



CODEN [USA]: IAJPBB

ISSN : 2349-7750

**INDO AMERICAN JOURNAL OF  
PHARMACEUTICAL SCIENCES**

SJIF Impact Factor: 7.187

<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18838429>Available online at: <http://www.iajps.com>

Review Article

**RECENT ADVANCES IN TARGETED DRUG DELIVERY  
SYSTEMS FOR CANCER THERAPY: FORMULATION  
STRATEGIES, PHARMACOLOGICAL MECHANISMS AND  
CLINICAL APPLICATIONS****Aishwarya Nanasahab Babar<sup>1</sup>, Amruta Shashikant Madane<sup>2</sup>, Rutuja Rajaram Katare<sup>3</sup>,  
Mujawar suhana salim<sup>4\*</sup>, Dr. Rahul ishwara jadhav<sup>5</sup>**<sup>1-5</sup>Dalit Mitra Kadam Guruji College of Pharmacy, Mangalwedha, Maharashtra 413305**Abstract:**

Cancer continues to represent a major global health burden, necessitating the development of more precise and effective therapeutic strategies. Conventional chemotherapy, although widely used, is associated with significant limitations including systemic toxicity, poor selectivity, unfavorable pharmacokinetics, and the emergence of multidrug resistance. Targeted drug delivery systems (TDDS) have emerged as a transformative approach to address these shortcomings by enhancing tumor-specific drug accumulation while minimizing off-target effects.

This review comprehensively discusses recent advances in targeted drug delivery systems for cancer therapy, focusing on formulation strategies, pharmacological mechanisms, and clinical applications. Various nanocarrier platforms—including lipid-based systems, polymeric nanoparticles, inorganic nanomaterials, and biomimetic carriers—are critically analyzed in terms of design principles, drug loading capacity, surface functionalization, and targeting efficiency. Mechanistic insights into cellular uptake pathways, intracellular trafficking, resistance modulation, and tumor microenvironment responsiveness are elaborated to highlight their contribution to improved therapeutic outcomes.

Clinically approved targeted formulations such as liposomal chemotherapeutics, albumin-bound nanoparticles, and antibody–drug conjugates demonstrate the translational potential of nanomedicine in oncology. Despite these advancements, challenges including tumor heterogeneity, variability of the enhanced permeability and retention effect in humans, immunogenicity, large-scale manufacturing constraints, and regulatory complexities remain significant barriers.

Future perspectives emphasize personalized nanomedicine, artificial intelligence-assisted nanoparticle design, combination therapeutic approaches, and theranostic systems integrating diagnosis and therapy. Continued interdisciplinary innovation and translational research are essential to optimize targeted drug delivery platforms and advance precision oncology.

**KEYWORDS**

Targeted drug delivery systems; Cancer therapy; Nanomedicine; Liposomes; Polymeric nanoparticles; Antibody–drug conjugates; Tumor microenvironment; Enhanced permeability and retention effect; Stimuli-responsive systems; Personalized nanomedicine

**Corresponding author:****Mujawar suhana salim,**

Dalit Mitra Kadam Guruji

College of Pharmacy, Mangalwedha, Maharashtra 413305

Email Id : [mujawarsuhana41@gmail.com](mailto:mujawarsuhana41@gmail.com)

QR CODE



Please cite this article in press Mujawar suhana salim et al., *Recent Advances In Targeted Drug Delivery Systems For Cancer Therapy: Formulation Strategies, Pharmacological Mechanisms And Clinical Applications.*, *Indo Am. J. P. Sci*, 2026; 13(03).

## INTRODUCTION:

### Global Burden of Cancer

Cancer remains one of the leading causes of morbidity and mortality worldwide, posing a significant public health and socioeconomic challenge. The incidence of malignancies continues to rise due to aging populations, urbanization, environmental exposure, sedentary lifestyles, and dietary transitions. Despite major advances in early diagnosis, molecular oncology, and therapeutic modalities, cancer-associated deaths remain substantial across both developed and developing nations. The heterogeneity of tumor types, variations in genetic mutations, and differences in disease progression complicate treatment outcomes. Consequently, there is an urgent need for innovative therapeutic strategies that can improve survival while minimizing adverse effects.

### Limitations of Conventional Chemotherapy

Conventional cytotoxic chemotherapy primarily targets rapidly dividing cells, a hallmark of malignant transformation. However, this mechanism lacks selectivity, leading to damage of normal proliferating tissues such as bone marrow, gastrointestinal epithelium, and hair follicles. As a result, patients often experience severe systemic toxicity including myelosuppression, mucositis, alopecia, and organ-specific toxicities.

Another major drawback is multidrug resistance (MDR), a phenomenon in which tumor cells develop resistance to structurally and mechanistically diverse anticancer agents. Mechanisms underlying MDR include overexpression of efflux transporters (e.g., P-glycoprotein), enhanced DNA repair capacity, altered apoptotic signaling pathways, and drug inactivation. These resistance mechanisms significantly reduce therapeutic efficacy and contribute to disease relapse.

Furthermore, conventional chemotherapy exhibits poor tumor selectivity and unfavorable pharmacokinetics. Non-specific biodistribution leads to suboptimal drug concentrations at the tumor site while exposing healthy tissues to toxic levels. Rapid systemic clearance and low aqueous solubility of many anticancer drugs further compromise therapeutic outcomes. These limitations collectively underscore the necessity for more precise and efficient drug delivery strategies.

### Need for Targeted Drug Delivery Systems (TDDS)

Targeted drug delivery systems (TDDS) have emerged as a transformative approach to overcome the shortcomings of traditional chemotherapy. The fundamental principle of TDDS is to enhance drug accumulation at the tumor site while minimizing

exposure to normal tissues. By improving site-specific delivery, targeted systems aim to increase therapeutic index, reduce systemic toxicity, and enhance patient compliance.

Modern targeted delivery platforms employ nanotechnology-based carriers such as liposomes, polymeric nanoparticles, micelles, dendrimers, and inorganic nanocarriers. These systems can be engineered to exploit tumor-specific biological features, including abnormal vasculature, receptor overexpression, and unique microenvironmental conditions. Surface functionalization with ligands such as antibodies, peptides, aptamers, or small molecules allows active targeting through receptor-mediated interactions.

In addition to improving biodistribution, TDDS can modulate pharmacokinetic behavior, protect drugs from premature degradation, facilitate controlled release, and co-deliver multiple therapeutic agents. These attributes position targeted systems as a cornerstone of contemporary oncological drug development.

This review aims to comprehensively examine recent advances in targeted drug delivery systems for cancer therapy, with particular emphasis on formulation strategies, pharmacological mechanisms, and clinical applications. The discussion encompasses key pathophysiological features of tumors that enable selective targeting, innovative nanocarrier designs, mechanisms of intracellular uptake and drug release, and clinically approved targeted formulations. Additionally, current challenges and translational perspectives are addressed to provide a holistic understanding of the evolving landscape of targeted cancer therapeutics.

### Cancer Pathophysiology Relevant to Targeting

A thorough understanding of tumor biology is essential for designing effective targeted delivery systems. Cancer progression is governed not only by malignant cells but also by complex interactions within the tumor microenvironment. Several distinct pathophysiological features serve as exploitable targets for advanced drug delivery systems.

