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Induced expression of P-gp and BCRP transporters on brain endothelial cells using transferrin functionalized nanostructured lipid carriers: a first step of a potential strategy for the treatment of Alzheimer's disease

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Abstract

P-glycoprotein (P-gp) and Breast Cancer Resistance Protein (BCRP) are two transporters expressed in human neural stem/progenitor cells and at the Blood-Brain Barrier (BBB) level with decreased activity in the early stage of Alzheimer's disease (AD). Both proteins, have a protective role for the embryonic stem cells in the early developmental step, maintaining them in an undifferentiated state, and limit the access of exogenous and endogenous agents to the brain being a first line of defence. Recently, some of us selected compound MC111 from a P-gp/BCRP ligands library investigating its role as multitarget strategy for AD treatment, considering its ability to induce the expression and activity of both proteins. However, this potential approach highlighted some limitations due to the ubiquitous physiological expression of the efflux transporters in different compartments of our body and to a moderate toxicity observed for endothelial cells. Therefore, to avoid side effects due to unspecific interactions, a selective MC111 delivery system based on nanostructured lipid carriers, functionalized with transferrin (Tf) as targeting moiety toward Tf receptor highly expressed on BBB even in AD states, was formulated and investigated *in vitro* on hCMEC/D3 cells. The targeting strategy allows MC111 to selectively induce the expression of P-gp and BCRP transporters on brain endothelial cells and thus triggering the clearance of amyloid β peptide from the brain.

Keywords: Nanostructured Lipid Nanoparticle (NLC), blood-brain barrier delivery, ABC transporters, transferrin, Alzheimer disease, MC111.

1. Introduction

Alzheimer disease (AD) is a neurodegenerative illness representing the leading cause of dementia worldwide. It is estimated that about 35 million people over 60 years of age are affected by dementia and this number is expected to triplicate by 2050 (Prince et al. 2013). As known, the neuropathological features of AD are the presence of the senile plaques constituted by amyloid β peptide accumulation and the neurofibrillary tangles formed by highly phosphorylated *Tau* proteins (Contino et al. 2013; Kung 2012). The current treatment is only aimed to hit the neuropsychiatric and behavioural symptoms using, as FDA approved AD therapy, cholinesterase inhibitors (tacrine, donepezil, rivastigmine, galantamine) and the *N*-methyl-D-aspartate receptor antagonist, memantine (Cummings, Morstorf, and Zhong 2014). In this complex scenario, P-glycoprotein (P-gp) and Breast Cancer Resistance Protein (BCRP), two ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters proteins, play an important role in AD and might represent potential biomarkers for the development of new therapies. In fact, these two proteins highly expressed in human neural stem/progenitor cells and at the blood-brain barrier (BBB) level (Erdei et al. 2014; Islam et al. 2005), act as “protective barrier” for the embryonic stem cells, maintaining them in an undifferentiated state. Endothelial cells at the BBB level produce soluble factors that in physiological conditions, being P-gp substrate, do not enter at the brain level as effluxed by the pump, while, in pathological condition as in AD, where the pump is downregulated, these factors are not effluxed and thus enter the BBB inducing a modification on the microenvironment and on the homeostasis of stem cells with a functional alteration in neurogenesis (Islam et al. 2005). Therefore, modulation of these ABC transporters could be suggested as a new strategy to promote cell self-renewal without differentiation. Moreover, P-gp exerts a pivotal role in the clearance of amyloid β peptide from the brain and thus, the decreased activity and expression of the transporter observed in AD is one of the causes of the senile plaque formation in the early stage of the disease (Colabufo et al. 2010; Contino et al. 2013; Deo et al. 2014). Considering the importance of P-gp and BCRP in the onset of AD, some of co-authors identified, from a P-gp/BCRP ligands library, compound MC111 as multitarget agent able to induce the expression and the activity of the two transporters exerting a neuroprotective anti-AD activity (Colabufo et al. 2018). However, this potential approach highlighted some limitations due to the ubiquitous physiological expression of the efflux transporters in different compartments of our body and to a moderate toxicity observed for endothelial cells. Therefore, to avoid side effects due to unspecific interactions, we designed a selective delivery system able to release MC111 at the BBB, which integrity is usually preserved in neurodegenerative diseases, such as AD. Hence, brain targeting for the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases is still a challenge. Several approaches have been explored in order to allow brain delivery, and among these, the use of pharmaceutical nanoparticle systems seems to be one of the most promising strategies (Arduino et al. 2020; Lopalco, Annalisa, et al. 2018; Laquintana

