

1 *Conference Proceedings Paper*

2 **Lipid-based nanocarriers for Rose Bengal dermal** 3 **delivery: a promising approach in melanoma** 4 **treatment**

5 Sara Demartis ^{1*}, Antonella Obinu ², Giovanna Rassu ², Paolo Giunchedi ² and Elisabetta Gavini²

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8 ¹ Ph.D. program in Chemical Science and Technology, Department of Chemistry and Pharmacy, University
9 of Sassari, via Muroni 23/a, 07100 Sassari, Italy ;

10 ² Department of Chemistry and Pharmacy, University of Sassari, via Muroni 23/a, 07100 Sassari, Italy;

11 aobinu@uniss.it (A.O.); grassu@uniss.it (G.R.); pgiunc@uniss.it (P.G.); eligav@uniss.it (E.G.)

12 * Correspondence: s.demartis@studenti.uniss.it;

13 **Abstract:** Rose Bengal (RB) is a photosensitizer used to eradicate cancer cells. 10% RB demonstrated
14 to kill melanoma but, nowadays, RB biopharmaceutical profile limits its clinical applications. This
15 work focuses on the development of RB lipid nanocarriers, solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) and
16 transfersomes (TF), to treat melanoma via dermal delivery in the absence of light. Preformulative
17 studies identified the best manufacturing and formulative parameters and leader formulations were
18 obtained. Particle size of SLN and TF were around 130 nm and 200 nm respectively, both carriers
19 were homogenous and stable in 30 days. UV-spectrophotometer and fluorometer analysis showed
20 RB maximum absorption and emission wavelength red-shifted demonstrating an association of dye
21 with the lipid phase. Ex-vivo permeation studies showed that RB solution did not permeate through
22 stratum corneum (SC) while TF increased RB delivery up to 66%, on the other side SLN were found
23 to be retained in the SC. We obtained two stable RB lipid nanocarriers potentially active in
24 eradicating melanoma via dermal delivery.

25 **Keywords:** Rose Bengal; melanoma; solid lipid nanoparticles; transfersomes; dermal delivery.
26

27 1. Introduction

28 RB is a dye used in ophthalmic diagnostic [1]. Despite this, RB is a photosensitizer employed in
29 photodynamic therapy, and it demonstrated intrinsic cytotoxicity against tumor and microbial cells
30 [2–4]. PV-10® is a 10% RB solution intralesional injected currently tested in cancer treatment, in
31 particular melanoma towards which RB showed high cytotoxicity [4]. Nevertheless, RB
32 biopharmaceutical profile limits its clinical application: RB is amphiphilic with hydrophilic tendency
33 limiting its accumulation in cells, and it has a short half-life requiring multiple administration to reach
34 the target site if administered systemically [5,6]. To date, different RB delivery systems were
35 developed proven to overcome the aforementioned limits [7]. Lipid-based nanosystems, such as SLN
36 and TF, were efficiently employed for dermal delivery of drugs. SLN are nanoparticles (NP)
37 characterized by a solid lipid matrix able to form an occlusive film on the skin surface, in this way
38 they reduce transepidermal water loss improving drug penetration and controlling its release. TF
39 consist of a hydrophilic core surrounded by a hydrophobic bilayer; the presence of surfactant makes
40 TF ultradeformable since they can squeeze and pass through skin pores smaller than their size
41 releasing drug in the deepest region of the body[8]. Considering this background, we aim to develop
42 and characterize RB loaded SLN and TF to treat melanoma via dermal delivery in the absence of light.
43 We obtained two potential nanocarriers for RB topical delivery.

44 2. Experiments

45 2.1. Materials

46 Rose Bengal sodium salt (RB), cholesterol, Span® 80, dichloromethane and ethanol were
 47 purchased by Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). Witepsol® E85 was supplied by Cremer Oleo
 48 (Hamburg, Germany); Gelucire® 44/14 was gifted from Gattefossé SAS (Saint-Priest, France).
 49 Benzalkonium chloride (BAC) was acquired by Cruciani Prodotti Cruai (Rome, Italy). Lipoid S 100
 50 was gifted by Lipoid GmbH (Ludwigshafen, Germany). Phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, NaCl 0.138
 51 M; KCl 0.0027 M; pH 7.4; 25 °C) were obtained by Sigma-Aldrich (Milan, Italy). Ultrapure bi-distilled
 52 water was obtained by a MilliQ R4 system, Millipore (Milan, Italy).

