

# Impact of Micellar Characteristics on the Dissolution and Efficacy of Anticancer Agents: A Review

## Abstract

Micellar drug delivery system is one of the potentially efficient methods for increasing the solubility, stability, and bioavailability of hydrophobic anticancer agents. This review study investigates the effects of major micellar properties on the solubility and therapeutic effectiveness of anticancer medications, including size, shape, surface charge, and stability. The non-spherical micelles may increase cellular uptake and lengthen circulation time, while smaller micelles may improve drug solubility and tumor penetration as various studies suggested. The surface charge of particles is also a critical factor to determine how they interact with cells. The stable micelles improve therapeutic results by delaying the onset of drug release. Furthermore, controlled release of encapsulated medications is possible with micelles, enhancing targeted delivery to tumor sites. Notwithstanding the advantages, problems like long-term stability and early medication release still exist. The results of this review study highlight the possibility of enhancing micellar properties to raise the effectiveness of anticancer treatments, opening the door to more potent and focused cancer therapies.

**Keywords:** Micellar Characteristics, Dissolution, Drug delivery, Anticancer Agents, Surface charge.

## Introduction

The poor solubility and limited bioavailability are common problems that anticancer agents face and can significantly reduce their therapeutic efficacy and poses challenges in drug delivery. Looking to the solution of these problems, micellar drug delivery systems have gained popularity among researchers significantly. The micelles which are amphiphilic molecule-based colloidal carriers and can improve the solubility, stability and targeting of hydrophobic anticancer medications. In this review study, we have examined the effects of micellar properties on anticancer agent dissolution and therapeutic efficacy, including size, shape, surface charge, and stability. According to study, micelles, by encapsulating hydrophobic drugs, enhance solubility, improve controlled release and target specific tissues, thereby increasing drug efficiency and minimizing systemic toxicity (Jose, et al. 2014). In another study, a core-shell structure reported as a characteristic of several polymeric micelles. In the pharmaceutical industry, majority of polymeric micelle research has focused on A-B diblock copolymers, where A is the hydrophilic polymer (shell) and B is the hydrophobic polymer (core) (Discher et al. 1999) as revealed in figure 1.

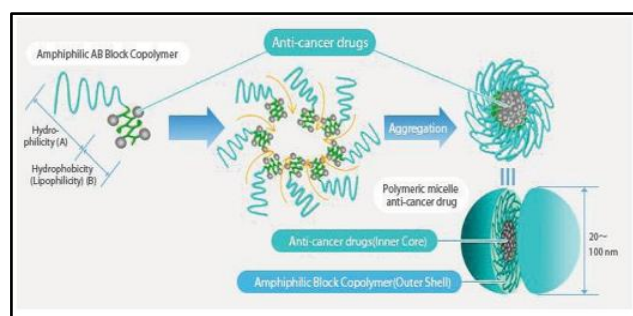
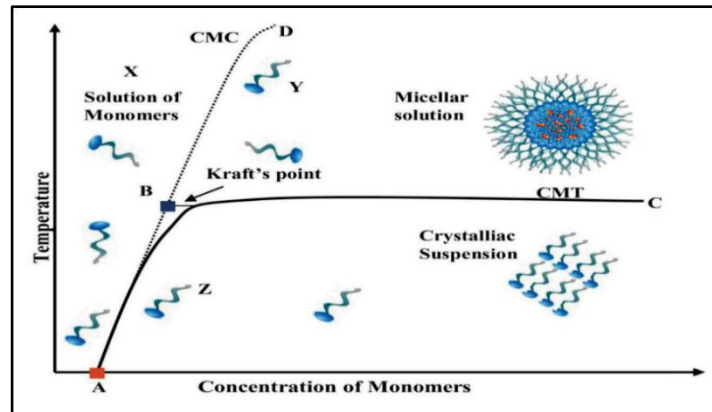


Figure 1: Amphiphilic block copolymeric micelle (Discher, et al. 1999)

