

1 **The effects of esterified solvents on the diffusion of a model compound across**
2 **human skin; an ATR-FTIR spectroscopic study**

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26 **Abstract**

27 Attenuated total reflectance Fourier transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy has
28 been used to investigate the effects of three fatty acid esters on skin permeation.
29 Propylene glycol diperylargonate (DPPG), isopropyl myristate (IPM) and isostearyl
30 isostearate (ISIS) were selected as pharmaceutically relevant solvents with a range
31 of lipophilicities and cyanophenol (CNP) was used as a model drug. The resultant
32 data were compared with that obtained when water was used as the solvent. The
33 diffusion of CNP, DPPG and IPM across epidermis were successfully described by a
34 Fickian model. When ISIS was used as a solvent Fickian behaviour was only
35 obtained across isolated stratum corneum suggesting that the hydrophilic layers of
36 the epidermis interfere with the permeation of the hydrophobic ISIS. The diffusion
37 coefficients of CNP across epidermis in the different solvents were not significantly
38 different. Using chemometric data analysis diffusion profiles for the solvents were
39 deconvoluted from that of the skin and modelled. Each of these solvents was found
40 to diffuse at a faster rate across the skin than CNP. DPPG considerably increased
41 the concentration of CNP in the stratum corneum in comparison with the other
42 solvents indicating strong penetration enhancer potential. In contrast IPM produced a
43 similar CNP concentration in the stratum corneum to water with ISIS resulting in a
44 lower CNP concentration suggesting negligible enhancement and penetration
45 retardation effects for these two solvents respectively.

46

47 **Keywords**

48 Penetration enhancement, Human skin, Diffusion, ATR-FTIR spectroscopy

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51 **Introduction**

52 The stratum corneum, the outermost layer of skin is the main barrier to the
53 absorption of drug molecules across and into human skin. This barrier has important
54 implications for the topical treatment of skin conditions as it may render a particular
55 treatment ineffective. Modification of the barrier properties of the stratum corneum is
56 often sought primarily to increase drug penetration and the use of chemical
57 penetration enhancers in a formulation is perhaps the most common strategy used to
58 achieve this. A variety of different types of molecules have been shown to have the
59 potential to affect drug permeation including alcohols, esters and fatty acids
60 (Gorukanti et al., 1999; Liu et al., 2009; Ogiso et al., 1995). These molecules modify
61 the properties of the stratum corneum altering drug flux across the skin. However it is
62 difficult to elucidate the mechanisms through which they exert their actions.
63 Improved knowledge of how individual enhancers modify skin penetration would
64 facilitate formulation design and perhaps also give insight into how combinations of
65 enhancers can have synergistic effects greatly increasing skin penetration
66 (Goldbergcettina et al., 1995), allowing this effect to be utilised in formulations.

67

68 Fatty acid esters have been commonly used as penetration enhancers, with IPM
69 being the most commonly used (Goldbergcettina et al., 1995; Gorukanti et al., 1999;
70 Kikwai et al., 2002; Leichtnam et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2006; Yamato et al., 2009).
71 Other examples of such molecules which have been investigated for this effect
72 include ethyl oleate, decyl oleate, propylene glycol laurate, propylene glycol
73 monolaurate, propylene glycol monocaprylate/caprate, glyceryl
74 monocaprylate/caprate and ISIS (Cornwell et al., 1998; Gwak and Chun, 2002;
75 Kikwai et al., 2002; Liu et al., 2006; Ozawa et al., 1988; Takahashi et al., 1996).

76 These molecules exhibit considerable variation in their physiochemical properties,
77 differing in hydrocarbon chain length, number of hydrocarbon chains and polarity.
78 The effect of these molecules as chemical penetration modifiers of drug transport is
79 however variable. For example IPM as a sole agent may increase drug permeation
80 significantly (Gorukanti et al., 1999) but the effect may be modest in other cases and
81 some of the other esters such as propylene glycol laurate and glyceryl
82 monocaprylate/caprate have been demonstrated to be superior to IPM for particular
83 drug molecules (Cornwell et al., 1998; Gwak and Chun, 2002). Also in combination
84 with other enhancers these esterified solvents have shown a synergistic penetration
85 enhancement effect, though this is not always the case (Alberti et al., 2001;
86 Gorukanti et al., 1999; Gwak and Chun, 2002; Liu et al., 2009). Better insight into the
87 mechanism of action of these types of enhancers would facilitate their selection and
88 help rationalise the topical formulation development process.

89

90 Diffusion across a membrane may be followed using ATR-FTIR spectroscopy which
91 potentially offers improved mechanistic insight into the role of penetration enhancers
92 on drug diffusion than can be gained with conventional *in vitro* diffusion experiments
93 such as those performed using Franz cells. The technique makes it easier to
94 separate the effect of the enhancer on the concentration and diffusion coefficient of
95 the drug in the stratum corneum and can also give molecular insight into the
96 mechanism of action. For example Harrison et al have correlated the increase in the
97 diffusion coefficient of a model compound, cyanophenol across the stratum corneum
98 with increased fluidity of the intercellular lipids (Harrison et al., 1996). The technique
99 also allows the diffusion profile of the enhancer to be monitored and can give insight
100 into drug transport mechanisms. Tantishaiyakul et al used ATR-FTIR spectroscopy

101 to follow the diffusion of ion pairs and McAuley et al have reported the diffusion of
102 hydrogen bonded species across model membranes (McAuley et al., 2009;
103 Tantishaiyakul et al., 2004).

104

105 In this study the effect of three fatty acid ester solvents on the transport of a model
106 drug CNP across human epidermis have been investigated using ATR-FTIR
107 spectroscopy. The esters examined, IPM, ISIS and DPPG are all used in topical
108 formulations and have a range of polarities and hence should provide insight into the
109 effects of these types of enhancers on drug transport across human skin.

110

111 **Materials**

112 CNP was obtained from Fisher Scientific (Loughborough, UK). IPM was obtained
113 from Sigma-Aldrich (Poole, UK). ISIS was received as a gift from Uniqema (Gouda,
114 The Netherlands) and DPPG was received as a gift from Gattefosse (Saint-Priest,
115 France).

116

117 **Methods**

118

119 Tissue preparation

120 Dermatomed human thigh skin from a single female patient was obtained from the
121 International Institute for the Advancement of Medicine. Separated epidermis was
122 prepared by blunt dissection following heat separation. The dermatomed skin was
123 defrosted for two hours at room temperature before being immersed in a water bath
124 at 60°C for 1 minute. The tissue was then pinned to a cork board and the epidermis
125 was peeled away from the dermis using tweezers. Isolated stratum corneum was

126 prepared by soaking the epidermis in phosphate buffered saline containing 0.0001%
127 trypsin for 24 hours at 37°C (Pellett et al., 1997b). The stratum corneum was then
128 rinsed thoroughly with deionised water. All skin tissue was stored frozen at -20°C
129 and allowed to thaw at room temperature prior to use.

