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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Hydroxy-α-sanshool–loaded adipose-targeted mesoporous silica nanoparticles induce white adipose browning and reduce obesity by activating TRPV1

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Abstract

Obesity has become a global threat to health, and however the available drugs for treating obesity are limited. We investigated the anti-obesity effect of hydroxy-α-sanshool (HAS), an amide derived from the fruit of *Zanthoxylum bungeanum*, which promotes the management of obesity by triggering the browning of white adipose tissue (WAT) targeting the membrane receptor of TRPV1. However, HAS easily undergoes configuration transformation and oxidative degradation. Mesoporous silica nanoparticles (MSNs) are widely used in drug delivery systems because of their large specific surface area and pore volume. Furthermore, the short peptide CKGGRAKDC or adipose-targeting sequence (ATS) binds specifically to prohibitin on the surface of WAT cells and can be used to modify MSNs to enhance adipocyte targetability. Therefore, HAS-loaded adipose-targeted MSNs (MSN-ATS) were developed to enhance the adipocyte targetability, safety and efficacy of HAS, and tested on mature 3T3-L1 cells and obese mouse models. MSNs-ATS showed higher specificity for adipocyte targetability without obvious toxicity. HAS-loaded MSNs-ATS showed anti-obesity effects superior to those of HAS alone. In conclusion, we successfully developed adipocyte-targeted, HAS-loaded MSNs with good safety and anti-obesity effects.

Keywords Hydroxy-α-sanshool · Adipocyte targetability · Mesoporous silica nanoparticles · White adipose tissue browning · Obesity

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1 Introduction

Owing to ever-improving living standards and ever-changing dietary habits, the prevalence of obesity is increasing sharply all over the world and has become a serious global health threat [1–3]. Previous studies have found that the main cause for obesity is a higher energy intake than expenditure, which results in the storage of excess energy as fat in the abdomen, back, legs, and liver [4]. Accumulating evidence demonstrates that obesity is closely related to the development of many diseases, such as diabetes, cardiovascular disease, fatty liver, and even cancer. [5, 6]. Obesity has become a serious challenge to human health with limited therapeutic options currently available, mainly diet management, exercise, surgery, and drug therapy [7]. Diet management and exercise are considered the healthiest ways to reverse obesity; however, the success rates are low and poses a risk of relapse. While most of the slimming drugs available can control energy intake by suppressing appetite (e.g., phentermine) or reducing nutrient absorption (e. g., orlistat), but these drugs cause adverse events, such as insomnia, urticaria, and pulmonary hypertension, or unpalatable side effects, such as oily stool and fecal incontinence), as well as a risk of relapse [8–12]. Furthermore, while surgical treatment is effective, it is costly, and invasive surgery can cause injury. Studies have increasingly reported a more efficient and healthy way of treating obesity in promoting the browning of white adipose tissue (WAT) [13–16]. Brown adipose tissue (BAT) has higher metabolic efficiency and energy consumption [17–19]; can fully burn free fatty acids, glucose, and other metabolites; and consume excess energy in the body through heat production mediated by uncoupling protein 1 (UCP-1), which is expressed in the inner mitochondrial membrane [20–22].

Hydroxy-α- sanshool (HAS) is an unsaturated chain fatty acid amide alkaloid derived from the fruit of *Zanthoxylum bungeanum* Maxim. Consistent with previous reports [23,24], we found that HAS exhibits strong anti-obesity effects. One of the important underlying molecular mechanisms involves the activation of the cell membrane receptor of transient receptor potential cation channel (TRP) V1 and promotion of WAT browning [25,26]. Although HAS showed good anti-obesity effects both in vivo and in vitro, the special structure of HAS makes its insoluble in water and prone to configuration transformation and oxidative degradation, which seriously limits its drug development [27, 28]. Temperature, oxygen, ultraviolet radiation, pH, and artificial stomach/intestinal fluid affect the stability of HAS [28]. We previously found that the degradation rates of HAS were 82.2% and 58.0% after 8 h exposure to artificial gastric juice and ultraviolet light, respectively [29]. Therefore, modern drug delivery systems must be developed to improve the solubility, stability, and patient compliance of HAS.

Mesoporous silica nanoparticles (MSNs) are widely used in drug delivery systems because of their simple synthesis, good biocompatibility, regular pore structure, and large specific surface area and pore volume [30–33]. The loading of HAS into MSNs would not only improve the water solubility and stability of the drug, but also reduce irritation induced by HAS. Prohibitin is pivotal in the regulation of the cell cycle and mitochondrial function and is highly expressed on the cell membrane of mature adipocytes. In 2004, Kolonin et al. reported that the short peptide CKGGRAKDC or adipose-targeting sequence (ATS) can specifically bind to prohibitin on the surface of WAT cells, which can be incorporated into an efficient adipocyte-targeted delivery system [34,35]. In the present study, we developed a HAS-loaded MSN drug delivery system modified with ATS to enhance adipose tissue targetability. Furthermore, differentiated mature adipocyte and obese mouse models were established to systematically study the anti-obesity activity of HAS-loaded ATS-modified MSNs in vitro (Fig. 1).

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Chemicals and reagents

Tetrahexanyl orthosilicate (TEOS), cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB), 3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane (APTES), N-hydroxy succinimide (NHS), 1-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-3-ethylcarbodiimide hydrochloride (EDC), and other analytically pure inorganic reagents were obtained from the Chengdu Chronchem Reagent Company (Chengdu, China). HAS was purchased from Chengdu Materia Medica Tianyun Biotech Co., Ltd. (Chengdu, China). Lysotracker probe, 1,1-dioctadecyl-3,3,3,3-tetramethylindotricarbocyaine iodide (DIR), fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC), rhod-2 AM probe; and MitoTracker probe were purchased from Yeasen Bio Ltd. (Shanghai, China). Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), cell counting kit (CCK)-8 detection kit, bicinchoninic acid (BCA) protein concentration kit, horseradish peroxidase (HRP)- conjugated AffiniPure goat anti-rabbit/mouse IgG (H+L), and anti-β-actin were obtained from Wuhan Bode Biological Co., Ltd. (Wuhan, China). ATS was acquired from GL Biochem (Shanghai) Ltd. (Shanghai, China). Alanine aminotransferase (ALT), aspartate aminotransferase (AST), total cholesterol (TC), triglycerides (TG), and other biochemical detection kits were acquired from Nanjing Jiancheng Biological Co., Ltd. (Nanjing, China). Pentobarbital sodium was acquired from Sigma-Aldrich (Shanghai, China). Primary antibodies for UCP1 and TRPV1 were purchased from ABclonal Biol. Ltd. (Shanghai, China). Enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) reagents were obtained from Beijing Sizhengbai Biological Co., Ltd. (Beijing, China). Tri-color pre-stained protein standards were obtained from Hunan Aikerui Co., Ltd. (Shenzhen, China).

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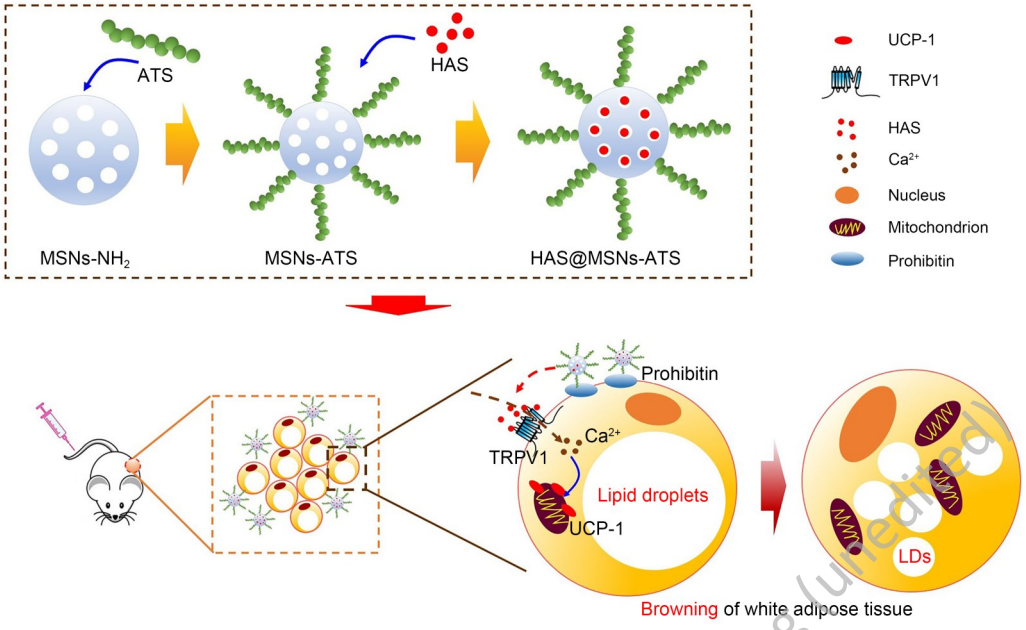

Fig. 1 Design of the hydroxy-α-sanshool (HAS)-loaded nanoparticles for obesity therapy. The mesoporous silica nanoparticle (MSN) surface was modified by the short peptide adipose-targeting sequence (ATS) CKGGRAKDC to enhance its adipocyte targetability. The prepared MSNs-ATS were loaded into the HAS (HAS@MSNs-ATS). Compared with HAS alone, HAS@MSNs-ATS exhibited better adipocyte targetability and anti-obesity effects in obese mice by promoting white adipose tissue browning by activating transient receptor potential cation channel V1 (TRPV1). LDs, lipid droplets; TRPV1, UCP-1, uncoupling protein 1

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2.2 Preparation and characteristics of nanoparticles

MSNs were prepared according to the classical Stober's method but with optimization of the synthesis method [36–40]. Briefly, 90% ethanol (EtOH), CTAB (0.10 g), 2 mol/L sodium hydroxide (NaOH) solution (0.35 mL), and ultra-pure water were mixed in a three-necked flask and place in an oil bath at 85 °C under rapid stirring. Subsequently, 0.60 mL TEOS was dissolved into 2 mL anhydrous EtOH and quickly added to the three-necked flask for further reaction for 3 h. Afterward, the reaction products were collected and washed repeatedly with anhydrous EtOH and deionized water solution and were subsequently condensed at 85 °C with acidic EtOH solution (5 mL HCl per 100 mL EtOH) for reflux for 48 h. The further reaction products were collected and washed with anhydrous EtOH and deionized water for 3 times, respectively, to completely remove the template agent CTAB. Finally, the synthesized products were dispersed in deionized water and freeze-dried using freezing desiccant to obtain MSNs.

Surface modification of MSNs was performed as described previously [41]. 3-Aminopropyltriethoxysilane (APTES) was used as the silane coupling agent to react with the silanol group on the surface of MSNs and for successful branch coupling with amino groups. The synthesized MSNs were dispersed in 100 mL anhydrous MeOH added with 1 mL APTES. The MSNs were reflowed for 12 h under boiling water bath, centrifuged, and washed. The final products were dispersed into deionized water. After freeze-drying, a white solid powder was obtained and named as MSNs-NH_2. HAS was loaded into MSNs-NH_2 through the solvent-drying method. Briefly, 15 mg HAS and 50 mg MSNs-NH_2 were each dissolved separately in 10 mL acetone, and ultrasonication was performed for 10 min for homogenization. Then, the two solutions were mixed in a beaker, sealed, and stirred away from light for 12 h. Afterward, the beaker was opened to volatilize the solvent, and HAS would remain in the pores of the MSNs, thereby achieving drug-loading. To prevent HAS leakage from the MSN pores, the coarse product was washed several times with saturated HAS solution, washed 3 times with deionized water, and centrifuged. The collected HAS@MSNs-NH_2 was stored at 4 °C away from light. To achieve the targeting of drug-loaded nanoparticles, the surfaces of the nanoparticles were further modified with ATS, which can specifically bind to prohibitin on the surface of WAT cells. Briefly, 3 mg ATS was dissolved in 10 mL phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) buffer solution, and the mixture was subsequently added with 31.4 mg EDC and 57.54 mg NHS. The mixture was then placed on a magnetic agitator and stirred at room temperature for 15 min to activate the carboxyl groups in the peptides. Then, 20 mL PBS buffer suspension containing HAS@MSNs-NH_2 (1 mg/mL) was added, and the system was stirred at room temperature for 24 h. The final reaction products were washed repeatedly with deionized water to remove the unreacted EDCs, NHS, and ATS peptides to obtain pure HAS@MSNs-ATS.

