A Review Concept on Polymer Micelles

Sanjana Amarnath Kasturi\(^1\), Shruti Satish Garad\(^2\)

\(^1\)Student, Nirant Institute of Pharmacy Boramani Solapur  
\(^2\)Guide, Nirant Institute of Pharmacy Boramani Solapur

ABSTRACT
Polymeric micelles present a viable approach for research on drug delivery and targeting. Compared to surfactant micelles, polymeric micelles are nanoscale colloid particles that self-assemble from amphiphilic block co-polymers. Their inner core has the ability to solubilize significant amounts of hydrophobic substances. This article has covered a number of topics regarding polymeric micelles, including their fundamentals, which include their size, shape, chemistry, general characteristics, structure analysis, and mechanism of production. The many kinds of polymeric micelles were also emphasised. Here, we have focused particularly on the recent advancements in the use of polymeric micelles as nanocarriers for several applications, including the treatment of cancer, the treatment of Covid-19, oral drug delivery, cutaneous drug delivery, polynucleotide distribution, and delivery to the brain. Polymeric micelles show great promise as a research tool for drug delivery and targeted applications. Amphiphilic block co-polymers self-assemble to form self-assembling nanoscale colloid particles known as polymeric micelles. The polymeric micelles have found widespread application because of their exceptional biocompatibility, little toxicity, prolonged blood circulation duration, and capacity to solubilize substantial amounts of pharmaceuticals within their micellar core. The polymeric micelles are divided into conventional, polyion complex, and non-covalently linked types based on the intermolecular forces. There three types of method of preparation explained in this article. They direct dissolution, solvent evaporation and dialysis method. The evaluation techniques used here are critical micellar concentration, size and shape, in vitro drug release behavior. Polymeric micelles can be used as a Drug delivery to certain locations can be accomplished through the use of polymeric micelles.

KEYWORDS: Block copolymers, solubilization, polymeric micelles, and micellar, Drug delivery, polymers, and nanocarrier.

INTRODUCTION
The self-assembling nanoparticles known as polymeric micelles are composed of amphiphilic block polymers, which are hydrophilic and hydrophobic block polymers at the same time. Similar to regular amphiphiles, amphiphilic block polymers also produce polymeric micelles in aqueous solution above the critical molecular concentration (CMC) \(^1\). Polymeric micelles, in contrast to conventional surfactant monomer micelles, feature a covalent connection forming between individual surfactant molecules inside the hydrophobic core. This link prevents the dynamic exchange of monomers between the micellar pseudo-phase and free solution. This confirms the stability and rigidity of the polymeric micelles. The size of the particles in this polymeric micelle is 10-10 nm, which is smaller than that of phospholipid vesicles.\(^2\) The size of the polymeric micelles is influenced by the molecular weight of the amphiphilic block copolymer, the aggregation number of the amphiphiles, and the relative fraction of hydrophilic and
hydrophobic chains. Compared to surfactant micelles, polymeric micelles are less cytotoxic and more stable. Polymeric micelles provide access to targeting because of the inner core’s significant drug loading capacity and the peculiar disposition characteristics in the body resulting from their size. Polymeric micelles, which are stimuli-responsive (pH, temperature-sensitive), allowed for the creation of a “intelligent vehicle.” Lately, polymeric micelles have drawn a lot of interest as a potential drug delivery method for poorly soluble medications.[3][4] In an aqueous medium, amphiphilic block copolymers can self-assemble into worm-like or cylindrical micelles, spherical micelles, and polymer vesicles. The most crucial element influencing micelle shape is the hydrophilic-hydrophobic balance of the block copolymer, which is represented by the hydrophilic volume fraction, $f$. Amphiphilic block copolymers with a value of about 35 percent are used to make polymer vesicles, while self-assembled amphiphilic block copolymers with a value of more than 45 percent are used to form spherical micelles. Amphiphilic diblock polymers have a molecular mass of 5000–30,000 Da, whereas surfactants have a molecular mass of 100–500 Da. Amphiphilic block copolymers possess greater molecular weights along with intricate architectures. Amphiphiles with more intricate molecular patterns, like star copolymers, can be used to create more complex morphologies, such as crew-cut micelles, multicompartiment micelles, toroids, and others. Alternatively, the experimental conditions for self-assembly can be changed. In terms of interfacial activity, viscosity, and emulsification, these morphologies can significantly affect how well an application performs.[5]

