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2	Nanostructured	lipid carriers (NLC) for the delivery of natural molecules with
3	antimicrobia	al activity: production, characterization and <i>in vitro</i> studies
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#### 25 ABSTRACT

This study describes the preparation, characterization and in vitro activity of nanostructured lipid 26 carriers (NLC) encapsulating natural molecules with antimicrobial activity, namely plumbagin, 27 hydroquinon, eugenol, alpha-asarone and alpha-tocopherol. NLC were prepared by melt and 28 ultrasonication method and characterized by Cryo-TEM for morphology and SdFFF for dimensional 29 distribution and active encapsulation yields. In vitro tests conducted on bacteria, fungi and human 30 cell culture. In vitro tests demonstrated that plumbagin is strongly toxic towards F. oxysporum 31 especially when active molecules are loaded on NLC. Plumbagin was completely non toxic on 32 cyanobacterial model strain up to a threshold over which cell viability was completely lost. NLC 33 loaded with active molecules showed a lower toxicity as compared to their free form on human 34 35 cultured cells. Notwithstanding further studies have to be performed, these systems can be potentially proposed to control phytopathogenic organisms. 36

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Abbreviations: Nanostructured lipid carriers: NLC; cryogenic transmission electron microscopy:
cryo-TEM; photon correlation spectroscopy: PCS; Sedimentation Field Flow Fractionation: SdFFF;
Plumbagin: PB, Hydroquinon: HQ, Eugenol: EU, α-Asarone: aA; α-Tocopherol: aT; Methanol:
MeOH; dimethyl sulfoxide: DMSO.

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44 Keywords: Nanoparticles, Nanotechnology, Formulation, Nanostructured lipid carriers.

# 45 Introduction

46

The long-term use of synthetic agrochemicals has led European governors and institutions to strongly
suggest and support research to find new eco-friendly solutions for agricultural practices reducing
environmental pollutants and increasing the use of bio-based products for pest control (Copping and
Duke, 2007; Duke et al., 2008; Dayan et al., 2009).

51 Despite the proved antimicrobial activity against phytopathogens of several natural extracts or pure

52 natural compounds (Balestra et al 2009; Dan et al., 2010; Pradhanang et al., 2003; Slusarenko et al.,

53 2008; Varvaro et al., 2001, Cowan, 1999; Scalbert et al., 1991; Shihabudeen et al., 2010; Tsuchiya et al., 1996), their in-field application points out some toughness, mainly represented by the low 54 solubility in water of the extracts, their instability and also by their handling and storage 55 56 characteristics. A possible effective solution to these critical points is represented by the use of micro-57 or nano- encapsulation strategies that may minimize the natural bioactive compound(s) degradation optimizing the efficacy as pest-controller. Micro- or nano- particles can be constituted by non-toxic, 58 59 chemically inert (inactive), biocompatible polymer or lipid matrix able to alloy both bioactive compound(s) and excipients without altering their chemical and physical properties (Battaglia et al., 60 2012; Nysrtom and Fadeel, 2012; Cortesi et al., 2002; Esposito et al., 2002; Takei et al., 2008; Glenn 61 et al., 2010; Gonzales et al., 2015). 62

In the present study, lipid-based nanoparticles, namely nanostructured lipid carriers (NLC), are considered as a versatile tool with a high potential of applications. Indeed, NLC can solubilize a number of molecules with different physico-chemical properties in a biocompatible and biodegradable matrix with well-established safety profiles. Moreover, lipid-based nanoparticles can significantly contribute in the field of green nanosystems due to their derivation from natural source. The production of NLC was carried out using blends of solid (e.g. triglycerides) and liquid (e.g. tricaprylin) lipids at room and body temperatures (Saupe et al., 2005) obtaining an imperfect and disordered lipid matrix able to accommodate poor water-soluble compounds (Yoon et al., 2013)
maintaining their physical stability for long periods of time.

Starting from these premises, the main target of the current study was to produce by standard 72 protocols NLC characterized in terms of morphology, inner structure, dimensional distribution and 73 encapsulation yield (Jores et al., 2004). NLC were then checked as encapsulation and solubilisation 74 tool for natural bioactive pure compounds - namely Plumbagin, Hydroquinone, Eugenol, α-Asarone 75 and  $\alpha$ -Tocopherol - chosen for their physical-chemical characteristics and their known in vitro 76 bioactivity (Kumar et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2015; Rajput et al., 2014; Teixeira et al., 2016). Therefore, 77 the aim and novelty of the research is to check the opportunity to use NLC as encapsulating 78 79 technology for bioactive natural compounds to be used in agriculture, trying to make bio-based 80 products competitive in the market of agricultural treatments products.

