

CARRIERS FOR CANCER DRUG THERAPY**Ashwini Mahakal***

India.

Article Received on
28 March 2015,Revised on 20 April 2015,
Accepted on 12 May 2015***Correspondence for
Author
Ashwini Mahakal
India.****ABSTRACT**

Conventional chemotherapy drugs show lack of specificity, inducing reduced activity on the cancer treatment. They exhibit high toxicity and after a prolonged period of administration the cancer cells develop resistance (multiple drug resistance, MDR). This situation leads to increasing the side effects of drugs and affect the quality of the patients life. In order to overcome the above mentioned problems, the recent research community is focused primarily on developing drug delivery systems which respond in different stimulus, in the range of

nanometer. The scope of nanotechnology to develop target specific carriers to achieve higher therapeutic efficacy is gaining importance in the pharmaceutical and other industries. Specifically, the emergence of nanohybrid materials is posed to edge over chemotherapy and radiation therapy as cancer therapeutics. This is primarily because nanohybrid materials engage controlled production parameters in the making of engineered particles with specific size, shape, and other essential properties. It is widely expressed that these materials will significantly contribute to the next generation of medical care technology and pharmaceuticals in areas of disease diagnosis, disease prevention and many other treatment procedures. This review focuses on the currently used nanohybrid materials, polymeric nanoparticles and nanotubes, which show great potential as effective drug delivery systems for cancer therapy, as they can be grafted with cell-specific receptors and intracellular targeting molecules for the targeted delivery of therapeutics. Specifically, this article focuses on the current status, recent advancements, potentials and limitations of polymeric nanohybrids and functionalized carbon nanotubes as drug delivery carriers.

KEYWORDS: nanohybrid materials, polymeric nanoparticles and nanotubes.

INTRODUCTION^[1]

What Is Cancer?

Cancer refers to a group of illnesses that result from cells in the body growing abnormally. These cells divide and produce new cells in an uncontrolled way that can spread throughout the body and cause damage to essential organs. When cancer spreads to other parts of the body, this is called metastasis. Metastases can occur when cancer cells enter the bloodstream or lymph system. These systems circulate all over the body and allow the cells to travel. Tumors are masses (or lumps) that can develop as abnormal cells accumulate. Not all tumors are cancer. Benign (non-cancerous or nonmalignant) tumors do not spread to other parts of the body and are rarely life-threatening. There are four main types of cancer:

1. Carcinomas – cancers of the organs
2. Sarcomas – cancers of the muscles, bone, cartilage, and connective tissue
3. Lymphomas – cancers of the lymphatic system
4. Leukemias – cancers of the blood-making system

Cancer risk factors

- Tobacco use
- High fat diet and being overweight
- Excessive exposure to sunlight
- Drinking too much alcohol
- X-rays and other sources of radioactivity
- Geographic area
- Chemicals and other substances in the environment (carcinogens)
- Unsafe sexual practices (through acquiring certain infections, such as HIV or genital warts)
- Family members who have cancer (certain types of cancer are hereditary)

Common Symptoms of Cancer

It is important to know that these symptoms do not mean that the patient has cancer. Only a doctor can make a diagnosis.

Cancer symptoms

- Thickening or lump in the body
- Cough or hoarseness that does not go away

- Obvious change in a wart or mole
- Changes in bowel or bladder habits
- Unexplained bleeding or discharge
- Any sore that does not heal
- Unusual upset stomach or difficulty swallowing.

Diagnosing cancer

Doctors use various means to make a diagnosis:

- Physical examination
- Laboratory tests – such as blood and urine tests
- Imaging – x-ray, CT scan, and MRI are examples of imaging
- Biopsy.

Treatment for Cancer

The good news is that about half of all cancers diagnosed are now curable. Even with cancers that cannot be cured, symptoms are often greatly diminished by treatment. Treatment options, which depend on the stage and type of cancer, include:

- Surgery
- Radiation therapy
- Chemotherapy
- Biological therapy
- Hormone therapy.

CARRIERS USED IN CANCER

1.Oxygen carriers^[2-5]

The potential to improve local control and survival by hypoxia modification was demonstrated by a meta-analysis of 83 clinical trials³ and a number of therapeutic strategies have also been established to overcome tumor hypoxia by improving oxygen supply either by oxygen or carbogen breathing or by increasing the hemoglobin level and oxygen delivery.^{4,5} The use of artificial oxygen carriers represents a new approach to the problem of hypoxia. For socio-economic reasons the development of safe and effective synthetic oxygen carriers as an alternative to homologous red blood cell transfusion was an important issue in perioperative medicine during the last decades. Currently, two types of artificial oxygen carriers are experimentally and clinically investigated for their ability to

replace red blood cells and to ensure adequate tissue oxygenation in case of acute anemia or infarction: cell-free human or bovine hemoglobin solutions and synthetic perfluorocarbon emulsions.

