

Fig. 5. Confocal laser fluorescence microscopy observation of corneal cross-sections at 5, 30, 60, and 120 min after administration of different types of eye drops. The administered eye drops were FDA nanoparticles (a), FDA microparticles (b), fluorescein nanoparticles (c), and sodium fluorescein (d). The concentration of each eye drops was 0.7 mM (number of molecules). The scale bar (yellow line) indicates 50 μm.

the eye drops. Furthermore, the fact that no significant fluorescent intensity was observed in the vitreous body eliminates the dye passing through the anterior chamber to the vitreous body, resulting in the dye reaching retina (Table 4 and Supplementary Information Fig. S8d). Since the conjunctiva and sclera are more permeable than the cornea, the

main route of drug delivery to the retina has recently been considered to occur through the conjunctiva–sclera route [44,54–57]. These findings correspond to the results obtained for the FDA nanoparticle eye drops in this study. Furthermore, it has been reported that the drug transition rate to the retina is usually 0.001%–0.01% of the amount, even using

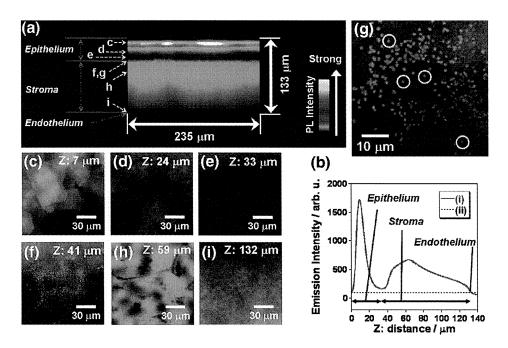


Fig. 6. Confocal laser fluorescence microscopy observation of a cornea. Cross-section image of the cornea at 60 min after administration of FDA nanoparticle eye drops (a) and corresponding fluorescence intensity curve, (b): fluorescence intensity curve vs. depth in cornea (i) and base line (ii). Corresponding superficial layer (c), suprabasal layer (d), and basal layer (e) in the epithelium; the phase between epithelium basal layer and stromal layer (f): enlarged view (g) (examples of aggregates of fluorescent nanoparticles are shown inside yellow circles); stroma (h), and endothelium (i). The concentration of FDA nanoparticles in the administered eye drops was 2.2 mg/ml.

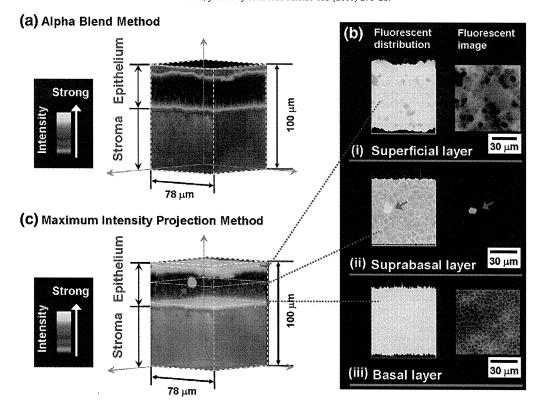


Fig. 7. Fluorescence images of the corneal epithelium at 30 min after administering FDA nanoparticles: three dimensional fluorescence cross sectional image of the cornea obtained by the rendering mode of the alpha blend method (a) and maximum intensity projection method (c); the corresponding fluorescent distributions and fluorescent images (b): superficial layer (i), suprabasal layer (ii), and basal layer (iii).

subconjunctival injection [38]. Therefore, eye drops using nanoparticles of hydrolyzable compounds targeting the retina can be assessed as a promising method for retinal drug delivery (transition rate was 0.01%–0.02% w/w as shown in Tables 3 and 4).

4. Conclusions

A method for enhancing the ocular penetration rate of eye drops through administration of nanoparticles of hydrolyzable dye; i.e., FDA, was described in this study. The FDA nanoparticles were shown to have high penetration rates. The formulation of the FDA nanoparticles overcame the problems of the corneal barrier function. Namely, the formulation of FDA nanoparticles overcame the problem of tight junctions as well as the physicochemical property of a lipophilic epithelium and a hydrophilic stroma. Important determinants of their penetrating ability through these corneal barrier functions were identified. The particle size and the change in the polarity of the dye from lipophilic to hydrophilic through corneal hydrolysis were identified as important. The unique penetration pathway of dyes and/or nanoparticles through the cornea was identified by confocal laser fluorescence microscopy. In the future, using nanoparticles of a

Table 5Dye concentrations in the anterior humor at given times after the administration of FDA nanoparticle eye drops.

