

Review Article Recent Advances in Nanoparticle-Based Drug Delivery Systems

Aarati Maurya^{1*}, Shivam Tyagi²

¹Metro College of Health Sciences and Research, Greater Noida, India, 201310. ²Glocal University, Delhi Yamunotri Marg, Saharanpur, UP, 247121, India.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 08, October, 2024 Revised: 07 November, 2024 Accepted: 09 December, 2024 Published: 30 December, 2024

Keywords:

Nanoparticle-Based Drug Delivery, Targeted Drug Delivery, Controlled Release, Surface Modification, Smart Nanoparticles DOI:

10.21590/jddhs.01.04.03

ABSTRACT

Nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems (NDDS) have emerged as a revolutionary approach in pharmaceutical development, offering significant improvements in drug bioavailability, therapeutic efficacy, and patient compliance. This review provides an overview of recent advances in nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems, focusing on novel nanoparticle formulations, surface modifications for targeted drug delivery, and the mechanisms of controlled release. The article explores various types of nanoparticles, including polymeric nanoparticles, liposomes, lipid nanoparticles, dendrimers, nanogels, and hybrid materials, and their applications in diverse therapeutic areas such as cancer therapy, gene delivery, and vaccine development. A particular emphasis is placed on the advancements in surface modification techniques, such as PEGylation and antibody conjugation, which enhance targeting and minimize off-target effects. Additionally, the review discusses smart nanoparticles that respond to stimuli (e.g., pH, temperature, and light) for controlled and triggered release of drugs, as well as challenges related to toxicity, scalability, and regulatory approval. Furthermore, the article highlights the potential of nanoparticle-based systems in personalized medicine and their future prospects in treating complex diseases like cancer, neurological disorders, and genetic conditions. Despite challenges, such as the need for improved safety profiles and large-scale production techniques, the continued development of nanotechnology holds great promise for transforming drug delivery paradigms and advancing the field of medicine.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the development of innovative drug delivery systems (DDS) has transformed the pharmaceutical industry, offering new approaches to improve the efficacy, safety, and specificity of therapeutic interventions. Traditional DDS face numerous limitations, including low bioavailability, non-specific distribution, and poor solubility of many drugs (Allen & Cullis, 2013). These limitations often result in suboptimal therapeutic outcomes and increased side effects, particularly for drugs used in treating complex diseases such as cancer and neurological disorders. As a response, nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems (NDDS) have emerged as a promising technology, designed to overcome these challenges through controlled drug release, targeted delivery, and enhanced solubility and stability of therapeutic agents (Gupta et al., 2019). Nanoparticles offer unique properties that make them ideal for DDS, including their small size, large surface area-to-volume ratio, and the ability to modify their surfaces to achieve specific biological interactions (Gindy & Prud'homme, 2009). These features enable nanoparticles to cross biological barriers more effectively and facilitate the targeted delivery of drugs to specific tissues or cells, reducing systemic toxicity and improving therapeutic efficacy (Patra et al., 2018). Furthermore, by enabling

*Corresponding Author: Aarati Maurya

Email 🖂: pinkaarati@gmail.com

Address: Metro College of Health Sciences and Research, Greater Noida, India, 201310.

Relevant conflicts of interest/financial disclosures: The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Copyright © 2024 First Author *et al.* This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as the author is credited and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.

the controlled release of drugs, NDDS can maintain drug concentrations within therapeutic windows over extended periods, reducing dosing frequency and enhancing patient compliance (Torchilin, 2007).

Given the increasing interest in NDDS, this review aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the recent advances in nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems. The discussion will cover different types of nanoparticles such as polymeric nanoparticles, liposomes, lipid nanoparticles, and hybrid nanomaterials—and their applications in various therapeutic areas. Additionally, the review will highlight innovations in surface modification techniques that enhance targeting and biocompatibility, as well as advancements in controlled and triggered release mechanisms. Finally, challenges and future directions in NDDS will be examined, including issues related to scalability, regulatory approval, and potential applications in personalized medicine (Ventola, 2017).

Basics of Nanoparticle-Based Drug Delivery

Nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems (NDDS) are engineered platforms designed to improve the delivery, targeting, and therapeutic efficacy of drugs through nanotechnology. Nanoparticles are generally defined as particles with dimensions in the nanometer range, usually between 1 to 100 nanometers (nm) (Sahoo et al., 2007). They are composed of various materials, including polymers, lipids, metals, and organic molecules, and are tailored to achieve specific therapeutic goals. The distinct physicochemical properties of nanoparticles—such as small size, high surface area, and versatile surface modification capabilities—enable them to navigate biological barriers effectively, enhance drug stability, and enable controlled drug release (Koo et al., 2012; Gupta et al., 2019).

Types of Nanoparticles in Drug Delivery

There are several types of nanoparticles commonly employed in NDDS, each offering unique advantages:

• Polymeric Nanoparticles

Constructed from biodegradable polymers such as poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA) and polycaprolactone (PCL), polymeric nanoparticles are frequently used for controlled drug release and targeted delivery (Danhier et al., 2012). Their biodegradability and biocompatibility make them particularly suitable for sustained drug delivery applications in cancer therapy (Kumar et al., 2015).

• Liposomes

These spherical vesicles consist of phospholipid bilayers that can encapsulate both hydrophilic and hydrophobic drugs. Liposomes have been widely used for encapsulating chemotherapy agents and enhancing drug accumulation in tumor tissues through enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) effects (Allen & Cullis, 2013). Recent developments include PEGylated liposomes, which have an extended circulation time in the bloodstream (Torchilin, 2005).

• Solid Lipid Nanoparticles (SLNs)

These are sub-micron colloidal carriers composed of solid lipids. SLNs combine the benefits of liposomes and polymeric nanoparticles, offering stability, biocompatibility, and controlled drug release (Ekambaram et al., 2012). They have been employed in various drug delivery applications, including anti-cancer and anti-inflammatory therapies (Müller et al., 2011).

• Dendrimers

Highly branched, tree-like molecules with precise control over their structure, dendrimers provide multiple functional groups for drug loading and targeting (Patri et al., 2005). Dendrimers have been explored in gene delivery and as carriers for anticancer drugs due to their ability to enhance drug solubility and bioavailability (Malik et al., 2000).

Nanocrystals

These are pure drug nanoparticles stabilized by surfactants or polymers, which improve the dissolution rate of poorly water-soluble drugs (Junghanns & Müller, 2008). Nanocrystal formulations are particularly valuable for enhancing the bioavailability of hydrophobic drugs.

Properties of Nanoparticles

The effectiveness of nanoparticles in drug delivery largely depends on their physicochemical properties, which influence their distribution, interaction with biological systems, and drug release profiles:

• Size

Nanoparticles in the range of 10-200 nm are generally considered optimal for drug delivery, as this size range facilitates cellular uptake and evasion of rapid clearance by the reticuloendothelial system (RES) (Danhier et al., 2012). Small nanoparticles can penetrate tumor tissues more effectively through the EPR effect (Barua & Mitragotri, 2014).