Hemoglobin-based oxygen carriers and cancer therapy^[6-16]

Most recent progress in blood substitute development has been in the area of hemoglobin-based oxygen carrying (HBOC) solutions, several of which are currently in advanced clinical trials. Intravenous administration of ultrapurified polymerized bovine hemoglobin solution was effective in increasing the oxygenation throughout experimental tumors under normal air breathing conditions.^{49–51} Therefore, an enhancement of tissue oxygenation (tpO₂) in rodent tumors associated with an increased tumor growth delay was reported for purified bovine hemoglobin solutions combined with irradiation^{27,50,52,53} as well as with chemotherapeutic agents^{26,52–54} such as carmustine (BCNU), cyclophosphamide, ifosfamide, adriamycin, TNP-470, minocycline, melphalan, and cisplatin. When carbogen breathing was added to administration of the hemoglobin preparations, further increased therapeutic response and decreased tumor hypoxia were achieved. Various modified hemoglobin prepared from bovine, human, or mouse Hb, for example the PEGylated bovine hemoglobin (PEG-Hb), could also increase tumor oxygen content^{55,56} and improve the effectiveness of radiotherapy in rodent models.⁵⁵ Perhaps spurred by these encouraging results, A clinical phase I/II study on the effect of polyethyleneglycol-conjugated hemoglobin (Enzon Corp., USA) for radiosensitization of tumors has been performed,⁵⁷ but results are not published until now. However, more recent animal studies cast, at least in part, a shadow on the using of hemoglobin-based oxygen carriers as tumor radiotherapy sensitizer. In these experiments, a glutaraldehyde-polymerized bovine hemoglobin (Hb) solution HBOC-201 (Biopure; Cambridge, MA) was evaluated. Studies performed by Raabe et al. demonstrated that low-dose (0.3 g/kg) application of HBOC-201 did not improve the response of the rhabdomyosarcoma R1H of the rat to fractionated irradiation⁵⁸ since the application of low-dose hemoglobin solution HBOC-201 (0.3 g/kg) alone failed to improve tumor tissue or healthy skeletal muscle oxygenation.⁵⁹ Surprisingly, with the dosage of 0.3 g/kg HBOC-201, a plasmatic hemoglobin concentration of 0.5–0.8 g/dl could be achieved. This concentration is high enough for improvement of tissue oxygenation according to previous isovolaemic hemodilution study in dogs.⁶⁰ Teicher BA, Holden SA, Dupuis NP, et al. Oxygenation of the rat 9L gliosarcoma and the rat 13672 mammary carcinoma with various doses of a hemoglobin solution.

Summary and future prospects^[17-19]

An alternative to blood transfusion, based on oxygen-carrying solutions, has been sought for over a century. So far, a number of oxygen carriers (blood substitutes) based on either hemoglobin or perfluorocarbon emulsions have been and/or are being developed. These products mainly aim at replacing the O₂ carrying capacity of the blood to provide adequate O₂ perfusion, and thus to resuscitate soldiers or patients in hemorrhagic shock after traumatic injuries. Besides this, as the theme of the XIth International Symposium on Blood Substitutes goes: "From blood substitutes to oxygen therapeutics", additional oxygen carrier uses can be envisaged in a variety of diseases with compromised tissue oxygenation, such as heart infarct and stroke, in tumor oxygenation, sickle-cell anaemia, organ preservation, autoimmune haemolysis or air embolism. Thomas Chang, a pioneer in blood substitute research at McGill University, together with his co-workers has prepared two new generations of PolyHb. One is based on crosslinking PolyHb with superoxide dismutase and catalase (Poly-Hb-SOD-CAT). This molecule could transport oxygen and simultaneously remove oxygen radicals to lessen the effects of ischemia reperfusion injuries. These beneficial effects were also exhibited by HBOC-201. The other is a soluble nanobiotechnology-based PolyHb-tyrosinase complex. This complex has the dual function of supplying the oxygen needed for optimal chemotherapy or radiation therapy and lowering systemic levels of tyrosine. In vitro and animal studies indicated that PolyHb-tyrosinase was able to inhibit the growth of B16F10 cells and delay the growth of the melanoma without sacrificing its oxygen transport capacity. Taken together, both modified hemoglobin solutions and perfluorocarbon emulsions have shown expectable reoxygenation of solid hypoxic tumor in various animal tumor models. Although clinical attempts using Fluosol to overcome hypoxia have met with some success and improved local control have been reported in the Phase II studies, the results have been far from satisfactory, and efforts are still being made to find better methods. As mentioned above, in the hemoglobin-based oxygen carrying solutions reaching advanced clinical trials today, polymerized and conjugated bovine hemoglobin solutions have been explored in rodent tumors to increase the effectiveness of anti-cancer treatments by irradiation or chemotherapy. To some extent, the seemingly controversial results may be ascribed to different doses and schedules of the Hb solution administered to different tumors. The scientific advances made in their development will, without doubt, advance the field of oxygen carriers towards eventual success and patient benefit.

