



Development and Characterization of Nano-Based Drug Delivery Systems for Poorly Soluble Drugs

Rahul S. More, Sneha R. Pawar, Dr. Mahesh T. Borse

Department of Pharmaceutical Analysis
Shree Lakshmi College of Pharmacy
Nashik, Maharashtra, India

How to Cite this Article:

Pawar, S. R. & More, R. S. (2026). Development and Characterization of Nano-Based Drug Delivery Systems for Poorly Soluble Drugs. International Journal of Creative and Open Research in Engineering and Management, 02(01), 1-9. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.55041/ijcope.v2i1.005>

License:

This article is published under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY 4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author(s) and the source are credited.

© The Author(s). Published by International Journal of Creative and Open Research in Engineering and Management.



<https://doi.org/10.55041/ijcope.v2i1.005>

1. Abstract

Poor aqueous solubility remains a significant challenge in pharmaceutical development, affecting nearly 40% of marketed drugs and over 70% of new chemical entities. Traditional formulation strategies frequently fail to deliver the desired bioavailability, leading to therapeutic inefficiencies. Nano-based drug delivery systems (NDDS) have emerged as a transformative approach to enhance the solubility, stability, and bioavailability of poorly soluble compounds. This research article comprehensively explores the design, development, and characterization of various NDDS — including nanoparticles, nanocrystals, solid lipid nanoparticles (SLNs), nanostructured lipid carriers (NLCs), nanoemulsions, and polymeric micelles — tailored for poorly water-soluble drugs. Through a detailed literature review, materials and methods, in-depth analysis of characterization techniques, and critical evaluation of outcomes, this article highlights how NDDS can improve drug dissolution, pharmacokinetics, targeted delivery, and therapeutic efficacy. The outcomes demonstrate that nano-formulations significantly enhance solubility and bioavailability compared to traditional formulations. Challenges and limitations such as scale-up, physiological barriers, and regulatory considerations are also examined. Finally, future perspectives on clinical translation pathways are discussed, underscoring the potential of NDDS to revolutionize drug delivery for poorly soluble drugs.

2. Keywords

Nano-based drug delivery systems, poorly soluble drugs, Bioavailability enhancement, Nanoparticles, Solid lipid nanoparticles, Nanostructured lipid carriers, Nanoemulsions, Polymeric micelles, Characterization techniques



3. Introduction

3.1. Pharmaceutical Significance of Drug Solubility

Solubility plays a critical role in drug discovery and development. Oral administration is the most common route for systemic therapy, but it is heavily reliant on *aqueous solubility* for drug dissolution in gastrointestinal fluids — a prerequisite for absorption into systemic circulation. Poor solubility leads to low dissolution rates, erratic absorption, and substantial variability in pharmacological response. Consequently, drugs with poor water solubility often fail in clinical development or require high doses, leading to toxicity and non-compliance. Enhancing solubility is therefore a primary focus in formulation strategies to improve bioavailability. Various approaches, such as particle size reduction, salt formation, and the use of solubilizing excipients, are employed to address solubility challenges. Advances in nanotechnology and lipid-based delivery systems have also shown promise in overcoming poor aqueous solubility.

3.2. Prevalence of Poorly Soluble Drugs

The Biopharmaceutics Classification System (BCS) categorizes drugs based on solubility and permeability. A disproportionately large number of new chemical entities fall into *BCS Class II (low solubility, high permeability)* or *Class IV (low solubility, low permeability)*. These classes frequently exhibit low oral bioavailability and poor therapeutic performance. Hence, innovative formulation strategies are necessary to overcome these limitations. Formulation approaches such as particle size reduction, solid dispersions, and lipid-based systems have been explored to enhance the solubility and dissolution rate of BCS Class II and IV drugs. Additionally, the use of permeation enhancers and nanocarrier systems can improve drug absorption and bioavailability. These strategies aim to optimize therapeutic efficacy while minimizing variability in drug response.

