

## Nanoplatforms: A review on challenges and current prospective in Cancer Chemotherapy

Anjali Rai<sup>1\*</sup>, Dr. Sudha Rathod<sup>2</sup>, Shraddha Parab<sup>3</sup>, Archana Sharma<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1,3,4</sup> Student, M. Pharmacy Pharmaceutics, Oriental College of Pharmacy, Sanpada Navi Mumbai.

<sup>2</sup> Principal, Oriental College of Pharmacy, Sanpada Navi Mumbai.

Corresponding Author: Anjali Rai, Student, M. Pharmacy Pharmaceutics, Oriental College of Pharmacy, Sanpada Navi Mumbai.

Submitted: 15-05-2022

Revised: 20-05-2022

Accepted: 25-05-2022

**ABSTRACT:** Nanoparticles have a lot of advantages and can be used widely in a dermal applications, Cancer therapy, Genetics, and Biotechnology field so on. There are different varieties of nanoparticles such as polymeric nanoparticles, lipid-based nanoparticles, and inorganic nanoparticles. Size range of nanoparticles is 10-1000 nm. These have a higher bioavailability and are easier to permeate deeper tissues. Lipid nanoparticles are expected in the near future due to their excellent performance and long-term stability. This review focuses on the use of nanoparticles to combat multidrug resistance (MDR) in cancer chemotherapy, as well as licenced nanotherapeutics for oncological treatment.

**KEYWORDS:** Nanoparticles, Liposome, Cancer, Multi Drug Resistance, Disease.

### I. INTRODUCTION

Nano particles are characterized as particulate, dispersions or solid particles in which the medicament is dissolved, entrapped, encapsulated or attached to a nanoparticle matrix<sup>[1]</sup>. These are usually in a size Range-10-1000nm<sup>[1]</sup>. The benefits of using nanoparticles as a drug delivery system-

1. Nanoparticle molecule size and surface properties can be easily adjusted after parenteral administration to achieve both passive and active medication targeting. They monitor and support the arrival of the medication during transportation and at the site of localization, changing the drug's organ distribution and subsequent clearance in order to improve therapeutic efficacy and reduce side effects. The matrix ingredients can easily be changed to control particle release and degrading qualities. Drug loading is high, and pharmaceuticals can be fed into systems without undergoing any chemical reactions; this is an essential element in maintaining drug activity. Binding targeting ligands to the

surface of particles or using magnetic guiding can provide site specific targeting. The system can be utilised for oral, nasal, parenteral, intra-ocular, and other routes of administration<sup>[1]</sup>.

2. There are various types of nanoparticles such as nano capsule's, nanosphere, micelle, nanogel, dendrimers, solid lipid nanoparticle and liposome<sup>[2]</sup>.
3. The nanoparticle doesn't always rely on structure and method of production<sup>[3]</sup>.

### II. APPLICATIONS

1. Solid Lipid Nanoparticles (SLN) are recognizable from Nanostructured Lipid Carriers (NLC) by the composition of the solid particle matrix. Both are an elective transporter system to liposomes and emulsions. SLN and NLC show many highlights for dermal utilization of beauty care products and pharmaceuticals, i.e., controlled release of actives, drug targeting, occlusion and associated with penetration, enhancement and increase of skin hydration. Because of the creation of lipid nanoparticles from physiological as well as biodegradable lipids, this transporter framework shows a brilliant decency. The lipid nanoparticles are a good example of "nano safe" transporter<sup>[4]</sup>.
2. SLN and NLC are all around endured transporter frameworks for dermal application<sup>[4]</sup>.
3. The creation of these transport systems as well as of lipid nanoparticle containing topical formulations is feasible in laboratory and on large scale<sup>[4]</sup>.
4. For a variety of formulations, the physical stability of SLN and NLC in cutaneous preparations has been determined and can be tested using well-established techniques<sup>[4]</sup>.
5. Occlusive properties, enhanced skin hydration, modified release, increased skin penetration connected to a targeted impact, and avoidance

- of systemic uptake are only a few of the advantages of SLN and NLC for dermal cosmetic and therapeutic product use<sup>[4]</sup>.
6. Although SLN and NLC show promise for drug administration through the skin, there are currently no pharmaceutical products on the market that incorporate lipid nanoparticles<sup>[4]</sup>.
  7. Topical preparations containing lipid nanoparticles have been found to promote skin penetration, boost therapeutic efficiency, target the epidermis, and limit systemic absorption and side effects for several medications<sup>[4]</sup>.
  8. Furthermore, increased activity as well as sustained activity were documented for numerous medications, while the benefit/risk ratio was improved<sup>[4]</sup>.
  9. Pharmaceutical topical formulations are predicted to enter the market soon due to the superior performance of lipid nanoparticles comprising topical formulations compared to conventional formulations<sup>[4]</sup>.
  10. mRNA-based therapeutics have arisen as an exceptionally emerging new class of medications, reforming disease immunotherapy by tracking down application in various kinds of anticancer methodologies, like restorative immunizations, monoclonal antibodies, immunomodulatory medications and CAR cell treatments (Chimeric antigen receptor T cells) etc. are possible<sup>[5]</sup>.
  11. In correlation with other biomolecules: Like plasmid DNA (p DNA) and recombinant proteins, mRNA shows a few remedial advantages, in this manner delivering it exceptionally alluring for the improvement of another age of malignant growth immunotherapy drugs<sup>[5]</sup>.
  12. To begin with, mRNA has a well-known security profile. Unlike pDNA, mRNA cannot integrate into the genome, preventing insertional mutagenesis. Furthermore, because mRNA functions in the cytoplasmic compartment rather than the nucleus, it efficiently transfects both mitotic and non-mitotic cells<sup>[5]</sup>.
  13. Lipid-based nanocarriers have highlighted critical concerns for mRNA transfection into target cells by enhancing its protection from degradation in extracellular compartments and promoting cellular uptake and transport to an appropriate intracellular compartment<sup>[5]</sup>.
  14. For several types of cancer immunotherapy, mRNA acts as a major transport platform.<sup>[5]</sup>
  15. By pointing out present manufacturing limits and suggesting unique therapeutic alternatives, mRNA-based gene therapy has the potential to change the field of cancer immunotherapy. When compared to other immunotherapeutic techniques, one of the most important advantages of mRNA is its relative speed of generation<sup>[5]</sup>.
  16. mRNA-based vaccines using lipid nanoparticles- A therapeutic anti-cancer vaccine's main purpose is to induce cell-mediated immune responses by targeting tumour antigens that are limited or transmitted in dangerous cells in a specific way. Adoptive transfer vaccines based on ex-vivo mRNA transfected DCs were the first mRNA-based vaccinations to be suggested and clinically tested<sup>[5]</sup>.
  17. Lipid Nanoparticles for mRNA Coding Delivery in Monoclonal Antibodies- Monoclonal antibodies are one of the most concentrated types of disease immunotherapy, and they have received clinical approval for the treatment of an increasing number of human cancers. Malignant growth immunotherapy using immunozers has been used to target specific proteins produced on cancer cells as well as resistant cells or atoms introduced into the extracellular environment. Antibodies have different methods of action and consequences depending on the protein they are targeting. Monoclonal antibodies that target immunological checkpoints are widely regarded as the most promising field of cancer immunotherapy now in development [5].
  18. Lipid Nanoparticles Harness mRNA Therapeutic Potential for CAR T Cell Therapy (Chimeric antigen receptor T cells) - CAR T-cell therapy is the most advanced personalised cancer immunotherapy and has received FDA and European Medicine Agency (EMA) approval for clinical use in haematological diseases such as acute lymphoblastic leukaemia and diffuse huge B-cell lymphoma. As a result, CAR T cell therapy is one of the most fruitful examples of cell design and personalised assenting cell move immunotherapy to emerge in the facility<sup>[5]</sup>.
  19. Nanotechnology is currently being used to examine the most dangerous roads in clinical sciences in a variety of ways, including imaging, detecting, specialised drug delivery quality conveyance frameworks, and counterfeit inserts. Nanoparticles of polymers,

