Neurodegenerative diseases and effective drug delivery: A review of challenges and novel therapeutics



Amna Akhtar, Anisa Andleeb, Tayyba Sher Waris, Masoomeh Bazzar, Ali-Reza Moradi, Nasir Raza Awan, Muhammad Yar

PII:	S0168-3659(20)30670-2
DOI:	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jconrel.2020.11.021
Reference:	COREL 10654
To appear in:	Journal of Controlled Release
Received date:	30 June 2020
Revised date:	11 November 2020
Accepted date:	11 November 2020

Please cite this article as: A. Akhtar, A. Andleeb, T.S. Waris, et al., Neurodegenerative diseases and effective drug delivery: A review of challenges and novel therapeutics, *Journal of Controlled Release* (2020), https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jconrel.2020.11.021

This is a PDF file of an article that has undergone enhancements after acceptance, such as the addition of a cover page and metadata, and formatting for readability, but it is not yet the definitive version of record. This version will undergo additional copyediting, typesetting and review before it is published in its final form, but we are providing this version to give early visibility of the article. Please note that, during the production process, errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

© 2020 Published by Elsevier.

Neurodegenerative diseases and effective drug delivery: A review of challenges and novel therapeutics

Amna Akhtar^{1,2}, Anisa Andleeb¹, Tayyba Sher Waris¹, Masoomeh Bazzar³, Ali-Reza Moradi^{4,5}, Nasir Raza Awan,^{6,7}, Muhammad Yar^{1,*}

 ¹Interdisciplinary Research Center in Biomedical Materials (IRCBM), COMSATS University Islamabad Lahore Campus, Lahore, 54000, Pakistan
 ²Department of Chemical Engineering, COMSATS University Islamabad Lahore Campus, Lahore, 54000, Pakistan
 ³School of Chemistry, University of East Anglia, Norwich Research Park, Norwich, NR4 7TJ
 ⁴Department of Physics, Institute for Advanced Studies in Pasic Sciences (IASBS), Zanjan 45137-66731, Iran
 ⁵School of Nano Science, Institute for Research in Fundamental Sciences (IPM), P.O. Box 19395-5531, Tehran 19395, Iran
 ⁶Department of Neurosciences, Sharif Medical and Der tal College, Lahore Pakistan
 ⁷Spinacure, 63-A Block E1, Gulberg III Lahore Pakisten

*Correspondence:

¹Interdisciplinary Research Center in Biom dical Materials (IRCBM), COMSATS University Islamabad Lahore Campus, Lahore, 54029, Pakistan E-mail: drmyar@cuilahore.edu.pk (N. 2007)

Abstract

The central nervous system (CNS) encompasses the brain and spinal cord and is considered the processing center and the most vital part of human body. The central nervous system (CNS) barriers are crucial interfaces between the CNS and the periphery. Among all these biological barriers, the blood-brain barrier (BBB) strongly impede hurdle for drug transport to brain. It is a semi-permeable diffusion barrier against the noxious chemicals and harmful substances present in the blood stream and regulates the nutrients delivery to the brain for its proper functioning. Neurological diseases owing to the existence of the BBB and the blood-spinal cord barrier have been terrible and threatening challenges all over the world and can rarely be directly mediated. In

fact, drug delivery to brain remained a challenge in the treatment of neurodegenerative (ND) disorders, for these different approaches have been proposed. Nano-fabricated smart drug delivery systems and implantable drug loaded biomaterials for brain repair are among some of these latest approaches. In current review, modern approaches developed to deal with the challenges associated with transporting drugs to the CNS are included. Recent studies on neural drug discovery and injectable hydrogels provide a potential new treatment option for neurological disorders. Moreover, induced pluripotent stem cells used to model ND diseases are discussed to evaluate drug efficacy. These protocols and recent developments will enable discovery of more effective drug delivery systems for brain.

Abbreviation

Ach	Acetylcholin
AD	Alzhein.~r's disease
ALA	Acen var nerve allograft
ALS	r myotrophic lateral sclerosis
ANA	Acellular nerve allografts
BBB	Blood brain barrier
B6: CGHKAKGPRK	transferrin-mimetic peptide
BCSFB	Blood cerebrospinal fluid barrier
BTB	Blood tumor barrier
CNS	Central nervous system

CSF	Cerebrospinal fluid	
COMT	Catechol O-methyltransferase	
СР	Choroid plexus	
DDS	Drug delivery system	
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid	
ECM	Extracellular matrix	
FDA	Food and Drug Administration	
НА	Hyaluronic Acid	
НАМС	Hyaluron? -m .thyicellulose	
HD	Huntirgton disease	
HP	Hurtington 's disease	
IGF	Lasuline growth factor	
IPSCs.	Induced pluripotent stem cells	
JAMs	Junctional adhesion molecules	
LDC	Lipid drug conjugate	
MAO inhibitor	Monoamine oxidase inhibitors	
NAP N	leuroprotective activity peptide	

NAPVSIPQ	Neuroprotective peptide NAP
ND	Neurodegenerative diseases
NLC	Nanostructured lipid carrier
NBDDS	Nano biomaterial drug delivery system
NPSCs	Neural progenitor cells
NPs	Nanoparticles
NSC	Neural stem cells
PD	Parkinson's disease
PEG	Polyethylen glv 201
PLA	Polylactic acid
PGA	Pcly glycolic acid
РНЕМА	Poly (hydroxyethyl methacrylate)
PLLA	Poly (L lactic acid)
PLGA	Poly (lactic-co-glycolic acid)
SLN	Solid lipid nanoparticles
SN	Subtantia nigra
ТЈ	Tight junction
VEGF	Vascular endothelial growth factor

Keywords

Blood brain barrier, Neurodegenerative diseases, Nanotechnology, Brain targeted drug delivery, Polymer implants, Injectable, Stem cells

> ر ۲

Contents

- 1. Introduction
- 2. Barriers to drug delivery
- 2.1 Blood-brain barrier
- 2.2 Blood-cerebrospinal fluid barrier
- 2.3 Blood-tumor barrier
- 3. Approaches of drug delivery targeting to bi, in
- 3.1 Invasive approach
- 3.2 Intracerebral delivery
- 3.3 Intracerebral implants
- 3.4 BBB disruption
- 3.5 Intrathecal delivery
- 3.6 Noninvasive approach
- 3.7 Chemistry based approach
- 3.8 Biotechnology based approach
- 3.9 Intranasal delivery
- 4. Challenges for delivery to the brain for ND diseases.

- 4.1 Alzheimer's disease
- 4.2 Brain tumor
- 4.3 Huntington's disease and Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis Parkinson's disease
- 4.4 Stroke
- 4.5 Parkinson's disease
- 5. Modern approaches and biomaterials for the treatment of ND diseases and skin regeneration
- 5.1 Nanoparticles for brain drug delivery
- 5.2 Tissue engineering in nervous system
- 5.2.1 Application of biomaterials in neural tissue engineering
- 5.2.1.1 Natural polymeric materials
- 5.2.1.1.1 Collagen
- 5.2.1.1.2 Hyaluronic Acid (HA)
- 5.2.1.1.3 Hyaluronic Acid Derivatives
- 5.2.1.1.4 Chitin and Chitosan
- 5.2.1.2 Synthetic polymer. 2 materials
- 5.2.1.2.1 Poly L-Lactic Acid (PLLA)
- 5.2.1.2.2 Poly-D, L- Lactic-co-Glycolic Acid (PLGA)
- 5.2.1.3 Combination of poly glycolic acid (PGA) and poly lactic acid (PLA)
- 5.3 Drug delivery through implants

5.3.1 Tissue engineering/drug delivery through implanted scaffolds

5.3.2 Tissue engineering/drug delivery through injectable hydrogels

5.3.2.1 Insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-I)

6. Neural drug discovery: A new promising approach

6.1 Induced Pluripotent Stem Cells (iPSCs) as a novel tool in drug discovery and development

for neurodegenerative diseases

7. Future direction and conclusion

8. Conflict of interest

9. References

1. Introduction

The delicate organ of the central nervous system (CNS) is brain which interrelates the input from sensory endings in all organ, considers learning and memory, and enables for running repairs to maintain active function [1]. With the aging of the world population, neurological disorders are responsible for contributing 6.3% of the global burden of all diseases. As a consequence, these disorders causes major health issues of disability and are leading to additional medical treatment and prolonged care [2]. The drug delivery through central nervous system is a major challenge although there is relatively a high flow of blood. The series of barriers to protect itself have been emerged by CNS including the blood brain barrier (BBB), blood–cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) barrier, the blood–retinal barrier, and the blood–spinal cord

barrier. The brain from its blood supply is separated by the two physiological barriers, BBB and the blood–cerebrospinal fluid barrier (BCSFB) [3, 4].

Among all the barriers, BBB is the stronger one, which impedes the noxious chemicals and harmful substances from the bloodstream and regulates the nutrients delivery to the brain for normal function. BBB is a semi-permeable and diffusion barrier constructed of astrocytes, endothelial cells, tight junctions, neurons pericytes and basal membrane [5, 6]. Different kinds of transport pathways for the delivery of these substances at the For are schematically shown in Fig. 1. These delivery tools work from brain-to-blood direction and blood-to-brain direction modes. However, blood to brain transport system is or more important in drug delivery as compared to the other transport system [2, 7, 81 Immediately after BBB, another barrier is BCSFB that encounters a systemically regulated drug before going into the CNS. This is located at the choroid plexus that controls the trans er of solutes from blood to CSF and fresh CSF is secreted by it. Choroidal epithelium is a complex organ having many extra functions like neuro-immune and neuroinflammatory responses, drug and toxin metabolism, neuroendocrine signaling, metabolism and transport [9, 10].

