

A Deep Dive into Gene Therapy: A Comprehensive Review

Vishalahire^{*}, Nikita Pagare¹, Chetana Mayekar², Yogita Patil³, Tanaya Patyana⁴

^{*}Student of Shivajirao S. Jondhle College of Pharmacy, Asangaon, Thane

¹Assistant Professor, Department of Pharmaceutics, Shivajirao S. Jondhle College of Pharmacy, Asangaon, Thane

²Assistant Professor, Department of Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Shivajirao S. Jondhle College of Pharmacy, Asangaon, Thane

^{3,4}Student of Shivajirao S. Jondhle College of Pharmacy, Asangaon, Thane

Date of Submission: 15-12-2024

Date of Acceptance: 25-12-2024

ABSTRACT:

Gene therapy represents a revolutionary approach in medicine, aiming to treat or prevent diseases by directly modifying the genetic material within a patient's cells. This innovative technique has garnered significant attention for its potential to address a range of genetic disorders, cancers, and viral infections, offering hope where traditional therapies may fall short. In this review, we explore the current state of gene therapy, highlighting recent advancements, ongoing challenges, and future directions in the field, providing a comprehensive overview of its transformative potential in healthcare. Gene therapy has emerged as a ground breaking modality in the treatment of various diseases, particularly genetic disorders, cancers, and viral infections. Recent advancements in techniques such as CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing, viral vector delivery systems, and RNA interference have significantly enhanced the precision and efficacy of therapeutic interventions. These innovations enable targeted modifications to genetic material, providing new avenues for addressing previously untreatable conditions.

Keywords: CRISPR/Cas9, gene editing, gene therapy, viral vector, genetic disorders,

I. INTRODUCTION:

A medical technique that involves modifying an individual's genes to treat or prevent diseases by correcting faulty genes or introducing new genetic material is called as Gene Therapy. Gene therapy has emerged as a

transformative approach in modern medicine, revolutionizing the treatment landscape for a variety of diseases, particularly genetic disorders, cancers, and viral infections. By directly targeting and modifying the genetic material within a patient's cells, gene therapy offers the potential for long-lasting and, in some cases, curative outcomes. Recent advancements in molecular techniques have paved the way for innovative therapies that not only address the underlying genetic causes of diseases but also enhance the efficacy of existing treatments.

As our understanding of the human genome expands, so too does the potential for gene therapy to reshape therapeutic strategies across diverse medical fields. Central to the success of gene therapy are cutting-edge techniques such as CRISPR/Cas9 gene editing, viral vector delivery systems, and RNA interference. CRISPR technology, in particular, has garnered significant attention for its ability to precisely edit genes, offering unprecedented control over genetic modifications. Viral vectors, commonly used to deliver therapeutic genes, enable the effective transfer of genetic material into target cells. Meanwhile, RNA interference mechanisms provide additional layers of regulation, allowing for the silencing of harmful genes. Together, these techniques are redefining the boundaries of what is possible in treating complex diseases, driving forward a new era of personalized medicine.^[2, 3]