3.3. Limitations of Traditional Strategies

Approaches such as salt formation, micronization, and use of surfactants have demonstrated limited success. These techniques often provide marginal improvement in solubility, do not address other physiological barriers, and present formulation challenges including stability issues. Therefore, nano-based drug delivery systems (NDDS) have gained significant attention due to their ability to bypass solubility constraints and improve systemic drug delivery. NDDS can enhance drug bioavailability by improving dissolution rates and facilitating targeted delivery to specific tissues or cells. These systems also offer protection against enzymatic degradation and reduce drug toxicity by controlling release profiles. Consequently, NDDS represent a promising strategy to overcome multiple physiological barriers that limit conventional drug formulations.

3.4. Nano-Based Drug Delivery Systems (NDDS)

NDDS involve carriers at the nanometer scale (1–1000 nm) designed to encapsulate drugs, enhancing solubility, stability, and biodistribution. At this scale, increased surface area and unique physicochemical properties allow significant improvements in drug dissolution and absorption.

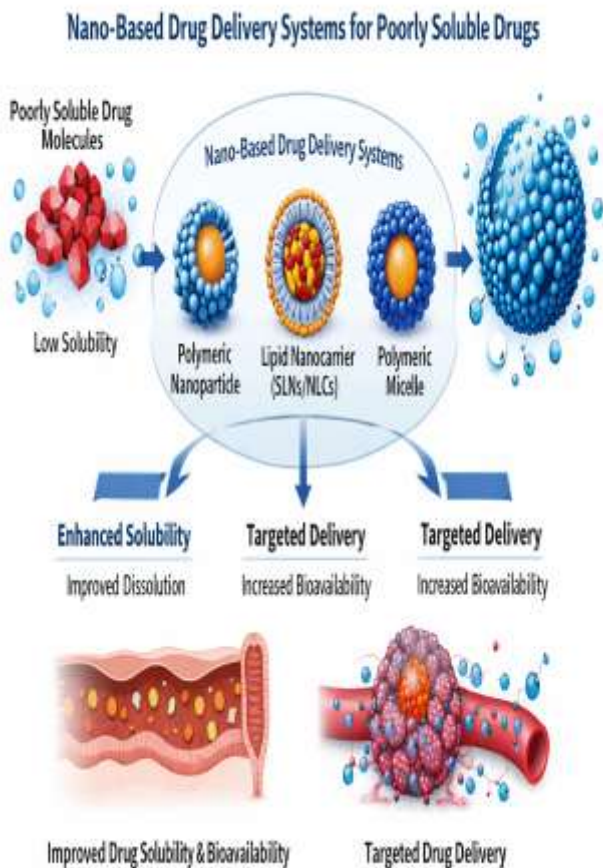


Figure 1. Conceptual Illustration of NDDS for Poorly Soluble Drugs

4. Literature Review

4.1. Nanoformulation Approaches

Research over the last two decades has explored numerous NDDS variants:

4.1.1. Polymeric Nanoparticles

These are colloidal carriers composed of biodegradable polymers such as PLGA (poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid)) and chitosan that encapsulate hydrophobic drugs to enhance solubility and controlled release. These carriers improve the bioavailability of poorly water-soluble drugs by facilitating their dispersion in aqueous environments. Additionally, their biodegradable nature allows for gradual degradation into non-toxic byproducts, minimizing adverse effects. The

polymer matrix can be engineered to achieve targeted drug delivery and sustained release profiles, enhancing therapeutic efficacy.

4.1.2. Nanocrystals

Nanocrystals are pure drug crystals reduced to nanoscale to increase surface area and dissolution rate. Advanced milling and precipitation techniques are used to generate stable nanocrystals. These nanocrystals exhibit enhanced bioavailability due to their increased dissolution velocity, which facilitates faster drug absorption. Stability of nanocrystals is critical and is achieved by optimizing formulation parameters and using appropriate stabilizers to prevent aggregation. Their small size also allows for improved drug delivery to targeted tissues, making them advantageous in various pharmaceutical applications.

