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# **REVIEW ARTICLE**

# VESICULAR DRUG DELIVERY AGAINST LEISHMANIASIS IN ANIMALS: A CRITICAL EVALUATION

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ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
Article History: Received 09 <sup>th</sup> October, 2017 Received in revised form 15 <sup>th</sup> November, 2017 Accepted 21 <sup>st</sup> December, 2017 Published online 19 <sup>th</sup> January, 2018	In spite of rapid advances in the development of pharmaceutical medicines, the targeting of drugs to host macrophage, the key cell responsible for body's defense as well as immune response against invading <i>Leishmania</i> parasite, the causative agent for kala-azar or leishmaniasis, still remains unexplored. Perturbation of macrophage surface by parasites leads to activate oxidative burst and signal transduction for the interaction of host-parasite i.e. macrophage with <i>Leishmania</i> parasite. Amastigotes residing within macrophage phagolysomal compartment are the pivotal target for anti-
Key words:	<ul> <li>leishmanial treatment. In general, free drugs cannot overpower main configurational barriers.</li> <li>Moreover, restrictions on ongoing therapy regarding toxicity, efficiency, cost, and duration of</li> </ul>
Leishmaniasis; Macrophage; Host-parasite interaction; Vesicular drug delivery.	treatment may influence in enhanced parasitic resistance. Therefore, vesicular (liposomal and nanoparticulated) drug deliveries have emerged as alternative conventional approach for having not only their improved bioavailability, non-immunogenecity, reduced toxicity and higher carrier capacity but also for promoting encapsulated drug release in parasite-loaded intracellular macrophage cell in a sustained manner.

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# **INTRODUCTION**

Parasitic protozoa belonged to the genus Leishmania causes a wide spectrum of diseases collectively called leishmaniasis. Kala-azar or visceral leishmaniasis, caused by L. infantum, L. donovani, and L. chagasi, is potentially fatal to human beings if remains untreated exhibiting the rate of mortality over 95%. The life cycle of Leishmania is made up of extracellular promastogote, cultivated in the midgut of sandfly vector and intracellular amastigote nurtured within host macrophages while promastigotes are transmitted through biting of sandfly vectors from one host to another. The macrophage has important roles in defending host against invading parasites and injury, in immune responses and in endocytosis related with receptor-ligand interactions. Thus the macrophages take part a crucial role by phagocytosing the parasites within themselves to kill and by producing immune-regulatory and effector -cells of parasitized animals. Macrophages can tie parasites through specific or non specific receptors to internalize them by phagocytosis into phagolysosome compartment through phagosome formation for parasitic degradation by lysozyme. The interactions between parasitesurface and the host macrophage within phagolysosome during

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parasitism is vital where parasites take out nutrients for their survival and interrupt the host parasiticidal actions, the target site for leishmanial chemotherapy (Chakraborty and Basu, 1997). Drug resistance and toxicity are main obstructions in the leishmaniasis-therapy with the most potent drugs such as pentavalent antimonial, pentamidine and amphotericine B (Chakravarty and Sundar, 2010; Pal et al., 2001; Bhattacharyya et al., 2001). Biomedical science has elaborated the necessity to regulate, control and target the drug-release in the body to the specific site of interest. Accordingly, the primary requirement has been emphasised on providing less frequent administration of drug with a sustained release in the systemic circulation or at the specific target site furthering reduced toxicity. Among various strategies for site-specific drug targeting, vesicular carriers were found to be suitable for their structure function diversity in in vitro and in vivo applications. By using mannosyl-fucosyl receptors on the reticuloendothelial macrophage cells -surface, mannose grafted liposomes were monitored to be efficient in the antileishmanial drugs - delivery to these macrophage cells with a remarkable parasitic load -decrement in the spleen of animals (Banerjee et al., 1996). Furthermore, consideration of available few chemotherapeutic agents and inventive antileishmanial medicines, paralleled with the investigation for less toxic and more effective antileishmanial drugs together with vaccine development, has forced to draw plans of steady nanotechnology derived drug delivery system to be the

principal strategy in combating leishmaniasis. The usage of colloidal vehicle encapsulated with lead drug components, is a potent therapeutic perspective for the physiological uptake of systemic administered mononuclear phagocyte -system i.e. nanosystem leading to higher drug concentrations in the intracellular parasitized macrophages with a protection of in vivo drug degradation (Sana *et al.*, 2017; Pei and Yeo, 2016).

