The complexity of the blood-brain barrier and the concept of age-related brain targeting: challenges and potential of novel solid lipid-based formulations

Federica Sommonte, Ilaria Arduino, Giuseppe Francesco Racaniello, Antonio Lopalco, Angela Assunta Lopedota and Nunzio Denora*

Department of Pharmacy - Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of Bari "Aldo Moro", 4 Orabona St., 70125, Bari, Italy

*** Corresponding author**

Prof. Nunzio Denora [\(nunzio.denora@uniba.it;](mailto:nunzio.denora@uniba.it) +39 080 544 2767)

KEYWORDS

Age-related targeting, Blood-Brain Barrier, Central Nervous System, Drug delivery system(s), Elderly Disease, Pediatric Disease, Lipid Nanoparticle(s), Lipid-based formulation(s), Targeted drug delivery

ABSTRACT

Diseases that affect the Central Nervous System (CNS) are one of the most exciting challenges of recent years, as they are ubiquitous and affect all ages. Although these disorders show different etiologies, all treatments share the same difficulty represented by the Blood-Brain Barrier (BBB). This barrier acts as a protective system of the delicate cerebral microenvironment, isolating it and making extremely arduous delivering drugs to the brain. To overtake the obstacles provided by the BBB it is essential to explore the changes that affect it, to understand how to exploit these findings in the study and design of innovative brain targeted formulations. Interestingly, the concept of age-related targeting could prove to be a winning choice, as it allows to consider the type of treatment according to the different needs and peculiarities depending on the disease and the age of onset. In this review was considered the prospective contribution of lipid-based formulations, namely Solid Lipid Nanoparticles (SLNs) and Nanostructured Lipid Carriers (NLCs), which have been highlighted as able to overcome some limitations of other innovative approaches, thus representing a promising strategy for the non-invasive specific treatment of CNS-related diseases.

INTRODUCTION

Diseases afflicting the Central Nervous System (CNS) represent a major challenge for medical and pharmaceutical research. In parallel to the neurological disorders that arise with aging, there are a considerable number of disorders that are mostly juvenile, such as traumatic brain injury (TBI), which is identified as one of the major pediatric public health problems. In fact, TBI can have a variable degree of severity in the vulnerable and delicate brain of children, and in mild cases, a restorative treatment of brain physiological condition is required. 1

The treatment of these pathologies is really challenging to implement with the classical methods, because the presence of the blood-brain barrier (BBB) makes it almost impossible for the drugs administered to reach a therapeutically active dose into the brain. In addition, the use of more invasive methods, such as direct administration of medication by intrathecal injection, is not practicable in all those situations that require a continuous and prolonged treatment over time. Thus, there is the need of innovative non-invasive formulations capable of conveying the drug to the CNS in a safe and controlled way.²

Furthermore, it is imperative to focus attention on the concept of age-related targeting: not only it is necessary to obtain innovative formulations able to cross the BBB, but these must be specially structured according to the peculiarities and needs of the target tissue, which can vary depending on the age and the pathological condition affecting it.

In fact, it is reasonable to think that the BBB undergoes changes in these situations, thus highlighting the need to study these phenomena in order to understand how to exploit these pathophysiological characteristics to obtain a targeting as focused and specific as possible for the pathology treated.

This review is structured to provide an overview of the BBB, both in health and disease, considering that it represents one of the most significant obstacles to drug delivery in the CNS. In particular, the BBB will be described in its anatomical-physio pathological features according to the different biological characteristics of the subjects involved, to identify a system of targeted administration of the drug, able to cross the BBB without giving a direct action on biological collateral structures.

It explores some of the most significant pathological changes associated with acute and chronic disorders that may affect the CNS from childhood to old age. This insight is essential to understand how to exploit these differences to obtain more targeted and selective formulations based on the need or deficiency of the tissue under investigation.

The latest part of this review is focused on the great contribution that pharmaceutical technology could provide for the above mentioned problems. Specifically, the attention has been focused on Solid Lipid Nanoparticles (SLNs) and Nanostructured Lipid Carriers (NLCs), which are promising lipid-based formulations. From what has been shown in the literature, SLNs and NLCs have been particularly studied in recent years as they offer a number of advantages over the innovative non-invasive formulations of the previous generation. In fact, they are less toxic than polymeric nanoparticles, biodegradable, biocompatible and non-immunogenic. Moreover, given their small size, they are able to penetrate into the brain via BBB passive diffusion, allowing the encapsulated drug to reach easily the site of action, to be protected from degradation and to be released slowly over time. In addition, it is possible to functionalize the surface of the carrier, thus obtaining an active targeting system; therefore, this paper provides a more detailed overview of the advantages and disadvantages associated with the use of these formulations and their potential use in the treatment of age-related diseases.³

1. THE BBB: CONCEPT AND FUNCTIONS

The CNS represents the control center of the human body and it is able to manage all the stimuli arriving to the organism, both those internal ones originated by the organs and those determined by the external environment, generating appropriate responses.²

All of these mechanisms are made feasible because, inside the CNS, the "neural" cells and the spinal cord maintain a close communication due to the presence of chemical and electrical signals. These signals involve the displacement of small molecules such as neurotransmitters and modulators, and a constant flow and concentration of ions for the genesis and maintenance of synaptic and neuronal potentials. 4

In order to achieve a precise and reproducible signaling among the nervous cells, it is fundamental that the composition of the CNS internal microenvironment remains finely controlled and protected by the blood flow rich in ions, peptides, xenobiotics which could alter this fragile balance. ⁴ More specifically, there are neural cells, such as neurons, astrocytes, oligodendrocytes and microglia cells, that are actively involved in the homeostatic maintenance of the interstitial fluid, while cell barriers at the interfaces between blood circulation and CNS are responsible for regulating the flux of substances into and out.⁵

This delicate control is due to the presence of three physical barriers opposing molecular flux: the endothelium of the brain microvessels (BBB) between blood and the brain interstitial fluid (ISF), the choroid plexus epithelium between blood and ventricular cerebro-spinal fluid (CSF), and the arachnoid epithelium between blood and subarachnoid CSF.⁶ The choroid plexus and arachnoid form the blood-CSF barrier (BCSFB).⁵ Despite the presence of various barriers, the BBB represents the one with the greatest control over molecular traffic and homeostatic maintenance of cerebral environment.⁷

In the BBB, the presence of tight junctions throughout all cellular endothelium makes molecular trafficking very difficult, due to the absence of fenestrations and low occurrence of pinocytic activity,^{8,9} while for what concerns the capillaries of the choroid plexus, these allow the movement of substances via intracellular gap and fenestrations.¹⁰ Although the presence of tight junctions on the apical side of the endothelium, these are more permeable than those on BBB, making it less difficult solutes entry.¹¹

Foremost, the BBB exists as a selective diffusion barrier at the level of cerebral microvascular endothelium;¹² the tight junctions between adjacent cells prevent free movement of polar solutes via paracellular pathways, but the presence of solute carriers on the apical and basal membranes allows small molecules entry and efflux. Large molecules such as peptides and protein can be carried in and out via mechanism of adsorptive and receptor-mediated transcytosis. 2

The BBB performs a set of essential functions for the physiological condition of the CNS; it supplies brain with nutrients from blood and regulates the clearance of waste products deriving from metabolism of brain⁷ and, by keeping toxins out, it guarantees the protection of neurons and neural network connectivity.²

The BBB regulates the production of the ISF, which is the extracellular fluid that fills the "interstices" of tissues and bathing cells;⁷ to finely regulate its composition, the BBB limits fluids flow from blood while allowing ions movement due to the presence of ionic channels and specific transporters. ⁶ Although the ISF's composition seems very similar to plasma, it is necessary for it to maintain a lower $Ca²⁺$ and $K⁺$ concentration but a higher Mg^{2+} level to preserve synaptic and axonal signalling.¹³

Moreover, this barrier restricts protein entry to limit brain's innate immune response and controls the presence of leukocytes allowing immune surveillance with minimal inflammatory and cell damage. Finally, the BBB acts by separating central and peripheral neurotransmitter pools by reducing "cross-talk" interference between signaling networks that use the same agents.^{2,14,15}

Thus, this interface endothelium layer acts as physical, transport, metabolic and immunological barrier; the BBB (Fig.1) is a dynamic structure, able to manage any impulse it receives adequately.² This plasticity is the result of the combined work of cerebral endothelium and the Neurovascular Unit (NVU), which is a complex cellular system modulating and supporting BBB's activity. 16

(INSERT FIGURE 1)

1.1 The neurovascular unit (NVU)

As mentioned above, the BBB is a dynamic entity able to supervise brain condition; this goal is achieved due to the activity of various cell types that collaborate in close contact forming the NVU⁴ (Fig.2). It has been defined as a complex formed by endothelium, neurons, astrocytes, pericytes, basal lamina and extracellular matrix.¹⁷

The definition of NVU is constantly evolving, and it has recently been extended to include macrophages and microglia involved in immune responses and circulating inflammatory cells for their role in immune surveillance of CNS;¹⁸ in addition, the importance of brain endothelial luminal surface glycocalyx in the leukocyteendothelial interaction has been clarified by "prefiltering" the access to endothelial membrane.¹⁹

Although the role of each component is not yet fully defined, 20 it is clear that the effectiveness shown by the NVU is the result of the intimacy and the close connection existing among all cell types composing it.^{2,21}

a. Neurons

The neuron may be considered as the "pacemaker" of the NVU;^{22,23} in fact, due to its stringent metabolic needs, it is capable of reacting very quickly to the lack of nutrients and oxygen, converting these stimuli into chemical and electrical messages which modulate the activity of adjacent cells to restore physiological condition.^{12,24}

In case of need neurons can communicate with vessels through astrocytes, affecting a change in vascular tone and blood supply in that area:¹⁶ supporting this, there are anatomical evidence that show noradrenergic,^{25,26} serotoninergic,²⁷ cholinergic²⁸ and GABAergic neurons^{12,29} directly innerving microvascular endothelial cells and/or astrocytic processes linked with.

b. Astrocytes

In the past years it was believed that astrocytes played a secondary role only supporting endothelium activity, later it was discovered that they are in close communication with neurons and blood vessels being actively involved in the NVU. 30,31

Anatomically this connection is due to the astrocyte end foot, which is a cell extension in contact with pericytes, myocytes and endothelium;³² equally important is the syncytial organization of astrocytes as well as neurons. In this structure, cells are strictly united by gap junctions and functionally via calcium waves 33,34 and this also allows the propagation of electrical stimuli over long distances, recruiting other syncytia. 35

Moreover, the astrocytes take part in chemical signaling producing substances such as NO, prostaglandins and ATP which occur in vasal tone modulation. 36

c. Pericytes

Pericytes are in close contact with endothelial cells and communicate with them promoting their maturation and development. Less is known about pericytes, and until recently they were considered as supporting cells, such as astrocytes.^{37,38}

Evidences have shown that pericytes possess contractile proteins and it has been suggested that they may intervene in blood flow modulation given their proximity to brain capillaries.³⁹ In addition, pericytes seem to play key role in cerebral angiogenesis.³⁸

d. Extracellular matrix

The extracellular matrix contributes to the maintenance of what are the unique properties of the BBB along with neurons, astrocytes and pericytes. The most important function carried out by matrix is the anchoring of endothelial cells via interaction of laminin and other matrix proteins with endothelial integrin receptors,⁴⁰ although it influences the expression of tight junction proteins involved in the maintenance of BBB's integrity. 41,42

(INSERT FIGURE 2)

1.2 BBB junctional complex

The junctional complex ensuring the functionality of the BBB is formed by tight junctions (TJs) and adherens junctions (AJs). Remarkably, there is an intimate connection between them in order to guarantee membrane integrity. 43,44

Gap junctions also have been found in brain, although their function has not been clarified yet.⁴⁵

a. Tight junctions

The seal formed by TJs is due to a complex network of transmembrane proteins and cytoplasmatic assessor proteins that allow to bind adjacent endothelial cells in depth linking actin-based cytoskeleton. The main transmembrane proteins making up TJs are claudins, occludins and junctional adhesional molecules (JAMs).⁴³

Claudins are small proteins about 20-24 kDa, composed by four extramembrane domain and extracellular loops; ⁴⁶ these proteins form the primary seal of tight junctions as they are able to form dimers with other claudins in adjacent cells. 43,47

Occludin is an integral membrane protein bigger than claudin, about 60-65 kDa, and it has four transmembrane domains with both carboxy and amino terminus intracellularly; it has also two extracellular loops.⁴⁸ Likely occludin may increase the resistance across BBB and contribute to the formation of aqueous pore modulating the non-charged solutes flow.⁴⁹ In addition, the occludin cytoplasmatic carboxy terminal domain is able to link cytoskeleton via guanylyl-kinase domains of accessory proteins such as zonula occludens-1, zonula occludens-2 and zonula occludens-3. 50-52

At last, there are the JAMs, these proteins belonged to the immunoglobulin superfamily and have a single transmembrane domain with an extracellular part with two loops IgG-like. JAMs intervene in cell-cell adhesion and may regulate permeability and monocyte movement. 53,54

Other cytoplasmatic accessory proteins occur in TJ; among these, Zona occludens-1 (ZO-1), ZO-2 and ZO-3 belong to the MAGUK family (membrane-associated guanylate kinase proteins) and have been identified coupling transmembrane proteins to cytoskeleton actin, as mentioned above, and forming submembranous plaque of tight junctions. 55

b. Adherens junctions

AJs constitute a fundamental part of junctional complex in BBB; these are characterized by transmembrane glycoproteins that belong to the superfamily of cadherin, which are Ca²⁺-dependent receptors forming complexes with neighboring cells.⁵⁶ AJs intervene in forming a continuous "belt" that assures anchoring of adjacent cells. 43

1.3 Enzymatic BBB

In addition, as mentioned above, the BBB not only acts as a physical passive barrier, but also performs a metabolic function; in fact, endothelial cells express a number of ectoenzymes, such as aminopeptidases, endopeptidases and cholinesterase, which work chemically modifying exogenous and endogenous substances, in order to prevent them reaching the sensitive brain compartment.⁵⁷

2. HOW MOLECULES CROSS THE BBB UNDER PHYSIOLOGICAL CONDITIONS

The presence of the BBB prevents most molecules from reaching the brain, but there are transport mechanisms that allow the passage of substances required for nourishment and metabolism of nerve cells.⁵⁸

The following is a brief outline of how trafficking of molecules occurs physiologically across the barrier. How some endogenous transporters might be exploited for CNS targeting will be explored next (Fig.3).

