

Cytotoxic effects of chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules on the 4T1 breast cancer cell line.

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ABSTRACT

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Keywords: Alginate-Chitosan Nanocapsule, Chloridazon, Pyridazinone, Cytotoxicity.

Background: Chloridazon belongs to the pyridazinone group of herbicides. Pyridazinone derivatives are known to have various pharmacological activities, including anti-cancer effects. Therefore, our study aimed to assess the cytotoxicity, apoptotic, anti-metastasis, and anti-angiogenesis effects of chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules on the 4T1 breast cancer cell line. **Materials and Methods:** The 4T1 cell line was cultured in RPMI 1640 media and treated with different concentrations of chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules. Cell viability was evaluated using the MTT assay, while cell vitality was assessed using the NR uptake assay. Apoptosis was induced and observed through acridine orange and propidium iodide staining. Furthermore, the expression levels of genes associated with metastasis (MMP-2 & MMP-9) and angiogenesis (VEGF-A) were analyzed using the RT-PCR technique. **Results:** The chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules displayed increased cytotoxicity on the 4T1 cell line in a dose-dependent manner. As the treatment dose increased, both cell viability and vitality decreased. The IC50 of the nanoformulation was measured as 74 µg/ml based on the dose-response curve. Additionally, the nanoformulation was found to induce apoptosis and decrease the expression levels of genes related to metastasis (MMP-2 & MMP-9) and angiogenesis (VEGF-A). Notably, the doses of 100 µg/ml and 160 µg/ml of the nanoformulation exhibited the most significant effects. **Conclusion:** Our findings reveal that the chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules have the potential to exert cytotoxic effects on the 4T1 breast cancer cell line.

INTRODUCTION

Drug nanoencapsulation is a promising technique that has been extensively studied in recent years. It involves enclosing drug molecules in a nano-sized carrier system. These carriers, also known as nanoparticles, can be made from various materials such as lipids, polymers, or metals. The primary objective of drug nanoencapsulation is to enhance the pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of the drug. This technique offers several advantages, including protection of the drug from degradation, controlled drug release, improved drug solubility, and enhanced stability. Moreover, encapsulating drugs in a carrier enables targeted delivery to specific sites within the body and facilitates transport across physiological barriers. This approach minimizes

unwanted side effects and enhances therapeutic efficacy⁽¹⁻⁴⁾. Ultimately, drug nanoencapsulation holds immense potential for various applications, including cancer treatment, infectious diseases, tumor immunotherapy, and other medical conditions⁽⁵⁻⁸⁾. Notably, it has been extensively explored in cancer treatment due to its ability to deliver drugs specifically to tumor cells while minimizing harm to healthy tissue^(9,10).

Natural polymers, such as chitosan, alginate, hyaluronic acid, and silk fibroin, show promise for drug delivery applications. These polymers are extensively investigated in nanoencapsulation due to their biocompatibility and biodegradability. Utilizing natural polymers in nanoencapsulation approaches can enhance drug solubility, stability, and controlled release⁽¹¹⁾. Alginate, a naturally occurring

polysaccharide, has excellent pH sensitivity, biocompatibility, superior gelling properties, and low toxicity, making it suitable for drug nanoencapsulation (12,13). Another natural polymer, chitosan, is one of the most extensively studied materials for drug nanoencapsulation. It is biocompatible, biodegradable, and positively charged, allowing for interaction with negatively charged molecules. Chitosan nanoparticles have shown promising results in improving the solubility, stability, and oral bioavailability of poorly soluble drugs (14,15). Combining alginate and chitosan through ionotropic gelation results in the formation of a gel matrix that can effectively encapsulate bioactive compounds. This interaction between the polymers leads to the formation of nano-sized particles that encapsulate the compounds. Additionally, this combination can enhance the solubility and bioavailability of poorly soluble compounds and enable controlled release (16).

Chloridazon (5-Amino-4-chloro-2-phenylpyridazin-3 (2H)-one) is a selective herbicide that is commonly used for controlling weeds in fields of vegetables (17). Research conducted by Šiviková K *et al.* (1999) demonstrated the ability of chloridazon to interact with eukaryotic cell DNA (18). Chloridazon belongs to the pyridazinone group of herbicides and is also known as 5-amino-4-chloro-2-phenyl-3(2H)-pyridazinone. The chemical structure of chloridazon features a substituted pyridazinone ring, which is a characteristic feature of compounds in the pyridazinone group. Specifically, in the molecular structure of chloridazon, pyridazin-3(2H)-one is substituted by an amino group at position 5, a chloro group at position 4, and a phenyl group at position 2 (19). Pyridazinone derivatives have displayed a wide range of pharmacological activities, including antihypertensive, adrenoceptor antagonism, cardiostimulant effects, anti-inflammatory properties, asthma inhibition, and anticancer activity (20). Preclinical studies have demonstrated promising anticancer effects of pyridazinones, which act by inhibiting enzymes involved in DNA replication and transcription. These compounds have shown activity against various cancer types, including breast, lung, and colon cancer (21,22). Novel 3(2H)-pyridazinone derivatives were designed and synthesized by Özdemir Z *et al.* (2020) and evaluated through different experimental assays to assess their preliminary *in vivo* toxicity and *in vitro* anti-proliferative effects against HCT116 cell lines. The results revealed that certain compounds exhibited promising anti-proliferative effects against HCT116 cells, either alone or in the presence of serotonin as a pro-inflammatory factor, mimicking an inflamed model *in vivo* of a cancer cell microenvironment (23). Another study by I.G R *et al.* (2012) focused on a series of novel 6-aryl-2-(p-sulfamylphenyl)-pyridazin-3(2H)-ones and their