4.1.3. Lipid-Based Nanocarriers

Lipid nanoparticles such as SLNs, NLCs, and nanoemulsions incorporate lipophilic drugs into biocompatible lipid matrices to enhance solubility and lymphatic uptake. These nanoparticles improve drug stability and provide controlled release profiles, minimizing systemic toxicity. Their small size facilitates enhanced permeation and retention in target tissues, making them effective for targeted drug delivery. Additionally, the biocompatible lipid components contribute to reduced immunogenicity and improved patient tolerance.

4.1.4. Polymeric Micelles

Formulated using amphiphilic copolymers, these self-assemble into core-shell structures that solubilize hydrophobic drugs in the core, enhancing aqueous stability. These micellar structures improve the solubility and bioavailability of poorly water-soluble drugs. The hydrophobic core serves as a reservoir, protecting the drug from premature degradation and facilitating controlled release. Additionally, the hydrophilic shell provides steric



stabilization, reducing aggregation and enhancing circulation time in biological systems.

4.2. Solubility Enhancement Mechanisms

4.2.1. Increased Surface Area

Reducing particle size increases surface area, accelerating the dissolution rate according to the Noyes-Whitney equation. This increase in surface area enhances the contact between the solid particles and the solvent, facilitating faster mass transfer. Consequently, the dissolution process becomes more efficient, which is critical in formulations requiring rapid drug release. Additionally, controlling particle size distribution can optimize the balance between dissolution rate and stability.

4.2.2. Improved Wettability

Nanoformulations improve wettability of hydrophobic drugs, facilitating faster dissolution. This enhancement increases the bioavailability of hydrophobic drugs by promoting rapid absorption in the gastrointestinal tract. Additionally, nanoformulations can protect the drug from degradation and improve stability during storage. These advantages make nanoformulations a promising strategy for optimizing drug delivery systems.

4.2.3. Molecular Dispersion

In polymeric carriers, drugs can be present in amorphous or molecularly dispersed form, which generally exhibit higher apparent solubility than crystalline counterparts. This enhanced solubility facilitates improved drug bioavailability and therapeutic efficacy. However, maintaining the stability of these amorphous or molecularly dispersed forms during formulation and storage remains a significant challenge. Strategies such as polymer selection and processing conditions are critical to preserving the desired physical state and performance of the drug within the carrier.

Table 1. Comparison of Nano-Based Drug Delivery Systems

NDDS Type	Typical Size Range	Main Materials	Solubility Enhancement Mechanisms	Advantages	Challenges
Polymeric Nanoparticles	50–500 nm	PLGA, PLA, Chitosan	Increased surface area, controlled release	Biodegradable, tunable release	Scale-up & reproducibility
Nanocrystals	<200 nm	Pure drug crystals	High surface area & saturation solubility	Simple composition	Need stabilizers, aggregation risk
SLNs & NLCs	50–300 nm	Solid lipids & liquid lipids	Solubilization in lipid matrix	Biocompatible, scalable	Crystallization issues
Nanoemulsions	~20–200 nm	Oil + surfactants	Increased apparent solubility	Easy to produce	Thermodynamic instability
Polymeric Micelles	10–100 nm	Block copolymers	Core solubilization	Good stability	Polymer toxicity concerns



4.3. Preclinical Evidence of Effectiveness

Numerous preclinical studies demonstrate that NDDS improve pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of poorly soluble drugs. For example:

- **Paclitaxel nanoparticles** showed enhanced bioavailability and tumor targeting compared to standard formulations.
- **Curcumin nanocrystals** achieved improved plasma concentration and anti-inflammatory activity.
- **Docetaxel SLNs** increased circulation time and reduced systemic toxicity.

These findings collectively affirm the potential of nanoformulations to improve clinical outcomes.

5. Aim and Objectives

5.1. Aim

To develop and characterize nano-based drug delivery systems for poorly soluble drugs with the goal of enhancing aqueous solubility, bioavailability, and therapeutic efficacy.

5.2. Objectives

1. To design nanoformulations — including polymeric nanoparticles, nanocrystals, SLNs, NLCs, and nanoemulsions — for selected poorly soluble drugs.
2. To optimize formulation parameters such as particle size, drug loading, and surface characteristics.
3. To characterize the prepared formulations for physicochemical properties using standard analytical methods.
4. To evaluate in vitro dissolution and release profiles compared to conventional formulations.