53 2.2. Preparation of SLN

54 SLN were prepared by modified W/O/W double-emulsion technique [9]. A preformulative
 55 study tested BAC concentrations and sonication times (Table 1). SLN were prepared dissolving
 56 Witepsol® E85 (111.11 mg) and Gelucire® 44/14 (88.89 mg) in 5 mL of dichloromethane, 0.5 mL of
 57 MilliQ water were added and homogenized by probe sonicator Bioblock Vibracell (Fisher Bioblock
 58 Scientific, Illkirch, France) for 30s at 70% US. This primary emulsion was added to 10 mL BAC
 59 aqueous solution and sonicated testing different times (Table 1). This double emulsion was placed
 60 for 3 h under magnetic stirring at room temperature (r.t.) to remove the organic solvent and obtain
 61 SLN. Leader blank SLN (SLNb) and RB SLN (SLN-RB200, SLN-RB500) were prepared as above
 62 considering the outcomes of preformulative study, for loaded SLN RB aqueous solution (0.004 M for
 63 SLN-RB200; 0.01 M for SLN-RB500) was used instead of MilliQ water.

64 **Table 1.** Formulative parameters modified during preliminary studies on SLNb.

Formulation	BAC (%w/v)	Sonication time (s)
A	1.0	20
B	1.0	30
C	1.0	90
D	1.0	120
E	0.5	90
F	1.5	90

65 2.3 Preparation of TF

66 Two series of TF were developed, TF1 and TF2. About TF1, TF1-A and TF1-B were studied (Table 2).
 67 TF1-A were prepared by thin-film hydration method (TFH), TF1-B by reverse-phase evaporation
 68 method (REV) [10]. To obtain TF1-A 100.8 mg of Lipoid S 100, 31.29 mg of cholesterol and 16 µL of
 69 Span® 80 were dissolved in a mixture of ethanol, methanol and chloroform (2:2:1) which was
 70 completely evaporated under vacuum (u.v.) at 40 °C. The lipid film formed was hydrated with 20 mL
 71 of MilliQ water for 1 hour at 40°C by a rotary evaporator (Rotavapor RE111, Büchi LabortechnikAG,
 72 Flawil, Switzerland). The dispersion was kept for 1 hour at r.t. and sonicated testing two techniques
 73 (Table 2). TF1-B were prepared dissolving 100 mg of Lipoid S 100, 20 mg of cholesterol and 10 µL of
 74 Span® 80 in a mixture of diethyl ether and chloroform (3:1), 10 mL of MilliQ water were added and
 75 sonicated for 4 min at 50% US providing an emulsion which was evaporated u.v. at 40 °C until
 76 complete solvent evaporation. The gel formed was kept at r.t. overnight to be converted into the
 77 transfersomal dispersion which was sonicated testing two sonications (Table 2). Blank TF1 (bTF1-A,
 78 bTF1-B) and loaded TF1 (RBTF1-A, RBTF1-B) were prepared considering the outcomes of the
 79 preformulative study, loaded TF1 were obtained using 2 µM RB aqueous solution instead of MilliQ
 80 water. TF1 were stored for 3 months at 4°C to identify the best preparative technique. Loaded TF2
 81 (RBTF2) were prepared based on TF1 study changing solvent and sonication time (Table 2). 200-

82 RBTF2 and 500-RBTF2 were prepared by REV technique: 400 mg of Lipoid S 100, 75 mg of cholesterol
 83 and 40 μL of Span® 80 were dissolved in ethanol at 50 °C and mixed with 10 mL of RB aqueous
 84 solution (200 μM for 200-RBTF2; 500 μM for 500-RBTF2), sonicated for 30s at 50% US amplitude and
 85 evaporated u.v. at 50 °C until complete solvent evaporation. The dispersion was kept for 1 hour at
 86 r.t. and sonicated by 3 sonication cycles: each cycle consisted of 10 s of US followed by an interval of
 87 20s [11]. TF2 were extruded 5 times through a 0.45 μm polycarbonate membrane and 5 times through
 88 a 0.2 μm polyethersulfone membrane. Corresponding blank (bTF2) was prepared.