	Time after administration of eye drops			
	5 min	30 min	60 min	120 min
Concentration of dyes in the anterior humor (µg/ml)	0.21 ± 0.16	0.56 ± 0.24	0.50 ± 0.23	0.16 ± 0.01

Concentrations of administered FDA nanoparticle eye drops was 0.38 mg/ml. Each value represents the mean \pm s.d. (n = 6).

hydrolyzable compound and employing an *in vivo* hydrolysis reaction not only can be used to improve drug penetration into ocular tissue, but may also be applied to other tissues that have specific barrier functions (e.g., the blood-brain barrier and epidermal barrier). Detailed investigations of ocular penetration and the effects of particle size and the polarity of nanoparticles; i.e., a nanoparticle-based unique penetration pathway and drug distribution, are currently underway in our laboratory with several kinds of ocular drugs being studied.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at doi: 10.1016/j.jconrel.2011.04.019.

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Drug Nanocrystals: Their Physicochemical Properties and Production Technologies

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Abstract: In this review article are introduced some current topics concerning drug nanocrystals related to their physicochemical properties and production technologies with reference to patents. The physicochemical properties of nanonized drugs (i.e. drug nanocrystals) are individual, unique, and different from those of micronized drugs. As a result, drug nanocrystals have some superior pharmaceutical properties compared with their micronized equivalents (e.g. improved solubility and bioavailability). Already some drug nanocrystal products are commercially available. Drug nanocrystallization is an innovative formulation principle mainly for poorly soluble drugs. The special features of drug nanocrystals and their production technologies are described.

Keywords: Bottom-up technology, cancer therapy, combination technology, drug nanocrystals, homogenization technique, laser ablation technique, milling technique, nanomedicine, nanoparticles, nano spray dryer, ophthalmology, photodynamic therapy, precipitation technique, spray dryer technique, top-down technology.

1. INTRODUCTION

Recently, the application of nanotechnologies to nanomedicine has attracted considerable attention [1]. Especially, the expected contribution of nanoparticle technologies to nanomedicine has been greatly increasing. Numerous patents and research articles related to nanoparticles are already available such as tissue-imaging agents using metal nanoparticles [2-6], quantum dots for bioimaging [7-11], and nanoparticles used for tissue engineering [12-15] and drug delivery systems [16-25]. Among them, recently drug nanocrystals have been extensively researched since such formulations can improve pharmaceutical performance as well as resolve many intrinsic problems involving pharmaceutical agents [26]. One particularly serious matter with pharmaceuticals is that many drugs are hydrophobic with little water solubility. For example, approximately 40% of drugs in development phase and 70% of those undergoing production or screening are poorly soluble in aqueous media and even in organic solvents [27]. Poor drug solubility causes several drug delivery problems such as low oral bioavailability, erratic absorption, and impractical intravenous injection since large solvent volumes are required for hydrophobic drug administration, which may heighten the risk of side effects

To overcome these disadvantages, enthusiastic efforts have been taken to increase aqueous solubility of hydrophobic drugs by means of increasing the surface area of bulky drug powders; to this end micronized drug particles with sizes ranging at 1-10 µm have been fabricated. However, although micronized drug particles have increased

dissolution velocity in aqueous media, this technique may not always overcome the bioavailability problems associated with very poorly soluble drugs [30]. In consequence, nanonization to even smaller size scales than micronization has been developed as an alternative approach, i.e. production of drug nanocrystals [31, 32].

It is notable that the speed of introduction of nanocrystals into the pharmaceutical market has been rapid. In the case of liposomes, in contrast, a period of about 25 years was necessary for their appearance in marketable pharmaceutical products [33]. Less than 10 years divided the filing of the first patent applications (1990s) [34] to the appearance on the market of the first nanocrystal drug product, Emend®, in 2000. This short time confirms that nanocrystal drugs are industrially feasible. Furthermore, accumulated knowledge and technological achievements in the drug nanoparticles during last decades may accrete the rapid transition of drug nanocrystals to the market. Nanocrystal serves as an ideal delivery system conferring high absorption for oral drugs and good suitability for intravenous injection as aqueous nanosuspensions [35]. Almost all the marketed products of nanocrystals currently are for oral administration as tablets and capsules (i.e. dry dosage forms) [28]. The therapeutic uses of these drugs are immunosuppressive, antiemetic, hypercholesterolemic, antianorexic, psychostimulant, and muscle relaxant. These drug nanocrystals demonstrate the importance of increased bioavailability nanonization. More drugs having several administration routes such as oral, intrathecal, pulmonary, intravenous, and topical are currently under development [28]. The excellent reviews relating to commercially available products of drug nanocrystals are introduced by Müller et al. [28, 30].

