

1 **CHOLESTEROL NOSE-TO-BRAIN DELIVERY AS A POSSIBLE** 2 **THERAPEUTIC STRATEGY IN HUNTINGTON'S DISEASE**

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7
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9 *MS analysis, liposomes*

10 11 **ABSTRACT**

12 The current pharmacological treatment of Huntington's disease (HD) is palliative, and therapies to restore
13 functions in patients are needed. One of the affected pathways in HD regards brain cholesterol (Chol)
14 synthesis, which is essential for optimal synaptic transmission. Recently, it was reported that delivery of
15 exogenous Chol to the brain with brain-permeable nanoparticles protected from cognitive decline and
16 rescued synaptic communication in a HD mouse model, indicating Chol as a good therapeutic candidate. We
17 examined whether nose-to-brain delivery, already used in human therapy, could be an alternative, non-
18 invasive strategy to replenish newly synthesized Chol in HD neurons.

19 We treated wild-type (WT) mice with a single intranasal (IN) dose of liposomes loaded with deuterium-
20 labeled Chol (D6-Chol, to distinguish and quantify the exogenous cholesterol from the native one) (200 µg
21 D6-Chol/dose). After different intervals, D6-Chol levels were determined by LC-MS in plasma, striatum,
22 cortex and cerebellum, reaching a steady-state concentration between 24 and 72 hours (0.400 ng/mg). A
23 subsequent acute study confirmed the kinetic profiles of D6-Chol in all tissues analysed, indicating a
24 correspondence between the dose (two doses of 200 µg D6-Chol/dose) and calculated brain area
25 concentrations (0.660 ng/mg).

26 Finally, WT mice were given repeated IN doses and the average D6-Chol levels after 24 hours was about 1.5
27 ng/mg in all brain areas. Our data indicate the effectiveness of IN Chol-loaded liposomes to deliver Chol in
28 different brain regions; this seems worth investigating from a therapeutic point of view in HD.

30 1. INTRODUCTION

31 The brain is the most cholesterol-rich organ: more than 70% of cholesterol (Chol) is located in myelin
32 sheaths, and the remainder is a structural and functional component of glial and neuronal membranes. Chol is
33 located in specific membrane microdomains, known as lipid rafts, that initiate, propagate and maintain signal
34 transduction [1]. In the adult brain, Chol levels are maintained by local *de novo* synthesis since the blood-
35 brain barrier (BBB) prevents its uptake from the circulation [2]. Synaptic transmission is sensitive to newly
36 synthesised Chol, so its depletion affects vesicle formation, recycling and fusion, as well as the activity of
37 neurotransmitter receptors [3–5].

38 Huntington's disease (HD) is a dominantly inherited neurodegenerative disorder with a worldwide incidence
39 of 4-10 cases per 100,000 persons. It is caused by an abnormal expansion of cytosine-adenosine-guanine
40 (CAG) repeats in the first exon of IT15 gene, which encodes a long polyQ tract (Q>40) in huntingtin (HTT)
41 protein (*The Huntington's Disease Collaborative Research Group*, 1993). As a consequence, neurons
42 become dysfunctional and eventually die, leading to choreiform movements, cognitive decline and
43 psychiatric disturbance [6–8]. Different molecular and cellular dysfunctions have been reported in HD cells
44 and mouse models, and in human post-mortem material [9,10], including alterations of brain Chol
45 biosynthesis [11,12]. Chol precursors such as lanosterol, lathosterol and desmosterol and the enzymatic
46 activity of 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A reductase (HMGCR) are down-regulated in the brain of
47 several HD animal models already in the pre-symptomatic stage of the disease, leading to a significantly
48 lower Chol content at later times [13–15]. Exogenous Chol is able to rescue the HD phenotype *in vitro*,
49 highlighting a relationship between neurite outgrowth and exogenous Chol [16].

50 Targeting brain with drugs or molecules that do not pass the BBB (such as Chol) has always been
51 challenging and non-invasive strategies are attractive. Most treatments for central nervous system (CNS)
52 disorders employ peripheral drug administration, which is limited by the difficulty of drug access to the CNS
53 from the blood. Moreover, drugs administered using these routes incur the first-pass metabolism and
54 systemic clearance, that reduce their bioavailability [17].

