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Dopamine-loaded lipid based nanocarriers for nose-to-brain delivery of the neurotransmitter: a comparative study
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Abstract:	Both dopamine (DA) loaded Solid Lipid Nanoparticles (SLN) and liposomes (Lip), intended to enhance the nose-to-brain delivery of neurotransmitter for Parkinson disease patients, were already characterized <i>in vitro</i> in some extent by us. Herein, to gain insight into the structure of SLN, X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy Analysis was carried out and DA-SLN (SLN 1) were found to exhibit high amounts of the neurotransmitter on the surface, whereas the external side of Glycol Chitosan (GCS) containing SLN (SLN 2) possessed only few amounts. However, SLN 2 were characterized by the highest encapsulation DA efficiency (<i>i.e.</i> , 81%). Furthermore, in view of intranasal administration, mucoadhesion tests <i>in vitro</i> were also conducted for SLN and Lip formulations, evidencing high mucoadhesive effect exerted by SLN 2. Concerning <i>ex-vivo</i> studies, SLN and Lip were found to be safe for Olfactory Ensheathing Cells and fluorescent SLN 2 were taken up in a dose-dependent manner reaching the 100% of positive cells, while Lip 2 were internalised by 70% OECs with six-times more lipid concentration. Hence, SLN 2 formulation containing DA and GCS may constitute interesting formulations for further studies and promising dosage form for non-invasive nose-to-brain neurotransmitter delivery.
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To the Editor in Chief of

European Journal of Pharmaceutics and Biopharmaceutics

Prof. A. Goepferich,

University of Regensburg Faculty of Chemistry and Pharmacy, Universitätsstrasse 31, 93040,

Regensburg, Germany

Dear Prof. Goepferich,

Enclosed please find a copy of the manuscript entitled “**Dopamine-loaded lipid based nanocarriers for nose-to-brain delivery of the neurotransmitter: a comparative study**” by A. Trapani et al. submitted for publication to *European Journal of Pharmaceutics and Biopharmaceutics*.

The paper is submitted as a research paper and it deals with the results of investigations concerning *in vitro* and *ex vivo* evaluation of dopamine (DA) loaded solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) formulated in the presence and in the absence of the polysaccharide Glycol Chitosan (GCS) for a potential nasal administration to patients affected by Parkinson disease (PD). Moreover, for sake of comparison,

liposomes containing DA, already studied by some of the co-authors, were also subjected to the same assays employed for SLN. In particular, the *in vitro* evaluation carried out on SLN formulated in the presence of GCS (SLN 2) in Simulated Nasal Fluid allowed to evidence better mucoadhesive properties of these particles. Again, it was assessed that SLN 2 possessed a physical stability higher than the vesicle formulations investigated. Furthermore, no cytotoxicity was detected after exposure of the SLN to Olfactory Ensheathing Cells (OECs). Cytofluorimetric analysis indicated that fluorescent SLN were internalized by OECs in a dose dependent manner in a bigger amount than liposomal formulations. All these results, taken together, suggest that the PEGylated SLN 2 possess a promising potential as delivery systems of the neurotransmitter, better than the vesicle formulations following the nasal route of administration. Hence, SLN 2 constitute an interesting candidate for the treatment of a neurological disorder such as PD.

We believe that the paper has elements which fall within the scope of the *European Journal of Pharmaceutics and Biopharmaceutics*. In our opinion, the study can be of interest for scientists involved in carrier mediated nose-to-brain delivery of pharmaceuticals for the treatment of neurological disorders and especially for PD.

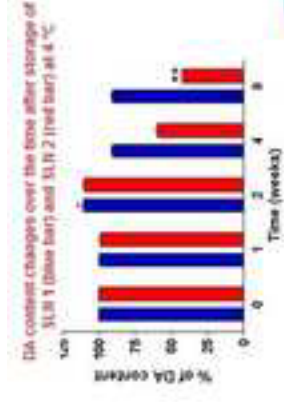
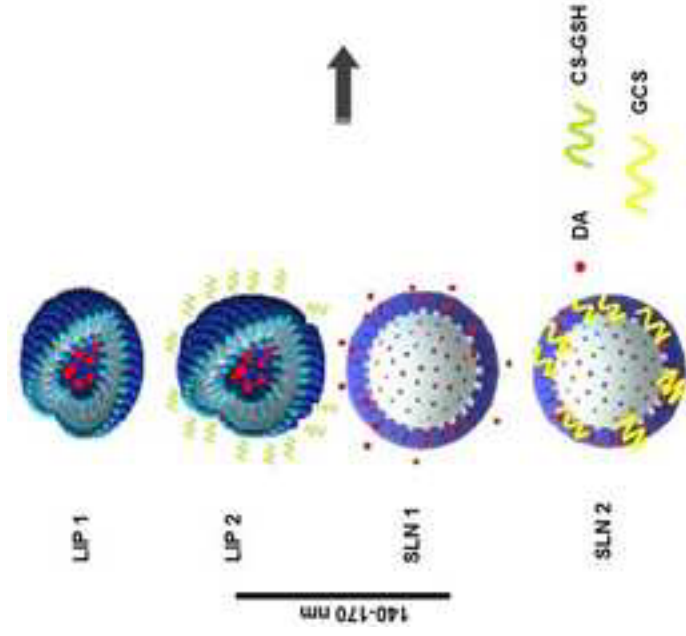
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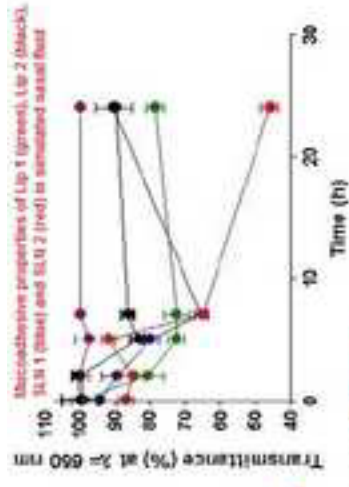
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Prof. Adriana Trapani

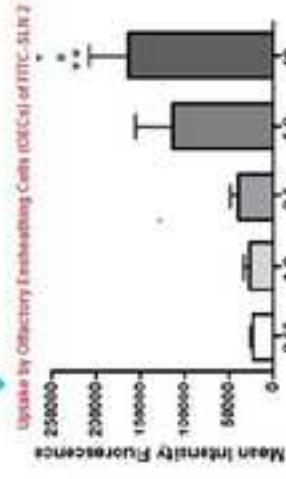
Prof. Sante Di Gioia



in view of access to brain DA delivery



Cytotoxicity of SLN 2 towards DECEs



**Dopamine-loaded lipid based nanocarriers for nose-to-brain delivery of the neurotransmitter:
a comparative study**

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20 Abstract

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3 enhance the nose-to-brain delivery of neurotransmitter for Parkinson disease patients, were already
4 characterized *in vitro* in some extent by us. Herein, to gain insight into the structure of SLN, X-ray
5 Photoelectron Spectroscopy Analysis was carried out and DA-SLN (SLN 1) were found to exhibit
6 high amounts of the neurotransmitter on the surface, whereas the external side of Glycol Chitosan
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19 **35** **Keywords:** *Liposomes, Solid lipid nanoparticles, Dopamine, X-Ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy*
20 *Analysis, Cytotoxicity, Olfactory cells, Uptake.*
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36 List of chemical compounds studied in the article: Dopamine hydrochloride (Compound CID: 65340),
37 Chitosan (Compound CID: 129662530), Hydroxyethylcellulose (Compound CID: 4327536),
38 Dimethyl Sulphoxide (Compound CID:679).
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1. Introduction

1 Parkinson's disease (PD) is a progressive neurodegenerative disorder that predominantly affects older
2 adults, particularly in economically developed Countries [1]. The PD patient shows motor symptoms
3 such as tremor, rigidity, bradykinesia, and postural instability as well as several non-motor symptoms
4 as gastrointestinal ones [2]. The main PD hallmarks are the loss of dopaminergic neurons in the
5 Substantia Nigra *pars compacta* and the presence in the brain of Lewy bodies abnormal protein
6 aggregates including alpha-synuclein and ubiquitin [3-5]. However, the pathogenesis of PD is still
7 unknown, and the most followed therapeutic approach involves the so-called "dopamine (DA)
8 replacement strategy" which allows to control PD motor symptoms. In particular, levodopa (L-Dopa),
9 a biological precursor of DA, still constitutes the most effective and reference drug [3, 5]. DA, indeed,
10 is unable to overcome the Blood-Brain-Barrier (BBB) due to its physicochemical and metabolic
11 features [4], whereas L-Dopa can cross the BBB exploiting an active transport system and is
12 converted in the brain to DA by L-Dopa-decarboxylase mediated decarboxylation [4, 6, 7]. It should
13 be noted that even in pathologies as stroke, PD, Alzheimer's disease where the BBB is compromised
14 and permeable enough, it still constitutes an obstacle to drug delivery into the brain [8]. In this regard,
15 the promising role played by nanostructured drug delivery systems has been pointed out [9]. Thus,
16 most interest has been focused on the development of DA-loaded nanocarriers as innovative PD
17 treatment, since they may be able to cross the BBB enabling also a sustained delivery of the
18 neurotransmitter to the brain [4, 10-14]. In addition, it has also been pointed out that the intranasal
19 route of administration may constitute a useful approach for a non-invasive method of bypassing BBB
20 and to achieve the delivery of therapeutic agents into the brain [7, 15, 16]. Using this administration
21 route, delivery of therapeutics to the brain occurs exploiting the connections between the olfactory
22 epithelium located on the roof of the nasal cavity and the olfactory and trigeminal nerve components
23 [7, 15, 16].

