Original Article

Available online at www.bpasjournals.com

Current Review On Nanosponges Gel For Effective Treatment Of Fungal Disease

¹Aagre Diksha Virbhadra, ²Dr. J. P. Rai

^{1,2}School of Pharmacy LNCT University, Bhopal (M.P.)

How to cite this article: Aagre Diksha Virbhadra, Dr. J. P. Rai (2024). Current Review On Nanosponges Gel For Effective Treatment Of Fungal Disease. *Library Progress International*, 44(5), 113-119

Abstract

Fungal infections represent a significant global health challenge, with more than 600 fungal species associated with humans as either commensals or pathogens. Environmental changes and modern lifestyle factors have facilitated the emergence and spread of fungal diseases, making effective prevention and treatment strategies crucial. Topical therapy remains a preferred approach for treating skin infections due to its direct action and reduced systemic side effects. Econazole nitrate, an imidazole antifungal, is commonly used in various topical formulations. Recent advances in drug delivery have introduced nanosponges innovative carriers that enhance drug solubility, stability, and bioavailability. This review focuses on the development and application of nanosponges for the delivery of antifungal drugs, highlighting their advantages in treating fungal infections. By encapsulating drugs in nanosponges, sustained release and targeted delivery can be achieved, improving therapeutic efficacy and patient compliance.

Keywords: Fungal infections, Topical therapy, Econazole nitrate, Nanosponges, Drug delivery systems, Antifungal treatment, Sustained release, Drug solubility, Drug stability, Targeted delivery.

Introduction

More than 600 fungal species are associated with humans, either as commensals and members of our microbiome or as pathogens that cause some of the most lethal infectious diseases (Fisher *et al.*, 2016; Fisher *et al.*, 2012). Understanding the factors that contribute to the emergence and spread of fungal diseases is crucial for effective preparedness and prevention strategies. Environmental changes, such as climate change, deforestation, increased population density and urbanization as well as global travel and migration can create favorable conditions for fungal growth and transmission. Climate change, on the other hand, can alter the geographical distribution of fungal pathogens, enabling them to establish themselves in new regions (Nnadi and Carter, 2021).

Fungal infections of the skin are one of the dangerous diseases in worldwide (Trotta, 2011). Topical therapy is an attractive choice for the treatment of the coetaneous infections due to various advantages such as targeting of drugs to the direct site of infection and reduction of systemic side effects. Econazole nitrate (imidazole) is an antifungal or pharmaceutical fungicide used topically to cure athlete's foot, ringworm, tineapityriasis versicolor, jock itch and vaginal thrush. The available products of econazole nitrate present in the market are cream, ointment, lotion, and solution. Adsorption of econazole nitrate is not significant when it is applied to the skin and effective therapy; need a high concentration of active agents to be combined. For this reason, econazole nitrate nanosponges were fabricated by emulsion solvent method and these econazole nitrate nanosponges were loaded in a hydrogel as a topical delivery for sustained release of the drug (Kaur et al., 2015; Renu, 2018).

Some of important fungal infections in humans, include Candidiasis, which is caused by Candida species and commonly affects the skin, nails, and mucous membranes. Aspergillosis is another fungal infection in humans caused by Aspergillus species, primarily affecting the respiratory system. Cryptococcosis is caused by *Cryptococcus neoformans* and *Cryptococcus gattii*, and it can lead to severe lung and central nervous system infections. Histoplasmosis is caused by the fungus *Histoplasma capsulatum* and primarily affects the lungs, but it can also spread to other organs. *Pneumocystis pneumonia* is a serious fungal infection caused by the fungus *Pneumocystis jirovecii*. It primarily affects individuals with weakened immune systems, such as those with HIV/AIDS. It can cause severe respiratory symptoms, including coughing,

shortness of breath, and fever (Rajendra *et al.*, 2021), and Mucoromycosis, also known as zygomycosis, is a rare but serious fungal infection caused by fungi of the order Mucorales (Jafarlou, 2024).

