

Exploring the Cocrystal of Aspirin: A Pathway to Enhanced Pharmaceutical Efficacy

Ankita S. Patil¹, Sujata A. Jadhav^{1*}, Amol S. Shete², Swapnil D. Patil³

¹Department of Pharmacology, Krishna Institute of Medical Sciences, Krishna Vishwa Vidyapeeth (Deemed to be University), Karad-415539, Maharashtra, India

²Department of Pharmaceutics, Krishna Institute of Pharmacy, Krishna Vishwa Vidyapeeth (Deemed to be University), Karad-415539, Maharashtra, India

³Department of Pharmaceutics, Krishna Charitable Trust's Krishna College of Pharmacy, Karad-415539, Maharashtra, India, Email : drjadhavsujata@gmail.com

Received: 14.10.2024

Revised: 10.12.2024

Accepted: 30.12.2024

ABSTRACT

The development of cocrystals has emerged as a promising approach in pharmaceutical research to address challenges associated with the physicochemical properties of active pharmaceutical ingredients (APIs). This study focuses on exploring the cocrystal of aspirin, a widely used nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID), to enhance its pharmaceutical efficacy. Aspirin is known for its analgesic, antipyretic, and antiinflammatory properties, but its limited aqueous solubility and potential gastrointestinal side effects present significant limitations. By employing cocrystallization techniques, this research aims to improve the solubility, stability, and bioavailability of aspirin without altering its pharmacological properties. A thorough literature review was conducted to understand the mechanisms of cocrystal formation and identify suitable cofomers. Experimental studies were performed using solvent evaporation and grinding methods to synthesize aspirin cocrystals. The resulting cocrystals were characterized using techniques such as powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD), differential scanning calorimetry (DSC), and Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR). Preliminary findings demonstrate that aspirin cocrystals exhibit enhanced aqueous solubility and improved dissolution rates compared to pure aspirin. These improvements have the potential to reduce dosage requirements and minimize adverse effects, thereby increasing patient compliance and therapeutic outcomes. Furthermore, this study highlights the broader applicability of cocrystallization for other poorly soluble drugs, offering a cost-effective and scalable pathway for pharmaceutical advancements.

Keywords: Pharmaceutical development, Bioavailability, Solubility Enhancement, Cocrystals, Aspirin

INTRODUCTION

Aspirin, chemically known as acetylsalicylic acid, is one of the most widely used and researched drugs in medicine. First synthesized by Felix Hoffmann in 1897 at Bayer Pharmaceuticals, it has become a cornerstone of both over-the-counter and prescription drug therapies. Its significance lies in its versatile pharmacological properties, which include analgesic, anti-inflammatory, and antipyretic effects, alongside its role in cardiovascular disease prevention. The primary mechanism of action of aspirin is the inhibition of cyclooxygenase (COX) enzymes, particularly COX-1 and COX-2, which play a crucial role in the synthesis of prostaglandins and thromboxanes. This inhibition accounts for its ability to reduce pain, inflammation, and fever. At lower doses, aspirin irreversibly inhibits platelet aggregation by preventing thromboxane A₂ production, making it a key agent in preventing arterial thrombosis, heart attacks, and strokes. Beyond its traditional uses, aspirin is being explored for broader applications, including potential chemopreventive effects in colorectal cancer and other malignancies. Its wide availability and cost-effectiveness further enhance its global impact. However, aspirin's benefits are accompanied by risks, such as gastrointestinal irritation, ulcers, and bleeding disorders, which limit its usage in certain populations. Efforts to address these limitations, including formulations like enteric-coated tablets and drug-drug cocrystals, aim to optimize its efficacy while minimizing adverse effects. So, aspirin's unique combination of therapeutic benefits, long history of use, and potential for novel applications underscore its enduring importance in medicine. Continued research and innovation promise to expand its role, ensuring it remains a vital component of modern healthcare. Pharmaceutical cocrystals are solid crystalline materials formed by an active pharmaceutical ingredient (API) and a cofomer, linked via non-covalent interactions such as hydrogen bonding. They enhance key properties of

the API, such as solubility, bioavailability, stability, and mechanical behaviour, without altering its chemical identity. This is particularly beneficial for poorly watersoluble drugs, a common limitation in pharmaceutical development. Additionally, cocrystals can improve drug performance, reduce side effects, and enable the design of multi-functional APIs by combining synergistic components in a single crystal. Their versatility makes them a pivotal innovation in modern drug design.¹⁻⁷

Aspirin cocrystals are explored to address limitations associated with its conventional formulations, such as poor solubility in water, stability concerns, and gastrointestinal side effects. Cocrystals, formed by combining aspirin with suitable coformers via non-covalent interactions, can enhance solubility and dissolution rates, improving bioavailability and therapeutic effectiveness, aspirin cocrystals can improve physical stability, reducing degradation under environmental stresses like humidity. Cocrystals offer a means to mitigate side effects by pairing aspirin with gastroprotective coformers, potentially reducing gastric irritation. Moreover, they enable novel combinations with synergistic drugs, allowing dual therapeutic actions in a single formulation. For instance, aspirin cocrystals with cardiovascular coformers can target multiple pathways in disease management. Exploring these cocrystals not only enhances aspirin's efficacy but also supports personalized medicine by tailoring its properties to specific patient needs.^{8,9} This piece of writing aims to provide information on aspirin cocrystals by reporting different aspects collected through different scientific literatures for the scientific community or researchers working on the aspirin molecule.

Understanding cocrystals

Cocrystals are solid crystalline materials composed of two or more different compounds, typically an active pharmaceutical ingredient (API) and a coformer, which are held together by non-covalent interactions such as hydrogen bonds, van der Waals forces, and π - π interactions. Unlike salts, cocrystals do not alter the chemical identity of the API but instead modify its physical properties. This makes cocrystals an important area of research in pharmaceutical development, as they can significantly enhance the solubility, stability, and bioavailability of poorly soluble drugs without altering their pharmacological activity. One of the most attractive features of cocrystals is their ability to improve the physicochemical properties of drugs, particularly those with low aqueous solubility. By choosing appropriate coformers, the dissolution rate of the API can be enhanced, leading to better absorption in the gastrointestinal tract and improved therapeutic efficacy. In addition, cocrystals can improve the stability of drugs, protecting them from environmental factors like moisture or light that may degrade the drug in its pure form. Cocrystals also provide an opportunity for polymorphic control. Since cocrystals form different crystalline forms depending on the API and coformer combination, they can offer tailored drug delivery profiles. This versatility allows for the design of multi-functional formulations that can target various pathways, combining the therapeutic effects of two or more drugs in a single crystal. Furthermore, the use of cocrystals in pharmaceutical development offers a more sustainable approach compared to other methods like chemical modification, as they do not require altering the drug's molecular structure. Their potential to reduce side effects, enhance bioavailability, and combine synergistic drugs underscores their importance in modern drug formulation.¹⁰⁻¹⁵