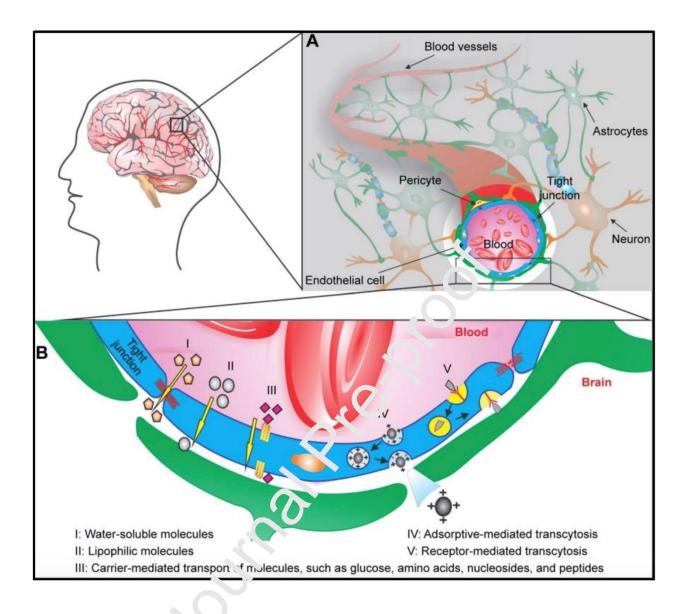


Fig. 1. Channels to pass be olood brain barrier [8]. (Reproduced from an open access source.) The BBB is found at the walls of the blood vessels. (A) Cross section of a cerebral capillary reveals the structure of the BBB having a network of pericytes, neurons, astrocytes and endothelial cells. (B) Different modes of drug release over the BBB. Water soluble molecules go into the BBB (I), lipid-soluble molecules disperse over the endothelial cells (II), carried mediated transport machineries carry out small molecules and peptides (III) ,cationic drug improves its uses by adsorptive-mediated transcytosis (IV) ,larger molecules are brought through receptor-mediated transcytosis (V).

Despite of progresses in disease pathology, there is a limited number of drugs available for neurological disorders. Specifically, drug release to brain remained a major problem in treating neurodegenerative (ND) disorders. In order to overcome these limitations nanotechnology could be very helpful [11-14]. The very small size and very high surface of nanomaterials make distinction between nanoscience and other classical technologies. Presently, nearly all macro molecular drugs and larger than 98% of small drug -molecules have been failed in crossing BBB and drug candidates showed poor biopharmaceutical and phan-acokinetics properties [7]. Therefore, suitable drug delivery systems without disturbing beating organs and tissues for the distribution of drug molecule are strongly needed. A¹though nanoparticles administered systemically are chemically more stable but they hold dr. vbacks associated with the preparation of nanoparticles, specifically the large-scale industrial production and quality control. Furthermore, the safety when injected, and the effect of nanoparticles on the CNS after permeating the BBB need to be further investigated [7, 15, 16]. Implanting therapy and utilization of anticancer drug-loaded biomaterials e.g. hydrogels are the modern treatment options for the ND diseases [17, 18].

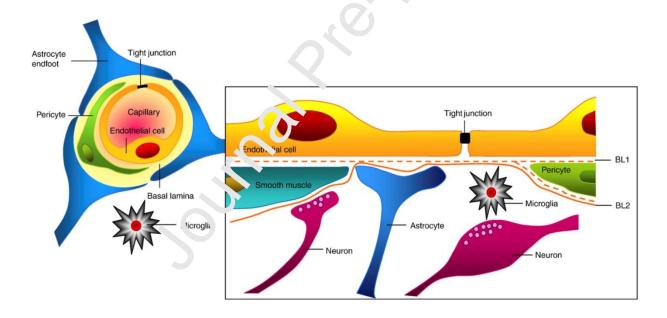
This review highlights a d a scusses the fundamental functions of the BBB, limitations of the application of nanopartic es-based drug release systems, considering the most common ND diseases and recent advances in latest injectable implanted drug loaded biomaterials used to promote brain repair.

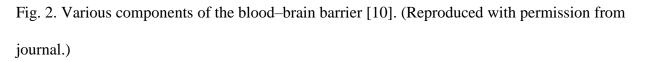
2. Barriers to drug delivery

The drug release to the CNS through the cardiovascular system is impeded by different distinct barriers such as BBB, Blood-Cerebrospinal Fluid Barrier (BCB), and Blood-Tumor Barrier (BTB). In the current article we review the details of such barriers.

2.1 Blood-brain barrier

Blood-Brain Barrier (BBB) is composed of the brain capillary endothelial cells, which includes astrocytes and pericytes as the major components and schematic 'ly shown in Fig. 2 [10, 19]. BBB is a permeable barrier that permits proteins, enzymes and outrients entry and restricts water-soluble substances. Thus, it restricts entry of druks, therapeutic and diagnostic agents during treatment of ND disorders. [20-22].





The cerebral endothelial cells form tight junctions at their margins and seal the aqueous paracellular diffusional route between the cells. Pericytes partially surround the endothelium and

are spread nonuniformly besides of the cerebral capillaries. The cerebral endothelial cells and the pericytes both together contribute to and are surrounded by, the local basement membrane BL1, vary in constitution from the extracellular matrix of the glial end feet (BL2). Foot operations from astrocytes configure a complex network surrounding the capillaries and this close cell union is significant in maintaining the barrier properties. The delivery of vasoactive peptides regulates the permeability of BBB. The motion of solutes over the BBB may be facilitated by passive or active carriers in the endothelial cell membranes or is passive, with more lipid-soluble substances.

2.2 Blood-cerebrospinal fluid barrier BCSFB

BCB experiences systemically operate t erapeutic drug before going into the CNS. Cerebrospinal-fluid (CSF) can intercuing molecules with the interstitial fluid of the brain parenchyma and carefully regulate the pussage of blood-borne molecules into the CSF. This is located in the epithelium of the thor id's plexus that comprises a highly vascularized stroma having connective tissue and choroidal en thelial cells. CP is found besides of the lateral, third, and fourth ventricles of the brain. Or use configures an interface between cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) and peripheral blood and may form more than 50% of total CSF. The principal purpose of the CP is to produce. BCSF and the CSF barrier, besides that the CP might be the part of the circadian regulatory system. The choroid's plexus behaves as a physical, immunological and enzymatic barrier which assists the drug transport, metabolism and signaling functions and restricts transport into the CSF as well [23-26]. The choroid plexus vigorously regulates the concentration of molecules in the CSF and the various transfer and secretion channels operative in the choroid plexus epithelial cells, make them suitable to control the molecular and cellular composition brain fluid and CSF and with the arachnoid membrane, performs between the blood and CSF at the barriers [25, 27, 28]. Thus therapeutic organic acids are actively taken out from the CSF [29, 30].

2.3 Blood-tumor barrier

Intracranial drug delivery becomes more difficult in case of CNS tumors. BBB shows clinical outcomes in the microvasculature of CNS tumors. The physic bigical barriers impede drug delivery via the cardiovascular system in CNS malignancies. Approaches such as inhibiting efflux drug transporters, opening TJs by a hyperosmotic schedon of mannitol and receptormediated drug delivery systems may also be utilized facilitating drug through it [6, 31, 32]. Fig. 3 exhibits the central nervous system barriers. Whereas schematic representation of blood brain barriers is depicted 1. Fig 4 [33, 34].

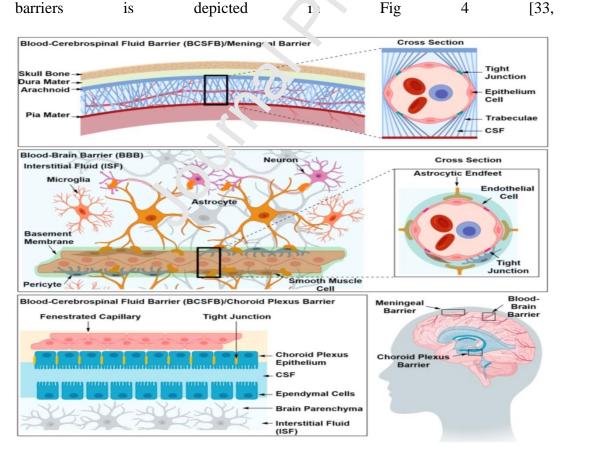


Fig. 3. The three main barriers in the central nervous system (CNS) [33]. (Reproduced with permission.)

The meningeal or arachnoid barrier, the choroid plexus barrier and the blood brain barrier (BBB) are the three main barriers in the central nervous system (CNS). The blood from the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) is separated by the arachnoid and choroid plexus barriers and the BBB separates the blood from the interstitial fluid (ISF). The blood brain barrier owns an intricate architecture of mural, glial cells and basement membrane that $e^{2i\omega_{c}}$ euler are responsible for the maintenance the barrier's integrity and regulate its permeability.

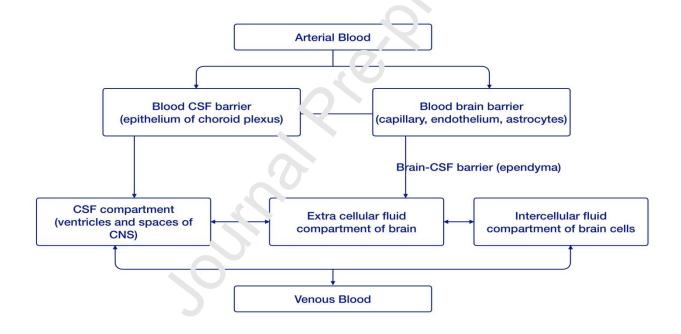


Fig. 4. Schematic presentation of BBB, CSF, Brain CSF [34].

3. Drug Delivery approaches to Brain

For effective drug delivery without any restriction, several drug delivery approaches have been investigated as shown in table1 [35]. Until now, these approaches include invasive, non-invasive, and miscellaneous techniques. These are described in Fig. 5. and details are given below [36].