#### Interaction between macrophage and leishmania

#### Leishmania parasite entry

The host-parasite interactions between *leishmania* parasites and various macrophage inhabitants may be happened by (i) chemotaxis, (ii) interlinking at the macrophage surface through receptor-ligand attachment, (iii) different aspects of parasite entry to macrophages, and (iv) final destiny of *Leishmania* in intercellular compartments.

Parasite infection has been recognized on the macrophage surface of parasite ligand with their corresponding receptor (Chang and Fong, 1988). Upon entering the host, the chemotactic substances for *Leishmania* parasites may be released (Bray, 1983). *Leishmania* may bind themselves to the macrophage cells before entrance. Macrophage cells have binding sites on their plasma membrane for about forty ligands associated with phagocytosis following adhesion. The foremost vital receptors in phagocytosis and adhesion refer (i) the mannose-fucose receptor (CR3), (ii) the fibronectin receptor (FcγRI, FcγRII, CR1), and (iii) the updated glycosylated brand receptor. Many parasite ligands are also involved during interaction with macrophages (Bray, 1983).

Two typed attachments have been monitored for L. donovani promastigotes relating the macrophage surface: binding in the absence and / or presence of serum opsonins. In absence of sera, the attachment of hamster macrophages to L. donovani promastigotes relates saturation kinetics depending on temperature and calcium requirement following the / N-acetyl glucosamine receptor-mediated mannose macrophage -persuaded endocytosis. The enhancement of the receptor sites through modulation of macrophage membrane by cholesterol enrichment, increases the attachment of macrophage surfaces to the promastigotes (Mukherjee et al., 1988) suggesting the binding of promastigotes to macrophage lectin-like receptors through glycolipid or glycoprotein ligands -containing N-acetyl glucosamine, glucose, mannose, lipophosphoglycan (LPG) or sialic acid remnants. Moreover, the binding of macrophages to Leishmania promastigotes could be caused to CR3 identifying C3bi on the Leishmania parasite surface (Blackwell et al., 1985). However, this binding can be partly restricted by mannose-rich mannan. According to several studies, the major surface glycoprotein, gp63 may also attach the macrophage surface in a receptor dependent way. Serum dependent attachments of Leishmania promastigotes to host macrophages are occurred by opsonins-adsorption such as antibodies and complement by the promastigotes and macrophage-C3b receptors while Fc receptors are utilized for the binding of parasite opsonised with specified antisera. In the Leishmania-macrophage interaction, parasites are interiorized through coated pits at a high rate via receptor-mediated endocytosis accompanied by the fusions of the parasitophorus vacuoles with secondary lysosomes forming phagolysosome (Blackwell et al., 1985) while amastigotes of Leishmania parasite colonize inside phagolysosomal compartment of the

macrophage and induce the enlargement of the compartment to form huge parasitophorous vacuoles (Peters *et al.*, 1997). The secreted amastigote product, proteophosphoglycan creates peritoneal macrophages - vacuolization in vitro and may influence to expand the infected phagolysosomal compartment in vivo (Peters *et al.*, 1997).

# Eventual sequences during and after interiorization of *Leishmania* parasite

### **Respiratory burst**

The triggered respiratory burst as well as the oxygen metabolites -production occur at the macrophage surface during internalization of *Leishmania* parasite. Perturbation of the macrophage membrane by the *Leishmania* parasite may induce to trigger the membrane-bound NADPH oxidase to catalyze the molecular  $O_2$  reduction to  $O_2^-$  enhancing the oxidative activity. The activated macrophages can kill the parasites by two ways:

#### **Oxygen Dependent Mechanism**

The oxidative burst links biochemical serial events while NADPH generated in the hexose monophosphate shunt is utilized as substrate given below:

Oxygen consumption and the production of  $O_2^-$ ,  $H_2O_2$ :

Oxidase  $2O_2+NADPH \rightarrow 2O_2^- +NADP+H^+$  (At the phagocyte-surface)

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \text{SOD} \\ 2\text{O}_2^- + 2\text{H}^+ & \rightarrow & \text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \end{array}$$

