



ENGINEERING NANOPARTICLES FOR EFFICIENT CNS DRUG DELIVERY ACROSS THE BLOOD BRAIN BARRIER

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ABSTRACT :

The blood-brain barrier (BBB) is a highly valuable barrier in the protection of the central nervous system but, at the same time, a challenge to deliver therapeutic agents. It is important to overcome this barrier for developing efficacious treatments for neurological diseases such as Alzheimer's, Parkinson's, glioblastoma, and multiple sclerosis. Nanoparticle-based drug delivery has surfaced as a viable approach owing to its adjustable physicochemical characteristics, which enable targeted delivery, enhanced stability of drugs, and regulated release in the CNS. This article discusses numerous strategies for enhancing BBB permeation through nanoparticle systems, such as receptor-mediated transcytosis, adsorptive-mediated transcytosis, cell-penetrating peptides, biomimetic coatings, and external stimulus-responsive designs. Recent progress emphasizes the capability of functionalized liposomes, polymeric nanoparticles, dendrimers, inorganic nanocarriers, and exosome-mimicking systems to increase delivery efficacy and therapeutic performance. But there are still challenges, like nanoparticle clearance, off-target toxicity, immunogenicity, and heterogeneity in BBB integrity across patient groups. The review ends with considering the future promise of combining nanotechnology with precision medicine, multimodal imaging, and customized therapy to deliver drugs to the CNS in a clinically meaningful way.

Introduction

The blood–brain barrier (BBB) is one of the body's greatest defenses. It functions like an exclusive security system for the brain, letting nutrients and vital molecules in while keeping toxins and germs out. This safeguard is critical to brain function—but at an enormous cost. The BBB is so discriminating that it excludes most drugs, including almost 98% of small-molecule medications and virtually all large-molecule treatments.

This poses a monumental challenge to the treatment of brain diseases. Diseases such as Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, and brain cancers are increasingly prevalent globally. For instance, Alzheimer's is estimated to hit almost 13 million Americans by the year 2050, and its healthcare expenses close to \$1 trillion. Brain cancers, including glioblastoma, are particularly devastating, with survival rates less than 5% despite aggressive therapy. Together, brain disorders already cost the world economy more than a trillion dollars annually and are still growing.

Sadly, drug development for the brain has one of the greatest failure rates in medicine. Approximately 85% of drugs that have been developed for the brain fail during late-stage clinical trials. Several pharmaceutical companies have even stopped or cut down their brain research programs due to these successive failures. The issue isn't necessarily that drugs don't function in the lab—it's that they can't get delivered safely and effectively through the BBB in patients.

This is where nanotechnology comes to the rescue. Nanoparticles, small, engineered carriers less than a tenth the size of a human cell, can be made to pass through the BBB. They have some key benefits:

- They can enhance drug solubility and stability.
- They can shield drugs from degradation before they arrive in the brain.
- They support continuous drug release, which is beneficial for chronic diseases.
- They can be conjugated with targeting molecules that direct them to particular brain cells.

Scientists are also researching promising innovations including magnetic nanoparticles (which can be guided to a particular brain area using an external magnet), ultrasound-sensitive systems (which transiently and without harm open up the BBB), and ligand-conjugated carriers that replicate normal transport routes in the brain.

As our knowledge of the BBB becomes more sophisticated and nanotechnology develops, nanoparticle-mediated drug delivery may revolutionize the treatment of brain disease. It promises increased therapeutic efficacy, improved patient outcomes, and lower healthcare expenses for some of the most difficult-to-treat diseases of the day.

Rationale/Novelty

Why Nanoparticles? Unique and Tunable Properties

Nanoparticles are a revolutionary leap in drug delivery systems because of the dynamic and tunable physicochemical properties, which can be accurately designed to overcome the hurdles of the blood–brain barrier (BBB). Their diameter, usually between 1–200 nm, can be tailored to strike a balance between brain penetration and systemic clearance. Very small particles (<5 nm) are quickly excreted by the kidneys, whereas larger particles (>200 nm) are frequently sequestered by liver and spleen. Within this category, particle size has a significant impact on BBB permeability. For instance, 20 nm insulin-coated gold nanoparticles exhibit significantly greater brain accumulation than larger forms (50–70 nm). However, this correlation is not direct; in certain instances, particles in the 150–200 nm range have exhibited enhanced brain delivery, possibly as a result of increased cellular interactions and adhesion.