55 One alternative strategy for targeting CNS is nose-to-brain delivery, that can overcome the BBB. The
56 neuroepithelium of the olfactory region is the only part of the body where the peripheral environment is in
57 direct contact with the brain [18]. Olfactory and trigeminal nerve pathways mostly mediate drug transport

58 from the nasal cavity to the CNS. Through the olfactory nerve pathway, a drug crosses the cribriform plate
59 and reaches olfactory bulbs and the deeper part of the brain. Meanwhile, through the trigeminal nerve
60 pathway, the drug is transported mostly to the pons and cerebrum, and to a lesser extent to the frontal and
61 olfactory brain [19]. Pathways involving vasculature, cerebrospinal fluid and lymphatic system all enrich the
62 transport of molecules from the nasal cavity to the CNS [20].

63 Thus the aim of this work was to explore the potential of intranasal (IN) administration of D6-Chol-loaded
64 liposomes as a non-invasive strategy for Chol delivery into the HD brain. We report quantifiable levels of
65 D6-Chol after acute and repeated IN treatments. We also found that D6-Chol distributes evenly and
66 accumulates in the brain of WT and HD mice, paving the way for further preclinical investigations. In
67 addition, to quantify the brain distribution of exogenous Chol, we developed an LC-MS-based method,
68 validated according to the European Medicine Agency (EMA) guidelines [21] in plasma and brain.

69 Our next goal will be to establish whether IN Chol offers a therapeutic option in HD models and in patients.

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86 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

87 **2.1. Standard and chemicals**

88 D6-Cholesterol (D6-Chol), phosphatidylcholine (PC) and beta-sitosterol were obtained from Sigma Aldrich
89 (St Louis, MO, USA). Acetonitrile and formic acid of LC-MS grade were obtained from Carlo Erba, Milan,
90 Italy. Deionized water of LC-MS grade was obtained from Milli-Ro 60 Water System, Millipore, Milford,
91 MA, USA. D6-Chol and beta-sitosterol, used as the internal standard (IS), were prepared as stock solutions
92 in methanol at the concentration of 1 mg/mL. The stock solution of D6-Chol was diluted in MeOH to obtain
93 a series of seven working solutions for the construction of calibration curves, validation and sample analysis.
94 The IS stock solution was diluted to 5 µg/mL in the same organic solvent. All solutions were stored at -20°C
95 until use.

96 **2.2. Liposomes**

97 D6-Chol was entrapped into oligolamellar, 280-300 nm-wide liposomes, following the dehydration-
98 rehydration method [22,23]. Briefly, D6-Chol and PC were dissolved in chloroform at 1:1 molar ratio. After
99 solvent evaporation, the lipid film was rehydrated and ultracentrifuged at 100,000 g for 35 min at 4°C to
100 separate residual lipids. Liposomes were resuspended with 10 mM phosphate buffered saline, pH 7.4. The
101 concentration of D6-Chol entrapped in liposomes was determined by HPLC (System Gold instrument –
102 Beckman) equipped with an Eco Cart-LiChrospher® 60 RP-select B column (125 × 3 mm, particle size 5
103 µm, pore size 60 Å, Merck) at 214 nm. Separation was done with isocratic elution at 100%
104 methanol:isopropanol:NH₄OH (70%:30%, 5mM) for 12 min. The flow rate was 0.6 mL/min. Entrapment
105 efficacy was ±90%, and liposomes were diluted to a final D6-Chol concentration of 5.6 mg/mL.

106 **2.3. Animal model and treatment schedules**

107 Experiments were carried out on the R6/2 colony generated to over-express the first exon of the human
108 mutant huntingtin gene with approximately 144-150 CAG repeats. The R6/2 line was genotyped by
109 polymerase chain reaction (PCR) on DNA from tail samples at weaning [24] .

110 The IRFMN adheres to the principles set out in the following laws, regulations, and policies governing the
111 care and use of laboratory animals: Italian Governing Law (D.lgs 26/2014; Authorisation n.19/2008-A issued
112 March 6, 2008 by Ministry of Health); Mario Negri Institutional Regulations and Policies providing internal
113 authorisation for persons conducting animal experiments (Quality Management System Certificate – UNI

114 EN ISO 9001:2015 – Reg. No. 6121); the NIH Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (2011
115 edition) and EU directives and guidelines (EEC Council Directive 2010/63/UE).

