

1 **Chitosan-coated liposomes for topical vaginal therapy:**

2 **Assuring localized drug effect**

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16 **Abstract**

17 The choice of drug therapy in pregnant patients suffering from vaginal infections is limited
18 by the safety profile of the drug. Assuring the efficient topical therapy to avoid systemic
19 absorption is considered the best therapy option. Chitosan-coated liposomes have been
20 developed and optimized to assure localized therapy of clotrimazole. Chitosan was selected
21 as mucoadhesive polymer both to prolong system's retention at the vaginal site and act on
22 biofilms responsible for high recurrence of infections. Sonicated liposomes were coated
23 with chitosan in three different concentrations, namely 0.1, 0.3 and 0.6 % (w/v).
24 Clotrimazole-containing (22 µg/mg lipid) chitosan-coated liposomes were in the size range
25 of 100-200 nm. The *in vitro* release studies confirmed prolonged release of clotrimazole
26 from both non-coated and chitosan-coated liposomes as compared to control. The *ex vivo*
27 penetration experiments performed on the pregnant sheep vaginal tissue showed that coated
28 liposomes assured increased clotrimazole tissue retention and reduced its penetration as
29 compared to the control. Mucin studies revealed that the coating with lower chitosan
30 concentration increased the system's mucoadhesive potential, as compared to coating with
31 higher concentrations. These results provide a good platform for further *in vivo* animal
32 studies on mucoadhesive liposomes destined to localized vaginal therapy.

33

34 **Keywords:** mucoadhesive liposomes; vaginal therapy; penetration, pregnancy,
35 clotrimazole

36

37 **1. Introduction**

38 Although the occurrence of vaginal infections in pregnancy is common, the choice of drug
39 therapy is rather limited (das Neves et al., 2008). In particular, topical antifungal therapy is
40 preferred due to the systemic toxicity of antifungal drugs (Chang et al., 2002). In pregnant
41 patients, the two main therapy goals can be summarized as i) assuring the high local drug
42 concentration with concomitant avoidance of systemic absorption and ii) prevention of
43 infection recurrence (Vanić and Škalko-Basnet, 2013). We propose that coating of
44 liposomal surfaces with chitosan can assure both of the goals. When vagina is the site of
45 drug administration, it is also important that both the drug and corresponding delivery
46 system are safe and non-irritating to the delicate vaginal mucosa (Woodrow et al., 2009).
47 The selection of mucoadhesive polymer will be therefore based on its biodegradability,
48 biocompatibility and confirmed mucoadhesiveness. Chitosan fulfils all the above mentioned
49 criteria (Bernkop-Schnürch and Dünnhaupt, 2012; Bhattarai et al., 2010). Moreover,
50 chitosan as mucoadhesive polymer is suited for repeated adhesion, as it does not become
51 inactivated after the first contact with mucus; no reduction in its mucoadhesiveness has
52 been reported (Valenta, 2005). In respect to recurrence, it is now clear that bacterial
53 biofilms play an important role, as the negatively charged polysaccharide matrix coats the
54 bacteria in the biofilm and restricts the penetration of antimicrobial in deeper parts of
55 biofilm. Recently, chitosan was proposed to be able to disrupt bacterial biofilms in vaginal
56 environment more efficiently than other polymers (polycarbophil). Even more importantly,
57 its anti-biofilm effect was found to be pH-independent (Kandimalla et al., 2013).

58 The mucoadhesiveness of chitosan-based delivery systems has been studied in various
59 routes of drug administration (das Neves et al., 2011a; Gradauer et al., 2012; Sugihara et
60 al., 2012; Takeuchi et al., 2001; Takeuchi et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2011); however, its
61 potential in vaginal drug delivery was comparatively less studied (Valenta, 2005; Bonferoni
62 et al., 2008; Kast et al., 2002; Perioli et al., 2008; Perioli et al., 2009; Berginc et al., 2014).
63 Based on its confirmed mucoadhesiveness, it is reasonable to expect that chitosan-based
64 delivery systems will be superior in vaginal drug delivery, as some recent studies on
65 chitosan nanoparticles indicate (Meng et al., 2011).

66 The success of non-invasive drug delivery via vaginal mucosa will be result of the interplay
67 between the local vaginal environment, drug and physicochemical properties of drug carrier
68 (Berginc et al., 2014). However, the interaction between drug delivery system and
69 cervicovaginal mucus can affect the performance of drug nanocarrier, as the carrier must
70 migrate through the vaginal or cervical fluid in order to deliver drug to the underlying
71 mucosal surface (das Neves et al., 2012; Vanić and Škalko-Basnet, 2013). Vaginal mucosal
72 tissue has relatively low turnover, which would be beneficial for prolonged residence time
73 (Andrews et al., 2009). Vaginal absorption of drugs occurs in two main steps, namely the
74 drug dissolution in vaginal lumen followed by the membrane penetration (Husain and
75 Ahsan, 2005).

76 As a model drug we selected clotrimazole, often prescribed in vulvovaginal candidosis. Its
77 local therapy is recommended to pregnant and breast-feeding patients, as well as to patients
78 not using reliable birth control methods, or planning to become pregnant (das Neves et al.,
79 2008).