Aspirin, or acetylsalicylic acid (ASA), has a long and significant history in medicine. The origins of aspirin trace back to ancient civilizations, where various forms of salicylic acid, derived from willow bark, were used to relieve pain and reduce fevers. The first scientific discovery of the therapeutic properties of salicylic acid dates to 1763, when Reverend Edward Stone noted the effectiveness of willow bark extract in treating ague (malaria). In the 19th century, chemists worked to isolate the active component, leading to the synthesis of salicylic acid and its derivatives. The breakthrough in the history of aspirin occurred in 1897 when Bayer chemist Felix Hoffmann, seeking a less irritating version of salicylic acid, synthesized acetylsalicylic acid by adding an acetyl group to salicylic acid. This modification made the compound less harsh on the stomach, and Bayer began marketing it under the name "Aspirin." Since its introduction, aspirin has become one of the most widely used drugs in the world. It is primarily known for its analgesic, anti-inflammatory, and antipyretic properties, making it an effective treatment for pain, fever, and inflammation. Beyond these basic applications, aspirin is also utilized in the prevention and treatment of cardiovascular diseases. It works by inhibiting cyclooxygenase (COX) enzymes, particularly COX-1, which is responsible for the production of thromboxane A₂, a substance that promotes platelet aggregation. This antiplatelet effect makes aspirin valuable in preventing heart attacks, strokes, and other thrombotic events. Additionally, lowdose aspirin is prescribed for its potential to reduce the risk of certain cancers, such as colorectal cancer. Despite its widespread use, aspirin faces several challenges that limit its efficacy and safety profile. One of the main issues is solubility. Aspirin has poor aqueous solubility, which hampers its absorption in the gastrointestinal tract. This limitation can lead to suboptimal bioavailability and delayed onset of therapeutic effects. The poor solubility also means that larger doses are often required to achieve the desired therapeutic concentration in the bloodstream, which can increase the risk of side effects. Another significant challenge is stability. Aspirin is chemically unstable in humid environments and can hydrolyze into salicylic acid, especially in the presence of moisture and heat, leading to a reduction in its potency. This sensitivity to environmental conditions limits its shelf life and requires careful storage conditions.

Bioavailability is also a concern. Because aspirin undergoes rapid metabolism in the liver, a large portion of the drug is metabolized before it reaches systemic circulation. This can reduce the drug's effectiveness and necessitate higher doses to maintain therapeutic concentrations. Moreover, variations in the metabolism of aspirin among different individuals can contribute to inconsistent therapeutic responses. Another well-known challenge associated with aspirin is its gastrointestinal side effects. As a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID), aspirin inhibits COX-1, which plays a role in protecting the stomach lining by promoting the production of protective prostaglandins. Long-term or high-dose aspirin use can disrupt this protective mechanism, leading to gastric irritation, ulcers, and even gastrointestinal bleeding. These adverse effects limit its use in patients with a history of gastrointestinal disorders. Given these challenges, there is a strong need for improved forms of aspirin that can enhance its therapeutic efficacy while minimizing side effects. The poor solubility and bioavailability of aspirin can be addressed through various formulation strategies, such as solid dispersions, lipid-based formulations, and drug-polymer complexes. These approaches can improve the dissolution rate and absorption of aspirin, thereby increasing its bioavailability and reducing the need for high doses. In addition to enhancing solubility and bioavailability, there is a critical need to reduce the gastrointestinal toxicity associated with aspirin use. Enteric-coated aspirin formulations are one solution that helps to mitigate stomach irritation by ensuring that the drug is released in the small intestine rather than the stomach. However, enteric coating is not always sufficient, and newer strategies, such as the development of aspirin cocrystals with gastroprotective cofomers, are being explored. These cocrystals can potentially reduce gastric irritation by providing a slower, more controlled release of aspirin. Moreover, aspirin cocrystals may also improve aspirin's stability, addressing its sensitivity to moisture and heat. By forming a stable crystalline structure, cocrystals can protect the API from degradation, extending its shelf life and improving its therapeutic consistency. Finally, personalized medicine strategies, such as combination therapies involving aspirin cocrystals, could offer tailored solutions for different patient populations. By combining aspirin with cofomers that have complementary therapeutic effects, these new formulations could target multiple disease pathways simultaneously, improving overall treatment outcomes. In conclusion, while aspirin remains a cornerstone of modern medicine, the challenges associated with its solubility, stability, bioavailability, and gastrointestinal side effects highlight the need for improved forms. Research into novel formulations, such as aspirin cocrystals, holds promise in overcoming these limitations, ensuring that aspirin remains an effective and safe option for patients worldwide.¹⁶⁻²²

Development of Aspirin Cocrystals

Aspirin (acetylsalicylic acid) is one of the most widely used non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), known for its analgesic, antipyretic, and anti-inflammatory properties. However, its physicochemical properties, such as limited solubility and stability issues, can hinder its bioavailability and therapeutic efficiency. The formation of cocrystals—a crystalline material composed of two or more components in a defined stoichiometric ratio held together by non-covalent interactions—has emerged as a promising strategy to address these limitations. This approach enables the optimization of aspirin's solubility, dissolution rate, stability, and mechanical properties without altering its pharmacological effects. Following parameters should be considered for designing and development of aspirin cocrystals.

