

Balancing Innovation And Patient Safety: Legal Frameworks For Clinical Evaluation Of Advanced Drug Delivery Systems

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ABSTRACT

The rapid advancement of Advanced Drug Delivery Systems (ADDS) — including nanocarriers, targeted biologics, implantable devices, and controlled-release formulations — has significantly transformed the landscape of therapeutic precision in modern medicine. Nonetheless, these new technologies have provoked a set of complicated regulatory and legal issues especially in the need to balance patient safety and the imperatives of scientific research. In the present paper, the current legal and regulatory environment of clinical assessment of ADDS in the major jurisdictions in the United States, the European Union and India and global harmonization initiatives are critically considered. It reviews the sufficiency of preclinical toxicology studies, informed consent criteria, risk-benefit evaluation practices and post-market pharmacovigilance mechanisms. The paper has outlined the key regulatory loopholes, such as inadequate standard guidelines in nano-toxicology, and inter-jurisdictional definition gaps. It also suggests evidence based reforms a risk-proportional regulatory structure, a stronger toxicological monitoring system and international harmonization programs to develop a counterbalanced system that fosters innovation without violating patient rights or the duty to serve and protect the health of the populace.

Keywords: Advanced drug delivery systems, Clinical evaluation, Regulatory toxicology, Patient safety, Legal framework, Risk-benefit assessment, Pharmacovigilance

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INTRODUCTION

The twenty-first century has marked the cornerstone change in the pharmaceutical sciences where Advanced Drug Delivery Systems (ADDS) are increasingly substituting or augmenting the traditional dosage system. Physical systems such as nanoparticle-based delivery vehicles, liposomal formulations, microneedle arrays, biodegradable polymer implantations and biologic-loaded depots are designed to maximize pharmacokinetics, improve therapeutic efficacy and reduce systemic-toxicity via controlled, responsive, targeted delivery of drugs¹. Their complexity, however, adds new variables to pharmacodynamics, pharmacokinetics and nanotoxicology that custom regulatory paradigms were not initially intended to handle².

There is a general conflict at the heart of the regulation of the ADDS the need to hasten the availability of new treatment options against the disease of serious conditions in the issue of creating a solid assessment of safety. Fast Track, Breakthrough Therapy designation Expedited approval mechanisms Fast Forward approvals facilitate rapid clinical translation at the

expense of the conventional frameworks of long-term safety surveillance³.

Over time, nanoparticles can be deposited in the liver or the spleen; biodegradable polymers can cause unanticipated metabolites output even microneedle patches have the potential to cause local immunological reactions⁴. Small-molecule drugs can no longer be adequately described using classical models of toxicology.

These challenges are added by the regulatory classification of ADDS. These systems are mostly a combination product that incorporates pharmaceutical, biological, and devices and fall under cross regimes of oversight. U.S. Food and Drug Authority (FDA), European Medicines Agency (EMA) and Indian Central Drugs Standard Control Organization (CDSCO) have established different regulatory procedures that despite having similar objectives differ widely in classification criteria, clinical trial provisions and post-market requirements⁵. Global harmonization is still largely unfinished, especially of nano-enabled and hybrid systems as it causes ambiguity among

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sponsors and the likelihood of differences in protection of patients in different jurisdictions⁶.

It is within this context that the current paper makes a comparative legal and regulatory assessment of the ADDS clinical evaluation systems in the United States, European Union, and India along with an evaluation of the global harmonization efforts. It points to structural loopholes such as the lack of nano-specific toxicology standards, lack of long-term safety data, and international disjointedness to propose a well-balanced framework of reform, which will enable responsible innovation, and protect patient welfare⁷.

REGULATORY FRAMEWORKS ON CLINICAL EVALUATION

Advanced drug delivery systems present intricate regulatory challenges due to their hybrid nature, frequently neutralizing the boundaries between drugs, biologics, and medical devices. The following analysis examines the primary regulatory frameworks in the United States, the European Union, and India, as well as international harmonization structures.

