

## Review Article

# Natural bioenhancers for dermal delivery: Mechanisms, formulation design and cosmeceutical applications

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## ABSTRACT

Natural bioenhancers have emerged as promising strategies for improving dermal and transdermal delivery of cosmetic and therapeutic products. Natural bioenhancers comprise diverse chemical classes, including alkaloids, fatty acids, polyphenols, polysaccharides, saponins, triterpenoids, and others, each contributing distinct structural features that influence interactions with the stratum corneum. These interactions include modulation of lipid packing, increased membrane fluidity, enhanced hydration, keratin-associated effects and changes in the microenvironment at the formulation-skin interface. Advances in molecular and biophysical studies have clarified how polarity, chain length, unsaturation, volatility and stereochemistry shape enhancer performance across hydrophilic and lipophilic actives. Alongside mechanistic insights, contemporary formulation science has adopted natural bioenhancers within nanoemulsions, lipid carriers, ethosomes, nanoemulgels, hydrogels and natural deep eutectic solvent systems. These platforms support improved solubility, stability and controlled release, while enabling targeted delivery to the stratum corneum, viable epidermis or hair follicles. Applications include anti-ageing, skin-brightening, anti-inflammatory and barrier-repairing products, and scalp-delivery formulations, with growing emphasis on biocompatibility and long-term tolerability. This review integrates current evidence on the chemistry, mechanisms and formulation strategies of natural bioenhancers and outlines their expanding role in cosmeceutical innovation.

## 1. Introduction

The demand for high-efficacy cosmeceutical formulations has continued to rise as consumers increasingly expect visible and measurable improvements in skin condition. The stratum corneum remains the primary barrier to topical delivery and restricts the permeation of most active ingredients [1,2]. Terminally differentiated corneocytes embedded in an ordered intercellular lipid matrix create a structure with low permeability [3]. This organisation limits the movement of hydrophilic and lipophilic molecules into deeper layers and reduces bioavailability at target sites [4]. These challenges continue to impair the performance of modern cosmeceutical formulations despite

advances in ingredient design [2].

Passive diffusion across intact skin favours low-molecular-weight compounds with suitable lipophilicity, while hydrophilic and high-molecular-weight molecules encounter substantial resistance [5]. These limitations sustain interest in strategies that improve dermal delivery without compromising barrier integrity [4]. Natural bioenhancers represent one such approach. These compounds modulate stratum-corneum structure in reversible and biocompatible ways [6]. Plant-derived alkaloids, essential oils, fatty acids, terpenes and related compounds interact with lipid domains, increase membrane fluidity and enhance partitioning of co-delivered active principles. Compared with synthetic penetration enhancers, natural bioenhancers often provide

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favourable tolerability and support routine cosmeceutical use [7].

Natural bioenhancers can be grouped by chemical structure and by their mode of interaction with the skin barrier. Representative classes include lipid-based compounds, terpenoids, essential-oil constituents and other low-molecular-weight phytochemicals with documented permeation-enhancing activity [4,6]. Although their structures differ, many alter intercellular lipid organisation and increase diffusional pathways. Enhancement outcomes depend on molecular size, lipophilicity, concentration and the formulation environment in which each enhancer is incorporated. A clear understanding of these distinctions is necessary for selecting suitable enhancers for targeted cosmeceutical applications.

Formulation design influences enhancer behaviour by determining enhancer availability, localisation and interaction with stratum corneum lipids and active ingredients [2,4]. The performance of natural bioenhancers is inseparable from formulation context, since penetration outcomes depend on how each enhancer is incorporated, stabilised and released within the chosen delivery system [2]. Contemporary platforms such as nanoemulsions, lipid carriers, ethosomes, nanoemulgels and polysaccharide-based matrices have improved stability, controlled release and skin penetration of both enhancers and active ingredients [4]. Their success relies on optimising enhancer-lipid interactions, solubilisation capacity and microenvironmental effects that influence barrier modulation [4,6]. Overall, these considerations highlight the need for an integrated framework linking mechanisms, formulation design and cosmeceutical applications. This review evaluates natural bioenhancers within this unified framework and examines their roles across emerging cosmeceutical categories, including anti-ageing, skin brightening, anti-inflammatory treatment, barrier repair and hair-scalp delivery.

## 2. Literature search and selection

Relevant literature was identified through searches of PubMed, Scopus and Web of Science. The literature search was conducted up to August 2026 using combinations of the terms “natural bioenhancer”, “natural penetration enhancer”, “skin permeation”, “dermal delivery”, “transdermal delivery”, “cosmeceutical”, “terpenes”, “essential oils”, “fatty acids”, “natural polymers”, and “natural deep eutectic solvents (NADES)”. No publication date restriction was applied. Studies published between 2023 and 2026 were specifically examined to capture recent developments in the field, while earlier studies were retained where they provided important mechanistic evidence or foundational findings relevant to specific natural bioenhancers. Experimental, clinical, and review articles relevant to the mechanisms, formulation strategies, skin delivery, and cosmeceutical applications of natural bioenhancers were evaluated.

## 3. Skin barrier and the rationale for bioenhancers

### 3.1. Structure-function relationship of the stratum corneum

The stratum corneum (SC) forms the outermost layer of the epidermis and represents the principal barrier to topical delivery. Its barrier function arises from a highly ordered arrangement in which terminally differentiated corneocytes are embedded within a continuous intercellular lipid matrix, commonly described by the brick-and-mortar model [8]. This architecture provides resistance to chemical, physical and microbial challenges and confers the very low permeability characteristic of intact skin [3].

The intercellular lipid matrix consists mainly of ceramides, cholesterol and free fatty acids arranged in lamellar bilayers. Ceramides dominate the lipid fraction and support barrier integrity, cholesterol modulates lipid mobility and free fatty acids contribute to tight lipid packing [3]. This ordered lipid structure restricts passive diffusion of most molecules across intact skin and underlies the low permeability of

the stratum corneum [8].

The presence of multilamellar lipid domains creates complex diffusion pathways that markedly reduce trans-stratum corneum flux and often lead to subtherapeutic concentrations at target sites [9]. Passive permeation is generally limited to small molecules with suitable lipophilicity, while hydrophilic and high-molecular-weight compounds encounter substantial resistance [5]. Even lipophilic actives may be trapped within lipid domains rather than reaching viable layers [4]. These intrinsic structural constraints define the central challenge in dermal and transdermal delivery and provide the mechanistic rationale for controlled reversible enhancement strategies.

### 3.2. Limitations of synthetic penetration enhancers

Synthetic chemical penetration enhancers have been widely investigated as a means of increasing transdermal flux. Common examples include dimethyl sulfoxide, alcohols, surfactants, fatty acid esters and synthetic amides. These materials increase permeability through mechanisms such as lipid disruption, lipid extraction, increased lipid fluidity and, in some cases, keratin denaturation [7]. Such actions can substantially increase the delivery of poorly permeable compounds.

However, these agents present significant safety concerns. Potent enhancers such as dimethyl sulfoxide can produce irritation, erythema and burning at concentrations required for meaningful enhancement. Alcohols and surfactants can extract essential lipids and increase transepidermal water loss, triggering inflammatory responses [7]. Prolonged or repeated exposure may lead to cytotoxicity, skin sensitisation and irreversible impairment of barrier function, which limits suitability for long-term cosmetic use [9]. These limitations have constrained their application in cosmeceutical formulations and highlighted the need for alternative and better-tolerated strategies.

### 3.3. Rationale for natural bioenhancers in topical delivery

Natural penetration enhancers have gained increasing attention as safer and more biocompatible alternatives to synthetic agents. Most natural bioenhancers originate from plant sources and include various secondary metabolites. Several natural bioenhancers display favourable biocompatibility and can interact with endogenous skin lipid domains owing to their physicochemical properties. These interactions contribute to modulation of stratum corneum barrier properties and support dermal delivery [4].

In contrast to many synthetic agents, natural bioenhancers typically act through reversible interactions with intercellular lipids. These interactions adjust lipid packing and increase membrane fluidity without permanent disruption of barrier integrity [6,7]. Such reversibility is essential for cosmeceutical applications in which repeated use is expected.

Several natural bioenhancers also provide complementary biological effects, including antioxidant, anti-inflammatory and antimicrobial activities, which may benefit skin physiology and formulation stability [4]. Their biodegradability, favourable tolerability and high consumer acceptance further support their growing use in modern cosmeceutical delivery platforms [10]. These characteristics collectively justify the continued investigation and rational incorporation of natural bioenhancers into topical formulations.