Fungal diseases

Fungal infections are a growing public health problem, mainly related to the advances of modern medicine in prolonging the lifespan and the quality of life of patients under severe clinical conditions (Perlroth *et al.*, 2007). A range of new broad-spectrum antibiotics made it possible to successfully treat infections of many microorganisms, which had previously been fatal. This resulted in prolonged survival of patients highly susceptible to infection. Thus, fungal infections emerge as leading causes of morbidity and mortality in immunocompromised and intensive care unit patients (Alangaden, 2011).

Pathogenic fungus diseases

Aspergillosis: The causative agent of aspergillosis is *Aspergillus fumigates*. It is a saprophytic fungus, consists of vegetative mycelium present in soil and produce asexual spores (Tekaia and Latge, 2005). Lung infection is caused due to the inhalation of conidia of *A. fumigates* (Wery, 2014). Although there are more than 300 known species within the genus, aspergillosis are mainly caused by *A. fumigatus* and only rarely by a few other species, i.e. *A. flavus*, *A. terreus*, and *A. niger* (Pitt 1994; Meersseman *et al.*, 2004).

Blastomycosis: The causative agent of this infection is *Blastomyces dermatitidis*. *Blastomyces dermatitidis* cause subclinical infection. But it can also cause serious complications which can be fatal. The symptoms include fever, influenza, cough, pleurisy and may also cause myalgia arthralgia. This infection causes weight loss and fatigue which are the most common symptoms. In pulmonary blastomycosis patients have alveolar infiltrate. However, it is not advantageous for diagnostic purposes (Patel *et al.*, 1999).

Cryptococcosis: Cryptococcosis is a potentially fatal mycosis. However, the anamorphic genus Cryptococcus comprises basidiomycetous yeasts, most of which are environmental saprophytes that do not cause infections in humans or animals (Kwon *et al.*, 2017). *C. neoformans* is a fungus which causes cryptococcosis. It is a facultative intracellular, opportunistic and encapsulated pathogen. It causes disease in immunocompromised and T-cell deficient patients (Kwon, 1992).

Candidiasis: The genus Candida comprises over 200 species, with 15 isolated from infections in humans and animals (Pal et al., 2015). Around 80% of infections are caused by Candida albicans, although the incidence of candidiasis due to non-albicans Candida (NAC) sp. is increasing. C. albicans is dimorphic fungal specie. It is present in gastrointestinal and reproductive tract. Approximately 75% women in their reproductive ages are affected due to this infection (Fidel, 2005). Histoplasmosis: Histoplasma capsulatum is a dimorphic fungus found in soil contaminated with bird or bat droppings. It causes histoplasmosis, a respiratory infection that can progress to disseminated disease in immunocompromised individuals (Mittal et al., 2019). H. capsulatum possesses the ability to evade immune responses. The fungus can modulate the host immune system by interfering with the activation of immune cells and suppressing the production of proinflammatory cytokines. This allows the fungus to establish a chronic infection and avoid clearance by the immune system (Valdez et al., 2012).

Diagnosis of fungal infections

Diagnosis of fungal infections is problematical and many infections are confirmed only at autopsy. In addition, the isolation of fungi from clinical samples is unreliable and may be complicated by the presence of a colonizing commensal organism, or ubiquitous fungi in the environment, causing false-positive results. Serological tests that detect antibodies are low in sensitivity and specificity because many patients with systemic fungal infections are immunocompromised and, therefore, have an impaired antibody response. The diagnosis of aspergillosis include the greater use of routine highresolution computed tomography (CT) scanning, PCR for the detection of RNA or DNA, and ELISA testing for circulating galactomannan, a component of the fungal cell wall in Aspergillus (Tyagi, 2016).

Antifungal drugs

Clotrimazole: Clotrimazole is used for the treatment of topical infections like tinea, mucocutaneous candidiasis, and vaginal candidiasis. It is not used orally for treatment of systemic infections as it causes severe GIT disturbances (Crowley and Gallagher, 2014).

