- 1 Pharmacokinetics and Tissue Distribution of an Orally Administered Mucoadhesive Chitosan-Coated
- 2 Amphotericin B-Loaded Nanostructured Lipid Carrier (NLC) in Rats
- 3 Janet Tan Sui Ling<sup>1</sup>, Clive Roberts<sup>2</sup> and Nashiru Billa<sup>\*2,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Pharmacy, The University of Nottingham, Malaysia, Jalan Broga, Semenyih, Selangor
 43500, Malaysia.

6

<sup>2</sup> School of Pharmacy, The University of Nottingham, Park Campus, Nottingham, UK.

- 8 <sup>3</sup> College of Pharmacy, Qatar University, P.O. Box: 2713 Doha, Qatar
- 9 \*Corresponding Author (nbilla@qu.edu.qa)

## 10 ABSTRACT

11 Oral delivery of amphotericin B (AmpB) is desirable because it provides a more patient-friendly 12 mode of administration compared to the current delivery approach akin with the marketed AmpB 13 formulations. The goal of the study was to investigate the pharmacokinetics and tissue distribution 14 of orally administered chitosan-coated AmpB-loaded nanostructured lipid carriers (ChiAmpB NLC) 15 administered to were evaluated in Sprague Dawley rats at a dose of 15 mg/kg. Orally administered ChiAmpB NLC resulted in demonstrated a two-fold increase in the area under the curve (AUC<sub>0- $\infty$ </sub>) 16 17 compared to the uncoated AmpB NLC and marketed Amphotret®. This enhanced bioavailability of 18 AmpB suggests prolonged transit and retention of ChiAmpB NLC within the small intestine through 19 mucoadhesion and subsequent absorption by the lymphatic pathway. The results show that The 20 mean absorption and residence times (MAT & MRT) were both significantly higher from ChiAmpB 21 NLC compared to the other two formulations, which attesting to the mucoadhesive effect. The 22 ChiAmpB NLC presented a lower nephrotic accumulation with preferential deposition in liver and 23 spleen. Thus, the limitations of current marketed IV formulations of AmpB are potentially addressed 24 with the ChiAmpB NLC in addition to utilizing this approach for targeting internal organs in visceral 25 leishmaniasis.

27 **KEYWORDS:** amphotericin B, lymphatic pathway, mucoadhesion, NLC, oral delivery,

28 pharmacokinetics, tissue distribution

## 29 INTRODUCTION

30 Oral administration of AmpB appeals to clinicians and patients alike because of the potential 31 of eliminating the toxicities (notably nephrotoxicity) associated with the current mode of delivery, 32 which is exclusively by intravenous (IV) administration. It is also bound to reduce treatment cost and 33 improve the quality of life of the patients (1,2). However, due to the poor solubility and permeability 34 of challenging physicochemical properties of AmpB, oral delivery of AmpB results in a meager 35 bioavailability (< 0.3 %) which limits its therapeutic efficacy (3,4). Poor oral absorption of AmpB has 36 long been reported in different animal trials such as in rats (5,6), mice (7) and dogs (8). 37 Nanotechnology seems to be the key to unlocking some of the constraints associated with the 38 administration of Amp orally. However, with the introduction of the nanotechnology, there is a ray 39 of hope to developing a safer, yet effective oral formulation of AmpB.

Upon oral administration, most drugs are absorbed from the small intestine to the systemic circulation via the portal blood vein. However, for lipid formulations or hydrophobic drugs, intestinal lymphatic pathway provides an alternative route, which bypasses the hepatic first pass metabolism at the liver and results in improved bioavailability (9–11). Additionally, this route portrays a distinctive characteristic whereby the transportation of the drug occurs over a longer period of time compared to the portal vein route. Thus, lymphatic pathway can be exploited for prolonged delivery of therapeutic agents to the systemic circulation (12).

The goal of the In the this present investigation was to formulate nanostructured lipid carriers (NLCs) comprised of beeswax and coconut oil were used as the carrier system for the oral delivery of AmpB with the aim to exploit the intestinal lymphatic pathway (13,14). A further aim was to Additionally, chitosan was coat ed the formulation in order to impart mucoadhesive capability so that the particles are retained longer during transit in the small intestine. The delayed transit will ensure that most of the particles are taken-up. This way, the bioavailability of AmpB would beimproved.

The pharmacokinetic behaviour of the marketed formulation of AmpB, Fungizone<sup>®</sup> administered intravenously was reported to exhibit a complex plasma profile, with a rapid fall in plasma concentration followed by a long elimination half-life (approximately 15 days). In contrast, the pharmacokinetic behaviour of orally administered AmpB is less known. It is administered orally to treat localized gastrointestinal (GI) tract infections mainly due to the poor absorption profile. It was reported that administration of high doses of AmpB (2 - 10 g daily) to humans resulted in similarly low plasma concentration levels as doses of 30 - 40 mg per day (7,15).

61 Tissue distribution studies on newly developed formulations is necessary since it provides 62 information on the potential tissue accumulation of the formulation and/or the drug. Tissue 63 accumulation thus, provides insights on potential toxicity or efficacy of the formulation. In this 64 regard, determination of the plasma level of the AmpB alone is insufficient because there is a poor 65 correlation between the plasma level and biodistribution of the active in the organs (16,17). 66 Evaluation of levels of AmpB in the kidneys is crucial because it relates to nephrotoxicity and is the 67 major limitation to the clinical use of AmpB (15,18). Reticuloendothelial organs (RES) such as liver 68 and spleen are the target organs for the Leishmania genus, an intracellular parasite which causes 69 high fatality if left untreated. Currently, AmpB is used as the second-line therapy for visceral 70 leishmaniasis which comes after parental administration of pentavalent antimony organic 71 compounds which are associated with high frequency of resistance and side effects (19). Hence, an 72 accumulation of the AmpB at the aforementioned sites provides an added advantage in terms of 73 targeting strategy.

