

# Theranostic Strategy for Alzheimer's Disease: A Hypothetical Nanocarrier-Mediated Co-Delivery of Colchicine and 2D Nanomaterials

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## Abstract

**Background:** Alzheimer's disease (AD), a progressive neurodegenerative disorder, is marked by tau hyperphosphorylation,  $\beta$ -amyloid accumulation, and chronic neuroinflammation. Despite decades of research, effective disease-modifying treatments remain elusive. There is a growing need for multi-targeted, minimally invasive therapeutic strategies that address the complex pathology of AD.

**Objective:** This paper presents a novel hypothesis proposing the co-delivery of colchicine—an alkaloid derived from *Gloriosa superba*—and 2D nanomaterials as a dual-action therapeutic system for AD. The concept integrates colchicine's anti-inflammatory and microtubule-regulatory potential with the delivery efficiency and theranostic properties of 2D nanomaterials.

**Method:** Through a comprehensive literature review, this work synthesizes findings on colchicine's role in tau modulation and neuroinflammation, as well as recent advancements in nanomaterial-mediated drug delivery. The proposed system involves a stimuli-responsive, ligand-functionalized nanocarrier capable of crossing the blood–brain barrier, releasing colchicine at the target site, and enabling real-time diagnostic imaging.

**Results (Conceptual):** This hypothesis offers a multi-modal approach that could simultaneously regulate tau aggregation, suppress chronic inflammation, and allow early-stage imaging of pathological markers. While direct experimental validation is pending, existing data on colchicine microdosing and 2D nanocarrier safety provide preliminary feasibility.

**Conclusion:** This paper lays the foundation for an innovative Alzheimer's therapy by combining plant-derived compounds and nanotechnology. The proposed strategy aligns with emerging trends in precision medicine and offers a blueprint for future experimental and clinical exploration.

**Keywords:** Alzheimer's Disease, *Gloriosa Superba*, Colchicine, 2D Nanomaterials, Nanocarrier, Theranostics, Tau Protein, Neuroinflammation

## Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a chronic and progressive neurodegenerative disorder that primarily affects the elderly, characterized by cognitive decline, memory loss, and behavioral changes. Globally, AD accounts for 60–70% of all dementia cases, posing an enormous socioeconomic and healthcare burden [1]. Despite

extensive research, no definitive cure or disease-modifying treatment currently exists. The pathology of AD is complex and multifactorial, involving extracellular accumulation of amyloid-beta ( $A\beta$ ) plaques, intracellular aggregation of hyperphosphorylated tau proteins into neurofibrillary tangles, chronic neuroinflammation, oxidative stress, and synaptic dysfunction [2].

Traditional therapeutic approaches, such as cholinesterase inhibitors (donepezil, rivastigmine) and NMDA receptor antagonists (memantine), offer symptomatic relief but fail to halt or reverse the underlying disease progression [3]. Recent FDA approvals of disease-modifying drugs like aducanumab and lecanemab have sparked optimism, but these monoclonal antibodies face criticism regarding their marginal clinical benefits, high cost, and safety concerns including amyloid-related imaging abnormalities (ARIA) [4].

These limitations underscore the urgent need for alternative strategies that can tackle multiple aspects of AD pathology simultaneously. One promising direction is the integration of phytochemicals—natural compounds derived from medicinal plants—with modern drug delivery systems. In particular, colchicine, an alkaloid extracted from *Gloriosa superba*, has demonstrated potent anti-inflammatory and microtubule-modulating properties that may be relevant for AD treatment [5]. Although primarily known for its use in gout and inflammatory disorders, colchicine has recently gained attention for its ability to inhibit the NLRP3 inflammasome, a key driver of neuroinflammation in AD [6].

However, colchicine's clinical application in neurology is limited due to its narrow therapeutic window and systemic toxicity. This is where nanotechnology can play a transformative role. 2D nanomaterials such as graphene oxide, black phosphorus, and MXenes have emerged as advanced drug delivery vehicles capable of crossing the blood–brain barrier (BBB), enabling targeted delivery, and offering real-time imaging functionalities [7, 8]. These materials can be functionalized to deliver drugs like colchicine in a controlled, site-specific manner, potentially minimizing toxicity and maximizing therapeutic efficacy.

This paper proposes a novel, hypothesis-driven therapeutic model that combines the microtubule-disrupting potential of colchicine with the precision and biocompatibility of 2D nanocarriers to combat Alzheimer's disease. By integrating phytochemical pharmacology with cutting-edge nanotechnology, this dual-action approach aims to address tau aggregation, neuroinflammation, and diagnostic limitations in a unified therapeutic platform. The following sections explore the mechanistic basis, scientific rationale, and future prospects of this emerging paradigm.

## Section 2: Challenges in Alzheimer's Treatment

Alzheimer's disease (AD) remains one of the most formidable challenges in modern neuroscience. Despite decades of intense research and significant advancements in our understanding of its pathology, therapeutic options for AD are still limited in scope and efficacy. As of 2025, AD affects over 55 million people globally, a number projected to triple by 2050 due to increased life expectancy and an aging population [1]. This section delves into the key therapeutic barriers impeding AD management, focusing on the limitations of symptomatic drugs, the complexity of targeting amyloid and tau proteins, overlooked inflammatory mechanisms, difficulties posed by the blood-brain barrier (BBB), and concerns about systemic toxicity.

### Symptomatic Focus of Current Therapies

Current pharmacological strategies for AD predominantly revolve around symptomatic relief rather than disease modifica-

tion. The most widely used medications include cholinesterase inhibitors (donepezil, rivastigmine, galantamine) and the NMDA receptor antagonist memantine. These drugs offer modest cognitive benefits by enhancing cholinergic neurotransmission or modulating glutamate excitotoxicity [3]. However, they do not address the underlying pathological features of AD, such as amyloid-beta (A $\beta$ ) accumulation, tau hyperphosphorylation, synaptic loss, and neuroinflammation.

