds additional costs and complexity to the manufacturing process. Despite these challenges, transferosomes offer unique advantages such as

enhanced permeability and biocompatibility, which continue to drive research into more efficient manufacturing solutions. However, finding a balance between innovation and cost remains a critical concern in their development.

## **10. REGULATORY ISSUES [47,99]**

Transferosomes encounter a variety of regulatory challenges that can significantly influence their development and subsequent approval for clinical applications. The following outlines some of the primary regulatory obstacles:

### **10.1 Complex Formulation Requirements**

The composition of transferosomes, which includes phospholipids, surfactants, and water, can complicate their regulatory classification. Regulatory authorities may necessitate comprehensive details regarding the formulation and manufacturing processes to ascertain safety and efficacy, thereby complicating the approval pathway.

### **10.2 Safety and Toxicity Assessments**

Due to their distinctive characteristics, transferosomes may necessitate thorough safety and toxicity evaluations. Regulatory agencies typically require extensive preclinical and clinical data to evaluate the potential risks associated with their application, which can extend the duration of the approval process.

### **10.3 Quality Control Standards**

Maintaining consistent quality in the production of transferosomes is essential. Regulatory bodies may enforce rigorous quality control protocols, compelling manufacturers to prove that their products adhere to specific standards concerning purity, potency, and stability. This requirement can complicate the manufacturing process and elevate costs.

### **10.4 Clinical Trial Design**

The design of clinical trials for therapies utilizing transferosomes may need to be specifically adapted to accommodate their unique delivery mechanisms. Regulatory agencies may impose particular stipulations regarding trial design, endpoints, and patient demographics, which can further complicate the development process.

### **10.5 Post-Market Surveillance**

Following approval, transferosomes may be subjected to continuous monitoring to evaluate their long-term safety and efficacy. Regulatory authorities often mandate post-market studies, which can impose additional responsibilities on manufacturers and influence market entry strategies.

### **10.6 Intellectual Property and Patent Issues**

The innovative characteristics of transferosomes may give rise to intricate intellectual property challenges.

The regulatory approval process for transferosomes, as a novel drug delivery system, faces several hurdles due to their unique composition and mechanism of action. Transferosomes, being lipid vesicles designed for enhanced transdermal delivery, fall into a relatively new category of drug delivery systems, which challenges existing regulatory frameworks. Classification of transferosomes as either conventional pharmaceuticals or nanomedicines remains unclear, complicating the regulatory pathway for their approval. Moreover, transferosomes are often composed of complex, multi-component formulations that may require separate assessment of each ingredient for safety and efficacy. Regulatory authorities, including the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and the European Medicines Agency (EMA), typically have well-defined guidelines for conventional drug formulations but lack specific regulations addressing the complexities of transferosome-based products.

Additionally, the challenge of ensuring consistent quality and stability across large-scale production is a key concern for regulators. For transferosomes, ensuring batch-to-batch consistency, vesicle size, and encapsulation efficiency is critical but difficult to achieve during industrial-scale manufacturing. Regulatory agencies require robust data on the manufacturing process, quality control, and product stability to ensure the safety and efficacy of transferosome formulations. Furthermore, the need for long-term safety data and clear regulatory guidelines for assessing the impact of nanotechnology-based systems, such as transferosomes, adds to the complexity of obtaining regulatory approval.

## **11. FUTURE SCOPE**

Transferosomes present a multitude of promising possibilities in the realm of drug delivery and therapeutic applications. They significantly improve transdermal drug delivery by adeptly traversing the skin barrier, which facilitates the administration of a variety of therapeutic agents, including vaccines, proteins, and anti-cancer medications, thus broadening the spectrum of treatment alternatives. Their distinctive characteristics allow for the encapsulation of both hydrophilic and lipophilic compounds, enhancing drug bioavailability and potentially yielding superior therapeutic results. Furthermore, transferosomes can be tailored for targeted delivery to specific organs and tissues, minimizing systemic side effects and enhancing treatment effectiveness, particularly in the context of localized ailments. Their ease of use fosters patient adherence, as individuals can conveniently self-administer medications and discontinue use if adverse effects arise. The adaptability of transferosomes enables a wide range of applications, encompassing the delivery of anesthetics, herbal medicines, and corticosteroids, thereby paving the way for innovative research and development. As a cutting-edge solution for transdermal delivery, transferosomes are poised to transform the administration of various drugs and bioactive substances, aiding in the creation of novel formulations and therapeutic strategies. Additionally, by encapsulating pharmaceuticals, transferosomes can mitigate drug toxicity, offering safer treatment options, particularly for prolonged therapeutic regimens [26,97,99].

From the research papers that are included in this work, it can be concluded that transferosomes have a future both in different fields of medicine and in drug delivery systems. One type of these ultra-flexible nanoliposomes is the transferosome which has prospects in increasing the efficiency of drugs like resveratrol by enhancing its permeability, solubility, and stability [16, 100]. In the same context, these vesicles have been used in delivering drugs into the eyes like cyclosporine A due to their stability, nano sizes, and biocompatibility; which can enhance the corneal permeability [101]. Additionally, there is evidence of transferosomes in transdermal uses by which they are used as nanocarriers for topical administration of substances like papaverine hydrochloride [46, 102]. This type of transferosome can be considered as a superb creation in drug delivery that can ensure the safety and effectiveness of the enhanced therapeutic efficacy of various pharmaceuticals in transdermal, ocular, and dermal applications [103].

## 12. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, transferosomes can become the solution to the enhancement of the existing drug delivery systems as well as the improvements of therapeutic efficacy. These characteristics make them suitable for drug delivery since they enhance drug diffusion and provide a controlled release and improved bioavailability. Transferosomes are non-toxic and hydrophilic/lipophilic due to their biocompatibility and biodegradation characteristics, making them suitable for transporting various drugs. In an effort to improve transferosome technology, a number of strategies have been looked into, such as combining transferosome technology with other delivery methods and applying more intricate procedures to target the needs of particular patients. They create the basis for new methods of delivering pharmaceuticals, which can someday help change the approach to treating different illnesses. It is therefore important to acknowledge and appreciate the potential of transferosomes in enhancing the therapeutic efficacy and overall outcome of the patient's healthcare providers and the pharmaceutical industries to harness this technology in optimizing therapeutic drugs. The present review focuses on the role of transferosomes in contemporary medicine and emphasizes their potential for the future evolution of medicine and the improvement of the effectiveness of therapeutic procedures, existing and prospective, taking into account the principles of an individualized approach.

**Author contributions:** Concept – D.S., K.J, S.N.; Supervision – D.S., K.J.; Literature Search – S.N.; Writing – S.N.; Critical Reviews – D.S., K.J.

**Conflict of interest statement:** The authors declared no conflict of interest.

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