2. Sonosensitizer liposome as a new drug carrier^[20-56]

Conventional chemotherapy agents kill rapidly proliferating cells, tumor cells and normal tissue, creating some of the common side effects seen with chemotherapy such as nausea and vomiting. Therefore, novel therapeutic strategies, preferably consisting of noninvasive treatments, are urgently required. In addition, SDT is a noninvasive treatment with no adverse effects by ultrasound radiation. In the 1990s, SDT as a new approach to cancer therapy was firstly introduced by Umemura and co-workers. In this study, SDT involving the administration of a sonosensitizer, ultrasound sensitive material, producing a series of chemical reactions activated by radiation to kill tumor cells, may be an optional treatment for localized tumors. It has advantages over surgery or radiotherapy, reducing long-term morbidity and permitting alternative treatments to be selected in the case of recurrent, residual, or second primary disease. However, the most widely used sonosensitizers are hematoporphyrin (Hp) and its derivatives (HpD), which have phototoxicity and long-lasting skin sensitivity due to the retention of the sonosensitizer in subcutaneous tissues. Therefore, a large number of methods are used to reduce these clinically significant toxic effects. One of the most common methods is the use of a drug carrier to alter drug bio-distribution and increase drug concentration in certain tumor cells. Examples of drug carriers include microspheres, nanoparticles, liposomes, and micelles. As a drug carrier, liposome can increase the drug concentration in tumor cells by both passive and active targeting effects. Targeted drug delivery, which can make the chemotherapeutic drugs directly concentrate on the target tumor sites, is one of the ultimate goals in drug delivery. However, the low targeting effect of liposomes seriously hinders their clinical application. To facilitate the selective targeting of malignant cells, liposomes can be combined with SDT. Accordingly, we propose the use of sonosensitizers in combination with liposomes directly target to tumor cells with ultrasound effect. A sonosensitizer-liposome complex, as a new drug carrier, combines the anti-tumor effect of chemotherapeutic drugs and sonodynamic therapy. With ultrasound radiation, the sonosensitizers can more effectively guide the chemotherapeutic drug to target tumor tissues, achieving the goal of killing cancer cells and protecting normal cells at the same time, which provides a new treatment for cancer.

Mechanism of SDT on cancer

Ultrasound can effectively increase the affinity and clustering ability of a drug focusing in a specific tumor location and employing to release drugs at that site, thereby minimizing damage to surrounding normal tissues. Numerous experiments indicate that ultrasound, as a

mechanical wave, can strongly penetrate biological tissues. In addition, High intensity focused ultrasound (HIFU) can non-invasively concentrate acoustic energy into deep tissues. The ultrasound-induced increase in drug penetration into cells is believed to result from oscillations in gas bubbles in media. These oscillations cause cavitations and disruptions close to the cell surface and membrane that allows increased drug diffusion. Compared with chemotherapy and radiation therapy, Ultrasound can decrease damage to normal tissues therapy, Ultrasound can decrease damage to normal tissues with ultrasound. Hence, it can be used to treat tumor cells resistant to chemotherapy or radiation therapy. Recently, the use of ultrasound has drawn considerable attention as a new method for cancer therapy because of it also inducing apoptosis. In addition, some researchers explored that ultrasound radiation with a sonosensitizer could obviously increase cell membrane lipid peroxidation. In order to verify the mentioned above mechanism, Tsuru et al. established a mouse xenograft model and studied on SDT with a novel sonosensitizer (a porphyrin derivative) *in vitro* and *in vivo*. The results suggested that SDT with a sonosensitizer could increase cell membrane lipid peroxidation and damage tumor cells, resulting in necrosis and prevention of tumor growth. On the other hand, during the spread of an ultrasound wave in a tissue, part of the mechanical energy is absorbed and the remaining part is transformed into thermal energy, which increases the tissue temperature. The thermal destruction of tumor tissue is one of the mechanisms of ultrasound-mediated tumor treatment. Generally speaking, ultrasound emission on the focused point creates a strong sound field that is used to make the tumor temperature reach its critical level for tumor necrosis, achieving the clinical goal. The critical temperature for tumor necrosis is about 42.5–43 °C. Therefore, the rationale for the use of hyperthermia is that sustained temperatures above 42.5 °C directly kill living cells. In general, ultrasound enhances drug transport through tissues and across cell membranes by different mechanisms, and low-intensity ultrasound radiation has been used for drug or gene delivery in recent years. Thus SDT can effectively increase chemotherapeutic drug concentration in tumor sites and reduce toxicity to normal tissues, improving therapeutic effects by using ultrasound.

3. Carrier-mediated delivery of peptidic drugs^[57-65]

Proteins and peptides are increasingly being recognized as worthwhile leads for the development of newer therapeutics for a broad spectrum of diseases including but not limited to cancer, hepatitis and rheumatism. Their usually specific mode of action requires that, theoretically at least, only low doses are needed, thus lowering the risk of side effects caused

by small molecule drugs and larger charged ones such as oligonucleotides. Carriers have certain significant advantages if used properly, as summarized aptly by Allen and Cullis. These factors include enhancement of drug solubility, controlled release of drug avoiding substantial side effects, better biodistribution of the drug molecules, and with certain carriers, the ability to target the diseased tissue in vivo. In terms of costs, according to analysts such as Peters et al. and Smith et al., When a drug molecule is administered with a carrier, drug clearance decreases (half-life increases), volume of distribution decreases, and the area under the time versus concentration curve increases. For larger diameter particulate carriers, the size of the carrier (normally within 50–200 nm, but sometimes reaching several microns) confines it to the blood compartment, and the volume of distribution will approach that of the plasma volume if the drug release rate is low. In essence the carrier has to bind the drug molecule, hold it for an adequate period of time till it reaches its required site of action, and then release it in a controlled (non-burst) fashion. The maximum tolerated dose (MTD) of the carried drug is directly affected by the carrier, as determined by the rate of release of the drug molecules from the associated state. This attenuates the drug's pharmacokinetic (PK) and biodistribution (BD) features, and will determine what dose of drugs can be administered. Certain pathological conditions such as tumors and inflammation, may actually accentuate the efficiency of the carrier including the ability to selectively deliver its payload to the diseased tissues. The enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) phenomenon, sometimes referred to as passive targeting, has been the lifeline of such carriers as stealth liposomes and microspheres. While a 10-fold increase in tumor drug concentration can be achieved using DDSs, delivery of drug from the entrapped state often tends to be focal (localized around the vehicle) rather than homogeneously distributed throughout the target tissue. Thus, smarter options for DDSs are needed.