130

131 ATR-FTIR spectroscopy studies

132 Diffusion experiments were conducted at ambient temperature (21 ± 2 °C) using a
133 Nicolet Avatar 360 FTIR spectrometer fitted with a multibounce ATR accessory with
134 a Zinc Selenide (ZnSe) crystal. The incident angle of the IR radiation was 45°. Ten
135 scans were taken every 60 seconds with resolution of 2 cm^{-1} and an average
136 spectrum was produced at each time point. All experiments were repeated in
137 triplicate. Spectral analysis was performed using Opus[®] 5.5 software.

138

139 Epidermis was placed on the ZnSe crystal so that the stratum corneum was in direct
140 contact with the crystal. Intimate contact between the epidermis and crystal was
141 assessed visually. This type of experimental set up using epidermis for ATR-FTIR
142 spectroscopic studies of diffusion has been described previously (Tetteh et al.,
143 2009). An aluminium trough constructed specifically for the diffusion experiments
144 was placed on top of the epidermis and was sealed with silicone grease. A saturated
145 CNP solution was applied to the membrane and an aluminium lid was placed on top,
146 again sealed with silicone grease.

147

148 When isolated stratum corneum was used it was placed on the ZnSe crystal so that
149 the outer surface was in direct contact with the crystal, thus the stratum corneum

150 was placed on the ATR crystal in the same orientation as in the epidermis
151 experiment.

152

153 Saturated solutions of CNP in the three esters were prepared by constant agitation
154 of excess of CNP in the solvent in the presence of an immiscible water layer for 48
155 hours. The aqueous layer was then removed prior to the solution being used. The
156 CNP solutions were equilibrated with water to prevent them from dehydrating the
157 skin tissue and causing it to curl off the ATR crystal. The saturated solution of CNP
158 in water was prepared by constant agitation of an excess of CNP in water for 48
159 hours.

160

161 Data modelling

162 Assuming that the Beer-Lambert law applies, the increase in IR absorbance
163 associated with either the drug or solvent molecule with time is directly related to the
164 concentration of the species in the membrane. The increase in absorbance can
165 therefore be modelled by fitting appropriate boundary conditions to Fick's second
166 law,

167

$$168 \quad \frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = -D \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

169

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171 where C is the concentration of the diffusing species in the membrane, D is the
172 diffusion coefficient of the diffusing species, x is the diffusional pathlength, and t is
173 time. In this study the method of Laplace transformation was used to solve Equation
174 1 to obtain diffusion coefficients for the permeating molecules across skin. This

175 approach has been reported previously (McAuley et al., 2010). The diffusion
176 coefficients were obtained by fitting the normalised data with Micromath Scientist®
177 3.0 for Windows, using the following Laplace transformation;

178
$$\frac{A}{A_{\infty}} = \frac{\bar{C}}{\bar{C}_{\infty}} = \frac{\cos\left(h \cdot \sqrt{\frac{s}{D}}\right)}{s}$$
 Equation 2
179

180
181
182 where A is the absorbance, A_{∞} is the absorbance at infinite time, \bar{C} is the
183 concentration in the Laplace domain, \bar{C}_{∞} is the concentration in the Laplace domain
184 at infinite time, s is the Laplace variable and h is the diffusional pathlength. Statistical
185 analyses were made using Graphpad Prism 5 software. Comparisons of the
186 calculated diffusion coefficients were made using the Kruskal Wallis test with post
187 hoc comparison made using the Mann-Whitney U test. Significance was accepted at
188 the $p \leq 0.05$ level.

189

190 Solubility studies

191 The solubilities of CNP at $21 \pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$ in water, IPM, DPPG and ISIS were measured by
192 UV absorbance at 249nm. Saturated solutions of the model drugs were prepared
193 using constant agitation for 48 hours. An aliquot of this was then centrifuged to
194 separate any solid material and the supernatant was sampled, diluted as necessary
195 and analysed.

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199 Chemometric data analysis

200 Chemometric data analysis was used to obtain the diffusion profiles of the solvents.
201 The multivariate target factor analysis approach was used to deconvolute the solvent
202 profile from that of the skin and CNP. The analysis was conducted using InSight
203 (InSight 4.0a, 2009) software coded in Matlab[®] (Matlab, R2009a). The algorithms
204 and methods used by this programme are described in more detail elsewhere (Dias
205 et al., 2004).

206

207 **Results**

208 Figure 1 shows IR spectra taken at different time points following application of CNP
209 in DPPG to human epidermis. The increase in the CN stretch of CNP at 2227 cm^{-1}
210 can clearly be seen as can that associated with the carbonyl band of DPPG at 1742 cm^{-1} .
211 The Amide I and II bands of the stratum corneum are also identifiable
212 confirming good contact between the epidermis and crystal throughout the
213 experiment.

214

215 The CN stretching absorption band of CNP occurs in a spectrally silent skin region
216 that also does not overlap with absorption bands associated with the solvents used
217 in this study. Assuming the Beer-Lambert law applies the absorbance of this band
218 can be directly related to the concentration of CNP in the stratum corneum and
219 through monitoring the change in absorbance with time a diffusion profile of CNP
220 across the membrane can be obtained. Figure 2 shows diffusion profiles of CNP in
221 the different solvents used in this study across human epidermis.

222

223 Typical Fickian plots were observed for the diffusion of CNP in DPPG, water and
224 IPM across epidermis with the expected lag, exponential and plateau phases (Pellett

225 et al., 1997a). The diffusion traces of CNP in IPM and water are similar whereas the
226 plateau absorbance of CNP in DPPG is much greater, indicating that a higher
227 concentration of CNP is obtained in the stratum corneum when DPPG is the vehicle.
228 The CNP in ISIS diffusion experiment again shows the typical lag and exponential
229 diffusion phases, however the plateau absorbance appears to slowly decrease rather
230 than maintain an equilibrium value. This slowly decreasing plateau was observed to
231 correspond to the permeation of ISIS into the membrane. Figure 3 shows two
232 spectra taken from the CNP in ISIS diffusion experiment and shows a decrease in
233 the magnitude in the CN stretch, indicating a lower CNP concentration in the stratum
234 corneum with increasing ISIS permeation into the membrane as observed through a
235 stronger carbonyl absorption which is associated with the solvent.