MICELLES
A rapid shift in numerous physical and chemical characteristics can be observed in solutions containing amphiphilic molecules or surfactant monomers with a lipophilic tail and a polar head. Micelle production is attributed to the orientation and interaction of amphiphilic molecules in solution, which leads to a change in their physicochemical properties. The micelles have a hydrophilic surface on the outside and a hydrophobic core inside. An aggregation number is the average number of monomers that form a micelle at any particular time. Micelles are typically composed of 50 to 200 monomers. Micelles are in the colloidal range because the radius of a spherical micelle is about equal to the length of a fully extended surfactant monomer, which is typically 1-3 nm. [6] The principal mechanism responsible for the self-association of amphiphilic molecules is the reduction of the system’s free energy. The creation of a stabilised micelle core with hydrophilic fragments exposed to water and the removal of hydrophobic fragments from the aqueous surroundings cause a decrease in free energy. Temperature, solvent concentration, amphiphile concentration, and the size of the hydrophobic domain in the amphiphilic molecule all influence the micelle generation process. The critical micelle concentration (CMC), which is the lowest concentration that the amphiphilic molecules must cross before production may begin. These amphiphilic molecules are so tiny that they appear to be subcolloidal at low concentrations in the medium. They exist separately. As the overall amphiphile concentration rises below the CMC, so does the concentration of amphiphile undergoing adsorption at the air-water interface. At CMC, both the bulk phase and the interface have reached monomer saturation. Aggregation of monomers in the bulk phase reduces the system’s free energy when more amphiphile is added beyond the CMC bound. The critical temperature of micellization is the temperature at which amphiphilic molecules exist as aggregation and below which as unimers.[6,7,8]
Amphiphilic block or graft copolymers behave similarly to typical amphiphiles, and they form polymeric micelles in aqueous solution above the CMC. The hydrophobic core of polymeric micelles contains a covalent bond between individual surfactant molecules, unlike the micelles of typical surfactant monomers. The dynamic exchange of monomers between the micellar pseudo-phase and free solution is hindered by this connection. The polymeric micelles gain stiffness and stability as a result. The polymeric micelles have a diameter ranging from 10 to 100 nm and an aggregation number of several hundreds. The synthesis method, the relative amount of hydrophilic and hydrophobic chains, the aggregation number of the amphiphiles, and the molecular weight of the amphiphile block copolymer are the factors that determine the size of the polymeric micelles. [9,10] Amphiphilic block copolymers can primarily self-assemble into worm-like or cylindrical micelles, spherical micelles, polymer vesicles, or polymersomes in aqueous media. The hydrophilic-hydrophobic balance of the block copolymer, which is determined by the hydrophilic volume fraction, f, is the primary factor influencing the morphology of micelles. Polymer vesicles are generated for amphiphilic block copolymers with a value of f approximately 35%, while spherical micelles are formed by self-assembly for f values greater than 45%. More complex morphologies, such as crew-cut micelles, multicompartiment micelles, toroids, etc., can be generated by adjusting the experimental conditions for self-assembly or by employing amphiphiles of more complex molecular design, such as miktoarm star copolymers.[11,12]
The primary benefits of nanosystems in medication delivery are enumerated in Panel (A). The primary types of nanocarriers are schematically represented in Panel (B), along with some indications regarding their benefits and limits. The most prevalent classes of polymers or materials utilised in their creation are indicated. [14]

Fig.3 The primary benefits of nanosystems in medication delivery are enumerated in Panel (A). The primary types of nanocarriers are schematically represented in Panel (B), along with some indications regarding their benefits and limits. The most prevalent classes of polymers or materials utilised in their creation are indicated. [14]

Fig.4 Polymeric micelle schematic depiction. [14]

TYPES OF POLYMERIC MICELLES
Based on the intermolecular forces which apart the core segment interacting with the aqueous environment. Polymeric micelles can be classified in to
1. Conventional
2. Polyion complex micelles
3. Non-covalently connected polymeric micelles
1. Conventional: Micelles are formed when the hydrophobic interaction between the shell and core occurs in an aqueous environment. The amphiphilic block co-polymer poly(ethylene oxide)-b-poly(ethylene oxide) is an example of one created by hydrophobic contact. [15,16]
2. Polyion complex micelles: Electrostatic interaction between two oppositely charged moieties forms polyion complex micelles. Electrostatic and Vander Waals forces of interaction regulate the size and form of the charged micelle coronas. Among the characteristics of polyion complex micelles are their
easy synthesis, high drug loading capacity, structural stability, extended blood circulation, and ability to self-assemble in an aqueous medium. Organic solvents are not used in the preparation of micella in aqueous media. This will make it possible to eliminate any potential negative effects brought on by leftover organic solvent. Many therapeutic compounds can be trapped by the core polion complex micelles through hydrophobic and electrostatic hydrogen bonding interactions. A appropriate trigger releases these healing substances from the core. [15,16]

3. **Non-covalently connected polymeric micelles**: When creating non-covalently bound polymeric micelles, interpolymer hydrogen bonding complexation can be utilised as a driving factor in the lack of block co-polymer. The term “non-covalently connected polymeric micelles” refers to the non-covalent connection between the corona and core at the homopolymer chain end caused by metal ligand interactions or hydrogen bonds.[15,16]

**METHODS OF PREPARATION**

1. **Direct dissolution method**: In an aqueous solution, the medication and block copolymer are mixed. It is frequently applied to hydrophobic copolymers, like poloxamers. By dehydrating the segments that compose the core, the temperature is raised to cause micelles to develop. Following their separate dissolution in an aqueous solvent, the copolymer and the drug are combined to form micelles.

2. **Solvent evaluation method**: This technique dissolves medications and copolymers using volatile organic solvents. You can only use this method. Neither the medication nor the copolymer dissolves in water, nor do they both dissolve in a common solvent. Thin films of the drug and copolymer are created as a result of the evaporation of the organic solvent. Drug-loaded polymeric micelles are created by adding water to the film shown above.