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82

## 83 Materials and methods

#### 84 Materials

Plumbagin (PB), Hydroquinone (HQ), Eugenol (EU), α-Asarone (aA) and α-Tocopherol (aT) were
purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Saint Louis, MO, USA) for checking and comparing their biological
activities as pure and microencapsulated compounds. The copolymer poly (ethylene oxide) (PEO, a)
-poly (propylene oxide) (PPO, b) (a=80, b=27) (poloxamer 188) was from BASF ChemTrade GmbH
(Burgbernheim, Germany). Caprylic/capric triglycerides (Miglyol 812 N, miglyol) were from Cremer
Oleo Division (Witten, Germany). Tristearin (stearic triglyceride), polysorbate 80 and all other
chemicals were from Sigma-Aldrich (Milano, Italy).

92

# 93 **Preformulatory study**

94 NLC were prepared by melt and ultrasonication method (Esposito et al., 2008). Briefly, 0.25 g of 95 lipid mixture was melted at 80 °C. The lipid mixture was constituted of tristearin/miglyol 2:1 w/w. 96 4.75 ml of an aqueous poloxamer 188 solution (2.5 % w/w) at 80 °C were poured into the vial 97 containing the molten lipids. The mixture was then emulsified at 15000 rpm, 80 °C for 1 min, using 98 a high-speed stirrer (Ultra Turrax T25, IKA-Werke GmbH & Co. KG, Staufen, Germany). The 99 emulsion was subjected to ultrasonication (Microson TM, Ultrasonic cell Disruptor) at 6.75 kHz for 15 min and then cooled down to room temperature.

In the case of active containing NLC, 0.2% w/w (with respect to total weight of dispersion) of each active (i.e. PB, HQ, EU, aA and aT) was added to the lipid mixture and dissolved before addition to the aqueous solution. Then the preparation was conducted as above described. The obtained dispersions were stored at room temperature and protected from the light until used.

105

# 106 Characterization of NLC

# 107 Cryo-Transmission Electron Microscopy

Samples vitrified as previously described (Esposito et al., 2008) were transferred to a Zeiss EM922Omega transmission electron microscope for imaging using a cryoholder (CT3500, Gatan). Throughout the examination, the sample temperature was kept below -175 °C. Specimens were examined with doses of about 1000-2000 e/nm<sup>2</sup> at 200 kV. Images were recorded digitally using a CCD camera (Ultrascan 1000, Gatan) by mean of an image processing system (GMS 1.9 software, Gatan).

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# 115 Photon Correlation Spectroscopy (PCS)

Submicron particle size analysis was performed using a Zetasizer Nano Series, Nano SP90 (Malvern
Instr., Malvern, England) equipped with a 5 mW helium neon laser with a wavelength output of 633
nm. Glassware was cleaned of dust by washing with detergent and rinsing twice with water for

injections. Measurements were made at 25 °C at an angle of 90°. Data were interpreted using the 119 CONTIN method (Pecora, 2000). 120

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#### Sedimentation Field Flow Fractionation Analysis 122

A sedimentation field flow fractionation analysis (SdFFF) system (Model S101, FFFractionation, 123 Inc., Salt Lake City, UT, USA) was employed to determine the size distribution of particles by 124 converting the fractograms, i.e. the graphical results (Contado et al., 1997). Fifty microliter samples 125 were injected through a 50 µl Rheodyne loop valve. As mobile phase demineralized water pumped 126 at 2.0 ml/min was used. After the SdFFF system fractions of 3 ml, being the collecting time 90 sec, 127 were automatically collected by a Model 2110 fraction collector (Bio Rad laboratories, UK). 128

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#### Active content in NLC 130

The encapsulation efficiency (EE) and loading capacity (LC) of NLC were determined by 131 centrifugation followed by dissolution of nanoparticles in methanol as previously described (Puglia 132 et al., 2013). 100 µl of each NLC batch was loaded in a centrifugal filter (Microcon centrifugal filter 133 unit YM-10 membrane, NMWCO 10 kDa, Sigma Aldrich, St Louis, MO, USA) and centrifuged 134 (Spectrafuge<sup>™</sup> 24D Digital Microcentrifuge, Woodbridge NJ, USA) at 8,000 rpm for 20 min. The 135 amount of active in both the lipid and the hydrophilic phase was determined by high performance 136 liquid chromatography (HPLC), analyses as below reported. The encapsulation parameters were 137 determined as follows. 138

139

$$EE = L_{active} / T_{active} \times 100$$
 (1)

140

$$EE = L_{active} / T_{active} \times 100$$
 (1)

$$LC = L_{active} / T_{lipid} \times 100$$
 (2)

where Lactive is the amount of active encapsulated in NLC; Tactive and Tlipid are the total weight of active 141 and lipid used for the NLC preparation, respectively. 142

#### 144 HPLC Procedure

145 The HPLC apparatus consisted of a two-plungers alternative pump (Jasco, Japan), an UV-detector 146 operating at the  $\lambda$  reported in Table 1, and a 7125 Rheodyne injection valve. RP-HPLC analysis was 147 performed using a stainless steel C-18 reverse-phase column (150×4.6 mm) packed with 5 µm 148 particles (Zorbax® Eclipse XDB - Agilent, USA). A pre-column filter Alltima C18 5µm (7.5x4.6 149 mm) was mounted above the column. Samples of 50 µl were injected through a 50 µl Rheodyne loop 150 valve. For each active the HPLC conditions are summarized in Table I.