4. Liposomes^[68]

Liposomes generally have a large carrying capacity, but usually not large enough to ferry large molecules such as proteins. For liposomes, hydrophilic drugs can be readily entrapped within the aqueous core and hydrophobic molecules may be carried within the hydrophobic bilayers of the vesicles. There are various types of liposome formulations available, some of which have arisen due to a marriage of the ideas for specific types of liposomes.^[6] The liposome field is over 3 decades old now, with the commercialization of a handful of anti-cancer therapeutic agents, all non-peptidic. Such small molecule drugs that are used to treat certain types of neoplasms include the nucleic acid synthesis-interfering agents doxorubicin

(available as Caelyx¹) and daunorubicin (available as Daunoxome¹ aqueous interior of the vesicles).

5. Microparticles^[67]

Microparticles are carriers from 1 to 100 μm in diameter. These have been used classically for ferrying small molecule drugs such as doxorubicin or Therasphere¹ used for selective delivering yttrium-90 radiotherapy to hepatic tumor nodules. However, other disease indications can benefit from such delivery and include inflammatory bowel disease, Parkinson's disease, arthritis and peripheral vascular disease. The potential for peptide and protein delivery with this class of carriers was proposed almost a decade ago. While not much has been realized as for liposomes above, human growth hormone Biosphere¹, Technosphere¹ insulin and Technosphere¹ PTH microspheres, as well as starch microspheres loaded with interferon- α 2B being tested clinically reinforces the applicability of this technology.^{2–5} Treatment of tumor-bearing mice with a single intratumoral injection of biodegradable polylactic acid microspheres loaded with recombinant interleukin-12 (IL-12) promoted complete regression of the primary tumor as well as prevented pulmonary metastases from establishing. Mice that experienced tumor regression after being treated rejected a subsequent challenge with live tumor cells, which indicated the development of systemic antitumor immunity, possibly an important finding for patients that have undergone surgery but may have remnant cancerous cells within that need to be entirely eradicated. The sustained release of IL-12 from the microspheres was superior to bolus injection of free IL-12, and intratumoral delivery of microspheres was more effective than other routes of administration.

6. Cell-penetrating peptides^[68–69]

In the past decade, a number of cell-penetrating peptides (CPPs) have emerged, facilitating the intracellular delivery of polar biomolecules in vitro and in vivo. While these individual peptides differ in length and sequence, they share a few common features. These include theoretical hydrophobicity and helical moment, the ability to interact with lipidic membranes, and to adopt a distinct secondary structure upon association with lipids. The major dogma has been that CPPs enter cells by a receptor-independent process, although the exact mechanism(s) remain to be elucidated. In any case, the ability of these short peptides to cross plasma membranes even when associated with hydrophilic cargoes, makes them a worthwhile technology for further study and development. There is increasing recognition of the

capability of these membrane-permeating peptides especially for protein and peptide delivery.

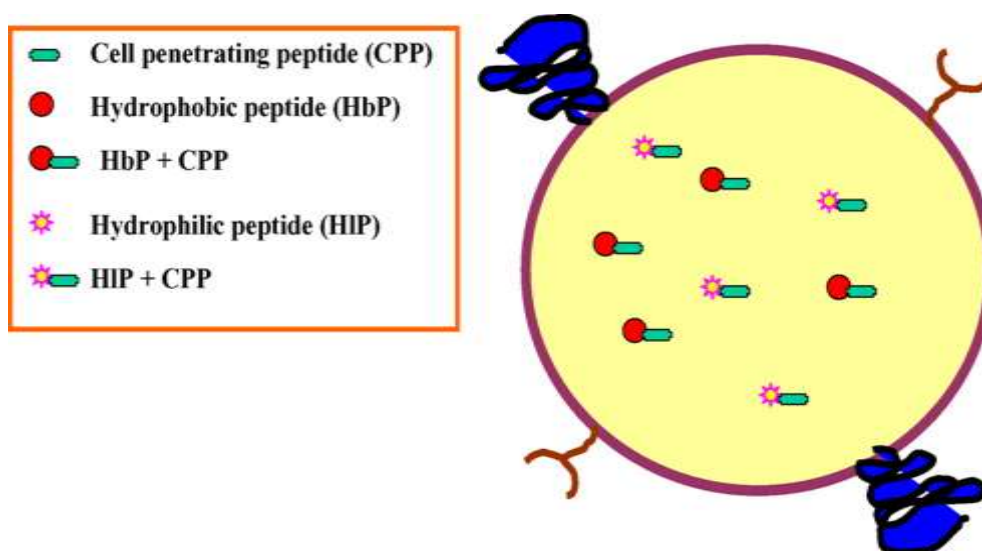


Fig. 1: An ideal peptide carrier. A vesicle capable of targeting tumour cells in vivo with two types of peptidic molecules.

Antibody (or ligand) attached to surface for targeting. PEGylated lipid, blue attachment to vehicle surface. Yellow aqueous or matrix allows hydrophobic drug(s) (red dots) and hydrophilic drug(s) (pink stars) to be delivered. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of the article.)