et al. 2014; Lopalco, Cutrignelli, et al. 2018) . In particular, lipid-based nanosystems represent a promising strategy for the brain delivery due to their biocompatibility and inherent ability to reach the BBB even without any functionalization (Arduino et al. 2020; Tapeinos, Battaglini, and Ciofani 2017). In particular, nanostructured lipid carriers (NLCs) as a modified version of solid lipid nanoparticles (SLNs), represent an improved generation of this kind of nanoparticles. Indeed, the problems associated with SLNs such as a limited drug loading capacity and drug expulsion during storage are avoided by NLCs (Hsu et al. 2010). The lipid matrix in NLCs, which is composed of optimized solid and liquid lipids, could result in an imperfect crystal structure and therefore provide more room for drug accommodation, especially for hydrophobic drugs (Li, Jia, and Niu 2018). The efficacy of NLCs as BBB targeting can be further improved by coating their surface with ligands for specific receptors localized on the brain endothelial cells, such as transferrin receptors (TfR), which are highly expressed on the luminal side of brain capillary endothelial cells (Pinheiro et al. 2020; Lopalco, Annalisa, et al. 2018). Despite AD is accompanied by a BBB dysfunction, it was demonstrated that TfR levels are not altered by AD neuropathology and they do not significantly fluctuate with age (Bourassa et al. 2019). In this way, the lipid nanoparticles can benefit of an active drug targeting strategy towards BBB. The aim of this investigation was the development and characterization of Tf functionalized NLCs loaded with MC111, exploring its ability to be selectively delivered at BBB level, thus resulting as a promising approach for AD treatment. Accordingly, the NLCs were characterized for their size and size distribution, surface morphology, drug encapsulation efficiency and drug release profile. Moreover, the ability to target the BBB and to release the drug inside the cells as well as the activity of the new developed system on P-gp and BCRP, were studied on an *in vitro* BBB model (hCMEC/D3 cells) in order to confirm the beneficial effect of the proposed strategy in comparison with the compound MC111 alone.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Materials

All chemicals were of the highest purity available and were used as received without further purification or distillation. 1,2-distearoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine-N-[carboxy(polyethylene glycol)-2000] (sodium salt) (DSPE-PEG(2000)-COOH) and 1,2-distearoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine-N-[poly(ethylene glycol)2000-N'-carboxyfluorescein] (ammonium salt) (18:0 PEG2000 PE CF) were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids. Cetyl palmitate and oleic acid were purchased from Farmalabor. Pluronic F68, 1-ethyl-3-(3-dimethylaminopropyl) carbodiimide (EDC) and N-hydroxysuccinimide (NHS) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. All solvents used were of analytical grade and purchased from Aldrich. All aqueous solutions were

prepared using water obtained from a Milli-Q gradient A-10 system (Millipore, 18.2 MΩ·cm, organic carbon content $\geq 4 \mu\text{g/L}$).

2.2. Preparation of Nanostructured Lipid Nanoparticles loaded with MC111

NLCs loaded MC 111 with or without Tf –targeting moiety were prepared by an oil-in-water homogenization process at high temperature according to a procedure reported in literature (Arduino et al. 2020). Briefly, 1.5 mg of MC 111 was dissolved in 500 μL of hot methanol (65 °C) and, 80 mg of cetyl palmitate, 20 mg of oleic acid and 12 mg of DSPE-PEG (2000)-COOH were co-dissolved in chloroform (1 mL). Afterward, the methanol and chloroform solutions were softly stirred to obtain an homogeneous mixture, then this organic solution was added drop by drop to 5 mL of ultrapure water containing Pluronic F68(1% p/V) at 65 °C and sonicated for 15 min by using a probe-tip ultrasonicator (0.27 W). The organic phase was quickly evaporated at 65 °C through the use of a rotary evaporator. The aqueous solution was left at room temperature for 2 h to permit the complete evaporation of the organic solvents and, then, it was maintained at 4 °C for 15 min to allow the SLNs formation. To remove any surfactant, solvent residuals and non-encapsulated drug, the produced SLNs were carefully purified by using ultrapure water and centrifugal concentrators (Centricon Centriplus YM100) at 800 g for 1 h at 4 °C. Empty NLCs were made without the addition of MC111. To determine the cellular uptake of NLCs, the formulation contained a fluorescent PEG lipid. In particular, 40 μg of 18:0 PEG2000 PE CF was added to the organic phase before the sonication. All the nanoformulations were kept in ultrapure water at 4 °C.

2.3. Functionalization of Nanostructured Lipid Nanoparticle with transferrin

The preparation of Tf functionalized NLCs was achieved by binding the carboxyl group of DSPE-PEG (2000)-COOH present on the surface of preformed NLCs, with the amino group of Tf as described in literature (Jhaveri et al. 2018). In order to activate the carboxylic group 4 mg of EDC and 1.5 mg of NHS (both are catalyst) were mixed in 1 mL of NLCs at 25 °C for 5 h, and immediately after left under stirring at 4 °C for 8 h. Subsequently, 2 mg of Tf were added to activated NLCs and gently stirred at 4 °C for 24 h. The Tf-NLCs were purified by centrifugation under the same condition described above.