anticancer activity. These novel pyridazinone derivatives showed acceptable activity against leukemia, non-small cell lung cancer, colon, central nervous system, melanoma, ovarian, and breast cancer cell lines (24).

In our study, we aimed to investigate the biological effects of nanoencapsulated chloridazon, particularly regarding its cytotoxicity, induction of apoptosis, and alteration of gene expression related to metastasis and angiogenesis in the 4T1 mouse breast cancer cell line. We utilized chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules for the treatment. Our research is the first to explore the effectiveness of chloridazon nanoencapsulation and its biological effects on breast cancer cells in an animal model utilizing the BALB/c-derived 4T1 model.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals

Roswell Park Memorial Institute (RPMI) 1640 medium, Fetal bovine serum (FBS), and Trypsin containing Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) were purchased from Gibco/Life Technologies, Inc, USA. 3 - (4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl) - 2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide (MTT), Natural red (NR), Acridine orange (AO), Propidium iodide (PI), Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, USA. Technical Chloridazon was kindly provided as a gift by Bisetoon Kermanshah Chemical Complex, Inc., Iran.

Preparation of Chloridazon-loaded Alginate-Chitosan Nanocapsules

In this particular study, both chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules and blank alginate-chitosan nanocapsules, previously synthesized in our earlier research, were utilized. The chitosan-alginate nanocapsules were prepared through a two-step process involving the ionotropic pre-gelation of an alginate core, followed by the creation of a chitosan polyelectrolyte complex. The protocol utilized in our previous study (25) was applied. Different concentrations of chloridazon (10 µg/ml, 20 µg/ml, 40 µg/ml, 80 µg/ml, 100 µg/ml, 160 µg/ml, and 200 µg/ml) were prepared based on the drug loading percentage of nanocapsules. For the present study, blank chitosan-alginate nanocapsules (100 µg/ml) and technical chloridazon (100 µg/ml) were employed.

Cell Culture and Treatment

The 4T1 mouse breast cancer cell line was obtained from the Pasture Institute, Cell Bank of Iran (NCBI, Tehran, Iran). The 4T1 cells were cultured in 25T flasks (SPL. Pro Lab Supply Corp, USA) containing 5 ml of RPMI 1640 medium supplemented

with 10% FBS. The flasks (Labotect.C200, Germany) were incubated (Mettler. CO240, Germany) in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere at 37°C for 24 hours. After three passages, the cells were treated with varying concentrations of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules. Additionally, technical chloridazon was used as a positive control group in all conducted tests.

Evaluation of cell viability using MTT Assay

Cell viability refers to the percentage of living cells within a given cell population. Initially, 4T1 cells (5×10⁴ cells/well) were seeded into 96-well plates (SPL. Pro Lab Supply Corp, USA) containing 200 µl of growth medium. The plates were incubated at 37°C and 5% CO₂ for 24 hours. Following incubation, different concentrations of chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules (10, 20, 40, 80, 100, and 200 µg/ml) were added to each well. Blank chitosan-alginate nanocapsules (100 µg/ml) and technical chloridazon (100 µg/ml) were added to separate wells as well. Some wells remained untreated and served as negative controls. After 24 hours of cell treatment, the MTT assay was performed according to the method described by Rahmani-Kukia N *et al.* (2020) ⁽²⁶⁾. Briefly, 20 µl of MTT solution (5 mg/ml) was added to each well, and the plate was covered and incubated for 4 hours in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere at 37°C. After incubation, the supernatant was removed from all wells, and 100 µl of DMSO was added to each well. The plate was then shaken for 10 minutes to dissolve the formazan crystals. Absorbance was measured at 540 nm using a microplate reader (Multiskan™ FC Microplate Photometer, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). The difference in viability between the control group and the treated groups was calculated, with the cell viability level of the control group set as 100%. The survival rate (%) was calculated using equation 1.

$$\text{Cell viability \%} = \text{OD}_{\text{Sample}} / \text{OD}_{\text{Control}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

Evaluation of Cell Viability through Lysosomal Neutral Red (NR) Dye Uptake

Cell viability plays a crucial role in determining the physiological health of cells post-drug treatment. The NR assay was conducted following the same methods of preparing cell culture and treatments as the MTT assay, with the exception that NR testing utilized 20 µl of NR solution (3.3 mg/ml) added to each well, after which the plate was covered and incubated for 4 hours in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere at 37°C. Following incubation, the supernatant was removed from the wells, and 100 µl of a PBS solution containing 10% acetic acid and 40% ethanol was added to the wells and the plate was then shaken for 15 minutes. Subsequently, the absorbance at 630 nm was measured to evaluate cell vitality, and the survival rate (%) was determined using equation 1.