X

Approach	Advantages	I 'isac' vantages
BBB disruption	Clinically applicable	Nonselective; neurotoxic
-	Enhanced stability of cargoes:	
	non-immunologic	
Biotechnology based	Effective route for the reun-	grafts do not survive for
delivery	pharmaceuticals to 'ne brain	long time
denvery	tumors and Parkinson s disease	long time
Chemistry based	Re composition (11) e d'ug results	Adverse pharmacokinetics
delivery	in the generation γ^{f} a prodrug	and the increased molecular
		weight of the drug
Intracerebral delivery	Sustained release. Favorable	Slow motion of
	results are stained with high	compounds. Drug dosage
	level of meg-concentration	restricted by implant size.
Intrathecal delivery	Cost effective with the least side	Highly invasive, poor
	efferts	patient consent
Intranasal delivery	Repid absorption and onset of	Decay of drugs via mucosal
	action; enhanced bioavailability	enzymes appropriate only
		for strong therapeutic
	D	drugs
Noninvasive delivery	Helpful in the passage of BBTB	widespread drug
		distribution
		Poor delivery of the drugs

 Table 1. Approaches for drug delivery to the brain [35]

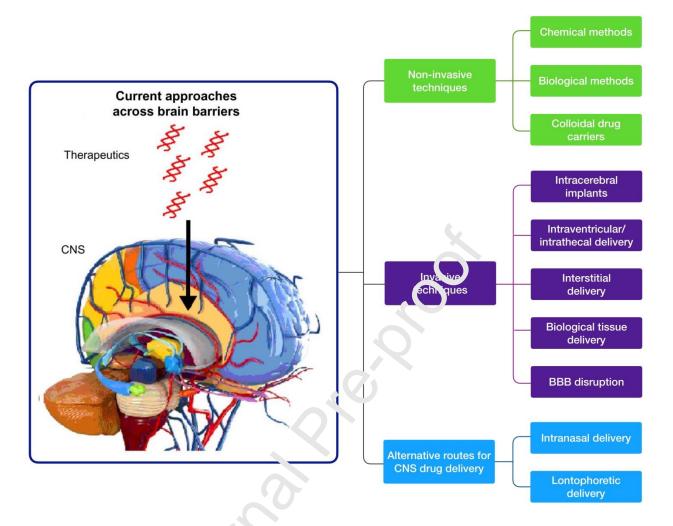


Fig. 5. Current approaches for brain drug delivery [36]. (Reproduced from an open access

source.)

3.1 Invasive Approach

In the invasive method only lipid-soluble nutrients, a few peptides and low molecular weight molecules can pass through barrier to any significant extent either by using specific transport mechanisms or passive diffusion. Intracerebral and intrathecal administration is implied by direct invasive delivery of the drug into the brain and take a craniotomy. Both they can extensively deliver small and large molecules. Several compounds including includes toxic agents, pathogens, and viruses etc., can be delivered into the CNS via this intranasal route The undesired release of anticancer agents to normal brain tissues, and physiological stress, are the main disadvantages caused by it [37-39].

3.2 Intracerebral delivery

To obtain more specific and successful release of drugs to certain parts of the brain, direct injection/implantation into the targeted part is introduced by supeotactic coordinates and /or continuous intraventricular infusion of the drug into the brail tissue. By using this method, favorable results were obtained in clinical trials of Park nsum's disease. The slow motion of compounds inside the brain due to the nearly arranged cells in both gray and white matter microenvironment was observed. Therefore, a higher dose for an appropriate drug concentration is required [40, 41].

The designed implanted devices are bioac radable and biocompatible based on polymeric matrix having encapsulated drugs inside. The chull is opened at the desired location of delivery where the reservoir is to be implanted. The penetration of the drug strongly depends on the physicochemical behavior of the drug, and normally limited amount of the molecule is delivered. e.g. an implant with near growth factor after placing inside the brain for the treatment of quadriplegic patients revealed better results[42, 43].

3.3 BBB disruption

In order to get more beneficial effects of drugs and their targeted release to the brain the membrane of the BBB is biochemically disrupted. Hence, this method involves direct administration of the drug substances to CNS by applying energy or certain chemicals. To specify the certain area of brain for target is the major advantage of this approach The

17

phenomena of BBB disruption occurs with the help of two approaches; Different chemical substances with higher osmotic pressure i.e. mannitol hyperosmotic solution is mostly applied to improve release of chemotherapeutic drugs to brain tumors [44]. This causes the endothelial cells to shrink and stretches the tight junctions whereas ultrasound and electromagnetic radiation causes shrinking of endothelial cells. The ultrasound waves with the recommended frequencies of 0.2-1.5 MHz are suitable for clinical applications. Thus intravenous injection of microbubbles are typically applied to reduced power requirements to disrupt the PBB that generally lasts few hours to < 1 day [40, 45-48].

3.5 Intrathecal delivery

Herein, the neurotherapeutic agents are directly administered into cisterna magna of brain through intrathecal route. This is the most suit d route for drug delivery in the spinal diseases and disseminated meningeal diseases. To allow the delivery of a higher amount of enzymes to the brain is the main advantage of this method, thus the massive use of therapeutic drugs is not required. Moreover, this strategy controls the problems of short half-life of drugs into the blood, avoiding the problem of systemic exposure and toxicity. However, the risk of drug spread out along the distal space of spinal canal is the major disadvantage of this pathway [49, 50].

3.6 Noninvasive approach

Several non-invasive brain drug delivery methods enable brain blood vessel network to catch extensive drug distribution. This technique effectively helps drugs in passing the BBTB with the increase in BBTB permeability. The primary proteins in tight junctions (TJs) in the BBB are claudins, occludin and junctional adhesion molecules (JAMs). The expression of these TJ proteins could be decreased by microbubbles and ultrasound irradiation, which temporarily opens the BBB without any adverse effect on the normal brain tissue. These approaches are

usually dependent upon drug manipulations like receptor-mediated drug delivery, chemical drug delivery, prodrugs, lipophilic analogs, and carrier mediated drug delivery, etc. However, systemic delivery of the drugs to the brain in non-invasive approach has been a challenge resulting in the progress of new drug-targeting techniques [6, 37, 38].

3.7 Chemistry based approach

This approach considers the suitable chemicals for the delivery of drug substances via BBB. In this approach drug can be lapidated into two ways; firstly, the polar functional groups on the water-soluble drug can be concealed by conjugating them with high-soluble moieties. Secondly, the water-soluble drug can be conjugated to a lipid-soluble drug carrier. Although different ideologies have been developed for transporting the neurotherapeutics, these approaches have extensively been researched for the last two decades. Examples include chimeric peptides and cationic proteins [51, 52].

3.8 Biotechnology based approach

The scientists from the various other fields have shown considerable interest in the field of biotechnology. The ideas of this technique is to implant fetal neural grafts into the dysfunctional part of the brain and vicinty deployed in polymerase chain reaction protein engineering, and recombinant DNA. For the release of drug into the brain, the biotechnology provides an effective route for the neuro-pharmaceuticals to the brain and brain tumors too. This method is also very capable for the treatment of Parkinson's disease. Nevertheless these grafts do not survive for longer without neovascular innervation [36, 43].

3.9 Intranasal delivery

The intranasal route has been employed for direct drug release into the blood by passing the nasal mucosa for systemic action. This consumes the link of trigeminal nerves and trigeminal nerves in the nasal mucosa to the brain and requires small dose, self-administration, and avoids sterile techniques. This permits quick absorption and onset of action, an absence of hepatic, easy administration as well as bypassing gastrointestinal degradation and protein binding in the circulation. By that means drug bioavailability is improved and systemic side effects are reduced Examples of intranasal administration are the delivery of cytratives, neurotrophins neuropeptides genes, and chemotherapeutics. The obvious drawbacks on this approach include the decay of drugs by mucosal enzymes, administration not done by a medically trained professional, a short hold time in the nasal cavity, and restrictions de or nined by the nasal anatomy. Thus, these altogether follow short drug concentrations reaching the CNS [53-55].

4. Challenges for delivery to the bran for ND diseases.

In this section, we describe the challenges faced in the treatment of ND diseases and the applications of different therapeutic available options.

4.1 Alzheimer's diseas

In the USA more than 5 million people have been affected by Alzheimer's disorder (AD) and this is the leading cause of global memory disorder, Accumulation of amyloid-beta peptide (A β) (senile plaques), memory loss brain atrophy presence of hyper phosphorylated tau filaments (neurofibrillary tangles), and cerebrovascular changes, as shown in Fig. 6, are the main characteristic of AD. Abnormal proteins, oxidative stress, reduced acetylcholine (ACh) levels and excessive metal ion accumulation in brain, and are so supposed to take part an important role in its pathogenesis. [56, 57]. AD is treated with two classes of drugs: cholinesterase inhibitors

and glutamate regulators. Cholinesterase inhibitors work by impeding the failure of the neurotransmitter acetylcholine. Vomiting, loss of appetite, nausea, and increased frequency of bowel movements are their side effects. The only approved glutamate regulating medication is Namenda this is used to treat Alzheimer's, which is connected to memory and learning. The effectiveness of Namenda is on par with the cholinesterase inhibitors, in that it works for approximately half of the individuals taking it, and then only for a short time. The side effects of Namenda includes headaches, constipation, confusion, and dizziness [57].

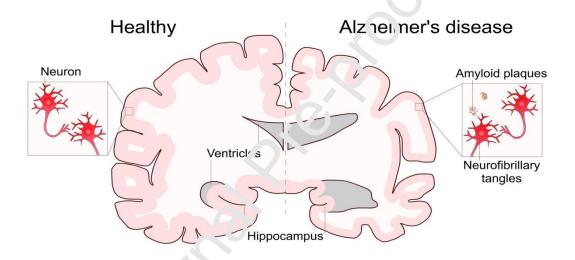


Fig. 6. Main pathologic hal¹ma¹'s found in AD brain and nanoparticle [57]. (Reproduced from an open access source)

Primary mental problems found in Alzheimer's disease (AD) brain and nanoparticle (NP) release systems used in pre-clinical animal models of AD. The main features of AD are the existence of amyloid plaques and neurobribrillary tangles in neurons, which results culminates in adverse neurodisorder.

4.2 Brain tumor

Most malignant brain tumors found in adults are of neuroepithelial origin and belong to the group of gliomas that depends on their similarity to glial support cells of the brain, oligodendrocytes and astrocytes. Malignant brain cancer is found and incurable diseases with high mortality rate. Drug delivery is seriously impaired by the structure of BBB in the diseased brain Different effective available drugs for brain tumors treatment are inadequate since poor delivery through the BBB is noted. The novel ways for the release of drugs include liposomes, micelles, and polymeric NPs (Fig. 7). But mainly these encaptuation approaches are expensive having less efficacy in encapsulation, and the systemic poisonous of the drugs [58, 59]. Cell encapsulation for prolonged delivery of the active therapedic molecule, BBB circumvention is a promising technique for drug release [60, 61].

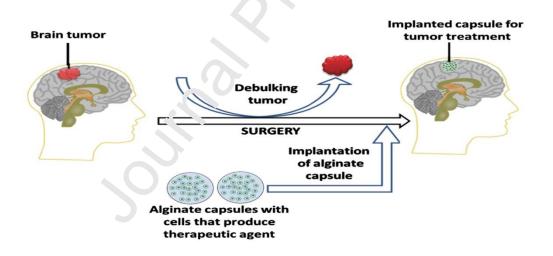


Fig. 7. Brain tumors treatment proposed by cell encapsulation, the therapeutic agent is produced by one or more implanted capsules with cells in the locality of excised tumor [61]. (Reproduced with permission.)