metals, or pottery creation are the new generation medications, which may fight diseases like malignant growth and human pathogens like bacteria. Nanomedicine is the use of nanotechnology in the treatment, detection, observation, and control of diseases. Although the use of nanotechnology in medicine appears to be a somewhat long-term trend<sup>[6]</sup>.

20. Nanotechnology has recently emerged as one of the most exciting frontier topics in analytical chemistry. A variety of nanomaterials, particularly nanoparticles with diverse properties, have been widely used in a variety of analytical processes<sup>[7]</sup>.
21. Nanoparticles are becoming increasingly popular in biofuel production processes due to their enhanced influence on metabolic responses in various bioprocesses. Several nanomaterials, such as nanofibers, nanotubes, and metallic nanoparticles, have been characterised in biofuel synthesis techniques. Nanoparticles are becoming increasingly popular in biofuel production processes due to their enhanced influence on metabolic responses in various bioprocesses. Several nanomaterials, such as nanofibers, nanotubes, and metallic nanoparticles, have been characterised in biofuel synthesis techniques<sup>[8]</sup>.
22. When nanoparticles are placed into a physiological environment, they absorb a variety of biological components onto their surfaces. Biological components such as proteins, peptides, lipids, nucleic acids, metabolites, and others are among them. The interaction of these biomolecules is influenced by the nanoparticle's physicochemical properties, the physiological environment, and the time of incubation<sup>[9]</sup>.
23. Solid lipid NPs, as well as other nanomaterial-based drug delivery techniques, are being widely researched in the treatment of a number of disorders, including cancer. The study's purpose is to figure out how to get out of the current position. The limitations of chemotherapy include (a) chemotherapeutic drug targeting and specificity, (b) severe systemic toxicities, and (c) the establishment of drug resistance<sup>[10]</sup>.
24. For drug delivery, solid lipid (SL) nanoparticles, liposomal nanoparticles, polymer-based NPs, inorganic NPs, magnetic NPs, mesoporous silica NPs, and carbon nanomaterials are used. Antibacterial metal

nanoparticles include copper (Cu), titanium (Ti), silver (Ag), gold (Au), and zinc (Zn) (NPs)<sup>[11]</sup>.

### III. CANCER THERAPY

Malignant growth is an infection of uncontrolled cell division and spread. As per the American Cancer Society, the lifetime likelihood of creating disease is 41% in men and 38% in ladies. Existing therapeutic methodologies utilized in the therapy of cancer include surgery, therapy, radiation therapy, immunotherapy and hormone therapy. These therapeutic approaches are found to improve patient survival and treatment outcomes; however, for most of these, they remain challenged by a number of limitations. Drug targeting and delivery are particularly difficult due to non-selective tissue toxicity and the presence of highly organised physiological, physical, and enzymatic barriers that limit drug partitioning and medicament distribution to the target location. Another key challenge is the evolution of multidrug resistance, which severely restricts therapeutic efficacy in the majority of malignancies. Significant advances in drug targeting and transport have been the focus of research efforts for these reasons, in recent years. Nanotechnology based drug delivery platforms offer a viable means of transporting small molecules and macromolecules in a localized or targeted fashion. Specifically, the formulation of medicaments in biocompatible nanocomposites such as nanoparticles, nano capsules, micellar systems, and drug conjugates have been the focus. Cluster science, the advent of scanning tunnelling microscopes, and the synthesis of fullerenes and carbon nanotubes propelled nanotechnology to prominence in the 1980s. Following these breakthroughs, semiconductor nanocrystals were developed, as well as interest in semiconductor particles known as quantum dots. Nanoparticles are nano-meter sized (<100 nm) colloidal particles, typically with a medicament encapsulated within the particle matrix, adsorbed or conjugated through functional modifications onto the surface which results in enhanced drug stability and targeted efficacy. The dimensional similarity of nanoparticles with the biomolecules, high surface: volume ratio and their capacity for surface engineering have made them powerful tools in diagnosis, imaging and treatment. Nanoparticles have better deep tissue penetration, may quickly traverse epithelial fenestrations, and are generally taken up efficiently by target cells, hence

enhancing therapeutic moieties bioavailability. Manipulation of the particle polymer characteristics can optimise the extent and rate of release of the active moiety. Most cancer therapies are tiny drug molecules that may easily diffuse through vascular pores and the extracellular matrix to reach tumours after being swallowed or injected into the circulation. Drug delivery methods and imaging moieties have tended to be significantly greater in complex treatments. While the exact size of molecules that can easily cross vascular holes and reach tumour tissue from the bloodstream is unknown, it is most likely confined to proteins (20 nm)<sup>[12]</sup>.