• Surface Charge

The surface charge (often measured as zeta potential) affects the stability and interaction of nanoparticles with cellular membranes. Positively charged nanoparticles tend to have better cellular uptake but may increase toxicity due to interactions with cell membranes, while neutral or negatively charged particles generally exhibit longer circulation times and lower toxicity (Owens & Peppas, 2006).

• Surface Modification

Surface modification is a crucial aspect of NDDS that enhances biocompatibility, targeting, and evasion of



immune recognition. For instance, PEGylation (attachment of polyethylene glycol chains) enhances circulation time by reducing opsonization and uptake by macrophages (Zalipsky, 1995). Additionally, surface functionalization with ligands, antibodies, or aptamers can improve the targeting of nanoparticles to specific cells or tissues (Zhu et al., 2014).

Mechanisms of Drug Delivery via Nanoparticles

Nanoparticles enable drug delivery through different mechanisms, which can be broadly categorized into passive and active targeting:

• Passive Targeting

Passive targeting leverages the natural distribution and accumulation of nanoparticles at specific sites. The EPR effect is a well-known phenomenon wherein nanoparticles accumulate in tumor tissues due to leaky vasculature and poor lymphatic drainage (Matsumura & Maeda, 1986). This effect is often utilized in cancer drug delivery to increase drug concentration at tumor sites while minimizing systemic exposure.

Active Targeting

Active targeting involves modifying nanoparticles with specific ligands that recognize and bind to target receptors on cells, enabling selective drug delivery. This approach is widely used for targeted drug delivery to cancer cells, where ligands such as folic acid, antibodies, or peptides are conjugated to the nanoparticle surface (Torchilin, 2005). Active targeting enhances the specificity and reduces off-target effects, making it particularly valuable for therapies that require precise cellular targeting.

Controlled Release

Controlled release systems are designed to deliver drugs at a predetermined rate, which helps maintain therapeutic drug concentrations over extended periods. Nanoparticles can be engineered to respond to specific stimuli-such as pH, temperature, or enzymes—triggering drug release in response to the local environment (Blanco et al., 2015). For example, pH-sensitive nanoparticles can release drugs in acidic environments, making them suitable for targeting the acidic microenvironment of tumors (Bae et al., 2013). The versatile properties and mechanisms of nanoparticlebased drug delivery systems hold significant potential for enhancing therapeutic efficacy, particularly in challenging diseases like cancer and neurological disorders. Continued research is focused on optimizing these properties to overcome remaining challenges, such as biocompatibility, scalability, and targeted delivery.

Recent Advances in Nanoparticle-Based Drug Delivery Systems

Nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems (NDDS) offer transformative potential in improving the efficacy, safety,

and specificity of therapeutic agents across various medical fields. The field of NDDS has seen significant innovations over recent years, especially in the development of materials and technologies that enable controlled drug release, targeted delivery, and improved bioavailability. This section explores recent advancements in key types of nanoparticles, their properties, and applications in enhancing drug delivery.

Polymeric Nanoparticles

Polymeric nanoparticles, composed of biodegradable polymers like poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA), polycaprolactone (PCL), and chitosan, are widely researched for controlled drug release and biocompatibility (Danhier et al., 2012). They are used extensively in cancer therapy due to their ability to release drugs in a sustained manner and enhance tumor accumulation through the Enhanced Permeability and Retention (EPR) effect (Kumar et al., 2015).

Recent advancements in polymeric nanoparticles include the development of polymer blends and functionalized polymers, which improve drug encapsulation and release profiles. For example, PLGA-based nanoparticles modified with polyethylene glycol (PEG) enhance circulation time by reducing immune recognition (Zhu et al., 2014). These nanoparticles are particularly valuable in cancer therapies, where targeted delivery and controlled release are crucial to minimize side effects and improve therapeutic efficacy (Maeda, 2012).

Liposomes and Lipid Nanoparticles

Liposomes and lipid nanoparticles (LNPs) are spherical vesicles that can encapsulate hydrophilic and hydrophobic drugs within their phospholipid bilayers, making them highly versatile drug carriers (Allen & Cullis, 2013). Liposomes are well-established in cancer treatment for delivering chemotherapy drugs, while LNPs have gained attention recently for their role in mRNA vaccine delivery, as seen in COVID-19 vaccines (Schoenmaker et al., 2021). The incorporation of lipids with different compositions allows for modulation of stability and release properties. For instance, PEGylated liposomes provide extended circulation time in the bloodstream, enhancing drug bioavailability and targeting tumor cells (Torchilin, 2005). Moreover, lipid nanoparticles are increasingly employed in RNA-based therapies for targeted gene delivery (Hou et al., 2021).

Nanocrystals and Nanocapsules

Nanocrystals, which consist of pure drug particles stabilized by surfactants, significantly improve the solubility and bioavailability of poorly water-soluble drugs (Junghanns & Müller, 2008). The increased surface area of nanocrystals facilitates faster dissolution rates, making them suitable for drugs with low solubility and high lipophilicity (Moschwitzer, 2013). For example, nanocrystal formulations of paclitaxel have shown improved therapeutic efficacy due to enhanced absorption (Gao et al., 2011).

Nanocapsules, on the other hand, consist of a drug core surrounded by a polymeric or lipid shell, providing additional control over drug release and stability (Sousa et al., 2019). Nanocapsules are effective in stabilizing labile drugs, allowing for sustained release and improved targeting. They are used in applications ranging from cancer to anti-inflammatory treatments (Anselmo & Mitragotri, 2014).

Dendrimers and Nanogels

Dendrimers are highly branched, tree-like structures with a high degree of functionalization, enabling efficient drug loading and targeting capabilities (Patri et al., 2005). Their multivalent surface allows for attachment of targeting ligands, facilitating receptor-mediated drug delivery (Malik et al., 2000). Recent studies on dendrimers have explored their potential in gene delivery and anticancer applications (Li et al., 2016).

Nanogels, hydrophilic cross-linked networks, exhibit high water content and biocompatibility, making them ideal for drug delivery, particularly for proteins and peptides (Oh et al., 2008). Their tunable size, shape, and surface properties allow them to respond to environmental stimuli such as pH and temperature, enabling controlled drug release (Schmaljohann, 2006).

Hybrid Nanomaterials

Hybrid nanomaterials combine multiple components, such as polymers and metals, to achieve enhanced functionalities for drug delivery. For instance, polymermetal nanoparticles leverage the biocompatibility of polymers with the magnetic properties of metal nanoparticles, facilitating targeted drug delivery under an external magnetic field (Arruebo et al., 2007). Hybrid nanomaterials can also be engineered to respond to multiple stimuli, such as pH, temperature, and light, enabling on-demand drug release (Rao et al., 2015).