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#### 152 In vitro release studies

153 In vitro release studies were performed using the dialysis method. Typically, 1.5 ml of NLC suspension were placed into a dialysis tube (8 cm) (molecular weight cut off 10,000-12,000; Medi 154 Cell International, England), then placed into 30 ml of receiving phase constituted of phosphate buffer 155 (100 mM, pH 7.4) and ethanol (70:30, v/v) and shaken in a horizontal shaker (MS1, Minishaker, IKA) 156 at 175 rpm at room temperature (23-25 °C). Samples of receiving phase were withdrawn at regular 157 158 time intervals, and analyzed by HPLC method as above described. Fresh receiving mixture was added to maintain constant volume. The encapsulation efficiency of each active was determined four-fold 159 in independent experiments and the mean values  $\pm$  standard deviations were calculated. 160

The obtained release data were fitted to the following semiempirical equations describing Fickian
dissolutive and diffusional release mechanisms, as previously indicated by Esposito et al. (2005).
Precisely,

164 
$$Mt/M\infty = K_{diff}t^{0.5} + c'$$
 (3)

$$1 - Mt/M\infty = e^{-Kdiss} t + c \tag{4}$$

where Mt is the active fraction released at the time t,  $M\infty$  is the total active content of the analyzed amount of NLC, K, c and c' are coefficients calculated by plotting the linear forms of the indicated 168 equations. The release data up to the plateau of percent were used to produce theoretical release169 curves.

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# 171 In vitro activity against phytopathogens

Clavibacter michiganensis subsp. nebraskense (ATCC 27822), Pseudomonas syringae pv. syringae 172 (ATCC 19310), Agrobacterium tumefaciens (DMS 30207), Agrobacterium vitis (DMS 6583) were 173 used as phytopathogen bacterial strains. For testing the antifungal capacity, Alternaria alternata 174 (SIAPA, Italy) and Fusarium oxysporum f. sp. radicis licopersici (SIAPA, Italy) were employed. 175 The culture media – all purchased from Oxoid (http://www.oxoid.com/uk/) – were: Tryptone Soya 176 Broth for C. michiganensis subsp. nebraskense and P. syringae pv. syringae; Nutrient Broth for A. 177 178 tumefaciens and A. vitis; Potato Dextrose Broth for A. alternata and F. oxysporum f. sp. radicis 179 licopersici.

The antimicrobial activity was assessed in triplicate by the microdilution broth method in 96-well 180 microplates (Microplate reader - Model 680 XR, BIO-RAD) as Minimum Inhibitory Concentration 181 (MIC) values of the pure and microencapsulated compounds (Furtado et al., 2014). Pure and 182 microencapsulated compounds PB, HQ, EU, aA and aT were dissolved to reach a final concentration 183 of 0.1 mg/ml in the specific culture media for each micro-organism and dimethyl sulfoxide (2%; 184 185 DMSO). This solution was then progressively diluted following a 1:2 ratio for each test dilution to determine the MIC values considered as the lowest concentration of each compound (pure and 186 microencapsulated) that inhibits the growth of the microorganisms. Each well contained a final 187 volume of 200 µL with 2x107 CFU/ml and 1x5x103 spores/ml, for bacterial and fungal strains 188 respectively. 189

190 The microplates with bacterial strains were incubated under gentle shaking (110 rpm) for 24 h at 191  $28^{\circ}$ C. Before (time 0) and after incubation (24h), the microplates were read at 615 nm to check the 192 bacterial growth. Then, 40 µL of the dye 2,3,5-triphenyl-tetrazolium chloride (20 mg/ml) were added in each well. Absorbance was recorded at 415 nm (time 0) and after 2 h of further incubation to check
bacterial viability. DMSO (2%) and chloramphenicol (0.1 mg/ml) were used as negative and positive
control respectively.

To check the antifungal activity, the microplates were incubated under gentle shaking (110 rpm) for
5 days at 26°C. After incubation, the fungal growth was visually determined. DMSO (2%) was used
as negative control.