### Tumor Microenvironment (TME)

The tumor microenvironment is a dynamic and heterogeneous milieu composed of cancer cells, stromal cells, immune cells, fibroblasts, extracellular matrix (ECM), and signaling molecules. Unlike normal tissues, the TME is characterized by hypoxia, acidic pH, abnormal vascular architecture, and elevated interstitial fluid pressure. These factors collectively influence drug penetration, distribution, and therapeutic response.

Hypoxic conditions within tumors arise due to inadequate and irregular blood supply. This hypoxia promotes angiogenesis, genetic instability, and resistance to therapy. Additionally, the acidic extracellular pH, resulting from altered tumor metabolism (Warburg effect), provides an opportunity for designing pH-responsive drug delivery systems that selectively release drugs in tumor tissues.

The dense extracellular matrix and elevated interstitial pressure can impede drug diffusion; however, advanced nanocarriers can be engineered to penetrate or respond to these barriers. Thus, the TME represents a critical determinant in the rational design of targeted therapies.

### Angiogenesis

Angiogenesis, the formation of new blood vessels from pre-existing vasculature, is essential for tumor growth beyond a minimal size. Tumor cells secrete pro-angiogenic factors such as vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), which stimulate the development of abnormal, tortuous, and leaky blood vessels.

These newly formed vessels differ structurally and functionally from normal vasculature. They exhibit irregular endothelial junctions, poor lymphatic drainage, and heterogeneous blood flow. While these abnormalities contribute to tumor progression and metastasis, they also provide a strategic advantage for nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems by facilitating enhanced accumulation within tumor tissues.

Targeting angiogenic pathways, either through anti-VEGF agents or vascular-targeted nanocarriers, has become an important therapeutic strategy in oncology.

### Enhanced Permeability and Retention (EPR) Effect

The enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) effect is a fundamental principle underlying passive tumor targeting. Due to defective endothelial architecture and widened intercellular gaps in tumor vasculature, macromolecules and nanoparticles within a specific size range can extravasate preferentially into tumor tissues.

Additionally, the absence of efficient lymphatic drainage in tumors results in prolonged retention of these macromolecules within the tumor interstitium. Nanocarriers designed within the optimal size range (typically 10–200 nm) can exploit this phenomenon to achieve higher tumor accumulation compared to free drug molecules. Although the EPR effect has been extensively validated in preclinical models, its variability in human tumors necessitates further optimization of nanocarrier design to maximize clinical benefit.

### Receptor Overexpression in Tumors

Many cancer cells overexpress specific cell surface receptors compared to normal tissues. These receptors include folate receptors, transferrin receptors, epidermal growth factor receptors (EGFR), HER2/neu, integrins, and CD44, among others. Such differential expression provides a molecular basis for active targeting strategies.

Ligand-functionalized drug delivery systems can selectively bind to these overexpressed receptors, triggering receptor-mediated endocytosis and enhanced intracellular drug accumulation. This approach not only improves specificity but also enhances therapeutic efficacy while minimizing off-target toxicity.

**Table 1. Key Pathophysiological Features of Tumors Exploited in Targeted Drug Delivery**

Pathophysiological Feature	Biological Basis	Targeting Strategy	Therapeutic Advantage
<b>Tumor Microenvironment (acidic pH, hypoxia)</b>	Altered metabolism and poor perfusion	pH-sensitive and hypoxia-responsive systems	Controlled and selective drug release
<b>Angiogenesis</b>	VEGF-mediated abnormal vessel formation	Anti-angiogenic agents, vascular targeting	Reduced tumor growth and metastasis
<b>EPR Effect</b>	Leaky vasculature and poor lymphatic drainage	Passive nanoparticle targeting	Enhanced tumor accumulation
<b>Receptor Overexpression</b>	Upregulated tumor-specific receptors	Ligand-mediated active targeting	Increased specificity and cellular uptake

### **Classification of Targeted Drug Delivery Systems**

Targeted drug delivery systems (TDDS) can be broadly categorized based on the underlying mechanism through which selective drug accumulation at the tumor site is achieved. These strategies are generally divided into passive targeting, active targeting, and stimuli-responsive targeting. Each category utilizes distinct biological or physicochemical principles to enhance therapeutic precision, reduce systemic toxicity, and improve clinical outcomes in cancer therapy.

#### **Passive Targeting**

Passive targeting relies primarily on the unique anatomical and pathophysiological characteristics of tumor tissues rather than on specific molecular recognition. This approach exploits inherent differences between normal and malignant tissues, particularly abnormal tumor vasculature and impaired lymphatic drainage.

#### **EPR-Based Targeting**

The enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) effect forms the cornerstone of passive targeting strategies. Tumor blood vessels are structurally disorganized, featuring widened endothelial junctions and fenestrations that permit the extravasation of nanosized drug carriers. Macromolecules and nanoparticles within an optimal size range can passively accumulate in tumor interstitium due to these vascular abnormalities.

In addition, tumors typically exhibit inefficient lymphatic drainage, which reduces the clearance of accumulated particles. As a result, drug-loaded nanocarriers remain localized within the tumor for extended periods, increasing local drug concentration and improving therapeutic efficacy. However, the magnitude of the EPR effect varies depending on tumor type, location, and patient-specific factors, which may influence clinical performance.

#### **Long-Circulating Nanocarriers**

The effectiveness of passive targeting is strongly dependent on prolonged systemic circulation. Rapid clearance by the reticuloendothelial system (RES) can limit tumor accumulation of nanoparticles. To overcome this limitation, nanocarriers are often modified with hydrophilic polymers such as polyethylene glycol (PEG), a strategy commonly referred to as PEGylation. PEGylation creates a steric barrier around the nanoparticle surface, reducing protein adsorption (opsonization) and subsequent uptake by macrophages. These "stealth" nanocarriers exhibit extended half-life in circulation, thereby increasing the probability of tumor accumulation through the

EPR effect. Long-circulating formulations have demonstrated improved pharmacokinetic profiles and reduced systemic toxicity compared to conventional free drugs.

#### **Active Targeting**

Active targeting involves functionalizing drug carriers with specific ligands that recognize and bind to receptors overexpressed on tumor cells or tumor-associated endothelial cells. Unlike passive targeting, which depends on physiological abnormalities, active targeting is driven by molecular recognition and receptor-mediated interactions.

#### **Ligand–Receptor Mediated Targeting**

In this strategy, nanocarriers are conjugated with ligands such as folic acid, transferrin, hyaluronic acid, or growth factor analogues that selectively bind to corresponding receptors overexpressed on cancer cells. Upon ligand binding, the carrier–drug complex is internalized via receptor-mediated endocytosis, resulting in enhanced intracellular drug delivery.

This approach improves cellular uptake and enhances cytotoxic efficacy while limiting exposure to healthy tissues. Ligand density, binding affinity, and receptor expression levels are critical parameters influencing targeting efficiency.

#### **Antibody–Drug Conjugates (ADCs)**

Antibody–drug conjugates represent a highly specific form of active targeting. ADCs consist of three essential components: a monoclonal antibody directed against a tumor-associated antigen, a potent cytotoxic payload, and a linker that connects the two. The antibody selectively binds to cancer cell surface antigens, facilitating internalization of the conjugate. Once inside the cell, the cytotoxic drug is released, leading to targeted cell death.

ADCs combine the selectivity of immunotherapy with the potency of chemotherapy. The choice of antigen, linker stability, and drug potency are key determinants of therapeutic success. ADCs have demonstrated significant clinical benefits in several malignancies, although challenges such as off-target toxicity and resistance remain.

