Original Article

Aerosol delivery of ferulic acid-loaded nanostructured lipid carriers: A promising treatment approach against the respiratory disorders

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Abstract

Introduction: Treatment of lung diseases is one of the major healthcare challenges. Ferulic acid (FA), a phenolic compound with well-established antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties, has shown promising therapeutic potential against the pulmonary disorders; however, low bioavailability may negatively affect its efficiency. This, prompted us to incorporate FA into the nanostructured lipid carriers (FA-NLCs) and evaluate the toxicity of this nanoformulation in human lung adenocarcinoma cell line (A549) and its suitability for pulmonary drug delivery.

Methods: FA-NLCs were prepared by high-pressure homogenization followed by assessment of the physicochemical properties of nanoparticles, in vitro release profile, aerosol characteristics, in vitro cytotoxicity, pharmacokinetic parameters and lung deposition of the nanoparticles after nebulization in Balb/c mice.

Results: Formation of FA-NLCs which exhibited a controlled release profile, was confirmed by scanning electron microscope and differential scanning calorimetry. FA-NLCs exhibited toxic effects on A549 cells for longer time periods as compared to FA solution. Following the aerosolization, suitable aerodynamic properties were obtained and FA-NLCs formulation provided significantly increased residence time and slower lung clearance for FA. Further confocal microscopy visualization confirmed the lung deposition of nanoparticles. Encapsulation of FA into the NLCs resulted in the improved pharmacokinetic parameters in plasma or lung tissue samples.

Conclusion: Application of the aerosolized FA-NLCs formulation which improves the pulmonary bioavailability of FA might result in the increased efficiency and reduced dosing frequency of this phytochemical. In this respect, development of inhalable nano-based drug delivery systems appears as a promising therapeutic approach against the lung disorders.

Keywords: Ferulic acid; Nanostructured lipid carriers; Lung deposition; Nebulization; Balb/c mice

Introduction

Respiratory disorders are among the most common healthcare problems worldwide (Ou et al., 2017). Over the last decade, the phenolic compounds have been shown as promising therapeutic candidates against the inflammatory disorders and oxidative
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stress (Soobrattee et al., 2005). These compounds have also been represented as the potentiators of anticancer agents (Adhami et al., 2007). In this context, ferulic acid (4-hydroxy-3-methoxycinnamic acid, FA), a bioflavonoid with a wide variety of pharmacological activities (Gohil et al., 2012; Hassanzadeh et al., 2017a; Yang et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2013; Vashisth et al., 2015; Panwar et al., 2016) has shown preventive effects against the lung diseases (Lesca, 1983; Srinivasan et al., 2007). Meanwhile, low bioavailability and physiochemical instability (Ou and Kwok, 2004; Sohn and Oh, 2003) may negatively affect the efficiency of this valuable phytochemical. Over the last decades, eminent breakthroughs in the emerging field of nanotechnology have led to the development of novel theranostic strategies and protection of the encapsulated drugs or biomolecules against the excretion or metabolism within the body (Hassanzadeh et al., 2017b; Hassanzadeh et al., 2017c; Kubik et al., 2005). In recent years, lipid-based colloidal drug delivery systems including the nanostructured lipid carriers (NLCs) and solid lipid nanoparticles (SLNs) have been represented as alternative carrier systems to the polymeric nanoparticles, emulsions and liposomes. These biocompatible carriers protect the encapsulated active ingredients against the enzymatic degradation and are suitable for controlled drug release or targeted delivery (Müller, 2007). Moreover, they have shown better biodegradability and greater stability against the shear forces during the nebulization (Hitzman et al., 2006; Videira et al., 2002). Sterility and scale-up feasibility are some of the advantages of SLNs, however, application of these nanoparticles is associated with some limitations such as the limited drug-loading capacity and possibility of drug leakage during the storage or risk of gelation (Freitas and Müller, 1999; Müller et al., 1997; Müller, 2007). This has led to the development of a binary mixture of solid and liquid lipids, NLCs, with an imperfect matrix structure. Indeed, NLCs are a smarter generation of drug carriers with minimal drug expulsion during the storage, prolonged drug residence in the target organ, and high drug-loading capacity, stability and biocompatibility (Kumbhar and Pokharkar, 2013; Li et al., 2010; Müller, 2007). This background along with the advantages of inhalation drug delivery over the conventional routes of administration (Patton and Byron, 2007), prompted us to encapsulate FA into the NLCs (FA-NLCs) and provide a suitable nanoformulation for pulmonary drug delivery.