Description	Delivery Strategies	Advantages	Disadvantages
Systemic Nanoparticles	Nanocarriers administered intravenously, designed to cross the BBB.	Minimally invasive; repeatable dosing; protects drug cargo; allows for sustained release and targeting.	Systemic clearance by liver and spleen; potential off-target toxicity; immunogenicity.
Direct Intracranial Injection	Drug is injected directly into the brain parenchyma.	Bypasses the BBB entirely, achieving high local drug concentration.	Highly invasive; risk of infection and tissue injury; uneven drug distribution; requires surgery.
Convection-Enhanced Delivery (CED)	Drug is infused directly into the brain under a pressure gradient.	More precise and uniform distribution than direct injection.	Invasive; challenges with catheter placement; risk of backflow and non-uniform dispersal.
Intranasal Administration	Drug is delivered through the nasal cavity to access the brain via olfactory/trigeminal nerves.	Non-invasive; bypasses the BBB to some extent.	Limited by small nasal surface area in humans; restricted dosing volume; low efficiency.

Table 1: Comparative Analysis of CNS Drug Delivery Strategies

Positively charged particles can employ adsorptive-mediated transcytosis by engaging with negatively charged endothelial membranes and thereby promoting permeability up to 100-fold higher than that of neutral particles. On the other hand, nanoparticles that have controlled negative surface charges will selectively attract serum proteins (e.g., apolipoprotein E, albumin, and basigin), allowing for receptor-mediated transport through the BBB. This tunability allows for strategic design of nanocarriers to either enhance cellular uptake or to leverage endogenous transport systems.

As crucial as it is, is also the compositional flexibility of nanoparticles. Lipidic carriers like SLNs and NLCs may traverse the BBB by imitating the lipidic character of cellular membranes. Polymeric nanoparticles (e.g., PLGA) provide biodegradable matrices with controlled degradation and prolonged release. Inorganic systems like mesoporous silica and magnetic nanoparticles offer special functionalities like sensitivity to external stimuli or targeted manipulation via magnetic fields.

Comparison with Alternative Delivery Routes

Against the background of conventional methods, nanoparticle-mediated delivery's benefits are obvious. Invasive methods like direct intracranial injection, intrathecal drug delivery, and convection-enhanced delivery may provide high local drug levels but with significant risks, such as infection and tissue damage, inhomogeneous drug distribution, and the necessity for multiple surgical procedures. Even convection-enhanced delivery, albeit focal, is plagued with catheter placement complications and inhomogeneous dispersal of the drug.

Non-invasive approaches, including intranasal delivery, are promising but restricted. Although intranasal delivery can take advantage of olfactory and trigeminal routes to nose-to-brain transport, limitations posed by human anatomy—decreased nasal surface area and limited dosing volume—restrict its clinical utility. Though intranasal lipid nanoparticles can gain much higher concentrations in the brain than using oral routes, the top dose is still limited.

Conversely, nanoparticles when administered systemically present a minimally invasive, repeatable, and clinically scalable method. Leveraging routes of entry including receptor-mediated, carrier-mediated, or adsorptive-mediated transcytosis, they can be engineered for effective penetration of the BBB. Additionally, nanoparticles shield therapeutic compounds from enzymatic breakdown and clearance and allow sustained and controlled delivery of the drug after passing through the barrier.

Recent Developments in Advanced Nanoparticle Systems

The last decade has witnessed tremendous progress in nanoparticle engineering. Ligand-modified nanoparticles now utilize receptor-mediated transcytosis for improved brain targeting. For instance, transferrin-conjugated systems exhibit a 2.4-fold increase in brain accumulation over control particles, while lactoferrin-modified PEG-PLGA nanoparticles exhibit a 2.8-fold increase in glioma model therapy. Dual-targeting strategies, including T7 peptide and

LDL-modified systems, target multiple receptors at the same time, greatly enhancing delivery efficacy to tumors like glioblastoma.