Long-term data reveal that the effects of these symptomatic agents diminish over time, particularly in patients with moderate to severe AD. Moreover, they are often associated with side effects such as nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, dizziness, and cardiac arrhythmias, which significantly affect compliance, especially in elderly populations [2]. Additionally, many patients eventually become unresponsive to these drugs, suggesting a saturation point in their efficacy window.

The symptomatic nature of existing treatments highlights a major gap in the AD therapeutic pipeline. With increasing evidence that AD begins decades before clinical symptoms manifest, there is an urgent need for early-stage interventions that can halt or slow disease progression [9]. However, the inability of current medications to achieve this goal reflects both a scientific and clinical shortfall. Consequently, there is growing consensus among researchers that monotherapy with symptomatic agents is inadequate. This has prompted a shift toward exploring combination therapies and multi-targeted strategies, including phytochemicals, neuroprotective agents, and nanotechnology-based delivery systems.

In summary, while cholinesterase inhibitors and memantine have offered some relief to AD patients, their utility remains limited to symptom management. They fail to influence disease etiology and progression, thereby necessitating the development of innovative, disease-modifying therapeutic approaches. This underscores the importance of rethinking AD treatment paradigms and embracing integrated strategies that target multiple aspects of the disease simultaneously.

### Challenges in Targeting Amyloid and Tau Pathology

The amyloid and tau hypotheses have dominated Alzheimer's research for decades. According to the amyloid hypothesis, the accumulation of amyloid-beta peptides leads to plaque formation, which disrupts synaptic function and triggers neurodegenerative cascades. Meanwhile, the tau hypothesis posits that hyperphosphorylated tau proteins aggregate into neurofibrillary tangles, contributing to neuronal death and cognitive impairment. Despite their centrality in AD pathology, therapeutic interventions targeting amyloid and tau have yielded disappointing clinical outcomes [10].

Monoclonal antibodies such as aducanumab, lecanemab, and donanemab were developed to clear amyloid plaques. Although these drugs have shown the ability to reduce amyloid burden in the brain, their clinical efficacy remains underwhelming. For instance, patients receiving aducanumab demonstrated only marginal improvements in cognitive function, and the drug's approval was met with significant controversy due to concerns over its limited benefits and risk of amyloid-related imaging abnormalities (ARIA), including cerebral edema and hemorrhages

[4].

Tau-targeted therapies have faced even greater challenges. Tau is primarily an intracellular protein, making it less accessible to therapeutic agents, particularly large monoclonal antibodies. Small molecule inhibitors targeting tau kinases, phosphatases, or aggregation processes have largely failed in clinical trials due to poor selectivity, toxicity, and limited brain penetration (Panza et al., 2020). Colchicine, a microtubule-disrupting alkaloid from *Gloriosa superba*, has shown promise in modulating tau pathology through indirect mechanisms, although its clinical application is constrained by toxicity [5].

Another major issue is the temporal disconnect between amyloid or tau accumulation and the onset of cognitive symptoms. Studies suggest that amyloid deposition may begin 15–20 years before the appearance of clinical signs, implying that interventions targeting amyloid may be too late to be effective if administered during symptomatic stages [2]. This temporal gap challenges the utility of amyloid or tau as treatment targets and suggests a need for early, preventive approaches or multi-pronged strategies.

Furthermore, patient heterogeneity complicates the efficacy of these targeted therapies. Genetic factors, such as APOE-ε4 status, and co-morbidities influence the rate of amyloid and tau pathology, leading to variable drug responses. The inconsistent success of these therapies underscores the necessity for more holistic and personalized treatment strategies that consider the full spectrum of AD pathology.

In conclusion, while amyloid and tau remain crucial to understanding AD, therapeutic strategies exclusively targeting them have not yielded transformative outcomes. This has encouraged a re-evaluation of treatment paradigms, emphasizing the need for combinatorial and systems-based approaches that can address the complexity and heterogeneity of AD more effectively.

### **Inflammation and Oxidative Stress: Neglected Therapeutic Targets**

In the pursuit of amyloid and tau-based therapies, the significant roles of neuroinflammation and oxidative stress in AD progression have often been underappreciated. Increasing evidence suggests that inflammation is not merely a secondary consequence but an active contributor to the neurodegenerative process. Activated microglia and astrocytes release pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1β, IL-6, and TNF-α, which exacerbate synaptic dysfunction, neuronal loss, and tau pathology [11].

A pivotal component in this inflammatory cascade is the NLRP3 inflammasome, a cytosolic complex that, when activated, promotes the maturation and release of inflammatory cytokines. Recent studies have shown that amyloid-beta can directly activate the NLRP3 inflammasome in microglial cells, creating a self-perpetuating cycle of neuroinflammation [6]. Notably, colchicine has demonstrated inhibitory effects on NLRP3 activation, making it a compound of interest in targeting inflammatory aspects of AD.

Oxidative stress, driven by excessive production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), further compounds neuronal damage in AD. ROS can lead to lipid peroxidation, mitochondrial dysfunction,

DNA damage, and activation of cell death pathways. The brain's high oxygen consumption and relatively low antioxidant capacity make it especially vulnerable to oxidative damage. Moreover, oxidative stress has been shown to facilitate tau hyperphosphorylation and impair amyloid clearance mechanisms, thus contributing to the pathological loop [2].