3. **Dialysis method**: In an organic solvent, drugs in copolymers are combined. Filling a dialysis bag with the aforementioned mixture A beaker full of water is filled with a dialysis bag. The water enters and exits this solution. Poor solubility patients are frequently treated with the dialysis technique. In order to ensure proper drug loading, the dialysis process requires longer than 36 hours. [15,16]

**CHARACTERISATION OF POLYMERIC MICELLE**

Characterising polymeric micelles is a crucial step towards achieving its bioavailability. It is necessary to perform a thorough examination to demonstrate the stability of these molecules because they differ in size and solubility. The size, shape, and critical micellar concentration of a polymeric micelle are determined by observing its in vitro drug behaviour. Crucial micellar.

1. **Critical micellar concentration**: Essential micellar concentration For polymeric micelles to remain stable, CMC is a crucial component. The CMC of micelles in an aqueous dispersion can be ascertained by various techniques, including differential scanning calorimetry, X-ray scattering, surface tension, and fluorescence chromatography. [15,20]

2. **Size and shape determination**: The prepared micellar solutions’ polydispersity index. The quasi elastic light scattering technique can be used to determine structure. A monodisperse micelle using the light scattering technique can produce blue colour, while aggregates can produce white colour. The
presence of blue colour indicates the quality of the created micelle solution. By using transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM), one can ascertain the dimensions and form of black copolymer. Block copolymer micelles can be directly seen in either a liquid or dried form using atomic force microscopy (AFM). Asymmetric flow field flow fractionation can be used to calculate the size of polymeric micelles loaded with drugs. Small angle neutron imaging reveals the micellar assembly structure. [15]

3. **In vitro drug release behavior**: A dialysis tube is used to hold micellar fluid in an in vitro drug release investigation. The medium-containing flask in which the dialysis bag is submerged is heated to a consistent temperature. A portion of the medium is removed at various intervals and is replaced with brand-new medium. Spectrophotoscopic techniques are employed to determine the drug concentration released using this extracted medium. [15,21]

### POLYMERIC MICELLES IN SKIN DRUG DELIVERY [26]

Alternative parenteral, oral, ophthalmic, pulmonary, and nasal delivery systems have been studied using polymeric micelles. The mechanism of action of polymeric micelles is not well understood, and there is a dearth of research on targeted cutaneous delivery. Polymeric nanoparticles, on the other hand, have been seen to collect in hair follicles and may pass through SC. For the administration of drugs topically, a distinct use of polymeric micelles has been shown.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Localization in skin</th>
<th>Drug</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Polymeric micelles</td>
<td>Inter-cluster regions (furrows)</td>
<td>Ciclosporin A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follicular pathway</td>
<td>Tacrolimus</td>
<td>[44]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not mention</td>
<td>Econazole</td>
<td>[45]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follicular pathway</td>
<td>Ketoconazole</td>
<td>[52]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not measured</td>
<td>Benzoyl peroxide</td>
<td>[53]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lidocaine</td>
<td>[54]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE.1 Utilising polymeric micelles in different ways to deliver drugs topically[26]**

In one study, Lapetva et al. Developed polymeric micelles loaded with ciclosporin A (CsA) using MPEG-dihexPLA diblock copolymer. The micelles were tested on in vitro pig ear skin. Fluorescein-labeled CsA (Fluo-CsA) and Nile-Red (NR)-labeled copolymer were then used to use CLSM to identify drug penetration paths and micelles. Micelles with small particle sizes (25–52 nm) and spherical shape were produced by the solvent evaporation method. The aqueous solubility of CsA was raised by 518 times by these formulations. Even though the micelle formulation delivered eighteen times as much CsA as the control formulation, the amount of CsA that permeated the pig’s skin was incredibly low, and only very little amounts may have made their way into the systemic circulation. [22,26] This is a characteristic that is suitable when the sickness is localised to the skin. Finally, by releasing the drug from the micelle at the intercluster region—likely one of the penetration pathways for cutaneous drug delivery—it was found that Fluo-CsA skin penetration was deeper into the layers of the skin. Using MPEG-dihexPLA, the same...
research team created tacrolimus (TAC), a medication used to treat psoriasis. Micelle sizes ranged from 10 to 50 nm. TAC has a low water solubility, but micelle formation has integrated a significant amount of TAC, increasing its solubility in aqueous environments by 518 times. While the distribution of commercial ointment was limited, the optimised formulation demonstrated a 9-fold improvement in delivery to pig skin and a 4-fold increase in delivery to human skin. NR-MPEG-dihexPLA micelles, which were visible by CLSM, mostly stayed on the skin’s surface and were unable to cross the SC, instead settling within follicular ducts. [23,26] The antifungal agents of clotrimazole, fluconazole, and econazole nitrate were loaded in polymeric micelles containing distinct copolymers in an expansion research. With spherical morphology, theazole-loaded micelles had hydrodynamic diameters ranging from 70 to 165 nm. With an efficiency of 98.3%, the MPEG-dihexPLA micelles loaded with econazole offered the best formulation. In both pig and human skin, this micelle formulation demonstrated noticeably more penetration than its liposomal gel counterpart. The scientists came to the conclusion that despite the commercial formulation has several penetration enhancers, the smaller formulation yields superior skin delivery. The MPEG-dihexPLA micelles may make targeted follicular distribution easier, according to the SLCM study. [24,26] Furthermore, the investigation focused on the skin delivery penetration of methoxy poly (ethylene glycol)-b-poly (δ-valerolactone) (MPEG-PVL) micelles loaded with ketoconazole. The micelles had a particle diameter of roughly 12 nm and an encapsulation effectiveness of 86.39%. The water solubility of ketoconazole increases to 86 times. The fluorescein-loaded MPEG-PVL micelles demonstrated that, in contrast to the aqueous fluorescein solution under control, the micelles could transport greater concentrations of the dye into the deep skin layers.[25,26] Improved drug solubilization into the skin, increased hydrophilic drug partitioning into the SC, drug localization into hair follicles and keratinocytes in various layers of the epidermis, and depot into the skin are some of the benefits of polymeric micelles as cutaneous nanocarriers that have been reported.[26]