This article will focus on some recent patents and the latest research related to drug nanocrystals including their unique physicochemical properties and production technologies; some future developments of drug nanocrystals are also described.

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2. PHYSICOCHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF DRUG NANOCRYSTALS INCLUDING THEIR NANOTOXICITY ASPECTS

Nanocrystals are basically made for drugs that are poorly soluble in water or water-soluble drugs as nanocrystals in oily medium. Especially for the purpose of intravenous targeting drug delivery, surface modification of drug nanocrystals are important, thus drug nanocrystals may be composed of other chemicals to act as drug carrier that have targeting ability [28]. Drug nanocrystals have particle sizes in the nanometer range and are a class of nanoparticles with crystalline characteristics. By definition, pharmaceutical nanoparticles have sizes ranging from a few nanometers to 1μm, whereas larger particles with sizes 1-1000μm are microparticles [30]. In general, stabilizers such as surfactants are necessary to disperse nanocrystals in aqueous media; the dispersion of drug nanocrystals in liquid media forms socalled nanosuspensions. Nanocrystals possess 100% drug loading, in contrast to carrier-based nanoparticles such as polymers [36], nanoemulsions [37, 38], liposomes [39, 40], and lipid nanoparticles [41] (i.e. high drug loading in nanocrystal formulation). Regarding physicochemical properties, nanocrystals have special features of increased saturation velocity, dissolution velocity, and drug adhesiveness to cell membranes, leading to sufficiently high therapeutic drug concentrations for the requisite pharmacological effect [42]. The physical background of these effects (e.g. equations by Kelvin, Ostwald-Freundlich) has been described in detail elsewhere in the literature [43-45]. Thus nanocrystals have potential to solve many biopharmaceutical delivery problems of poorly soluble drugs such as low bioavailability after oral administration, low dermal penetration, and large injection volume required for intravenous administration as well as undesirable side effects following intravenous injection using solubilizing agents. Drug nanocrystal formulation can achieve reproducible oral and dermal absorption, improve bioavailability and doseproportionality, and increase patient compliance due to lowering numbers of oral units to be taken [46].

On the other hand, nanoparticles also imply nanotoxicity. Research (largely using small animals) to date on the potential ill effects of nanoparticles have concentrated on exposure by inhalation, with damage conferred not only on the lung but possibly by transfer via the blood stream to other organs. There is some evidence that single-walled carbon nanotubes may behave like asbestos fibers and confer risk of inflammation and formation of lesions known as granulomas [47, 48]. Overall, considering the effects of particle size, degradability versus biopersistency and intracellular uptake, drug nanocrystals are basically classified low- or non-risk agents, especially in the case of those administered topically or orally [49]. However, in contrast, intracellular uptake plays a key role after intravenous injection of drug nanocrystals [49]. Uptake of drug nanocrystals by phagocytic mononuclear cells (e.g. in the liver) can cause cytotoxicity in case of too high nanocrystal concentrations in the macrophages. The balance between uptake of drug nanocrystals by mononuclear phagocytic system cells and target cells is critical for successful therapy. Very little research has been done on nanotoxicology of drug nanocrystals, and so far empirical

approaches have been predominantly undertaken. Further systemic investigations of nanotoxicity of drug nanocrystals are necessary.