Cofomer Selection The choice of cofomer is fundamental in cocrystal development. Cofomers are molecules that interact with the active pharmaceutical ingredient (API) through hydrogen bonding, π - π interactions, or van der Waals forces. Common cofomers include benzoic acid, nicotinamide, and saccharin, which are Generally Recognized As Safe (GRAS) by regulatory agencies. Cofomers should complement the functional groups of aspirin to facilitate efficient crystal lattice formation. Selecting an appropriate cofomer is critical for the successful development of aspirin cocrystals. The following factors can guide this process:

1. **Physicochemical compatibility:** Cofomers should have functional groups that can interact with aspirin through non-covalent interactions, such as hydrogen bonds. This ensures stable cocrystal formation.
 2. **Pharmaceutical acceptability:** Cofomers must be non-toxic, chemically stable, and pharmacologically inert. Regulatory guidelines often prefer cofomers listed as GRAS substances.
 3. **Thermodynamic and kinetic considerations:** The cofomer must favourably interact with aspirin to form a stable crystal lattice. Solubility, melting point, and hygroscopicity should also align with the API.
- Regulatory and intellectual property: The chosen cofomer should not introduce regulatory hurdles or infringe on existing patents, ensuring smooth development and commercialization.²³⁻²⁷

Synthesis Techniques

Various methods are used to synthesize aspirin cocrystals, each with unique advantages and limitations, as follows:

Solvent evaporation: In this widely used technique, aspirin and the cofomer are dissolved in a common solvent to form a supersaturated solution. Slow evaporation of the solvent at controlled temperatures leads to cocrystal formation. For instance, aspirin-benzoic acid cocrystals were synthesized using this method, demonstrating enhanced dissolution rates.

Mechanochemical grinding: This solvent-free method involves physically grinding aspirin and a coformer together using a mortar and pestle or a ball mill. Mechanical energy facilitates cocrystal formation.

Liquid-assisted grinding (LAG): A small amount of solvent is added during grinding to catalyze the process, improving efficiency and selectivity. This method is particularly effective for thermodynamically stable cocrystals

Slurry conversion: Aspirin and a coformer are suspended in a solvent where they exhibit limited solubility. Stirring the suspension promotes interaction between the components, forming cocrystals. This method is advantageous for cocrystals with high thermodynamic stability.

Antisolvent crystallization: In this technique, a solution of aspirin and coformer in a suitable solvent is added to a nonsolvent where both components have low solubility, resulting in cocrystal precipitation. This approach provides better control over crystal size and morphology.

Hot melt extrusion: This solvent-free, scalable method involves heating aspirin and a coformer to their melting points and mixing them thoroughly. Upon cooling, cocrystals form. Hot melt extrusion is gaining popularity for its industrial applicability.

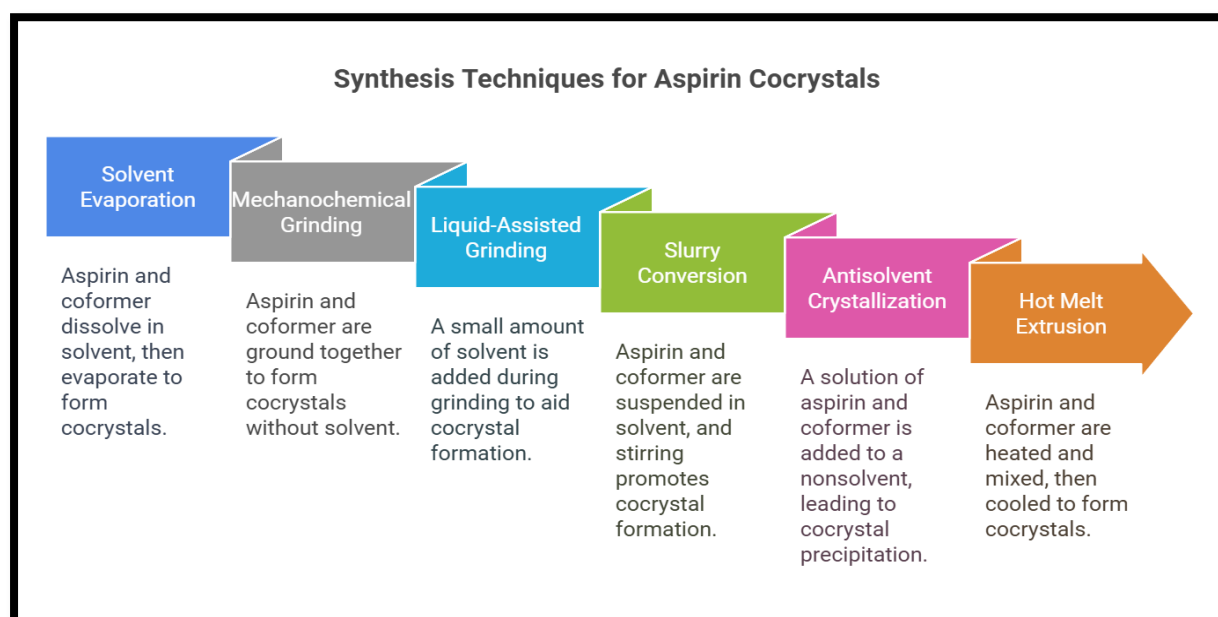


Fig.1 Methods of Preparation of Cocrystals

Criteria for Selecting Coformers

Selecting an appropriate coformer is critical for the successful development of aspirin cocrystals. The following criteria guide this process:

1. **Physicochemical Compatibility:** Coformers should have functional groups that can interact with aspirin through non-covalent interactions, such as hydrogen bonds. This ensures stable cocrystal formation.
2. **Pharmaceutical Acceptability:** Coformers must be non-toxic, chemically stable, and pharmacologically inert. Regulatory guidelines often prefer coformers listed as GRAS substances.
3. **Thermodynamic and Kinetic Considerations:** The coformer must favourably interact with aspirin to form a stable crystal lattice. Solubility, melting point, and hygroscopicity should also align with the API.
4. **Regulatory and Intellectual Property:** The chosen coformer should not introduce regulatory hurdles or infringe on existing patents, ensuring smooth development and commercialization.²³⁻²⁷

Improved pharmaceutical properties of cocrystallization on Aspirin

Improved Pharmaceutical Properties of Aspirin Cocrystals The process of cocrystallization offers significant improvements in the pharmaceutical properties of aspirin, addressing key limitations like poor solubility, low bioavailability, and gastrointestinal irritation. One of the primary benefits of cocrystallization is the enhancement of aspirin's solubility. By forming cocrystals with coformers like caffeine or urea, the solubility and dissolution rates of aspirin can be substantially improved. This leads to faster absorption and quicker therapeutic effects. Research has shown that aspirin cocrystals exhibit significantly enhanced dissolution profiles compared to pure aspirin. Aspirin is prone to degradation, especially under humid conditions. Cocrystallization can protect aspirin from moisture and other environmental factors, thereby improving its stability. The new crystalline form created through cocrystallization can provide a more stable and robust structure, ensuring prolonged shelf-life. The improved solubility of aspirin cocrystals directly enhances its

bioavailability. With faster dissolution and absorption, aspirin cocrystals can achieve higher plasma concentrations in a shorter amount of time, improving their therapeutic effectiveness. By improving solubility and controlling the drug's release, aspirin cocrystals can reduce gastrointestinal irritation, a common side effect associated with aspirin use. This results in better patient tolerability and increased compliance with long-term therapy.²⁸⁻³¹