24 Apart from this, a challenging aspect in DA chemical manipulations is that, in the presence of
25 molecular oxygen, DA undergoes a spontaneous autoxidation reaction under neutral/alkaline
26 conditions. In such autoxidation process, the key steps are the aminochrome formation and the
27 successive synthesis of polymer compounds (e.g., neuromelanins) through reactive oxygen species
28 (ROS) which can damage cellular components and may be crucial in the development of
29 neurodegenerative diseases as PD [17-19]. In this regard, it has been hypothesized that DA
30 encapsulation in nanocarriers may reduce the autoxidation reaction of the same neurotransmitter [18].
31 Our interest for DA brain delivery by nanocarriers [4, 11, 12] led us to evaluate the protective effect
32 toward the autoxidation reaction of DA encapsulation in liposomes. We found that both the uncoated
33 and, in particular, the chitosan-glutathione (CS-GSH)-coated ones showed a prolonged stability
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against oxidative damage [18]. Definitively, DA-loaded nanocarriers administered by nasal route may represent an innovative and disease-modifying approach for PD treatment, because it may allow not only the BBB crossing and neurotransmitter sustained delivery but also may reduce the oxidative damage, leading to neuroinflammation. In addition, it should be considered that advances in the preparative methods of nanomaterials allowed the availability of very small in size nanocarriers with interesting features including prolonged circulation, sustained release and BBB crossing [20-22].

Among the DA-loaded nanocarriers employed to improve PD treatment, mainly polymeric nanocarriers have been investigated including PLGA-, chitosan-, glycol chitosan-, polyvinylpyrrolidone-polyacrylic acid and cellulose acetate phthalate-based nanoparticles (NPs) following parenteral or alternative administration routes [4, 11-14] or intracranial implantation [10]. However, to the best of our knowledge, the potential of lipid-based nanocarriers in nose-to-brain delivery of the neurotransmitter has not been deeply investigated. Lipid-based nanocarriers are at the forefront of the nanotechnology applied in drug delivery and especially for delivery to the brain [23]. Thus, for instance, liposomes are colloidal carriers extensively used, besides cyclodextrins [24] and polymeric micelles [25], to improve the formulation of hydrophobic drugs for their non-toxic, non-immunogenic, and biodegradable features. However, liposomes possess some drawbacks including the leakage of the encapsulated therapeutic molecule and the sensitivity of phospholipids to heat and radiation during sterilization processes. In recent years, solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) have attracted increasing interest since they possess several advantages including enhanced safety and stability, controlled drug release, reduced leakage of the encapsulated drug and can be applied for both hydrophobic and hydrophilic drugs [26]. Moreover, SLN can be administered by several routes, including the oral one which matches the patient compliance and the approval of the pharmaceutical industry [27, 28]. In the present work, to shed light into the possible role played by lipid based nanocarriers in nose-to-brain DA delivery, we report the results of a comparative study aimed at evaluating the potential use of DA-loaded liposomes and DA-loaded SLN in nose-to-brain delivery of the neurotransmitter. Liposomes were prepared by the Dried Reconstituted Vesicles (DRV) method using a mixture of phosphatidyl choline, phosphatidyl glycerol and cholesterol as lipid components according to our previous work [18]. SLN were prepared following the melt homogenization method using Gelucire® 50/13, a self-emulsifying lipid, as lipid component taking into account that the use of such lipid matrix may be a promising approach for increasing the drug loading of hydrophilic active principles such as the neurotransmitter DA [29, 30]. Gelucire® 50/13, indeed, is composed of PEG-esters (stearoyl polyoxyl-32 glycerides), a small glyceride fraction and free PEG chains and it is able to self-emulsify with aqueous media and the resulting SLN may be considered PEGylated SLN. Besides unmodified liposomes and SLN, the chitosan-glutathione conjugate (CS-GSH)-coated

110 DA-loaded liposomes as well as Glycol Chitosan (GCS)-associated DA-loaded Gelucire® 50/13 SLN
1 were also evaluated. Both CS-GSH coating and GCS association were employed as an approach to
2 limit the immature leakage of the encapsulated neurotransmitter from liposomes and SLN,
3 respectively. The polycation GCS was preferred to the parent polymer CS for the higher aqueous
4 solubility in neutral and physiological conditions [29]. Moreover, in view of intranasal administration,
5 the DA-loaded nanocarriers were subjected to mucoadhesion and X-Ray photoelectron spectroscopy
6 (XPS) studies as well as their cytotoxicity and uptake by glial cells involved in nose-to-brain delivery,
7 namely Olfactory Ensheathing Cells (OECs), were also determined.
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17 2. Materials and methods

18 2.1. Materials

1920 Dopamine hydrochloride, Cholesterol (Chol), Glycol chitosan, Fluorescein 5(6)-isothiocyanate
21 (FITC), 6-Coumarin (6-COUM), carboxyl ester hydrolase (E.C. 3.1.1.1, 15 units/mg solid) from
22 porcine liver, Tween® 85 as well as the salts used for buffer preparation were purchased from Sigma-
23 Aldrich (Milan, Italy). Soybean phosphatidyl choline (PC, 70% of purity) and phosphatidyl glycerol
24 (PG, 99.6% of purity) were obtained from Lipoid (Germany). Gelucire® 50/13 was a gift by
25 Gattefossè (Milan, Italy). Hydroxyethyl cellulose (HEC, Natrosol 250) was provided by Aakon
26 Polichimica (Milan, Italy). According to manufacturer instructions, the viscosity of a solution of HEC
27 at the concentration of 2% in water was equal to 5500 mPa•sec. The polycarbonate filters for liposome
28 extrusion (LiposoFast-Basic extruder) were purchased from Avestin (Germany). Chitosan-
29 glutathione conjugate (CS-GSH) was prepared as previously reported [31].
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32 Throughout this work, double distilled water was used. All other chemicals were of reagent grade.
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38 2.2. Preparation of liposomes

39 The liposomes were prepared following the Dried Reconstituted Vesicles (DRV) method as
40 previously reported [18, 32]. Briefly, liposomes made of a mixture of PC/PG/Chol at 9:1:10
41 mol:mol:mol, respectively, were prepared by mixing all the lipids [each dissolved in
42 chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v)] in a 50 mL round-bottom flask and evaporated (rotary evaporator set
43 at 40°C) leading to a thin-film formation. These lipid films were hydrated by adding 10% (v/v)
44 phosphate buffered saline (PBS, pH 6, 1 mM) at room temperature giving rise to plain Multilamellar
45 Vesicles (MLVs) which were then reduced in size by probe sonication (at least two 10 min cycles of
46 sonication were necessary) followed by a centrifugation step, (14000 rpm, 6 min) providing so plain
47 Small Unilamellar Vesicles (SUV). To prepare uncoated DA-loaded liposomes (Lip 1), 0.5 mL of a
48 light protected aqueous DA solution in d-H₂O (10 mg/mL) were then mixed with 1 mL of the SUV
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liposomes, and the resulting mixture was lyophilized overnight at $-48\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and 0.150 mBar pressure, and subjected to controlled re-hydration. Then, the liposomes were extruded through 400 nm and then 200 nm pore size polycarbonate filters, by LiposoFast-Basic extruder and the resulting suspensions were ultracentrifuged. The precipitated purified liposomes were the uncoated DA-loaded liposomes. To prepare the CS-GSH coated DA-loaded liposomes (Lip 2), the uncoated DA loaded vesicles were incubated with the coating solutions for 1 h under mechanical stirring at room temperature under light protection. The coating solutions of CS-GSH were separately prepared dissolving a suitable amount of the polysaccharide at pH 4.4 in order to prepare two solutions at 0.1 and 0.3 mg/mL concentration, respectively and the resulting solutions were stirred overnight at room temperature and then filtered (0.45 μm pore size). For uptake studies, fluorescent COUM-loaded Lip 1 and Lip 2 (*i.e.*, 6-COUM Lip 1 and 6-COUM Lip 2) were prepared following the same protocol above described with the following modifications. 10 mg of 6-COUM/mL of chloroform/methanol were employed instead of DA aqueous solution and they were added during thin-film formation.