COD

 $2H_2O_2$ +catalase  $\rightarrow O_2$ + $2H_2O$ 

### Oxygen independent mechanism

This mechanism relates nitrogen oxides production which mediates intracellular parasite destruction by lymphokinetriggered macrophages (James and Nacy, 1993). The reactions occurred in this mechanism involve the NO<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and NO synthesis from L-arginine (James and Hibbs, 1990). Arginosuccinate synthetase and nitric oxide synthase participate in the NO production (Nussler et al., 1994) while nitric oxide synthase may be regulated by protein tyrosine kinase (Dong et al., 1993). Iron-loss from the crucial target enzymes by the interaction with nitrogen oxides causes metabolic failure of intracellular parasites (Dong et al., 1993). The toxic O<sub>2</sub> metabolites could mediate damages to Leishmania parasites due to inactivation of iron-supported superoxide dismutase (James and Nacy, 1993). The toxic activities of NO are inter related with toxic O<sub>2</sub> intermediates and also suggest the elimination of intracellular Leishmania amastigotes by IFN-y triggered macrophages related to NO production (Lin and Chadee, 1992; Liew et al., 1990).

# Survival criteria of *leishmania* parasite within phagolysosome

*Leishmania* amastigotes survive within the acidic intralysosomal macrophage compartment. The fate of intracellular *Leishmania* parasites and the ultimate disease development depend on the different *Leishmania* species and the host immune response. The parasite shows different strategies to enable evasion of host defense system (Bogdan *et al.*, 1990).

# Parasite resistance to sera contents and phagolysosomal activity

Some infective Leishmania species are not capable to activate the alternate complement pathway and resistant partially to sera mediated destruction. Sometimes, surface antigens regulated by development, enable the Leishmania pathogen to become resistant to the classical complement system (DaSilva et al., 1989). Comparatively few other Leishmania amastigotes are resistant to lysis by human sera killing in spite of C3 fixation and attachment while opsonisation of Leishmania promastigotes by C3bi allows the entrance of it via host cell CR3-receptor. Leishmania parasites -survival within phagolysosome relates oxidative burst inhibition, oxidative metabolites scavenging, lysozymes inactivation and downregulated O<sub>2</sub>- dependent killing (Buchmuller-Rouiller and Mauel, 1987). Amastigotes display high activities of glutathione peroxidase and superoxide dismutase for toxic macrophage intermediates -degradation. Some molecules such as gp63, LPG, nucleotidase, cysteine proteinase and acid phosphatase, existed on Leishmania parasite cell -surface, are responsible for its virulency as well as survival (Choudhury and Chang, 1990) while LPG and gp63 function as ligands for CR3 and CR1 macrophage receptors to enable pathogen entry via these receptors triggering little respiratory burst (Wright and Silverstein, 1982). LPG generally restricts oxidative burst, lysosomal  $\beta$  galactosidase activity and can scavenge reactive oxygen species while gp63 inactivates host proteolytic lysozymes protecting pathogen proteins from phagolysosomal decay. Leishmania parasites have also the ability to keep up a neutral intracellular pH for survival in spite of acidic pH inside the phagolysosomal compartment (Bogdan et al., 1990).

### T cell immune response during infection

Analysis of immune responses in mice during Leishmania parasite infection has focussed the host susceptibility and resistance persuaded by functionally diverse CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes (Muller et al., 1989). Th1, one subset of CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes, produces high quantity of IFNy, while Th2, the other set, secretes IL4 cytokine, involved to control the disease progression. Host-resistance is accompanied by Th1 cell cytokines such as IL2 and IFN $\gamma$ , whereas susceptibility by Th2 type cytokine IL4. Leishmania parasitized macrophages are effective in arresting the Th1 type immunity such as IFNy persuaded macrophage triggering by restricting MHC class II antigen expression and IFNy mediated signalling (Reiner et al., 1988) while IFNy receptor and tyrosine phosphorylation of Janus activated kinases (JAK kinases) are downregulated, and signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT1) is diminished (Ray et al., 2000; Nandan and Reinerb, 1995). IL12 takes part in the Th1 type immune response against Leishmania parasite by induction of IFNy and by prolonging sufficient quantity of memory / effector Th1 cells (Reiner et al., 1994; Stobie et al., 2000). The selective impairment by Leishmania parasites to the production of IL12 by host cells, ensures their survival within host macrophages (Carrera et al., 1996). Sand fly saliva also increases parasite evasion of the host immunity by facilitating enhanced IL10 production (Norsworthy et al., 2004).

