



## Emerging Trends in Pharmaceutical Nanotechnology: Controlled, Targeted, and Sustained Drug Release Systems for Enhanced Therapeutic Efficacy and Clinical Translation

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### Abstract

Pharmaceutical nanotechnology has revolutionized drug delivery by enabling precise control over pharmacokinetics, biodistribution, and therapeutic outcomes. Conventional drug formulations face significant limitations including poor bioavailability, non-specific distribution, rapid clearance, and systemic toxicity. Nanotechnology-based drug delivery systems address these challenges through engineered nanocarriers that provide controlled release kinetics, targeted delivery to specific tissues or cells, and sustained therapeutic concentrations. This review examines emerging trends in pharmaceutical nanotechnology focusing on polymeric nanoparticles, lipid-based systems, and novel hybrid platforms designed for controlled, targeted, and sustained drug release applications. Key mechanisms governing drug release kinetics, including diffusion-controlled, swelling-controlled, and stimuli-responsive release, are critically analyzed. Targeting strategies encompassing passive accumulation via enhanced permeability and retention effects, active ligand-mediated targeting, and stimuli-responsive delivery are evaluated for their clinical relevance. Major therapeutic applications in oncology, infectious diseases, and chronic disorders demonstrate the translational potential of these platforms. Despite significant advances, challenges related to formulation complexity, scalability, reproducibility, regulatory approval, and long-term safety remain substantial barriers to clinical translation. Future research directions emphasize personalized nanomedicine, combination therapies, and advanced characterization techniques to bridge the gap between laboratory innovation and clinical implementation. This review provides a comprehensive analysis of current pharmaceutical nanotechnology trends essential for next-generation drug delivery systems.

**Keywords:** Pharmaceutical nanotechnology; Controlled drug release; Targeted delivery; Sustained release; Nanocarriers; Nanomedicine

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### Introduction

The field of pharmaceutical nanotechnology has witnessed exponential growth over the past two decades, fundamentally transforming drug delivery science and therapeutic strategies <sup>[1,2]</sup>. Conventional pharmaceutical formulations frequently exhibit suboptimal pharmacokinetic profiles characterized by rapid elimination, extensive first-pass metabolism, poor aqueous solubility, and inability to cross biological barriers <sup>[3]</sup>. These limitations result in reduced therapeutic efficacy, increased dosing frequency, poor patient compliance, and elevated risk of adverse effects <sup>[4]</sup>. Nanotechnology-based drug delivery systems offer solutions through precise engineering of nanocarriers with dimensions typically ranging from 1 to 1000 nanometers <sup>[5]</sup>. Controlled drug release systems enable predetermined release rates independent of environmental conditions, providing predictable plasma concentration-time profiles and minimizing fluctuations between toxic and subtherapeutic levels <sup>[6]</sup>. Targeted delivery systems enhance drug accumulation at specific pathological sites while reducing exposure to healthy

tissues, thereby improving therapeutic indices <sup>[7]</sup>. Sustained release formulations maintain therapeutic drug concentrations over extended periods, reducing dosing frequency and enhancing patient adherence <sup>[8]</sup>.

The integration of nanotechnology with pharmaceutical sciences has yielded diverse nanocarrier platforms including polymeric nanoparticles, liposomes, solid lipid nanoparticles, dendrimers, micelles, and inorganic nanoparticles <sup>[9, 10]</sup>. These systems can be functionalized with targeting ligands, equipped with stimuli-responsive components, and engineered for specific release kinetics <sup>[11]</sup>. Recent advances in materials science, surface chemistry, and molecular biology have enabled development of multifunctional nanocarriers capable of simultaneous diagnostic and therapeutic applications <sup>[12]</sup>.

This review critically examines emerging trends in pharmaceutical nanotechnology with specific focus on controlled, targeted, and sustained drug release applications. The scope encompasses major nanocarrier platforms, release mechanisms, targeting strategies, therapeutic applications, and translational challenges. Understanding these aspects is essential for rational design of clinically viable nanomedicines.

## 2. Nanocarrier-Based Drug Delivery Systems

### 2.1. Polymeric Nanoparticles

Polymeric nanoparticles represent versatile drug delivery platforms fabricated from biocompatible and biodegradable polymers <sup>[13]</sup>. Poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA) remains the most extensively investigated polymer due to FDA approval, tunable degradation kinetics, and compatibility with diverse therapeutic agents <sup>[14]</sup>. PLGA nanoparticles enable controlled release through polymer erosion and drug diffusion mechanisms, with release profiles modulated by polymer molecular weight, lactide-to-glycolide ratio, and particle morphology <sup>[15]</sup>.