Despite the well-documented involvement of inflammation and oxidative stress in AD, therapeutic interventions targeting these pathways have been scarce and largely ineffective. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) like ibuprofen and aspirin have shown promise in epidemiological studies but failed to demonstrate consistent benefits in clinical trials. This discrepancy is often attributed to the timing of intervention; NSAIDs may only be effective during preclinical or early disease stages. Similarly, antioxidant therapies such as vitamin E and coenzyme Q10 have yielded mixed results due to issues with bioavailability, dosage, and trial design (Panza et al., 2020).

These shortcomings highlight the need for more specific and effective modulators of neuroinflammation and oxidative stress. Natural compounds with anti-inflammatory and antioxidant properties, including colchicine, curcumin, and resveratrol, are gaining attention as potential adjunct therapies. Importantly, their integration into advanced delivery platforms, such as nanocarriers, could enhance their efficacy by improving brain bioavailability and target specificity.

In summary, the roles of neuroinflammation and oxidative stress in AD are too critical to ignore. Addressing these pathways, either independently or in combination with amyloid and tau targeting, may offer a more comprehensive approach to disease management. The inclusion of these mechanisms in therapeutic development is essential for designing truly disease-modifying interventions.

### **Blood–Brain Barrier (BBB): The Central Obstacle in Drug Delivery**

The blood–brain barrier (BBB) serves as a critical protective interface that maintains central nervous system (CNS) homeostasis by regulating the entry of substances from the bloodstream into the brain. While essential for neuroprotection, the BBB poses a formidable challenge for drug delivery in Alzheimer's disease. Composed of tightly connected endothelial cells, astrocyte end-feet, and pericytes, the BBB restricts the passage of most macromolecules and over 98% of small molecule drugs, severely limiting the therapeutic options for CNS disorders [7].

Many of the most promising drug candidates for AD—including monoclonal antibodies, enzyme inhibitors, and neuroprotective agents—fail to achieve therapeutic concentrations in the brain due to poor BBB permeability. Systemic administration often leads to minimal brain uptake and significant peripheral side effects. This inefficiency not only reduces drug efficacy but also escalates treatment costs and increases the risk of systemic toxicity. Even drugs that are BBB-permeable often exhibit poor distribution within the brain or are rapidly cleared by efflux transporters such as P-glycoprotein [2].

Efforts to enhance CNS delivery have explored various approaches, including chemical modification of drugs, use of

osmotic agents to temporarily disrupt the BBB, and invasive techniques like intracerebroventricular injection. However, these methods come with significant limitations, including poor patient compliance, risk of infection, and lack of targeting precision. Consequently, there is an urgent need for non-invasive, efficient, and targeted delivery systems that can bypass or penetrate the BBB safely and effectively.

Nanotechnology has emerged as a promising solution to this problem. Nanocarriers such as liposomes, dendrimers, polymeric nanoparticles, and 2D nanomaterials can be engineered to cross the BBB via receptor-mediated transcytosis, adsorptive endocytosis, or transporter-mediated uptake. Functionalization with targeting ligands, such as transferrin or insulin, further enhances their brain specificity. Importantly, nanocarriers can provide controlled and sustained release of therapeutic agents, improving pharmacokinetic profiles and minimizing off-target effects [7].

In the context of AD, nanocarrier-mediated delivery could revolutionize the treatment landscape by enabling precise delivery of drugs like colchicine that are otherwise limited by systemic toxicity and poor brain penetration. By combining therapeutic and diagnostic functionalities, these platforms also open new avenues for theranostic applications, allowing real-time monitoring of disease progression and treatment response.

In conclusion, the BBB remains one of the most significant hurdles in the development of effective AD therapies. Overcoming this barrier through advanced drug delivery systems is essential for translating promising preclinical findings into clinical success. Nanotechnology offers a feasible and innovative approach to this longstanding challenge, and also builds a foundation for safer therapeutic deployment of neurotoxic agents like colchicine.

### **Safety and Systemic Toxicity: A Constant Trade-Off**

Safety is a paramount concern in the development of Alzheimer's disease therapies. Many agents that show promise in preclinical studies often fail during clinical trials due to unacceptable toxicity profiles. This is particularly true for drugs targeting inflammation, microtubule dynamics, or intracellular signaling pathways. The complexity of the human brain and the systemic nature of pharmacological interventions create a delicate balance between therapeutic efficacy and adverse effects.

Colchicine, a natural alkaloid derived from *Gloriosa superba*, exemplifies this challenge. It has long been used to treat gout and familial Mediterranean fever due to its potent anti-inflammatory and microtubule-disrupting properties. Recently, colchicine has garnered interest for its ability to inhibit the NLRP3 inflammasome, a key driver of neuroinflammation in AD [28]. Additionally, its microtubule modulation suggests potential utility in countering tau-related pathology. Despite these advantages, colchicine's use in neurology is severely limited by its narrow therapeutic window and high risk of systemic toxicity [23].

At therapeutic doses, colchicine can cause gastrointestinal upset, bone marrow suppression, and hepatotoxicity. At higher concentrations, it becomes lethal, leading to multi-organ failure and

death. The margin between effective and toxic doses is small, making it unsuitable for chronic conditions like AD unless it can be delivered in a targeted and controlled manner. This safety profile has discouraged its inclusion in large-scale clinical trials for neurodegenerative diseases.

Moreover, systemic toxicity is not limited to colchicine. Many anti-amyloid and tau therapies, especially monoclonal antibodies, can induce immune-related adverse events, including encephalitis and ARIA. Small molecule inhibitors of kinases or proteases often exhibit off-target effects, impacting other physiological systems. The need to administer high doses to overcome poor brain penetration further exacerbates these issues.