80

81 **2. Materials and methods**

82 **Materials**

83 Lipoid S 100 (PC, soybean lecithin, > 94 % phosphatidylcholine) was a generous gift from
84 Lipoid GmbH, Ludwigshafen, Germany. Chitosan, low Mw (Brookfield viscosity 20.000
85 cps, degree of deacetylation (DD of 92 %), acetonitrile (CHROMASOLV[®] gradient grade),
86 bovine serum albumin, clotrimazole, glycerol, methanol CROMASOLV[®], mucin from
87 porcine stomach (type III, bound sialic acid 0.5 % - 1.5 %, partially purified) and sodium
88 chloride were the products of Sigma-Aldrich, Chemie GmbH, Steinheim, Germany. Acetic
89 acid (glacial), anhydrous potassium phosphate and sodium hydrogen phosphate were
90 purchased from Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany. Calcium hydroxide, glucose, lactic
91 acid, potassium hydroxide, propylene glycol, sodium hydroxide and urea were obtained
92 from NMD, Oslo, Norway. Ammonium acetate was the product of BHD Prolab, Leuven,
93 Belgium.

94

95 *2.1. Preparation of liposomes with clotrimazole*

96 Liposomes were prepared by the method described earlier (Berginc et al., 2014). In brief,
97 clotrimazole (20 mg) and PC (200 mg) were dissolved in methanol in a round bottom flask.
98 The solvent was evaporated using rotoevaporator system (Büchi rotavapor R-124 with
99 vacuum controller B-721, Büchi Vac[®] V-500, Büchi Labortechnik, Flawil, Switzerland)

100 for at least 1 hour at 50 mm Hg and 40 °C. The remaining film was then re-suspended in 10
101 mL of distilled water. If necessary, ultrasonic bath was used to completely dislodge the film
102 from the flask. Liposomal suspensions were stored in the refrigerator (4-8 °C) overnight
103 prior to further use.

104

105 *2.2. Vesicle size reduction*

106 Liposomes (4 ml) were transferred to a 10 mL beaker and placed on ice bath. The needle
107 probe tip of probe sonicator was placed in the centre of the beaker containing liposomal
108 suspension. The sonicator (Ultrasonic processor 500 watt, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis,
109 Missouri, USA) was set to 40 % amplitude and the liposomes were exposed to ultrasonic
110 irradiation for 1, 2 or 2x2 minutes, respectively. The sonicated liposomes were stored in the
111 refrigerator for at least 6 hours prior to further use.

112

113 *2.3. Particle size analysis*

114 The particle size distributions of liposomes were determined by photon correlation
115 spectroscopy (Submicron particle sizer model 370, Nicomp, Santa Barbara, California,
116 USA). In order to avoid interference from dust particles, the test tubes to be used for the
117 determination were filled with distilled water and sonicated for 10 min in ultrasonic bath,
118 then rinsed with filtered water (using 0.2 µm filter) prior to the experiments. Small aliquots
119 of the samples were diluted with the filtered water to obtain particle intensity of

120 approximately 200-350 kHz (di Cagno et al., 2011). All formulations were prepared in a
121 laminar airflow bench and analyses run in vesicle mode and the intensity-weight distribution
122 at 23 °C. Three parallels were determined (run time 10 min) for each sample measurement.

123

124 *2.4. Zeta potential determination*

125 Zeta potential measurements were performed on a Malvern Zetasizer Nano Z (Malvern,
126 Oxford, UK). To ensure the validity of the measurements, the instrument was calibrated
127 throughout the measurements using the Malvern Zeta Potential Transfer Standard (-50 ± 5
128 mV). The liposomal suspensions were diluted in 1:40 ratio in filtered water before
129 measurements to achieve the proper count rate. All measurements were performed at 23°C
130 and the results were expressed as the average of at least three independent samples.

131

132 *2.5. Entrapment efficiency determination*

133 To separate free from liposomally entrapped drug, the sonicated liposomes were
134 ultracentrifuged (Beckman model L8-70M preparative ultracentrifuge with SW 60 Ti rotor,
135 Beckman Instruments, Palo Alto, California, USA) for 30 minutes, at 10 °C and 85 000 g.
136 The pellet (containing unentrapped drug and liposomes larger than 200 nm) was separated
137 from the supernatant (smaller liposomes containing clotrimazole), re-suspended in 500 µL
138 of distilled water and finally diluted to 2 mL with methanol. Drug content in both
139 supernatant and pellet was determined by the HPLC method. A reversed phase column

140 (XTerra[®] RP18 5 μ m, 3.9 x 150 mm column, Waters, Dublin, Ireland) installed in a Waters
141 e2795 Separations Module coupled with a Waters 2489 UV/VIS detector was used in the
142 measurements. The mobile phase consisted of acetonitrile and MilliQ water in a gradient
143 starting at 30% acetonitrile (A), increasing to 90% A over 10 minutes, then to 100% A after
144 11 minutes. The HPLC measurements settings were as follows: flow rate 1 mL/min,
145 column temperature of 25 °C, sample temperature 25 °C, injection volume 20 μ L, run time
146 11 min and the detection wavelength 210 nm. The correlation coefficient was 0.9997 and
147 the minimum detectable amount of clotrimazole 0.5 μ g/mL. The entrapment was expressed
148 as the amount of drug present in sonicated vesicles. The measurements were performed in
149 triplicates.

150

151 *2.6. Phospholipid content*

152 An enzymatic assay was used to determine the amount of lipid present in liposomes in
153 order to calculate the entrapment efficiency. For this purpose a commercial test kit
154 (Phospholipids B; Wako Chemicals USA, Inc., Richmond, Virginia, USA) was applied in
155 the method described earlier (Basnet et al., 2012). Measurements were performed in
156 triplicates.

157

158 *2.7. Coating of liposomes*

159 The chitosan solutions (0.1, 0.3 and 0.6 %, w/v) used for liposome coating were prepared in
160 0.1 % and 0.5 % (v/v) glacial acetic acid, respectively. The chitosan solution was added

161 drop-wise to an equal volume of liposomes free from untrapped clotrimazole, under
162 controlled magnetic stirring at room temperature for 1 hour, followed by incubation in the
163 refrigerator overnight. The rate of stirring was kept constant for all preparations (Karn et
164 al., 2011).