#### **Aptamer-Based Targeting**

Aptamers are short, single-stranded nucleic acids capable of binding specific molecular targets with high affinity and specificity. Due to their small size, low immunogenicity, and ease of chemical synthesis, aptamers offer several advantages over antibodies.

Aptamer-functionalized nanocarriers can selectively bind tumor-associated proteins and

facilitate targeted drug internalization. Moreover, aptamers can be engineered for controlled drug release and multifunctional targeting applications. Their stability and susceptibility to enzymatic degradation, however, require careful formulation strategies.

### Peptide-Mediated Targeting

Peptides designed to recognize tumor-specific markers or tumor vasculature components are widely used as targeting ligands. For instance, peptides containing arginine–glycine–aspartic acid (RGD) sequences target integrin receptors involved in tumor angiogenesis.

Peptide ligands offer advantages such as small molecular size, low immunogenicity, and cost-effective synthesis. They can enhance tumor penetration and improve intracellular drug delivery. Optimization of peptide stability and binding affinity is essential to maximize therapeutic efficiency.

### Stimuli-Responsive Targeting

Stimuli-responsive systems are engineered to release their drug payload in response to specific internal or external triggers. These systems improve spatial and temporal control over drug release, thereby enhancing therapeutic precision.

### pH-Sensitive Systems

Tumor tissues and intracellular compartments such as endosomes and lysosomes exhibit lower pH values compared to normal physiological conditions. pH-sensitive nanocarriers are designed with acid-labile linkers or pH-responsive polymers that destabilize under acidic conditions, triggering drug release selectively in tumor microenvironments.

This strategy minimizes premature drug leakage in systemic circulation and enhances site-specific therapeutic action.

### Redox-Sensitive Systems

Cancer cells often exhibit elevated intracellular concentrations of reducing agents such as glutathione (GSH). Redox-responsive systems utilize disulfide bonds or other reduction-sensitive linkages that remain stable extracellularly but cleave in the reductive intracellular environment. This selective cleavage enables intracellular drug release, enhancing cytotoxic activity while preserving systemic stability.

### Enzyme-Responsive Systems

Certain enzymes, including matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), cathepsins, and phospholipases, are overexpressed in tumor tissues. Enzyme-sensitive carriers are designed with substrates that undergo cleavage in the presence of these tumor-associated enzymes.

Such systems enable highly localized drug release within tumor tissues, improving therapeutic specificity.

### Thermosensitive Systems

Tumor tissues can be subjected to localized hyperthermia through external heating techniques. Thermosensitive carriers are formulated using temperature-responsive polymers or lipids that undergo phase transitions at elevated temperatures. Upon exposure to mild hyperthermia, these carriers release their drug payload selectively at the heated tumor site. This approach is particularly useful in combination with thermal ablation therapies.

### Magnetic and Ultrasound-Triggered Systems

Externally applied physical stimuli such as magnetic fields and ultrasound waves can be used to guide and activate drug delivery systems. Magnetic nanoparticles can be directed toward tumor sites using external magnets, enhancing localized accumulation.

Ultrasound can induce cavitation effects that increase membrane permeability or trigger drug release from specialized carriers. These externally triggered systems offer non-invasive control over drug localization and release kinetics.

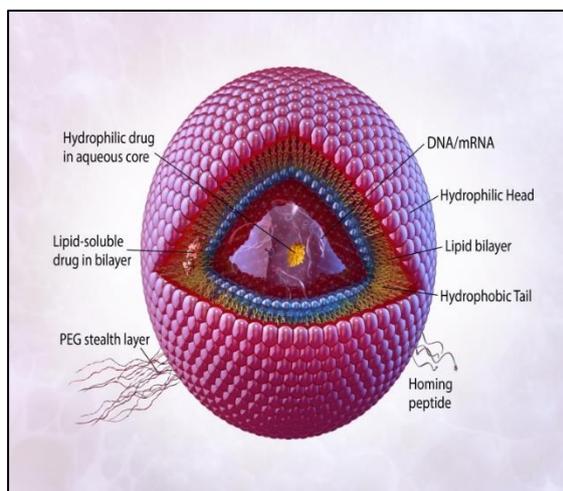
**Table 2. Classification of Targeted Drug Delivery Systems in Cancer Therapy**

Targeting Strategy	Principle	Key Features	Advantages	Limitations
Passive Targeting	Exploits tumor physiology (EPR effect)	Long-circulating nanoparticles	Simple design, improved tumor accumulation	Variable EPR effect in humans
Active Targeting	Ligand–receptor interaction	Antibodies, aptamers, peptides	High specificity, enhanced cellular uptake	Complex formulation, potential immunogenicity
Stimuli-Responsive Targeting	Internal or external triggers	pH, redox, enzyme, temperature, magnetic	Controlled and site-specific release	Requires precise trigger control

### Formulation Strategies in Targeted Drug Delivery for Cancer Therapy

The design of targeted drug delivery systems requires an integrated understanding of pharmaceutical technology, materials science, tumor biology, and pharmacokinetics. Formulation strategies are central to determining drug loading efficiency, stability, release kinetics, biodistribution, and targeting capability. Contemporary approaches emphasize nanoscale systems due to their ability to modulate pharmacokinetic behavior, enhance tumor accumulation, and enable multifunctional modifications. These systems are broadly categorized into lipid-based carriers, polymeric platforms, inorganic nanocarriers, and biological or biomimetic systems.

#### Lipid-Based Drug Delivery Systems



Lipid-based carriers represent one of the earliest and most clinically successful nanotechnology platforms in oncology. Their biocompatibility, ability to encapsulate both hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs, and ease of surface modification make them highly versatile.

#### Liposomes

Liposomes are spherical vesicles composed of one or more phospholipid bilayers enclosing an aqueous core. Hydrophilic drugs can be entrapped within the internal aqueous compartment, while hydrophobic agents are incorporated into the lipid bilayer. Liposomal encapsulation protects drugs from premature degradation and reduces systemic toxicity.

Surface modification strategies such as PEGylation extend circulation time, while ligand conjugation enables active targeting. Liposomal formulations have demonstrated improved therapeutic index and reduced cardiotoxicity for anthracycline drugs.

#### Solid Lipid Nanoparticles (SLNs)

SLNs consist of a solid lipid core stabilized by surfactants. The solid matrix enhances physical stability and allows controlled drug release. These carriers are particularly useful for poorly water-soluble anticancer agents. Their solid-state structure improves protection against chemical degradation.

#### Nanostructured Lipid Carriers (NLCs)

NLCs are an advanced generation of SLNs that incorporate a mixture of solid and liquid lipids. This combination creates structural imperfections within the lipid matrix, increasing drug loading capacity and minimizing drug expulsion during storage. NLCs offer improved stability and higher encapsulation efficiency compared to traditional SLNs.

#### Polymeric Nanocarriers

Polymeric systems provide exceptional flexibility in tailoring drug release kinetics, biodegradability, and surface functionality. Both natural and synthetic polymers are utilized in cancer-targeted formulations.

#### Polymeric Nanoparticles

Biodegradable polymers such as PLGA, chitosan, and polycaprolactone are widely used for nanoparticle fabrication. These systems allow sustained drug release through diffusion, polymer erosion, or a combination of both mechanisms. Surface engineering with targeting ligands enhances cellular uptake and tumor specificity.