Other biodegradable polymers including polycaprolactone, chitosan, and alginate offer distinct advantages for specific applications. Chitosan nanoparticles exhibit mucoadhesive properties facilitating oral and nasal drug delivery, while their cationic nature enables electrostatic interactions with negatively charged cell membranes <sup>[16]</sup>. Stimuli-responsive polymers such as poly(N-isopropylacrylamide) undergo conformational changes in response to temperature, pH, or enzymatic activity, enabling triggered drug release at pathological sites <sup>[17]</sup>.

Surface modification with polyethylene glycol (PEGylation) enhances nanoparticle circulation time by reducing opsonization and reticuloendothelial system uptake <sup>[18]</sup>. However, accelerated blood clearance following repeated administration represents a significant limitation requiring alternative stealth coatings <sup>[19]</sup>.

### 2.2. Lipid-Based Nanocarriers

Liposomes constitute spherical vesicles with aqueous cores enclosed by lipid bilayers, capable of encapsulating both hydrophilic and hydrophobic drugs <sup>[20]</sup>. Conventional liposomes exhibit rapid clearance, while PEGylated liposomes (Stealth liposomes) demonstrate prolonged circulation and preferential accumulation in tumors via enhanced permeability and retention effects <sup>[21]</sup>. Doxil, a PEGylated liposomal doxorubicin formulation, exemplifies successful clinical translation for cancer therapy <sup>[22]</sup>.

Solid lipid nanoparticles (SLNs) and nanostructured lipid

carriers (NLCs) combine advantages of polymeric nanoparticles and emulsions, offering high drug loading, protection from degradation, and controlled release <sup>[23]</sup>. These systems utilize physiological lipids ensuring excellent biocompatibility and scalability through established emulsification techniques <sup>[24]</sup>. However, drug expulsion during storage due to lipid crystallization remains a formulation challenge <sup>[25]</sup>.

Lipid-polymer hybrid nanoparticles integrate polymeric cores with lipid shells, synergistically combining mechanical stability, controlled release, and biocompatibility <sup>[26]</sup>. These hybrid systems demonstrate superior performance compared to individual platforms for applications requiring both sustained release and targeting capabilities.

### 2.3. Emerging Nanocarrier Platforms

Inorganic nanoparticles including mesoporous silica, gold nanoparticles, and quantum dots offer unique physicochemical properties for drug delivery and theranostic applications <sup>[27]</sup>. Mesoporous silica nanoparticles provide high surface area, tunable pore size, and facile surface functionalization, enabling high drug loading and stimuli-responsive release through gated mechanisms <sup>[28]</sup>.

Dendrimers are monodisperse, highly branched macromolecules with well-defined architecture enabling precise drug loading through encapsulation or conjugation <sup>[29]</sup>. Their multivalent surface permits attachment of multiple targeting ligands and therapeutic agents, facilitating combination therapy approaches.

Polymeric micelles self-assemble from amphiphilic block copolymers, forming core-shell structures that solubilize hydrophobic drugs in their hydrophobic cores <sup>[30]</sup>. Their small size (10-100 nm) facilitates tissue penetration, while their dynamic nature enables stimuli-responsive disassembly and drug release.

summarizes major nanocarrier systems and their pharmaceutical applications.

## 3. Mechanisms of Controlled, Targeted, and Sustained Drug Release

### 3.1. Controlled Release Kinetics

Controlled drug release from nanocarriers occurs through distinct mechanisms including diffusion, swelling, erosion, and stimuli-triggered release <sup>[6]</sup>. Diffusion-controlled systems release drugs through pores or matrices following Fick's laws, with release rates governed by drug diffusivity, particle size, and porosity. Reservoir systems with polymer membranes provide zero-order release kinetics ideal for maintaining constant plasma concentrations.

Swelling-controlled release involves polymer hydration and expansion, increasing drug diffusion pathways. pH-responsive polymers containing ionizable groups swell in specific pH environments, enabling site-specific release in the acidic tumor microenvironment or gastrointestinal segments.