2.3 Characteristics of the MSNs

The particle size and zeta potential of the synthesized products were analyzed using an Anton Paar particle size analyzer (Graz, Austria). The characteristic absorption peaks of the synthesized nanoparticles were explored by Fourier transform infrared spectrometry (FTIR; Nicolet iS20, ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) at 400–4000 cm^{-1}.

The surface structures and shapes of the prepared MSNs were analyzed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Briefly, the nanoparticle samples were glued directly to the conductive adhesive and coated with gold using a Quorum SC7620 sputtering coater (45 s, 10 mA) (Quorum Technologies Ltd., Laughton, UK). The morphology was observed and photographed using a Zeiss Sigma 300 SEM (Oberkochen, Germany) with a SE2 secondary electron detector at an acceleration voltage of 3 kV. Furthermore, the interior structural characteristics of the prepared MSNs was determined under transmission electron microscopy (TEM). Briefly, the diluted MSN sample was deposited on the copper grid, coated with carbon, and observed and photographed under a JEOL JEM 2100 TEM (JEOL JEM 2100, Tokyo, Japan).

Nitrogen adsorption–desorption assay was performed to analyze the specific surface area and pore volume of the prepared MSNs. Briefly, a 30-mg sample of MSNs was degassed at 150 °C for 12 h, after which nitrogen adsorption and desorption analysis were performed at 77 K liquid nitrogen atmosphere using an APSP 2460 4-stage automatic specific surface area analyzer (Micromeritics Instrument Co., Norcross, GA, USA). The isothermal adsorption and desorption curve was recorded, and the total specific surface area of the nanoparticles was calculated using the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller method.

2.4 Determination of polypeptide graft density on MSN surface

The successful modification of polypeptides was confirmed using the bovine serum albumin (BSA) method, and the polypeptide grafting rate was determined by thermogravimetric analysis using a Mettler TGA2 Thermal Gravimetric Analyzer (Zurich, Switzerland).

2.5 Calculation of encapsulation rate and drug-loading

To evaluate the drug-loading capacity and encapsulation rate of the MSNs, we investigated the drug-loading solution, drug-loading time, HAS content, and proportion of nanoparticles and determined the optimal drug-loading nanoparticle preparation process. HAS@MSNs-ATS (10 mg) was dispersed in 10 mL methanol and extracted by ultrasonication for 30 min. After which, the mixture was closed-stirred at room temperature for 12 h with a magnetic stirrer. The samples were then extracted by ultrasonication for another 30 min after magnetic stirring. Finally, the supernatant was collected, and the HAS content of the supernatant was determined by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) assay with HAS as the reference substance. Briefly, chromatographic separation was performed on an Agilent 1260 HPLC system (Agilent Technologies, Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA) equipped with an Agilent Zorbax SB C_{18} column (150×4.6 mm; particle size, 5 μm) with an acetonitrile–water (40: 60) mobile phase at a flow rate of 1.0 mL/min under 270 nm. The encapsulation and HAS loading rates were calculated as reported previously with minor modifications [42]:

$$\text{Encapsulation rate (\%)} = M1/M \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Drug-loading rate (\%)} = M1/M2 \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

where *M* is the total amount of drug input; *M1* is the drug load in drug-carrying nanoparticles; and *M2* is the weight of drug-loaded nanoparticles.

2.6 In vitro biocompatibility testing of MSNs

The in vitro biocompatibility of drug-loaded nanoparticles was evaluated by hemolysis and protein binding rate testing. Fresh blood was collected from the SD rats for hemolysis testing. Red blood cells were dispersed in Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline (DPBS). MSNs samples with different concentrations (10–5000 μg/mL) were added and incubated at 37 °C for 1 h. Ultra-pure water was used as the positive control and DPBS as the negative control. After incubation, the samples were centrifuged at 10 000 *g* for 5 min, and the absorbance of the samples was measured at 540 nm. The hemolysis rates of the samples were calculated as follows:

$$\text{Hemolysis rate (\%)} = (OD_{MSNs} - OD_{DPBS}) / (OD_{\text{ultra-pure water}} - OD_{DPBS}) \times 100 \quad (3)$$

The nanoparticles were dispersed in BSA solution (1 mg/mL) and stirred at 37 °C for 24 h. Then, the supernatant was obtained by centrifugation, and the protein content was measured using a BCA assay kit. PBS was used as the negative control in the experiment. The following equation was used to calculate the protein binding rate of MSNs:

$$\text{Protein adsorption rate \%} = (M_{\text{BSA solution (1mg/mL)}} - M_{\text{supernatant solution}})_{\text{BSA solution (1mg/mL)}} \times 100 \quad (4)$$

2.7 Evaluation of stability of MSNs

HAS@MSNs-ATS (10 mg) was dispersed in 5 mL PBS buffer (pH 7.4) at a concentration of 2.0 mg/mL, and the mixture was placed at room temperature. The particle size and zeta potential values of HAS@MSNs-ATS particles were measured at 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10 and 12 days using an Anton Paar particle size meter.

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2.8 Cytotoxicity

The 3T3-L1 cell line exhibits specificity for differentiation into adipocytes, which is the ideal cell model for investigating obesity and other fat metabolism-related diseases [34,35]. Therefore, we used 3T3-L1 cells to evaluate the cytotoxicity of HAS-loaded nanoparticles. The 3T3-L1 pro-lipid cells (Guangzhou Cellcook Biotech Co., Guangzhou, China) were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% penicillin-streptomycin with 5% CO_2 at 37 °C. The medium was replaced, and cell passage was performed every 2 days. Briefly, 3T3-L1 cells were seeded into 96-well plates and then treated with different concentrations (5, 10, 20, 40, 60, 80, and 100 μg/mL) of HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS (5, 10, 20, 40, 60, 80, and 100 μg/mL) for 12, 24, and 48 h. The CCK-8 kit was used to determine the cytotoxicity of HAS-loaded nanoparticles on 3T3-L1 cells.

2.9 behaviors of drug-loaded MSNs in vitro

The release behaviors of drug-loaded particles in vitro was studied using the dialysis method. An 80:20 mixture of PBS (pH 7.4) and methanol was used as the dissolution medium. Then, 10 mg HAS@MSNs-NH_2 or 10 mg HAS@MSNs-ATS was dispersed in 3 mL dissolution medium. Furthermore, 3 mg HAS was dissolved in 10 μL DMSO, after which 3 mL dissolution medium was added. The three samples were placed in 150-kD dialysis bags, which were then placed in a beaker containing 100 mL dissolution medium. A magnetic stirrer was used to slowly stir the dissolution medium at 37 °C. After which, 1 mL liquid was collected from the beaker at 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 h. The same volume of blank dissolution medium was immediately added back to the mixture. The experiment was repeated three times for three samples. HPLC was performed as described earlier to determine the HAS content in the dissolution medium (*M1*). The total amount of drug molecules released at different timepoints was calculated using the following equation, the results of which were used to plot the drug release curve:

$$\text{Cumulative release rate (\%)} = M1/M_{HAS} \times 100 \quad (5)$$

where *M1* is the determined HAS contents in the dissolution medium; M_{HAS} is the loading HAS contents in nanoparticles.

2.10 Cell culture and treatment

In the induced differentiation experiment, 3T3-L1 cells were seeded into culture plates and cultured for 2 days. Then, induction medium 1 (containing 0.5 mM 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine, 1 μM dexamethasone (DEX), and 10 μg/mL insulin) was added, and the cells were cultured further for 2 days. Subsequently, induction solution 2 (10 μg/mL insulin) was added to replace induction medium 1, and the culture was continued for another 2 days. After 2 days' culture, induction solution 2 was replaced completely with 10% FBS medium of for further culture, and the medium was changed every 2 days. Ultimately, more than 90% of 3T3-L1 cells showed a mature adipocyte phenotype (including morphology and lipid accumulation, Fig. S1) after 8–12 days of differentiation [43]. For HAS treatment, HAS was added at the beginning of 3T3-L1 fusion until mature adipocytes were formed, while the control group was treated with culture medium containing 0.5% DMSO. Cell viability was determined using the CCK-8 assay kit.

2.11 Uptake of nanosystems by 3T3-L1 cells

FITC was used to prepare FITC@MSNs-NH_2 and FITC@MSNs-ATS. Fluorescence intensity was measured using the luciferase assay to balance the amount of FITC in the two nanoparticle samples prior to treatment. Uptake of FITC@MSNs and FITC@MSNs-ATS by 3T3-L1 cells before and after differentiation was evaluated by laser confocal microscopy (Leica, Heidelberg, Germany). Briefly, undifferentiated 3T3-L1 cells and differentiated mature 3T3-L1 cells were inoculated into 6-well plates or laser confocal dishes. After the cells fully adhered to the 6-well plates, culture medium containing FITC@MSNs-NH_2 or FITC@MSNs-ATS was added, and the mixtures were incubated for 8 h. Then, the medium was discarded, and the cells were washed 3 times with PBS. The cells were collected, and fluorescence intensity was measured using a flow cytometer (BD FACSCelesta, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA).

DAPI and lysotracker staining were performed to label the nuclei and lysosomes. Endocytosis of the nanoparticles was observed on laser confocal microscopy (Leica, Heidelberg, Germany). To elucidate the targetability of the drug delivery system, adipocytes were pretreated with free ATS peptide or endocytic blocker chloroquine prior to nanoparticle incubation. To study the time-dependent uptake of nanoparticles by mature 3T3-L1 adipocytes, lysosomes were stained with lysotracker, and intracellular fluorescence changes were observed on confocal laser microscopy at different timepoints.

2.12 Obesity animal model and grouping

Male specific-pathogen-free C57BL/6L mice (20±2 g) aged 8 weeks were raised in a standard animal house with free access to water and food during the experiment. All the animal use protocols were approved by the Experimental Animal Ethics Committee of Chengdu University of Traditional Chinese Medicine (Approval No. 2020-27). After 1 week of adaptive feeding, 6 mice were randomly selected for the normal control (NC) group, which continued feeding on an ordinary diet. The remaining mice were fed with a high-fat diet (HFD; 60% fat, 20% protein, and 20% carbohydrates)

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for 12 weeks. After 12 weeks, the weights of the mice were measured, and the whole-body fat of the mice was analyzed by micro-computed tomography (CT) [44]. Obesity was defined as a weight gain over 20% compared with NC mice [45] and significant whole-body fat accumulation on micro-CT. Then, the obese mice were randomly divided into 6 groups (n=6): saline, HAS alone, MSNs-NH_2, MSNs-ATS, HAS@ MSNs-NH_2, and HAS@ MSNs-ATS groups. All drugs were dissolved in normal saline (for the HAS alone, approximately 3% DMSO was used to enhance solubility) and injected at 200 μL via the caudal vein once every 3 days for 30 days. The HAS dosage in the HAS alone, HAS@MSNs-NH_2, and HAS@MSNs-ATS groups were administered at 2.5 mg/kg based on the results of preliminary experiments conducted before the formal investigation. The weight and food intake of the mice were calculated and recorded every 3 days.

2.13 Oral glucose and insulin tolerance testing

Obesity is often accompanied by insulin resistance and disorders in oral glucose tolerance and insulin tolerance (IIT) [26,44]. Therefore, before the end of the animal experiment, oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) and insulin tolerance test (IITT) were performed in mice as described previously [46,47]. Briefly, mice were fasted for 6 h and then administered with glucose (2.0 g/kg) or insulin (0.75 U/kg) by intraperitoneal injection (i. p.). Then, blood samples were collected via the tail vein at 0 (before the injection), 15, 30, 60, 90, and 120 min after treatment. Blood glucose was measured using a commercial blood glucose meter with test strips (Roche, Basel, Swiss). After blood glucose values were recorded at each timepoint, the areas under the curve (AUC) of OGTT and IITT were determined.

2.14 Cold exposure experiment

Cold exposure is commonly used to investigate the adaptive thermogenesis of animals in cold environments [26, 48]. Cold exposure experiment was performed as previously reported [26,48]. Briefly, the anal temperature of mice was recorded as the basal body temperature at room temperature before cold exposure. The mice were then placed in a cold chamber at 4 °C, and anal temperature was determined at 30, 60, 90, and 120 min. Furthermore, the body surface temperature was measured using an infrared thermometer (FOTRIC 600C, Shanghai, China) .