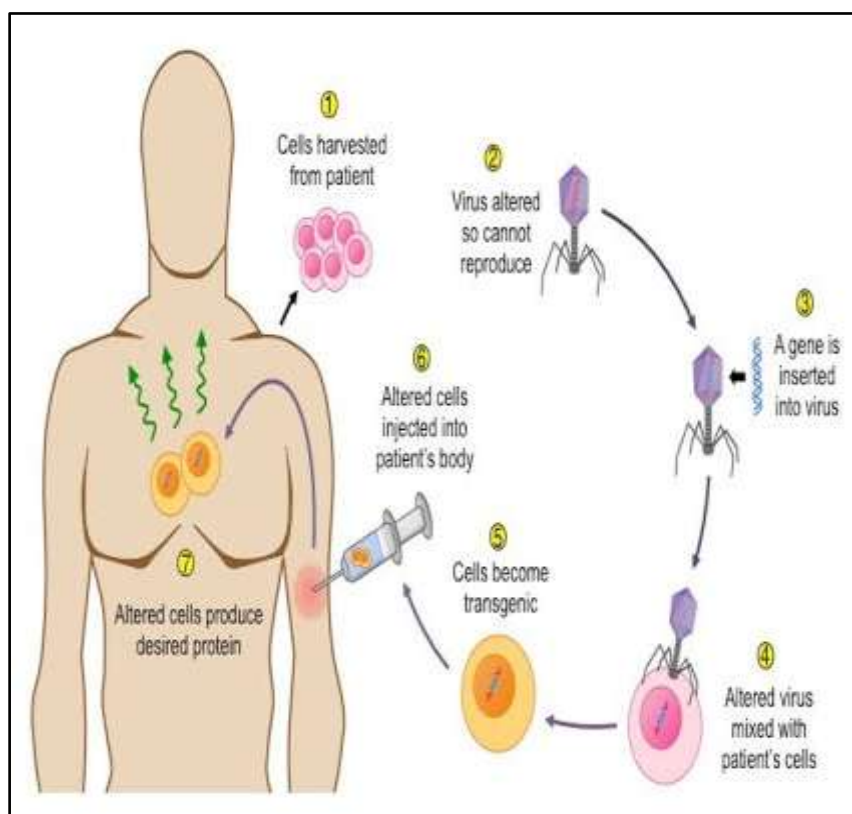


Fig. No. 1 : Gene therapy

❖ **HISTORY & DEVELOPMENT OF GENE THERAPY:**

The history of gene therapy and gene editing technologies has evolved significantly over several decades, with key milestones marking the development of this ground breaking field. In the early years (1960s-1980s), the concept of gene therapy emerged, with the first experiments conducted in bacteria in 1966, followed by animal trials in the 1970s. The first human gene therapy trial took place in 1980, laying the groundwork for future advances. In the subsequent First Generation (1980s-1990s), notable developments included the first FDA-approved gene therapy trial in 1989, and in 1990, Ashanti DeSilva became the first patient to receive gene therapy.

By 1991, the first gene therapy trial for ADA-SCID, a severe immune disorder, was initiated. Despite these advances, the 1990s also witnessed significant challenges, such as the 1995 gene therapy trial for cystic fibrosis and the tragic death of Jesse Gelsinger in 1999, which raised concerns over the safety of gene therapy. In 2000, the FDA temporarily halted gene therapy trials due to safety concerns. During the Second Generation

(2000s-2010s), gene therapy technology began to mature. In 2003, the FDA approved Medicine, the first gene therapy product, marking a pivotal moment in the field. The emergence of gene editing technologies like Zinc Finger Nucleases (ZFNs) and TALENs in 2006 revolutionized the precision of genetic modifications. In 2008, lentiviral vectors were used in a clinical trial for the first time, offering new possibilities for gene delivery. The CRISPR Era (2010s-present) marked a turning point with the discovery of the CRISPR/Cas9 gene-editing technology in 2012, followed by the first CRISPR gene editing in human cells in 2014.

The approval of Luxturna in 2017, the first FDA-approved gene therapy for an inherited disease, was a major achievement. In 2019, the first CRISPR gene therapy trial in humans began, demonstrating the potential of CRISPR technology for treating genetic disorders. Today gene therapy is an expanding field with over 2,500 clinical trials underway worldwide. Several FDA-approved gene therapies, including Luxturna and Zolgensma, offer promising treatments for genetic diseases. The application of CRISPR technology is also pushing the boundaries of genetic medicine, with ongoing research aimed at curing rare and inherited

diseases, signifying a new era in genetic disease treatment.^[9,17]

❖ TYPES OF GENE THERAPY:

- 1. Somatic Gene Therapy:** Somatic gene therapy targets non-reproductive cells to treat genetic disorders. The goals of this therapy include treating symptoms, slowing disease progression, and potentially curing the disease. Methods used include viral vectors (e.g., lentivirus, AAV), non-viral methods (e.g., electroporation), and gene editing (CRISPR/Cas9). Examples of applications include cystic fibrosis, muscular dystrophy, and cancer treatments. Benefits include treating symptoms, improving quality of life, and potential cure.
- 2. Germ line Gene Therapy:** Germ line gene therapy targets reproductive cells to correct genetic defects. The goals of this therapy include preventing inherited diseases and correcting genetic defects. Methods used include gene editing (CRISPR/Cas9) and viral vectors. However, concerns surround ethical issues, safety concerns, and efficacy issues. Currently, germ line gene therapy is prohibited in humans.

❖ VECTORS FOR GENE THERAPY:

Vectors, which transport cells, can be utilized to transfer them to DNA by numerous means. Vectors are divided into two categories: non-viral and viral.