165

166 *2.8. In vitro release study*

167 Drug release was followed by the method described earlier (Hurler et al., 2012). The Franz
168 cell manual diffusion system (Perme Gear Ink, Diffusion cells and Systems, Hellertown,
169 USA) was properly cleaned with methanol, demineralized water and distilled water,
170 respectively. The heating circulator (Julabo Laboratechnik, F12-ED, Seelback, Germany)
171 was set to 37 °C. The acceptor chamber (12 mL) was filled up with acetate buffer (pH 4.6;
172 77.1 g of CH₃COONH₄, 70 mL of glacial acetic acid and distilled water up to 1000 mL).
173 Cellophane membrane (Max Bringmann KG, Wendelstein, Germany) was pre-soaked in
174 the same buffer. Liposomal samples (both chitosan-coated and non-coated and sonicated
175 for 2x2 min) or controls (clotrimazole in propylene glycol) were added in the donor
176 chamber and the system was properly sealed. The drug content in all tested samples was
177 determined (HPLC) prior to the study and the volumes of formulations in donor chambers
178 normalized to assure the same drug amount. The samples (500 µl) were collected after 1, 2,
179 3, 4, 8 and 24 hours. The samples were replaced by an equal volume of buffer upon
180 removal of sample from the acceptor chamber. The drug content was determined by the
181 HPLC method. The experiments were performed in triplicates.

182

183 *2.9. Preparation of vaginal tissue*

184 The sheep vaginal tissue (from pregnant animals) was obtained from the Laboratory
185 Animal Centre, University of Oulu, Finland. The vaginal tissue was carefully removed
186 from the underlying tissue and cleaned with the physiological solution (pH 7.4). Adequate
187 sized pieces were moisten by 0.9 % (w/w) NaCl and packed in clinging film, and frozen (-
188 20 °C). They were left to defrost at room temperature for at least 2 hours prior to
189 experiments. The thickness of the tissue was determined to be ranging from 900 to 1140
190 microns. It was earlier confirmed that no significant differences were observed in using
191 fresh or snap-frozen tissue samples (Sassi et al., 2004). We have earlier also compared the
192 barrier properties of the fresh vaginal tissue and frozen (-20 °C) and thawed tissue (both
193 animal skin and vaginal tissue) and have not observed any difference in the properties.

194

195 *2.10. Ex vivo penetration study*

196 The defrosted vaginal tissue was cut to fit the Franz diffusion cells surface (1.77 cm²). The
197 acceptor chamber was filled up with phosphate buffer (pH 7.4, 8 g/L NaCl, 0.19 g/L
198 KH₂PO₄, and 2.38 g/L Na₂HPO₄) and the vaginal tissue fixed between donor and acceptor
199 chamber. Samples (600 µL) were added into the donor cells and the system was properly
200 sealed. The amount of the drug in each cell was the same, as confirmed by the HPLC
201 analysis. Samples of 500 µL were collected at 1, 2, 3, 4, 8 and 24 hours and replaced with

202 an equal amount of buffer. Drug content was determined by the HPLC method. The
203 measurements were performed in triplicates.

204

205 *2.11. In vitro mucin-binding test*

206 The mucoadhesion was measured by determining the binding of liposomes to pig mucin.
207 Liposomes (1 mL) were mixed with equal volume of pig mucin (PM) suspension (400
208 µg/mL) in 0.05 M PBS (pH 7.4) and incubated at room temperature for 2 hours, followed
209 by ultracentrifugation for 1 hour, at 10 °C at 216 000 g (Optima LE-80; Beckman
210 Instruments, Palo Alto, USA). Aliquots of 200 µL (4 from each sample) of the supernatants
211 (free PM) were transferred to a microtitre plate (Costar® UV 96-well plate with UV
212 transparent flat bottom, Acrylic, Costar®, Corning, New York, USA) and measured
213 spectroscopically at 251 nm (Microtitre plate reader; Spectra Max 190 Microplate,
214 Spectrophotometer Molecular devices, Sunnyvale, California, USA). The PM binding
215 efficiency was calculated according to Naderkhani et al. (2014).

216

217 *2.12. Statistical evaluation*

218 The student's *t*-test was used for comparison of two means. A significance level of $p < 0.05$
219 was considered to be appropriate.

220

221

222 **3. Results and Discussion**

223 In order to achieve optimal therapeutic outcome, the delivery system is expected to provide
224 a sufficient amount of the active ingredient (in our case clotrimazole) at the desired site of
225 action (vaginal mucosal tissue) for a sufficiently long period of time to enable drug to
226 perform its therapeutic action. Therefore, in the first step in optimization of chitosan-coated
227 liposomes for topical vaginal delivery, we were focusing on the relationship between
228 encapsulation yields vs particle size. Smaller particles are expected to provide larger
229 surface area, however those particles carry less clotrimazole load, whereas larger particles
230 will incorporate more of the drug, but will provide smaller contact surface for possible
231 mucoadhesion.

232

233 *3.1. Liposomal characteristics*

234 Liposomes have been studied as drug delivery systems for almost 5 decades. A number of
235 liposomes-based products are on the market and many more are in pipelines (Allen and
236 Cullis, 2013). We have previously reported on the potential of liposomes to enhance the
237 anti-inflammatory properties of associated curcumin destined for vaginal therapy (Basnet et
238 al., 2012). Guided by those promising results, we selected liposomes as carrier for
239 clotrimazole and used chitosan-coating to i) assure prolonged and controlled release of
240 clotrimazole and ii) assure its retention at vaginal site, without significant penetration
241 through the vaginal tissue.