Due to population ageing and lifestyle choices, cancer has become a serious public health issue in developed countries, where it is the second biggest cause of death. Early detection, broad access to health care, and advances in these drugs have resulted in a significant improvement in cancer survival, with estimates ranging from two-thirds to two-thirds of cancers being cured, with significant differences among malignancies<sup>[13]</sup>.

Traditional anticancer drugs have a number of faults that restrict their effectiveness in the treatment of cancer. As a result, tremendous progress has been made in the field of nanotechnology to overcome these challenges and give a viable cancer treatment option. Nanoparticle drug delivery methods leverage the abnormal features of tumour tissues to selectively target their payloads to cancer cells, either passively, actively, or triggered<sup>[14]</sup>.

#### IV. NANOPARTICLES' DRUG DELIVERY ADVANTAGES POLYMERIC NANOPARTICLES HAVE THE FOLLOWING CHARACTERISTICS:

1. They are promising because of their ease of surface modification, which can be used for both passive and active drug targeting. Because of this, they can be used as highly accurate in-vitro and in-vivo sensors for imaging and targeted treatment<sup>[4]</sup>.
2. The following facilitate a stable interaction between the medication and the nanoparticle:-target-specific medication release induced by a stimulus for "on-demand" treatment<sup>[12]</sup>.
3. Changes in organ distribution<sup>[12]</sup>.
4. The medication's subsequent clearance<sup>[12]</sup>.
5. These carriers also improve medication stability by limiting enclosed cargo degradation<sup>[12]</sup>.
6. Relatively high amounts of drug can be integrated without a chemical reaction, which is significant for therapeutic efficacy preservation<sup>[12]</sup>.
7. The creation of dry solid dosage forms is a popular method for increasing medication chemical stability<sup>[12]</sup>.
8. This formulation is more stable than nano liquid formulation<sup>[12]</sup>.
9. Ionic and non-ionic stabilisers such as sodium lauryl sulphate, sodium dodecyl sulphate, lecithin, and docusate sodium are utilised to provide steric stability of nanoparticles. The creation of porous nanoparticles is another method for increasing stability<sup>[12]</sup>.
10. Tumours have unique pathophysiological characteristics that distinguish them from non-malignant tissues, such as excessive angiogenesis, faulty vascular architecture, and reduced blood flow lymphatic drainage<sup>[12]</sup>.
11. Nanoparticles will be used for personalize cancer therapy<sup>[12]</sup>.

#### V. LIMITATIONS OF NANOPARTICLES IN DRUG DELIVERY ARE AS FOLLOWS-

1. Nanoparticles, in general, are unstable over lengthy periods of time<sup>[12]</sup>.
2. Manufacturing conditions such as high heat and pressures might impact medication crystallinity<sup>[12]</sup>.
3. Particle agglomeration, sedimentation, and crystal formation may occur during long-term storage, resulting in unstable products<sup>[12]</sup>.
4. Nanoparticle creation is more challenging than regular formulation production. Precise control of particle size and surface functionality is necessary for efficient nanoparticle manufacturing. Nanotechnology is also prohibitively costly<sup>[12]</sup>.
5. In 2009, the cost per dose of pure doxorubicin was reported to be 62\$ - 162\$, compared to 5,594\$ for Doxil® (doxorubicin incorporating nanoparticles formulation) and 90\$ - 454\$ for Abraxane (paclitaxel-containing nanoparticles formulation)<sup>[12]</sup>.
6. Another problem is the lack of understanding of the physiological response to nano-carriers<sup>[12]</sup>.
7. Because nanoparticles release medications slowly, tumour cells may not be exposed to sufficient amounts to kill them<sup>[15]</sup>.
8. The largest database on nanoparticle toxicity has been established by inhalation toxicology,

namely the PM10 literature (particulate matter with a size below 10 mm), where the 'Nanoparticle hypothesis' has demonstrated to be a major driving force for research<sup>[16]</sup>.

## VI. CHALLENGES IN CANCER CHEMO-THERAPY

To expand the achievement of chemotherapy, an adequate measure of parent drug should arrive at the objective site. At the cancer site, unusual blood stream and strange neo vasculature are among many elements which can affect on drug entrance inside the harmful mass. A significant impediment to foundational chemotherapy is fundamental harmfulness, going bald, loss of hunger, fringe neuropathy, loose bowels, and skin harm, and so on chemotherapy can bring about critical neutropenia prompting the danger of disease. The degree of these incidental effects relies upon the span of treatment, the measurements endorsed and patient explicit attributes<sup>[12]</sup>.

## VII. BEATING OBSTACLES IN TUMOUR TARGETING-

1. The most important goal of drug delivery is to maintain the best medicine concentration at the target site for the longest possible time. Controlling the surface features of the medication transporter allows for more developed linkages between drug transporter and biological barriers. Biological barriers are in charge of restricting the flow of information within the tumour. The injectable course of drug organisation has the fewest and most varied boundaries that the medicine atom must cross to reach the desired location<sup>[12]</sup>.
2. Small vesicles can diffuse across biological barriers, facilitating the absorption of the administered medication<sup>[12]</sup>.
3. Surface properties of nanoparticles rely upon the idea of surface part. On account of particles containing amphiphilic copolymers, the hydrophilic part is secured onto the molecule surface by the hydrophobic moiety of a copolymer. For example, nanoparticle surfaces united with thiomers have displayed to have further developed connections with gastrointestinal mucosa<sup>[12]</sup>.
4. Due to their small particle size, nanoparticles evade identification by macrophages and remain in the systemic circulation for longer periods. Biotin and Cyclodextrins are commonly used surface ligands to increase

interactions between nanoparticles with malignant cells<sup>[12]</sup>.

5. The transfer of antibodies and nucleic acids for the treatment of human cancer has recently received more attention. Aptamers, small interfering RNA (siRNA), and anti-sense DNA/RNA are examples of nucleic acid medicines that have showed promise in the treatment of cancer<sup>[12]</sup>.
6. However, serum nucleases, opsonization and clearance by macrophages, as well as the renal system, limit the efficacy of these medications. Nanocarrier-based drug delivery technologies can circumvent these constraints of nucleic acid therapies<sup>[12]</sup>.
7. After extravasation, nanocarriers can actively bind to select cells using binding targeting agents such as ligands<sup>[12]</sup>.