236

237

238 From the ATR-FTIR spectra the diffusion profiles of the different solvents used in the
239 study can be obtained. The solvents, IPM, ISIS and DPPG all have an ester carbonyl
240 group which absorbs in a region where the absorption of skin components is
241 relatively weak (see Figure 1). However this functional group is often involved in
242 hydrogen bonding, which alters the frequency of absorption and may affect the
243 absorption coefficient limiting the usefulness of this band for diffusion profile
244 analysis. Indeed CNP is known to hydrogen bond to these types of solvents
245 (McAuley et al., 2009). Instead a chemometric approach has been used to
246 deconvolute the spectral signal of the solvent from that of the other components in
247 the $1478\text{-}1350\text{cm}^{-1}$ wavenumber window which is not believed to change with
248 interactions between the molecules. Figure 4 shows the separation of the spectral
249 profiles associated with DPPG and the stratum corneum extracted by the InSight

250 software and the corresponding evolution of each signal with time. Typical Fickian
251 profiles were observed for the three solvents but ISIS had a significantly longer lag
252 time than either DPPG or IPM. These diffusion profiles for CNP, IPM and DPPG
253 could be modelled using Scientist to obtain a diffusion coefficient for the permeating
254 species. Figure 5 shows example normalised diffusion profiles and model fittings for
255 CNP and IPM across epidermis following application of a saturated solution of CNP
256 in IPM. The profiles are normalised by setting the plateau value in each case (C_{∞}) to
257 1 enabling presentation on the same scale. The calculated diffusion coefficients are
258 given in Table 1. These are reported as pathlength normalised values (D/h^2) as the
259 diffusional pathlength across the stratum corneum is unknown. Table 1 also provides
260 the equilibrium solubility results for CNP in each of the solvents and the plateau
261 absorbance values for each of the diffusion experiments. Model fitting of the ISIS
262 diffusion profile obtained using epidermal tissue was less successful however as the
263 lag time was observed to be overly long in comparison with the exponential phase.
264 To investigate whether the more hydrophilic layers of epidermis were affecting the
265 permeation of ISIS into the stratum corneum the CNP in ISIS experiment was
266 repeated using stratum corneum prepared from the same skin tissue. Using isolated
267 stratum corneum typical Fickian diffusion plots were observed for both CNP and ISIS
268 allowing diffusion coefficients to be calculated, again shown in Table 1. For
269 comparative purposes the diffusion of CNP across epidermis and stratum corneum
270 from an ISIS vehicle are shown in Figure 6. The experiment across stratum corneum
271 has a lower plateau absorbance than that obtained across epidermis but remains
272 constant as is expected if the diffusion follows Fick's law rather than the slowly
273 decreasing value obtained in the CNP across epidermis experiment.

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276 The ingress of ISIS into the stratum corneum appears to lower the concentration of
277 CNP in the stratum corneum to less than that produced when water is the vehicle. In
278 this case ISIS would be expected to act as a penetration retarder. This data
279 suggests that the hydrophilic layers in the epidermis affect the ingress of the
280 hydrophobic ISIS into the stratum corneum in the epidermal tissue experimental
281 design and that for excipients such as ISIS, use of stratum corneum is preferable.

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285 Table 1. The solubility of CNP in each solvent, the plateau absorbance of CNP in the
286 stratum corneum and the calculated diffusion coefficient for CNP (mean values \pm the
287 range, n=3). ND not determined.

288

Solvent	CNP solubility (mol/dm ³)	Plateau absorbance	CNP D/h ² (x 10 ⁻⁵ s ⁻¹)	Solvent D/h ² (x 10 ⁻⁵ s ⁻¹)
Dipropylene glycol perlargonate	1.185	6.31 (6.09-6.55)	9.4 (9.0-9.9)	17.7 (11.5-27.2)
Isopropyl myristate	0.681	3.51 (2.86 4.00)	7.3 (6.9-7.8)	21.1 (9.0-27.2)
Isostearyl isostearate	0.387	1.93 (1.55 – 2.53)	13.8 (11.7-15.8)	28.8 (27.2-30.4)
Water	0.123	3.26 (2.85 - 3.82)	10.3 (9.4 – 11.2)	ND

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290

291 Discussion

292 Since the initial publications using ATR-FTIR spectroscopy to investigate drug
293 diffusion across skin in the mid 1990s, only a few studies have been published using
294 skin tissue. This is likely to be a result of difficulties in performing the experiment
295 using stratum corneum. Mounting the stratum corneum onto the ATR crystal is

296 difficult as the tissue is fragile and is readily damaged or torn. In this study we have
297 reported using human epidermis instead of isolated stratum corneum for ATR-FTIR
298 spectroscopic studies across skin. The skin is positioned such that the stratum
299 corneum is in direct contact with the ATR crystal. This ensures that the data obtained
300 from the experiment relates to the concentration of the permeants in the stratum
301 corneum. Using epidermal tissue allows reliable, reproducible contact to be made
302 between the membrane and the ATR crystal. Such an experiment design studying
303 diffusion across human epidermis has been reported using an ATR-FTIR
304 spectroscopic imaging setup (Tetteh et al., 2009). Pellet et al have previously
305 investigated the effect of stratum corneum orientation on the ATR crystal with
306 permeability and did find some differences depending on whether the inner or outer
307 surface of the stratum corneum was placed on the ATR crystal (Pellett et al., 1997b).
308 However it is thought that this is unlikely to affect interpretation of data in a
309 consistent experimental design where relative differences between formulations are
310 being used to gauge the effects of excipients to promote transport across skin.

311

312 Typical Fickian diffusion profiles were obtained for the permeation of CNP across the
313 epidermis which allowed it to be modelled, enabling calculation of the diffusion
314 coefficients of CNP in the different vehicles and assessment of the effects of the
315 vehicle on the concentration of CNP in the stratum corneum. The plateau
316 absorbance value obtained during the permeation experiment relates to the
317 concentration of CNP in the membrane. Solvents capable of increasing the
318 concentration of the CNP in the stratum corneum are likely to act as penetration
319 enhancers (Moser et al., 2001). DPPG was found to produce much higher
320 concentrations of CNP in the membrane than the other solvents. This is likely to be a