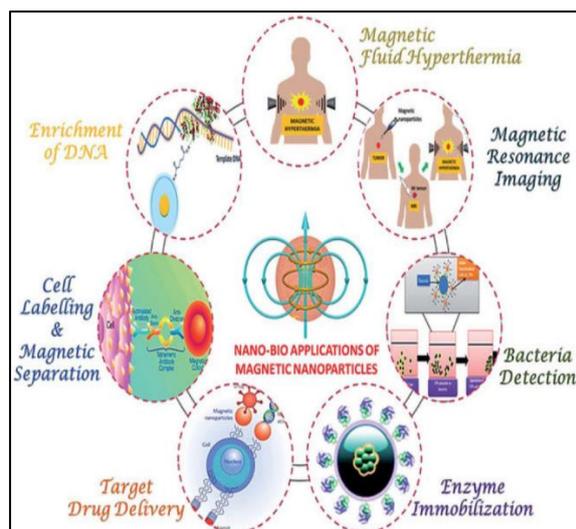
#### Polymeric Micelles

Polymeric micelles are self-assembled colloidal systems formed from amphiphilic block copolymers. They possess a hydrophobic core that solubilizes poorly water-soluble drugs and a hydrophilic shell that stabilizes the structure in aqueous environments. Micelles are particularly effective for improving solubility and circulation stability of hydrophobic chemotherapeutic agents.

#### Dendrimers

Dendrimers are highly branched, monodisperse macromolecules with a well-defined architecture. Their multiple surface functional groups enable high drug loading and facile conjugation with targeting ligands. The internal cavities of dendrimers can encapsulate drugs, while surface groups can be chemically modified for controlled release or receptor-specific targeting.

#### Inorganic Nanocarriers



Inorganic nanoparticles offer unique physicochemical properties that extend beyond conventional drug delivery, enabling theranostic (therapy + diagnostic) applications.

### Gold Nanoparticles

Gold nanoparticles exhibit tunable optical and photothermal properties. They can convert light energy into heat, enabling photothermal therapy. Surface functionalization allows drug conjugation and receptor-specific targeting. Their plasmonic properties also facilitate imaging applications.

### Mesoporous Silica Nanoparticles (MSNs)

MSNs possess a highly ordered porous structure with large surface area and tunable pore size. These characteristics permit high drug loading capacity and controlled release. Surface modification enables targeting and stimuli-responsive release.

### Magnetic Nanoparticles

Magnetic nanoparticles, typically composed of iron oxide, can be guided toward tumor sites using an external magnetic field. They are also useful in hyperthermia therapy, where localized heating

enhances cytotoxic effects. Their dual functionality in imaging and therapy makes them valuable in integrated cancer management.

### Quantum Dots

Quantum dots are semiconductor nanocrystals with unique fluorescent properties. Although primarily used for imaging and diagnostic applications, they can also be integrated into multifunctional delivery platforms for simultaneous drug delivery and tumor visualization.

### Biological and Biomimetic Systems

Biological and biomimetic carriers represent a new frontier in targeted drug delivery. These systems mimic natural biological processes to evade immune detection and enhance tumor targeting.

### Exosomes

Exosomes are naturally occurring extracellular vesicles involved in intercellular communication. Due to their endogenous origin, they exhibit low immunogenicity and inherent targeting capabilities. Drug-loaded exosomes can facilitate efficient intracellular delivery.

### Cell Membrane-Coated Nanoparticles

Nanoparticles coated with membranes derived from red blood cells, cancer cells, or immune cells can inherit surface proteins that enable immune evasion and homologous targeting. This biomimetic approach enhances circulation time and tumor-specific accumulation.

### Viral Vectors

Engineered viral vectors are used for targeted gene delivery in cancer therapy. They exploit natural viral infection mechanisms to introduce therapeutic genes into tumor cells. Although highly efficient, safety considerations and immunogenicity remain challenges.

**Table 3. Comparative Overview of Formulation Strategies in Targeted Cancer Therapy**

Carrier Type	Composition	Drug Loading Capability	Targeting Potential	Major Advantages	Key Limitations
Liposomes	Phospholipid bilayers	High (hydrophilic & lipophilic drugs)	Passive + Active	Biocompatible, clinically validated	Stability concerns
SLNs/NLCs	Solid or mixed lipid matrix	Moderate to high	Passive + Surface-modified	Controlled release, good stability	Limited drug loading (SLNs)
Polymeric Nanoparticles	Biodegradable polymers	High	Passive + Active	Controlled release, versatile design	Scale-up complexity
Micelles	Amphiphilic block copolymers	High (hydrophobic drugs)	Passive + Active	Improved solubility	Possible instability upon dilution

<b>Dendrimers</b>	Branched macromolecules	Very high	Active	Precise architecture	Potential cytotoxicity
<b>Gold Nanoparticles</b>	Metallic core	Moderate	Active + Photothermal	Theranostic capability	Long-term safety concerns
<b>MSNs</b>	Porous silica	Very high	Active + Stimuli-responsive	Tunable release	Biodegradation concerns
<b>Biomimetic Systems</b>	Biological membranes/exosomes	Variable	High	Immune evasion	Manufacturing challenges

Formulation strategies in targeted drug delivery have evolved from simple encapsulation systems to highly engineered multifunctional platforms capable of controlled release, molecular targeting, and combined therapeutic–diagnostic applications. Continued innovation in material science, nanotechnology, and molecular biology is expected to refine these systems further, enabling personalized and precision-based cancer treatment.

### PHARMACOLOGICAL MECHANISMS OF TARGETED DRUG DELIVERY IN CANCER THERAPY

Targeted drug delivery systems are not solely formulation-driven innovations; their therapeutic success fundamentally depends on pharmacological mechanisms governing biodistribution, cellular internalization, intracellular trafficking, and drug release. Understanding these mechanistic aspects is critical for optimizing therapeutic efficacy, minimizing off-target toxicity, and overcoming tumor-associated resistance pathways. This section discusses the principal pharmacological mechanisms through which targeted systems exert their anticancer effects.

#### Cellular Uptake Mechanisms

Efficient intracellular delivery is a prerequisite for the pharmacodynamic activity of most anticancer agents. Targeted nanocarriers enhance cellular uptake through specific and non-specific endocytic pathways.

#### Receptor-Mediated Endocytosis

Active targeting systems functionalized with ligands (antibodies, peptides, aptamers, or small molecules) bind selectively to overexpressed tumor cell surface receptors. Upon ligand–receptor interaction, the carrier–drug complex undergoes internalization via receptor-mediated endocytosis. This process significantly increases intracellular drug concentration compared to passive diffusion. It also enables selective cytotoxicity toward malignant cells while sparing normal tissues. The efficiency of this pathway depends on receptor density, ligand affinity, and internalization kinetics.

#### Clathrin-Mediated and Caveolae-Mediated Endocytosis

Nanoparticles may be internalized through clathrin-coated pits or caveolae, depending on their size, surface charge, and composition.

- **Clathrin-mediated endocytosis** typically leads to trafficking through early

endosomes and lysosomes, where drug release can occur.

- **Caveolae-mediated uptake** may bypass lysosomal degradation, facilitating cytosolic delivery and improving therapeutic efficacy for sensitive biomolecules such as siRNA or proteins.

Optimizing nanoparticle physicochemical properties enhances preferential uptake through desirable intracellular pathways.

#### Intracellular Drug Release and Trafficking

Once internalized, targeted systems must escape intracellular compartments and release the drug payload at the appropriate site of action.