Materials and methods

Materials

Cell culture materials were all purchased from Gibco/Invitrogen, Germany. Cetyl palmitate and Tween 80 were provided by Merck (Darmstadt, Germany) and other chemicals were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, Germany.

Animals

Male Balb/c mice weighing 22-25 g (Pasteur Institute, Iran) were randomly assigned and housed under central air conditioning (24±1 °C, humidity: 35-50%) and food pellets and water provided ad libitum. Animals were acclimated to the laboratory conditions for one week before the experiments. Five days before the nebulization studies, animals were trained by nebulizing water for 30 min in order to reduce discomfort during the nebulization. In vivo experiments were carried out in accordance with National Institutes of Health guidelines for the humane use of laboratory animals and approved by the local Ethics Committee.

Preparation of ferulic acid-loaded NLCs (FA-NLCs)

FA-NLCs were prepared by high-pressure homogenization (Beloqui et al., 2013) with some modifications. Briefly, the lipid phase (cetyl palmitate and oleic acid; 85:15 or 70:30) was prepared at 75 °C and then FA was added at 5, 10, 20, 40 or 100 % w/w. The aqueous phase was prepared at 75 °C by dispersing poloxamer 188 (0.5 or 1%, w/v) and Tween 80 (1 or 2%, w/v) in double-distilled water and was subsequently added to the lipid phase under high-speed stirring (Ultra Turrax T25, IKA, Germany) at 8000 rpm for 30s. The obtained pre-emulsion was subjected to high-pressure homogenization using a homogenizer (Micron LAB 40, Germany) at 500 bar and 75 °C for ten cycles. For further size reduction, the emulsion was sonicated using a probe sonicator (Ultra sonic, tecno-Gaz Tecnac 6, Italy) at 70% amplitude for 2, 4, 10 or 15 min. The blank NLCs were prepared using the same procedure.
Assessment of the particle size, polydispersity index (PDI) and zeta potential (ZP) of FA-NLCs

NLCs dispersions were diluted by filtered deionized water to provide a suitable scattering intensity and then mean particle size and PDI (a measure of the width of particle size distribution) were analyzed at 25 °C by photon correlation spectroscopy (Zetasizer, Malvern Instruments, UK), a technique based on the dynamic laser light scattering due to the Brownian motion of the particles in a solution or suspension. ZP, the electrostatic potential on the surface of nanoparticles which reflects the physical stability of a colloidal system, was assessed by determination of the electrophoretic mobility (n=6).

Morphological assessment of FA-NLCs

Scanning electron microscope (KYKY-EM3200, China) was used to evaluate the shape of the lipid nanoparticles. In brief, the sample was mounted on the aluminium stub and coated with gold-palladium alloy in a Denton DV 502 vacuum evaporator at an accelerating voltage of 26 kV.

Entrapment efficiency (EE) and drug loading capacity (DL)

EE% and DL% of FA in NLC dispersion was determined by ultrafiltration method using the centrifugal filter tubes with a molecular weight cut-off (MWCO) of 10 kDa (Amicon Ultra, Millipore, Ireland). The 0.5 ml of FA-NLCs was centrifuged at 12000 rpm for 30 min and then FA content was analyzed by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) using the Hitachi Model D-7000 (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) system including a UV-Vis detector (Merck-Hitachi, L-4250, Germany) with C18 column (250×4.6 mm, 5 μm). The mobile phase contained methanol and 2% acetic acid (60:40 v/v) at a flow rate of 1 ml/min. For construction of the calibration curve, the serial dilutions of FA in methanol (2.5-250 μg/ml) were prepared and after determination of the absorbance, linear regression value of $r^2 = 0.9995$ was obtained. The peak absorption wavelength was recorded at 320 nm and the limit of detection and limit of quantification were obtained as 0.6 μg/ml and 1.58 μg/ml, respectively. EE% and DL% were determined as follows:

$$EE\% = \frac{\text{Total amount of FA} - \text{amount of free FA}}{\text{Total amount of FA}} \times 100$$

$$DL\% = \frac{\text{The amount of FA encapsulated in NLCs}}{\text{Total amount of NLCs}} \times 100$$

Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)

Thermal analysis of pure FA, cetyl palmitate, freeze-dried FA-NLCs or blank NLCs was performed using the DSC apparatus (Mettler-Toledo, Switzerland). Each sample was placed in an aluminum pan and heated in the range of 10-240 °C (10 °C/min) under a nitrogen purge (50 ml/min). An empty aluminum pan was used as the reference and each experiment was carried out in triplicate.

Assessment of the in vitro release

The release profile of FA from NLCs was evaluated by dialysis membrane method (Yang et al., 2012). Briefly, 5 ml of FA-NLCs solution was transferred into a dialysis bag (MWCO: 10 kDa) which had been previously soaked in the release medium for 24 h. The dialysis bag was sealed at both ends, immersed into 250 ml of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.4) and stirred using a shaking incubator (Heidolph Unimax 1010, Germany) at 37 °C and 100 rpm. At defined time intervals, 0.5-ml samples were collected from the receptor phase, replaced with pre-warmed fresh PBS of an equal volume to maintain the sink condition and analyzed for FA content by HPLC. The percentage of dose released was plotted against the time and FA solution served as the control. Experiments were carried out in triplicate.

Storage stability

The freeze-dried samples were kept in the closed glass vials at 4 °C. At defined time intervals (1, 3 and 6 months), samples were re-suspended in filtered water and analyzed for the particle size, PDI, ZP, EE % and DL %. The results were expressed as the mean±SEM (n=6).

Aerosol characterization

Aerodynamic properties of NLCs were assessed using the eight-stage non-viable cascade impactor (Thermo Andersen Inc., Smyrna, GA, USA) equipped with filters. Each plate on the impactor was coated with 10% w/v pluronic L10 in ethanol in order to prevent particle bounce during the nebulization. Using Pari LC Star jet nebulizer, 3 ml of the optimized FA-NLCs formulation was nebulized into the impactor for 5 min at flow rate of 28.3 l/min. Afterwards, FA-
Aerosol delivery of FA-loaded NLCs

NLCs deposited on the throat, impactor stages and filter were collected after washing with 5 ml of tetrahydrofuran, centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 20 min and the amount of FA was determined by HPLC. Mass median aerodynamic diameter (MMAD), geometric standard deviation (GSD) and fine particle fraction (FPF) were determined using Battelle software (Azarmi et al., 2006; Azarmi et al., 2008; Patlolla et al., 2010).

Cell culture

A549 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10 % fetal bovine serum (FBS), streptomycin sulfate (100 μg/ml), penicillin G sodium (100 U/ml) and amphotericin B (0.25 μg/ml) and incubated at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO₂. The culture media were changed every day and after 85-90% of confluency, cells were trypsinized by 0.05% trypsin and 0.53 mM EDTA solution and incubated for 5 min at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO₂. Trypsinization was stopped by adding 20% FBS followed by re-suspending, seeding and incubation. Experiments were carried out 72 h after seeding the cells with appropriate densities.