Erosion-controlled systems release drugs as polymer degrades through hydrolysis or enzymatic degradation. PLGA nanoparticles exemplify this mechanism, with release rates modulated by polymer composition and molecular weight. Surface erosion provides constant release rates, while bulk erosion yields time-dependent release profiles.

Stimuli-responsive systems exploit pathological or external triggers including pH, temperature, enzymes, redox potential, light, ultrasound, and magnetic fields. Tumor-targeting

nanocarriers utilize acidic pH and elevated glutathione levels in cancer cells for triggered drug release, minimizing systemic exposure.

### 3.2. Targeting Strategies

Passive targeting leverages enhanced permeability and retention effects in solid tumors, where defective vasculature and impaired lymphatic drainage promote nanoparticle accumulation. Optimal nanoparticle size (50-200 nm) and prolonged circulation through PEGylation maximize passive targeting efficiency. However, heterogeneous EPR effects across tumor types and patients limit clinical predictability.

Active targeting employs surface-conjugated ligands recognizing overexpressed receptors on target cells. Antibodies, peptides, aptamers, and small molecules facilitate receptor-mediated endocytosis, enhancing cellular uptake and therapeutic efficacy. Folate-targeted nanoparticles demonstrate enhanced accumulation in folate receptor-overexpressing cancers, while transferrin-conjugated systems cross the blood-brain barrier.

Dual-targeting strategies combining passive accumulation with active targeting provide synergistic benefits, maximizing tumor penetration and cellular internalization. Multistage targeting systems employ size-switchable or charge-reversible nanoparticles that adapt to biological barriers, optimizing biodistribution and cellular uptake.

### 3.3. Sustained Drug Delivery Approaches

Sustained release formulations maintain therapeutic concentrations over extended periods through controlled degradation, diffusion barriers, or reservoir designs. Injectable depot formulations utilizing PLGA microparticles or in situ forming gels provide sustained release for weeks to months, eliminating frequent dosing.

Implantable nanocarrier systems offer localized, sustained delivery for chronic conditions. Biodegradable implants containing drug-loaded nanoparticles release therapeutic agents directly at disease sites, maximizing local concentrations while minimizing systemic exposure.

Circulating nanocarrier depots maintain therapeutic plasma levels through prolonged systemic circulation and gradual drug release. PEGylated liposomes and protein-based nanoparticles exemplify this approach, providing sustained therapeutic effects following single administration.

Figure 2 illustrates mechanisms governing controlled and sustained drug release from nanocarriers.

## 4. Therapeutic Applications

### 4.1. Cancer Therapy

Nanomedicine has profoundly impacted oncology through improved drug delivery to solid tumors. Abraxane (albumin-bound paclitaxel nanoparticles) and Doxil exemplify clinically approved formulations demonstrating reduced cardiotoxicity and enhanced antitumor efficacy compared to conventional formulations.

Combination chemotherapy delivered through nanocarriers enables synergistic drug ratios, simultaneous delivery, and coordinated pharmacokinetics. Co-encapsulation of doxorubicin and paclitaxel in liposomes maintains optimal drug ratios throughout circulation, enhancing therapeutic outcomes while minimizing resistance development.

Stimuli-responsive nanocarriers exploiting tumor microenvironment characteristics enable precision drug release. pH-sensitive liposomes destabilize in acidic

endosomes, facilitating cytosolic drug delivery and overcoming multidrug resistance. Enzyme-responsive systems utilize matrix metalloproteinases or cathepsins overexpressed in tumors for targeted drug release.

Immunotherapy delivery through nanocarriers represents emerging frontiers in cancer treatment. Nanoparticles delivering checkpoint inhibitors, immunostimulatory agents, or tumor antigens enhance immune responses while reducing systemic immunotoxicity.

### 4.2. Infectious and Chronic Diseases

Antimicrobial nanomedicine addresses challenges of bacterial infections including biofilms, intracellular pathogens, and antibiotic resistance. Liposomal formulations of aminoglycosides, amphotericin B, and other antibiotics enhance efficacy against resistant organisms while reducing nephrotoxicity and ototoxicity.