2.1 Passive diffusion

Small water-soluble molecules cross the membrane via paracellular pathway, while small lipid-soluble agent diffuse through transcellular routes. 59

There are several factors influencing and limiting the spread of agents into CNS; in fact, a correlation has been found between the logP (octanol/aqueous buffer partition at pH 7.4), the logarithm of the partition coefficient (P) of a compound, and the permeability of the barrier: ⁶⁰ for CNS permeation a logP about 1-3 is recommended.⁶¹ Moreover, to permeate the brain it is important that Polar Surface Area (PSA) and Molecular Weight (MW) remain below definite limits, 60-70 Å² and 450 Da respectively.^{61,62}

Compounds which carry a positive charge interact with the negatively charged glycocalyx and phospholipid head groups on the surfaces of cell membrane and this interaction assists their entry. On the other hand, the negatively charged bicarbonate ion diffuses poorly passively. At last, gaseous molecules such as O_2 and CO_2 are able to move passively according to their concentration gradients. 5

2.2 Carrier-mediated transport

The presence of TJs protects the CNS from any kind of agent that could alter its sensitive microenvironment but, at the same time, TJs isolate brain cells from several polar solutes required for their sustenance. Thus, endothelial cells are provided with specific solute carriers to supply the brain with all the necessary compounds, such as glucose, amino acids, peptides, vitamins, nucleosides and others.^{5,59}

These carriers can be bidirectional, and in this case the direction is guided by the concentration gradient of the substance, unidirectional transport can take place either inwards or outwards, or the direction can be reversible when the movement depend on the exchange of the substrate with another or with an ion.^{5,63}

a. Glucose. Glucose is one of the main sources of energy for the CNS, so it is crucial that brain cells are supplied with it constantly. Its most important carrier is GLUT1, belonging to the family of sodium-independent glucose transporters, able to transport glucose and other hexoses across the BBB. GLUT1 is expressed both on the luminal and abluminal membrane of endothelial cells,⁶⁴ although its density is higher at the abluminal side. This asymmetrical arrangement allows homeostatic control of glucose flow and prevents an accumulation in the ISF higher than in blood.^{65,66}

b. Amino acids. For amino acids, there are also specific carriers asymmetrically located on both the luminal and abluminal surface of the cells. It is essential that amino acids, despite being polar solutes, reach the CNS as several of these cannot be synthesized by tissues but they must be introduced by diet.⁶⁴ In addition, adequate amino acids supply is critical, as some are precursors to important neurotransmitters such as serotonin, dopamine, histamine. 67,68

Several carriers deal with amino acids flux; for instance, system L transport large neutral amino acids with hydrophobic branched or aromatic side chains,⁶⁹ system y⁺ carries cationic amino acids arginine, lysine and ornithine.⁷⁰ Both these systems are Na⁺-independent transporters expressed at high level in both the luminal and abluminal cell membranes. 64

However, systems A, $B^{0,+}$, ASC, X⁻AG and β are Na⁺-dependent carriers;⁶⁴ both systems A and ACS transport neutral amino acids and are located predominantly on the abluminal membrane.⁷¹⁻⁷⁵ System $B^{0,+}$ deals with

neutral and basic amino acids,⁷⁶ while system β carries β-alanine and taurine,⁷⁷ both in the luminal and abluminal cell membranes.

At last, the anionic amino acids are transported by system X⁻AG, also in this case located on both sides of endothelial cells. 78

c. Nucleotides, nucleosides, nucleobases. Adult mammalian brain cells do not have a significant capacity to produce nucleotides required for the synthesis of DNA and RNA, so there are specific carriers able to transport these precursors from blood to brain.⁷⁹ They are divided into two classes: CNT, concentrative nucleoside transporters, and ENT, equilibrative nucleoside transporters.⁸⁰

d. Monocarboxylic acids. For monocarboxylic acids and ketone bodies, useful for the brain as metabolic substrates, there is a family of carriers named MCT; these transporters are proton coupled and bi-directional.⁸¹

e. Organic ions. Finally, the carriers specialized in organic ions transport, belonging to OAT family (organic anion transporters). All these carriers seem to carry para-aminohippuric acid.⁸² In addition, there are specific transporters, called OATP, for a wide class of negatively charged molecules at physiological pH, including bile salts, thyroid hormones, steroid conjugates, small peptides and peptidomimetics.⁸³⁻⁸⁷

In the case of organic cations have been described two types of carriers, OCT (organic cation transporters)⁸³ and OCTN, in which the "N" means "novel".⁸⁸⁻⁹⁴ A summary is given in Table1.

2.3 Vesicular transport

Large molecular weight solutes can cross the BBB via vesicular transcytosis; this process begins as an invagination of endothelial cell membrane assembling a caveola. The caveola detaches forming a free vesicle and migrates inside the cell to the membrane on the opposite side, with which it melts releasing its contents into the peri-endothelial basal lamina. 64

The vesicular transports involve both RMT, Receptor-Mediated Transcytosis and AMT, Adsorptive-Mediated Transcytosis. 5

a. RTM. Receptor-Mediated Transcytosis is triggered by the binding between a macromolecular ligand and its specific receptor situated on the cell surface; ligand-receptor complex is internalized into the endothelial cell and transported across the cytoplasm to the opposite pole. Likely ligand-receptor detachment occurs during transit or exocytosis.⁹⁵

Several proteins required by the CNS use this transport mechanism, such as transferrin,⁹⁶ low-density lipoprotein, ⁹⁷ insulin, insulin-like growth factor, ⁵⁷ Immunoglobulin G. ⁹⁸

Two of the well-known processes are insulin- and transferrin-receptor-mediated transcytosis; both these mechanisms have been exploited to enhance drug permeation across the BBB,⁸ and it will be discussed later.

b. AMT. Adsorptive-Mediated Transcytosis begins when a cationic macromolecule interacts with cell surface charged negatively and this interaction triggers the transcytosis process. For instance, albumin transcytosis is due to an electrostatic interaction generated between the cationized protein and sialic acid moieties on the luminal/ heparin sulfate groups on the abluminal surface of endothelial cells.⁹⁹

Table2 provides a summary of mentioned mechanisms.¹⁰⁰⁻¹⁰⁷

(INSERT TABLE 1)

(INSERT TABLE 2)

2.4 ABC Transporters

Contrary to expectations several compounds with a logD appropriate to cross the BBB fail to reach a suitable concentration in the CNS due to the presence of efflux systems led by ABC (ATP-Binding-Cassette) transporters.¹⁰⁸

In humans, 48 members belong to this family, which is divided into 7 subfamilies, A to G;¹⁰⁹ the ABC acronym derives from their function, in fact these transporters exploit the energy derived from ATP hydrolysis to move their substrates against concentration gradient.¹¹⁰ The role of these transporters allows the removal of xenobiotics and neurotoxic endogenous substances from the CNS,¹¹¹ although many drugs undergo this efflux mechanism and thus are removed from the brain preventing them from performing their therapeutic activity.¹⁰⁸

P-glycoprotein (P-gP, Multidrug Resistance Protein, ABCB1), Multidrug Resistance-associated Proteins (MRPs, ABCC1, 2,4,5) and Breast Cancer Resistance Protein (BRCP, ABCG2) are the main transporters playing a key role on the BBB.^{108,112}

(INSERT FIGURE 3)

3. BBB IN CHILDHOOD AND AGING BRAIN: THE CONCEPT OF AGE-RELATED BRAIN TARGETING

Diseases affecting CNS are a major challenge for scientists around the world; in fact, in addition to related problems of overcoming the BBB, another point not to be underestimated deals with changes in the anatomicphysiological brain structure due to the pathology and/or aging process.

In the following section will be proposed an overview of the most common CNS-related diseases classifying them according to the age of incidence; this approach is functional to highlight the different therapeutic needs related to the type of pathology and/or the incidence time of the same.

3.1 Childhood acute and chronic brain diseases

3.1.1 Traumatic Brain Injury.

TBI is a traumatic condition with a higher incidence in children and young adults, of which is one of the main causes of disability and/or death, although it may occur even in elderly individuals.^{113,114} This lesion can be due to a non-penetrating blow that leads to the formation of an intracranial bruise, or to a lacerating blow that involves a physical destruction of the BBB.¹¹³ TBI consists of a primary injury and a secondary injury mechanism;¹¹⁵ primary injury is due to the mechanical trauma affecting brain structures, such as neurons, axons, blood vessels and glia, while secondary injury mechanism consists of several neurochemical events which stimulate the production of pro-inflammatory mediators such as prostaglandins, oxidative metabolites, chemokines, pro-inflammatory cytokines, resulting in the disruption of BBB.¹¹⁶

Thus, besides the primary injury mechanism, damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPS) and biochemical derangements occur, leading cell death and the release of other DAMPS in a positive feedback mechanism that perpetrates over time;^{117,118} the resulting neuroinflammation seems to be the predisposing factor to neurodegeneration.¹¹⁹

The BBB is massively affected by TBI; in fact, imaging studies have shown that immediately after traumatic brain injury there is the destruction of tight junctions, flattening of vascular smooth muscles, swelling of cells and subsequent narrowing of vasal lumen.^{120,121} Subsequently, 3-7 days after the primary BBB's rupture, neuroinflammation occurs as secondary pathogenic mechanism which can last even for a long time;¹²² trauma consequences diversify case to case and are related to the severity of the damage suffered.¹²³

Interestingly, in animal models is possible to observe that there is a considerable increase in BBB permeability to albumin and other high-molecular weight molecules with a biphasic course that is about 4-6 hours and again 2-3 days after TBI.¹²⁴⁻¹²⁷ This increase in endothelium permeability is due to both the mechanical damage suffered and the tight junction proteins change in expression and localization, within a higher pinocytic activity. 128,129

However, the BBB breakdown provides a huge opportunity to passively direct modified delivery system to brain, in order to convey neuroprotective and restorative agents for the CNS itself.¹¹³

3.1.2 Pediatric brain tumors.

Pediatric brain tumors are the third most frequently occurring type of cancer in childhood and they represent a significant cause of death in children (besides traumatic injury).¹³⁰ Astrocytoma, medulloblastoma, ependymoma and brain stem glioma are the most frequent form of cancer in children,^{131,132} although metastatic lesions are less common than in adults and approximately 50% of childhood brain tumors are benign.¹³³ Standard treatments for these diseases include surgery, radiotherapy and chemotherapy, even more the latter does not always lead to an improvement in the patient's condition. 134-136 Sometimes the therapy failure is related to the impossibility of chemotherapeutic agents to reach a proper concentration into the tumor tissue, due to the presence of the BBB which limits drugs enter into the CNS and prevents their accumulation due to the efflux systems.^{137,138}

It has been shown that the BBB, in some cases, loses its integrity and this may allow the passage of drugs, such as large chemotherapeutic molecules or nanocarriers, normally excluded from the CNS. However, the issue appears to be more complex; in fact, it has been clarified that the cerebral capillary endothelium bearing tumor may be continuous and non-fenestrated, continuous and fenestrated, discontinuous and/or fenestrated/non-fenestrated depending on the type of brain lesion.^{130,139} Therefore, the BBB could be formed by heterogeneous areas lacking integrity in close proximity to perfectly intact areas.^{138,140,141} From this evidence, it is clear that childhood brain tumors represent an attractive field of application for innovative formulations: in parallel to the integrity loss of the BBB, which would enable the *in situ* passage of nanocarriers by simple passive diffusion, there is the possibility of functionalizing the nanosystems themselves by directing them towards a specific target. This type of therapeutic approach might allow to decrease the invasiveness of the treatment, leading to a significant improvement of the patient's condition.

3.1.3 Epilepsy and seizures.

Epilepsy is a serious neurological condition affecting with higher incidence in the first decade of life, both as genetic epilepsy and epilepsy associated with developmental disorders. Although childhood epilepsy is more likely to go into remission than in adults, it is very difficult to administer anti-epileptic drugs to children due to their faster clearance than in adults. ^{142,143}

One of the problems related with anti-epileptic therapy is the drug resistance; it afflicts about 30% of the patients and reduces the effectiveness of the therapy. Several studies have been carried out to highlight the BBB involvement in this phenomenon.