Biomimetic approaches have also greatly increased the versatility of nanoparticles. Cell membrane-coated nanoparticles such as neutrophil-derived, natural killer (NK) cell-derived, and red blood cell (RBC)-derived nanoparticles provide improved biocompatibility and sustained circulation. Neutrophil-coated nanoparticles, for example, can enhance six-fold penetration of the BBB by taking advantage of inflammatory recruitment mechanisms. NK-cell-coated platforms facilitate both BBB penetration and tumor-specific targeting, and RBC-coated nanoparticles prolong systemic circulation and minimize immune clearance.

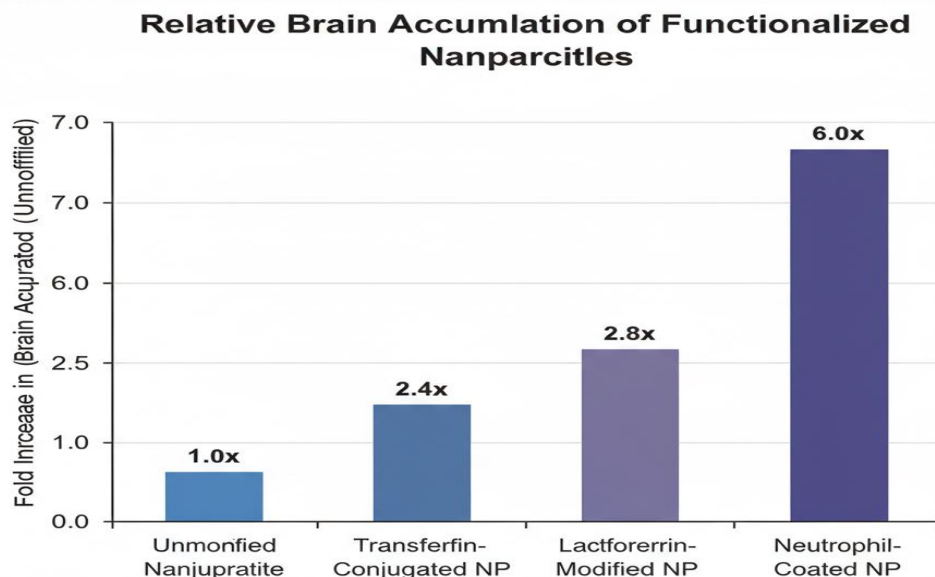


Figure X: Comparison brain delivery efficiency for nanoparticles with different surface modifications. Ligand-targeted (transferrin, lactoferrin) and biomimetic (neutrophil-coated) systems show a significant fold-increase in brain accumulation compared to their unmodified counterparts, demonstrating the effectiveness of active targeting strategies.

Figure 1: Relative Brain Accumulation of Functionalized Nanoparticles. Comparison of brain delivery efficiency for nanoparticles with different surface modifications. Ligand-targeted (transferrin, lactoferrin) and biomimetic (neutrophil-coated) systems show a significant fold-increase in brain accumulation compared to their unmodified counterparts, demonstrating the effectiveness of active targeting strategies.

Stimuli-responsive ("smart") nanoparticles are another frontier innovation. Endogenous stimuli, like tumor acidity or intracellular redox gradients, can be used to selectively trigger drug release in disease microenvironments. Exogenous control strategies, including magnetic fields, ultrasound, and light, enable clinicians to precisely modulate delivery. Magnetic nanoparticles, for instance, have been found to attain BBB crossing rates as high as 63% under applied field, versus 6% in the absence of stimulation. Ultrasound-based methods have the ability to temporarily open TJs, whereas photothermal approaches through gold or black phosphorus NPs allow spatially specific control over BBB permeability.

Opportunities for Targeted, Sustained, and Controlled CNS Drug Release

Nanoparticle systems provide unprecedented prospects for targeted delivery within the central nervous system (CNS). Active targeting with ligand conjugation allows for specific accumulation within affected brain areas, while passive targeting by the enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) effect can be exploited in tumors with damaged BBB integrity. Multi-modal targeting approaches, integrating multiple recognition pathways, increase further specificity.

Of similar importance are the tunable release properties and extended-release capabilities of nanoparticles. Biodegradable polymers enable extended therapeutic release over weeks, eliminating the need for frequent dosing and facilitating patient compliance—especially for chronic neurodegenerative illnesses. Liposome systems have shown extended therapeutic levels with duration of action, providing sustained neuroprotection. Controlled release can also be adjusted to pathological stimuli (e.g., oxidative stress or inflammation), and externally triggered release offers clinicians unparalleled dosing window control.