Miconazole: Miconazole base can be used intravenously in the treatment of systemic fungal infections. Topically miconazole nitrate can be used in the treatment of tinea versicolor, mucocutaneous candidiasis, and of corneal infection caused by candida and aspergillus (Fothergill, 2006).

Ketoconazole: It is topically in treatment of many fungal infections and orally it is effective in many mucocutaneous and systemic mycoses, or to treat severe cutaneous dermatophytic infections, which do not respond to topical therapy or oral griseofulvin (Van, 1983).

Bifonazole: Bifonazole is an imidazole antifungal drug used in form of ointments. The most common side effect is a burning sensation at the application site. Other reactions, such as itching, eczema or skin dryness, are rare (Hage *et al.*, 2011).

Econazole: Econazole is used as a cream to treat skin infections such as athlete's foot, tinea, pityriasis versicolor, ringworm, and jock itch. It is also sold in Canada under the brand name Ecostatin as vaginal ovules to treat vaginal thrush. Econazole nitrate exhibits strong anti-feeding properties against the keratin-digesting common clothes moth *Tineola bisselliella* (Jana *et al.*, 2021).

Nanosponges

Nanosponges are the versatile drug delivery systems developed for targeted drug delivery. These are nanoporous tiny mesh particular structure in which a large variety of drug substances can be suspended, and then incorporated into a specific dosage form. Nanosponges are more like a threedimensional network in which the backbone is a long length of polyester which is mixed in solution containing crosslinking agent. These crosslinking agents link different parts of polymer by acting as mini hooks. They have spherical colloidal nature and reported to have high solubilization capacity of poorly water soluble drug which provide sustained release as well as improving drug bioavailability. Because of their inner hydrophobic and outer hydrophilic branching, they are able to load both hydrophilic and hydrophobic drug molecules offering unparalleled flexibility (Ujjwalnautiya et al., 2015).

Advantages

Nanosponge molecules are soluble in water and can be enclosed within the sponge. Drug irritability can be significantly reduced with nanosponges without compromising efficacy. By prolonging the time between doses, nanosponges improve patient compliance. A targeted, site-specific medication delivery method is provided by nanosponge. Better stability, enhanced elegance, and greater formulation flexibility are all advantages of nanosponges. Nanosponges are non-toxic, non-allergenic, nonmutagenic, and non-irritating. These are selfsterilizing as their average pore size is 0.25μm, where bacteria cannot penetrate (Uday *et al.*, 2013; Vishwakarma and Choudhary, 2019).

Disadvantages

Nanosponges incorporate only tiny molecules. Nanosponges are dependent on loading capacities (Kaivalya *et al.*, 2020). Dose dumping may take place in nanosponges (Bhowmik *et al.*, 2018).

Mechanism of drug release from nanosponges

The sponge particles have an open structure and the active drug moiety moves in and out from the sponge particles into the vehicle until equilibrium is retained. In case of topical delivery, once the finished dosage form is applied on to the skin, the active drug which is already present in the vehicle will be absorbed into the skin, depleting the vehicle, which will become unsaturated hence disturbing the equilibrium. This will start a flow of the active drug from the sponge particles into the vehicle and from it into the skin until the vehicle is either dried or absorbed. Even after that the sponge particles will get retained on the surface of stratum corneum which will continue to gradually release the active to the skin, providing sustained release of the drug overtime (Harsha and Naseeb, 2021).

Chemicals used for the synthesis of nanosponges

Polymers: Hyper cross linked Polystyrenes, Cyclodextrines and its derivatives like Methyl β-Cyclodextrin, Alkyloxycarbonyl Cyclodextrins, 2-Hydroxy Propyl βCyclodextrins and Copolymers like Poly(valerolactone-allylvalerolactone)

Crosslinkers: Diphenyl Carbonate, Diarylcarbonates, Diisocyanates, Pyromellitic anhydride, Carbonyldiimidazoles, Epichloridrine, Glutarldehyde, Carboxylic acid dianhydrides, 2,2- bis(acrylamido) Acetic acid and Dichloromethane.

