

Recent Overview of Brain Targeted Nanoparticle

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Abstract— The brain is tightly segregated from the circulating blood by a unique membranous barrier. Circle graphs are used to show the blood-brain barrier (BBB), many pharmaceuticals unable efficiently delivered to, or sustained inside the brain; hence, they are ineffective in treating cerebral diseases. Therefore, drug delivery methods that may provbrain delivery, or eventually preferential brain delivery (i.e., brain targeting), are of particular interest. To attain successful delivery, an understanding of the major structural, enzymatic, and active transport aspects related to the BBB, and of the issues related to lipophilicity and its major role in CNS entry, is critical. During few last years, considerable effort was focused in the field of brain-targeted drug delivery. Numerous more or less sophisticated approaches, such as intracerebral delivery, intracerebroventricular delivery, intranasal delivery, BBB disruption, nanoparticles, receptor mediated transport (vector-mediated transport or 'chimeric' peptides), cell-penetrating peptides, prodrugs, and chemical delivery systems, have been attempted. These approaches may offer more intriguing possibilities for brain delivery and targeting, but only few have reached the phase where they may provide safe and effective human applications.

I. INTRODUCTION

Nanoparticles are solid particles such as the colloidal matrix - Nanoparticles composed of polymers¹ or lipids. Their advantages over liposomes are the low number of ingredients used in their formulation,

simple preparation procedures, high durability, and the possibility of continued drug withdrawal that may be suitable for the treatment of chronic diseases. Until the mid-1990s, their growth as drug carriers was severely limited by the absence of long-term circulating substances.³ Thus, unlike liposomes and although there are many experimental and effective tests in the field of nanoparticle technology, no nanoparticle-based drug has been advertised. until now. Because of their size they range from 10 to 1000 nm (usually 50 - 300 nm), and like liposomes, they cannot supply blood to the brain (BBB) to reach the brain parenchyma. Although growth factors and anti-apoptotic peptides have been shown to be neuroprotective in stroke models, the interpretation of these clinical findings is hampered by limited penetration of peptides into the brain. Here, we show that large peptides such as fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) and small peptide inhibitor caspase-3 (z-DEVD-FMK) can be successfully transported to the brain after systemic administration by inserting these peptides into the brain-Ama targeted nanoparticles (NPs). Chitosan NPs are loaded with peptides and work in conjunction with antibodies targeted to transferrin receptor-1 in the endothelial brain to create receptor-induced transcytosis throughout the blood and brain.

- Characteristics of nanoparticle
1. It is nontoxic, durable and comes with two ingredients
 2. Particle diameter is targeted at 100 nm
 3. Avoiding MPS (no opsonization), takes longer
 4. circulation time

5. BBB-directed delivery to the brain (receptor-mediated)
6. transcytosis in all capillary endothelial cells)
7. The process of production is inseparable and inexpensive
8. Can occur in small molecules, peptides, proteins, or
9. nucleic acids
10. Drug-reduced nanoparticle modification (chemical degradation / modification, protein extraction)
11. Possible fluctuations in drug release profile

II. PROPERTIES OF NANOPARTICLES

In 2008 the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) defined a nanoparticle as a discrete nano-object where all three Cartesian dimensions are less than 100 nm. The ISO standard similarly defined two-dimensional nano-objects (i.e., nanodiscs and nanoplates) and one-dimensional nano-objects (i.e., nanofibres and nanotubes). But in 2011 the Commission of the European Union endorsed a more-technical but wider-ranging definition:

Under that definition a nano-object needs only one of its characteristic dimensions to be in the range 1–100 nm to be classed as a nanoparticle, even if its other dimensions are outside that range. (The lower limit of 1 nm is used because atomic bond lengths are reached at 0.1 nm.) That size range—from 1 to 100 nm—overlaps considerably with that previously assigned to the field of colloid science—from 1 to 1,000 nm—which is sometimes alternatively called the mesoscale. Thus, it is not uncommon to find literature that refers to nanoparticles and colloidal particles in equal terms. The difference is essentially semantic for particles below 100 nm in size.

Nanoparticles can be classified into any of various types, according to their size, shape, and material properties. Some classifications distinguish between organic and inorganic nanoparticles; the first group includes dendrimers, liposomes, and polymeric nanoparticles, while the latter includes fullerenes, quantum dots, and gold nanoparticles. Other classifications divide nanoparticles according to whether they are carbon-based, ceramic, semiconducting, or polymeric. In addition, nanoparticles can be classified as hard (e.g., titania

[titanium dioxide], silica [silica dioxide] particles, and fullerenes) or as soft (e.g., liposomes, vesicles, and nanodroplets). The way in which nanoparticles are classified typically depends on their application, such as in diagnosis or therapy versus basic research, or may be related to the way in which they were produced.