## **Regulation of receptors**

The process of attachment through specific receptors mediated internalization or endocytosis becomes faster when infective strains of *Leishmania* parasites expressing surface LPG and gp63 are endocytosed by host macrophages (Chakraborty *et al.*, 1996). Decreased binding for sugar-specific receptors as well as mannose or glucose-bearing liposomes has been monitored for macrophages infected earlier with *Leishmania* parasite in vitro or in vivo, due to receptor down regulation for decrement in the number of receptor sites having no alter for inclination (Dutta *et al.*, 1994; Basu *et al.*, 1991).

# Immuno-effector mechanisms in *leishmania*-macrophage interactions

## Presentation and processing of antigens

Host macrophages internalize parasite macromolecules by phagocytosis, which is then transported to phagolysosome for chewing up by the proteolytic enzyme and the relevant escaped part is translocated to the surface associated with major histocompatibility complex (MHC). The T-cell receptor docks on this peptide-MHC complex leading cell triggering. The antigen presentation is believed to be induced by Nramp1 protein in Leishmania parasite to regulate macrophage activation through controlling expression of MHC-II molecules. Macrophages transfected with natural or wild type mutant allele of the Nramp1 gene were utilized to investigate MHC class II expression, processing and presenting recombinant antigen protein to CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell hybridoma. Transfected macrophage clone possessing the wild type allele exhibited increased class I molecules up-regulation in response to IFNy contrasted with macrophage clone having mutant allele, and also showed an increased lipopolysaccharide based capability to present the recombinant Leishmania parasite antigen LACK-delta1 to LACK-specific CD4+ T-cells influencing the potential contribution of Nramp1 gene in infection and susceptibility to autoimmune disease (Lang et al., 1997). The generation of CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cells by specific leishmanial antigen, GP46/M-2 to immunize mice against Leishmania parasite has been demonstrated (Kima et al., 1997). In addition, CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cells also identified macrophages carrying Leishmania parasite. Infected macrophages process for MHC I presentation of GP46/M-2 which may be inhibited by the treatments with brefeldin A or specific inhibitors suggesting the process of leishmanial antigen in the macrophage cytosol and its presentation to CD8<sup>+</sup> T-cells through the classical MHC I signalling (Kima et al., 1997).

### **Production of cytokines**

Leishmania infected macrophage produces a lot of cytokines e.g. TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-1, IL-12, IL-18, etc. It has been observed that IL-18 and TNF- $\alpha$  –releases are higher by polymorphonuclear bone marrow derived cells (PBMC) and monocytes infected by *L. donovani* compared to *L. major* (Iannello *et al.*, 2003). There is a report that IL-12 is very crucial for protective immune response against *L. major* (Mattner *et al.*, 1996) while in comparison to the pathogenic metacyclic promastigotes, the procyclic forms collected from logarithmic culture-phase exhibited a significant capability to induce IL-10, IL-12 and TNF- $\alpha$ . However, it was monitored that infected macrophages lost their capabilities to generate IL-12 from Th 1 responders in response to LPS or IFN- $\gamma$ . Furthermore, though the response of IL-6 was checked partially, the reaction of TNF- $\alpha$  of infected macrophages was noticed to stay unimpaired. Among other cytokines, IL-4 and IL-10 were monitored to inhibit killing of *L. infantum* and *L. major* intracellularly by macrophages with reduced nitric oxide production while IL-10 was observed to be more potent than IL-4 regarding inhibitory activity (Vouldoukis *et al.*, 1997).

### **Role of chemokines**

Chemokines, responsive for contraction of chemoattractant cytokines, are familiar to cue particular subtypes of leucocyte to the inflammed sites. They are identified as beta chemokines (C-C), alpha chemokines (C-X-C), lymphoactin and fractalkine (Rossi and Zlotkin, 2000). It is demonstrated that self-healing leishmaniasis involves higher cutaneous monocyte chemoattractant protein -level, MCP-1 for stimulating microbicidal mechanisms of macrophages with infiltration into the lesion (Badolato et al., 1996; Moll, 1997). Leishmania promastigotes of stationary phase induce speedy and transient transcript expressions of chemokines KC and JF in bone marrow derived macrophages to about 4 to 6 fold rise quickly after ailment and returns to un-induced levels by 4 to 24 h. Chemokines bind with their receptors and function via Gprotein coupled receptor(s) (GPCRs) localized on the target cell membranes. The identified chemokine receptors such as CXCR1 to CXCR5 bind to a-chemokines, CCR1 to CCR9 attach to  $\beta$ -chemokines, XCR1 attaches to lymphotactin, and CX3CR1 attaches to fractalkine, and deploy their biological activities in leukocyte recruitments and Th1/Th2 cytokine responses in the leishmanial pathobiology (Roychoudhury and Roy, 2004). There is also proof that chemokines when bind to their receptors, control movements and interactions of antigen presenting cells e.g. T-cells and dendritic cells.