2.15 Micro-CT

Micro-CT is the ideal non-invasive method of evaluating the whole-body fat of animals, which can judge the nature of tissues based on CT values [26]. Fat quantitative analysis was performed by micro-CT (Bruker SkyScan, Seattle, WA, USA), and then fat parameters were measured and accurately combined with the rich post-processing algorithms of CTVol micro-CT software (Bruker SkyScan). Subsequently, a three-dimensional reconstruction of the fat in the bodies of the animals was performed, and CTAN software (Bruker SkyScan) was used for image analysis.

2.16 Blood and tissue samples collection

One hour after the last drug administration, blood samples were collected from the abdominal artery under anesthetization (pentobarbital sodium, 45 mg/kg, i.p.). Subsequently, the mice were sacrificed, and tissue samples (liver, BAT, inguinal WAT [iWAT], epididymal WAT [eWAT], perirenal WAT [pWAT], and mesenteric WAT [mWAT]) were collected. Then, 5×5 mm samples of the tissues were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for histopathological examinations. The remaining tissue specimens were frozen at −80 °C for subsequent biochemical analysis.

2.17 Biodistribution and targeting specificity of nanoparticles in mice

To verify the adipose targetability of the nanoparticle delivery system, DIR, a red fluorescent probe that stains the cell membrane, was used to synthesize DIR@MSNs-NH_2 and DIR@ MSNs-ATS. On the day before the end of the animal experiment, 3 mice were randomly selected from the MSNs-NH_2 and MSNS-ATS groups and injected with 200 μL DIR@ MSNs-NH_2 and DIR@MSNs-ATS (2 mg/kg DIR) via the tail vein (i. v.), respectively. The fluorescence intensity was measured using a fluorescence microplate reader (Varioskan LUX, ThermoFisher Scientific), and the DIR contents in the two particles were balanced. After 8 h, in vivo imaging was performed to determine the distribution of the nanoparticle drug delivery materials in mice using a PerkinElmer IVIS Spectrum imaging system (Waltham, MA, USA). Mice were sacrificed, and organs and adipose tissue were collected for fluorescence imaging.

2.18 Detection of biochemical indexes

The blood samples were left to stand at room temperature for 1 h and subsequently centrifuged for 10 min (4 °C, 3000 rpm) to isolate the serum. The serum levels of alanine aminotransferase (ALT), aspartate transaminase (AST), triglyceride (TG), total cholesterol (TC), low density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C), high density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) were measured using an automatic biochemical analyzer for animals (Mindray BS-240VET, Shenzhen, China).

2.19 Hematoxylin and eosin and oil red O staining

The fixed tissues were embedded in paraffin and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) to observe the pathological

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changes in mouse tissues. Furthermore, frozen liver tissues were sliced into frozen sections and stained with oil red O as described previously [44] to observe the lipid accumulation in mouse liver tissues.

2.20 Cell mitochondrial stress test

3T3-L1 cells at logarithmic growth stage were inoculated into Seahorse XFe24 well plates (Agilent Technologies, Inc.) and induced to differentiate into mature adipocytes [49]. During induction, HAS, HAS@MSNs-NH_2, or HAS@MSNs-u was added to be cultured with the cells. Cell mitochondrial respiration was analyzed using an Agilent XF24 Analyzer (Agilent Technologies, Inc.).

2.21 Detection of mitochondrial changes

3T3-L1 cells in the logarithmic growth stage were inoculated into 6-well plates or laser confocal dishes and induced to differentiate into mature adipocytes. HAS, HAS@MSNs-NH_2, or HAS@MSNs-ATS was added during induction. At the end of the experiment, the MitoTracker probe was used to dye the mitochondria of cells, and laser confocal microscopy was performed to observe the changes in the number of mitochondria. Flow cytometry was performed to analyze the MitoTracker-dyed mitochondria in 3T3-L1 cells. Untreated 3T3-L1 cells were used as the blank control. During induction, HAS, HAS@MSNs-NH_2, or HAS@MSNs-ATS was added, and the cell density was adjusted to 1×10^7/mL. The MitoTracker probe was used to strain the mitochondria in 3T3-L1 cells, and subsequently analyzed by using a flow cytometer (FACSCanto II, BD Co., Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Mitochondria in the 3T3-L1 cells were analyzed under TEM (JEOL JEM 2100, Tokyo, Japan) as described previously [50,51].

2.22 Western blotting assays

Mature adipose cells were treated with HAS, HAS@MSNs-NH_2, or HAS@MSNs-ATS nanoparticles. The cells were harvested, and cell proteins were extracted to prepare the total protein content. After quantification using BCA kits, equal amounts of total proteins (30 μg) were loaded into a sodium dodecyl sulfate/polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS/PAGE) kit to separate the targeting protein bands. After separation, the targeting protein bands were transferred to a PVDF membrane and subsequently incubated with the corresponding primary and secondary antibodies. ECL reagents were used to visualize the targeting protein bands. β-actin was used as the internal reference for normalizing protein loading. Protein expression was quantified as a value relative to that of β-actin [44,52].

2.23 Calcium ion concentration in cell detection

3T3-L1 cells in the logarithmic growth stage were inoculated into 6-well plates or laser confocal dishes and induced to differentiate into mature adipocytes. HAS, HAS@MSNs-, or HAS@MSNs-ATS was added during induction. The Rhod-2 AM probe was incubated with the cells for 30 min. The cells were collected, and the changes in calcium ion concentration were observed under flow cytometry and laser confocal microscopy [44].

2.24 Safety of targeted drug delivery systems

HAS alone, HAS@MSNs-NH_2, and HAS@MSNs-ATS were administered at 2.5 mg/kg once every 3 days for 30 days. After which, blood samples were collected into a centrifuge tube containing heparin sodium, and the number of red blood cells and white blood cells was determined using an automatic blood biochemical detector (Mindray BC-2800VET, Shenzhen, China)] to evaluate the safety of the nanoparticle drug delivery system in vivo. The liver, heart, spleen, lungs and kidneys of mice were harvested, fixed in paraformaldehyde, and stained with H&E for histopathological examination according to a previously described method.

2.25 Data analysis

All experimental results were expressed as mean±standard deviation (SD), and GraphPad Prism 8.00 software (San Diego, CA, USA) was used to draw illustrations. Statistical analysis was performed using SPASS 20.0 software (Chicago, IL, USA). One-way analysis of variance was performed, followed by Dunnet *t* multiple comparisons test to compare between different groups. P value <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Synthesis process optimization of MSNs

To obtain MSNs with an appropriate particle size, the EtOH ratio (%), temperature (°C), and ratio of CTAB (g) to TEOS (mL) were investigated to optimize the MSN synthesis process. The ideal MSNs would have a small particle size (approximately 100 nm), high zeta potential (positive or negative), and smaller polymer dispersity index (PDI). A higher zeta potential (positive or negative) indicates higher electrostatic repulsion and better stability. PDI is a key parameter used to describe the uniformity of particle size distribution. A smaller PDI value means a more uniform particle size distribution. Therefore, based on our preliminary experiments

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before the formal investigation, single factor analysis was used to investigate the optimized parameters for particle size, zeta potential and PDI values. Based on the evaluation indexes of particle size, zeta potential and PDI values of the synthesized particles, the optimal parameters for the synthesis of MSNs were finally determined as follows: an EtOH ratio (%) of 10%, synthesis temperature of 85 °C, and a ratio CTAB (g): TEOS (mL) ratio 1: 6 (Table S1). The synthesized MSNs have a relatively uniform particle size distribution of approximately 100 nm.

3.2 Characterization of HAS@MSNs-ATS nanoparticles

The particle size of nanoparticles did not change significantly after amino modification but increased slightly following peptide modification; nevertheless, the particle size remained at approximately 120 nm (128.84±5.45 nm; PDI (%)=12.49; Fig. 2a and Table S2). The mean zeta potential of MSN was −36.54 mV due to the presence of the silicon hydroxyl group on the surface but increased to +30.67 mV after amino modification (PDI=10.30%), indicating that the amino group was successfully coupled to the MSN surface. However, the surface potential of the nanoparticle decreased to +10.47 mV after polypeptide modification (Fig. 2b and Table S2). SEM revealed that the synthesized MSNs were spheroidal and uniformly dispersed with a uniform particle size of approximately 100 nm, which was consistent with the particle size measured using the laser particle size analyzer (Fig. 2c). TEM revealed that after the removal of the template agent CTAB, honeycomb and orderly holes were formed on the surface of the silicon sphere, indicating that CTAB decomposed into volatile gas at high temperature, which facilitated particle loading for HAS (Fig. 2d). The infrared spectra of MSNs-CTAB showed prominent absorption peaks at 1470, 2854, and 2925 cm^{-1}. However, these

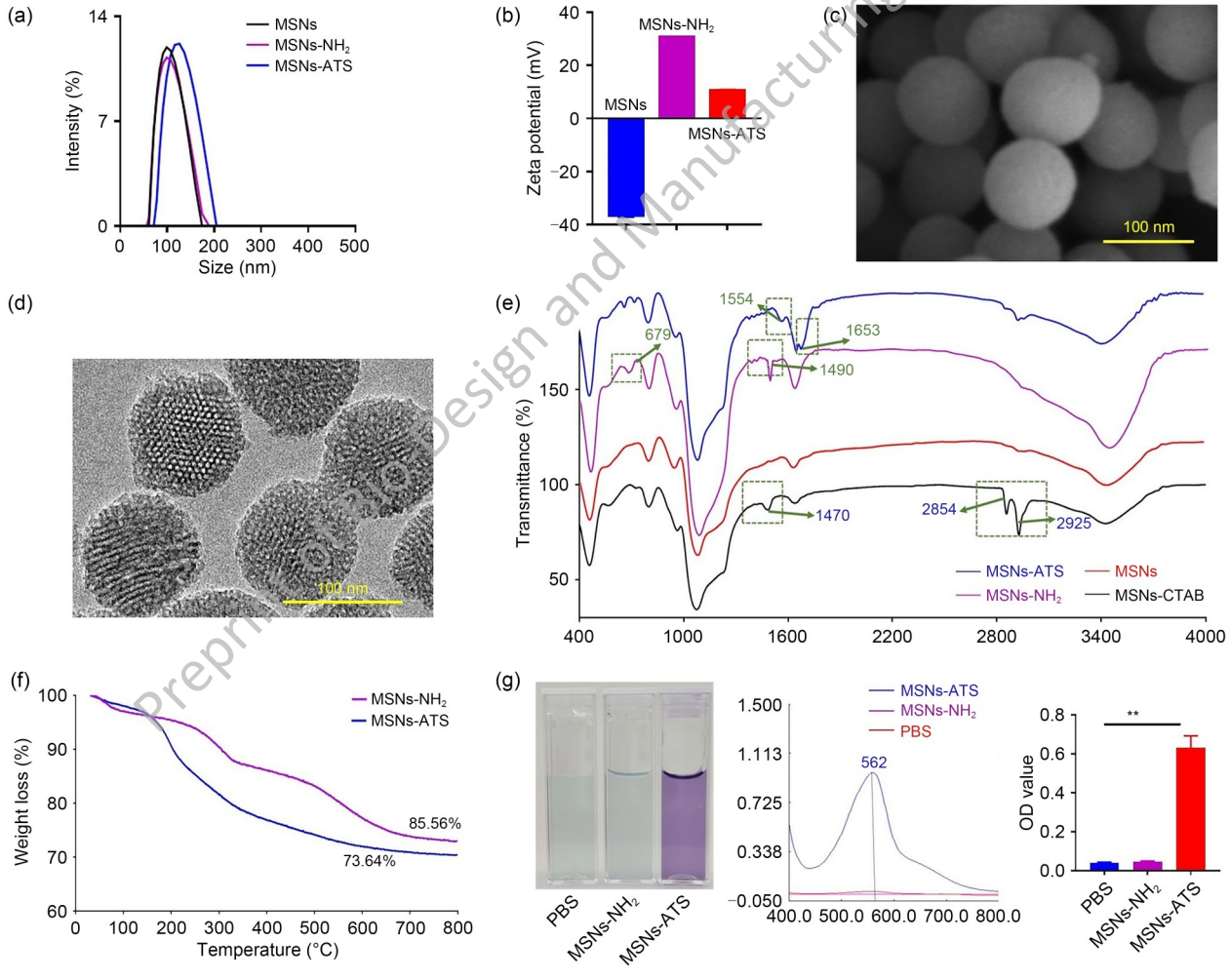

Fig. 2 Characterization of the hydroxy-α-sanshool (HAS)-loaded nanoparticles. (a) Size of mesoporous silica nanoparticles (MSNs), MSNs-NH_2 and MSNs-ATS; (b): Zeta potential of MSNs, MSNs-NH_2, and MSNs-ATS; (c, d): Scanning and projection electron microscopy images of MSNs; (e): Fourier infrared results of MSNs; (f): Thermogravimetric analysis curves of MSNs-NH_2, and MSNs-ATS; (g): Results of BCA assay of MSNs-ATS. Data are expressed as mean±standard deviation (n=3). ** p<0.01, vs. MSNs-ATS

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peaks disappeared in the MSN spectra, indicating that CTAB was successfully removed from the MSNs. Furthermore, compared with the MSNs, MSNs-NH_2 exhibited characteristic absorption peaks at 1490 and 679 cm^{-1} in the infrared spectrum, which are bending vibration peaks of two amino N-H bonds, indicating the successful amino modification of the MSNs. In addition, the comparison of the nanoparticle spectra before and after peptide linking showed that the bending vibration absorption peaks of the amino group weakened after the peptide linking, and the characteristic peaks of the I and II bands at 1644 and 1554 cm^{-1} amide appeared, indicating that the target peptide ATS was successfully linked to the surface of the MSNs (Fig. 2e). Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) revealed that the ratio of ATS modification on the MSNs-ATS surface was approximately 11.92% (Fig. 2f). In addition, a purple color reaction occurred between MSNs-ATS and BCA working solution, with the solution showing a strong UV absorption peak at 562 nm, which further confirmed the presence of polypeptides on the surface of the MSNs (Fig. 2g). Furthermore, the N_2 adsorption – desorption isotherm curves and parameter changes of the nanoparticles before and after peptide modification further indicated that ATS was successfully adhered to the surface of the MSNs (Fig. S2).