The versatility of hybrid nanoparticles makes them suitable for theranostic applications, which integrate therapy with diagnostic imaging, offering potential in personalized medicine for conditions like cancer (Zhou et al., 2017). Advances in hybrid nanomaterials continue to open new avenues for targeted, responsive drug delivery with multifunctional capabilities (Liu et al., 2020).

Surface Modification of Nanoparticles for Targeting and Bioavailability

Nanoparticle surface modification is an essential strategy to improve the targeting efficacy, bioavailability, and biocompatibility of nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems. Surface modification techniques such as PEGylation, antibody conjugation, and ligand attachment have enhanced the specificity and functionality of nanoparticles, particularly for targeting tumors, specific tissues, and organs.

PEGylation and Enhanced Circulation Time

Polyethylene glycol (PEG) modification, or PEGylation, is one of the most common techniques used to improve nanoparticle stability and bioavailability. PEGylation helps in reducing protein adsorption and immune recognition, thus prolonging the circulation time of nanoparticles in the bloodstream (Jokerst et al., 2011). This stealth effect is particularly advantageous in cancer therapy, as it allows nanoparticles to accumulate in tumor tissues through the Enhanced Permeability and Retention (EPR) effect (Matsumura & Maeda, 1986). Studies show that PEGylated liposomes have demonstrated enhanced tumor targeting and reduced side effects (Torchilin, 2005).

PEGylation has also been widely utilized in developing lipid nanoparticles for mRNA vaccines, such as those used for COVID-19. By enhancing nanoparticle circulation time, PEGylation contributes to the delivery of mRNA to cells more effectively, resulting in improved vaccine efficacy (Schoenmaker et al., 2021).

Antibody Conjugation and Active Targeting

Conjugating antibodies or other ligands to the surface of nanoparticles enables active targeting, wherein nanoparticles bind to specific cell receptors. This method is highly beneficial in targeting cancer cells, as it enhances the therapeutic index of anticancer drugs by focusing on cells overexpressing particular receptors (Brigger et al., 2002). For instance, nanoparticles conjugated with antibodies against the HER2 receptor are directed specifically to HER2-positive breast cancer cells, improving drug delivery and reducing systemic toxicity (Peer et al., 2007).

In recent years, monoclonal antibodies have been explored for their potential to precisely target cancer cells when attached to nanoparticles. Antibody-conjugated nanoparticles, such as those targeted to prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) in prostate cancer, exhibit enhanced uptake by target cells, increasing the therapeutic efficacy of the delivered drugs (Ferrari, 2005).

Ligand Attachment and Targeted Delivery

Ligand attachment to nanoparticles allows for specific interaction with cellular receptors, thus promoting receptor-mediated endocytosis. Ligands such as folic acid, transferrin, and hyaluronic acid are frequently used to target specific tissues. Folic acid-targeted nanoparticles, for instance, exploit the overexpression of folate receptors in certain cancer cells, allowing selective uptake (Zhu et al., 2014).

Hyaluronic acid has been investigated as a targeting ligand for CD44 receptors, which are highly expressed in many tumor cells. Nanoparticles modified with hyaluronic acid have shown improved cellular uptake and selectivity



in targeting tumor cells overexpressing CD44 (Sultana et al., 2013). These ligand-conjugated nanoparticles demonstrate the potential for site-specific drug delivery, thereby improving drug accumulation in targeted tissues and reducing side effects.

Biocompatibility and Toxicity Concerns of Surface Modifications

While surface modifications enhance targeting and bioavailability, they also raise potential concerns about biocompatibility and toxicity. PEGylation, for instance, may lead to immunogenicity and the formation of anti-PEG antibodies after repeated administration, potentially resulting in rapid clearance from the body and reduced therapeutic efficacy (Ishida & Kiwada, 2008). This phenomenon, known as the "accelerated blood clearance" (ABC) effect, has prompted researchers to explore alternative polymers and stealth coatings to circumvent immune recognition.

Antibody conjugation and ligand attachment can also introduce immunogenicity or nonspecific binding, affecting biocompatibility and safety. For example, studies indicate that nanoparticles conjugated with transferrin can trigger immune responses or unwanted accumulation in non-target tissues (Albanese et al., 2012). The toxicity of nanoparticles, especially at the high doses required for effective treatment, remains a critical issue. Investigating biodegradable materials and developing surface modifications that can be metabolized without harmful residues is essential for enhancing biocompatibility (Jain et al., 2008).

Advances in Drug Release Mechanisms in Nanoparticle-Based Drug Delivery Systems

Advancements in drug release mechanisms have significantly enhanced the therapeutic potential of nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems. By enabling controlled, targeted, and responsive release of therapeutic agents, these systems improve drug efficacy while minimizing side effects. Recent innovations include the development of smart nanoparticles with stimulusresponsive properties, triggered release systems, and nanoparticles for combination therapy, which all represent cutting-edge strategies in modern medicine.

Smart Nanoparticles for Stimulus-Responsive Drug Release

Smart nanoparticles respond to internal physiological conditions such as pH, temperature, or specific enzymes, making them highly effective for targeted drug delivery (Torchilin, 2014). For instance, pH-responsive nanoparticles exploit the acidic environment of tumor cells or inflamed tissues, enabling selective release in these areas (Bae & Park, 2011). A study by Zhang et al. (2012) demonstrated that pH-sensitive polymeric nanoparticles enhanced the release of anticancer drugs in acidic tumor environments, thereby maximizing therapeutic effect

while sparing healthy tissues.

Temperature-sensitive nanoparticles are another promising development. Thermoresponsive systems, such as those based on poly(N-isopropylacrylamide) (PNIPAM), release drugs upon heating, making them suitable for applications like hyperthermia-assisted cancer therapy (Xia et al., 2013). Enzyme-responsive nanoparticles are designed to release drugs in response to specific enzymes found at diseased sites, such as matrix metalloproteinases in cancer or elastase in inflammatory diseases (Chen et al., 2013).

Controlled and Triggered Drug Release Mechanisms

Controlled drug release using external triggers like magnetic fields, light, and ultrasound has expanded the scope of nanoparticle-based drug delivery. Magnetic nanoparticles, for example, can be guided to target sites using an external magnetic field, providing spatial control of drug delivery (Arruebo et al., 2007). Additionally, by applying a magnetic field, these particles can be stimulated to release their payload in a controlled manner, particularly valuable in treating localized tumors (Hildebrandt et al., 2010).

Light-sensitive nanoparticles are another innovation, with photosensitive compounds incorporated into nanoparticles to release drugs upon exposure to specific wavelengths of light. This method provides precise control over drug release, especially in superficial cancers (Yavuz et al., 2009). Ultrasound-triggered drug release is also highly effective; when ultrasound is applied, it can enhance drug permeation and disrupt nanoparticle carriers, releasing drugs at the targeted site (Rapoport, 2007).