In order to investigate the density of Tf on the NLCs surface a Bicinchonic Acid assay (BCA) kit was used, evaluating, through indirect method, the percentage of unbound Tf compared to the total amount of Tf used for the conjugation. The absorbance at 540 nm was recorded (UV-vis spectroscopy) and the protein concentration was determined by comparison to a standard curve (5 to 0.2 mg/mL).

2.4. Evaluation of Drug Encapsulation Efficiency

The encapsulation efficacy (EE %) values of MC111 loaded in hydrophobic core of SLNs was obtained by evaluating the drug content in 500 μ L of the NLCs aqueous dispersion. In particular, NLCs were dissolved in 2 mL of hexane, in order to solubilize the lipid matrix, and 2 mL of DMSO for the extraction of MC 111. The DMSO was analyzed for drug content by UV-vis spectroscopy (Perkin Elmer Lambda Bio20) exploiting the absorbance peak at 276 nm. MC 111 concentration was estimated through calibration curve. The EE % values of drug were calculated according the following formula:

$$\text{Encapsulation Efficacy (\%)} = \frac{\text{Weight of drug in NLCs}}{\text{Weight of drug added initially}} \times 100$$

2.5. *In vitro* drug release study

Release studies of MC111 from NLCs were performed using Franz cells (Arduino et al. 2020), in particular the experiments were conducted in presence and absence of human serum in the donor compartment. Specifically, 300 μ L of NLC-MC111 dispersion was diluted with 300 μ L of water or human serum and placed on the diffusion barrier (area of 0.6 cm²) formed by an artificial cellulose acetate membrane (0.1-0.5 kDa, Fisher Scientific Milano), which separates donor and receptor cells. Phosphate buffer (PBS, 10 mM, pH 7.4) was selected as receptor medium and it was continually stirred and maintained at a temperature of (37 \pm 0.5) $^{\circ}$ C. In a total time of 96 h, 0.2 mL were collected from the receiving compartment at set times, and in order to maintain the sink conditions the same amount of fresh PBS was added in the receptor cell. The collected fractions were analyzed by UV/Vis to determine the drug content. Each experiment was performed in triplicate and was carried out in three independent Franz cells using three different batches of NLCs.

2.6. *Particle size, size distribution and surface charge*

The mean hydrodynamic diameter, size distribution, and ζ -potential values of the NLCs were determined by using the Zetasizer Nano ZS, Malvern Instruments Ltd., Worcestershire, UK (DTS 5.00). In particular, size and size distribution were measured by means of dynamic light scattering (DLS), at room temperature, after sample dilution in demineralized water. Size distribution was described in terms of polydispersity index (PDI) and the average particle size was reported as intensity mean diameter. The ζ -potential measurements were carried out by using a laser Doppler velocimetry (LDV), at room temperature, after sample dilution in freshly prepared aqueous KCl solution (1 mM). All reported data are presented as means \pm standard deviation of three replicates.

2.7. *Cells.*

hCMEC/D3 cells, a human brain microvascular endothelial stabilized cell line, were a kind gift from Prof. Pierre-Olivier Couraud (Institut Cochin, Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique UMR 8104, INSERM U567, Paris, France) and were cultured according to (Weksler et al., 2013).

For cytotoxicity studies hCMEC/D3 cells, after coating the 96-well plate with 1% gelatin (SIGMA-G9391), were seeded at a density of 10,000 cells per well. For permeability experiments cells were seeded at 50,000/cm² density, and grown for 7 days up to confluence in 6-well Transwell devices (0.4 µm diameter pores-size, Transwell insert surface: 4.67 cm²; Corning Life Sciences, Chorges, France for transport assays) or 24-well Transwell devices (0.4 µm diameter pores-size, Transwell insert surface: 0.33 cm²; Corning Life Sciences for TEER measure), to allow the formation of a competent BBB. Before each experiment, TEER and permeability coefficients of 70 kDa-Dextran FITC, [¹⁴C]-sucrose (589 mCi/mmol; PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA), [¹⁴C]-inulin (10 mCi/mmol; PerkinElmer) and lucifer yellow (Invitrogen Life Technology, Milano, Italy), were measured as previously described (Monnaert et al. 2004; Riganti et al. 2014; Weksler, Romero, and Couraud 2013) in BBB cells in the absence of GB cells. TEER was measured using a Voltohmetro Millicell-ERS (Millipore, Billerica, MA), according to the manufacturer's instructions. The mean TEER value of the plastic insert in the absence of cells was 26.73 Ω cm² (n=8). This value was subtracted from each value obtained in the presence of the cells.

