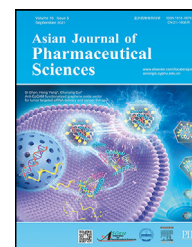


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## Review Article

# Ionic liquids as the effective technology for enhancing transdermal drug delivery: Design principles, roles, mechanisms, and future challenges

Xuejun Chen<sup>a</sup>, Ziqing Li<sup>a</sup>, Chunrong Yang<sup>a,\*</sup>, Degong Yang<sup>a,b,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Department of Pharmacy, Shantou University Medical College, Shantou 515041, China

<sup>b</sup>Guangdong Provincial Key Laboratory of Infectious Diseases and Molecular Immunopathology, Shantou University Medical College, Shantou 515041, China

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## ABSTRACT

Ionic liquids (ILs) have been proven to be an effective technology for enhancing drug transdermal absorption. However, due to the unique structural components of ILs, the design of efficient ILs and elucidation of action mechanisms remain to be explored. In this review, basic design principles of ideal ILs for transdermal drug delivery system (TDDS) are discussed considering melting point, skin permeability, and toxicity, which depend on the molar ratios, types, functional groups of ions and inter-ionic interactions. Secondly, the contributions of ILs to the development of TDDS through different roles are described: as novel skin penetration enhancers for enhancing transdermal absorption of drugs; as novel solvents for improving the solubility of drugs in carriers; as novel active pharmaceutical ingredients (API-ILs) for regulating skin permeability, solubility, release, and pharmacokinetic behaviors of drugs; and as novel polymers for the development of smart medical materials. Moreover, diverse action mechanisms, mainly including the interactions among ILs, drugs, polymers, and skin components, are summarized. Finally, future challenges related to ILs are discussed, including underlying quantitative structure-activity relationships, complex interaction forces between anions, drugs, polymers and skin microenvironment, long-term stability, and *in vivo* safety issues. In summary, this article will promote the development of TDDS based on ILs.

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\* Corresponding authors.

E-mail addresses: [yangchunrong@stu.edu.cn](mailto:yangchunrong@stu.edu.cn) (C. Yang), [yangdg@stu.edu.cn](mailto:yangdg@stu.edu.cn) (D. Yang).

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## 1. Introduction

Transdermal drug delivery system (TDDS) is the third largest drug delivery system after oral and injection, which delivers drugs through the skin to achieve local or systemic therapeutics [1]. TDDS not only avoids the first-pass metabolism, gastrointestinal degradation, and “peaks and valleys” phenomenon of plasma concentration but also improves the patient’s compliance [2]. However, for the purpose of effective transdermal absorption, most pharmaceutical molecules need to pass through the highly ordered and dense stratum corneum (SC) intercellular lipids, then enter the comparatively hydrophilic viable epidermis, and finally are distributed into the aqueous dermis for the systemic effect [3]. Thus far, there have been ~24 active pharmaceutical ingredients (APIs) developed into transdermal patches and approved in the market, because the optimal therapeutic compounds for TDDS have strict requirements for dosage (< 10 mg/d), molecular weight (< 500 Da), melting point (< 200 °C), and oil-water partition coefficient (2–4) [4,5]. Therefore, safe and effective transdermal penetrating technology is urgently required to improve skin permeation, which promotes the development of TDDS [6,7].

Ionic liquids (ILs) are organic salts with melting points below 100 °C, which are usually composed of organic cations and inorganic anions with large volume differences and asymmetrical structures [8]. Therefore, ILs were designed at the molecular level for achieving the expected goal, including enhancing the permeability of skin and the dissolution behavior of insoluble drugs, mainly by changing anions and cations [9–12]. These characteristics of ILs also show the unique advantages in TDDS; thus, the use of ILs has become a new direction and growing point of current studies of ILs [13]. For example, the choline and geranic acid (CAGE) ILs were employed for transdermal transport of nanosensors for thrombotic disease detection [14]. The ILs-based microemulsion formulation considerably increased the solubility of rosiglitazone and bezafibrate, which suggested that ILs-based microemulsion was adequate delivery carrier for hydrophobic drugs [15]. Using fatty acids as counterions, hydrophilic drugs were converted into oil-soluble drug-ILs, which improved their abilities to penetrate the skin [16]. As the antibiotic carrier, the hydrogel was prepared via copolymerization of microwave-responsive ILs and transdermal enhancer ILs, which performed excellently in microwave thermal therapy and facilitated transdermal drug delivery for addressing deep tissue infection [17].

Based on these results, we summarized different roles and mechanisms of ILs in promoting drug skin permeation. At present, the efficient ILs are obtained by means of numerous blind screening experiments. In comparison, systematic investigations on the quantitative structure-activity relationship between the structure and efficacy of ILs have not been performed. In particular, the underlying molecular mechanisms of ILs are still scarce [18,19]. Therefore, the review systematically elucidates the design principles, different roles and mechanisms of ILs, which provides scientific guidance for the development of ILs in TDDS.

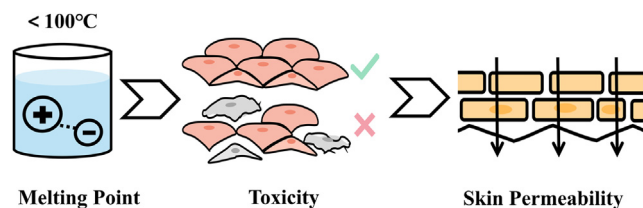


Fig. 1 – Design principles of ILs for the TDDS.

## 2. Design principles of ILs for the TDDS

The ideal ILs can be obtained by tuning the melting point, skin permeability, and toxicity of ILs (Fig. 1) [20–22]. ILs are composed of cations and anions, and their physicochemical properties are affected by the molar ratios, types, and functional groups of ions [23–25].