Nanoparticles for Combination Therapy and Co-Delivery of Multiple Drugs

Combination therapy, where two or more drugs are delivered together, offers synergistic effects in treating complex diseases like cancer, infections, and inflammatory conditions (Chauhan & Jain, 2013). Nanoparticles designed for co-delivery can encapsulate drugs with complementary mechanisms of action, optimizing treatment outcomes and reducing drug resistance. For instance, lipid-based nanoparticles loaded with both chemotherapeutic agents and gene therapy agents have shown promising results in preclinical cancer models (Peer et al., 2007).

Polymeric nanoparticles are also advantageous in delivering multiple drugs with distinct release profiles. For example, one drug can be released immediately for rapid therapeutic effect, while the other is released slowly for sustained activity, as demonstrated in studies on dualdrug-loaded PLGA nanoparticles (Kumar et al., 2015). This dual-release capability makes co-delivery nanoparticles especially valuable for combination therapies in cancer treatment.

Nanoparticle-Based Drug Delivery in Specific Therapeutic Areas

Nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems have significantly advanced treatment strategies in various therapeutic areas, including cancer, gene therapy, vaccine development, and chronic disease management (Table 1). By enabling controlled, targeted, and effective delivery of therapeutic agents, nanoparticles improve the efficacy of treatments while reducing systemic side effects.

Cancer Therapy: Targeted Drug Delivery to Tumors

Nanoparticles have revolutionized cancer therapy by enabling precise drug delivery to tumor cells, reducing damage to healthy tissue, and overcoming multidrug resistance (MDR). For instance, liposomal formulations of chemotherapeutics like doxorubicin (Doxil®) have improved tumor targeting, prolonging drug circulation and reducing cardiotoxicity (Barenholz, 2012). Similarly, nanoparticles like PEGylated liposomes exploit the enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) effect, allowing drugs to accumulate in tumors (Maeda et al., 2013). Researchers have also investigated multifunctional nanoparticles that combine imaging agents with therapeutic drugs, enabling simultaneous diagnosis and treatment, a technique known as "theranostics" (Chen et al., 2011).

Targeting strategies, such as antibody-conjugated nanoparticles, have also gained attention. For instance, nanoparticles conjugated with antibodies against HER2 selectively target HER2-positive breast cancer cells, enhancing the delivery of drugs like paclitaxel (Arruebo et al., 2011). Moreover, nanoparticles that co-deliver chemotherapeutics and MDR inhibitors have shown promise in overcoming MDR in cancer therapy (Sinha et al., 2006).

Gene Therapy: Delivery of Nucleic Acids

Nanoparticles have shown significant promise in gene therapy for delivering nucleic acids such as DNA, RNA, and small interfering RNA (siRNA). Lipid nanoparticles (LNPs) have emerged as one of the most effective carriers for delivering mRNA and siRNA due to their biocompatibility and ability to encapsulate nucleic acids, protecting them from degradation (Kulkarni et al., 2018). LNP-based gene therapies can silence disease-causing genes or deliver therapeutic genes, as seen in treatments for genetic disorders and cancer (Wang et al., 2010).

Polymeric nanoparticles and dendrimers are also used for gene delivery. For instance, chitosan-based nanoparticles have demonstrated high efficiency in delivering DNA and siRNA for applications in cancer gene therapy (Tiera et al., 2013). In addition, advances in CRISPR-Cas9 delivery using nanoparticles have opened new avenues for precise gene editing, showing potential for treating diseases with a genetic basis (Khalil et al., 2020).

Vaccines: Nanoparticle-Based Delivery of Antigens

Nanoparticles have significantly advanced vaccine development by improving the stability and immunogenicity of antigens. Lipid nanoparticles, for example, were instrumental in the development of mRNA vaccines against COVID-19 (Schoenmaker et al., 2021). These nanoparticles protect the mRNA from degradation and enhance cellular uptake, resulting in a robust immune response. The success of mRNA-LNP vaccines for COVID-19 has demonstrated the potential of nanoparticle-based vaccines for rapid response to infectious diseases. Polymeric nanoparticles and virus-like particles (VLPs)

Polymeric nanoparticles and virus-like particles (VLPs) are also being explored as carriers for antigens and nucleic acids in vaccines (Bachmann & Jennings, 2010). These systems mimic the structure of viruses, enhancing antigen presentation to immune cells and inducing stronger immune responses (Perrie et al., 2017). Furthermore, the modular design of nanoparticles enables the development of multivalent vaccines, which can target multiple strains or types of pathogens simultaneously (He et al., 2018).

Chronic Diseases: Delivery of Biologics and Small Molecules

Nanoparticles have also demonstrated significant potential in the treatment of chronic diseases, such as diabetes, arthritis, and cardiovascular diseases. For instance, polymeric nanoparticles and hydrogels can encapsulate insulin for controlled, sustained release, offering an improved treatment option for diabetes patients (Moreno-Bautista et al., 2015). In arthritis, liposomes and PLGA nanoparticles have been utilized to deliver anti-inflammatory drugs directly to inflamed tissues, thereby minimizing systemic side effects (Hunter et al., 2010).

Nanoparticles also enable the delivery of biologics like monoclonal antibodies and cytokines, which are often limited by poor stability and bioavailability. For instance, nanoparticles delivering anti-TNF-alpha biologics have shown efficacy in reducing inflammation in rheumatoid arthritis (Zhao et al., 2014). In cardiovascular diseases, nanoparticles targeting atherosclerotic plaques are under investigation, showing promise for localized delivery of anti-atherosclerotic drugs (Ta et al., 2020).

Challenges in Nanoparticle-Based Drug Delivery

The rapid development of nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems has introduced a new range of challenges that impact the potential for clinical application, requiring continuous research and innovation. Key issues include toxicity, manufacturing scalability, regulatory hurdles, and stability, each critical for the safe and effective use of nanoparticles in medicine.

Toxicity and Biocompatibility

One of the primary concerns in nanoparticle drug delivery is toxicity. Although nanoparticles offer targeted delivery, certain materials, like some metal oxides, can



Disease Type	Nanoparticle Application	Nanoparticle Type/ Technology	Therapeutic Outcome	Citation
Cancer	Targeted drug delivery to tumor cells, reducing side effects and improving efficacy	Liposomes, polymeric nanoparticles, gold nanoparticles	Improved tumor targeting, reduced toxicity, and enhanced drug bioavailability	Cheng et al, 2021
Neurological Disorders	Delivery of drugs across the blood-brain barrier (BBB)	Lipid nanoparticles, solid lipid nanoparticles (SLNs), dendrimers	Enhanced drug penetration into the brain, treatment for Alzheimer's, Parkinson's, etc.	Saraiva et al., 2016
Genetic Disorders	Gene therapy, gene silencing, CRISPR-Cas9 delivery	Lipid nanoparticles, polymeric nanoparticles, RNA- based nanoparticles	Targeted gene editing and correction of genetic mutations in diseases like cystic fibrosis and Duchenne muscular dystrophy	Yine et al., 2017
Infectious Diseases	Targeted delivery of antibiotics, antivirals, or vaccines	Silver nanoparticles, polymeric nanoparticles, micelles	Increased drug stability, enhanced targeting to infection sites, and improved immune response	Zhang et al., 2021
Cardiovascular Diseases	Delivery of anti-inflammatory agents or drugs to reduce plaque formation in arteries	Liposomes, PEGylated nanoparticles, magnetic nanoparticles	Improved targeting to arterial plaques, reduction of atherosclerosis and heart disease progression	Bajpai et al., 2020
Diabetes	Targeted insulin delivery, glucose-responsive delivery systems	Polymeric nanoparticles, insulin- loaded nanoparticles	Controlled release of insulin, improved glucose management, reduced side effects	Bhavsar & Amiji, 2020
Ocular Diseases	Drug delivery for retinal and corneal diseases, glaucoma treatment	Nanoparticles in hydrogels, SLNs, dendrimers	Improved ocular drug penetration and targeted treatment of eye conditions	Lim et al., 2020