89 **Table 2.** Formulative parameters modified during preliminary studies on TFs.

Formulation	Technique	Solvents	Sonication
TF1-A	TFH	EtOH MeOH CHCl ₃	Probe 50% (60s,90s, 120s) Bath 40°C (5', 10', 15')
TF1-B	REV	C ₄ H ₁₀ O CHCl ₃	Probe 50% (60s,90s, 120s) Bath 40°C (5', 10', 15')
TF2	REV	EtOH	45% US

90 *2.4. Analysis of particle size, polydispersity and zeta potential*

91 Particle size and polydispersity index (PDI) were determined by photon correlation
 92 spectroscopy using a Coulter nanosizer N5 (Beckman-Coulter Inc., Miami, FL, USA). Zeta-
 93 potential was determined by Zetasizer nano using the M3-PA LS (Phase Analysis Light Scattering)
 94 technique.

95 *2.5. Evaluation of interaction between RB and lipid phase*

96 An evaluation of the interaction between RB and lipid phase was performed. SLN-RB200; SLN-
 97 RB500; 200-RBTF2; 500-RBTF2 were diluted with MilliQ water to obtain 8 μM RB concentration, the
 98 absorption and emission spectra were recorded by UV-Spectrophotometer (SHIMADZU UV-1800,
 99 Kyoto, Japan) and RF-6000 spectrofluorometer (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) respectively. Results
 100 obtained were compared to corresponding values of 8 μM RB aqueous solution.

101 *2.6. Physical stability studies*

102 SLN were stored both at 25 °C and 4 °C and diameter and PDI were analyzed during the time
 103 (1, 7, 15, 30 days). TF2 were stored at 4°C and analyzed as above. At the time of writing this
 104 manuscript, the stability of 200-RBTF2 was recorded until 15 days.

105 *2.7. Ex-vivo permeation study on stratum corneum (SC)*

106 *Ex-vivo* permeation of SLN-RB500 and 500-RBTF2 was evaluated on excised pig SC using a 500
 107 μM RB aqueous solution as control. Porcine skin was obtained by a local slaughterhouse and properly
 108 prepared[12]. The experiment was performed using a 12-multi-well cell culture plates suitably
 109 modified (project INCREASE SARDINIA 2016-17, protocol number 31351, University of Sassari). The
 110 wells were filled with PBS and SC was put on the plates with the internal side in contact with PBS.
 111 300 μL of samples (0.15 mg of RB) were put on top of SC, the plates were placed into the incubator
 112 shaker SKI 4 Shaker Incubator (ARGO LAB, Carpi, Italy) at 70 rpm and 32 °C. At each time point (30
 113 min, 1h, 3h, 6h, 24h) samples (200 μL) were withdrawn from the wells and replaced with an equal
 114 volume of fresh medium. 1 mL of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) was added to each sample to extract
 115 RB, the amount of RB permeated was measured by UV-spectrophotometer and calculated referring
 116 to the calibration curve prepared in DMSO. To evaluate RB retention in SC, tissue samples were

117 boiled with 2 mL PBS for 10 min, then 2 mL of DMSO were added to extract RB and further boiled
 118 for 10 min. The amount of RB retained in SC was calculated by the same method employed above.