### 2.1. Effects of ILs structures on melting points

The melting point is chosen as the criteria based on the definition of ILs. ILs are organic salts with melting points below 100 °C. A study showed that the melting point of ILs is closely related to skin permeability [26]. Generally, the melting point ranging between –80 °C and 25 °C (room temperature) was considered suitable because the corresponding ILs exhibiting low lattice energy were used as solvents [13]. Compared with traditional organic salts, most ILs maintained the liquid state in the large temperature range [27]. The solid–liquid transition temperature of ILs was usually defined by the melting point (or glass transition temperature), which depended on the microchemical structures of anions and cations, including size, flexibility of carbon chain, charge distribution, and interaction (Table 1) [21,28,29].

The ILs with the bulky, asymmetric, and charge-delocalized ions displayed a lower melting point because the frustrated coordination and minimized interactions weakened the lattice energy of ILs [8,30,31]. The large structural entropy, rather than kinetic entropy, was proposed as the main factor contributing to the low melting points of ILs [32]. In general, the longer the alkyl chain of cation was, the higher the melting point of ILs was. For n-alkyl-n-methylimidazolium salts, the melting point sharply increased for alkyl chains with more than seven carbon atoms [33]. When the number of charges was same, anion with larger radii had lower melting point.

Table 1 – Melting point of ILs with different structures.

Cation	Anion	Molar ratio	T <sub>m</sub> /T <sub>g</sub> (°C)	Refs
C <sub>14</sub> min <sup>+</sup>	N(CN) <sub>2</sub> <sup>–</sup>	1:1	65.2	[34]
C <sub>14</sub> min <sup>+</sup>	CF <sub>3</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> <sup>–</sup>	1:1	58.0	[34]
C <sub>14</sub> min <sup>+</sup>	N(SO <sub>2</sub> CF <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> <sup>–</sup>	1:1	41.1	[34]
C <sub>16</sub> min <sup>+</sup>	Tf <sub>2</sub> N <sup>–</sup>	1:1	46.9	[33]
C <sub>18</sub> min <sup>+</sup>	Tf <sub>2</sub> N <sup>–</sup>	1:1	53.5	[33]
C <sub>20</sub> min <sup>+</sup>	Tf <sub>2</sub> N <sup>–</sup>	1:1	62.5	[33]
Choline	Geranic acid	2:1	–88.9	[37]
Choline	Geranic acid	1:1	–71.8	[37]
Choline	Geranic acid	1:2	–77.5	[37]
Choline	Geranic acid	1:4	–76.8	[37]

**Table 2 – Skin penetration amount of ILs with different structures.**

Cation	Anion	Molar ratio	Cumulative skin penetration amount ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ )	Refs
C <sub>6</sub>	Bisoprolol	1:1	1318.7 $\pm$ 226.7 (8 h)	[42]
C <sub>12</sub>	Bisoprolol	1:1	353.6 $\pm$ 35.3 (8 h)	[42]
C <sub>18</sub>	Bisoprolol	1:1	246.3 $\pm$ 11.1 (8 h)	[42]
HEPP	Zaltoprofen	1:1	59.73 $\pm$ 1.60	[43]
HEPP	Zaltoprofen	1:1	59.57 $\pm$ 3.41	[43]
TEOA	Zaltoprofen	1:1	18.53 $\pm$ 2.53	[43]
DEA	Flurbiprofen	1:1	~2500 (24 h)	[21]
DEA	Loxoprofen	1:1	~1800 (24 h)	[21]
DEA	Mefenamic acid	1:1	~300 (24 h)	[21]
Lidocaine	Flurbiprofen	1:1	~100 (Lid 12 h) ~20 (Flu 12 h)	[44]

For 1-tetradecyl-3-methylimidazolium salt, the melting point was linearly related to the volume of anion, and larger anion produced lower melting point of ILs [34]. The composition ratio of anion and cation also affected the melting point of ILs. Nuthakki et al. studied the melting points of three ILs (ethanolammonium acetate, 2-methylbutylammonium formate, and pentylammonium formate) at the equimolar acid/base ratio and in the presence of excess acid and base. The dynamic scanning calorimetry results indicated that the melting points of ILs decreased with the addition of excess acid or amine [35]. The interactions between anions and cations are also important factors affecting the melting point of ILs. For example, the  $\pi$ - $\pi$  ring stacking interaction considerably increased the melting point of anilinium salt [36].

## 2.2. Effects of ILs structures on skin permeability

The skin permeability of ILs is mainly affected by their physical and chemical properties, which in turn depend on the structures (Table 2). Wang et al. demonstrated that lidocaine and ibuprofen dissolved in ethanol as complex [Lid][Ibu] had strong intermolecular hydrogen bonds, which allowed simultaneous membrane transport of both APIs at higher rates than their corresponding commercial crystalline salts. In addition, they found that the mode and rate of transdermal transport of two APIs varied with their respective proportions in the ILs, which enabled the modulation of the membrane transport rate [38]. Wu et al. converted ibuprofen into ILs using aromatic, tetraalkylammonium and tetraalkylphosphonium salts. Compared with conventional sodium salts, the synthetic ILs showed enhanced skin permeability, which was associated with the higher ionic degree, higher log P values and lower water solubility [39].

Mechanistic studies revealed that hydrophobic molecular interactions between ibuprofen and alkyl counterions facilitated ion conjugation and ion pair formation, promoting transdermal penetration [39]. Using the quantitative structure-activity relationship (QSAR) model, Yang et al. found that the polarizability, molecular weight, and log P of counterions affected skin permeability of ILs [21]. The results suggested that van der Waals interactions between ILs and skin played an important role in disturbing the ordered arrangement of lipids [40,41].