Tuberculosis therapy benefits from nanocarrier-mediated delivery enabling reduced dosing frequency, enhanced bioavailability, and improved patient compliance. Targeted delivery to macrophages containing intracellular *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* improves therapeutic outcomes. Chronic inflammatory diseases including rheumatoid arthritis benefit from sustained anti-inflammatory drug delivery through nanocarriers. Targeting inflamed joints through surface modification with disease-specific ligands enhances therapeutic efficacy while minimizing systemic immunosuppression.

Neurological disorders represent challenging targets due to blood-brain barrier impermeability. Surface-modified nanoparticles exploiting receptor-mediated transcytosis or adsorptive-mediated transcytosis enable drug delivery to the central nervous system for conditions including Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, and brain tumors.

Figure 3 depicts targeting strategies in nanotechnology-based drug delivery.

## 5. Challenges and Future Perspectives

### 5.1. Formulation and Stability Challenges

Despite significant advances, pharmaceutical nanotechnology faces substantial formulation challenges affecting clinical translation. Physical and chemical instability during storage, including particle aggregation, drug leakage, and polymer degradation, compromise therapeutic efficacy and safety. Lyophilization with cryoprotectants improves long-term stability but adds manufacturing complexity and cost.

Reproducibility and batch-to-batch variation in nanoparticle synthesis represent critical quality control challenges. Scaling from laboratory to commercial production requires extensive process optimization and sophisticated analytical characterization to ensure consistent physicochemical properties and biological performance.

Sterilization of nanoformulations poses challenges as conventional methods including autoclaving and gamma irradiation may alter nanoparticle properties. Aseptic processing or sterile filtration represent alternatives but increase manufacturing costs and complexity.

## 5.2. Scale-Up, Regulatory, and Clinical Translation Barriers

Translation from bench to bedside encounters numerous obstacles including regulatory requirements, manufacturing challenges, and clinical trial design complexities. Regulatory agencies require comprehensive characterization of nanoparticle physicochemical properties, drug release profiles, stability, and toxicology.

Manufacturing scalability represents a major bottleneck, as laboratory techniques often prove incompatible with industrial-scale production. Continuous manufacturing and microfluidic approaches offer potential solutions but require substantial investment and process validation.

Clinical trial design for nanomedicines requires consideration of unique pharmacokinetic and biodistribution profiles. Patient stratification based on enhanced permeability and retention status may improve clinical outcomes but adds complexity to trial design.

Long-term safety concerns including chronic toxicity, immunogenicity, and biodistribution to non-target organs require extensive evaluation. Biodegradable materials minimize accumulation risks, but degradation products require thorough toxicological assessment.

Table 2 presents advantages, limitations, and clinical translation challenges of nanocarriers.

## 6. Figures

## 5.3. Future Research Directions

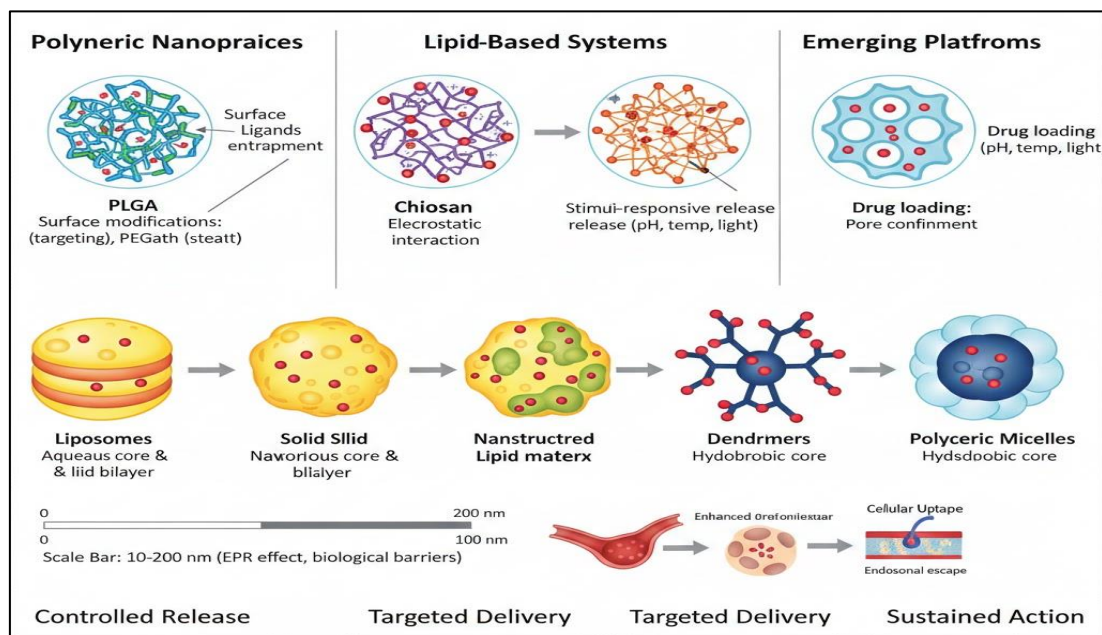
Personalized nanomedicine represents the next frontier, tailoring nanocarrier properties to individual patient characteristics including genetic profiles, disease stage, and biomarker expression. Companion diagnostics identifying patients likely to benefit from specific nanomedicines could improve clinical success rates.