Henceforth, in the present study, we aimed to evaluate the i) pharmacokinetic profiles of
AmpB from ChiAmpB NLC in comparison to uncoated AmpB NLC and the marketed formulation,
Amphotret<sup>®</sup>, ii) retrospectively investigate the mucoadhesion behaviour of ChiAmpB NLC *in vivo*

through analyses of the levels of AmpB in the stomach and small intestine over time and iii)

investigate the tissue distribution of the AmpB in organs-of-interests; kidneys, liver and spleen.

## 79 MATERIALS AND METHODS

80 Materials

81 Beeswax and coconut oil were from Acros Organics, New Jersey, USA. Chitosan (low 82 molecular weight) and phosphate buffered saline tablets (PBS) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich 83 Co. LLC., Missouri, USA. AmpB and ethylenediaminetetracetic acid, disodium salt dihydrate (EDTA) 84 were obtained from Fisher Scientific, India. The commercial formulation of AmpB deoxycholate 85 (Amphotret<sup>®</sup>, Bharat Serums and Vaccines Limited, India) was a gift from Pahang Pharmacy, 86 Malaysia. Soya lecithin was purchased from MP Biomedicals (Illkirch, France) and acetic acid was 87 obtained from R & M Chemicals, India. 1-amino 4-nitronapthalene (≥ 97 %) was obtained from 88 Apollo Chemicals, San Pedro Sula. All reagents and solvents used of analytical and HPLC grades respectively. Deionized water used was Milli-Q 18.2 MΩ.cm at 25 °C (Millipore Corp., Bedford, USA). 89

## 90 Methods

#### 91 Formulation of ChiAmpB NLC formulation

92 The ChiAmpB NLC was formulated as recently reported (13,14). Briefly, beeswax and 93 coconut oil were melted at 70 °C before the addition of AmpB and at the same time, Tween-80 and 94 lecithin were mixed with 10 mL of deionized water and stirred at 70 °C at 500 rpm for 45 minutes. 95 The surfactant mixture was added into the melted lipids containing AmpB followed by 96 homogenization at 12 400 rpm for 8 minutes using high speed homogenizer (Ultra-Turrax T25, 97 Germany). The coarse emulsion was further subjected to probe ultrasonication (Q500 QSonica, 98 Newtown, CT, USA) for further 8 minutes at 20 % amplitude. The mixture was poured into 4 °C 99 deionized water under 500 rpm of stirring, making up a total of 100 mL. Chitosan (dissolved in 1 % 100 v/v acetic acid) was added in a dropwise manner into the formed AmpB NLC in 1: 40 v/v under 101 stirring of 250 rpm or 15 minutes.

102 The physical properties of the formulation were characterized in terms of particle size, 103 polydispersity index, zeta potential, encapsulation efficiency and aggregation states as reported 104 previously (13,14).

#### 105 High performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) conditions and validation

An Agilent HPLC system (1260 Series, Waldbronn, Germany) equipped with a 15 cm x 4.6
mm reversed-phase C-18 column, Hypersil Gold (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, United States)
with 5 μm particle size stationary phase was used in this study. A mixture of 60 % 2.5 mM EDTA and
40 % acetonitrile was used as the mobile phase at a flow rate of 1.5 mL/min with the wavelength set
at 408 nm.

111 Calibration curves of AmpB in plasma and tissue were established over  $0.1 - 10 \mu g/mL$  for 112 plasma and  $1 - 100 \mu g/g$  for tissue samples, with at least six data points were used to construct the 113 curves. The HPLC method was further validated in terms of linearity, recovery, accuracy, precision, 114 limit of detection (LOD) and limit of quantification (LOQ).

115 Animals

116 In this section was a probe investigation on the performance of the ChiAmpB NLC therefore, 117 we tried to minimize the number of animals used for the study as much as possible. 12 adult male Sprague Dawley (268.4 ± 11.1 g) rats used in the pharmacokinetic and tissue distribution studies 118 119 were obtained from University Putra Malaysia (UPM). The studies were carried out at The 120 Comparative Medicine and Technology Unit (COMeT), UPM and approved by the Ethics Committee 121 of The University of Nottingham (UNMC 19). The rats were housed in ventilated cages at ambient 122 temperature, maintained under 12/12 light-dark cycle and supplied with food and water ad libitum. 123 The rats were acclimatized for one week before the experiment, reaching the age of 8 weeks.

124

#### 126 Drug administration and blood sampling

127 The rats were fasted for 12 hours overnight and then divided into four groups, with three rats per group. Each group received either one of the following single dose: i) oral gavage of AmpB 128 129 NLC, ii) ChiAmpB NLC and iii) Amphotret<sup>®</sup> at 15 mg/kg of AmpB in 2 mL. The fourth group (iv) was 130 administered 150 µL of Amphotret<sup>®</sup> (IV) at a dose of 1.0 mg/kg. The rats were allowed free access to 131 water throughout the study and food was allowed 4-hour post-dosing. The animals were slightly 132 anaesthetized with diethyl ether at a dose of 5 g/kg prior to blood sampling. A 500  $\mu L$  aliquot of 133 blood was collected from the tail of the rats and transferred to a Microtainer® coated with EDTA at 0, 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8 and 24 hours for the orally administered group and 5, 30 minutes, 1, 2, 6, 8 and 24 134 hours following IV administration. The blood samples were centrifuged at 14 000 rpm (14 463 x g) 135 136 for 10 minutes and the supernatant (plasma) was pipetted transferred out carefully and placed in 137 normal microcentrifuge tubes and . The samples were stored at -20 °C until further analyses were 138 carried out.