## 4. Classification of natural bioenhancers

Natural bioenhancers comprise a diverse group of compounds capable of increasing dermal and transdermal delivery through reversible interactions with the stratum corneum. They can be broadly categorised into plant-derived and non-plant sources [11,12]. Plant-derived bioenhancers include terpenes and essential oils, fatty acids and plant oils, alkaloids, polysaccharides and mucilage materials, triterpenoids and saponins, and selected polyphenolic compounds [13].

Although chemically distinct, many of these compounds interact with intercellular lipid domains in ways that modulate barrier organisation and support increased diffusional transport [4,14].

Non-plant-derived bioenhancers include materials obtained from microbial and animal sources, such as hyaluronic acid produced through microbial fermentation, chitosan derived from crustacean shells and microbial exopolysaccharides [15–17]. These macromolecules enhance permeation primarily through hydration, bio-adhesion and modulation of the local microenvironment within the stratum corneum. Natural deep eutectic solvents (NADES) also fall within this category and act through solubilisation and mild lipid modulation. Together, these classes represent the major natural strategies for improving dermal delivery.

#### 4.1. Terpenes and essential oils

Terpenes and essential oils are among the most extensively studied natural bioenhancers. Their lipophilicity and volatile nature support partitioning into stratum corneum lipids and enable reversible modulation of barrier structure. Common examples include cineole, eucalyptol, limonene, menthol and terpineol. Essential oils contain complex mixtures of terpenes and other volatile constituents that contribute to both functional performance and sensory attributes [18,19]. Their compatibility with topical formulations and favourable tolerability

profiles have established them as practical alternatives to synthetic penetration enhancers [20,21]. Fig. 1 illustrates representative terpene structures, whereas Table 1 summarises key terpenes and essential oils with documented enhancer activity, including their mechanisms, targets and enhancement outcomes.

#### 4.2. Fatty acids and plant oils

Fatty acids and plant oils represent two distinct categories of natural lipid-based bioenhancers. Fatty acids function as individual lipid molecules, whereas plant oils contain complex mixtures composed predominantly of triglycerides together with naturally occurring fatty acids and other minor lipophilic constituents. Oleic and linoleic acids are widely described as effective enhancers, whereas saturated fatty acids show more variable performance. Plant oils such as almond, coconut, olive and soybean oils act through the combined effects of their triglyceride and fatty acid compositions [29,30]. Their roles span solubilisation, barrier modulation and microenvironmental hydration. Table 2 summarises key fatty acids and plant oils with documented enhancer activity.

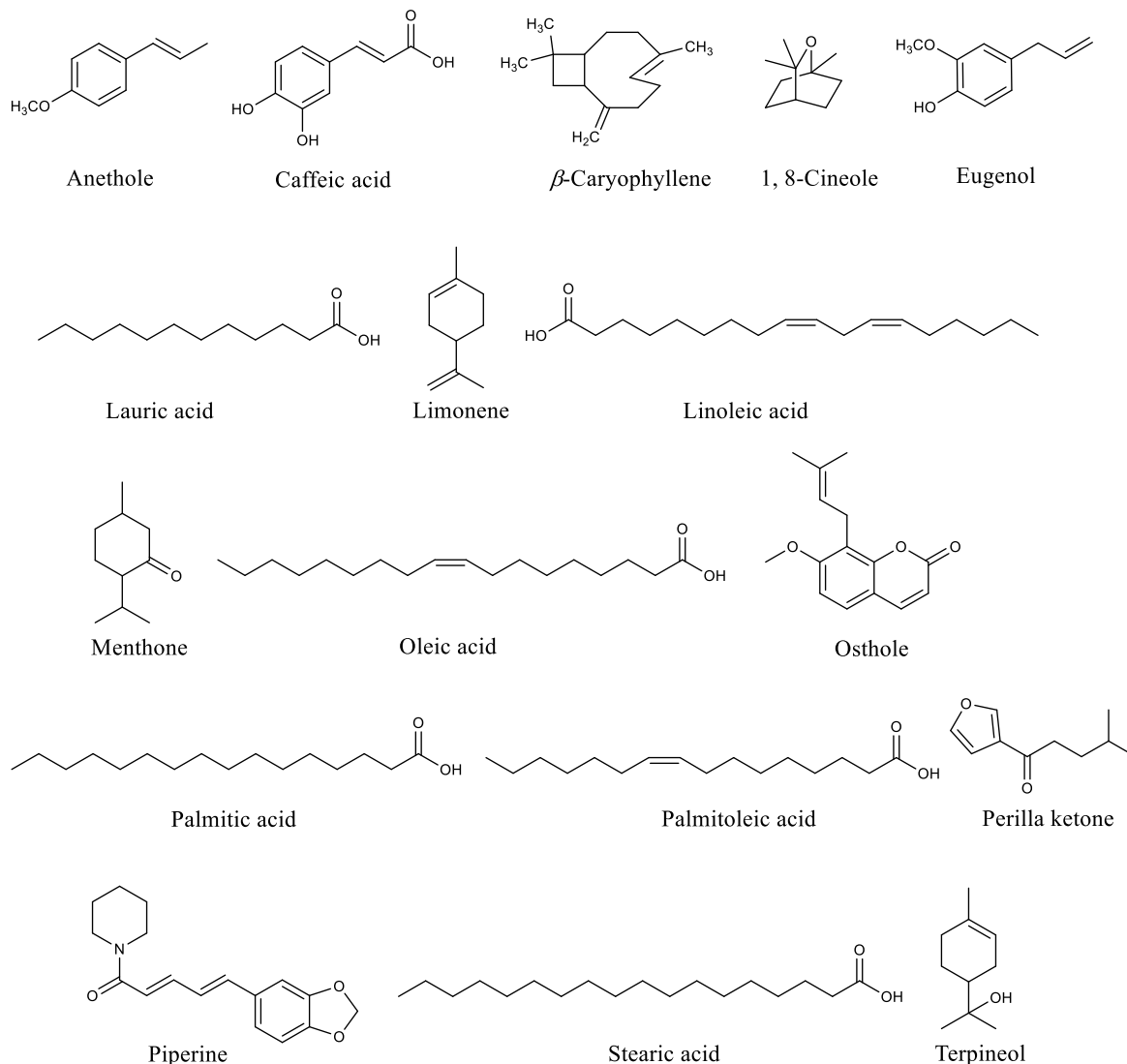


Fig. 1. Chemical structures of selected natural bioenhancers.

**Table 1**  
Selected studies on terpenes and essential oils as natural skin penetration enhancers.

| Bioenhancer     | Active(s)                 | Mechanistic insight                                                                | Key outcome + Model                                                         | Reference |
|-----------------|---------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| Limone          | Osthole, caffeic acid     | Deep penetration into lipid core; disruption of cholesterol-water hydrogen bonding | Strongest lipid disruption; enhanced permeation (Model: MD simulation only) | [21]      |
| Terpineol       | Osthole, caffeic acid     | Headgroup interaction; increased membrane fluidity                                 | Preferential enhancement of hydrophilic actives (Model: MD simulation only) | [21]      |
| 1,8-Cineole     | Osthole, caffeic acid     | Surface level lipid interaction                                                    | Moderate enhancement (Model: MD simulation only)                            | [21]      |
| D-Limonene      | Curcumin                  | Increased solubility; disruption of stratum corneum lipids                         | A cumulative absorption of 57% (rat skin)                                   | [22]      |
| Perilla ketone  | Puerarin, luteolin, rutin | Polarity-dependent hydrogen bond interactions                                      | Strongest enhancement for puerarin ( <i>in vitro</i> )                      | [23]      |
| b-Caryophyllene | FITC, FD-4k               | Increased stratum corneum lipid fluidity; enhancer retention                       | Enhancement ratios 3.4-3.9 (rat skin)                                       | [24]      |
| Anethole        | Valsartan                 | Lipid fluidisation                                                                 | 4.4-fold increase in flux (rat skin)                                        | [25]      |
| Menthone        | Valsartan                 | Disruption of stratum-corneum lipids                                               | 4-fold increase in flux (rat skin)                                          | [25]      |
| Eugenol         | Valsartan                 | Phenolic interaction with lipids                                                   | 3-fold increase in flux (rat skin)                                          | [25]      |
| Menthol         | Lornoxicam                | Disruption of lipid packing                                                        | Highest permeation in ethosomes (rat skin)                                  | [26]      |
| Chuanxiong oil  | Ibuprofen                 | Volatility-dependent lipid modulation                                              | Enhancement ratio 2.6; 88% permeation (rat skin)                            | [27]      |
| Eucalyptus oil  | Curcuminoids              | Lipid modulation and increased solubility                                          | 3-fold increase in permeation (human skin)                                  | [28]      |
| Clove oil       | Nifedipine                | Phenolic interaction with lipids                                                   | Higher permeation than synthetic enhancer (porcine skin)                    | [1]       |

### 4.3. Alkaloids

Alkaloids are nitrogen-containing secondary metabolites with diverse biological activities. Although less commonly employed as intentional penetration enhancers, selected alkaloids have demonstrated transient barrier-modulating effects under defined conditions. Homo-harringtonine (HHT) increased transepidermal water loss for up to 48 h in C57BL/6J mice and enhanced systemic absorption of 4 kDa and 10 kDa dextrans by approximately 15.4-fold and 9.6-fold, respectively. HHT-induced TEWL remained elevated after compound removal. Persistent elevation of TEWL indicates sustained barrier disruption rather than reversible modulation. Quantitative evidence defining barrier recovery was not reported in the original study [37]. Piperine, incorporated into bacterial cellulose membranes, increased curcumin flux across mouse dorsal skin by nearly 1.9-fold, attributed to interactions with stratum corneum lipids and keratin [38]. Overall, alkaloid-mediated enhancement is compound specific and formulation dependent.

