

International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 4, Issue 2, December 2024

Gene Therapy on Cancer Diseases

Zeeshaan Khan¹ and Akhil Maske²

Student, Vardhaman College of Pharmacy, Karanja (Lad), Maharashtra, India¹ Guide, Vardhaman College of Pharmacy, Karanja (Lad), Maharashtra, India²

Abstract: Gene therapy is a new method for treating various diseases. In 1989, it started to be used a lot in research projects, and this therapy has come a long way since then. It was not by accident that the first commercial gene therapy was developed for a neoplasia in 2003, as the majority of gene therapy clinical trials focus on cancer. By and by, a few troublesome occasions have been seen in the utilization of this treatment bringing about its severe reconnaissance and in the advancement of making more secure helpful regimens. As of now there are a wide assortment of quality treatment proposition including an enormous number of antitumor sub-atomic components that will possibly prepare for profoundly powerful treatment choices. Gene therapy's efficacy, safety, and commercial availability remain limited despite significant advancements in the fight against cancer. It is anticipated that these restrictions will gradually be eliminated.

Keywords: Gene therapy

I. INTRODUCTION

In 1990, children with adenosine deaminase deficiency, a severe combined immunodeficiency syndrome, participated in the first clinical trial of gene therapy [1]. Since then, more than 400 clinical protocols have been used to treat more than 5000 patients worldwide. A new outline of 425 distributed preliminaries shows the accompanying conveyance of "signs" for quality treatment: 65.6% of cases are cancer, 12.9% are caused by genes, 7.8% are infectious, 3.8% are other diseases, 9.4% are caused by genes, and 0.5 percent are healthy volunteers [2]. With the exception of the illfated endeavor at quality treatment which prompted the September 1999 demise of a young fellow [3], secondary effects were uncommon and typically gentle, and articulation of the transgene could be shown in patients invivo. Alain Fischer's team has demonstrated a first gene therapy breakthrough by apparently curing two boys with severe combined immunodeficiency disorder (SCID) [4].





International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 4, Issue 2, December 2024

II. LITERATURE SURVEY

Christoph F. Rochlitz, 2015, Gene therapy was initially thought of as a means to correct single gene defects in hereditary disease. In the meantime, cancer has become by far the most important indication for gene therapy in clinical trials. In the foreseeable future, the best way to achieve reasonable intratumoral concentrations of a transgene with available vectors is direct intratumoral injection with or without the aid ofvarious techniques such as endoscopy or CT-guidance. A 1996 evaluation of the first 7 years of gene therapy concluded that gene therapy was safe and feasible, but that none of the more than one hundred clinical studies performed so far had formally proven the efficacy of the approach in any human disease.

Hakan Akbulut, Muge Ocal and Gizem Sonugur, 2016, Cancer treatment has been the major goal of the gene therapy studies over the decades. Although there is no cancer gene therapy drug in the market yet, substantial progress has been made in defining potential targets and in developing viral and nonviral gene delivery systems recently. Numerous genes have been studied as the targets for cancer gene therapy so far. Various gene therapy strategies, including suicide gene therapy, oncolytic viral therapies, antiangiogenesis, and gene therapy vaccines have been developed. The combination of gene therapy with conventional methods, such as chemotherapy, radiotherapy, and immunotherapy, has further improved the therapeutic efficacy. Although the preclinical and experimental studies have yielded highly encouraging results, there are still few gene therapy agents at phase III trials. In the current chapter, we will review gene transfer systems, targets, gene targeting strategies, and cancer gene therapy in the clinic.Indeed, the nature of the distant spread of the disease, which causes the failure of conventional treatment modalities, is also one of the main drawbacks of gene therapy of cancer.

Irma Alicia Martínez-Dávila and Iván Delgado Enciso, 2011, Gene therapy is a new tool used in combating different diseases. It began to be intensely used in research projects in 1989 and important advances have been made in this therapy since then. The majority of gene therapy clinical trials are focused on cancer and so it was no coincidence that the first commercial gene treatment in 2003 was for a neoplasia. Nevertheless, some unfavorable events have been observed in the use of this therapy resulting in its strict surveillance and in the promotion of creating safer therapeutic regimens. Currently there are a wide variety of gene therapy proposals involving a large number of antitumor molecular mechanisms that will conceivably pave the way for highly effective treatment options. Despite the significant advances that have been made in gene therapy in the fight against cancer, its efficacy, safety and commercial availability are still limited. These limitations are expected to gradually be overcome. Gene therapy against cancer is a reality with a promising future. The hope for a miracle cure for cancer can be felt in the ideas that sustain gene therapy but not yet in its reality. It is atherapeutic area that has practically just begun and this makes the first commercial vectors expensive. Vectors are useful in very specific cancers and patients and although they do not yet provide a cure, they do improve patient quality of life and will continue to do so more and more. This type of therapy seems to be an adequate path to follow to successfully fight malignant tumors. However, there is still a long way to go before the ideal vector is found.