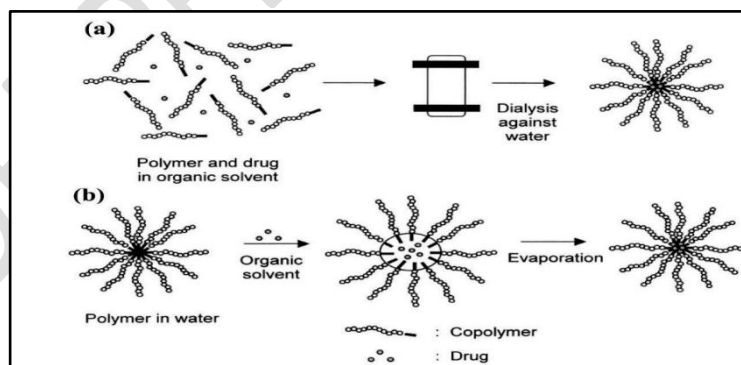
The hydrophobic core, usually made of a biodegradable polymer such as poly ( $\beta$ -benzyl-L-aspartate) (PBLA), poly (DL-lactic acid) (PDLLA), or poly ( $\epsilon$ -caprolactone) (PCL), protects the insoluble medication from the aqueous environment & keeps it in reserve. The core may also consist of a

41 water-soluble polymer, like poly(aspartic acid; P(Asp)), that has been chemically linked with a  
 42 hydrophobic drug to render it resistant (Mara, et al., 2015). The polymers are found in very small  
 43 amounts as mono chains. Chains of polymer start to come together to form micelles when  
 44 concentration hits a threshold value called the CAC. This guarantees that the copolymer's  
 45 hydrophobic component remains distinct from the aqueous medium in which it is diluted as  
 46 illustrated below in figure 2.



54 Figure 2: CMCs (Critical Micelle Concentrations) of the biodegradable block copolymers (Mohanty  
 55 et al. 2014)

56 Micelles as described loose aggregates are with larger sizes than micelles produced at higher  
 57 concentrations, and a significant amount of solvent may be seen within the micellar core at the CAC  
 58 (Gao et al., 2010). The micelle formation would encourage at such concentrations as they adopt the  
 59 shape of their low energy state. As the remaining solvent is released from the hydrophobic core, the  
 60 micellar size will gradually decrease. Since amphiphiles with high CAC are unstable in aquatic  
 61 environments and readily dissociate upon dilution, they may not be appropriate for use as drug  
 62 targeting devices. Physical trapping or chemical conjugation by emulsification or dialysis techniques  
 63 are two ways that insoluble medications might be incorporated into micelles as shown in figure 3.



70 Figure 3: Polymeric micelles Drug loading by the (a) dialysis and (b) oil-in-water methods (Torchilin  
 71 et al. 1992)

72 In their respective investigations, once the medication and micelles are simply equilibrated in water,  
 73 there may not be much drug integrated. The mechanism by which specific groups on the medication  
 74 and the hydrophobic polymer of the core combine to form a covalent link, like an amide bond, is  
 75 known as chemical conjugation. Steric hindrance prevents these bonds from being readily hydrolyzed  
 76 without the addition of spacer groups, making them resistant to enzymatic cleavage. The use of  
 77 different medical imaging modalities in early cancer diagnosis is essential for cancer treatment.  
 78 Theranostic agents are used in clinical diagnosis to distinguish diseased structures from surrounding

79 tissues by emitting a specific signal from the designated area of interest. Theranostic agent-loaded  
80 polymeric micelles may circulate for a long time, which causes them to accumulate in malignant  
81 tissues more because of the EPR effect. This feature makes it easier to identify the tissues and allows  
82 for real-time cancer diagnosis monitoring (Weissleder, 2006). A pH-responsive self-assembled mixed  
83 micelle of diethylene tri-amino penta-acetic acid dianhydride-gadolinium chelate (PEG-p(L-LA)-  
84 DTPAGd) and methoxy poly(ethylene glycol)-b-poly(L-histidine) (PEG-p(L-His)) amphiphilic block  
85 copolymers with a narrow size of ~ 40 nm were created by Kim et al. and as reported, within a few  
86 minutes, these micelles show greater T1 MR contrast in the tumor diagnosis of female BALB/c nude  
87 mice with CT26 murine tumors (Kim et al., 2014).