### 4.4. Polysaccharides and mucilage materials

Natural polysaccharides, including cellulose, chitosan, hyaluronic acid, levan, and plant-derived mucilage, function as hydrophilic biopolymers with favourable biocompatibility and hydration-modulating properties.

Their delivery-enhancing effects often arise from increased hydration, enhanced bio-adhesion and subtle interactions with corneocyte or lipid structures [39,40]. Notably, the effect of HA on dermal delivery is highly molecular weight dependent. While high-molecular-weight HA primarily supports hydration and controlled release, selected low-molecular-weight HA fractions (particularly between 5 and 20 kDa) have been reported to act as an active permeation enhancer. HA-based micelles loaded with curcumin significantly increased penetration and deposition in mouse skin through hydration-driven softening of the stratum corneum [41].

Levan increased keratinocyte and fibroblast proliferation by approximately 113-118% and upregulated involucrin, filaggrin and extracellular matrix components, indicating potential utility in dermal delivery and skin-regenerative applications [42]. Bacterial cellulose masks provide prolonged contact and controlled release of cosmetic bioactives, with clinical evaluations confirming good tolerability [43]. Chitosan-based pro-retinal nanoparticles achieved penetration depths of approximately 470  $\mu\text{m}$  in porcine ear skin and increased retinal levels in the stratum corneum 3-fold, with preferential follicular targeting [44].

Plant mucilage systems, including *Aloe vera* and date palm mucilage, have demonstrated improved dermal delivery of lornoxicam and nicotine through hydration and semi-crystalline network effects [45,46]. Poly( $\gamma$ -glutamic acid)/chitosan nanoparticles improved follicular delivery of a hair-growth herbal extract and induced morphological changes in dermal papilla cells [47].

### 4.5. Triterpenoids and saponins

Triterpenoids and their glycosidic derivatives, saponins, are amphiphilic plant-derived compounds with inherent surface-active properties. Their dual hydrophobic-hydrophilic nature enables interactions with lipid domains and supports reversible modification of the barrier [48-50]. Oleanolic acid-derived amides enhanced progesterone permeation through synthetic lipophilic membranes by approximately 20-60%, outperforming azone in several cases [51].

Ginsenoside-based nanoparticles markedly enhanced transdermal insulin delivery in Sprague-Dawley rat skin, achieving cumulative permeation of 0.159  $\text{mg}/\text{cm}^2$  at 24 h and 0.282  $\text{mg}/\text{cm}^2$  at 48 h [52]. Quinoa seed coat extracts rich in triterpenoid saponins increased surface pressure and elasticity of cholesterol-containing lipid monolayers without disrupting the matrix, indicating potential for controlled barrier

**Table 2**

Studies on fatty acids and plant oils as natural skin penetration enhancers.

| Enhancer                     | Active(s)    | Mechanistic insight                                        | Key outcome + Model                                                   | Reference |
|------------------------------|--------------|------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| Capric acid (C10)            | FD-4         | Optimal lipophilicity ( $\log P = 4$ ); lipid fluidisation | Highest enhancement among tested fatty acids (porcine epithelium)     | [31]      |
| Coconut oil                  | Flurbiprofen | Lauric acid-rich lipid modulation                          | High permeation relative to polyunsaturated oils                      | [32]      |
| Lauric acid (C12)            | FD-4         | Strong interaction with stratum corneum lipids             | Peak enhancement in skin                                              | [31]      |
| Oleic acid                   | Meloxicam    | Disruption of lipid packing                                | Highest flux and cumulative permeation                                | [33]      |
| Oleic acid + Tween 80        | 5-FU         | Combined lipid and surfactant effects                      | Markedly increased permeation (rat skin)                              | [34].     |
| Olive oil                    | Flurbiprofen | High monounsaturated fatty acid content                    | High permeation ( <i>ex vivo</i> skin)                                | [32]      |
| Olive oil                    | DHQ          | Oleic acid-mediated lipid disruption                       | Significant enhancement (human skin)                                  | [35]      |
| Soybean oil                  | DHQ          | High linoleic acid content                                 | Significant enhancement (human skin)                                  | [35]      |
| Sunflower/Olive/Coconut oils | Collagen     | Disruption of lipid cohesion; hydration effects            | Moderate enhancement; further increased with zinc oxide nanoparticles | [36]      |

modulation [53]. Several triterpenoids and saponins are illustrated in Fig. 2.

#### 4.6. Polyphenols

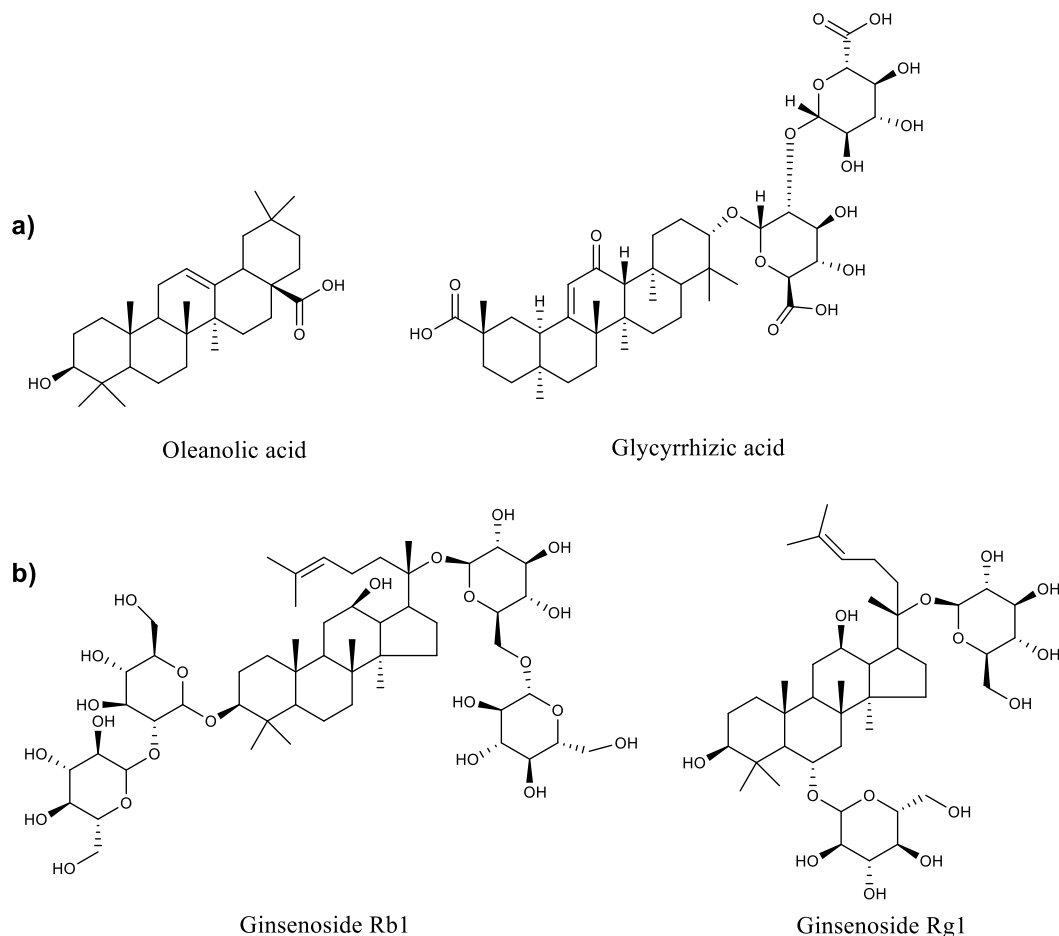
Polyphenols, including flavonoids, phenolic acids and stilbenes, are incorporated into cosmeceutical formulations primarily for antioxidant and anti-inflammatory benefits. Selected flavonoids have demonstrated permeation-enhancing effects. Amentoflavone increased caffeine flux across rat dorsal skin by approximately 2.5-fold, while glabridin and butein produced around 3-fold increases through combined keratin rearrangement and lipid fluidisation [54]. Curcuminoids, a subgroup of polyphenols and the main bioactive constituents of turmeric, including bisdemethoxycurcumin, curcumin and demethoxycurcumin, do not exhibit intrinsic penetration-enhancing properties due to their rigidity,

low solubility and limited ability to interact with stratum corneum lipids [55].