Drug resistance could be explained by two theories: the target hypothesis, according to which pharmacoresistance is due to a molecular target changes led by anti-epileptic drugs themselves, and the transporter hypothesis.¹⁴⁴

According to this theory, it has been suggested that the drug resistance could be related to the changes in drug efflux transporters such as the overexpression of P-glycoprotein (MDR1).¹⁴⁵⁻¹⁴⁷

Moreover, it has been suggested that epilepsy and seizures could damage and weaken the BBB, and vice versa a compromised BBB could trigger seizures.¹⁴⁴ In addition, other studies have supposed that BBB metabolic defects, such as GLUT1 deficiency syndrome could induce a lack of brain glucose transport, and this could lead to seizures.^{148,149}

3.1.4 Childhood neurodegenerative disorders.

Childhood neurodegenerative disorders represent a heterogeneous class of diseases, which can be classified as follow: disorders involving subcellular organelles, disorders of intermediary metabolism, disorders of metals metabolism, leukodystrophies and genetic inherited disorders. 150-152

Under normal conditions, a healthy CNS undergoes an immune control by glia resting cells (innate immunity) and lymphocytes (adaptive immunity).¹⁵³ Both systems operate an immune surveillance that does not compromise BBB integrity; although in neurodegenerative conditions it has been shown that the localized glial activity triggers the neuroinflammation which may promote BBB alterations. 154,155

3.2 Acute and chronic diseases in aging brain

3.2.1 Brain tumor.

Glioma is the most common brain tumor in adults, in fact it accounts for 80 % of the cancers affecting the brain;¹⁵⁶ according to the American Brain Tumor Association, glioma means any type of tumor that originated from glial cells.¹⁵⁷

In addition, several malignant tumors such as lung, breast, and colon cancer lead to the formation of metastatic lesions in brain;¹⁵⁸ in the case of melanoma, brain metastases occur in 55% of patients.¹⁵⁹

Interestingly, although it is widely known that brain tumors could alter the BBB organization, it should be clarified that these alterations vary depending on the type of brain neoplasm, not necessarily in relation to the tumor size, shape and localization.¹⁶⁰

As in the case of pediatric brain tumors, even in adult age it has been underlined that BBB exhibits an area of increased permeability in the core of malignant lesion, whereas the surrounding brain tissue generally presents a good vascularity and a variable degree of integrity, allowing the passage of molecules and/or nanovectors passively.138,161

More specifically, several brain tumors are associated with the production of growth factors, vasoactive cytokines and pro-inflammatory mediators^{162,163} which destroy the tight junctions between endothelial cells generating BBB disruption, vasogenic edema and hemorrhagic phenomena.¹⁶⁴

Primary malignant tumors and brain metastases consist of blood vessels whose junctions are particularly weak and no longer expressing healthy BBB transport systems. 165

In fact, it has been shown that post-mortem the expression of the glucose GLUT-1 carrier into brain tumor tissue microcirculation is inversely related to the malignancy of the tumor itself.¹⁶⁶

Although Glut1 is normally expressed at vessels adjacent to the tumor and secondary lesions, it is missing into the endothelial cells inside tumor tissue and its metastasis; this evidence has highlighted that the lack of glucose transporters is a feature of the tumor tissue itself and this condition provides important information on the use of such carrier as a mean for an active drug delivery to the brain.¹⁶⁶⁻¹⁶⁸

3.2.2 Stroke.

Cerebral ischemia is an acute condition that occurs when the flow of blood, oxygen and nutrients to the brain is interrupted,¹⁶⁹ and it is associated with an increasing in microvascular permeability.^{162,170}

Several studies have shown that ischemia/reperfusion phenomena lead to the loss of BBB integrity due to the TJs opening and this increases permeability.¹⁷¹⁻¹⁷³ Specifically, this process takes place with a double effect; first there is a rapid BBB opening, followed by a refractory period and a prolonged reopening that can remain hours or days. During this phase plasma substances have free access to CNS.¹⁷⁴⁻¹⁷⁸

3.2.3 Neurodegenerative disorders.

The neurodegenerative process, namely the progressive loss of neuronal structure and function leading to nerve cells death, is closely linked to age-related disease. 179

a. Alzheimer's disease. Alzheimer's dementia is the most common type of dementia widespread in the world.¹⁸⁰ Both aging and Alzheimer's disease (AD) lead to several BBB changes in the neurovascular unit and endothelial cells. These alterations involve a decrease in endothelial mitochondria density, an increase in pinocytic activity, loss of tight junctions, storage of extracellular matrix components into the basal lamina, thickening of vessel walls with decreasing elasticity and changes in astrocytic end feet.^{181,182}

More specifically several BBB alterations could be related to AD onset; these changes affect cellular components of neurovascular unit and several transporters.

Evidences have shown a link between AD and TJs functioning; in fact, occludin seems to be susceptible to matrix metalloproteinases (MPP) attack which are related to disease development.^{183,184} Moreover, the connection of AJs and TJs to actin cytoskeleton appears to be affected by tau protein. ¹⁸⁵ Astrocytes and pericytes are also influenced by AD induced modifications, in fact it has been noted an abnormal astrocytic activity related to vascular instability,¹⁸⁶ while as far as pericytes are concerned, they are able to accumulate within themselves amγloid-β peptides, and their resulting dysfunction would appear to be connected to the clearance of such deposits.^{187,188} In addition, as mentioned above, some transporters undergo changes induced by AD; for instance, it has been observed that the brain transport of glucose is affected by this disease. In fact, the expression of GLUT1 transporter within brain capillaries in patients with AD is greatly reduced, although there is no alteration in protein mRNA structure¹⁸⁹ or transcription,¹⁹⁰ rather a reduction in BBB surface area available for glucose exchange.¹⁹¹

Among various transporters based on BBB, low density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 1 (LRP1) and transferrin receptor (TfR) have been identified as potential drug delivery targets.¹⁹² LRP1's expression is compromised in AD,¹⁸¹ while, intriguingly, it has been shown that both in aging process and development of Alzheimer's disease, the levels of TfR and the TfR-mediated uptake and internalization process are not compromised. The experimental evidence provided have shown that the mechanisms TfR-related do not undergo changes by AD neuropathology, highlighting TfR real potential in brain delivery innovative approach. 193

b. Parkinson's disease. Possible dysfunction of the BBB and/or blood-CSF-barrier has also been noted for Parkinson's disease (PD) during its progression.¹⁹⁴ It appears to be an increase in BBB permeability in PD patients using histological markers of serum protein, iron and erythrocyte;¹⁹⁵ however, despite this, many aspects about Parkinson's disease on barrier remain to be clarified and the actual effect has not yet been fully explored.

c. Multiple Sclerosis (MS) and Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS). MS is a chronic disease that involves an abnormal attack performed by the immune system to several CNS components, such as CNC myelin, resulting in progressive loss of motor and sensitive functions.¹⁷⁸ Post-mortem histological analysis revealed a loss of TJs in brain areas affected by active lesions induced by MS, resulting in an increased barrier permeability with massive amounts of cell infiltration. 196,197

ALS is a chronic neurodegenerative disease which causes loss of motor neurons in the spinal cord and motor cortex.¹⁷⁸ This disease, although not yet fully understood, also seems to induce BBB breakdown which was found to be due to the presence of albumin, cell infiltrate and IgG in CSF.^{198,199}

d. Huntington's disease. Huntington's disease (HD) is an autosomal dominant disorder caused by an expansion of the CAG tract beyond 35 repeats in exon 1 of the huntingtin gene (HTT; formerly IT15), with longer repeat lengths that lead to earlier onset and greater disease severity.²⁰⁰

Individuals carrying the mutation develop motor defects, cognitive decline, and psychiatric disturbances.²⁰¹

Although the cause of the disease is well established, it is still challenging to treat due to a number of pathological factors that have yet to be fully elucidated. Interestingly, Hunghtinton's disease involves the occurrence of a number of functional anomalies of the BBB, including disruption of vascularization and increased permeability due to the opening of TJs.²⁰² This pathological phenomenon could represent the way by which nanosystems can cross the BBB and release the encapsulated drug.

4. DRUG DELIVERY BRAIN TARGETING

In recent years, drug delivery to the brain has become one of the most exciting challenges for academia, given the huge prevalence of diseases affecting CNS and the difficulty of treating them. As mentioned above, although the diseases afflicting the CNS are different in both etiology and clinical manifestations, all are characterized by difficulties in treatment, largely due to the presence of BBB. Indeed, it is the main obstacle that prevents most therapeutically active molecules from reaching adequate concentrations into the brain.²⁰³

One of the most widely explored approach to reach this goal is represented by the use of non-invasive pharmaceutical technology-based strategies. These are colloidal systems that, once administered intravenously, enter the circulatory stream and are transported by the blood flow into each district of the organism. For this reason, a fundamental requirement of nanovectors is their ability to remain for a long time into circulatory flow before interacting and being removed by the reticuloendothelial system (RES). The

nanosystems ability to escape the RES depends on certain factors, such as their size, their charge, and their surface features. 8,204,205

Nanovectors can be made of natural or synthetic materials, which greatly influence the properties of the final formulation. For each pathology analyzed the nanocarrier must be carefully structured to meet the needs of the pathological tissue, in order to optimize the delivery of the drug while reducing the side effects associated as much as possible. With the proper formulation, it is also possible to add directional moieties on the surface of the nanosystems, thus obtaining that the drug is released only at the site of interest, decreasing the dose to be administered and the toxic effects associated with it. Among these new nanoformulations,²⁰⁶ such as the well-studied liposomes,²⁰⁷ dendrimers,^{208,209} polymeric particles,²¹⁰ nanogels,²¹¹ great attention has been focused on lipid-based nanosystems, SLNs and NLCs.³

The focus regarding these nanosystems is due to their ability to involve the same advantages of polymeric nanoparticles, fat emulsions and liposomes, also overcoming several limitations. In fact, various studies in literature suggest the high versatility of SLNs and NLCs as they show attractive characteristics that justify the great interest that has accompanied them in recent years.^{212,213} Compared to polymeric nanoparticles and inorganic nanoparticles, these lipid-based carriers are less toxic, more biocompatible, biodegradable, nonimmunogenic, flexible and safer, as their production can be carried out in absence of organic solvents.^{3,203,214} SLNs and NLCs have demonstrated significant advantages over other lipid-based systems; in particular, compared to liposomes, they provide a longer shelf life, protection from enzymatic degradation, higher drug loading capacity, greater stability and they allow a prolonged release of the entrapped drug over time.³

They are capable to improve the pharmacokinetics and biodistribution of entrapped drugs, as SLN/NLCs are long-lasting formulations that increase the half-life of the delivered molecules, allowing their accumulation into organs and tissues (in addition to the possibility of being directed towards a specific target). These nanocarriers are useful to deliver a drug with poor physical-biological resistance into the bloodstream, or to increase the bioavailability of a molecule that can cross the BBB, or to facilitate the permeation of the molecule into the brain.²¹⁵

More specifically, studies demonstrate that the use of such delivery systems improves the pharmacokinetics of the delivered drugs compared to the free drug. A specific example is doxorubicin; this drug is an important anticancer molecule that, however, shows significant cardiotoxic effects that limit its use. Zara et al. have investigated the improved effect of the use of SLNs as delivery system of this molecule; in this study, it was analyzed how the incorporation of the drug in SLNs led to an accumulation of doxorubicin into the brain, decreasing its distribution and therefore toxicity in other tissues compared to the commercial drug. The lower uptake of doxorubicin- loaded SLNs by the RES could increase the drug's bioavailability in non-RES tissue targeting.²¹⁶

Moreover, their nanometric size enables them to cross the BBB via passive diffusion even without functionalization; this ability allows them to easily reach tissues with discontinuous capillary endothelium, as it happens in the liver, spleen, inflamed tissues and solid tumors, all areas in which endothelium is not characterized by the presence of TJ.204,205

SLNs/NLCs, similarly to other colloidal drug delivery systems, have special pharmacokinetic properties. In particular, their lipid composition provides these nanosystems with surface features that affect their biodistribution and interaction with biomembranes. When these naked nanovectors are administered intravenously, their hydrophobic surface is attacked by plasma opsonins. In order to avoid this process, it is useful to perform a PEGylation or use another surface moiety that allows the nanosystem to persist longer in the bloodstream by avoiding complement activation and uptake by the RES.²¹⁵

Experimental evidence shows that the uptake of these lipid nanosystems is basically carried out by endothelial cells. In fact, the nanoparticles exploit various mechanisms to cross the BBB. According to Kreuter et al., it has been defined that NPs may have a local toxic effect on the endothelium, increasing its permeability; moreover, they may open tight junctions promoting the passage of the free drug or of the entire carrier.²¹⁷

An interesting approach to increase the uptake of SLN/NLCs involves coating with some surfactants (polysorbates, including Tween 80) that can adsorb apolipoproteins (Apo). It has been shown that Apo adsorbed on the surface of the nanosystem are involved in the brain uptake of the NPs by the endothelium.^{218,219} It has been noted that cationic NPs stimulate endocytosis by the endothelium, and it has

been hypothesized that the presence of the cationic surface may promote nanocarrier escape from lysosomal enzymes. 215

Moreover, a study by Agarwal et al, demonstrated that using cationic bovine serum albumin (CBSA) as a ligand on the surface of methotrexate-loaded SLNs, it was possible to stimulate transcytosis by the endothelium across the BBB allowing the antitumor drug to reach the brain.²²⁰

This evidence suggests the large impact that these carriers could have in the treatment, for example, of tumoral diseases affecting the brain. As clarified previously, in this specific pathological state, both in children and adults, areas of increased permeability of the BBB develop through which SLNs and NLCs may achieve the target tissue merely by passive targeting. Instead, when occur pathologies in which there is no loss of integrity of the BBB, the possibility of decorating these nanocarriers with a directional moiety enables it to arrive at the target tissue merely, demonstrating once again the large versatility of these carriers according to the needs of the tissue to be treated.³

4.1 Solid Lipid Nanoparticles

SLNs represent a promising colloidal system for delivering drugs into the brain. Structurally SLNs are solid lipid nanoparticles (nanometric size, approximately 50-100 nm) dispersed in water or in an aqueous surfactant phase. 212,213

SLNs are prepared using lipids solid at room temperature, such as mono-, di- and triglycerides, fatty acids, waxes and steroids and various physiologically compatible emulsifiers, i.e. phospholipids, Poloxamers, and Polysorbates are added to stabilize nanoparticle formulations. The use of lipids FDA (Food and Drug Administration) and GRAS (Generally Recognized As Safe) approved minimize the risk toxicity-associated due to their good biocompatibility.²¹⁴ Moreover, SLNs enable to improve topical, oral and parenteral administration; incapsulating drugs into these nanoparticles provide a protection from chemical and physical degradation processes and overcome problems associated with drugs poor aqueous solubility.²¹⁵ It is possible to modify these nanovectors surface in order to avoid the so-called "burst effect";²²¹ in fact, SLNs drug release profile generally follows a biphasic pattern²²² in which it is possible recognize an initial burst effect followed by a controlled release phase that can last from days up to a few weeks (Fig.4).²²³ This phenomenon has been explained considering that the first initial drug release may be due to a diffusion from the external particle surface or matrix erosion resulting by hydrolytic phenomena; the prolonged release, on the other hand, is probably associated with slow drug delivery via diffusion or dissolution from the lipidic core.^{224,225}