Assessment of Cell Apoptosis

The apoptosis test was performed based on the method described by Rahmani-Kukia N *et al.* (2018) ⁽²⁷⁾, utilizing AO and PI staining. 4T1 cells were cultured in a 24-well plate (1×10⁶ cells/well) and incubated at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere for 24 hours. Subsequently, the cell cultures were treated with varying concentrations of chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules (40, 80, 100, and 160 µg/ml), followed by a 24-hour incubation at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere. Blank chitosan-alginate nanocapsules (100 µg/ml) and technical chloridazon (100 µg/ml) were used as the positive control, while a negative control group was included. The supernatant was then removed, and the cells were washed twice with PBS. Next, the cells were stained with 10µl of AO (10 µg/ml) for 15 minutes at room temperature in the dark. Subsequently, 10µl of PI (10 µg/ml) was added to the cell pellets. Apoptosis was evaluated using fluorescent inverted microscopy (echo LAB, SM 500 FI, Italy), and the percentage of cells exhibiting apoptosis was quantified.

Analysis of metastasis and angiogenesis gene expression level using real-time PCR

To assess the metastasis rate of 4T1 cells, the expression levels of MMP-2 and MMP-9 genes, as well as the angiogenesis rate through the expression level of the VEGF-A gene, were evaluated. The HPRT gene served as the internal control for transcriptional analysis. 4T1 cells were cultured in a 6-well plate (1×10⁶ cells/well) and incubated for 24 hours, followed by treatment with varying concentrations of chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules (40, 80, 100, and 160 µg/ml), blank chitosan-alginate nanocapsules (100 µg/ml), and technical chloridazon (100 µg/ml). A control group was also included. Total RNA from the treated cells was extracted using TRIzol (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The quality and quantity of the extracted RNA were assessed using a spectrophotometer (NanoDrop™ 8000, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA), and the 260/280 ratio was confirmed to be 1.9. Complementary DNAs were synthesized using the cDNA synthesis kit (Easy cDNA Synthesis Kit, Parstous, IRAN) following the manufacturer's instructions. Specific primers were designed using the NCBI website and AlleleID.7 software (Premier Biosoft, USA) (Table 1). The expression levels of the target genes were determined using the StepOne Plus Real-Time PCR system (Applied Biosystems/Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). The expression ratio of the desired genes was calculated using the $\Delta\Delta\text{Ct}$ method, as indicated by equation 2.

$$R = 2^{-\Delta\Delta\text{Ct}} \quad [\Delta\Delta\text{Ct} = \Delta\text{Ct}_{\text{target sample}} - \Delta\text{Ct}_{\text{reference sample}}] \quad (2)$$

Table 1. List of designed primers.

Gene	Primer sequence	Annealing temperature (°C)
MMP-2 (104bp)	F – GGACAAGAACCATGACATAC R – CGTCGCTCCATCTTTAAGG	60
MMP-9 (180bp)	F – GTGTCTGGAGATTCGACTTG R – CCTTGTTCACCTCATTTTGG	58
VEGF-A (173bp)	F – GGATCAAACCTCACAAAGC R – GCAGGAACATTACACGTCTG	61
HPRT (102bp)	F – CAGGACTGAAAGACTTGCTC R – AGGTCAGCAAAGAACTTATAGC	63

Statistical Analysis

All experiments were conducted in triplicate. Firstly, the data were assessed for normality. The results were analyzed using mean \pm SD and one-way ANOVA for statistical analysis. The half-maximal inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀) of chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules was determined through a non-linear regression curve-fit analysis. All analyses were conducted using GraphPad Prism ver 8.0 (San Diego, CA, USA). A confidence level of 95% was considered for all tests, and a P-value below 0.05 was deemed significant.

RESULTS

Characterization of Chloridazon-Loaded Alginate-Chitosan Nanocapsules

As previously mentioned, the chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules were synthesized in our previous study. Characterization of these nanocapsules revealed an average size of 253 nm and a polydispersity index (PDI) of 0.266. The zeta potential value obtained was -1.43 mV. In our previous study, the drug loading of the synthesized nanocapsules was found to be 14% with an encapsulation efficiency of 57%. Furthermore, our measurements demonstrated that the highest release amount (65%) occurred within the first 5 hours, followed by a stable release rate over the next 40 hours (25).