Suggested surgery for brain tumors with the help of cell encapsulation technique. At the time of surgery, the surgeon can implant one or more capsules in the immediate location of the excised tumor. Since the delivery of the therapeutic agent is local, undesired side effects from systemic incorporation are shut out. Significantly, the therapeutic are generated over prolonged periods and can kill the leftover of malignant cells.

4.3 Huntington's disease and Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis

These two ND ailments are of relatively less occurrence but are lethal and horrifying [62]. Huntington's disease (HD), the most common monogenic neurological disease present in developed countries, is an autosomal dominant disea. that occurs on account of genetic mutation. The mutant form of Huntington name, p otein leads to that genetic mutation that ended up to neuronal death and dysfunct on The involuntary choreatic movements, dementia, and behavioral and psychiatric disorders are main characteristics of this ailment. The manifestation of HD starts in adult life progresses fast and unfortunately may takes the life of victim within years. Up till now no treatment is available for this disease, the single option is the management of the symptoms [53]. Tetrabenazine and Olanzapine are often prescribed drugs to treat HD but victims are an dure need of a permanent treatment of this terrific disorder.

Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS) or motor neuron disease is the one that is identified by the breakdown of lower and upper motor neurons that basically control actions of voluntary muscles. Muscle atrophy is the one main symptom of this disorder in which muscles decreased in size and lost their strength. Muscle stiffness, muscle twitching and cramps, difficulties in breathing, swallowing, eating, and speaking are some other associated problems. In severity full paralysis of voluntary muscles happened that may ended up with the death of victim [64]. On account of

its grave and lethal impacts many drugs have recently being experimentally analyzed for their utilization in ALS treatment like Masitinib, Ibudilast, Triumeq, Retigabine and Tamoxifen. However, only two drugs named riluzole and edaravone are currently available and being used. Unfortunately, even these two drugs are only effective to slow down the progression of the disease but cannot help to get rid of the disease fully and are unable to revert manifested symptoms of ALS [65].

4.4 Parkinson's disease

Parkinson's disease (PD) is caused by increasing lifesport and demographic changes in population and approximately 10 million people are affected by it throughout the world. The PD is distinguished by the selective breakdown of dopaminencie neurons in the substantia nigra (SN) and the existence of α -synuclein and protein incluiors termed Lewy bodies in neurons (Fig. 8). This disease may be treated with a multitude of medications; however, likewise Alzheimer's medications, they are normally effective only for a short period of time including Catechol Omethyltransferase (COMT) inhibitors, MAO-B inhibitors anticholinergics, L-Dopa, dopamine agonists and MAO-B inhibitors [57, 66].

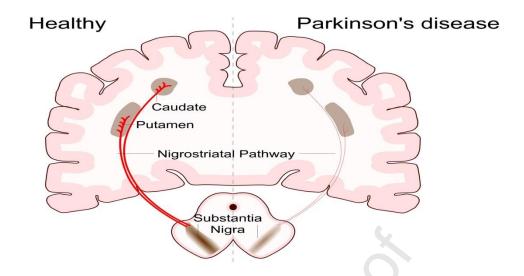


Fig. 8. PD hallmarks and used in pre-clinical animal trials of PD [57]. (Reproduced from an open access source.)

Parkinson's disease (PD) hallmarks and nanopartic'e (NP) release systems applied in pre-clinical animal models of PD. The PD brain 's identified by a specific loss of substantia nigra dopaminergic neurons, which lead to shipkage of the cerebral and adverse neurodegeneration.

4.5 Stroke

The stroke is the long-lasting disabling and costly disease found in adults affected approximately 800,000 people per year in the world. This is caused by the blockage of vessels in the CNS. Experimental ischemia, conducted by growth of a penumbra and cell death, considers the main features of stroke in humans. Bleeding or occulation of vessel due to a blood clot throughout a stroke period prevents blood supply to brain (ischemic stroke) shown in Fig. 9, resulting in death of brain cell and eventually in patient death [67]. However, for the treatment of stroke, the only options available are rehabilitation programs based on patient's specific symptoms. For instance,

patients with strokes that have occurred in the area of the brain responsible for speech often show speech deficits treated by speech therapists. But some stroke patients can be diagnosed and treated in an emergency room within four hours of stroke onset, then some surgical options are also available depending on exactly how the stroke is happening, such as angioplasty to remove clots [57, 68].

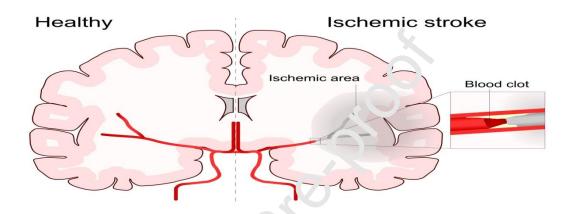


Fig. 9. Representation of the main cause of schemic stroke which happens when blood flow is interrupted by nutrient depletion, clot culminating in oxygen, and resulting in neuro inflammation disorders [57]. (Rep oduced from an open access source.)

Simplified description of the main event resulting in ischemic stroke and the most promising nanoparticle (NP)-based strategies applied in pre-clinical studies for ischemic stroke. Ischemic stroke happens when there is interruption of blood flow caused by a clot resulting in oxygen and nutrient depletion and hence in neurodisorder.

5. Novel approaches and biomaterials for the treatment of ND diseases

In this section, the details of latest approaches including tissue-engineering strategies, which are being applied for the treatment of ND diseases, are described.

5.1 Nanoparticles for brain drug delivery

NPs have gained significant importance in the release of drug molecules targeted to the brain from the last few decades. They have capability to pass the bar ice and promote drug delivery. Nanospheres, nanosuspensions, nano-emulsions, nanogels, nano-micelles and nano-liposomes, polymeric NPs, carbon nanotubes, nanofibers and anormicelles and lipid NPs (SLN), nanostructured lipid carriers (NLC), and lipid drug conjugates (LDC) are employed as nanosystems in CNS disorders [56] [69]. Fig. 10 represents the most preferable types of NPs for the biomedical applications. NPs offer clinical advantages for drug release, for instance less drug dose, least side effects, and facilitate d_{1} or c_{1} clossing across the BBB [70].

27

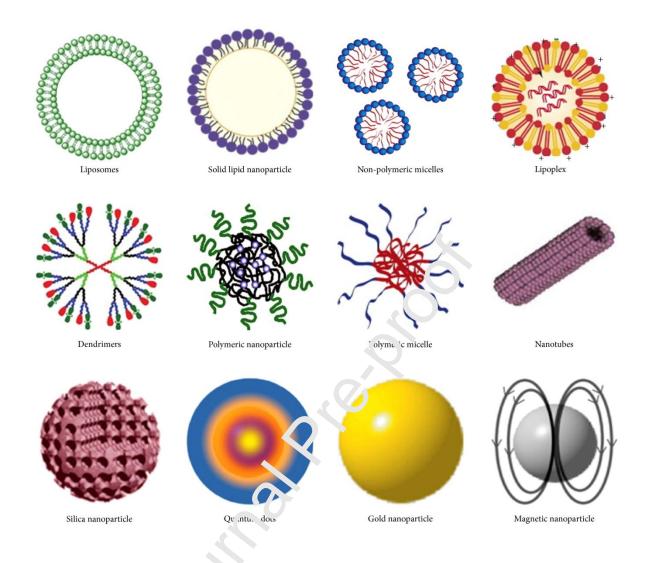


Fig. 10. Schematic representation of various types of NPs used commonly for biomedical applications [70]. (Republiched from an open access source).

NPs are typically by a size not greater than 100 nm and have noteworthy potential for the release of drugs over the blood-brain barrier.

The optimized NPs are applied for passing through BBB by exploiting receptor-mediated and adsorptive-mediated transcytosis pathways in the systematic delivery of NPs (Fig. 11a). The locally delivered NPs fully bypass BBB and are depended upon convection enhanced delivery for the clinically relevant volume of distribution (Fig. 11b) [71]. Although, the enhancement of

brain drug delivery with drug-loaded NPs is very good, it is still quantitatively hampered than free drugs. In the context of brain disorder delivery of NPs through BBB is the first challenge. The principle tool in laboratory research and clinical surgery is imaging that has been used for the therapeutic effects of nano drugs for personalized medicine and examining pathologies at the initial stage. Liposomes, for example, display great potential to compartmentalize and solubilize hydrophilic and hydrophobic drugs shown in Fig. 12 [8, 72-74]. Further detailed research is necessary for the deep understanding of mechanisms maintaining this different NPs-mediated transport of the drugs to the brain [61, 62].

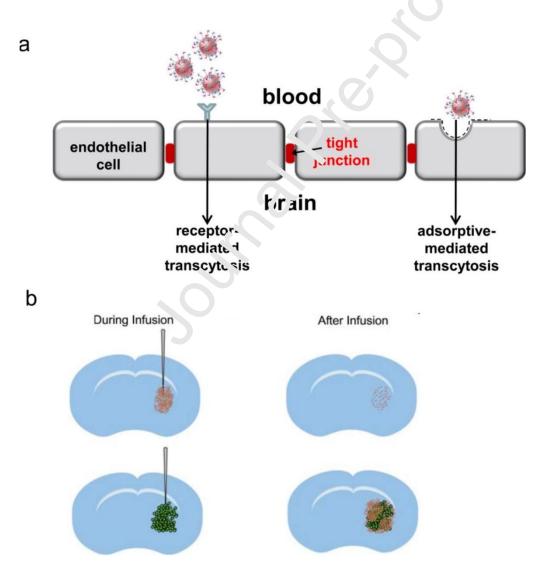


Fig. 11. (a) Systematic delivered NPs cross the BBB through either receptor-mediated transcytosis, , (b) NPs locally delivered bypass the BBB altogether and depend on CED to achieve enough distribution. With CED of free drugs (top row), there is enough initial distribution, but the drugs disappear quickly after the infusion stops.

[71]. (Reproduced with permission.)