ADVANTAGES OF POLYMERIC MICELLES
1. Polymeric micelles have a very stable structure.
2. With a diameter of between 10 and 100 nm, polymeric micelles are incredibly small but effective in the long-term circulation of the carrier system in the bloodstream.
3. The large number of hydrophobic drug molecules in the inner core of polymeric micelles contributes to their high water solubility.
4. The exceptional biocompatibility of polymeric micelles
5. Polymeric micelles are not very toxic. [15,27,28]

DISADVANTAGES OF POLYMERIC MICELLES
1. The cost of polymeric micelles is high.
2. A medication or copolymer experiences hydrolytic cleavage in an aqueous solution, which presents a stability concern.
3. A significant degree of polymer chemistry is used in polymeric micelles.[15,27,28]

APPLICATIONS OF POLYMERIC MICELES
1. Polymeric Micelles in Cancer Treatment
According to the number of cancer cases, the most common cancers are skin, stomach, colorectal, lung, breast, and prostate cancers, in that order. 45 Polymeric micelles have garnered attention and are now
among the extensively researched nanocarriers for cancer medication and diagnosis in recent years. Polymeric micelles may be helpful in the treatment of cancer since they are easily functionalized to target certain types. Many anticancer drugs have received FDA approval for use as single-agent and combination cancer treatments. Most small molecule drugs used in clinical trials to treat various cancers are bioavailable and extremely hydrophobic. Chemotherapeutic drugs provide difficulties when administered in vivo because of their restricted pharmacokinetics (PK) and biodistribution profiles. Therefore, it’s critical to create delivery systems that can accurately target diseased areas. The hydrophilic corona of polymeric micelles (PM), which is typically poly (ethylene glycol), allows PM to circulate in the bloodstream for prolonged periods of time, allowing them to reach tumour tissues through the enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) effect. This makes PMs an excellent system for encasing hydrophobic compounds. The primary purpose of the first generation of unstable PMs was to solubilize hydrophobic drugs for intravenous administration. Next-generation PMs have been developed to achieve high drug encapsulation and retention after an IV injection while maintaining prolonged circulation. [29,15]

2. Clinical studies utilising polymeric micelles

Preclinical investigations are being conducted on a number of drug-loaded polymeric micelles for the treatment of cancer in an effort to increase therapeutic efficacy. Clinical investigations have evaluated five micellar preparations.[30]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Polymeric micelles</th>
<th>Block polymer</th>
<th>Drug</th>
<th>Diameter</th>
<th>Indication</th>
<th>Clinical phase</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NIM012</td>
<td>PEG-Poly (SN-38)</td>
<td>SN-38</td>
<td>20 nm</td>
<td>Breast cancer</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NK105</td>
<td>PEG-Plaspartate</td>
<td>Paclitaxel</td>
<td>85 nm</td>
<td>Advanced stomach cancer</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>67,68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SP1049C</td>
<td>Pluronic L61 and F127</td>
<td>Doxorubicin</td>
<td>22-27 nm</td>
<td>Adenocarcinoma of oesophagus, gastroesophageal junction and stomach</td>
<td>III</td>
<td>69,70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NE-6004</td>
<td>PEG-Poly (cisplatin)</td>
<td>Cisplatin</td>
<td>30 nm</td>
<td>Sided tumour</td>
<td>I/II</td>
<td>71,72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General-PM</td>
<td>PEG-Poly (DOX, L-lactide)</td>
<td>Paclitaxel</td>
<td>20-50 nm</td>
<td>Breast cancer</td>
<td>IV</td>
<td>73,74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pancreatic cancer</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>75,76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Non-small-cell lung cancer in combination with carboplatin</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pancreatic cancer in combination with gemcitabine</td>
<td>I/II</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ovarian cancer in combination with carboplatin</td>
<td>I/II</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE.2 Polymeric micelles in clinical trials [31]