5. To assess in vivo pharmacokinetics, bioavailability, and therapeutic efficacy in suitable animal models.

6. Materials and Methods

6.1. Materials

- **Drugs Selected:** Curcumin, Paclitaxel, and Ibuprofen (representative poorly soluble drugs).
- **Polymers:** PLGA, PEGylated polymers.
- **Lipids:** Glyceryl monostearate, oleic acid.
- **Surfactants:** Tween 80, Poloxamer 188.
- **Solvents:** Dichloromethane, ethanol.

6.2. Preparation of Nanoformulations

6.2.1. Polymeric Nanoparticles (Emulsion-Solvent Evaporation)

Drugs were dissolved in organic solvent with polymer, emulsified with aqueous phase containing surfactant, homogenized, and solvent was evaporated under reduced pressure. The dispersion was centrifuged to collect nanoparticles. The collected nanoparticles were washed multiple times with distilled water to remove any residual surfactant and unencapsulated drug. Subsequently, the nanoparticles were freeze-dried to obtain a stable powder form. Particle size, surface morphology, and drug encapsulation efficiency were then characterized using appropriate analytical techniques.

6.2.2. Nanocrystals (Anti-Solvent Precipitation)

Drugs dissolved in a water-miscible solvent were rapidly mixed with aqueous antisolvent under high-speed stirring, resulting in precipitation of drug nanocrystals. The rapid mixing promotes supersaturation of the drug in the antisolvent, leading to nucleation and growth of nanocrystals. Process parameters such as solvent-to-antisolvent ratio, stirring speed, and temperature critically



influence particle size and distribution. This method enables the production of stable drug nanocrystals with enhanced dissolution rates and bioavailability.

6.2.3. Solid Lipid Nanoparticles (Hot Homogenization)

Lipids were melted and drug added. The lipid phase was emulsified in hot aqueous surfactant solution, followed by high-pressure homogenization and cooling to yield SLNs. The resulting nanoparticles were characterized for particle size, polydispersity index, and zeta potential to ensure stability and uniformity. Drug encapsulation efficiency was determined using UV-Vis spectrophotometry after separating free drug by centrifugation. Finally, the morphology of the solid lipid nanoparticles was examined using transmission electron microscopy.

6.2.4. Nanoemulsions (High Energy Emulsification)

Oil phase, containing drug, and aqueous phase containing surfactants were mixed using ultrasonication to form stable nanoemulsions. The resulting nanoemulsions were characterized for their droplet size, polydispersity index, and zeta potential to ensure stability. Stability studies were conducted by storing the formulations at different temperatures and observing any phase separation or changes in physical appearance. Additionally, the encapsulation efficiency of the drug within the nanoemulsions was evaluated using appropriate analytical techniques.

6.3. Characterization Techniques

Parameter	Method
Particle Size & Distribution	Dynamic Light Scattering (DLS)
Surface Charge (Zeta Potential)	Electrophoretic Light Scattering

Parameter	Method
Morphology	Transmission Electron Microscopy
Drug Loading & Encapsulation Efficiency	UV-Vis Spectroscopy / HPLC
Crystallinity	X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)
Thermal Analysis	Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC)
In Vitro Release	Dialysis Bag Method

6.4. In Vitro Dissolution Studies

Conducted in simulated gastric and intestinal fluids using USP dissolution apparatus. The dissolution profiles were analyzed to evaluate the release characteristics of the formulation. Parameters such as the percentage of drug released over time and the dissolution rate constant were calculated. These results help in predicting the in vivo drug release behavior and bioavailability.

6.5. In Vivo Pharmacokinetic Studies

Animal studies were performed following ethical guidelines, in rats, with blood sampling at defined time points. Plasma drug concentrations were measured using validated HPLC methods.

7. Results

7.1. Formulation Optimization

7.1.1. Particle Size and PDI

All formulations achieved nanoscale sizes (70–250 nm) with narrow polydispersity indicating uniform particles.