#### 4.7. Non-plant bioenhancers

Non-plant-derived bioenhancers include microbial and animal-derived macromolecules and natural deep eutectic solvents (NADES). These systems enhance permeation primarily through hydration, solubilisation and microenvironmental modulation. Microbial hyaluronic acid and chitosan improve hydration, bio-adhesion and controlled release, supporting enhanced delivery of hydrophilic and lipophilic actives [15,16].

NADES, formed from natural metabolites such as sugars, organic acids and amino acids, act through increased solubility and mild lipid modulation [56]. A choline chloride-citric acid NADES hydrogel



**Fig. 2.** The structures of a. triterpenoids; b. saponins.

increased lidocaine permeation to  $7000 \pm 1000 \text{ mg/cm}^2$  after 6 h, compared with  $5900 \pm 200 \text{ mg/cm}^2$  for a reference hydrogel and  $4670 \pm 90 \text{ mg/cm}^2$  for a reference ointment, while maintaining barrier integrity and improving hydration [57].

Betaine-citric acid NADES enhanced malvidin permeation in porcine ear skin through solubilisation and lipid modulation [58]. In contrast, chloramphenicol permeation decreased slightly in the presence of NADES due to hydrogen bond interactions with skin proteins [59]. These findings demonstrate the versatility of non-plant-derived bioenhancers in dermal delivery.

## 5. Mechanistic basis of natural bioenhancers

Natural bioenhancers improve dermal and transdermal delivery through reversible interactions with the stratum corneum (SC). Their effects arise from a limited set of mechanistic pathways that influence lipid organisation, protein structure, hydration state, drug partitioning and paracellular transport, as shown in Fig. 3. These mechanisms often operate simultaneously and are strongly dependent on enhancer chemistry, concentration and formulation context.

### 5.1. Lipid modulation: fluidisation, disruption and mild extraction

Lipid-directed interactions represent the most widely reported mechanism of natural bioenhancers. Many compounds partition into intercellular lipid domains, where they increase molecular mobility, disturb lamellar packing and expand polar headgroup spacing. These changes reduce barrier density and create transient diffusion pathways [4]. Biophysical studies consistently show  $\text{CH}_2$  stretching shifts in FTIR spectra and reduced phase transition temperatures in DSC thermograms, indicating increased lipid disorder [60].

Terpenes such as 1,8-cineole, limonene and menthol disrupt hydrogen bonding within ceramide-rich lamellae and lower lipid transition temperatures, producing strong correlations between lipid disorder and enhancement efficiency [27,61]. Essential oils act similarly, with moderate volatility supporting balanced interaction and efficient permeation enhancement.

Fatty acids also modulate SC lipids due to their structural similarity

to endogenous lipids. cis-unsaturated fatty acids such as oleic and linoleic acid induce phase separation and weaken ceramide-rich lamellae, while medium-chain fatty acids increase membrane flexibility and support permeation of lipophilic and antimicrobial compounds [4,62]. Fatty acid esters such as ethyl oleate and glycerol monooleate combine lipid-fluidising and solvating properties with favourable tolerability [63].

Some natural enhancers also induce partial lipid extraction, particularly essential oils, monoterpenes and saponins. These compounds solubilise cholesterol and free fatty acids, increasing SC porosity while maintaining reversibility at formulation-relevant concentrations [4,62]. Biosurfactants and saponins additionally reduce surface tension and promote wetting, complementing their lipid-modulating effects [64].

### 5.2. Protein interactions and keratin modification

Several natural bioenhancers interact with structural proteins of the SC, particularly keratin. These interactions can weaken corneocyte cohesion and increase diffusional pathways. Hyaluronic acid induces a transition from  $\alpha$ -helix to  $\beta$ -sheet conformations in keratin filaments, reducing packing density and softening the corneocyte matrix [40,65,66]. Chitosan enhances permeation through electrostatic interactions with negatively charged SC components, transiently loosening the protein-lipid network [44]. Selected polyphenols and curcuminoids can also influence keratin structure, although their effects are typically secondary to lipid-based mechanisms [67]. Protein-directed pathways are particularly relevant for hydrophilic actives that rely on corneocyte-associated transport.

### 5.3. Hydration-mediated enhancement and corneocyte softening

Hydration is a central determinant of SC permeability. Increased water content leads to corneocyte swelling, loosening of the corneocyte-lipid interface and reduced diffusional resistance [63]. Hydration-induced expansion disrupts keratin microfibril packing and increases molecular mobility without permanently altering protein structure. Urea disrupts hydrogen bonding networks within corneocytes, increasing plasticity and permeability at appropriate concentrations

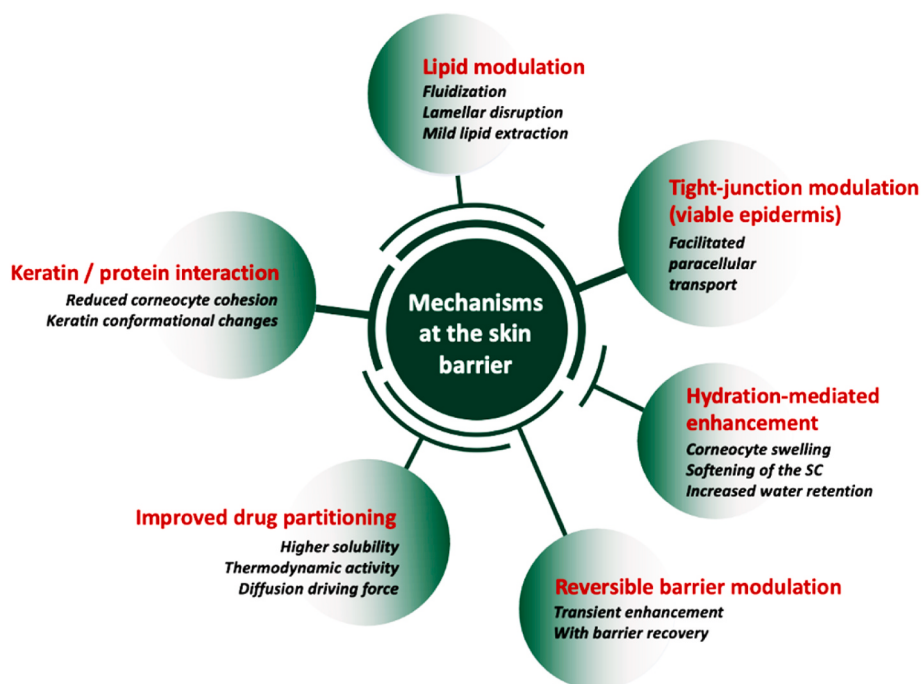


Fig. 3. Key mechanisms of natural bioenhancers at the stratum corneum.

[68]. Glycerol promotes sustained hydration and corneocyte softening, while *Aloe vera* polysaccharides enhance water retention through strong water-binding capacity [61]. Biopolymeric systems such as bacterial cellulose and plant-derived hydrogels maintain a hydrated microenvironment at the skin surface, increasing mobility of hydrophilic and moderately lipophilic compounds and supporting sustained release [43]. Occlusive plant oils such as coconut oil increase hydration and lipid flexibility, while jojoba oil softens the SC through its wax ester composition [69,70]. NADES also contribute to hydration-mediated enhancement through hygroscopicity, corneocyte swelling and widening of intercellular pathways [71].

#### 5.4. Increased drug partitioning and thermodynamic activity

Many natural bioenhancers increase drug solubility and thermodynamic activity within the formulation and SC lipids. By elevating the chemical potential of the active compound, they generate a stronger driving force for diffusion without requiring extensive structural disruption [4,63]. Essential oils, plant oils and fatty acids improve the solubility of lipophilic actives within both the vehicle and SC lipids, enhancing partitioning into the barrier [62]. Fatty acid esters such as ethyl oleate provide a strong solvating capacity with low viscosity [72]. NADES dissolve poorly soluble phytochemicals through extensive hydrogen bonding networks and can simultaneously fluidise SC lipids, support permeation, while stabilising sensitive compounds [71].