**Table 3 – Toxicity of ILs to human skin cells.**

Cation	Anion	Molar ratio	Toxicity	LC <sub>50</sub> /IC <sub>50</sub>	Refs
2HEA	Ol	1:1	HaCaT cells	< 0.1 mg/l	[50]
BHEA	Ol	1:1	HaCaT cells	0.196 mg/l	[50]
m-2HEA	Ol	1:1	HaCaT cells	< 0.1 mg/l	[50]
C <sub>4</sub> C <sub>1</sub> pyr	NTf <sub>2</sub>	1:1	NHDF cells	7.29 mM	[54]
C <sub>6</sub> C <sub>1</sub> pyr	NTf <sub>2</sub>	1:1	NHDF cells	2.68 mM	[54]
C <sub>8</sub> C <sub>1</sub> pyr	NTf <sub>2</sub>	1:1	NHDF cells	0.21 mM	[54]
C <sub>4</sub> py	NTf <sub>2</sub>	1:1	NHDF cells	1.39 mM	[54]
C <sub>2</sub> C <sub>1</sub> C <sub>1</sub> im	NTf <sub>2</sub>	1:1	NHDF cells	1.87 mM	[54]
C <sub>1</sub> OC <sub>2</sub> C <sub>1</sub> im	NTf <sub>2</sub>	1:1	NHDF cells	1.64 mM	[54]
HOC <sub>2</sub> C <sub>1</sub> im	NTf <sub>2</sub>	1:1	NHDF cells	5.18 mM	[54]
C <sub>4</sub> C <sub>1</sub> pip	NTf <sub>2</sub>	1:1	NHDF cells	0.32 mM	[54]
C <sub>4</sub> C <sub>1</sub> py	NTf <sub>2</sub>	1:1	NHDF cells	2.81 mM	[54]
N <sub>4111</sub>	NTf <sub>2</sub>	1:1	NHDF cells	2.22 mM	[54]
C <sub>4</sub> C <sub>1</sub> im	TFO	1:1	NHDF cells	4.42 mM	[54]
C <sub>4</sub> C <sub>1</sub> im	OAc	1:1	NHDF cells	5.2 mM	[54]

## 2.3. Effects of ILs structures on their toxicity

ILs are considered as the green solvents. However, recent research has displayed that some ILs are poisonous [45–47]. The toxicity of ILs is related to nuclear structures and groups of anions and cations (Table 3). Furthermore, the toxicity of ILs is dependent on the cations structures [48]. Thus, ILs with imidazolium, pyrrolidinium, morpholinium, piperidinium, and ammonium cations usually show obvious toxicity and low degradability [49]. In contrast, the ILs containing choline and protic cations have fairly good biocompatibility [50]. In another work, the anions have exerted a considerable effect on overall toxicity. Hydrophilic anions have little contribution to toxicity of ILs, such as chlorine, bromine, organic carboxylate, alkyl sulfate, alkyl sulfonate, alkyl benzene sulfonate, and amino acid [51,52]. In contrast, ILs with anions containing fluorine, such as bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl) amide, induce abnormal heart rate and liver damage in zebrafish [53]. The bis(trifluoromethanesulfonyl) amide anion also increased the cytotoxicity on normal human dermal fibroblasts, attributed to the enhanced lipophilicity of fluorinated alkyl side chain [54].

In addition to the core structure of ion, the length of the alkyl side chain also increases the toxicity of ILs [55]. Long alkyl chains ( $C > 4$ ) endowed ILs with high hydrophobicity, which facilitated their insertion into the phospholipid bilayer and destroyed the integrity of cell membranes [56,57]. In addition, the functional groups of ILs are directly related to the overall toxicity. Polar groups, such as ether, ester, and hydroxyl groups, reduce the toxicity of ILs [58]. Hydrophobic aromatic groups enhance the toxicity of ILs [59].

In summary, melting point, skin permeability, and toxicity of ILs are three indexes considered important in the design of ILs for TDDS applications. The three indexes are interrelated and depend on cations and anions because the interactions between both components affect the lattice energy and thermodynamic activity. The weaker total interactions decrease the lattice energy. Regarding skin permeability and toxicity of ILs, the interactions between cations and anions affect the interaction between ILs and skin/cell membranes, that is, the interaction with adequate strength increases skin permeability. Therefore, the structures of cations and anions in terms of physicochemical parameters are the focus of research, such as polarizability (van der Waals interactions) and polar surface area (ability to form hydrogen bonds). The alkyl chains of ions have shown the substantial influence on the polarizability. In particular, longer alkyl chains cause non-optimal packing and the correspondingly lower melting point, albeit also causing the strong dipole-dipole interaction with the skin, which improves the skin penetration of ILs. The functional groups of ions, such as the hydroxyl group, affect polar surface area; when hydrogen bonds occupy main interaction sites of ions, the ability to form ionic interactions is weakened. In contrast with ionic interaction, hydrogen bond and dipole-dipole interactions are both weak noncovalent interactions. Therefore, increasing the strength of noncovalent interactions will be the research direction in the design of new ILs.

### 3. Roles and mechanisms

At present, the applications of ILs in the pharmaceutical field have received considerable attention, especially in the TDDS. The roles of ILs for TDDS are divided into the following four categories: skin penetration enhancers, solvents, active pharmaceutical ingredients-ILs (API-ILs) and Poly (ILs) (Fig. 2) [60–63].

#### 3.1. ILs as novel skin penetration enhancers

The skin barrier prevents the loss of useful substances in the body and the invasion of harmful substances from the outside [64]. It plays an important role in maintaining the stability of the human body environment. However, it also brings difficulties for the percutaneous penetration of drugs, especially the brick-wall structure of SC [65]. Chemical penetration enhancers (CPEs) overcome the SC barrier in a simple and effective manner [66]. Owing to their unique physicochemical properties, the ILs have received extensive attention as novel CPEs [67–69].

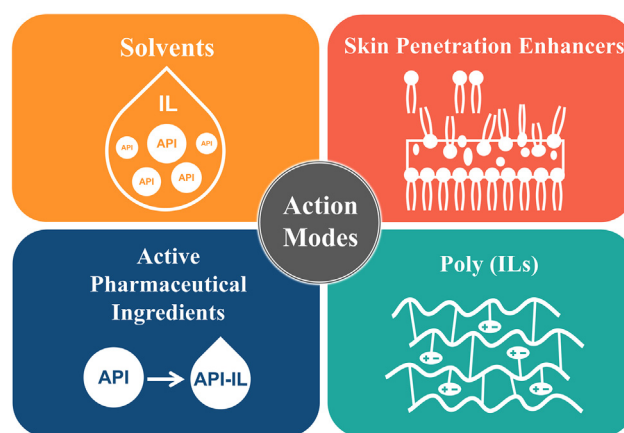


Fig. 2 – Different roles of ILs for the TDDS.