Assessment of FA-NLCs toxicity on the lung adenocarcinoma cell line

A549 cells were plated in 96-well microplates at a density of 1×10⁴ cells/well. Following overnight incubation, cells were treated with 100, 250 and 500 μM of FA (Bouziene et al., 2015) or FA-NLCs (containing 100, 250 and 500 μM of FA), blank NLCs, or vehicle and then incubated in a 5% CO₂ incubator for 24, 48 or 72 h at 37 °C. Cell viability was assessed using MTT (3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl]-2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide) colorimetric assay which is based on the reduction of a tetrazolium salt by mitochondrial dehydrogenase in the viable cells (Carmichael et al., 1987). Cells were exposed to 0.5 mg/ml of MTT solution for 3 h at 37 °C and then the culture medium was carefully aspirated and replaced with 100 μl of DMSO and incubated at 37 °C in a humidified 5% CO₂-95% air mixture for 1 h. Then, the optical density of each well sample was determined at 570 nm using a microplate reader (Anthos Labtec Instruments, Austria). The cell viability was expressed as percentage of the untreated control cells (assuming the survival rate of 100%) and presented as mean±SEM of six independent experiments (n=6).

Aerosol drug delivery

The inexpose system (SCIREQ Scientific Respiratory Equipment Inc, Canada) including 12 ports peripherally located around a central delivery plenum was used for aerosol exposure to FA-NLCs or FA. Aerosols were produced by jet nebulizer using dry compressed air at a flow rate of 4.5 l/min. Animals restrained in the holders were placed in the inhalation chamber (SCIREQ, Canada) and the nose of each animal was exposed to the aerosol cloud for 30 min. The total deposited amount of inhaled FA (D) was calculated as follows; D = C × V × DI × T. {C: the amount of FA collected in each port of the inhalation chamber (5.2 mg)/ total volume of the air withdrawn in 30 min [30 min × 4.5 liters/ 12 (number of ports) = 462.2 μg/l]; V: air volume inspired by the animal during one min (= 1.0 l/min/kg for mice); DI: estimated deposition index (= 0.3 for mice) and T: duration of treatment (30 min)}. The total deposited dose of FA during 30-min treatment was 4.16 mg/kg/day. Following the aerosol exposure, animals (n=6/group) were sacrificed with an overdose of halothane anesthesia at defined time intervals (0.5, 1, 2, 4, 6, 12 and 24 h) and then lung tissue samples were collected and stored at -80 °C. Upon the analysis, samples were processed as previously described (Patlolla et al., 2010). For further assessment of the lung deposition of FA-NLCs, mice were exposed to the fluorescent dye (DID-oil)-loaded NLCs for 30 min. After 0.5 and 4 h, lungs were removed, processed (Ichite et al., 2009) and the sections were observed using a confocal microscope (Leica DM6000).

Pharmacokinetic study

Area under the concentration-time curve (AUC), maximum concentration (C max), time to reach C max (T max) and clearance (Cl) of FA in the plasma and lung were determined by non-compartmental analysis (WinNonLin, version 5.2.1, Pharsight Corporation, CA, USA) as previously described (Patlolla et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2016).

Statistical analysis

T-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by
Results

Characterization of FA-NLCs

FA-NLCs dispersions were successfully prepared by a modified high-pressure homogenization technique without signs of phase separation or color change during at least 1-month visual inspection. Using different ratios of solid and liquid lipids, FA and lipid, surfactants or sonication time, various FA-NLCs formulations were prepared (Tables 1 and 2). Application of the higher amount of oil lipid or surfactant resulted in the smaller particle size and higher entrapment efficiency (Table 2). Considering EE%, DL% and particle size, FA-NLCs7 (Table 2) was selected as the optimal formulation for further experimental procedures. According to the representative SEM image, nanoparticles were spherically shaped without pore on the surface (Fig. 1). In DSC thermograms, FA-NLCs displayed a melting peak at 45.9 °C (Fig. 2a), while, pure FA