116 Liposomes were administered to mice by applying 6 μ L of 5.6 mg/mL solution three times to the inner
117 surface of each nostril for a total of 36 μ L, corresponding to a final dose of 200 μ g of D6-chol/mouse [25].
118 For the first acute studies, 8-week-old wild-type (WT) mice were euthanised at 1, 3, 6, 24, 48 and 72 hours
119 after a single IN dose (3 mice/time point). For the second acute study, 8-week-old WT and R6/2 mice were
120 treated with two doses of 200 μ g/mouse of D6-chol, 5 hours apart (5 mice/time point/genotype). Mice were
121 sacrificed at 3, 24, 48 and 72 hours from the second IN treatment. For repeated treatments, 8-week-old WT
122 mice were received 9 or 10 IN doses, once every two days (4 mice/time point). One group of animals was
123 euthanised two days after the ninth IN treatment, while the others received the tenth IN dose and were
124 euthanised 24 and 48 hours later. Blood samples were collected with the anticoagulant K₃EDTA, and plasma
125 samples were obtained by centrifugation at 2000 g for 15 minutes. Brains were immediately removed and
126 striatum, cortex and cerebellum were separately collected. All samples were stored at -80°C until LC-MS
127 analysis.

128 **2.4.LC-MS**

129 D6-Chol levels were determined using a 1200 Series HPLC system (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA,
130 USA) interfaced to an API 5500 triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Sciex, Thornhill, Ontario, Canada).
131 The mass spectrometer was equipped with an atmospheric pressure chemical ionization (APCI) source
132 operating in positive ion and selected reaction monitoring (SRM) mode to measure the product ions obtained
133 in a collision cell from the protonated pseudo-molecular ions of the analytes. The transitions identified
134 during the optimization of the method were m/z 375.3-152.1 (quantification transition) and m/z 375.3-167.1
135 (qualification transition) for D6-Chol; m/z 397.3-147.1 (quantification transition) and m/z 397.3-161.1
136 (qualification transition) for beta-sitosterol as an internal standard. The ion source settings were as follows:
137 nebulized current (NC), 3; curtain gas (CUR), 30; collision gas (CAD), 7; source temperature, 400°C; ion
138 source gas 1 (GS1) 60 and gas 2 (GS2) 30. D6-Chol and beta-sitosterol were separated on a Gemini C18
139 column (50 \times 2 mm; 5 μ m particle size), using an isocratic gradient in methanol at 35°C.

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142 **2.4.1. Sample Preparation**

143 ***Plasma***

144 50 µL of plasma were diluted with 200 µL of ethanol containing 200 ng of IS. Samples were vortexed and
145 centrifuged at 13200 rpm for 15 minutes; 4 µL of the supernatants were injected directly into the HPLC-
146 SRM system.

147 ***Striatum, cortex and cerebellum***

148 40 mg of each area were homogenized in 1 mL of ethanol/water 4:1 (v/v), containing 500 ng of IS.
149 Homogenates were centrifuged for 15 min at 13200 rpm at 4°C, and the supernatants were injected into the
150 HPLC-SRM apparatus.

151 **2.4.2. Validation**

152 The HPLC-SRM method was validated in mouse plasma and brain tissue following EMA guidelines [21]
153 (EMA). The accuracy was determined by expressing the calculated concentration as a percentage of the
154 nominal concentration. Accuracy had to be within 15% of the nominal value for each concentration ($\pm 20\%$
155 of the nominal value for the lower limit of quantification (LLOQ) as an exception); the precision, expressed
156 by the CV (%), had not to exceed 15% for all concentrations, except 20% for the LLOQ. A freshly prepared
157 calibration curve was analysed during each validation run.

158 ***Calibration curves***

159 All calibration curves obtained during the validation included one zero point and six calibration points at the
160 concentrations of 0.0500, 0.100, 0.250, 0.500, 1.00, 2.50 and 5.00 µg/mL and 0.030, 0.100, 0.300, 1.00, 3.00
161 and 10.0 ng/mg of D6-Chol for respectively plasma and brain samples. The IS concentration was 0.100
162 µg/mL in plasma and 0.010 ng/mg in brain homogenates. Responses, expressed as the peak area ratio of the
163 analyte to IS, were plotted against the corresponding D6-Chol concentration, and the data were fitted with a
164 linear regression curve. The quality of calibration curves was evaluated from the determination coefficient
165 (r^2), and by comparing the back-calculated concentrations of calibrators with the corresponding nominal
166 values.