2.3. Preparation of SLN

The preparation of DA-loaded Gelucire® 50/13 SLN (SLN 1) and GCS associated DA-loaded Gelucire® 50/13 SLN (SLN 2) was made following the melt homogenization method as previously reported [33]. Briefly, Gelucire® 50/13 (60 mg) was melted at $70\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and, in a separate vial, DA (10 mg), the surfactant (Tween® 85, 60 mg) and 1.37 mL diluted acetic acid, 0.01%, w/v, were prepared and, then, heated at $70\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. The resulting mixture was added to the melted phase at $70\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ in order to obtain an emulsion by homogenization at 12300 rpm for 2 min with an UltraTurrax model T25 apparatus (Janke and Kunkel, Germany). Next, the nanosuspension was cooled at room temperature and the resulting SLN 1 centrifuged ($16,000 \times g$, 45 min, Eppendorf 5415D, Germany) and the obtained pellet was re-suspended in distilled water for further studies.

To prepare the GCS-DA-SLN (SLN 2), 1.37 g of a previously formed solution of GCS (5 mg/mL in AcOH 0.01, w/v) was added to the aqueous phase containing DA (10 mg), the surfactant (Tween® 85, 60 mg) and 1.37 mL of water. Afterwards, the procedure was the same as reported above for DA-SLN. Control SLN were either the ones without both DA and GCS (namely, plain SLN) or the ones without DA, but containing GCS (namely, GCS-SLN). For biological experiments, fluorescent SLN (*i.e.*, FITC-SLN) were prepared following the same protocol of GCS-DA-SLN, but replacing 10 mg of DA in the aqueous phase with the same amount of FITC.

2.4. Physicochemical characterization of lipid carriers

1 The quantitative determination of DA and 6-COUM were carried out by HPLC and fluorimetric
2 assays, respectively, as previously reported [18, 34].

3 Particle size and polydispersity index (PDI) of liposomes and SLN were determined by using a
4 ZetasizerNanoZS (ZEN 3600, Malvern, UK) apparatus according to photon correlation spectroscopy
5 (PCS) mode. The particle size of liposomes was measured at 25 °C after dilution with PBS (pH 6) to
6 give a 0.4 mg/mL of final lipid concentration, whereas in the case of SLN the particle size and PDI
7 was measured after dilution 1:1 (v:v) with double distilled water. The determination of the zeta-
8 potential of liposomes was performed at 25 °C using laser Doppler anemometry (ZetasizerNanoZS,
9 ZEN 3600, Malvern, UK) after dilution at the same concentration employed for size measurement in
10 potassium phosphate buffer. In the case of SLN the zeta-potential was determined after dilution of
11 the sample 1:20 (v:v) in the presence of KCl (1 mM, pH 7) [35, 36].
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22 *2.5. Physical stability of SLN formulations*

23 For SLN 1 and SLN 2 the physical stability was evaluated measuring their particle size after
24 incubation upon storage at 4° C up to 2 months as well as monitoring the neurotransmitter content in
25 the particles over the time. The particle size was measured at different time intervals during the
26 duration of the study according to that reported in Section 2.4.
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30 For DA content monitoring, freshly prepared samples of SLN 1 and SLN 2 were centrifuged (16,000
31 × g, 45 min, Eppendorf 5415D, Germany) and the resulting pellets were re-suspended in distilled
32 water and freeze-dried for 72 h (T = -46 °C and P = 0.1 mBar, Lio Pascal 5P, Milan, Italy). Then, the
33 collected powders were evaluated for their stability upon storage at 4°C for two months.
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38 To evaluate the neurotransmitter content in the particles at different time points, appropriate aliquots
39 of DA containing SLN were incubated in the presence of 1 mL of carboxyl ester hydrolase solution
40 (0.6 mg/mL phosphate buffer pH 5.0) [33] at 37 °C for 30 min and, afterwards, centrifuged as
41 described in Section 2.3. The obtained supernatant was analyzed by HPLC to determine the DA
42 contents [18].
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49 *2.6. In vitro evaluation of mucoadhesive properties of DA liposomes and SLN*

50 The mucoadhesive properties of DA-loaded liposomes and SLN were evaluated in Simulated Nasal
51 Fluid (SNF) by turbidimetric measurements [31], SNF was prepared dissolving CaCl₂ 2H₂O (0.32
52 mg/mL), KCl (1.29 mg/mL) and NaCl (7.45 mg/mL) in water at pH 6 [37].
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56 To 6 mL of freshly prepared mucin dispersions in SNF (1 mg/mL) held in a water bath (Julabo, Milan,
57 Italy) at 37 °C under stirring (150 rpm), freeze dried SLN (or liposome) formulations, previously
58 dispersed in 6 mL of SNF, were added. The turbidity of the stirred mixture at 37 °C was measured at
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0, 2, 5, 7 and 24 h at the wavelength of 650 nm using a Perkin-Elmer Lambda Bio 20 spectrophotometer and compared with that of HEC dissolved in SNF at the concentration of 0.4 mg/mL taken as positive control. Each experiment was performed at room temperature in triplicate and the results are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation of each mean.

2.7. X-Ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) studies on SLN

XPS analysis of the SLN specimens, as well as the feed materials, was performed by a scanning microprobe PHI 5000 VersaProbe II (Physical Electronics, Chanhassen, MN), equipped with a monochromatized AlK α X-ray radiation source. The measurements were carried out in HP mode (scanned size about 1400 \times 200 μ m). Survey scans (binding energy (BE) range 0–1200 eV, FAT mode, pass energy 117.4 eV) and high-resolution spectra (FAT mode, pass energy 29.35 eV) were recorded for each sample. Quantification (atomic percentage, At%) and comparison of data from different elements were enabled by using peak areas normalized by empirically derived sensitivity factors, according to MultiPak library. Peak deconvolution has been done using the PHI-MultiPak software package (version 9.9.0). Charge referencing was performed by setting at 284.8 eV the lower binding energy C1s photo-peak (i.e., C1s hydrocarbon peak).

2.8. Cytotoxicity studies with Olfactory Ensheathing Cells (OECs)

OECs were isolated from mouse P2 olfactory bulbs as previously described [38,39]. OECs were plated on 25 cm² flasks and cultured in DMEM/FBS supplemented with a bovine pituitary extract. Cells were incubated at 37 °C in a fresh complete medium and were fed twice a week. Successively, OECs were plated at the number of 30,000 per each well of a 96-well plate. Cells were incubated with either plain SLN (0.25, 0.5, 1, 2.5, 5, and 10 μ g/mL of lipids) in complete medium, or DA-SLN, or GCS-DA-SLN (same lipid concentrations corresponding to DA concentrations of 0.45, 0.9, 1.8, 4.5, 9.0, and 18 μ M), or liposomal formulations Lip 1 and Lip 2 (0.25, 1, 4, 16, and 64 μ g/mL of lipids, corresponding to DA concentrations of 0.3, 1.17, 4.7, 9, 18.75, and 75 μ M). After 24 h, cells were tested for viability by the 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5 diphenyl tetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay, as previously described [40]. The relative viability was calculated in respect to control untreated cells (considered as 100%). 1% Triton X-100-treated cells were used as positive control.

2.9. Uptake studies

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OECs were plated at the number of 50,000 per each well of a 24-well plate. Cells were incubated with FITC-SLN (0.25-10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ of lipids) or 6-COUM-liposomal formulations (0.25-64 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) in complete medium. After 24 h, each well was treated with 0.04% trypan blue in PBS (in order to quench extracellular fluorescence), trypsinized, resuspended in 0.5 mL of PBS, and analysed by Amnis Flowsight IS100 (Merck). Brightfield scatter plots obtained by plotting Area on x-axis vs Aspect Ratio on y-axis were generated, then single cells events were gated, and finally 10,000 single-cell events for sample were acquired. The percentage of green positive cells (channel 2, 488 nm excitation laser) and mean fluorescence were analysed using Amnis IDEAS software [40].

2.10. Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were carried out by Prism v. 4, GraphPad Software Inc., USA. Data were expressed as mean \pm SD. Multiple comparisons were based on one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the either Bonferroni's or Tukey's post hoc test and differences were considered significant when $p < 0.05$.