Examples of Aspirin Cocrystals Reported in Research

Aspirin cocrystals synthesized using solvent evaporation have demonstrated improved solubility and dissolution rates. Studies highlighted enhanced bioavailability, making it a promising formulation for therapeutic applications.²⁷ Theophylline, a bronchodilator, was combined with aspirin to form a drug-drug cocrystal via liquid-assisted grinding. This cocrystal demonstrated a modified release profile, indicating potential for dual-action therapies.³² Using slurry conversion, researchers developed an aspirin-saccharin cocrystal with improved mechanical properties and dissolution rates. Saccharin, a sweetener, also enhanced patient compliance.²³ The aspirin-caffeine cocrystal, developed to enhance solubility and dissolution rates, demonstrates improved pharmacokinetics for faster therapeutic action. This cocrystal is particularly beneficial in formulations for pain relief and fatigue management.³³⁻³⁴ The aspirin-phenylalanine cocrystal improves aspirin's solubility and dissolution rate while leveraging phenylalanine's biocompatibility. This cocrystal offers potential for enhanced bioavailability and reduced gastrointestinal side effects.³⁵ The aspirin-2,3-dihydroxybenzoic acid cocrystal enhances aspirin's solubility and stability through robust hydrogen bonding, improving its dissolution rate and bioavailability for better therapeutic performance.³⁶ The aspirin-succinic acid cocrystal enhances the solubility and stability of aspirin, improving its dissolution rate and reducing potential gastrointestinal side effects, making it a promising candidate for optimized drug delivery systems.³⁷ The aspirin-malic acid cocrystal enhances aspirin's solubility and dissolution rate while offering improved stability. Malic acid's compatibility ensures efficient hydrogen bonding, making this cocrystal a potential candidate for better bioavailability.³⁸ The aspirinhydroxypropyl- β -cyclodextrin complex improves aspirin's solubility, stability, and bioavailability by forming inclusion complexes, enhancing therapeutic efficacy while reducing gastric irritation. This complex is promising for advanced drug delivery formulations.³⁹⁻⁴⁰ The aspirin-valine cocrystal enhances aspirin's solubility and dissolution rate through hydrogen bonding interactions with valine. This cocrystal shows potential for improved bioavailability and reduced side effects in therapeutic applications.⁴¹ The aspirin-meloxicam cocrystal enhances the solubility and dissolution rates of both drugs, offering potential for combined anti-inflammatory and analgesic effects, with improved pharmacokinetic profiles compared to individual components.⁴² The aspirin-ligustrazine cocrystal improves the solubility and bioavailability of aspirin, with ligustrazine enhancing its anti-inflammatory and analgesic effects. This cocrystal offers potential for synergistic therapeutic applications.⁴³

The aspirin-sildenafil cocrystal improves the solubility and dissolution rate of both drugs, potentially enhancing their bioavailability and therapeutic efficacy for cardiovascular and erectile dysfunction treatments.⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶ The aspirin-apremilast cocrystal enhances the solubility and dissolution rate of both drugs, potentially improving their bioavailability and therapeutic efficacy for treating inflammatory conditions like psoriasis and psoriatic arthritis.⁴⁷ The aspirin-4,4-bipyridine cocrystal demonstrates enhanced solubility and stability compared to pure aspirin. The 4,4-bipyridine coformer facilitates stronger intermolecular interactions, improving the drug's dissolution and bioavailability.^{48,49}

Table 1: Some Examples of reported cocrystals of Aspirin

| Drug | Coformer used |
|---------|--------------------------------------|
| Aspirin | Theophylline |
| | Saccharin |
| | Caffeine |
| | Phenylalanine |
| | 2,3-dihydroxybenzoic acid |
| | Succinic acid |
| | Malic acid |
| | hydroxypropyl- β -cyclodextrin |
| | Valine |
| | Ligustrazine |
| | meloxicam |
| | Sildenafil |
| | apremilast |
| | 4,4-bipyridine |

Characterization Techniques for Aspirin Cocrystals

The development of aspirin cocrystals involves selecting a suitable coformer and ensuring that the formed cocrystal exhibits enhanced properties such as improved solubility, stability, and bioavailability. To confirm the formation and assess the properties of aspirin cocrystals, various analytical techniques are employed. These methods provide insights into the molecular structure, composition, thermal stability, and dissolution behavior of the cocrystal. The most commonly used techniques include X-ray diffraction (XRD), thermal analysis, and spectroscopy. X-ray diffraction (XRD) is one of the most powerful tools for determining the crystalline structure of materials, including cocrystals. XRD analysis is crucial in confirming the formation of aspirin cocrystals by providing detailed information on the arrangement of molecules in the crystal lattice. When aspirin is combined with a coformer, the XRD pattern of the cocrystal typically differs from that of the individual components, reflecting the formation of a new, distinct crystalline phase. For example, in the case of aspirin-urea cocrystals, the XRD pattern shows characteristic peaks that are absent in the pure aspirin or urea crystals, confirming the formation of a new compound. The presence of new peaks in the XRD spectrum allows for the identification of cocrystal formation, as well as an understanding of its crystallinity, purity, and structure. This method is essential in verifying the presence of new solid forms that are distinct from the physical mixture of aspirin and the coformer. Thermal analysis, particularly Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC) and Thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA), is another important tool used to study the thermal behaviour of aspirin cocrystals. DSC measures the heat flow into or out of a sample as a function of temperature, providing information about melting points, phase transitions, and crystallization. In cocrystals, the DSC thermogram typically shows a single, distinct melting point that is different from the melting points of the individual components, indicating that a new solid form has been created. For instance, in the aspirin-caffeine cocrystal, the DSC analysis reveals a melting point that is lower than that of pure aspirin, confirming the successful formation of the cocrystal. TGA, on the other hand, measures weight loss as a function of temperature and can provide information on the stability and decomposition behaviour of cocrystals. TGA can also reveal the presence of volatile solvents or impurities, ensuring the purity of the cocrystal. Spectroscopic techniques, such as Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) and Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) spectroscopy, are valuable in confirming the molecular interactions within aspirin cocrystals. FTIR spectroscopy provides information about the functional groups in the cocrystal and can be used to detect the characteristic vibrations of bonds between aspirin and the coformer. For example, FTIR can identify changes in the carbonyl stretch of the aspirin molecule, indicating the formation of hydrogen bonds between aspirin and the coformer. In the case of aspirin-nicotinamide cocrystals, FTIR spectra show distinct shifts in the functional group peaks, confirming the formation of the cocrystal. NMR spectroscopy, both proton (^1H) and carbon-13 (^{13}C), can also be used to study the molecular interactions in cocrystals. NMR provides detailed information about the environment of specific nuclei, allowing the identification of proton or carbon signals that change upon cocrystal formation, thus confirming the interactions between aspirin and the coformer. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) is used to study the surface morphology and particle size distribution of aspirin cocrystals. The morphology of cocrystals can be significantly different from the individual components, with unique shapes and sizes that result from the crystallization process. SEM images of aspirin cocrystals typically show smooth, well-defined crystals, which can be used to further confirm the successful formation of a new crystalline phase.⁵⁰⁻⁵⁴