321 feature of both the good solubility of CNP in DPPG and the significant uptake of the
322 solvent into the stratum corneum, which was observed through the increase in the
323 absorbance of the solvent's carbonyl band during the experiment. The data indicates
324 that DPPG is likely to act as a strong penetration enhancer for CNP(and presumably
325 other structurally similar molecules) across skin. In contrast CNP in IPM showed a
326 similar plateau absorbance to that of CNP in water, suggesting limited enhancing
327 potential through altering the concentration of CNP in stratum corneum. This result
328 agrees with previous findings which reported the ability of IPM to act as an enhancer
329 as a single solvent for particular drugs to be modest (Kikwai et al., 2002). In the CNP
330 in ISIS experiment using epidermal sheet, ISIS appeared to reduce the concentration
331 of CNP in the slowly, such that the diffusion profile did not come to an equilibrium
332 plateau absorbance over the timescale of the experiment. The slowly decreasing
333 plateau absorbance of the CN stretch was observed to correspond to the permeation
334 of ISIS into the membrane and analysis of the solvent diffusion profile suggested that
335 it was non Fickian indicating that ISIS was behaving differently to the other solvents.
336 To investigate this further the CNP in ISIS experiment was repeated using stratum
337 corneum prepared from the same piece of skin tissue and placed on the ATR crystal
338 in the same orientation as it is in the epidermis experiment. This allowed
339 investigation of whether the inner, more hydrophilic epidermal layers may have
340 impeded the permeation of ISIS into the stratum corneum, preventing the effects of
341 the solvent on CNP diffusion into the skin from being readily apparent. The resultant
342 data produced typical Fickian diffusion plots for the CNP diffusion across stratum
343 corneum, with an equilibrium plateau absorbance lower than that obtained when
344 water is the solvent, indicating that ISIS lowers the concentration of CNP in the
345 stratum corneum. The data indicate that whilst use of human epidermis appears to

346 be valid for the use of DPPG and IPM with the more hydrophobic solvents such as
347 ISIS the presence of the more hydrophilic epidermal layers will affect the observed
348 diffusion profiles of permeating species and that in these circumstances, stratum
349 corneum should be used. That ISIS lowers the concentration of CNP in the stratum
350 corneum suggests that it acts as a penetration retarder. This is despite the solubility
351 of CNP in ISIS being approximately three times larger than that of CNP in water and
352 significant absorption of ISIS into the stratum corneum. This may be a result of the
353 hydrophobic ISIS providing a less favourable environment than the endogenous
354 lipids of the stratum corneum. There are cases where retardation of skin permeation
355 is beneficial, typically when a drug or active is being targeted to the skin surface.
356 Examples can include sunscreens and topical anti-microbials where a penetration
357 retarder may prevent systemic exposure to the drug and thereby reduce toxicity
358 (Hadgraft et al., 1996). ISIS may be a useful excipient for such formulations.

359

360 The diffusion coefficients of CNP in DPPG, IPM and water across epidermis were
361 similar. CNP in ISIS across stratum corneum did diffuse faster than those systems
362 which were tested across epidermis as would be expected given that the lower
363 epidermal layers will provide some diffusional resistance. However this difference is
364 small which is consistent with the stratum corneum being the main barrier to the
365 ingress of substances across skin (Hadgraft and Lane, 2011). The calculated
366 diffusion coefficients are of a similar magnitude to those calculated by Pellett et al for
367 the diffusion of CNP in water across stratum corneum (Pellett et al., 1997b). Thus
368 the data suggest that the solvents tested do not enhance skin permeation by
369 decreasing the membranes diffusional resistance, though it may be possible that
370 pre-treatment of the skin with a solvent is necessary to fully elucidate the effects on

371 the diffusion coefficient in this type of experimental set up. Chemometric analysis
372 software (InSight) was used to extract diffusion profiles of the ester solvents across
373 the skin tissue. A spectral region was chosen where issues such as hydrogen
374 bonding between the CNP and the solvent would not interfere with the observed
375 diffusion profile. The diffusion profiles of DPPG and IPM across epidermis and ISIS
376 across stratum corneum were obtained and could be modelled to obtain diffusion
377 coefficients. Each of the fatty acid ester solvents was found to diffuse at a faster rate
378 than the CNP. Previous ATR-FTIR spectroscopic diffusion studies across silicone
379 membrane found that CNP diffused more quickly across that membrane than ISIS
380 and that this seemed to correlate well with the increased molecular size of the ISIS
381 molecule (McAuley et al., 2009). This was not observed in this study for diffusion
382 across human tissue but potentially be explained through consideration of the
383 functional groups of the molecules. Drug diffusion across skin has been inversely
384 correlated to the number of hydrogen bonding groups on a molecule, with strong
385 hydrogen bonding groups such as hydroxyl groups slowing diffusion to a greater
386 extent that for example a carbonyl group(Pugh et al., 1996; Roberts et al., 1996).
387 This effect is particularly strong when the number of hydrogen bonding groups on the
388 molecule is small. Thus the presence of both hydroxyl and the hydrogen bond
389 accepting nitrile groups on CNP may explain its slower diffusion across skin in
390 comparison to the esterified solvents.

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395 **Conclusions**

396 ATR-FTIR spectroscopy has been used to study the diffusion of CNP across human
397 epidermis in three separate fatty acid ester solvents and water. The diffusion of CNP
398 in water, DPPG and IPM across human epidermis were modelled using Fick's
399 second law. In the case of CNP in ISIS, Fickian diffusion profiles were only obtained
400 when stratum corneum was used. No significant differences were observed between
401 the diffusion coefficients of CNP in the different vehicles across epidermis. CNP in
402 ISIS diffused more quickly across stratum corneum though this difference was small
403 and is probably linked to the removal of the lower hydrophilic epidermal layers. Using
404 chemometric software, diffusion profiles of the fatty acid ester solvents were
405 extracted and each of the esterified solvents was found to diffuse at a faster rate
406 across skin tissue than the model drug. DPPG was found to be able to increase the
407 concentration of CNP in the stratum corneum suggesting that it possesses strong
408 penetration enhancing potential. IPM appeared to have a limited or negligible ability
409 to enhance CNP permeation whereas, in contrast ISIS is able to lower the CNP
410 concentration obtained in the stratum corneum suggesting that it has a penetration
411 retarding effect.