2.8 Cytotoxicity assay

After 24 h necessary for the adhesion of hCMEC/D3 on 96 well gelatin coated plate, cells were treated for 24 h with NLC-MC111, Tf-NLC-MC111, empty NLCs and MC111 alone as a reference. The concentration range tested was 0.1-50 µM in terms of drug corresponding to a lipids concentration range of 5-3000 µg/mL. The results obtained were expressed in terms of % cell viability as a function of drug or lipids concentrations and represented with a histogram to be able to compare the toxicity of the drug as such and included in the NLCs and of empty nanovectors.

2.9. NLC uptake.

hCMEC/D3 cells were seeded at 50,000/cm² density, and grown for 7 days up to confluence on sterile glass coverslips and incubated with fluorescently labelled NLC (Fluo-NLC-MC111 and Fluo-Tf-NLC-MC111) at a final concentration of fluorophore of 10 µM for 24 h, rinsed with PBS, fixed with 4% w/v paraformaldehyde for 15 min, washed three times with PBS and incubated with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, diluted 1:10,000, Sigma) for 3 min at room temperature in the dark. Cells were washed three times with PBS and once with water, then the slides were mounted with 4µL of Gel Mount Aqueous Mounting and examined with a Leica DC100 fluorescence microscope (Leica

Microsystems GmbH, Wetzlar, Germany). For each experimental point, a minimum of 5 microscopic fields were examined.

2.10. NLC permeability.

hCMEC/D3 cells were seeded at 50,000/cm² density and grown for 7 days up to confluence in Transwell insert and incubated 24 h with NLC-MC111, functionalized Tf-NLC-MC111 and their fluorescently labelled counterparts at a final concentration of MC111 of 10 µM. Cells were collected after gentle scraping, together with the medium of the upper and lower chamber. Cells were rinsed with 1 ml PBS, centrifuged at 1,200 g for 5 min and sonicated, then frozen at -20 °C and freeze-dried at -50°C for 24 h and 0.060 mbar by using a 5 Lio Pascal DGT. The lyophilized samples were treated with acetonitrile (500 µL) centrifuged (5000 rpm; 5 minutes). The supernatants were analyzed by HPLC (Zorbax Eclipse Plus C18; 60/40 = CH₃CN/H₂O, 1mL/min; λ = 250nm) and peak area recorded and interpolated from a first order calibration curve ($Y = mX + C$; Y = peak area and X = drug concentration). Unknown concentrations of MC111 in samples obtained from NLC permeability experiment in upper, lower and cell compartments were determined by interpolation from a calibration curve built with known MC111 concentrations.

2.11. Immunoblot

Cells were rinsed with ice-cold lysis buffer (50 mM, Tris, 10 mM EDTA, 1% v/v Triton-X100), supplemented with the protease inhibitor cocktail set III (80 µM aprotinin, 5 mM bestatin, 1.5 mM leupeptin, 1 mM pepstatin; Calbiochem, San Diego, CA), 2 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) and 1 mM Na₃VO₄, then sonicated and centrifuged at 13,000 × g for 10 min at 4°C. 20 µg of extracted proteins were subjected to SDS-PAGE and probed with the following antibodies: anti-Pgp (C219; Calbiochem), anti-BCRP (M-70; Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc., Santa Cruz, CA), anti-β-tubulin (D-10 and TUJ1; Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc.), followed by a peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA). The membranes were washed with Tris-buffered saline-Tween 0.1% v/v solution, and the proteins were detected by enhanced chemiluminescence (Bio-Rad Laboratories).

2.12. P-gp and BCRP activity.

The ATPase activity was measured in membrane vesicles as described previously (Kopecka et al. 2014). After treatment for 24 h with NLC-MC111, functionalized Tf-NLC-MC111 and their empty counterparts, cells were washed with Ringer's solution (148.7 mM NaCl, 2.55 mM K₂HPO₄, 0.45 mM KH₂PO₄, 1.2 mM MgSO₄; pH 7.4), lysed on crushed ice with lysis buffer (10 mM Hepes/Tris, 5 mM EDTA, 5 mM EGTA, 2 mM dithiothreitol; pH 7.4) supplemented with 2 mM PMSF, 1 mM aprotinin, 10 µg/ml pepstatin, 10 µg/ml leupeptin, and subjected to nitrogen cavitation at 1200 psi for 20 min.