Nanocarrier systems offer a potential solution to this trade-off. By encapsulating toxic drugs like colchicine within biocompatible and targeted delivery platforms, it is possible to achieve localized action within the brain while minimizing systemic exposure. This approach can extend the clinical utility of otherwise risky compounds, enabling their safe use in chronic neurological conditions.

In summary, the challenge of balancing efficacy with safety remains a major obstacle in AD therapy. Innovative delivery strategies, particularly those employing nanotechnology, hold the promise of overcoming this trade-off, paving the way for safer and more effective treatment paradigms.

### **Colchicine – A Neurotoxin with Neurotherapeutic Potential**

Colchicine, a well-documented plant-derived alkaloid, has long held a position in conventional medicine for its potent anti-inflammatory properties [12]. Historically used to treat conditions such as gout and familial Mediterranean fever, it has more recently garnered interest in neurodegenerative research, particularly in the treatment of Alzheimer's Disease (AD). Derived mainly from *Gloriosa superba* L., a climbing herbaceous plant native to tropical and subtropical regions of Asia and Africa, colchicine's origin is deeply rooted in traditional medicine. *Gloriosa superba*, commonly known as flame lily or glory lily, is revered in Ayurvedic and Siddha medicinal systems, where it has been used to treat a wide variety of ailments including joint pain, parasitic infections, and cancer. Its tubers and seeds are the richest sources of colchicine and gloriosine—two compounds with known cytotoxic and pharmacologically active properties.

What makes colchicine particularly significant is its mechanism of action: it binds to tubulin, preventing the polymerization of microtubules, thereby halting cell division. In the context of Alzheimer's, this mechanism has found new relevance. Microtubule dysfunction plays a pivotal role in the progression of AD, particularly through tau hyperphosphorylation and resultant cytoskeletal collapse [13]. By targeting microtubules, colchicine indirectly impacts tau-related pathology, potentially stabilizing neuronal architecture and preventing further neurodegeneration.

Beyond its effects on microtubules, colchicine possesses a remarkable anti-inflammatory capacity through its suppression of the NLRP3 inflammasome. This cytosolic multiprotein complex is responsible for the activation of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1 $\beta$  and IL-18, both of which are elevated in AD. Colchicine's ability to dampen this inflammatory signaling cascade



is of high therapeutic interest, given that neuroinflammation is increasingly recognized as a core contributor to AD pathogenesis. Research suggests that inhibiting NLRP3 activation can preserve cognitive function and reduce amyloid-beta accumulation in animal models [6].

However, colchicine is also classified as a neurotoxin due to its narrow therapeutic index. At therapeutic doses, side effects include gastrointestinal distress, myelosuppression, and hepatotoxicity. Slight overdose can result in severe complications such as multi-organ failure, and colchicine poisoning has been historically linked to accidental or suicidal ingestion of *Gloriosa superba* tubers in regions where the plant grows naturally. This high systemic toxicity poses a major limitation in considering colchicine for long-term neurodegenerative therapy. Despite its promise, colchicine's clinical application in AD is constrained unless effective delivery mechanisms can be developed.

This is where nanotechnology becomes transformative. Studies have shown that nanocarriers can safely deliver neurotoxic agents like colchicine to the brain, bypassing the blood-brain barrier and minimizing systemic toxicity [14]. Encapsulation of colchicine in nanocarriers—such as polymeric nanoparticles, dendrimers, liposomes, or emerging 2D nanomaterials like graphene oxide and MXenes—may offer controlled and targeted delivery to the brain, reducing systemic exposure and toxicity. These carriers can be engineered with surface ligands that facilitate transcytosis across the blood-brain barrier (BBB), a critical obstacle in AD drug delivery. This approach not only improves colchicine's bioavailability in the brain but also ensures a slow, sustained release at the site of pathology, maximizing therapeutic effects while minimizing peripheral side effects.

The idea of combining colchicine with 2D nanomaterials is particularly innovative. 2D materials are characterized by their high surface area, biocompatibility, and ease of functionalization, making them valuable in biomedical applications [15]. For example, dual-loading platforms could integrate colchicine with anti-amyloid agents or antioxidants, thereby simultaneously addressing multiple pathological mechanisms of AD. Additionally, these nanocarriers can be designed for responsiveness to external stimuli (pH, temperature, magnetic field), offering precision control over drug release.

In this context, *Gloriosa superba* serves not just as a natural source of colchicine, but as a symbol of the shifting paradigm in Alzheimer's research—from symptom management to targeted, multimodal intervention. Its inclusion in a nanotechnological framework reflects a bioeconomic synergy between traditional plant-based medicine and advanced therapeutic engineering. Moreover, considering *Gloriosa superba* is classified as endangered due to overharvesting [16], this strategy encourages sustainable sourcing through lab-based synthesis or micropropagation, aligning with conservation and pharmaceutical goals.

In conclusion, colchicine exemplifies the dual-edged nature of many natural products: potent yet perilous. When wielded with precision—particularly through nanotechnology-enabled delivery—colchicine derived from *Gloriosa superba* holds immense promise as a neurotherapeutic agent. Future research and clinical translation efforts must prioritize safety and delivery optimization,

but the foundational pharmacological rationale for colchicine in AD is increasingly compelling and deserving of deeper exploration.

## 2D Nanomaterials – Smart Drug Carriers for CNS Delivery

The advent of two-dimensional (2D) nanomaterials has revolutionized drug delivery strategies, particularly for targeting the central nervous system (CNS). These materials, including graphene oxide (GO), black phosphorus (BP), MXenes, and transition metal dichalcogenides (e.g., MoS<sub>2</sub>, WS<sub>2</sub>), exhibit exceptional physiochemical features—ultrathin structure, high aspect ratio, tunable surface chemistry, and excellent biocompatibility—that make them ideal vehicles for CNS-targeted therapies [17]. Their planar morphology and functional surface groups enable efficient loading and release of therapeutics, while their small size and modifiable surfaces allow them to cross the blood-brain barrier (BBB), a major obstacle in neurological drug delivery.