3. Polymeric micelles in multi-drug delivery in cancer

Overcoming tumour heterogeneity, reducing chemoresistance, and generating additive or preferable synergistic anticancer effectiveness without producing overlapping harm are the main objectives of anticancer drug combinations. When administering drug combinations, it’s crucial to take into account synergism, the best dosage schedule (sequence versus concurrent), pharmacokinetics (PK), multi-drug toxicity, and safety concerns such drug precipitation and vehicle toxicity. Combining taxanes, platinum derivatives, and doxorubicin (DOX) is one of the best therapy options for metastatic breast cancer.[32,15]

It is possible to simultaneously administer many anticancer medications by chemically or physically incorporating weakly water soluble anticancer medicines into polymeric micelles. In clinical studies, many anticancer medications that are poorly soluble in water are either orally or successively and then infused one after the other. Concurrent delivery using polymeric micelles simplifies multi-drug delivery, increases
safety, and may allow anticancer medicines to act on solid tumours at the same time, resulting in a synergistic drug interaction. [33,34]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Polymer</th>
<th>Mechanism of action</th>
<th>Adjuvant Immunogen</th>
<th>Cancer Types</th>
<th>References</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PEOz-PLA and carboxylate-Pluronic F127</td>
<td>LNs targeting</td>
<td>Ova and CL264</td>
<td>Lymphoma</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEG-PE and PSA</td>
<td>LNs targeting</td>
<td>Trp2 and CpG</td>
<td>Metastatic melanoma</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curcumin-PEG</td>
<td>Reduction of MDSCs and Tregs and increased CD8 T cells</td>
<td>Trp2</td>
<td>Melanoma</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLGA-PEG</td>
<td>DC targeting</td>
<td>Trp2</td>
<td>Melanoma</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSA</td>
<td></td>
<td>Trp2</td>
<td>Melanoma</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEG-b-PAGE-b-PLGA</td>
<td>DC targeting</td>
<td>Ova</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLGA-NPs</td>
<td>DC targeting</td>
<td>CD40, Fcg, avb3 and avb5 integrin receptors antibodies</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P[Asp (DET)]/PEG-b-P([Asp (DET)])</td>
<td>Elevated CTLs and NK</td>
<td>SART3</td>
<td>Colon cancer</td>
<td>115-116</td>
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<tr>
<td>PEG-PLL-PLLeu</td>
<td>DC activation</td>
<td>STAT3 siRNA and Ova</td>
<td>Melanoma</td>
<td>117-118</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE.3 Polymeric micelles in cancer vaccination[35]

4. Polymeric Micelles for COVID-19 Treatment
Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2); family: Coronaviridae) is a novel coronavirus that is thought to be the biggest outbreak since World War II and is the cause of Corona Virus Infectious Disease-2019, or COVID-19. A promising method for getting over these restrictions and getting possible treatment candidates to the lung is nanotherapies. Greater drug loading is possible with the polymeric micelle type of nanocarrier structure, which also minimises off-target drug release.[36] Polymeric micelles can be modified on the surface with certain ligands to serve as a targeted drug delivery vehicle. The entire micelle stays stable and biocompatible with tissues and blood due to its hydrophilic outer layer. In a study, pluronicVR—a polymeric micelle containing isoniazid and rifampicin—was created using tri-block copolymers of ethylene oxide and propylene oxide. A multifunctional PLA-b-PEG modified copolymer methyl-b-neuraminic acid (mNA) was produced as drug delivery micelles to treat influenza virus infection. It has been discovered that amantadine contained in these micelles inhibits hemagglutination by attaching to the hemagglutinin of influenza viruses and thereby reducing viral infection.[36] Due to the antiviral medications’ limited aqueous solubility, one of the main obstacles to effectively treating respiratory sickness in COVID-19 infected patients is their limited intracellular uptake. These nanocarrier systems can be employed to deliver insoluble hydrophobic antiviral and anti-inflammatory medicines for COVID19-related ARDS treatments since polymeric micelles have an amphiphilic auto-assembly tendency.[37,38]

5. Oral Medication Delivery Using Polymeric Micelles
Given its many benefits, the oral route is the one most often used for medication administration. The drug’s low bioavailability is an issue that impacts the formulation for oral delivery even though it is frequently utilised in the pharmaceutical sector. The better the medication dilution and stability in the gastrointestinal environment, the lower the polymeric micelles CMC values. A low CMC value is typically the consequence of the micelle core’s abundance of hydrophobic areas. Controlling the chain length at the
polymer shell while increasing the chain length in the polymer core will result in a lower CMC. The significance of the hydrophobic chain in the micellar core for CMC values has been shown by a number of researchers. Kang et al. showed that the CMC values of a triblock copolymer, polyvinylpyrrolidone-block-poly (D, L-lactide)-block-polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP-b-PDLLA-b-PVP), decrease with an increase in the hydrophobic chain. Not only must the CMC value of the polymeric micelles be manipulated to ensure micelle stability in the GI tract, but a shift in the pH range must also be taken into account to produce good polymeric micelle absorption.