## VIII. NANOPARTICLES TO OVERCOME THE PROBLEM OF MDR IN CANCER CHEMOTHERAPY

1. Because of their capacity to co-encapsulate several therapeutic agents in target specific drug delivery, nanoparticles are becoming increasingly popular in cancer therapy<sup>[12]</sup>.
2. The usage of multifunctional folate chitosan micellar nanoparticles to deliver pyrrolidine dithiocarbonate and doxorubicin in combination to provide pH responsive target specific drug release to overcome doxorubicin MDR has been accounted for<sup>[12]</sup>.
3. Slow drug release at neutral or alkaline pH, quick drug release in a weakly acidic malignant environment, and pH sensitive folate receptor mediated endocytosis have the ability to overcome MDR in liver malignancies<sup>[12]</sup>.
4. A nano pharmaceutical system of nanocrystalline silver using a cell penetrating peptide for MDR cancer treatment exhibited uncommon antitumor effect in both non-resistant and MDR cells<sup>[12]</sup>.
5. In the presence of an outer magnetic field, doxorubicin-loaded magnetic silk fibroin-based nanoparticles were reported to have an improved in vivo tumour targeting capacity and were effective against MDR cancer<sup>[12]</sup>.
6. Doxorubicin-loaded PEGylated gold nanoparticles to overcome MDR by increasing intracellular absorption and cytotoxicity of doxorubicin in MDR cells as compared to free doxorubicin<sup>[12]</sup>.

7. To avoid P-gp-mediated drug efflux, the anionic liposome-polycation-DNA system was modified<sup>[12]</sup>.
8. The anionic liposome-polycation-DNA system was modulated to avoid P-gp-mediated drug efflux<sup>[12]</sup>.
9. The anionic liposome-polycation-DNA system showed increased entrapment efficiency than cationic liposome-polycation DNA<sup>[12]</sup>.

## IX. NANOPARTICLES IN CANCER CHEMO-THERAPY

Various classes of nanotechnology-based products such as, dendrimers, liposomes, silica, fullerene, polymeric, SLN, calcium phosphate nanoparticles, are examples of nanocarriers that have been investigated as drug delivery carriers in cancer therapy.

Dendrimerbased Nanoparticles are spherical polymeric particles with a larger surface area for encapsulating therapeutically active moieties (5 nm diameter). Dendrimers are made by taking advantage of malignant tumour shape and features such as leaky vasculature, particular cell surface antigen expression, and fast proliferation<sup>[12]</sup>. Dendrimers are a form of polymer nanoparticle that falls within the polymer nanoparticles group. They do, however, have a structure that is distinct from that of ordinary polymers, making them unique. They're made up of globular molecules arranged in branched layers (generations). As a result of such a flawless synthesis, monodisperse molecules are produced<sup>[17]</sup>.

Polymeric Nanoparticles polymer-based synthetic nanoparticles have a lot of potential as a drug delivery strategy. Polymeric nanoparticles are the most widely explored nanotechnology platform for the targeted transport of anticancer medicaments, despite various obstacles related with their synthesis. Acrylates, polylactic acid, and polyglycolic acid are commonly found in polymeric nanoparticles<sup>[12]</sup>. Polymer-based nanoparticles are colloidal systems made composed either natural or synthesised polymers<sup>[18]</sup>. The medicinal material is supplied in a higher concentration to a specified location. Because of their choice of polymer and capacity to alter drug release from polymeric nanoparticles, polymeric nanoparticles are excellent options for cancer therapy, vaccine administration, contraception, and targeted antibiotic delivery. Other drug delivery technologies, such as tissue engineering, can easily incorporate polymeric nanoparticles<sup>[19]</sup>.

Calcium phosphate nanoparticles these are alone, or in combination with viral and nonviral vector has shown to have a positive effect as transport vectors in cellular gene transfer. The major advantage of calcium phosphate nanoparticles include decreased microbial degradation, storage stability and low production costs<sup>[12]</sup>. The process of DNA flowing through the plasma membrane and into the nucleus of cells is known as transfection. The cell then reads the DNA and instructs the encoded protein to be produced. Because naked DNA cannot enter the cell due to its negative charge, a suitable delivery vehicle is required. Inorganic nanoparticles such as gold, magnetite, and calcium phosphate, as well as viral, polymeric, or liposomal agents, can be utilised to introduce desired genetic sequences into mammalian cells. However, an optimal nucleic acid carrier has yet to be developed. 7–14 Calcium phosphate has promise in this regard due to its unmistakable biocompatibility and biodegradability, as well as the fact that it is not susceptible to microbiological destruction<sup>[20]</sup>.

Liposomes contain natural phospholipids, which are biologically inert and weakly immunogenic which possess minimal intrinsic toxicity. They're spherical vesicles with a lipid bilayer that encases medication molecules. These vesicles are regarded effective transporters for both hydrophobic and hydrophilic medicines due to the presence of the lipid bilayer. The authorised liposome-based formulations containing daunorubicin for the treatment of metastatic breast cancer include Doxil®, Myocet®, and DaunoXome®<sup>[12]</sup>. Liposomes are a type of drug delivery system that makes use of nanotechnology to improve therapeutic efficacy and reduce toxicity in conventional medicines. Numerous studies have been done to produce novel liposomal formulations since the first doxorubicin-loaded liposome hit the market a decade ago, resulting in a number of commercial products. To optimise their delivery to the targeted tissue, therapeutic medicines, the majority of which are anti-cancer medications, are encased in the aqueous core or lipid bilayers of liposomes<sup>[21]</sup>. Liposomes are self-assembled spherical vesicles with an internal water core and one (unilamellar) or many (multilamellar) lipid bilayers. The acyl lipid tail area accounts for 3 nm of the bilayer thickness (lb). Liposomes can be made with zwitterionic, anionic, or cationic lipids, with varying ratios of these components adjusting the net liposome surface charge<sup>[22]</sup>. The liposome bilayer can be made with synthetic or natural

phospholipids. The physical and chemical qualities of a liposome are determined by the net properties of the constituent phospholipids, such as permeability, charge density, and steric hindrance. The hydrophobic phosphate groups of the phospholipids interact with water molecules, causing the lipid bilayer to close in on itself<sup>[23]</sup>.

Fullerenes commonly known as buckyballs, are huge carbon-contained molecules. Because of their unusual structural (hollow sphere), physical, chemical, and electric (similar to electron-deficient alkenes) features, they are considered the most promising nanomaterials for anticancer transport of tiny medicinal compounds<sup>[12]</sup>. Fullerene is a sub type of nanomaterial that has potential applications in biomedicine. It has a high antioxidant capacity, making it a promising key ingredient in a variety of dermatological and skin-care products<sup>[24]</sup>.

Solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) are colloidal nanocarriers containing a phospholipid monolayer coating a solid hydrophobic (core) and encapsulating a medicament in a glycerides or waxes with high melting points. Mitoxantrone-loaded SLN have been found to minimize the toxicity and enhance bioavailability and efficacy of the drug<sup>[12]</sup>. Solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) were developed in the early 1990s as an option to emulsions, liposomes, and polymeric nanoparticles as a carrier system<sup>[25]</sup>. Because of its physiological and biodegradable qualities, lipid-based formulations can reduce drug toxicity and enhance bioavailability<sup>[26]</sup>. One of the best solutions in this field is lipid nanoparticles (LN). LNs are composed of biodegradable, generally recognised as safe (GRAS) lipids, and they can be manufactured in different ways. Most of them are also easily scalable to industrial production. When delivered orally, LN transcend the constraints provided by the requirement for intravenous administration because they are absorbed primarily through the lymphatic system, improving drug bioavailability<sup>[27]</sup>. When nanoparticles were first produced in the 1970s, they were supposed to be built as carriers for vaccines and anticancer treatments. As the first step in developing a therapeutic targeting approach to improve tumour uptake, researchers concentrated on developing strategies to minimise nanoparticle uptake by cells of the Reticulo-Endothelial System (RES)<sup>[28]</sup>.

Silica is a main component of many natural materials, from sand to glass, and it has been used extensively for years. All the more as of late, silica has been used in biomedicine because of

its overall simplicity of functionalization. The most ordinarily utilized technique to take advantage of silica for quality conveyance is by functionalizing the outer layer of the nanoparticles with amino silicanes<sup>[12]</sup>. Surface changes of silica nanoparticles can also be accomplished by activating them with sodium carbonate. The suspension would then be added to a mixture of cyanogen bromide in acetonitrile, yielding—OCN groups on the Nanoparticle surface. Bioconjugation of the particles to biomolecules containing free amino groups would subsequently be possible. The Nanoparticles can then be employed directly in bioanalytical applications after the proper surface modification. Biomarker, biosensor, and oligonucleotide detection applications are examples of such applications<sup>[29]</sup>.

For many years, oil-in-water emulsions, liposomes, microparticles, and nanoparticles made of synthetic polymers or natural macromolecules have been widely researched<sup>[30]</sup>.

## X. APPROVED NANOTHERAPEUTICS FOR ONCOLOGICAL TREATMENT-

The following nanotherapeutics have been licenced for oncological treatment throughout the last few decades:

Doxil® (liposomal-PEG doxorubicin; Ortho Biotech/Schering-Plow) In November 1995, the FDA approved the first nanoparticle-drug for the treatment of HIV-related Kaposi's sarcoma, metastatic ovarian malignant growth, and metastatic bosom illness. Doxil is used to treat a variety of cancers, including platinum-free ovarian disease. In individuals, this detailing has a terminal half-life of 55 hours<sup>[12]</sup>.

Gilead Sciences/Diatos' DaunoXome® (liposomal daunorubicin) In 1996, the US Food and Drug Administration approved this detailing for the treatment of HIV-related Kaposi's sarcoma<sup>[12]</sup>.

Abraxane® (egg whites bound paclitaxel, Abraxis Biosciences) was approved by the US Food and Drug Administration in 2005 for the treatment of metastatic breast cancer. In pancreatic malignant growth xenograft mouse models, abraxane® alone and in combination with gemcitabine reduces the exhaust pancreatic stroma<sup>[12]</sup>.

Myocet® (liposomal doxorubicin; Zeneus) was licenced for the treatment of metastatic breast cancer in Europe and Canada in 2000<sup>[12]</sup>.

Depocyt (liposomal cytarabine, Skye pharma, Enzon) was approved for lymphomatous

meningitis treatment in April 1996<sup>[12]</sup>. DepoCyt is a long-acting cytarabine formulation that can preserve therapeutic drug concentrations in the CSF for a long time following an IT injection. A prior Phase I/II trial established an adequate DepoCyt dose and delivery schedule, demonstrating that when this dose and schedule are utilised, cytotoxic CSF cytarabine levels in both the lumbar and ventricular fluid (regardless of drug administration site) are sustained for 14 days. Because the efficacy of cytarabine is a function of both the concentration and period of exposure, DepoCyt has the ability to eliminate tumour cells in the meninges and CSF more effectively than standard cytarabine formulations<sup>[31]</sup>.

Genexol pm® (methoxy-peg-poly (d, l-lactide) Taxol; Samyang, Korea) is a formulation for metastatic breast cancer that has been approved in South Korea. In the United States, it is undergoing a stage ii clinical trial for pancreatic cancer<sup>[12]</sup>.

Oncaspar® (peg-l-asparaginase; enzon) was licenced by the US Food and Drug Administration in 2006 for the treatment of acute lymphoblastic leukaemia<sup>[12]</sup>.

Endoderm (superparamagnetic iron oxides) dextran is the nanoparticle vehicle for using MRI to detect liver and spleen lesions associated with metastases, primary liver cancer, cysts and different benign tumours, adenomas, and hyperplasia<sup>[12]</sup>.

Feridex (superparamagnetic iron oxides) dextran is the nanoparticle carrier, used for detection of liver and spleen lesions associated with metastases, primary liver cancer, cysts and various benign tumours, adenomas and hyperplasia with MRI<sup>[12]</sup>.

Sinerem (ultra-small paramagnetic iron oxides) dextran is the nanoparticle transporter, used for blood pool visualization and detection of metastatic and non-metastatic lymph nodes in patients with confirmed primary cancer who are at risk of lymph node metastases with MRI<sup>[12]</sup>.