3. PRODUCTION TECHNOLOGIES OF DRUG NANOCRYSTALS

To date, two basic approaches for producing drug nanocrystals have been mainly developed: top-down technologies (reducing large-sized drug powders to smaller sizes by e.g. mechanical stress) and bottom-up technologies (e.g. controlled precipitation to form crystals or amorphous particles). The types of production techniques are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Production Technologies of Drug Nanocrystals

		Ref. No.
Top-down	Milling	[50-55]
	Homogenization	[56-60]
	Laser ablation	[61-67]
Bottom-up	Precipitation	[68-84]
	Spray dryer	[85-91]
Combination	Precipitation & Homogenization	[92-97]

3.1. Top-Down Technologies

3.1.1. Milling Techniques

Using top-down technologies large crystals in the micrometer-to-millimeter size range are reduced to nanosize by grinding (e.g. using a milling process) [50, 53]. Since dry milling is not efficient to obtain particle sizes in the nanometer range, wet milling is predominantly applied. In wet milling process drug particles are dispersed in a surfactant and/or stabilizer solution as macrosuspensions then subjected to milling energy to produce a nanosuspension. A low-energy milling process technology using the pearl mill (bead mill) was developed as NanoCrystalTM technology [54, 55]. Using this technology a suspension is added to a milling container containing milling pearls, typically sized 0.2 or 0.4-0.6mm. The pearls, moved by an agitator, grind the crystals to produce a nanosuspension. Several types of drug nanocrystals produced using pearl mill technology are currently on the market, mostly provided as formulations for oral administration.

3.1.2. Homogenization Techniques

Crystals can be ground by a high-energy process using high-pressure homogenization [56]. In this process crystals in suspension are rendered into smaller sizes by means of high-energy fluid streams causing the collision and cavitation [57, 58]. Ezetimibe nanocrystals are an example of a product obtained by this homogenization technique [59]. The preparation method uses ultrasonic or mechanical high-speed homogenization. An alternative high-energy method uses piston-gap homogenizers [60]. In this process the suspension is passed at high velocity through a small gap.

Inside the gap, the crystals are milled by force of cavitation, collision, and shear forces of the liquid. These homogenization processes are normally carried out with water suspensions, although homogenization in water-free media such as oils and liquid polyethylene glycols or water-reduced media is also possible. Oil dispersions can directly be filled into gelatin capsules for oral administration, or injected parenterally as controlled drug delivery depot.

3.1.3. Laser Ablation Techniques

Recently, novel femtosecond (fs) laser techniques for fabricating drug nanocrystals in aqueous medium have been developed. The process is implemented after adding a poorly water-soluble or water-insoluble medicinal ingredient of a drug into a poor solvent (e.g. water) to form a suspension. followed by laser irradiation (Fig. 1). The controlled power of ablation and the fragmentation caused by laser irradiation are key points for fabricating fine size-controlled nanocrystals. For example, optimal laser fragmentation conditions generated uniformly size-controlled paclitaxel nanoparticles (<500nm) with quantifiable degradation [61]. The particle size and the drug concentration are optimally tuned. Generally, laser treatment at higher powers produces smaller particles with larger amounts of degradation. Using the laser ablation technique drug nanocrystals can be produced in quite small quantities, which may be a useful advantage for preclinical evaluation of new drug candidates. The drug nanoparticles have high purity and may exhibit high bioavailability when used as medicines, agricultural chemicals, or chemical fertilizers [62].

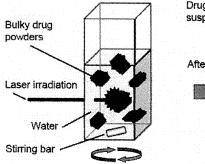
Ryo et al. [63] disclosed the production of dispersion solution of organic nanoparticles using laser ablation, where the suspension was prepared by dispersing hydrophobic organic compounds in a poor solvent (e.g. water). By this method, a preparation of the anti-ulcerative colitis drug salazosulfapyridine nanocrystals has been demonstrated [63]. The type of medicinal ingredient may also include anticancer drugs (ellipticine, camptothecin), vitamins, analgesics, and anti-inflammatory drugs. Suitable laser irradiation devices include solid state laser such as YAG laser, titaniumsapphire laser, and ruby laser; gas laser such as excimer laser, argon (Ar) ion laser, and CO2 laser; liquid laser such as a dye laser; and semiconductor laser such as a gallium arsenide (GaAs) laser. The appropriate amount of medicinal ingredient obtained in one batch may be 10-1000µg per 1ml of water. Scanning electron microscopy confirmed that ellipticine nanoparticles with a mean particle size approximately 100nm were obtained [64]. The anticancer drug camptothecin was also formulated by a similar process [65]. The flow device related to laser ablation equipment has been disclosed for the purpose of mass production [66]. In an informative review, Barcikowski *et al.* [67] evaluated the impact and structure of the field of laser ablation techniques and mapped global spots of their activities during 1998–2008 [67].