119 **3. Results**

120 *3.1. Preparation of SLN*

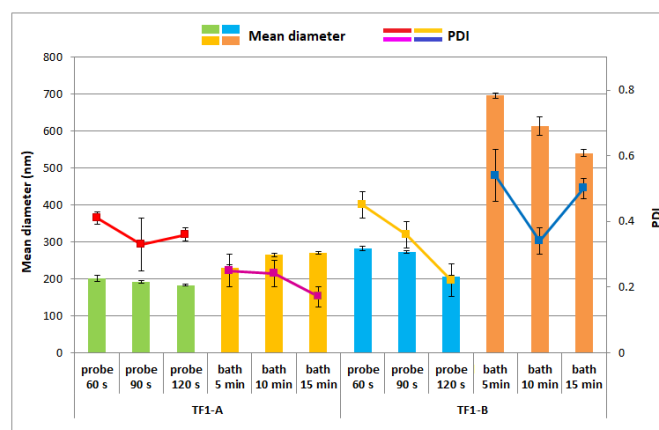
121 Table 3 shows results of SLN preformulative study. 20s of sonication was unsuitable due to rapid
 122 phase separation, 30s provides a homogeneous dispersion and particle size was 275.6 (PI=0.313).
 123 Prolonging sonication to 90s a decrease in SLN size and PDI was observed but a further increase led
 124 to the formation of visible aggregates. The best BAC concentration was 1% (w/v): 0.5 % led emulsion
 125 breaking and phase separation, on the other side 1.5 % allowed to obtain a homogeneous dispersion
 126 and acceptable size but, after one day, SLN aggregation and dispersion gelification were observed.
 127 Formulative parameters selected for SLN were 1% (w/v) BAC and sonication of 90s.

128 **Table 3.** Dimensional properties (particle size and polydispersity index, PDI) and visual observation
 129 of formulation prepared during preliminary studies

Formulation	Particle Size (nm±SD)	PDI (±SD)	Visual observation
A	-	-	Phase separation
B	275.6±35.4	0.313±0.036	Homogeneous dispersion
C	138.7±3.0	0.263±0.032	Homogeneous dispersion
D	> 1000	> 0.4	Aggregation
E	265.9±37.1	0.136±0.029	Phase separation
F	145.0±48.6	0.137±0.021	Aggregation and gelification

130 *3.2. Preparation of TF*

131 Figure 1 shows the effects of TF1 sonication. Not sonicated TF1-A had a size of 659.03±10.54 nm, TF1-
 132 B size was above 1µm. 2 min of probe sonication at 50% US amplitude was selected as sonication
 133 method since it allowed to obtain vesicles of 182.47 nm for TF1-A and 206.63 nm for TF1-B. Bath
 134 sonication (Bandelin Sonorex RK 52 Heinrichstrable, Berlin, Germany) of TF1-A revealed a good
 135 dimensional profile but it was discarded due to the presence of dispersed aggregates. RBTF1-A,
 136 RBTF1-B and corresponding blanks were prepared using selected sonication parameters. Storage
 137 stability showed that TF1-B was the most stable: RB TF1-A size increased from 214.4±4.38 to over 1
 138 µm, RB TF1-B increased from 297.6±1.41 nm to 437.65±4 nm; a similar increase was seen for bTF1.
 139 Considering these outcomes, TF2 were prepared by REV technique and probe sonication method.



140
 141 **Figure 1.** Influence of sonication method and sonication time on blank TF1 formulation dimensional properties
 142 (particle size and polydispersity index, PDI)

143 3.3. Analysis of particle size, polydispersity and zeta potential

144 The dimensional profile and zeta potential of SLN and TF2 are shown in table 4.

145 **Table 4.** Particle size, PDI and zeta potential of SLN and TF2

Formulation	Particle Size (nm±SD)	PDI (±SD)	Zeta potential
SLNb	130.1±3.01	0.225±0.02	61.2±2.4
SLNRB-200	133.0±3.19	0.231±0.01	64.5±1.1
SLNRB-500	135.4±03.35	0.220±0.01	63.5±1.5
TF2b	219.11±1.79	0.23±0.09	-4.9±0.9
200-RBTF2	202.77±2.06	0.28±0.01	-26.0±0.2
500-RBTF2	230.67±1.02	0.20±0.02	-48.7±0.4