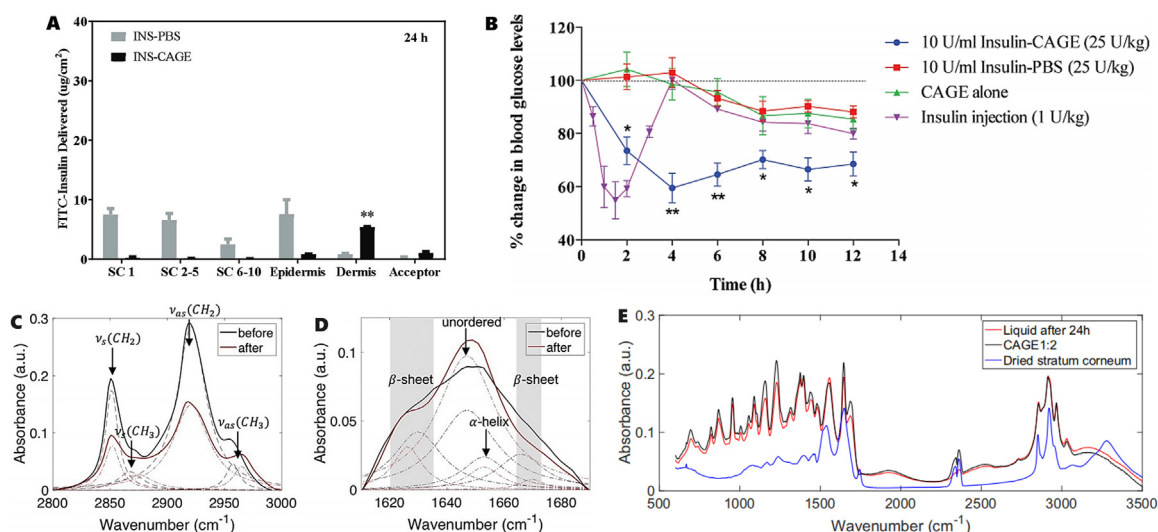
Currently, the ILs with high skin penetration enhancement ability mainly contain imidazole, amino acid ester and choline [70–72]. Among them, ILs with amino acid ester and choline have become research hotspots due to their superior biodegradability and transdermal delivery of biomacromolecules [73–76]. Other ILs are under development, such as cyclic onium salt, menthol/capric acid (Table 4) [77]. Therefore, manipulating the micro-structures of ILs has been proven to be an efficient way to improve their penetration-enhancing abilities.

ILs could enhance drug transdermal transport through cellular and intercellular pathways [89]. Hydrophilic ILs promote paracellular transport primarily by enhancing the fluidization of protein and lipid regions. Hydrophobic ILs facilitate the trans-cellular transport of lipid regions by providing channels [71,90]. Banerjee et al. used CAGE to enhance the transdermal penetration of insulin (Fig. 3A), which significantly reduced the blood glucose level of rats (Fig. 3B) [91]. After CAGE treatment, SC lipids were extracted, and the proportion of disordered protein structures was increased (Fig. 3C and 3D). Dynamic FTIR results revealed that ILs extracted skin components and changed the SC structures (Fig. 3E) [92]. It was also found that 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium bromide enhanced the transdermal penetration by affecting the lipid mobility and keratin, depending on the appropriate molecular size, hydrogen bonding capability, and octanol-water partition coefficient [93].

Strong interaction forces are key factors for enhancing drug transdermal delivery. In particular, hydrogen bonds play an important role in promoting drug transport in the hydrophobic region of the skin [81]. Amphiphilic ILs interact with aliphatic carboxylic acid through hydrogen bonds in the excess acid state, and their skin penetration-enhancing ability is substantially enhanced compared with that in the neutral state [88]. Zhao et al. developed the novel ILs containing amino acid and citric acid for transdermal delivery of mesoporous silica nanoparticles (MSNs), which were strongly covalently bonded to ILs, resulting in high skin permeability stemming from the drag effect of ILs (Fig. 4A and B) [18]. Regarding safety and efficacy, Qi et al. revealed that ILs had the

**Table 4 – Skin penetration enhancement of ILs.**

ILs	Model drugs	Animals	Enhancement ratio	Refs
[L-LeuC12]Cl	5-Fluorouracil	Rat	7.14	[71]
[L-LeuC12]Cl	Hydrocortisone	Rat	2.28	[71]
[OIm]Cl	Testosterone	Mouse	3.69	[78]
[OMIm]Cl	Testosterone	Mouse	3.13	[78]
[OMMIm]Cl	Testosterone	Mouse	3.56	[78]
[C <sub>12</sub> dabco]Br	Diltiazem	Rat	4.00	[67]
[C <sub>4</sub> dabco]Br	Diltiazem	Rat	2.70	[67]
[C <sub>10</sub> C <sub>1</sub> Mor]Br	Diltiazem	Rat	1.40	[67]
[Choline][Geranic acid]	Mannitol	Pig	5.00	[79]
[Choline][Geranic acid]	Cefadroxil	Pig	6.20	[79]
[Choline][Geranic acid]	Methotrexate	Pig	6.00	[80]
[Choline][Geranic acid]	Nobiletin	Rat	3.00	[81]
[Choline][Malate]	Dextran	Pig	2.00	[72]
[Choline][Glycolate]	Cu <sup>2+</sup>	Pig	6.60	[82]
[Choline][Anilate]	Ibuprofen	–	1.30	[83]
[Choline][Serine]	Ferulic acid	–	1.60	[84]
[Choline][C18:1]	Antigen peptide	Mouse	28.00	[61]
[Betaine][Malate]	Copper glycol-histidine-tripeptide	Mouse; Pig	2.39	[85]
[Matrine][Coconutoleic acid]	Conotoxins	Mouse	5.70	[86]
[L-(-)-carnitine][DL-malic acid]	Insulin	Mouse	6.00	[15]
[EDMPC][Lin]	Ovalbumin	Mouse; Pig	15.14	[87]
[TIPA][OA]	Phenol red	Rat	18.00	[88]
[DIPA][ISA]	Phenol red	Rat	25.00	[88]