242 Size and size distribution of liposomes are important characteristics of liposomes destined
243 for topical drug delivery. The effect of liposomal size on the efficacy of liposomal delivery
244 to skin is rather well studied (Cevc, 2004); however, relatively little is known about the
245 effect of vesicle size on the delivery of drugs intended for mucosal targeting at vaginal site.
246 Takeuchi and co-workers (2001) have found that the amount of liposomes penetrating into
247 the intestinal mucous layer increased when the size of the liposomes was reduced to
248 approximately 100 nm for both non- and chitosan-coated liposomes. In previous
249 experiments (Berginc et al., 2012) we observed that curcumin in smaller vesicles penetrated
250 less into the upper layers of vaginal tissue as compared to curcumin in multilamellar
251 vesicles. Both types of liposomes exhibited better tissue retention as compared to curcumin
252 in solution form. Similarly, polymer nanoparticles smaller than 200 nm were reported to
253 successfully deliver small-interfering RNA and provided sustained gene silencing
254 throughout the female reproductive tract for at least 14 days (Woodrow et al., 2009).
255 The particle size shown in Table 1 indicates that the liposomes sonicated for 2x2 minutes
256 were in the desired size range. Liposomal dispersions exhibited two distinguished peaks in
257 distributions, indicating bimodal distribution and rather high polydispersity (Table 1). With
258 the increase in sonication time, the polydispersity index values decreased, as expected
259 (Table 1).

260 We tried to minimize the exposure of liposomes to the sonication force, as it is known that
261 extensive sonication can lead to the release of originally incorporated drug and lipid
262 degradation (di Cagno et al., 2011).

263 Due to highly lipophilic nature of clotrimazole (log *P* of 3.5), clotrimazole was dissolved in
264 the organic solvent together with lipid during the preparation of liposomes and was

265 expected to incorporate itself within lipid bilayers of liposomes. We observed similar
266 entrapment efficiencies for liposomes sonicated for 1 and 2 minutes, and the loss of
267 originally entrapped clotrimazole was remarkable only after sonication for 2x2 minutes,
268 resulting in smaller liposomes (Table 1). In comparison to literature data, our entrapment
269 (up to 22 μg clotrimazole/mg lipid) was found to be lower; however none of the published
270 articles describes the use of the same liposome preparation method and phospholipid
271 composition. Although Ning et al. (2005) reported a very high entrapment of clotrimazole
272 (over 90 %) using the film method in preparation of liposomes, they used dialysis to
273 separate unentrapped from liposomal drug. The fact that clotrimazole has aqueous
274 solubility of only 5.5 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ (Mw 344) (Bilensoy et al, 2006), and that no data is available
275 on whether or not the sink conditions were assured in the experimental set up of Ning and
276 coworkers (2005), it might be possible that part of the drug was accumulated in the
277 dialysis-tube in a form of precipitates, falsely contributing to high entrapment values.
278 Liposomes prepared by the proliposome and polyol dilution methods were reported to
279 incorporate more clotrimazole (Pavelić et al., 1999; Pavelić et al., 2005); however, the
280 methods of preparations differed from the method used in our experiments, and, more
281 importantly, the vesicle size was larger than in our case. Proliposome method is known to
282 yield multilamellar liposomes thus enabling high incorporation of lipophilic drug (Pavelić
283 et al., 1999). An additional difference between the previous and current experiments was
284 the liposomal composition (Pavelić et al., 2005). We choose to prepare liposomes from a
285 simple lipid mixture to be able to follow the effect of chitosan coating in a rather
286 straightforward manner, avoiding the interference of possible ionic interactions between
287 lipid and chitosan and consequently mucin.

288

289 The coating of liposomes is expected to result in an increase in their original size
290 (Filipović-Grčić et al., 2001; Karn et al., 2011). Although the entrapment of clotrimazole
291 was lower than we have desired, considering that the obtained vesicle size was in the
292 optimal range for the purpose of development of mucoadhesive liposomal delivery system,
293 we proceeded with coating of those vesicles. Prolonged retention time would be a rationale
294 for lowering the dose needed to induce antifungal effect; therefore lower drug load should
295 not limit the applicability of the system.

296

297 *3.2. Coating of liposomes*

298 It is well established that the polymer concentration significantly influences the strength of
299 mucoadhesion. Moreover, the optimal polymer concentration depends on the physical state
300 of the delivery system (Andrews et al., 2009) and, in the case of coated liposomes; the
301 liquid nature of the system needs to be taken into consideration. Therefore, we have used
302 three different concentrations in the coating of liposomes, all resulting in liquid
303 formulations. The coating resulted in an increase in particle size (Table 2), in agreement
304 with the results reported by Karn and colleagues (2011) and Gradauer and coworkers
305 (2012). The coating of liposomes with chitosan also resulted in an increase of liposome zeta
306 potential (Table 2) in agreement with Berginc et al. (2014). Moreover, the pH of liposomal
307 suspensions changed upon coating; non-coated liposomal suspensions had a pH of 6.0
308 whereas 0.1, 0.3 and 0.6 % coated liposomal suspensions had a pH of 4.12, 4.02 and 4.07,
309 respectively. This would represent additional advantage of chitosan-coated liposomes; it is
310 well known that *C. albicans* adheres to vaginal tissue with higher affinity at pH 6 than at

311 pH 4 and that acidic formulations also restore the physiological acid pH of vagina (Chang
312 et al., 2002).

313 It was previously reported that the amount of polymer used for coating of nanoparticles and
314 found on vesicle surface was similar regardless of the molecular weight of chitosan used
315 (Llabot et al., 2011). However, nanoparticles coated with low molecular weight chitosan
316 were found to be more bioadhesive than those coated with high molecular weight
317 chitosan. This could be explained by the interpenetration mechanisms with the mucin
318 chains, as it is known that long polymer chains reduce the interpenetration, reducing the
319 bioadhesive strength (Llabot, 2011). This was the reason why we have selected low Mw
320 chitosan as a coating material.

