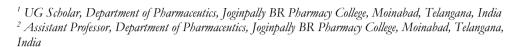
REVIEW ARTICLE

Current Advances in Nanotechnology-Based Drug Delivery Systems

Nandhini Chitikela*1, Chaitanya B2





Article DOI: 10.69613/hvaf5254



Abstract: Nanotechnology is a revolutionary trend in pharmaceutical sciences, particularly in drug delivery systems. The usage of nanoscale materials and devices in medicine has revolutionized therapeutic strategies across various diseases, from cancer to cardiovascular disorders. Nanocarrier systems, ranging from 1-100 nanometers, demonstrate remarkable capabilities in enhancing drug solubility, bioavailability, and targeted delivery. These systems include micelles, liposomes, dendrimers, carbon nanotubes, metallic nanoparticles, and quantum dots, each offering unique advantages in drug encapsulation and delivery. The application of both passive and active targeting mechanisms has enabled precise drug delivery to specific tissues while minimizing systemic exposure. Novel delivery approaches such as self-nano-emulsions provide protective measures for drugs, enhance their properties, and facilitate controlled release at targeted sites. The therapeutic applications span across multiple medical conditions, including gastrointestinal disorders, bone regeneration, retinal diseases, diabetes, tuberculosis, and cancer. Despite remarkable progress, challenges remain in scaling up production, ensuring safety, and navigating regulatory requirements. The convergence of nanotechnology with other cutting-edge fields presents opportunities for developing more sophisticated drug delivery platforms. The successful implementation of these nanosystems has demonstrated reduced side effects, improved therapeutic efficacy, and enhanced patient outcomes, marking a significant advancement in pharmaceutical technology and patient care.

Keywords: Nanocarriers; Drug targeting; Controlled release; Therapeutic delivery; Nanomedicine.

1. Introduction

The emergence of nanotechnology has fundamentally transformed the landscape of pharmaceutical sciences and medicine in the 21st century. The term "nano," derived from the Greek word "nanos" meaning dwarf, represents structures at the scale of one billionth (1 x 10-9) of a meter [1]. Nanoscience encompasses the study of materials exhibiting distinct properties between 1 and 100 nanometers, while nanotechnology involves the practical application of these properties in developing novel products and solutions [2]. The historical milestone in nanotechnology's evolution occurred in 1974 when Professor Norio Taniguchi introduced the term "nanotechnology" during an international symposium on industrial production in Tokyo, specifically referring to semiconductor processes and ion beam milling techniques [3]. Since then, nanotechnology has evolved far beyond its initial scope, impacting numerous aspects of science and daily life [4].

In pharmaceutical applications, nanotechnology addresses critical limitations of conventional dosage forms. Traditional drug delivery systems, such as tablets and capsules, often face challenges including poor bioavailability, inadequate tissue distribution, and undesired effects on healthy cells [5]. The nanoscale manipulation of matter enables the creation of drug delivery systems that can overcome these limitations through precise control over drug release, distribution, and targeting [6]. The pharmaceutical applications of nanotechnology operate at the molecular level, where materials exhibit unique physicochemical properties distinct from their bulk counterparts. These properties arise from the increased surface area-to-volume ratio and quantum effects that become prominent at the nanoscale [7]. The ability to engineer materials at this scale has led to the development of various nanocarrier systems, each designed to address specific therapeutic challenges [8].

Current research in pharmaceutical nanotechnology focuses on developing intelligent drug delivery systems capable of responding to biological stimuli, targeting specific tissues, and maintaining therapeutic drug concentrations over extended periods [9]. These advances have particular significance in treating complex diseases such as cancer, where traditional therapeutic approaches often fall short [10]. The rapid advancement of nanotechnology in drug delivery has sparked a revolution in therapeutic strategies, offering solutions to long-standing challenges in pharmaceutical sciences [11].