Samples were centrifuged at $300 \times g$ for 10 min in the pre-centrifugation buffer (10 mM Tris/HCl, 25 mM sucrose; pH 7.5), overlaid on a sucrose cushion (10 mM Tris/HCl, 35% w/v sucrose, 1 mM EDTA; pH 7.5) and centrifuged at $14,000 \times g$ for 10 min. The interface was collected, diluted in the centrifugation buffer (10 mM Tris/HCl, 250 mM sucrose; pH 7.5) and subjected to a third centrifugation at $100,000 \times g$ for 45 min. The vesicle pellet was re-suspended in 0.5 ml centrifugation buffer and stored at -80°C until the use, after the quantification of the protein content. 100 μg of total proteins were immuno-precipitated with an anti-Pgp or anti-BCRP antibody overnight at 4°C using 25 μl of PureProteome A/G Mix Magnetic Beads (Millipore, Bedford, MA). 20 μg of the immuno-purified protein were incubated for 30 min at 37°C with 50 μl of the reaction mix (25 mM Tris/HCl, 3 mM ATP, 50 mM KCl, 2.5 mM MgSO_4 , 3 mM dithiothreitol, 0.5 mM EGTA, 2 mM Ouabain, 3 mM NaN_3 ; pH 7.0). The reaction was stopped by adding 0.2 ml ice-cold stopping buffer (0.2% w/v ammonium molybdate, 1.3% v/v H_2SO_4 , 0.9% w/v SDS, 2.3% w/v trichloroacetic acid, 1% w/v ascorbic acid). After 30 min incubation at room temperature, the absorbance of the phosphate hydrolyzed from ATP was measured at 620 nm, using a Packard EL340 microplate reader (Bio-Tek Instruments). The absorbance was converted into nmoles hydrolyzed phosphate (Pi)/min/mg proteins, according to the titration curve previously prepared.

2.13. Statistical analysis.

Results were analyzed by a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's test, using GraphPad Prism software (v 6.01). $p < 0.05$ was considered significant. All data were expressed as means \pm SD. For cytotoxicity assay a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Bonferroni post hoc tests (GraphPad Prism vers. 5) was used and * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. were considered significant.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Preparation and characterization of Nanostructured Lipid Carrier loaded MC111

In the present work the NLCs have been developed as a valid alternative to the SLNs. Despite SLNs offered many advantages in the delivery of drugs and had impressive results in antitumor therapy, they face the problems of low drug encapsulation and increased drug expulsion during storage (Han et al. 2014). For these reasons, NLCs were developed to overcome the drawbacks of SLNs. In order to obtain a drug delivery system for MC111, NLCs containing MC111 and functionalized with Tf were prepared by hot homogenization technique as described in literature (Arduino et al. 2020). The NLCs are also prepared using a PEG modified phospholipid, which allowed the binding with Tf by its carboxylic group, but also the function of reducing the opsonization of NLCs and the uptake by

the endothelial reticular system (Saraiva et al. 2016). In particular, Tf was conjugated to the carboxyl group of DSPE-PEG (2000)-COOH as already described before (Jhaveri et al. 2018). Moreover, for cellular studies, fluorescent NLCs were prepared by adding a fluorescent lipid to the preparation. Then, the fully characterization in terms of dimension, polydispersity index, zeta potential, encapsulation efficiency and Tf coupling efficiency was carried out. Results are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Intensity-average hydrodynamic diameter and corresponding polydispersity index (PDI) determined by DLS, ζ -Potential value, drug encapsulation efficiency (EE%) and conjugated Tf % of all prepared NLCs.

Nanoformulation	d_{mean} (nm)	Polydispersity index (PdI)	ζ-potential (mV)	Encapsulation Efficiency (EE%)	Conjugated Tf (%)
Empty NLC	137.8±2.4	0.155±0.022	-42.7±0.971	/	/
NLC-MC111	117.4±2.1	0.200±0.028	-41.2±0.821	56.2±1.2	/
Tf-NLC	128.4±1.0	0.170±0.033	-41.8±0.669	/	61.5±3.2
Tf-NLC-MC111	118.4±2.1	0.202±0.028	-38.6±0.907	58.3±2.3	61.1±2.6
Fluo-NLC-MC111	126.7±1.9	0.189±0.025	-39.4±0.675	49.7±3.7	/
Fluo-Tf-NLC-MC111	119.6±1.1	0.177±0.033	-31.7±1.011	50.1±1.8	70.7±1.4