321

322 Although there is no consensus on the optimal size range of nanocarriers expected to
323 penetrate mucus layer, it was suggested that the nanocarriers in the size range of 200-500
324 nm are superior to both much smaller and also larger nanosystems (das Neves et al.,
325 2011b). Takeuchi et al. (2005) confirmed the superiority of nanosize chitosan-coated
326 liposomes in prolonging the retention time in the intestinal mucosa as compared to larger
327 vesicles. However, the vaginal mucosa has unique features which make direct translation of
328 the results rather difficult.

329

330 Regarding the optimal size, it is also important to consider that some of the particles tend to
331 agglomerate, and that agglomerates behave in a different manner than single particles (das
332 Neves et al, 2011a). We have tested our liposomes for one month stability (at 4 °C) and
333 have not observed significant increase in the original size of chitosan-coated vesicles (data

334 not shown). It can be hypothesized that the chitosan-coating is working as a stabilizer by
335 prohibiting agglomeration of the liposomes, even though the chitosan is not bound to the
336 lipid surface either by covalent or ionic bonds. Although liposomes made of
337 phosphatidylcholine have no surface charge, the electrostatically driven binding of chitosan
338 to the lipid membrane is energetically favoured, even for neutral liposomes, leading to
339 further stabilization of the vesicle suspension, as reported recently (Mertins et al., 2010;
340 Mertins et al., 2011).

341

342 *3.3. In vitro release of liposomally-associated clotrimazole*

343 There are several means to achieve the prolonged release of drugs destined for vaginal
344 administration. Most of the approaches rely on the use of polymer in a form of hydrogel, to
345 assure both prolonged release and intimate contact between drug and vaginal mucosa,
346 simultaneously using liposomes as solubilizers for poorly soluble drugs (Pavelić et al.,
347 2005). Other approaches use the complexation of drug with cyclodextrine, followed by
348 incorporation of a complex in a hydrogel, such as for example Pluronic thermosensitive gel,
349 exhibiting prolonged release of clotrimazole when the drug was complexed with β -
350 cyclodextrine prior to inclusion into the hydrogels (Bilensoy et al., 2006).

351 We have followed the release of liposomally-associated clotrimazole (Figure1) in
352 comparison to clotrimazole in a free form (propylene glycol as vehicle). All liposomal
353 formulations exhibited prolonged release as compared to free drug (control). All
354 formulations, even the control, also failed to release all of the incorporated clotrimazole,
355 which may be explained by the fact that clotrimazole, a very hydrophobic molecule, has
356 very limited solubility in water. In the case of the control (propylene glycol), an osmotic

357 effect was observed drawing water from the acceptor medium into the sample in donor
358 chamber. As a consequence, clotrimazole started to precipitate (in donor chamber) when a
359 critical amount of drug dissolved in propylene glycol is mixed with water. Therefore, we
360 assume that it would be necessary to add some sort of the solubilizing agent into the
361 acceptor medium (acceptor chamber) to secure sink conditions. The limitation of Franz
362 diffusion system is the limited volume which can be used in the acceptor chamber, causing
363 the problems for the poorly soluble drugs. However, we could detect the differences
364 between control (free drug) and the drug released from liposomes. Although we have
365 expected the slowest release from chitosan-coated liposomes, interestingly, the slowest
366 release of the drug was perceived from non-coated (plain) liposomes ($p < 0.05$). Non-coated
367 liposomes act as solubilizer for clotrimazole in the lipid membrane and drug only diffuses
368 from the lipid membrane as liposomes become leaky, if not coated. It seems that the
369 partitioning of clotrimazole between outer aqueous medium and liposomal bilayers is in
370 favour of liposomal bilayers, whereas in coated liposomes the release is supported by the
371 presence of chitosan coating. We have also observed the difference in the release from
372 liposomes coated with three different concentrations of chitosan; those coated with higher
373 concentration of chitosan exhibited more pronounced sustained release, however not on a
374 significant level. Chitosan is hydrophilic in nature and makes the surface of liposomes less
375 hydrophobic, as in chitosan-coated liposomes. The thicker coatings (0.3 and 0.6 %, w/v,
376 respectively) will cause the diffusion obstacle for the drug released from the surface,
377 resulting in the slower release. Berginc et al. (2014) reported that increasing the amount of
378 chitosan in the liposomal coating had no beneficial effect on the permeability of
379 liposomally-associated curcumin. This is very interesting, and could be relevant for

380 different types of mucoadhesive coatings on the surface of various nanoparticles and
381 requires further studies. This finding is in agreement with report by Fang and colleagues
382 (2001) who proposed that even the lowest chitosan mole fraction is able to reduce the
383 cooperative unit of the DPPC bilayer and lead to certain degree of membrane bilayer
384 perturbation. Reduction of pH increased the number of protonated amines on the chitosan
385 backbone and caused further disruption on the membrane organization. Although we have
386 used different lipid in our experiments, the interactions between chitosan and polar head of
387 phospholipids are well established (Mertins et al., 2010, 2011). Whether the observation we
388 made for chitosan-coated liposomes incorporating clotrimazole would also apply for
389 liposomally-entrapped hydrophilic drugs and for liposomes of various phospholipid
390 compositions remains to be determined.