The chemical structure and the nature of the components constituting SLNs are very significant technological parameters able to influence several aspects of these formulations, such as circulation time and stability.²²⁶ They remain stable for over a year, overcoming other innovative formulation stability problems, if stored in refrigeration condition.²²⁷ SLNs in size range 120-200 nm have the ability to avoid RES cells uptake and thus bypass liver and spleen filtration;²²⁸ in addition, the surface coating with poly(ethylene) glycol (PEG) prolongs their circulation time into bloodstream.²¹⁴ Furthermore PEGylation seems to enhance SLNs permeation across epithelium.²²⁹ In addition it is possible to avoid the use of organic solvents during the production process and sterilize the formulation.^{215,230}

Depending both on the production technique used and drug solubility into lipid matrix, active substances may be entrapped into SLNs following three models: the drug can be distributed throughout the mass of the SLN (solid solution model), the drug can be localized on the outer shell around the inert lipid solid core (drugenriched shell), or the core can be formed by the drug with the lipid layered around it (drug-enriched core) (Fig.5). 231,232

Despite the remarkable characteristics of SLNs, they are also associated with some disadvantages, including the relatively low encapsulation efficiency (EE) due to the crystalline lipid structure that hinders the housing of the encapsulated drug, the tendency to gelate, the growth of lipid particles and polymorphic transition phenomena that may affect the lipid matrix which can lead to the expulsion of the embedded drug during the storage phase.²³¹

(INSERT FIGURE 4)

(INSERT FIGURE 5)

4.2 Nanostructured Lipid Carriers

As for SLNs, it should be clarified that the use of only one type of lipid in the production of nanoparticles determines the formation of a perfect crystalline network in which there is no physical space for drug molecules, hence the low drug loading. Moreover, during the post-production storage phase, it may happen that transition processes of the crystalline network itself take place with consequent expulsion of the drug entrapped in the aqueous dispersion.

Since these processes represent a significant obstacle to the potential applicability of SLNs, Muller et al. have introduced structural modifications to SLNs in order to obtain a new generation of lipid-based nanoparticles, the NLCs.²³³

NLCs are modified SLNs in which the lipid phase consists of liquid lipids (oils) and solids at room temperature.²³¹

This mix of solid and liquid lipids is able to overcome the problems mentioned above; in fact, to obtain a higher EE it is necessary to create spaces for the positioning of the drug within the nanosystems, and this is possible using long chain unsaturated lipids, therefore liquids at room temperature (oils). In this way an imperfect crystal is generated with the consequent increase in the amount of drug that can be entrapped inside. Generally, the solubility of a drug is higher in the liquid lipid than in the solid, and this means that the amount of drug that can be included during the preparation phase of the nanosystems is higher in the case of NLCs than in the SLNs.

Finally, using NLCs it is possible to avoid the phenomenon of expulsion of the entrapped drug because the use of different lipids leads to a solidification phase during cooling, but not to the formation of the crystalline network, so as to preserve the integrity of the formulation itself.²³³

It is possible to obtain three types of NLCs: NLCs of imperfect type, in which there is a mix of solid oils and lipids in the lipid phase, and the presence of unsaturated long chain fatty acids creates gaps within the system with increased drug loading; NLCs structureless type (non-crystalline matrix), in which the use of certain mixtures of lipids makes it impossible to crystallization and expulsion of drug during cooling; finally there is the multiple type O/F/W, in which the oily phase in which the solubility of the drug is maximum is surrounded by the solid lipid that determines the prolonged release of drug over time. $231,233$

4.3 SLNs and NLCs targeting the brain

Given the associated advantages, SLNs and NLCs have gained increasing attention as delivery system of active substances in recent years.

Interestingly, due to their nanometric size (< 100 nm), SLNs/NLCs have the innate ability to cross biological barriers, even the selective BBB;^{234,235} besides this ability, it is also possible to functionalize the particle outer shell with several ligands. The addition of targeting moiety on the surface of these lipid nanovectors allows them to be directed towards a specific target and to interact with molecules on the target tissue. This modification is able to increase and improve the uptake of the nanosystems.

The following is an overview of explicative examples that illustrate how, in recent years, technological research has achieved remarkable improvements in studying and obtaining such attractive formulations (Table 3).

In 2018, Sistla et al. published a study in which Docetaxel-loaded SLNs decorated with a peptide were produced for the treatment of glioblastoma multiforme (GBM). This type of malignant glioma is very aggressive, in fact it is not possible to remove it surgically and its pharmacological treatment involves several difficulties, including the poor permeability through the BBB of existing drugs, the presence of efflux systems and the lack of specificity against tumor cells. In this case, the targeting moiety used is angiopep-2, an endogenous ligand of the LRP1 receptor, which is over-expressed both at the BBB and on the surface of glioma cells. The nanosystems thus obtained, loaded with Docetaxel (DTX), were tested to evaluate the effective anticancer activity. Cytotoxicity studies conducted on brain tumor cell lines (GL261 and U87MG) showed that the presence of the targeting molecule promoted internalization into tumor cells and the drug delivery system used has allowed the sustained release of the entrapped DTX, resulting in a superior toxic effect compared with the free drug. In addition, *in vivo* studies in C57BL/6 mice highlighted that the survival time of animals treated with the nanoformulation was significantly longer (39 days) than those treated with the commercially available drug Taxotere (24 days); probably the improved anti-glioma activity is the result of increased accumulation of drug in the glioma site due to the active targeting. 236

In a recent work, Arduino et al. have prepared PEGylated-SLNs containing Pt(IV) prodrugs accurately designed to treat GBM. The obtained data revealed the formation of anionic Pt (IV)-Prodrug/PEG-SLNs with good stability in aqueous medium and characterized by average hydrodynamic diameters below 100 nm. It has been demonstrated that this formulation is able to permeate the *in vitro* BBB model based on a hCMEC/D3 monolayer, highlighting the innate SLNs ability to exceed such a selective barrier. Moreover, the anticancer activity of the prodrugs delivered by SLNs was investigated *in vitro* using human glioblastoma cell line (U87), showing increased cytotoxicity and uptake of the Pt (IV)-prodrugs when trapped into SLNs compared with the non-formulated prodrugs. 235

Other research groups have explored the use of functionalized SLNs to increase drugs delivery to the brain; Liu et al. have prepared a brain delivery system based on OX26 antibody conjugation on PEGylated cationic solid lipid nanoparticles (OX26-PEG-CSLN); in this study PEGylated cationic SLN have been Baicalin-loaded and it was demonstrated an improvement in drug uptake across the brain due to the interaction between OX26 antibody and transferrin receptor on BBB surface. This interesting result indicated that conjugation with OX26 antibody could be a promising approach to reach the brain.²³⁷ Furthermore, in a later study, the same research group have demonstrated that not only Baicalin-loaded OX26-PEG-CSLN have the ability to permeate BBB, but also drug released by SLN formulation had an elevated bioavailability in cerebral spinal fluid of rats, showing a higher ability than Sol group (the group of focal cerebral ischemia–reperfusion treated with Baicalin solution) in neuronal protection.²³⁸

Another attractive approach to direct nanoparticles and to enhance their brain permeation could be represented by the usage of peptide or peptidomimetics as SLN surface modifying agents, e.g., Kuo et al. showed that using SLNs decorated with monoclonal antibody, it is possible to increase brain delivery. They have exploited the interaction between 83-14 monoclonal antibody, which is an insulin-like peptidomimetic, with the α-subunit of human insulin receptor, stimulating SLNs endocytosis into brain microvascular endothelial cells (BMECs) and the release *in situ* of the antiviral Saquinavir entrapped into nanoparticles. 239

In addition, in another work Carmustine-SLN loaded have been functionalized with serotoninergic receptor subtype antagonist (S1BRSA): in this case the binding between S1BRSA and its endogenous receptor based on brain endothelial cells promote the nanoparticles internalization. Resulting data showed that the Carmustine anticancer activity against the model of glioblastoma multiforme cells (U87) remains unchanged after SLNs release. 240

Recently, Kuo et al. have produced SLNs based on various lipids, functionalized with transferrin on the surface, containing a series of molecules with antioxidant activity and stimulating nerve regeneration following neurodegenerative insults. The SLNs obtained contain a nerve growth factor (NGF), rosmarinic acid (ROA), curcumin (CURC) and quercetin (QU). The characteristic of the nanosystems thus produced (QU-CURC-ROA-NGF-DPSLNs) is that they have been manufactured by double emulsification, therefore they contain a water zone suitable for loading the hydrophilic molecules (ROA and NGF), and a lipid matrix for the hydrophobic molecules.²⁴¹

Regarding NLCs, several results have been produced recently. Wu et al. have adopted these nanosystems to carry compounds in order to repair post-ischemia neuronal damage. In this study, NLCs carrying Salvianolic Acid and Baicalin were realized, and the nanovectors were functionalized with the transferrin receptor monoclonal antibody OX26 (OX26-BA/Sal BNLC). The *in vitro* results of the preliminary study have shown that this delivery system allows the release of entrapped compounds that have a restorative/improving effect on the condition of treated nerve cells. 242

Recently, an interesting work has been published by Arduino et al. They have developed NLCs carrying a compound (MC111) capable of inducing the activity of two transporters expressed at the level of the cerebral endothelium, P-gP and BCRP, that are closely involved in the clearance of β-amyloid from the brain parenchyma. In this study the nanosystems have been functionalized using transferrin as a directing moiety. Intriguingly, the biological assays performed on hCMEC/D3 cells cultured in BBB-forming conditions, revealed that the treatment with NLC-MC111 led to an increase in the activity of the two transporters, which was however maximum in the case of Tf-NLC-MC111. This important result demonstrated that, in addition to achieving permeation of the barrier model, the functionalized nanosystems were able to deliver a greater amount of drug inside the cells, leading to an increase in the activity of P -gP and BCRP.²⁴³

Curcumin is a compound with multiple antioxidant and restorative properties, and a high potential of applicability for neurodegenerative diseases. Unfortunately, this compound shows a low bioavailability and considerable difficulties in crossing the BBB, so it appears to be an optimal candidate for trapping in innovative delivery systems. NLCs containing curcumin have been produced and this formulation has been tested in a rat model or AD. The results shown by this study have demonstrated how the appropriate delivery system allows the drug to reach the nerve cells and performs its therapeutic activity: in fact, the animals treated with Cur-NLC showed a decrease in oxidative stress parameters in hippocampal tissue and an improvement in spatial memory, in parallel with a decrease in amyloid beta deposits. These data suggest that indeed the formulation design adopted allows the drug to reach the target site, overcoming the problems associated with brain treatment²⁴⁴

(INSERT TABLE 3)

5. CONCLUSION

Diseases affecting CNS are currently one of the greatest challenges facing scientific community, given the difficulty in their treatment due to the presence of selective barriers that actively prevent drugs from reaching therapeutic concentration *in situ.*

One of the pharmaceutical technology goals concerns the development of innovative safe non-invasive formulations capable of overcome the limitations associated with classical drugs.

From the wide interest and production in scientific literature, it is clearly shown that nanocarriers represent the future of drug delivery to the CNS. The BBB is selective to the entry of limited molecules, which helps prevent the intrusion of harmful molecules into the CNS. However, this protective feature of the BBB is also the biggest hurdle in the delivery of drugs for the treatment of brain diseases. Nanocarriers can cross the BBB and can thus be used as a tool for brain drug delivery. Inability of the drugs to permeate the BBB can be enhanced by their encapsulation inside the nanocarriers to facilitate their entry into the brain. This procedure is non-invasive, and drugs entrapped in nanocarriers can be administered in several ways.

In this context, this review focused the attention on solid lipid-based particles properties and their potential as brain drug delivery system. In this context, we explored the potential that solid lipid-based delivery systems offer. These delivery systems emerge as an improvement over past formulations. In fact, the use of polymeric nanoparticles and inorganic nanosystems is associated with vehicle toxicity issues that make them unusable for extended brain targeting. In addition, SLN/NLCs allow higher protection of the encapsulated drug in comparison with liposomes.²²⁶

In addition, the other key point of this work implies the need to carry out a deep study on the BBB; it is clear that the detailed knowledge of the structural and functional changes which may arise on BBB as a result of a pathology and/or a physiological aging process provides an essential starting point for the study of new therapeutic formulations reaching the brain.

Hence the need of age-related brain targeting; it represents a full of potential approach that could allow to obtain delivery systems designed to be more efficient as properly structured to meet the needs of their target, performing a promising step forward into personalized therapy.