139 Analyses of plasma and tissue samples

The concentrations of AmpB in the plasma and tissue were analyzed according to a
developed HPLC method. Prior to analysis, a 100 μL aliquot of plasma sample was deproteinized
using 100 μL of methanol containing 13.34 μg/mL of 1-amino 4-nitronaphthalene (IS). The mixture
was vortex-mixed for 5 minutes and then centrifuged at 14 000 rpm (14 463 x g) for 10 minutes. 50
μL of the supernatant was then injected into the HPLC system.

145At predetermined time post administration, the rats were humanely sacrificed and the146stomach, small intestine, liver, kidney and spleen were removed after abdominal incision. The147organs were pat-dried with laboratory tissue roll, weighed and homogenized using a high speed148homogenizer (Ultra-Turrax T-25, Germany) at 24 000 rpm for 8 minutes under ice with PBS (pH 7.4)149making up tissue concentration of 0.25 g/mL. The mixture was further ultrasonicated at 20 %150amplitude for 8 minutes. A 100 μL aliquot of tissue homogenate was mixed with 400 μL of methanol

containing IS (9.09 μg/mL). The mixture was vortex-mixed for 5 minutes and centrifuged at 14 000
rpm (14 463 x g) for 10 minutes and 50 μL of the supernatant was injected onto the HPLC system.

153

# 154 Data analyses

155	The pharmacokinetic parameters were calculated based on a non-compartmental model.
156	Peak concentration ( $C_{max}$ ) and time of peak concentration ( $T_{max}$ ) were obtained directly from the
157	individual plasma concentration-time profiles. The $T_{lag}$ referred to the lag time to the appearance of
158	AmpB in the blood after administration. The area under the curve from time zero to last measurable
159	concentration (AUC $_{0-t}$ ) was calculated using trapezoidal method. The AUC from the last measurable
160	concentration (C <sub>t</sub> ) to infinity (AUC <sub>t-<math>\infty</math></sub> ) was calculated by dividing the C <sub>t</sub> by k, the apparent elimination
161	rate constant, which in turn was obtained from the terminal slope of the individual plasma
162	concentration-time profiles after logarithmic transformation of the plasma concentration values and
163	application of linear regression. Thus the total (AUC $_{0-\infty}$ ) was computed as:
164	$AUC_{0-\infty} = AUC_{0-t} + C_t/k$ (1)
165	The MRT was estimated as follows:

167 where, AUMC<sub>0-∞</sub> is area under the first moment versus time curve which is calculated by adding the

total area from time zero to the last measurable concentration (AUMC<sub>0-t</sub>) to the area from the last

169 measurable concentration to time infinity (AUMC<sub>t-∞</sub>) of the plasma concentration times time versus

170 time curves. AUMC<sub>0-t</sub> was determined using trapezoidal formula while AUMC<sub>t- $\infty$ </sub> was calculated by

171 dividing the last concentration times time value with elimination rate constant, k.

172 The MAT was estimated as follows:

173  $MAT = MRT_{PO} - MRT_{IV}$  ......(3)

174	where, MRT is the mean residence time, PO is orally administered formulations and IV refers to
175	administered intravenously.
176	
177	The absolute bioavailability, F was calculated as below:
178	$F = \frac{AUC_{PO}.Dose_{IV}}{AUC_{IV}.Dose_{PO}} 100 \dots (4)$
179	where, AUC is the area under the plasma concentration versus time curve from time zero to infinity,
180	PO is the oral administration and IV is the intravenous administration.
181	The relative bioavailability, F <sub>r</sub> was calculated as below:
182	$F_{\rm r} = \frac{AUC_{\rm NLC}}{AUC_{\rm PO}} 100 \qquad \dots \tag{5}$
183	where, $AUC_{NLC}$ is the area under the curve of plasma concentration versus time curve from time zero
184	to infinity of rats administered AmpB NLC or ChiAmpB NLC orally and AUC $_{PO}$ is the area under the
185	curve of plasma concentration versus time curve from time zero to infinity of rats administered
186	Amphotret <sup>®</sup> orally.
187	Statistical analyses
188	Statistical evaluation on samples was performed using a one-way analysis of variance
189	(ANOVA) followed by an independent t-test, where differences were considered significant when p <
190	0.05. Linearity was evaluated by linear regression analysis, which was calculated by least squares
191	regression analysis and the ANOVA test. All calculations were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics 24
192	(IBM cooperation, New York, NY).
193	
194	

## 195 **REESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Prior to the *in vivo* studies, a HPLC analysis for AmpB in spiked plasma and tissue
homogenates was developed and validated. The validity of the assay was verified by linear ANOVA
regression analysis, which demonstrated a 95 % confidence level in predicting the outcome (p <</li>
0.05). All the r<sup>2</sup> values were 0.996 and above, confirming the linearity of the method over the
concentrations analyzed (Table 1).

201 Table 1: Linearity and sensitivity of AmpB analytical procedure different biological samples

202

	Equation	r <sup>2</sup>	LOD	LOQ
Plasma	y = 0.8769x - 0.0731	0.9962*	0.0093	0.031
Liver	y = 0.0324x + 0.0012	1*	0.65	2.16
Kidney	y = 0.0293x + 0.0412	0.9969*	0.97	3.23
Spleen	y = 0.0341x + 0.0109	1*	0.99	3.32
Stomach	y = 0.0394x + 0.0079	0.9998*	0.95	3.17
Small intestine	y = 0.0306x + 0.0362	0.9989*	0.87	2.88

r<sup>2</sup> is the determination coefficient, LOD is the limit of detection and LOQ is the limit of quantification.
 LOD and LOQ of plasma is in µg/mL while for tissue homogenate are in ng/g. \*p< 0.05: statistical</li>
 significance between the mean peak areas of AmpB/ IS and concentration of AmpB.