Artificial intelligence and machine learning applications in nanocarrier design enable prediction of optimal formulation parameters, targeting strategies, and release kinetics. High-throughput screening combined with computational modeling accelerates identification of lead formulations.

Biomimetic nanocarriers utilizing cell membrane coatings or extracellular vesicles combine synthetic nanoparticle engineering with natural biological components. These hybrid systems exhibit enhanced biocompatibility, reduced immunogenicity, and intrinsic targeting capabilities.

Advanced characterization techniques including cryo-electron microscopy, single-particle tracking, and quantitative biodistribution analysis provide deeper insights into nanoparticle behavior in biological systems. Real-time monitoring of nanocarrier trafficking and drug release *in vivo* guides rational formulation design.

Figure 4 illustrates the translational pathway of nanocarrier-based drug delivery from laboratory to clinic.



**Fig 1:** Overview of pharmaceutical nanocarriers for controlled, targeted, and sustained drug delivery

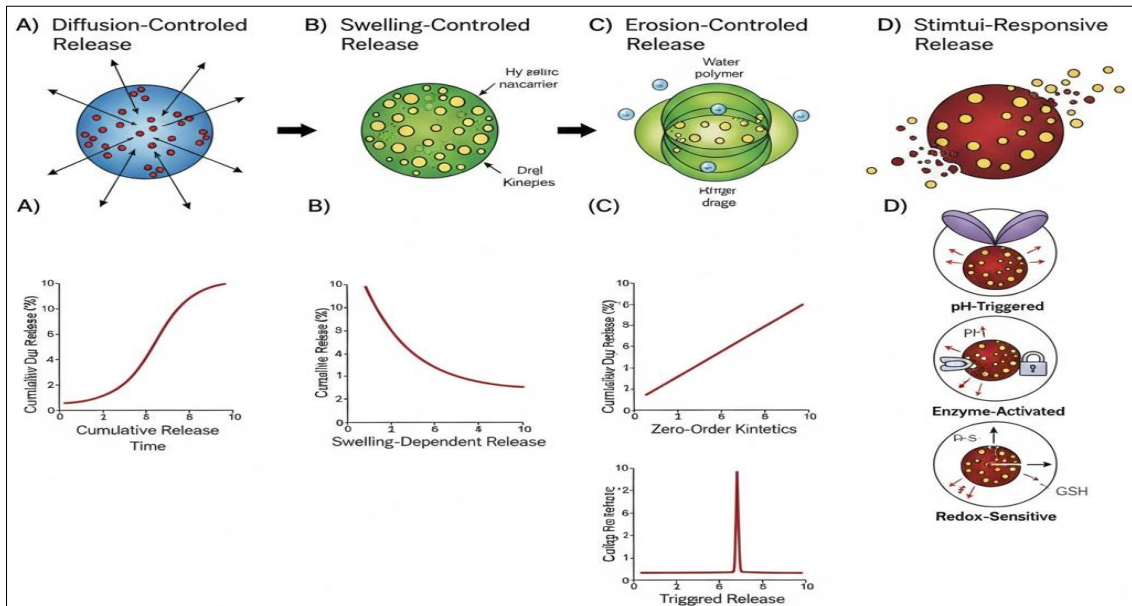


Fig 2: Mechanisms governing controlled and sustained drug release from nanocarriers