Measurement of cell viability by MTT assay

The MTT assay is a colorimetric assay used to measure cellular metabolic activity, serving as an indicator of cell viability, proliferation, and cytotoxicity. The number of viable 4T1 cells significantly decreased in a dose-dependent manner when treated with chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules at concentrations ranging from 20 to 200 μ g/ml compared to the control group. Additionally, the group treated with technical chloridazon exhibited a significant difference compared to the control group ($P < 0.05$, figure 1). Conversely, the blank chitosan-alginate nanocapsules did not show significant differences in cell viability compared to the control group. Notably, the concentration of 100 μ g/ml of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules had a similar effect to that of technical chloridazon (100 μ g/ml). Although the difference between these two treatment groups was not statistically significant, the data indicated that the group treated with

chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules (100 μ g/ml) had a lower average number of viable cells in the assay (average cell viability for technical chloridazon was $22.79 \pm$ SD, while for the 100 μ g/ml chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules was $19.89 \pm$ SD). The concentration of 200 μ g/ml of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules had a significant effect on decreasing cell viability. The blank alginate-chitosan nanocapsules did not exhibit a significant cytotoxic effect. The IC₅₀ index, representing the concentration of a drug causing 50% inhibition of a biological process or activity, was determined to be 74 μ g/ml for the chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules, based on the dose-response curve obtained from testing the biological effect of different concentrations of the chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules on the 4T1 cell line.

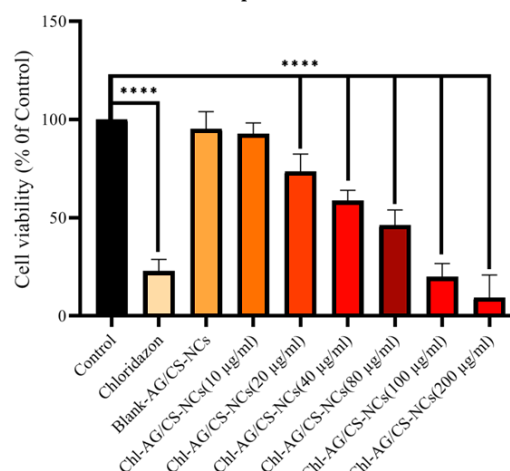


Figure 1. Measurement of cell viability by MTT assay in 4T1 cancer cells treated with different concentrations of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules, blank nanocapsules (100 μ g/ml), and technical chloridazon (100 μ g/ml). The viable cell number at the 20 – 200 μ g/ml concentrations of treatment chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules groups, was significantly decreased in a dose-dependent manner compared to the control group. (Blank-AG/CS-NCs: blank chitosan-alginate nanocapsules, Chl-AG/CS-NCs: chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules). The data represent the mean \pm SD from three independent experiments. * $P < 0.05$.

Measurement of cell vitality by neutral red (NR) Assay

The vitality of 4T1 cancer cells treated with different concentrations of chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules, blank chitosan-alginate nanocapsules (100 μ g/ml), and technical chloridazon (100 μ g/ml) was measured using the Neutral Red (NR) assay. The results were similar to the MTT assay in this study. The control group showed a significant difference compared to the technical chloridazon ($P < 0.05$, figure 2). The concentrations of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules (20-200 μ g/ml) had a significant difference compared to the control group. The 10 μ g/ml concentration of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules also had a significant difference compared to the control group. The 200 μ g/ml concentration of chloridazon-loaded

nanocapsules had a more pronounced cytotoxic effect compared to the technical chloridazon. The blank chitosan-alginate nanocapsules did not exhibit a significant cytotoxic effect ($P < 0.05$).

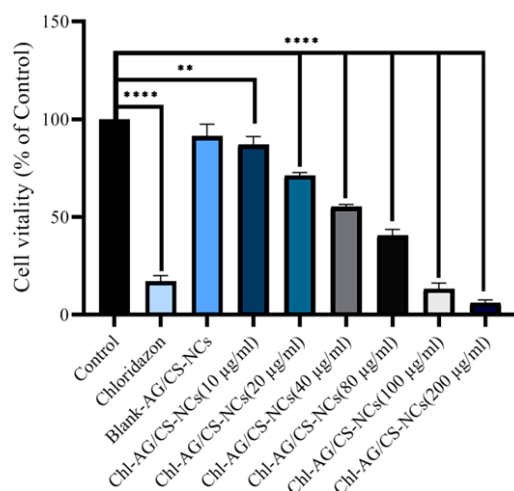


Figure 2. Measurement of cell vitality by natural red (NR) assay in 4T1 cancer cells treated with different concentrations of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules, blank nanocapsules (100 µg/ml), and technical chloridazon (100 µg/ml). All concentrations of the treatment chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules in a dose-dependent manner significantly have a difference with the control group. The 200 µg/ml concentration of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules had a more pronounced cytotoxic effect. (Blank-AG/CS- NCs: blank chitosan-alginate nanocapsules, Chl-AG/CS-NCs: chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules). The data represent the mean \pm SD from three independent experiments. * $P < 0.05$.