### Signalling pathways

Cell surface receptors become activated by external signals and initiate signallings where informations are transmitted from one component to another to produce ultimate effectors. Leishmania parasites survive within phagolysosome of host macrophages and the survival is dependent upon the inhibition of signalling pathways by host cells to activate macrophages for generating killing components such as O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO against parasites. Activated PKC-mediated signalling events generate O<sub>2</sub> whereas activated MAPK cell signalling releases proinflammatory cytokine, IL-12 and produces NO. Host resistance against parasites is dependent upon IL-12-mediated Th-1 type protective immune response overpowered by the generation of IFN-y associated with JAKs, STAT phosphorylations to activate macrophages for killing parasites via NO release while parasites are also capable to impair the productions of IL-12 and IFN-y by human macrophage and Tcell respectively but the more synthesis of Th-2 cytokines, IL-10 and IL-4 (Rosas et al., 2003; McDowell and Sacks, 1999; Reiner et al., 1988; Nandan and Reinerb, 1995). It is evidenced that the interactions of CD40 on macrophage and CD401 on Tcell produce IL-10 or IL-12 and activate T-cell to produce IFN-γ by inducing MAPK-mediated signalling while parasites take an attempt to disrupt this interaction as well as signalling for their survival through extracellular signal related kinase (ERK1/2) dependent IL-10 release or p38MAPK dependent IL-12 release signalling. Another adaptor protein myeloid differentiation molecule 88 (MyD88) involves Toll like receptor (TLR) signalling where TLR recognizes Leishmania parasite by lipophosphoglycan (LPG), crucial for IL-12 release by macrophage (DeVeer *et al.*, 2003). It has been demonstrated that high released  $Ca^{2+}$  is accumulated intracellularly in virulent amastigote than in virulent promastigote or avirulent cells of both forms which correlates  $Ca^{2+}$ -ATPase and intracellular  $Ca^{2+}$  pool contents with  $Ca^{2+}$  signals during parasite invasion of macrophages (Lu *et al.*, 1997).

### Chemotherapy against Leishmaniasis

Parasites, namely, L. donovani, L. chagasi and L. infantum, are the causative agents of kala-azar (KA) or visceral leishmaniasis (VL), a potent deadly disease found in most tropical countries including the Indian subcontinent if it remains untreated. Organic pentavalent antimonials [Sb(V)] in the forms of sodium stibogluconate such as stibanate, pentostam and soluatibosan or meglumine antimonite such as glucantime are the drugs of first choice for treatment of VL and other forms of leishmaniasis (Berman, 1988). When treatments with these drugs fail, amphotericin B or pentamidine isethionate are used against leishmaniasis as drugs of second choice (Jha, 1983; Mishra et al., 1991). Allopurinals have also been used for the treatment of antimony resistant leishmaniasis candidates in Kenya and Bihar, India (Kager et al., 1981; Jha, 1983). Drug toxicity as well as its side effects and drug unresponsiveness are the major obstacles in the treatment and control of leishmaniasis. Resistance to antimony chemotherapy in visceral and mucocutaneous leishmaniasis has been recognised as serious clinical health problem (Thakur et al., 1998; Arya, 1993; Bryceson et al., 1985; Rocha et al., 1980; Costa et al., 1986; Bryceson et al., 1985). It is believed that post kala-azar dermal leishmaniasis (PKDL) is occurred by residual Leishmania parasites survived upon chemotherapy and escaped to the skin after clinical cure owing to the resistance to stibanate observed in some patients (Bhattacharyya et al., 2001).

It was also noticed that Leishmania parasites were crossresistant to heavy metal ions e.g. Sb<sup>3+</sup>, Zn<sup>2+</sup>, As<sup>3+</sup> and three other drugs such as amphotericin B, colchicines and pentamidine isethionate in addition to Sb(V) resistance (Bhattacharyya et al., 2001). To elucidate whether a mechanism of drug efflux system is involved in resistant cells, parasite proteins were analysed by western blot utilizing monoclonal antisera raised against a pellicular membrane drug transporter protein, MRP resulting its higher expression in resistant clones than sensitive one (Bhattacharyya et al., 2001). Amplification of P-glycoprotein was also monitored in arsenite resistant cells showing its involvement in drug extrusion as efflux pump from mammalian cells (Pal et al., 2001). In addition, the mechanism of Sb(V) resistance in Leishmania parasites may be due to intracellular reduction of Sb<sup>5+</sup> to Sb<sup>3+</sup> and associate efflux of Sb<sup>3+</sup>-trypanothione conjugate led by the As-thiol pump (Bhattacharyya et al., 2001).