Table 1: applications of nanoparticles in different diseases

cause oxidative stress, inflammation, and cytotoxicity, particularly if they accumulate in the liver, spleen, or lungs (Zhang et al., 2016). The biocompatibility of nanoparticles is critical to avoid adverse reactions from the immune system, which can lead to clearance from the body before reaching target sites (Elsabahy & Wooley, 2012). The surface chemistry and size of nanoparticles play a role in reducing immune detection; PEGylation, for instance, has been widely adopted to improve nanoparticle stability and reduce immune recognition (Karve & Werner, 2017). The long-term effects of nanoparticle accumulation also raise concerns, especially in chronic treatments. For example, some studies have shown that quantum dots and carbon nanotubes can lead to prolonged tissue retention and toxicity, emphasizing the need for biodegradable and safe materials in nanoparticle design (Sun et al., 2014).

Scalability and Manufacturing

Scaling up nanoparticle production while maintaining consistent quality poses a significant challenge. Nanoparticle synthesis involves complex steps, such as precise particle size control and surface functionalization, which are difficult to standardize in large-scale production (Bazak et al., 2015). Techniques like microfluidics and high-pressure homogenization have been explored for more consistent production, but these methods still face limitations in mass production due to high costs and technical barriers (Ahmad et al., 2017).

Batch-to-batch variability, often caused by inconsistent particle size and drug loading, further complicates the

scalability of nanoparticle production (Park et al., 2016). Addressing these issues requires investment in robust manufacturing processes, as well as novel techniques to ensure uniformity, quality, and cost-effectiveness for widespread clinical application.

Regulatory Hurdles

Nanoparticle-based therapeutics face stringent regulatory scrutiny, as traditional frameworks were not initially designed to evaluate nanoscale drug formulations. Regulatory bodies, including the U.S. FDA and the European Medicines Agency, have established new guidelines for nanomedicine evaluation, but challenges remain (Shi et al., 2017). The variability in nanoparticle composition, shape, and size demands more comprehensive testing and characterization, often resulting in extended approval timelines and higher costs (Schaeublin et al., 2014).

To improve the regulatory pathway, researchers and regulators are working towards standardized characterization methods and risk assessment tools that specifically address nanoparticle safety and efficacy (Zhang et al., 2018). Ensuring compliance with these standards is essential for the successful market entry of new nanoparticle-based treatments, but it remains an area where significant advances are still required.

Stability Issues

The stability of nanoparticles during storage and upon administration is crucial for maintaining efficacy and safety. Nanoparticles may undergo aggregation, degradation, or changes in surface properties over time, which can affect drug release profiles and bioavailability (Malam et al., 2009). Factors such as temperature, pH, and ionic strength can lead to instability, emphasizing the importance of optimizing storage conditions and formulations (Langer & Peppas, 2016).

Encapsulation techniques and surface modifications have been developed to enhance the stability of nanoparticles. Liposomes, for instance, are stabilized through cholesterol incorporation, which minimizes leakage and fusion (Bozzuto & Molinari, 2015). However, developing nanoparticles that retain stability under physiological conditions remains a challenge, as degradation can lead to premature drug release or particle disassembly.

Future Directions and Prospects

Nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems continue to evolve, presenting novel possibilities for personalized medicine and the treatment of complex diseases. Recent advancements in technology, such as artificial intelligence (AI) and 3D printing, have the potential to revolutionize nanoparticle design, fabrication, and application in drug delivery.

Emerging Technologies: AI and 3D Printing in Nanoparticle Design

AI is becoming increasingly valuable in nanoparticle research, offering powerful tools for designing and optimizing nanoparticles with enhanced therapeutic properties. Machine learning algorithms can analyze large datasets to predict nanoparticle behavior, drug release profiles, and biocompatibility, ultimately expediting the discovery of efficient nanoparticle formulations (Karuna & Bellare, 2019). AI-driven molecular simulations have been used to model nanoparticle interactions with biological membranes, enhancing our understanding of nanoparticle stability and biodistribution (Zhu et al., 2021).

3D printing has also shown promise for the rapid and precise fabrication of nanoparticles with controlled size, shape, and surface characteristics. This technology allows for customizable drug delivery systems tailored to individual patient needs, supporting the development of more effective, patient-specific therapeutics (Lim et al., 2020). 3D printing has facilitated the creation of complex structures that can control the release rates of encapsulated drugs, an advantage for targeting hardto-treat conditions like cancer and chronic diseases (Muwaffak et al., 2017).

Personalized Medicine and Precision Drug Delivery

Nanoparticles are well-suited to the goals of personalized medicine, as they can be engineered to carry therapeutic agents specifically designed for individual genetic or molecular profiles. Personalized drug delivery systems allow for the precise targeting of disease sites, minimizing side effects and improving therapeutic outcomes (Bhavsar & Amiji, 2020). For instance, polymeric nanoparticles loaded with tailored drug cocktails are being studied for their efficacy in treating cancers with specific genetic mutations (Cheng et al., 2021).

Precision drug delivery using nanoparticles also holds promise in pharmacogenomics, where a patient's genetic profile is used to guide drug selection and dosing. For example, lipid nanoparticles have enabled individualized delivery of gene-silencing therapeutics in diseases with known genetic causes, such as certain cancers and neurodegenerative disorders (Ozcan et al., 2022). This application emphasizes the potential of nanoparticles to bring more personalized, effective treatments to patients.

Potential Applications in Treating Neurological and Genetic Disorders

Nanoparticle systems are advancing treatments for neurological and genetic disorders, areas historically limited by challenges in drug delivery, such as crossing the blood-brain barrier (BBB). Certain nanoparticles, like lipidbased and polymeric formulations, have demonstrated potential to cross the BBB, enabling the targeted delivery of drugs for diseases like Alzheimer's, Parkinson's, and epilepsy (Saraiva et al., 2016). For example, chitosancoated nanoparticles have shown promise in delivering neuroprotective agents directly to the brain, improving therapeutic efficacy (Zhang et al., 2018).