The drug-loading process was assessed based on the encapsulation rate and drug-loading capacity, and the final drug-loading process was determined as follows: acetone was the drug-loading solvent, the drug-loading time was 12 h, and the feeding ratio was 3:7 (Table S3). The drug-loading of HAS@MSNs-ATS was 83.72%±1.08%, and the encapsulation rate was 26.40%±0.25% (Table S3).

HAS alone at room temperature could not dissolve in PBS; however, HAS@MSNs-NH2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS containing the same amount of HAS became translucent in PBS, turning milky white, indicating that the loading of nanoparticles greatly improved the water solubility of HAS (Fig. 3a). Similarly, HAS@MSNs-ATS (127.32±4.50 nm, +9.54 mV; PDI=13.251%) has a slightly larger particle size than HAS@MSNs-NH_2 (110.53±2.39 nm, +31.69 mV; PDI=10.303%) and a lower potential due to the presence of surface peptides (Fig. 3b and 3c). The physical stability of HAS@MSNs-ATS in different solutions was also investigated (Fig. 3d). The particle size of HAS@MSNs-ATS remained almost unchanged in PBS and DMEM medium within 12 days, indicating the good stability of MSNs-ATS. The in vitro biocompatibility of drug-loaded nanoparticles was evaluated by hemolysis and protein binding experiments. HAS@MSNs-NH_2 had very low hemolysis and protein binding rates, whereas HAS@MSNs-ATS basically did not exhibit hemolysis but showed a decreased protein binding rate , indicating good in vitro biocompatibility. Thus, polypeptide modification can further enhance the biocompatibility of MSNs (Fig. 3e and 3f).

3.3 In vitro drug release of HAS-loaded MSNs

The release behavior of HAS, HAS@MSNs-NH_2, and HAS@MSNs-ATS in vitro was explored by dialysis. As shown in Fig. 3g, both HAS samples showed high release rates within 8 h. The release rate of HAS was 83.98% at 2 h, with complete released achieved at 8 h, whereas those of HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS were 39.05% and 30.58% at 2 h . The release rates of HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS at 8 h were 74.56% and 68.81%, respectively, which are significantly lower than that of HAS. Meanwhile, at 24 h, the release rates of HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS were 92.63% and 88.43%, respectively, indicating that the release of HAS can be delayed by the MSN system. We also found that the drug release curves of HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS gradually flattened over time, and no significant difference was observed between the two. Thus, HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS can stably and slowly release their drug loads. Furthermore, the peptide modification of the MSN surface did not affect drug release. Fitting the in vitro release data revealed that the release behavior of HAS was consistent with the first-order kinetic model with an R^2 of 0.9706. The release behaviors of HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS are consistent with the first-order kinetic model, with R^2 of 0.9946 and 0.9925, respectively (Table S4).

3.4 Cytotoxicity of HAS-loaded MSNs

Fig. 3h and 3i present the effects of HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS on the viability of 3T3-L1 cells. HAS@MSNs-NH_2 showed no obvious cytotoxic effects on cell viability within 12 h, and the cell viability was higher than 90%. However, cell viability gradually decreased with increasing treatment time. When HAS@MSNs-NH_2 concentration >20 μg/mL, the viability of 3T3-L1 cells was decreased for 24 and 48 h (cell viability <80%). Similarly, the viability of cells treated with 5 – 100 μg/mL HAS@MSNs-ATS for 12 h showed no obvious cytotoxic effects (cell viability >90%) but decreased gradually with increasing treatment time. However, the viability of 3T3-L1 cells was not affected at HAS@MSNs-ATS concentration <40 μg/mL, whether the treatment time was 24 h or 48 h. The results indicate that ATS modification of the HAS@MSNs particles can reduce the cytotoxicity of drug-loaded MSNs.

3.5 In vitro targetability of ATS-modified MSNs

In vitro targeting of the MSNs-ATS system was investigated using FITC@MSNs-NH_2 and FITC@MSNs-ATS (Fig. 4a–4c). The binding capacities of undifferentiated 3T3-L1 cells to FITC@MSNs-NH_2 and FITC@MSNs-ATS within 8 h were comparable. However, the binding of FITC@MSNs-ATS

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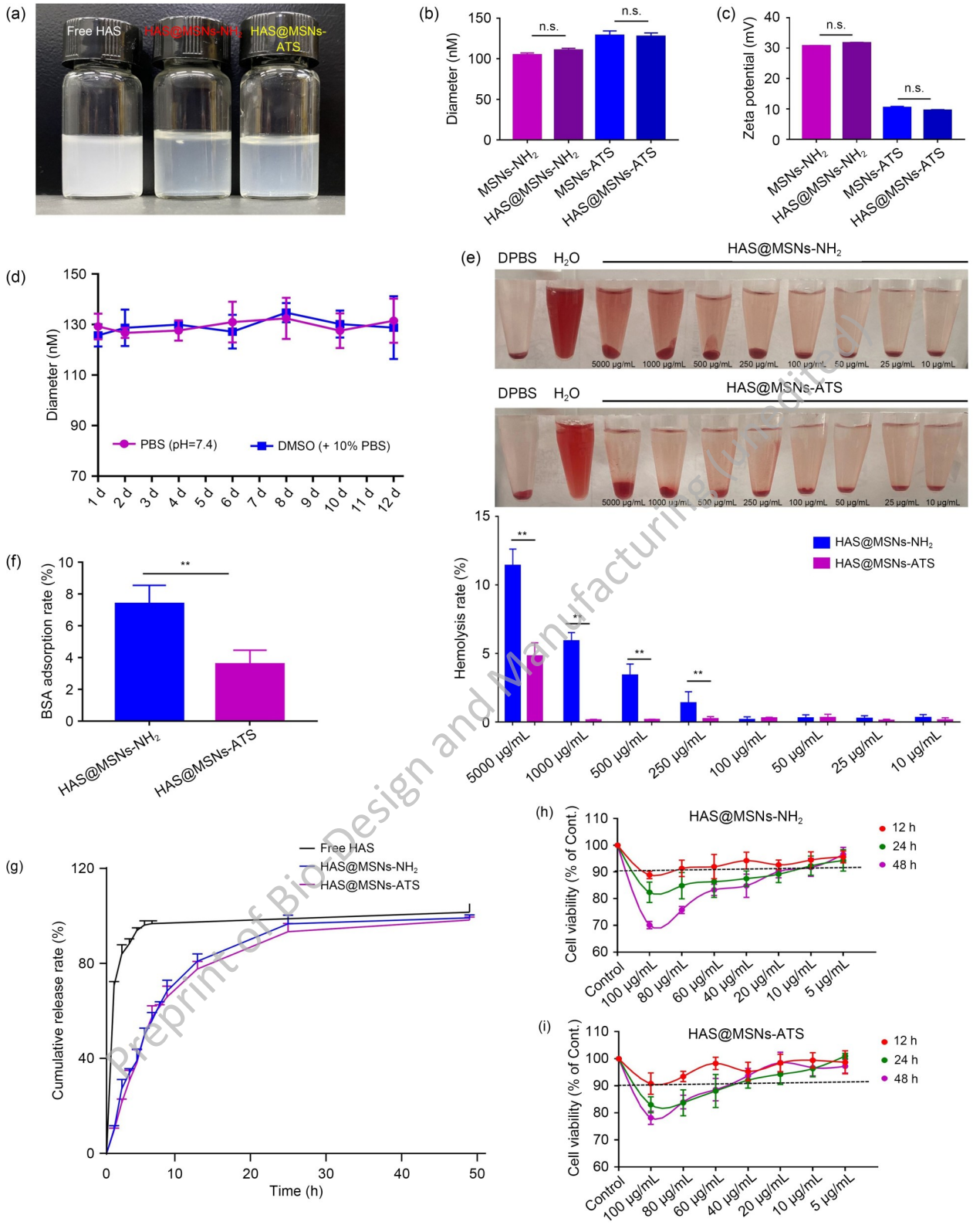

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Fig. 3 In vitro release and safety of hydroxy-α-sanshool (HAS)-loaded nanoparticles. (a) Different nanoparticles dissolved in phosphate-buffered saline; (b) Changes in the particle size of drug-carrying nanoparticles; (c) Changes in the zeta potential of drug-carrying nanoparticles. (d) Stability test results of HAS@MSNs-ATS. (e) Hemolysis test results of HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS at different concentrations. (f) Protein binding rates of HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS. (g) In vitro release curves of HAS, HAS@MSNs-NH_2, and HAS@MSNs-ATS. (h, i) Effects of different concentrations of HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS on the viability of 3T3-L1 cells at 12, 24, and 48 h. Data are expressed as mean±standard deviation (n=3). ** p<0.01; n.s., not significant