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#### 200 In vitro *activity on algae*

The cyanobacterium *Synechococcus elongatus*, strain PCC 6301, was grown at  $24 \pm 1$  °C under 14-h 201 days (150 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> PAR) and 10-h nights as previously described (Demuner et al., 2013). Late 202 203 log-grown cells were settled by centrifugation 5 min at 4,000 x g, and used to inoculate 96-well plates, 0.2 ml per well, to an initial density of about 1.0 mg L<sup>-1</sup> chlorophyll. Aliquots (2  $\mu$ L) of suitable 204 dilutions of either 50 mg ml<sup>-1</sup> active stock solutions in DMSO or active -containing NLC dispersions 205 encapsulating the same molecules were added to obtain final concentrations ranging from 0.25 to 250 206 mg l<sup>-1</sup>. A complete randomized design with eight replications was adopted. Cell growth in each well 207 was followed for one week by daily determination of absorbance using a Ledetect 96 plate reader 208 (Labexim, Lengau, Austria) equipped with a LED plugin at 660 nm, subtracting turbidity at 750 nm. 209 210 Following logarithmic transformation of data, growth constants were calculated, and expressed as percent of the mean value for controls treated with the same volume of DMSO or non-active-211 containing NLC dispersions. Mean values  $\pm$  SE over replicates are reported. The concentrations 212 causing 50% inhibition (IC<sub>50</sub>) of cyanobacterial growth and their confidence limits were estimated by 213 nonlinear regression analysis using Prism 6 for Windows, version 6.03 (GraphPad Software). 214

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#### 216 In vitro activity on human cells

Human lung epithelial A549 cells (ATCC; Manassas, VA) were grown in F-12K nutrient mixture
(Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA), supplemented with 10% Foetal Calf Serum (FCS) and 1%
penicillin/streptomycin on Vitrogen-coated (Collagen Corporation, Palo Alto, CA) Costar clear
Transwells (0.4-mm pore size; Costar Corporation, Cambridge, MA) until a confluent monolayer was
established (approximately 4 × 106 cells/well).

Human keratinocytes HaCaT cells (a cell line gift from Dr. F. Virgili) were grown in Dulbecco's
modified Eagle's medium High Glucose (Lonza, Milan, Italy), supplemented with 10% FCS, 100
U/ml penicillin, 100 lg/ ml streptomycin and 2 mM L-glutamine as previously described (Sticozzi et
al., 2012). HaCaT cells were treated with different NLC doses (1 and 10 mM) at different time points
(1 and 24 h).

Free actives were dissolved in ethanol at a concentration of 10 mM as a stock solution then diluted to the required concentrations directly in the medium. The final concentration of ethanol in culture medium did not exceed 0.1% (v/v).

Viability studies were performed 24 h after the treatments and determined by cytofluorimetric assay Muse Count & Viability Kit (Millipore Corporation, Billerica, MA, USA). Briefly, 380  $\mu$ L with Muse Count & Viability working solution was added to cells (1x10<sup>6</sup> cell/ml), and 20  $\mu$ L of this cell suspension was incubated for 5 min at room temperature in the dark. L-lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) release was measured by enzymatic assay as previously described (Sticozzi et al., 2012) following the kit instructions (EuroClone, Milan, Italy). All tests were performed in triplicate and repeated at least three times.

237

238 **Results** 

239 Preparation of NLC

The molecules considered in the present study, namely PB, HQ, EU, A and T were selected on the basis of their physico-chemical characteristics, such as the low solubility in water (see Table 1),

and also of their *in vitro* bioactivity (Hammer et al., 1999; Naz et al., 2007; Prabuseenivasan et al.,
2006; Pereira et al., 2007). The production of bio-friendly NLC was performed by a two-step protocol
based on the emulsification of the molten lipid phase in an aqueous phase containing poloxamer 188
under high speed stirring at 15000 rpm, followed by treatment with probe ultrasound.

After preparation, the dispersions appeared white milky and free of aggregates and sediment. In the case of PB nanoparticle, due to the color of the molecule, the milky dispersion is yellow colored (Figure 1). Serial dilutions of the dispersions gave rise to a progressive decrease of the scattering intensity and of the milkiness.

The determination of the EE and LC was performed after centrifugation of the dispersions. As reported in Table 2, apart from HQ whose EE was around 31%, all the preparation showed an almost quantitative encapsulation within the lipid matrix of the nanoparticles, as proved by the very high EE. The behavior of the LC results was in agreement with those obtained for EE.

254

## 255 Characterization of dispersions

256 *Cryo-TEM* 

In order to shed light on the general morphology and internal structure of the dispersed particles in 257 NLC dispersions, Cryo-TEM analyses were conducted. Figure 2 shows cryo-TEM images of NLCs, 258 259 including samples of empty NLC (A), PB-NLC (B), EU-NLC (C), HQ-NLC (D), aA-NLC (E) and aT-NLC (F). As reported in literature, the use of blends of lipids in solid (i.e. tristearin) and liquid 260 state (i.e. miglyol) leads to the formation of imperfect lipid matrix structures with the absence of 261 clearly identifiable oil droplets in the NLC samples (Saupe et al., 2005; Esposito et al., 2012). In all 262 panels are visible platelets oriented at 0° and 180° appearing as ellipsoidal platelet-like crystalline 263 particles and dark structures edge-on viewed. No significant differences are appreciable between 264 empty and active loaded nanoparticles indicating that the presence of the active compound does not 265 affect the NLC aspect. 266

267

# 268 *PCS and SdFFF analyses*

Table 3 summarizes the dimensional size distribution of NLC as determined by PCS measurements. Notwithstanding all the prepared NLC formulations showed a bimodal distribution characterized by a Z-average mean diameter ranging between 200 and 240 nm, they possess the appropriate dimensional characteristics for the environmental distribution by spraying or nebulization.