ADVANTAGES^[70-81]

1. The oxygen transport model was used to evaluate mixtures of red blood cells and six types of HBOCs that consisted of two polymerized hemoglobins, two liposome-encapsulated hemoglobins, and two hydrogel-encapsulated hemoglobins.
2. Sufficient oxygen must be delivered to both normoxic and cancerous tissues to maintain normal tissue functions when oxygenating the tumor.
3. An enhancement of tissue oxygenation (tpO₂) in rodent tumors associated with an increased tumor growth delay was reported for purified bovine hemoglobin solutions combined with irradiation.
4. The greatest tumor growth delays were obtained with Oxygen levels between 4 and 12 g PFC/kg.
5. Inhaled aerosols are effective as therapeutic carriers for the treatment of pulmonary ailments such as CF.

6. SDT involving the administration of a sonosensitizer, ultrasound sensitive material, producing a series of chemical reactions activated by radiation to kill tumor cells
7. SDT is a promising therapeutic method to treat certain cancers. With ultrasound, sonosensitizer drugs can be activated in deep tumors.
8. Doxorubicin (DOX) liposome can increase drug deposition and retention with tumors to improve the therapeutic efficacy while reducing toxic off-target effects.
9. The use of spheres as potential carrier for anticancer drug delivery has attracted much attention due to their wide applications.

APPLICATIONS^[82-85]

1. To improve the biodistribution of cancer drugs, nanoparticles have been designed for optimal size and surface characteristics to increase their circulation time in the bloodstream.
2. They are also able to carry their loaded active drugs to cancer cells by selectively using the unique pathophysiology of tumors, such as their enhanced permeability and retention effect and the tumor microenvironment.
3. Nanoparticles have the ability to accumulate in cells without being recognized by P-glycoprotein, one of the main mediators of multidrug resistance, resulting in the increased intracellular concentration of drugs.
4. Steric stabilization, remote loading of drugs by pH and ion gradients, and lipoplexes based on complexes of cationic liposomes with anionic nucleic acids or proteins extended research toward liposome application and opened the way for development of a large spectrum of products.
5. Hemoglobin-based oxygen carriers theoretically investigate the possibility of supplementing human blood with hemoglobin-based oxygen carriers (HBOCs) in an attempt to target oxygen delivery specifically to the low oxygen tension regions present in tumors.
6. Penetratin, a short peptide fragment from the third helix of the Antennapedia protein homeodomain, is able to penetrate into a variety of cells.
7. Hollow polymeric spheres have spurred increasing interest due to their potential applications such as drug delivery systems.

CONCLUSION

The carriers are used in the cancer drug therapy. There are different types of carriers are used, for different types of cancer. They are biocompatible, have little toxicity, a good degree of tissue specific action, be easily prepared and administered.

A lot of work remains to be done in general and specifically in the fight against cancer. However, the presence of such agents in clinical trials and on the market attest to the applicability of this mode of treatment against various disease indications including cancer.

SDT can effectively increase chemotherapeutic drug concentration in tumor sites and reduce toxicity to normal tissues, improving therapeutic effects by using ultrasound. The Hb solution administrated to different tumors. In these way different carriers are used in different types of cancer.

REFERENCE

1. http://www.netofcare.org/content/pdf/6-spec_illness-cancer.pdf
2. Overgaard J, Horsman MR. Modification of hypoxia-induced radioresistance in tumors by the use of oxygen and sensitizers. *Semin Radiat Oncol.*, 1996; 6: 10–21.
3. Kaanders JH, Bussink J, van der Kogel AJ. ARCON: a novel biology-based approach in radiotherapy. *Lancet Oncol.*, 2002; 3: 728–37.
4. Hoogsteen IJ, Pop LA, Marres HA, et al. Oxygen-modifying treatment with ARCON reduces the prognostic significance of hemoglobin in squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.*, 2006; 64: 83–9.
5. Winslow RM. Red cell substitutes. *Semin Hematol.*, 2007; 44: 51–9.
6. Robinson MF, Dupuis NP, Kusumoto T, Liu F, Menon K, Teicher BA. Increased tumor oxygenation and radiation sensitivity in two rat tumors by a hemoglobin-based, oxygen-carrying preparation. *Artif Cells Blood Substit Immobil Biotechnol.*, 1995; 23: 431–8.
7. Teicher BA, Schwartz GN, Alvarez Sotomayor E, Robinson MF, Dupuis NP, Menon K. Oxygenation of tumors by a hemoglobin solution. *J Cancer Res Clin Oncol.*, 1993; 120: 85–90.
8. Teicher BA, Holden SA, Ara G, Herman TS, Hopkins RE, Menon K. Effect of a bovine hemoglobin preparation (SBHS) on the response of two murine solid tumors to radiation therapy or chemotherapeutic alkylating agents. *Biomater Artif Cells Immobil Biotechnol.*, 1992; 20: 657–60.