#### Endosomal Escape Mechanisms

Following endocytosis, nanocarriers are frequently trapped within endosomes. Efficient delivery systems incorporate mechanisms such as the “proton sponge effect,” pH-sensitive membrane destabilization, or fusogenic peptides to promote endosomal rupture.

Endosomal escape is particularly important for gene delivery systems and drugs targeting cytoplasmic or nuclear sites.

#### Lysosomal Release

For conventional chemotherapeutic agents, lysosomal degradation of carrier materials can trigger drug release. Acid-sensitive linkers or biodegradable polymers facilitate controlled liberation of active molecules within lysosomes, allowing subsequent diffusion to intracellular targets.

#### Nuclear and Mitochondrial Targeting

Some advanced systems are engineered to deliver drugs directly to specific organelles. Nuclear-targeting ligands enhance the activity of DNA-interacting drugs, while mitochondrial-targeting strategies induce apoptosis by disrupting mitochondrial membrane potential.

### Mechanisms for Overcoming Multidrug Resistance (MDR)

Multidrug resistance remains a major obstacle in cancer therapy. Targeted drug delivery systems are designed to circumvent resistance mechanisms through multiple strategies.

#### Efflux Pump Bypass

Tumor cells often overexpress ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters such as P-glycoprotein (P-gp), which actively expel chemotherapeutic drugs. Nanocarriers can enter cells via endocytosis rather than passive diffusion, thereby avoiding direct interaction with efflux pumps and increasing intracellular drug retention.

#### Co-Delivery Systems

Advanced formulations can co-encapsulate chemotherapeutic agents with P-gp inhibitors, siRNA, or gene-silencing molecules targeting resistance-related genes. This synergistic approach enhances cytotoxic efficacy while suppressing resistance pathways.

#### Modulation of Apoptotic Signaling

Targeted delivery systems can restore apoptosis in resistant tumor cells by modulating signaling cascades, inhibiting anti-apoptotic proteins, or activating pro-apoptotic pathways.

#### Tumor Microenvironment Modulation

Targeted systems are increasingly designed to interact with and modify the tumor microenvironment (TME), thereby enhancing therapeutic responsiveness.

#### Hypoxia-Targeted Strategies

Hypoxic tumor regions contribute to therapeutic resistance. Hypoxia-sensitive carriers release drugs selectively under low oxygen conditions, improving cytotoxic activity in poorly vascularized tumor zones.

#### Angiogenesis Inhibition

Delivery systems targeting angiogenic pathways can disrupt tumor blood supply, restricting nutrient delivery and suppressing tumor growth. Anti-angiogenic agents delivered via nanocarriers enhance localization and reduce systemic toxicity.

#### Immune Modulation

Immunomodulatory nanocarriers can stimulate antitumor immune responses by delivering immune checkpoint inhibitors, tumor antigens, or adjuvants. Such systems bridge nanotechnology and immunotherapy, enabling synergistic anticancer effects.

#### Pharmacokinetic and Biodistribution Modulation

Targeted systems significantly alter the pharmacokinetic profile of anticancer agents.

- **Prolonged circulation time** enhances tumor exposure.
- **Reduced volume of distribution** minimizes off-target toxicity.
- **Controlled release kinetics** maintain therapeutic drug concentrations for extended durations.
- **Improved tumor-to-normal tissue ratio** increases therapeutic index.

These modifications collectively contribute to enhanced efficacy and improved safety profiles compared to conventional formulations.

**Table 4. Pharmacological Mechanisms Underlying Targeted Drug Delivery Systems**

Mechanism	Biological Process Involved	Impact on Therapy	Clinical Significance
Receptor-Mediated Endocytosis	Ligand-receptor binding and internalization	Increased intracellular drug concentration	Enhanced selectivity and efficacy
Endosomal Escape	Membrane destabilization or proton sponge effect	Cytoplasmic drug release	Improved gene and protein delivery
Efflux Pump Bypass	Endocytic uptake avoiding P-gp interaction	Reduced drug resistance	Higher intracellular retention
Hypoxia/Stimuli Response	TME-triggered drug release	Localized cytotoxicity	Reduced systemic toxicity
Angiogenesis Targeting	Inhibition of VEGF pathways	Reduced tumor growth	Suppressed metastasis
Immune Modulation	Activation of immune pathways	Enhanced antitumor immunity	Synergistic therapy

The pharmacological performance of targeted drug delivery systems extends beyond simple drug transport. These systems actively influence cellular uptake pathways, intracellular trafficking, resistance modulation, and tumor microenvironment interactions. By integrating formulation science with tumor biology, modern targeted platforms achieve improved precision, enhanced therapeutic index, and greater translational potential in cancer therapy.

### Clinical Applications and Approved Targeted Therapies

The translation of targeted drug delivery systems from experimental platforms to clinically approved therapies represents a major milestone in oncology. Several nanotechnology-based formulations and antibody-directed conjugates have received regulatory approval, demonstrating improved pharmacokinetics, enhanced tumor selectivity, and reduced systemic toxicity compared to conventional chemotherapy. This section outlines key clinically approved targeted systems and their therapeutic relevance.

### Liposomal Drug Delivery Systems in Clinical Practice

Liposomal formulations were among the first nanocarriers successfully translated into oncology practice. By encapsulating cytotoxic agents within lipid bilayers, these systems reduce exposure of healthy tissues while improving tumor accumulation.

#### Doxil

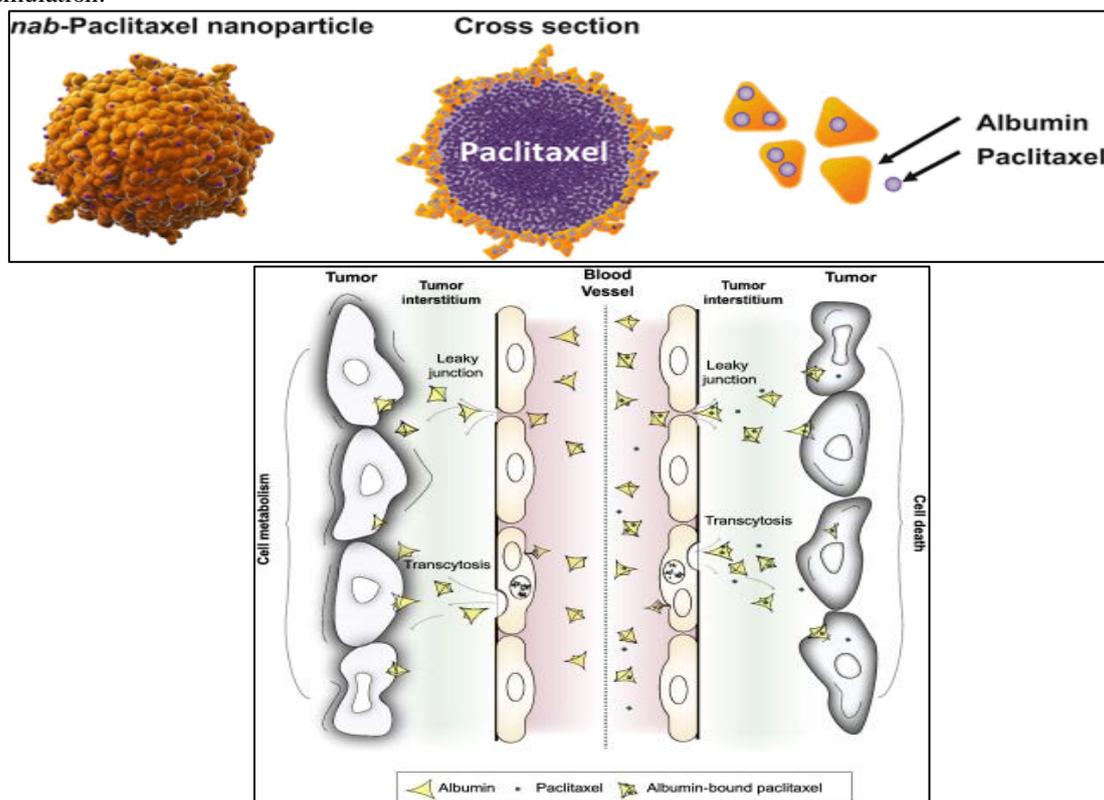
Doxil is a PEGylated liposomal formulation of doxorubicin designed to prolong systemic circulation and reduce cardiotoxicity associated with free doxorubicin. The polyethylene glycol (PEG) coating confers stealth properties, minimizing recognition by the mononuclear phagocyte system. The formulation exploits passive targeting through the EPR effect, leading to enhanced tumor accumulation. Clinically, it is used in ovarian cancer, multiple myeloma, and Kaposi's sarcoma. Compared to conventional doxorubicin, Doxil demonstrates reduced cardiotoxicity and altered toxicity profile, though palmar-plantar erythrodysesthesia (hand-foot syndrome) may occur.