Kenneth K. Tanabe, James C. CusackJr., in Surgical Research, 2001, Gene therapy has rapidly emerged as a new tool to treat human diseases. Cancer gene therapy represents a natural by-product of the numerous advances made in the fields of cancer biology, molecular biology, immunology, molecular genetics, and virology. In many instances, gene therapy approaches to cancer have been designed to augment currently existing therapies, such as chemotherapy and immunotherapy. In other instances, gene therapy has provided the tools necessary to exploit newly gained insight into the role of oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes. The past decade has produced many promising leads in the field of cancer gene therapy, many of which are being examined in clinical trials. Unfortunately, gene therapy has yet to produce its first cancer cure. Successful cancer gene therapy approaches will require development of vectors.

Aliza Applebaum graduated September 2017, Although gene therapy as a treatment option for cancer has had some setbacks and inconclusive results, it still provides a large source of hope for cancer patients. The paradigm of treating cancer is slowly shifting due to the ongoing progress of gene therapy. Based on the studies presented above, overall gene therapy, whether administered through a viral vector or a non-viral vector, was successful in treating a portion of the patients. Additionally, even in the studies done in which small or no substantial recovery was obtained, there were no consider-able adverse effects on the patients treated with gene therapy. This greatly contrasts standard treatments like chemotherapy that cause an array of adverse effects on the patient without necessarily providing complete removal of the cancer. Thus, even though gene therapy may not provide a complete cure against cancer, it is a promising

Copyright to IJARSCT www.ijarsct.co.in





International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 4, Issue 2, December 2024

alternative to standard cancer treatment. With the constant hard work and progress of medi-cal researchers and physicians that is presently taking place, it is anticipative to say that gene therapy will provide great relief to many cancer patients in the coming years

III. AIM

To study gene therapy of cancer.

OBJECTIVE

Gene therapy replaces a faulty gene or adds a new gene in an attempt to cure disease or improve your body's ability to fight disease. Gene therapy holds promise for treating a wide range of diseases, such as cancer,

IV. DEFINATION OF GENE THERAPY

The process of inserting nucleotide sequences (DNA or RNA) into a cell to treat or prevent a disease is known as gene therapy. The information needed to make a protein in the cell is typically carried by introduced genes (figure 1) [5]. The transfer of genes or genetic material is done with the intention of either introducing a new function or interfering with one that already exists, reestablishing a cellular function that has been lost or altered. The application of gene therapy to the treatment of a disease brought on by a defective gene in a patient's cells is a straightforward illustration. A defective protein incapable of performing a particular function would be produced by this defective gene. A normal gene could be introduced into the patient's cells using gene therapy, which would produce the required protein and treat the disease. Notwithstanding, subbing the capability of a deficient quality by supplanting it with another gene is as of now extremely challenging. Not many tasks have effectively accomplished this and there have been unfriendly impacts that can be intense [6]. Gene therapy is currently being developed with somatic cells in mind rather than germ cells. This makes sure that genetic transference only affects the original person and not their children [7]. Three fundamental components combine to form the basis of various gene therapy strategies: the type of target cell, the transference technique, and the genetic material to be transferred.

V. CANCER IS COMPLEX GENETIC DESEASE

It has long been hypothesized that the cancer started as a single cell that was altered by environmental factors like viruses, chemicals, and the environment. A normal cell must undergo hundreds of "mutations" in order to become a cancer cell. Oncogene activation or inactivation of tumor suppressor genes are typically the most significant functional changes that transform a cell. The overexpression of oncogenes and loss of capability of cancer silencer qualities typically prompt dangerous change. Those changes are likewise expected for additional development of cancer cells. In most cases, a transformed cell acquires important biological properties in order to cause a disease that is cancerous. A recent review by Hanahan and Weinberg [8] discusses these properties in detail, including uncontrolled proliferation, evasion of growth suppressors, inhibition of apoptosis, replicative immortality, angiogenesis, proliferative signals, invasion, and metastasis. The majority of current targeted therapies have aimed to eliminate one or more of the aforementioned characteristics of cancer cells, whereas conventional chemotherapy has primarily focused on the direct killing of tumor cells. The focusing of angiogenesis, expansion pathways, and safe framework has yielded various medications that are now on the lookout. Cancer cells cannot expand beyond a diameter of 1-2 millimeters without expanding their blood supply in order to meet their ever-increasing demand for oxygen and nutrients. Through a process known as angiogenesis [9], the tumor tissue stimulates the formation of its own vessel network in order to generate the additional blood supply. In the event that one could cut the blood supply of the cancer, it can't develop past 1-2 mm, and that implies that they can't develop to the point of being analyzed by the momentum symptomatic innovation and can't cause a clinical illness. Bevacizumab and aflibercept-targeting ligands of angiogenesis or small tyrosine kinase inhibitors of angiogenesis pathway receptors or signaling molecules-have already established themselves as standard therapeutic agents for a variety of tumors [10]. The overexpression of oncogenes and the deficiency of capability of cancer silencer qualities are typically engaged with both dangerous transformation of the phones and further development of growth cells. Another age of little particles focusing an expansion pathways, as gefitinib, erlotinib, and imatinib, has been created to hinder the malignant growth causing signals inside disease cells