Apolar solvent: Ethanol, Dimethylacetamide, Dimethyl formamide (Kumar, 2017)

Method of preparation

Ultra-sound-assisted synthesis: Nanosponges can be made using this process, which involves reacting polymers with cross-linkers in the absence of a solvent and sonication. The nanosponges produced will be spherical, homogenous in size, and less than 5 microns in diameter. The cross-linker in this approach is di-phenyl carbonate (or) pyromelitic anhydride. Place the flask in a water-filled ultrasonic bath and heat it to 90°C. For 5 hours, sonicate the mixture (Ajinkya *et al.*, 2015). **Emulsion-solvent diffusion method (ESDM):** This approach creates nanosponges by mixing ethyl cellulose and polyvinyl alcohol in various ratios or amounts. This approach employs both dispersed and continuous phases. Ethyl cellulose and the drug collectively forms the dispersed phase, which is then combined with 20 ml of dichloromethane and some polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) to create the continuous phase (aqueous). The mixture is then agitated for around 2 h at a speed of 1000 rpm. The finished product, or nanosponges, is obtained by filtration. The product is dried in the oven at a final temperature of 400° (Surushe *et al.*, 2023).

Solvent method: Using solvent method, Nano sponges are prepared by mixing polar aprotic solvents like Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), Dimethylformamide (DMF) with the polymer. A crosslinker is then added to this mixture in the ratio of 1:4. The above reaction should be proceeded at temperature 10°C to reflux the temperature of the solvent for the time ranging from 1 to 48 h. Once the reaction has completed, the solution is cooled down at room temperature and then obtained a product is added to bi-distilled water. The product is recovered by filtering the product under vacuum and refining by soxhlet extraction with ethanol followed by drying (Bezawada *et al.*, 2014; Pandey, 2019).

Melt method: During the melting process, the crosslinker and the polymer are combined. Nanosponges were collected by periodically washing them with a suitable liquid (Tiwari and Bhattacharya, 2022). Nanosponges are obtained after product cleaning, removing the waste polymer and unreacted chemicals (Tarannum *et al.*, 2020).

Bubble electrospinning: A syringe, syringe pump, grounded collector, and high-voltage power are the key components of a standard electro-spinning setup, as defined in several kinds of literature. The amount of production of nano-fibers, however, is one of the major restrictions that limit their applicability. Polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) can also be utilized as a polymer in bubble electro-spinning (Shrestha and Bhattacharva, 2020).

Quasi-emulsion solvent method: The polymer was used to assemble the nanosponges in various quantities. The inner stage is produced and added to a reasonable dissolvable stage using Eudragit RS 100. Under ultrasonication, the medication employed elicited a response and broke down at 35 °C (Zhang *et al.*, 2017). This internal procedure utilized in the exterior phase containing PVA goes around as an emulsifying operator. The mix is blended for 3 h at room temperature at 1000-2000 rpm, then dried (12 h) in an oven (40 °C) (Mahmoudi *et al.*, 2009).

Evaluation of Nanosponge

Particle size determination: Free-flowing powders with fine aesthetic qualities can be obtained by controlling the size of particles during polymerization. The particle size study of loaded and unloaded nanosponge and microsponges can be done by laser light diffractometry or Malvern Zeta sizer (Reddy *et al.*, 2019; Subramanian *et al.*, 2012).

Drug Content or Entrapment Efficiency (%): 50 mg of the prepared drug Nanosponges were suspended in 50 ml of methanol using the emulsion solvent diffusion method using the required polymer and subjected to ultracentrifugation for 40 minutes. The spectrophotometric percentage of the integrated drug was calculated at precise nm. The number of the free drug was detected after centrifugation in the supernatant and the aqueous suspension. Then formula,

Entrapment efficiency = Total drug (assay) – Free drug / Total drug ×100

Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) analysis: For the determination of particle surface features and size, SEM analysis is important. The scanning electron microscopy was conducted at an acceleration voltage of 15KV.