### XI. MARKETED FORMULATIONS<sup>[32,33,34,35]</sup>

Sr.no.	PRODUCT	COMPANY	ACTIVE-PHARMACEUTICAL INGREDIENT	FORMULATION AND ROUTE OF ADMINISTRATION	TREATMENT
1	ABRAXANE	Abraxis Bioscience, AstraZeneca	Paclitaxel	Albumin-bound nanoparticles iv.	Metastatic breast Ovarian cancer.
2	CAELYX	Schering Plough	Doxorubicin	Pegylated liposome im.	Metastatic breast cancer
3	MYOCET	Zeneus Pharma Ltd	Doxorubicin	Liposome iv.	Metastatic breast cancer
4	DOXIL	Sequus Pharmaceutical	Doxorubicin	Liposome iv.	Kaposi sarcoma
5	Onivyde®	Ipsen BiopharmLtd	Irinotecan	Liposome iv.	Pancreatic cancer

Abraxane® is an albumin-bound paclitaxel without Cremophor that is licenced to treat recurrent breast cancer following combination chemotherapy or relapse within 6 months of adjuvant chemotherapy. The active ingredient in Abraxane® is paclitaxel, which is contained in paclitaxel and its generic counterparts. However, paclitaxel is given in a suspension of albumin

particles in the Abraxane® formulation, demonstrating considerable improvements to paclitaxel and its generic equivalents when polyethoxylated castor oil (Cremophor EL®) is utilised as the solvent. Taxanetherapeutic success has been impeded by their chemical formulation: they are extremely hydrophobic substances. To compensate for the low water solubility, lipid-



based solvents are used. A 50:50 mixture of Cremophor EL® and ethanol (Taxol® and generic equivalents) improves the solubility of paclitaxel. Docetaxel, on the other hand, is made up of polysorbate 80 (Tween® 80) and an ethanol diluent (Taxotere®). Both drugs must be diluted 5- to 20-fold in normal saline or 5 percent dextrose solutions before intravenous administration<sup>[36]</sup>.

Paclitaxel is a highly effective chemotherapeutic drug that can be used to treat a wide range of cancers, including lung, ovarian, and breast cancer. Due to its low water solubility, paclitaxel is manufactured as Taxol, a 50:50 blend of Cremophor EL and dehydrated ethanol. Taxol, on the other hand, is linked to Cremophor EL and ethanol and has a number of dangerous side effects. As a result, the development of alternative Taxol formulations is critical<sup>[37]</sup>. Paclitaxel and docetaxel were two game-changing anticancer drugs that were successfully utilised in chemotherapy for a variety of cancers. In 2010, the FDA approved cabazitaxel, a new taxane, for use with prednisone in the treatment of metastatic hormone-refractory prostate cancer. A nanodroplet formulation of albumin-bound paclitaxel (nab™-paclitaxel; abraxane) was also developed (FDA approval 2005 for refractory, metastatic, or relapsed breast cancer)<sup>[38]</sup>.

Side effects- Taxane-associated toxicities were less common and less severe (e.g., myelosuppression, fringe neuropathy, sickness, regurgitating, weakness, arthralgia, myalgia, alopecia)<sup>[36]</sup>.

Caelyx® is a treatment for advanced ovarian cancer that carries doxorubicin encapsulated in long-circulating Stealth® liposomes, resulting in enhanced drug targeting and prolonged circulation, as well as a dramatically different safety profile than native doxorubicin<sup>[39]</sup>. A vein is injected with Caelyx /Doxil. Liposomes encapsulate at least 90% of the medication within the intravascular compartment, resulting in very low drug concentrations in the serum and drastically altered pharmacokinetics.<sup>[40]</sup> Above a cumulative dose of 550 mg/m<sup>2</sup> body surface area, the risk of doxorubicin-related cardiotoxicity rises dramatically, and once the amount is exceeded, the therapy is usually removed from the chemotherapeutic regimen. Unfortunately, this means that in order to avoid the danger of cardiotoxic side effects, patients may be denied access to an effective drug. The degree of cardiac injury in patients must be assessed for proper care,

and this can be done using both invasive and non-invasive procedures<sup>[41]</sup>.

Side effects- Redness, expanding, deadness, and skin stripping on palms of the hands; bottoms of the feet (palmar plantar Redness, expanding, or PPE)<sup>[42]</sup>.

Doxil®, the first FDA-approved nano-drug (1995), is based on three distinct principles: Due to the usage of PEGylated nano-liposomes, high and stable distant stacking, and having the liposome lipid bilayer in a "liquid ordered" phase created, the drug course time is prolonged and the RES is avoided<sup>[43]</sup>. In view of Phase I/II examinations poison levels are gentle and simple, including queasiness (38%), weakness (33%), heaving (22%), alopecia (15%), clogging (13%), anorexia (12%), the runs (10%), fever (7%) and migraine (5%)<sup>[40]</sup>.

Doxorubicin is an anthracycline that is generally used to treat solid and haematological malignancies. However, it has a significant cardiotoxicity. The positively charged doxorubicin affinity for negatively charged cardiolipin, a lipid prevalent in heart tissue, is hypothesised to play a role in drug localization in the heart tissue in cardiotoxicity<sup>[44]</sup>. Cardiotoxicity is a major drawback of doxorubicin treatment, and the total cumulative dose is presently the sole way to anticipate toxicity<sup>[45]</sup>. The capacity of doxorubicin to intercalate among DNA base pairs is the drug's major mode of action, producing DNA strand breaking and suppression of both DNA, RNA synthesis. Doxorubicin suppresses topoisomerase II, resulting in DNA damage and death in cells. Doxorubicin induces free radical-mediated oxidative damage to DNA when paired with iron, further reducing DNA synthesis<sup>[46]</sup>. Despite the fact that doxorubicin has been used for cancer therapy for nearly five decades, it is associated with significant and treatment-limiting adverse effects. Anthracycline treatment is associated with long-term side effects, such as cardiotoxicity, therapy-related cancers, and gonad toxicity, in addition to usual chemo-related adverse symptoms such as nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea, and bone marrow suppression. These long-term side effects have a negative influence on cancer survivors' quality of life, limiting the use of anthracyclines<sup>[47]</sup>. Most cancer therapies are tiny drug molecules that may easily diffuse through vascular pores and the extracellular matrix to reach tumours after being swallowed or injected into the circulation. Drug delivery methods and imaging moieties have tended to be significantly greater in complex

treatments. While the exact size of molecules that can easily cross vascular holes and reach tumour tissue from the bloodstream is unknown, it is most likely confined to proteins (20 nm) [48]. Doxorubicin (DOX), also known as Adriamycin, is an anthracycline anticancer medication that works by inhibiting DNA topoisomerase II. [49]. Doxorubicin is a well-known and well-proven anticancer medication. Despite its status as a first-line treatment for a variety of malignancies, drug-induced cardiotoxicity and drug resistance are the two most significant hurdles to its usage [50].