Measurement of cell apoptosis using AO and PI

The cytotoxic effect of different concentrations of chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules and technical chloridazon on 4T1 cells was evaluated using AO and PI staining. AO stains live cells with green fluorescence, while PI stains apoptotic cells with red fluorescence. The treated 4T1 cells revealed apoptosis stages (figure 3). There was a significant difference between the control group and the chloridazon-treated groups. Additionally, there was a significant difference between the control group and all the treatment groups ($P < 0.05$, figure 4). However, there was no significant difference between the group treated with the technical chloridazon and those treated with the 100 µg/ml concentration of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules. The 160 µg/ml concentration of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules had a more pronounced effect on inducing apoptosis. The blank chitosan-alginate nanocapsules did not significantly affect apoptosis induction ($P < 0.05$).

Measurement of the cell metastasis and angiogenesis by real-time PCR

The RNA expression levels of MMP-2, MMP-9 genes (markers for metastasis rate), and VEGF-A gene (a marker for angiogenesis rate) in 4T1 cells

treated with different concentrations of chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules were measured using real-time PCR.

The results of the MMP-2 expression level analysis showed a significant difference between the control group and all the treatment groups, except for the group treated with blank alginate-chitosan nanocapsules. However, no significant difference was observed between the concentration of 100 µg/ml of chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules and technical chloridazon (100 µg/ml) ($P < 0.05$, figure 5). Similar results were obtained for the analysis of MMP-9 expression levels (figure 6). When comparing the effects of the 100 µg/ml and 160 µg/ml concentrations of chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules on the RNA expression levels of MMP-2 and MMP-9 genes, no significant difference was observed ($p < 0.05$).

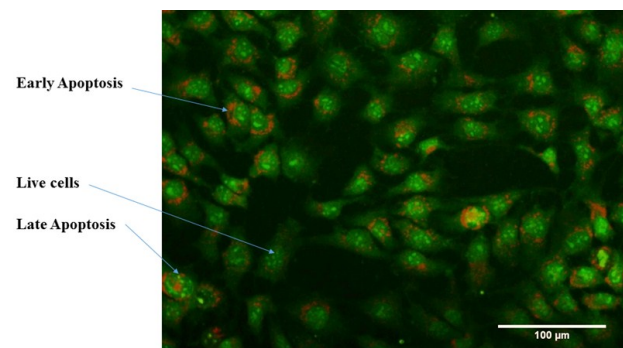


Figure 3. Fluorescent microscopic image of 4T1 cells treated with chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules (80 µg/ml). Stages of apoptosis were shown in the image.

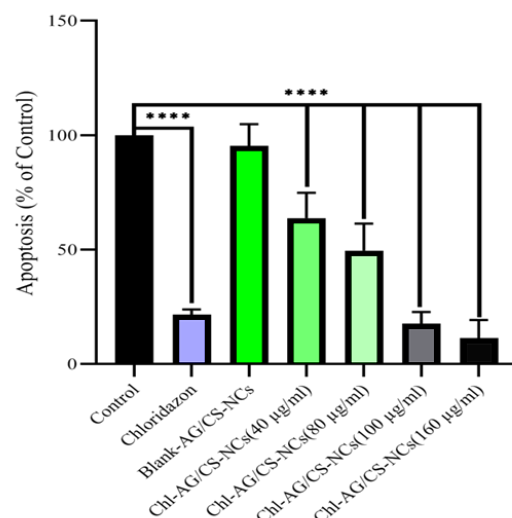


Figure 4. Measurement of the cell apoptosis using AO and PI in 4T1 cancer cells treated with different concentrations of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules, blank nanocapsules (100 µg/ml), and technical chloridazon (100 µg/ml). There was a significant difference between the control group and all the chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules treatment groups in a dose-dependent manner. The 160 µg/ml concentration of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules had a more pronounced effect on inducing apoptosis. (Blank-AG/CS- NCs: blank chitosan-alginate nanocapsules, Chl-AG/CS-NCs: chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules). The data represent the mean \pm SD from three independent experiments. * $P < 0.05$.