- 1) Viral vector:** During replication, the virus delivers genetic material into the host cell, which serves as a blueprint for viral proteins. Retroviruses copy their genetic material into the host cell's genome. Scientists take advantage of this by replacing the virus's genetic material with healing DNA. Gene therapy can use RNA, as certain viruses have RNA as their genetic material. Human gene therapy uses a variety of viruses, including adenoviruses, herpes simplex virus, retrovirus, adeno associated virus, and vaccinia virus. Remedial DNA, like a virus's hereditary component (DNA or RNA), can be employed as a temporary outline before being degraded or entering the host's genome and becoming an everlasting part of the host's DNA in infected cells.⁽²⁵⁾
- 2) Non-viral vectors:** offer advantages such as large-scale manufacturing and decreased host immunogenicity compared to viral vectors. Non-viral approaches produce small

gene expression and transfection stages, leading to less therapeutic effects. New technologies can address challenges related to subcellular transport control and cell-specific targeting. Non-viral gene therapy approaches include gene gun, non-operation, naked DNA injection, magnetic transfection, electroporation, oligonucleotides, lipoplexes, inorganic nanoparticles.⁽²⁶⁾

❖ GENE THERAPY IN INDIA:

Financial funding from several government bodies has aided the country's rapid advancement in gene therapy research. In terms of gene therapy laboratories, India ranks third among Asian countries. The primary goal should be to establish new gene therapy research facilities while strengthening existing institutions with more experience in molecular genetics to minimize the burden of genetic illnesses in India. The Advanced Cancer Treatment, Research, and Education Center (ACTREC) is a leader in gene therapy research in our country. The center uses synthetic vectors to study head and neck cancer. It is worth noting that Indian experts are working tirelessly to advance gene therapy in India.^[27] Hareendran et al. proposed that in order to decrease the immunological barrier, certain cellular host proteins should be targeted, which represent a major hurdle to the practical application of adeno-associated virus gene therapy. Kochat et al and his colleagues investigated the use of allogeneic liver transplantation. In vitro, regulatory T cells activated by allogeneic antigens can cause tolerance to donor antigens. Shetty et al demonstrated that by developing a genetically modified approach to express human orthologs of the Asrij protein, immature stem cells can be transformed into pluripotent cells.

Asrij protein is found in mouse embryonic stem cells and is essential for maintaining pluripotency. Misra et al. are investigating a potential technique for using selective gene transfection to rule out nontarget gene toxicity and expression. To overcome the barriers generated by various layers of the skin to treat skin illnesses, Vij et al. exploited nucleic acid therapy as an effective local delivery technique. Kumar et al. are dedicated to alternate and efficient nucleic acid transport. Sarkar et al investigate the efficacy of a combination of BH3 mimics and a novel type of cancer terminator in the treatment of advanced prostate cancer.^[28]

❖ **DELIVERY METHOD:**

Effective delivery of therapeutic genes is a crucial step in the success of gene therapy, and various methods have been developed to transport genetic material into target cells. These methods can be broadly divided into viral and non-viral delivery systems, with ongoing research focusing on optimizing these approaches to enhance efficiency, safety, and therapeutic outcomes. In the context of gene editing technologies like CRISPR/Cas9, the choice of delivery system is especially important, as it can significantly impact the precision, efficiency, and overall success of the therapy. CRISPR/Cas9 delivery systems can be categorized into viral and non-viral methods, each with its own set of advantages and limitations. Viral vectors, such as lentivirus and adeno-associated virus (AAV), are widely used for delivering CRISPR components into cells due to their high efficiency and ability to deliver genetic material in a targeted manner. However, viral delivery systems also face challenges such as immune responses and toxicity, which can limit their application in clinical settings. Despite these challenges, viral vectors continue to play a prominent role in gene therapy and cancer treatment, where precise and efficient gene delivery is essential. On the other hand, non-viral methods, such as electroporation, microinjection, and the use of nanoparticles, offer promising alternatives. These physical or chemical methods avoid the potential immune complications associated with viral vectors, but they often suffer from limited efficiency and may induce cellular toxicity, especially at higher doses. Electroporation, for instance, uses electrical pulses to create temporary pores in the cell membrane, allowing genetic material to enter the cell. Microinjection involves directly injecting genetic material into individual cells, a method that can be highly effective but is labor-intensive and not suitable for large-scale applications. Nanoparticles, which can encapsulate genetic material, provide an avenue for targeted delivery with reduced toxicity, although their efficiency in some cases may not match that of viral vectors. Non-viral methods are actively being researched to improve their efficiency and reduce any potential toxicity, with the goal of making them viable alternatives to viral delivery systems in clinical applications. In recent years, exosomes/natural extracellular vesicles that can carry RNA, proteins, and other molecules have gained attention as potential gene delivery vehicles. These vesicles are naturally involved in