NLC's size distribution was also determined by SdFFF method that allows to measure the particle size distribution within the sample, by retaining particles of different diameter and eluting them at a calculable time (Merkus et al., 1989). Indeed an observed retention time can be directly related by theory to the mass of the eluting particles and transformed into a size and the UV signal into a mass frequency function (Contado et al., 1997; Esposito et al., 2008). The obtained fractograms are thus converted into PSD plots according to well-proven equations.

Since particle in SdFFF are sorted based on their specific mass, knowing the particle density and by 279 supposing a spherical shape, the sizes represent diameter of an equivalent sphere (Bunjes, 2005). The 280 NLC's density was calculated as previously reported (Esposito et al., 2015). In Figure 3 the PSD plots 281 of three NLC samples taken as an example, namely PB-NLC, EU-NLC and aT-NLC, are reported. In 282 general it can be seen that the three samples subjected to SdFFF are characterized by a size 283 distribution superimposable to that obtained by PCS. Particularly, all the three samples show a quite 284 narrow peak around 100 nm and a secondary broad population spanning between 170 nm up to 600-285 800 nm. It is interesting to underline that PCS and SdFFF are based on completely different rational 286 principles. Indeed, PCS assesses the size considering the diffusion of the scattered light, thus the 287 obtained results depend on the particles' position when the laser ray hits them. On the other hand 288 SdFFF "weighs" in some extent the particles being considered as compact spheres of uniform density. 289 In this respect the complementary evaluation of size distribution by PCS and SdFFF are important to 290 obtain realistic information about particle size. 291

SdFFF was also employed to obtain information about the encapsulation of active compounds. The amount of each molecule encapsulated in the NLC was determined by HPLC after diluting with the mobile phase, by injecting the eluate exiting from the SdFFF channel collected during the fractionation. The injection results are reported in Figure 3 (square dots), where it is clearly evident that each active is entirely associated with NLC.

297 Concerning stability studies, macroscopic aspect of the formulations and their size stability was 298 evaluated over a period of six months from preparation. The formulations were sealed in glasses vials 299 and maintained at room temperature up to six months. No changes in macroscopic aspect (i.e. 300 precipitation, agglomeration or phase separations) were detectable. In addition, as reported in Table 301 4, the produced NLC maintain almost unchanged their dimensions.

302

# 303 In vitro release of active from NLC

In order to obtain quantitative and qualitative information about the active encapsulated in NLC, 304 namely PB-NLC, EU-NLC, aA-NLC and aT-NLC, an in vitro release profile was determined by a 305 dialysis method (Figure 4). Since the tested natural molecules are scarcely soluble in water, their 306 diffusion kinetic in aqueous physiological receptor phases is undetectable. Therefore as suggested by 307 literature, a non-physiological receptor phase composed of phosphate buffer and ethanol (70:30) was 308 309 used in order to allow the establishment of the sink conditions and to sustain permeant solubilization (Siewert et al., 2003). The theoretical release curves were determined according to the linear form of 310 Eqs. (3) and (4), mimicking a diffusive and a dissolutive model, respectively (Esposito et al., 2005). 311 The comparison between the theoretical curves calculated from equations (3) and (4) and the 312 experimental curves obtained for NLC showed that the experimental curves are superposable to the 313 theoretical curves referring to diffusive kinetics (data not shown). This was confirmed also by R and 314  $R^2$  values found by linearization of Eq. (3) reported in Table 5. 315

#### 317 Antimicrobial activity against phytopathogens

PB, EU, aA, aT, both as pure compounds and encapsulated in NLC, were tested for antimicrobial 318 activity against phytopathogenic bacteria and fungi (Table 6). The choice of the kind of 319 320 microorganisms was driven by their particular incidence as etiological agents for important arboreal and herbaceous cultures (Schumann and D'Arcy, 2009). In particular, the bacterial strains belonging 321 to Clavibacter michiganensis subsp. nebraskense (CM; Leaf freckles disease), Pseudomonas 322 syringae pv. syringae (PSS; Necrotic leaf spots, stem cankers and other symptoms related to the 323 different plant and part infected), Agrobacterium tumefaciens (AT; crown gall disease), 324 Agrobacterium vitis (AV; crown gall of grape disease) were used, while Alternaria alternata (AL; 325 leaf spot symptoms and other diseases related to the different plant infected) and Fusarium oxysporum 326 327 f. sp. radicis licopersici (FO; severe necrotrophic symptoms) were employed as phytopathogen fungi. 328 HQ, EU, aA, aT did not evidenced interesting bioactivities both as pure and micro-encapsulated showing growth inhibitory properties only at concentrations equal or higher than 200 µg/ml against 329 all employed microorganisms. PB showed instead valuable results against the bacterial strains AT, 330 AV and CM with MIC values ranging from 6.3 to 12.5 µg/ml as pure molecule, and from 12.5 to 25 331 µg/ml in microencapsulated form. PSS strain was more resistant to both the treatments with PB and 332 PB-NLC showing equal results (MIC=100 µg/ml). Similar sensitivity was evidenced by the fungal 333 phytopathogen AL, but the strongest and most interesting evidences were given by FO, in particular 334 by those cultures treated with PB-NLC (MIC=12.5 µg/ml) showing a sensitivity about 8-folds higher 335 than those treated with the sole pure PB (MIC=100  $\mu$ g/ml). 336