Applications and Potential Benefits of Aspirin Cocrystals

Applications and Potential Benefits of Aspirin Cocrystals Aspirin, a widely used drug for pain relief, inflammation reduction, and cardiovascular protection, faces challenges such as poor solubility, low bioavailability, and gastrointestinal irritation. The development of aspirin cocrystals offers promising solutions to these issues, enhancing its effectiveness and patient experience. Aspirin cocrystals, formed by combining aspirin with a coformer to create a new crystalline structure, hold significant potential in various therapeutic and commercial applications.

1. **Applications in Treating Conditions Requiring Rapid Onset or Enhanced Delivery** One of the primary applications of aspirin cocrystals is in conditions that require rapid onset or enhanced delivery of the drug. Cocrystallization improves the solubility and dissolution rate of aspirin, leading to faster absorption in the gastrointestinal tract. This is especially beneficial for treating acute conditions like pain, fever, and inflammation, where a rapid therapeutic response is desired. For example, aspirin-caffeine cocrystals are particularly useful in analgesia. Caffeine, a known stimulant, can enhance the analgesic effect of aspirin by increasing its absorption rate, resulting in quicker pain relief. The cocrystal's improved solubility means that a patient can experience faster relief from pain compared to standard aspirin formulations. Similarly, in cardiovascular applications, aspirin's efficacy in preventing heart attacks or strokes could be enhanced by faster absorption, offering more immediate therapeutic effects.

2. **Economic and Commercial Potential in the Pharmaceutical Market** Aspirin cocrystals present significant economic and commercial potential in the pharmaceutical market. One of the primary advantages is the potential to improve the bioavailability of aspirin, which would result in higher efficacy at lower doses. This could reduce the need for higher dosages or more frequent administration, leading to cost savings in both drug

production and patient care. Furthermore, the improvement in solubility and dissolution rates can reduce the variability in drug absorption, ensuring more predictable therapeutic outcomes. Additionally, cocrystal formulations offer pharmaceutical companies a novel way to extend the patent life of existing drugs, which is particularly important for off-patent drugs like aspirin. By modifying the original formulation into a cocrystal, companies can potentially gain market exclusivity and differentiate their product from generic versions. This offers both commercial and regulatory advantages.

3. Patient-Centric Benefits

Aspirin cocrystals provide several patient-centric benefits, including improved tolerability, reduced side effects, and ease of use. The enhanced solubility and controlled release profiles of cocrystals can help reduce gastrointestinal irritation, a common side effect of aspirin. This is particularly important for patients requiring long-term aspirin therapy, such as those with cardiovascular conditions, who may be more prone to gastric discomfort and ulcers. Furthermore, cocrystals can reduce the frequency of administration by providing a more sustained release of aspirin. This is beneficial for patients who may have difficulty adhering to a medication regimen, as fewer doses throughout the day can improve compliance. For instance, aspirin cocrystals with slower dissolution profiles may be developed for extended-release formulations, providing continuous therapeutic action without the need for frequent dosing. In terms of patient acceptance, the improved formulation of aspirin as a cocrystal can lead to better overall treatment outcomes, as patients are more likely to adhere to therapies that are less prone to side effects and offer convenient dosing schedules. The potential for reduced gastrointestinal irritation and enhanced absorption also means that aspirin cocrystals may be a more tolerable option for a wider range of patients, improving their quality of life.⁵⁵⁻⁶¹

Challenges and Limitations in the Development of Aspirin Cocrystals

Challenges and Limitations in the Development of Aspirin Cocrystals While the development of aspirin cocrystals holds significant promise for overcoming the drug's limitations in solubility, bioavailability, and gastrointestinal irritation, several challenges and limitations remain. These challenges can affect the large-scale production of cocrystals, regulatory approval, and stability. Despite the potential advantages of aspirin cocrystals, these obstacles must be addressed for their widespread adoption in the pharmaceutical market. One of the primary challenges in the development of aspirin cocrystals is scaling up the synthesis process from laboratory to industrial production. While methods such as solvent evaporation and mechanochemical grinding are effective on a small scale, these processes often face difficulties when applied to larger quantities needed for commercial production. Ensuring that the cocrystal retains its purity, consistency, and stability in large batches can be challenging due to variations in temperature, humidity, and mixing efficiency during the synthesis process. Moreover, the coformer used in aspirin cocrystals must be selected carefully to ensure that it is readily available in sufficient quantities and is economically viable for industrial-scale production. Some cofomers may be expensive or difficult to synthesize, which can add significant cost to the production process. Additionally, the choice of solvent, temperature, and other reaction parameters must be optimized to ensure reproducibility and scalability. As a result, the lack of standardized, scalable production techniques can hinder the large-scale commercial production of aspirin cocrystals. Another significant challenge in the development of aspirin cocrystals lies in navigating the regulatory landscape. In many regions, regulatory agencies such as the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) or the European Medicines Agency (EMA) have strict guidelines for the approval and classification of new pharmaceutical products. Although cocrystals are considered to be a promising approach for improving drug properties, they are still a relatively new concept in drug formulation, and the regulatory framework surrounding them is not fully developed. Aspirin cocrystals must undergo rigorous evaluation to demonstrate that they are safe and effective for human use. Regulatory agencies often require extensive preclinical and clinical data to assess the stability, dissolution profiles, and pharmacokinetic behaviour of the cocrystals. This can result in delays in obtaining approval for new cocrystal formulations, as the regulatory agencies may require additional data on the cocrystal's properties, interactions with the coformer, and manufacturing processes. Furthermore, the classification of cocrystals remains a gray area in many regulatory frameworks. In some cases, cocrystals may be classified as new chemical entities (NCEs), requiring more extensive clinical trials and testing, while in other cases, they may be classified as drug combinations, which may not require as much testing. This lack of clarity can create uncertainty and delays in getting aspirin cocrystal products to market. Stability is a critical concern when developing aspirin cocrystals. While the formation of cocrystals often improves solubility, the long-term stability of the cocrystal can be affected by environmental factors such as temperature, humidity, and light exposure. Some cocrystals may be prone to degradation, particularly if they are hygroscopic or sensitive to moisture, which can lead to the breakdown of the crystalline structure and loss of desired pharmaceutical properties. Moreover, the compatibility of the cocrystal with other excipients in the final dosage form must be thoroughly evaluated. Excipients such as binders, fillers, and stabilizers used in tablet or capsule formulations can interact with the cocrystal and affect its stability or dissolution profile. These interactions could potentially alter the therapeutic effect of the drug, posing challenges in formulating a stable and effective dosage form. Additionally, the cocrystal's stability over time must be