intercellular communication and have a low immunogenic profile, making them an attractive option for therapeutic applications. Exosomes are biocompatible, non-toxic, and capable of targeted delivery, which are all key benefits for gene therapy, cancer treatment, and regenerative medicine. However, challenges remain in scaling up the production of exosomes and improving their targeting efficiency, which limits their widespread use. Despite these hurdles, exosomes represent a promising area of research for non-viral gene delivery. In addition to viral and non-viral methods, physical techniques such as sonoporation and gene guns are also being explored. Sonoporation involves using ultrasound to facilitate the delivery of genetic material into cells, while gene guns use high-pressure helium to shoot DNA-coated gold or tungsten particles into cells. Both techniques are still in the research phase but show potential for targeted and efficient gene delivery. Physical methods like electroporation and microinjection are also being refined to enhance their efficacy and reduce potential cellular damage. The development of these various delivery methods, whether viral, non-viral, or physical, continues to be a dynamic area of research, with the ultimate goal of improving the outcomes of gene therapies, particularly in the fields of genetic disorders, cancer, and regenerative medicine.^[7,11,12, 13,14]

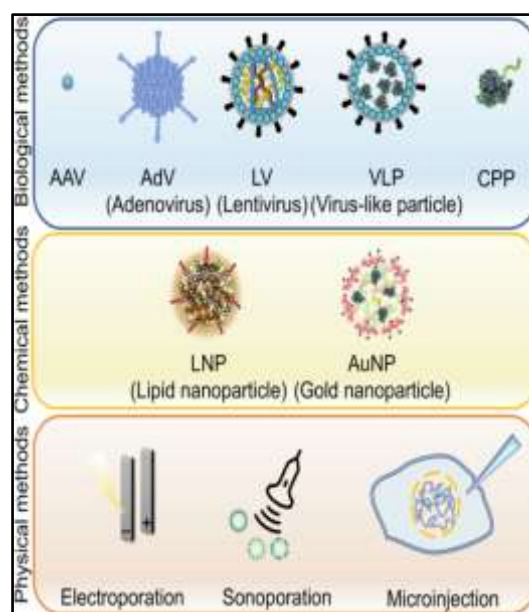


Fig No.2: Delivery Method

❖ **Clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats/CRISPR-associated protein 9 (CRISPR/Cas9 Technology):**

CRISPR/Cas9 technology is a powerful and versatile gene-editing tool that has revolutionized the field of molecular biology. It operates using RNA-guided DNA endonucleases to make precise edits in the genome, offering unparalleled efficiency, accuracy, and flexibility compared to traditional gene-editing methods. Initially discovered as a defense mechanism in bacteria, CRISPR/Cas9 has rapidly evolved into a transformative tool with diverse applications in fields ranging from basic research to gene therapy, agriculture, and synthetic biology. Its ability to target and modify specific genes allows researchers to investigate the roles of genes in health and disease, develop genetically modified crops with improved traits, and even create novel therapeutic strategies for genetic disorders and cancer. However, despite its promise, CRISPR/Cas9 also faces significant challenges, particularly in terms of off-target effects, delivery efficiency, and the optimization of protocols for specific applications. Off-target effects, where unintended regions of the genome are edited, pose a substantial risk, potentially leading to harmful mutations or other complications. Furthermore, the delivery of CRISPR/Cas9 components into target cells remains a major obstacle, particularly for in vivo applications, requiring the development of more effective and safer delivery systems.^[1,5]

treatment of genetic disorders such as haemophilia. Haemophilia A and haemophilia B are two distinct forms of bleeding disorders caused by mutations in the F8 and F9 genes, respectively, which are responsible for producing clotting factors VIII and IX. These mutations result in deficient or absent clotting factors, leading to uncontrolled bleeding and severe health complications. CRISPR/Cas9 offers a promising approach for treating these conditions by directly editing the mutated genes to restore normal factor production. In the case of haemophilia A, CRISPR/Cas9 can be used to edit the F8 gene in liver cells, which are the primary site of factor VIII production. The process begins by designing a guide RNA that specifically targets the F8 gene, followed by the delivery of the CRISPR/Cas9 components Cas9 enzyme and guide RNA into liver cells, typically via viral vectors such as adeno-associated virus (AAV). The CRISPR/Cas9 complex then introduces a double-strand break at the target site, allowing for the correction of the mutation, either through homology-directed repair (HDR) or non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) mechanisms. This results in the restoration of normal F8 gene function and the subsequent production of factor VIII, which can alleviate the symptoms of haemophilia A. A similar approach can be applied to haemophilia B, which is caused by mutations in the F9 gene, leading to a deficiency in factor IX. By targeting and editing the F9 gene, CRISPR/Cas9 can restore normal factor IX production in liver cells, offering a potential curative therapy for this form of haemophilia as well.^[20]