391

392 *3.4. Ex vivo penetration of liposomally-associated clotrimazole*

393 The mucoadhesive properties of chitosan are mostly result of its cationic character.
394 Mucoadhesion of chitosan-based delivery systems can therefore be achieved through ionic
395 interactions between the cationic primary amino groups of chitosan and the anionic
396 substructures of the mucus. In addition, the hydrophobic interactions might contribute to its
397 mucoadhesive properties (Bernkop-Schnürch and Dünnhaupt 2012). Although thiolated
398 chitosans have stronger mucoadhesive properties than non-modified chitosan, their
399 compatibility with vaginal environment remains to be proven, and we have therefore opted
400 for non-modified chitosan as a coating material. Chitosans of high degree of deacetylation
401 and of a high molecular mass were reported to cause an increase in the epithelial
402 permeability (Bernkop-Schnürch and Dünnhaupt, 2012), which needs to be taken into

403 consideration when choosing the type of chitosan for the coating of liposomes intended for
404 administration into pregnant patients, and was the reason that we selected low molecular
405 weight chitosan. We are currently evaluating the system in the *in vivo* conditions in
406 pregnant sheep to confirm the safety and non-irritability of the system, as it is well-known
407 that vaginal irritation can lead to increased susceptibility to foreign pathogens and
408 inflammation.

409 Mucus is a viscous coating on many epithelial surfaces and consists mainly of water (up to
410 95 % weight), inorganic salts, carbohydrates, lipids and glycoproteins, termed mucins.
411 Mucins are hydrosoluble and responsible for the gel-like properties of the mucus (Serra et
412 al., 2009). In order for mucoadhesion to take place, the wetting and swelling of polymer
413 should enable an intimate contact with the mucosal tissue, followed by interpenetration of
414 the polymer chains and entanglement between the polymer and mucin chains. Chitosan
415 exhibits strong bioadhesive properties through the electrostatic interactions with sialic
416 groups in mucins of the mucosal layer. The high positive charge density of chitosan
417 enhances its mucoadhesiveness (Meng et al., 2011). It is also important to consider the
418 concentration of liposomes applied to vaginal tissue, as this may affect the normal structure
419 of mucus and cause the collapsing of mucin fibres (das Neves et al., 2011b). The
420 concentration of liposomes used in our experiments was low and not expected to cause
421 changes in mucosal structure and was considered to be safe. However, it remains to be
422 evaluated in the *in vivo* studies in suitable animal model.

423

424 Although the mucoadhesive behaviour of bulk material such as polymer-based hydrogels
425 made of chitosan for example is well characterized, rather little is known about the

426 behaviour of chitosan at the nanoscale (das Neves et al., 2011b). We have previously
427 confirmed the bioadhesion potential of chitosan-based hydrogels onto the skin (Hurler and
428 Skalko-Basnet, 2012); however, the bioadhesiveness of chitosan-coated liposomes in
429 nanosize range cannot be directly compared to hydrogels.

430

431 We have used the vaginal tissues of pregnant sheep to mimic closer the *in vivo* evaluation
432 of our formulation in pregnant animals. The results presented in Figure 2 indicate that
433 liposomes are able to retain associated clotrimazole on the vaginal tissue and in the tissue,
434 thus preventing undesired penetration through the vaginal tissue. This is of great
435 importance considering clotrimazole therapy in pregnant patients. The free drug, a form of
436 propylene glycol solution, penetrated through vaginal tissue in remarkable manner (almost
437 40 % after 24 hours), whereas the liposomally-associated drug penetrated to significantly
438 lower extent ($p < 0.01$). We are aware that propylene glycol is a known skin penetration
439 enhancer and acts as a carrier-solvent for poorly soluble substances such as clotrimazole.
440 Moreover, propylene glycol may induce the osmotic effects which result in the changed
441 barrier properties of the tissue. However, due to a very low solubility of clotrimazole, the
442 choice of a solvent which we could use to prepare clotrimazole solution was very limited.
443 Most of the other solvents are expected to directly damage the barrier properties of the
444 vaginal tissue, resulting in the even higher penetration.

445 In respect to the drug retention on and within vaginal tissue, It appears that liposomes
446 coated with 0.1 % chitosan solution exhibited lowest penetration of clotrimazole and
447 highest amount of clotrimazole retained on top of the tissue (Figure 2), both in comparison
448 to plain, non-coated liposomes and liposomes coated with different polymer concentrations.

449 One has to consider that the increased retention time on the target site would outweigh
450 more sustained release from non-coated liposomes (Figure 1), as reported for mucoadhesive
451 liposomes incorporating curcumin (Berginc et al., 2014).

452 The vulvovaginal candidosis is characterized by the infection reaching the deeper epithelial
453 layers (das Nevas et al., 2008); thus prolonged retention time on the vaginal mucus would
454 be beneficial. To confirm that chitosan coating on liposomal surface is available for close
455 interaction with mucin, we tested non-coated and coated liposomes for mucin-binding
456 potential (Figure 3). The results clearly indicate ($p < 0.01$) that liposomes coated with 0.1 %
457 polymer concentration exhibit superior interaction with mucin in comparison to all other
458 formulations. This indicates that they exhibit potential to retain at the vaginal site. This type
459 of liposomes may improve the effectiveness of model drug, yet prevent the undesired
460 systemic absorption.

461

462 It is expected that lipophilic substances/drugs are absorbed from vagina as administration
463 site through the transcellular pathway (Sassi et al., 2004). The passive diffusion was found
464 to be the main mechanism of curcumin penetration into vaginal mucosa when liposomally-
465 associated curcumin was tested in the *ex vivo* conditions. Our current findings are in full
466 agreement. Depending on the liposomal size, the concentration of curcumin in different
467 layers of vaginal tissue was found to be significantly higher as compared to concentration
468 of curcumin applied in a form of solution. The permeability from 0.6 % chitosan-coated
469 liposomes was found to be similar or even lower than from 0.1 % coated liposomes when
470 tested in artificial and isolated bovine mucus. This can be explained by the fact that an

471 increase in the liposomal size, as well as changes in zeta potential, lead to the major part of
472 the polymer being hindered in the deeper layers and unavailable for immediate adhesion.
473 Only when the uppermost polymer sheets of higher polymer concentrations coatings are
474 removed by erosion or by detachment from mucus, more chitosan becomes available for
475 adhesion. This was proposed as an explanation for the superiority of liposomes coated with
476 lower concentration of polymer (Berginc et al., 2014). In addition, liposomal curcumin
477 administered vaginally exhibited negligible potential for systemic absorption, which would
478 greatly support its administration in pregnant patients (Berginc et al., 2012) in agreement
479 with our findings.