337

#### 338 Activity on a cyanobacterial model strain

PB, EU, aA, aT, both as pure compounds and encapsulated in NLC, were tested *in vitro* on
cyanobacterial strain and human cells. Cyanobacteria, also known as blue-green algae, are ubiquitous
photosynthetic prokaryotes that can be found in both terrestrial ecosystems and freshwaters, and are

342 particularly abundant under eutrophic conditions, as those in most cultivated fields. For these reasons, cyanobacterial strains are well suitable to assess non-target effects of phytochemicals. The addition 343 of increasing levels of PB, EU and aA to the culture medium of a Synechococcus sp. model strain 344 345 caused a marked inhibition of bacterial cell proliferation (Figure 5), with concentrations inhibiting growth by 50% (IC<sub>50</sub>) equal to  $60 \pm 6$ ,  $36 \pm 3$  and  $2 \pm 1 \mu g/ml$ , respectively. When the same natural 346 compounds were administered as encapsulated in NLC dispersions, in all cases an increased toxicity 347 was evident, with IC<sub>50</sub> values of  $16 \pm 2$ ,  $15 \pm 1$  and  $0.4 \pm 0.2 \mu \text{g/ml}$  for EU, aA and PB, respectively. 348 Interestingly, while for PB and EU a progressive, dose-dependent toxicity was found, in the case of 349 PB the addition was ineffective up to a concentration threshold, over which cell viability was 350 completely lost. A behavior completely different was observed for aT since, as expected, no toxic 351 effect was detected for aT, either in the free or NLC form. 352

353

# 354 Effect on human cell lines of NLC loaded with active compounds

Experiments on human cells were conducted testing the formulations that showed toxic activity on 355 356 phytopathogens and cyanobacteria. Concerning human keratinocytes as it is shown in Figure 6, treatment with aA and EU either as free compound or microencapsulated forms did not affect 357 significantly cell viability at the doses raging from 10.41 to 104.1 and 8.21 to 82.1 µg/ml respectively. 358 Of note is that when EU was loaded in NLC, the higher doses (82.1 µg/ml) significantly reduced 359 cellular viability of about 35%. A completely different response was observed with PB treatment, 360 indeed either alone or loaded in NLC PB resulted extremely toxic to keratinocytes ranging from the 361 362 doses of 9.41 to 94.1  $\mu$ g/ml.

363 In the case of human lung epithelial cells, as it is shown in Figure 7 treatment with aA affected cellular 364 viability in lung cell only at the higher doses (104.1  $\mu$ g/ml) but this effect was abolished when it was 365 loaded in NLC. Similar pattern was also noted for EU, where at the doses of 82.1 decreases cell 366 viability of about 50%, while once loaded in NLC this effect was eliminate. Pretreatment with PB, as only active compound, significantly affects cellular viability at all doses of
about 55%. This effect was abrogated when PB was loaded in NLC, demonstrating a completely no
toxic cellular effect.

370

# 371 Discussion

In recent years, the need to use more eco-friendly and natural-derived tools in agricultural treatments 372 for pest control has become increasingly urgent due to dramatic environmental issues and effects on 373 374 human and animal health caused by agrochemicals. Several researches were aimed to find plant extracts, fractions or pure natural compounds active against plant pathogens. Moreover, the strong 375 376 need to find a diffusion tool effective in preserving the bioactive molecule and in promoting at the same time the biological activity lowering toxicity was given (Friedman et al., 2002; Balestra et al., 377 2009; Quattrucci et al., 2013; Pradhanang et al., 2003; Slusarenko et al., 2008; Dan et al., 2010). In 378 light of these premises, nanoparticles enable better penetration into tissues for instance influencing 379 the effect of the carried molecule by inducing faster penetration or direct contact, or increasing the 380 exposure time of the biological active molecule to the phyto-pathogen(s) (Nel et al. 2006, 2009; 381 Margulis-Goshen and Magdassi 2012). Eco-friendly nanoparticles are needed, by employing 382 383 biocompatible solvents and renewable materials (i.e. lipids or polymers), or organic-solvent-free processes. This study was undertaken in order to provide an eco-friendly and effective encapsulation 384 385 strategy for natural bioactive molecules to obtain a NLC-Biomolecule tool. The obtained system was studied in vitro using different strategies and biological models to check the biological activity against 386 phytopathogens (fungi and bacteria), the potential toxicological impact involving environment (algal 387 model system) and humans (human cell lines) (Kah et al. 2013). 388

389 The nanoencapsulation of the selected active molecules for appropriate parameters allowed the 390 improvement of their solubility in aqueous formulation, solving the drawbacks associated with their 391 use up to at least 6 months from preparation. In addition, PCS and SdFFF techniques applied to

investigate the average size of the particles indicated that dimensions slightly increased during 180 days of storage time (data not shown). These data allow us to exclude the occurring of agglomeration process during the storage of these formulations. Possibly, the surfactant characteristics of poloxamer present within NLC composition prevent this from happening.