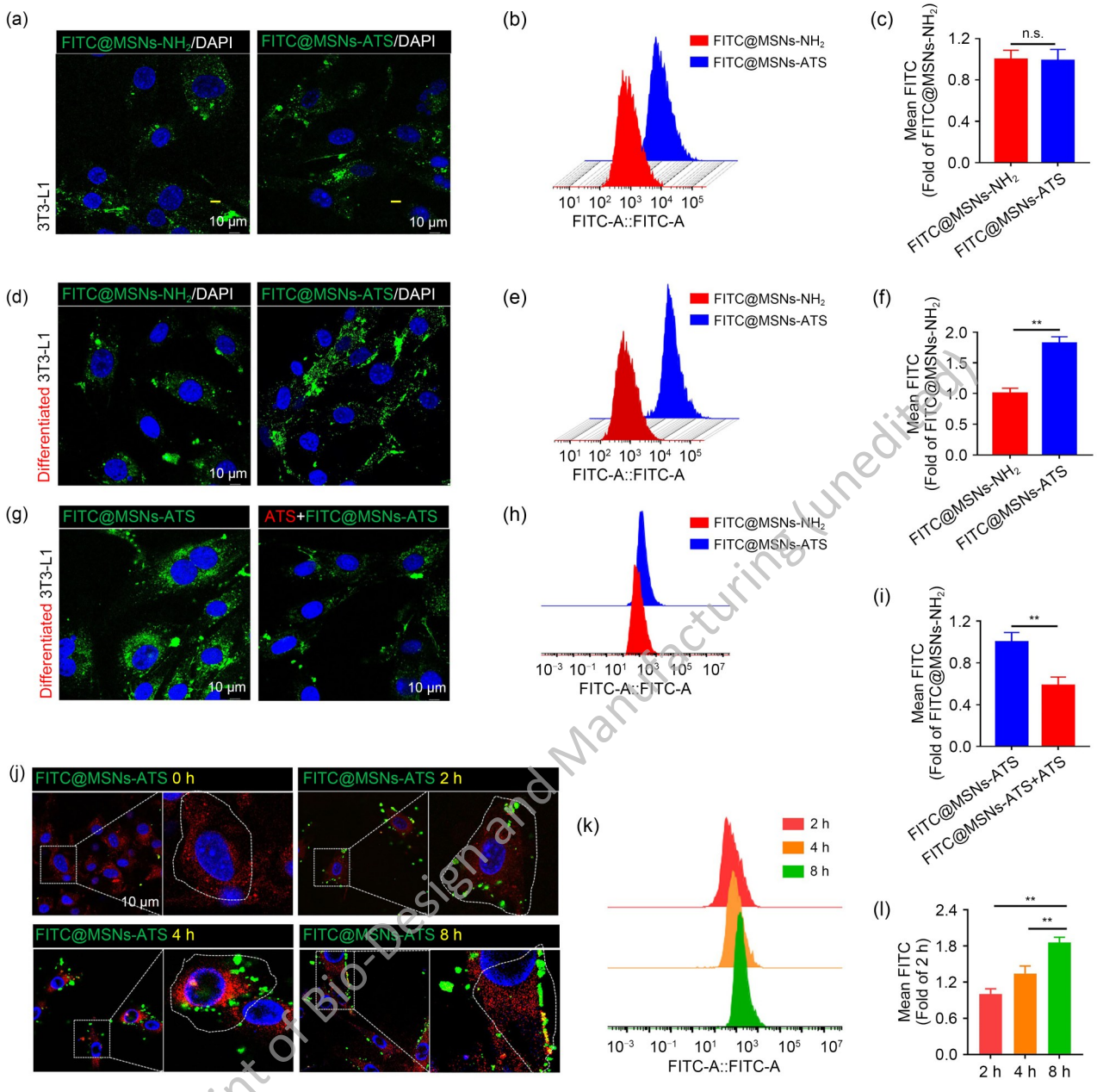

Fig. 4 Mature adipose cells bind specifically to FITC@MSNs-ATS. (a–f) FITC@MSNs-NH_2 and FITC@MSNs-ATS bind to cell membranes in vitro (green fluorescence indicates the FITC-marked MSNs; blue fluorescence indicates the DAPI-marked cell nuclei). Data are expressed as mean±standard deviation (SD; n=3). $^{**}p<0.01$, vs. FITC@MSNs-NH_2; n.s., not significant. (g–i) Effects of ATS preconditioning on the binding ability of FITC@MSNs-ATS in mature 3T3-L1 cells (green fluorescence, FITC-marked MSNs; blue fluorescence, DAPI-marked cell nuclei; red fluorescence, lysotracker-marked lysosome). Data are expressed as mean±SD (n=3). $^{**}p<0.01$, vs. FITC@MSNs-ATS. (j–l) Time-dependent uptake of FITC@MSNs-ATS by differentiated 3T3-L1 cells. Data are expressed as mean±SD (n=3). $^{**}p<0.01$, vs. FITC@MSNs-ATS uptake of cells after 8 h treatment. FITC, fluorescein isothiocyanate; MSNs, mesoporous silica nanoparticles; ATS, adipose-targeting sequence; DAPI, 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole; SD, standard deviation

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by mature 3T3-L1 cells was higher than that of FITC@MSNs-NH_2 ($p<0.01$) because the classical "cocktail" therapy can induce 3T3-L1 preadipocytes to differentiate into mature adipocytes. ATS on the surface of FITC@MSNs-ATS nanoparticles specifically bound to the prohibitin on the adipocyte surface (Fig. 4d–4f). Similarly, the binding of FITC@MSNs-ATS by mature 3T3-L1 cells was higher than that by undifferentiated 3T3-L1 cells, implying that adipocyte binding of MSNs-ATS is receptor-mediated. Confocal microscopy revealed that preconditioning mature adipocytes with free ATS reduced the binding capacity of FITC@MSNs-ATS by adipocytes. Similarly, flow cytometry showed the decreased binding of FITC@MSNs-ATS by adipocytes pretreated with ATS ($p<0.01$) (Fig. 4g–4i).

3.6 Uptake of HAS-loaded MSNs by differentiated 3T3-L1 cells

The fluorescence and flow cytometry results in Fig. 4j show that numerous FITC@MSNs-ATS were bound to the membrane of the cells after co-incubation for 2 h, which increased after 4 h of treatment. Furthermore, the number of cell-bound nanoparticles gradually increased with time, indicating that fat cells could bind nanoparticles on a time-dependent manner (Fig. 4j – 4l). To further demonstrate the targetability of ATS-modified MSNs to adipocytes, the HAS contents of adipocytes treated with HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS were determined. The HAS content of the cells treated with HAS@MSNs-ATS was 1.6 times higher than that of cells treated with HAS@MSNs-NH_2 (Fig. S3), which was consistent with the fluorescence and flow cytometry results (p<0.01). Therefore, our ATS-modified MSNs can promote the absorption of drug delivery particles by adipocytes.

3.7 In vivo targetability of ATS-modified MSNs

Different DIR -labeled nanocarriers were injected into mice through the caudal vein, and their distribution was observed using an imaging system for small animals in vivo. As shown in Fig. 5a, ATS-modified DIR@MSNs showed more fluorescence accumulation in the iWAT, eWAT, and pWAT of obese mice. Fluorescence studies of isolated adipose tissue (Fig. 5b–5i), revealed that the fluorescence signal of DIR was the highest in iWAT (Fig. 5f and 5g). Meanwhile, the fluorescence intensity of the iWAT of the DIR@MSNs-ATS–treated mice was 1.9 times higher than that of mice treated with DIR@MSNs-NH_2 (Fig. 5g, p<0.05). Furthermore, the intensity of

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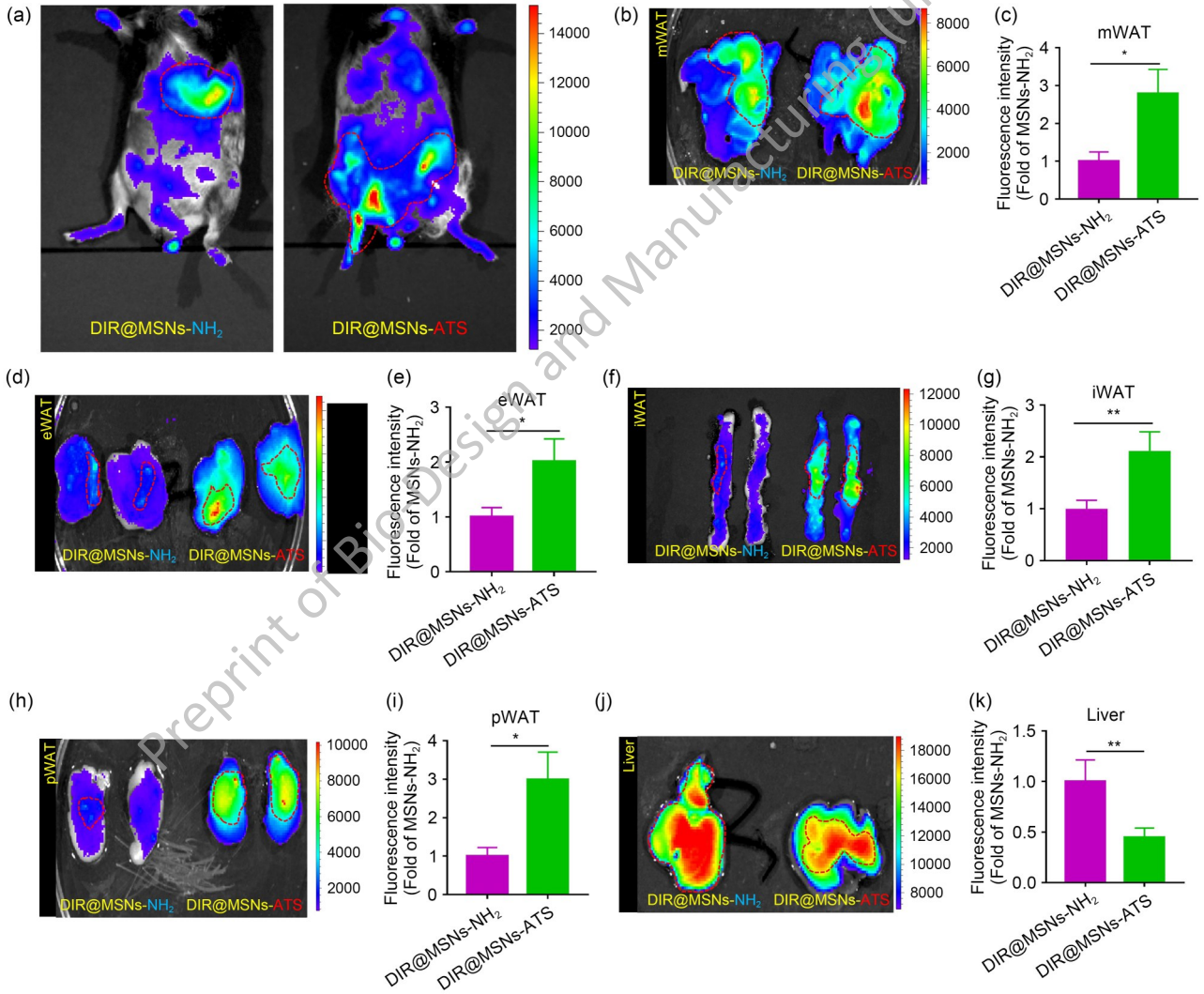

Fig. 5 Adipose targetability of hydroxy-α-sanshool (HAS)-loaded nanoparticles. (a) An in vivo imaging instrument was used to observe the distribution of nanocarriers in small animals; (**N**)-(**W**) Fluorescence statistics of the distribution of nanocarriers in mWAT, eWAT, iWAT, pWAT, and liver of mouse. Data were expressed as mean±standard deviation (n=3), $^{**}p$<0.01, vs. DIR@MSNs-NH_2. WAT, white adipose tissue; DIR, 1,1-dioctadecyl-3,3,3,3-tetramethylindotricarbocyaine iodide

the DIR signal in the livers of mice treated with DIR@MSNs-ATS was 55.21% lower than in those treated with DIR@MSNs-NH2 (Fig. 5j and 5k). These data show that DIR@MSNs-ATS can target WAT in obese mice, specifically the iWAT.

3.8 HAS-loaded MSNs promoted body weight reduction

Weight reduction is the most intuitive index for evaluating the effects of candidate drugs on obesity. Weight changes in mice were also recorded in the present study. On the 27th day of treatment, the weight of mice in the HAS group decreased (Fig. 6a). Similarly, HAS-loaded MSNs reduced the body weight in obese mice. However, on day 24, the body weight of mice in the HAS@MSNs-NH_2 group was lower than that in the saline group (Fig. 6a). Interestingly, on the last day of the experiment, mice in the HAS@MSNs-NH_2 group weighed less than those treated with HAS alone (Fig. 6a). We speculate that MSN loading promoted the weight reduction effect of HAS. In addition, compared with obese mice treated with normal saline, HAS-loaded MSNs-ATS treatment significantly reduced weight on day 21 (Fig. 6b) to gradually approach the weight of mice fed a normal diet. At the end of the experiment, the body weight of the mice treated with HAS@MSNs- ATS was lower than those treated with HAS alone and HAS@MSNs-NH_2 ($p<0.05$) (Fig. 6c) despite no significant differences in food intake (Fig. 6d). These results demonstrate that MSN loading and ATS peptide modification can significantly increase the anti-obesity effects of HAS. This may be because peptide modification can target drug delivery directly to the adipocytes.

As shown in Fig. 6e, after 12 weeks on HFD, the mice showed obvious signs of obesity, with a large amount of abdominal fat accumulation and heavier weight than the NC group. The evaluation of the anti-obesity effects of HAS also included the MSNs and MSNs-ATS groups to avoid the influence of excipients on the body weight of mice. Compared with mice treated with normal saline, the MSNs had no effect on body weight and abdominal fat accumulation in mice. Similar to the effect of HAS alone, HAS-loaded MSNs also reduced fat accumulation, with HAS@MSNs-ATS exhibiting a more remarkable effect on fat reduction (Fig. 6e). Importantly, the HAS alone and HAS-loaded MSNs had no effect on the food intake of mice, indicating that the weight reduction effect of HAS and HAS-loaded MSNs did not induce appetite reduction (Fig. 6d).