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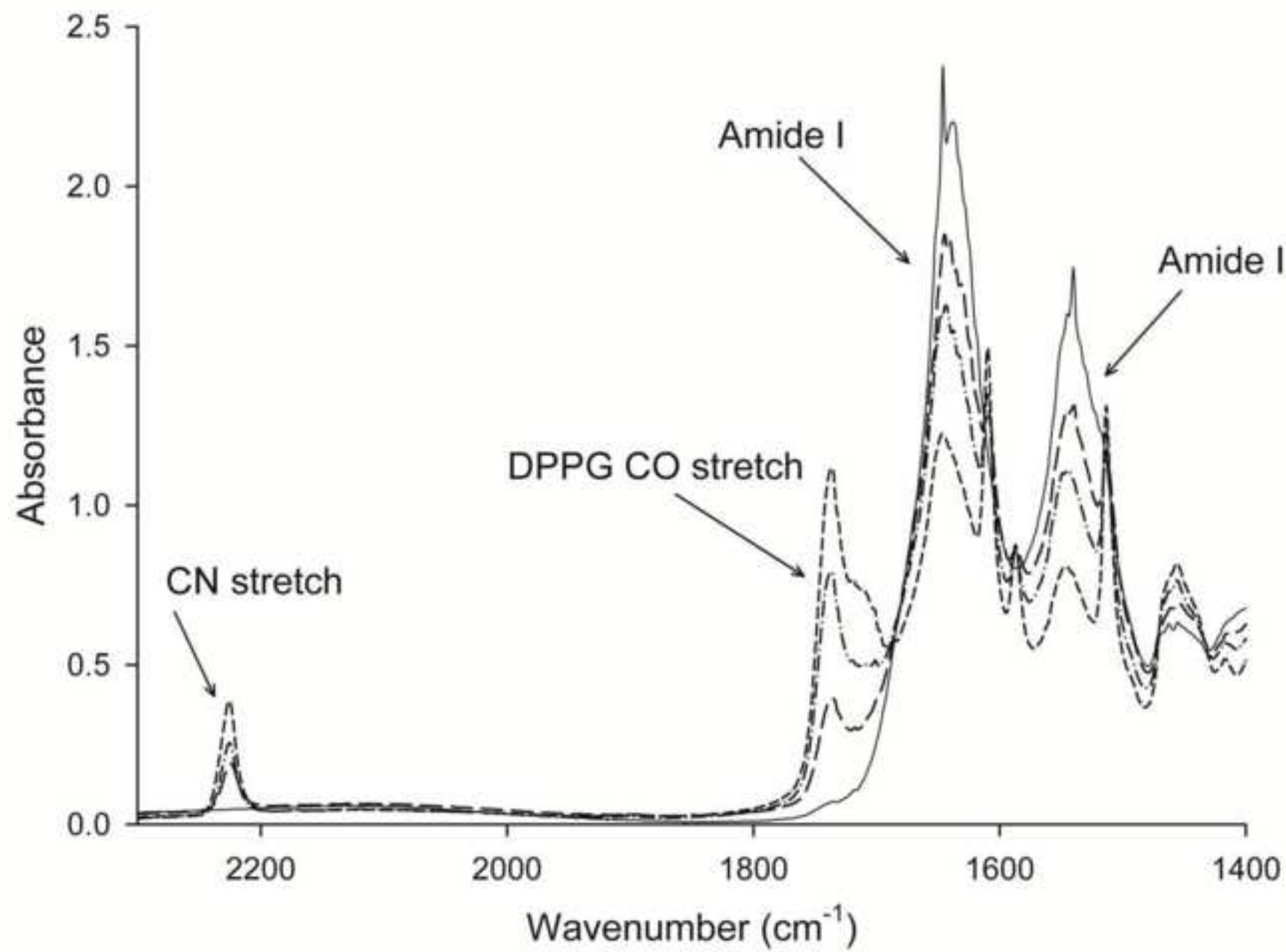
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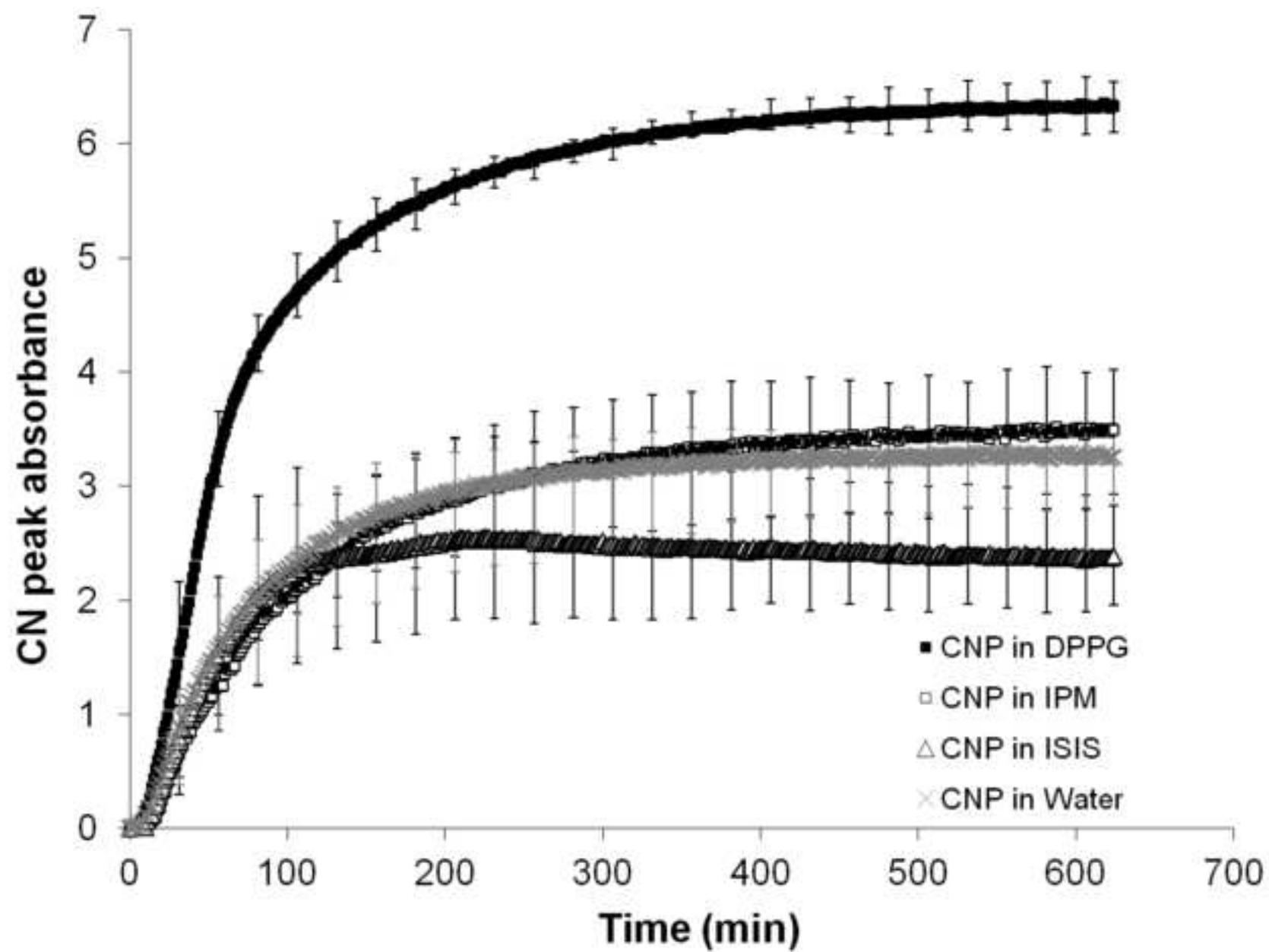
Table 1. The solubility of CNP in each solvent, the plateau absorbance of CNP in the stratum corneum and the calculated diffusion coefficient for CNP (mean values \pm the range, n=3). ND not determined.