**Fig. 3 – (A) Transdermal delivery of insulin with CAGE treatment in vitro ( $n = 3$ ,  $**P < 0.005$ ); (B) Evaluation of CAGE as a transdermal insulin delivery material in vivo ( $n = 6$ , transdermal groups;  $n = 3$ , subcutaneous injection group;  $*P < 0.01$  and  $**P < 0.001$ ). (Reproduced with permission from [91], Copyright 2017 WILEY-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA, Weinheim). (C) FTIR spectra for SC samples with deconvoluted peaks in high wavenumber lipid region and (D) amide region; (E) FTIR spectra of SC by dynamic measurement. (Reproduced with permission from [92], Copyright 2019 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved).**

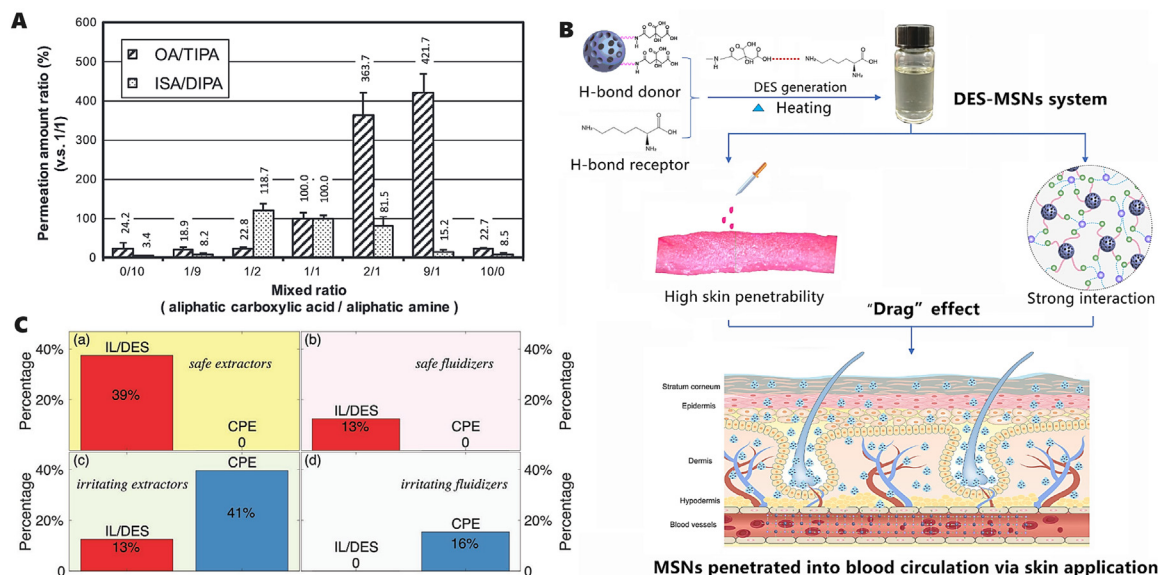
Hansen solubility parameter close to that of skin, thereby outperforming conventional CPEs (Fig. 4C). That was because ILs had adequate polar interaction and hydrogen bonding with the skin, which caused the ideal cohesive energy density range and good compatibility [94].

Novel ILs as skin penetration enhancers have been extensively studied, thus promoting the development of TDDS. However, two major issues need to be addressed: (1) the quantitative analysis of ILs is lacking, which

results in blindness and uncertainty of screening of ILs in formula optimization. (2) comprehensive studies on skin enhancement mechanisms of ILs, especially the dissociation behavior of ILs in SC and active epidermis, are still required.

### 3.2. ILs as novel solvents

Solubility is an important parameter that directly affects skin absorption and the bioavailability of drugs. Most drugs are



**Fig. 4 – (A)** Skin permeation amount ratio of phenol red incorporated in the liquid salt mixture (Reproduced with permission from [88], Copyright 2016 Published by Elsevier B.V.). **(B)** Preparation and action mechanism of DES-MSNs (Reproduced with permission from [18], Copyright 2022 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved). **(C)** Comparison of percentages of ILs/DESs and CPEs causing spectral changes of SC (Reproduced with permission from [94], Copyright 2020 Wiley-VCH GmbH).

**Table 5 – Solubility of drugs in ILs.**

Cation	Anion	Molar ratio	Model drug	Solubility (mg/ml)	Refs
ProEt	Fer	1:1	Luteolin	42.5	[98]
ProEt	Cou	1:1	Luteolin	27.5	[98]
ProEt	Ben	1:1	Luteolin	10	[98]
Choline	Oleate	1:1	Paclitaxel	5	[99]
Choline	Glycine	1:1	Acyclovir	250 ± 17	[100]
Choline	Alanine	1:1	Acyclovir	210 ± 15	[100]
Choline	Serine	1:1	Acyclovir	135 ± 11	[100]
Menthol	Capric acid	3:7 <sup>a</sup>	Risperidone	367	[101]
Menthol	Capric acid	5:5 <sup>a</sup>	Risperidone	335	[101]
Menthol	Capric acid	7:3 <sup>a</sup>	Risperidone	167	[101]
L-(-)-carnitine	DL-malic acid	1:1	Rosiglitazone	10 <sup>b</sup>	[15]
L-(-)-carnitine	DL-malic acid	1:1	Bezafibrate	11.25 <sup>b</sup>	[15]
Choline	Geranic acid	1:1	Ketoconazole	8.6 <sup>b</sup>	[102]
DC-7	NTf <sub>2</sub>	1:2	Amphotericin B	0.7	[103]
Choline	Hexanoate	1:1	Amphotericin B	6	[103]