^{*} Corresponding author: Nandhini Chitikela

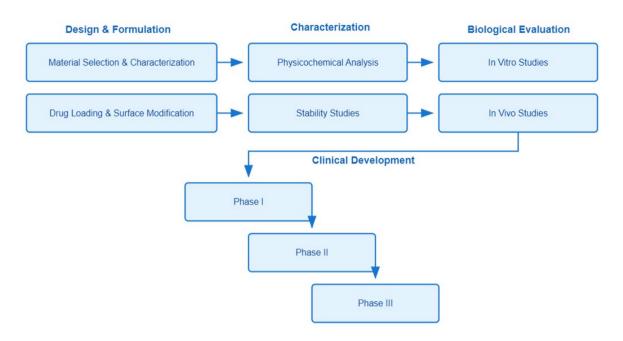


Figure 1. Nanocarrier drug delivery system pipeline

2. Fundamentals of Nanotechnology-Based Drug Delivery

The nanotechnology-based drug delivery systems architecture involves a novel approach to therapeutic administration, incorporating various mechanisms and principles to enhance drug efficacy [12]. These systems operate through two primary mechanisms: controlled release and targeted delivery, each playing a crucial role in optimizing therapeutic outcomes [13].

2.1. Controlled Release Mechanisms

The controlled release mechanism in nanoscale drug delivery operates through various physicochemical principles. Drug molecules are incorporated within nanocarriers through methods such as physical encapsulation, chemical conjugation, or surface adsorption [14]. The release kinetics can be modulated through matrix-based release, where the drug disperses through a polymeric matrix at a controlled rate. In reservoir systems, drug diffusion occurs through a rate-controlling membrane. Additionally, stimuli-responsive release mechanisms respond to external triggers such as pH, temperature, or enzymatic activity to control drug release [15].

Property	Optimal Range	Impact on Delivery	Measurement Method	Clinical Significance
Size	10-200 nm	Cellular uptake	DLS	Biodistribution
Zeta Potential	-10 to +10 mV	Stability	Electrophoresis	Circulation time
PDI	< 0.3	Uniformity	DLS	Batch consistency
Surface Area	$>100 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$	Drug loading	BET analysis	Release kinetics
Drug Release Rate	0.1-1.0 k/hr	Therapeutic effect	Dissolution study	Efficacy

Table 1. Physicochemical Properties Affecting Nanocarrier Performance

2.2. Targeted Drug Delivery

Targeted delivery systems utilize two primary approaches: active and passive targeting, each serving distinct roles in therapeutic delivery.

2.2.1. Active Targeting

Active targeting employs specific molecular recognition elements to direct drugs to desired sites. This sophisticated approach utilizes various targeting moieties including antibodies and their fragments, aptamers, peptides, small molecules such as folic acid, and glycoproteins. These targeting elements recognize and bind to specific biomarkers overexpressed in diseased tissues [16]. In ovarian cancer treatment, for instance, CA-125 biomarker targeting has demonstrated significant promise in improving therapeutic efficacy [17].

Table 2. Common Targeting Ligands in Nanomedicine

Targeting Ligand	Target	Disease Application	Binding Affinity (Kd)	Clinical Status
Folate	Folate Receptor	Cancer	10 ⁻¹⁰ M	Phase III
Transferrin	Transferrin Receptor	Brain disorders	10 ⁻⁹ M	Phase II
RGD Peptide	αvβ3 Integrin	Angiogenesis	10 ⁻⁹ M	Phase II
Anti-HER2	HER2 Receptor	Breast cancer	10 ⁻⁸ M	Approved
Aptamers	PSMA	Prostate cancer	10 ⁻¹¹ M	Phase I

2.2.2. Passive Targeting

Passive targeting exploits the enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) effect, characteristic of many pathological conditions, particularly in tumor vasculature. This mechanism relies on abnormal vasculature architecture in diseased tissues, poor lymphatic drainage, modified local pH and temperature conditions, and variations in molecular size and shape affecting distribution [18].