3. Results

In Table 1, the main physicochemical features of DA-loaded liposomes and SLN prepared by DRV and melt homogenization methods, respectively, are summarized. Among others, it can be deduced from Table 1 that DA-loaded CS-GSH coated liposomes (Lip 2) showed a mean diameter lower than the corresponding uncoated vesicles (Lip 1). Such significant size decrease has been accounted for the three different extrusion treatment through cut-off membrane filters used for the former vesicles preparation, unlike the latter ones [18]. Moreover, SLN 2 displayed a significant size reduction compared to the control ones (i.e., GCS-SLN) and this result was ascribed to a conformational reorganization of the GCS in the presence of the neurotransmitter, leading to GCS-DA-SLN shrinkage [33]. However, the most relevant finding was the higher E.E.% observed for SLN compared with the liposome formulations, particularly when SLN 2 is considered for which an E.E.% of 81% was observed. The PDI values of DA-loaded liposomes and SLN were in the range 0.16-0.27 suggesting, on the whole, a narrow size distribution while, in the case of SLN 2 and control SLN, the PDI values were higher implying a broader size distribution. Except for Lip 1 and control SLN, the zeta potentials of the investigated formulations were low in absolute value, whereas the introduction of the polycationic materials represented by CSGSH and GCS for liposomes and SLN, respectively, induced a positive surface charge (Table 1). Further physicochemical characterizations of liposomes and SLN nanocarriers herein studied, including physical and oxidative stability of vesicles as well as

275 the infrared spectroscopy in attenuated total reflectance mode (FT-IT/ATR) and thermogravimetric
1 analyses (TGA) of SLN are reported in ([18] and [33]) to which the reader is referred to.
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5 [Insert Table 1]
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1280 3.1. Stability studies on DA-loaded SLN

11 The low zeta potential in absolute values observed for DA-loaded liposomes and SLN suggested that
12 an in-depth study on the physical stability of both formulations was mandatory. While such a study
13 has already been reported for the vesicle formulations suggesting that Lip 2 is stable against oxidative
14 damage up to 6 days of storage [18], herein, physical stability of SLN in the presence and in the
15 absence of GCS was assessed at 4 °C, evaluating both particle mean diameter and neurotransmitter
16 content evolution over the time. As reported in Fig. 1a, SLN 2 underwent to significant particle size
17 decrease at the latest time points ($p < 0.001$), whereas SLN 1 mean particle size was kept constant up
18 to 1 month and, afterwards, particle size markedly increased ($p < 0.001$) together with grey-black
19 precipitate formation, indicative of particle aggregation and autoxidation of the active DA.
20 Concerning DA content in SLN 2, it was essentially equal to the starting value within 2 weeks but,
21 after 1 month of storage, half of the original DA amount was found ($p < 0.001$) (Fig. 1b). The same
22 trend in DA content was observed for SLN 1 even if the decrease in neurotransmitter amount at longer
23 exposure times was lower than that observed for SLN 2. By comparing the SLN formulations with
24 the vesicle Lip 1 and Lip 2 ones, it seems that the former preparations possess a greater physical
25 stability. In particular, SLN 2 appear promising in terms of storage since their mean diameter and DA
26 content can be maintained essentially constant for two weeks. Moreover, it should be pointed out that
27 only after three months of storage at 4 °C, a change to pale grey colour of SLN 2 freeze-dried powders
28 was noted by visual inspection, suggesting chemical (oxidative and hydrolytic) degradation is
29 starting. Probably, the greater physical stability of SLN 2 formulation should be due to the amount of
30 the neurotransmitter inside the nanocarrier. Furthermore, the localization of the neurotransmitter
31 inside the nanocarrier and not on the surface, indeed, is expected to safeguard it from chemical
32 degradation for a longer time [18].
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305 3.2. Mucoadhesive properties of DA-loaded liposomes and SLN

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In view of the *in vivo* administration through the nasal mucosa, the *in vitro* mucoadhesive properties of DA containing liposomes and SLN were assessed by turbidimetric measurements carried out in SNF. Indeed, once DA-loaded liposomes- and SLN-mucin aggregates are formed by mixing each mixtures of these nanocarrier suspensions with mucin dispersion in the same medium, then an incubation time-dependent decrease in transmittance takes places [41]. For these experiments, powders of freeze-dried liposomes and SLN were directly dispersed in SNF and the changes in transmittance at 650 nm wavelength were recorded, comparing the results with those of HEC included as positive control. HEC, indeed, is endowed with good mucoadhesive characteristics, even though lower than Carbopol 974P [42] which, on the other hand, could not be employed due to its precipitation in SNF under conditions we used. Furthermore, after visual inspection, no change in colour of the tested formulations throughout the study was observed and it suggests that no chemical (oxidative and hydrolytic) degradation occurs. As shown in Fig. 2 among all tested formulations Lip 2 and SLN 1 showed mucoadhesive properties comparable with those of HEC. Interestingly, the highest decrease in transmittance after 24 h of incubation time was observed for SLN 2 followed by Lip 1 which both resulted in statistically significant difference compared with control ($p < 0.001$ and < 0.01 vs HEC, respectively).

Hence, based on the turbidimetric measurements after 24 h incubation time, the observed rank order of mucoadhesive properties for the examined formulations is the following: SLN 2 > Lip 1 > SLN 1, Lip 2 > HEC and, in particular, the most mucoadhesive formulation resulted SLN 2.

[Insert Figure 2]

3.3. XPS studies

XPS analysis of the SLN, with or without GCS and DA, was carried out in order to gain information on the surface chemical composition as well as on the possible modifications or interactions between the different components within the investigated formulations. The pure neurotransmitter and all the SLN components were analyzed as well. In Table 2, the atomic percentages of the elements detected on the sample's surfaces are reported. As for the XPS analyses of Lip 1 and Lip 2 formulations, they were previously reported and discussed [18]. In Fig. 3, the C1s curve fitting of the pure SLN components were reported.

As far as DA C1s signal is concerned (Fig. 3a), two components have been used to fit the signal: one at 284.8 eV, representing the C-C, C=C and C-H groups (plus contamination) and one at 286.3 eV, typical of C-OH and carbon linked to ammonium salts. The peak ratio was found to be 1.7:1, in total

340 agreement with that expected from the stoichiometry of dopamine molecule. For GCS (Fig. 3b), four
1 contributions were detected on carbon signal. In particular, the first at 284.8 eV, was typical of
2 hydrocarbons (plus contamination); the second, at 285.4, was typical of amine groups; the third at
3 286.4 eV, was relevant to C-OH and C-NH₃⁺ groups and finally the fourth peak, falling at 287.9 eV,
4 was ascribable to the carbohydrates O-C-O linkage. The two components of SLN formulations, i.e.,
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345 Gelucire 50/13 and Tween 85 (Fig.s 3c and 3d), presented both a five-peak C1s curve fitting, with
9 different relative abundances, in agreement with the molecular formulas of these organic compounds.
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12 Precisely, hydrocarbon peak at 284.8 eV, a peak in α -position to a carboxylic group at 285.4 eV, an
13 alcoholic peak at 286.3 eV, a carbonyl group at 287.3 eV and a carboxylic one at 288.8 eV were
14 detected. Moreover, C1s signals relevant to plain SLN and SLN 2 formulations were curve-fitted and
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1350 shown in Fig.s 3e and f, respectively, evidencing no additional contributions to the curve-fitting with
19 respect to those present in the feed materials, although in different relative abundances. Overall, based
20 on the higher neurotransmitter E.E.% and physical stability, the better mucoadhesion performance and
21 the sustained release without burst effect [29,33]. SLN 2 was identified as the most interesting
22 formulation for nose-to-brain DA delivery worthy of deeper *in vitro* and *ex vivo* studies.
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35 3.4. MTT studies on OECs

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38 In order to see whether either the different SLN formulations were toxic in their way to the olfactory
39 cells, OECs were incubated with plain SLN (not coated with GCS and not loaded with DA), SLN 1,
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4360 or SLN 2 and cell viability was assessed after 24 h by the MTT assay. As shown in Fig. 4a, plain SLN
41 were slightly toxic to OECs only at 5 and 10 μ g/mL with a reduction of cell viability of around 20%.
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44 Interestingly, both SLN 1 and SLN 2 were not toxic to OECs at any concentration tested as compared
45 with the appropriate control (untreated cells) (Fig. 4b and 4c).
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57 Liposomal formulations were tested by the same assay and at the same time point. It is worth to
58 consider that lipid concentrations are different from those present in SLN 1 and SLN 2 in order to
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370 obtain similar DA concentrations. However, Lip1 and Lip2 were not toxic to OEC cells, at tested
1 lipid concentrations (Fig. 5).