Innovation and Timeliness

The increasing prevalence of neurological diseases points to the desperate need for new therapeutic paradigms. Alzheimer's disease alone is estimated to cost close to \$1 trillion by 2050 in the United States, whereas CNS drug discovery still encounters an 85% late-stage clinical trial failure rate. Nanoparticle-based delivery specifically tackles the long-standing hurdle of BBB penetration, a paradigm shift in CNS drug development.

Advances in the last decade in nanofabrication, surface functionalization, and smart materials have expedited the translation of such systems from bench to bedside. Regulatory precedence established by approved nanomedicines in oncology and infectious diseases offers a model for future CNS-targeted formulations. Additionally, new tools like artificial intelligence for design of nanoparticles, state-of-the-art imaging for real-time tracking, and precision biomarker-based patient stratification hold great promise to expedite the progress further.

The surge in publications, industrial investment, and specialized biotech initiatives highlights the pace in this area. Combined, these developments place nanoparticle-mediated BBB penetration as not only an innovative research frontier but also as a clinically critical approach to addressing the unmet medical needs of patients with CNS disorders.

Objectives

- **Advances in Nanoparticle Engineering:** Recent advancements in nanoparticle design, synthesis, and functionalization have facilitated more efficient means for crossing the blood–brain barrier (BBB).
- **Mechanisms of BBB Penetration:** Nanoparticles take advantage of multiple pathways of entry, such as paracellular transport, adsorptive-mediated and receptor-mediated transcytosis, carrier-mediated uptake, and cell-mediated delivery.

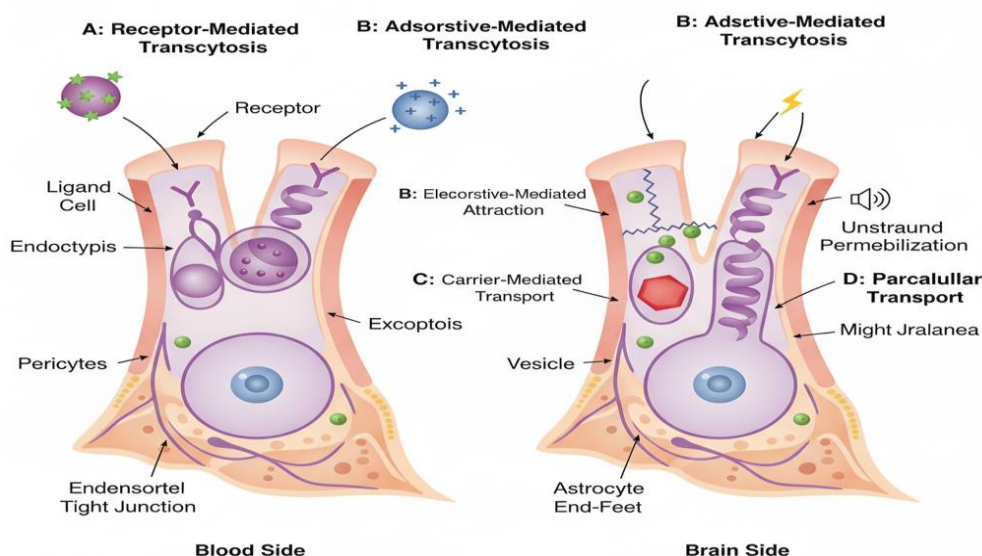


Figure 2: Major Pathways for Nanoparticle Penetration of the BBB. Nanoparticles can be engineered to exploit endogenous transport systems, such as (A) specific ligand-receptor interactions or electrostatic attraction. Other routes include (C) carrier-mediated transport by mimicking natural substrates and (D) paracellular passage through tight junctions, which can be facilitated by external stimuli like ultrasound.

Figure 2: Major Pathways for Nanoparticle Penetration of the BBB. Nanoparticles can be engineered to exploit endogenous transport systems, such as (A) receptor-mediated transcytosis via specific ligand-receptor interactions or (B) adsorptive-mediated transcytosis driven by electrostatic attraction. Other routes include (C) carrier-mediated transport by mimicking natural substrates and (D) paracellular passage through tight junctions, which can be facilitated by external stimuli like ultrasound.