3.2. Bottom-Up Technologies

3.2.1. Precipitation Techniques

In bottom-up technologies, a precipitation process is the major approach used [68-73]. The basic principle is that first the drug is dissolved in a solvent then the solution is added to an insoluble medium (e.g. water) resulting in drug precipitation. The important points in this process are to control the structure of the particles (amorphous or crystalline) and to avoid crystal growth reaching the micrometer size range. The industrially relevant technologies of various precipitation processes are patented by BASF Corporation. For example, the patents describe the production of carotenoid preparations in the form of coldwater dispersible powders [74, 75] and precipitated waterinsoluble colorants in colloid-dispersed form [76] and are exploited in products for food and soft drink industry. The precipitation process can be carried out so that amorphous nanoparticles result. Another process leading to crystalline nanoparticles was developed by Novartis to produce socalled hydrosols [77]. A novel advanced precipitation technique for preparing nanoparticles as medicines, cosmetics, and foods uses supercritical fluid [78]. Alternately, there are various other bottom-up technologies such as the sonocrystallization, high-gravity controlledprecipitation technology, multi-inlet vortex mixing, and confined impinging liquid jet precipitation; a detailed review of these techniques is provided by Müller et al. [49].

Recently, Prasad's group [79, 80] demonstrated a novel type of photodynamic cancer therapy using a pure nanocrystal form of drugs produced by the precipitation technique [79,80]. Water-insoluble sensitizing drugs were successfully nanocrystallized by the precipitation procedure. The obtained drug nanocrystals had fine and stable water dispersion even with surfactant— and organic solvent-free conditions. Although this was a candidate carrier-free novel



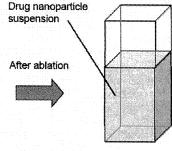


Fig. (1). Scheme of laser ablation technique.

drug delivery method using pure nanocrystalline form of hydrophobic drugs for photodynamic cancer therapy, the nanocrystals thus obtained showed fluorescence quenching caused by drug crystallization in aqueous dispersion medium. Therefore, this nonphotoactive property of drug nanocrystals seemed unsuitable for photodynamic cancer therapy. However, there was an interesting finding in that these water-insoluble drug nanocrystals showed good solubility in a serum contained aqueous medium. As a result, a dye molecule, which was generated from drug nanocrystals dissolved in vitro and in vivo, successfully recovered its photosensitizing activity. Laser-irradiated dyes owe their activity to the generation of singlet oxygen species that cause irreversible damage to tumors. This drug nanocrystal dissolution was not observable in pure water; thus lipoprotein or some hydrophobic components in serum may allow the dissolution mechanism possibly by hydrophobichydrophobic interactions between serum components and nanocrystals. This unique feature of organic nanocrystals was also adapted to cultured living cell bioimaging in vitro fluorescent organic nanocrystals [81, Additionally, as our current research interest, nanoparticle eye drops having high ocular penetration that enable fluorescence imaging of the ocular globe by confocal laser fluorescence microscopy were successfully prepared by precipitation techniques [83, 84].

3.2.2. Spray-Drying Techniques

Spray-drying techniques can be classified as a bottom-up technology [85]. In this process drugs dissolved in water/organic solvents are electrosprayed as a very fine mist and thereby form nanoparticles by evaporation of the water/organic solvent. The average size of particles obtained by conventional spray dryer is from a few micrometers to hundreds of micrometers. There are several variations, e.g. protein-coated bioactive nanoparticle suspension using electro-spraying apparatus [86]. Generally, however, production of nanoparticles <1 µm in size is difficult using a conventional spray dryer.

Recently, Büchi Corporation (Flawil, Switzerland) invented a novel spray dryer, the Nano Spray Dryer B-90 (Fig. 2), launched in 2010 [87]. The key point of this equipment is the use of piezoelectric effect in vibrating mesh spray technology for fabricating small-sized droplets. The size of nanocrystals thus obtained is usually in the rage 300-1000 nm. Using the Nano Spray Dryer B-90 a model microparticle vehicle suitable for respiratory delivery of biological pharmaceutical actives was designed. To enhance its aerosol dispersibility, L-leucine was chosen as one of the excipients; trehalose was the second excipient [88]. The preparation of protein nanoparticles was demonstrated [89]. β-Galactosidase was chosen as model protein and trehalose added as stabilizer. The selected condition of running process significantly influenced activity of the obtained enzyme and also increased its stability in storage. Alternatively, a simpler approach for the production of protein nanoparticles for a variety of drug delivery applications was introduced [90]. Five representative polymeric wall materials (gum arabic, whey protein, polyvinyl alcohol, modified starch, and maltodextrin) for the encapsulated nano-emulsions as well as formulating nanocrystals (e.g. from furosemide) were investigated [91].