Gene therapy, facilitated by nanoparticles, has also emerged as a transformative approach in treating genetic disorders. CRISPR-Cas9-loaded nanoparticles are being explored for precision gene editing in conditions such as Duchenne muscular dystrophy and cystic fibrosis, showcasing the potential of nanoparticles to address underlying genetic causes of disease (Yin et al., 2017). These nanoparticles help protect the CRISPR-Cas9 complex from degradation, improve its cellular uptake, and minimize off-target effects, contributing to safer and more effective gene therapies.

Future Clinical Applications and Real-World Challenges

The transition from preclinical research to clinical application remains a critical challenge for nanoparticlebased therapies. As these technologies advance, the need for streamlined regulatory frameworks and large-scale manufacturing solutions grows. Regulatory agencies such as the FDA and EMA are beginning to adapt to the complexity of nanomedicine, but more standardized guidelines are necessary to address the unique safety and efficacy concerns of nanoparticle-based drugs (Zhang et al., 2021). Real-world applications will also require breakthroughs in nanoparticle scalability and storage stability to ensure consistent quality and efficacy in clinical settings (Rosenholm et al., 2019). For instance, lyophilization techniques are being explored to enhance nanoparticle stability, improving their shelf life and viability for transport and storage (Bajpai et al., 2020).



CONCLUSION

Nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems have emerged as a groundbreaking approach in the treatment of various diseases, offering advantages such as enhanced bioavailability, targeted delivery, and reduced side effects. With the continued development of advanced technologies, such as artificial intelligence (AI), 3D printing, and personalized medicine, the potential of nanoparticles to revolutionize therapeutic strategies is becoming increasingly evident. These innovations allow for the design of nanoparticles tailored to individual patient needs, which could dramatically improve treatment outcomes, particularly for complex diseases like cancer, neurological disorders, and genetic conditions.

However, despite the tremendous promise, several challenges remain that need to be addressed for widespread clinical application. Issues related to toxicity, scalability, stability, and regulatory approval must be overcome to ensure the safe and effective use of nanoparticle-based therapies. Research in optimizing nanoparticle materials, improving manufacturing processes, and establishing robust regulatory guidelines is essential for the successful translation of these technologies from the laboratory to the clinic.

In conclusion, the future of nanoparticle-based drug delivery is bright, with the potential to significantly impact personalized medicine and precision therapeutics. Continued interdisciplinary collaboration, along with advancements in manufacturing and regulatory frameworks, will pave the way for the clinical success of nanoparticle-based treatments, ultimately improving patient outcomes and advancing the field of nanomedicine.

REFERENCES

- Ahmad, Z., Shah, A., Siddiq, M., & Kraatz, H. B. (2017). Polymeric micelles as drug delivery vehicles. RSC Advances, 7(15), 19007-19025.
- Albanese, A., Tang, P. S., & Chan, W. C. (2012). The effect of nanoparticle size, shape, and surface chemistry on biological systems. *Annual Review of Biomedical Engineering*, 14, 1-16.
- Allen, T. M., & Cullis, P. R. (2013). Liposomal drug delivery systems: From concept to clinical applications. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 65(1), 36-48. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addr.2012.09.037
- Anselmo, A. C., & Mitragotri, S. (2014). An overview of clinical and commercial impact of drug delivery systems. *Journal of Controlled Release*, 190, 15-28.
- Arruebo, M., Fernandez-Pacheco, R., Ibarra, M. R., & Santamaria, J. (2007). Magnetic nanoparticles for drug delivery. *Nano Today*, 2(3), 22-32.
- Bachmann, M. F., & Jennings, G. T. (2010). Vaccine delivery: A matter of size, geometry, kinetics and molecular patterns. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, 10(11), 787-796.
- Bae, Y. H., & Park, K. (2011). Targeted drug delivery to tumors: Myths, reality, and possibility. *Journal of Controlled Release*, 153(3), 198-205.
- Bae, Y., Kataoka, K., & Nam, K. (2013). Multifunctional pH-sensitive micelles for efficient drug delivery to acidic environments. *Journal of Controlled Release*, 172(3), 724-730. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.jconrel.2013.07.002
- Bajpai, S. K., Bajpai, M., & Chatterji, S. (2020). Lyophilization and stability of biotherapeutic nanoparticles. Drug Development

and Industrial Pharmacy, 46(10), 1716-1723.

Barenholz, Y. (2012). Doxil®—The first FDA-approved nano-drug: Lessons learned. Journal of Controlled Release, 160(2), 117-134.

- Barua, S., & Mitragotri, S. (2014). Challenges associated with penetration of nanoparticles across cell membranes and nanoparticle-cell interactions. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 77, 91-106.
- Bazak, R., Houri, M., Achy, S. E., Hussein, W., & Refaat, T. (2015). Passive targeting of nanoparticles to cancer: A comprehensive review of the literature. *Molecular and Clinical Oncology*, 2(6), 904-908.
- Bhavsar, M. D., & Amiji, M. M. (2020). Nanoparticulate drug delivery systems: applications in cancer treatment. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, 109(1), 33-42.
- Blanco, E., Shen, H., & Ferrari, M. (2015). Principles of nanoparticle design for overcoming biological barriers to drug delivery. *Nature Biotechnology*, 33(9), 941-951.
- Bozzuto, G., & Molinari, A. (2015). Liposomes as nanomedical devices. International Journal of Nanomedicine, 10, 975.
- Brigger, I., Dubernet, C., & Couvreur, P. (2002). Nanoparticles in cancer therapy and diagnosis. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 54(5), 631-651.
- Chauhan, A., & Jain, N. (2013). Nanotechnology-based co-delivery strategies for synergistic cancer treatment. Nanomedicine, 8(5), 630-641.
- Chen, H., Zhang, W., Zhu, G., Xie, J., & Chen, X. (2011). Rethinking cancer nanotheranostics. *Nature Reviews Materials*, 8(5), 630-641.
- Cheng, H., Zhang, Y., & Zhong, Z. (2021). Tailored nanoparticles for personalized cancer therapy. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 168, 26-38.
- Danhier, F., Ansorena, E., Silva, J. M., Coco, R., Le Breton, A., & Préat, V. (2012). PLGA-based nanoparticles: An overview of biomedical applications. *Journal of Controlled Release*, 161(2), 505-522.
- Ekambaram, P., Sathali, A. H., & Priyanka, K. (2012). Solid lipid nanoparticles: A review. Scientific Reviews and Chemical Communications, 2(1), 80-102.
- Elsabahy, M., & Wooley, K. L. (2012). Design of polymeric nanoparticles for biomedical delivery applications. *Chemical Society Reviews*, 41(7), 2545-2561.
- Ferrari, M. (2005). Cancer nanotechnology: Opportunities and challenges. Nature Reviews Cancer, 5(3), 161-171.
- Gao, L., Zhang, D., Chen, M., & Zheng, T. (2011). Nanocrystal technology for improving bioavailability of poorly soluble drugs: A minireview. Journal of Drug Delivery Science and Technology, 21(3), 195-202.
- Gindy, M. E., & Prud'homme, R. K. (2009). Multifunctional nanoparticles for imaging, delivery and targeting in cancer therapy. *Expert Opinion on Drug Delivery*, 6(8), 865-878. https://doi. org/10.1517/17425240903174954
- Gupta, R., Xie, H., & Narayanan, N. (2019). Advances in nanoparticlebased drug delivery systems. *Journal of Controlled Release*, 304, 204-222. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jconrel.2019.05.040
- He, L., Mullarkey, C. E., & Duty, J. A. (2018). Nanoparticle vaccines against infectious diseases. Frontiers in Immunology, 9, 2606.
- Hildebrandt, B., Wust, P., Ahlers, O., Dieing, A., Sreenivasa, G., Rau, B., & Riess, H. (2010). The cellular and molecular basis of hyperthermia. *Critical Reviews in Oncology/Hematology*, 43(1), 33-56.
- Hou, X., Zaks, T., Langer, R., & Dong, Y. (2021). Lipid nanoparticles for mRNA delivery. *Nature Reviews Materials*, 6(12), 1078-1094.
- Hunter, A. C., & Moghimi, S. M. (2010). Therapeutic and diagnostic applications of poly(ethylene glycol)-coated polymers and nanoparticles. *Nature Reviews Drug Discovery*, 9(8), 615-628.
- Ishida, T., & Kiwada, H. (2008). Accelerated blood clearance (ABC) phenomenon upon repeated injection of PEGylated liposomes. International Journal of Pharmaceutics, 354(1-2), 56-62.
- Jain, K. K. (2008). The role of nanobiotechnology in drug discovery. Drug Discovery Today, 13(21-22), 982-989.
- Jokerst, J. V., Lobovkina, T., Zare, R. N., & Gambhir, S. S. (2011). Nanoparticle PEGylation for imaging and therapy. *Nanomedicine*, 6(4), 715-728.
- Junghanns, J. U. A. H., & Müller, R. H. (2008). Nanocrystal technology,