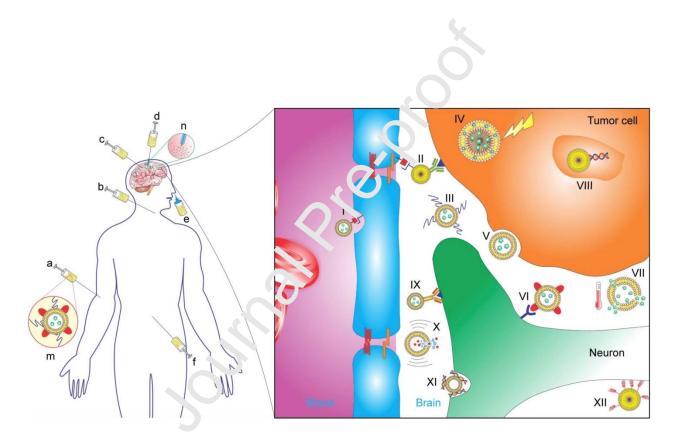


Fig 12. Liposomes release therapeutic molecules to CNS by (a) interacarotid, (b) interacranial, (c) ineranasal, (e) intraperitoneal, (f) interjection, (v) the ability to enhance blood circulation time is induced, (III) liposomes can pass BBB, (I) target the site of disease, (IX) or both, (II) surface modification of liposomes, (IX) RNA aptameter, (VI) or peptide, (XII) incorporation of cationic lipid, (VIII and XI) summary of therapeutic mechanisms, (IV) increased temperature, (VII) ultrasound [8]. (Republished from an open access source).

5.2 Neural tissue engineering

The central nervous system has been facing challenges in repairing the function of central nervous system due to its complications and restricted ability of regeneration [71]. Thereby providing new medical treatment alternatives to traditional transplantation methods is very important. With the advent of tissue engineering by using biomaterials novel strategies for neurological disorders can be considered. The result of CNS injury is activation of glial cell multiplying to generate an inhibitory glial scar. Currently, us re is not clinically proven physiotherapy for actively obtaining better repair of the hum an CNS. Current treatments used in PNS damage are nerve autografts and allografts but the assessment of clinical results of autograft application showed that development of engineered alternatives is essential. Therefore, neurobiologists and neurologist surgeons face a challenge in restoring of damaged PNS and CNS, this may cause problems such as neuronal formation, infectious diseases, immunological issues and lake of donor nerves [75, 7 C_1 .

5.2.1 Application of biomatericles in neural tissue engineering

The extracellular matrix performs numerous functions in the body such as structural and mechanical support to the tissues, holds the cells together facilitates migration of cells and communication within cells Polymeric biomaterials closely replicate the macromolecules that cells interact with in vivo. Successful nerve regeneration is obtained with the help of tissue engineered scaffolds having mechanical support of growing neuritis but remit biological signals to guide the axonal growth cone [77, 78]. Various biomaterials have been exploited for nervous tissue engineering, details are given below.

5.2.1.1 Natural polymeric materials for neural tissue engineering

Natural polymers being very much identical to the macromolecular substances have been applied in the nervous tissue engineering.

5.2.1.1.1 Collagen

Collagen being a suitable material for implantation is extensively studied for neural tissue engineering and only a few persons possessed humoral immunity against it. Rats, bovines and humans are the main sources of collagen. With the pH gan alon of collagen solution, gel formation is revived for the use as a potential scaffold. Scaffold quality may change at different concentrations of collagen. Recent studies have proven collagen as a suitable natural polymer for nerve tissue regeneration due to similar physical and mechanical properties to the normal nervous tissue [79]. At present collagen and the only clinically approved biopolymer in neural tissue engineering i.e. NeuraGen® proved to be highly effective in peripheral nerve reconstruction. Another promising confidence is practices [80].

5.2.1.1.2 Hyaluronic Ac. 1 (FA)

This is linear glycosaminoglycan having some sites for the adhesion of cells, and is an ideal candidate for CNS tissue regeneration due to the existence of HA in brain ECM. HA noticeably decreased glial scar formation after implantation which makes it an attractive option in fabrication of scaffolds for CNS regeneration. Combination of HA with ECM modification and release of antibodies (anti-NgRs) are highly biocompatible and hold great potential in neural tissue engineering [81].

5.2.1.1.3 Hyaluronic Acid Derivatives

The main drawback of HA is its poor adherence to the surface. Thus to promote its cell adhesion, the blend of HA with other materials are made. The blend of HA and collagen produced scaffolds with favorable mechanical properties for CNS regeneration. Hyularonane derivative produced by the esterification of hyaluronic acid with benzyl alcohol is the best choice for neural tissue engineering. This can be produced in the form of a variety of devices such as gauzes, nonwoven biocompatible fabric scaffold, tubes, and mer.or. nes [82, 83].

5.2.1.1.4 Chitin and Chitosan

Chitin and Chitosan are the most abundant polysaccharnes present in the nature. The studies have proven that chitin and chitosan both are suitable for nerve cell adhesion, neurite outgrowth, biodegradable nerve guides and nerve cell adhesion. Their nano fibrous tubes transplanted into a rat sciatic nerve gap resulted in proluctation of neural stem cells (NSCS) [84] [85]. The combination of extruded chitosan equivalence and alginate, resulted in a bioink seeded with front cortical human neural stem cells and after three weeks, signs of mature neurons were seen in immunohistochemical anelycis [36].

5.2.1.2 Synthetic polymonic materials

Production of biocompatible, biodegradable, conductive and resistant synthetic scaffolds with a variety of mechanical features and degradation rate are very attractive for neurite outgrowth. They exactly mimic the biological and mechanical characteristics of ECM and cells in vivo and commonly applied for peripheral and central nerve injuries, both in vivo and in vitro. Details of some extensively used synthetic polymers for the fabrication of scaffolds are given below.

5.2.1.2.1 Poly L-Lactic Acid (PLLA)

PLLA is a biocompatible synthetic biomaterial used in various biomedical applications. It is regarded as an ideal cell environment for nerve tissue engineering. Nanostructured PLLA scaffolds have resemblance with natural extracellular matrixes such as high porosity and variable pore size distribution, high porosity and high surface to volume ratio. Studies have demonstrated that PLLA scaffolds efficiently promote neurite outgrowth and NSC differentiation. By that means they are suitable in neural tissue engineering applications [07, 83].

5.2.1.2.2 Poly-D, L- Lactic–co-Glycolic Acid (PLGA)

PLGA approved by FDA has been largely deployed *et a biodegradable appropriate scaffold* in biomedical applications and nerve tissue engineering. These are more hydrophilic and have shown promising results in wound dressings, bone repair and tissue engineering. But due to lack of cell adhesion many techniques such at blending, covalent attachment of adhesive peptides, hydrolysis and aminolysis, have been acceloped to modify cell adhesiveness and PLGA scaffold [89]. The hydrolyzed PLGA into glycolic acid and lactic acid is suitable for sustained drug delivery and brain-specific arguing via conjugation with various surface ligands [90].

5.2.1.3 Combination of r oly glycolic acid (PGA) and poly lactic acid (PLA)

The poly lactic co-glycolic acid copolymer is the formulation of PLA and PGA. Hydrolysis of ester bonds if happen after implantation leads to degradation into by products. These byproducts can reduce pH around implantation location after absorption by host tissue. PLA degrades at slower rate due to less crystalline in nature. PLGA is mostly applied as a polymer scaffold in tissue engineering, as a material for DDS, orthopedic appliances, sutures, and other biomedical applications. The galantamine loaded poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA) NPs showed high

encapsulation efficiency and sustained drug release, maintaining galantamine pharmacological activity for intravenous delivery using nano-emulsion in AD [91, 92]

5.3 Drug delivery through implants

Despite substantial development in microsurgical techniques, patients with peripheral nerve injuries hardly get full recovery. An alternate option is applying of acellular nerve allografts (ANAs) and processed nerve allografts [49]. ANAs provide a 'cological substrate for nerve regeneration without the requirement of immune suppression [9:1.

5.3.1 Tissue engineering/drug delivery through implante.' scaffolds

Polymer scaffolds of implanted design are the pre fabricated forms of two or three dimensions with the potential of repairing tissues. This class of implanted polymers include thin films polymer membranes, conventional and projected 3D devices as shown in Fig. 13 [94]. Their combination with regenerative approaches result in treatment options for neurodegenerative disorders. The regenerative medicine approaches are critically required to overcome disease

progression and facilitate tissur regeneration [74, 95].

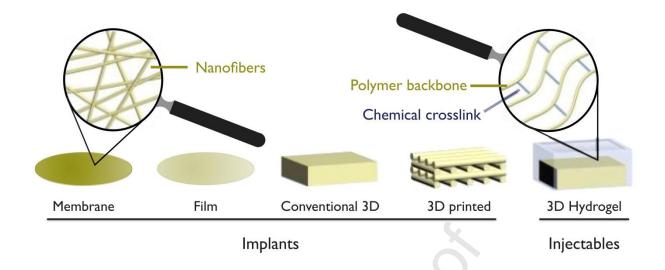


Fig.13. Illustration of different classes of polymer scalfolds [94]. (Reproduced with permission.)

Cell distribution, cell survival/viability, ar the st tissue integration are the major challenges faced to release the promise of cell transplantation in regenerative medicine. Therefore, some implanted polymer scaffolds and iniccable hydrogels by incorporating specific chemical have been developed to mimic the cell's ECM. Hyaluronan with anti-inflammatory properties is a naturally found polysacchance present in the ECM of the central nervous system. This can interrelate with various cells to raise cell adhesion and survival used [95]. The cell therapies and biomaterial scaffolds both together have made possible the physical support for transplanted cell engraftment and separate the implanted cell from the host tissue as explained in Fig 14 [96]. PEG-PLA NPs are used for the release of neuroprotective peptide NAP (NAPVSIPQ) into the brain through tail-vein. The transport of NAP is promoted with the help of transferrin-mimetic

peptide (B6: CGHKAKGPRK). Their tail-vein injections resulted in greater accumulation of the B6-PEG-PLA and lactoferrin-PEG-PLA NPs in the brain [95].