## XII. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES-

The absence of acceptable in vitro models capable of effectively simulating the in vivo state makes nanoparticle creation difficult. Nanoparticles are nano-meter-sized (<100 nm) colloidal particles, typically with a medicament encapsulated within the particle matrix, adsorbed or conjugated through functional modifications onto the surface which results in increased drug stability and targeted efficacy. The market introduction of pharmaceutical topical preparations is envisaged in the near future due to the higher performance of lipid nanoparticles containing topical treatments compared to market formulations. Nanotechnology has shown promising outcomes in cancer detection with tiny compounds, diagnosis, therapy and for circumventing MDR. Nanoparticles provide opportunities for increased therapeutic outcomes for small molecules and biologicals due to their submicron sized colloidal particle size and targeting capacity. Various classes of nanotechnology-based products like dendrimers, liposomes, silica, fullerene, polymeric, SLN, Calcium Phosphate Nanoparticles, are examples of nanocarriers that have been investigated as drug delivery vehicle in cancer treatment. Because of its ability to co-encapsulate numerous therapeutic agents in target specific medication delivery, nanoparticles are gaining appeal in cancer treatment. Current remedial applications of nano formulations are based on in vitro evaluation using cell lines which fail to detect the complexity of nanoparticle-cell interactions in vivo. This is an arising region and it remains unknown as to which class of nanoparticles provide the best approach for chemo therapy. For objective nanotechnology design an increased understanding of the pharmaceutical, cellular and physiological factors regulating nanotech-based drug transporters are required.

## REFERENCES-

- [1]. Mohanraj VJ, Chen Y. Nanoparticles-a review. *Tropical journal of pharmaceutical research*. 2006;5(1):56173.
- [2]. Buabeid MA, Arafa ES, Murtaza G. Emerging prospects for nanoparticle-enabled cancer immunotherapy. *Journal of immunology research*. 2020 Jan 3;2020.
- [3]. Kreuter J. Nanoparticles—a historical perspective. *International journal of pharmaceutics*. 2007 Feb 22;331(1):1-0.
- [4]. Pardeike J, Hommoss A, Müller RH. Lipid nanoparticles (SLN, NLC) in cosmetic and pharmaceutical dermal products. *International journal of pharmaceutics*. 2009 Jan 21;366(1-2):17084.
- [5]. Guevara ML, Persano F, Persano S. Advances in lipid nanoparticles for mRNA-based cancer immunotherapy. *Frontiers in Chemistry*. 2020 Oct 23; 8:963.
- [6]. Nasimi P, Haidari M. Medical use of nanoparticles: drug delivery and diagnosis diseases. *International Journal of green nanotechnology*. 2013 Jul 30; 1:1943089213506978.
- [7]. Luo X, Morrin A, Killard AJ, Smyth MR. Application of nanoparticles in electrochemical sensors and biosensors. *Electroanalysis: An International Journal Devoted to Fundamental and Practical Aspects of Electroanalysis*. 2006 Feb;18(4):319-26.
- [8]. Sekoai PT, Ouma CN, Du Preez SP, Modisha P, Engelbrecht N, Bessarabov DG, Ghimire A. Application of nanoparticles in biofuels: an overview. *Fuel*. 2019 Feb 1;237:380-97.
- [9]. Shannahan J. The biocorona: a challenge for the biomedical application of nanoparticles. *Nanotechnology reviews*. 2017 Aug 1;6(4):345-53.
- [10]. Malam Y, J Lim E, M Seifalian A. Current trends in the application of nanoparticles in drug delivery. *Current medicinal chemistry*. 2011 Mar 1;18(7):1067-78.
- [11]. Chattopadhyay I. Application of Nanoparticles in Drug Delivery. In *Model Organisms to Study Biological Activities and Toxicity of Nanoparticles 2020* (pp. 35-57). Springer, Singapore.
- [12]. Awasthi R, Roseblade A, Hansbro PM, Rathbone MJ, Dua K, Bebawy M. Nanoparticles in cancer treatment:

- Opportunities and obstacles. Current drug targets. 2018 Oct 1;19(14):1696-709.
- [14]. Urruticoechea A, Alemany R, Balart J, Villanueva A, Vinals F, Capella G. Recent advances in cancer therapy: an overview. Current pharmaceutical design. 2010 Jan 1;16(1):3-10.
- [15]. Egusquiaguirre SP, Igartua M, Hernández RM, Pedraz JL. Nanoparticle delivery systems for cancer therapy: advances in clinical and preclinical research. Clinical and Translational Oncology. 2012 Feb;14(2):83-93.
- [16]. Manzoor AA, Lindner LH, Landon CD, Park JY, Simnick AJ, Dreher MR, Das S, Hanna G, Park W, Chilkoti A, Koning GA. Overcoming limitations in nanoparticle drug delivery: triggered, intravascular release to improve drug penetration into tumors. Cancer research. 2012 Nov 1;72(21):5566-75.
- [17]. De Jong WH, Borm PJ. Drug delivery and nanoparticles: applications and hazards. International journal of nanomedicine. 2008 Jun;3(2):133.
- [18]. Carvalho MR, Reis RL, Oliveira JM. Dendrimer nanoparticles for colorectal cancer applications. Journal of Materials Chemistry B. 2020;8(6):1128-38.
- [19]. 2020;8(6):1128-38.
- [20]. Gagliardi A, Giuliano E, Venkateswararao E, Fresta M, Bulotta S, Awasthi V, Cosco D. Biodegradable polymeric nanoparticles for drug delivery to solid tumors. Frontiers in pharmacology. 2021:17.
- [21]. Nagavarma BV, Yadav HK, Ayaz AV, Vasudha LS, Shivakumar HG. Different techniques for preparation of polymeric nanoparticles-a review. Asian j pharm clin res. 2012 Jun;5(3):16-23.
- [22]. Epple M, Ganesan K, Heumann R, Klesing J, Kovtun A, Neumann S, Sokolova VJ. Application of calcium phosphate nanoparticles in biomedicine. Journal of Materials Chemistry. 2010;20(1):18-23.
- [23]. Fan Y, Zhang Q. Development of liposomal formulations: From concept to clinical investigations. Asian Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences. 2013 Apr 1;8(2):81-7.
- [24]. Preiss MR, Bothun GD. Stimuli-responsive liposome-nanoparticle assemblies. Expert opinion on drug delivery. 2011 Aug 1;8(8):102540.
- [25]. Malam Y, Loizidou M, Seifalian AM. Liposomes and nanoparticles: nanosized vehicles for drug delivery in cancer. Trends in pharmacological sciences. 2009 Nov 1;30(11):592-9.
- [26]. Mousavi SZ, Nafisi S, Maibach HI. Fullerene nanoparticle in dermatological and cosmetic applications. Nanomedicine: Nanotechnology, Biology and Medicine. 2017 Apr 1;13(3):1071-87.
- [27]. Müller RH, Radtke M, Wissing SA. Solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) and nanostructured lipid carriers (NLC) in cosmetic and dermatological preparations. Advanced drug delivery reviews. 2002 Nov 1;54:S131-55.
- [28]. Parvez S, Yadagiri G, Gedda MR, Singh A, Singh OP, Verma A, Sundar S, Mudavath SL. Modified solid lipid nanoparticles encapsulated with Amphotericin B and Paromomycin: an effective oral combination against experimental murine visceral leishmaniasis. Scientific Reports. 2020 Jul 22;10(1):1-4.
- [29]. Lasa-Saracibar B, Estella-Hermoso de Mendoza A, Guada M, DiosVieitez C, Blanco-Prieto MJ. Lipid nanoparticles for cancer therapy: state of the art and future prospects. Expert opinion on drug delivery. 2012 Oct 1;9(10):1245-61.
- [30]. Üner M, Yener G. Importance of solid lipid nanoparticles (SLN) in various administration routes and future perspectives. International journal of nanomedicine. 2007 Sep;2(3):289.
- [31]. Tan W, Wang K, He X, Zhao XJ, Drake T, Wang L, Bagwe RP. Bionanotechnology based on silica nanoparticles. Medicinal research reviews. 2004 Sep;24(5):621-38.
- [32]. Chen JF, Ding HM, Wang JX, Shao L. Preparation and characterization of porous hollow silica nanoparticles for drug delivery application. Biomaterials. 2004 Feb 1;25(4):723-7.
- [33]. Glantz MJ, Jaeckle KA, Chamberlain MC, Phuphanich S, Recht L, Swinnen LJ, Maria B, LaFollette S, Schumann GB, Cole BF, Howell SB. A randomized controlled trial comparing intrathecal sustained-release cytarabine (DepoCyt) to intrathecal methotrexate in patients with neoplastic meningitis from solid tumors. Clinical cancer research. 1999 Nov 1;5(11):3394-402.