167 ***Carry-over***

168 The carry-over of the analytical instrumentation was investigated by injecting D6-Chol at the highest
169 concentration (upper limit of quantitation, ULOQ), followed by repeated injections of blank samples. The

170 carry-over was considered absent if the D6-Chol signal measured in the blank samples immediately after the
171 ULOQ was <20% of the LLOQ signal.

172 ***Recovery***

173 Recovery was determined by comparing the peak area of D6-Chol spiked to plasma and brain samples before
174 extraction (C) and the peak area of the analyte spiked to the same samples after extraction (A). The same
175 method was used to calculate the recovery of IS, as follows $\% \text{ Rec} = C/A \times 100$

176 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

177 Data were analyzed by ANOVA multiple comparisons and Tukey's tests, using GraphPad v7 (GraphPad
178 Software Inc.). The limit of statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

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198 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

199 **3.1. LC-MS method development and validation**

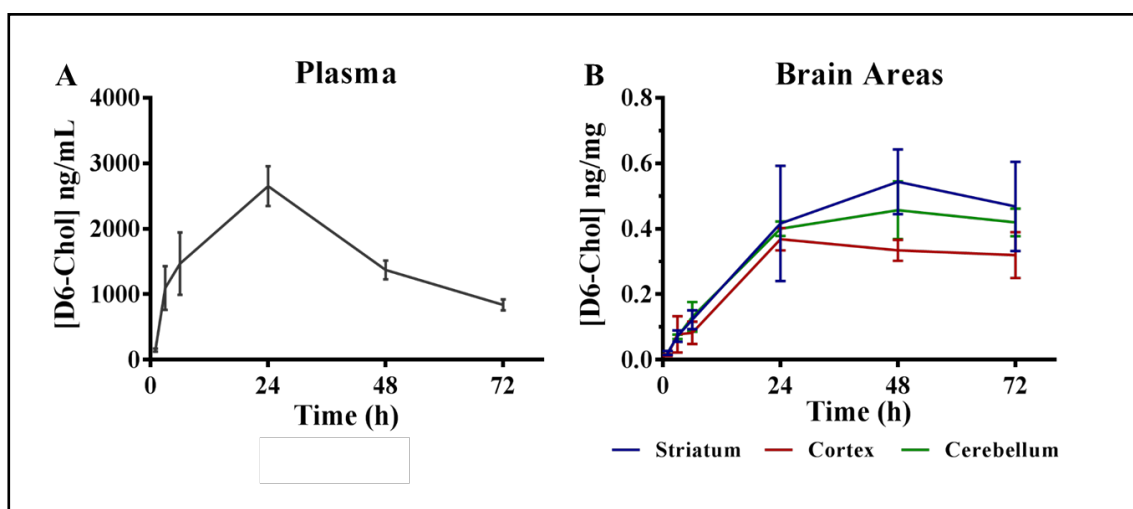
200 Validation data are reported in detail in the Supplementary Results.

201 **3.2. Acute treatments of 8-week-old WT and HD mice**

202 To assess the efficacy of IN delivery of Chol into the brain, we initially gave 8-week-old WT mice an acute
203 treatment in with D6-Chol-loaded liposomes (200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mouse}$); they were euthanised after 1, 3, 6, 24, 48 and
204 72 hours (3 animals/time-point). D6-Chol concentrations were measured in plasma and three brain areas
205 (Figure 1).

206 Plasma concentrations reached a maximum of 2417 ng/mL on average ($N=3$, ± 313 ng/mL) after 24 hours,
207 declining to 839 ng/mL ($N=3$, ± 76 ng/mL) at 72 hours. In the brain areas, D6-Chol levels rose in the first 24
208 hours but, unlike in plasma, no decline was observed thereafter, and they remained stable until 72 hours.
209 These data suggest slow elimination rate the brain.