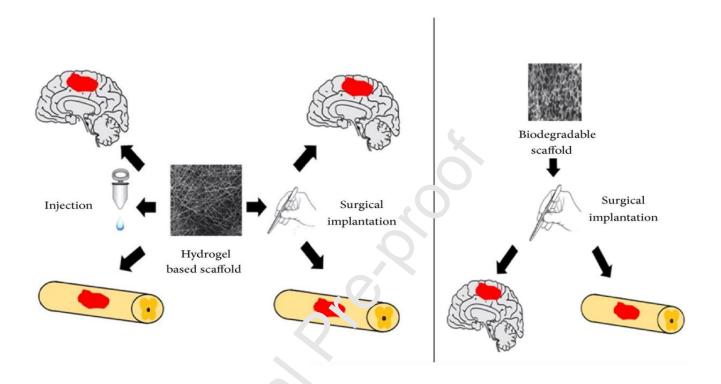


Fig. 14. Uses of biomaterials in regeneration of brain [96]. (Republished from an open access source.):

Application of biomaterial scaffolds in regeneration of central nervous system

5.3.2 Tissue engineering/drug delivery through injectable hydrogels

Injectable hydrogels resemble to the native CNS tissue in mechanical properties and offer a minimally invasive approach for drug release. Thereby they are the most investigated materials for regeneration in local drug delivery to the CNS. The biocompatible, biodegradable and injectable hydrogels composed of hyaluronan (HA) and methycellulose (MC) own rapid

gelation, and ability to maintain cell viability. Hence showed high potential as a scaffold for cell transplantation therapy [97].

5.3.2.1 Insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-I)

Insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-I) named as somatomedin C and sulfation factor is a pleiotropic protein that possesses the ability to act i n various tissues and organs. It is categorized as one of the principal trophic factors present in circulation, and its role in peripheral tissues is well studied. [98]. IGF-I growth factor has role in sustaining integrity and homeostasis of brain and central nervous system. The presence of IGF-I receptors insuce hervous system with addition of its neuroprotective effects on different types of brain cells make it a suitable candidate to treat ND disorders such as AD, ALS, PD, diverse neuroprotective greaties, and brain trauma. It also has tendency to block both necrotic and apoptotic cells death, by activating PI-3/Akt kinases pathways [99]. Tumor promoting capacity of this growth factor could be minimized by utilization low doses for longer duration of time [100].

6. Neural drug discovery: A new promising approach

The drug development for ND diseases is a high-risk therapeutic area where only 12% of all the drug candidates that are cubjected to clinical trials, got approval for human use. Most of these approved drugs (12%) can only decrease the disease symptoms to some extent but are not successful to prevent disease progression [101]. In the United States adverse drug reactions becoming the fourth leading cause of death which indicates that current drug testing practices are not sufficient to predict drug toxicity in clinical trials [102]. The pharmaceutical industries require improved model systems to better understand the complicated pathways involved in progression of different ND diseases and for predicting possible drug toxicity reactions to

decrease drug related adverse effects [103]. In this context, in vitro human disease model systems are interesting candidate to understand human disease pathology in a better way and to push boundaries for the development of patient specific drugs.

6.1 Induced Pluripotent Stem Cells (iPSCs) as a novel tool in drug discovery and development for neurodegenerative diseases

The IPSCs are generated from skin or blood cells, and have been reprogrammed back into an embryonic state and can be used for the development of any type of human cells required for therapeutic purposes [104]. IPSCs generation and their conversion into stable neural stem cell lines (NSC) with a wide developmental capacity have created tremendous interest in the context of creating disease-relevant in vitro human models for phenotypic and target based drug screening and disease and patient specific drug discovery [105].

Animal disease models have been used for a long time in the drug discovery and preclinical studies. In addition, to assess efficiency of drugs before clinical trials, animal disease models are also valuable tools to find the chiologies characterized by human diseases and their specific targets for drug discovery. A through, various transgenic animal models have been generated but no one has recapitulated the full spectrum of human disease pathology. Because, while using animal based disease models their existed species differences, which in most of the cases leads to misrepresentation of human diseases, especially in case of small animals when they were used in neuronal disease modeling [106, 107]. Moreover, in most cases the positive efficacy results obtained from animal disease models were unable to reproduce in humans [108]. There are some other limitations which are associated with the use of large animal models such as longer experimental period, higher cost, and ethical issues [109]. In this way, human IPSCs technology

has opened new doors for disease modeling and patient specific drug discovery. In the development of human disease model, patient-derived IPSCs and cells derived from them are considered more relevant candidates for neurological diseases studies [110, 111]. For IPSCs disease model preparation, as shown in Fig. 15, IPSCs can be obtained from somatic cell samples of patient, such as peripheral blood, keratinocytes, dermal fibroblast, urine and hair follicles of patients [106].

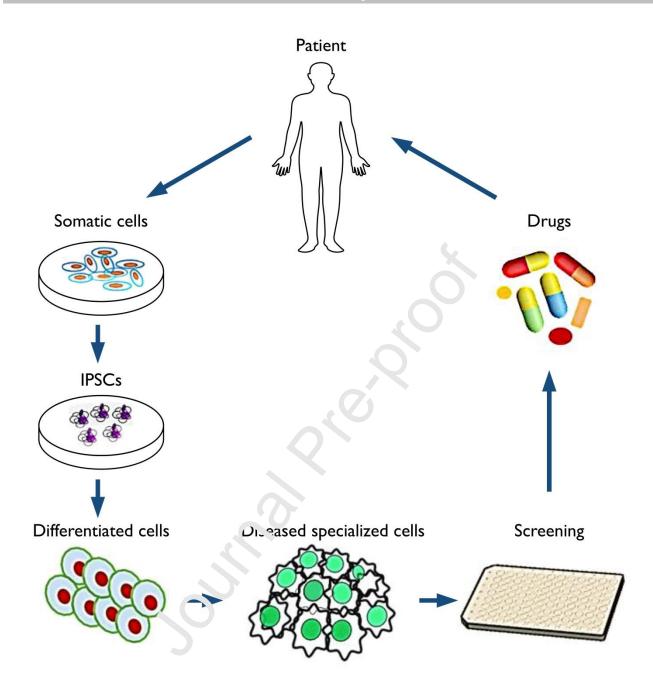


Fig.15. Schematic representation of IPSCs approach in drug discovery and development, leading to new therapies for neural diseases.

IPSCs cell lines can be generated using various gene delivery methods (non-viral reprogramming method, reprogramming by non-integrating viruses, mini circle vectors and single cassette

reprogramming vectors.) They can proliferate easily and are capable to differentiate into many cell types, such as (NSCs) (neuronal progenitor cells (NPSCs), different types of neurons, (such as motor & sensory, glutamatergic, serotonergic, cortical and dopaminergic etc) and 3D neuronal cell culture systems (in the form of mini brain organoids for neurological studies in more complex and coordinated environment). These IPSCs generated specific neuronal stem cells, different types of neurons and mini brains are used in assay development, drug screening, drug molecule development and finally new drugs after clinical trials are subjected to patients with ND diseases [104].

Although, IPSCs have been used for cell transplantation, to treat different neurological diseases still there are certain limitations which are associated with their use as a disease modeling system. These limitations include genetic and e_r igenetic variations that may occur in IPSCs due to prolong culturing [112]. Secondly, the environmental factors that play a key role in development and progression of neuro, sychiatric diseases such as anxiety and depression, are missing in case of in vitro disease modeling [113]. Despite of these limitations associated with IPSCs disease modeling, it is still an important and good alternative to animal disease models for disease and patient specific dring discovery [105].

The IPSCs technologies are continuously developing and researchers are trying to overcome the shortcomings associated with IPSCs derived disease models as a representation of human neuronal diseases. A thorough understanding of these complex diseases at molecular level using *in vitro* disease model and followed by the accurate and effective drug development would help in finding solution of various challenges currently present in treating ND diseases.

7. Future direction and conclusion

ND diseases are the most devastating challenge all over the world, and in the future increased number of ND patients are expected due to worsening of the life style and burden. Even though developed strategies effectively offer delivery of drugs into the brain of these patients. But none of these approaches provide satisfactory results in the cases of CNS diseases disorder. This remains a challenge due to the unique physiology of the brain, including tight regulation and limited distribution of substances along ECF flow routes. Thus, includiate development of novel approaches for ND diseases are highly demanded that an impede the disease progression. Nanoparticles (NPs) are regarded as an ideal drug delive v system into inaccessible organ like brain, which blocks therapeutic agents delivery. The use of nanotechnology in drug delivery has opened various opportunities for the scientists to develop better therapeutic agents delivery devices for CNS. An attractive challeng, will be the use of NBDDS for integrated therapy and diagnosis strategies (theragnostic) Therefore Innovative delivery systems should be look forwarded to promote brain direase diagnostics. In this regard, tissue engineering could be promising option for the replacement of fractions of tissues, or the whole tissue and have fulfilled the need for new organs and tissues replacement. TE involving the use of "hydrogels" especially injectable hydrogels as a scaffold material that structurally resemble the extracellular matrix of the human body, for local and controlled drug facilitate neural regeneration. Examples of such 3D gels are collagen and fibrin and sheets of cells being used with varying degrees of success with the advantage of releasing growth factors. The co-delivery of cells and biomolecules has revealed improved cell survival, cell function, and tissue regeneration. Until

now, key mechanisms underlying the success of co-delivery remain unclear, and the challenges

of large-scale cell production and cell fate must be investigated for clinical use.

8. Conflict of interest

The authors declare there is no conflict of interest.

9. References

[1] Abbott NJ, Pizzo ME, Preston JE, Janigro D, Thorne RG. The role of b ain barriers in fluid movement in the CNS: is there a 'glymphatic' system? Acta Neuropathologica 2018;135.?87-407.

[2] Misra A, Ganesh S, Shahiwala A, Shah SP. Drug delivery to the (entryl nervous system: a review. J Pharm Pharm Sci 2003;6:252-73.

[3] Sweeney MD, Sagare AP, Zlokovic BV. Blood–brain barrier breckdo vn in Alzheimer disease and other neurodegenerative disorders. Nature Reviews Neurology 2018; 1:133.

[4] Stockwell J, Abdi N, Lu X, Maheshwari O, Taghibiglou C. Novel central nervous system drug delivery systems. Chemical biology & drug design 2014;83:507-20.

[5] Oller-Salvia B, Sánchez-Navarro M, Giralt E, Teixidó M. Blood-brain barrier shuttle peptides: an emerging paradigm for brain delivery. Chemical Societ rike iews 2016;45:4690-707.

[6] Dong X. Current strategies for brain drug delivery Theranostics 2018;8:1481.

[7] Zhang T-T, Li W, Meng G, Wang P, Liao W. strategies for transporting nanoparticles across the bloodbrain barrier. Biomaterials science 2016;4:219-22

[8] Vieira DB, Gamarra LF. Getting into the brain: liposome-based strategies for effective drug delivery across the blood–brain barrier. International of nanomedicine 2016;11:5381.