480

481 Currently, there is a vivid discussion in the field of vaginal drug delivery whether the
482 mucoadhesiveness of delivery system is advantageous for improved drug therapy or rather
483 disadvantageous (das Neves et al., 2011a). The physical properties of mucus are complex
484 and often described as non-Newtonian behaviour with properties between those of a
485 viscous liquid and an elastic solid. In women with bacterial vaginosis, the viscosity of
486 vaginal fluid is reduced, leading to increased risk of infections and reduced barrier
487 properties of vaginal mucus (Lai et al., 2009). Nevertheless, there is a consensus that the
488 nanocarrier should first be retained at the vaginal site to increase the residence time and
489 avoid vaginal leakage, and subsequently migrate through mucus towards the mucosal
490 surface (das Neves et al., 2012). Antifungal agents used to treat vaginal candidosis need to
491 penetrate deep into the epithelium to reach invasive *Candida* hyphae and exert a local
492 antifungal action (das Neves et al., 2008). One approach to achieve this purpose has been

493 recently suggested by our groups by using deformable propylene glycol liposomes (Vanić
494 et al., 2014). Another approach is based on applying chitosan-based mucoadhesive
495 liposomes developed in this study.

496 Our findings clearly indicate that liposomes are a suitable drug delivery system in respect to
497 both prolonged release and limited tissue penetration. Liposomes are able to assure
498 sustained release of associated drug either with or without chitosan coating. However,
499 coated liposomes are expected to prolong the residence time in the vaginal cavity in the *in*
500 *vivo* conditions and are therefore, considered to be superior. The next step involves the
501 determination of bioadhesiveness of the system by the modified method originally
502 developed for skin (Hurler et al., 2012).

503 We are aware of a need to address current limitations of experimental set up, such as that
504 our experiments were performed on the vaginal tissue in the absence of cervicovaginal
505 fluid. The reason that we did not use cervicovaginal fluid surrogate, is that it was reported
506 that differences between the surrogate and native mucus may be noticeable. We also did not
507 vary the pH of the donor medium, although it is known that the pH is affecting the transport
508 across mucus (das Neves et al., 2012). The effect of semen and the changes in vaginal pH
509 related to age and disease conditions remain to be evaluated.

510

511 **4. Conclusions**

512 Chitosan-coated liposomes were shown to exhibit prolonged release of associated
513 clotrimazole. The penetration of liposomally-associated clotrimazole through the vaginal
514 tissue was reduced as compared to non-coated liposomes, an important fact regarding

515 system's potential in topical vaginal therapy, especially in pregnant patients. We are
516 currently evaluating the system in the *in vivo* conditions in pregnant sheep to confirm the
517 safety and non-irritability of the system as it is well-known that vaginal irritation can lead
518 to increased susceptibility to foreign pathogens and inflammation.

519

520

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528

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656 **List of Tables and Figures**

657

658 **Tables:**

659 **Table 1: Liposomal characteristics (n=3)**

660 **Table 2: The effect of chitosan-coating on liposomal size distribution and zeta**
661 **potential (n=3)**

662

663

664

665 **Figures with legends**

666 **Figure 1: *In vitro* release of clotrimazole from coated and non-coated liposomes (n=3)**

667 The concentration of clotrimazole in all formulations was the same. Control (*) contained
668 clotrimazole in propylene glycol; non-coated liposomes (**) were diluted to obtain the
669 same concentration of clotrimazole as in coated liposomes.

670

671

672 **Figure 2. *Ex vivo* penetration studies (24 hours) in vaginal tissue (n=3)**

673 The concentration of clotrimazole was the same in all formulations. Control contained
674 clotrimazole in propylene glycol; non-coated liposomes were diluted to obtain the same
675 concentration of clotrimazole as in coated liposomes. Liposomal formulations assured
676 significantly less ($p < 0.01$) drug penetration as compared to the control.

677

678

679 **Figure 3. Mucin-binding (PM) efficacy for non-coated and chitosan-coated liposomes**

680 **(n=3)**

681

682

683

684 **Table 1: Liposomal characteristics (n=3)**

685

Time of sonication (min)	Vesicle size				PI	Entrapment (%)
	Peak 1	Weight	Peak 2	Weight		
	(nm)	intensity (%)	(nm)	intensity (%)		
1	317 ± 47	56.8	40 ± 5	41.0	0.58	23.2 ± 2.5
2	234 ± 31	53.9	36 ± 5	43.8	0.46	25.0 ± 0.5
2x2	111 ± 16	83.1	29 ± 4	16.9	0.46	16.5 ± 4.5

686

687

688 **Table 2: The effect of chitosan-coating on liposomal size distribution and zeta**
689 **potential (n=3)**