3.9 HAS-loaded MSNs improved serum biochemical indexes

Serum samples were collected at the end of the mentioned animal experiment, and analyzed for biochemical indexes. As shown in Fig. 6f–6i and Fig. S4, HFD did not significantly increase serum AST but increased serum ALT in obese mice ($p<0.05$), indicating liver injury may be associated with obesity. Furthermore, HFD can increase the serum levels of TG ($p<0.05$), TC ($p<0.05$), and LDL-H ($p<0.05$). However, the levels of ALT, TG, TC, and LDL-H under treatment with HAS alone and AS-loaded MSNs decreased ($p<0.05$), indicating HAS and HAS-MSNs can improve the liver injury and lipid levels associated with obesity. Importantly, the results indicated that MSN loading and ATS modification increased the effects of HAS on serum biochemical indexes. Our results also showed that MSNs alone did no significantly affect serum biochemical indexes (Fig. 6).

3.10 HAS-loaded MSNs improved liver fat accumulation

As shown in Fig. 6j–6m, HFD caused serious fat accumulation in the liver of obese mice as shown by H&E staining. Large fat vacuoles were formed in the liver of obese mice, and pathological phenomena observed included necrosis of liver cells, accumulation of fat droplets, and interstitial edema (Fig. 6l). Oil red O staining also revealed numerous fat droplets in the liver of obese mice (Fig. 6m). Treatment with HAS alone, HAS@MSNs-NH_2, and HAS@MSNs-NH_2-ATS reduced and/or improved liver lesions, fat droplets, hepatocyte necrosis, and interstitial edema, with a higher improvement observed under the MSN treatments than under HAS alone. In particular, the liver cells in the HAS@MSNs-ATS group were compact and orderly, with a clear morphology and fewer fat droplets. Mouse livers were also observed and weighed. Compared with that of NC mice, the liver weight of obese mice increased (Fig. 6j and 6k). However, liver weight decreased after treatment with HAS, HAS@MSNs-NH_2, or HAS@MSNs-NH_2-ATS ($p<0.05$). Subsequently, we calculated the liver index of mice and we found no significant changes in any of the groups (Fig. 6k). Furthermore, MSNs and MSNs-ATS did not affect the liver weight and organ index (Fig. 6j and 6k) or liver steatosis in obese mice (Fig. 6l and 6m).

3.11 HAS-loaded MSNs improved insulin resistance

Obesity often causes insulin resistance [51]. In the present study, OGTT and IITT assays were performed to evaluate the effects of HAS and HAS-MSNs on insulin resistance in HFD-induced obese mice (Fig. 6n–6q). The OGTT assay revealed that the blood sugar levels in all mice increased after glucose administration but gradually decreased with time (Fig. 6n). The IITT assay revealed that after intraperitoneal injection of insulin, the blood sugar levels in all mice decreased but gradually recovered with time (Fig. 6p). The

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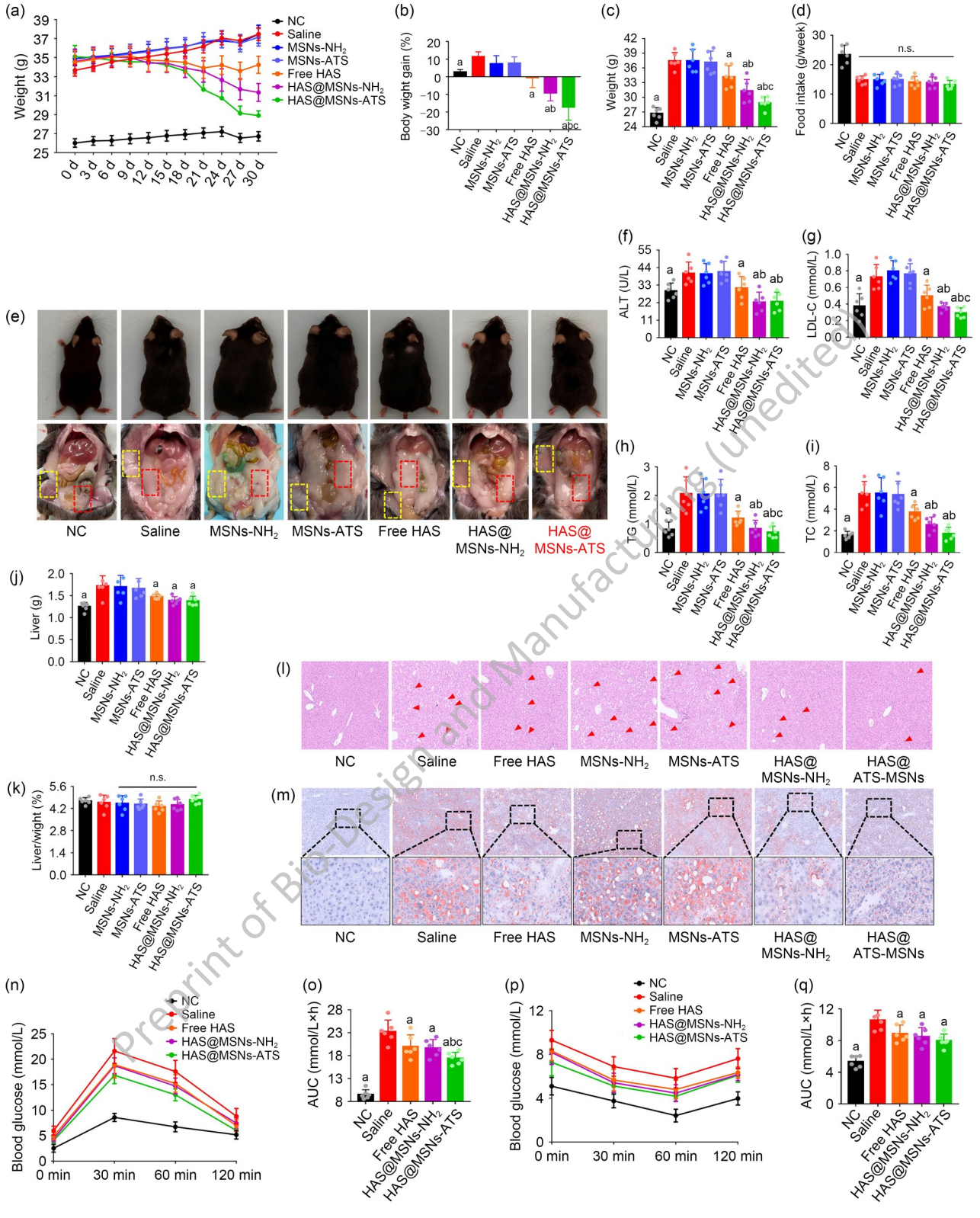

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Fig. 6 MSNs-ATS nanoparticle system increased the anti-obesity effect of hydroxy-α-sanshool (HAS). (a–d) Effects of drug-loaded nanoparticles on body weight and feed intake of obese mice. (e) Effects of drug-loaded nanoparticles on abdominal fat accumulation in obese mice;. (f–i) Effects of nanoparticles on serum biochemical levels in obese mice. (j–m) Effects of nanoparticles on the liver of obese mice. (n, o) Effects of nanoparticles on glucose tolerance in obese mice. (p, q) Effects of nanoparticles on insulin tolerance in obese mice. Data are expressed as mean±standard deviation (n=6). [a]p<0.05, vs. saline (HFD mice treated with saline); [b]p<0.05, vs. HAS alone; [c]p<0.05, vs. HAS@MSNs-NH_2. n.s., not significant; MSNs, mesoporous silica nanoparticles; ATS, adipose-targeting sequence; HFD, high-fat diet

AUC of blood glucose change, glucose tolerance (Fig. 6o), and insulin tolerance (Fig. 6q) of obese mice were higher than those of NC mice ($p<0.05$), indicating that obesity can cause impaired blood glucose regulation. The OGTT and IITT were improved by treatment with HAS, HAS@MSNs-NH_2, and HAS@MSNs-NH_2-ATS ($p<0.05$). We further observed that HAS@MSNs-ATS caused more significant improvements on OGTT and IITT than HAS alone in obese mice ($p<0.05$).

3.12 HAS-loaded MSNs reduced body fat volume

The whole-body fat of mice was analyzed and reconstructed by micro-CT (Fig. 7). Compared with mice under a normal diet, HFD mice exhibited significant accumulation of total body fat, including subcutaneous WAT (sWAT; yellow color in Fig. 7) and visceral WAT (vWAT; green color in Fig. 7) ($p<0.05$). In addition, micro-CT analysis revealed that HFD feeding did not affect BAT (red color in Fig. 7). Interestingly, our results indicate that treatment with HAS and HAS-MSNs (HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-NH_2-ATS) alleviated this pathological phenomenon ($p<0.05$). In addition, HAS-loaded MSNs significantly alleviated fat accumulation in sWAT better than HAS alone ($p<0.05$).

After drug intervention, eWAT, pWAT, mWAT, iWAT, and BAT of mice were collected and weighed (Fig. 8a–8m). Similar to the results of micro-CT analysis, the weights of eWAT, pWAT, mWAT and iWAT from obese mice treated with saline increased ($p<0.05$). The ratio of fat weight to body weight also increased ($p<0.05$). Treatment with HAS and HAS-MSNs (HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-NH_2-ATS) reduced the weight of these fat tissues ($p<0.05$) and the ratio of fat weight to body weight ($p<0.05$). Interestingly, the anti-obesity effects of HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS were higher than that of HAS alone ($p<0.05$). In addition, although the untreated obese mice had the largest BAT, the ratio of BAT to body weight did not different significantly with those of the other groups (Fig. 8j and 8k).

3.13 HAS-loaded MSNs reduced adipocyte volume

CT and anatomical observation revealed that HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS reduced fat accumulation in sWAT of obese mice. Pathological examination of the iWAT of mice was visualized by H&E staining (Fig. 8n–8p). Compared with the obese mice treated with saline, HAS and HAS-MSNs (HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS) reduced the iWAT volume ($p<0.05$). In addition, the adipocytes from

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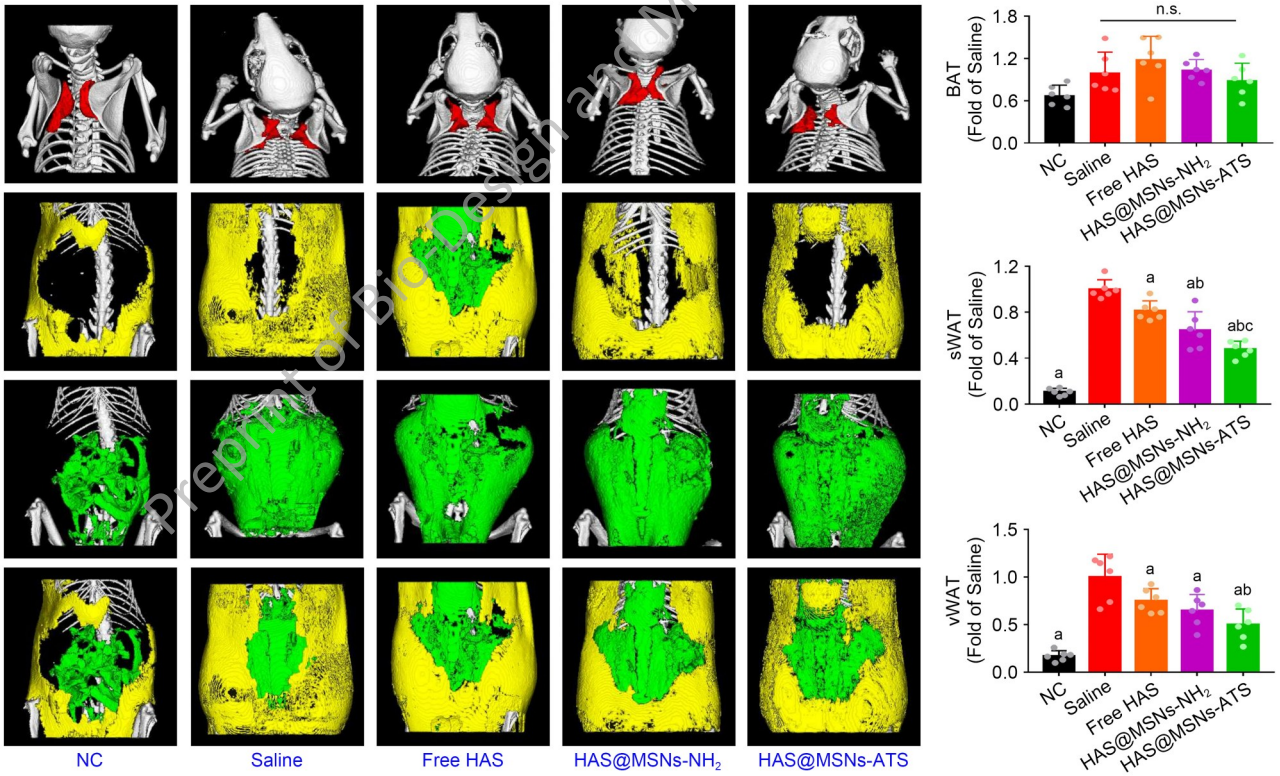