There are three major physical properties of nanoparticles, and all are interrelated: (1) they are highly mobile in the free state (e.g., in the absence of some other additional influence, a 10-nm-diameter nanosphere of silica has a sedimentation rate under gravity of 0.01 mm/day in water); (2) they have enormous specific surface areas (e.g., a standard teaspoon, or about 6 ml, of 10-nm-diameter silica nanospheres has more surface area than a dozen doubles-sized tennis courts; 20 percent of all the atoms in each nanosphere will be located at the surface); and (3) they may exhibit what are known as quantum effects. Thus, nanoparticles have a vast range of compositions, depending on the use or the product.

III. ADVANTAGE OF NANOPARTICLE

1. Nanoparticle drug carriers have high durability
2. Nanoparticle has a high handling capacity.
3. Possibility of importation of both hydrophilic and hydrophobic substances
4. Nanoparticle can also be used for controlled drug delivery.
5. Nanoparticles reduce the frequency of measurement and become more concentrated.

IV. DISADVANTAGE

1. Polymeric nanoparticle has a limited capacity for loading drugs
2. In repeated administration toxic metabolites can be formed during biological modification of polymeric carriers.
3. Polymeric nanoparticles are gradually separated from decay which can cause systemic toxicity.

V. NANOPARTICLE APPLICATIONS IN MATERIALS

Many distinct features in nanoparticles are directly related to particle size. It is therefore natural for attempts to capture some of those structures by adding

nanoparticles into the composite material. Examples of the unique properties of nanoparticles used in nanocomposite materials are modern rubber wheels, which are a mixture of rubber (elastomer) and inorganic fillers (solid particles), such as black carbon or silica nananopartical materials or many nanocomposite for incorporating straight nanoparticles. Nanoparticles are known for their tendency to coagulate, leading to the formation of large nodules that are difficult to reassemble. In addition, nanoparticles do not always retain their properties associated with different sizes when applied to a composite material.

Despite the difficulties of manufacturing, the use of nanomaterials has grown significantly in the early 21st century, with rapid growth in the use of nanocomposites. Nanocomposites are employed in the construction and construction of new materials, which serve, for example, as components for the construction of new digital (defense) and magnetic construction materials. The following sections describe some of the many applications of nanoparticles and nanocomposites in building materials.

VI. MANUFACTURE OF NANOPARTICLES

Nanoparticles are formed by one of three paths: by authorization (forcing), such as industrial milling or natural weather; by pyrolysis (heat); or by sol-gel synthesis. Warning is known as the top method, while the sol-gel process is the lowest method. Examples of those three processes (comminution, pyrolysis, and sol-gel synthesis) include the production of titania nanoparticles of sunscreens from mineral and rutile anthas, the production of fullerenes or ferrous silica (not to be confused with silica fire, which is a separate product), and synthetic silica (or Stöber), of other nanoparticles "for" oxides, and quantum dots. In the production of small nanoparticles, conveying is an inefficient process.

VII. NANOPARTICLES FOR DRUG DELIVERY TO THE BRAIN

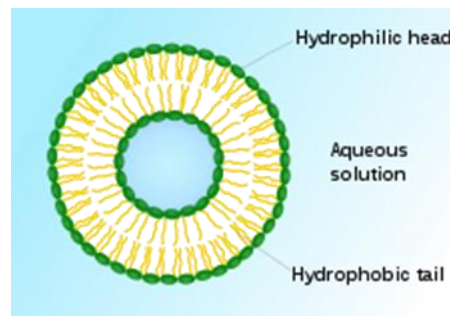
is a process of transporting drug molecules across the blood-brain barrier (BBB) using nanoparticles. These drugs cross the BBB and deliver drugs to the brain for the treatment of neurological disorders. These

disorders include Parkinson's disease, Alzheimer's disease, dementia, depression, and brain tissue. Part of the difficulty in finding treatment for these central nervous system (CNS) problems is that there is currently no effective delivery of drugs across the BBB. Antibiotics, antineoplastic agents, and a variety of CNS active drugs, especially neuropeptides, are just a few examples of molecules that can surpass BBB alone. Inside the help of nanoparticle delivery systems, however, studies have shown that some drugs are now able to cross the BBB, and have shown less toxicity and reduced side effects in all nanoparticles that deliver drugs to the brain as a means of transporting drug molecules.

VIII. LIPOSOME

One type of nanoparticle involves the use of liposomes as molecules of drug carriers. The diagram to the right shows the normal liposome. It contains a phospholipid bilayer that separates inside and outside the cell.