## 88 **Methodology: Combined Approaches**

89 Various methodology has been employed during the course of existing research by investigators.  
90 This has well explored the impact of micellar systems on the solubility, stability and therapeutic  
91 efficacy of hydrophobic anticancer drugs. The methodologies employed in the various studies, cited  
92 the use of analytical techniques such as dynamic light scattering (DLS), transmission electron  
93 microscopy (TEM) and zeta potential analysis for micellar characterization. Drug-loading and release  
94 studies commonly utilized quantitative methods like UV-visible spectroscopy and high-performance  
95 liquid chromatography (HPLC) to evaluate drug encapsulation efficiency and release kinetics under  
96 physiological and tumor-mimicking conditions. Biological evaluations, including in-vitro  
97 cytotoxicity assays, cellular uptake studies, and in-vivo animal models, were used to assess  
98 therapeutic efficacy, biodistribution, and toxicity profiles of micellar systems compared to free drug  
99 formulations. Additionally, experimental approaches to optimize stimuli-responsive micellar systems  
100 for tumor-specific drug release accordance to pH, temperature or redox gradients have been utilized  
101 by researchers. Preclinical and clinical investigations demonstrated that advanced micellar systems  
102 enhanced solubility, pharmacokinetics and therapeutic outcomes while reducing systemic toxicity.  
103 By analyzing the methodologies and findings of such studies, it is fascinating to identifies the key  
104 trends, challenges, and future directions in micellar drug delivery systems. It also appraises critical  
105 limitations, including stability in biological fluids, regulatory hurdles, and clinical translational  
106 challenges, and offers a comprehensive perspective on the potential of micellar systems to improve  
107 anticancer therapies under the wide domain of methodology.

## 108 **Micelle Formation and Structure**

109 The critical micelle concentration (CMC) is a parameter, used to characterize the physical properties  
110 of a micelle, although it is actually an indication of its stability. The word was initially used to refer  
111 to the main thermodynamic parameter of surfactant micelles, but in today's era also prefer to  
112 highlight the stability of polymeric micelles. Distinguishingly, one would use the phrase critical  
113 association concentration (CAC) to refer to polymeric micelles as against surfactant micelles  
114 (Dowling and Thomas, 1990). In minimal concern, the polymers exist only as a mono chain and the  
115 polymers chains start combining & forming micelles when the concentration achieve a critical value  
116 known as CAC, thereby avoiding the contact of the water phobic part of the copolymer with the  
117 aqueous medium in which the polymer is diluted. So, the micelles are loose aggregates that are larger  
118 than those produced at higher concentrations, and the micellar core at the CAC contains a significant  
119 amount of solvent (Gao et al., 2010). At such concentrations, the similar environment will support the  
120 growth of micelles, which will adopt their low energy state structure and gradually release the  
121 remaining solvent from the hydrophobic core, resulting in a reduction in micellar size. The high CAC  
122 Amphiphiles are not the best drugs targeting compounds since they are unstable when exposed to  
123 aquatic conditions and dissolve quickly when diluted. The formation of the micelle requires

124 association between hydrophobic and hydrophilic polymer chains; as mentioned earlier, the micelles  
125 of randomly modified polymers are smaller than those of end-modified grafted polymers. Differences  
126 in the diameters of random and end-modified copolymers could be explained based on the  
127 differences in how these two forces are balanced. The major determining factors of micellar size are  
128 the hydrophobic forces that confine the hydrophobic chains in the core and the excluded volume  
129 repulsions between chains that limit the size (Chung, et al.1998). Once, terminal hydrophobic groups  
130 form micelles, the water clusters trapped around the hydrophobic segments are prevented from  
131 entering the core. Moreover, there is no interaction between the core and the hydrophilic shell; rather,  
132 they stay within the structure as mobile linear chains (Chung et al. 1998). In fact, the micelles  
133 composed of polymers have a more pronounced stability compared with surfactant micelles with a  
134 significantly reduced CMC as well as rate of dissociation. Consequently, the released drugs are held  
135 within the drug-delivery vehicle for a more considerable period, eventually leading to drug  
136 accumulation in the target region over time. In contrast, random modifications of the polymer interact  
137 in such a way that the hydrophilic and hydrophobic parts of the polymer become entangled, allowing  
138 possible contact between the core and the aqueous medium. In this case, the chains that makes up the  
139 shell are fewer mobile.