United States

The FDA governs ADDS through the Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act (FDCA) and Public Health Service Act, evaluating products on the basis of their principal mode of action (PMOA). Advanced delivery platforms undergo review by CDER, CBER, or CDRH, while combination products are managed through the Office of Combination Products. The Investigational New Drug (IND) program requires sponsors to submit preclinical pharmacokinetic, biodistribution, toxicity, immunogenicity, and stability data prior to initiating human trials, with Chemistry, Manufacturing, and Controls (CMC) documentation playing a critical role for nanocarrier and polymeric matrix formulations. The FDA's guidance on nanotechnology does not establish a distinct regulatory category but requires enhanced physicochemical characterization, including particle size distribution, surface charge, and aggregation behavior⁸. Accelerated pathways Fast Track, Breakthrough Therapy, Priority Review, and Accelerated Approval are available for ADDS addressing life-threatening conditions, though they do not reduce safety thresholds; rather, they mandate robust post-approval pharmacovigilance⁹.

European Union

In the EU, the EMA coordinates clinical evaluation of ADDS under Directive 2001/83/EC and Regulation (EC) No 726/2004, with gene-delivery vectors and cell-based carrier systems subject to the Advanced Therapy Medicinal Products (ATMP) Regulation (EC) No 1394/2007, reviewed by the

Committee for Advanced Therapies (CAT). A defining feature of the EU framework is the mandatory Risk Management Plan (RMP) accompanying all marketing authorization applications, specifying known and potential risks, knowledge gaps, and pharmacovigilance measures. Conditional Marketing Authorization (CMA) enables early access to ADDS for unmet medical needs on the basis of preliminary data, with annual review obligations. The Clinical Trials Regulation (EU) No 536/2014 strengthens cross-border trial coordination through the Clinical Trials Information System (CTIS), ensuring data transparency and participant protection¹⁰.

India

The regulatory framework in India to manage the Drugs and Cosmetics Act, 1940, administered by the CDSCO, was reformed significantly by the New Drugs and Clinical Trials Rules, 2019, which shortened the period of approval, provided periodic reviews, and gave fast track access to unmet medical needs. Liposomal formulations, nanoparticle delivery tools, and long act injectables demand large amounts of preclinical information, bioequivalence assessment and safety profiling. Registered Institutional Ethics Committees (IECs) ethically supervise the work of CDSCO, and a statutory compensation system is established, which guarantees a free medical treatment system and financial compensation of trial-associated adverse events. New high-risk products require increasing numbers of periodic Safety Update Reports (PSURs) and Phase IV studies¹¹.

International Harmonization

The greatest example of global harmonization is the International Council on Harmonisation of Technical Requirements Pharmaceuticals to humans Use (ICH), whose guidelines on the areas of quality (Q), safety (S), efficacy (E), and multi-disciplinary (M) establish harmonised expectations of regulation in member jurisdictions. Guidelines on nanotoxicology tests provided by the OECD are internationally accepted schemes for the evaluation of manufactured nanoparticles, and the WHO Good Clinical Practice (GCP) guidelines supported by the commercialians at the Declaration of Helsinki define ethical and scientific principles of multinational research¹². Although these are the attempts, nano-specific guidance is not well harmonized. The inconsistent national requirements regarding the techniques of characterization, the environmental risk analysis, and the evidence of effect remains the major obstacle to the advancement of the programs of multinational development and access of patients to new therapies¹³.

RISK-BENEFIT ASSESSMENT IN ADVANCED DRUG DELIVERY

The features of risk-benefit analysis of ADDS are inherently more complicated than in the case of traditional small-molecule compounds since even the delivery carrier can present some toxicity, changes to biodistribution, immunogenicity, and the accumulation effect in the long term. Board control agencies demand a multi-phase lifecycle strategy of starting with preclinical characterization up to post-marketing surveillance¹⁴.