9. Teicher BA, Dupuis NP, Emi Y, Ikebe M, Kakeji Y, Menon K. Increased efficacy of chemo- and radio-therapy by a hemoglobin solution in the 9L gliosarcoma. *In Vivo.*, 1995; 9: 11–8.
10. Teicher BA, Holden SA, Menon K, Hopkins RE, Gawryl MS. Effect of hemoglobin solution on the response of intracranial and subcutaneous 9L tumors to antitumor alkylating agents. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol.*, 1993; 33: 57–62.
11. Linberg R, Conover CD, Shum KL, Shorr RG. Increased tissue oxygenation and enhanced radiation sensitivity of solid tumors in rodents following polyethylene glycol conjugated bovine hemoglobin administration. *In Vivo.*, 1998; 12: 167–73.
12. Nozue M, Lee I, Manning JM, Manning LR, Jain RK. Oxygenation in tumors by modified hemoglobins. *J Surg Oncol.*, 1996; 62: 109–14.
13. Shorr RG, Kwong S, Gilbert C, Benesch RE. Changes in the functional properties of bovine hemoglobin induced by covalent modification with polyethylene glycol. *Artif Cells Blood Substit Immobil Biotechnol.*, 1999; 27: 185–202.
14. Raabe A, Gottschalk A, Hommel M, Dubben HH, Strandl T. No effect of the hemoglobin solution HBOC-201 on the response of the rat R1H tumor to fractionated irradiation. *Strahlenther Onkol.*, 2005; 181: 730–7.
15. Gottschalk A, Raabe A, Hommel M, Rempf C, Freitag M, Standl T. Influence of the hemoglobin solution HBOC-201 on tissue oxygenation in the rat R1H-tumor. *Artif Cells Blood Substit Immobil Biotechnol.*, 2005; 33: 379–89.
16. Standl T, Horn P, Wilhelm S, et al. Bovine haemoglobin is more potent than autologous red blood cells in restoring muscular tissue oxygenation after profound isovolaemic haemodilution in dogs. *Can J Anaesth.*, 1996; 43: 714–2361.
17. Chang TM. Blood substitutes based on nanobiotechnology. *Trends Biotechnol.*, 2006; 24: 372–7.
18. Caswell JE, Strange MB, Rimmer 3rd DM, Gibson MF, Cole P, et al. A novel hemoglobin-based blood substitute protects against myocardial reperfusion injury. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol.*, 2005; 288: H1796–801.
19. George I, Yi GH, Schulman AR, et al. A polymerized bovine hemoglobin oxygen carrier preserves regional myocardial function and reduces infarct size after acute myocardial ischemia. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol*, 2006; 291: H1126–37.
20. Timothy JM. The proliferation rate paradox in antimitotic chemotherapy. *Mol Biol Cell.*, 2012; 23: 1–6.

21. Umemura S, Yumita N, Nishigaki R, Umemura K. Mechanism of cell damage byultrasound in combination with hematoporphyrin. *Jpn J Cancer Res.*, 1990; 81: 962–6.
22. Yumita N, Okuyama N, Sasaki K, Umemura S. Sonodynamic therapy onchemically induced mammary tumor: pharmacokinetics, tissue distributionandsonodynamically induced antitumor effect of gallium-porphyrin complexATX-70. *Cancer Chemoth Pharm.*, 2007; 60: 891–7.
23. He Y, Xing D, Yan G, Ueda K. FCLA chemiluminescence from sonodynamicaction in vitro and in vivo. *Cancer Lett.*, 2002; 182: 141–5.
24. Tsuru H, Shibaguchi H, Kuroki M, Yamashita Y, Kuroki M. Tumor growthinhibition by sonodynamic therapy using a novel sonosensitizer. *Free RadicBiol Med.*, 2012; 53: 464–72.
25. Nielsen KP, Juzeniene A, Juzenas P, Stamnes K, Stamnes JJ, Moan J. Choice ofoptimal wavelength for PDT: the significance of oxygen depletion. *PhotochemPhotobiol.*, 2005; 81: 1190–4.
26. Jin Z, Lan GQ, Post M, Simard B, Deslandes Y, Hsieh TH. Design of nanoparticlesas drug carriers for cancer therapy. *Cancer Genomics Proteomics.*, 2006; 3: 147–58.
27. Li DC, Zhong XK, Zeng ZP, Jiang JG, Li L, Zhao MM, et al. Application of targeteddrug delivery system in Chinese medicine. *J Control Release.*, 2009; 138: 103–12.
28. Huwyler J, Drewe J, Krahenbuhl S. Tumor targeting using liposomalantineoplastic drugs. *Int J Nanomedicine.*, 2008; 3: 21–9.
29. Kwon IK, Lee SC, Han B, Park K. Analysis on the current status of targeted drugdelivery to tumors. *J Control Release.*, 2012; 164: 108–14.
30. Liang HD, Tang J, Halliwell M. Sonoporation, drug delivery, and gene therapy.*ProcInstMechEng H.*, 2010; 224: 343–61.
31. Rosenthal I, Sostaric JZ, Riesz P. Sonodynamic therapy-a review of thesynergistic effects of drugs and ultrasound. *UltrasonSonochem.*, 2004; 11: 349–63.
32. Terdaeme ON, Leslie TA, Kennedy JE, Philips RR, Brady M. The use of time tomaximum enhancement to indicate areas of ablation following the treatmentof liver tumours with highintensity focused ultrasound. *Brit J Radiol.*, 2009; 82: 412–20.
33. Sassaroli E, Hynynen K. Cavitation threshold of microbubbles in gel tunnels byfocused ultrasound. *Ultrasound Med Biol*, 2007; 33: 1651–60.
34. Wiedemair W, Tukovic Z, Jasak H, Poulikakos D, Kurtcuoglu V. On ultrasoundinducedmicrobubble oscillation in capillary blood vessel and its implicationsfor the blood–brain barrier.*Phys Med Biol.*, 2012; 57: 1019–45.