#### 140 **Enhanced Efficacy of Anticancer Agents through Micelles**

141 The use of micelles in anticancer therapy provides several advantages, such as improved drug  
142 solubility, protection of the drug from degradation and enhanced accumulation in tumor tissues  
143 through the EPR effect. Moreover, micelles can be modified to target specific cancer cells by  
144 conjugating targeting ligands, such as antibodies or peptides, to their surface. The active pointing  
145 approach also enhances the selective delivery of anticancer agents, reducing systemic toxicity and  
146 improving overall therapeutic outcomes. For example, the anticancer drug doxorubicin, when  
147 delivered via micelles, increased its cytotoxicity against tumor cells while minimizing side effects on  
148 healthy tissues. Similarly, paclitaxel, a poorly soluble anticancer agent has been successfully  
149 encapsulated in micelles significantly improving its bioavailability and antitumor activity. (Chen Y,  
150 et al. 2013)

#### 151 **Challenges and Future Perspectives**

152 Various investigating studies based on micellar drug delivery systems show the possibility, but still  
153 various obstacles are yet to overcome. In vogue, early release of medications from micelles is one of  
154 the main issues as it can reduce therapeutic efficacy and increase toxicity. Moreover, further research  
155 in the respective area will enable to determine the long-term stability of micelles in biological  
156 contexts. Developing stimuli-responsive micelles that only release their payload within the tumor  
157 microenvironment may be the main goal of future micellar nanotechnology advancements. Also,  
158 real-time tracking of medication distribution and therapeutic benefits may be possible by fabricating  
159 multifunctional micelles that combine drug delivery and imaging capabilities, improving  
160 personalized cancer treatment.

#### 161 **Barriers in Oral delivery of Anticancer Drugs**

162 Many variables influence the oral bioavailability of a drug, including the water solubility of drug,  
163 stability in the gastrointestinal tract, intestinal epithelial accessibility, stability of intestinal and liver  
164 cytochrome P450 (CYP) metabolic proteins and stability to the P-glycoproteins (P-gp) efflux pump.  
165 On the basis of the above, one can categorize the primary obstacles to oral administration as either  
166 the physiological limitations imposed by the body or the physicochemical characteristics of the  
167 medications themselves. (Thanki, et al. 2013). In general, the medications are categorized into four

168 groups, Class I to Class IV, according to the Biopharmaceutical Classification System (BCS), the  
169 primary physicochemical qualities that impact the oral bioavailability of the pharmaceuticals are their  
170 solubility and permeability. The majority of anticancer drugs cannot be taken orally because they  
171 belong to one or two classes i.e. class II, with high permeability and poor solubility or class IV,  
172 which has low permeability but low solubility. Proteotaxel, docetaxel, methotrexate (MTX) and  
173 etoposide are examples of class IV drugs, while resveratrol, tamoxifen, and serofenib are examples of  
174 class II pharmaceuticals (Banna, et al., 2010). There are some parameters that the investigators took  
175 into account during the study:

176 **Solubility:** As one of the established parameters, the solubility is a fundamental component of cancer  
177 chemotherapy. The medication that is given orally or intravenously needs to have a better oral  
178 absorption rate or be soluble in blood. Because most anticancer medications are hydrophobic, their  
179 solubility is low, leading to a poor therapeutic effect. Anticancer medications such as resveratrol,  
180 tamoxifen, gefitinib, and others require improved solubility to avoid low bioavailability (Mohanty, et  
181 al. 2014 & Negut, et al. 2023). The therapeutic applications of flutamide and resveratrol anticancer  
182 drugs from BCS class II are limited because of their less aqueous solubility, which makes it difficult  
183 to formulate them as oral dosage forms (Banna, et al. 2010).

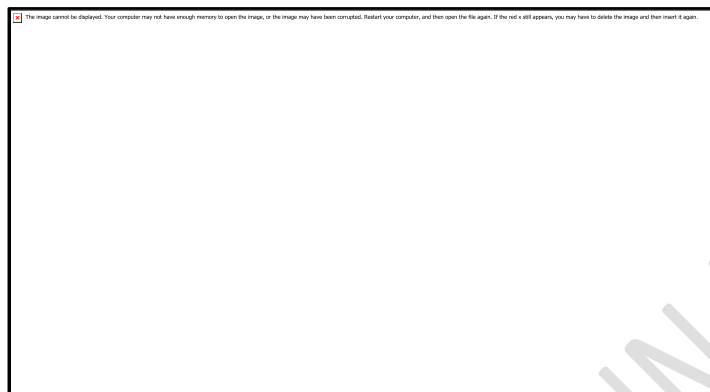
184 **Permeability:** In order for anticancer drugs used in oral cancer treatment to reach systemic drug  
185 concentration, they must have high intestinal epithelial permeability and be stable. For drugs to be  
186 absorbed via the epithelium, two important characteristics are how well they dissolve in water and  
187 how ease they percolate through cell membranes. Oral distribution of BCS class IV anticancer  
188 medicines like Paclitaxel has been challenging due to their limited solubility and permeability.  
189 Doxorubicin, an anticancer medication of BCS class III, has limited oral administration due to its low  
190 permeability. Golla K., et al. 2013 developed doxorubicin-loaded protein nanoparticles to treat  
191 hepatocellular carcinoma in order to get around this permeability problem. Doxorubicin's  
192 permeability was increased in order to maximize its oral bioavailability.