REFERENCES

- **1.** Coulter IC, Forsyth RJ. Paediatric traumatic brain injury*. Current Opinion in Pediatrics* 2019;31(6):769– 774.
- **2.** Abbott NJ, Friedman A. Overview and introduction: The BBB in health and disease. *Epilepsia* 2012;53(6):1–6.
- **3.** Agrawal M, Saraf S, Saraf S, Dubey SK, Puri A, Patel RJ, Ravichandiran VR, Murty US, Alexander A. Recent strategies and advances in the fabrication of nano lipid carriers and their application towards brain targeting. *Journal of Controlled Release* 2020; 321: 372-415.
- **4.** Abbott NJ. Blood–brain barrier structure and function and the challenges for CNS drug delivery. *Journal of Inherited Metabolic Disease* 2013;36(3):437–449.
- **5.** Abbott NJ, Patabendige AA, Dolman DE, Yusof SR, Begley DJ. Structure and function of the BBB. *Neurobiol Dis* 2010;37:13–25.
- **6.** Abbott NJ. Evidence for bulk flow of brain interstitial fluid: significance for physiology and pathology. *Neurochem. Int.* 2004;45(4):545–552.
- **7.** Abbott NJ, Rönnbäck L, Hansson E. Astrocyte-endothelial interactions at the blood–brain barrier. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 2006;7(1):41–53.
- **8.** Denora N, Trapani A, Laquintana V, Lopedota A, Trapani G. Recent advances in medicinal chemistry and pharmaceutical technology--strategies for drug delivery to the brain. *Curr Top Med Chem.* 2009;9(2):182-196.
- **9.** Brightman MW, Reese TS. Junctions between intimately apposed cell membranes in the vertebrate brain. *J. Cell. Biol.* 1969;40(3):648-77.
- **10.** Pardridge WM. Drug delivery to the brain. *J. Cereb. Blood Flow Metab.* 1997;17(7):713-31.
- **11.** Deeken JF, Löscher W. The BBB and cancer: transporters, treatment, and trojan horses. *Clin. Cancer Res*. 2007;13(6):1663-1674.
- **12.** Hawkins BT. The BBB/Neurovascular Unit in Health and Disease. *Pharmacological Reviews* 2005;57(2):173–185.
- **13.** Cserr HF, Bundgaard M. Blood–brain interfaces in vertebrates: a comparative approach. *Am. J. Physiol*. 1984;246(3):R277–R288.
- **14.** Liu DZ, Ander BP, Xu H, Shen Y, Kaur P, Deng W, Sharp FR. BBB breakdown and repair by Src after thrombin induced injury. *AnnNeurol* 2010;67(4):526–533.
- **15.** Tian W, Sawyer A, Kocaoglu FB, Kyriakides TR. Astrocytederived thrombospondin-2 is critical for the repair of the BBB. *AmJPathol* 2011;179:860–868.
- **16.** Muoio V, Persson PB, Sendeski MM. The neurovascular unit—concept review. *Acta Physiol (Oxford, England)* 2014;210(4):790–798.
- **17.** Harder DR, Zhang C, Gebremedhin D. Astrocytes function in matching blood flow to metabolic activity. *News Physiol Sci* 2002;17:27 –31.
- **18.** Neuwelt EA. Mechanisms of disease: the blood–brain barrier. *Neurosurgery* 2004;54:131–140, discussion 141–142.
- **19.** Haqqani AS, Stanimirovic DB. Intercellular interactomics of human brain endothelial cells and th17 lymphocytes: a novel strategy for identifying therapeutic targets of CNS inflammation. *Cardiovasc Psychiatry Neurol* 2011;2011:175364.
- **20.** Kowianski P, Lietzau G, Steliga A, Waskow M, Morys J. The astrocytic contribution to neurovascular coupling – Still more questions than answers? *Neurosci Res* 2013;75(3):171–183.
- **21.** Armstead WM, Raghupathi R. (2011). Endothelin and the neurovascular unit in pediatric traumatic brain injury. *Neurol Res* 2011;33(2):127–132.
- **22.** Banerjee S, Bhat MA. Neuron-glial interactions in BBB formation. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 2007;30:235–258.
- **23.** Koehler, R.C., Gebremedhin, D. & Harder, D.R. (2006). Role of astrocytes in cerebrovascular regulation. J. Appl Physiol 1985, 307–317.
- **24.** Figley CR, Stroman PW. (2011). The role(s) of astrocytes and astrocyte activity in neurometabolism, neurovascular coupling, and the production of functional neuroimaging signals. *Eur J Neurosci* 2011;33(4):577–588.
- **25.** Ben-Menachem E, Johansson BB, Svensson TH. Increased vulnerability of the BBB to acute hypertension following depletion of brain noradrenaline. *J Neural Transm* 1982;53:159–167.
- **26.** Cohen Z, Molinatti G, Hamel E. Astroglial and vascular interactions of noradrenaline terminals in the rat cerebral cortex. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab* 1997;17(8):894–904.
- **27.** Cohen Z, Bonvento G, Lacombe P, Hamel E. Serotonin in the regulation of brain microcirculation. *Prog Neurobiol* 1996;50:335–362.
- **28.** Vaucher E, Hamel E. Cholinergic basal forebrain neurons project to cortical microvessels in the rat: electron microscopic study with anterogradely transported Phaseolus vulgaris leucoagglutinin and choline acetyltransferase immunocytochemistry. *J Neurosci* 1995;15(11):7427–7441.
- **29.** Vaucher E, Tong XK, Cholet N, Lantin S, Hamel E. GABA neurons provide a rich input to microvessels but not nitric oxide neurons in the rat cerebral cortex: a means for direct regulation of local cerebral blood flow. *J Comp Neurol* 2000;421:161–171.
- **30.** Lopez-Bayghen E, Ortega A. Glial glutamate transporters: new actors in brain signaling. *IUBMB Life* 2011;63(10):816–823.
- **31.** Santello M, Calı C, Bezzi P. Gliotransmission and the tripartite synapse. *Adv Exp Med Biol* 2012;970:307– 331.
- **32.** Kacem K, Lacombe P, Seylaz J, Bonvento G. Structural organization of the perivascular astrocyte endfeet and their relationship with the endothelial glucose transporter: a confocal microscopy study. *Glia* 1998;23(1):1 –10.
- **33.** Giaume C, Koulakoff A, Roux L, Holcman D, Rouach N. Astroglial networks: a step further in neuroglial and gliovascular interactions. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 2010;11(2):87–99.
- **34.** Tanigami H, Okamoto T, Yasue Y, Shimaoka M. Astroglial integrins in the development and regulation of neurovascular units. *Pain Res Treat* 2012;2012:964652.
- **35.** Haydon PG, Carmignoto G. Astrocyte control of synaptic transmission and neurovascular coupling. *Physiol Rev* 2006;86(3):1009–1031.
- **36.** Gordon GRJ, Choi HB, Rungta RL, Ellis-Davies GCR, MacVicar BA. Brain metabolism dictates the polarity of astrocyte control over arterioles. *Nature* 2008;456(7223):745–749.
- **37.** Sa-Pereira I, Brites D, Brito MA. Neurovascular unit: a focus on pericytes. *Mol Neurobiol* 2012; 45(2):327– 347.
- **38.** Armulik A, Genove G, Mäe M, Nisancioglu MH., Wallgard E, Niaudet C, He L, Norlin J, Lindblom P, Strittmatter K, Johansson BR, Betsholtz C. Pericytes regulate the BBB. *Nature* 2010;468(7323):557–561.
- **39.** Peppiatt CM, Howarth C, Mobbs P, Attwell D. Bidirectional control of CNS capillary diameter by pericytes. *Nature* 2006*;* 443(7112):700–704.
- **40.** Hynes RO. Integrins: versatility, modulation and signaling in cell adhesion. *Cell* 1992;69(1):11–25.
- **41.** Tilling T, Korte D, Hoheisel D, Galla HJ. Basement membrane proteins influence brain capillary endothelial barrier function in vitro. *J Neurochem* 1998;71(3):1151–1157.
- **42.** Savettieri G, Di Liegro I, Catania C, Licata L, Pitarresi GL, D'Agostino S, Schiera G, De Caro V, Giandalia G, Giannola LI, Cestelli A. Neurons and ECM regulate occludin localization in brain endothelial cells. *Neuroreport* 2000;11(5):1081–1084.
- **43.** Petty MA, Eng H Lo. Junctional complexes of the blood–brain barrier: permeability changes in neuroinflammation. *Progress in Neurobiology* 2002;68(5):311–323.
- **44.** Schulze C, Firth JA. Immunhistochemical localization of adherens junction components in blood–brain barrier microvessels of the rat. *J. Cell. Sci*. 1993;104:773–782.
- **45.** Nagasawa K, Chiba H, Fujita H, Kojima T, Saito T, Endo T, Sawada N. Possible involvement of gap junctions in the barrier function of tight junctions of brain and lung endothelial cells. *J. Cell. Physiol*. 2006;208(1):123-132.
- **46.** Heiskala M, Peterson PA, Yang Y. The roles of claudin superfamily proteins in paracellular transport. *Traffic* 2001;2:93–98.
- **47.** Morita K, Furuse M, Fujimoto K, Tsukita S. Claudin multigene family encoding four-transmembrane domain protein components of tight junction strands. *Proc. Natl. Acad Sci. U.S.A*. 1999;96(2):511–516.
- **48.** Furuse M, Hirase T, Itoh M, Nagafuchi A, Yonemura S, Tsukita S. (1993). Occludin: a novel integral membrane protein localizing at tight junctions. *J Cell Biol* 1993;123:1777–1788.
- **49.** Tsukita S, Furuse M, Itoh M. (2001). Multifunctional strands in tight junctions. *Natl. Rev. Mol. Cell. Biol*. 2001;2:285–293.
- **50.** Furuse M, Itoh M, Hirase T, Nagafuchi A, Yonemura S, Tsukita S. Direct association of occludin with ZO-1 and its possible involvement in the localization of occludin at tight junctions. *J Cell Biol* 1994;127:1617– 1626.
- **51.** Fanning AS, Jameson BJ, Jesaitis LA, Anderson JM. The tight junction protein ZO-1 establishes a link between the transmembrane protein occludin and the actin cytoskeleton. *J Biol Chem*. 1998;273:29745– 29753.
- **52.** Haskins J, Glu L, Wittchen ES, Hibbard J, Stevenson BR. ZO-3 a novel member of the MAGUK protein family found at the tight junction, interacts with ZO-1 and occludin. *J. Cell Biol.* 1998;141(1):199–208.
- **53.** Martin-Padura I, Lostaglio S, Schneemann M, Williams L, Romano M, Fruscella P, Panzeri C, Stoppacciaro A, Ruco L, Villa D, Simmons D, Dejana E. Junctional adhesion molecule, a novel member of the immunoglobulin superfamily that distributes at intercellular junctions and modulates monocyte transmigration. *J. Cell Biol.* 1998;142(1):117–127.
- **54.** Palmeri D, van Zante A, Huang CC, Hemmerich S, Rosen SD. Vascular endothelial junction-associated molecule, a novel member of the immunoglobulin superfamily, is localized to intercellular boundaries of endothelial cells. *J. Biol. Chem*. 2000;275(25):19139–19145.
- **55.** Anderson JM. Cell signaling: MAGUK magic. *Curr. Biol*. 1996;6(4):382–384.
- **56.** Steinberg MS, McNutt PM. Cadherins and their connections: adhesion junctions have broader functioins. *Curr. Opin. Cell Biol.* 1999;11(5):554–560.
- **57.** Pardridge WM. Molecular biology of BBB. *Mol.Biotechnol.* 2005;30(1):57-70.
- **58.** Georgieva JV, Hoekstra D, Zuhorn IS. Smuggling Drugs into the Brain: An Overview of Ligands Targeting Transcytosis for Drug Delivery across the Blood–Brain Barrier. *Pharmaceutics* 2014;6(4): 557-583.
- **59.** Patel M, Patel BM. (2017). Crossing the Blood–Brain Barrier: Recent Advances in Drug Delivery to the Brain. *CNS Drugs* 2017;31(2):109-133.
- **60.** Clark DE. In silico prediction of blood–brain barrier permeation. *Drug Discovery Today* 2003;8(20):927– 933.
- **61.** Van de Waterbeemd H, Camenisch G,Folkers G, Chretien JR, Raevsky OA. Estimation of BBB crossing of drugs using molecular size and shape, and H-bonding descriptors. *J. Drug Target.* 1998;6(2):151–165.
- **62.** Kelder J, Grootenhius PDJ, Bayada DM, Delbressine LPC, Ploemen JP. Polar molecular surface area as a dominating determinant for oral absorption and brain permeation of drugs. *Pharm. Res*. 1999;16:1514– 1519.
- **63.** Begley DJ. Structure and function of the BBB. In: Touitou E, Barry BW, eds. *Enhancement in drug delivery*, *1 st ed.,* Boca Raton: CRC Press.;2007:575-591.
- **64.** Begley DJ, Brightman MW. Structural and functional aspects of the blood-brain. In: Prokai L, Prokai-Tatrai K, eds. *Peptide Transport and Delivery into the Central Nervous System*. Birkhäuser, Basel: Progress in Drug Research;2003:vol61.
- **65.** Zlokovic BV. The BBB in health and chronic neurodegenerative disorders. *Neurons* 2008;57(2):178-201.
- **66.** Simpson IA, Carruthers A, Vannucci SJ. Supply and demand in cerebral energy metabolism: the role of nutrients transporters. *J. Cerebr. Blood Flow Metab*. 2007;27(11):1766-1791.
- **67.** Pardridge WM. Brain metabolism a perspective from the BBB. *Physiol Rev* 1983;63(4): 1481-1535.
- **68.** Smith QR, Takasato Y. Kinetics of amino acid transport at the BBB studied using an *in situ* brain perfusion technique. *Ann NY Acad Sci* 1986;481:186-201.
- **69.** Smith QR. Carrier-mediated drug transport at the BBB and the potential for drug targeting to the brain. In: J Greenwood, DJ Begley, MB Segal, eds. *New concepts of a BBB.*New York and London:Plenum Press.;1995:265-276.
- **70.** Stoll J, Wadhwani KC, Smith QR. Identification of the cationic amino acid transporter (system y+) of the rat BBB. *J Neurochem* 1993;60(5):1956-1959.
- **71.** Betz AL, Firth J, Goldstein GW. Polarity of the BBB: neutral amino acid transport into isolated brain capillaries. *Science* 1980;202(4364):225-227.
- **72.** Lee WJ, Hawkins RA, Peterson DR, Vifia JR. Role of oxoproline in the regulation of neutral amino acid transport across the BBB. *J Bioi Chem* 1996;271(32):19129-19133.
- **73.** Lee WJ, Hawkins RA, Vifia JR, Peterson DR. Glutamine transport by the bloodbrain barrier; a possible mechanism for nitrogen removal. *Am J Physiol* 1998;274(4):C1101C1107.
- **74.** Sanchez del Pino MM, Hawkins RA, Peterson DR. (1995). Neutral amino acid transport charaterization of isolated luminal and abluminal membranes of the BBB. *J Bioi Chem* 1995;270:1493-14918.
- **75.** Tayarani I, Lefauconnier JM, Roux F, Bourre JM. Evidence for an alanine, serine and cysteine system of transport in isolated brain capillaries. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab* 1987;7:585-591.
- **76.** Guidotti GG, Gazzola GC. Amino acid stransporters: systematic approach and principles of control. In: MS Kilberg, D Haussinger, eds. *Mammalian amino acid transport*. New York: Plenum Press.;1992:3-30.
- **77.** Tarnai I, Senmaru M, Teraskai T, Tsuji A. Na+ and CI- dependent transport of taurine at the BBB. *Biochem Pharmacol* 1995;50(11):1783-1739.
- **78.** AL-Sarraf H, Preston J, Segal MB. The entry of acidic amino acids into brain and CSF during development using in situ brain perfusion in the rat. *Dev Brain Res* 1995;90(1-2):151-158.
- **79.** Redzic ZB, Segal MB, Gasic JM, Markovic ID, Vojvodic VP, Iskavic A, Thomas SA, Rakic LJ. The characteristics of nucleobase transport and metabolism by the perfused sheep choroid plexus. *Brain Res* 2001;888(1):66-74.
- **80.** Lee G, Dallas S, Hong R, Bendayan R. Drug transporters in the central nervous system: brain barriers and brain parenchymal considerations. *Pharmacol Rev* 2001;53(4):569-596.
- **81.** Gerhart DZ, Enerson BE, Zhdakina OY, Leino RL, Drewes LR. Expression of monocarboxylate transporter by brain endothelium and glia in adult and suckling rats. *Am J Physiol* 1997;273: E207-E213.
- **82.** Kusuhara H, Sekine N, Utsunomiya-Tate M, Tsuda R, Kojima SH, Cha Y, Sugiyama Y, Kanai Y, Endou H. Molecular cloning and characterization of a new multispecific organic anion transporter from rat brain. *J Bioi Chern* 1999;274(19):13575-13680.
- **83.** Begley DJ. Efflux mechanisms in the CNS: A powerful influence on drug distribution within the brain. In: HS Sharma, Westman, eds. *Blood-spinal cord and brain barriers in health and disease*. San Diego: Elsevier/Academic Press.;2003:83-96.
- **84.** Meier P, Eckhardt U, Schoeder A, Hagenbuch B, Steiger B. Substrate specificity of sinusoidal bile acid and organic anion uptake systems in rat and human liver. *Hepatology* 1997;26:1667-1677.
- **85.** Li L, Lee TK, Meier P, Ballatori N. Identification of glutathione as a driving force and leukotriene C4 as a substrate for Oatp1, the hepatic sinusoidal organic solute transporter. *J Biol Chem* 1998*;*273(26):16184- 16191.
- **86.** Reichel C, Gao B, van Montfoort J, Cattori V, Rahner C, Hagenbuch B, Stieger B, Kamisako T, Meier P. Localization and function of the organic anion transporting polypeptide Oatp2 in rat liver. *Gastroenterology* 1999;117:688-695.
- **87.** Kullak-Ublick GA, Ismair MG, Stieger B, Landmann L, Huber R, Pizzagalli F, Fattinger K, Meir P, Hagenbuch B. Organic anion-transporting polypeptide B (OATP-B) and its functional comparison with three other OATPs of human liver. *Gastroenterology* 2001;120:525-533.
- **88.** Tamai I, Ohashi R, Nezu Yabuuchi H, Oku A, Simane M, Sai Y, Tsuji A. Molecular and functional identification of sodium ion-dependent, high affinity human carnitine transporter OCTN2. *J Biol Chem* 1998;273(32):20378-20382.
- **89.** Begley D J. The BBB: Principles for Targeting Peptides and Drugs to the Central Nervous System. *Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology* 1996;48(2):136–146.
- **90.** [Mertsch K,](https://www.ingentaconnect.com/search?option2=author&value2=Mertsch,+K.) [Maas J.](https://www.ingentaconnect.com/search?option2=author&value2=Maas,+J.) BBB Penetration and Drug Development from an Industrial Point of View. *[Current](https://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/ben/cmccnsa) Medicinal Chemistry - [Central Nervous System Agents](https://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/ben/cmccnsa)* 2002;2(3):187-201.
- **91.** Abbott NJ. Astrocyte-endothelial interactions and BBB permeability*. *Journal of Anatomy* 2002;200(6):629–638.
- **92.** Ohtsuki S, Terasaki T. Contribution of Carrier-Mediated Transport Systems to the Blood–Brain Barrier as a Supporting and Protecting Interface for the Brain; Importance for CNS Drug Discovery and Development. *Pharm Res* 2007;24(9):1745–1758.
- **93.** Kamiie J, Ohtsuki S, Iwase R, Ohmine K, Katsukura Y, Yanai K, Sekine Y, Uchida Y, Ito S, Terasaki T. Quantitative Atlas of Membrane Transporter Proteins: Development and Application of a Highly Sensitive Simultaneous LC/MS/MS Method Combined with Novel In-silico Peptide Selection Criteria. *Pharm Res* 2008;25(6):1469–1483.
- **94.** Dahlin A, Royall J, Hohmann JG, Wang J. Expression Profiling of the Solute Carrier Gene Family in the Mouse Brain. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics* 2009;329(2):558-570.
- **95.** Sauer I, Dunay IR, Weisgraber K, Bienert M, Dathe M. Apolipoprotein E-Derived Peptide Mediates Uptake of Sterically Stabilized Liposomes into Brain Capillary Endothelial Cells. *Biochemistry* 2005; 44(6):2021– 2029.
- **96.** Jefferies WA, Brandon MR, Hunt SV, Williams AF, Gatter KC, Mason DY. Transferrin receptor on endothelium of brain capillaries. *Nature* 1984;312(5990):162–163.
- **97.** Méresse S, Delbart C, Fruchart J-C, Cecchelli R. Low-Density Lipoprotein Receptor on Endothelium of Brain Capillaries. *Journal of Neurochemistry* 1989;53(2):340–345.
- **98.** Deane R. IgG-Assisted Age-Dependent Clearance of Alzheimer's Amyloid Peptide by the BBB Neonatal Fc Receptor. *Journal of Neuroscience* 2005;25(50):11495–11503.
- **99.** Patel MM, Goyal BR, Bhadada VS, Bhatt JS, Amin FA. (2009) Getting into the Brain Approaches to Enhance Brain Drug Delivery. *CNS Drugs* 2009;23(1):35-58.
- **100.** Visser CC, Voorwinden LH, Crommelin DJA, Danhof M, de Boer AG. Characterization and Modulation of the Transferrin Receptor on Brain Capillary Endothelial Cells. *Pharm Res* 2004;21(5):761–769.
- **101.** Demeule M, Poirier J, Jodoin J, Bertrand Y, Desrosiers RR, Dagenais C, Nguyen T, Lanthier J, Gabathuler R, Kennard M, Jefferies WA, Karkan D, Tsai S, Fenart L, Cecchelli R. High transcytosis of melanotransferrin (P97) across the BBB. *Journal of Neurochemistry* 2002;83(4):924–933.
- **102.** Talukder JR, Takeuchi T, Harada E. Receptor-Mediated Transport of Lactoferrin into the Cerebrospinal Fluid via Plasma in Young Calves. *Journal of Veterinary Medical Science* 2003;65(9):957–964.
- **103.** Herz J, Marschang P. Coaxing the LDL Receptor Family into the Fold. *Cell* 2003;112(3):289–292.
- **104.** Zlokovic BV, Skundric DS, Segal MB, Lipovac MN, Mackic JB, Davson H. A saturable mechanism for transport of immunoglobulin G across the BBB of the guinea pig. *Experimental Neurology* 1990;107(3):263–270.
- **105.** Banks WA. The source of cerebral Insulin. *European Journal of Pharmacology* 2004;490(1-3):5-12.
- **106.** Pardridge WW, Triguero D, Buciak J, Yang J. Evaluation of Cationized Rat Albumin as a Potential BBB Drug Transport Vector. *Exp.Neurol*. 1990;255:893-899.
- **107.** Drin G, Cottin S, Blanc E, Rees AR, Temsamani J. Studies on the Internalization Mechanism of Cationic Cell-penetrating Peptides. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 2003;278(33):31192-31201.
- **108.** Begley D. ABC Transporters and the BBB. *Current Pharmaceutical Design* 2004;10(12):1295–1312.
- **109.** Dean M, Rzhetsky A, Allikmets R. (2001). The human ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporter superfamily. *Genome Res* 2001;11(7):1156-1166.
- **110.** Klein I, Sarkadi B, Varadi A. An inventory of the human ABC proteins. *Biochim BiophysActa* 1999;1461(2): 237-262.
- **111.** Dallas S, Miller D S, Bendayan R. Multidrug Resistance-Associated Proteins: Expression and Function in the Central Nervous System. *Pharmacological Reviews* 2006;58(2):140–161.
- **112.** Dauchy S, Dutheil F, Weaver RJ, Chassoux F, Daumas-Duport C, Couraud P-O, Scherrmann JM, De Waziers I, Declèves X. ABC transporters, cytochromes P450 and their main transcription factors: expression at the human BBB. *Journal of Neurochemistry* 2008;107(6):1518–1528.
- **113.** Bony AB, Kievit FM. A Role for Nanoparticles in Treating Traumatic Brain Injury. *Pharmaceutics* 2019;11(9):473.
- **114.** Taylor CA, Bell JM, Breiding MJ, Xu L. Traumatic Brain Injury-Related Emergency Department Visits, Hospitalizations, and Deaths- United States, 2007 and 2013. *MMWR Surveill Summ* 2017;66(9):1-16.
- **115.** Loane DJ, Faden AI. (2010). Neuroprotection for traumatic brain injury: translational challenges and emerging therapeutic strategies. *Trends in Pharmacological Sciences* 2010;31(12):596–604.
- **116.** McIntosh TK, Smith DH, Meaney DF, Kotapka MJ, Gennarelli TA, Graham DI. Neuropathological sequelae of traumatic brain injury: relationship to neurochemical and biomechanical mechanisms. *Laboratory Investigation; a Journal of Technical Methods and Pathology* 1996;74(2):315-342.
- **117.** Cebak JE, Singh IN, Wang JA, Hill RL, Kulbe JR, Hall ED. (2017) Carbonyl Scavenging as an Antioxidant Neuroprotective Strategy for Acute Traumatic Brain Injury. In: Heidenreich KA, eds. *New Therapeutics for Traumatic Brain Injury*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Academic Press.;2017:211–224.
- **118.** Simon DW, McGeachy MJ, Bayir H, Clark RS, Loane DJ, Kochanek PM. The far-reaching scope of neuroinflammation after traumatic brain injury. *Nat. Rev. Neurol*. 2017;13:171–191.
- **119.** Heneka MT, Carson MJ, El Khoury J, Landreth GE, Brosseron F, Feinstein DL, Jacobs AH, Wyss-Coray T, Vitorica J, Ransohoff RM, Herrup K, Frautschy SA, Finsen B, Brown GC, Verkhratsky A, Yamanaka K, Koistinaho J, Latz E, Halle A, Petzold GC, Town T, Morgan D, Shinohara ML, Perry VH, Holmes C, Bazan NG, Brooks DJ, Hunot S, Joseph B, Deigendesch N, Garaschuk O, Boddeke E, Dinarello CA, Breitner JC, Cole GM, Golenbock DT, Kummer MP. Neuroinflammation in Alzheimer's disease. *Lancet Neurol.* 2015;14(4): 388–405.
- **120.** Rodríguez-Baeza A, Reina-de la Torre F, Poca A, Martí M, Garnacho A. Morphological features in human cortical brain microvessels after head injury: A three-dimensional and immunocytochemical study. *The Anatomical Record Part A: Discoveries in Molecular, Cellular, and Evolutionary Biology* 2003;273A(1), 583–593.
- **121.** Sangiorgi S, De Benedictis A, Protasoni M, Manelli A, Reguzzoni M, Cividini A, Balbi S. Early-stage microvascular alterations of a new model of controlled cortical traumatic brain injury: 3D morphological