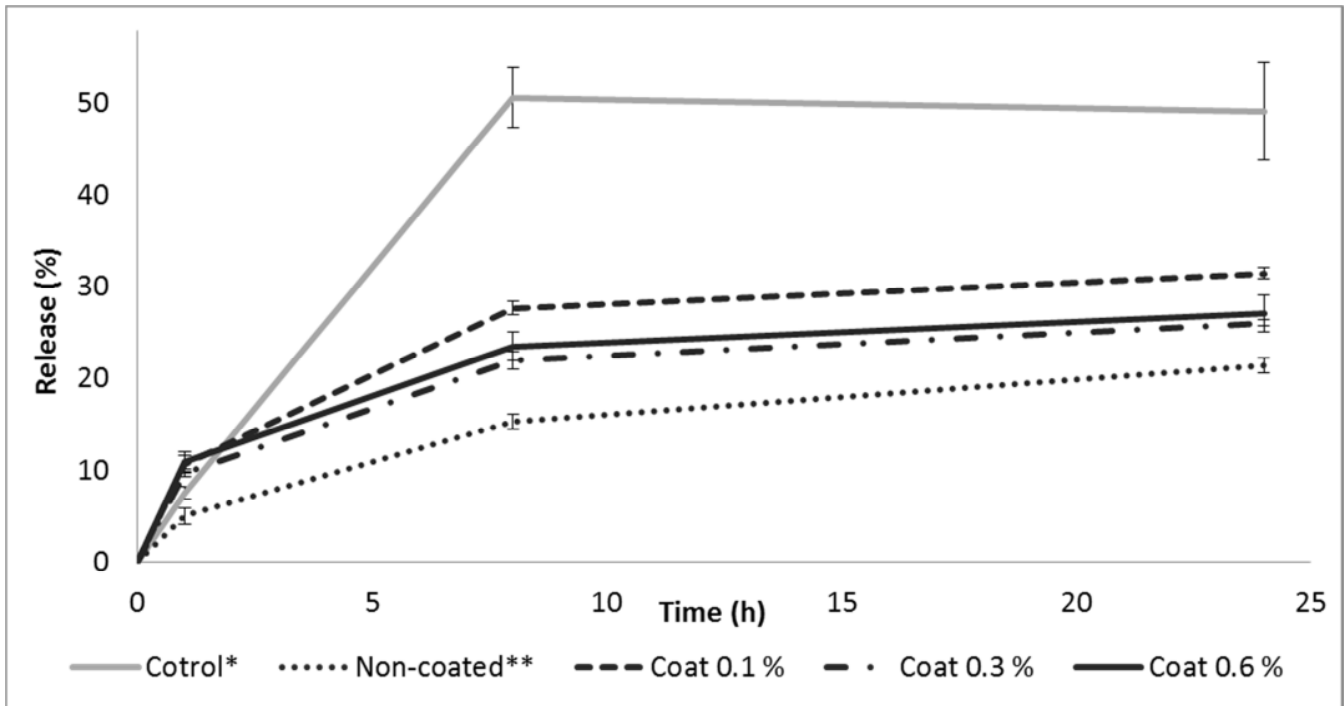
690

Coating (%, w/v)	Vesicle size				PI	Zeta potential (mV)
	Peak 1	Weight	Peak 2	Weight		
	(nm)	intensity (%)	(nm)	intensity (%)		
-	107 ± 3	54 ± 3	27 ± 3	46 ± 3	0.34	- 1.6 ± 0.2
0.1	135 ± 21	53 ± 6	42 ± 9	45 ± 5	0.29	25.9 ± 4.0
0.3	141 ± 6	64 ± 6	48 ± 5	35 ± 6	0.27	35.6 ± 1.9
0.6	190 ± 8	58 ± 6	54 ± 2	42 ± 6	0.29	43.8 ± 3.3

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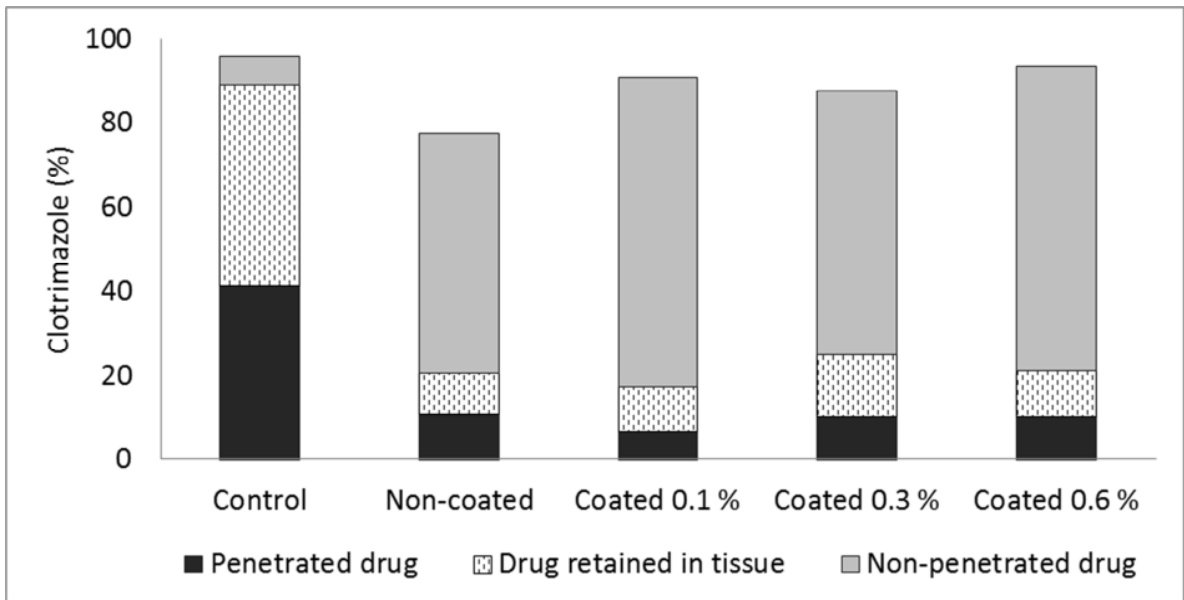
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