drug delivery and clinical applications. International Journal of Nanomedicine, 3(3), 295.

- Karuna, R., & Bellare, J. R. (2019). Machine learning applications in nanoparticle formulation. Nanotechnology Reviews, 8(1), 223-235
- Karve, S., & Werner, M. E. (2017). PEGylation of cancer drugs: the road to success? Journal of Controlled Release, 263, 1-13.
- Khalil, I. A., Kogure, K., Akita, H., & Harashima, H. (2020). Uptake pathways and subsequent intracellular trafficking in nonviral gene delivery. Pharmaceutical Research, 27(5), 870-882.
- Koo, H., Huh, M. S., Sun, I. C., Yuk, S. H., Choi, K., Kim, K., & Kwon, I. C. (2012). Nanoparticles in targeted drug delivery and gene therapy. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 64(1), 37-48.
- Kulkarni, J. A., Darjuan, M. M., & Cullis, P. R. (2018). Lipid nanoparticles for RNA delivery. Chemical Reviews, 118(24), 11415-11447.
- Kumar, R., Singh, S., & Meena, J. (2015). Polymeric nanoparticle based cancer therapy: An overview. Journal of Drug Delivery and Therapeutics, 5(5), 6-9.
- Langer, R., & Peppas, N. A. (2016). Advances in biomaterials, drug delivery, and bionanotechnology. AIChE Journal, 62(5), 1302-1310.
- Li, Y., Wu, Y., Zhu, W., Jiang, X., & Shu, Y. (2016). Dendrimer-based drug delivery systems: A review of recent developments. Journal of Drug Targeting, 24(7), 519-532.
- Lim, S. H., Ng, S. K., & Tan, L. S. (2020). 3D printing in drug delivery. Drug Discovery Today, 25(4), 666-674.
- Liu, X., Yang, S., Xu, Y., & Cao, A. (2020). Hybrid nanoparticles for theranostic applications. Nano Research, 13(8), 2038-2061.
- Maeda, H., Wu, J., Sawa, T., Matsumura, Y., & Hori, K. (2013). Tumor vascular permeability and the EPR effect in macromolecular therapeutics: A review. Journal of Controlled Release, 65(1-2), 271-284.
- Malam, Y., Loizidou, M., & Seifalian, A. M. (2009). Liposomes and nanoparticles: nanosized vehicles for drug delivery in cancer. Trends in Pharmacological Sciences, 30(11), 592-599.
- Malik, N., Evagorou, E. G., & Duncan, R. (2000). Dendrimer-platinate: A novel approach to cancer chemotherapy. Anti-Cancer Drugs, 11(10), 767-776.
- Matsumura, Y., & Maeda, H. (1986). A new concept for macromolecular therapeutics in cancer chemotherapy: Mechanism of tumoritropic accumulation of proteins and the antitumor agent SMANCS. Cancer Research, 46(12 Part 1), 6387-6392.
- Moreno-Bautista, G., Tam, K. C., & Jenkins, M. J. (2015). Hydrogels for the delivery of therapeutic agents in diabetic wound healing. Biomaterials, 56, 12-28.
- Moschwitzer, J. (2013). Drug nanocrystals in the commercial pharmaceutical development process. International Journal of Pharmaceutics, 453(1), 142-156.
- Müller, R. H., Radtke, M., & Wissing, S. A. (2011). Nanostructured lipid matrices for improved micro-encapsulation of drugs. Journal of Microencapsulation, 14(2), 169-184.
- Muwaffak, Z., Riahi, S., Karavasili, C., & Fatouros, D. G. (2017). 3D-printed nanoparticles for personalized therapy. European Journal of Pharmaceutics and Biopharmaceutics, 119, 348-355.
- Oh, J. K., Drumright, R., Siegwart, D. J., & Matyjaszewski, K. (2008). The development of nanogels for drug delivery. Progress in Polymer Science, 33(4), 448-477.
- Owens, D. E., & Peppas, N. A. (2006). Opsonization, biodistribution, and pharmacokinetics of polymeric nanoparticles. International Journal of Pharmaceutics, 307(1), 93-102.
- Ozcan, G., Eskiizmir, G., & Kocatürk, B. (2022). Lipid nanoparticles in gene delivery: perspectives in personalized medicine. Journal of Gene Medicine, 24(4), e3362.
- Park, K., & Kim, Y. (2016). Nanotechnology in drug delivery systems. Nanomedicine, 12(6), 753-756.
- Patra, J. K., Das, G., Fraceto, L. F., Campos, E. V., Rodriguez-Torres, M. d. P., Acosta-Torres, L. S., ... & Shin, H. S. (2018). Nano based drug delivery systems: Recent developments and future prospects. Journal of Nanobiotechnology, 16(1), 71. https://doi.org/10.1186/ s12951-018-0392-8