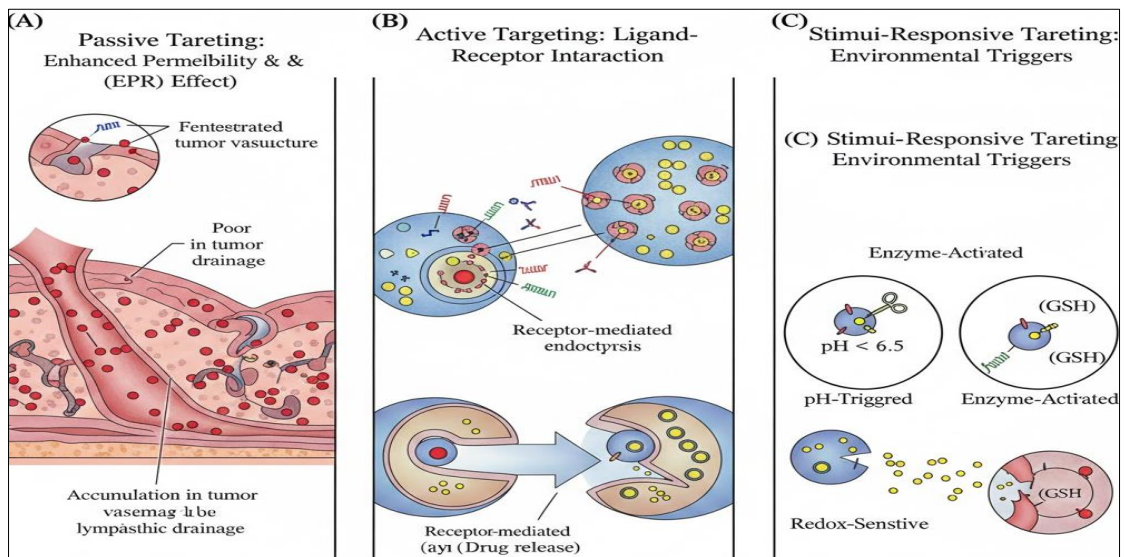


Fig 3: Targeting strategies in nanotechnology-based drug delivery (passive, active, and stimuli-responsive)

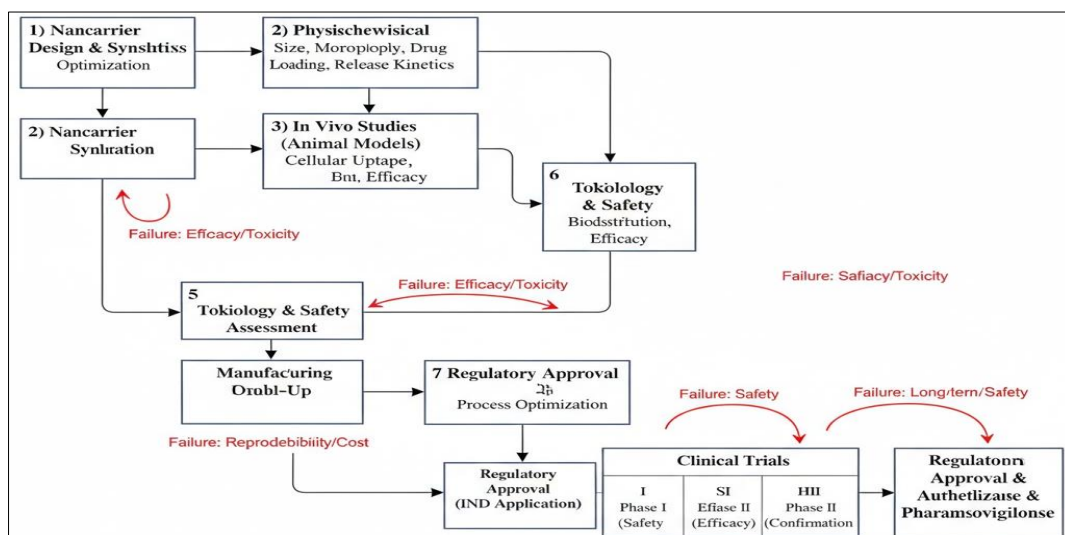


Fig 4: Translational pathway of nanocarrier-based drug delivery from lab to clinic