[9] Pehlivan SB. Nanotechnology-based c'cu; delivery systems for targeting, imaging and diagnosis of neurodegenerative diseases. Pharma ceuical research 2013;30:2499-511.

[10] Abbott NJ, Patabendige AA, Colman DE, Yusof SR, Begley DJ. Structure and function of the bloodbrain barrier. Neurobiology of discase 2010;37:13-25.

[11] Tosi G, Costantino L, Ruoz, P. Forni F, Vandelli MA. Polymeric nanoparticles for the drug delivery to the central nervous system Exp. rt opinion on drug delivery 2008;5:155-74.

[12] Begley DJ. Delivery of the rapeutic agents to the central nervous system: the problems and the possibilities. Pharmacology 2. the rapeutics 2004;104:29-45.

[13] Kreuter J. Drug delivery to the central nervous system by polymeric nanoparticles: what do we know? Advanced drug delivery reviews 2014;71:2-14.

[14] Silva GA. Nanotechnology approaches for the regeneration and neuroprotection of the central nervous system. Surgical neurology 2005;63:301-6.

[15] Saeedi M, Eslamifar M, Khezri K, Dizaj SM. Applications of nanotechnology in drug delivery to the central nervous system. Biomedicine & Pharmacotherapy 2019;111:666-75.

[16] Teleanu D, Chircov C, Grumezescu A, Volceanov A, Teleanu R. Blood-Brain Delivery Methods Using Nanotechnology. Pharmaceutics 2018;10:269.

[17] Vashist A, Kaushik A, Vashist A, Bala J, Nikkhah-Moshaie R, Sagar V, et al. Nanogels as potential drug nanocarriers for CNS drug delivery. Drug discovery today 2018.

[18] Ran W, Xue X. Theranostical application of nanomedicine for treating central nervous system disorders. Science China Life Sciences 2018:1-8.

[19] Ballabh P, Braun A, Nedergaard M. The blood–brain barrier: an overview: structure, regulation, and clinical implications. Neurobiology of disease 2004;16:1-13.

[20] Daneman R, Prat A. The blood-brain barrier. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol 2015;7:a020412.

[21] Pardridge WM. Blood–brain barrier delivery. Drug discovery today 2007;12:54-61.

[22] Zlokovic BV. The blood-brain barrier in health and chronic neurodegenerative disorders. Neuron 2008;57:178-201.

[23] Strazielle N, Ghersi-Egea J-F. Potential pathways for CNS drug delivery across the blood-cerebrospinal fluid barrier. Current pharmaceutical design 2016;22:5463-76.

[24] Ueno M, Chiba Y, Murakami R, Matsumoto K, Kawauchi M, Fujihara R. Blood–brain barrier and blood–cerebrospinal fluid barrier in normal and pathological conditions. Brain tumor pathology 2016;33:89-96.

[25] Engelhardt B, Sorokin L. The blood-brain and the blood-cerebrospinal fluid barriers: function and dysfunction. Seminars in immunopathology: Springer; 2009. p. 497-511

[26] Solár P, Zamani A, Kubíčková L, Dubový P, Joukal M. Choroid plants and the blood-cerebrospinal fluid barrier in disease. Fluids and Barriers of the CNS 2020;17:1-29.

[27] Sonar SA, Lal G. Overview of Mechanisms Underlying Neuroimmune Diseases. Neuroimmune Diseases: Springer; 2019. p. 3-62.

[28] Ghersi-Egea J-F, Strazielle N, Catala M, Silva-Vargas V, Poetsch F, Engelhardt B. Molecular anatomy and functions of the choroidal blood-cerebrospinal field parrier in health and disease. Acta neuropathologica 2018;135:337-61.

[29] Rosenberg G. Cerebrospinal fluid: Formation, ab or pt on, markers, and relationship to blood-brain barrier. Primer on Cerebrovascular Diseases (Secon 1 Edition): Elsevier; 2017. p. 25-31.

[30] Dinner S, Borkowski J, Stump-Guthier C Isr, kawa H, Tenenbaum T, Schroten H, et al. A choroid plexus epithelial cell-based model of the hungen blood-cerebrospinal fluid barrier to study bacterial infection from the basolateral side. Journal of visualized experiments: JoVE 2016.

[31] Van Tellingen O, Yetkin-Arik B, De Gooije. M, Wesseling P, Wurdinger T, De Vries H. Overcoming the blood–brain tumor barrier for effective [lic o, _stoma treatment. Drug Resistance Updates 2015;19:1-12.

[32] Khaitan D, Reddy PL, Narayana 53, N...garaj NS. Recent advances in understanding of blood-brain tumor barrier (BTB) permeability nuchanisms that enable better detection and treatment of brain tumors. Drug Targeting and Stimul Sensitive Drug Delivery Systems: Elsevier; 2018. p. 673-88.

[33] Abdul Razzak R, Florence GJ, Gunn-Moore FJ. Approaches to CNS drug delivery with a focus on transporter-mediated transcylosis. International journal of molecular sciences 2019;20:3108.

[34] Sharma U, Badya' FN. Cupta S. Polymeric nanoparticles drug delivery to brain: A review. International Journal of Pharmacology 2015;2:60-9.

[35] Pandit R, Chen L, Cëlz J. The blood-brain barrier: physiology and strategies for drug delivery. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews 2019.

[36] Lu C-T, Zhao Y-Z, Wong HL, Cai J, Peng L, Tian X-Q. Current approaches to enhance CNS delivery of drugs across the brain barriers. International journal of nanomedicine 2014;9:2241.

[37] Stockwell J, Abdi N, Lu X, Maheshwari O, Taghibiglou C. Novel central nervous system drug delivery systems. Chem Biol Drug Des 2014;83:507-20.

[38] Sharma U, Badyal PN, Gupta S. Polymeric nanoparticles drug delivery to brain: A review. Int J Pharmacol 2015;2:60-9.

[39] Anoop V, Cutinho LI, Mourya P, Maxwell A, Thomas G, Rajput BS. Approaches for encephalic drug delivery using nanomaterials: The current status. Brain Research Bulletin 2020;155:184-90.

[40] Patel MM, Patel BM. Crossing the blood–brain barrier: recent advances in drug delivery to the brain. Cns Drugs 2017;31:109-33.

[41] Marianecci C, Rinaldi F, Hanieh PN, Di Marzio L, Paolino D, Carafa M. Drug delivery in overcoming the blood–brain barrier: role of nasal mucosal grafting. Drug design, development and therapy 2017;11:325.

[42] Pathan SA, Iqbal Z, Zaidi S, Talegaonkar S, Vohra D, Jain GK, et al. CNS drug delivery systems: novel approaches. Recent patents on drug delivery & formulation 2009;3:71-89.

[43] Bors LA, Erdő F. Overcoming the blood-brain barrier. challenges and tricks for CNS drug delivery. Scientia Pharmaceutica 2019;87:6.

[44] Joshi S, Ergin A, Wang M, Reif R, Zhang J, Bruce JN, et al. Inconsistent blood brain barrier disruption by intraarterial mannitol in rabbits: implications for chemotherapy. Journal of neuro-oncology 2011;104:11-9.

[45] Banks WA. From blood-brain barrier to blood-brain interface: new opportunities for CNS drug delivery. Nature reviews Drug discovery 2016;15:275.

[46] Alam MI, Beg S, Samad A, Baboota S, Kohli K, Ali J, et al. Strategy or effective brain drug delivery. European journal of pharmaceutical sciences 2010;40:385-403.

[47] Burgess A, Hynynen K. Noninvasive and targeted drug del. erv to the brain using focused ultrasound. ACS chemical neuroscience 2013;4:519-26.

[48] Choi JJ, Wang S, Brown TR, Small SA, Duff KE, Konofagou Fc. Noninvasive and transient blood-brain barrier opening in the hippocampus of Alzheimer's double transgenic mice using focused ultrasound. Ultrasonic imaging 2008;30:189-200.

[49] Scarpa M, Bellettato CM, Lampe C, Begley DJ. Neuropopathic lysosomal storage disorders: Approaches to treat the central nervous system. B st Practice & Research Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism 2015;29:159-71.

[50] Bellettato CM, Scarpa M. Possible strategies to cross the blood-brain barrier. Italian journal of pediatrics 2018;44:127-33.

[51] Pardridge WM. Blood-brain barrier drug targeting: the future of brain drug development. Molecular interventions 2003;3:90.

[52] Denora N, Trapani A, Laquintana V, Lc ρ, dota A, Trapani G. Recent advances in medicinal chemistry and pharmaceutical technology-strates for drug delivery to the brain. Current topics in medicinal chemistry 2009;9:182-96.

[53] Hanson LR, Frey WH. Intrana al delivery bypasses the blood-brain barrier to target therapeutic agents to the central nervous system and treat neurodegenerative disease. BMC neuroscience 2008;9:S5.

[54] Lochhead JJ, Thora A G. Ir tranasal delivery of biologics to the central nervous system. Advanced drug delivery reviews 2012, 54:614-28.

[55] Erdő F, Bors LA, Farkes D, Bajza Á, Gizurarson S. Evaluation of intranasal delivery route of drug administration for brain targeting. Brain research bulletin 2018;143:155-70.

[56] Roney C, Kulkarni P, Arora V, Antich P, Bonte F, Wu A, et al. Targeted nanoparticles for drug delivery through the blood–brain barrier for Alzheimer's disease. Journal of controlled release 2005;108:193-214.

[57] Saraiva C, Praça C, Ferreira R, Santos T, Ferreira L, Bernardino L. Nanoparticle-mediated brain drug delivery: overcoming blood–brain barrier to treat neurodegenerative diseases. Journal of Controlled Release 2016;235:34-47.

[58] Bhowmik A, Khan R, Ghosh MK. Blood brain barrier: a challenge for effectual therapy of brain tumors. BioMed research international 2015;2015.

[59] Rokstad AM, Bjerkvig R, Espevik T, Lund-Johansen M. Cell encapsulation therapy for malignant gliomas. Applications of Cell Immobilisation Biotechnology: Springer; 2005. p. 211-27.

[60] Visted T, Bjerkvig R, Enger PØ. Cell encapsulation technology as a therapeutic strategy for CNS malignancies. Neuro-Oncology 2001;3:201-10.