#### **Antileishmanial Delivery Systems**

In spite of speedy development in pharmaceutical and medicinal technologies, the delivery of drugs to phagocytes in macrophage-related leishmaniasis persists to be resolved. The use of vesicular drug delivery systems (VDDSs) may stand as a complementary strategy to develop newer treatments as well as combinatorial therapies for leishmaniasis to deliver high drug concentration into the intracellular parasite-loaded phagolysosome or parasitophorous vacuole. The attractive goal of this type of drug delivery is to pursue maximum amount targeting of small quantity of encapsulated drug compared to high amount of free drug administration to macrophages at a sustained manner avoiding drug-toxicity as side effects. Receptor mediated vesicular drug delivery to parasite infected macrophages was observed to be more potent in comparison to simple vesicular drug delivery in targeting antileishmanial drug to phagocytic cell. This type of delivery system not only overcomes poor solubility of drugs but also protects the active lead compound from decadence in systemic fluids. Moreover, it has given emphasized on the development of vesicular oral formulation to improve patient compliance with this delivery system to overcome also drug resistance with combination therapy. The recent report on the investigation in anti-visceral leishmaniasis technology with special reference to the use of liposomes, nanocapsules, metals, non metals and carbon nanoparticles -encapsulated with drugs used against leishmaniasis has been focussed. Here, the most challenging aspect is the oral drug administration which becomes limited due to its lower absorption by passive diffusion through the intestinal cell membranes based on drug's molecular weight greater than 500Da when efficiency decreases (Italia et al., 2009). Moreover, drugs become degraded in the acidic pH and bacterial existence of the gastrointestinal tract supported by the extensive P-gp efflux from the enterocytes. To overcome this problem of drug bioavailability, oral formulations of liposomes and nanoparticles -encapsulated drugs were optimized and applied against visceral leishmaniasis (Torrado et al., 2013). Currently, few other herbal compounds encapsulated in liposomal or nanoparticulated delivery system have also been investigated in vitro, and in vivo mice or hamsters models to enlighten the efficacy of new drugs in combating visceral leishmaniasis.

### Liposomal drug delivery

Liposomes are microscopic spheres made up of lipids usually phospholipids. They spontaneously form when lipids are dispersed in aqueous media. They can be constructed so that they entrap quantities of highly polar and relatively small solutes within the aqueous compartment and lipophobic substances within the lipid bi-layers. Owing to their stability, biocompatibility, easy scaling up and capability to carry different lead compounds as cargo, different formulations of liposomal drugs have been optimized to target drug to specific site of interest against various diseases (Allen and Cullis, 2013). Following the systemic administration, liposomes are accumulated in the reticuloendothelial system (RES) such as spleen, liver, lungs, kidney, lymph nodes and bone marrow, and cleared up by residential macrophages. In accordance with earlier report, the best clinical outcomes have been gained by the liposomal formulation AmBisome than lipid complex formulations of AmpB regarding efficacy in in vivo evaluations (Larabi et al., 2003). Recently, cholesterol has been substituted by ergosterol containing 50% total lipids molarity in liposome formulations as cholesterol enhances the growth of leishmania promastigotes and has been named as Kalsome<sup>TM</sup>10 whose efficacy was found to be very potent in apoptotic cell death in Leishmania parasites (Mishra et al., 2013; Asad et al., 2015; Shadab et al., 2017). A lot of antileishmanial antimonials have been formulated in liposomes and their biological efficacies have been evaluated (New et al., 1978). Furthermore, liposomes have been modified with anionic and neutral surface charges to test their efficacies (Carter et al., 1989), but only cationic phosphatidyl cholinestearylamine liposomes have shown their effective supremacy against ailment with sodium stibogluconate-resistant *Leishmania* pathogens in mice with the enhancement of charged phospholipid binding to macrophages (Roychoudhury *et al.*, 2011). Several drugs such as doxil, meglumine antimonite, camptothecin and doxorubicin have been optimized in liposome formulations with polyethylene glycol (PEG) coating to increase liposome stability and enhance blood circulation half-life. Their efficacies have been evaluated as more effective than currently available drugs to decrease the resistance of *Leishmania* parasites (Immordino *et al.*, 2006; Azevedo *et al.*, 2014; Proulx *et al.*, 2001; Keighobadi *et al.*, 2015).