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10 11 12 375 3.5. Uptake studies by OECs

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14 Given the highest mucoadhesion properties presented by SLN 2, FITC-SLN 2 were prepared for
15 uptake studies. Cell uptake was studied in OECs following incubation for 24 h. Fig. 6a shows that the
16 FITC-SLN 2 were internalised by an increasing percentage of cells, reaching the 100% at 5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$.
17 This behaviour was paralleled by the increase in the mean fluorescence intensity (Fig. 6b). Overall,
18 these results indicate that the internalisation of SLN by OECs is mediated by a dose-response process.
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32 Uptake studies were also performed with liposomal formulations. Uncoated liposomes (Lip 1) were
33 internalised in a dose-dependent manner obtaining only $9.0 \pm 3.9\%$ of positive cells at 16 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ and,
34 385 to further test the cell uptake capability of these liposomes, $27 \pm 12.5\%$ of positive cells with four-
35 times higher concentration (64 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) (Fig. 7a), while the mean fluorescence intensity peaked
36 already at 4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ (Fig. 7b). Interestingly, the coated formulation (Lip 2) was internalized by around
37 71% of cells with the highest lipid concentration (Fig. 7c), and with 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ and above the mean
38 fluorescence intensity was consistently higher as compared to the lowest concentration (Fig. 7d). Of
39 note, the highest concentration (64 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) was not toxic to OECs (Fig. 5).
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57 In the present work, DA-loaded-liposomes and -SLN were investigated in a comparative manner with
58 the aim to evaluate their potential for nose-to-brain neurotransmitter delivery. For this purpose, in the
59 first step of the study, attention was paid to the preparative aspects consisting in maximizing the
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encapsulation efficiency of the neurotransmitter in each of these nanocarrier types. While it is well known that hydrophilic substances as DA can be encapsulated in liposome aqueous core, in the case of SLN the encapsulation of water-soluble drugs, such as therapeutic peptides/proteins, is characterized by a low loading efficiency, mainly due to the leakage of the drug during nanoparticle preparation [43]. Thus, encapsulation of hydrophilic compounds in SLN is not a simple task and, indeed, it constitutes a challenge for scientists involved in the field. On the other hand, even liposome formulations may undergo drug leakage due to change of phospholipid bilayer integrity consequent to oxidation and chemical hydrolysis of phospholipids occurring in aqueous medium [26, 44]. It seems that an appropriate polymer coating (e.g. chitosan, alginate) may limit such drug leakage from vesicle formulations [45]. The most employed approach for an acceptable preparation of hydrophilic drug-loaded SLN is the double emulsification (W/O/W) method endowed with, however, both a toxicological concern related to the use of organic solvents and tendency of globules to coalesce, leading to an increase of nanoparticle size [30]. In this regard, we are involved in demonstrating that the use of a self-emulsifying lipid in the melt homogenization method for SLN preparation, could be a simple and alternative approach to double emulsification (W/O/W) method for preparing hydrophilic drug-loaded SLN with satisfactory loading efficiency [30]. It follows from the hypothesis that, being a nano-emulsion formed once the self-emulsifying lipid is in the presence of water, the hydrophilic compound may be entrapped in the nano-emulsion, but the following fast lipid recrystallization during the cooling process may limit the diffusion of the hydrophilic compound towards the aqueous external phase and the consequent leakage. We have shown the feasibility of this approach in the encapsulation of the antioxidant tripeptide glutathione and the grape seed extract proanthocyanidins for which E.E.% up to 82.7 % was found for the former [33] and a loading efficiency of 5.8% (comparable with that observed in the encapsulation of proanthocyanidins in a hydrophilic matrix as chitosan) was observed for the latter [40].

In the case herein examined of the neurotransmitter DA encapsulation in liposomes and SLN, data in Table 1 clearly show that vesicle formulations lead to unsatisfactory encapsulation efficiency even using DA-loaded CS-GSH coated liposomes (Lip 2) (*i.e.*, $12.2 \pm 0.3\%$) and, hence, a polymer coating of vesicles provided only a limited benefit. On the other hand, the E.E.% of SLN 1 was higher than that of Lip 2 resulting of $19 \pm 3\%$ which markedly increased to $81 \pm 2\%$ when SLN 2 were examined. Hence, this positive result obtained with the hydrophilic neurotransmitter DA further supports the suggestion that SLN based on self-emulsifying lipid as Gelucire® 50/13 may be used to encapsulate hydrophilic compounds with satisfactory loading efficiency. Moreover, in this preparative approach, the association of the polycation GCS to DA-loaded Gelucire® 50/13 SLN seems most advantageous and it should be considered for a further increase the E.E.% of hydrophilic substances. This finding

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2 is also interesting if compared with the recent result reported in a manuscript [46] where DA-loaded
3 SLN made of glycerol tripalmitin/octadecylamine are described with an encapsulation efficiency at
435 4 most of 70% and a lower storage stability (*i.e.*, 30% loss of DA content over one week of storage at
5 4 °C in the better case; [46].
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7 Concerning the findings of the mucoadhesion study on lipid formulations herein evaluated, the best
8 mucoadhesive performance was observed for SLN 2. This result may be explained on the basis of the
9 zeta potential recorded for these nanocarriers which, even though slightly positive, should allow
10 electrostatic interactions with negatively charged mucus proteins leading to efficient adhesion [31].
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12 440 Such zeta potential value of SLN 2 should be related to the association of polycation GCS whose
13 good mucoadhesive performance are known [31, 47,48]. Hence, among the examined formulations,
14 in the nasal cavity SLN 2 should better interact with mucus and increase residence time facilitating
15 absorption [15]. The significant mucin interaction of negatively charged uncoated DA-loaded vesicles
16 Lip 1 greater than the corresponding coated ones with CSGSH (Lip 2) is somewhat surprising if we
17 consider that the high mucoadhesive properties of thiomers as CSGSH [31]. However, it should be
18 also taken into account that, on the basis of XPS study previously carried out on these liposomes, it
19 was evidenced that the -SH groups of the thiomers CS-GSH are not exposed outside the vesicles since
20 no sulfur was detected on the surface [18]. Therefore, the thiol-disulfide exchange reactions with
21 mucus protein chains responsible of improved mucoadhesive properties of thiomers should be
22 445 reduced or absent at all, explaining so the lower mucoadhesion of Lip 2 compared with Lip 1 [18,
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36 The most interesting results deduced from XPS studies are summarized in Table 2. As shown, on
37 GCS-SLN control, no nitrogen was detected, suggesting that GCS was not present on the surface. On
38 the other hand, the N1s atomic percentages in SLN 1 and SLN 2 were quite similar, even if their
39 445 E.E.% were significantly different, as already reported [33]. However, since XPS studies only the
40 surface composition of the samples, the similar nitrogen percentage is an indirect evidence of the drug
41 massive presence in the internal layers, especially SLN 2, as highlighted by E.E.% data.
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47 As far as DA C1s signal is concerned (Fig. 3a), the C-H_x/C-OH peak ratio was found to be 1.7:1, in
48 460 total agreement with that expected from the stoichiometry of dopamine molecule. In GCS (Fig. 3b),
49 the C-NH₂/O-C-O peak ratio was 0.96:1, indicating an almost totally neutral state of the bare
50 macromolecule. In Gelucire 50/13 (Fig. 3c), the COH/COOR corrected area ratio was found to be
51 7:1, while in Tween 85 (Fig. 3d), the same ratio was 12:1. In the case of plain SLN (Fig. 3d), it is
52 evident that the surface chemistry is in between the one of the two components (*i.e.*, Gelucire 50/13
53 and Tween 85), in agreement with that already reported [21]. Indeed, the COH/COOR was found to
54 465 be 10:1. On the other hand, the presence of GCS in SLN 2 did not change the C1s curve fitting (Fig.
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3f), as also verified in C1s signal relevant to GCS-SLN surface (Fig. 1S). Indeed, no O-C-O contribution, typical of GSC, was detected, indicating no allocation of GCS on the nanoparticle surface, irrespectively from the DA presence in the formulation. On the other hand, a huge C-OH peak increase (with a COH/COOR ratio equal to 24:1) was recorded on SLN 2 surface. This could be probably ascribable to a surface enrichment in Tween, but the presence of dopamine, with C-OH and C-NH₃⁺ groups falling both at 286.3 eV, cannot be excluded. Actually, the DA presence on surface was also confirmed by the detection of the N1s signal. As far as SLN 1 is concerned, the C1s curve fitting resulted quite similar to that of SLN 2 (Fig. 2S). In addition, the nitrogen atomic percentages in SLN 1 and SLN 2 resulted comparable (Table 2), even if the encapsulation efficiency percentage (E.E. %) and the *in vitro* release of DA from these systems, already reported [33], resulted significantly different. All these findings let us to argue that in the SLN 2 nanocarriers, differently from the SLN 1, the neurotransmitter was not located on surface except for a negligible amount but encapsulated in the internal layers of the nanoparticles, leading to a very promising DA reservoir system. Moreover, the slightly positive zeta potential recorded for SLN 2, indicative of a surface GCS presence, was apparently in contrast with XPS evidences but it cannot be ruled out that in the wet physical state, where zeta potential measurements are performed, it can happen a partial rising of the GCS chains to the surface. This finding was not observed by XPS since in this technique particles were not examined in liquid suspension but at solid dry state [49].