Zeta potential: Zeta potential of any system under investigation is a measured of the surface charge (Sri et al., 2018).

Loading efficiency: The loading efficiency of nanosponges can be determined by the quantitative estimation of drug loaded into nanosponges by UV spectrophotometer and HPLC methods (Simranjot and Sandeep, 2018).

Solubility studies: The phase solubility method defined by Higuchi and Connors, which explores the effect of a nanosponge on drug solubility, is the most commonly used approach to studying inclusion complexation.

Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR): Fourier transform infrared analysis was performed to verify the possibility of the interaction of chemical bonds between drugs and polymers. Samples were scanned within the 400-4000 cm-1 and carbon black reference range (Ghurghure *et al.*, 2018).

Drug release kinetics: In order to investigate the mechanism of drug release from the Nanosponge and release data was analyzed using the Zero Order, First Order, Higuchi, Korsemeyer Peppas, Hixon Crowell, Kopcha and Makoid-Banakar models. The data could be analysed using graph pad prism methods (Subhash and Mohite, 2016).

Porosity: Porosity analysis has been performed to check the extent of nanochannels and nanocavities generated. As Helium gas is capable of penetrating inter- and intra-specific material channels, the helium pycnometer is used to measure the porosity of nanosponges (Jilsha and Viswanand, 2013). By equation, percent porosity is given:

Porosity = Void volume (Vv) / total volume (VT)

Challenges in nanosponges development

Increase in polymer concentration decreases percentage of drug release and rate of permeation. Increase in drug and polymer ratio decreases particle size of nanosponges upto some extent, there after particle size will be increased due to polymer – polymer interaction overruling drug polymer interaction. High stirring rate effects practical yield and swelling ratio of nanosponges. By increasing the amount of cross linking agent, viscosity and porosity of formulation will be increased further leading to less entrapment efficiency. Increase in surfactant concentration decreases entrapment efficiency of the formulation due to insufficient polymer concentration (Prathima and Sreeja, 2013).

Application of nanosponges

Nanosponges have a wide range of application in the pharmaceutical field, because of its biocompatibility and versatility. In the pharmaceutical industry, nanosponges can be used as an excipient for the formulation of tablets, capsules, granules, pallets, suspensions, solid dispersions and topical dosage forms. Nanosponges can accommodate both lipophilic and hydrophilic drug molecules, basically, those drugs substances which belong to the biopharmaceutical classification system (BCS-class II) as well as the poorly water-soluble drug (Trotta *et al.*, 2014).

Nanosponges for drug delivery: Nanosponges can carry the water-insoluble drug because of their tiny porous structure. To increase the dissolution rate, solubility and permeability of drug nanosponges complexes play a major role.

Nanosponges for cancer therapy: Most challenging works nowadays in the pharmaceutical field is the delivery of anticancer drug because of their low solubility. When nanosponges confront the tumor cell they stuck on the surface of tumor cell and start to release the drug molecules. The advantage of targeting drug delivery is to get a more effective therapeutic effect at the same dose and with minimized side effect (Naga *et al.*, 2013).

Conclusion

Novel drug delivery systems are being researched extensively, with nanosponges being one of the most successful, as they may carry either lipophilic or hydrophilic drugs and release them at the target location in a controlled and predictable manner. Nanosponges have been proved to be a safe and efficient delivery mechanism for pharmaceuticals and other applications in addition to medication delivery. These systems mainly help in reducing the toxicity and increasing the efficacy of antifungal drugs, thus increasing the therapeutic effect of antifungal drug treatment.