207	The LOD and LOQ values in plasma samples were 0.0093 and 0.031 $\mu$ g/mL respectively,
208	which are comparably more sensitive than in other studies (20–22). The LOD in the tissue samples
209	were found to be 0.65 ng/g for liver, 0.97 ng/g for kidney, 0.99 ng/g for spleen, 0.95 ng/g for
210	stomach and 0.87 ng/g for small intestine, are comparatively lower than reported analytical
211	thresholds for AmpB, suggesting a higher sensitivity (1,23).
212	From Table 2, the average recoveries of AmpB from the biological samples were more than
213	80 %, indicative of an efficient extraction procedure (24). High percentage of accuracies were
214	observed in plasma samples, 94 - 97 % (Table 2) and are in accordance with other reported values

- 215 (21,22). The degree of repeatability was evaluated based on the percentage of coefficient variation
- 216 (CV) as illustrated in Table 2.

		Plasma	Liver	Kidney	Spleen	Stomach	Small
							intestine
Recovery	Low	98.2 ± 7.0	73.5 ±	77.6 ±	81.6 ±	95.3 ± 1.6	78.1 ± 0.7
(%)			1.4	5.1	0.3		
	Medium	100.0 ±	76.1 ±	81.2 ±	85.0 ±	100.2 ± 0.8	85.0 ± 0.3
		0.1	1.0	0.5	0.7		
	High	108.5 ±	92.8 ±	83.5 ±	97.9 ±	113.7 ± 0.3	87.6 ± 0.1
		1.1	1.8	0.1	0.2		
Accuracy	Low	94.4 ± 2.8	94.8 ±	100.3 ±	100.4 ±	91.8 ± 1.7	98.9 ± 0.4
(%)			1.1	5.1	0.9		
	Medium	97.1 ± 1.2	99.2 ±	97.4 ±	97.2 ±	93.4 ± 0.4	98.6 ± 0.4
			0.7	0.5	1.2		
	High	94.6 ± 1.2	97.1 ±	96.3 ±	95.3 ±	94.8 ± 0.2	98.6 ± 0.2
			0.4	0.3	0.3		
Precision	Low	5.89	3.24	5.27	0.64	4.93	0.89
(% CV)	Medium	1.77	1.06	1.52	1.83	3.77	0.87
	High	3.20	2.05	2.07	2.67	2.96	0.80

Table 2 Percentage of recovery, accuracy and precision of AmpB/ IS spiked with plasma and tissue
 homogenates (mean ± S.D., n = 3 for recovery and n = 6 for accuracy and precision).

219

220

221 Low refers to  $0.1 \,\mu$ g/ml in plasma and  $2.5 \,\mu$ g/g in tissue samples; medium refers to  $1 \,\mu$ g/ml in 222 plasma and  $10 \,\mu$ g/g in tissue samples and high refers to  $10 \,\mu$ g/ml in plasma and  $100 \,\mu$ g/g in tissue

samples.

224

225

226

2	2	o
Z	Z	ŏ

233	The repeatability (CV) of the method in plasma was between 1.77 - 5.89 % which are well
234	below the accepted limit of 15 % (23,25). Thus, the developed HPLC method was found to be
235	accurate and reproducible and hence suitable for evaluation of AmpB concentration in rat tissue.
236	In the present study, four formulations of AmpB (orally administered AmpB NLC, ChiAmpB
237	NLC, Amphotret <sup>®</sup> (PO) and intravenously administered Amphotret <sup>®</sup> (IV)) were administered to either
238	of one of the four groups of Sprague Dawley rats. Sprague Dawley rats were chosen as the animal
239	model in this study due to anatomical, physiological, drug absorption profile and expression of
240	transporter enzyme similarities of its intestines to that of the human (26). The plasma concentration-
241	time profiles following the four-way administration to the rats are depicted in Figure 1 while
242	pharmacokinetic parameters derived from them are shown in Table 3.
243	
244	
245	
246	
247	
248	
249	

# Table 3 Pharmacokinetic parameters of AmpB from the different formulations (mean ± S.D., n = 3).

Pharmacokinetics	Formulations			
parameters	AmpB NLC	ChiAmpB NLC	Amphotret®	Amphotret®
Route	Oral	Oral	Oral	IV
Dose (mg/kg)	15	15	15	1
T <sub>max</sub> (hr)	4.67 ± 1.15	6.33±1.52	3.63±0.29	-
C <sub>max</sub> (µg/mL)	$0.34 \pm 0.03$	$0.40 \pm 0.19$	0.31±0.04	-
AUC <sub>0</sub> (µg.hr/mL)	27.86±0.99	34.25 ± 4.19	14.52±1.87ª	15.97 ± 1.70
MRT (hr)	7.48±0.67	21.61±0.71 <sup>b</sup>	7.51±0.15	$6.00 \pm 0.71$
MAT (hr)	$1.47 \pm 0.67$	$15.61 \pm 0.71$	$1.50 \pm 0.15$	-
Absolute F (%)	$11.63 \pm 0.41$	$14.30 \pm 1.74$	6.06±0.78	-
Relative F <sub>r</sub> (%)	191.86±6.82	235.87 ± 28.85	-	-

251

- 252 Tmax: time to maximum plasma concentration, Cmax: maximum plasma concentration, AUC0- $\infty$ :
- area under the curve up to infinity, MRT: mean residence time, MAT: mean absorption time, F:
- absolute bioavailability and Fr: relative bioavailability.
- 255 \*p< 0.05: statistical significance between
- a) Amphotret<sup>®</sup> and developed formulations.
- 257 b) ChiAmpB NLC and the remaining formulations

259

258

260





Upon administration of ChiAmpB NLC formulation, the plasma concentration of AmpB was
detectable up to 24 hours whereas, for the other formulations, it was only detectable up to 8-hour
post-administration. As expected, the intravenously administered Amphotret<sup>®</sup> showed a drastic (10fold) drop in AmpB plasma concentration, from 3.53 ± 1.01 to 0.34 ± 0.2 µg/mL 2-hour post
administration. This is consistent with the results reported in the literature (27,28).