2.3. Types of Nanocarrier Systems

2.3.1. Micelles

Micelles consist of amphiphilic molecules that self-assemble in aqueous environments, forming structures with diameters ranging from 10-100 nm. Their architecture features a hydrophilic outer shell and hydrophobic inner core, enabling the encapsulation of poorly water-soluble drugs. This unique structure enhances drug solubility and bioavailability. Micelles demonstrate versatility in therapeutic applications, serving as carriers for various agents including drugs, imaging compounds, and diagnostic markers [19].

2.3.2. Liposomes

Liposomes comprise phospholipid bilayers forming spherical vesicles ranging from 30 nm to several microns. Their structure allows the incorporation of both hydrophilic drugs in the aqueous core and hydrophobic drugs within the lipid bilayer. Surface modification with polymers, proteins, or antibodies enhances their targeting capabilities. Liposomes have shown particular efficacy in cancer therapy, demonstrating improved drug delivery and reduced systemic toxicity [20].

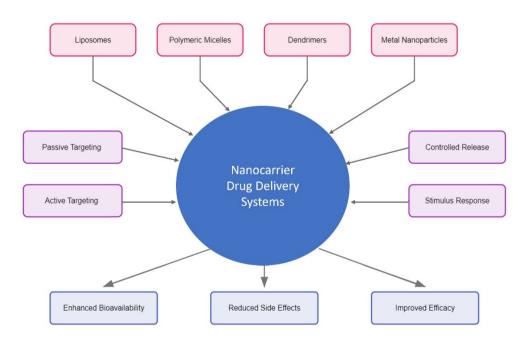


Figure 2. Types and mechanisms of nanocarrier drug delivery systems

2.3.3. Dendrimers

Dendrimers are highly branched, tree-like macromolecules with precisely controlled structures extending from a central core. Their unique architecture features multiple functional surface groups that can be modified for specific therapeutic applications. The internal cavities provide spaces for drug encapsulation, while the surface groups enable conjugation with targeting ligands. Dendrimers exhibit exceptional control over size, shape, and surface chemistry, making them ideal for drug delivery applications. Their biodegradability and high drug loading capacity have shown promise in delivering various therapeutic agents [21].

2.3.4. Carbon Nanotubes

Carbon nanotubes consist of cylindrical graphene sheets, existing in single-walled or multi-walled configurations. Their exceptional surface area-to-volume ratio enables high drug loading capacity, while their hollow interior can accommodate various therapeutic molecules. Surface functionalization enhances their biocompatibility and targeting capabilities. These structures demonstrate remarkable potential in tissue engineering and diagnostic applications, with their ability to penetrate cell membranes making them particularly effective for intracellular drug delivery [22].

2.3.5. Metallic Nanoparticles

Metallic nanoparticles, particularly gold and iron oxide variants, offer unique properties for drug delivery. Iron oxide nanoparticles typically comprise a magnetic core (4-5 nm) surrounded by hydrophilic polymers such as polyethylene glycol or dextran. These particles enable magnetic targeting and can be used for both therapeutic delivery and imaging applications. Gold nanoparticles exhibit excellent biocompatibility and can be easily functionalized for specific targeting applications [23].

2.3.6. Quantum Dots

Quantum dots are fluorescent semiconductor nanocrystals ranging from 1-100 nm in size. Their exceptional optical properties make them valuable for both imaging and drug delivery applications. These nanostructures can be modified to carry therapeutic agents while simultaneously providing real-time tracking capabilities through their fluorescent properties [24].

Type of Nanocarrier	Size Range (nm)	Features	Primary Applications	Drug Loading Capacity
Polymeric Micelles	10-100	Hydrophilic shell, hydrophobic core	Poorly soluble drugs	5-25%
Liposomes	30-1000	Phospholipid bilayer	Hydrophilic/hydrophobic drugs	10-40%
Dendrimers	1-15	Branched architecture	Gene delivery, imaging	15-30%
Carbon Nanotubes	1-100	High aspect ratio	Targeted drug delivery	20-35%
Gold Nanoparticles	1-150	Surface plasmon resonance	Photothermal therapy	10-20%
Quantum Dots	2-10	Fluorescent properties	Imaging, diagnostics	5-15%

Table 3. Classification of Nanocarrier Systems for Drug Delivery

3. Applications

The integration of nanocarriers in drug delivery systems has revolutionized therapeutic approaches across various medical conditions. These systems enhance drug bioavailability, enable targeted delivery, and provide controlled release profiles [25].