analysis using scanning electron microscopy and corrosion casting. *Journal of Neurosurgery* 2013;118(4):763–774.

- **122.** Chodobski A, Zink BJ, Szmydynger-Chodobska J. Blood–Brain Barrier Pathophysiology in Traumatic Brain Injury. *Transl. Stroke Res*. 2011;2:492–516.
- **123.** Prakash R, Carmichael ST. Blood−brain barrier breakdown and neovascularization processes after stroke and traumatic brain injury. *Current Opinion in Neurology* 2015;28(6):556–564.
- **124.** Shapira Y, Setton D, Artru AA, Shohami E. Blood–brain barrier permeability, cerebral edema, and neurologic function after closed head injury in rats. *Anesth Analg.* 1993;77(1):141–8.
- **125.** Baldwin SA, Fugaccia I, Brown DR, Brown LV, Scheff SW. Blood–brain barrier breach following cortical contusion in the rat. *J Neurosurg*.1996;85(3):476–81.
- **126.** Hicks RR, Baldwin SA, Scheff SW. Serum extravasation and cytoskeletal alterations following traumatic brain injury in rats. Comparison of lateral fluid percussion and cortical impact models. *Mol Chem Neuropathol*. 1997;32(1–3):1–16.
- **127.** Bașkaya MK, Rao AM, Doğan A, Donaldson, Dempsey RJ. The biphasic opening of the blood–brain barrier in the cortex and hippocampus after traumatic brain injury in rats. *Neurosci Lett*.1997;226(1):33– 36.
- **128.** Castejón OJ. Formation of transendothelial channels in traumatic human brain edema. *Pathol Res Pract*. 1984;179(1):7–12.
- **129.** Vaz R, Sarmento A, Borges N, Cruz C, Azevedo I. Ultrastructural study of brain microvessels in patients with traumatic cerebral contusions. *Acta Neurochir (Wien)* 1997;139(3):215–20.
- **130.** Wu L, Li X, Janagam DR, Lowe TL. Overcoming the BBB in Chemotherapy Treatment of Pediatric Brain Tumors. *Pharm Res* 2014;31:531–540.
- **131.** Muellerand S, Chang S. Pediatric brain tumors: current treatment strategies and future therapeutic approaches. *Neurotherapeutics*. 2009;6:570–86.
- **132.** Flemingand AJ, Chi SN. Brain tumors in children. *Curr Probl Pediatr Adolesc Health Care*. 2012;42:80– 103.
- **133.** Packer R. Differences between adult and pediatric brain tumors, 2013. Available at: [http://www.kidsvcancer.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/10/PackerDifferences-Between-Adult-and-](http://www.kidsvcancer.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/10/PackerDifferences-Between-Adult-and-Pediatric-Brain-Tumours.%20Accessed%20December%2018)[Pediatric-Brain-Tumours. Accessed December 18,](http://www.kidsvcancer.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/10/PackerDifferences-Between-Adult-and-Pediatric-Brain-Tumours.%20Accessed%20December%2018) 2020.
- **134.** Ullrichand NJ, Pomeroy SL. Pediatric brain tumors. *Neurol Clin*. 2003;21:897–913.
- **135.** Fleming AJ, Chi SN. Brain tumors in children. *Curr Probl Pediatr Adolesc Health Care* 2012; 42(4):80– 103.
- **136.** Pizerand B, May P. Central nervous system tumours in children. *Eur J Surg Oncol*. 1997;23:559–64.
- **137.** Vats TS. Adjuvant chemotherapy of pediatric brain tumors. *Ann NY Acad Sci*. 1997;824:156–66.
- **138.** Neuwelt EA. Mechanisms of disease: the BBB. *Neurosurgery* 2004;54(1):131–42.
- **139.** Schlageter KE, Molnar P, Lapin GD, Groothuis DR. Microvessel organization and structure in experimental brain tumors: microvessel populations with distinctive structural and functional properties. *Microvasc Res*. 1999;58(3):312–28.
- **140.** Lockman PR, Mittapalli RK, Taskar KS, Rudraraju V, Gril B, Bohn KA, Adkins CE, Roberts A, Thorsheim HR, Gaasch JA, Huang S, Palmieri D, Steeg PS, Smith QR. Heterogeneous blood-tumor barrier permeability determines drug efficacy in experimental brain metastases of breast cancer. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2010;16(23):5664–78.
- **141.** Neuwelt EA, Barnett PA, Bigner DD, Frenkel EP. Effects of adrenal cortical steroids and osmotic BBB opening on methotrexate delivery to gliomas in the rodent: the factor of the bloodbrain barrier. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 1982; 79(14):4420–3.
- **142.** Annengers JF. Epidemiology and Genentics of Epilepsy. *Neurologic Clinics* 1994;12(1):15-30.
- **143.** Dodson WE. Pharmacokinetic principles of antiepileptic therapy in children. In: Pellock J.M, Dodson WE, Bourgeois BFD, eds., *Paediatric epilepsy: Diagnosis and therapy*, NY,USA: Demos Medical Publishing Inc.;2001:317-327.
- **144.** Oby E, Janigro D. The BBB and Epilepsy. *Epilepsia* 2006;47(11):1761–1774*.*
- **145.** Marchi N, Hallene KL, Kight KM, Cucullo L, Model G, Bingaman W, Dinig G, Vezzani A, Janigro D. Significance of MDR1 and multiple drug resistance in refractory human epileptic brain. *BMC Med* 2004;2:37.
- **146.** Aronica E, Gorter JA, Jansen GH, Van Veelen CW, Van Rijen PC, Leenstra S, Ramkema M, Scheffer GL, Scheper RJ, Troost D. Expression and cellular distribution of multidrug transporter proteins in two major causes of medically intractable epilepsy: focal cortical dysplasia and glioneuronal tumors. *Neuroscience* 2003;118(2):417–429.
- **147.** Tishler DM, Weinberg KI, Hinton DR, Barbaro N, Annett GM, Raffel C. MDR1 gene expression in brain of patients with medically intractable epilepsy. *Epilepsia* 1995(b);36(1):1–6.
- **148.** De Vivo DC, Trifiletti RR, Jacobson RI, Ronen GM, Behmand RA, Harik SI. Defective glucose transport across the BBB as a cause of persistent hypoglycorrhachia, seizures, and developmental delay. *N Engl J Med* 1991;325(10):703–709.
- **149.** De Vivo DC, Leary L, Wang D. Glucose transporter 1deficiency syndrome and other glycolytic defects. *J Child Neurol 17* 2002;17(suppl. 3):3S15-3S23.
- **150.** Lim M. Treating inflammation in childhood neurodegenerative disorders. *Developmental Medicine & Child Neurology* 2011;53(4):298–304.
- **151.** Aicardi J. Heredodegenerative disorders. In: Aicardi J, eds. *Diseases of the nervous system in childhood*, *2nd ed*., London: Mac Keith Press.;1998:323–69.
- **152.** Ogier H, Aicardi J. (1998) Metabolic diseases. In: Aicardi J, eds. *Diseases of the nervous system in childhood, 2nd ed*., London: Mac Keith Press;1998:245–322.
- **153.** Hickey WF. Basic principles of immunological surveillance of the normal central nervous system. *Glia* 2001;36(2):118–24.
- **154.** Giovannoni G, Baker D. Inflammatory disorders of the central nervous system. *Curr Opin Neurol* 2003; 16(3):347–50.
- **155.** McGeer EG, McGeer PL. Role of neural-immune interactions in neurodegenerative diseases. In: Antel J, Birnbaum G, Hartung HP, Vincent A, eds. *Clinical neuroimmunology*, *2nd ed*.; Oxford: Oxford University Press.;2005:354–63.
- **156.** Van Tellingen O, Yetkin-Arik B, de Gooijer MC, Wesseling P, Wurdinger T, de Vries HE. Overcoming the blood–brain tumor barrier for effective glioblastoma treatment. *Drug Resistance Updates* 2015;19:1–12.
- **157.** Louis DN, Ohgaki H, Wiestler OD, Cavenee WK, Burger PC, Jouvet A, Scheithauer BW, Kleihues P. The 2007 WHO classification of tumors of the central nervous system. *Acta. Neuropathol*. 2007;114:97-109.
- **158.** Schouten LJ, Rutten J, Huveneers HA, Twijnstra A. Incidence of brain metastases in a cohort of patients with carcinoma of the breast, colon, kidney, and lung and melanoma. *Cancer* 2002;94(10):2698-705.
- **159.** Patel JK, Didolkar MS, Pickren JW,Moore RH. Metastatic pattern of malignant melanoma. A study of 216 autopsy cases. *AmJSurg* 1978;135:807-10.
- **160.** Groothuis RD, Molnar P, Blasberg RG. (1984) Regional Blood Flow and Blood-to-Tissue Transport in Five Brain Tumor Models Implications for Chemotherapy. *Prog. expo Tumor Res*. 1984,27:132-153.
- **161.** Siegal T, Zylber-Katz E. Strategies for increasing drug delivery to the brain. *Clin Pharmacokinet* 2002;41(3):171–186.
- **162.** Petty MA, Wettstein JG. (2001) Elements of cerebral microvascular ischaemia. *Brain Res. Brain Res. Rev.* 2001;36:23- 34.
- **163.** Nag S. The BBB and cerebral angiogenesis: lessons from the cold-injury model. *Trends Mol. Med.* 2002;8(1):38- 44.
- **164.** Huber JD, Egleton RD, Davis T. Molecular physiology and pathophysiology of tight junctions in the bloodbrain barrier. *Trends Neurosci*. 2001;24(12):719-725.
- **165.** Kandel ER, Schwartz JH, Jessell TM. (2000) Ventricular organization of cerebrospinal fluid: BBB, brain edema, and hydrocephalus. In: McGraw-Hill Companies, eds., *Principles of neural science, 4th ed*., U.S.A. 2000:1288-1301.
- **166.** Guerin C, Laterra J, Hruban RH, Drewes LR, Goldstein GW. The glucose transporter and BBB of human brain tumors. *Annals of Neurology* 1990;28(6):758-765.
- **167.** Zhang M, OIsson Y. Hematogenous metastases of the human brain-characteristics of peritumoral brain changes. *J. Neurooncol*. 1997;35:81-89.
- **168.** Lee S, Kim WJ, Park JA, Lee SW, Kim WJ, Suk Yu W, Kim KW. BBB Interfaces and Brain Tumors. *Arch Pharm Res*. 2006;29(4):265-275.
- **169.** Del Zoppo GJ, Hallenbeck JM. Advances in the vascular pathophysiology of ischemic stroke. *Thromb Res*. 2000;98(3):73–81.
- **170.** Kempski O. Cerebral edema. *Semin Nephrol* 2001;21:303–307.
- **171.** Abbruscato TJ, Davis TP. Combination of hypoxia/aglycemia compromises in vitro BBB integrity. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 1999;289(2):668–675.
- **172.** Fischer S, Clauss M, Wiesnet M, Renz D, Schaper W, Karliczek GF. Hypoxia induces permeability in brain microvessel endothelial cells via VEGF and NO. *Am J Physiol* 1999;276(4):C812–C820.
- **173.** Mark KS, Davis TP. Cerebral microvascular changes in permeability and tight junctions induced by hypoxia-reoxygenation. A*m J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* 2002;282(4):H1485–H1494.
- **174.** Belayev L, Busto R, Zhao W, Ginsberg MD. Quantitative evaluation of BBB permeability following middle cerebral artery occlusion in rats. *Brain Res* 1996; 739(1-2):88–96.
- **175.** Huang ZG, Xue D, Preston E, Karbalai H, Buchan AH. Biphasic opening of the BBB following transient focal ischemia: effects of hypothermia. *Can J Neurol Sci* 1999;26(4):298–304.
- **176.** Jiao H, Wang Z, Liu Y, Wang P, Xue Y. Specific role of tight junction proteins claudin-5, occludin, and ZO-1 of the BBB in a focal cerebral ischemic insult. *JMolNeurosci* 2011;44(2):130–139.
- **177.** Kuroiwa T, Ting P, Martinez H, Klatzo I. The biphasic opening of the BBB to proteins following temporary middle cerebral artery occlusion. *Acta Neuropathol* 1985;68(2):122–129.
- **178.** Daneman R. The BBB in health and disease. *Ann Neurol* 2012;72(5):648–672.
- **179.** Erdo F, Denes L, de Lange E. Age-associated physiological and pathological changes at the blood–brain barrier: A review. *Journal of Cerebral Blood Flow & Metabolism* 2017;37(1):4-24.
- **180.** Erickson MA, Banks WA. Blood–Brain Barrier Dysfunction as a Cause and Consequence of Alzheimer's Disease. *Journal of Cerebral Blood Flow & Metabolism* 2013;33(10):1500-1513.
- **181.** Sagare AP, Bell RD, Zlokovic BV. Neurovascular dysfunction and faulty amyloid beta-peptidine clearance in Alzheimer's disease. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med* 2012;2(10):a011452.
- **182.** Bell RD, Zlokovic BV. Neurovascular unit and BBB disorder in Alzheimer's disease. *Acta Neuropathol* 2009;118(1):103-113.
- **183.** Rosenberg GA, Yang Y. (2007) Vasogenic edema due to tight junction disruption by matrix metalloproteinases in cerebral ischemia. *Neurosurg Focus* 2007;22(5):E4.
- **184.** Yang Y, Rosenberg GA. MMP-mediated disruption of claudin-5 in the BBB of rat brain after cerebral ischemia. *Methods Mol Biol* 2011;762:333–345.