Solvent	CNP solubility (mol/dm ³)	Plateau absorbance	CNP D/h ² (x 10 ⁻⁵ s ⁻¹)	Solvent D/h ² (x 10 ⁻⁵ s ⁻¹)
Dipropylene glycol perlargonate	1.185	6.31 (6.09-6.55)	9.4 (9.0-9.9)	17.7 (11.5-27.2)
Isopropyl myristate	0.681	3.51 (2.86 4.00)	7.3 (6.9-7.8)	21.1 (9.0-27.2)
Isostearyl isostearate	0.387	1.93 (1.55 – 2.53)	13.8 (11.7-15.8)	28.8 (27.2-30.4)
Water	0.123	3.26 (2.85 - 3.82)	10.3 (9.4 – 11.2)	ND

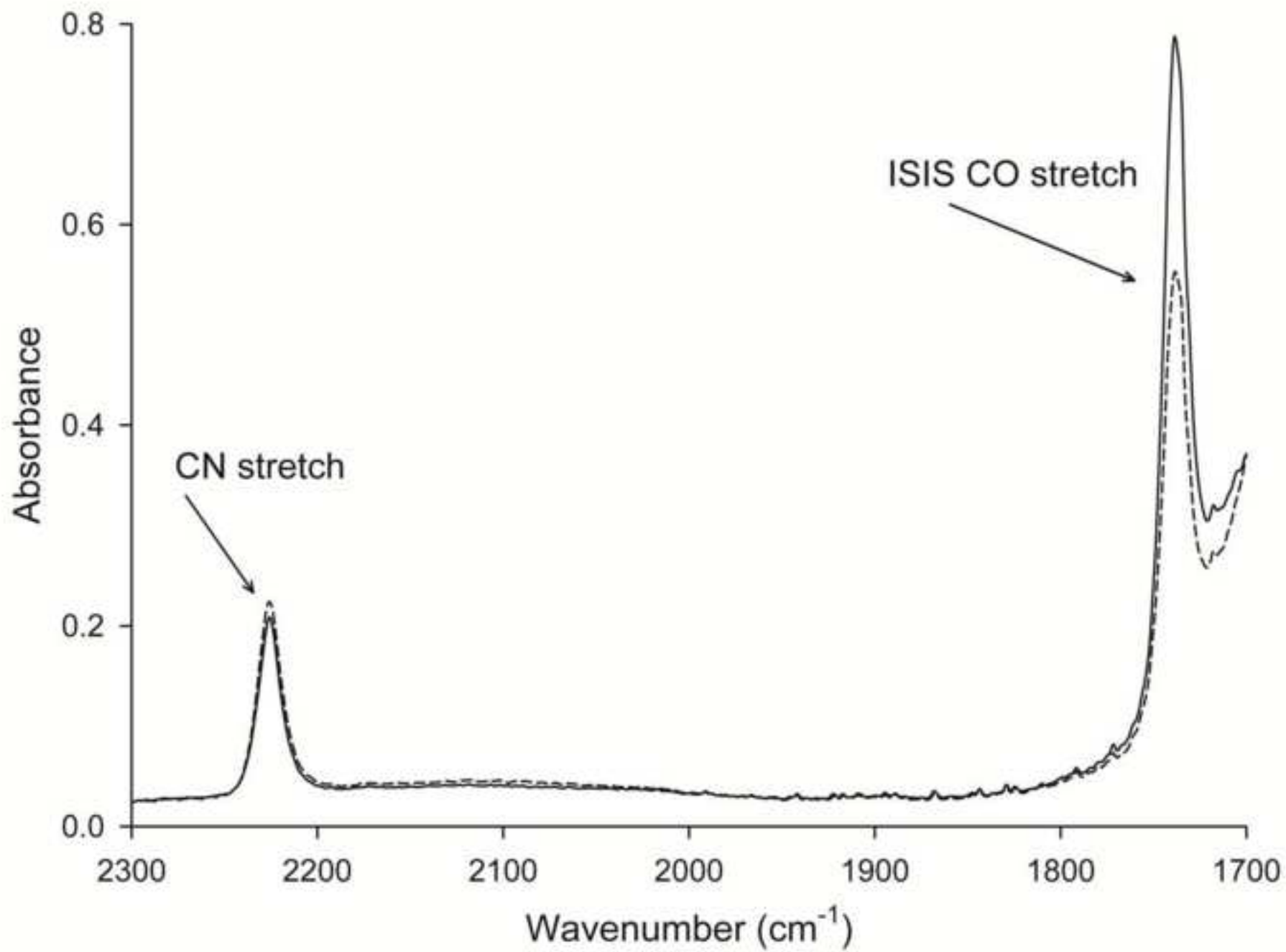
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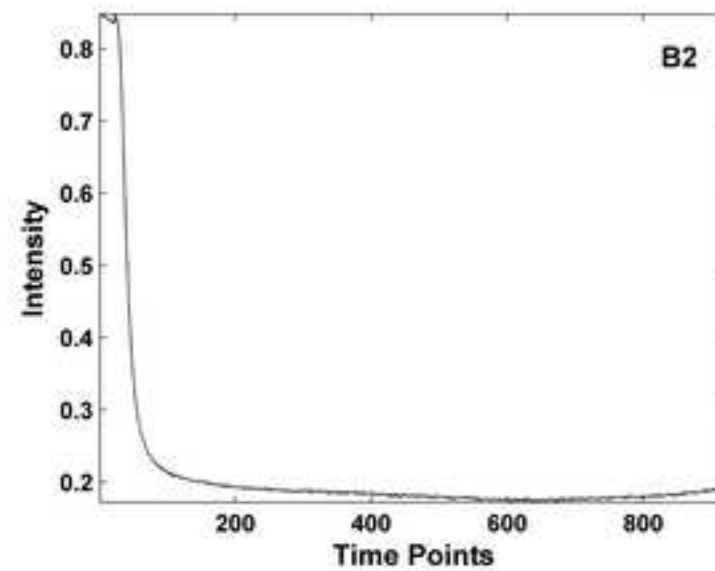
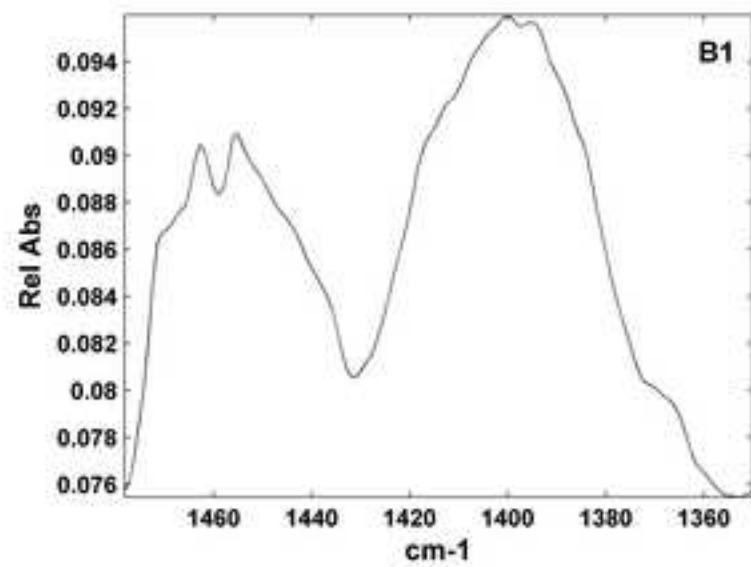
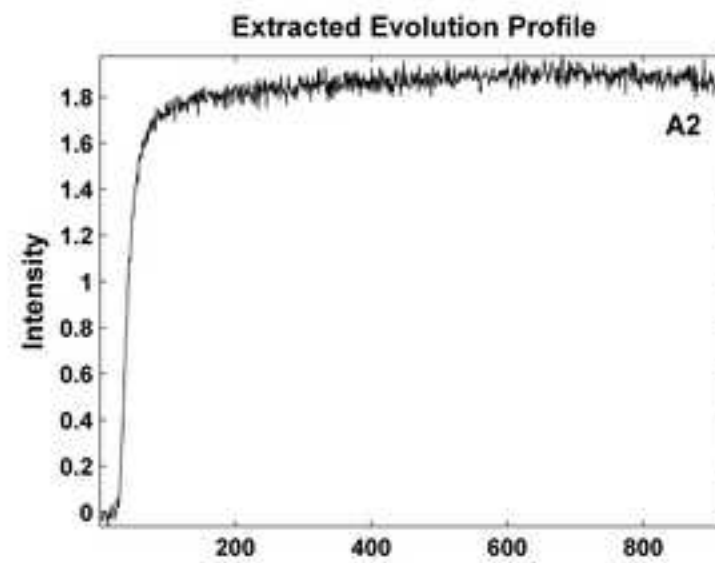
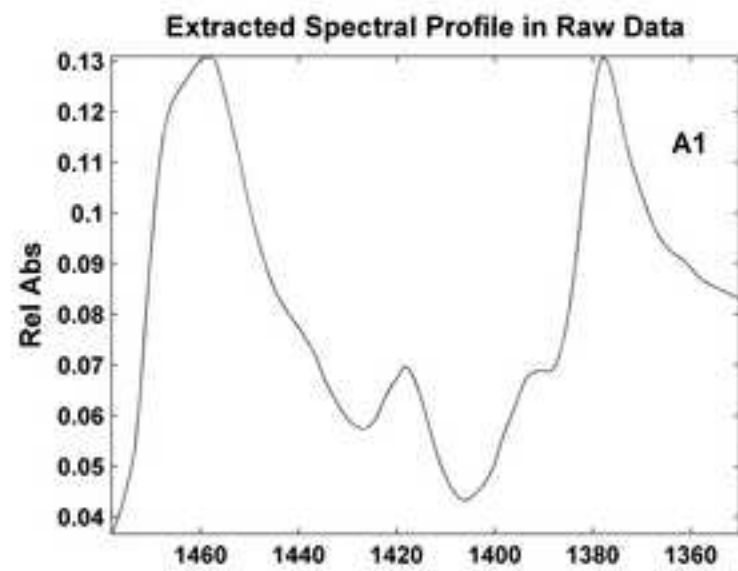