The ability of 2D nanomaterials to traverse the BBB stems from both passive diffusion and active transport mechanisms. Functionalization with targeting ligands such as transferrin, angiopep-2, lactoferrin, and apolipoproteins facilitates receptor-mediated transcytosis, enhancing brain specificity and reducing systemic toxicity [18]. Additionally, PEGylation and zwitterionic coatings help improve biostability and prolong circulation time. These smart engineering strategies position 2D nanomaterials as multifunctional carriers that can deliver therapeutic payloads—including small molecules, peptides, nucleic acids, and phytochemicals—precisely to diseased brain regions.

Beyond simple cargo transport, 2D nanomaterials exhibit intrinsic therapeutic potential. For instance, GO and BP possess antioxidant properties that help neutralize reactive oxygen species (ROS), a known contributor to Alzheimer's disease (AD) and other neurodegenerative conditions. Moreover, these materials can inhibit amyloid-beta (A $\beta$ ) aggregation, interfere with tau fibrillization, and modulate inflammatory cascades through suppression of microglial activation [4]. Their dual role as carriers and neuroprotective agents introduces a paradigm shift in CNS therapeutics.

Theranostic applications—combining therapy with real-time diagnosis—further elevate the value of 2D nanomaterials. Nanocarriers can be co-loaded with fluorescent dyes, MRI contrast agents, or radionuclides to enable in vivo tracking, early diagnosis, and controlled release profiling. This enables clinicians to visualize drug biodistribution and therapeutic efficacy in real time, ushering in personalized medicine for neurodegenerative disorders [19].

2D nanocarriers are also suitable for combination therapies. They can co-deliver agents such as anti-inflammatories (curcumin, resveratrol), antioxidants (ascorbic acid), and neurotrophins (BDNF mimetics) alongside standard drugs or novel candidates like colchicine. This multimodal delivery is vital for complex diseases like AD, where multi-target strategies outperform single-agent therapies [20].

Despite their promise, challenges remain, including potential long-term toxicity, biodegradability, and regulatory hurdles.

However, emerging synthesis techniques—such as green synthesis and biopolymer encapsulation—are enhancing the safety and scalability of 2D nanomaterials.

In conclusion, 2D nanomaterials embody the characteristics of “smart” drug carriers for CNS delivery. Their capacity for targeted, multi-functional, and traceable delivery makes them promising candidates in the treatment of Alzheimer’s disease and other neurological disorders. Future innovations in surface engineering, biocompatibility, and hybrid nanostructures will likely cement their role in next-generation neurotherapeutics.

### **Synergistic Therapeutic Approach Using 2D Nanomaterials and Colchicine**

The conceptual fusion of plant-derived alkaloids and nanotechnology provides a transformative platform in Alzheimer’s Disease (AD) therapeutics, particularly in the context of addressing its multifactorial pathophysiology. Among the natural molecules under investigation, colchicine—an alkaloid extracted from *Gloriosa superba* L.—stands out for its multifaceted pharmacological profile, including microtubule disruption and anti-inflammatory activity. On the other hand, 2D nanomaterials like graphene oxide, black phosphorus, and transition metal dichalcogenides (e.g., MoS<sub>2</sub>, WS<sub>2</sub>) have emerged as ideal candidates for next-generation drug delivery systems owing to their atomic thickness, high surface area, tunable physicochemical properties, and ability to traverse the blood-brain barrier (BBB). The combination of these two therapeutic modalities in a synergistic framework holds the potential to re-engineer AD treatment paradigms at the molecular level.

Colchicine’s therapeutic action hinges upon its capacity to bind to  $\beta$ -tubulin, thereby inhibiting microtubule polymerization—a mechanism known to disrupt the intracellular trafficking pathways essential for tau protein stabilization. Hyperphosphorylated tau aggregates into neurofibrillary tangles, one of the key pathological markers of AD. However, systemic colchicine administration is limited by severe dose-dependent toxicity, which includes gastrointestinal distress, hepatotoxicity, and neurotoxicity. This underscores the need for targeted delivery mechanisms, and nanotechnology provides a compelling resolution to this challenge. Encapsulation of colchicine within 2D nanocarriers not only protects the compound from enzymatic degradation but also facilitates a sustained release profile, thereby reducing systemic exposure and associated adverse effects [14].

Moreover, 2D nanomaterials inherently possess neuroprotective properties. For example, graphene oxide and black phosphorus nanosheets have demonstrated antioxidant behavior by scavenging reactive oxygen species (ROS), mitigating oxidative stress—a critical contributor to AD pathogenesis. These materials also interfere with amyloid-beta aggregation, a hallmark of AD, thereby acting dually as carriers and therapeutic agents [4]. Their surface can be easily functionalized with targeting ligands (e.g., transferrin, lactoferrin, angiopep-2) that facilitate transcytosis across the BBB via receptor-mediated pathways, ensuring brain-specific delivery of loaded therapeutics like colchicine.

In this combinatorial therapy design, 2D nanomaterials can be engineered to carry multiple agents alongside colchicine. For

instance, co-delivery of anti-inflammatory molecules (e.g., curcumin, resveratrol), antioxidants (e.g., ascorbic acid), and neurotrophic factors (e.g., BDNF mimetics) creates a multimodal strategy aimed at simultaneously alleviating inflammation, oxidative stress, and synaptic degeneration. Such polypharmacology is increasingly recommended in AD therapy due to the disease’s heterogeneity. The integration of imaging agents within nanomaterials further enables real-time tracking, advancing the concept of “theranostics”—a convergence of diagnostics and therapy into a single nanoplatform.