The findings of these studies could be interpreted in the context of the model proposed by us for PEGylated SLN as the Gelucire® 50/13-based SLN [29]. Indeed, following a literature hint about PEG2000–stearic acid based SLN structure [50], we suggested that Gelucire® 50/13-based SLN are constituted by a hydrophilic shell of polyoxyethylene chains of solid lipid (Gelucire® 50/13) and cosurfactant (Tween 85) together with an internal lipid core comprising the stearyl moieties (Fig. 8a) [29]. This implies that a hydrophilic substance as the neurotransmitter DA, could be adsorbed on the particle surface or entrapped in the hydrophilic shell as well as encapsulated in the lipid core as nano-emulsion and this is the case of SLN 1 formulation *i.e.*, the so called outer-shell distribution [[51]]. However, in such circumstances, immature leakage of the neurotransmitter adsorbed on the particle surface or entrapped in the hydrophilic shell could occur during sample manipulations lowering the corresponding E.E.%. When these PEGylated SLN were associated to GCS, this polycation should be localized inside the nanoparticles since on GCS-SLN control no nitrogen was detected by XPS analysis (Table 2). More precisely, the polycation should be localized within the hydrophilic shell because only in this layer formation of a network compact structure could occur arising from hydrogen bonding and polar interactions between the polyoxyethylene chains of Gelucire® 50/13 and GCS (Fig. 8b). In the case of SLN 2 formulation, besides in the lipid core as

1 nano-emulsion, the neurotransmitter DA should be localized in the hydrophilic shell due to hydrogen
2 bonding and polar interactions involving the polyoxyethylene chains, GCS and the functional groups
3 of DA. In this last case, however, the presence of the mentioned network could hamper the leakage
4 of DA entrapped in the hydrophilic shell accounting for the marked increase in E.E.% observed for
5 SLN 2 compared with SLN 1. In short, formation of the mentioned network structure in SLN 2, but
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505 7 not in SLN 1, accounts for the marked increase in E.E.% since the leakage of the neurotransmitter
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9 entrapped in internal layers in the former formulation should be hampered. Moreover, formation of
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11 the mentioned network structure could also explain the greater physical stability of SLN 2 compared
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13 with SLN 1 since it allows the localization of the neurotransmitter inside, but not on the surface of
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15 the nanocarrier for a longer time. However, it should be taken into account that, as far as the structures
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510 17 of the particles is concerned in SLN, further aspects remain to be clarified, including the arrangements
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19 of the lipids and stabilizing agents during the particles formation [52]. Overall, the model proposed
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21 for the Gelucire® 50/13-based PEGylated SLN could be also useful to interpret the results of *in vitro*
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23 release studies [18, 34].
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34 It is worth noting that plain SLN were quite toxic at high concentrations of lipid, whereas those SLN
35 containing DA (both SLN 1 and SLN 2) were not. DA has been shown to reduce ferroptosis in cancer
36 and non-cancer cells and increase cell viability at 12-5-50 μM by reducing glutathione depletion and
37 malondialdehyde production [52]. Of note, some studies have reported a cytoprotective effect of L-
38 DOPA, e.g. by inducing the synthesis of GSH in cultured cells [52,53], suggesting a role of DA against
520 39 oxidative stress, although we have not ruled out these events in our experimental conditions. It has
40 been also found that DA increased proliferation of subventricular zone-derived cells inducing the
41 release of EGF [54], an effect that could take part in its cytoprotective role in OECs. Concerning
42 uptake studies, in the literature, fluorescent polymersomes of PEG-PLGA have been already loaded
43 with 6-COUM to investigate brain delivery in mice and, therefore, we selected the same probe 6-
44 COUM in order to have affinity for the lipophilic vesicles, being 6-COUM a hydrophobic dye [55].
45 Interestingly, liposomal formulations seem to be less efficient than SLN in the uptake process, and
46 the uncoated ones the lesser than the uncoated, although the mean fluorescence intensity reached
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525 48 similar levels considering all the SLN and liposomal nanoparticles. With four-times higher
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50 concentration, the coated liposomal formulation Lip 2 reached around 70% of positive cells. Overall,
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1 these results indicate that, in face of a similar average entry of fluorescent formulations, it is the
2 number of cells that varies so that SLN can deliver DA in all the cells which they come into contact
3 with at lipid concentrations lower than liposomes. Moreover, it is also suggested that delivering DA
4 via the olfactory route with SLN would be more efficient than using liposomes.

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6 The lack of cytotoxicity of DA-containing SLN experienced in our results is in good achievement of
7 a safe transport of these compounds through the olfactory region of nasal cavity. First of all, the
8 property of mucoadhesion would limit the mucociliary clearance of the drug in the vestibular region
9 of the nose. In the posterior region of nasal cavity, the transport of the DA-containing nanoparticles
10 would occur following different routes to the brain, among which of interest is the interaction with
11 the endings of olfactory receptor neurons, from which it will be transported following the nerve
12 channel created by OECs through the cribriform plate and finally entering into the cerebrospinal fluid
13 and olfactory bulb [56]. SLN 2, endowed with the highest mucoadhesion properties, were also taken
14 up with high efficiency by OECs (reaching the 100% of positive cells), making possible to consider
15 DA transport to the brain via OECs a safe way.
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23 24 25 26 27 28 **5. Conclusions**

29 DA-loaded SLN 1 and SLN 2 have been investigated, in comparison with DA-loaded vesicles Lip 1
30 and Lip 2, to test their feasibility for non-invasive nose-to-brain delivery approach applied to PD
31 treatment. The high E.E.% observed for SLN 2 (81%), their better physical stability in terms of
32 storage (*i.e.*, mean diameter and DA content essentially constant for two weeks) combined with their
33 good mucoadhesion properties and lack of cytotoxicity towards OECs make these PEGylated
34 nanocarriers as interesting candidates for further studies ruling out the alternative lipid formulations
35 (*i.e.*, SLN 1 and Lip 1 and Lip 2). Although to the best of our knowledge no formulation for nasal
36 administration is still available for PD treatment, this work envisages new perspectives of the
37 potential of this route of administration for a neurological disorder such as PD.
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58 interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this
59 paper.
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Captions to Figures

Fig. 1. a) Particle size changes over the time of SLN incubated for 8 weeks at 4°C; b) DA content changes over the time after storage of SLN at 4 °C for 8 weeks. Each experiment was performed in triplicate and the results are expressed as mean ± standard deviation of each mean. Blue bars refer to incubation of SLN 1 and red bars refer to SLN 2. For all sample sets, the value referring to time zero was taken as control. ** p < 0.001 vs control. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this Fig. legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article).

Fig. 2. Mucoadhesive properties in SNF of a) Lip 1 (green), Lip 2 (black), SLN 1 (blue) and SLN 2 (red). HEC (magenta) was taken as positive control. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this Fig. legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article).

Fig. 3. C1s curve fittings of DA (a), GCS (b), Gelucire 50/13 (c) and Tween 85 (d) and formulations (plain SLN (e) and SLN 2 (f)). Uncertainty on BE peak positions was ±0.2 eV.

Fig. 4. Cytotoxicity of SLN derivatives. OECs were challenged with plain-SLN (a) for 24 h at the indicated concentrations (µg/mL). SLN 1 (b) and SLN 2 (c) were used at the same lipid concentrations, resulting in DA as 0.45, 0.9, 1.8, 4.5, 9.0 and 18 µM. Cells were then assayed for vitality by the MTT assay. Controls (CTRL) are untreated cells (100% of vitality), whereas 1% Triton X-100 (TX) was used as positive control. **p<0.05; ***p < 0.0001 vs CTRL. Data are the results of two-three experiments each carried out in four wells.

Fig. 5. Cytotoxicity of liposomal formulations. OECs were challenged with Lip1 (a) and Lip2 (b) for 24 h at the indicated concentrations (µg/mL), obtaining DA concentrations of 0.3, 1.17, 4.7, 9.0 and 18.75, and 75 µM. Cells were then assayed for vitality by the MTT assay. Controls (CTRL) are untreated cells (100% of vitality), whereas 1% Triton X-100 (TX) was used as positive control. ***p < 0.0001 vs CTRL. Data are the results of two experiments each carried out in four wells.

Fig. 6. Cellular uptake of FITC-SLN 2 by OECs. OECs were incubated with the indicated concentrations (µg/mL) of FITC-SLN 2 for 24 h and evaluated by flow cytometry. Positive cells, shown as percentages (a), and the mean fluorescence intensity (b), were obtained in three experiments each conducted in triplicate. In a) **p<0.001 and ***p<0.0001 (in black) denote differences between 0.25 vs 1.0, 2.5, 5.0 and 10.0; *p<0.05, **p<0.001 and ***p<0.0001 (in gray) denote differences between 1.0 vs 2.5, 5.0 and 10.0. In b) **p<0.001 denotes differences between 0.25 and 10; *p<0.05 denotes differences between 1.0 and 2.5 vs 10.0.