35. Zderic V, Clark JI, Martin RW, Vaezy S. Ultrasound-enhanced transcorneal drug delivery. *Cornea.*, 2004; 23: 804–11.
36. Hussein GA, Pitt WG. The use of ultrasound and micelles in cancer treatment. *JNanosciNanotechnol.*, 2008; 8: 2205–15.
37. Miller DL, Dou CY. Induction of apoptosis in sonoporation and ultrasonic genetransfer. *Ultrasound Med Biol.*, 2009; 35: 144–54.
38. Tang W, Liu Q, Wang X, Mi N, Wang P, Zhang J. Membrane fluidity altering and enzyme inactivating in sarcoma 180 cells post the exposure to sonoactivated hematoporphyrin in vitro. *Ultrasonics.*, 2008; 48: 66–73.
39. Yumita Nagahiko, Lwase Y, Nishi K, Komatsu H, Takeda K, Onodera K, et al. Involvement of reactive oxygen species in sonodynamically induced apoptosis using a novel porphyrin derivative. *Theranostics.*, 2012; 2: 880–8.
40. Yu T, Huang X, Hu K, Bai J, Wang Z. Mechanisms of reversal of Adriamycin resistance in human ovarian carcinoma cell line by ultrasound. *Int J Gynecol Cancer.*, 2004; 14: 76–81.
41. Lv YH, Fang M, Zheng JH, Yang B, Li HX, Zhong XG. Low-intensity ultrasound combined with 5-aminolevulinic acid administration in the treatment of human tongue squamous carcinoma. *Cell Physiol Biochem.*, 2012; 30: 321–33.
42. Orel D, Rozman J. A computer simulation of ultrasound thermal bio-effect in embryonic models. *Radioengineering.*, 2003; 12: 26–30.
43. Barnett SB. Intracranial temperature elevation from diagnostic ultrasound. *Ultrasound Med Biol.*, 2001; 27: 883–8.
44. Shaul O, Doron S. Ultrasonic transcutaneous energy transfer for powering implanted devices. *Ultrasonics.*, 2010; 50: 556–66.
45. Victor F. Ultrasound mediated delivery of drugs and genes to solid tumors. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev.*, 2008; 60: 1193–208.
46. Zhao JH, Yu LL, Hui C, Huang BF, Li C, Zhao Q, et al. Study on sound field of high intensity focused ultrasound with short focal length. *AMM.*, 2012; 195–196: 364–9.
47. Yu H, Zhu GY, Xu RZ, Niu HZ, Lu Q, Li GZ, et al. Arterial embolization hyperthermia using As₂O₃ nanoparticles in VX2 carcinoma-induced liver tumors. *PLoS One.*, 2011; 6: 1–12.
48. Besic E. Physical mechanisms and methods employed in drug delivery to tumors. *Acta Pharm.*, 2007; 57: 249–68.

49. Newman CM, Bettinger T. Gene therapy progress and prospects: ultrasound for Gene transfer. *Gene Ther.*, 2007; 14: 465–75.
50. Nidich SI, Fields JZ, Rainforth MV, Pomertantz R, Cella D, Kristeller J, et al. A randomized controlled trial of the effects of transcendental meditation on quality of life in older breast cancer patients. *Integr Cancer Ther.*, 2009; 8: 228–34.
51. Yu T, Bai J, Hu K, Wang Z. Biological effects of ultrasound exposure on adriamycin-resistant and cisplatin-resistant human ovarian carcinoma cell lines in vitro. *Ultrason Sonochem.*, 2004; 11: 89–94.
52. Menno L, Wim JB, Stefan RV, Robert JV, Martin AV, Debby S, et al. Enriching lipid nanovesicles with short-chain glucosylceramide improves doxorubicin delivery and efficacy in solid tumors. *FASEB J.*, 2011; 25: 280–9.
53. Lowery A, Onishko H, Hallahan DE, Han Z. Tumor-targeted delivery of liposome-encapsulated doxorubicin by use of a peptide that selectively binds to irradiated tumors. *J Control Release.*, 2011; 150: 117–24.
54. Kaminskis LM, McLeod VM, Kelly BD, Sberna G, Boyd BJ, Williamson M, et al. A comparison of changes to doxorubicin pharmacokinetics, antitumor activity, and toxicity mediated by PEGylated dendrimer and PEGylated liposome drug delivery systems. *Nanomed-nanotechnol.*, 2012; 8: 103–11.
55. Marin A, Muniruzzaman M, Rapoport N. Mechanism of the ultrasonic activation of micellar drug delivery. *J Control Release.*, 2001; 75: 69–81.
56. Rapoport N. Combined cancer therapy by micellar-encapsulated drug and ultrasound. *Int J Pharm.*, 2004; 277: 155–62.
57. Allen TM, Cullis PR. Drug delivery systems: entering the mainstream. *Science.*, 2004; 303: 1818–22.
58. Dass CR, Su T. Particle-mediated intravascular delivery of oligonucleotides to tumors: associated biology and lessons from gene therapy. *Drug Deliv.*, 2001; 8: 191–213.
59. Gabizon A, Shmeeda H, Barenholz Y. Pharmacokinetics of pegylated liposomal Doxorubicin: review of animal and human studies. *Clin Pharmacokinet.*, 2003; 42: 419–36.
60. Huang SK, Lee KD, Hong K, Friend DS, Papahadjopoulos D. Microscopic localization of sterically stabilized liposomes in colon carcinoma-bearing mice. *Cancer Res.*, 1992; 52: 5135–43.
61. Maeda H, Wu J, Sawa T, Matsumura Y, Hori K. Tumor vascular permeability and the EPR effect in macromolecular therapeutics: a review. *J Control Release.*, 2000; 65: 271–84.