Mean ± SD are reported, n=3

As you can see from the Table 1, the particle size of the empty NLCs, Tf-NLC, NLC-MC111, Tf-NLC-MC111, fluorescent NLC-MC111 and fluorescent Tf-NLC-MC111 were found to be approximately around 120 nm with narrow distribution range, which was reflected by their small polydispersity index (< 0.2). Particle size < 150 nm is an advantage for NLCs because it decreases uptake by the liver, prolongs circulation time in the blood, and improves bioavailability. Small vectors are also minimally phagocytosed by macrophages, so destruction and clearance are minimized (Li, Jia, and Niu 2018). In addition to particle size, the surface ζ -Potential also plays an important role in determining the in vivo fate of nanoparticles. The ζ -Potential measurements highlighted the presence of an overall negative charge on the surface of all NLCs and provided values ranging from -31.7 to 42.7 mV that indicated their good colloidal stability in aqueous solution and a favourable fate in the blood stream (Table 1). (Li, Jia, and Niu 2018). Infact, nanoparticles with neutral and negative charges have been demonstrated to reduce the adsorption of serum proteins in the blood stream, which are negatively charged, thus resulting in longer circulation half-times respect to the positively charged nanoparticles (Alexis et al. 2008; Tsou et al. 2017). Moreover, it has been shown that nanoparticles with high positive charge cause immediate toxicity to the BBB (Lockman et al. 2004; Saraiva et al. 2016).

For all the NLCs, the EE % values represent the amount (w/w %) of the drug incorporated in the lipid core of NLCs with respect to the starting drug amount employed for the preparation of lipid nanovectors. The EE values were 56.2 ± 1.2 % and 58.3 ± 2.3 % for NLC-MC111 and Tf-NLC-MC111 respectively (Table 1), they did not exhibit any significant alteration after Tf decoration, indicating that the stability of the NLCs were not influenced by Tf (Pineiro et al. 2020). Fluorescent NLCs showed a small reduction in EE% values, in particular 49.7 ± 3.7 % and 50.1 ± 1.8 % for Fluo-NLC-MC111 and Fluo-Tf-NLC-MC111 respectively (Table 1). Nevertheless, values approximately equal to and greater than 50% revealed good encapsulation efficiency. The NLCs compared to the SLNs have a less orderly crystalline structure, in fact they have small cavities in the lipid matrix that could have allowed a better accommodation of the drugs (Saraiva et al. 2016).

In addition, the amount of Tf in all functionalized NLCs was quantified via BCA assay, and the results showed that the binding efficiency of Tf was 61.5 ± 3.2 % and 61.1 ± 2.6 % for Tf-NLC and Tf-NLC-MC111 respectively, and 70.7 ± 1.4 for fluorescent Tf-NLC-MC111 (Table 1). The functionalization of NLCs with Tf improved the delivery of MC111 to BBB by internalization in endothelial cells by means of Tf-receptor mediated endocytosis.

In vitro drug release study was performed on NLC-MC111 and Tf-NLC-MC111 using Franz-diffusion cells at 37 °C in PBS (pH 7.4). As reported in literature, drug release from lipid-based nanoparticles occurs following the degradation of the lipid matrix of nanoparticles by the enzymes present in cells (Arduino et al. 2020). For this reason, the experiments were conducted in presence and absence of human serum in the donor compartment. It was clearly possible to observe that in absence of human serum no release of MC111 occurred for both formulations (Fig. 1), while in presence of human serum the percentage of MC111 released from NLCs was found to be 95.9% for unfunctionalized NLCs (NLC-MC111) and 87.9% for functionalized NLCs (Tf-NLC-MC111) in about 120 h of incubation (Fig. 1). Noteworthy, the coating of Tf on the surface of NLCs led to much slower release of the drug in comparison to unfunctionalized NLCs and this behaviour is quite in agreement with data found in literature (Lopalco, Annalisa, et al. 2018; Sonali et al. 2016).

[Please, insert Figure 1]

3.2. Cytotoxicity study

The effect on hCMEC/D3 cells viability induced by empty NLCs, NLC-MC111, its functionalized counterpart Tf-NLC-MC111 and free MC111 after 24 h of treatment, was determined by the MTT assay (Fanizza et al. 2016; Iacobazzi et al. 2017; Depalo et al. 2017). As can be seen from the graph in figure 2, the exposure of cells to MC111 alone revealed a drug induced toxicity higher than that