Fig. 7 Micro-computed tomography analysis showing the effects of nanoparticles on the total body fat volume of obese mice (yellow, sWAT; green, vWAT; red, BAT). Data are expressed as mean±standard deviation (n=6). [a]$p<0.05$, vs. saline (HFD mice treated with saline); [b]$p<0.05$, vs. HAS alone; [c]$p<0.05$, vs. HAS@MSNs-NH_2. n.s., not significant. NC, normal control; WAT, white adipose tissue; BAT, brown adipose tissue; sWAT, subcutaneous WAT; vWAT, visceral WAT; HAS, hydroxy-α-sanshool; MSNs, mesoporous silica nanoparticles; HFD, high-fat diet

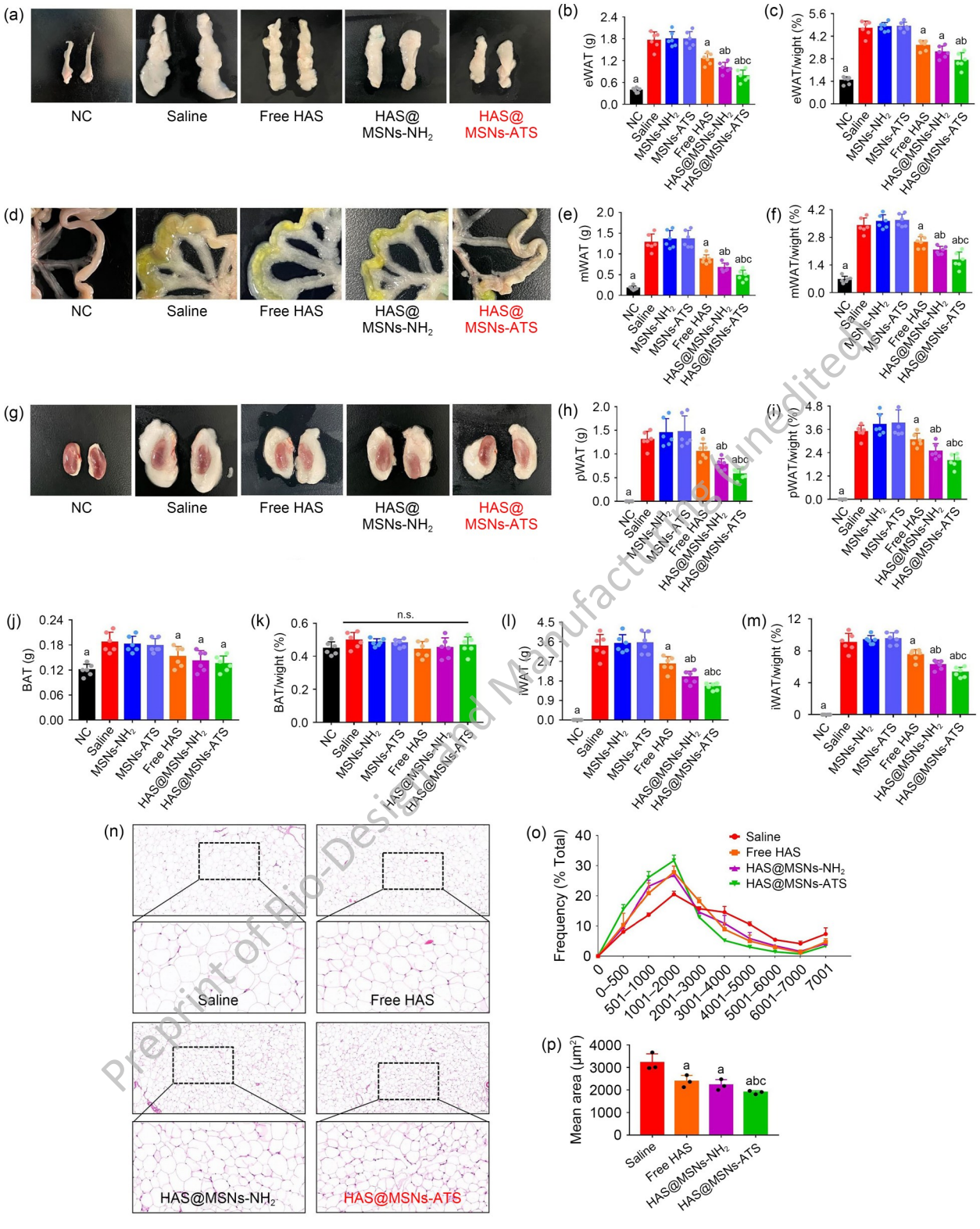

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Fig. 8 Hydroxy-α-sanshool (HAS)-loaded nanoparticles reduced the total body fat accumulation and adipocytes volume in obese mice. (a–m) Effects of HAS and its nanoparticles on eWAT, mWAT, pWAT, BAT, and iWAT in obese mice. Data are expressed as mean±standard deviation (SD; n=6). $^{a}p<0.05$, vs. saline (HFD mice treated with saline); $^{b}p<0.05$, vs. HAS alone; $^{c}p<0.05$, vs. HAS@MSNs-NH_2. (n–p) Effect of HAS and its nanoparticles on subcutaneous adipocyte volume in obese mice. Data are expressed as mean±SD (n=3). $^{a}p<0.05$, vs. saline (HFD mice treated with saline); $^{b}p<0.05$, vs. HAS alone; $^{c}p<0.05$, vs. HAS@MSNs-NH_2. WAT, white adipose tissue; BAT, brown adipose tissue; iWAT, inguinal WAT; eWAT, epididymal WAT; pWAT, perirenal WAT; mWAT, mesenteric WAT; HFD, high-fat diet; HAS, hydroxy-α-sanshool; MSNs, mesoporous silica nanoparticles

mice treated with HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS were smaller than those treated with HAS ($p<0.05$). Furthermore, the adipocytes from mice treated with HAS@MSNs-ATS showed obvious multicompartment lipid droplet morphology, which is typical of brown and beige adipocytes.

3.14 HAS-loaded MSNs increased adaptive thermogenesis in obese mice

Reducing food intake or increasing energy expenditure can reverse obesity. In the present study, drug intervention had no significant effect on the food intake of mice, which indicates that HAS and HAS-MSNs (HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS) may decrease body weight by increasing energy consumption. The browning of WAT is an effective means of increasing the body's energy consumption, and the body's adaptive heat production is a sign of the browning of WAT. A cold exposure test was conducted to evaluate the effects of HAS, HAS@MSNs-NH_2, and HAS@MSNs-ATS on adaptive thermogenesis and browning of WAT in obese mice. Before the experiment, the anal temperature of mice was measured as basal body temperature (Fig. 9). Treatment with HAS and HAS-MSNs increased the basal body temperature, indicating that HAS can increase the resting heat production, with a more pronounced effect under treatment with HAS@MSNs-ATS ($p<0.05$, HAS@MSNs-ATS *vs*. saline, Fig. 9a). After cold exposure at 4 °C, the thermoregulation ability of mice treated with HAS and HAS-MSNs was higher than that of control mice, indicating that the MSNs encapsulation and peptide modification of HAS did not reduce its efficacy. The temperature change curve showed that the HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS groups exhibited better thermoregulation ability (Fig. 9b). After treatment at 4 °C for 180 min, the body temperature of mice in the administration group was higher than that in the control group. The body temperature in the HAS@MSNs-ATS group was higher than that in the HAS group ($p<0.05$, HAS@ MSNs-ATS *vs*. HAS, Fig. 9c). Similar results were obtained by infrared thermal imaging (Fig. 9d). For 180 min at 4 °C, the body surface temperature of mice in the drug administration group was higher than that of the control group. Thus, HAS-MSNs promoted adaptive thermogenesis in obese mice, with a more pronounced effect with the ATS-modified MSNs.

3.15 HAS-loaded MSNs promoted the adipocyte browning in obese mice

Mitochondria are the centers of cell energy metabolism [53, 54]. The effects of HAS and HAS-MSNs on mitochondrial oxygen consumption in adipocytes were studied using the mitochondrial pressure assay (Fig. 10a – 10e). Compared with HAS monotherapy, HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS treatments showed higher oxygen consumption rates for basal respiration, proton respiration, maximal respiration, and spare respiratory capacity of mature 3T3-L1 cells ($p<0.05$).

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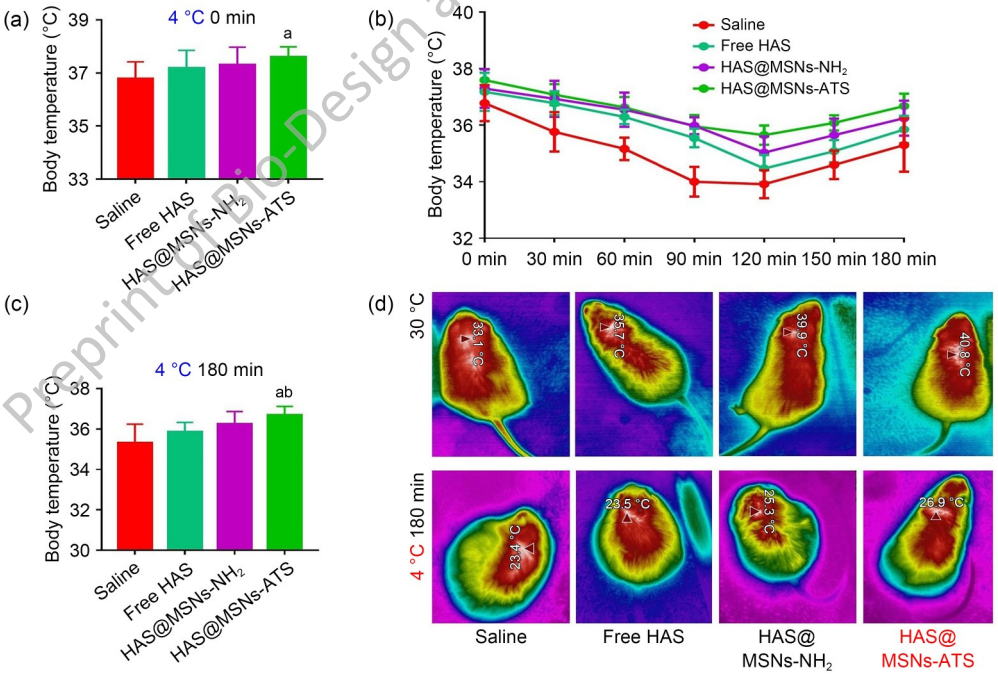

Fig. 9 Hydroxy-α-sanshool (HAS)-loaded mesoporous silica nanoparticles (MSNs) increased adaptive thermogenesis in obese mice. (a) The body temperature of mice at 4 °C for 0 min, (b) within 180 min, and (c) after 180 min. (d) Thermal imaging of mice at 4 °C. Data are expressed as mean±standard deviation (n=6). [a]$p<0.05$, vs. saline (HFD mice treated with saline); [b]$p<0.05$, vs. HAS alone; [c]$p<0.05$, vs. HAS@MSNs-NH_2. HFD, high-fat diet