- **185.** Fulga TA, Elson-Schwab I, Khurana V, Steinhilb ML, Spires TL, Hyman BD, Fenny MB. Abnormal bundling and accumulation of F-actin mediates tau induced neuronal degeneration in vivo. *Nat Cell Biol* 2007;9(2):139–148.
- **186.** Takano T, Tian GF, Peng W, Lou N, Libionka W, Han X, Nedergaard M. Astrocyte-mediated control of cerebral blood flow. *Nat Neurosci* 2006;9(2):260–267.
- **187.** Saint-Pol J, Vandenhaute E, Boucau MC, Candela P, Dehouk L, Cecchelli R, Dehouk MP, Fenart L, Gosselet F. Brain pericytes ABCA1 expression mediates cholesterol efflux but not cellular amyloid-beta peptide accumulation. *J Alzheimers Dis* 2012; 30(3):489–503.
- **188.** Dalkara T, Gursoy-Ozdemir Y, Yemisci M. Brain microvascular pericytes in health and disease. *Acta Neuropathol* 2011;122(1):1–9.
- **189.** Mooradian AD, Chung HC, Shah GN. GLUT-1 expression in the cerebra of patients with Alzheimer's disease. *Neurobiol Aging* 1997;18(5):469–474.
- **190.** Wu Z, Guo H, Chow N, Sallstrom J, Bell RD, Deane R, Brooks AI, Kanagala S, Rubio A, Sagare A, Liu D, Li F, Armstrong D, Gasiewicz T, Zidovetzki R, Song X, Hofman F, Zlokovic BV. Role of the MEOX2 homeobox gene in neurovascular dysfunction in Alzheimer disease. *Nat Med* 2005;11(9):959–965.
- **191.** Bailey TL, Rivara CB, Rocher AB, Hof PR. The nature and effects of cortical microvascular pathology in aging and Alzheimer's disease. *Neurol Res* 2004;26(5):573–578.
- **192.** Lajoie J M, Shusta EV. Targeting receptor-mediated transport for delivery of biologics across the BBB. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol*. 2015;55:613−31.
- **193.** Bourassa P, Alata W, Tremblay C, Paris-Robidas S, Calon, F. Transferrin receptor-mediated uptake at the BBB is not impaired by Alzheimer's disease neuropathology. *Mol. Pharmaceutics* 2019;16(2):583−594.
- **194.** Pisani V, Stefani A, Pierantozzi M, Natoli S, Stanzione P, Franciotta D, Pisani A. Increased bloodcerebrospinal fluid transfer of albumin in advanced Parkinson's disease. *J Neuroinflammation* 2012;9:188.
- **195.** Gray MT, Woulfe JM. Striatal BBB permeability in Parkinson's disease. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab* 2015;35(5):747–750.
- **196.** Padden M, Leech S, Craig B, Kirk J, Brankin B, McQuaid S. Differences in expression of junctional adhesion molecule-A and beta-catenin in multiple sclerosis brain tissue: increasing evidence for the role of tight junction pathology. *Acta Neuropathol* 2007; 113(2):177–186.
- **197.** Kirk J, Plumb J, Mirakhur M, McQuaid S. Tight junctional abnormality in multiple sclerosis white matter affects all calibres of vessel and is associated with BBB leakage and active demyelination. *J Pathol* 2003;201(2):319–327.
- **198.** Apostolski S, Nikolic J, Bugarski-Prokopljevic C, Miletic V, Pavlovic S, Filipovic S. Serumand CSF immunological findings in ALS. *ActaNeurolScand* 1991;83(2):96–98.
- **199.** Meucci G, Rossi G, Bettini R, Montanaro D, Gironelli L, Voci L, Bianchi F. Laser nephelometric evaluation of albumin, IgG and alpha 2-macroglobulin: applications to the study of alterations of the BBB. *J Neurol Sci* 1993;118(1):73–78.
- **200.** Caron NS, Dorsey ER, Hayden MR. Therapeutic approaches to Huntington disease: from the bench to the clinic. *Nat. Rev. Drug. Discov.* 2018;17;729-750.
- **201.** Birolini G, Valenza M, Ottonelli I, Passoni A, Favagrossa M, Duskey JT, Bombaci M, Vandelli MA, Colombo L, Bagnati R, Caccia C, Leoni V, Taroni F, Forni F, Ruozi B, Salmona M, Tosi G, Cattaneo E. Insights into kinetics, release, and behavioral effects of brain-targeted hybrid nanoparticles for cholesterol delivery in Huntington's disease. *J Control Release* 2021;330:587-598.
- **202.** Di Pardo A, Amico E, Scalabrì F. et al*.* Impairment of blood-brain barrier is an early event in R6/2 mouse model of Huntington Disease. *Sci Rep* 2017;**7:**41316
- **203.** Tapeinos C, Battaglini M, Ciofani G. Advances in the design of solid lipid nanoparticles and nanostructured lipid carriers for targeting brain diseases. *J Control Release* 2017;264:306-332.
- **204.** Moghimi SM, Hunter AC, Murray JC. Long-circulating and target-specific nanoparticles: theory to practice. *Pharmacol. Rev*. 2001;53(2):283-318.
- **205.** Ogawara K, Furumoto K, Takakura Y, Hashida M, Higaki K, Kimura T. Surface hydrophobicity of particles is not necessarily the most important determinant in their in vivo disposition after intravenous administration in rats. *J. Control. Release* 2001;77(3):191-198.
- **206.** Lopalco A, Denora N. Nanoformulations for Drug Delivery: Safety, Toxicity, and Efficacy. *Methods Mol Biol*. 2018;1800:347-365.
- **207.** Lopalco A, Cutrignelli A, Denora N, Lopedota A, Franco M, Laquintana V. Transferrin Functionalized Liposomes Loading Dopamine HCl: Development and Permeability Studies across an In Vitro Model of Human Blood-Brain Barrier. Nanomaterials (Basel). 2018 Mar 20;8(3):178.
- **208.** Iacobazzi RM, Porcelli L, Lopedota AA, Laquintana V, Lopalco A, Cutrignelli A, Altamura E, Di Fonte R, Azzariti A, Franco M, Denora N. Targeting human liver cancer cells with lactobionic acid-G(4)-PAMAM-FITC sorafenib loaded dendrimers. *Int J Pharm.* 7;528(1-2):485-497.
- **209.** Denora N, Laquintana V, Lopalco A, Iacobazzi RM, Lopedota A, Cutrignelli A, Iacobellis G, Annese C, Cascione M, Leporatti S, Franco M. In vitro targeting and imaging the translocator protein TSPO 18-kDa through G(4)-PAMAM-FITC labeled dendrimer. J Control Release. 2013;172(3):1111-25.
- **210.** Lopalco A, Ali H, Denora N, Rytting E. Oxcarbazepine-loaded polymeric nanoparticles: development and permeability studies across in vitro models of the blood-brain barrier and human placental trophoblast. *Int J Nanomedicine* 2015;10:1985-96.
- **211.** Lopalco A, Cutrignelli A, Denora N, Perrone M, Iacobazzi RM, Fanizza E, Lopedota A, Depalo N, de Candia M, Franco M, Laquintana V. Delivery of Proapoptotic Agents in Glioma Cell Lines by TSPO Ligand-Dextran Nanogels*. Int J Mol Sci*. 2018;19(4):1155.
- **212.** Kaur IP, Bhandari R, Bhandari S, Kakkar V. Potential of solid lipid nanoparticles in brain targeting. *Journal of Controlled Release* 2008;127(2):97–109.
- **213.** Reddy JS, Venkateshwarlu V. Novel delivery systems for drug targeting to the brain. *Drugs of Future* 2004;29(1):63–83.
- **214.** Wissing SA, Kayser O, Müller RH. Solid lipid nanoparticles for parenteral drug delivery, *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev*. 2004;56(9):1257–1272.
- **215.** Gastaldi L, Battaglia L, Peira E, Chirio D, Muntoni E, Solazzi I, Gallarate M, Dosio F. Solid lipid nanoparticles as vehicles of drugs to the brain: Current state of the art. *Eur. J. Pharm. Biopharm*. 2014;87(3):433-44.
- **216.** Zara GP, Cavalli R, Fundarò A, Bargoni A, Caputo O, Gasco MR. Pharmacokinetics of doxorubicin incorporated in solid lipid nanospheres pharmacological research. *Pharmacol. Res.* 1999;40:281-286.
- **217.** Kreuter J. Nanoparticulate systems for brain delivery of drugs. *Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews* 2001; 47:65-61.
- **218.** Kreuter J. Application of nanoparticles for the delivery of drugs to the brain. *Int. Congr. Ser.* 2005;1277:85- 94.
- **219.** El-Gizawy SA, El-Maghraby GM, Hedaya AA. Formulation of acyclovir-loaded solid lipid nanoparticles: 2. Brain targeting and pharmacokinetic study. *Pharm Dev Technol* 2019;10:1299-1307.
- **220.** Agrawal A, Majumder S, Agrawal GP. Cationized albumin conjugated solid lipid nanoparticles as vectors for brain delivery of an anti-cancer drug. *Curr. Nanosci*. 2011;7:71-80.
- **221.** Ying XY, Cui D, Yu L, Du YZ. Solid lipid nanoparticles modified with chitosan oligosaccharides for the controlled release of doxorubicin. *Carbohydr. Polym.* 2011;84:1357–1364.
- **222.** Teskač K, Kristl J. The evidence for solid lipid nanoparticles mediated cell uptake of resveratrol. *Int. J. Pharm*. 2010;390(1):61–69.
- **223.** zur Mühlen A, Schwarz C, Mehner W. Solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) for controlled drug delivery drug release and release mechanism. *Eur. J. Pharm. Biopharm*. 1998;45(2):149–155.
- **224.** Rostami E, Kashanian S, Azandaryani AH. Preparation of solid lipid nanoparticles as drug carriers for levothyroxine sodium with in vitro drug delivery kinetic characterization. *Mol. Biol. Rep*. 2014;41(5):3521– 3527.
- **225.** Tsai MJ, Huang YB, Wu PC, Fu YS, Kao YR, Fang JY, Tsai YH. Oral apomorphine delivery from solid lipid nanoparticles with different monostearate emulsifiers: pharmacokinetic and behavioural evaluations. *J. Pharm. Sci.* 2011;100(2):547–557.
- **226.** Geszke-Moritz M, Moritz M. Solid lipid nanoparticles as attractive drug vehicles: Composition, properties and therapeutic strategies. *Mater Sci Eng C Mater Biol Appl.* 2016;68982–994.
- **227.** Yi J, Lam TI, Yokoyama W, Cheng LW, Zhong F. Cellular uptake of β-carotene from protein stabilized solid lipid nanoparticles prepared by homogenization evaporation method. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 2014;62(5):1096–1104.
- **228.** Müller RH, Maassen S, Weyhers H, Mehnert W. Phagocytic uptake and 1209 cytotoxicity of solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) sterically stabilized with 1210 poloxamine 908 and poloxamer 407*. J. Drug Target.* 1996;4(3):161–170.
- **229.** Yuan H, Chen CY, Chai GH, Du YZ, Hu FQ. Improved transport and absorption through gastrointestinal tract by PEGylated solid lipid nanoparticles. *Mol. Pharm.* 2013;10(5):1865–1873.
- **230.** Müller RH, Karsten Mäder K, Gohla S. Solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) for 1206 controlled drug delivery a review of the state of the art. *Eur. J. Pharm*. *Biopharm.* 2000;50(1):161–177.
- **231.** Naseri N, Valizadeh H, Zakeri-Milani P. Solid Lipid Nanoparticles and Nanostructured Lipid Carriers: Structure, Preparation and Application. *Adv Pharm Bull.* 2015;5(3):305-13.
- **232.** Heiati H, Tawashi R, Shivers RR, Phillipps NG. Solid lipid nanoparticles as drug carriers I. Incorporation and retention of the lipophilic prodrug 3'-azido-3'- deoxythymidine palmitate. *Int J Pharm.* 1997;146(1):123–31.
- **233.** Müller RH, Radtke M, Wissing SA. Nanostructured lipid matrices for improved microencapsulation of drugs. *Int J Pharm*. 2002;242(1-2):121-8.
- **234.** Graverini G, Piazzini V, Landucci E, Pantano D, Nardiello P, Casamenti F, Pellegrini-Giampietro DE, Bilia AR, Bergonzi MC. Solid lipid nanoparticles for delivery of andrographolide across the blood-brain barrier: in vitro and in vivo evaluation. Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces 2018;161:302-313.
- **235.** Arduino I, Depalo N, Re F, Dal Magro R, Panniello A, Margiotta N, Fanizza E, Lopalco A, Laquintana V, Cutrignelli A, Lopedota AA, Franco M, Denora N. PEGylated solid lipid nanoparticles for brain delivery of lipophilic kiteplatin Pt(IV) prodrugs: An *in vitro* study. *Int. J. Pharm*. 2020;583:119351.
- **236.** Kadari A, Pooja D, Halley Gora R, Gudem S, Ramana Murthy Kolapalli V, Kulhari H, Sistla R. Design of Multifunctional Peptide Collaborated and Docetaxel Loaded Lipid Nanoparticles for Antiglioma Therapy. European Journal of Pharmaceutics and Biopharmaceutics 2018;132:168-179.
- **237.** Liu Z, Zhao H, Shu L, Zhang Y, Okeke C, Zhang L, Li J, Li N. Preparation and evaluation of Baicalinloaded cationic solid lipid nanoparticles conjugated with OX26 for improved delivery across the BBB. *Drug Dev Ind Pharm*. 2015;41(3):353–361.
- **238.** Liu Z, Zhang L, He Q, Liu X, Okeke CI, Tong L, Guo L, Yang H, Zhang Q, Zhao H, Gu X. Effect of baicalinloaded PEGylated cationic solid lipid nanoparticles modified by OX26 antibody on regulating the levels of