- **Preclinical and Translational Evidence:** Experiments show promising outcomes in efficacy, biodistribution, and safety of BBB-penetrating nanoparticles but with limited translation to clinical application.
- **Barriers to Clinical Translation:** Principal hurdles are nanoparticle biocompatibility, immunogenicity, scale-up issues, regulatory issues, and clinical trial design relevant and predictive for the desired disease modality.
- **Theranostic Platforms:** Multifunctional nanoparticles combining therapeutic delivery with diagnostic imaging enable real-time imaging of BBB penetration as well as controlled drug release.
- **Biomimetic Nanocarriers:** Exosome-mimicking vesicles and nanoparticles with membrane coatings have potential to enhance CNS targeting and minimize off-targeting.
- **Stimuli-Responsive Systems:** Magnetism-mediated, ultrasound-sensitive, and photothermal nanoparticles allow for spatiotemporally specific and externally triggered drug release in the brain.
- **Patient-Specific Factors:** Factors like age, disease stage, and BBB heterogeneity greatly impact nanoparticle behavior and therapeutic

response.

- **Standardization Requirements:** Strong, standardized in vitro and in vivo models are needed to enhance reproducibility and translational predictability of BBB penetration studies.
- **Prospects:** Interdisciplinary approaches that integrate nanotechnology, neurobiology, and computational modeling are necessary to expedite the clinical development of nanoparticle-based CNS therapies.

Methods and Materials

In Vitro BBB Model Systems

To study the transport of nanoparticles (NP) across the blood–brain barrier (BBB), scientists depend on two-dimensional (2D) and three-dimensional (3D) in vitro models, which simulate essential structural and functional features of the human barrier.

- **Transwell-based 2D co-culture systems**
These models employ human brain microvascular endothelial cells cultured on semipermeable inserts, co-cultivated with pericytes or astrocytes to form tight junctions. Intact barrier is normally confirmed by measurements of transendothelial electrical resistance (TEER) and permeability to small tracer molecules like sodium fluorescein.
- **Microfluidic “BBB-on-a-chip” devices**
Microengineered platforms include endothelial and glial cells in channels with controlled shear stress exposure, thus mimicking physiological blood flow. Real-time TEER monitoring and high-resolution imaging methods allow dynamic evaluation of NP transport across the endothelial–glial interface.
- **3D spheroid and organoid models**
Multicellular spheroids and brain organoids with endothelial cells, astrocytes, pericytes, and neurons provide a more physiologically accurate microenvironment. These models capture vascular-like networks and allow permeability assays that assess NP penetration within tissue-like settings.

In Vivo Animal Models

Animal models continue to be a must for the examination of NP–BBB interactions and biodistribution.

- **Rodent (mice, rats)** models are commonly utilized for intraperitoneal or intravenous NP administration and subsequent ex vivo brain uptake quantification by fluorimetry, radiolabel detection, or mass spectrometry.
- **Non-rodent (rabbits, non-human primate)** models offer greater brain volume and human-like BBB structures, facilitating high-resolution imaging and dose escalation studies with better translational relevance.

Nanoparticle Synthesis and Characterization

- **Lipid nanoparticles** like liposomes, solid lipid nanoparticles (SLNs), and nanostructured lipid carriers (NLCs) are fabricated by thin-film hydration, extrusion, or solvent-evaporation methods.
- **Polymeric nanoparticles (e.g., PLGA, PEG-PLGA, dendrimers)** are made via emulsion–solvent evaporation or nanoprecipitation, with polymers being formulated to promote degradation and drug release rates.
- **Metallic and inorganic nanoparticles** like gold, iron oxide, and mesoporous silica are synthesized by chemical reduction, co-precipitation, or sol–gel processes, where particle size is regulated by reaction conditions.

Surface Functionalization

Nanoparticles are functionalized with targeting ligands to improve BBB penetration and CNS specificity.