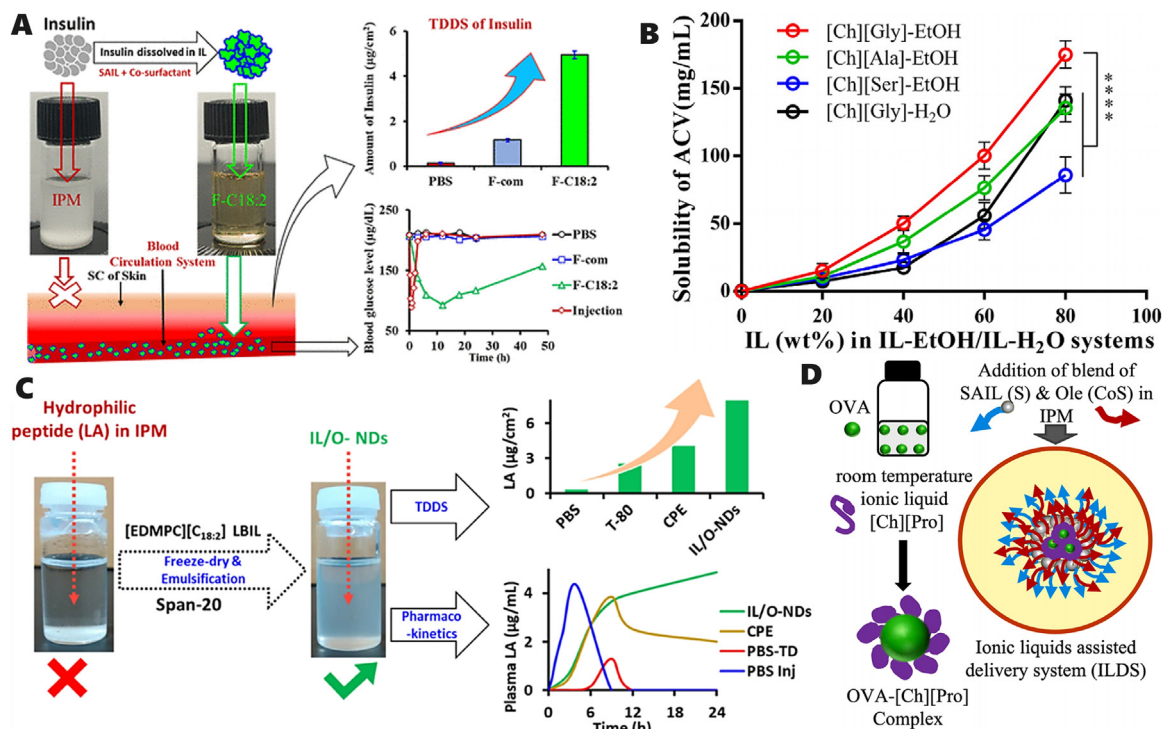
<sup>a</sup> Mass ratios. <sup>b</sup> mg/g.

weak acidic or alkaline, and their water solubility is poor, which is the main obstacle in the development of new drug formulations. In this context, the ILs increase the solubility of insoluble small molecules and biomolecules, elevating their potential for drug delivery (Table 5) [95–97].

ILs are used to improve the solubility of hydrophilic, lipophilic and amphiphilic drugs by reducing the interfacial tension between drugs and solvent medium [104–106]. Owing to superior amphiphilic properties, ILs are used to improve the stability of lipid formulations [107–112]. Islam et al. developed the ILs-in-oil microemulsion for transdermal delivery of insulin using choline-fatty acids (Fig. 5A) [60]. In the ILs-assisted delivery system for cancer immunotherapy, the ILs containing choline and propionic acid formed the complex

with ovalbumin (OVA), then was uniformly dispersed in the oil phase of isopropyl myristate (IPM) (Fig. 5B) [113]. Uddinet et al. reported that the ILs as the surfactants increased the stability, drug-loading capacity, and drug encapsulation in the ILs-in-oil nano-dispersions (Fig. 5C) [114]. Esson et al. synthesized the novel hydrophobic dicationic cholinium-based ILs, and the hydrophobic and hydrophilic regions of ILs mimicked the amphiphilicity of amphotericin B (AmB), thereby increasing the solubility of AmB [103]. In the effective ternary system, ILs also improved the solubility of acyclovir (ACV) (Fig. 5D) [100]. And the ternary system containing ILs was also suitable for water-soluble drugs [115].

In general, ILs improve the solubility through interactions with solutes [116,117]. Kunov et al. demonstrated the method



**Fig. 5 – (A) Preparation of ILDS (Reproduced with permission from [60]. Copyright 2021 American Chemical Society). (B) Enhanced insulin solubility in surface-active ILs (Reproduced with permission from [113]. Copyright 2021 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved). (C) ILs-in-oil nanodispersions (Reproduced with permission from [114] Copyright 2021 American Chemical Society). (D) Solubility of ACV in the IL-EtOH and IL-H<sub>2</sub>O systems (Reproduced with permission from [100]. Copyright 2020 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved).**

for selecting ILs based on cosmo-RS calculations, revealing that the ability to accept hydrogen bonds was the most important factor [118]. The ILs based on proline ethyl ester phenolate facilitated the solubilization of bioactive compound luteolin (LUT) through multiple hydrogen bonds,  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interactions, and cation- $\pi$  interactions between LUT and ILs [98]. In the surface-active IL-assisted nonaqueous micelle, the multiple hydrogen bonds,  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interactions and cation- $\pi$  interactions between paclitaxel and SAIL[Cho][Ole] enhanced the solubility of paclitaxel in the micelle [99].

Due to the interaction between ions of ILs and specific groups of solutes, changes in the composition and structure of ILs lead to different solubilities of the solute [119,120]. Cholinium-based ILs with different anions showed different solubility enhancement ratios for naproxen and ibuprofen [121]. The solubility of risperidone, a hydrophobic drug, was improved using ILs containing menthol and capsaicin, which was increased with increased capsaicin content [101]. Wu et al. studied the solubility of ketoconazole, a hydrophobic drug, in ILs with different carboxylic and amino acids. They found that the differences in the lengths and branches of the alkyl chains and the number of hydroxyl and carboxyl groups were the main reasons for the solubility difference of drug in ILs. In addition, the same groups in different systems also exerted different effects on the solubilities of drugs [102].