193 **Macrophages uptake:** When monocytes split, macrophages i.e. white blood cells are created, which  
194 are present in tissues. The width of a human macrophage is roughly 21 micrometers. The crucial  
195 function of macrophages is to locate foreign substances that enter into the bloodstream, swallowing  
196 and assimilating them. It serves also as a protective barrier to prevent infections from entering the  
197 bloodstream and attacking the body. Chemotherapy may be hampered by this since the anticancer  
198 medications may be interpreted as foreign objects by the macrophages, resulting in incredibly subpar  
199 treatment. (Deepak, et al. 2011). The tumor cells that have developed resistance to the cytostatic or  
200 cytotoxic effects of various drugs commonly used in cancer chemotherapy are known as multidrug-  
201 resistant organisms (MDRs). The most accepted explanation for multidrug resistance (MDR) is the  
202 over expression of ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters, which cause tumor cells to reject a  
203 series of chemotherapy drugs. Three notable ABC transporters which interacts with MDR are MDR-  
204 associated proteins, ABC-G2 protein, and P-gp. P-gps are large glycosylated membrane proteins that  
205 are primarily limited to the cell's plasma membrane. They are thought to be the most important  
206 transporters that reduce the anticancer effect of medications. By dynamically ATP-dependently  
207 expelling cytotoxic drugs from the cell, they confer drug resistance and reduce drug aggregation in  
208 cancer cells. The majority of significant anticancer medications, such as vinca alkaloids, taxanes,  
209 epipodophyllotoxins and anthracyclines are impacted by MDR.

## 210 **Futuristic Trends in Oral Delivery of Anticancer Drugs**

211 Despite the problems encountered in the practice of cancer therapy, oral administration of a few  
212 anticancer drugs has been explored with their therapeutic efficiency and safety. This predominantly

213 practiced by delivering simultaneously an active agent, a functional excipient, a metabolism inhibitor,  
214 and/or an anticancer drug. It either makes easier the passing through the GIT for the anticancer drug  
215 or defeats the biological obstacles that stand as obstacles against this process. It has been possible to  
216 provide many anticancer medications that otherwise could not be given orally with great success  
217 using several methods. Figure 4 depicts several methods that may be used to boost the oral  
218 bioavailability of anticancer medications.



225 Figure 4: Different techniques to enhance the oral bioavailability of anticancer drugs (Thanki, et al  
226 2013)

## 227 Conclusion

228 In the review, we comprehensively investigate the significant role of micellar characteristics  
229 including size, surface charge, shape and stability-in optimizing the dissolution and therapeutic  
230 efficacy of hydrophobic anticancer agents based on the findings of the investigators. The key findings  
231 highlight that micellar systems address the inherent challenges of poor solubility and bioavailability  
232 associated with many anticancer drugs. The smaller micellar sizes enhance the solubility and tumor  
233 penetration of the drug, while non-spherical morphologies improve cellular uptake and prolong  
234 circulation time. The surface charge significantly influences micelle-cell interactions with cationic  
235 surfaces that often promote cellular internalization, although neutral or slightly negative charges may  
236 reduce non-specific interactions in systemic circulation. The stability, governed by factors such as  
237 critical micelle concentration (CMC) and polymer composition, ensures controlled drug release,  
238 preventing premature leakage and enhancing accumulation at tumor sites via the EPR effect. Despite  
239 these advantages, challenges continue, including premature drug release during systemic circulation,  
240 long-term stability in biological environments and scalability for clinical translation. Future  
241 advancements should be focused on stimuli-responsive micelles that release payloads selectively in  
242 the tumor micro-environments (pH or redox-sensitive systems) and focus on multifunctional designs  
243 integrating imaging agents for real-time therapeutic monitoring. Additionally, optimizing ligand-  
244 conjugated micelles for actively targeting can further reduce off-target toxicity and improve  
245 therapeutic precision. In conclusion, tailoring micellar properties presents a transformative strategy to  
246 enhance anticancer drug delivery. By addressing the current limitations and leveraging emerging  
247 technologies, micellar systems have immense potential to advance personalized, effective and safer  
248 cancer therapies.