- [34]. Mousa SA, Bharali DJ. Nanotechnology-based detection and targeted therapy in cancer: nano-bio paradigms and applications. *Cancers*. 2011 Sep;3(3):2888-903.
- [35]. Stylianopoulos T. Intelligent drug delivery systems for the treatment of solid tumors. *European Journal of Nanomedicine*. 2016 Jan 1;8(1):9-16.
- [36]. Guo D, Huang J. New developments in long-acting injectable nanoformulations. *Global Journal of Pharmacy & Pharmaceutical Sciences*. 2017;4(2):29-36.
- [37]. Shetab Boushehri MA, Dietrich D, Lamprecht A. Nanotechnology as a Platform for the Development of Injectable Parenteral Formulations: A Comprehensive Review of the Know-Hows and State of the Art. *Pharmaceutics*. 2020 Jun;12(6):510.
- [38]. Miele E, Spinelli GP, Miele E, Tomao F, Tomao S. Albumin-bound formulation of paclitaxel (Abraxane® ABI-007) in the treatment of breast cancer. *International journal of nanomedicine*. 2009; 4:99.
- [39]. Ma P, Mumper RJ. Paclitaxel nano-delivery systems: a comprehensive review. *Journal of nanomedicine & nanotechnology*. 2013 Feb 18;4(2):1000164.
- [40]. Ojima I, Lichtenhal B, Lee S, Wang C, Wang X. Taxane anticancer agents: a patent perspective. *Expert opinion on therapeutic patents*. 2016 Jan 2;26(1):1-20.
- [41]. Johnston SR, Gore ME. Caelyx®: phase II studies in ovarian cancer. *European Journal of Cancer*. 2001 Dec 1; 37:8-14.
- [42]. Tejada-Berges T, Granai CO, Gordinier M, Gajewski W. Caelyx/Doxil for the treatment of metastatic ovarian and breast cancer. *Expert review of anticancer therapy*. 2002 Apr 1;2(2):14350.
- [43]. De Beer EL, Bottone AE, Voest EE. Doxorubicin and mechanical performance of cardiac trabeculae after acute and chronic treatment: a review. *European journal of pharmacology*. 2001 Mar 9;415(1):1-1.
- [44]. Ref- Johnston SR, Gore ME. Caelyx®: phase II studies in ovarian cancer. *European Journal of Cancer*. 2001 Dec 1; 37:8-14.
- [45]. Barenholz YC. Doxil®—the first FDA-approved nano-drug: lessons learned. *Journal of controlled release*. 2012 Jun 10;160(2):117-34.
- [46]. Chang HI, Yeh MK. Clinical development of liposome-based drugs: formulation, characterization, and therapeutic efficacy. *International journal of nanomedicine*. 2012;7:49.
- [47]. Thorn CF, Oshiro C, Marsh S, Hernandez-Boussard T, McLeod H, Klein TE, Altman RB. Doxorubicin pathways: pharmacodynamics and adverse effects. *Pharmacogenetics and genomics*. 2011 Jul;21(7):440.
- [48]. Johnson-Arbor K, Dubey R. Doxorubicin. *StatPearls [Internet]*. 2021 Aug 16.
- [49]. van der Zanden SY, Qiao X, Neefjes J. New insights into the activities and toxicities of the old anticancer drug doxorubicin. *The FEBS journal*. 2021 Nov;288(21):6095-111.
- [50]. Miller AD. Lipid-based nanoparticles in cancer diagnosis and therapy. *Journal of drug delivery*. 2013;2013.
- [51]. Chen C, Lu L, Yan S, Yi H, Yao H, Wu D, He G, Tao X, Deng X. Autophagy and doxorubicin resistance in cancer. *Anti-Cancer Drugs*. 2018 Jan 1;29(1):1-9.
- [52]. Al-Malky HS, Al Harthi SE, Osman AM. Major obstacles to doxorubicin therapy: Cardiotoxicity and drug resistance. *Journal of Oncology Pharmacy Practice*. 2020 Mar;26(2):434-44.