3.1. Gastrointestinal Disorders

Nanoparticle-based delivery systems have shown remarkable efficacy in treating inflammatory bowel diseases. These systems target the colon specifically, reducing systemic exposure and enhancing therapeutic efficacy. The nanocarriers protect drugs from degradation in the harsh gastrointestinal environment while ensuring localized delivery to inflamed tissues [26].

3.2. Bone Regeneration

Nanostructured materials have transformed bone tissue engineering approaches. Hydrogel nanocomposites and nanocrystalline hydroxyapatite provide superior bone regeneration capabilities. Self-assembled rosette nanotubes, created through the chemical immobilization of DNA base pairs, mimic the natural nanostructural components of bone tissue, enhancing integration and healing [27].

3.3. Retinal Disorders

Nanocarrier-based drug delivery systems have addressed the challenges of treating posterior eye disorders, particularly the limitations of frequent intravitreal administration. Advanced nanocarrier systems including liposomes, nanospheres, and nanoemulsions facilitate sustained drug release and enhanced penetration through ocular barriers. These systems maintain therapeutic drug concentrations while reducing the frequency of interventions. Cyclodextrin nanoparticle suspensions have demonstrated particular efficacy in delivering hydrophobic drugs to retinal tissues [28].

3.4. Management of Diabetes

Nanotechnology has introduced innovative approaches to diabetes treatment through multiple mechanisms. Nanopore-containing devices protect transplanted beta cells from immune responses while maintaining their insulin-producing capability. Biodegradable nanospheres enable controlled insulin release, while sophisticated nanorobots can monitor blood glucose levels and respond accordingly. Polymeric nanocarriers have revolutionized oral insulin delivery by protecting the protein from enzymatic degradation and enhancing its absorption [29].

3.5. Tuberculosis Treatment

Nanotechnology-based approaches to tuberculosis (TB) treatment encompass both therapeutic and preventive strategies. Liposomal and lipid nanoparticle formulations have significantly improved the delivery of anti-TB medications. These systems achieve sustained drug release profiles and enhanced pharmacokinetic properties, potentially reducing dosing frequency and improving patient compliance. The nanocarriers protect drugs from degradation and enable targeted delivery to infected tissues [30].

3.6. Dental Applications

Nanotechnology in dentistry has enabled precise and minimally invasive treatments. Nanorobotic dentifrices, delivered through mouthwash or toothpaste, can monitor and maintain oral hygiene by continuously removing calculus and organic debris. These systems operate at the microscopic level, converting debris into harmless vapors. Orthodontic applications include nanorobots capable of precisely manipulating periodontal tissues to achieve tooth repositioning without causing discomfort [31].

3.7. Cancer Therapy

Cancer treatment represents one of the most significant applications of nanotechnology-based drug delivery. Traditional cancer therapies face limitations including chemoresistance and systemic toxicity. Nanocarrier systems address these challenges by:

3.7.1. Targeted Delivery

Nanocarriers actively target cancer cells through specific molecular recognition mechanisms, representing a significant advancement over conventional chemotherapy. This targeting is achieved through surface modification of nanocarriers with ligands such as antibodies, peptides, or small molecules that specifically bind to receptors overexpressed on cancer cells. These targeting moieties enable precise recognition of cancer cells, leading to enhanced accumulation of therapeutic agents at tumor sites. The specificity of this approach not only increases the local drug concentration at the tumor site but also significantly reduces off-target effects in healthy tissues. This selective delivery mechanism has shown particular promise in treating aggressive and metastatic cancers where conventional treatments often fail due to their non-specific nature.