#### 5.5. Modulation of tight junctions and intercellular pathways

Although the SC is the primary barrier, tight junctions in the upper viable epidermis regulate paracellular transport. Certain natural compounds transiently influence the expression or arrangement of tight junction proteins such as claudins and occludins, increasing paracellular permeability without permanent disruption [73]. Quercetin derivatives and ginsenosides have been shown to modulate tight junction structure and increase hydrophilic flux through reversible junctional changes [74, 75]. Selected fatty acids and plant-derived peptides exhibit similar effects [73].

#### 5.6. Reversible modulation and barrier recovery

Reversibility is essential for safe and repeatable use of natural bioenhancers in cosmeceutical formulations. At formulation-relevant concentrations, natural enhancers typically induce transient changes in lipid organisation, hydration state or corneocyte mechanics, with barrier properties returning toward baseline after removal [76]. Terpenes and fatty acids primarily increase lipid fluidity, whereas polysaccharides and biosurfactants enhance hydration and corneocyte softening. The extent of reversibility depends on enhancer concentration, formulation composition and exposure duration, and should be evaluated alongside irritation and sensitisation data [4,61].

#### 5.7. Interplay of multiple penetration enhancement mechanisms

Natural bioenhancers rarely enhance skin permeation through a single mechanism. Lipid fluidisation, keratin modification, hydration-mediated effects, and increased drug partitioning frequently occur together. Terpenes can increase lipid fluidity while simultaneously enhancing partitioning into stratum corneum lipids and influencing protein organisation [21]. Hydration-mediated corneocyte swelling can further facilitate diffusion by complementing lipid disordering [63]. Relative contributions of individual mechanisms depend on bioenhancer chemistry, permeant characteristics, concentration, and formulation composition. Synergistic interactions between multiple mechanisms can increase permeation efficiency, whereas excessive lipid extraction or unfavourable enhancer-permeant interactions may reduce enhancement outcomes. Permeation-enhancing activity therefore reflects the

combined contribution of multiple interacting mechanisms rather than a single dominant pathway [4,63].

### 6. Formulation strategies

Formulation design plays a central role in determining the performance of natural bioenhancers. Their effects depend not only on intrinsic chemical properties but also on how they are incorporated, stabilised and released within the delivery system. Across conventional and nanotechnology-based platforms, enhancement outcomes reflect the interplay between enhancer structure, vehicle composition, drug solubility and microenvironmental interactions at the skin surface.

#### 6.1. Conventional systems

##### 6.1.1. Solutions

Solution-based vehicles provide a fundamental platform for evaluating natural bioenhancers. Their performance depends on enhancer concentration, solvent polarity, volatility and interactions with stratum corneum lipids. Terpenes such as anethole, eugenol and menthone at 1% enhanced valsartan permeation, with higher concentrations reducing performance due to solubility limitations in ethanol-phosphate buffer systems [25]. Essential oils, including cinnamon, chuanxiong and clove at 3% increased ibuprofen permeation in propylene glycol-isopropyl alcohol vehicles, with moderate volatility supporting optimal lipid interaction [27]. Monoterpenes such as cineole and limonene disrupted long periodicity phase lipids more effectively than sesquiterpenes, consistent with their lower molecular weight and greater diffusivity [77].

Fixed oils rich in unsaturated fatty acids, such as soybean and raspberry seed oil, enhanced dihydroquercetin permeation, whereas saturated oils, such as coconut oil, showed limited activity [35]. Alkaloids and flavonoids also function as high-efficiency enhancers. Perilla ketone at 5% increased the penetration of multiple phytochemicals [23], while amentoflavone enhanced caffeine permeation in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies [78]. Homoharringtonine increased macromolecule transport across mouse skin in a concentration-dependent manner [37]. Overall, solution-based systems demonstrate that enhancer structure, volatility and solvent interactions govern permeation outcomes.

##### 6.1.2. Semisolid systems: hydrogels, emulgels and film-forming gels

Semisolid systems provide improved residence time, controlled release and enhanced skin contact compared with simple solutions. Hydrogels incorporating volatile oils such as  $\beta$ -caryophyllene at 5% increased penetration of fluorescein isothiocyanate and dextrans through combined terpene-driven lipid modulation and ethanol-assisted solubilisation [24]. Essential oils at 3% enhanced ibuprofen delivery from Carbopol hydrogels, with formulation performance influenced by oil composition and volatility [79]. Oleanolic acid derivatives at 0.5–1% increased progesterone permeation through structure-dependent interactions with lipid domains [51].

Emulgels combine the solubilisation capacity of emulsions with the structural stability of gels. Oils containing short-chain saturated fatty acids produced higher flurbiprofen flux than oils rich in long-chain fatty acids [32]. Eucalyptus oil at 0.03% enhanced diclofenac permeation in carbopol-based emulgels [80]. *Sapindus mukorossi* extract improved anti-inflammatory performance in aceclofenac emulgels through surfactant-mediated lipid interaction [81]. Film-forming gels (FFGs) create thin, adherent films after application. Chitosan-based FFGs containing oleic acid and Tween 80 enhanced 5-fluorouracil release while maintaining rapid film formation and skin tolerability [34].

##### 6.1.3. Dermal patches

Transdermal patches provide controlled release and sustained enhancer-skin interaction. Matrix-type patches containing nifedipine and clove oil achieved 71.43% release over 16 h, with polymer ratios

influencing mechanical properties and drug diffusion [82]. Oleic acid at 20% increased meloxicam flux in PEG-based solid dispersions [33].

Drug-in-adhesive (DIA) systems incorporating oleic acid improved mirtazapine flux while maintaining adhesive integrity [83]. Cannabinoid patches using Eudragit E100 matrices demonstrated enhancer-dependent differences in flux, with ethoxydiglycol outperforming natural oils [84]. Across conventional systems, enhancer structure, concentration and vehicle composition determine permeation outcomes, with semisolid and patch-based systems offering improved control over release kinetics and skin interaction.

## 6.2. Nanotechnology-based strategies

### 6.2.1. Nanoemulsions and nanoemulgels

Nanoemulsions provide high surface area and efficient solubilisation of lipophilic enhancers. D-limonene-based nanoemulsions improved curcumin flux through combined terpene-driven lipid modulation and nanoscale droplet effects [85]. Eucalyptus oil in nanoemulgels enhanced curcuminoid permeation 3-fold, with nanoscale droplets and terpene components acting synergistically [28].

Cineole-containing nanoemulsions increased GABA permeation by 3.37-fold [86]. Glycyrrhizin-based nanoemulgels improved 5-fluorouracil delivery and cytotoxicity through amphiphilic interactions [87]. Hydrophobically modified hyaluronic acid (HA-MA), a chemically modified derivative of the natural polymer hyaluronic acid, provides stabilisation of nanoemulsions and increases the epidermal biodistribution of hydrophobic actives [88].

### 6.2.2. Other nanocarriers

HA-functionalised liposomes improved methotrexate retention and reduced systemic exposure in psoriasis models [89]. Chitosan nanoparticles enhanced retinal penetration and follicular targeting [44]. PGA/chitosan nanoparticles increased the penetration depth of herbal extracts and supported sustained release [47]. Menthol-containing ethosomes improved lornoxicam permeation and analgesic performance [26].

## 6.3. Synergistic approaches

### 6.3.1. Nanocarrier-enhancer synergy

Menthol-containing ethosomal gels increased lornoxicam permeation by 2.42-fold [26]. *Aloe vera*-modified nanocapsule patches increased thymoquinone flux by 42.64% while maintaining sustained release [90].

### 6.3.2. Dual natural enhancer systems

*Aloe vera* mucilage combined with lemon oil increased lornoxicam patch permeation to 69.45% over 72 h [45]. Oleic acid and propylene glycol in reservoir patches increased lornoxicam flux and supported near-zero-order release [91]. Nanocarriers improve solubility, stability and skin interaction while enabling synergistic use of natural bioenhancers. Table 3 highlights selected examples of nanotechnology strategies, natural bioenhancers and key outcomes.

## 6.4. Strategic considerations for the selection of natural bioenhancers in topical formulations

The selection of natural bioenhancers depends on the physicochemical properties of the active ingredient, the structural and molecular characteristics of the bioenhancer, the composition of the formulation vehicle, and the intended site of action within the skin. These factors collectively influence permeation behaviour, residence time, and deposition patterns.