Recently, our interest has focused on preparation of drug nanoparticle eye drops using nanospray dryer equipment. A steroid compound, dexamethasone, was selected as model compound, and fine nanoparticles were successfully prepared (Fig. 3). Based on this encouraging result, several kinds of ophthalmic drugs are now under investigation as candidates for drug nanoparticle eye drops. Such eye drops prepared by nanospray dryer are expected to increase the drug's ocular penetration and efficacy. As such, nanoparticle eye drops maybe useful against several kinds of eye diseases including refractory lesions such as Fuchs corneal endothelial dystrophy.

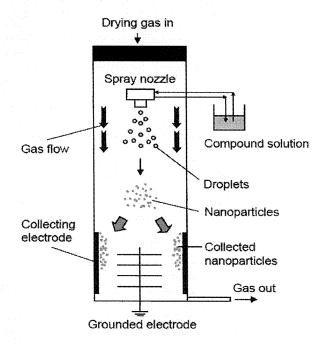


Fig. (2). Scheme of nanospray dryer system.

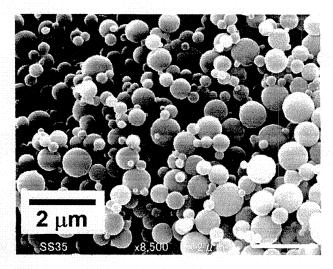


Fig. (3). Dexamethasone nanoparticles prepared by Nano Spray Dryer B-90 (Büchi Corporation, Flawil, Switzerland). Dexamethasone dissolved in ethanol (50 mg/30 ml) was spray-dried at 50°C for 2 h running time. The spray nozzle size was 4.0µm.

3.3. Combination Technologies

Drug nanocrystal-producing combination technologies employ a blend of bottom-up and top-down methodologies. For example, crystals precipitated in suspension may be subjected to a high-energy process, typically high-pressure homogenization [92,93], followed by counter-flow precipitation process whereby the solvent and non-solvent are mixed in two counter flows resulting in crystal precipitation [94]. One of the advantages of this combination technique is that can produce very small nanocrystals <100 nm in size. Such small nanocrystals are difficult to obtain by means of conventional top-down technologies using pearl milling or simple high-pressure homogenization, especially in large-scale industrial production.

application Preparations for topical containing nanocrystals of cosmetically active ingredients have been disclosed [95]. The purpose of this invention is to attain increased bioactivity of molecules in the skin and thereby enhance cosmetic preparations. The nanocrystals can be added to any cosmetic topical formulation such as lotions, creams, and liposomal dispersions. These cosmetic drug nanocrystals are produced by a combination process of lowenergy pearl milling followed by high-energy, high-pressure homogenization leading to nanocrystal suspensions with excellent physical stability. Another combination process employs cavitation, instead of precipitation, followed by high-pressure homogenization [96]. Combination techniques of supercritical fluid and spraying are disclosed for the production of fine particles without using carrier particles and binder as foreign substance [97].

4. CURRENT AND FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

We introduced current topics of patents and recent related to drug nanocrystals with physicochemical properties and production technologies. Since drug nanocrystals have some superior characteristics based on their peculiar physiochemical properties compared with conventional micronized drugs, several pharmaceutical benefits are expected (e.g. less solubility problems, improved bioavailability, increased patient compliance due lower/less frequent dosing). Already, several kinds of drug nanocrystals are commercially available, and a number of new drug nanocrystals are under development. The nanocrystal formulation of drugs is a kind of universal approach for drug molecules. Additionally, modification of drug nanocrystals will extend the drug bioavailability by means of achieving prolonged release and targeted drug delivery. The production technologies will be increasingly more sophisticated along with the development of current technology (i.e. achievement of mass production with low cost, which will be accelerated by new patents), and the market for drug nanocrystals will be thus extended to include not only drugs but also cosmetics and nutritional products. There is much room for further research in these areas. For instance, nanotoxicological studies of drug nanocrystals should be extensively carried out. Such investigations are essential for the better understanding of drug nanocrystals on the cellular level and can also open new avenues for nanocrystal applications. Increased knowledge the intracellular fate of nanocrystals could lead to many new treatment approaches.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

Author does not have any conflict of interest to declare.

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