Liposomes are made up of vesicular bilayers, lamellae, made up of immutable and perishable lipids such as sphingomyelin, phosphatidylcholine, and glycerophospholipids. Cholesterol can increase liposome stability and prevent bilayer leakage because its hydroxyl group can interact with cold heads of bilayer phospholipids. Liposomes have the potential to protect the drug from harm, from targeted sites, and reduce toxicity and side effects. Lipid nanoparticles can be synthesized by high-pressure homogenization, a current method used to produce parental emulsions. This process can eventually create a uniform distribution of tiny droplets in the liquid by separating the particles until the desired consistency is obtained. drug delivery industry.



IX. CATIONIC LIPOSOMES

Another type of lipid-nanoparticle that can be used for drug delivery to the brain is the cationic liposome. These are well-charged lipid cells. One example of cationic liposomes uses amphiphiles, which contain hydrophilic groups around the hydrophobic chain to strengthen the nano-vesicle boundary containing the drug. Bolaamphiphile nano-vesicles can cross the BBB, and allow the controlled release of the drug to target sites. Lipoplexes can also be made from cationic liposomes and DNA solutions, providing transfusion agents. Cationic liposomes cross the BBB through adsorption Mediated endocytosis followed by insertion into endothelial cell endosomes. With the transfer of endothelial cells through lipoplexes, physical mutations in cells can be performed. These physiological changes may improve how some nanoparticle drug carriers cross the BBB.

X. METALLIC

Iron nanoparticles are promising as carriers of drug delivery to the brain. The most common metals used for the delivery of nanoparticle drugs are gold, silver, and platinum, due to their compliance. These metal nanoparticles are used because of their large size to volume ratio, geometric and chemical usefulness, and durable antimicrobial properties. [9] Silver cations extracted from silver nanoparticles can bind to cell membranes that are poorly charged by bacteria and increase membrane penetration, allowing foreign chemicals to enter the intracellular fluid.

Metal nanoparticles are chemically synthesized using a reducing reaction. [10] For example, drug nanoparticles combined with drugs are created by reducing silver nitrate by sodium borohydride in the presence of ionic drug compound. The drug binds to the silver surface, stabilizes nanoparticles and prevents nanoparticles from bonding.

Solid lipid

There is a single layer of phospholipid because the inside of the particle is solid. Molecules such as antibodies, targeted peptides, and drug molecules can be bound to the SLN surface.

Also, solid lipid nanoparticles (SLNs) are lipid nanoparticles with a solid interior as shown in the diagram to the right. SLNs can be formed by dissolving a liquid lipid oil used in the emulsion process with a strong lipid. In solid lipid nanoparticles, drug molecules are dissolved in the hydrophobic lipid core particle, this is called drug payload, and are surrounded by a strong solution. Many SLNs are produced from triglycerides, fatty acids, and waxes. High-pressure homogenization or micro-emulsification can be used for production. In addition, the surface activation of solid lipid nanoparticles with polyethylene glycol (PEG) can lead to an increase in BBB strength. Various colloidal carriers such as liposomes, polymeric nanoparticles, and emulsions reduce stability, health shelf and encapsulation function. Strong lipid nanoparticles are designed to overcome these defects and have excellent drug release and physical stability without targeted drug delivery.

Nanoemulsions

Another method of nanoparticle delivery systems is oil-in-water emulsions made on nano scale. This process uses ordinary oil that is rich in substances such as triglycerides and fatty acids, and combines them with water and surfactants in parts of the earth. Fats rich in omega-3 fatty acids mainly contain essential substances that help in the entry of strong BBB bonds.

Polymer based

Other nanoparticles are polymer-based, meaning they are made from a natural polymer such as polylactic acid (PLA), poly D,L-glycolide (PLG), Polylactide-co-glycolide (PLGA), and polycyanoacrylate (PCA). Some studies have found that polymeric nanoparticles may provide better results for drug delivery relative to lipid-based nanoparticles because they may increase the stability of the drugs or proteins being transported. Polymeric nanoparticles may also contain beneficial controlled release mechanisms.

Nanoparticles made from decaying natural polymers have the ability to identify specific organs and tissues in the body, handle DNA for genetic treatment, and deliver large molecules such as proteins, peptides, and

genes. drug molecules are first dissolved and then incorporated or attached to a polymer nanoparticle matrix. Three different frameworks can be found in this process; nanoparticles, nanocapsules (where the drug is embedded and surrounded by a polymer matrix), and nanospheres (where the drug disperses throughout the polymeric matrix in a circular pattern) One of the most important features in nanoparticle delivery systems that it should be rotten on a few days' scale. A few common polymer materials used for drug delivery studies are polybutyl cyanoacrylate (PBCA), poly (isohexyl cyanoacrylate) (PIHCA), polylactic acid (PLA), or polylactide-co-glycolide (PLGA). PBCA is degraded according to the enzymatic calculations of its ester bond in the alkyl series on the side to produce a water-soluble product. PBCA has also been shown to be a rapid decay factor, with studies showing an 80% reduction within 24 hours of intravenous injection. PIHCA, however, has recently been found to show a very low rate of dehydration, which in turn reduces toxicity. PIHCA, due to this small benefit, is currently undergoing phase III clinical trials to administer the drug doxorubicin as a treatment for hepatocellular carcinomas.