Orally administered AmpB NLC and ChiAmpB NLC observed lag times (T<sub>lag</sub>) of 2 hours (Figure
1), suggesting that there was a delay in the absorption of both formulations in contrast to
Amphotret<sup>®</sup> (PO). We hypothesize that due to their lipidic characteristics, the observed lag times
were due to the uptake process via lymph, prompted by the mucoadhesive properties of the
formulations (particularly ChiAmpB NLC) in contrast to Amphotret<sup>®</sup> (PO) formulation as observed in
other studies (12,29). It is normal to observe a lag time of up to 3 hours before a noticeable increase
in concentration of lipids in lymph or plasma as observed in human (30), rats (31) and sheep (32).

277 There was a gradual increase in the plasma concentration of AmpB, reaching peak 278 concentration ( $T_{max}$ ) at approximately 3.6 and 4.7 hours, respectively for orally administered 279 Amphotret<sup>®</sup> and AmpB NLC formulations (Table 3). As compared to AmpB NLC, ChiAmpB NLC 280 showed an additional delay of approximately 1.6 hours before attaining the  $T_{max}$ . The longer  $T_{max}$ 281 exhibited by both NLCs formulations may yet affirm the indirect transport of the NLCs into the 282 systemic circulation which is in consistent with results observed by vinpocetine-loaded NLCs (33). 283 The estimation of  $T_{max}$  is dependent on the frequency of blood sampling which was a constraint in 284 the present study due to the limitation and impracticability of frequent sampling points in small 285 rodents like rats. Hence, further interpretation of the data was sought through arithmetic calculation 286 using statistical moment analysis in order to evaluate their MRTs.

287 MRT refers to the duration of residence of the nanoparticles in the body before elimination.
288 This involves a composite of kinetic processes such as rate and extent of the absorption process, *in*

*vivo* release of AmpB and the distribution of the AmpB to various part of the body (34). The MRT of
ChiAmpB NLC was 21.61 ± 0.71 hr, which is significantly higher than the Amphotret® (PO), 7.51 ±
0.15 hr (p < 0.05) and AmpB NLC, 7.48 ± 0.67 hr. This suggests that the ChiAmpB NLC remained in</li>
the body longer which is attributable to the mucoadhesive properties of the chitosan coating. The
mucoadhesiveness of ChiAmpB NLC prolonged the GI transit of the particles through retention at the
site of absorption/ uptake as well as a slow, sustained release of AmpB which in concert with our
previous studies (4,14).

296 ChiAmpB NLC showed a higher peak plasma concentration ( $C_{max}$ ), 0.40 ± 0.19 µg/mL as 297 compared to AmpB NLC and Amphotret<sup>®</sup> (PO), observing  $C_{max}$  of 0.34 ± 0.03 and 0.31 ± 0.04 µg/mL, 298 respectively. Besides, ChiAmpB NLC formulation also observed a significantly higher AUC<sub>0- $\infty$ </sub> (p < 0.05) 299 as compared to Amphotret<sup>®</sup> (PO). The AUC<sub>0-∞</sub> of AmpB NLC was significantly higher than Amphotret<sup>®</sup> 300 (PO) (p < 0.05) but was not significantly different from ChiAmpB NLC even though the latter 301 observed a higher AUC<sub>0-∞</sub>. This is in accordance with other studies (4,12) and suggests that the AmpB 302 was better absorbed from ChiAmpB NLC than from uncoated AmpB NLC and Amphotret® (PO), 303 which this was also evident in the relative bioavailability ( $F_r$ ) of ChiAmpB NLC, which was twice 304 higher than Amphotret<sup>®</sup> (PO).

305 The higher bioavailability observed by both AmpB NLC and ChiAmpB NLC compared to the 306 other orally administered AmpB can be explained by the fact that beeswax and coconut oil 307 promoted the lymphatic transport of the NLCs via uptake by the M-cells overlying the lymphoid 308 follicles and Peyer's patches (35,36). This is supported by studies which showed that the oral 309 absorption of the poorly soluble drugs was enhanced with co-administration with lipids whereby the 310 lymphatic pathway plays a crucial role (12,37). Studies by Yuan et al. (37) showed that up to 77.9 % 311 of lipid nanoparticles were absorbed through the lymphatic pathway while the remaining was 312 transported via the portal blood vein. With the lymphatic intestinal pathway, the first pass 313 metabolism in the liver was avoided and thus, bioavailability of the drug was improved.

314 The incorporation of chitosan coating on the surface of the NLCs is perceived to protect 315 AmpB from the harsh GI environment and thus promotes the uptake by the intestinal lymphatics. 316 Due to the positive charge rendition of chitosan in ChiAmpB NLCs, the NLCs promotes penetration 317 into the negatively charged mucosal layer and through this adhesion, the AmpB was slowly released 318 from the system (14). Thus, the increase in residence time and intimate contact of the chitosan-319 coated NLC with the wall of the small intestine provided the requisite for improved AmpB 320 absorption. This is in agreement with findings that there was an enhancement in the uptake of 321 chitosan-coated nanospheres by the gut tissue (4,38). Furthermore, other drug compounds such as 322 insulin (39), ferrous sulphate (40) and doxorubicin (41) also showed improvement in the respective 323 absorptions through the incorporation of chitosan coating to lipid nanoparticles. Positively charged 324 nanoparticles improved the bioavailability of cyclosporine A in dogs (42) and progesterone in rats 325 (43).