62. Northfelt DW, Martin FJ, Working P, Volberding PA, Russell J, Newman M, et al. Doxorubicin encapsulated in liposomes containing surface-bound polyethylene glycol: pharmacokinetics, tumor localization, and safety in patients with AIDS-related Kaposi's sarcoma. *J Clin Pharmacol.*, 1996; 36: 55–63.
63. Peters BG, Goeckner BJ, Ponzillo JJ, Velasquez WS, Wilson AL. Pegaspargase versus asparaginase in adult ALL: a pharmacoeconomic assessment. *Formulary.*, 1995; 30: 388–93.
64. Smith DH, Adams JR, Johnston SR, Gordon A, Drummond MF, Bennett CL. A comparative economic analysis of pegylated liposomal doxorubicin versus topotecan in ovarian cancer in the USA and the UK. *Ann Oncol.*, 2002; 13: 1590–7.
65. Wu NZ, Da D, Rudoll TL, Needham D, Whorton AR, Dewhirst MW. Increased microvascular permeability contributes to preferential accumulation of Stealth liposomes in tumor tissue. *Cancer Res.*, 1993; 53: 3765–70.
66. Dass CR, Walker TL, Burton MA, DeCruz EE. Enhanced anticancer therapy mediated by specialised liposomes. *J Pharm Pharmacol.*, 1997; 49: 974.
67. Egilmez NK, Jong YS, Sabel MS, Jacob JS, Mathiowitz E, Bankert RB. In situ tumor vaccination with interleukin-12-encapsulated biodegradable microspheres: induction of tumor regression and potent antitumor immunity. *Cancer Res.*, 2000; 60: 3832–7.
68. Temsamani J, Vidal P. The use of cell-penetrating peptides for drug delivery. *Drug Discov Today.*, 2004; 9: 1012–9.
69. Wadia JS, Dowdy SF. Transmembrane delivery of protein and peptide drugs by TAT-mediated transduction in the treatment of cancer. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev* 2005; 57: 579–96.
70. <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19194950>
71. Tanaka J, Holden SA, Herman TS, Teicher BA. Response of subpopulations of the FSaII C fibrosarcoma to low dose X-rays and various potential enhancing agents. *Anticancer Res.*, 1992; 12: 1029–33.
72. Robinson MF, Dupuis NP, Kusumoto T, Liu F, Menon K, Teicher BA. Increased tumor oxygenation and radiation sensitivity in two rat tumors by a hemoglobin-based, oxygen-carrying preparation. *Artif Cells Blood Substit Immobil Biotechnol.*, 1995; 23: 431–8.
73. Teicher BA, Holden SA, Ara G, Herman TS, Hopkins RE, Menon.
74. Holden SA, Teicher BA, Ha C, Ara G, Herman TS. Enhancement by perfusion emulsion (Oxygent) and carbogen breathing of the tumor growth delay of the FSaII C fibrosarcoma after treatment with antitumor alkylating agents. *Biomater Artif Cells Immobil Biotechnol* 1992; 20: 895–8.

75. Teicher BA, Holden SA, Ara G, Ha CS, Herman TS, Northey D. A new concentrated perfluorochemical emulsion and carbogenbreathing as an adjuvant to treatment with antitumor alkylating agents. *J Cancer Res ClinOncol.*, 1992; 118: 509–14.
76. Patton JS, Bukar JG, Eldon MA. Clinical pharmacokineticsand pharmacodynamics of inhaled insulin. *ClinPharmacokinet.*, 2004; 43: 781–801.
77. Yumita N, Okuyama N, Sasaki K, Umemura S. Sonodynamic therapy onchemically induced mammary tumor: pharmacokinetics, tissue distributionand sonodynamically induced antitumor effect of gallium-porphyrin complexATX-70. *Cancer Chemoth Pharm* 2007; 60: 891–7.
78. He Y, Xing D, Yan G, Ueda K. FCLA chemiluminescence from sonodynamicaction in vitro and in vivo. *Cancer Lett.*, 2002; 182: 141–5.
79. Nidich SI, Fields JZ, Rainforth MV, Pomertantz R, Cella D, Kristeller J, et al. A randomized controlled trial of the effects of transcendental meditation onquality of life in older breast cancer patients. *Integr Cancer Ther.*, 2009; 8: 228–34.
80. Lowery A, Onishko H, Hallahan DE, Han Z. Tumor-targeted delivery of liposome-encapsulated doxorubicin by use of a peptide that selectively binds to irradiated tumors. *J Control Release.*, 2011; 150: 117–24.
81. L. Ihlum, S.S. Davis, *Int. J. Pharm.*, 1982; 11: 323.
82. <http://clincancerres.aacrjournals.org/content/14/5/1310.short>
83. <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S135902940000090X>
84. Temsamani J, Vidal P. The use of cell-penetrating peptides for drug delivery. *Drug Discov.*, 2004; 9: 1012–9.
85. C. Zhang, S. Ding, J. Li, H. Xu, L. Sun, W. Wei, C. Li, J. Liu, X. Qu, Y. Lu, Z. Yang, *Polymer.*, 2008; 49: 3098.