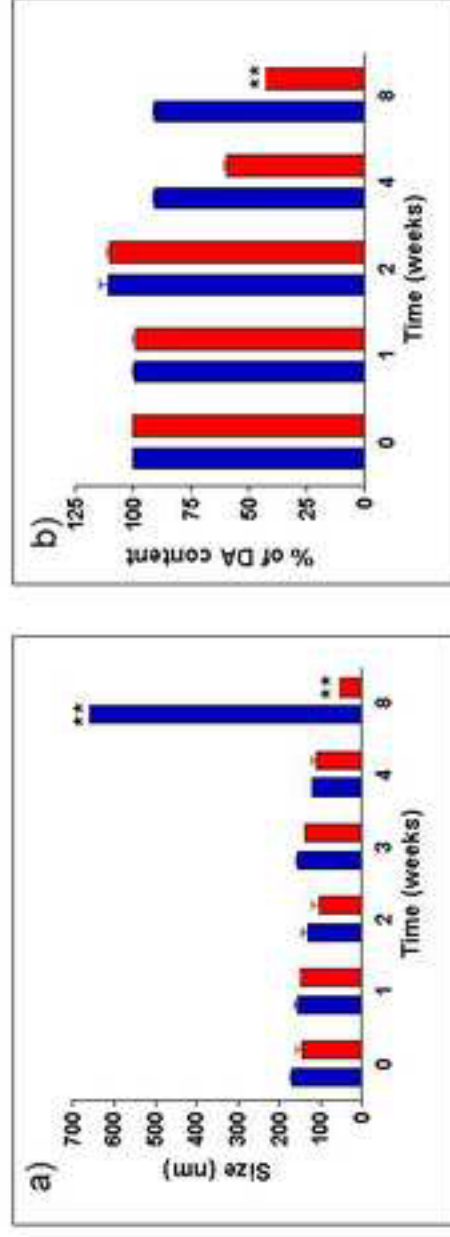
Fig. 7. Cellular uptake of FITC-liposomal formulations by OECs. OECs were incubated with the indicated concentrations (µg/mL) of Lip1 (a, b) or Lip 2 (c, d) for 24 h and evaluated by flow cytometry. Positive cells, shown as percentages (A, C), and the mean fluorescence intensity (b, d), were obtained in two experiments each conducted in triplicate. In A) *p<0.05 denote differences between 0.25 and 1 vs 64. In b) *p<0.05 denotes differences between 0.25 vs 16. In c), **p<0.001 denotes differences between 0.25 vs 4 and 16, while ***p<0.0001 between 0.25 vs 64. In d), *p<0.05 denote differences between 0.25 vs 4.

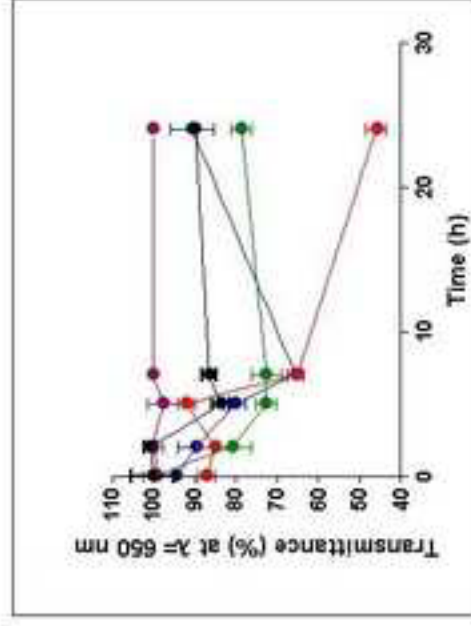
Fig. 8. Schematic representation of the a) PEGylated SLN 1; b) PEGylated SLN 2.

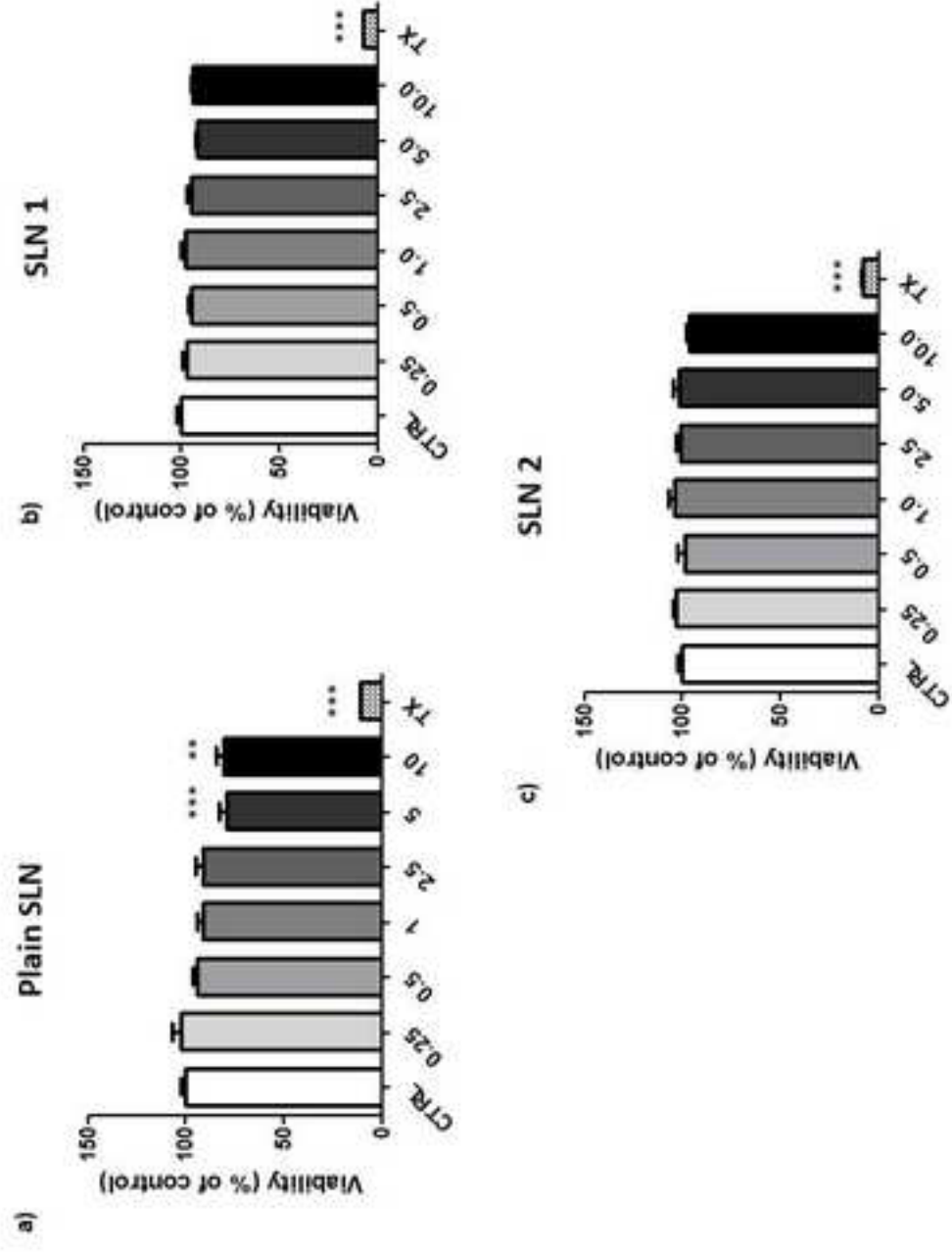
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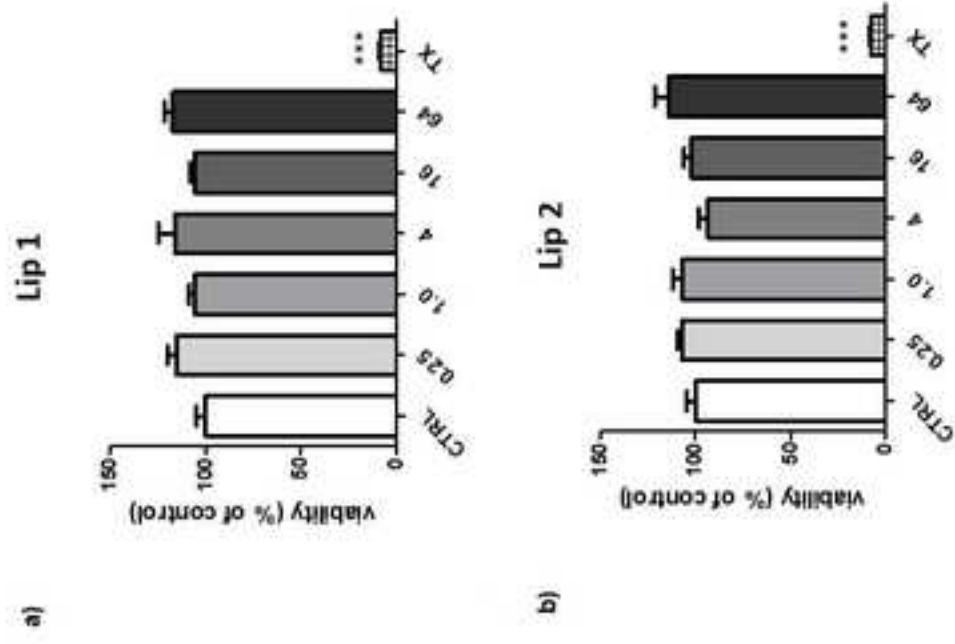
Fig. 1S. C1s signal relevant to GCS-SLN