Preclinical Toxicology Requirements

Preclinical evaluation of ADDS must extend beyond standard toxicological endpoints. In vitro studies using 3D organoid and co-culture systems assess cytotoxicity, genotoxicity, hemocompatibility, and cellular uptake mechanisms. In vivo rodent and non-rodent models characterize systemic toxicity, immunogenicity, organ-specific accumulation, and pharmacokinetics, with particular attention to reticuloendothelial system uptake in the liver and spleen. Nanotoxicology-specific endpoints include reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation, complement activation, cytokine storm risk, protein corona formation, and off-target gene expression in nucleic acid delivery systems¹⁵. Biodistribution studies using advanced imaging (PET, MRI, radiolabeling) provide quantitative tissue distribution data essential for identifying unintentional organ accumulation and informing dose selection.

Adaptive Clinical Trial Design

Phase I trials for ADDS face unique dose-escalation challenges because the relationship between administered dose and systemic exposure may be non-linear due to carrier saturation or target-mediated disposition. Bayesian adaptive designs allow efficient identification of the maximum tolerated dose while minimizing patient risk. Dose-limiting toxicities may arise from the carrier rather than the active pharmaceutical ingredient (API) hypersensitivity reactions and complement activation-related pseudoallergy (CARPA) are known carrier-associated risks. Biomarkers play a central role across trial phases: companion diagnostics identify responsive patient subgroups, pharmacodynamic biomarkers monitor real-time safety and efficacy, and circulating tumor DNA supports early treatment response assessment in oncology¹⁶. Real-world evidence (RWE) increasingly complements randomized controlled trial data, supporting post-approval safety validation particularly in rare diseases and accelerated approval settings.

Post-Marketing Pharmacovigilance

Since pre-approval trials might not detect adverse events in the long run or ones that are infrequent, effective post-marketing surveillance is needed in ADDS. With the use of the spontaneous reporting system, electronic health databases, and global pharmacovigilance networks, it is possible to identify emerging safety patterns. FDA Risk Evaluation and Mitigation Strategies (REMS) model that can include limited distribution, prescriber certification, and compulsory laboratory surveillance is a structured risk treatment tool that offers high-risk delivery systems. Gene therapy vectors, implantable drug depots, and biodegradable polymer systems require this longitudinal safety and efficacy information, which can be obtained only through long-term registry studies¹⁷. New safety signals can be post-authorization and necessitate the use of post-authorization safety studies that are done retrospectively (PASS).

Table 1: Risk-Benefit Assessment Framework for Advanced Drug Delivery Systems

| Stage | Key Components | Regulatory Focus | Risk Mitigation Tools |
|-------------|--|---|--|
| Preclinical | In vitro cytotoxicity, in vivo toxicity, nanotoxicology, biodistribution | Safety characterization; organ accumulation; immunogenicity | Extended toxicology studies, advanced imaging, nano-characterization |
| Phase I | Dose-escalation, pharmacokinetics, safety monitoring | MTD; carrier-related toxicities | Adaptive trial design, real-time monitoring, Bayesian modelling |
| Phase II | Efficacy signals, biomarker integration, patient stratification | Therapeutic window; subgroup identification | Companion diagnostics, pharmacodynamic markers |
| Phase III | Comparative efficacy, broader safety evaluation | Benefit-risk confirmation | Large-scale RCTs, interim safety reviews |

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| | | | |
|-------------|---|---------------------------------------|--|
| Post-Market | Signal detection, REMS, registries, RWE | Long-term safety, rare adverse events | REMS programs, pharmacovigilance databases, PASS studies |
|-------------|---|---------------------------------------|--|

LEGAL AND ETHICAL ISSUES

The clinical evaluation of ADDS raises multidimensional legal and ethical challenges that extend beyond conventional pharmaceutical regulation. Four domains are particularly significant.

Regulatory Classification Ambiguity. There is a significant number of new delivery technologies that cut across drugs, devices, and biologics at the same time. A nanoparticle chemotherapy delivery system built into a programmable implant can have pharmacological, mechanical as well as digital capabilities simultaneously. The nature of a product as a drug, a device, biologic or combination product has direct implications on the approval pathway, evidence necessary during approval and post-market surveillance. The lack of consistent classification frequently leads to fragmentation at the regulatory level, increased compliance expenses and possible variation in patient protection owing to the possibility of varying degrees of safety assessment depending on the jurisdiction in which they are analyzed¹⁸.