### 6.4.1. Physicochemical profile of the active permeant and enhancer alignment

The intrinsic physicochemical properties of the active permeant, including lipophilicity [2], polar surface area, hydrogen-bonding capacity [23], and molecular size [37], influence the choice of natural bioenhancer. Lipophilic molecules permeate primarily through intercellular lipid lamellae of the stratum corneum. Bioenhancers that interact with hydrophobic lipid domains and disrupt ceramide hydrogen-bonding networks can increase permeation of lipophilic compounds [25]. Highly lipophilic non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs such as ibuprofen and flurbiprofen show improved partitioning and penetration when combined with lipophilic terpenes and fixed plant oils [27,32]. Poorly soluble compounds such as dihydroquercetin demonstrate improved dispersion and epidermal deposition when formulated with lipophilic plant oils [35].

Polar and hydrophilic active ingredients encounter significant resistance within the hydrophobic lipid matrix [94]. Hydration-modifying bioenhancers [54], keratin-modifying agents [54, 78], or compounds capable of forming temporary hydrogen-bonded complexes [23] support permeation of these molecules. Highly polar phytochemicals such as puerarin and rutin benefit from bioenhancers with hydrogen-bond acceptor groups, such as perilla ketone, which reduce apparent polarity and improve partitioning into the stratum corneum [23]. Hydrophilic ingredients such as caffeine show increased flux when combined with bioflavonoids including amentoflavone, glabridin, and butein, which bind keratin subunits and induce conformational changes that loosen the protein matrix [54,78]. Small

**Table 3**  
Selected nanotechnology strategies, natural bioenhancers and key outcomes.

| Formulation type        | Active + Bioenhancer                               | Key features                                      | Key outcomes                                         | Model (Reference)      |
|-------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------|------------------------|
| Nanoemulsion            | Curcumin + D limonene                              | HLB optimised nanoemulsion, 84 nm                 | Flux 26.8 mg/cm <sup>2</sup> /h; 57% permeation      | Rat skin [85]          |
| Nano-emulgel            | Curcuminoids + eucalyptus oil                      | 63 nm nanoemulsion incorporated into Carbopol gel | 3-fold increase in flux                              | Human skin [28]        |
| Nanoemulsion            | GABA + 1,8 cineole                                 | Soybean oil nanoemulsion, 130 nm                  | 3.37-fold increase in permeation                     | Porcine skin [86]      |
| Nano-emulgel            | 5 Fluorouracil + glycyrrhizin                      | Isopropyl myristate nanoemulsion in gel           | IC <sub>50</sub> reduced to 0.1 mg/mL                | Melanoma cells [87]    |
| Nanoemulsion            | Hydrophobic actives + hyaluronic acid methacrylate | Hyaluronic acid stabilised nanoemulsion, 282 nm   | 8-fold increase in epidermal biodistribution         | Ex vivo skin [88]      |
| HA liposomes            | Methotrexate + hyaluronic acid (5 kDa)             | CD44-targeted liposomes                           | 2-fold increase in skin retention                    | Psoriasis models [89]  |
| Novasomes               | Rasagiline + eugenol                               | Multilamellar vesicles                            | Sustained release and increased therapeutic efficacy | Parkinson's model [92] |
| Polymeric nanoparticles | Retinal + chitosan                                 | 240 nm nanoparticles                              | 3-fold increase in stratum corneum retention         | Porcine skin [44]      |
| Hydrogel nanoparticles  | 4HGF + Poly (g- glutamic acid)/chitosan            | 382 nm nanoparticles                              | Penetration depth approximately 2 mm                 | Hair growth model [47] |
| Ethosomal gel           | Lornoxicam + menthol                               | 349 nm ethosomes                                  | 2.42-fold increase in permeation                     | In vivo [26].          |
| Matrix patch            | Malvidin + betaine-citric acid NADES               | NADES-water matrix                                | Deposition 431 ng/cm <sup>2</sup>                    | Porcine skin [58]      |
| SLN/NLC                 | Ibuprofen + bergamot lipids                        | 137-154 nm lipid carriers                         | 3-fold increase in flux                              | Porcine skin [93]      |

hydrophilic drugs such as cetirizine respond to cyclic terpenes such as menthol and 1,8-cineole, which disrupt lipid packing, lower phase-transition temperatures, and eliminate diffusion lag time [8]. Large hydrophilic macromolecules such as 4 and 10 kDa dextrans require tissue-level targeting rather than lipid fluidisation. Plant alkaloids such as homoharringtonine transiently modulate tight junction proteins in the stratum granulosum and facilitate paracellular transport [37].

#### 6.4.2. Bioenhancer physicochemical dynamics and structural characteristics

Volatility, molecular conformation, and concentration influence the performance of natural bioenhancers. Highly volatile essential oils and terpenes evaporate rapidly and show limited interaction with stratum corneum lipids. Moderately volatile compounds remain on the skin surface for longer periods and partition more effectively into intercellular lipids [27].

Fatty acid-containing bioenhancers show structure-dependent interactions with the skin barrier. Monounsaturated fatty acids such as oleic acid insert rapidly into lipid bilayers due to their *cis*-conformation, disrupt chain packing, and form fluid microchannels that support high flux and short lag time. Polyunsaturated fatty acids such as linoleic acid experience steric hindrance during initial insertion, which increases lag time, but later induce extensive lipid disruption and support local retention [32,35]. Saturated fatty acids such as lauric acid pack tightly with stratum corneum lipids and increase structural density, which can reduce permeation and promote reservoir formation [32].

Enhancer concentration shows non-linear relationships with flux. Terpene concentrations above optimal thresholds, such as increases from 1% to 3% or 5% in a 40% hydroalcoholic vehicle, reduce permeation owing to solubility limitations and incomplete dissolution of lipophilic enhancers [25].

#### 6.4.3. Structural role and interactions with the vehicle

The relationship between the bioenhancer and the formulation vehicle influences release kinetics and permeation behaviour [27,32]. Natural bioenhancers may function solely as permeation modifiers or may also contribute to formulation structure. Fixed plant oils used as the primary oil phase in emulgels or creams (e.g., 20% w/w) fluidise stratum corneum lipids, reduce transepidermal water loss, and promote hydration and swelling of the stratum corneum [32]. Bioflavonoids such as amentoflavone in semisolid bases act as hydrating and network-stabilising agents while also supporting permeation [54,78].

Vehicle type influences diffusion lag time and release kinetics. Hydrogels with high water activity minimise lag time and support rapid release, whereas hydrophobic and lipidic bases slow release and promote reservoir formation. These vehicle-dependent behaviours influence enhancer selection [27,32].

Mode of application affects enhancer performance. Topical pretreatment with enhancers creates localised liquid pools and weakens lipid bilayers before drug application, supporting high flux and eliminating lag time [94]. Co-formulated systems require balanced solubilisation and thermodynamic partitioning of both enhancer and active ingredient [25,32].

#### 6.4.4. Skin barrier target and biological intent

The intended site of action within the skin influences bioenhancer selection. Penetration depth requirements vary across the stratum corneum, stratum granulosum, viable epidermis, dermis, and systemic circulation. Bioflavonoids can display structure-dependent behaviour. Glabridin has been associated with increased barrier permeability and systemic flux, whereas butein has been associated with greater dermal retention and hydration [78]. Polyunsaturated fatty acids such as linoleic acid extend lag time owing to steric hindrance but later induce lipid disordering that supports epidermal and dermal retention [32,35]. Monounsaturated fatty acids and volatile monoterpenes form fluid

microchannels that support deeper penetration and systemic flux [25, 32].

## 7. Applications in cosmeceuticals

Natural bioenhancers are increasingly incorporated into cosmeceutical formulations to improve dermal delivery, stabilise sensitive actives and support targeted biological effects. Their roles span anti-ageing, brightening, moisturising, anti-inflammatory and hair-scalp applications, with benefits arising from enhanced permeation, improved deposition and synergistic interactions with formulation matrices [4,11]. Representative structures of selected cosmeceutical actives are shown in Fig. 4.

### 7.1. Anti-ageing

Anti-ageing formulations target oxidative stress, collagen degradation, inflammation and impaired epidermal turnover [95]. Natural bioenhancers support these outcomes by improving penetration of antioxidants, retinoids and lipid-soluble actives. Eugenol derivatives enhanced permeation and antioxidant activity in porcine skin, with associated terpenes contributing to deeper delivery and increased radical-scavenging capacity. NADES-based systems improved permeation and intracellular antioxidant activity of grape pomace polyphenols in three-dimensional keratinocyte models, demonstrating their dual role as solubilisers and mild enhancers [58]. Fatty acids such as oleic and linolenic acid increased niacinamide delivery *in vivo*, confirming their utility in human skin [96].