3.7.2. Enhanced Penetration

Nanoparticles exploit the enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) effect, a unique characteristic of tumor vasculature that allows preferential accumulation of nanocarriers in tumor tissue. This phenomenon occurs due to the abnormal architecture of tumor blood vessels, which feature large gaps between endothelial cells, irregular basement membrane, and impaired lymphatic drainage. The size and surface properties of nanocarriers can be optimized to maximize this effect, enabling deeper penetration into tumor tissue. Additionally, certain nanocarrier designs incorporate features that respond to the tumor microenvironment, such as pH-sensitive polymers or enzyme-responsive materials, further enhancing their ability to penetrate and distribute throughout the tumor mass effectively.

3.7.3. Controlled Release

The controlled release capabilities of nanocarrier systems represent a crucial advancement in cancer therapy, offering precise temporal and spatial control over drug delivery. These systems can be engineered to respond to specific triggers within the tumor microenvironment, such as pH changes, enzymatic activity, or redox conditions, ensuring drug release occurs predominantly at the target site. This controlled release maintains therapeutic drug concentrations over extended periods while minimizing peak-related toxicities. Advanced nanocarrier designs incorporate multiple release mechanisms, allowing for sequential or sustained drug release profiles that can be tailored to specific cancer types and treatment protocols. This approach significantly improves the therapeutic window of anticancer drugs and reduces the frequency of drug administration.

3.7.4. Multi-modal Therapy

Nanocarriers have revolutionized cancer treatment by enabling the simultaneous delivery of multiple therapeutic agents, marking a significant advancement in combination therapy approaches. These systems can encapsulate different types of drugs, including chemotherapeutics, small molecule inhibitors, and nucleic acids, allowing for synergistic treatment effects. The co-delivery of multiple agents can target different cancer pathways simultaneously, reducing the likelihood of drug resistance development. Moreover, nanocarriers can be designed to release different drugs at specific ratios and sequences, optimizing their therapeutic impact. This capability has proven particularly valuable in addressing tumor heterogeneity and resistant cancer populations, leading to more effective treatment outcomes compared to single-agent therapies [32].

4. Advantages and Disadvantages

4.1. Advantages

Nanotechnology-based drug delivery systems offer numerous benefits that address traditional therapeutic limitations. Enhanced bioavailability through improved solubility and membrane permeability significantly increases drug effectiveness. The ability to achieve targeted delivery reduces systemic exposure and associated side effects. Controlled release profiles maintain therapeutic drug concentrations over extended periods, improving patient compliance by reducing dosing frequency [33].

These systems also enable the delivery of challenging therapeutic agents, including proteins, peptides, and nucleic acids, which are typically degraded by conventional administration routes. The versatility of nanocarriers allows for multiple drug loading, facilitating combination therapy approaches. Additionally, the potential for real-time monitoring through imaging capabilities enables therapeutic response assessment [34].

4.2. Limitations

Despite their advantages, several challenges persist in implementing nanotechnology-based drug delivery systems:

4.2.1. Manufacturing Challenges

Scale-up production presents significant hurdles, particularly in maintaining consistent particle size distribution and surface properties. The complexity of manufacturing processes often results in high production costs, potentially limiting commercial viability [35].

4.2.2. Biological Barriers

While nanocarriers can overcome certain biological barriers, challenges remain in achieving consistent tissue penetration and cellular uptake. The reticuloendothelial system's clearance of nanoparticles can reduce therapeutic efficacy, necessitating careful surface modification strategies [36].