#### Onivyde

Onivyde is a liposomal formulation of irinotecan approved for metastatic pancreatic cancer. Encapsulation enhances stability and prolongs systemic exposure of the active metabolite SN-38. This targeted delivery improves tumor drug concentration while reducing systemic adverse effects relative to free irinotecan.

#### Albumin-Based Nanoparticle Systems

Protein-based nanocarriers have also demonstrated significant clinical impact by improving solubility and tumor uptake of hydrophobic drugs.

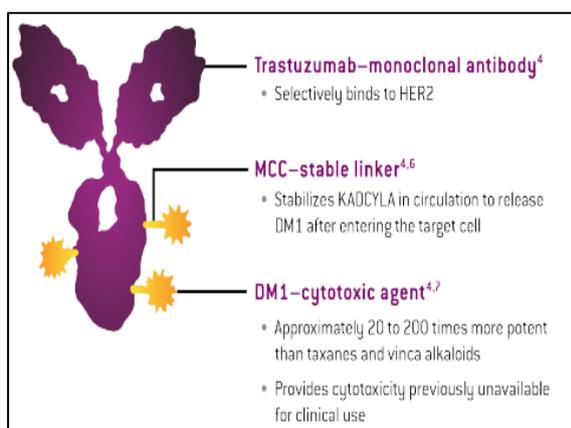


### Abraxane

Abraxane is a nanoparticle albumin-bound formulation of paclitaxel. By eliminating the need for solvent-based carriers, it reduces hypersensitivity reactions associated with conventional paclitaxel formulations. Albumin facilitates receptor-mediated transcytosis across endothelial cells via gp60 receptors and enhances accumulation in tumors expressing SPARC (secreted protein acidic and rich in cysteine). Clinically, it is indicated for breast cancer, non-small cell lung cancer, and pancreatic cancer. The formulation improves response rates and tolerability compared to solvent-based paclitaxel.

### Antibody–Drug Conjugates (ADCs)

Antibody–drug conjugates combine the specificity of monoclonal antibodies with highly potent cytotoxic agents. They represent a highly selective form of active targeting in clinical oncology.



### Kadcyla

Kadcyla is an antibody–drug conjugate composed of trastuzumab (a monoclonal antibody targeting HER2 receptors) linked to the cytotoxic agent

emtansine (DM1). Upon binding to HER2-overexpressing breast cancer cells, the conjugate is internalized and releases the cytotoxic payload intracellularly. This targeted mechanism enhances efficacy while minimizing systemic toxicity. Kadcyla has demonstrated improved progression-free survival in HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer compared to conventional regimens.

ADCs as a class have shown expanding clinical applications in hematological malignancies and solid tumors, though challenges such as antigen heterogeneity and resistance remain.

### Targeted Nanomedicine in Hematological Malignancies

Targeted delivery approaches are not limited to solid tumors. Liposomal and antibody-based systems have improved therapeutic precision in leukemias and lymphomas by enhancing tumor-specific cytotoxicity and reducing bone marrow toxicity. These systems often incorporate receptor-directed strategies to selectively eliminate malignant cells.

### Clinical Benefits of Targeted Delivery Systems

Across multiple approved platforms, targeted systems demonstrate several clinical advantages:

- Improved pharmacokinetic profile with prolonged half-life
- Enhanced tumor-to-normal tissue drug ratio
- Reduced systemic toxicity
- Improved patient compliance
- Potential for combination therapy integration

However, variability in patient response, high treatment cost, and long-term safety considerations continue to influence clinical decision-making.

**Table 5. Selected Clinically Approved Targeted Drug Delivery Systems in Cancer Therapy**

Product	Drug Type	Targeting Strategy	Major Indication	Clinical Advantage
<b>Doxil</b>	Liposomal doxorubicin	Passive (PEGylated liposome, EPR effect)	Ovarian cancer, Kaposi's sarcoma	Reduced cardiotoxicity
<b>Onivyde</b>	Liposomal irinotecan	Passive targeting	Pancreatic cancer	Prolonged drug exposure
<b>Abraxane</b>	Albumin-bound paclitaxel	Albumin-mediated transport	Breast, lung, pancreatic cancer	Improved solubility, reduced hypersensitivity
<b>Kadcyla</b>	Antibody–drug conjugate	HER2 receptor targeting	HER2-positive breast cancer	Enhanced specificity and survival benefit

### Challenges and Limitations

Despite significant advancements in targeted drug delivery systems for cancer therapy, several scientific, clinical, and translational challenges limit their widespread clinical success. Addressing these barriers is essential for improving therapeutic consistency, safety, and regulatory approval.

### Tumor Heterogeneity

Tumor heterogeneity represents one of the most critical obstacles in targeted therapy. Cancers are not uniform masses of identical cells; rather, they consist of genetically and phenotypically diverse cell populations within the same tumor (intra-tumoral heterogeneity) and across different patients (inter-patient heterogeneity). Variations in receptor expression, metabolic activity, angiogenesis, and immune infiltration can significantly influence targeting efficiency. A delivery system designed to recognize a specific receptor may be highly effective in one tumor subtype but less effective in another due to differential receptor density. This biological variability complicates the design of universally effective targeted formulations and often contributes to therapeutic resistance and relapse.

### Limited EPR Effect in Humans

Although the enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) effect has been extensively demonstrated in preclinical animal models, its clinical translation has proven inconsistent. Human tumors exhibit greater structural complexity, variable vascular permeability, and heterogeneous blood flow compared to experimental models. Additionally, elevated interstitial fluid pressure in human tumors can hinder nanoparticle penetration. Consequently, passive targeting strategies relying solely on the EPR effect may not consistently achieve sufficient drug accumulation in clinical settings. This limitation underscores the need for improved patient stratification and complementary active targeting strategies.