- **Covalent conjugation** (e.g., EDC/NHS chemistry) allows stable protein, peptide, or antibody attachment.
- **Surface adsorption** takes advantage of electrostatic or hydrophobic interactions, frequently stabilized with PEGylation or lipid coating.
- **Bioorthogonal click** chemistry methods, e.g., strain-promoted azide–alkyne cycloaddition, permit site-selective attachment of ligands under biocompatible conditions.

Techniques for Measuring BBB Penetration

A range of complementary techniques is employed to follow NP transport and measure their impact on BBB integrity:

- **Fluorescent and radiolabel** tracing enables quantitative monitoring of NP distribution in vitro and in vivo.
- **Imaging modalities** including MRI, PET, and SPECT enable non-invasive, high-resolution visualization of NP biodistribution.
- **Histological examination** determines NP localization within brain tissue and tight junction integrity through immunohistochemical markers (e.g., claudin-5, ZO-1).
- **Biodistribution experiments** measure NP levels in the brain and peripheral organs by fluorescence, radioisotopes, or ICP-MS.

Evaluation

Efficacy of nanoparticle (NP) platforms to cross the blood–brain barrier (BBB) is measured by an integrated platform of quantitative transport measures, qualitative distribution analyses, and long-term toxicity assessments. Combined, these measurements inform therapeutic potential as well as translational viability.

Quantitative Transport Metrics

In vitro permeability tests commonly report as the apparent permeability coefficient (P_{app}), and for optimized NP formulation, values range from 5×10^{-6} to 2×10^{-5} cm/s—documenting a tenfold enhancement of unmodified controls. Systemic delivery in vivo typically has 1–10% of the administered dose available to the brain parenchyma, with the efficiency of delivery dependent upon NP size, ligand density, and surface modification. Receptor-mediated targeting strategies, i.e., transferrin- or Angiopep-2–conjugated NPs, have shown enhanced performance, with over 8% delivery efficiencies in rodent models, higher than less than 1% delivered by PEGylated but non-targeted formulations.

Qualitative Assessments

In vivo imaging methods, i.e., MRI, PET, and fluorescence microscopy, allow real-time visualization of NP biodistribution and accumulation in targeted brain areas.

Histopathological examination verifies localization of NP at cellular and tissue levels, namely endothelial cells, perivascular spaces, and populations of neurons, during determination of barrier integrity by markers claudin-5 and ZO-1. Functional outcomes act as key validation: NP-delivery of drugs in models of neurodegenerative diseases has been linked to enhanced memory in Alzheimer's mice and improved motor coordination in Parkinson's models compared to free-drug controls.

Balancing Efficacy and Safety

Despite improvements in CNS delivery, safety remains a central challenge. Cationic NPs, although highly permeable, can induce endothelial apoptosis and pro-inflammatory cytokine release at concentrations exceeding 50 μ g/mL. Biodistribution studies often reveal substantial NP accumulation in the liver and spleen (30–70% of the administered dose), raising concerns regarding systemic toxicity and immune activation. Advances such as biomimetic coatings and zwitterionic surface engineering have reduced pro-inflammatory responses by up to 60% without compromising BBB penetration, highlighting strategies to balance efficacy with safety.

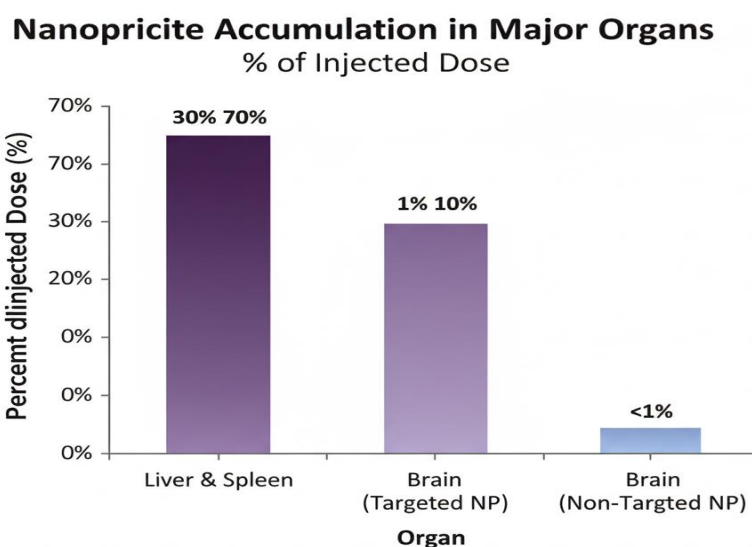


Figure 2: Representative biodistribution profile of intravenously injected nanonanoparticles. A significant portion of dose is sequestered by the reticuloendothelial system (RES) in the liver and spleen. Even for targeted nanoparticles, only a small fraction successfully reaches the brain parenchyma, highlighting the challenge of off-target accumulation.