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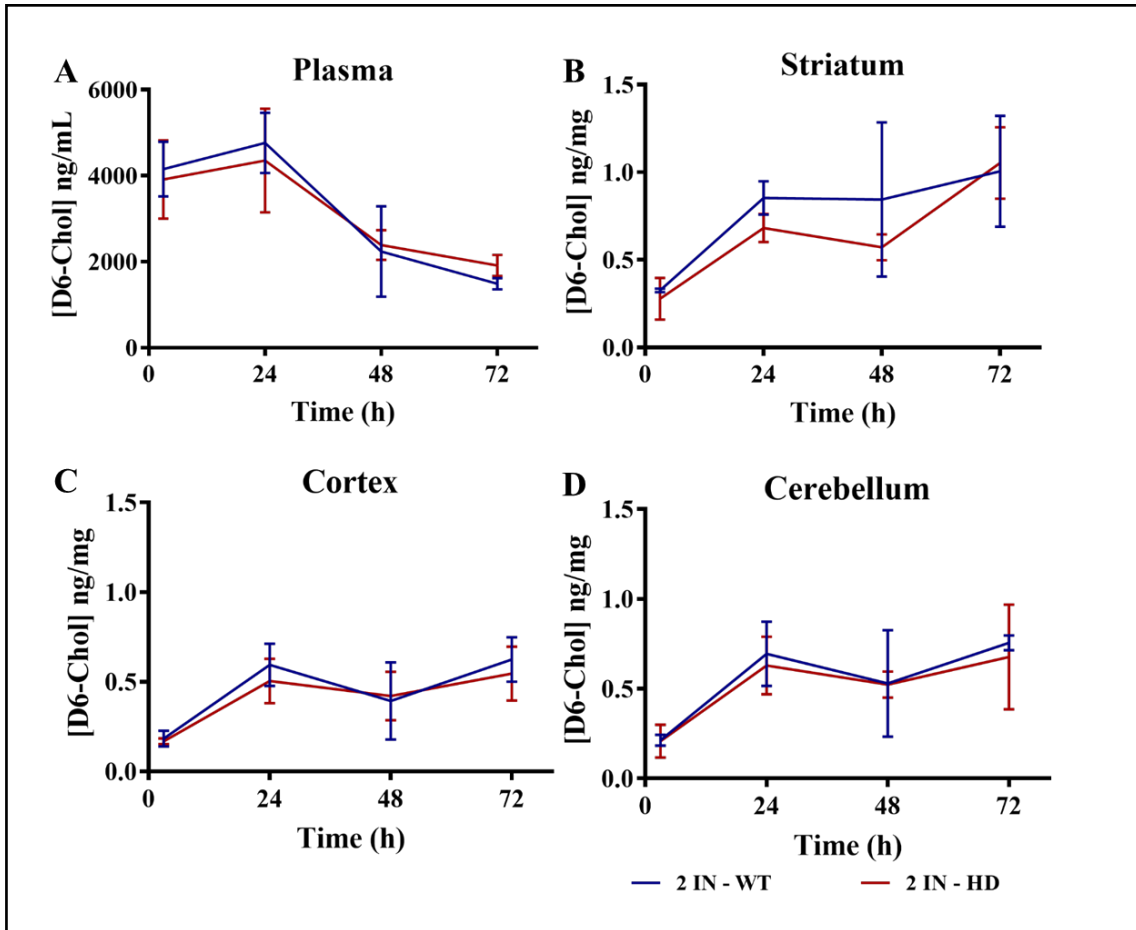


211

212 **Figure 1.** D6-Chol levels in plasma (gray) (A), striatum (blue), cortex (red) and cerebellum (green) (B) of WT mice
213 after single intranasal doses (connecting lines with error bars, average \pm SD; 3/time point).

214 We ran a second acute study to confirm the passage of the BBB and assess the relationship between
215 administered dose and calculated concentrations in plasma and different brain areas in WT and HD mice.
216 Eight-week-old WT and HD mice were treated with two IN doses of 200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mouse}$ of D6-chol, 5 hours apart
217 (5 mice/time point/genotype). Mice were euthanised at 3, 24, 48 and 72 hours after the second dose. Plasma

218 concentrations reached a maximum of 4350 ng/mL (N=5, \pm 1207 ng/mL) and 4760 ng/mL on average (N=5,
 219 \pm 703 ng/mL) after 24 hours in HD and WT mice, respectively. Plasma levels declined with a similar kinetic
 220 profile in HD and WT mice to 1698 ng/mL (N=7, \pm 295 ng/mL) after 72 hours. These data indicate there
 221 were no significant differences between WT and HD mice, since D6-Chol had the same time-course profile
 222 (Figure 2).