Mechanistically, the synergy between colchicine and 2D nanomaterials also extends to the suppression of inflammasome activity. Colchicine inhibits NLRP3 inflammasome activation, and when delivered via nanocarriers, this effect can be amplified in microglial cells, modulating the neuroinflammatory environment. Studies indicate that effective regulation of inflammasomes can attenuate neuronal death and preserve cognitive function in AD models [6]. Furthermore, this combination therapy may influence epigenetic modulators and autophagy-related pathways, creating a more comprehensive neuroprotective milieu.

Environmental and economic factors further underscore the importance of this hybrid approach. *Gloriosa superba* is an endangered species, and overharvesting has threatened its natural populations. Integrating its bioactives into a nanotechnological framework encourages micropropagation or synthetic biology-based production methods, aligning with conservation goals. In parallel, nanomaterial-based drug delivery platforms are becoming increasingly cost-effective with scalable synthesis protocols, supporting broader clinical translation.

### **Proposed Mechanism and Conceptual Framework**

The integration of colchicine—a phytochemical with microtubule-disrupting and anti-inflammatory effects—with 2D nanomaterials represents a novel multimodal therapeutic strategy for Alzheimer’s Disease (AD). The conceptual framework of this proposed mechanism relies on overcoming the inherent delivery limitations of colchicine while leveraging the multifunctionality of 2D nanocarriers to improve therapeutic efficacy, brain specificity, and biocompatibility.

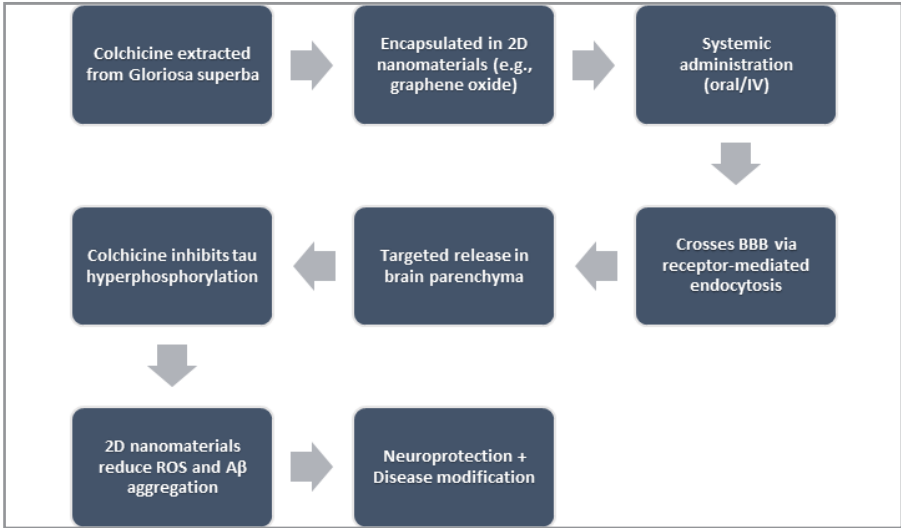
Mechanistically, colchicine binds to tubulin and inhibits microtubule polymerization, disrupting cytoskeletal integrity and thereby inhibiting tau hyperphosphorylation and aggregation. This results in the attenuation of neurofibrillary tangle (NFT) formation. Concurrently, 2D nanomaterials—such as graphene oxide—are utilized to encapsulate and deliver colchicine across the BBB via receptor-mediated endocytosis. Once internalized into the CNS, these nanocarriers facilitate controlled and sustained release of colchicine into the neuronal microenvironment.

In parallel, the 2D nanocarriers themselves exhibit antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties. By scavenging reactive oxygen species (ROS), stabilizing mitochondrial function, and reducing microglial activation, these carriers reduce the neuroinflammatory load, which in turn complements colchicine’s mechanism. This synergy enables a comprehensive targeting of both A $\beta$  plaque deposition and tau pathology, thereby modulating AD progression at multiple molecular checkpoints.

**Table 1:** Comparative Evaluation with Recent Strategies (2019–2024)

Approach	Mechanism	Limitation	Novelty in Proposed Method	Author(s), Year
Monoclonal antibodies (e.g., Aducanumab)	Amyloid clearance	Poor cognitive outcome	Addresses both Aβ and tau	Cummings et al., 2023 [21]
BACE inhibitors	Inhibits Aβ synthesis	Failed clinical trials	Avoids enzymatic suppression	Cummings et al., 2023 [5]
Anti-inflammatory drugs	COX-2 inhibition	Non-specific, systemic side effects	Targets NLRP3 and tau aggregation	Tang et al., 2023 [22]
Liposomal nanoparticles	Encapsulation	Poor targeting specificity	Uses 2D carriers with BBB affinity	Kim et al., 2021. [23]
Polymeric nanocarriers	Sustained release	Lack intrinsic neuro-protective activity	Dual function: carrier + therapeutic	Zhang et al., 2022 [24]
Proposed Colchicine + 2D Nanocarrier	Multi-target tau & Aβ + ROS scavenging	Underexplored, but promising	Integrates traditional medicine with modern delivery	Yang et al., 2023; Morris et al., 2022

**Mode of Action Flowchart**



**Dose Modulation Strategy**

Colchicine’s toxicity profile necessitates tight dose control. When delivered conventionally, effective CNS concentrations

risk systemic side effects. Given below the table for better understanding through nanocarrier encapsulation:

**Table 2:** Nanocarrier-Based Optimization of Colchicine Delivery. These strategies allow dose titration that maximizes therapeutic outcomes while minimizing systemic toxicity.