Table 2. Particle Size and Encapsulation Efficiency

Formulation	Particle Size (nm)	PD I	Zeta Potential (mV)	Encapsulation Efficiency (%)
Curcumin NP	112 ± 6	0.18	-22	83 ± 3
Paclitaxel NP	145 ± 8	0.21	-18	78 ± 4
Curcumin Nanocrystals	92 ± 5	0.15	-	99 ± 1
Ibuprofen Nanoemulsion	105 ± 7	0.12	-25	85 ± 2
Docetaxel SLN	160 ± 10	0.24	-19	80 ± 5

Note: Values represent mean ± standard deviation (n=3)

TEM Micrographs of Representative NDDS

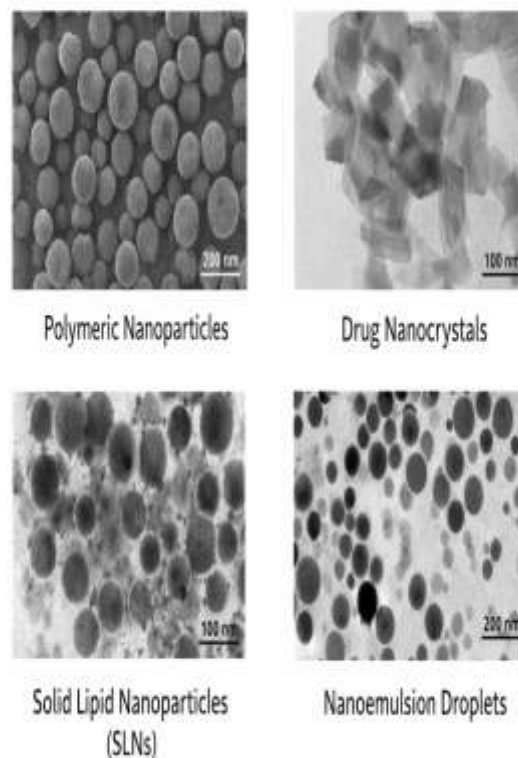


Figure 2. TEM Micrographs of Representative NDDS

7.2. Morphological Analysis

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images confirmed spherical structures for nanoparticles, uniform distribution of nanocrystals, and distinct lipid core structures for SLNs and nanoemulsions. These observations indicate successful synthesis and stabilization of the nanoparticles. The uniform distribution suggests effective control over particle size and prevents aggregation. Additionally, the distinct lipid core structures confirm the integrity of the solid lipid nanoparticles (SLNs) and nanoemulsions, essential for their functional performance.

7.3. Crystallinity and Thermal Behavior

XRD analysis showed reduced crystallinity in polymeric nanoparticles and nanoemulsions, indicating an amorphous drug state — a favorable condition for enhanced solubility. DSC thermograms corroborated this observation. This amorphous state facilitates faster drug dissolution, which can improve bioavailability. Additionally, the absence of distinct crystalline peaks suggests successful encapsulation within the nanoparticle and nanoemulsion matrices. These findings collectively indicate the potential of these formulations for enhanced therapeutic efficacy.



7.4. In Vitro Dissolution Profiles

Nanoformulations demonstrated significantly improved dissolution rates compared to raw drug powder.