### Toxicity and Immunogenicity

While targeted systems are designed to reduce systemic toxicity, unintended adverse effects remain a concern. Nanoparticles may accumulate in organs such as the liver, spleen, and lungs due to uptake by the mononuclear phagocyte system. Surface modifications, especially with synthetic polymers or targeting ligands, may trigger immune responses or hypersensitivity reactions. Repeated administration can lead to accelerated blood clearance or immunogenicity, reducing therapeutic effectiveness. Long-term safety data for many novel nanomaterials are still limited, raising concerns regarding chronic toxicity and biodegradability.

### Scale-Up and Manufacturing Issues

Translating laboratory-scale nanoparticle formulations to industrial-scale production presents significant technical challenges. Maintaining batch-to-batch reproducibility, particle size uniformity, drug loading efficiency, and surface characteristics requires precise control over manufacturing parameters. Complex multi-component systems increase formulation variability and cost. Furthermore, sterilization, storage stability, and large-scale purification processes must meet stringent pharmaceutical quality standards. These challenges can delay commercialization and increase development expenses.

### Regulatory Challenges

Regulatory evaluation of nanomedicines is more complex than that of conventional small-molecule drugs. The multifunctional nature of targeted systems demands comprehensive characterization of physicochemical properties, pharmacokinetics, biodistribution, immunogenicity, and long-term safety. Standardized regulatory guidelines specific to nanotechnology-based therapeutics are still evolving in many regions. Additionally, defining bioequivalence and establishing quality control parameters for complex nanocarriers remain challenging. Regulatory uncertainty can prolong approval timelines and limit market entry.

### Future Perspectives

The future of targeted drug delivery systems lies in integrating advanced technologies, precision medicine approaches, and interdisciplinary innovation. Emerging strategies aim to enhance personalization, predictive modeling, and multifunctionality of therapeutic platforms.

### Personalized Nanomedicine

Personalized nanomedicine focuses on tailoring drug delivery systems according to individual patient characteristics, including tumor genetics, receptor expression profiles, and immune status. Advances in molecular diagnostics and biomarker identification enable stratification of patients likely to benefit from specific targeting strategies. Customized nanoparticle formulations may improve therapeutic efficacy while minimizing adverse effects. The integration of genomic profiling with targeted delivery platforms represents a significant step toward precision oncology.

### AI-Guided Nanoparticle Design

Artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning algorithms are increasingly being utilized to optimize nanoparticle design. Predictive modeling can analyze large datasets to identify optimal combinations of size, surface charge, polymer composition, and targeting ligands. AI-driven

approaches can accelerate formulation development, reduce experimental trial-and-error processes, and enhance reproducibility. Additionally, computational tools can predict pharmacokinetics, biodistribution, and toxicity profiles, thereby streamlining translational research.

### Combination Therapy Approaches

Future targeted systems are likely to incorporate combination therapy strategies, including co-delivery of chemotherapeutic agents, gene therapy, immunomodulators, or anti-angiogenic drugs within a single carrier. Such multifunctional platforms can simultaneously attack multiple oncogenic pathways, reducing the likelihood of resistance development. Controlled and sequential drug release mechanisms further enhance synergistic therapeutic effects. Combining nanotechnology with immunotherapy, radiotherapy, or photothermal therapy is expected to significantly improve treatment outcomes.

### Theranostic Systems

Theranostic platforms integrate therapeutic and diagnostic functionalities within a single nanocarrier. These systems enable real-time imaging of drug distribution, tumor response monitoring, and personalized dose adjustment. Incorporation of imaging agents such as fluorescent markers, magnetic materials, or radiolabels allows clinicians to track treatment progression non-invasively. Theranostics represent a paradigm shift toward image-guided, precision-based cancer management.

### CONCLUSION:

Targeted drug delivery systems have significantly redefined the therapeutic landscape of cancer treatment by addressing critical limitations associated with conventional chemotherapy. Through strategic formulation design and molecular-level targeting approaches, these systems enhance tumor selectivity, improve pharmacokinetic behavior, and reduce systemic toxicity. Lipid-based carriers, polymeric nanoparticles, inorganic nanomaterials, and biologically inspired platforms each contribute distinct advantages in drug encapsulation, controlled release, and site-specific delivery.

Pharmacological mechanisms such as receptor-mediated endocytosis, endosomal escape, resistance modulation, and tumor microenvironment responsiveness play pivotal roles in determining therapeutic efficacy. Clinically approved formulations, including liposomal drugs, albumin-bound nanoparticles, and antibody-drug conjugates, validate the translational relevance of targeted nanomedicine in oncology.

However, challenges such as tumor heterogeneity, limited reproducibility of the EPR effect in humans, immunogenic responses, scale-up difficulties, and regulatory hurdles must be systematically addressed to ensure broader clinical success. Future advancements in personalized nanomedicine, AI-driven formulation optimization, multifunctional combination therapies, and theranostic integration are expected to further enhance precision and therapeutic outcomes.

In summary, targeted drug delivery systems represent a critical advancement toward safer, more effective, and patient-specific cancer therapies, with continued innovation poised to accelerate their role in modern oncology.

### CONFLICT OF INTEREST:

None

### REFERENCES:

1. Sung H, Ferlay J, Siegel RL, Laversanne M, Soerjomataram I, Jemal A, et al. Global cancer statistics 2020: GLOBOCAN estimates of incidence and mortality worldwide. *CA Cancer J Clin.* 2021;71(3):209–249.
2. Bray F, Laversanne M, Weiderpass E, Soerjomataram I. The ever-increasing importance of cancer as a leading cause of premature death worldwide. *Cancer.* 2021;127(16):3029–3030.
3. Chabner BA, Roberts TG. Timeline: Chemotherapy and the war on cancer. *Nat Rev Cancer.* 2005;5(1):65–72.
4. Gottesman MM. Mechanisms of cancer drug resistance. *Annu Rev Med.* 2002;53:615–627.
5. Holohan C, Van Schaeybroeck S, Longley DB, Johnston PG. Cancer drug resistance: An evolving paradigm. *Nat Rev Cancer.* 2013;13(10):714–726.
6. Maeda H, Wu J, Sawa T, Matsumura Y, Hori K. Tumor vascular permeability and the EPR effect. *J Control Release.* 2000;65(1–2):271–284.
7. Fang J, Nakamura H, Maeda H. The EPR effect: Unique features of tumor blood vessels. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2011;63(3):136–151.
8. Torchilin VP. Multifunctional nanocarriers. *Nat Rev Drug Discov.* 2014;13(11):813–827.
9. Peer D, Karp JM, Hong S, Farokhzad OC, Margalit R, Langer R. Nanocarriers as an emerging platform. *Nat Nanotechnol.* 2007;2(12):751–760.
10. Allen TM, Cullis PR. Liposomal drug delivery systems. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.* 2013;65(1):36–48.