assessed under various conditions, including during storage and transportation, to ensure that the product maintains its quality and therapeutic efficacy. Regulatory agencies typically require long-term stability studies to demonstrate that the cocrystal will remain effective throughout its shelf life. If the cocrystal is prone to degradation or instability, it may not be approved for use in commercial formulations. Beyond production, regulatory, and stability concerns, other limitations of aspirin cocrystals include potential variability in patient responses. Although cocrystals are designed to enhance solubility and bioavailability, the effects of coformers on drug absorption can be unpredictable in some cases. The interaction between aspirin and coformers could vary depending on individual patient factors such as age, weight, genetic makeup, and pre-existing conditions, which could impact the efficacy and safety of cocrystal-based formulations. Additionally, the selection of coformers must be made carefully to ensure that the coformer is safe, non-toxic, and compatible with aspirin. The possibility of unforeseen adverse effects, such as allergic reactions or gastrointestinal issues, must be taken into consideration during the development of cocrystal formulations.⁶²⁻⁶⁷

Future Perspectives

Aspirin cocrystals hold significant promise in enhancing the therapeutic efficacy of aspirin by improving solubility, bioavailability, and reducing side effects. While considerable progress has been made, there is still vast potential for further research in this field. Future developments could significantly enhance the clinical utility of aspirin in various therapeutic areas, including pain management, cardiovascular health, and inflammatory diseases. The research surrounding aspirin cocrystals is still in its early stages, and there remains substantial scope for further exploration. Future studies could focus on optimizing the cocrystallization process to enhance the scalability and reproducibility of the synthesis methods. Techniques such as solvent evaporation, co-grinding, and melt crystallization could be refined to improve the quality and yield of cocrystals. Moreover, advanced characterization methods can be employed to understand the molecular interactions between aspirin and coformers in more detail, which could guide the selection of the most suitable coformers for specific therapeutic applications. Additionally, the long-term stability and in vivo performance of aspirin cocrystals need further investigation. Stability studies under various environmental conditions, such as temperature and humidity, would provide insight into the shelf-life and robustness of cocrystals in pharmaceutical formulations. Pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic studies will also be necessary to confirm the enhanced absorption and efficacy of aspirin cocrystals in different patient populations. The potential for combining aspirin with novel coformers opens up exciting possibilities for multifunctional therapies. In addition to traditional coformers like caffeine and urea, researchers can explore new, bioactive coformers that could provide synergistic effects. For example, coformers with antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, or antimicrobial properties could be combined with aspirin to create cocrystals that not only enhance aspirin's efficacy but also add additional therapeutic benefits. This approach could be particularly beneficial for treating complex diseases where multiple therapeutic effects are required, such as cardiovascular diseases, cancer, and neurodegenerative disorders. Such multifunctional aspirin cocrystals could offer a combination of pain relief, anti-inflammatory action, and antioxidant effects, addressing a wider range of symptoms with a single formulation. The ability to target multiple pathways simultaneously would improve treatment outcomes and reduce the need for polypharmacy, which often leads to side effects and poor patient compliance. The success of aspirin cocrystals could have broader implications for the development of cocrystals with other pharmaceutical compounds. Cocrystallization is a versatile technique that can be applied to a wide range of drugs with poor solubility or bioavailability. For instance, poorly soluble drugs like ibuprofen, simvastatin, and many anticancer agents could benefit from cocrystallization to improve their dissolution rates and therapeutic efficacy. As the knowledge base surrounding cocrystals expands, the pharmaceutical industry could adopt this strategy for a variety of drugs, making cocrystals a mainstream approach in drug formulation. The ability to enhance drug solubility, stability, and controlled release will allow for better treatment outcomes, especially for chronic diseases, and could ultimately lead to more personalized medicine, tailored to individual patient needs.⁶⁸⁻⁷⁰

CONCLUSION

Cocrystals represent a significant advancement in pharmaceutical science, offering a promising solution to many of the challenges associated with traditional drug formulations. By improving the solubility, bioavailability, and stability of active pharmaceutical ingredients (APIs), cocrystals can enhance the overall efficacy of medications. This approach has the potential to improve patient outcomes by optimizing drug delivery, reducing side effects, and enabling more controlled release profiles. Aspirin cocrystals, in particular, hold great promise as a pathway to better therapeutic outcomes. Aspirin, a widely used anti-inflammatory and analgesic, suffers from challenges such as poor solubility and gastrointestinal irritation. The development of aspirin cocrystals can address these issues by improving its dissolution rates and providing more efficient absorption. Additionally, combining aspirin with coformers that enhance its therapeutic properties may lead to more multifunctional therapies, targeting multiple disease mechanisms simultaneously. As a result, aspirin cocrystals could offer enhanced pain relief, cardiovascular protection, and anti-inflammatory effects, improving patient compliance and quality of

life. Despite the promising potential of aspirin cocrystals, there is a need for continued research and development in this area. Future studies should focus on optimizing cocrystal synthesis methods, exploring novel coformers, and assessing the long-term stability and clinical effectiveness of these formulations. With further investigation, aspirin cocrystals could play a significant role in the next generation of drug formulations, offering a new and improved therapeutic option for patients worldwide.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors are thankful to the authorities of their institution for providing suggestions on improving review article.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest existed.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All the authors contributed significantly to this manuscript, participated in reviewing/editing and approved the final draft for publication. The research profile of the authors can be verified from their ORCID ids, given below:

A.S. Patil <https://orcid.org/0009-0002-3802-2283>

S. A. Jadhav <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9470-5938>

A.S. Shete <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0350-432X>

REFERENCES

1. C. Patrono, C. Baigent, Nature reviews Cardiology, 16(11), 675–686 (2019), 10.1038/s41569-019-0225-y
2. D. Soodi, J.J. VanWormer, S.H. Rezkalla, Clinical medicine & research, 18(2–3), 89–94 (2020), 10.3121/cmr.2020.1548
3. J.J. Taliencio, G. Nakhoul, A. Mehdi, et al., Kidney Medicine, 4(11), 100547 (2022), 10.1016/j.xkme.2022.100547
4. E. Merzon, I. Green, S. Vinker, et al., The FEBS Journal, 288(17), 5179–5189 (2021), 10.1111/febs.15784
5. P.M. Rothwell, F.G.R. Fowkes, J.F.F. Belch, H. Ogawa, C.P. Warlow, T.W. Meade Lancet, 377, 31–41 (2011), 10.1016/S0140-6736(10)62110-1
6. E.L. Paul, H.H. Tung, M. Midler, Powder Technology, 150(2), 133–143 (2005), 10.1016/j.powtec.2004.11.040
7. D. Douroumis, S.A. Ross, A. Nokhodchi Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 117, 178–195 (2017), 10.1016/j.addr.2017.07.008
8. A.V. Trask, Molecular Pharmaceutics, 4(3), 301–309 (2007), 10.1021/mp070001z
9. N. Shan, M.J. Zaworotko, Drug Discovery Today, 13(9–10), 440–446 (2008), 10.1016/j.drudis.2008.03.004
10. G.R. Desiraju, CrystEngComm, 5(82), 466 (2003), 10.1039/b313552g
11. J.D. Dunitz, CrystEngComm, 5(91), 506 (2003), 10.1039/b315687g
12. A.D. Bond, CrystEngComm, 9(9), 833 (2007), 10.1039/b708112j
13. S. Aitipamula, G. Bolla, Molecular Pharmaceutics, 21(7), 3121–3143 (2024), 10.1021/acs.molpharmaceut.4c00289
14. O. Almarsson, M.J. Zaworotko, Chemical Communications (Cambridge, England), 35(17), 1889–1896 (2004), 1889:96. 10.1039/b402150a
15. P. Vishweshwar, J.A. McMahon, J.A. Bis, M.J. Zaworotko, Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences, 95(3), 499–516 (2006), 10.1002/jps.20578
16. I. Raber, C. P. McCarthy, M. Vaduganathan et al., Lancet, 393(10186), 2155–2167 (2019), 10.1016/S0140-6736
17. P.S. Sanmuganathan, P. Ghahramani, P.R. Jackson, E.J. Wallis, L.E. Ramsay, Heart (British Cardiac Society), 85(3), 265–271 (2001), 10.1136/heart.85.3.265
18. Y. Zhuo, Y.G. Zhao, Y. Zhang, Molecules (Basel, Switzerland), 29(20), 4854 (2024), 10.3390/molecules29204854
19. Y. Liu, Y. Liang, J. Yuhong, Drug Design, Development and Therapy, 18, 1469–1495 (2024), 10.2147/DDDT.S447496
20. G. He, C. Jacob, L. Guo, P.S. Chow, Tan R.B.H., The Journal of Physical Chemistry. B, 112(32), 9890–9895 (2008), 10.1021/jp803019m
21. A.V. Yadav, A.S. Shete, A.P. Dabke, P. V. Kulkarni, S. S. Sakhare, Indian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences, 71(4), 359–370 (2009), 10.4103/0250-474X.57283
22. H. Alhamdany, M. Alfahad, Journal of Advanced Pharmacy Education and Research, 11(3), 20–24 (2021), 10.51847/4grmvlrpxb