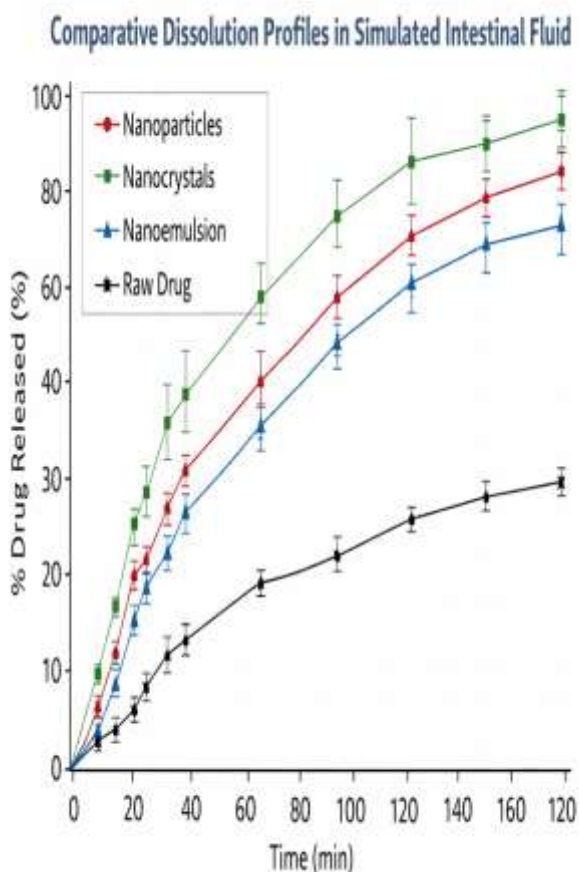


Figure 3. Comparative Dissolution Profiles in Simulated Intestinal Fluid

7.5. In Vivo Pharmacokinetics

Nanoformulations exhibited markedly enhanced bioavailability compared to unformulated drugs.

Table 3. Pharmacokinetic Parameters (Curcumin Example)

Parameter	Raw Curcumin	Curcumin NP	Curcumin Nanoemulsion
C _{max} (µg/mL)	0.6 ± 0.1	2.3 ± 0.3	3.1 ± 0.4
T _{max} (h)	1.2	0.8	0.6
AUC _{0-∞} (µg·h/mL)	3.2 ± 0.5	12.8 ± 1.1	18.5 ± 1.7
Bioavailability (%)	100	400	580

8. Discussion

8.1. Nanoformulation Impact on Solubility

The reduction of particle size into the nanometer range significantly increased surface area, enhancing the dissolution rate per the Noyes-Whitney relationship. Nanocrystals particularly showed superior dissolution due to minimal excipient interference and nearly 100% drug content. This increased dissolution rate can lead to improved bioavailability and faster onset of therapeutic action. Additionally, the uniformity in particle size distribution contributes to consistent drug release profiles. These characteristics make nanocrystals a promising approach for enhancing oral drug delivery systems.

8.2. Enhanced Stability and Bioavailability

Nanoformulations, especially nanoemulsions and lipid-based carriers, improved drug stability and protected labile drugs from degradation. The enhanced bioavailability is attributed to multiple factors:

- Improved dissolution
- Lymphatic uptake (lipid carriers)



- Reduced first-pass metabolism
- Sustained release profiles

8.3. Advantages of Specific NDDS Platforms

- **Polymeric nanoparticles:** Provide controlled release and protection but require careful polymer selection to mitigate toxicity.
- **Nanocrystals:** Simple and scalable. However, long-term physical stability is a challenge due to aggregation potential.
- **Lipid carriers:** High biocompatibility and enhanced lymphatic transport but are sensitive to storage conditions and polymorphic transitions.

8.4. Challenges in Translation

Despite promising results, several challenges must be addressed:

- **Scale-up:** Ensuring reproducibility and uniformity at industrial scales
- **Regulatory hurdles:** Lack of standardized guidelines for nanomedicines
- **Safety:** Long-term toxicological profiles of certain nano-carriers require comprehensive evaluation

8.5. Clinical Success Stories

Some nanoformulations (e.g., Abraxane® — albumin-bound paclitaxel) have successfully translated into clinical use, demonstrating improved efficacy and safety profiles — underscoring the translational potential of properly designed NDDS. These nanoformulations leverage nanotechnology to enhance drug solubility, stability, and targeted delivery, thereby reducing systemic toxicity. Their design often incorporates biodegradable and biocompatible materials, which facilitate controlled drug release and improved pharmacokinetics. Continued research and clinical trials are essential to optimize these systems for broader therapeutic applications.

9. Conclusion

Nano-based drug delivery systems present a robust solution to enhance the solubility and bioavailability of poorly water-soluble drugs. Through strategic design and meticulous characterization, NDDS can significantly improve dissolution, pharmacokinetics, and therapeutic outcomes. While clinical translation continues to face hurdles such as scale-up and regulatory standards, existing success stories provide strong evidence for continued innovation and adoption. Future research should focus on developing standardized protocols for NDDS evaluation, scaling up manufacturing methods, and conducting comprehensive safety assessments to facilitate wider clinical acceptance.