## 249 References

- 250 1. Aliabadi HM, Brocks DR, Lavasanifar A. (2005), Polymeric micelles for the solubilization and  
251 delivery of cyclosporine A: pharmacokinetics and biodistribution. *Biomaterials*, 26(35):7251-  
252 7259.

- 253 2. Banna GL, Collovà E, Gebbia V, Lipari H, Giuffrida P, Cavallaro S, et al. (2010), Anticancer oral  
254 therapy: emerging related issues. *Cancer Treat Rev*, 36:595-605.
- 255 3. Chen Y, Zhang W, Gu J, Ren Q, Fan Z, Zhong W, et al. (2013), Enhanced antitumor efficacy by  
256 methotrexate conjugated Pluronic mixed micelles against KBv multidrug resistant cancer. *Int J*  
257 *Pharm*, 452(1-2):421-433.
- 258 4. Discher BM, Won YY, Ege DS, Lee JC, Bates FS, Discher DE, et al. (1999), Polymersomes:  
259 tough vesicles made from diblock copolymers. *Science*, 284(5417):1143-1146.
- 260 5. Duan X, Xiao J, Yin Q, Zhang Z, Yu H, Mao S, et al. (2013), Smart pH-sensitive and temporal-  
261 controlled polymeric micelles for effective combination therapy of doxorubicin and disulfiram.  
262 *ACS Nano* 7(7):5858-5869.
- 263 6. Ferrari M. (2010), Vectoring siRNA therapeutics into the clinic. *Nat Rev Clin Oncol*,7(9):485-  
264 486.
- 265 7. Gao J, Feng SS, Guo Y. (2010), Antibody engineering promotes nanomedicine for cancer  
266 treatment. *Nanomedicine*, 5(8):1141-1145.
- 267 8. Ghezzi M, Pescina S, Padula C, Santi P, Del Favero E, Cantù L, et al. (2021), Polymeric micelles  
268 in drug delivery: An insight of the techniques for their characterization and assessment in  
269 biorelevant conditions. *J Control Release*, 332:312-336.
- 270 9. Haider MS, Schreiner J, Kendl S, Kroiss M, Luxenhofer R. (2020), A Micellar Mitotane  
271 Formulation with High Drug-Loading and Solubility: Physico-Chemical Characterization and  
272 Cytotoxicity Studies in 2D and 3D In Vitro Tumor Models. *Macromol Biosci*, 20(1):1900178.
- 273 10. Ioele G, Chieffallo M, Occhiuzzi MA, De Luca M, Garofalo A, Ragno G, et al. (2022),  
274 Anticancer drugs: recent strategies to improve stability profile, pharmacokinetic and  
275 pharmacodynamic properties. *Molecules*, 27(17):5436.
- 276 11. Jose, S., Anju, S. S., Cinu, T. A., Aleykutty, N. A., Thomas, S., & Souto, E. B. (2014), In vivo  
277 pharmacokinetics and biodistribution of resveratrol-loaded solid lipid nanoparticles for brain  
278 delivery. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, 474(1-2), 6.
- 279 12. Kaur, J., Gulati, M., Jha, N. K., Disouza, J., Patravale, V., Dua, K., & Singh, S. K. (2022), Recent  
280 advances in developing polymeric micelles for treating cancer: Breakthroughs and bottlenecks in  
281 their clinical translation. *Drug Discovery Today*, 27(5), 1495-1512.
- 282 13. Kim, K. S., Park, W., Hu, J., Bae, Y. H., & Na, K. (2014), A cancer-recognizable MRI contrast  
283 agents using pH-responsive polymeric micelle. *Biomaterials*, 35, 337-343.
- 284 14. La, S. B., Okano, T., & Kataoka, K. (1996), Preparation and characterization of the micelle-  
285 forming polymeric drug indomethacin-incorporated poly(ethylene oxide)-poly( $\beta$ -benzyl L-  
286 aspartate) block copolymer micelles. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, 85(1), 85-90.
- 287 15. Majumder, N., G Das, N., & Das, S. K. (2020), Polymeric micelles for anticancer drug delivery.  
288 *Therapeutic Delivery*, 11(10), 613-635.
- 289 16. Mara, F., Chavesa, L. L., Sofia, A., Costa, L., Salette, R. (2015), Optimization of nanostructured  
290 lipid carriers loaded with methotrexate: A tool for inflammatory and cancer therapy. *International*  
291 *Journal of Pharmaceutics*, 492, 65-72.
- 292 17. Mohanty, A. K., & Mohanta, G. P. (2014), Biodegradable amphiphilic diblock copolymer as drug  
293 carriers. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Pharmacology*, 1(1), 40-53.
- 294 18. Mohanty, A. K., Dilnawaz, F., Mohanty, C., & Sahoo, S. K. (2010), Etoposide-loaded  
295 biodegradable amphiphilic methoxy (poly ethylene glycol) and poly(epsilon caprolactone)  
296 copolymeric micelles as drug delivery vehicle for cancer therapy, drug delivery, 17(5), 330-342.
- 297 19. Mourya, V. K., Inamdar, N., Nawale, R. B., & Kulthe, S. S. (2011), Polymeric micelles: general  
298 considerations and their applications. *Indian Journal of Pharmaceutical Education and Research*,  
299 45(2), 128-138.



