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#### 1 Review

## <sup>2</sup> Nanoparticle-based drug delivery to the vagina: A review

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ABSTRACT

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productive tract, including sexually transmitted diseases, fungal and bacterial infections, and cancer. However, 23 achieving sustained local drug concentrations in the vagina can be challenging, due to the high permeability of 24 the vaginal epithelium and expulsion of conventional soluble drug dosage forms. Nanoparticle-based drug deliv- 25 ery platforms have received considerable attention for vaginal drug delivery, as nanoparticles can provide 26 sustained release, cellular targeting, and even intrinsic antimicrobial or adjuvant properties that can improve 27 the potency and/or efficacy of prophylactic and therapeutic modalities. Here, we review the use of polymeric 28 nanoparticles, liposomes, dendrimers, and inorganic nanoparticles for vaginal drug delivery. Although most of 29 the work toward nanoparticle-based drug delivery in the vagina has been focused on HIV prevention, strategies 30 for treatment and prevention of other sexually transmitted infections, treatment for reproductive tract cancer, 31 and treatment of fungal and bacterial infections are also highlighted. 32

Vaginal drug administration can improve prophylaxis and treatment of many conditions affecting the female re- 22

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### 1. Introduction

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jconrel.2014.04.033 0168-3659/© 2014 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. In the nearly 100 years since the early descriptions of drug absorp- Q6 tion occurring after topical vaginal administration, research on vaginal 58 drug delivery has recently intensified. Vaginal drug administration has 59 many advantages over conventional oral administration, such as 60

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61 avoidance of the harsh gastrointestinal (GI) environment and the he-62 patic first-pass effect. Absorption from the GI tract can be affected by fed state, drug-drug interactions, microbiota, and GI disturbances. Fur-63 64 ther, the fraction of drug that is absorbed from the GI tract can then be metabolized and eliminated by first passage through the liver. Thus, 65 vaginal drug administration allows for smaller drug doses and the po-66 tential for reduced side effects. Additionally, for drugs that act locally 67 68 in the female reproductive tract, topical vaginal application results in 69 much higher drug concentrations and improved efficacy.

70Typical vaginal dosage forms include rings, films, creams, and gels, 71each of which has advantages for particular drugs and particular indications, as reviewed elsewhere [1]. More recently, nanoparticle-based 72platforms for drug delivery to the vagina have received increasing atten-7374 tion. The development of nanoparticle-based vaginal drug delivery formulations has largely been focused on HIV pre-exposure prophylaxis 75 76 (PrEP). Nanoparticles can provide sustained release of microbicide drugs, which is necessary for maintaining protective drug concentra-77 78 tions between the time of dosing and the time of intercourse. Drug release from nanoparticles can result in more controlled vaginal absorp-79 tion compared to a drug depot like a vaginal gel, thereby potentially re-80 quiring reduced amounts of drug. Nanoparticles can be designed to 81 contain multiple modalities, to target specific cells, and to have intrinsic 82 83 antimicrobial activity. Achieving adequate vaginal drug distribution can be challenging; appropriately designed nanoparticles can provide im-84 proved drug distribution to target cells and tissues, improving efficacy. 85 However, the advantages and unique characteristics of nanoparticle-86 based vaginal formulations need not be limited to PrEP, as evidenced 87 88 by demonstrations of nanoparticles applied to the vagina of experimental animals to achieve vaccination, or treatment of cervical cancer and 89 90 other female reproductive tract infections. The goal of this review is to 91 discuss: (i) factors that influence vaginal drug delivery that should be 92considered when designing and testing nanoparticle-based platforms, 93(ii) nanoparticle-based formulations designed for vaginal drug delivery, 94and (iii) other opportunities for nanoparticle-based vaginal drug deliv-95ery formulations to improve prophylactic and therapeutic outcomes.