baicalin and amino acids during cerebral ischemia-reperfusion in rats. *Int. J. Pharm.* 2015;489(1-2):131– 138.

- **239.** Kuo YC, Ko HF. Targeting delivery of saquinavir to the brain using 83-14 monoclonal antibody-grafted solid lipid nanoparticles. *Biomaterials* 2013;34(20):4818–4830.
- **240.** Kuo YC, Wang CC. Carmustine-loaded catanionic solid lipid nanoparticles with serotonergic 1B receptor subtype antagonist for in vitro targeted delivery to inhibit brain cancer growth. *J. Taiwan Inst. Chem. Eng*. 2014;46:1–14.
- **241.** Kuo YC**,** Lou YI**,** Rajesh R, Chen CL. Multiple-component dual-phase solid lipid nanoparticles with conjugated transferrin for formulating antioxidants and nerve growth factor against neuronal apoptosis. *Journal of the Taiwan Institute of Chemical Engineers* 2020;110: 140-152.
- **242.** Wu Y, Song X, Kebebe D, Li X, Xue Z, Li J, Du S, Pi J, Liu Z. Brain targeting of Baicalin and Salvianolic acid B combination by OX26 functionalized nanostructured lipid carriers. *Int J Pharm.* 2019;571:118754.
- **243.** Arduino I, Iacobazzi RM, Riganti C, Lopedota AA, Perrone MG, Lopalco A, Cutrignelli A, Cantore M, Laquintana V, Franco M, Colabufo NA, Luurtsema G, Contino M, Denora N. 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. *Int J Pharm*. 2020;591:120011.
- **244.** Sadegh Malvajerd S, Izadi Z, Azadi A, Kurd M, Derakhshankhah H, Sharifzadeh M, Akbari Javar H, Hamidi M. Neuroprotective Potential of Curcumin-Loaded Nanostructured Lipid Carrier in an Animal Model of Alzheimer's Disease: Behavioral and Biochemical Evidence. *J Alzheimers Dis*. 2019;69(3):671-686.