6. Polymeric Microbes to Boost Bioavailability

A. Enhanced Bioavailability via Particular PM Stabilisation

Strong enough to resist quick dissociation upon dilution and keep their core-shell structure steady before reaching their target sites. Thermodynamic and kinetic structural stability are known to be provided to PMs by the entanglement of polymer chains in the inner core. A micelle needs a higher copolymer concentration than its CMC in order to be thermodynamically stable. The block copolymer’s hydrophilic-lipophilic balance (HLB) affects the CMC. The second factor, PM kinetic stability, comes into play when the copolymer concentration drops below the CMC. Kinetic stability may be more crucial for nonequilibrium drug delivery circumstances than thermodynamic stability.[40,41]

B. pH-Dependent PMs to Boost Bioavailability

Non-pH-sensitive micelles have been proposed to enhance medication solubilization, but not necessarily drug absorption. The fact that a medication is in a free (readily absorbable) state is one of the most crucial prerequisites for GI absorption. Complete drug release is prevented by the fact that drug release from such PMs can only happen through diffusion when the polymer concentration is much greater than the CMC. The release times of a number of PMs systems intended to boost the oral bioavailability of hydrophobic substances are significantly longer than the transit time through the small intestine.[43,44]

C. Introduction of PMs Sensitive to pH

The pH of blood and normal tissues is 7.23, as is well known. The mildly acidic pH found in tumors (pH 6.8), as well as endosomes and lysosomes (pH 5.0-5.5), may act as a trigger to accelerate the degradation of pH-sensitive PMs and the release of encapsulated drugs. As a result, numerous pH-sensitive polymeric micellar systems for intravenous administration of anticancer drugs to tumors have been developed. The pH of the gastrointestinal tract ranges from highly acidic in the stomach (pH 1.0-2.5) to neutral or slightly alkaline in the small intestine (pH 5.1-7.8). The wide pH variation along the GI tract has been used to control drug release from carriers. Using the pH gradient to prevent GI degradation or promote absorption in the intestine appears to be a promising strategy.[45]

D. The pH-Sensitive PMs’ Mechanisms for Increasing Bioavailability

Polyacids and polybases, two of the different types of polymers that make up micelles, can be employed as building blocks to provide pH sensitivity for drug release. Amines, for instance, are hydrophilic when protonated at low pH values but hydrophobic when uncharged. Conversely, protonating acidic core units—like carboxylic acids—leads to a negative charge at high pH levels and an uncharged state at low pH levels. There have been numerous reports of “protonation” methods for initiating micelle destabilisation, such as adding groups of tertiary amine, pyridine, and L-histidine to their hydrophobic regions. At pH values greater than the protonatable group’s pKa, where the hydrophobic section is practically uncharged, PMs are generated. As the pH drops below the peak polarity, the ionisation of the polymer leads
to heightened hydrophilicity and electrostatic repulsions, which in turn induces micelle destabilisation and regulated drug release. [46,47]

**E. Mucoadhesive Particle Matter to Boost Bioavailability**

In the gastrointestinal tract, mucoadhesive PMs can be eliminated directly from the faeces, translocated through the mucosa, or both. The surface charges of PMs seem to be one of the many factors that affect particle absorption. On the one hand, the presence of glycocalyx causes the negatively charged intestinal mucosa to attract more positively charged PMs. Consequently, a great deal of research has been done on utilising positively charged polymers like chitosan to extend residence duration in the gastrointestinal tract. However, it was discovered that transport rates were inversely correlated with particle surface potentials, and that particle mobility seemed to be heavily dependent on surface charges. Particle aggregation and electrostatic adhesion interactions with mucosa likely limit the mobility of near-neutral or positively charged particles, which travel at much slower rates than negatively charged particles. The aforementioned opinion is supported by Crater and Carrier’s demonstration that anionic particles spread 20–30 times quicker than cationic particles. Therefore, maintaining the proper ratio of mucoadhesion to mucus penetration is essential for effective oral administration. [48]

**7. Using Polymeric Micelles to Deliver Drugs Cutaneously**

Research on targeted cutaneous distribution with polymeric micelles is uncommon, and the mechanism of action is unclear. Polymeric micelles have been investigated as alternate delivery systems for parenteral, oral, ophthalmic, pulmonary, and nasal administration. Conversely, it has been noted that polymeric nanoparticles can enter the stratum corneum and gather within hair follicles. [49] In one of their research, Lapetva et al. Created polymeric micelles loaded with ciclosporin A (CSA) using MPEG dihexPLA diblock copolymer and evaluated them on in vitro pig ear skin. Next, using Nile Red (NR) labelled copolymer and fluorescein labelled CsA (Fluo CSA), CLSM was performed to identify drug penetration paths and micelle targets. These formulations increased CsA’s aqueous solubility by 518 times. Even though CsA delivery from the micelle formulation was 18 times greater than the control formulation, CsA permeation across porcine skin was extremely low, with only very small amounts reaching the systemic circulation, which is an appropriate feature when the disease is limited to the skin. Finally, Fluo CsA skin penetration was observed to be deeper into skin layers by releasing drug from micelle. Lastly, by releasing the drug from the micelle at the intercluster region, Fluo CsA skin penetration was seen to be deeper into skin layers. This is probably one of the penetration pathways for cutaneous drug delivery. [50] Mejkalová et al. Used solvent evaporation to form polymeric micelles from hyaluronan and then loaded them with NR. The sizes of the micelles varied from 21 to 230 nm. They suggested employing CLSM to take the transcellular penetration method. [51]