Table 1: Formulation design of FA-loaded NLCs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formulation Codes</th>
<th>Solid/liquid lipids</th>
<th>Surfactant (w/v %)</th>
<th>FA/lipid (w/w%)</th>
<th>Sonication time (min)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC1</td>
<td>Cetyl palmitate/oleic acid (85:15)</td>
<td>Poloxamer 188, Tween 80</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC2</td>
<td>Cetyl palmitate/oleic acid (85:15)</td>
<td>Poloxamer 188, Tween 80</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC3</td>
<td>Cetyl palmitate/oleic acid (85:15)</td>
<td>Poloxamer 188, Tween 80</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC4</td>
<td>Cetyl palmitate/oleic acid (70:30)</td>
<td>Poloxamer 188, Tween 80</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC5</td>
<td>Cetyl palmitate/oleic acid (70:30)</td>
<td>Poloxamer 188, Tween 80</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC6</td>
<td>Cetyl palmitate/oleic acid (70:30)</td>
<td>Poloxamer 188, Tween 80</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC7</td>
<td>Cetyl palmitate/oleic acid (70:30)</td>
<td>Poloxamer 188, Tween 80</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC8</td>
<td>Cetyl palmitate/oleic acid (70:30)</td>
<td>Poloxamer 188, Tween 80</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blank NLCs</td>
<td>Cetyl palmitate/oleic acid (70:30)</td>
<td>Poloxamer 188, Tween 80</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FA-NLCs: ferulic acid-loaded nanostructured lipid carriers

Tukey's post hoc test were used for analysis of data which are presented as mean±SEM. Statistical significance was set at P<0.05.

Table 2: Physicochemical properties of FA-loaded NLCs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formulation codes</th>
<th>Particle size (nm)</th>
<th>PDI</th>
<th>ZP (mV)</th>
<th>EE (%)</th>
<th>DL (%)</th>
<th>DR after 48 h (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC1</td>
<td>142.6 ± 7.4</td>
<td>0.37± 0.04</td>
<td>-23.7 ± 0.35</td>
<td>44.3 ± 3.2</td>
<td>1.42 ± 0.14</td>
<td>53.4 ± 3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC2</td>
<td>129.7 ± 6.3</td>
<td>0.33± 0.07</td>
<td>-25.3 ± 0.47</td>
<td>47.9 ± 2.8</td>
<td>1.39 ± 0.07</td>
<td>51.3 ± 4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC3</td>
<td>111.3 ± 8.5</td>
<td>0.27± 0.04</td>
<td>-23.9 ± 0.53</td>
<td>62.4 ± 3.7</td>
<td>1.57 ± 0.15</td>
<td>67.8 ± 3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC4</td>
<td>69.7 ± 3.2</td>
<td>0.17± 0.06</td>
<td>-27.5 ± 0.38</td>
<td>93.5 ± 4.6</td>
<td>3.18± 0.07</td>
<td>82.3 ± 4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC5</td>
<td>83.5 ± 3.7</td>
<td>0.15± 0.04</td>
<td>-24.3 ± 0.49</td>
<td>94.3 ± 5.2</td>
<td>6.24± 0.11</td>
<td>76.7 ± 4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC6</td>
<td>90.7 ± 5.3</td>
<td>0.24± 0.08</td>
<td>-19.8 ± 0.24</td>
<td>88.6 ± 3.9</td>
<td>13.42± 2.3</td>
<td>74.5 ± 5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC7</td>
<td>117.4 ± 9.6</td>
<td>0.18± 0.07</td>
<td>-26.6 ± 0.33</td>
<td>93.7 ± 5.3</td>
<td>31.17± 1.7</td>
<td>62.3± 3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FA-NLC8</td>
<td>148.6 ± 7.4</td>
<td>0.25± 0.06</td>
<td>-24.9 ± 0.32</td>
<td>85.9 ± 4.7</td>
<td>45.72± 3.5</td>
<td>60.5 ± 2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blank NLCs</td>
<td>54.9 ± 3.5</td>
<td>0.19± 0.05</td>
<td>-19.8 ± 0.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data are represented as mean±SEM (n=6).