396 Cryo-TEM images revealed nanoparticles in good dispersion, in the nanometric range (according 397 with PCS and SdFFF results) with the characteristic ovoidal and ellipsoidal platelet-like crystalline 398 aspect unaffected by the presence of the active molecule. The analysis of in vitro release of the tested 399 active molecules from NLC suggested that it has to be ascribed mainly to dissolution rather than 400 diffusion rate confirming previously reported results concerning molecules encapsulated in lipid 401 based nanosystems (Esposito et al., 2012).

402 Results of in vitro assays performed against phytopathogenic bacteria and fungi were not promising in view of applicative large scale use in integrated or organic agricultural treatments, except for PB. 403 404 The results of the pure PB against AT, AV and CM were particularly relevant, but the microencapsulation reduced the efficacy from two- to four-folds, limiting the possibility of an effective use 405 of PB in agricultural formulations. Not particularly relevant were the results against PSS, with equal 406 MIC values (100 µg/ml), according to the known evidence of the higher resistance to treatments of 407 Gram negative bacteria than that of Gram positive ones (Chapman et al., 2016 and references therein). 408 409 The most interesting results were obtained against FO (severe necrotrophic symptoms). In fact, contraryly to what obtained with other microorganisms, PB-NLC showed an efficacy 8-folds higher 410 (MIC=12.5  $\mu$ g/ml) than that observed in the assays with the pure compound (MIC=100  $\mu$ g/ml). This 411 result is also relevant for the selective efficacy of the PB-NLC system suggesting the opportunity to 412 413 perform specific treatments without affecting the non-phytopathogenic fraction of the microbiota pointing out a further eco-friendly aspect of the research approach. 414

Similar results were obtained in vitro with a cyanobacterial model strain. Also in this case all the tested molecules increased their efficacy when administered in NLC (demonstrated by lower  $IC_{50}$  values) as compared to the correspondent free form. This suggests that a low uptake may limit their effectiveness, and that lipid encapsulation may help the active principles to reach their targets inside the cells. Consistently, and differently from data obtained for fungi, the addition of PB was completely ineffective up to concentration threshold over which cell viability was completely abolished. Although further experiments are required to shed light on these aspects, this suggests that a higher external concentration of PB is required to allow cell internalization, than to exert cytotoxic effects.

Overall, data indicate that the active molecules considered in this study when loaded on NLC showed 424 a lower activity against phytopathogens as compared to their free form suggesting that NLC is able 425 to prevent their possible toxicity by the slower release of the molecules in the tissues. However, the 426 427 opposite was true for cyanobacterial cells and PB-NLC, thus suggesting that in particular cases their use may provide better results than the free form. The rationale of testing those molecule in 428 keratinocytes and epithelial lung cells was based on the fact that these tissues (skin and respiratory 429 tract) are the main to be exposed to environmental molecules. From this study it is possible to read 430 that the use of NLC reduced the toxicity of the molecules analyzed most likely because they allow 431 the slow release of the active compound, avoiding the cells to be exposed to high dose (often toxic) 432 of natural extract. 433

434

# 435 **Conclusions**

Taken together, the results described in the present study allow us to potentially propose NLC loaded with natural molecules as an eco-friendly and biocompatible strategy possibly useful in the control of phytopathogenic organisms in agricultural treatments. To this aim, further intensive studies have yet to be performed in order to investigate the efficiency of these systems in greenhouse and in field.

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Table 1 Physico-chemical characteristic and HPLC conditions of the actives considered in thepresent study

	PB	EU	HQ	αΑ	aT
chemical structure	ООН	H <sub>3</sub> CO HO	НООН		
chemical formula	$C_{11}H_8O_3$	$C_{10}H_{12}O_2$	$C_6H_4(OH)_2$	$C_{12}H_{16}O_3$	$C_{29}H_{50}O_2$
water solubility	low	low	low	not soluble	not soluble
melting point (°C)	78-79°C	-10° C	172°C	62-63° C	2-4° C
molar mass (g/mol)	188.18	164.21	110.11	208.25	430.71
elution phase (v/v)	MeOH/Water (90:10)	MeOH/Water (60:40)	MeOH/Water (40:60)	MeOH/Water (70:30)	MeOH (100)
flux (ml/min)	0.5	1	0.5	1	1
$\lambda$ (nm)	254	215	290	258	295
retention time (min)	4	6	5	5	8