observed in cells treated with NLC-MC111, at each tested concentration. In particular, starting from concentration 10 μM in terms of MC111 (corresponding to a 600 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ concentration of lipids) up to 0.1 μM (corresponding to a 6 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ concentration of lipids) the % cell viability values recorded for cells treated with MC111-encapsulated in NLC, both Tf-functionalized or not, were significantly higher than values obtained for free MC111-treated cells. Such a result can be positively considered for the purpose to overcome one of the limits of the clinical use of MC111, namely its toxicity towards endothelial cells. The MTT assay was also useful for selecting the concentration 10 μM in terms of MC111 as the most appropriate to perform the permeability test with NLC-MC111, Tf-functionalized or not, and with free MC111, balancing the cytotoxic effects on endothelial cells and the limit of instrumental detection of MC111. Namely, at concentration 10 μM , the % cell viability values were $38\pm 1\%$, $66\pm 4\%$, $60\pm 3\%$ for MC111, NLC-MC111 and Tf-NLC-MC111, respectively. Noteworthy, Tf-NLC-MC111 showed a slightly higher cytotoxicity respect to NLC-MC111 in the same concentration range, probably because the targeting moiety, giving the system the ability to be internalized via Tf-receptor-mediated endocytosis, allows a greater intracellular drug accumulation. Another aspect to be considered, not least in importance, is that empty NLC, *per se*, showed no considerable toxicity towards endothelial cells at each tested concentration expressed in terms of lipids.

[Please, insert Figure 2]

3.3. Uptake and permeability of Nanostructured Lipid Carrier loaded MC111 at blood-brain barrier level

The ABC transporters, mainly Pgp and BCRP, expressed on BBB are the primary intended targets of NLC-loaded MC111. We thus set up the biological assays in hCMEC/D3 cells, cultured in BBB-forming conditions (Weksler, Romero, and Couraud 2013). The mean permeability to 70-kDa dextran, sucrose and inulin, considered as indexes of a competent BBB (Monnaert et al. 2004), were: $0.23 \pm 0.06 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm min}^{-1}$, $0.98 \pm 0.25 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm min}^{-1}$, $0.38 \pm 0.09 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm min}^{-1}$, respectively. The mean TEER value was $34 \pm 6 \Omega \text{ cm}^2$. Overall, these values suggested a competent BBB. First, we aimed at clarifying if NLC were internalized by BBB endothelial cells and showed a good transcellular permeability. To investigate the first point, we incubated hCMEC/D3 cells with Fluo-NLC-MC111 and Fluo-Tf-NLC-MC111 to track their intracellular localization. As shown in figure 3, after 24 h both Fluo-NLC-MC111 and Fluo-Tf-NLC-MC111 were detected in the cytosol of hCMEC/D3 cells. The distribution was homogeneous for Fluo-NLC-MC111 (Fig.3, upper panel), while Fluo-Tf-NLC-MC111 produced a stronger and more clusterized fluorescence pattern (Fig.3, lower panel). These punctuate fluorescence spots are indicative of the interaction of Fluo-Tf-NLC-

MC111 with the surface TfR and/or of a temporary accumulation within endosomes after the TfR-triggered endocytosis (Fig. 3, lower panel). The receptor-mediated endocytosis has been already reported for Tf-conjugated peptides (Crook et al. 2020) and nanoparticles (dos Santos Rodrigues et al. 2020; Li et al. 2016; Sahin et al. 2017) that enter the BBB cells and are delivered to CNS parenchyma following this pathway of transcytosis (Choudhury et al. 2018; Tashima 2020).

[Please, insert Figure 3]

After the intracellular uptake, we next investigated if the NLCs can cross the BBB and reach the basolateral compartment of BBB inducing the release of the active small molecule MC111, through permeability experiments.

Permeation experiments through hCMEC/D3 cells monolayer were performed by using concentration of drug loaded in NLCs of 10 μ M. The ability of NLC-MC111, Tf-NLC-MC111, Fluo-NLC-MC111 and Fluo-Tf-NLC-MC111 to cross the in vitro BBB model was assessed at 24 h by measuring the concentration of MC111 in the upper, cellular and lower compartments. By measuring MC111 in the samples obtained from the permeability experiment, it was clear that when MC111 was loaded in the NLC (NLC-MC111) it divided among the three compartments, upper, cellular and lower, with a percentage of 49 %, 43 % and 8 %, respectively. Functionalizing NLC with transferrin (Tf-NLC-MC111), MC111 did not pass into the lower compartment but it accumulated in cells (63%) and the remaining amount (37%), was detected in the upper compartment. The transferrin effect is also confirmed when fluorescent NLCs (Fluo-NLC-MC111) have been prepared. In this case MC111 is divided between 42 %, 46 % and 10 % in the upper, cellular and lower compartment, respectively while in the presence of transferrin (Fluo-Tf-NLC-MC111) MC111 was not found in the lower compartment but only in the upper one and in the cells with a percentage of 48 % and 51 %, respectively (Fig. 4).