(PDI: polydispersity index, ZP: zeta potential, EE: entrapment efficiency, DL: drug loading, DR: drug release, FA-NLCs: ferulic acid-loaded nanostructured lipid carriers)
showed a sharp endothermic peak at 174.2 °C (Fig. 2b). The melting peak of cetyl palmitate was observed at 55.7 °C (Fig. 2c) and blank NLCs showed a melting peak at 53.4 °C (Fig. 2d). Regarding the release profile, FA showed a controlled release pattern from FA-NLCs (Fig. 3). As shown in Table 3, the lyophilized nanoparticles remained stable at 4 °C without significant alterations in the particle size, PDI, ZP, EE% or DL% (P>0.05) during 6 months of storage.
Fig. 3. In vitro release profile of FA. A controlled release pattern of FA from FA-NLCs is observed. Data are expressed as the mean±SEM (n=3). FA-NLCs: ferulic acid-loaded nanostructured lipid carriers.

Table 3: Stability profile of FA-NLCs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initial</th>
<th>1st Month</th>
<th>3rd Month</th>
<th>6th Month</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>PDI</td>
<td>ZP</td>
<td>EE%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>117.4±9.6</td>
<td>0.18±0.07</td>
<td>-26.6±1.1</td>
<td>93.7±5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>PDI</td>
<td>ZP</td>
<td>EE%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>119.7±4.3</td>
<td>0.19±0.09</td>
<td>-25.7±0.9</td>
<td>91.8±4.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data are represented as mean±SEM (n=6).
(PDI: polydispersity index, ZP: zeta potential, EE: entrapment efficiency, DL: drug loading, FA-NLCs: ferulic acid-loaded nanostructured lipid carriers)

Fig. 4. Lung deposition of FA-NLCs and FA solution following nebulization for 30 min in Balb/c mice. Data represent the mean±SEM (n=6). *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001 vs. FA solution. FA-NLCs: ferulic acid-loaded nanostructured lipid carriers.
As shown in Table 4, free FA (250 and 500 μM) reduced the cell viability only after 24 of incubation ($P<0.001$ vs. control), while, FA-NLCs (containing 100, 250 and 500 μM of FA) exhibited the cytotoxic effects for a longer period of time ($P<0.001$, $P<0.01$ vs. control). Blank NLCs did not affect the cell viability ($P>0.05$ vs. control).

**Fig.5. Lung disposition of fluorescent dye-loaded NLCs.** 0.5 and 4 h after the nebulization of NLCs (A and B respectively), lungs were removed, processed and the fluorescent dye was visualized using a confocal microscope. C: untreated lung tissue. NLCs: nanostructured lipid carriers.
MMAD, GSD and FPF of FA-NLCs were obtained as follows: 1.53±0.11 μm, 1.4±0.08 and 82.3±5.7%, respectively. Data are represented as mean±SEM (n=6).

Lung deposition of FA-NLCs
After 30 min of nebulization of FA solution and FA-NLCs, 81.39±6.92% and 74.32±5.11% of FA was deposited in the lungs, respectively (Fig. 4). FA showed faster clearance in FA solution as compared to FA-NLCs in which an increased FA residence time and slower clearance was observed (P<0.05, P<0.01 and P<0.001 vs. FA solution). Further visualization of fluorescent dye-loaded NLCs confirmed the lung deposition of nanoparticles (Fig. 5).

Pharmacokinetic parameters
As shown in Table 5, encapsulation of FA into the NLCs resulted in higher C_{max} and AUC (P<0.01, P<0.001), greater T_{max} (P<0.05) and lower clearance (P<0.001) in plasma or lung tissue as compared to FA solution.