11. Immordino ML, Dosio F, Cattel L. Stealth liposomes. *Int J Nanomedicine*. 2006;1(3):297–315.
12. Barenholz Y. Doxil®—The first FDA-approved nano-drug. *J Control Release*. 2012;160(2):117–134.
13. Gradishar WJ. Albumin-bound paclitaxel: A next-generation taxane. *J Clin Oncol*. 2005;23(31):7794–7803.
14. Drummond DC, Meyer O, Hong K, Kirpotin DB, Papahadjopoulos D. Optimizing liposomes. *Pharmacol Rev*. 1999;51(4):691–743.
15. Duncan R. Polymer conjugates as anticancer nanomedicines. *Nat Rev Cancer*. 2006;6(9):688–701.
16. Danhier F, Ansorena E, Silva JM, Coco R, Le Breton A, Préat V. PLGA nanoparticles. *J Control Release*. 2012;161(2):505–522.
17. Koo H, Huh MS, Sun IC, Yuk SH, Choi K, Kim K, et al. In vivo tumor targeting of nanoparticles. *Acc Chem Res*. 2011;44(10):1018–1028.
18. Wang AZ, Langer R, Farokhzad OC. Nanoparticle delivery of cancer drugs. *Annu Rev Med*. 2012;63:185–198.
19. Bae YH, Park K. Targeted drug delivery to tumors. *J Control Release*. 2011;153(3):198–205.
20. Mura S, Nicolas J, Couvreur P. Stimuli-responsive nanocarriers. *Nat Mater*. 2013;12(11):991–1003.
21. Riehemann K, Schneider SW, Luger TA, Godin B, Ferrari M, Fuchs H. Nanomedicine—Challenge and perspectives. *Angew Chem Int Ed*. 2009;48(5):872–897.
22. Kamaly N, Xiao Z, Valencia PM, Radovic-Moreno AF, Farokhzad OC. Targeted polymeric therapeutic nanoparticles. *Chem Soc Rev*. 2012;41(7):2971–3010.
23. Sanna V, Sechi M. Nanoparticle therapeutics. *Int J Nanomedicine*. 2012;7:1731–1746.
24. Ferrari M. Cancer nanotechnology. *Nat Rev Cancer*. 2005;5(3):161–171.
25. Mitragotri S, Anderson DG, Chen X, Chow EK, Ho D, Kabanov AV, et al. Accelerating nanomedicine translation. *ACS Nano*. 2015;9(7):6644–6654.
26. Wicki A, Witzigmann D, Balasubramanian V, Huwyler J. Nanomedicine in cancer therapy. *J Control Release*. 2015;200:138–157.
27. Jain RK. Delivery of molecular medicine to solid tumors. *Science*. 1996;271(5252):1079–1080.
28. Rasve V, Chakraborty AK, Jain SK, Vengurlekar S. Study of phytochemical profiling and in vitro antioxidant properties of ethanolic extract of *Clematis triloba*. *Eur Chem Bull*. 2022;11(12):2658–2677. doi:10.53555/ecb/2022.11.12.2162022.
29. Rasve VR, Paithankar VV, Shirsat MK, Dhobale AV. Evaluation of antiulcer activity of *Aconitum heterophyllum* in experimental animals. *World J Pharm Pharm Sci*. 2018;7(2):819–839.
30. Stylianopoulos T. EPR-effect-based drug delivery. *J Control Release*. 2013;172(3):779–786.
31. Shi J, Kantoff PW, Wooster R, Farokhzad OC. Cancer nanomedicine. *Nat Rev Cancer*. 2017;17(1):20–37.
32. Bertrand N, Wu J, Xu X, Kamaly N, Farokhzad OC. Cancer nanotechnology. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev*. 2014;66:2–25.
33. Kirpotin DB, Drummond DC, Shao Y, Shalaby MR, Hong K, Nielsen UB, et al. Antibody-targeted liposomes. *Cancer Res*. 2006;66(13):6732–6740.
34. Beck A, Goetsch L, Dumontet C, Corvaia N. Strategies and challenges for next-generation ADCs. *Nat Rev Drug Discov*. 2017;16(5):315–337.
35. Sievers EL, Senter PD. Antibody–drug conjugates. *Annu Rev Med*. 2013;64:15–29.
36. Lambert JM, Morris CQ. Antibody–drug conjugates (ADCs). *Adv Ther*. 2017;34(5):1015–1035.
37. Bobo D, Robinson KJ, Islam J, Thurecht KJ, Corrie SR. Nanoparticle-based medicines. *Pharm Res*. 2016;33(10):2373–2387.
38. Petros RA, DeSimone JM. Strategies in the design of nanoparticles. *Nat Rev Drug Discov*. 2010;9(8):615–627.
39. Blanco E, Shen H, Ferrari M. Principles of nanoparticle design. *Nat Biotechnol*. 2015;33(9):941–951.
40. Albanese A, Tang PS, Chan WC. The effect of nanoparticle size. *Annu Rev Biomed Eng*. 2012;14:1–16.
41. Wang Y, Zhang L, Guo S. Stimuli-responsive nanocarriers. *Small*. 2015;11(14):1640–1651.
42. Ruan S, He Q, Gao H. Matrix metalloproteinase-responsive systems. *Nano Today*. 2015;10(6):699–713.
43. Li J, Mooney DJ. Designing hydrogels for controlled release. *Nat Rev Mater*. 2016;1:16071.
44. Torchilin VP. Recent advances with liposomes. *Nat Rev Drug Discov*. 2005;4(2):145–160.
45. Rasve V, Chakraborty AK, Jain SK, Vengurlekar S. Comparative evaluation of antidiabetic activity of ethanolic leaves extract of *Clematis triloba* and its SMEDDS

- formulation in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. *J Popul Ther Clin Pharmacol*. 2022;29(4):959–971.  
doi:10.53555/jptcp.v29i04.2360.
46. Sanna V, Pala N, Sechi M. Targeted therapy using nanoparticles. *Future Med Chem*. 2014;6(10):1093–1116.
  47. Jain RK, Stylianopoulos T. Delivering nanomedicine to solid tumors. *Nat Rev Clin Oncol*. 2010;7(11):653–664.
  48. Cheng Z, Al Zaki A, Hui JZ, Muzykantov VR, Tsourkas A. Multifunctional nanoparticles. *Science*. 2012;338(6109):903–910.
  49. Wilhelm S, Tavares AJ, Dai Q, Ohta S, Audet J, Dvorak HF, et al. Analysis of nanoparticle delivery efficiency. *Nat Rev Mater*. 2016;1:16014.
  50. Shi Y, van der Meel R, Theek B, Oude Blenke E, Pieters EH, Fens MH, et al. Complete regression of xenograft tumors. *ACS Nano*. 2015;9(4):3740–3752.
  51. Anselmo AC, Mitragotri S. Nanoparticles in the clinic. *Bioeng Transl Med*. 2016;1(1):10–29.
  52. Hare JJ, Lammers T, Ashford MB, Puri S, Storm G, Barry ST. Challenges and strategies in anti-cancer nanomedicine. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev*. 2017;108:25–38.
  53. Bae YH, Park K. Targeted drug delivery to tumors: Myths and reality. *J Control Release*. 2011;153(3):198–205.
  54. Tannock IF, Lee CM, Tunggal JK, Cowan DS, Egorin MJ. Limited penetration of anticancer drugs. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2002;8(3):878–884.
  55. Farokhzad OC, Langer R. Impact of nanotechnology on drug delivery. *ACS Nano*. 2009;3(1):16–20.
  56. Zhao Y, Alakhova DY, Kabanov AV. Can nanomedicines kill cancer stem cells? *Adv Drug Deliv Rev*. 2013;65(13–14):1763–1783.
  57. Chen F, Ehlerding EB, Cai W. Theranostic nanoparticles. *J Nucl Med*. 2014;55(12):1919–1922.
  58. Kelkar SS, Reineke TM. Theranostics in nanomedicine. *Bioconjug Chem*. 2011;22(10):1879–1903.