As mucoadhesion was believed to be a prerequisite for the improved bioavailability of the AmpB, further investigation on the amount of AmpB in stomach and the small intestine over the GI transit course of the NLCs was conducted. After 6 hours, most of the AmpB from AmpB NLC was found in the small intestine (73.1 ± 0.2 µg/g) whereas the AmpB from ChiAmpB NLC was predominantly found in the stomach (15.4 ± 0.1 µg/g) (Figure 2).





Figure 2: Concentration of AmpB in stomach and small intestine over 6-24 hour-post administration
 (mean ± S.D., n = 3), \*p < 0.05: statistical significance between 6 and 8-hour values.</li>

334

335 AmpB was undetectable in the stomach after 24 hours which suggests that all the formulations had 336 emptied into the small intestine by this time. However, AmpB remained detectable in the small 337 intestine of the rats treated with AmpB NLC and ChiAmpB NLC formulations 24-hour post 338 administration which suggest that the GI transit for both formulations were more than 24 hours in 339 contrast to the normal reported rats GI transit time of 12 - 16 hours (44,45). A significant drop (p < 340 0.05) in the concentration of AmpB was observed in the intestinal tissue in rats treated with AmpB 341 NLC, from 73.1  $\pm$  0.2 to 10.2  $\pm$  0.4  $\mu$ g/g between 6 to 8-hour post administration, respectively. A 342 further drop in the concentration was observed from AmpB NLC between 8 to 24-hour post 343 administration, reaching a final concentration of 6.6  $\pm$  0.3  $\mu$ g/g (Figure 2). It is interesting to note 344 that AmpB NLCs was detectable in the small intestine 24-hour post administration which can be explained by the small size dimensions of AmpB NLCs with a concomitant increase in surface area, 345 346 which together, enhanced the interactive forces at play during mucoadhesion (11,13).

347	On the other hand, the ChiAmpB NLC observed only minimal changes to the concentration
348	of AmpB in the small intestine, with differences of about 4.6 and 1.0 $\mu g/g$ between 6 - 8 hours and 8
349	- 24 hours. Furthermore, ChiAmpB NLC observed a higher concentration of AmpB (7.1 $\pm$ 0.6 $\mu$ g/g)
350	post 24-hour administration as compared to AmpB NLC, believed to be due to additional
351	mucoadhesive power provided by the chitosan coating. The preceding accords well with the results
352	from the pharmacokinetics studies (Table 3), in which ChiAmpB NLC recorded a longer MAT
353	compared to AmpB NLC, attributable to prolong residence time of the particles at the absorption
354	site.

- 355 One of the major limitations to the clinical applications of the AmpB is its nephrotoxicity.
- 356 Figure 3 show that Amphotret<sup>®</sup> (IV) marked a five-fold higher accumulation of AmpB in the kidneys

357 in contrast to ChiAmpB NLC at 8-hour post administration.

358



359

360Figure 3: Tissue distribution of AmpB in rats administered with different formulations over361time (mean ± S.D., n = 3), \*p < 0.05: statistical significance between Amphotret®(IV) and</td>362ChiAmpB NLC as well as AmpB NLC formulations

On the other hand, ChiAmpB NLC showed the lowest renal disposition at 4.0 ± 0.9 μg/g
followed by AmpB NLC and Amphotret<sup>®</sup> (PO), at 5.1 ± 0.2 and 5.9 ± 1.4 μg/g, respectively.
Amphotret<sup>®</sup> (IV) continued to show preferential disposition in the kidneys 24-hour post
administration, significantly (p < 0.05) higher than from ChiAmpB NLC and AmpB NLC formulations.</li>
This is in accordance with reports which showed that Amphotret<sup>®</sup> (IV) was more nephrotoxic than
orally administered lipid-based formulations of AmpB (1,12).

370 We believe that the observed difference in the renal disposition of AmpB was due to the 371 aggregation states of AmpB whereby, Amphotret® exhibited the dimer configuration whilst AmpB in 372 the NLCs formulations exhibited the polyaggregate states (13). Studies by Espada et al. (46) revealed 373 that the dimer state of AmpB showed preferential disposition in the kidneys and observed mostly, 374 unilateral kidney atrophy in mice while the polyaggregate states of AmpB conserved both kidneys 375 with a normal size and appearance. Based on these results, it is likely we can conclude that the low 376 renal tissue levels of AmpB in rats treated with ChiAmpB NLC may demonstrate a lower 377 nephrotoxicity potential and thus, may establish a safer toxicity profile than current marketed 378 formulations (3).

The liver and spleen are part of the RES organs which are target organs for fungal infections as well as intracellular parasites of *Leishmaniasis* genus (27). IV administration of Amphotret<sup>®</sup> to rats registered the highest concentration of AmpB in both liver and spleen, followed by oral administration of Amphotret<sup>®</sup>, AmpB NLC and ChiAmpB NLC 8-hour post administration (Figure 3). The possible reason for this phenomenon has to do with the high blood perfusion to these organs and/or the high uptake of the cells in the RES-type organs (47).

However, the clearance of AmpB from liver and spleen was faster in rats treated with Amphotret<sup>®</sup> (IV), falling drastically to  $10.2 \pm 0.2$  and  $8.4 \pm 0.3 \mu g/g$  in liver and spleen, respectively 24-hour post administration. This indicates that the uptake of the Amphotret<sup>®</sup> (IV) by the RES cells was not significant (47). On the other hand, a three-fold increase in AmpB accumulation in both liver and spleen following administration of ChiAmpB NLC was observed at 24 hours. This is in contrast to
the uncoated AmpB NLC, which showed undetectable amount of AmpB in the spleen. The presence
of a high AmpB deposition in the liver and spleen in rats administered with ChiAmpB NLC serves the
possibility of utilizing the former in visceral *Leishmaniasis*.