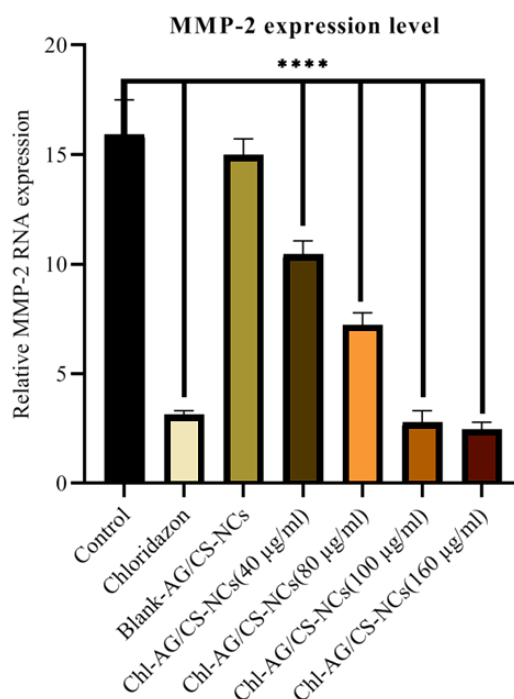


Figure 5. The mRNA expression levels of MMP-2, in the 4T1 cancer cells treated with different concentrations of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules, blank nanocapsules (100 µg/ml), and technical chloridazon (100 µg/ml). The control group was significantly different from all the chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules treatment groups and also dose-dependent effects are evident in the treatment groups. (Blank-AG/CS-NCs: blank chitosan-alginate nanocapsules, Chl-AG/CS-NCs: chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules). The data represent the mean \pm SD from three independent experiments. * $P < 0.05$.

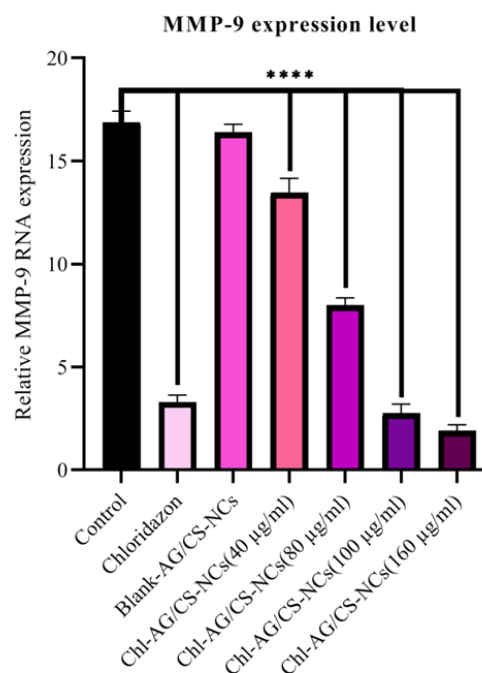
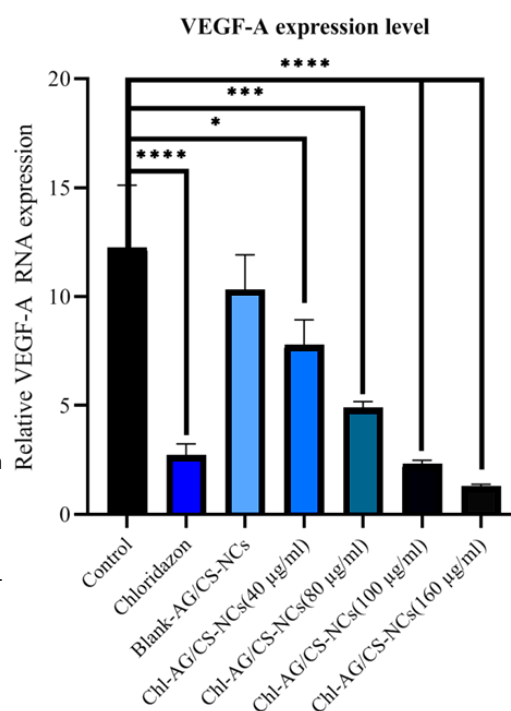


Figure 6. The mRNA expression levels of MMP-9, in the 4T1 cancer cells treated with different concentrations of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules, blank nanocapsules (100 µg/ml), and technical chloridazon (100 µg/ml). The control group was significantly different from all the chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules treatment groups and also dose-dependent effects are evident in the treatment groups. (Blank-AG/CS-NCs: blank chitosan-alginate nanocapsules, Chl-AG/CS-NCs: chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules). The data represent the mean \pm SD from three independent experiments. * $P < 0.05$.

In terms of VEGF-A expression level analysis, the control group showed a significant difference from all the groups treated with chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules and technical chloridazon ($P < 0.05$, figure 7). There was no significant difference between the groups treated with technical chloridazon and the concentrations of 100 µg/ml and 160 µg/ml of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules. Additionally, the group treated with blank alginate-chitosan nanocapsules did not show a significant difference compared to the control group ($P < 0.05$).

Figure 7. The mRNA expression levels of VEGF-A, in the 4T1 cancer cells treated with different concentrations of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules, blank nanocapsules (100 µg/ml), and technical chloridazon (100 µg/ml). The control group was significantly different from all the chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules treatment groups and also dose-dependent effects are evident in the treatment groups. There was no significant difference between the groups treated with technical chloridazon and the concentrations of 100 µg/ml and 160 µg/ml of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules. (Blank-AG/CS-NCs: blank chitosan-alginate nanocapsules, Chl-AG/CS-NCs: chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules). The data represent the mean \pm SD from three independent experiments. * $P < 0.05$.