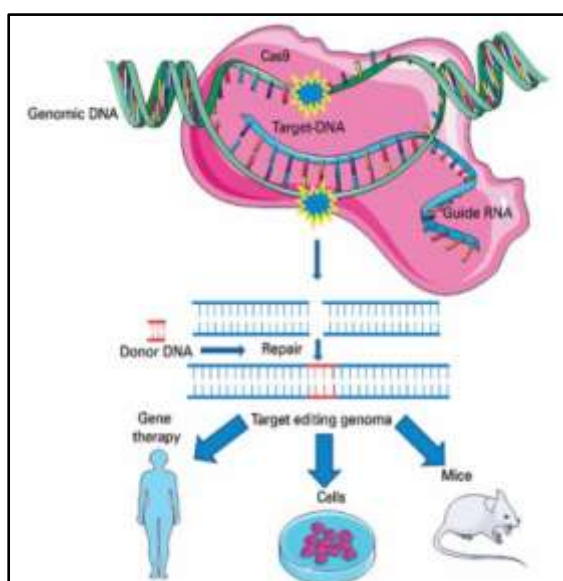


Fig No. 3: CRISPR CAS-9 System.

❖ **CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing technology in Haemophilia:**

One of the most exciting and impactful applications of CRISPR/Cas9 technology is in the

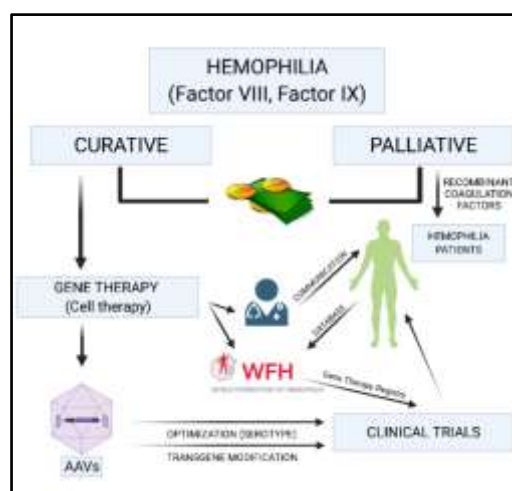


Fig No.4: Gene therapy in Hemophilia

❖ CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing technology in cancer:

Beyond genetic disorders, CRISPR/Cas9 is also being explored for its potential in cancer therapy, where it can be used to target and modify specific genes associated with cancer development and progression. One of the most promising approaches in cancer treatment involves disrupting oncogenes, which are genes that, when mutated, contribute to the uncontrolled growth and division of cancer cells. Oncogenes such as KRAS and BRAF are frequently implicated in various cancers, including lung, colorectal, and melanoma. CRISPR/Cas9 technology offers a strategy for disrupting these oncogenes, thereby inhibiting the growth and proliferation of cancer cells. By designing a guide RNA that targets the specific oncogene sequence, CRISPR/Cas9 can be used to introduce a double-strand break at the target site, leading to the disruption of the oncogene's function. This process can be further enhanced by using viral vectors or nanoparticles to deliver the CRISPR/Cas9 components specifically to cancer cells. Disrupting the function of these oncogenes could slow or halt tumor growth, offering a potential therapeutic avenue for cancers driven by these mutations. In addition to targeting oncogenes, CRISPR/Cas9 can be employed to restore the function of tumor suppressor genes, which are typically mutated or inactivated in cancer cells. Tumor suppressor genes, such as TP53 and BRCA1, play critical roles in regulating cell growth, repairing DNA damage, and preventing the development of cancer.