146 3.4. Evaluation of interaction between RB and lipid phase

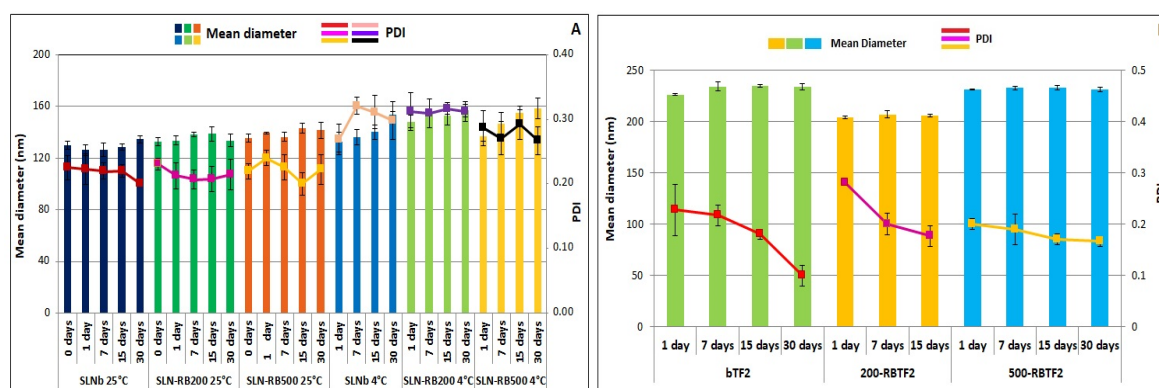
147 Table 5 reports maximum absorption and emission wavelength (λ_{max}) values of RB in water
 148 compared to RB Formulated in lipid nanocarriers.

149 **Table 5.** Absorption and emission values of RB in water and RB formulated in nanocarriers.

	Abs (nm)	Ems (nm)
RB	549	568
SLN-RB200	565	581
SLN-RB500	564.5	582
200-RBTF2	562	582
500-RBTF2	562.5	583

150 3.5. Physical stability studies

151 Particle size and PDI of SLN did non significantly change when NP were stored at r.t. SLN
 152 aggregated at 4°C, indeed size and PDI increased in one week for all formulations. since TF2
 153 components need to be stored at 4°C, the r.t. storing was non studied. Particle size and PDI of TF2
 154 did not change significantly, it was only observed a slight decrease of PDI values (Figure 4).

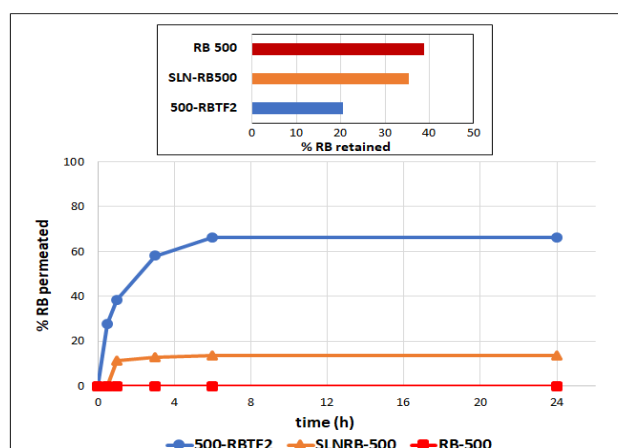


155 **Figure 2.** Physical stability study of (a) SLN and (b) TF2

156 157 3.6 Ex-vivo permeation study on stratum corneum (SC)

158 Figure 3 reports the cumulative amount of RB permeated over 24h and the amount of RB retained in
 159 SC after 24h. Permeation profile showed that, after 24h, RB aqueous solution did not permeate
 160 through SC whereas formulating RB in SLN or TF improved its permeation by 13.7% and 66%

161 respectively. On the other side, RB amount retained in SC was the highest for free RB (38.82%),
 162 followed by SLN-RB500 (35.26%) and 500-RBTF2 (20.50%).



163
 164
 165

Figure 3. Cumulative amount of RB permeated through SC and retained in SC from RB aqueous solution, SLNRB-500 and 500-RBTF2.