### **Nanocapsulated Drug Delivery**

Colloidal polymeric nanocapsule such as FDA-approved poly (lactide-co-glycolide) (PLGA) has taken attention as drug delivery carrier against leishmaniasis not only for its small size, shell-rigidity, non-immunogenecity and biodegradability properties but also for capability of a affordable sustained release of the encapsulated drug to infected cells or tissues (Asthana et al., 2013; American Pharmaceutical Review). Nanocapsule's modulation can be carried out by its coating of ligands such as chitosan, poly ethylene glycol to enhance circulation time and for getting maximum uptake to effected cells. Several reports have demonstrated that the efficiency of PLGA nanocapsule-coated AmpB was found to be higher than that of free drug or AmBisome against Leishmania organism with less cytotoxicity and hemotoxicity (Van De Ven et al., 2012). The AmpB-PLGA nanocapsule carrying d-α-tocopheryl poly-ethylene glycol 1000 succinate (TPGS) may be used against drug resistant Leishmania parasites while TPGS may act as P-gp efflux inhibitor and stabilizer to improve their absorption and bioavailability (Zhang et al., 2012; Italia et al., 2012). Miltefosine (MF) loaded PLGA-PEG nanocapsule also displayed higher efficacy and bioavailability compared to free drug as antileishmanial activity (Kumar et al., 2016). Lipidpolymer hybrid nanoparticles (LPNPs) containing AmpB with the anionic core made up of PLGA polymer and TPGS surfactant, and the shell composed of cationic stearylamine lipid, have been applied against leishmaniasis while parasite growth inhibition was higher compared to the carrier without stearylamine or the AmBisome formulation, possibly due to higher uptake into the macrophages and RES organs (Asthana et al., 2015). In this regard, the positive charge of LPNPs may attach to negatively charged sialic acid receptors on the macrophage surface causing adsorption-mediated endocytosis.

Mannose-coated PLGA nanoparticles containing AmpB and PEG, resulted more efficient parasites-inhibition compared to both the one without PEG and the free AmpB as an active targeting approach (Nahar and Jain, 2009).

Furthermore, the treatment with mannan-grafted PLGA-AmpB nanoparticles reduced the visceral organs parasite load significantly probably owing to enhanced production of cytokines such as interferon gamma and nitric oxide which are responsible for the organism's defense in combating parasite infections (Barros *et al.*, 2015). PLGA nanoparticles containing AmpB and coated with glycoprotein lactoferrin (Lef) showed higher in vivo anti-leishmanial activity efficiency compared to non-targeted and commercial formulations as the N-glycosylation sites of Lcf-glycoprotein are identified by mannose receptors located on monocyte / macrophage and dendritic cells surfaces (Asthana *et al.*, 2015;

Silva *et al.*, 2012). PEG-PLGA-AmpB nanoparticles adorned with anti-CD14 antibody revealed higher parasite inhibition efficiency compared to free drug as CD14 exists on macrophages, neutrophils and dendritic cells surfaces (Kumar *et al.*, 2015).

### Inorganic compounds as drug delivery systems

Despite the growing pharmaceutical interest of the majority of organic biodegradable polymer nanoparticles, inorganic compounds such as metallic nanoparticles, carbon-based nanostructure and hydroxyapatite nanostructure display several interesting characteristics with diagnostic and therapeutic functionalities as potent delivery system against infectious agents as well as diseases (Ali-Boucetta and Kostarelos, 2013; Baeza et al., 2015). Nanoparticulated metals (Mandal, 2017; Mandal, 2017; Mandal, 2017) might be of interest as microbicidal agents for their capability to produce ROS while silver nanoparticles (Allahverdivev et al., 2011) with or without UV light were monitored to inhibit Leishmania parasite in vitro and in vivo by damaging their membrane. Silver oxide nanoparticles with or without UV and infrared irradiation were found to be the highest antileishmanial activity rather than the gradual decrease in activities of gold oxide, titanium dioxide, zinc oxide, magnesium oxide and selenium oxide nanoparticles (Jebali and Kazemi, 2013).