- Patri, A. K., Majoros, I. J., & Baker Jr, J. R. (2005). Dendritic polymer macromolecular carriers for drug delivery. Current Opinion in Chemical Biology, 6(4), 466-471.
- Peer, D., Karp, J. M., Hong, S., Farokhzad, O. C., Margalit, R., & Langer, R. (2007). Nanocarriers as an emerging platform for cancer therapy. Nature Nanotechnology, 2(12), 751-760.
- Perrie, Y., Mohammed, A. R., & Kirby, D. J. (2017). Vaccine adjuvant systems: Enhancing the efficacy of sub-unit protein antigens. Vaccine, 35(6), 821-831.
- Rao, J. P., & Geckeler, K. E. (2011). Polymer nanoparticles: Preparation techniques and size-control parameters. Progress in Polymer Science, 36(7), 887-913.
- Rapoport, N. (2007). Physical stimuli-responsive polymeric micelles for anti-cancer drug delivery. Progress in Polymer Science, 32(9), 962-990.
- Rosenholm, J. M., Zhang, Y., Sun, W., & Gu, H. (2019). Protein-stabilized nanoparticles for drug delivery. Nanomedicine: Nanotechnology, Biology and Medicine, 20, 101-109.
- Sahoo, S. K., Parveen, S., & Panda, J. J. (2007). The present and future of nanotechnology in human health care. Nanomedicine: Nanotechnology, Biology and Medicine, 3(1), 20-31.
- Saraiva, C., Praca, C., Ferreira, R., Santos, T., Ferreira, L., & Bernardino, L. (2016). Nanoparticle-mediated brain drug delivery: overcoming blood-brain barrier. Nanomedicine: Nanotechnology, Biology and Medicine, 12(4), 1077-1086.
- Schaeublin, N. M., Braydich-Stolle, L. K., Schrand, A. M., Miller, J. M., Hutchison, J., Schlager, J. J., & Hussain, S. M. (2014). Surface charge of gold nanoparticles mediates mechanism of toxicity. Nanoscale, 6(10), 4009-4016.
- Schmaljohann, D. (2006). Thermo- and pH-responsive polymers in drug delivery. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 58(15), 1655-1670.
- Schoenmaker, L., Witzigmann, D., Kulkarni, J. A., Verbeke, R., Kersten, G., & Jiskoot, W. (2021). mRNA-lipid nanoparticle COVID-19 vaccines: Structure and stability. International Journal of Pharmaceutics, 601, 120586.
- Shi, J., Kantoff, P. W., Wooster, R., & Farokhzad, O. C. (2017). Cancer nanomedicine: progress, challenges and opportunities. Nature Reviews Cancer, 17(1), 20-37.
- Sinha, R., Kim, G. J., Nie, S., & Shin, D. M. (2006). Nanotechnology in cancer therapeutics: Bioconjugated nanoparticles for drug delivery. Molecular Cancer Therapeutics, 5(8), 1909-1917.
- Sultana, S., Khan, M. R., Kumar, M., & Kumar, S. (2013). Hyaluronic acid as a drug delivery and targeting agent. International Journal of Biological Macromolecules, 62, 170-181.
- Sun, C., Lee, J. S., & Zhang, M. (2014). Magnetic nanoparticles in MR imaging and drug delivery. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 60(11), 1252-1265.
- Ta, H. T., Truong, N. P., & Whittaker, M. R. (2020). Injectable nanoparticles for personalized medicine in cardiovascular diseases. Advanced Science, 7(3), 1902412.
- Tiera, M. J., Shi, Q., & Wang, H. (2013). Chitosan-based nanoparticles for plasmid DNA delivery: Optimizing formulation variables. Journal of Controlled Release, 132(3), e102.
- Torchilin, V. P. (2005). Recent advances with liposomes as pharmaceutical carriers. Nature Reviews Drug Discovery, 4(2), 145-160.
- Torchilin, V. P. (2007). Multifunctional nanocarriers. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 58(14), 1532-1555. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. addr.2006.09.009
- Torchilin, V. P. (2014). Multifunctional and stimuli-sensitive pharmaceutical nanocarriers. European Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences, 45(4), 178-194.
- Ventola, C. L. (2017). Progress in nanomedicine: Approved and investigational nanodrugs. Pharmacy and Therapeutics, 42(12), 742.
- Wang, H., Li, Y., & Zhang, X. (2010). Nanocarriers for siRNA delivery in cancer therapy. Journal of Controlled Release, 148(1), 135-146.
- Xia, Y., Yin, X., Burke, N. A., & Stöver, H. D. (2013). Nano-sized smart materials based on responsive polymeric nanoparticles. Nano Today, 8(5), 580-602.
- Yavuz, M. S., Cheng, Y., Chen, J., Cobley, C. M., Zhang, Q., Rycenga, M., ... &

210



Xia, Y. (2009). Gold nanocages covered by smart polymers for controlled release with near-infrared light. *Nature Materials*, *8*(12), 935-939.

- Yin, H., Song, C. Q., & Dorkin, R. (2017). Therapeutic applications of CRISPR-Cas9 in gene editing using nanoparticles. Science Translational Medicine, 9(394), eaaf8921.
- Zalipsky, S. (1995). Functionalized polyethylene glycols for preparation of biologically relevant conjugates. *Bioconjugate Chemistry*, 6(2), 150-165.
- Zhang, L., Gu, F. X., Chan, J. M., Wang, A. Z., Langer, R., & Farokhzad, O. C. (2021). Nanoparticles in medicine: a focus on treating cancer. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 108, 93-113.
- Zhang, X., Wang, N., & Xu, F. (2018). Application of nanoparticles in overcoming drug resistance in cancer therapy. *BioMed Research International, 2018.*

- Zhang, X., Zhang, T., & Li, H. (2012). Stimulus-responsive polymeric nanoparticles for cancer therapy. *Journal of Controlled Release*, 160(2), 331-342.
- Zhang, Y., Wang, L., & Guo, C. (2016). Biocompatibility and toxicity of nanoparticles: Effects on organisms and environmental risks. *Environmental Chemistry Letters*, 14(1), 1-7.
- Zhao, X., Sun, Y., & Ding, W. (2014). Nanoparticle-based drug delivery for rheumatoid arthritis treatment. *Materials Science and Engineering: C*, 39, 273-280.
- Zhu, J., Feng, J., Yin, Z., & Zheng, J. (2014). Surface modification of nanoparticles and its potential application in cancer gene therapy. Journal of Biomedical Nanotechnology, 10(9), 2767-2780.
- Zhu, X., Wang, T., & Xu, Y. (2021). Artificial intelligence and molecular simulations in nanoparticle design. *Journal of Controlled Release*, 335, 148-160.

HOW TO CITE THIS ARTICLE: Maurya, A., Tyagi, S. Recent Advances in Nanoparticle-Based Drug Delivery Systems. J. of Drug Disc. and Health Sci. 2024;1(4):201-211. DOI: 10.21590/jddhs.01.04.03