Discussion
Over the last decades, increasing research efforts...
have been focused on the phytochemicals which have shown a wide variety of pharmacological activities. According to the beneficial effects of ferulic acid against the lung disorders (Lesca, 1983; Srinivasan et al., 2007), we have prepared FA-NLCs in order to improve the pharmacokinetic profile of FA and make the nanoformulation suitable for lung delivery. Assessment of the physicochemical properties of nanoparticles (Fig. 1, Tables 2 and 3) demonstrated the uniformity and spherical shape, narrow particle size distribution (indicating high homogeneity), suitable DL%, EE% (indicating the entrapment of FA into the lipid particle matrix), ZP (that might result in reduced particle aggregation) and stability profile indicating the appropriateness of preparation methods. Smaller particle size might result in the enhanced deposition of drug-entrapped particles in tracheo-bronchial and deep alveoli regions during the aerosolization process (Finlay, 2000) as well as the increased amount of drug absorbed due to the more homogenous drug distribution (Yang et al., 2008). In contrast to SLNs in which the aggregation or perikinetic flocculation may occur during the storage (Freitas and Müller, 1999; Müller, 1997; Müller, 2007), particles in highly-concentrated NLCs formed a network in fixed position (Fig. 1) that may not result in the collision of particles during the long-term storage. Thermal or crystalline behavior of the bulk materials, FA-NLCs and blank NLCs were determined by DSC (Fig. 2). The disappearance of sharp endothermic peak of pure FA in DSC thermogram of FA-NLCs indicates that FA is distributed in an amorphous status. The melting peaks of blank- or FA-NLCs shifted to the lower temperature indicating the transformation of bulk materials into the nanoparticulate forms. Depression of melting point may also be attributed to the small particle size, enhanced surface area of nanoparticles and less-ordered arrangement of NLCs (Siekmann and Westesen, 1994). In comparison to blank NLCs, FA-NLCs showed lower melting point that might be due to the incorporation of FA into the lipid matrix and enhancement of the defect levels in lipid crystal lattice.

A hyperbolic trend in the release profile (Fig. 3) indicates the controlled-release pattern of FA from NLCs which may be due to the partitioning of FA between the aqueous and lipid phases as well as the interactions between the surfactant-lipid or FA-lipid molecules. Furthermore, the prolonged release may be attributed to the diffusion of FA from the lipid core of NLCs. The delayed T_max of FA-NLCs (Table 5) also supports the sustained release of FA from the lipid matrix. This type of release by providing a constant concentration of FA for longer time period might be of therapeutic value.

MTT assay in A549 cell cultures (Table 4) revealed that FA-NLCs, but not free FA, exhibit cytotoxic effects for longer periods of time indicating the ability of this nanocarrier to provide a sustained concentration of FA due to the drug release in a controlled fashion (Fig. 3). Assessment of the aerodynamic properties of FA-NLCs (particularly MMAD of 1.53±0.11 μm μm) revealed the efficiency of the present nanocarrier system for drug delivery deep into the lung. As previously reported, aerosol particles with MMAD of 1-3 μm are optimal for pulmonary deposition throughout the respiratory zone (Byron, 1986; Beck-Broichsitter et al., 2011).

Regarding the lung deposition, nebulization of FA-NLCs resulted in slow elimination and improved lung deposition of FA (Figs. 4 and 5) that might be due to the controlled pattern of drug release (Fig. 3) and suitable composition and physicochemical properties of nanoparticles such as the small particle size (Tables 1 and 2). As previously reported, particles <260 nm deposit in the deep lung and escape the macrophage clearance (Lauweryns and Baert, 1977; Mansour et al., 2009; Patlolla et al., 2010). Indeed, the lipophilic outer surface of NLCs provides the possibility of nanoparticle adsorption to the surface of airway epithelium and overcoming the mucociliary lung transit (Schurch et al., 1990; Iyer et al., 2015). Improved lung deposition of FA following encapsulation into the NLCs has also been confirmed by the data demonstrating improved pharmacokinetic profile of FA as revealed by higher concentrations in both plasma and lung (Table 5) that might be due to the enhanced absorption and diffusion mobility of nanosized FA-loaded particles and their interaction with alveolar region or airway mucosal layer. Altogether, incorporation of FA into the NLCs is a promising approach to improve the bioavailability of this phenolic compound in both plasma and lung.

**Conclusion**

Inhalable FA-NLCs by providing a controlled release
pattern, slower clearance and higher concentration for FA that might result in enhanced efficiency and reduced dosing frequency, appears as a promising nanoformulation for lung drug delivery.

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**Conflict of interest**

None of the authors has any conflict of interest to disclose.

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