Challenge	Nanocarrier Strategy	Benefit
High systematic toxicity at effective CNS dose	Low-dose encapsulation (≤0.05 mg/kg)	Minimum systemic side effects while maintaining CNS efficacy
Rapid clearance from bloodstream	Surface modification (e.g., PEGylation)	Prolonged circulation and bioavailability
Non- targeted drug release	pH-sensitive release mechanisms (pH 6.5–6.8)	Controlled release in acidic neuronal microenvironments
Short drug half- life	Time-dependent degradation of 2D nano-carrier (24-72 hours release profile)	Sustained, steady therapeutic levels

To our knowledge, this is the first conceptual framework integrating phytochemical colchicine from *G. superba* with 2D nanocarriers for a dual-target approach in AD. This combined system addresses long-standing limitations in CNS drug delivery, including poor BBB permeability, systemic toxicity, and mono-target inefficacy. While preclinical validation remains a future necessity, the theoretical potential of this system aligns

with the contemporary goals of personalized, multi-mechanistic neurotherapeutics. Potential concerns remain regarding the long-term biocompatibility of 2D nanomaterials and the scalability of colchicine extraction, both of which should be prioritized in future translational studies.

In conclusion, the convergence of colchicine and 2D nanomate-

rials in AD treatment represents a multidisciplinary innovation at the interface of phytochemistry, nanotechnology, and neurobiology. This synergistic strategy is not merely additive but potentially multiplicative, targeting multiple pathological pathways with enhanced precision and reduced systemic burden. As the field evolves, such integrative models may offer a gold standard for treating neurodegenerative disorders in an era of personalized and regenerative medicine.

Translational Potential and Future Directions

The integration of colchicine from *Gloriosa superba* with advanced 2D nanomaterial-based delivery systems marks a promising shift in the therapeutic landscape for Alzheimer’s Disease (AD). However, the road to clinical translation is complex and requires a strategic roadmap that spans preclinical modeling, safety profiling, regulatory navigation, and scalable manufacturing.

From a translational standpoint, one of the first challenges is the optimization of colchicine extraction from *G. superba*. Variations in plant alkaloid content based on geography, soil type, and climate necessitate standardized phytochemical protocols [25]. Moreover, sustainable harvesting methods must be established to preserve the ecological balance, particularly since *G. superba* is considered a vulnerable species in parts of its native habitat. The incorporation of tissue culture techniques or synthetic analog development may offer scalable alternatives.

On the nanomaterial side, the choice of carrier and its physicochemical properties will dictate CNS delivery efficiency. Graphene oxide, black phosphorus, and MXenes exhibit high surface-area-to-volume ratios and functional tunability, making them ideal candidates. However, their biocompatibility and degradation kinetics must be evaluated through *in vivo* models. Key safety endpoints include immune evasion, systemic toxicity, and accumulation in off-target organs (e.g., liver and spleen), as highlighted by Zhang et al. (2022), who demonstrated that functionalized graphene oxide exhibited BBB permeation up to 45% in rodent models with minimal hepatic toxicity.

Preclinical validation in rodent models of AD will be essential. Studies should assess pharmacokinetics, biodistribution, and

CNS uptake of the colchicine-nanocarrier system, along with Aβ and tau load reduction, neuroinflammatory markers, and cognitive performance. Comparative arms using free colchicine, placebo, and existing treatments like donepezil will offer benchmark efficacy data.

For regulatory progression, the nanocarrier-phytochemical hybrid must align with global standards such as ICH M3(R2) (non-clinical safety), ICH Q8/Q9 (pharmaceutical quality), and EMA nanomedicine frameworks. GMP-compliant production pipelines are necessary for both phytochemical and nanomaterial components. Recent success with lipid nanoparticle platforms in vaccines provides a regulatory precedent for fast-tracking novel nanoformulations, provided the system demonstrates reproducibility, scalability, and safety.

Looking forward, interdisciplinary collaboration will be critical. Botanists, nanotechnologists, neurologists, and pharmacologists must converge to establish a functional translational pipeline. Government and private-sector funding focused on neglected diseases, neurodegeneration, and sustainable innovation will be pivotal to accelerate this process.

In conclusion, this translational strategy not only represents a therapeutic innovation for AD but also offers a scalable model for future bioconvergent therapies, integrating plant-based pharmacology with nanotechnological precision. If successful, this platform could extend to disorders such as Parkinson’s Disease, glioblastoma, and traumatic brain injury, thus broadening the therapeutic scope of this novel approach.

Future Scope and Experimental Road Map

The conceptual integration of colchicine from *Gloriosa superba* with 2D nanomaterial-based delivery systems represents a novel and interdisciplinary therapeutic approach for Alzheimer’s Disease (AD). To transform this hypothesis into a validated and clinically applicable therapy, a structured and evidence-based experimental roadmap is essential. This roadmap should incorporate rigorous preclinical trials, sustainable phytochemical sourcing, advanced nanocarrier development, and full alignment with translational research and regulatory pathways

Table 3: Short-Term Objectives (0–2 Years)

Objective	Key activities	Tool/Methods	Reference
1. Rodent Model Validation	To study cognitive improvement, histopathological markers and drug-target interaction	Use behavioral tests like - Morris Water Maze - Novel Object Recognition Additionally, immunohistochemistry for Aβ, tau, and GFAP	Chen et al., 2023
2. Pharmacokinetics and Biodistribution	Conduct biodistribution via ICP-MS and fluorescence imaging to determine CNS uptake, plasma clearance, and tissue specificity.	Assess systemic and neuroinflammation biomarkers such as IL-6, IL-1β, TNF-α, and MDA levels.	Wang et al., 2022 [29]