## 394 CONCLUSION

In summary, ChiAmpB NLC demonstrated an improvement in the oral bioavailability of AmpB compared to the uncoated AmpB NLC and Amphotret® (delivered orally or intravenously). This improved bioavailability appears to be a culmination of factors including prolonged retention of ChiAmpB NLC within the small intestine, absorption via intestinal lymphatic pathway, hence avoidance of first hepatic clearance and a slow, sustained release of AmpB from ChiAmpB NLC. Furthermore, the ChiAmpB NLC presents a lower risk for nephrotoxicity and higher accumulation in the liver and spleen. Thus, not only have the limitations inherent with the current mode of AmpB administration been addressed but also, a clinical targeted strategy is a possibility in the treatment of visceral leishmaniasis. 

412	
413	
414	
415	
416	
417	
418	
419	
420	
421	
422	REFERENCES
423 424 425	1. Gershkovich P, Wasan EK, Lin M, et al. Pharmacokinetics and biodistribution of amphotericin B in rats following oral administration in a novel lipid-based formulation. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2009;64:101–8.
426 427 428	2. Jain V, Gupta A, Pawar VK, et al. Chitosan-assisted immunotherapy for intervention of experimental leishmaniasis via amphotericin B-loaded solid lipid nanoparticles. Biochem Biotechnol. 2014;174(4):1309–30.
429 430 431	3. Chaudhari MB, Desai PP, Patel PA, et al. Solid lipid nanoparticles of amphotericin B (AmbiOnp): <i>in vitro</i> and <i>in vivo</i> assessment towards safe and effective oral treatment module. Drug Deliv Transl Res. 2016;6(4):354–64.
432 433 434	4. Jabri T, Imran M, Shafiullah, et al. Fabrication of lecithin-gum tragacanth muco-adhesive hybrid nano-carrier system for <i>in-vivo</i> performance of amphotericin B. Carbohydr Polym. 2018;194:89–96.
435 436	5. Yang Z, Tan Y, Chen M, et al. Development of amphotericin B-loaded cubosomes through the SolEmuls technology for enhancing the oral bioavailability. AAPS PharmSciTech. 2012;13(4):1483–91.
437 438	6. Amekyeh H, Billa N, Yuen K, et al. A gastrointestinal transit study on amphotericin B-loaded solid lipid nanoparticles in rats. AAPS PharmSciTech. 2015;16(12):871–7.

- Halde C, Newcomer VD, Wright ET, et al. An evaluation of amphotericin B *in vitro* and *in vivo*in mice against *Coccidioides Immitis* and *Candida Albicans*, and preliminary observations concerning
  the administration of amphotericin B to man. J Invest Dermatol. 1956;28(3):217–32.
- 442 8. Serrano DR, Lalatsa A, Dea-Ayuela MA, et al. Oral particle uptake and organ targeting drives
  443 the activity of amphotericin B nanoparticles. Mol Pharm. 2015;12(2):420–31.
- Paliwal R, Rai S, Vaidya B, et al. Effect of lipid core material on characteristics of solid lipid
  nanoparticles designed for oral lymphatic delivery. Nanomedicine. 2009;5(2):184–91.
- Cai S, Yang Q, Bagby TR, et al. Lymphatic drug delivery using engineered liposomes and solid
  lipid nanoparticles. Adv Drug Deliv Rev. 2011;63(10-11):901–8.
- 448 11. Khosa A, Reddi S, Saha RN. Nanostructured lipid carriers for site-specific drug delivery.
  449 Biomed Pharmacother. 2018;103:598–613.
- Sachs-Barrable K, Lee SD, Wasan EK, et al. Enhancing drug absorption using lipids: a case
  study presenting the development and pharmacological evaluation of a novel lipid-based oral
  amphotericin B formulation for the treatment of systemic fungal infections. Adv Drug Deliv Rev.
  2008;60(6):692–701.
- Tan SLJ, Roberts CJ, Billa N. Mucoadhesive chitosan-coated nanostructured lipid carriers for
  oral delivery of amphotericin B. Pharm Dev Technol. 2019;24(4):504–12.
- 456 14. Tan SLJ, Roberts CJ, Billa N. Antifungal and mucoadhesive properties of an orally
  457 administered chitosan-coated amphotericin B nanostructured lipid carrier (NLC). AAPS
  458 PharmSciTech. 2019;20(136):1–11.
- 459 15. Serrano DR, Lalatsa A. Oral amphotericin B: the journey from bench to market. J Drug Deliv
  460 Sci Technol. 2017;1–9.
- 16. Torrado JJ, Espada R, Ballesteros MP, et al. Amphotericin B formulations and drug targeting.
  J Pharm Sci. 2008;97(7):2405–25.
- 463 17. Torrado JJ, Serrano DR, Uchegbu IF. The oral delivery of amphotericin B. Ther Deliv.464 2013;4:9–12.
- 465 18. Jain S, Valvi PU, Swarnakar NK, et al. Gelatin coated hybrid lipid nanoparticles for oral
  466 delivery of amphotericin B. Mol Pharm. 2012;9(9):2542–53.
- 467 19. Caldeira LR, Fernandes FR, Costa DF, et al. Nanoemulsions loaded with amphotericin B: a
  468 new approach for the treatment of leishmaniasis. Eur J Pharm Sci. 2015;70:125–31.
- 469 20. Espada R, Josa JM, Valdespina S, et al. HPLC assay for determination of amphotericin B in
  470 biological samples. Biomed Chromatogr. 2008;1(22):402–7.
- 471 21. Italia JL, Singh D, Ravi Kumar MNV. High-performance liquid chromatographic analysis of
  472 amphotericin B in rat plasma using alpha-naphthol as an internal standard. Anal Chim Acta.
  473 2009;634:110–4.
- 474 22. Chakrabarty US, Pal TK. Rapid and sensitive high performance liquid chromatography
  475 method for the determination of amphotericin B in rat plasma. J Pharm Res. 2011;4(9):3194–7.