Encapsulation strategies further highlight the value of natural enhancers. Chitosan-gum Arabic Pickering emulsions improved retention and photostability of *trans*-resveratrol [97]. Oleic acid-containing vesicles and nanoemulsions enhanced the delivery of coenzyme Q10 and retinoids, improving collagen density and reducing wrinkle formation in preclinical models [98–100]. Despite these advances, systematic exploration of natural bioenhancers in anti-ageing formulations remains limited, indicating clear opportunities for future development. Fig. 5 illustrates the cosmeceutical applications of natural bioenhancers and their effects.

### 7.2. Moisturising and barrier repair

Moisturising agents act as humectants, emollients or occlusives, primarily within the stratum corneum [101]. Deep penetration is generally unnecessary, although certain systems benefit from enhanced delivery. Sorbitol-based NADES demonstrated dual functionality as humectants and delivery enhancers, improving hydration, reducing transepidermal water loss and showing good tolerability in human volunteers [102].

High-molecular-weight hyaluronic acid exhibits negligible intrinsic permeability and may require specialised carriers for deeper epidermal distribution, whereas low-molecular-weight forms act effectively within superficial layers [103,104]. Barrier-repair agents such as ceramides, niacinamide and peptides primarily act within intercellular lipid pathways. The role of natural enhancers in optimising the delivery of these agents, particularly peptides, remains underexplored [105]. Enhanced dermal permeation is not the desired outcome for all cosmeceutical products. Moisturising and barrier-repair formulations often require retention of active ingredients within the stratum corneum or superficial epidermal layers rather than deep penetration. Excessive permeation may compromise barrier function or reduce intended local effects. Formulation strategies for these applications therefore prioritise superficial retention while preserving skin barrier integrity [101–105].

### 7.3. Anti-inflammatory

Natural bioenhancers have been widely applied to improve the

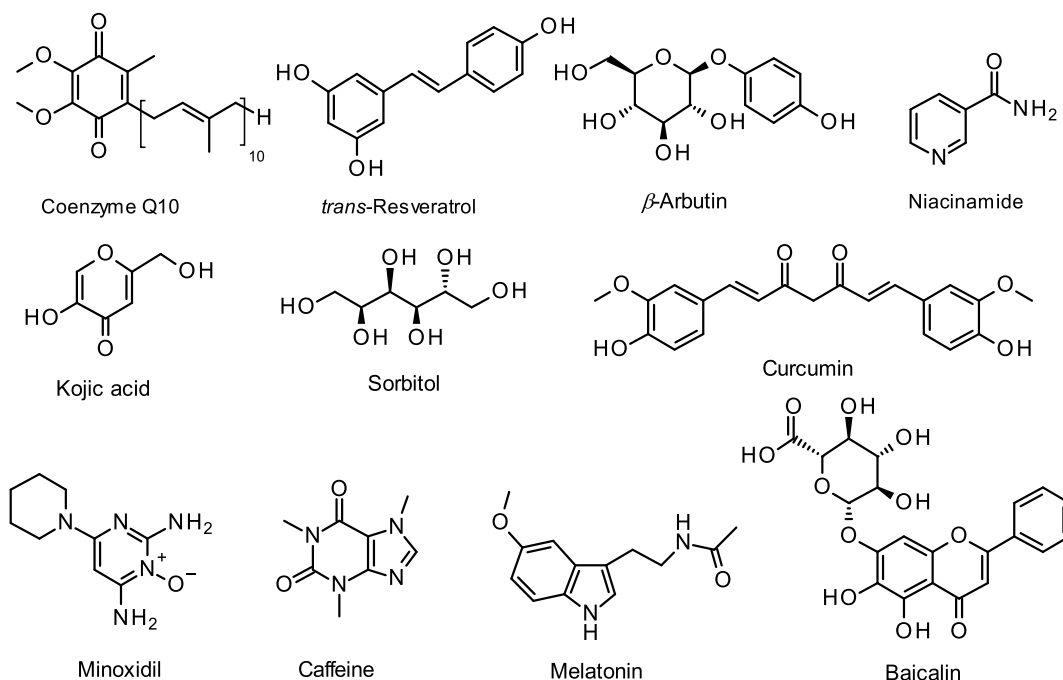


Fig. 4. Chemical structures of selected active compounds from different cosmeceutical functional categories.

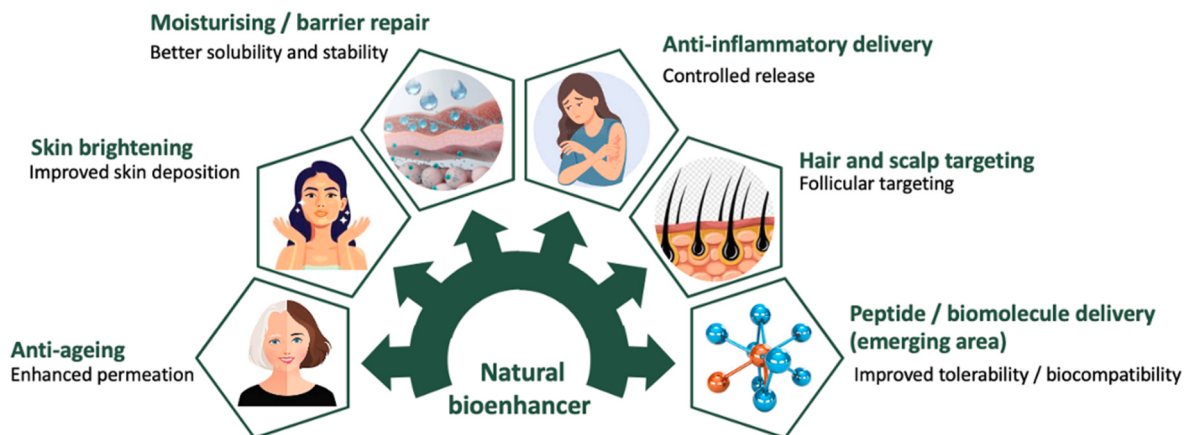


Fig. 5. Cosmeceutical applications of natural bioenhancers and their outcomes.

delivery of anti-inflammatory actives, including curcumin and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs. Curcumin formulated with PVP K25 and myristic acid showed improved solubilisation and penetration [106]. Micelles based on octadecylamine-modified hyaluronic acid increased curcumin deposition and anti-inflammatory activity in *ex vivo* and *in vivo* models [41].

Essential oils such as clove, olive and eucalyptus increased the flux of mefenamic acid, while eucalyptus oil enhanced curcuminoid delivery in nanoemulgels [28,107]. Hybrid systems combining natural polymers and oils improved delivery under compromised skin conditions. Modified Karaya gum-arachis oil gels increased etodolac permeation across thermally injured skin [108].

#### 7.4. Hair and scalp applications

Hair and scalp formulations require targeted delivery to follicles, where natural bioenhancers and biopolymer carriers can improve deposition and retention [109,110]. Chitosan nanoparticles enhanced follicular accumulation of minoxidil and its derivatives, with modified

systems providing sustained release and favourable safety [111,112]. Terpene-rich extracts, such as germacrone, increased minoxidil penetration in human skin models [113].

Nanoemulsions containing oleic acid or eucalyptol improved the delivery of hydrophilic actives such as caffeine, with follicles accounting for a significant proportion of total retention [8,114]. Advanced systems such as glycyrrhizin nanomicelles, safflower oil body nanoparticles and chitosan-dextran Pickering emulsions improved follicular delivery of baicalin, hFGF10 and melatonin, respectively [115–117]. Natural materials, such as eucalyptus ash, have also been applied in cosmetic hair treatments, where they modify cuticle and cortex structure and increase anthocyanin dye uptake in *ex vivo* hair models [118].

#### 8. Challenges and future outlook

Natural bioenhancers continue to expand in diversity and functional relevance, yet several scientific, practical and regulatory challenges limit their broader adoption in cosmeceutical formulations. Further progress depends on improved screening, mechanistic clarity,

sustainable sourcing and translational strategies that bridge laboratory findings with real-world performance.

### 8.1. Emerging natural bioenhancers and screening challenges

Recent studies highlight new botanical and marine-derived enhancers with measurable effects on dermal transport. Perilla ketone increased transdermal flux of multiple model drugs by 2- to 3-fold while showing lower irritation than azone [23]. Essential oil from *Epilobium angustifolium* enhanced ibuprofen and lidocaine permeation by approximately 1.3-fold [114]. Lavender oil improved naproxen absorption and analgesic outcomes *in vivo* [119]. Natural polysaccharides and peptides are also emerging, with bael gum improving mucocutaneous delivery in nanogels and plant-derived skin-penetrating peptides supporting macromolecule uptake [74,120].