223
 224 **Figure 2.** D6-Chol levels in plasma (A), striatum (B), cortex (C) and cerebellum (D) of WT and HD mice after double
 225 intranasal treatment (connecting lines with error bars, average \pm SD; N=5 mice/time point/genotype; blue, WT; red,
 226 HD). * p <0.05 two-way ANOVA multiple comparisons, Tukey's test.

227 Finally, we compared D6-Chol levels at 24 hours for single and double IN treatments in plasma and all brain
 228 areas of WT mice. D6-Chol levels raise at least 61% after two IN treatments, suggesting a linear relationship
 229 with the dose in plasma and brain areas. Interestingly, D6-Chol levels in the striatum increased 105% after
 230 two repeated doses, confirming the effectiveness of nose-to-brain delivery to the target tissue of HD (Table
 231 1).

232 **Table 1.** D6-Chol levels 24 hours after the last IN dose in WT mice treated with 1 IN or 2 IN.

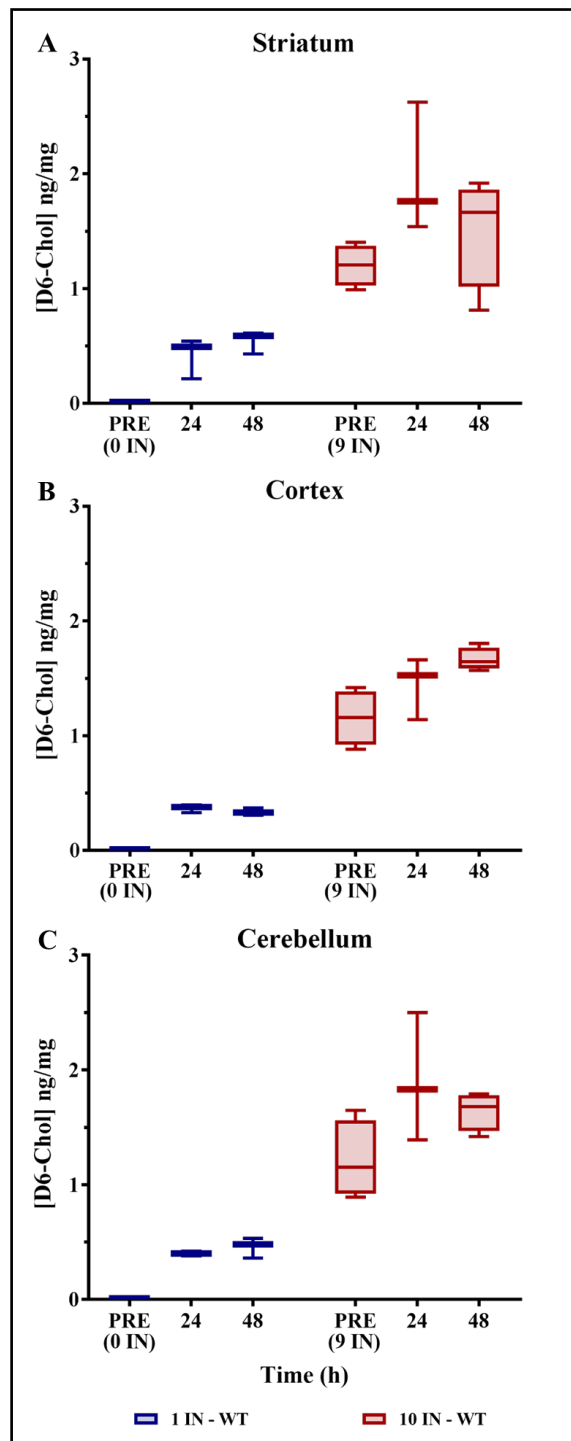
D6-Chol levels at 24 hours after last administration			
	1 IN – WT (200 µg/dose)	2 IN - WT (two doses, 200 µg/dose)	% of increase 2 IN vs 1 IN
<i>Plasma (ng/mL)</i>	2650 (± 305)	4760 (± 703)	79.6
<i>Striatum (ng/mg)</i>	0.416 (± 0.176)	0.853 (± 0.095)	105.0
<i>Cortex (ng/mg)</i>	0.368 (± 0.034)	0.594 (± 0.118)	61.4
<i>Cerebellum (ng/mg)</i>	0.400 (± 0.022)	0.694 (± 0.179)	73.5