632 NLC

Table 2 Encapsulation efficiencies and loading capacities of the active in the produced

NLC	Encapsulation efficiency (%)	Loading capacity (mg/ml)
PB	89.1 ± 1.25	$4.21\pm~1.02$
HQ	31.1 ± 1.84	$1.67 \pm 0.11$
EU	81.4 ± 1.11	$3.92\pm0.71$
aA	$92.6\pm0.77$	$4.63\pm0.20$
аT	82.6 ± 1.87	$4.13\pm0.07$

Table 3 Dimensional characteristics of the produced NLC as determined by PCS

	empty-NLC	PB-NLC	HQ-NLC	EU-NLC	aA-NLC	aT-NLC
Z average (nm)	238	206	247	202	203	203
polydispersity index	0.39	0.24	0.19	0.25	0.25	0.26
Mean diameter by intensity (nm)	120 (42%) 415 (58%)	103 (76%) 290 (24%)	147 (52%) 408 (48%)	106 (64%) 410 (36%)	124 (59%) 395 (41%)	123 (66%) 397 (34%)

Table 4 Size of the produced NLC over a period of six months, as determined by PCS

days	empty-NLC (P.I.)	PB-NLC (P.I.)	HQ-NLC (P.I.)	EU-NLC (P.I.)	aA-NLC (P.I.)	aT-NLC (P.I.)
0	238 (0.39)	206 (0.24)	247 (0.19)	202 (0.25)	203 (0.25)	203 (0.26)
30	233 (0.22)	210 (0.19)	236 (0.17)	222 (0.21)	213 (0.23)	210 (0.24)
90	245 (0.23)	217 (0.21)	232 (0.18)	219 (0.22)	210 (0.21)	209 (0.20)
180	248 (0.20)	214 (0.18)	240 (0.19)	215 (0.18)	216 (0.24)	211 (0.23)

641 P.I. : polydispersity index

Equation	K	c, c'	R	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
$Mt/M^{\infty} = K_{Diff}t^{0,5}+c'$				
PB	34.007	-0.06889	0.98294	0.96617
EU	29.669	23.569	0.87914	0.77289
aA	52.576	-1.625	0.98964	0.97839
aT	20.642	-1.2494	0.9913	0.98278
1−Mt=M∞ ¼ e <sup>-Kdiss</sup> t +c				
PB	-0.2481	4.4616	0.97154	0.81449
EU	-0.26024	4.0062	0.86464	0.74760
aA	-0.70225	4.5806	0.9869	0.97397
aT	-0.1229	4.547	0.98279	0.96588

Table 5 Release kinetic parameters of active release from the produced NLC

K and c - Mathematical coefficients obtained by plotting the linear forms of the indicated equations, R - Regression coefficient  $R^2$  - Squared regression coefficient 

Table 6. MIC (Minimum Inhibitory Concentration; μg/ml) against phytopathogenic bacterial and

654 fungal strains.

MIC (μg/ml)	A. tumefaciens (AT)	A. vitis (AV)	C. michiganensis (CM)	P. syringae (PSS)	Alternaria sp (AL)	F. oxysporum (FO)
PB	6.3	12.5	12.5	100	100	100
PB-NLC	12.5	12.5	25	100	100	12.5
EU	200	> 200	200	200	200	> 200
EU-NLC	> 200	> 200	> 200	> 200	200	> 200
aA	> 200	> 200	200	200	200	> 200
aA-NLC	> 200	> 200	> 200	> 200	200	> 200
aT	> 200	> 200	> 200	> 200	> 200	> 200
aT-NLC	> 200	> 200	> 200	> 200	> 200	> 200

659 LEGENDS TO FIGURE
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Fig. 1 Macroscopic aspect of the produced NLC dispersions: PB-NLC, EU-NLC, HQ-NLC, aA-NLCand aT-NLC.

664	Fig. 2 Cryo-transmission electron microscopy images (cryo-TEM) of: empty NLC (A), PB-NLC (B),
665	EU-NLC (C), HQ-NLC (D), aA-NLC (E) and aT-NLC (F).
666	
667	Fig. 3 PSD plots of PB-NLC (A) and EU-NLC (B) and aT-NLC (C).
668	
669	<b>Fig. 4</b> <i>In vitro</i> release profile of active molecule from PB-NLC (dot), EU-NLC ( e), aA-NLC
670	(diamond) and aT-NLC (triangle). Experiments were performed by dialysis method. Data were the
671	mean of 4 experiments $\pm$ SD.
672	
673	Fig. 5 Effect of increasing concentrations of PB (A), EU (B), aA (C) and aT (D) as free form (dot) or

674 encapsulated in NLC (square) on the growth of the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus sp.*, strain PCC675 6301.

**Fig. 6.** Vitality of HaCaT cells after treatment with PB-NLC, EU-NLC and aA-NLC

**Fig. 7.** Vitality of A549 cells after treatment with PB-NLC, EU-NLC and aA-NLC