DISCUSSION

In current research, medicinal nanocarriers composed of alginate and chitosan polymers hold promise for facilitating the treatment of various diseases. In this study, we utilized these polymers for chloridazon nanoencapsulation. The synergy of alginate with chitosan lies in the carboxylic acid groups on the surface of the alginate polymer chain, which confer negative charges to alginate. Consequently, it can electrostatically interact with positively charged molecules such as chitosan to form a gel. The formation of nanoparticles is rapid due to the spontaneous diffusion of the polymer solution in the aqueous phase, as they endeavor to avoid water molecules. Alongside the solvent diffusion from the nanoparticles, the polymer is deposited in the form of nanocapsules⁽¹⁶⁾. McMillan *et al.* (2011) indicated in their study that the shape and size of nanoparticles influence their interactions with cells, thereby impacting their distribution, toxicity, and ability to target cells⁽²⁸⁾. Furthermore, it has been observed that nanoparticles with a size of 100 nm exhibit 2.5 times greater cellular absorption and 6 times better absorption compared to particles with a diameter of 1 μm , and 10 μm particles, respectively⁽²⁹⁾. The average size of our synthesized chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules was 253 nm, which is a good size for nanocarriers. Additionally, PDI values close to 0.2 are generally deemed acceptable for polymer-based nanoparticles in practical applications⁽³⁰⁾. Meanwhile, the PDI of our synthesized nanocapsules was equal to 0.266 which indicates a colloidal suspension and an acceptable homogeneous size distribution. The negative surface charge (-1.4 mV) of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules denotes the acceptable stability of the formulated nanocapsules. The negative surface charge of the formulated nanocapsules can be attributed to a higher proportion of alginate than chitosan in their structure. This negative charge helps to mitigate accumulation and maintain the colloidal structure of the chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules. However, it is insufficient to prevent interaction with the surface of cells, which are negatively charged due to the presence of membrane phospholipids.

Our results, following prior research, corroborated the potential of alginate-chitosan nanocapsules for drug delivery and controlled release⁽³¹⁻³⁴⁾. It is worth noting that our results, supported by the obtained data and statistical analysis, affirmed the non-toxicity of the alginate-chitosan co-polymer at the nanostructure scale on the biological activities of the 4T1 cells. This finding is consistent with numerous previous studies that underscore the biocompatible, non-toxic, and biodegradable characteristics of these polymers⁽³⁵⁻⁴¹⁾. In our study, we anticipated a higher release of chloridazon during the initial hours of release (65%) due to the faster

degradation of alginate compared to chitosan in the environment. As documented in our previous study, the complete release of chloridazon occurred within 40 hours⁽²⁵⁾. This relatively rapid release of chloridazon in a neutral pH aqueous solvent can be attributed to the greater solubility of alginate compared to chitosan in an aqueous medium. Notably, chitosan exhibits its highest solubility in acidic environments⁽⁴²⁾, while alginate is highly soluble in aqueous environments⁽⁴³⁾. In numerous studies focusing on alginate-chitosan nanocarriers, the promising potential of this type of drug carrier has been highlighted. Li. X *et al.* (2022) utilized alginate-chitosan nanocarriers for successful oral mucosal antigen delivery⁽⁴⁴⁾. Similarly, in another study, Bahreini *et al.* (2014) employed chitosan nanocarriers for the delivery and controlled release of L-asparaginase enzyme protein, used in the treatment of acute lymphoblastic leukemia⁽⁴⁵⁾. Consistent with previous research, our study results affirmed the effectiveness of alginate-chitosan nanocapsules for drug delivery and controlled release^(46, 47).

The controlled release of chloridazon during the treatment period led to increased cytotoxic effects. The MTT assay revealed that the viability of the 4T1 cells decreased at each concentration of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules, in accordance with the released doses during the controlled chloridazon release process, as compared to the control group (figure 1). The duration of the MTT assay treatment was 24 hours, which might have resulted in the 4T1 cells not being fully exposed to all the chloridazon loaded in the nanocapsules. Environmental conditions and the biological characteristics of the cultured cell line should also be taken into account in this context. As anticipated, and in line with the biocompatibility characteristics of alginate and chitosan polymers, the blank alginate-chitosan nanocapsules exhibited no significant cytotoxic effects. The NR assay, comparable to the MTT assay, indicated that the vitality of the 4T1 cells was dose-dependent at any concentration of the chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules (figure 2). Furthermore, an examination of the expression level of genes associated with metastasis and angiogenesis revealed a clear, dose-dependent reduction in gene expression, especially in the case of VEGF-A, with increasing concentrations of nanocapsules containing chloridazon (figure 7).