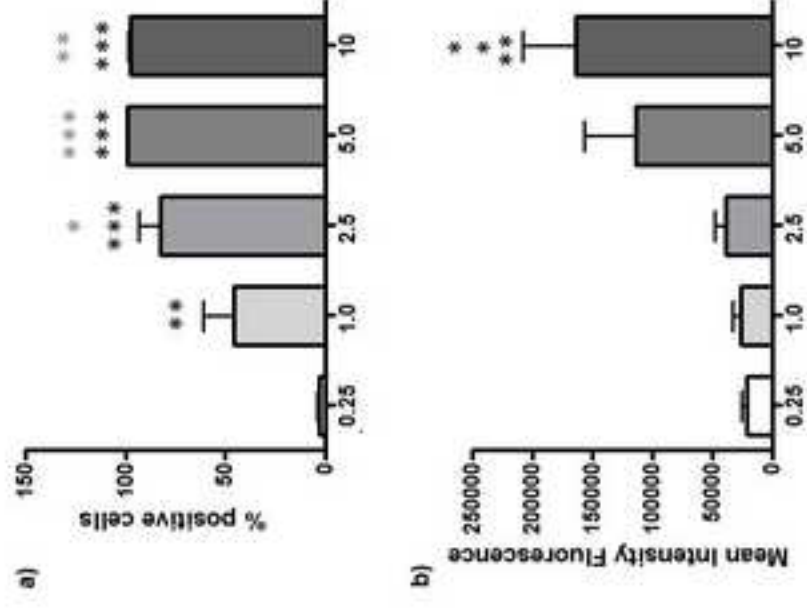
Fig. 2S. C1s signal relevant to DA-GCS-SLN

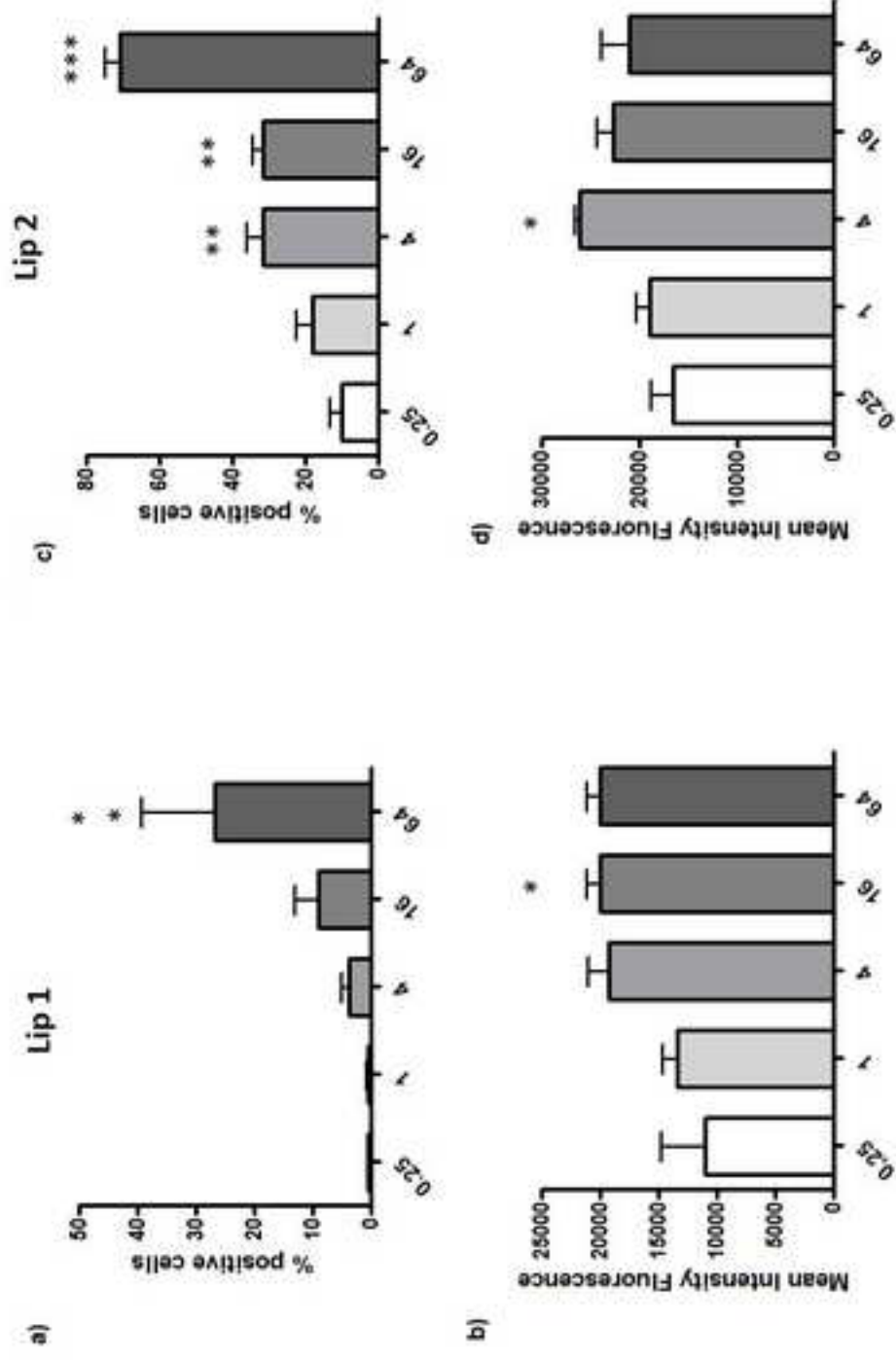


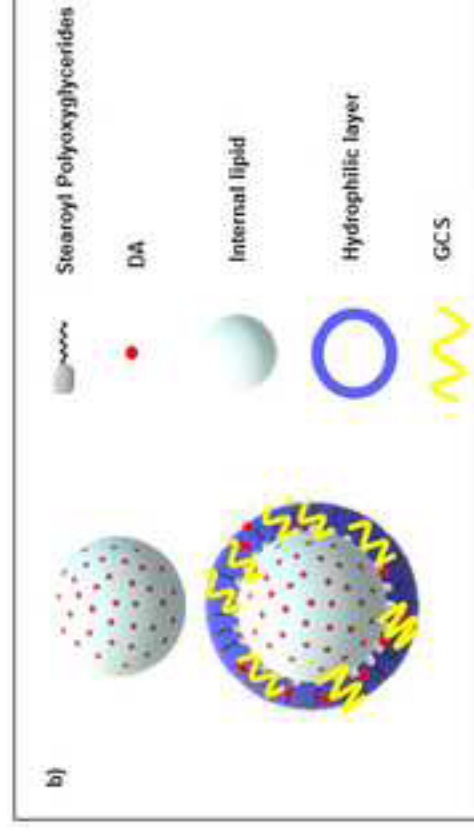
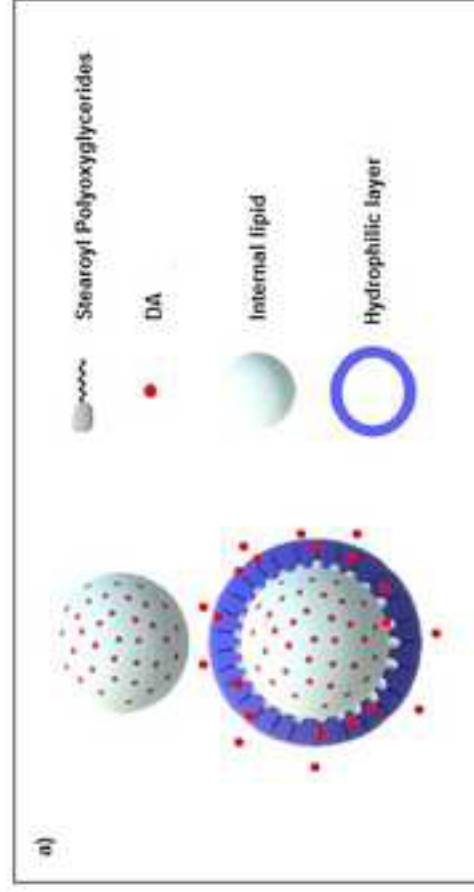


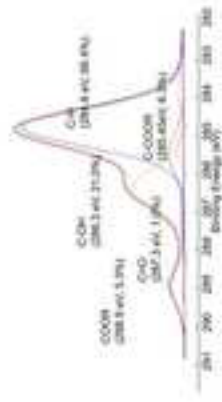


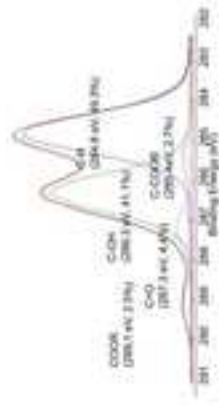


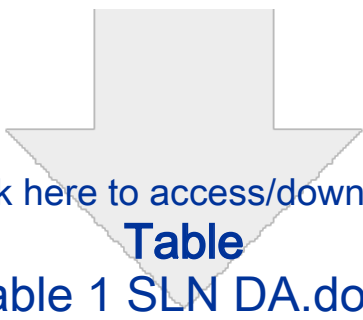












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Table
Table 1 SLN DA.docx