# 2. Considerations for the rational design of nanoparticle platforms for vaginal drug delivery

### 98 2.1. Physiology of the vagina and implications for drug delivery

99 Often cited drawbacks of oral drug administration include the lack of predictability in drug absorption due to physiological variations and the 100 hepatic first-pass effect. Drugs absorbed from the vagina enter the pe-101 102 ripheral circulation through a venous plexus that empties into the internal iliac veins and the hemorrhoidal veins, thus avoiding the liver [2]. 103 104 However, similar to oral drug absorption, vaginal drug absorption is affected by numerous physiological factors. First, the vagina is not simply 105a straight tube as often depicted in anterior drawings of the female re-106 productive tract. Imaging of the lateral view has demonstrated that 107the lower portion of the vagina is tilted at approximately 45° leading 108 109up to the wider upper portion that is almost horizontal when a 110 woman is standing [3,4]. From a cross-sectional view, the vagina is collapsed with the anterior and posterior walls in contact with each other, 111 forming what is often referred to as an "H" shape [5]. The distended 112shape of the vagina varies widely between women [6]. The vaginal 113114 walls are lined with stratified squamous epithelium containing numerous folds, or rugae, which allow for this distension and increased surface 115 area for absorption [4]. Due to the intra-abdominal pressure that col-116 lapses the rugae, high internal surface area, and tortuosity of the vaginal 117 canal, achieving adequate distribution of a vaginal product can be chal-118 lenging, and is often dependent on the influence of numerous factors 119 [7]. Unfortunately, animal models for vaginal drug delivery fail to reca-120pitulate many of these uniquely human features, including the acidic pH 121 (~3.5–4.0) observed in the human vagina in women with healthy, 122 123 lactobacilli-dominated microbiota [8,9]. Under certain conditions, such as during a yeast infection or when semen is introduced into the vagina, 124 the pH can be temporarily elevated [10,11], which can affect the ionization and absorption of certain drugs [3,7]. Thus, the basic physiology of 126 the vagina must be considered when designing vaginal dosage forms, 127 and care must be taken in interpreting experimental observations obtained using animal models. 129

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### 2.2. The mucus barrier and implications for drug delivery

In addition to the epithelium itself, cervicovaginal mucus (CVM) 131 serves as a physical barrier to protect the vagina against infection. 132 CVM can have a significant impact on the penetration, distribution, 133 and residence time of nanoparticle-based systems for vaginal drug de- 134 livery applications. Mucus produced at the cervix bathes and coats the 135 vaginal walls, mixing with vaginal epithelial cells and vaginal transu-136 date. The composition of CVM is similar outside of the period of ovula- 137 tion, and is composed mostly of water (~90-95%) with gel-forming 138 glycoproteins, lipids, soluble proteins, enzymes, and various immune 139 factors [12,13]. During ovulation, cervical mucus becomes watery and 140 mucin proteins align to allow sperm to pass more readily through the 141 cervix into the uterus. However, ovulatory mucus is produced in more 142 copious amounts, thus facilitating clearance and impeding drug absorp- 143 tion [14]. Mucins in CVM from non-ovulatory women and women on 144 hormonal contraceptives form a tight meshwork, acting as a barrier to 145 protect the epithelium [13]. Non-ovulatory human CVM was recently 146 found to have pores in the range of 50-1800 nm, with an average of 147  $340 \pm 70$  nm [15]. In addition to sterically trapping pathogens and par- 148 ticulates, CVM also traps particles by adhesive interactions [12]. Vaginal 149 dosage forms, such as gels, are often designed to be mucoadhesive to in- 150 crease residence time in the vagina [16]. It was also found that conven- 151 tional nanoparticle formulations are inherently mucoadhesive due to 152 interactions between mucus and the hydrophobic polymer nanoparti- 153 cles [17,18], which was expected to increase residence time [19]. How- 154 ever, it was recently demonstrated that nanoparticles engineered with 155 non-adhesive surface coatings of densely packed polyethylene glycol 156 (mucus penetrating particles, or MPP) can rapidly penetrate human 157 and mouse mucus, reaching deep into the more slowly cleared mucus 158 layers, including those in the collapsed vaginal folds, thereby increasing 159 epithelial coverage and vaginal retention compared to mucoadhesive 160 conventional nanoparticles (CP) (see Polymeric nanoparticles) [17,20, 161 21]. A microbicide drug formulated as an MPP was also found to provide 162 increased protection in a mouse model of vaginal herpes infection, 163 compared to even 10-times the amount of unformulated drug [20]. 164 Thus, it appears as though the barrier properties of CVM to pathogens 165 and nanoparticles must also be considered when designing an effective 166 nanoparticle-based formulation for vaginal drug delivery. 167

### 2.3. Immunology of the vaginal mucosa and implications for drug delivery 168

The immune system of the female reproductive tract must protect 169 against infectious pathogens while tolerating commensal bacteria and 170 the presence of foreign materials, such as sperm. Whether nanoparticle 171 systems are designed to interact directly with the immune system, such 172 as with vaccine delivery and immune cell-targeted delivery, or to be unrecognized by the immune system, a thorough understanding of vaginal 174 immunity is necessary. Although not as highly studied as the immune systems in the respiratory and gastrointestinal (GI) tracts, understanding of how the vaginal immune system strikes a balance between tolerance and pathogen recognition, and how it differs from other mucosae, 178 is progressing [22].

The respiratory and GI tracts are type I mucosae, which is coated with 180 simple columnar epithelia linked by tight junctions and containing 181 organized lymphoid structures (MALT). In contrast, the vaginal and 182 ectocervical epithelia are type II mucosa, covered with squamous epithe-183 lia and lacking MALT [23]. Thus, rather than allowing access to underly-184 ing MALT for immune surveillance like type I mucosa, the multiple layers 185

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