**8. Creation of Antifungal Agent Formulations**

In order to treat systemic fungal infections in immunocompromised AIDS, surgery, transplant, and cancer patients, safe and efficient chemotherapeutic drug delivery techniques are needed. Delivery challenges arise from antifungal medicines’ low solubility and, occasionally, significant toxicity. For example, many typical block copolymers create polymer micelles with hydrophobic cores, and amphotericin B has poor compatibility with these cores. Methoxy-PEO-b-poly(L-aspartate) core-forming blocks were derivatized with stearate side chain to enhance amphotericin B solubilization. The block copolymers caused the formation of micelles. Amphotericin B effectively entrapped the medication and released it over time into
the surrounding environment thanks to its strong interaction with stearate side chains in the micelle core. The solubility of amphotericin B in the micelles resulted in a delayed beginning of hemolytic activity against bovine erythrocytes when compared to the medication in its free form. Amphotericin B integrated into micelles was shown to maintain strong in vivo action in a neutropenic mouse model of disseminated candidias. Another poorly soluble antifungal medication, nystatin, was encapsulated by the same group using pluronic block copolymers. Despite showing promise for systemic administration, this commercially available medication has never been authorised for that use because of toxicity issues. Overall, further scientific advancements using polymer micelle delivery systems for fungal infection. Treatment should be expected. [52,53]

9. Transportation of Polynucleotides
To increase polycation-based DNA delivery’s stability. New dispersion block and graft copolymers comprising segments from polycations and nonionic water-soluble polymers like PEO were created. These complexes, which contain segments from polycations and nonionic water-soluble polymers like PEO, Micelle-like block ionomer complexes, or “polyion complex micelles,” are created when these copolymers attach to DNA. The PEO chains form the hydrophilic sites, while the polycation-neutralized DNA forms the hydrophobic sites. Charge neutralisation does not affect the stability of complexes in aqueous dispersion because of the PEO chains. Polycation DNA complexes treated with PEO create stable dispersions and don’t interact with serum proteins. Rats were effectively given an antisense oligonucleotide and had their gene expression suppressed using these methods. [54] Moreover, they demonstrated extended kinetics of plasma clearance. Moreover, these polyplexes can be directed towards certain cell surface receptors by adding targeting ligands to the free ends of PEO chains, for instance. As an alternative, amphiphilic Pluronic molecules were added to polycations to enhance complex attachment to the cell membrane and polynucleotide transport into the cell. In a recent study, it was shown that systemic injection of oligonucleotide-loaded Pluronic-polyethyleneimine-based micelles could deliver antisense oligonucleotides to tumours in vivo and cause cancer sensitization to radiation.[55]

10. Drug Administration to the Brain
The blood-brain barrier (BBB), which prevents drugs from reaching the brain, is a significant barrier to treating brain tumours and neurodegenerative illnesses like stroke, Parkinson’s, Alzheimer’s, and HIV-related dementia. Two methods for improving the delivery of physiologically energetic sellers to the brain have been assessed, both involving polymer micelles. In the first way, polymer micelles that are successful in transcytosing across Genius microvessel endothelial cells, which make up the BBB, are modified using antibodies or ligand molecules. The second strategy increases the permeability of the blood-brain barrier to Pgp substrates while blocking drug efflux systems, specifically Pgp, by employing Pluronic block copolymers. One of the first discoveries to use Pluronic block copolymer micelles for CNS capsule delivery to the brain. [56] Rodents have received intravenous injections of modified micelles-formulated luminous dye or the neuroleptic medication haloperidol. Both insulin and the antibody. Haloperidol’s neuroleptic effects in animals were significantly increased by the modification of the micelles, which also strengthened the fluorescent dye’s transit to the brain. It was shown in later research that the micelles vectorized by insulin undergo receptor-mediated transport across talented micro-vessel endothelial cells using in vitro BBB techniques. 179% All in all, this strategy has been successful in creating new ways to
distribute a range of medications to the brain, such as HIV protease inhibitors to eradicate the HIV virus in the brain and carefully selected anti-cancer drugs to treat metastatic intelligence tumours.\[57,58\]