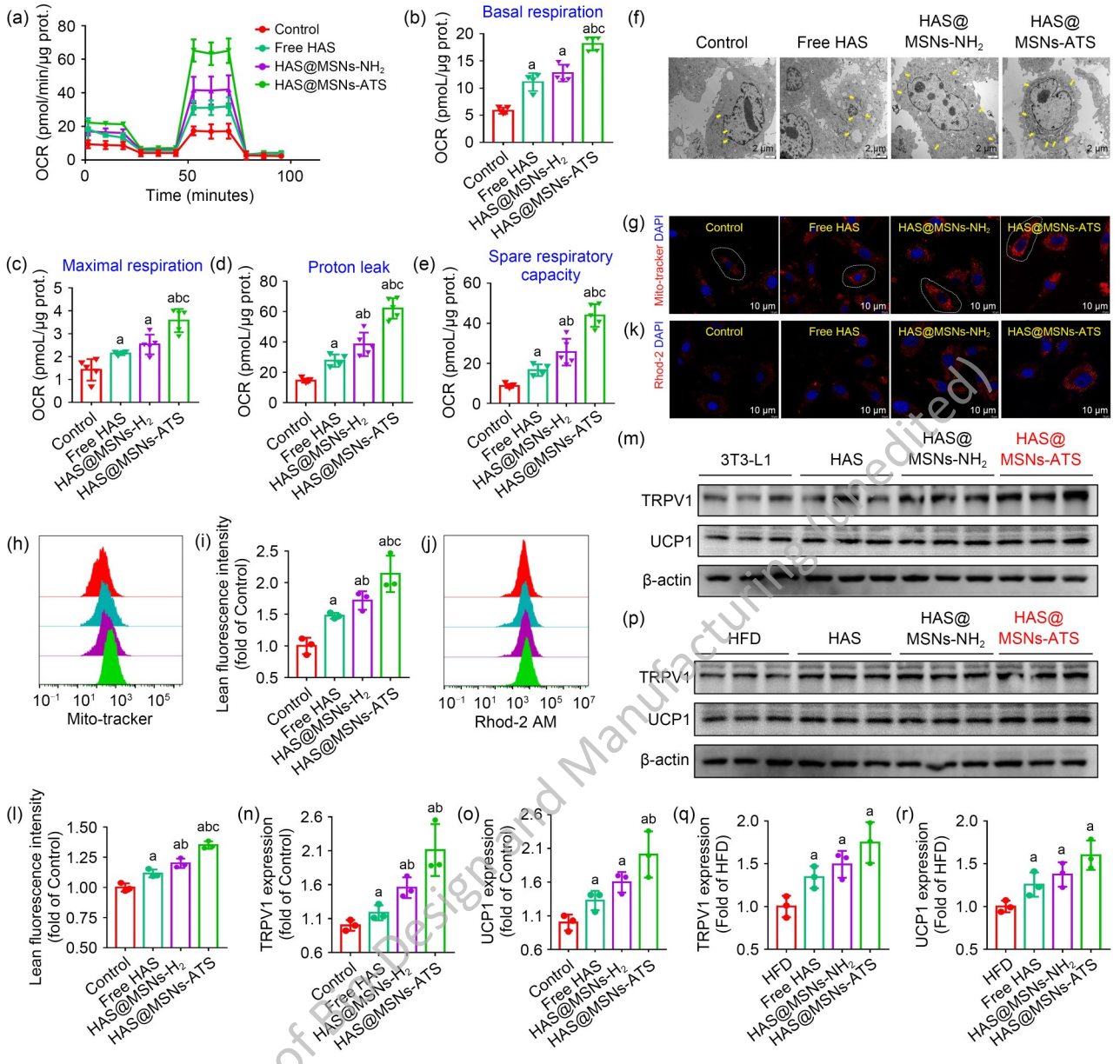

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Fig. 10 HAS and its nanoparticles induced adipocyte browning. (a–e) Effects of HAS and its nanoparticles on mitochondrial pressure in adipocytes. Data are expressed as mean±SD (n=5). ^{a}p<0.05, vs. control; ^{b}p<0.05, vs. HAS alone; ^{c}p<0.05, vs. HAS@MSNs-NH_2. (f, g, h, i) Effects of HAS and its nanoparticles on the number of mitochondria in adipocytes (red fluorescence, MitoTracker marked mitochondria; blue fluorescence, DAPI-marked cell nuclei). Data are expressed as mean±SD (n=3). ^{a}p<0.05, vs. control; ^{b}p<0.05, vs. HAS alone; ^{c}p<0.05, vs. HAS@MSNs-NH_2; (j, k, l) Effect of HAS and its nanoparticles on calcium influx in adipocytes (red fluorescence, rhod-2-marked calcium; blue fluorescence, DAPI-stained cell nuclei). Data are expressed as mean±SD (n=3). ^{a}p<0.05, vs. control; ^{b}p<0.05, vs. HAS alone; ^{c}p<0.05, vs. HAS@MSNs-NH_2. (m, n, o) Effects of HAS and its nanoparticles on the expression of TRPV1 and UCP1 in adipocytes. Data are expressed as mean±SD (n=3). ^{a}p<0.05, vs. control; ^{b}p<0.05, vs. HAS alone; ^{c}p<0.05, vs. HAS@MSNs-NH_2. (p, q, r) Effect of HAS and its nanoparticles on the expression of TRPV1 and UCP1 in iWAT of obese mice. Data are expressed as mean±SD (n=3), ^{a}p<0.05, vs. HFD; ^{b}p<0.05, vs. HAS alone; ^{c}p<0.05, vs. HAS@MSNs-NH_2. OCR, oxygen consumption rate; WAT, white adipose tissue; BAT, brown adipose tissue; HAS, hydroxy-α-sanshool; MSNs, mesoporous silica nanoparticles; SD, standard deviation; DAPI, 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole; TRPV1, transient receptor potential cation channel; UCP1, uncoupling protein 1

Furthermore, the increased number of mitochondria is a typical indicator of adipocyte browning [55]. Therefore, the changes in the number of mitochondria in mature adipocytes were observed on TEM, laser confocal microscopy, and flow cytometry analysis. As shown in Fig. 10f, 10g, 10h, and 10i, the number of mitochondria number in 3T3-L1 cells increased with HAS monotherapy (p<0.05). Importantly, compared with HAS monotherapy, treatments with HAS@MSNs-NH_2-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS further increased the number of mitochondria in the cells (p<0.05).

In our previous study, we found that HAS can upregulate UCP-1 to trigger the browning of WAT by activating the TRPV1 and AMPK/SIRT1/PPAR-γ pathway [26]. Calcium influx results from TRPV1 channel activation and was thus investigated in the present study. Fig. 10j, 10k, and 10l showed that, compared with the control group, HAS and HAS-MSNs increased calcium influx in mature 3T3-L1 cells ($p<0.05$). In the present study, we also investigated the effects of HAS-loaded nanoparticles on the expression of TRPV1 and UCP-1 in adipocytes. As shown in Fig. 10m, 10n, and 10o, HAS upregulated TRPV1 expression in mature 3T3-L1 cells and increased UCP-1 production (which is also an indicator of WAT browning [26]) in mature 3T3-L1 cells. Compared with HAS monotherapy, treatment with HAS@MSNs-NH_2 further increased the TRPV1 and UCP-1 expression in cells ($p<0.05$). Furthermore, the calcium influx in cells treated with HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS were higher than those treated with HAS alone ($p<0.05$). Furthermore, HAS@MSNs-ATS has the strongest ability to increase calcium influx in mature 3T3-L1 cells. These results indicate that the HAS-loaded adipose-targeted drug delivery system can enhance the HAS-induced activation of TRPV1 expression in adipocytes. To further verify the in vivo WAT browning effect of the HAS-loaded nanoparticles, UCP-1 expressions in iWAT were investigated. As shown in Fig. 10p, 10q, and 10r, UCP-1 expression in iWAT of obese mice treated with HAS alone, HAS@MSNs-NH_2, and HAS@MSNs-ATS was 1.33, 1.60 and 2.01 times higher than in the iWAT of mice treated with normal saline, respectively. In addition, HAS and HAS-MSNs upregulated the expression of TRPV1 in iWAT, indicating that ATS-modified MSNs can deliver HAS targeted to iWAT and promote WAT browning.

Furthermore, the possible in vivo toxicities of HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS in heart, spleen, lung, liver and kidney tissues were evaluated by histopathological examination with H&E staining. As shown in Fig. S5, no significant pathological changes were observed in heart, spleen, lung and kidney tissues between mice treated with HAS@MSNs-NH_2 or HAS@MSNs-ATS and saline-treated mice ($p>0.05$). HAS@MSNs-NH_2 and HAS@MSNs-ATS also reduced the lesions and lipid deposition in liver tissues without inducing toxicity (Fig. 6l and 6m). Furthermore, analysis of blood cells at the end of the experiment (Fig. S5) revealed that neither HAS alone nor HAS-MSNs showed adverse effects on the blood cells of mice.

4 Conclusions

Naturally occurring therapeutic agents, such as monomers or extracts from the herbal medicines, are considered important materials for the development of novel drugs used for the management of various diseases [56–58]. However, many such agents have poor druggability and therefore cannot exert adequate therapeutical effects in vivo. However, increasing evidence indicates that nanoparticle drug delivery systems with versatile abilities can increase the stability, controllability, bioavailability, and targetability of the loading drug [59, 60]. In 2001, a research literature firstly described the use of MSNs as novel drug delivery materials for loading ibuprofen [58]. This drug delivery nanomaterial exhibited a high drug-loading capacity and exerted a sustained-release effect. Since then, MSNs has gained considerable attention as drug delivery systems [30–33]. Prohibitin is commonly highly expressed on the cell membrane of mature adipocytes. The short peptide ATS (sequence CKGGRAKDC) can specifically bind to prohibitin, which can increase the adipocyte targetability of nano-drug delivery systems [34, 35]. Browning of the WAT is a very effective mechanism of reversing obesity. Our previous study demonstrated the potential of HAS as a potential natural agent for inducing the browning of WAT. However, the solubility of HAS in water is very low, and HAS easily undergo configuration transformation and oxidative degradation [27]. In the present study, we enhance the stability and targetability of HAS by developing a @MSNs-ATS nano- drug delivery system for loading HAS. Furthermore, the in vitro mature 3T3-L1 cell model and in vivo obese mouse model were constructed to evaluate the adipocyte targetability, therapeutic efficacy, and toxicity of the HAS-loaded MSNs-ATS.

Improved targetability is a crucial goal in the development of novel drug delivery systems. The present study demonstrated that ATS-modified MSNs showed higher adipocyte targetability than pure MSNs in HFD-induced obese mice. The improved targetability may enhance the therapeutic efficacy of the loading drug [60]. Both the in vitro and in vivo results of our study indicate that HAS-loaded MSNs-ATS showed a higher therapeutic efficacy against obesity by triggering adipocyte browning than HAS alone. HAS-loaded MSNs-ATS can also increase adaptive thermogenesis in obese mice, the number of mitochondria in cells, calcium influx, and proteins expression of UCP-1 and TRPV1 in adipocyte cells. Interestingly, HAS@MSNs-ATS exhibited more pronounced effects than HAS alone. Our evaluation of the safety of the HAS-loaded MSNs indicate that HAS alone and HAS-loaded MSNs showed high safety in liver, heart, kidney, lung, and spleen tissues, as well as whole blood cells, in mice.

However, our study has some limitations. Only male animals were used to avoid estrogen interference; therefore, more comprehensive experiments should be performed to explore the anti-obesity effects of HAS@MSNs-ATS in both male and female animals. Furthermore, the release behavior of HAS-loaded MSNs in vitro was studied using the dialysis method. The dialysis method is commonly used to determine

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the in vitro release of drugs loaded in nanoparticles [61]. However, the dialysis tubing may delay the release of the loading drug. Consequently, other methods of determining the in vitro release of HAS-loaded MSNs-ATS, such as the flow-through cell method [62], should be performed in future investigations. Furthermore, only preclinical laboratory experiments were performed in the present investigation. Thus, further assessments of the therapeutic potential of HAS@MSNs-ATS against obesity must be conducted as clinical trials.

In summary, we successfully developed an adipose-targeted HAS-loaded MSN drug delivery system. Our in vivo and in vitro results indicate that HAS@MSNs-ATS can execute the targeted delivery of the loading drug to the adipocyte with good safety and anti-obesity effects.

CRediT authorship contribution statement **Qing Zhang**: Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Writing-original draft. **Cheng-Xun He**: Investigation, Data curation, Software, Validation. **Juan Guo**: Investigation, Data curation, Software. **Dan-Dan Tang**: Formal analysis, Investigation. **Die Qian**: Investigation, Supervision, Visualization. **Chuan Zheng**: Conceptualization, Supervision, Visualization. **Chun-Jie Wu**: Conceptualization, Supervision, Validation. **Wei Peng**: Conceptualization, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Writing-review & editing.

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Data availability Data will be made available on request.

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