Chloridazon is a member of the pyridazinones family, which are utilized as anti-cancer, anti-tumor, and anti-inflammatory agents today⁽⁴⁸⁻⁵²⁾. In a study by Murineddu *et al.* (2002), the synthesis and in vitro assessment of compounds 1-Methyl-2-phenyl (1) and 1,3-dimethyl-2-phenyl (2)-substituted pyrrole (2,3-d) pyridazinones against 60 human tumor cell lines derived from 9 types of cancer cells revealed that the antitumor activities of pyridazinone-derived

compounds are associated with the flatness of the pyridazinone ring. The synthesized compounds exhibited robust antitumor activity and significant cytotoxicity⁽⁵³⁾. Another study by Gutierrez *et al.* (2019) assessed the potential anticancer properties of a new pyridazinone derivative and identified it as a potential antineoplastic agent in acute promyelocytic leukemia cells. The Pyr-1 compound demonstrated potent cytotoxicity against 22 human cancer cell lines with selective cytotoxicity against leukemia, breast, and lung cancer cell lines. Furthermore, Pyr-1 induced apoptosis in acute promyelocytic leukemia cells, as corroborated by phosphatidylserine externalization, mitochondrial depolarization, caspase - 3 activation, DNA fragmentation, and disruption of cell cycle progression. Additionally, Pyr-1 was found to induce oxidative and proteotoxic stress by stimulating the accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), consequently leading to overexpression of hmx-1 mRNA and stress-related protein transcripts, along with a significant increase in polyubiquitinated proteins. The results indicated that Pyr-1 triggers cell death through the intrinsic apoptosis pathway by accumulating ROS and disrupting proteasome activity⁽⁵⁴⁾.

Regarding chloridazon, its nanoencapsulation was found to enhance its cytotoxic effects. When compared to the treatment of 4T1 cells with technical chloridazon (100 µg/ml), which significantly decreased cell viability in the MTT assay, the IC50 of chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules was 74 µg/ml. The potentially increased cytotoxicity could be attributed to factors such as reduced particle size, modification of particle surface properties, and enhanced drug stability. Several factors can influence the IC50 of drug-loaded nanocapsules, including the drug loading percentage, nanocapsule size, nanocapsule morphology, nanocapsule surface charge, drug dose, pharmacokinetic properties of the drug, and environmental factors affecting the release rate^(55,56). In the case of the chloridazon-loaded nanocapsules used in this study, parameters such as negative surface charge, drug loading percentage, increased bioavailability, and chloridazon release timeline appear to be among the most influential factors affecting the IC50 of the formulated nanocapsules.

In investigating the biological effects of chloridazon, three important properties of chloridazon were found to be influential in its anti-cancer effect against 4T1 cells, a trait shared with other compounds of the pyridazinone family. Firstly, chloridazon tends to interact with ds-DNA, leading to a reduction in the replication index and a delay in genomic replication. The interaction of chloridazon with DNA is dependent on the base sequence of DNA, with a greater interaction observed through the GC base sequence^(18,57). Secondly, chloridazon possesses the ability to interact with phospholipids in the outer leaflet of the cell's plasma

membrane, potentially causing cell damage by affecting the phosphatidylcholines of the outer membrane⁽⁵⁸⁾. Lastly, chloridazon, like many pyridazinone derivatives, exhibits a planar spatial structure⁽¹⁹⁾, which contributes to its effectiveness.

There are many genetic, biochemical, physiological, and epigenetic findings related to breast cancer⁽⁵⁹⁻⁸⁰⁾.

In conclusion, the results of our study shed light on key aspects, including the lack of cytotoxicity of the alginate/chitosan polymers and the high potential of the alginate-chitosan nanocapsules for the delivery and release of chloridazon. Furthermore, our experimental data suggest that chloridazon, as a member of the pyridazinone family, holds potential for pharmacological applications against breast cancer cells. Nonetheless, validation of our findings would require in vivo studies and clinical trials.

Recommendation

In the continuation of this study, we propose that expert researchers in this field explore the potential intervening effect of chloridazon-loaded alginate-chitosan nanocapsules on the outcomes of radiotherapy or chemotherapy. This investigation aims to examine how the application of these nanocapsules can influence the effectiveness and efficacy of radiotherapy or chemotherapy treatments. By delving into this aspect, researchers can gain valuable insights into the potential benefits and limitations of utilizing Chloridazon-Loaded Alginate-Chitosan Nanocapsules as a means of enhancing the outcomes of cancer treatments.

Declarations: Ethics approval and consent to participate are not applicable.

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Availability of data and materials: The datasets analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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Authors' contributions: In this study, D K served as the supervisor and was responsible for directing the experimental design. N K also played a role as the second supervisor. B S conducted the experiments and took charge of writing the draft manuscript. E A provided guidance as the advisor and actively participated in the experimental design. I N, as the second advisor, contributed to the data analysis. S E was involved in data curation and final manuscript revision. M-B T played a part in revising the final manuscript. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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