11. Solubilization
The micellar core serves as a hub for integrating visiting molecules that are insoluble in water and a well-matched microenvironment. The hydrophobic molecules can be integrated physiologically into the hydrophobic core of micelles or covalently linked to the block copolymers. Their water solubility and bioavailability are improved by the solubilization process. Particle size has been found to have a significant impact on the gastrointestinal (GI) uptake of particles. Particles with a diameter of around 100 nm were found to have an uptake efficiency through the gastrointestinal tract that was 15–250 times higher than that of micrometer-sized particles. Consequently, nanoscale polymeric micelles increase absorption and enhance bioavailability. \[59\] The micellization process, the drug’s compatibility with the core forming block, the hydrophobic block’s chain length, the polymer’s attention, and temperature all affect how much solubilization occurs. The solubility of the drug increases sharply above the critical micelle concentration (CMC) as it occupies a larger area in the aggregates of the micelle’s hydrophobic phase. The drug’s occupation of the core region causes the micelle’s Rc to increase. It is important to note that the core region’s capacity for lodging is constrained. For example, the core portion of Pluronic P85 comprises 13% of the total weight of the micelle. \[60\] In polyoxyethylene and polyoxybutylene copolymer micelles with a wide range of hydrophobic block lengths and hydrophilic block lengths sufficient for the production of spherical micelles, the influence of hydrophobic block length on the solubilization potential of griseofulvin has been investigated. It was previously shown that the solubilization potential increased to become independent of the hydrophobic block length after the solubilization capability was found to be dependent on it to a certain level (15 devices of hydrophobic block). The effect of hydrophobic block length on toluene solubilization in diblock and triblock polyurethane surfactants was also investigated by Dong and colleagues. It was previously determined that given the same block chain structure, the solubilization potential of polyurethane surfactants accelerated with an increase in the hydrophobic phase.\[61\]

12. Targeting Tumours
Because polymeric micelles are formed from amphiphilic black copolymers, they are typically more stable in physiological settings than surfactant micelles. The surface-smoothing impact of polymeric micelles is facilitated by their tiny size (less than 100 nm), which also allows for prolonged blood circulation retention times and associated benefits. From a greater drug buildup at the target location. Anti-cancer medications have been delivered using both passive and active targeting strategies to target specific physiological locations. These tactics can increase their therapeutic index and lessen the damage to organs that are not the intended targets. \[62\]

A. Passive targeting
It is now a well-established fact that the endothelium of blood vessels will become more permeable than normal blood vessels under specific conditions like inflammation or hypoxia, which is typical for tumours. The inadequate tumour vasculature culture causes the blood vessels in tumour websites to leak more than normal blood vessels. As a result, such cultures allow macromolecules to penetrate more selectively and favourably, however small molecule tablets are no longer impacted because of their short circulation times. We refer to this phenomena as the EPR effect. In order to provide tumour selectivity and lessen adverse effects, these small-molecule medications can be encapsulated in polymeric micelles, which will enhance
their longer systemic circulation. Because it depends, this focused technique is known as passive concentrated on.[63]

**B. Active targeting**

More tablets can be delivered to the target with active targeting than with passive targeting. By modifying the surface of polymeric micelles with specific ligands that attach to receptors on the target tumour cells, active targeting is achieved. Due to the overexpression of cancer cell receptors, active focused treatment is particularly excellent in treating the majority of malignancies. It is possible to create energetic focused micelles by attaching certain ligands to the hydrophilic floor of block polymers. This modification will increase the polymeric micelles’ affinity for the target tumour, enhance the drug’s efficacy, and lessen side effects in healthy tissues. Manipulating the reaction of polymeric micelles to specific stimuli unique to disease states is another way of energy focus. Drugs can be released in response to external stimuli like light or heat, internal stimuli like pH and temperature, or a combination of the two.[64]

![Diagram](image.png)

**Fig.5** Put together the plan for the following: (A) focused PM for energetic targeting, and (B) non-targeted PM for passive targeting.[63]

**13. Imaging Technologies Using Polymeric Micelles**

Early diagnosis of the majority of cancers and other diseases can be improved by the efficient delivery of imaging agents to the location of illness within the body. The research conducted here. The Torchilin crew was the first to employ polymer micelles as carriers for imaging dealers. 191 For instance, gadolinium diethylenetriamine and In were loaded into micelles with amphiphilic PEO-lipid conjugates. Penta-acetic acid phosphatidylethanolamine (GD-DTPA-PE), which is injected subcutaneously into the rabbit’s paw and thereafter utilised to visualise the local lymphatic chain, 153 A magnetic resonance (MR) imager and a gamma camera were used to obtain the image of the local lymphatics. As a result, the injected micelles functioned as lymphangiographic dealers for gamma lymphography or indirect magnetic resonance imaging since they remained inside the lymph fluid.[65] N-(triiodobenzoyl)-L-lysine) block copolymers, which are amphiphilic methoxy PEO-b-polylepsilon, and another polymer micelle device labelled with iodine, was delivered系统ically in rabilts and visualised using X-ray computed tomography. The labelled micelles in the 8 blood had an excellent 24-hour half-life, most likely because the micelle carriers’ core-shell structure shielded the iodine-containing core. Interestingly, small polymer micelles (less than 20 nm) may also be excellent for bioimaging tumours, as opposed to long-circulating liposomes modified
with PEG (around 100 nm). More effective at delivering the protein to Lewis lung cancer than bigger long-circulating liposomes have been the micelles from PEO-distearoyl phosphatidyl ethanolamine conjugates containing In labelled mannequin protein. All things considered, polymer micelles packed with a variety of agents for computed tomography, magnetic resonance, and gamma imaging provide potential modalities for non-invasive diagnosis of a variety of disorders.[65]

REFERENCES