Mutations in these genes can lead to the loss of their tumor-suppressing functions, allowing cancer cells to proliferate uncontrollably. CRISPR/Cas9 can be used to restore the normal function of these genes, effectively reactivating the body's natural defense mechanisms against cancer. For example, by designing a guide RNA to target the mutated TP53 gene, CRISPR/Cas9 could potentially correct the mutation and restore its tumor-suppressive activity, enhancing the cell's ability to repair DNA damage and prevent the development of cancerous growths. Similarly, restoring the function of BRCA1 in breast and ovarian cancer cells could help restore their ability to repair DNA double-strand breaks, a process that

is crucial for maintaining genomic stability and preventing tumor formation. Furthermore, CRISPR/Cas9 is being investigated for its potential to enhance immune responses against cancer by editing immune cells, such as T cells, to improve their ability to recognize and attack cancer cells. One of the major challenges in cancer immunotherapy is the ability of tumors to evade the immune system, often by altering the expression of molecules that regulate immune recognition. By using CRISPR/Cas9 to modify immune cells, it may be possible to overcome these mechanisms of immune evasion and enhance the immune system's ability to target and destroy cancer cells. For example, T cells can be edited to express specific receptors or molecules that enhance their recognition of tumor antigens, making them more effective at attacking cancer cells. Additionally, CRISPR/Cas9 can be used to knock out immune checkpoints—such as PD-1 or CTLA-4—that tumors exploit to suppress immune responses. By disabling these checkpoints in immune cells, CRISPR/Cas9 can enhance anti-tumor immunity, potentially improving the efficacy of cancer immunotherapies. The delivery of CRISPR/Cas9 components to immune cells can be achieved using viral vectors or electroporation techniques, both of which are under ongoing investigation to improve efficiency and precision. Despite the potential of CRISPR/Cas9 for treating genetic diseases and cancer, several challenges remain. One of the most significant concerns is the issue of off-target effects, where the CRISPR/Cas9 system may unintentionally edit genes other than the intended target, leading to potential harmful consequences. Efforts to improve the specificity of CRISPR/Cas9, through the development of high-fidelity Cas9 enzymes and improved guide RNA design, are ongoing. Additionally, efficient and safe delivery methods remain a major bottleneck, especially for in vivo applications. Viral vectors, such as AAV, offer efficient delivery but come with concerns related to immune responses and potential toxicity. Non-viral delivery methods, including nanoparticles and electroporation, are also being explored, but they face challenges related to efficiency and targeted delivery.^[15,21]