23. M. Singh, H. Barua, V.G.S.S. Jyothi, et al., *Pharmaceutics*, 15(4), 1161(2023), 10.3390/pharmaceutics15041161
24. N. Schultheiss, A. Newman, *Crystal Growth & Design*, 9(6), 2950–2967(2009), 10.1021/cg900129f
25. M. Karimi-Jafari, L. Padrela, G.M. Walker, D.M. Croker, *Crystal Growth & Design*, 18(10), 6370–6387(2018), 10.1021/acs.cgd.8b00933
26. M.L. Cheney, D.R. Weyna, N. Shan, M. Hanna, L. Wojtas, M.J. Zaworotko, *Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, 100(6), 2172–2181(2011), 10.1002/jps.22434
27. B. Dutt, M. Choudhary, V. Budhwar, *Research Journal of Pharmacy and Technology*, 15(2), 768–772(2022), 10.52711/0974-360x.2022.00128
28. S. Kumar, A. Nanda, *Indian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, 79(6), 858–871(2017), 10.4172/pharmaceutical-sciences.1000302
29. A. Chettri, A. Subba, G.P. Singh, P.P. Bag, *The Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology*, 76(1), 1–12(2024), 10.1093/jpp/rgad097
30. S.V. Sastry, J.R. Nyshadham, J.A. Fix, *Pharmaceutical Science & Technology Today*, 3(4), 138–145(2000), 10.1016/s1461-5347(00)00247-9
31. S. Emami, M. Siahi-Shadbad, K. Adibkia, M. Barzegar-Jalali, *BioImpacts: BI*, 8(4), 305–320(2018), 10.15171/bi.2018.33
32. S. Darwish, J. Zeglinski, G.R. Krishna, et al. *Crystal Growth & Design*, 18(12), 7526–7532(2018), 10.1021/acs.cgd.8b01330
33. B.S. Sekhon, *Daru: Journal of Faculty of Pharmacy, Tehran University of Medical Sciences*, 20(1), 45(2012), 10.1186/2008-2231-20-45
34. A. Savale, R. Mogal, S. Talele, S. Deore, L. Borse, *Biosciences, Biotechnology Research Asia*, 20(4), 1195–1210(2023), 10.13005/bbra/3168
35. I. Nugrahani, M.A. Jessica, *Molecules (Basel, Switzerland)*, 26(11), 3279(2021), 10.3390/molecules26113279
36. S. Aitipamula, R. Banerjee, A.K. Bansal, et al., *Crystal Growth & Design*, 12(5), 2147–2152(2012), 10.1021/cg3002948
37. H. Guo, S. Liu, *Chemical & Pharmaceutical Bulletin*, 71(5), 326–333(2023), 10.1248/cpb.c22-00728
38. D.J. Good, N. Rodríguez-Hornedo, *Crystal Growth & Design*, 9(5), 2252–2264(2009), 10.1021/cg801039j
39. T. Loftsson, M.E. Brewster, *The Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology*, 62(11), 1607–1621(2010), 10.1111/j.2042-7158.2010.01030.x
40. T. Loftsson, D. Duchêne, *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, 329(1–2), 1–11(2007), 10.1016/j.ijpharm.2006.10.044
41. Shanthala, Jayaprakash, M. Radhakrishna, et al., *International Journal of Applied Pharmaceutics*, 13(1), 199–205(2021), 10.22159/ijap.2021v13i1.40054
42. G. Kuminek, F. Cao, A. Bahia de Oliveira da Rocha, S. Gonçalves Cardoso, N. Rodríguez-Hornedo, *Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews*, 101, 143–166(2016), 10.1016/j.addr.2016.04.022
43. K. Wang, Y. Hao, C. Wang, X. Zhao, X. He, C.C. Sun, *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, 616(121541), 121541(2022), 10.1016/j.ijpharm.2022.121541
44. M. Žegarac, E. Lekšić, P. Šket, et al. *CrystEngComm*, 16(1), 32–35(2014), 10.1039/c3ce42013b
45. S. Sawatdee, A. Atipairin, S. Rakkummerd, et al., *Journal of Advanced Pharmaceutical Technology & Research*, 12(4), 408–419(2021), 10.4103/japtr.japtr_72_21
46. P. Sanphui, S. Tothadi, S. Ganguly, G.R. Desiraju, *Molecular Pharmaceutics*, 10(12), 4687–4697(2013), 10.1021/mp400516b
47. M.K. Dudek, E. Wielgus, P. Paluch, et al., *Acta Crystallographica Section B, Structural Science, Crystal Engineering and Materials*, 75(5), 803–814(2019), 10.1107/s205252061900917x
48. D. Ejarque, T. Calvet, M. Font-Bardia, J. Pons, *Crystals*, 11(2), 191(2021), 10.3390/cryst11020191
49. Z. Lu, G. Yao, H. Xie, D. Wang, Y. Chen, W. Zhu, *ACS Omega*, 9(29), 31477–31487(2024), 10.1021/acsomega.4c01136
50. G. Bolla, B. Sarma, A.K. Nangia, *Chemical Reviews*, 122(13), 11514–11603(2022), 10.1021/acs.chemrev.1c00987
51. P. Panzade, A. Wagh, P. Harale, S. Bhilwade, *Journal of Drug Targeting*, 32(2), 115–127(2024), 10.1080/1061186X.2023.2300690
52. P.S. Panzade, G.R. Shendarkar, *Pharmaceutical cocrystal, Current Drug Delivery*, 14(8), 1097–1105(2017), 10.2174/1567201813666161018152411
53. M. Malamataris, S.A. Ross, D. Douroumis, S.P. Velaga, *Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews*, 117, 162–177(2017), 10.1016/j.addr.2017.08.006
54. D. Srivastava, Z. Fatima, C.D. Kaur, *Mini Reviews in Medicinal Chemistry*, 18(14), 1160–1167(2018), 10.2174/1389557518666180305163613

55. K. A. Shah, V. Parmar, Recent Patents on Nanotechnology, 12(2), 143–154(2018), 10.2174/1872210512666180221153312
56. D. Manchanda, A. Kumar, A. Nanda, Current Pharmaceutical Design, 27(44), 4477–4495(2021), 10.2174/1381612827666210415104411
57. M. Guo, X. Sun, J. Chen, T. Cai, Pharmaceutical cocrystals, Acta Pharmaceutica Sinica. B, 11(8), 2537–2564(2021), 10.1016/j.apsb.2021.03.030
58. N. Wang, C. Xie, H. Lu, et al., Current Pharmaceutical Design, 24(21), 2339–2348(2018), 10.2174/1381612824666180522102732
59. D.D. Gadade, S.S. Pekamwar, Advanced Pharmaceutical Bulletin, 6(4), 479–494(2016), 10.15171/apb.2016.062
60. N.K. Duggirala, M.L. Perry, O. Almarsson, M.J. Zaworotko, Chemical Communications (Cambridge, England), 52(4), 640–655(2016), 10.1039/C5CC08216A
61. X. Wang, S. Du, R. Zhang, X. Jia, T. Yang, X. Zhang Asian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences, 16(3), 307–317(2021), 10.1016/j.ajps.2020.06.004
62. D.D. Chavan, V.M. Thorat, A.S. Shete, R.R. Bhosale, S.J. Patil, D.D. Tiwari Cureus, 16(9), e70328(2024), 10.7759/cureus.70328
63. J.A. DiMasi, H.G. Grabowski, R.W. Hansen Journal of Health Economics, 47, 20–33(2016), 10.1016/j.jhealeco.2016.01.012
64. <https://www.fda.gov/files/drugs/published/RegulatoryClassification-of-Pharmaceutical-Co-Crystals.pdf>.
65. https://www.gmpnavigator.com/files/guidemgr/reflection-paper-use-cocrystals-active-substances-medicinalproducts_en.pdf.
66. S. Nakao, S. Fujii, T. Sakaki, K.I. Tomita, Acta Crystallographica. Section B: Structural Crystallography and Crystal Chemistry, 33(5), 1373–13(1977), 10.1107/s0567740877006116
67. P.M. Bhatt, Y. Azim, T.S. Thakur, G.R. Desiraju, Crystal Growth & Design, 9(2), 951–957(2009), 10.1021/cg8007359
68. I. Sathisaran, S. Dalvi, Pharmaceutics, 10(3), 108(2018), 10.3390/pharmaceutics10030108
69. A. Saklani, S. Kuty, Drug Discovery Today, 13(3–4), 161–171(2008), 10.1016/j.drudis.2007.10.010
70. R. Andrew, A.A. Izzo British Journal of Pharmacology, 174(11), (2017), 10.1111/bph.13779