Cross-Border Clinical Trial Complexity. The trials of multinational ADDS are attended by sponsors negotiating conflicting ethics approval, informed consent, challenges, and localization of data and adverse event reporting requirements. The fear of exploitation, therapeutic misconception, and inequity in access after the trial are further aggravated in lower-income contexts. The subject of long-term monitoring requirements of gene-editing and nanotechnology-based systems and the matter of transnational liability in case of damage are not covered by the international legal tools¹⁹. Mutual recognition accord and harmonized supervisory structures can help alleviate these dilemmas significantly without violating the rights of the participants.

Liability and Compensation Frameworks. The multistakeholder nature of ADDS between the manufacturers of the product, engineers of the devices, software developers, clinical researchers, and medical professionals makes traditional product liability procedures irrelevant to apportion the responsibility in the incident of adverse effects. In the case of an AI-enabled delivery algorithm, where the software update results in the incorrect dosage being administered, the

cause can run across the manufacturer and the software vendor and the healthcare provider. These more fair and efficient redress schemes by increasing no-fault compensation schemes and mandatory trial insurance make the incentives used in innovation more consistent with the responsibility burdens²⁰.

Intellectual Property and Access to Treatment.

Patent protection and regulatory data exclusivity is encouraged by the expensive nature of the development and validation of sophisticated delivery platforms. Nevertheless, well-established intellectual property laws may slow down entry of cheap substitute products in the market especially in low and middle-income nations. Potential solutions to the problem of inadequate alignment between innovation incentives and ethical demand of just access to life-saving therapies include compulsory licensing, voluntary licensing arrangements, and the combination of government and company in a public-private partnership²¹.

GAPS IN CURRENT REGULATORY FRAMEWORKS

In spite of the positive development in the regulation of pharmaceuticals, there are still considerable gaps in the structural control of ADDS.

To begin with, there are no uniform nano-specific toxicology protocols which is a major shortcoming. Most of the regulatory requirements remain based on classical toxicological principles based on mass concentration dose-response relationships which are not sufficient to characterize the nanoparticles surface area-dependent or particle count-dependent toxicity. In vitro and in vivo models particularly based on nanocarriers have not been universally validated by any means and inter-laboratory reproducibility is a problem. Annual nanoscale properties limits to surface area, aggregate behavior and morphology, without standardized tests, give methodological ambiguity to the sponsors of nanotechnology, and may instead result in over-regulation of benign changes and under-regulation of truly novel risks²².

Second, met-out inconsistency between jurisdictions defeats regulatory predictability. The EU, U.S and India impose various size limits, functionality and application scopes on the nanomaterials. The identical liposomal formulation can be considered as a usual medicinal product in one country and a nanomedicine that undergoes greater scrutiny in a different country. The varied definitions make multinational trial design more difficult, raise the compliance cost, and allow regulatory arbitrage²³.

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Third, the lack of long term safety data requirement creates a gap in the lifecycle. The classical Phase I-III trial designs are able to capture short and medium term safety effects while cumulative organ toxicity, immunological sensitisation effects, or oncogenic effects of sustained nanoparticle exposure might not be observed until many years later. Pharmacovigilance systems The most common deficiency in post-market tormentor systems includes inameness to nano-specific adverse events, and not every most hazardous nanocarrier systems require the completion of obligatory long-term cohort studies. The precautionary principle cannot be substantially practiced without effective lifecycle monitoring requirements²⁴.

Fourth, the international harmonization among manufacturing standards, characterization methods and environmental risk assessment requirements is weak and distributed, which introduces cost and uncertainty on the global development programs. ICH guidelines though progress in harmonizing clinical trial and quality standards do not have specific nano-guidelines. The acceptable characterization protocols electron microscopy, dynamic light scattering, zeta potential measurement defines the acceptable protocols of the natures independently by national regulators, introducing variances of quality specifications that any manufacturer must negotiate between the markets²⁵.

SUGGESTED REGULATORY REFORM

The identified gaps require a systematic reform model grounded in three mutually reinforcing pillars: risk-proportionality, enhanced toxicological surveillance, and global harmonization.