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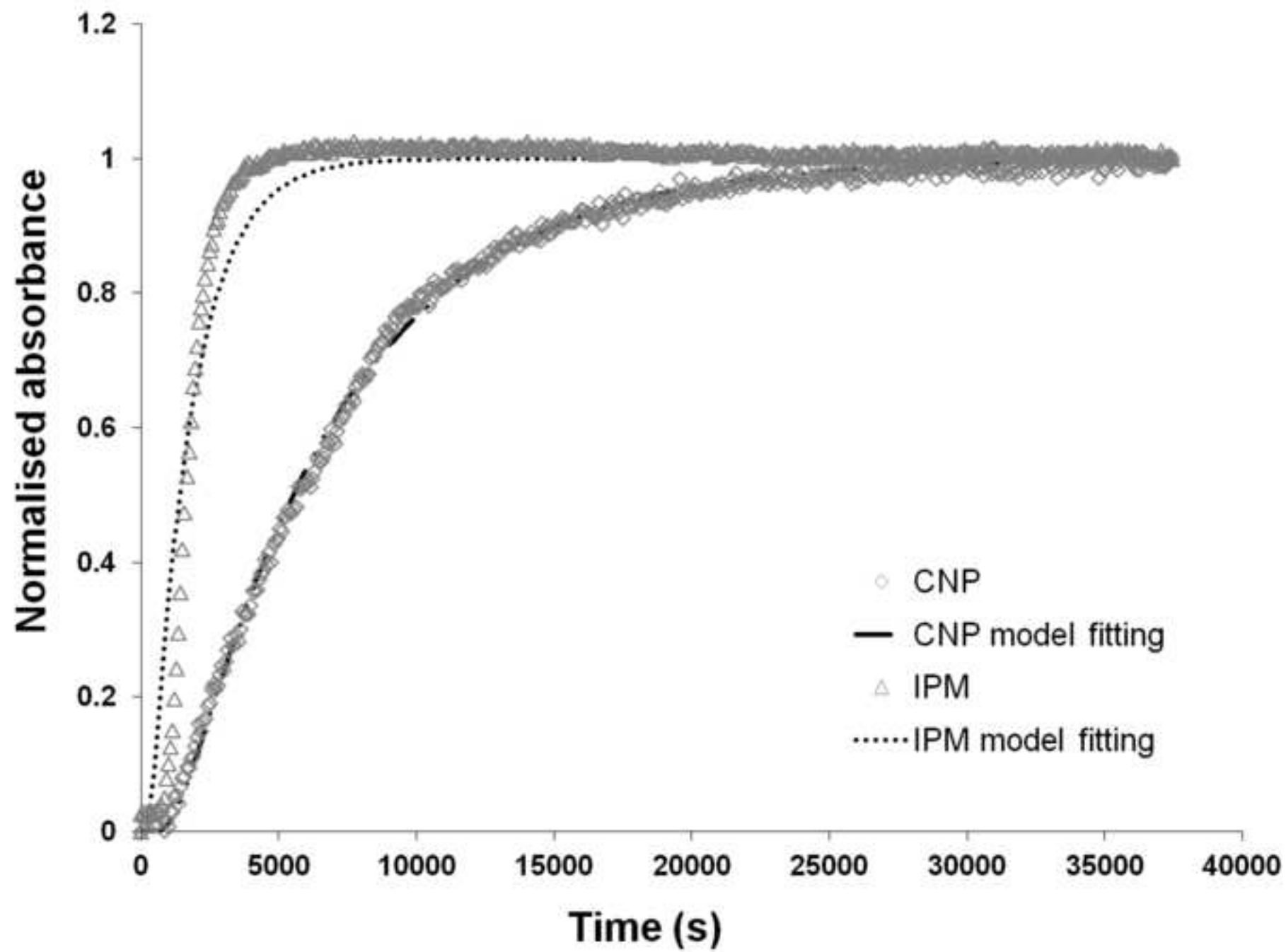