ILs, as novel solvents, play an important role in enhancing drug solubility, mainly attributed to increasing interaction

strength between drugs and excipients. Since the interactions between anions and cations are reversible, and ILs interact with acidic and alkaline drugs. In terms of safety, more attentions are paid to the dosage of ILs.

### 3.3. ILs as novel APIs

Using an API and a counterion or two different APIs, API-ILs are formed and used in the transdermal, oral, and injectable drug delivery systems [122–124]. Therefore, the screening of suitable counterions is very important [125–127]. API-ILs effectively control skin permeability, drug-polymer miscibility, release performance and pharmacokinetic behaviors of drugs (Fig. 6) [128–131]. In addition, some ILs exhibit biological activities, which synergistically enhance the efficacy of the APIs [132–134].

#### 3.3.1. Regulating drug skin permeability

Transforming insoluble API into API-ILs increases the penetration amounts [135,136]. Furukawa et al. prepared API-ILs containing non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs with proline ethyl ester (counteraction), which enhanced the transdermal penetration of drugs [137]. Moshikur et al. used n-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) as an effective biocompatible counterion for the preparation of API-ILs. The resulting NMP-ILs showed better physico-thermal stability, enhanced skin penetration, and enhanced drug accumulation 2.6 times in

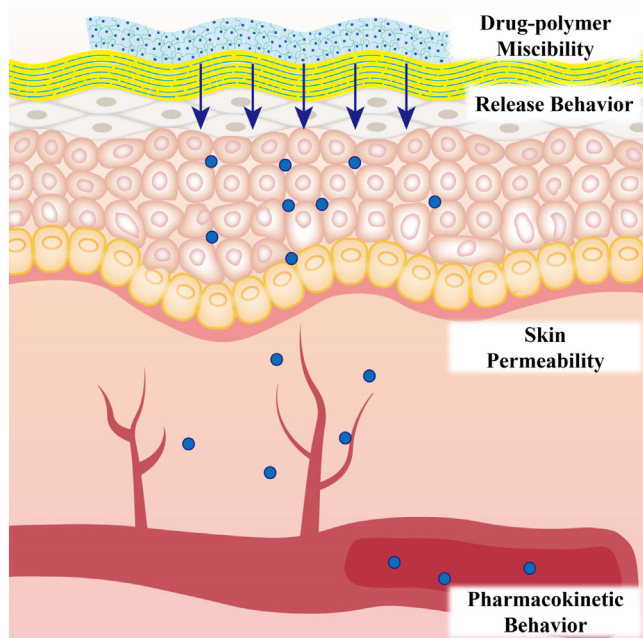


Fig. 6 – Different roles of API-ILs.

Table 6 – Regulating drug-polymer miscibility utilizing API-ILs.

Cation	Anion	Molar ratio	Polymer	Refs
Lidocaine	Ibuprofen	1:1	PVDF	[142]
Lidocaine	Naproxen	1:1	PVDF	[142]
Lidocaine	Diclofenac	1:1	PVDF	[142]
Choline	Citrate	1:1	Gelatin	[140]
Naproxen	Triamylamine	1:1	PSA	[129]
Cholinium	ibuprofenate	1:1.05	BC	[143]
Cholinium	ketoprofenate	1:1.05	BC	[143]
Cholinium	naproxenate	1:1.05	BC	[143]
Lidocaine	Diclofenac	1:1	Eudragit NE 30 D	[145]
Choline	Glycolic acid	1:1	PVA, PDA	[82]

the target tissue [138]. The skin penetration of ketoprofen was also improved after the addition of piperine (molar ratio: 1:1) [139]. The main contents are illustrated in detail in Section 2.2.

### 3.3.2. Regulating drug-polymer miscibility

Polymers are often used for the development of sustained and controlled release preparations. Choline citrate, a bio-based IL, was shown to stabilize homogeneous gelatin-lignin UV-shielding films with excellent antimicrobial and mechanical properties [140]. In addition, API-ILs are also used to improve the drug-loading in the polymers (Table 6). The carboxylic pressure-sensitive adhesive (PSA) effectively inhibited API-ILs recrystallization and increased the drug loading [129]. It was shown that a strong ionic hydrogen bond was formed between API-ILs and PSA-COO<sup>-</sup>, and a normal hydrogen bond was formed between API-ILs and carbonyl group of PSA, which synergistically increased the

drug capacity in PSA [141]. Abednejad et al. synthesized the dual biofunctional ILs with analgesic and anti-inflammatory properties using lidocaine-derived cations and hydrophobic NSAID-derived anions. The API-ILs were successfully blended with the hydrophobic polyvinylidene fluoride membrane as the top layer of the reservoir [142]. To incorporate low water-soluble API, namely ibuprofen, ketoprofen, and (S)-naproxen, into bacterial cellulose membranes, Chantereau et al. converted these drugs into choline-based ILs and fabricated BC-ILs membranes, which exhibited the improved rehydration capability compared with that of pure BC [143]. Halayqa et al. developed a novel drug delivery system based on grafted-Poly(L-lactide) (API-ILs-LA) nanoparticles, finding that API-ILs-LA reached a maximum encapsulation efficiency of 92.0% ± 2.7% [144]. The above studies show that API-ILs regulate the miscibility between drugs and polymers, thus facilitating the development of new drug delivery systems.

### 3.3.3. Regulating drug release behavior

The interactions between drugs and polymers exert the considerable influence on the drug release, such as ionic bonds, hydrogen bonds, and van der Waals forces [146,147]. The interaction nature and strength of these interactions are related to the types of donor and acceptor [148]. Accordingly, the formation of API-ILs changes the interactions between API and polymer, thereby modifying the drug release amount and rate (Table 7). Lozoya-Agullo et al. designed the ILs with brilliant blue to achieve a slow release by encapsulating them in polymer nanoparticles (NPs). *In vitro* release studies showed that the release of NPs was pH-dependent and exhibited a suitable release profile [149]. Zhou et al. converted gliclazide into API-ILs using tributyl(tetradecyl) phosphonium. *In vitro* dissolution tests showed that a sustained drug release of 88.17% in transdermal patches was achieved within three d [128]. Wu et al. transformed donepezil into API-ILs and prepared a controlled release DIA transdermal patch. This was mainly due to the higher molecular mobility of API-ILs DIA patch, which enhanced drug release [150]. Yang et al. investigated the release characteristics of two active ingredients of API-ILs. They found that release amounts of two drugs of API-ILs in four PSAs were all significantly

Table 7 – Regulating drug release behavior utilizing API-ILs.