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234 **3.3. Repeated treatment in WT mice**

235 To assess the accumulation of D6-Chol in the brain after multiple IN doses, we repeated the treatments of
 236 WT mice at 8 weeks of age with D6-Chol-loaded liposomes (200 µg/dose). The levels of D6-Chol in the
 237 striatum, cortex and cerebellum were remarked higher after a single dose, indicating accumulation in the
 238 brain (Figure 3). With this schedule, D6-Chol reached at least 1.5 ng/mg tissue in all the brain areas.
 239 Statistical analysis showed no significant differences in D6-Chol levels in the brain areas after repeated
 240 dosing, confirming a homogeneous distribution of D6-Chol in the whole brain, suggesting the involvement
 241 of both olfactory and trigeminal pathways.

242 The connections between the nasal cavity and the CNS through olfactory and trigeminal neurons have
 243 already been described [18,20,26]. From the nasal olfactory epithelium drugs are taken up into neuronal
 244 cells and transported to the olfactory bulb and the cerebrospinal fluid through the olfactory nerve pathways.
 245 The trigeminal nerve innervates both the olfactory and respiratory epithelium and enters the CNS in the pons,
 246 leading the distribution of drugs in the rostral brain [18,27]. Together, these two pathways enable the
 247 distribution of drugs to all brain areas. Our observations confirm the efficacy of nose-to-brain Chol delivery
 248 as a potential non-invasive approach to increase Chol availability in the HD brain.



249

250 **Figure 3.** D6-Chol levels in striatum (A), cortex (B) and cerebellum (C) in WT mice after acute or repeated intranasal
 251 treatments. WT mice were treated every two days for 19 days (10 IN). Two days after the ninth dose, four mice/genotype
 252 were euthanised before the tenth treatment (PRE 9 IN). The remaining mice received the tenth IN and were euthanised
 253 at 24 and 48 hours after the treatment. * $p < 0.05$ two-way ANOVA multiple comparisons, Tukey's test.

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255 4. CONCLUSIONS

256 In order to develop a new therapeutic strategy for HD based on Chol delivery to the brain, we set up an
257 experimental approach to investigate the efficacy of exogenous IN Chol administration. We based our
258 assumption on evidence that Chol biosynthesis is reduced in HD mouse brains [11,13–15] and that
259 exogenous Chol can rescue the HD phenotypes [28; unpublished data from our group]. Importantly, nose-to-
260 brain delivery is safe and non-invasive and avoids the hepatic first-pass metabolism. The nasal route for
261 delivery of drugs which otherwise could not cross the BBB could be very convenient translation to clinical
262 practice, and there are already examples in the literature [29–32].

263 In the present study, we also developed and validated according to EMA guidelines, a new LC-MS method
264 to quantify the levels of exogenous D6-Chol in brain areas and plasma after single or repeated IN
265 administrations. Exogenous administered D6-Chol reached measurable levels in the brain, and persisted at
266 least 72 hours thanks to its slow elimination rate (Figure 1). The two-dose treatment of HD and WT mice did
267 not present significant differences in D6-Chol distribution and accumulation between the two experimental
268 groups.

269 The final comparison of the two acute treatments showed increased D6-Chol levels in plasma and all brain
270 areas, from 61% in cortex up to 105% in striatum. These results confirmed the effectiveness of nose-to-brain
271 delivery. We saw the largest increase of D6-Chol levels in striatum, the target tissue of HD (Table 1).
272 Finally, D6-Chol levels distributed and accumulated without differences after ten IN doses in striatum,
273 cortex and cerebellum (Figure 3), indicating the involvement of both olfactory and trigeminal pathways.

274 The experimental design, as defined in this initial approach, provides a more detailed view of the
275 effectiveness of nose-to-brain delivery of Chol. It can also help to lay the basis for further preclinical studies
276 for evaluating the therapeutic potential of this approach to supply newly synthesized Chol to neurons
277 affected in HD.

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283 **DECLARATION OF INTERESTS**

284 The authors declare no competing interest.

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