Risk-Proportionate Framework. Regulatory requirements would be adjusted by the novelty, complexity and systemic exposures risk of individual ADDS products. Recipes including well-characterized excipients in modified-release formulations would be eligible to receive abbreviated preclinical packages and those systems which use novel nanomaterials with insufficient biodistribution and immunogenicity data would entail detailed toxicological characterization of the system, including immunotoxicity, genotoxicity, reproductive toxicity, and organ-specific accumulation. This exactly is a tiered approach that is in line with the principles of ICH, science- and risk-based; it reduces the burden unnecessary regulation on the risk-low innovations and increases rigor in viewing the truly new risk profiles. Adaptive clinical trial designs seamlessly Phase I/II studies, Bayesian adaptive randomization, platform trials are formally recommended in ADDS, allowing carrier-specific toxicity indication is first noted and protocol

adjustment is immediately made possible. The classification of risks should be dynamic, and then it can be re-classified as the evidence on risks collects after the fact²⁶.

Enhanced Toxicological Surveillance. In the case of higher-risk category, mandatory long-term biodistribution and clearance experiments should be preconditions of market authorization that obliges the sponsor to provide quantitative premises of organ accumulation and degradation kinetics using reliable imaging methods. The WHO through coordination should design standardized nano-characterization procedures setting acceptable limits on acceptable analysis procedures and variability of particle size, zeta potential, aggregation state, and surface functionalization and attach them to binding regulatory standards. It is time to institutionalize interdisciplinary technical advisory committees of toxicologists, material scientists and clinical pharmacologists in large regulatory agencies to determine emergent nano-specific risks. Structured registry efforts should be offered as post-authorization mandates and with regular safety updates, explicit emphasis on delayed immunogenic or oncogenic effects.

Global Harmonization Strategy. An agreed definition of nanomedicine, functional in nature, reflecting size range, and characteristics of the surface as well as biological interaction instead of hard number limits ought to be created under the auspices of ICH, which will give a uniform classification criterion and prevent forum-shopping by regulatory bodies. There should be cross-border aggregation of toxicological results, post-threshold surveillance information, and report of adverse events with a proper level of secrecy and a level of cybersecurity that should potentially be achieved with international shared safety databases potentially administered by the WHO. Models of joint regulatory review that have been developed out of the current models of FDA-EMA collaboration must be expanded to include ADDS to bring together with them to facilitate a harmonized scientific advice, parallel assessment and consolidated post-Approval monitoring obligations. To regulators in emerging economies, capacity-building partnerships would enhance home-country regulatory competence and enable the country to increase its standards to those of the international best practice²⁷.

CONCLUSION

The highly-digested Drug Delivery Systems is an innovation in the pharmaceutical field that promises the future of targeted therapies, personalized therapy and more effective therapy. Their practical

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implementation, nonetheless, requires regulatory systems that can deal with the risks that traditional paradigms had not been developed to handle. As shown in the given comparative analysis, the current national regulatory frameworks have their strong points as well as the structural lapses in the nano-toxicology standards, definitional harmonisation, long-term safety surveillance and international coordination which need to be reformed immediately.

The suggested three-pillar reform model risk-proportional regulatory demands, improved toxicological monitoring and a global harmonization plan will provide a consistent system of balancing the needs of innovation and the needs of patient safety. Harmonization is, however, not to be seen as regulatory homogeneity at the lowest common denominator, but as convergence to shared scientific standards, with a sufficient leeway to allow variation at the context. The flexible governance systems necessitate conditional approval, integration of real-world evidence, iterative lifecycle monitoring to handle the evolving risk profile of the complex delivery platforms.

In silico modelling, high-throughput screening and systems toxicology Proactive toxicological governance should form part of ADEDS regulatory practice. Through stakeholder involvement with patient communities, clinical researchers, and industry, the validity and science of any safety structure receive a shot in the arm. Finally, law and regulation structures of advanced drug delivery should keep up with the science that they are meant to regulate, with the welfare of the patient and safeguarding the health of the population being the core values in such regulations.

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