[61] Bhujbal SV, de Vos P, Niclou SP. Drug and cell encapsulation: alternative delivery options for the treatment of malignant brain tumors. Advanced drug delivery reviews 2014;67:142-53.

[62] Prusiner SB. Neurodegenerative diseases and prions. New England Journal of Medicine 2001;344:1516-26.

[63] Armstrong MJ, Miyasaki JM. Evidence-based guideline: pharmacologic treatment of chorea in Huntington disease: report of the guideline development subcommittee of the American Academy of Neurology. Neurology 2012;79:597-603.

[64] Durães F, Pinto M, Sousa E. Old drugs as new treatments for neurodegenerative diseases. Pharmaceuticals 2018;11:44.

[65] Kiaei M. New hopes and challenges for treatment of neurodegenerative disorders: Great opportunities for young neuroscientists. Basic and Clinical Neuroscience 2013;4:3.

[66] Soni S, Ruhela RK, Medhi B. Nanomedicine in central nervous system (CNS) disorders: a present and future prospective. Advanced pharmaceutical bulletin 2016;6:319.

[67] Lucas SM, Rothwell NJ, Gibson RM. The role of inflammation in CN3 injury and disease. British journal of pharmacology 2006;147:S232-S40.

[68] Amor S, Puentes F, Baker D, Van Der Valk P. Inflammation in neurodegenerative diseases. Immunology 2010;129:154-69.

[69] Lockman P, Mumper R, Khan M, Allen D. Nanopartic's technology for drug delivery across the blood-brain barrier. Drug development and industrial pharmacy 2002;28:1-13.

[70] Masserini M. Nanoparticles for Brain Drug Delivery. ISF.N B. chemistry 2013;2013.

[71] Patel T, Zhou J, Piepmeier JM, Saltzman WM. Polymeric nanoparticles for drug delivery to the central nervous system. Advanced drug delivery review. 2J12;64:701-5.

[72] Ran W, Xue X. Theranostical application of nonomedicine for treating central nervous system disorders. Science China Life Sciences 2018;61.7°2-9.

[73] Sahoo SK, Misra R, Parveen S. Nanoparticles: a boon to drug delivery, therapeutics, diagnostics and imaging. Nanomedicine in Cancer: Pan Stanuard; 2017. p. 73-124.

[74] Patel T, Zhou J, Piepmeier JM, Satzin in WM. Polymeric nanoparticles for drug delivery to the central nervous system. Adv Drug Delliv Pev 2012;64:701-5.

[75] Struzyna LA, Harris JP, Katiyar XS, Chen HI, Cullen DK. Restoring nervous system structure and function using tissue engineered living scaffolds. Neural regeneration research 2015;10:679.

[76] Tseng TC, Tao L, Hsieh FY, Wei C, Chiu IM, Hsu Sh. An injectable, self - healing hydrogel to repair the central nervous system. Advanced materials 2015;27:3518-24.

[77] Tian L, Prabhakaran MP, Jamakrishna S. Strategies for regeneration of components of nervous system: scaffolds, cells and Siomolecules. Regenerative biomaterials 2015;2:31-45.

[78] Cembran A, Bruggemun KF, Williams RJ, Parish CL, Nisbet DR. Biomimetic materials and their utility in modeling the 3-dimensional neural environment. Iscience 2020;23:100788.

[79] Chan EC, Kuo S-M, Kong AM, Morrison WA, Dusting GJ, Mitchell GM, et al. Three dimensional collagen scaffold promotes intrinsic vascularisation for tissue engineering applications. PloS one 2016;11:e0149799.

[80] Bozkurt A, Claeys KG, Schrading S, Rödler JV, Altinova H, Schulz JB, et al. Clinical and biometrical 12month follow-up in patients after reconstruction of the sural nerve biopsy defect by the collagen-based nerve guide Neuromaix. European journal of medical research 2017;22:34.

[81] Wang X, He J, Wang Y, Cui F-Z. Hyaluronic acid-based scaffold for central neural tissue engineering. Interface Focus 2012;2:278-91.

[82] Wang T-W, Spector M. Development of hyaluronic acid-based scaffolds for brain tissue engineering. Acta biomaterialia 2009;5:2371-84.

[83] Brännvall K, Bergman K, Wallenquist U, Svahn S, Bowden T, Hilborn J, et al. Enhanced neuronal differentiation in a three - dimensional collagen - hyaluronan matrix. Journal of neuroscience research 2007;85:2138-46.

[84] Croisier F, Jérôme C. Chitosan-based biomaterials for tissue engineering. European Polymer Journal 2013;49:780-92.

[85] Albanna MZ, Bou-Akl TH, Blowytsky O, Walters III HL, Matthew HW. Chitosan fibers with improved biological and mechanical properties for tissue engineering applications. Journal of the mechanical behavior of biomedical materials 2013;20:217-26.

[86] Gu Q, Tomaskovic - Crook E, Lozano R, Chen Y, Kapsa RM, Zhou Q, et al. Functional 3D neural mini - tissues from printed gel - based bioink and human neural stem cells. Advanced healthcare materials 2016;5:1429-38.

[87] Stratton S, Shelke NB, Hoshino K, Rudraiah S, Kumbar SG. Bioactive polymeric scaffolds for tissue engineering. Bioactive materials 2016;1:93-108.

[88] Sensharma P, Madhumathi G, Jayant RD, Jaiswal AK. Biomaterials and cells for neural tissue engineering: Current choices. Materials Science and Engineering: C 20_7-7:1302-15.

[89] Kerimoglu O, Alarçin E. Poly (lactic-co-glycolic acid) ba ed Irug delivery devices for tissue engineering and regenerative medicine. Ankem Derg 2012;26:E:-98.

[90] Bhatt PC, Verma A, Al-Abbasi FA, Anwar F, Kumar V, Panue Br. Development of surface-engineered PLGA nanoparticulate-delivery system of Tet1-conjugated trattokinase enzyme for inhibition of Aβ40 plaques in Alzheimer's disease. International journal of nar.omedicine 2017;12:8749.

[91] Wen MM, El-Salamouni NS, El-Refaie WM, Hazza 14, A Ali MM, Tosi G, et al. Nanotechnology-based drug delivery systems for Alzheimer's disease management: Technical, industrial, and clinical challenges. Journal of Controlled Release 2017;245:95-10⁻.

[92] Vissers C, Ming G-I, Song H. Nanopartic' technology and stem cell therapy team up against neurodegenerative disorders. Advanced divig delivery reviews 2019;148:239-51.

[93] Tam RY, Fuehrmann T, Mitrousis N, Shoichet MS. Regenerative therapies for central nervous system diseases: a biomaterials approach. Neuropsychopharmacology 2014;39:169-88.

[94] Calori IR, Braga G, de Jesus PdC, Si H, Tedesco AC. Polymer scaffolds as drug delivery systems. European Polymer Journal 2020:10:3621.

[95] Tam RY, Fuehrmann T, Mitreuse N, Shoichet MS. Regenerative therapies for central nervous system diseases: a biomaterials approach. neuropsychopharmacology 2014;39:169-88.

[96] Wang Y, Tan H, Hui X. היה naterial scaffolds in regenerative therapy of the central nervous system. BioMed research international 2018;2018.

[97] Caicco MJ, Zahir T, Mo he AJ, Ballios BG, Kihm AJ, Tator CH, et al. Characterization of hyaluronanmethylcellulose hydrogels for cell delivery to the injured spinal cord. Journal of biomedical materials research Part A 2013;101:1472-7.

[98] Doré S, Kar S, Quirion R. Rediscovering an old friend, IGF-I: potential use in the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases. Trends in neurosciences 1997;20:326-31.

[99] Bohula EA, Playford MP, Macaulay VM. Targeting the type 1 insulin-like growth factor receptor as anti-cancer treatment. Anti-cancer drugs 2003;14:669-82.

[100] de Pablo F, Enrique J. The developing CNS: a scenario for the action of proinsulin, insulin and insulin-like growth factors. Trends in neurosciences 1995;18:143-50.

[101] Paul SM, Mytelka DS, Dunwiddie CT, Persinger CC, Munos BH, Lindborg SR, et al. How to improve R&D productivity: the pharmaceutical industry's grand challenge. Nature reviews Drug discovery 2010;9:203.

[102] Kola I, Landis J. Can the pharmaceutical industry reduce attrition rates? Nature reviews Drug discovery 2004;3:711.

[103] Gorba T, Conti L. Neural stem cells as tools for drug discovery: novel platforms and approaches. Expert opinion on drug discovery 2013;8:1083-94.

[104] Farkhondeh A, Li R, Gorshkov K, Chen KG, Might M, Rodems S, et al. Induced pluripotent stem cells for neural drug discovery. Drug discovery today 2019.

[105] Grskovic M, Javaherian A, Strulovici B, Daley GQ. Induced pluripotent stem cells—opportunities for disease modelling and drug discovery. Nature reviews Drug discovery 2011;10:915.

[106] Shi Y, Inoue H, Wu JC, Yamanaka S. Induced pluripotent stem cell technology: a decade of progress. Nature reviews Drug discovery 2017;16:115.

[107] Onos KD, Rizzo SJS, Howell GR, Sasner M. Toward more predictive genetic mouse models of Alzheimer's disease. Brain research bulletin 2016;122:1-11.

[108] Xu M, Motabar O, Ferrer M, Marugan JJ, Zheng W, Ottinger EA. Disease models for the development of therapies for lysosomal storage diseases. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences 2016;1371:15-29.

[109] Eaton S, Wishart T. Bridging the gap: large animal model in neurodegenerative research. Mammalian Genome 2017;28:324-37.

[110] Consortium Hi. Induced pluripotent stem cells from patient, with Huntington's disease show CAG-repeat-expansion-associated phenotypes. Cell stem cell 2012;1:20178.

[111] Kondo T, Asai M, Tsukita K, Kutoku Y, Ohsawa Y, Surada C, et al. Modeling Alzheimer's disease with iPSCs reveals stress phenotypes associated with intracellular A β and differential drug responsiveness. Cell stem cell 2013;12:487-96.

[112] Raab S, Klingenstein M, Liebau S, Linta L. A comparative view on human somatic cell sources for iPSC generation. Stem cells international 2014;2014

[113] Soliman M, Aboharb F, Zeltner N, Studre L Plutipotent stem cells in neuropsychiatric disorders. Molecular psychiatry 2017;22:1241.