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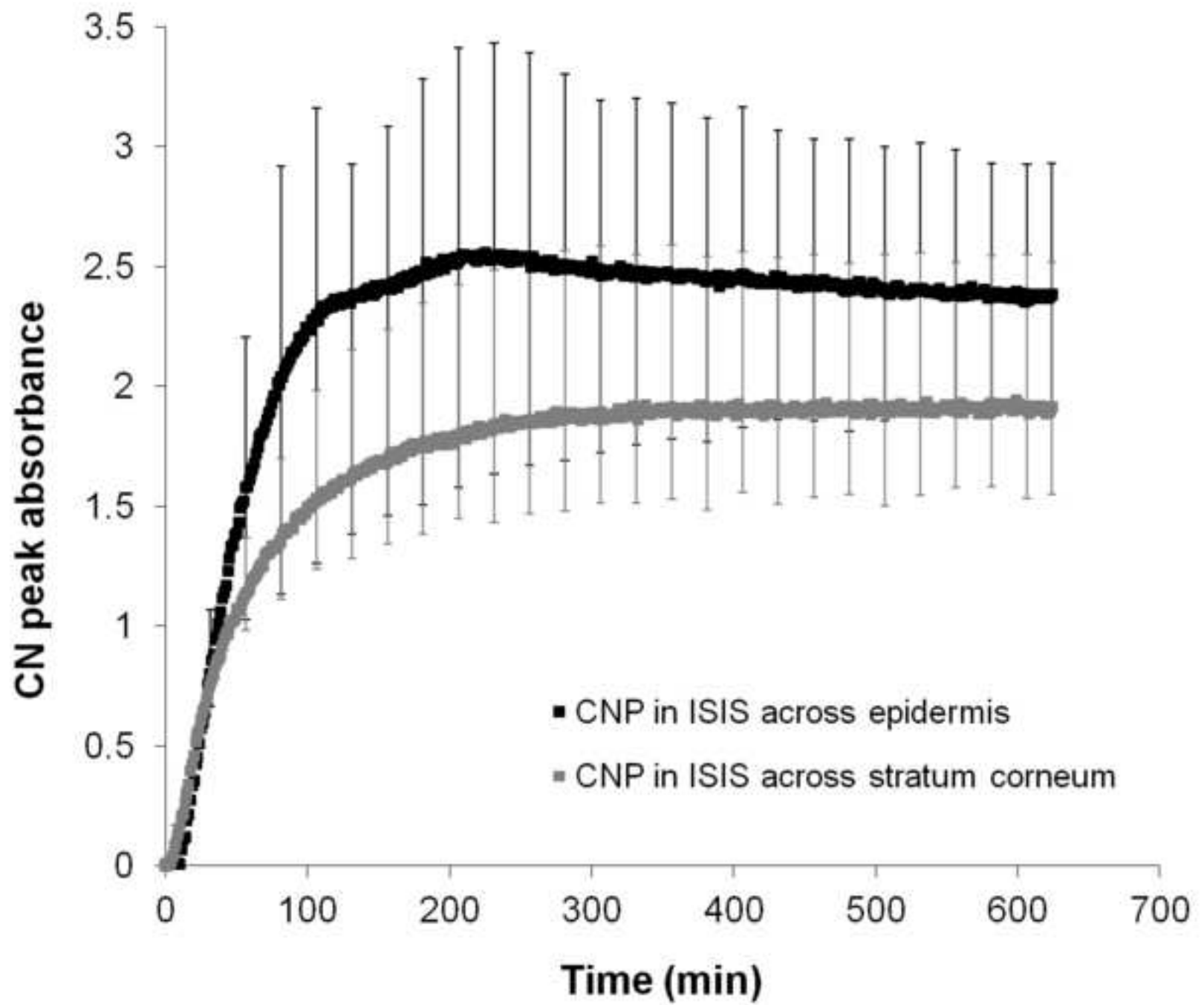


Figure 1. ATR-FTIR spectra, taken as a function of time of a CNP in DPPG across epidermis experiment.

Figure 2. Increase in CN peak absorbance with time of CNP in DPPG, IPM, ISIS and water across human epidermis. Error bars show the range (n=3).

Figure 3. Decrease in CN stretch absorbance with increasing ISIS penetration into skin. Dashed line spectrum taken at 280 minutes, solid line spectrum taken at 620 minutes

Figure 4. Deconvoluted spectrum of the DPPG signal (A1) from that of the stratum corneum (B1) in the $1478\text{-}1350\text{ cm}^{-1}$ spectral window. Plots on the right hand side (A2 and B2) show the corresponding evolution profiles with time.

Figure 5. Typical normalised absorbance plots showing the diffusion of CNP and IPM across human epidermis with associated model fittings.

Figure 6. Increase in CN peak absorbance with time of CNP in ISIS across human epidermis and human stratum corneum. Error bars show the range (n=3).