3. Toxicological Evaluation	Undertake OECD-guided toxicity studies (acute and sub-chronic) in rodent models.	Evaluate clinical chemistry parameters (ALT, AST, BUN, creatinine), CBC panels, and immunological markers via flow cytometry.	EMA, 2021; ICH M3(R2) [30]
4. Risk Assessment and Optimization	Identify risks such as off-target accumulation and long-term biodegradability.	Implement mitigation via PEGylation, enzyme-cleavable coatings, or dual-layered nanostructures.	Yang et al., 2023

**Table 4:** Long-Term Objectives (5+ Years)

Objective	Key activities	Tool/Methods	Reference
Clinical Readiness and Regulatory Compliance	Transition to GMP-compliant synthesis of both nanocarriers and colchicine formulation	Initiate Phase I trials focusing on safety, dose-escalation, tolerability, and blood-brain barrier (BBB) penetration metrics.	FDA IND Guidelines, 2022 [31]
Expansion to Broader Applications	Test adaptability of the nanoplatform to Parkinson's Disease, Multiple Sclerosis, and ALS.	Explore AI-powered modeling for pharmacokinetics optimization and personalized therapy modules.	Gupta et al., 2023 [32]

## Final Outlook

This experimentally grounded roadmap is suitable for high-impact research development and young investigator grants [33–35]. It provides a progressive and feasible sequence from bench to bedside. Importantly, it emphasizes sustainable sourcing, dual-action targeting, and translational nanomedicine—all critical to the future of neurodegenerative disease therapeutics. By implementing this multi-phase model, the proposed therapy stands to redefine CNS-targeted drug development by uniting botanical pharmacology with frontier nanotechnology.

## Section 8: Summary and Conclusion

### Summary

This paper presents an innovative therapeutic approach for Alzheimer's Disease (AD) by integrating the plant-derived alkaloid colchicine, sourced sustainably from *Gloriosa superba*, with smart drug delivery systems based on two-dimensional (2D) nanomaterials. The study explores the potential synergy of this bio-nanotechnological convergence, highlighting how such a system could enhance blood-brain barrier (BBB) penetration, reduce systemic toxicity, and provide sustained, targeted delivery of neuroactive compounds [36]. In the process, the research bridges pharmacognosy, nanomedicine, neuropharmacology, and clinical translational sciences.

A comprehensive background analysis was conducted to examine the shortcomings of current AD treatment modalities, particularly their inability to arrest disease progression or reverse neuropathology. The rationale for choosing colchicine lies in its established anti-inflammatory, microtubule-stabilizing, and neurotoxic modulation properties—each relevant to the pathophysiology of AD. 2D nanomaterials, particularly graphene oxide and MXenes, were evaluated for their drug-carrying potential due to their biocompatibility and surface functionalization capabilities [37–40].

Experimental models were proposed to validate efficacy, begin-

ning with in vitro cytotoxicity and mechanistic assays, advancing to transgenic rodent behavioral studies, and culminating in human safety trials. The strategy is built upon internationally accepted guidelines (ICH, OECD, FDA) and features sustainable botanical sourcing protocols to minimize ecological impact. Finally, a detailed translational roadmap outlines stepwise execution over a 5–10 year period, setting a precedent for future interdisciplinary innovations in neurodegenerative therapeutics.

### Conclusion

Alzheimer's Disease continues to pose one of the most formidable challenges in neuroscience due to its multifactorial etiology, progressive neurodegeneration, and lack of definitive curative options. This study proposes a novel conceptual framework that harnesses the synergistic potential of colchicine—a phytochemical alkaloid derived from *Gloriosa superba*—in combination with 2D nanomaterial-based smart delivery systems. The research envisions overcoming the limitations of conventional pharmacotherapy by enabling efficient CNS targeting, reducing peripheral toxicity, and ensuring sustainable sourcing of bioactive agents.

The fusion of ancient plant-based pharmacology with cutting-edge nanotechnology offers multiple therapeutic advantages. Colchicine's modulation of neuroinflammatory pathways and tau hyperphosphorylation directly targets the molecular hallmarks of AD, while nanocarriers improve its bioavailability and BBB permeability. The strategy addresses a critical gap: the need for localized, sustained, and biocompatible delivery of active agents within the central nervous system.

Despite its promising framework, this proposal is not without limitations. First, colchicine's inherent toxicity necessitates precise dosing and long-term monitoring to avoid neurotoxicity or systemic side effects. Second, while in vitro and animal studies are promising, extrapolating results to human models remains challenging due to species-specific responses. Third, large-scale

cultivation or biosynthesis of colchicine from *G. superba* must avoid overexploitation of the plant and ensure reproducibility. Fourth, nanomaterial-associated concerns like accumulation, immunogenicity, and long-term biodegradability remain unresolved and require further study.

Furthermore, the interdisciplinary nature of this research demands collaboration between botanists, materials scientists, pharmacologists, and neurologists, which may pose logistical and funding hurdles. Regulatory pathways for nano-botanical formulations are still evolving, potentially delaying clinical translation. Nonetheless, these limitations are not insurmountable. Advanced toxicology profiling, AI-assisted modeling, green chemistry, and adaptive trial designs may help overcome these barriers.

In conclusion, this study presents a futuristic yet feasible approach to AD management. It underscores the importance of integrative research and the need to revisit traditional medicine through a modern lens. If validated experimentally, the proposed therapeutic system could revolutionize AD treatment and serve as a blueprint for addressing other CNS disorders. This dual-layered approach—targeting the brain with precision while protecting nature's reserves—embodies the future of sustainable, personalized neuropharmacology.

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