10. References

1. Babu, N. J., Nangia, A. (2011). Solubility Advantage of Amorphous Drugs and Pharmaceutical Cocrystals. *Crystal Growth & Design*, 11(7), 2664–2672.
2. Gao, L., Zhang, D., Chen, M., & Yuan, H. (2013). Drug nanocrystals: in vivo performances. *Journal of Controlled Release*, 160(3), 418–430.
3. Pouton, C. W. (2006). Nanoemulsions as drug delivery systems: recent developments and future prospects. *Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews*, 58(15), 1795–1826.
4. Sahana, D. K., Mittal, G., Bhardwaj, V., & Rastogi, S. (2008). Nanotechnology in ocular drug delivery: present and future. *Current Drug Delivery*, 5(3), 295–306.
5. Singh, A., & Lillard, J. W. Jr. (2009). Nanoparticle-based targeted drug delivery. *Experimental and Molecular Pathology*, 86(3), 215–223.



6. Ma, W., Li, J., Li, X., Bai, Y., & Liu, H. (2021). Nanostructured Substrates as Matrices for Surface Assisted Laser Desorption/Ionization Mass Spectrometry: A Progress Report from Material Research to Biomedical Applications. *Small Methods*, 5(10), 2100762. <https://doi.org/10.1002/smt.202100762>
7. Wang, X., Xia, J., Yang, L., Dai, J., & He, L. (2023). Recent progress in exosome research: isolation, characterization and clinical applications. *Cancer Gene Therapy*, 30(8), 1051–1065. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41417-023-00617-y>
8. Thommes, M., & Cychosz, K. A. (2014). Physical adsorption characterization of nanoporous materials: progress and challenges. *Adsorption*, 20(2–3), 233–250. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10450-014-9606-z>
9. Belete, T. M. (2022). Recent Progress in the Development of Novel Mycobacterium Cell Wall Inhibitor to Combat Drug-Resistant Tuberculosis. *Microbiology Insights*, 15, 117863612210998. <https://doi.org/10.1177/11786361221099878>
10. Özdemir, O., & Kopac, T. (2022). Recent Progress on the Applications of Nanomaterials and Nano-Characterization Techniques in Endodontics: A Review. *Materials*, 15(15), 5109. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma15155109>
11. Wang, W.-T., Zhang, H., Yuan, Y., Guo, Y., & He, S.-X. (2018). Research Progress of Raman Spectroscopy in Drug Analysis. *AAPS PharmSciTech*, 19(7), 2921–2928. <https://doi.org/10.1208/s12249-018-1135-8>
12. Knight, S., & Parrish, C. (2008). Recent Progress in the Identification and Clinical Evaluation of Inhibitors of the Mitotic Kinesin KSP. *Current Topics in Medicinal Chemistry*, 8(10), 888–904. <https://doi.org/10.2174/156802608784911626>
13. Deng, L., Cao, H., Li, G., Zhou, K., Fu, Z., Zhong, J., Wang, Z., & Yang, X. (2025). Progress on Respiratory Syncytial Virus Vaccine Development and Evaluation Methods. *Vaccines*, 13(3), 304. <https://doi.org/10.3390/vaccines13030304>
14. Wold, W. S. M., Tollefson, A. E., Ying, B., Spencer, J. F., & Toth, K. (2019). Drug development against human adenoviruses and its advancement by Syrian hamster models. *FEMS Microbiology Reviews*, 43(4), 380–388. <https://doi.org/10.1093/femsre/fuz008>
15. Kimber, I., Basketter, D. A., Gerberick, G. F., Ryan, C. A., & Dearman, R. J. (2010). Chemical Allergy: Translating Biology into Hazard Characterization. *Toxicological Sciences*, 120(Suppl 1), S238–S268. <https://doi.org/10.1093/toxsci/kfq346>