Human serum albumin (HAS) and chitosan are also popular components for nanoparticle delivery systems. Using albumin nanoparticles for the treatment of stroke can overcome many limitations. For example, albumin nanoparticles can improve BBB penetration, increase melting, and increase half-life in circulation. Patients with brain cancer proteins bind albumin, such as SPARC and gp60, to their BBBs and hair cells, which naturally increases albumin intake in the brain. Using this relationship, researchers developed albumin nanoparticles that combine two anti-cancer drugs, paclitaxel and fenretinide, modified by low-molecular weight molecular protamine (LMWP), a type of intramuscular protein, for anti-glioma therapy. In the body, albumin nanoparticles can easily cross the BBB, bind proteins and enter glioma cells, and release the drugs contained. This nanoparticle formation improves tissue delivery efficiency and improves hydrophobic solubility.

Mechanism of Nanoparticle

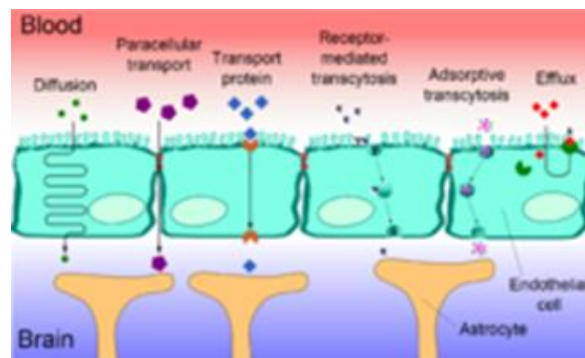


Fig. no. 2

Liposome

The method of liposome transport across the BBB is free lipid-mediated distribution, a type of simplified infusions, or lipoc-mediated endocytosis. BBB. Apolipoprotein E (apoE) is a protein that stimulates the transport of lipids and cholesterol. ApoE elements bind to nanoparticles, and this complex binds to low-density lipoprotein receptor (LDLR) in the BBB and allows transport to occur.

This diagram illustrates the many ways in which transportation works across the BBB works. Transmission of nanoparticle across the BBB, the most common mechanisms are receptor-induced transcytosis and adsorptive transcytosis

Polymeric nanoparticles

The mechanism for the transport of polymer-based nanoparticles across the BBB has been characterized as receptor-mediated endocytosis by the brain capillary endothelial cells. Transcytosis then occurs to transport the nanoparticles across the tight junction of endothelial cells and into the brain. Surface coating nanoparticles with surfactants such as polysorbate 80 or poloxamer 188 was shown to increase uptake of the drug into the brain also. This mechanism also relies on certain receptors located on the luminal surface of endothelial cells of the BBB. Ligands coated on the nanoparticle's surface bind to specific receptors to cause a conformational change. Once bound to these receptors, transcytosis can commence, and this involves the formation of vesicles from the plasma membrane pinching off the nanoparticle system after internalization

Additional receptors identified for receptor-mediated endocytosis of nanoparticle delivery systems are the scavenger receptor class B type I (SR-BI), LDL receptor (LRP1), transferrin receptor, and insulin receptor. As long as a receptor exists on the endothelial surface of the BBB, any ligand can be attached to the nanoparticle's surface to functionalize it so that it can bind and undergo endocytosis.

Another mechanism is adsorption mediated transcytosis, where electrostatic interactions are involved in mediating nanoparticle crossing of the BBB. Cationic nanoparticles (including cationic liposomes) are of interest for this mechanism, because their positive charges assist binding on the brain's endothelial cells. Using TAT-peptides, a cell-penetrating peptide, to functionalize the surface of cationic nanoparticles can further improve drug transport into the brain.

CONCLUSION

Because BBB separates the brain tightly in the bloodstream, many medications require medication to require some form of drug delivery to reach, or ultimately, special access, to the brain (e.g. brain delivery or brain guidance). Over the past few years, this has become clearer, and much effort has been put into making it a reality. Extremely diverse or advanced approaches, such as intracerebral delivery, intracerebroventricular delivery, intranasal delivery, BBB disruption, nanoparticles, central transport chemical delivery systems, have been tried. Many of these methods seem to offer exciting opportunities for brain delivery and pricing, but only some have reached a stage where they can provide safe and effective human use.

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