166 4. Discussions

167 RB demonstrated to be active in killing melanoma cells but its clinical application is limited by
 168 its biopharmaceutical profile. We formulated RB in SLN and TF to improve its efficiency in treating
 169 melanoma. To obtain TF we performed a two-step preformulative study: TF1 allowed us to identify
 170 the best manufacturing parameters (preparative technique and sonication method) and formulative
 171 parameters (sonication time and organic solvent) were refined by TF2. Size of TF prepared by REV
 172 technique (TF1-B) was the highest, this can be explained considering that REV incorporates a higher
 173 amount of water, indeed it is considered the most suitable technique to encapsulate water-soluble
 174 drugs[13]. Moreover, the storage stability revealed that TF1-B was the most stable formulation. TF2
 175 were prepared by REV method employing ethanol as solvent to obtain a safe formulation as it is a
 176 solvent with low toxic potential, according to Pharmacopoea Italica XII edition. Sonication of
 177 formulations improves NP dimensional profile. Probe sonication allowed to obtain the lowest particle
 178 size and PDI values, as reported by Hadian *et al* that evaluated the effect of sonication on similar lipid
 179 vesicles[14]. Since TF components are heat-sensitive, TF2 were sonicated in cycles to allow TF to cool
 180 and avoid thermal degradation[11]. Similar behavior was found for SLN: particle size and PDI
 181 decreased as the sonication time increased but, when sonication exceeds 90s, aggregation phenomena
 182 were observed. Surfactants are a key component to provide physical stability to colloidal systems;
 183 during SLN preformulative study PVA, tween®80 and BAC were tested. The incorporation of PVA
 184 and Tween® 80 did not lead to any stable formulation (data not shown), but BAC has proven useful
 185 for this purpose. BAC is a solubilizing and wetting agent widely used as antimicrobial preservative in
 186 pharmaceutical formulation and cosmetics, moreover it has enhanced the topical penetration of
 187 lorazepam[15]. Here in BAC is employed as a cationic surfactant to stabilize SLN, as previously
 188 reported[16]. 1% w/v BAC concentration revealed to be the ideal one for our system. The dimensional
 189 analysis revealed nanocarriers were below 250 nm and in a state of monodispersity distribution.
 190 Similar values of zeta potential were found for loaded and unloaded SLN revealing that RB did not
 191 influence SLN surface charge; on the other side, zeta potential of TF became progressively more
 192 negative as RB loaded concentration increased. NP size and surface charge are fundamental for both
 193 storage stability and skin penetration. To obtain stable formulations, zeta potential should be below
 194 30 mV or above 60 mV as repulsion of charged NP prevents them from aggregating[14]. It can be
 195 assumed that SLN and TF2 were stable, as emerged from stability studies. Lipid vesicles whose size
 196 was between 100-600 nm proved to enhance skin penetration of water-soluble photosensitizer drugs.
 197 SLN around 100-200 nm showed the same results[8]. The study of Hugo *et al* revealed RB interacts

198 with liposomal vesicles as RB absorption λ_{max} red-shifted when it is associated with liposomal
199 membrane compared to water[17] and our analysis showed similar results; we can suppose that RB
200 bounded to lipid components of SLN and TF. The preliminary permeation study revealed free RB
201 did not permeate according to its chemical profile: it is a water-soluble drug with high molecular
202 weight (PM=1017.64 g/mol) limiting its penetration across the skin. Due to RB amphiphilic character,
203 a part of it was retained by SC. NP showed different behavior. TF proved to increase RB permeation
204 as they can squeeze along the intracellular lipid of SC. SLN slightly increased RB permeation but
205 most of them were tissue-retained due to their affinity for lipid skin. In this way, they prolong RB
206 interaction with SC and, at the same time, enhance its penetration into the deepest layers[8].

207 5. Conclusions

208 We formulated RB loaded TF and SLN to determine if they can improve RB delivery to
209 melanoma. NP were in a dimensional range suitable for topical delivery and they proved to interact
210 with RB. The preliminary permeation study reported that TF permeated through SC. As melanocytes
211 reside in the basal epidermis and on the top of the dermis [18], TF could be employed to reach
212 melanoma cells. SLN were mainly found within SC so they could be considered to treat skin disease
213 involving SC itself, with the advantage of protecting RB from undesirable light activation[8].
214 Cytotoxicity studies on melanoma cells are ongoing, and further physical-chemical characterizations
215 are planned.

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218 **Author Contributions:** "S.D. and E.G. conceived and designed the experiments; . S.D. and A.O. performed the
219 experiments; S.D., G.R. and A.O. analyzed the data; E.G. and P.G. contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools;
220 S.D, A.O. and E.G. wrote the paper."

221 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

222 Abbreviations

223 The following abbreviations are used in this manuscript:

224 RB: Rose Bengal
225 SLN: solid lipid nanoparticles
226 TF: transfersomes
227 SC: stratum corneum
228 TFH: thin film hydration
229 REV: reverse phase evaporation
230 NP: nanoparticles
231 BAC: benzalkonium chloride
232 r.t: room temperature
233 u.v: under vacuum

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