Table 1. List of marketed for malation of antifungal drugs given as nanosponges ger			
S.no	Antifungal drug	Method	Author and year of study
1	Butenafine Hydrochloride	Emulsion solvent evaporation	Ahmed et al., 2021
2	Luliconazole	Emulsion solvent evaporation	Malothu et al., 2024
		technique	
3	Voriconazole	Solvent evaporation process	Kirankumar and Ganeshkumar,
			2024
4	Clotrimazole	Emulsion solvent diffusion	Charan et al., 2023
		method	
5	Fluconazole	Emulsion solvent diffusion	Abbas et al., 2019
		method	

Table 1: List of marketed formulation of antifungal drugs given as nanosponges gel

References

- Fisher MC, Gow NA, Gurr SJ.Tackling emerging fungal threats to animal health, food security and ecosystem resilience. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences. 2016 Dec 5; 371(1709):20160332.
- Fisher MC, Henk DA, Briggs CJ, Brownstein JS, Madoff LC, McCraw SL, Gurr SJ.Emerging fungal threats to animal, plant and ecosystem health.Nature. 2012 Apr 12; 484(7393):186-94.
- Nnadi NE, Carter DA.Climate change and the emergence of fungal pathogens. PLoS pathogens. 2021 Apr 29; 17(4):e1009503.
- Trotta F. Cyclodextrin nanosponges and their applications. Cyclodextrins in pharmaceutics, cosmetics, and biomedicine. Current and Future Industrial Applications 2011.p.323-42.
- Kaur G, Aggarwal G, Harikumar SL. Nanosponge: New colloidal drug delivery system for topical delivery. Indo Global J Pharm Sci 2015;5:53-7.
- Renu Kadian. Nanoparticles: a promising drug delivery approach. Asian J Pharm Clin Res 2018; 11:30-5
- Rajendra Santosh AB, Muddana K, Bakki SR. Fungal infections of oral cavity: diagnosis, management, and association with COVID-19.SN comprehensive clinical medicine. 2021 Jun;3(6):1373-84.
- Jafarlou M. Unveiling the menace: a thorough review of potential pandemic fungal disease. Frontiers in Fungal Biology. 2024 Apr 22; 5:1338726.
- Perlroth J, Choi B, Spellberg B. Nosocomial fungal infections: epidemiology, diagnosis, and treatment. Med Mycol. 2007;45(4):321–346.
- Alangaden GJ. Nosocomial fungal infections: epidemiology, infection control, and prevention. Infect Dis Clin North Am. 2011; 25(1):201–225.
- Tekaia F, Latge JP. Aspergillus fumigatus: saprophyte or pathogen? Current opinion in microbiology.2005 Aug 1; 8(4):385-92.