## 7. Tables

**Table 1:** Major nanocarrier systems and their pharmaceutical applications

Nanocarrier Type	Size Range (nm)	Key Advantages	Representative Applications	Clinical Examples
PLGA nanoparticles	50-300	Biodegradable, FDA-approved, tunable release	Cancer chemotherapy, vaccine delivery, protein therapeutics	Eligard (leuprolide acetate)
Liposomes	50-500	Biocompatible, versatile drug loading, established manufacturing	Cancer therapy, antifungal delivery, vaccine adjuvants	Doxil (doxorubicin), AmBisome (amphotericin B)
Solid lipid nanoparticles	50-200	Physiological lipids, high stability, controlled release	Oral drug delivery, cosmetics, gene therapy	Multiple investigational products
Polymeric micelles	10-100	Small size, tumor penetration, solubilize hydrophobic drugs	Cancer chemotherapy, anti-inflammatory therapy	Genexol-PM (paclitaxel)
Albumin nanoparticles	100-150	Endogenous protein, receptor-mediated targeting, biodegradable	Cancer therapy, macrophage targeting	Abraxane (paclitaxel)
Dendrimers	5-20	Monodisperse, multivalent, precise drug loading	Gene delivery, diagnostic imaging, targeted therapy	Multiple Phase I/II trials
Mesoporous silica	50-300	High surface area, tunable pore size, stimuli-responsive gating	Cancer therapy, antimicrobial delivery	Investigational

**Table 2:** Advantages, limitations, and clinical translation challenges of nanocarriers

Aspect	Advantages	Limitations	Clinical Translation Challenges
Controlled Release	Predictable pharmacokinetics, reduced dosing frequency, maintained therapeutic window	Complex formulation design, potential burst release, limited control precision	Establishing <i>in vitro</i> - <i>in vivo</i> correlations, regulatory acceptance of release specifications
Targeted Delivery	Enhanced therapeutic index, reduced systemic toxicity, increased drug accumulation at disease sites	Variable enhanced permeability and retention effects, limited tumor penetration, ligand instability	Patient stratification requirements, companion diagnostic development, demonstrating clinical benefit
Sustained Release	Improved patient compliance, stable plasma concentrations, reduced administration burden	Risk of drug accumulation, delayed adverse reactions, complex pharmacokinetics	Long-term safety assessment, dose adjustment challenges, bioequivalence demonstration
Manufacturing	Potential for continuous production, established scale-up methods for some platforms	Batch-to-batch variability, high production costs, sterilization challenges	Good manufacturing practice compliance, analytical method validation, supply chain complexity
Regulatory	Established approval pathways for certain platforms, precedent from approved products	Extensive characterization requirements, lack of standardized guidelines, novel platform uncertainty	Demonstration of comparability, toxicological evaluation of components, post-approval commitments
Safety	Biodegradable materials available, reduced drug toxicity, targeted delivery minimizes off-target effects	Potential immunogenicity, long-term accumulation concerns, excipient toxicity	Comprehensive toxicology studies, immunogenicity assessment, patient monitoring requirements

## 8. Conclusion

Pharmaceutical nanotechnology has fundamentally transformed drug delivery through engineered nanocarriers providing controlled release kinetics, targeted delivery, and sustained therapeutic concentrations. Polymeric nanoparticles, lipid-based systems, and emerging hybrid platforms offer versatile solutions addressing limitations of conventional formulations. Mechanisms governing controlled release, including diffusion, erosion, swelling, and stimuli-responsive release, enable precise modulation of pharmacokinetic profiles. Targeting strategies encompassing passive accumulation, active ligand-mediated delivery, and stimuli-responsive systems enhance therapeutic indices by maximizing drug concentrations at pathological sites while minimizing systemic toxicity.

Clinical applications in oncology, infectious diseases, and chronic disorders demonstrate the transformative potential of nanomedicine, with several formulations achieving

regulatory approval and commercial success. However, significant challenges related to formulation stability, manufacturing scalability, regulatory compliance, and long-term safety must be addressed to fully realize the clinical potential of pharmaceutical nanotechnology.

Future research emphasizing personalized nanomedicine, biomimetic approaches, artificial intelligence-guided design, and advanced characterization techniques promises to bridge the gap between laboratory innovation and clinical implementation. Multidisciplinary collaboration among pharmaceutical scientists, clinicians, regulatory agencies, and industry stakeholders is essential for successful translation of next-generation nanomedicines. As the field continues evolving, pharmaceutical nanotechnology will play increasingly central roles in precision medicine, offering tailored therapeutic solutions for complex diseases resistant to conventional treatment

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