[Please, insert Figure 4]

In the experimental conditions used, the rate of paracellular leakage of substrates was very low, as measured experimentally in this work and in agreement with previous studies on hCMEC/D3 cells (Riganti et al. 2014; Salaroglio et al. 2019; Salaroglio et al. 2018; Weksler, Romero, and Couraud 2013). According to permeability coefficient data, to the fluorescence pattern and to the distribution of MC111, we reasonably believe that the functionalization with Tf could strongly restricts the delivery of NLC-MC111 to the CNS compartment. Moreover, by increasing the concentration of the compound entrapped within the BBB cells or facing the luminal face of BBB, this innovative drug

delivery system could increase the possibility of MC111 to interact with proteins expressed on the luminal side of BBB, such as P-gp and BCRP.

3.4. Effects of Nanostructured Lipid Carrier loaded MC111 on P-gp and BCRP

We previously observed that MC111 increases the amount of and activity of P-gp and BCRP in breast cancer and colon cancer cells (Colabufo et al. 2018). Thus, we investigated the effect of NLCs on these transporters on BBB. P-gp and BCRP proteins, which were constitutively present in hCMEC/D3 cells (Riganti et al. 2014; Weksler, Romero, and Couraud 2013), resulted unmodified by empty NLC, both with and without Tf. Notably, NLC-MC111, in particular if conjugated with Tf, increased the expression of both proteins (Fig. 5A). Such increase was paralleled by a similar change in the transporters' activity, namely, empty NLC did not modify neither P-gp nor BCRP activity, which was instead augmented by NLC-MC111. The increase was maximal in cells treated with Tf-NLC-MC111 (Fig.5B-C). This trend suggested that MC111 was responsible for the increase in P-gp and BCRP amount, thus explaining the higher activity of the transporters. Tf-conjugated NLCs were the most effective formulations, likely because they delivered a higher amount of MC111 inside the cells, resulting in an increased amount of the transporters. This can be due to increased transcription and/or stability of P-gp and BCRP. Higher was the protein level, higher was the ATPase activity, an index of the maximal catalytic efficiency of the proteins.

[Please, insert Figure 5]

P-gp is heavily involved in the clearance of amyloid β peptide from brain parenchima (Miller, Bauer, and Hartz 2008) and the decrease in P-gp in brain microvascular endothelial cells has been identified as one of the early sign of AD (Hartz et al. 2016; Park et al. 2014; Rosas-Hernandez et al. 2020). Therein, preserving or even increasing the activity of P-gp on BBB cells may be regarded as a promising strategy in preventing the neurological damage due to the accumulation of amyloid β peptide. The role of BCRP in AD is controversial. The protein was not found downregulated in classical AD, but only in the so-called severe capillary cerebral amyloid angiopathy (Carrano et al. 2014). Pharmacological inhibition of BCRP indicated that it is also involved in the baso-apical efflux of amyloid β peptide (Shubbar and Penny 2020). Hence, increasing at the same time P-gp and BCRP activity, as MC111 does, may be a successful strategy in promoting the clearance of amyloid β peptide from brain.

P-gp and BCRP are the main ABC transporters present in adult BBB (Verscheijden et al. 2020). Species-related studies indicated that P-gp is abundantly expressed in rodents, while BCRP plays a predominant role in humans in effluxing catabolites, xenobiotics and drugs (Warren et al. 2009).

These observations are in line with our findings, reporting a higher basal activity of BCRP than of P-gp in human hCMEC/D3 cells. The expression analysis of P-gp and BCRP in *mdr1*^{-/-} and *bcrp*^{-/-} mice pointed out a possible reciprocal regulation between the transporters, meaning that when one protein is down-regulated the other one shows a compensatory up-regulation, and *vice-versa* (Cisternino et al. 2004). Since MC111 increased P-gp expression, the risk of a simultaneous down-regulation of BCRP, with a consequent reduction in the clearance of β -amyloid, xenobiotics and drugs from CNS parenchima, could not be excluded *a priori*, but our assays demonstrate that MC111 was able to increase both P-gp and BCRP at the same time. This feature avoids a dangerous alteration in the CNS homeostasis due to the decrease expression or activity of solely P-gp or BCRP.

4. Conclusions

We identified as new anti-AD therapeutic approach the small molecule MC111 that was active as inducer of the expression and activity of the two transporters, P-gp and BCRP, that result “inactivated” in the early stage of the pathology. The promising results found with this new “regenerative” approach has some limitation due to the physiological expression of both transporters in different compartments of our body and to the MC111 toxicity observed at the endothelial cells level. For these reasons, with the aim to overcome the limits of MC111, we adopted a site-targeted strategy by the design of a novel drug delivery system, NLCs functionalized with transferrin, able to directly release MC111 to the endothelial cells by the use of transferrin as targeting moiety, avoiding side-effects. The targeting strategy allows MC111 to selectively induce the expression of P-gp and BCRP transporters on brain endothelial cells and thus triggering the clearance of amyloid β peptide from the brain.

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Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships, which have, or could be perceived to have, influenced the work reported in this article.

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