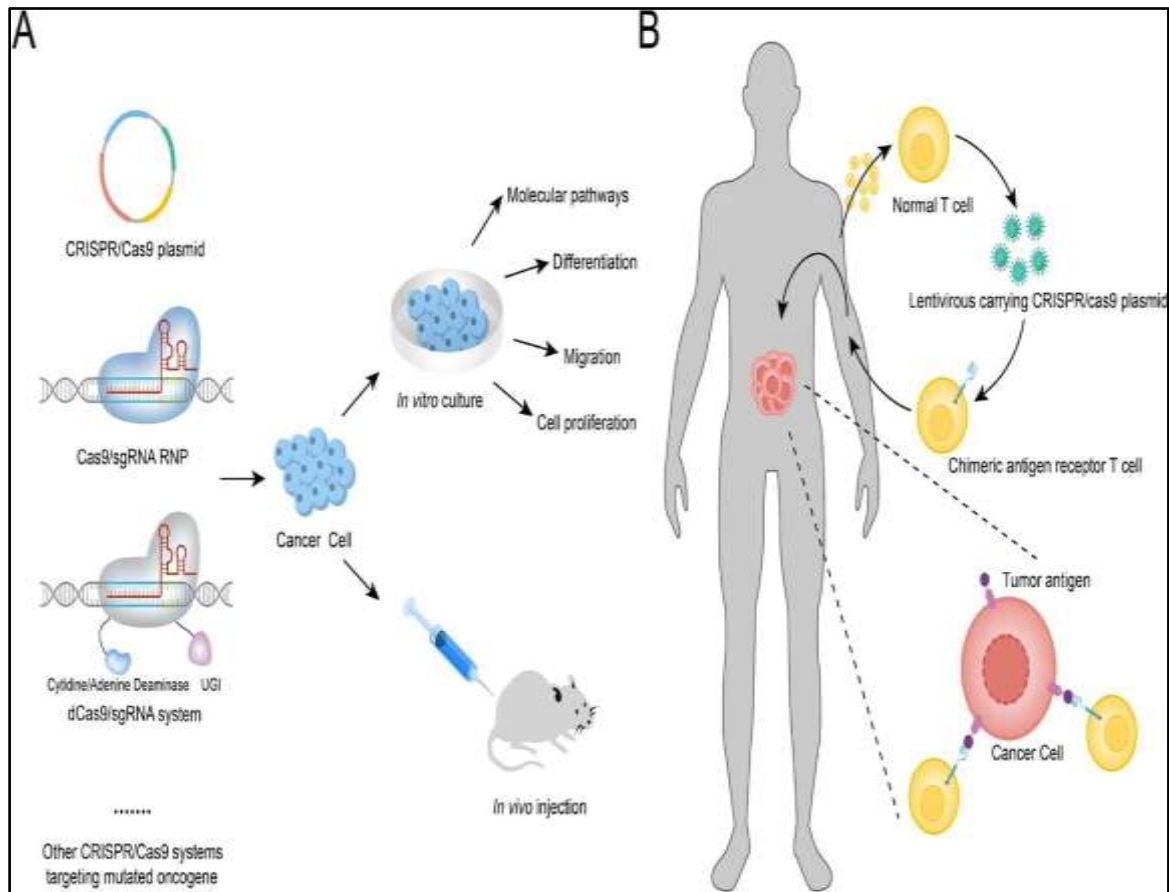


Fig No. 5: CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing technology in cancer

APPLICATIONS:

Gene therapy has the potential to transform the treatment landscape for a wide array of diseases, from rare genetic disorders to common conditions like cancer. While challenges remain, including safety, efficacy, and ethical considerations, ongoing research and advancements in delivery methods and technology are paving the way for more effective therapies. The future of gene therapy promises new hope for patients with previously untreatable or difficult-to-treat conditions.^[17]

- **Genetic Disorders:** Targeting inherited conditions like cystic fibrosis, hemophilia, and muscular dystrophy by correcting gene defects.
- **Cancer Treatment:** Modifying genes to enhance immune response against tumors or to directly target and disrupt cancer cell genes.
- **Infectious Diseases:** Potential to edit viral genomes, such as HIV, or to enhance the body's resistance to infections.

- **Rare Diseases:** Offering treatment options for conditions with no existing therapies, like certain enzyme deficiencies.

ADVANTAGES:

- Germ-line gene therapy offers a true cure, and not simply palliative or symptomatic treatment.
- Germ-line gene therapy may be the only effective way of addressing some genetic diseases.
- By preventing the transmission of disease genes, the expense and risk of somatic cell therapy for multiple generations is avoided.
- Medicine should respond to the reproductive health needs of prospective parents at risk for transmitting serious genetic diseases
- The scientific community has a right to free inquiry, within the bounds of acceptable human research.^(16,17)

II. FUTURE DIRECTIONS:

The future of gene therapy holds immense promise, with emerging technologies and innovative approaches poised to revolutionize treatment options for a wide array of diseases, potentially leading to more effective, personalized, and accessible therapies. Gene therapy is an innovative approach in medicine that involves modifying an individual's genetic material to treat or prevent diseases.

By correcting faulty genes or introducing new genetic information, this technique holds promise for addressing genetic disorders, cancers, and viral infections, especially with advancements in technologies like CRISPR/Cas9. As gene therapy evolves, it presents exciting opportunities alongside significant challenges, including safety, efficacy, and ethical concerns. Continued research aims to integrate these therapies into clinical practice, potentially transforming personalized medicine and offering new hope for patients with rare and complex conditions.^[16]

III. CONCLUSION:

Gene therapy offers transformative potential for treating various diseases through innovative techniques like CRISPR, paving the way for personalized medicine. However, addressing ethical considerations and ensuring equitable access will be crucial for its successful integration into clinical practice. Gene therapy stands at the forefront of medical innovation, offering transformative potential for the treatment of a wide range of diseases. As researchers continue to unravel the complexities of the human genome, the ability to modify genetic material opens up new avenues for addressing conditions that have long been deemed incurable. This paradigm shift in treatment strategies not only promises to enhance patient outcomes but also paves the way for a more personalized approach to healthcare.

REFERENCE:

- [1]. Li H, Haurigot V, Doyon G, et al. Evaluation of RNAi and CRISPR Technologies for Treating Genetic Diseases. *Mol Ther.* 2018;26(7):1645-1656. doi:10.1016/j.ymthe.2018.05.014.
- [2]. High KA, Aubourg P. Gene therapy for genetic diseases. In: Scriver CR, Beaudet AL, Sly WS, Valle D, eds. *The Metabolic and Molecular Bases of Inherited Disease*. 8th ed. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill; 2019:115-134
- [3]. National Institutes of Health. Gene Therapy. Genetics Home Reference. Updated February 2022. Accessed March 10, 2022.
- [4]. Wang D, Gao G. Adeno-associated virus vectors for gene therapy. Presented at: American Society of Gene and Cell Therapy 25th Annual Meeting; May 16-19, 2022; Washington, DC
- [5]. Zhang Y. Development of CRISPR-Cas13 for RNA-based Gene Therapy. [PhD thesis]. University of California, San Francisco; 2022.
- [6]. Moss JA. Gene therapy review. *Radiol Technol.* 2014 Nov-Dec;86(2):155-80; quiz 181-4.
- [7]. Cohen-Haguenaer O, et al. Methods and compositions for gene therapy using RNAi. US Patent 11,141,441. Filed June 10, 2020, and issued October 12, 2021.
- [8]. Pearson H (May 2006). "Genetics: what is a gene?". *Nature.* 441 (7092): 398-401.
- [9]. Gericke, Niklas Markus; Hagberg, Mariana (5 December 2006). "Definition of historical models of gene function and their relation to students' understanding of genetics". *Science & Education.* 16 (7-8): 849-881.
- [10]. Wang D, Gao G. State-of-the-art human gene therapy: part ii. Gene therapy strategies and applications. *Discov Med.* 2014 Sep; 18(98): 151-161.
- [11]. Mali S. Delivery systems for gene therapy. *Indian J Hum Genet.* 2013 Jan-Mar; 19(1):3-8.
- [12]. Gardlík R, Pálffy R, Hodosy J, Lukács J, Turna J, Celec P. Vectors and delivery systems in gene therapy. *Med Sci Monit.* 2005;11:RA110-21.
- [13]. Robbins PD, Ghivizzani SC. Viral vectors for gene therapy. *Pharmacol Ther.* 1998 Oct;80(1):35-47.
- [14]. Nayerossadat N, Maedeh T, Ali PA. Viral and nonviral delivery systems for gene delivery. *Adv Biomed Res.* 2012; 1: 27.
- [15]. Mulherkar R. Gene therapy for cancer. *Curr Sci.* 2001;81:555-60.
- [16]. McCain J. The Future of Gene Therapy. *Biotechnol Healthc.* 2005 Jun; 2(3): 52-54,56-60.
- [17]. Jafarlou M, Baradaran B, Saedi TA, Jafarlou V, Shanebandi D, Maralani M, et

- al. An Overview of the history, applications, advantages, disadvantages and prospects of gene Therapy. *J BiolRegulHomeost Agents*. 2016 Apr-Jun;30(2):315-21.
- [18]. RaziSoofiyani S, Baradaran B, Lotfipour F, Kazemi T, Mohammadnejad L. Gene therapy, early promises, subsequent problems, and recent breakthroughs. *Adv Pharm Bull*.2013;3(2):249-55.
- [19]. Culver K. *Gene Therapy-A Handbook for Physicians*. New York: Mary Ann LiebertInc; 1994.Bunnell BA, Morgan RA. Gene Therapy for Infectious Diseases. *ClinMicrobiol Rev*.1998 Jan; 11(1): 42-56.
- [20]. Murphy SL, High KA. Gene therapy for haemophilia. *Br J Haematol*. 2008 Mar;140(5): 479-487.
- [21]. Cross D, Burmester JK. Gene Therapy for Cancer Treatment: Past, Present and Future.*Clin Med Res*. 2006 Sep; 4(3): 218-227.
- [22]. Wilkinson GW, Borysiewicz LK. Gene therapy and viral vaccination: the interface. *Br Med Bull*. 1995 Jan;51(1):205-16.
- [23]. Scheller EL, Krebsbach PH. Gene Therapy: Design and Prospects for Craniofacial Regeneration. *J Dent Res*. 2009 Jul; 88(7): 585-596.
- [24]. Verma IM, Weitzman MD. Gene therapy: twenty-first century medicine. *Annu Rev Biochem*. 2005;74:711-38.
- [25]. Nayerossadat N, Maedeh T, Ali PA. Viral and nonviral delivery systems for gene delivery. *Adv Biomed Res*. 2012;1(1):27.
- [26]. Bertrand N, Grenier P, Mahmoudi M, Lima EM, Appel EA, Dormont F, et al. Mechanistic understanding of in vivo protein corona formation on polymeric nanoparticles and impact on pharmacokinetics. *Nat Commun*. 2017;8(1):777.
- [27]. Kim S, Peng Z, Kaneda Y. Current status of gene therapy in Asia. *MolTher*. 2008;16(2):237-43.
- [28]. Chodisetty S, Nelson EJR. Gene therapy in India: a focus. *J Biosci*. 2014;39(3):537- 41.