- Wery N. Bioaerosols from composting facilities—a review. Frontiers in cellular and infection microbiology. 2014 Apr 4:4:42.
- Pitt JI. The current role of Aspergillus and Penicillium in human and animal health. Journal of medical and veterinary mycology. 1994 Jan 1;32(sup1):17-32.
- Meersseman W, Vandecasteele SJ, Wilmer A, Verbeken E, Peetermans WE, Van Wijngaerden E. Invasive aspergillosis in critically ill patients without malignancy. American journal of respiratory and critical care medicine. 2004 Sep 15;170(6):621-5.
- Patel RG, Patel B, Petrini MF, Carter 3rd RR, Griffith J. Clinical presentation, radiographic findings, and diagnostic
 methods of pulmonary blastomycosis: a review of 100 consecutive cases. Southern medical journal. 1999 Mar
 1;92(3):289-95.
- Kwon-Chung KJ, Bennett JE, Wickes BL, Meyer W, Cuomo CA, Wollenburg KR, Bicanic TA, Castañeda E, Chang YC, Chen J, Cogliati M.The case for adopting the "species complex" nomenclature for the etiologic agents of cryptococcosis. MSphere. 2017 Feb 22;2(1):10-128.
- Kwon-Chung KJ. Cryptococcosis. Med. Mycol., 1992; 397-446.
- Pal MA, Gebrezgabher WE, Samajpati NI, Manna AK.Growing role of non-Candida albicans Candida species in clinical disorders of humans and animals. Journal of Mycopathological Research. 2015;53:41-8.
- Fidel Jr PL. Immunity in vaginal candidiasis. Current opinion in infectious diseases. 2005 Apr 1;18(2):107-11.
- Mittal J, Ponce MG, Gendlina I, Nosanchuk JD.Histoplasma capsulatum: mechanisms for pathogenesis.Fungal Physiology and Immunopathogenesis. 2019:157-91.
- Valdez AF, Miranda DZ, Guimaraes AJ, Nimrichter L, Nosanchuk JD.Pathogenicity & virulence of Histoplasma capsulatum-A multifaceted organism adapted to intracellular environments. Virulence. 2022 Dec 31; 13(1):2137987.
- Tyagi S.Fungal pathogenicity and diseases in human –A review.Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry.2016; 5(6):192-3.
- Crowley PD, Gallagher HC.Clotrimazole as a pharmaceutical: past, present and future. Journal of applied microbiology. 2014 Sep 1; 117(3):611-7.
- Fothergill AW. Miconazole: a historical perspective. Expert Review of Anti-infective Therapy. 2006 Apr 1;4(2):171-5
- Van Cutsem J.The antifungal activity of ketoconazole. The American journal of medicine. 1983 Jan 24;74(1):9-15.
- El Hage S, Lajoie B, Feuillolay C, Roques C, Baziard G. Synthesis, antibacterial and antifungal activities of bifonazole derivatives. Archiv der Pharmazie. 2011 Jun; 344(6):402-10.
- Jana Sanjay, Bhunia Ashrubindu and Dr. Mahanti Beduin.Review and study on antifungal agents. wjpmr, 2021,7(5), 322-336.
- Ujjwalnautiya, Meenakshi Jassal, Jyotsana Kundlas. Nanosponges: As originated form for targeted drug delivery. International journal of recent advances in pharmaceutical research, 2015;5(2):75-81.
- Uday B, Manvi FV, Kotha R. Recent advances in nanosponges as drug delivery system. Int J Pharm Sci Nanotechnol 2013;6(1):1935-44
- Vishwakarma P, Choudhary R. Microsponges: A novel strategy to control the delivery rate of active agents with reduced skin irritancy. J Drug Deliv Ther 2019;9(6-s):238-47.
- Kaivalya IR, Prasad D, Sudhakar M, Bhanja SB, Tejaswi M.A review on nanosponges.Int J Recent Sci Res 2020;11(1):36878-84.
- Bhowmik H, Venkatesh DN, Kuila A, Kumar KH. Nanosponges: A review. Int J Appl Pharm 2018;10(4):1-5.
- Harsha G, Shaik Naseeb Basha.Review on Nanosponges- A Versatile Drug Delivery System. Indo Global Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences, 2021; 11(1): 47-55
- Kumar K. Nanosponges: A new era of versatile drug delivery system. Universal Journal of Pharmaceutical Research 2017; 2(3):30-33
- Ajinkya K, Prakash K, Vishal P. Scaffold based drug delivery system: A special emphasis on nanosponges.International Journal of Pharmaceutics and Drug Analysis.2015 Apr 16: 98- 104.
- Surushe C, Thake J, Karpe M, Kadam V. Nanosponges: A Brief Review.Indian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences. 2023 Nov 1:85(6).
- Bezawada S, Charanjitha RV, Naveena GV.Nanosponges-A concise review for emerging trends. International Journal
 of Pharmaceutical Research and Biomedical Analysis. 2014 Jan; 3(1):1-6.
- Pandey PJ. Multifunctional nanosponges for the treatment of various diseases: A review. Asian J. Pharm. Pharmacol. 2019; 5(2): 235-48.