4.2.3. Regulatory compliance

The unique properties of nanomaterials present regulatory challenges in establishing safety and efficacy standards. Long-term safety data remains limited, particularly regarding the potential accumulation of non-biodegradable nanocarriers [37]

5. Conclusion

Nanotechnology-based drug delivery systems represent revolution in pharmaceutical sciences, offering solutions to long-standing therapeutic challenges. The use of various nanocarrier systems with advanced delivery mechanisms has enabled more effective and precise therapeutic interventions across numerous medical conditions. While challenges persist in manufacturing, biological barriers, and regulatory considerations, ongoing technological advances continue to address these limitations. The future of nanomedicine lies in the development of increasingly sophisticated delivery systems that combine multiple therapeutic modalities with precise targeting and controlled release capabilities. The field's continued evolution, particularly through the integration of artificial intelligence and personalized medicine approaches, suggests an expanding role for nanotechnology in addressing complex therapeutic challenges.

References

- [1] Feynman RP. There's plenty of room at the bottom. Engineering and Science. 1960;23(5):22-36.
- [2] Wagner V, Dullaart A, Bock AK, Zweck A. The emerging nanomedicine landscape. Nature Biotechnology. 2006;24(10):1211-7.
- [3] Taniguchi N. On the basic concept of nanotechnology. Proc Intl Conf Prod Eng Tokyo Part II Japan Society of Precision Engineering. 1974:18-23.
- [4] Shi J, Kantoff PW, Wooster R, Farokhzad OC. Cancer nanomedicine: progress, challenges and opportunities. Nature Reviews Cancer. 2017;17(1):20-37.
- [5] Farokhzad OC, Langer R. Impact of nanotechnology on drug delivery. ACS Nano. 2009;3(1):16-20.
- [6] Duncan R, Gaspar R. Nanomedicine(s) under the microscope. Molecular Pharmaceutics. 2011;8(6):2101-41.
- [7] Sarella PN, Thammana PK. Potential applications of Folate-conjugated Chitosan Nanoparticles for Targeted delivery of Anticancer drugs. Research Journal of Pharmaceutical Dosage Forms and Technology. 2023 Oct 1;15(4):281-8.
- [8] Peer D, Karp JM, Hong S, Farokhzad OC, Margalit R, Langer R. Nanocarriers as an emerging platform for cancer therapy. Nature Nanotechnology. 2007;2(12):751-60.
- [9] Zhang L, Gu FX, Chan JM, Wang AZ, Langer RS, Farokhzad OC. Nanoparticles in medicine: therapeutic applications and developments. Clinical Pharmacology & Therapeutics. 2008;83(5):761-9.
- [10] Davis ME, Chen Z, Shin DM. Nanoparticle therapeutics: an emerging treatment modality for cancer. Nature Reviews Drug Discovery. 2008;7(9):771-82.
- [11] Ventola CL. Progress in nanomedicine: approved and investigational nanodrugs. Pharmacy and Therapeutics. 2017;42(12):742-55.
- [12] Riehemann K, Schneider SW, Luger TA, Godin B, Ferrari M, Fuchs H. Nanomedicine—challenge and perspectives. Angewandte Chemie International Edition. 2009;48(5):872-97.
- [13] Allen TM, Cullis PR. Drug delivery systems: entering the mainstream. Science. 2004;303(5665):1818-22.
- [14] Ferrari M. Cancer nanotechnology: opportunities and challenges. Nature Reviews Cancer. 2005;5(3):161-71.
- [15] Sarella PN, Vipparthi AK, Valluri S, Vegi S, Vendi VK. Nanorobotics: Pioneering Drug Delivery and Development in Pharmaceuticals. Research Journal of Pharmaceutical Dosage Forms and Technology. 2024 Feb 22;16(1):81-90.
- [16] Torchilin VP. Targeted pharmaceutical nanocarriers for cancer therapy and imaging. The AAPS Journal. 2007;9(2):E128-47.
- [17] Byrne JD, Betancourt T, Brannon-Peppas L. Active targeting schemes for nanoparticle systems in cancer therapeutics. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews. 2008;60(15):1615-26.
- [18] Sarella PN, Mangam VT. Enhancing Nutraceutical Bioavailability with Bilosomes: A Comprehensive Review. Asian Journal of Pharmacy and Technology. 2024 Sep 19;14(3):271-80.
- [19] Kataoka K, Harada A, Nagasaki Y. Block copolymer micelles for drug delivery: design, characterization and biological significance. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews. 2001;47(1):113-31.
- [20] Torchilin VP. Recent advances with liposomes as pharmaceutical carriers. Nature Reviews Drug Discovery. 2005;4(2):145-60.
- [21] Svenson S, Tomalia DA. Dendrimers in biomedical applications—reflections on the field. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews. 2005;57(15):2106-29.
- [22] Sarella PN, Valluri S, Vegi S, Vendi VK, Vipparthi AK. Microneedle Arrays: Advancements, Applications and Future Prospects in Pharmaceutical Delivery. Asian Journal of Pharmacy and Technology. 2024 Sep 19;14(3):229-36.
- [23] Boisselier E, Astruc D. Gold nanoparticles in nanomedicine: preparations, imaging, diagnostics, therapies and toxicity. Chemical Society Reviews. 2009;38(6):1759-82.
- [24] Medintz IL, Uyeda HT, Goldman ER, Mattoussi H. Quantum dot bioconjugates for imaging, labelling and sensing. Nature Materials. 2005;4(6):435-46
- [25] Wang AZ, Langer R, Farokhzad OC. Nanoparticle delivery of cancer drugs. Annual Review of Medicine. 2012;63:185-98.
- [26] Beloqui A, Coco R, Préat V. Targeting inflammatory bowel diseases by nanocarriers loaded with small and biologic drugs. Current Pharmaceutical Design. 2016;22(19):2872-82.