Cation	Anion	Molar ratio	Drug cumulative release (%)	Refs
Brilliant blue	Atenolol <sup>a</sup>	1:1	100	[149]
P <sub>6,6,6,14</sub>	Gliclazide <sup>a</sup>	1:1	88.17 ± 3.59	[128]
Triethylamine	Ketoprofen <sup>a</sup>	1:1	~70	[130]
Lidocaine <sup>a</sup>	Ibuprofen	1:1	~90	[142]
	Naproxen	1:1	~85	[142]
	Diclofenac	1:1	~75	[142]
Choline	Mefenamic acid <sup>a</sup>	1:1	100	[144]
Lidocaine	ibuprofen <sup>a</sup>	1:1	>90	[151]
C4Mim		1:1	~79	[151]

<sup>a</sup> Detected drug.



different, proving that the two components were not released synchronously. This was because PSAs participated in inter-ionic interaction with the API-ILs and reduced the release of drugs [44].

#### 3.3.4. Regulating drug pharmacokinetic behavior

API-ILs regulate the pharmacokinetic behavior mainly by promoting drug absorption, protecting drugs from degradation, slowing drug elimination and enhancing drug targeting distribution [152–154]. A study has shown that the high delivery efficacy of CAGE is attributed to inhibition of proteolytic enzymes [155]. Mohamed et al. used a series of structurally related amine counterions for investigating the stability of theophylline ILs and their active uptake in A549 lung cells. The results showed that the theophylline with the polyamine as counterion enhanced cell accumulation, which provided the novel strategy for the regulation of the pharmacokinetic behavior [156].

In summary, API-ILs strategy has shown a great advantage in regulating skin permeability, miscibility, release performance and pharmacokinetic behaviors of drugs. The design of new API-ILs requires a comprehensive and systematic investigation of the whole TDDS process instead of focusing on a specific step, as has been done to date. More importantly, identifying changes in the original pharmacological action of API upon formation of API-ILs is very crucial for the clinical applications of API-ILs.

#### 3.4. Poly (ILs) as novel polymers

Poly (ILs), as the new type of polymers, are formed using ILs as monomers, which combine the low volatility and thermal and electrochemical stability of ILs with mechanical durability of polymers [157,158]. Poly (ILs) are mainly used for the development of intelligent devices and drug carriers [159–162]. For example, the gel ionic conductor composed of polymeric gelant PMMA-r-PBA and ILs[EMI][TFSI] was proved to be highly stretchable, mechanically robust, and deformation durable, which was used in human motion sensors [163]. The problems of freezing and degradation of hydrogels at low temperatures were addressed by using the anti-freeze hydrogel based on amphoteric poly-ILs for multimodal artificial skin, which provided a new strategy for the development of sophisticated stimuli-responsive skins with multifunction and environmentally adaptable properties [164]. Poly(tetrabutylphosphonium styrenesulfonate), owning pH/thermal dual responsiveness, was used as a shell to prepare the drug nanocarrier with controlled drug release [165]. Cationic poly (ILs) with antibacterial activity have been used to construct novel TDDS [12]. The introduction of poly (ILs) into PVA hydrogel effectively improves the bactericidal activity, mechanical strength and tensile deformation of hydrogel [166]. Microneedle patches based on poly (ILs) synthesized using imidazolium-type ILs were loaded with salicylic acid and used to treat acne infections on account of their antibacterial and anti-inflammatory activity, which stemmed from electrostatic and hydrophobic interactions between the bacterial membrane and poly (ILs) [63]. A hydrogel wound dressing was prepared using deferoxamine

(DFO) and halogen-free imidazolium poly (ILs). Under the exposure of hyaluronidase, the hydrogel degraded and continuously released DFO and poly (ILs), effectively promoting wound healing [167].

Nowadays, poly (ILs) as novel polymers have garnered considerable attention owing to their designability of ILs. However, studies on the application of poly (ILs) for TDDSs are still scarce owing to the complex synthesis and purification of poly (ILs), the limited availability of ILs monomers, and monomer residue problems. As a result, the screening of suitable ILs and optimization of the synthesis of poly (ILs) are still the subject.

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## 4. Conclusions and challenges

ILs have great potential for the development of TDDS through different roles: as novel skin penetration enhancers for enhancing transdermal absorption of drugs, as novel solvents for improving the solubility of drugs in carriers or solvents, as novel APIs for regulating drugs and preparations properties, and as novel polymers for the development of smart medical materials. The investigations of the mechanisms of action of ILs contribute to the development and application of ILs. For instance, numerous research studies have proved that the functions of ILs are closely related to the structures. Specifically, the ion type, proportion, and functional group of ILs influence the functions owing to microscopic molecular force. However, further knowledge on the mechanisms of ILs is still required for their clinical application. Based on the current literature, the following challenges are proposed: (1) It is very necessary to construct valid quantitative structure-activity relationship models, which will provide basic design principles for the design of biocompatible ILs with specific functions. (2) Detailed studies on the action mechanism of ILs are still scarce. The underlying action mechanisms need to be unveiled according to changes in interionic interactions between cations and anions. (3) The investigation of the long-term stability of ILs is highly desirable, which may determine their efficacy and safety, in terms of the reversible noncovalent bonds between cations and anions. (4) The *in vivo* behaviors of ILs are still not clear, which may cause safety issues. So, studies on the pharmacokinetics of ILs are required. (5) Poly (ILs) as novel polymers combining the unique characteristics of ILs and polymers have drawn widespread attention. However, biocompatibility and biodegradability issues of poly (ILs) are still being explored.

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## Conflicts of interest

The authors report no conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content and writing of this article.

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## Supplementary materials

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