Discovery of new enhancers is complicated by botanical variability, batch-to-batch inconsistency and compositional complexity driven by cultivation, climate and extraction conditions [121]. Odour, coloration and molecular size may limit formulation compatibility, while regulatory expectations for irritation, sensitisation and phototoxicity require rigorous testing [122].

Advances in analytical chemistry support systematic screening. Metabolomics-guided profiling enables identification of low-irritation phytochemicals with relevant functional properties [123]. Earlier work demonstrated synergistic enhancement from combinations of small-molecule terpenes, particularly clove- and basil-derived mixtures [124,125]. Screening strategies that integrate chemical profiling, functional evaluation and formulation compatibility are more effective than empirical testing alone.

### 8.2. Mechanistic insights into skin barrier modulation

Mechanistic understanding remains central for rational deployment of natural bioenhancers. Many plant-derived enhancers modulate stratum corneum lipids by altering lamellar order and increasing acyl chain mobility. Perilla ketone disrupted ordered lipid regions in ATR-FTIR and DSC studies, correlating with increased diffusion [23]. Monoterpenes such as cineole and menthol weakened intercellular hydrogen bonding and induced keratin conformational changes, reducing resistance across intercellular pathways [126].

Enhancer performance depends strongly on the physicochemical properties of both enhancer and permeant. Nonpolar enhancers preferentially increase permeation of lipophilic compounds by fluidising lipid domains, whereas polar enhancers support hydrophilic transport through aqueous pathways [127]. Mechanistic diversity extends beyond terpenes. Polyglyceryl-3 dioleate increased permeation by displacing ceramide-drug interactions, while borneol altered ceramide and fatty acid organisation to support diffusion of larger or less lipophilic molecules [128].

Interpretation remains complicated by the multicomponent nature of essential oils, where synergistic or antagonistic interactions between constituents influence lipid and protein structure [6]. *In vitro* and *ex vivo* models dominate mechanistic research but do not fully capture enzymatic activity, lipid turnover or long-term barrier adaptation in living skin [129]. Multi-scale approaches combining molecular dynamics simulations with high-resolution imaging increasingly support structural mapping of enhancer-lipid interactions and inform formulation design [24,89].

### 8.3. Sustainable sourcing and supply constraints

Growing demand for natural bioenhancers increases pressure on plant resources and raises sustainability concerns. Many enhancers derive from essential oils, resins or leaves, and unsustainable harvesting threatens biodiversity and ecosystem stability [130]. Ethical sourcing frameworks such as ISSC-MAP and FairWild promote responsible

harvesting and support rural communities [131,132].

Valorisation of agricultural by-products provides sustainable alternatives. Pomegranate seed oil enhanced *trans*-resveratrol permeation [133], citrus peel waste supplied D-limonene for nanoemulsion systems [85], and onion peel and olive pruning residues yielded polyphenol-rich extracts with cosmeceutical potential [134].

Availability constraints persist. Medicinal plants show environmental sensitivity that limits large-scale cultivation, with climate, season and geography influencing yield and composition [135]. Green extraction and certified sourcing increase production costs [136]. Biotechnology offers alternatives through fermentation, synthetic biology and plant tissue culture, enabling controlled production of terpenoids and related compounds [137].

### 8.4. Bridging the translational gap to real-world applications

Laboratory findings often do not translate directly into predictable performance in commercial formulations. Many studies rely on *in vitro* or *ex vivo* diffusion models that use controlled hydration and uniform barrier integrity, conditions that do not reflect real-world variability in human skin [16]. Limited *in vivo* and clinical data further constrain interpretation, and only a small number of natural enhancers have been evaluated in human studies [6].

Regulatory constraints influence translation. Demonstrating enhanced delivery may trigger drug-level regulatory scrutiny, discouraging manufacturers from generating such data [138]. Formulation challenges add complexity. Essential oils may introduce volatility, odour or instability, requiring encapsulation or nanocarrier systems to maintain acceptable sensory and stability profiles [139].

Standardised assessment methods remain limited. Techniques such as tape stripping and confocal imaging provide quantifiable measures but show protocol-dependent variability [140]. Advances in nanocarriers, hybrid delivery systems and minimally invasive enhancement tools continue to support the development of formulations capable of consistent skin penetration when combined with natural enhancers [2, 126]. Table 4 summarises selected stability challenges and encapsulation approaches discussed in the literature.

### 8.5. Future perspectives for skin-brightening applications

Current evidence for natural bioenhancers in skin-brightening formulations remains limited. Brightening agents such as arbutin, kojic acid, and niacinamide are predominantly hydrophilic compounds with restricted permeation across the stratum corneum, which creates persistent delivery challenges [148]. Chitosan-based nanoparticles have improved transdermal delivery of  $\beta$ -arbutin, while formulations containing natural biopolymers and peppermint oil have enhanced diffusion

**Table 4**  
Stability challenges and encapsulation strategies for natural bioactives.

| Bioactive                                    | Stability issue                                                     | Encapsulation strategy | Reference  |
|----------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------|------------|
| Essential oils (e.g., limonene, citrus oils) | Volatility; oxidation during exposure to air, light and heat        | Nanoencapsulation      | [141, 142] |
| Hyaluronic acid                              | Hydrolysis and enzymatic degradation                                | Nanogels               | [65]       |
| Polyphenols (e.g., quercetin, resveratrol)   | Oxidation                                                           | Liposomes              | [143]      |
| Retinol/Retinoids                            | Degradation by light, heat and oxygen                               | Microencapsulation     | [144]      |
| Vitamin C (L-ascorbic acid)                  | Oxidation; degradation in aqueous and neutral-alkaline environments | Liposomes              | [145, 146] |
| Vitamin E (tocopherols)                      | Oxidation and rancidity during storage                              | Microencapsulation     | [147]      |

of kojic acid [149,150]. Nanocarrier-based systems and formulation technologies account for most reported advances, whereas evidence supporting direct permeation-enhancing effects of natural bioenhancers remains limited [151,152]. Current evidence remains insufficient to define the specific contribution of natural bioenhancers to skin-brightening formulations.

Variability in natural materials, limitations in dermal delivery assessment methods, and limited clinical evidence constrain broader application of natural bioenhancers in cosmeceutical formulations. Computational approaches may support identification of candidate bioenhancers before experimental evaluation. Formulation design should remain aligned with the intended site of action because enhanced skin permeation is not the preferred outcome for all topical applications. Retention within superficial skin layers may provide greater benefit than deeper penetration for selected cosmeceutical indications.

## 9. Conclusion

This review consolidates current evidence and defines the role of natural bioenhancers within topical delivery systems. Natural bioenhancers represent a diverse class of ingredients used to improve dermal and transdermal delivery in cosmeceutical and topical systems. Findings across solution platforms, semisolid matrices, transdermal patches, hybrid arrangements and nano-enabled carriers show that formulation architecture strongly influences enhancement behaviour. Natural compounds such as alkaloid, fatty acids, flavonoids, polysaccharides, and bioactive terpenes alter stratum corneum properties through effects on lipid packing, fluidity, hydration and intercellular diffusion pathways. Effectiveness depends on alignment between enhancer chemistry, active ingredient characteristics and formulation structure. Anti-ageing systems, barrier-repair preparations, anti-inflammatory formats and scalp or hair applications demonstrate cases where natural enhancers increase penetration efficiency when placed within compatible delivery environments. Analytical, imaging and modelling tools expand mechanistic insight, although uncertainties remain regarding long-term exposure, cumulative effects and *in vivo* relevance. Several constraints influence wider adoption. Variability in natural raw materials, sustainability pressures, formulation instability, limited clinical validation and regulatory ambiguity at the cosmetic-drug boundary remain important considerations. Future progress requires evaluation frameworks supported by reliable sourcing, precise analytical characterisation, targeted formulation design and consistent dermal delivery assessment.

## CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Emran Habibi:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Validation, Methodology, Conceptualization. **Leila Panahi:** Writing – original draft, Software. **Gamal Moustafa Mahmoud Abdelfattah:** Writing – original draft. **Mohammad Hossein Hosseinzadeh:** Writing – original draft. **Madiha Kousar:** Writing – original draft. **Satyajit D. Sarker:** Writing – review & editing, Conceptualization. **Lutfun Nahar:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Validation, Methodology, Conceptualization.

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## Declaration of competing interest

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## Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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