Biocompatible nanoparticles doped with different concentrations of copper or silver showed in vitro efficacies against *Leishmania* parasites by their killing through the production of ROS especially when activated by daylight irradiation (Nadhman *et al.*, 2015; Nadhman *et al.*, 2014). Recently, AmpB adsorbed spherical silver nanoparticles were observed to show more potent in vitro antileishmanial activity by the production of ROS from the released silver ions and augmented upon visible light irradiation (Ahmad *et al.*, 2016).

Carbon compounds, the other inorganic nanomaterials, have also taken interest as antileishmanial device owing to their excellent optical, mechanical and thermal properties where drugs are linked covalently to carbon nanotubes or absorbed strongly by their surface  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking. The intraperitoneal administration of AmpB adsorbed multi-walled carbon nanotubes showed higher percentage suppression of the spleen-parasites than with free drug probably due to the covalent link through an ether bond (Prajapati et al., 2011; Prajapati et al., 2012). Similar to the inorganic contents of calcified tissues, nanosized calcium phosphate substances, due to their effective dimensions, have shown their better bioactivity and biocompatibility compared to conventional materials. Moreover, calcium phosphate is not only a low-cost drug cargo, chemically stable inorganic minerals but also degraded nontoxic product when metabolized (Kester et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2012). The in vivo anti-leishmanial efficacy of AmpB-loaded calcium phosphate nanoparticles were assessed stronger compared to marketed formulations or free drug suspension due to higher targeted macrophagesinteriorization through clathrin receptor -mediated phagocytosis and increment of Th1-mediated immuneresponse by nanoparticles with preferential uptake in a sustained manner to macrophage-affluent organs such as spleen and liver (Chaurasia et al., 2016). The in vitro activity of pentavalent antimonials-loaded calcium phosphate nanoparticles showed the drug internalization and calciumelevation into the parasite-infected cells resulting parasite apoptosis (Alvarenga et al., 2015).

### **Future Perspectives**

The necessity for other treatments, particularly, for the reduction of the clinical treatment period, guide to screen potent metals and natural products for therapeutic use in leishmaniasis along with currently available potential medicines, organic compounds and unexplored active molecules in medicinal plants (Allahverdivev et al., 2011; Jebali and Kazemi, 2013; Nadhman et al., 2015; Nadhman et al., 2014; Le Pape, 2008; Mishra et al., 2009; Espuelas et al., 2012; Pena et al., 2015; Castillo-Garit et al., 2012; Tariq et al., 2016; Polonio and Efferth, 2008; Nagle et al., 2014; Sangshetti et al., 2015). Several active compounds derived from various chemicals such as napthoquinones, indolyl quinoline analogs, doxorubicin, antimicrobial peptides, disulfiram and OIPC with or without vesicular encapsulation showed antileishmanial activity (Silva et al., 2012; Marr et al., 2012; Sundar and Chakravarty, 2015; Peniche et al., 2015; Fortin et al., 2012; Hernandez et al., 2014; Fortin et al., 2016). Natural compounds such as andrographalide, bacopasaponin C, harmine, MT81, oleanolic acid, bisnaphthalimidopropyl derivatives, artemisinin and curcumin in vesicular forms have been evaluated as potent anti-leishmanial agents (Roy et al., 2010; Mondal et al., 2013; Sinha et al., 2000; Sinha et al., 2002; Lala et al., 2004; Mitra et al., 2005; Ghosh et al., 2016; Tavares et al., 2012; Costa Lima et al., 2012; Yang and Liew, 1993; Want et al., 2014; Fouladvand et al., 2013; Tiwari et al., 2017). Furthermore, betulin loaded carbon nanotube has been utilized recently as leishmanicidal agent to overcome drug resistance by down-regulating the activity of P-gp efflux, however, needed further toxicological evaluation (Saudagar and Dubey, 2014).

### Conclusions

The treatment for infectious diseases suffers from drug resistance, low drug bioavailability and solubility, high drug toxicity, low drug potency, non-selectivity and short term drug-action in biological system. To overcome these limitations, several potent drugs have been encapsulated in vesicular system with or without ligand specific binding for targeting cells to get maximum biological efficacies which needed further clinical evaluations. On the other hand, metallic nanoparticles have been utilized as delivery system against infectious diseases which require proper surface modification to get maximum potency with vesicular drug encapsulation attached with specific ligands for site specific targeting to get enhanced efficacy which needed further investigations.

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