- [27] Stevens MM, George JH. Exploring and engineering the cell surface interface. Science. 2005;310(5751):1135-8.
- [28] Kompella UB, Amrite AC, Pacha Ravi R, Durazo SA. Nanomedicines for back of the eye drug delivery, gene delivery, and imaging. Progress in Retinal and Eye Research. 2013;36:172-98.
- [29] Pickup JC, Zhi ZL, Khan F, Saxl T, Birch DJ. Nanomedicine and its potential in diabetes research and practice. Diabetes/Metabolism Research and Reviews. 2008;24(8):604-10.
- [30] Gelperina S, Kisich K, Iseman MD, Heifets L. The potential advantages of nanoparticle drug delivery systems in chemotherapy of tuberculosis. American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine. 2005;172(12):1487-90.
- [31] Curtis AR, Wilkinson CD, Crossan A, Broadley C, Dallaire H, Bartzoka V, et al. Cell adhesion and proliferation on nanopatterned surfaces. IEEE Transactions on Nanobioscience. 2004;3(1):61-5.
- [32] Cho K, Wang X, Nie S, Chen ZG, Shin DM. Therapeutic nanoparticles for drug delivery in cancer. Clinical Cancer Research. 2008;14(5):1310-6.
- [33] Kamaly N, Xiao Z, Valencia PM, Radovic-Moreno AF, Farokhzad OC. Targeted polymeric therapeutic nanoparticles: design, development and clinical translation. Chemical Society Reviews. 2012;41(7):2971-3010.
- [34] Mitragotri S, Burke PA, Langer R. Overcoming the challenges in administering biopharmaceuticals: formulation and delivery strategies. Nature Reviews Drug Discovery. 2014;13(9):655-72.
- [35] Desai N. Challenges in development of nanoparticle-based therapeutics. The AAPS Journal. 2012;14(2):282-95.
- [36] Blanco E, Shen H, Ferrari M. Principles of nanoparticle design for overcoming biological barriers to drug delivery. Nature Biotechnology. 2015;33(9):941-51
- [37] Etheridge ML, Campbell SA, Erdman AG, Haynes CL, Wolf SM, McCullough J. The big picture on nanomedicine: the state of investigational and approved nanomedicine products. Nanomedicine: Nanotechnology, Biology and Medicine. 2013;9(1):1-14.