- 300 20. Negut, I., & Bitá, B. (2023), Polymeric micellar systems—a special emphasis on “smart” drug  
301 delivery. *Pharmaceutics*, 15(3), 976.
- 302 21. Paliwal, R., Paliwal, S. R., Mishra, N., Mehta, A., & Vyas, S. P. (2009), Engineered chylomicron  
303 mimicking carrier emulsome for lymph targeted oral delivery of methotrexate. *International*  
304 *Journal of Pharmaceutics*, 380(1-2), 181-188.
- 305 22. Parhi, P., Mohanty, C., & Sahoo, S. K. (2012), Nanotechnology-based combinational drug  
306 delivery: an emerging approach for cancer therapy. *Drug Discovery Today*, 17(17-18), 1044-  
307 1052.
- 308 23. Peng, H., Xiong, H., Li, J., Xie, M., Liu, Y., Bai, C., & Chen, L. (2010), Vanillin cross-linked  
309 chitosan microspheres for controlled release of resveratrol. *Food Chemistry*, 121(1), 23-28.
- 310 24. Thanki, K., Gangwal, R. P., Sangamwar, A. T., & Jain, S. (2013), Oral delivery of anticancer  
311 drugs: Challenges
- 312 25. Torchilin, V. P., Klíbanov, A. L., Huang, L., O'Donnell, S., Nossiff, N. D., & Khaw, B. A.  
313 (1992), Targeted accumulation of polyethylene glycol-coated immunoliposomes in infarcted  
314 rabbit myocardium. *The FASEB journal*, 6(9), 2716-2719.
- 315 26. Wang, Q., Atluri, K., Tiwari, A. K., & Babu, R. J. (2023), Exploring the application of micellar  
316 drug delivery systems in cancer nanomedicine. *Pharmaceutics*, 16(3), 433.
- 317 27. Wu, M., Wang, L., Li, X., Zhang, F., & Jin, X. (2024), Current advances of anticancer drugs  
318 based on solubilization technology. *Nanotechnology Reviews*, 13(1), 20240011.
- 319 28. Xiong, X.B., Uludag, H., & Lavasanifar, A. (2010), Virus-mimetic polymeric micelles for  
320 targeted siRNA delivery. *Biomaterials*, 31, 5886-5893.
- 321 29. Yokoyama, T., Tam, J., Kuroda, S., Scott, A. W., Aaron, J., Larson, T. & Ramesh, R. (2011),  
322 EGFR-targeted hybrid plasmonic magnetic nanoparticles synergistically induce autophagy and  
323 apoptosis in non-small cell lung cancer cells. *PLoS ONE*, 6(11), e25507.
- 324 30. Yu, J. L., Rak, J. W., Coomber, B. L., Hicklin, D. J., & Kerbel, R. S. (2002), Effect of p53 status  
325 on tumor response to antiangiogenic therapy. *Science*, 295(5559), 1526-1528.