- 476 23. Echevarría I, Barturen C, Renedo MJ, et al. High-performance liquid chromatographic
  477 determination of amphotericin B in plasma and tissue. Application to pharmacokinetic and tissue
  478 distribution studies in rats. J Chromatogr. 1998;819:171-6.
- 479 24. Colombo M, Melchiades GL, Figueiró F, et al. Validation of an HPLC-UV method for analysis
  480 of kaempferol-loaded nanoemulsion and its application to *in vitro* and *in vivo* tests. J Pharm Biomed
  481 Anal. 2017;145:831–7.
- 482 25. Campanero MA, Zamarrefio AM, Diaz M, et al. Development and validation of an HPLC
  483 Method for determination of amphotericin B in plasma and sputum Involving solid phase extraction.
  484 1997;46:641–6.
- 485 26. Cao X, Gibbs ST, Fang L, et al. Why is it challenging to predict intestinal drug absorption and 486 oral bioavailability in human using rat model. Pharm Res. 2006;23(8):1675–86.
- 487 27. Echevarria I, Barturen C, Renedo MJ, et al. Comparative pharmacokinetics, tissue
  488 distributions, and effects on renal function of novel polymeric formulations of amphotericin B and
  489 amphotericin B-deoxycholate in rats. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2000;44(4):898–904.
- 490 28. Jung SH, Lim DH, Jung SH, et al. Amphotericin B-entrapping lipid nanoparticles and their *in*491 *vitro* and *in vivo* characteristics. Eur J Pharm Sci. 2009;37(3-4):313–20.
- 492 29. Brocks DR, Davies NM. Lymphatic drug absorption via the enterocytes: pharmacokinetic
  493 simulation, modeling, and considerations for optimal drug development. J Pharm Pharm Sci.
  494 2018;21:254–70.
- 30. Cohn JS, Johnson EJ, Millar JS, et al. Contribution of apoB-48 and apoB-100 triglyceride-rich
  lipoproteins (TRL) to postprandial increases in the plasma concentration of TRL triglycerides and
  retinyl esters. J Lipid Res. 1993;34:2033–40.
- Trevaskis NL, Hu L, Caliph SM, et al. The mesenteric lymph duct cannulated rat model:
  application to the assessment of intestinal lymphatic drug transport. J Vis Exp. 2015;9:1–11.
- 32. Windmueller HG, Spaeth AE. Fat transport and lymph and plasma lipoprotein biosynthesis by
  isolated intestine. J Lipid Res. 1972;13:92–105.
- So2 33. Zhuang C, Li N, Wang M, et al. Preparation and characterization of vinpocetine loaded
   nanostructured lipid carriers (NLC) for improved oral bioavailability. Int J Pharm. 2010;394:179–85.
- 504 34. De B, Bhandari K, Chakravorty N, Mukherjee R, et al. Computational pharmacokinetics and *in*505 *vitro-in vivo* correlation of anti-diabetic synergistic phyto-composite blend. World J Diabetes.
  506 2015;6(11):1179–85.
- Hussain N, Jaitley V, Florence AT. Recent advances in the understanding of uptake of
   microparticulates across the gastrointestinal lymphatics. Adv Drug Deliv Rev. 2001;50:107–42.
- S09 36. Yuan Y, Li YB, Tai ZF, et al. Study of forced degradation behavior of pramlintide acetate by
  S10 HPLC and LC-MS. J Food Drug Anal. 2017;26:409–15.
- 511 37. Yuan H, Chen J, Du Y, et al. Studies on oral absorption of stearic acid SLN by a novel
  512 fluorometric method. Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces. 2007;58:157–64.
- 51338.Takeuchi H, Yamamoto H, Kawashima Y. Mucoadhesive nanoparticulate systems for peptide514drug delivery. Adv Drug Deliv Rev. 2001;47:39–54.

- 515 39. Fonte P, Andrade F, Araújo F, et al. Chitosan-coated solid lipid nanoparticles for insulin
  516 delivery. Methods Enzymol. 2012;508:295–314.
- 517 40. Zariwala MG, Elsaid N, Jackson TL, et al. A novel approach to oral iron delivery using ferrous
  518 sulphate loaded solid lipid nanoparticles. Int J Pharm. 2013;456(2):400–7.
- 519 41. Ying XY, Cui D, Yu L, et al. Solid lipid nanoparticles modified with chitosan oligosaccharides
  520 for the controlled release of doxorubicin. Carbohydr Polym. 2011;84(4):1357–64.
- 521 42. El-Shabouri M. Positively charged nanoparticles for improving the oral bioavailability of
  522 cyclosporin-A. Int J Pharm. 2002;249:101–8.
- 43. Gershanik T, Benita S. Positively charged self-emulsifying oil formulation for improving oral
  bioavailability of progesterone. Pharm Dev Techn. 1996;1(2):147–57.
- 44. Padmanabhan P, Grosse J, Asad ABMA, Radda GK, Golay X. Gastrointestinal transit
  measurements in mice with 99mTc-DTPA-labeled activated charcoal using NanoSPECT-CT. EJNMMI
  Res. 2013;3:60-8.
- 52845.Dalziel JE, Young W, Bercik P, et al. Tracking gastrointestinal transit of solids in aged rats as529pharmacological models of chronic dysmotility. Neutrogastroenterol Motil. 2016;28:1241–51.
- 530 46. Espada R, Valdespina S, Dea MA, et al. *In vivo* distribution and therapeutic efficacy of a novel
  531 amphotericin B poly-aggregated formulation. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2008;61(5):1125–31.
- 532 47. Banerjee T, Mitra S, Kumar Singh A, et al. Preparation, characterization and biodistribution
  533 of ultrafine chitosan nanoparticles. Int J Pharm. 2002;243:93–105.