Figure 3: Representative Biodistribution Profile of Systemically Injected Nanoparticles. A significant portion of the administered dose is sequestered by the reticuloendothelial system (RES) in the liver and spleen. Even for targeted nanoparticles, only a small fraction (typically 1–10%) successfully reaches the brain parenchyma, highlighting the challenge of off-target accumulation.

Long-Term Biocompatibility and Clearance

Biodegradable polymeric systems like PLGA-based NPs break down into metabolizable by-products (glycolic and lactic acid), ensuring safe clearance in weeks. In contrast, inorganic platforms (such as gold or silica NPs) have extended retention within brain tissue and the reticuloendothelial system

that last for months and require severe dose optimization. Longitudinal investigations indicate that PEGylated and cell membrane-coated NPs induce minimal adaptive immune reactions, while uncoated metal NPs can initiate complement activation and microglial uptake and increase the potential for chronic neuroinflammation.

Limitations of Current Models and Techniques

Current preclinical models offer certain limitations. In vitro BBB models, while high-throughput and scalable, do not replicate the complete complexity of vascular biology, immune interactions, and multicellular brain architecture. Rodent models commonly overestimate NP delivery because of species-specific variations in transporter expression and tight junction structure, which restricts translational validity. Additionally, imaging modalities can be afflicted by low sensitivity at sub-therapeutic NP concentrations as well as difficulty in discrimination between surface-bound and internalized particles. Radiolabel- and fluorescence-based assays are also susceptible to confounding artifacts like label loss or signal quenching. Lastly, behavioral enhancement in disease models in animals may not always translate to human clinical effectiveness with reliability, calling for state-of-the-art humanized microphysiological systems and well-established evaluation protocols.

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Conclusion

Nanoparticle-mediated approaches for crossing the BBB have emerged as a revolutionary strategy in the management of neurological disorders. Advances in nanoparticle design and engineering—such as lipid-based, polymeric, metallic, and biomimetic platforms—have resulted in highly versatile systems that can employ multiple transport mechanisms including receptor-mediated and adsorptive-mediated transcytosis, carrier-mediated uptake, and cell-mediated delivery. Surface functionalization with targeting ligands, development of stimulus-responsive release systems, and incorporation of diagnostic and therapeutic functionalities (theranostics) characterize the versatility and accuracy of these technologies. Preclinical work regularly shows significant enhancements in quantitative drug delivery to the brain, therapeutic efficacy in Alzheimer's disease models, glioblastoma, and Parkinson's.

Yet, some challenges persist in clinical translation. Regulatory frameworks for nanoparticle-based therapeutics are underdeveloped, providing limited instructions for long-term safety assessment, biocompatibility, and environmental toxicity. Clinical information, especially for inorganic and non-biodegradable nanoparticles, are still limited, and the lack of harmonized evaluation protocols among in vitro and in vivo models is a cause of variability and makes reproducibility difficult. Other impediments, such as patient-to-patient heterogeneity of BBB integrity, possible immunogenicity, and the challenges in large-scale, reproducible manufacturing, compound translational advancement. Next-generation research will need to emphasize the development of harmonized regulatory frameworks, mature and human-relevant BBB models, and thorough safety assessments under chronic dosing paradigms.

Further, the development of personalized nanomedicine—designed around unique BBB properties and facilitated by real-time monitoring of drug delivery and release—will be critical to achieving optimal therapeutic benefit. Eventually, the effective clinical use of nanoparticle-based BBB delivery will hinge on close interdisciplinarity of nanotechnologists, neuroscientists, clinicians, and regulatory agencies. Overcoming these hurdles holds the potential to realize the complete potential of nanotechnology to central nervous system drug delivery, bringing new promise to sufferers from otherwise untreatable neurologic diseases.

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