- Tiwari K, Bhattacharya S. The ascension of nanosponges as a drug delivery carrier: preparation, characterization, and applications. J Mater Sci Mater Med. 2022; 33(3):28
- Tarannum N, Suhani D, Kumar D. Synthesis, characterization and applications of copolymer of β–cyclodextrin: a review. J Polym Res. 2020; 27(4):1-30.
- Shrestha S, Bhattacharya S. Versatile use of nanosponge in the pharmaceutical arena: a mini-review.Recent Pat Nanotechnol. 2020;14(4):351-9
- Zhang Q, Xu TY, Zhao CX, Jin WH, Wang Q, Qu DH. Dynamic self-assembly of gold/polymer nanocomposites: pH-encoded switching between 1D nanowires and 3D nanosponges. Chem Asian J. 2017; 12(19):2549-53.
- Mahmoudi M, Shokrgozar MA, Simchi A, Imani M, Milani AS, Stroeve P. Multiphysics flow modeling and in vitro toxicity of iron oxide nanoparticles coated with poly(vinyl alcohol). J Phys Chem C. 2009; 113(6):2322-31.
- Reddy NN, Parusha S, Ayyanna, Lavanya, Kumar U, Priyanka. Fabrication and Characterization of Itraconazole Loaded Nanosponge Gel. World J Pharm Res. 2019; 5(8): 1184-204.
- Subramanian S, Singireddy A, Krishnamoorthy K, Rajappan M. Nanosponges: A novel class of drug delivery system review.J Pharm Pharm Sci.2012; 15(1) 103 11.
- Sri KV, Santhoshini G, Sankar DR, Niharika K. Formulation and evaluation of rutin loaded nanosponges. Asian J Res Pharm Sci. 2018; 8(1): 21-4.
- Simranjot K, Sandeep K. Nanosponges: Present aspects and future challenges. Indo Ame J Pharm Sci. 2018: 5(9): 9390-8.
- Ghurghure SM, Pathan MSA, Surwase PR. Nanosponges: A novel approach for targeted drug delivery system.Int J Chem Studies. Volume 2; Issue 6; November 2018; 2(6): 15-23.
- Subhash PB, Dr. S. K. Mohite.Formulation design and development of artesunate nanosponge. European J Pharm Med Res. 2016; 3(5): 206-11.
- Jilsha G, Viswanand V. Nanosponges: A novel approach of drug delivery system. Int J Pharm Sci Res. 2013; 19(2): 119-23.
- Prathima, S., Sreeja K.Formulation and Evaluation of Voriconazole Loaded Nanosponges for Oral and Topical Delivery. Int. J. Drug Dev. & Res., 2013; 5(1): 55-69.
- Trotta F, Dianzani C, Caldera F, Mognetti B, Cavalli R.The application of nanosponges to cancer drug delivery. Expert Opinion Drug Delivery 2014; 11:931-41.
- Naga SJ, Nissankararao S, Bhimavarapu R, Sravanthi S, Vinusha K. Nanosponges: a versatile drug delivery system. Int J Pharm Life Sci 2013; 4:2920-5.
- Ahmed MM, Fatima F, Anwer MK, Ibnouf EO, Kalam MA, Alshamsan A, Aldawsari MF, Alalaiwe A, Ansari MJ.Formulation and in vitro evaluation of topical nanosponge-based gel containing butenafine for the treatment of fungal skin infection. Saudi Pharmaceutical Journal. 2021 May 1;29(5):467-77.
- Malothu N, Noothi S, Areti AR, Pulavarthy V. Formulation Formulation and Evaluation of Luliconazole nanosponge gel using Experimental design. Indonesian Journal of Pharmacy. VOL 35 (2) 2024: 211–218.
- Kirankumar A, Ganeshkumar Y. Design and characterization of nano sponges loaded vaginal gels of Voriconazole.Brazilian Journal of Development. 2024 Jan 5;10(1):379-401.
- Charan S, Kishore K, Kumar GV. Design Development and Characterization of Clotrimazole Nano Sponge Gel.International Journal of Pharmacy Research & Technology (IJPRT). 2023 Mar 21; 13(2):20-34.
- Abbas N, Parveen K, Hussain A, Latif S, uz Zaman S, Shah PA, Ahsan M. Nanosponge-based hydrogel preparation
 of fluconazole for improved topical delivery. Tropical Journal of Pharmaceutical Research. 2019 Mar 11;18(2):21522.