Copyright to IJARSCT www.ijarsct.co.in





International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 4, Issue 2, December 2024

and become standard medicines in those patients with transformations of EGFR or c-Pack [11]. Immune response atoms, focusing on the EGFR group of receptors like trastuzumab, cetuximab, and panitumumab additionally block the development advancing signs that drive disease cells into an unregulated example of development [11]. As opposed to standard chemotherapy, which is very harming to the ordinary tissues of the body as well as the malignant growth tissue, the designated drugs are very unambiguous for the disease cells and hence somewhat liberated from incidental effects. Although the majority of cancer patients have an immune system that is fairly healthy, the immune system's cells typically do not respond to tumor cells because the immune system is unable to distinguish between cancer cells and normal cells, which means it cannot fight them. The goal of immunotherapy, also known as cancer vaccine therapy, is to activate the immune system to fight tumors. Ipilumumumab/tremelimumab and pembrolizumab/nivolumumab, which target immune response checkpoints like CTLA-4 or PD1, have also been approved recently [12]. Similarly, sipuleucel T, a dendritic cell-based vaccine, was approved two years ago for the treatment of metastatic prostate cancer [13]. Those pathways have been influenced by and controlled by hundreds of genes. Cancer is a genetic disease at the cellular level because it is caused by a series of changes in normal cell genes. The contribution of qualities in the improvement of the illness likewise makes the sickness a decent contender for quality treatment. Consequently, quality treatment has arisen as the expectation of corrective therapy methodology in disease.

VI. METHODS

This paper's research literature was obtained from the Touro College Online library. The student conducted searches in the Touro College Online Library, which led him or her to Proquest and PubMed, where the majority of the articles were found. Additionally, articles from other scholarly websites were utilized. The articles talked about ex-perimental concentrates on finished and the intensive investigation of these ar-ticles took into account the evaluation of quality treatment's practicability. The formal analysis was also written with the help of review articles.



FIG. 2. GENE THERAPY OF CANCER

Copyright to IJARSCT www.ijarsct.co.in





International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 4, Issue 2, December 2024

VII. GENE TRANSFER SYSTEM OF CANCER GENE THERAPY

Genes can be transferred into tumor cells in three main ways: cell-based vehicles, viral vectors, and nonviral vectors. The majority of tumors may be eradicated by the expression of therapeutic genes for a relatively brief period of time. Fast freedom of viral vectors from the circulation system has empowered the advancement of engineered quality conveyance vectors. Nonetheless, a significant disadvantage for these methodologies is to convey the DNA important to the far off metastatic stores. Most of the time, the nonviral gene delivery vectors have been injected directly into the tumors. Albeit nearby infusion is sensible for growths as melanoma, head and neck diseases, or peritoneal carcinomatosis; Patients with hematogenous metastases should not use it. Nonviral vectors for gene therapy have the same limitations as viral vectors. To be arrested in the target tumor tissue, extravasate, bind to specific cells, enter the cells, and finally reach the nucleus, they must survive through the blood stream.

7.1 Nonviral vectors

Plasmid DNA, which is for the most part utilized as nonviral quality treatment methodology, is effortlessly corrupted by nucleases [15]. As a result, some plans to shrink it and stop it from deteriorating have been developed. Cationic lipids are the most frequently used agents for gene delivery [16]. Lipids' cationic head group binds to DNA, and the lipid tail makes it possible for the DNA-lipid complex to break apart [17]. Cationic lipid DNA edifices (lipoplexes) (LPD/DNA) enter the objective cell through an endosomal pathway. Be that as it may, the transgene articulation proficiency is exceptionally low with lipoplexes. It has been demonstrated that only a very small amount of the DNA injected systemically could reach tumor tissue [18]. The majority of gene delivery formulations based on lipids have only been used in intratumoral or local settings. Adverse inflammatory and immune reactions may occur with systemic administration. The improvement of fundamental lipid conveyance frameworks with the alterations to lessen the foundational poisonousness could have the potential for clinical use in malignant growth quality treatment. Folatetargeted lipid-protamine DNA complexes (LPD-PEG-folate) have been shown to reduce tumor volume and increase survival when administered systemically in a breast cancer animal model [18]. Nonpartisan liposomes made out of DOPC (1,2-dioleyl-sn-phosphatidyl choline) and DOPE (1,2-dioleyl-sn-phosphatidyl ethanol amine) and polycationic transporter proteins as protamine, polylysine, polyarginine, polyhistidine, or polyethynilemine (PEI) are likewise reasonable to convey the DNA [19]. In order to extend DNA's half-life in the blood, hydrophobic polymers like polyethylene glycol (PEG), polyhydroxy propylmethacrylamide (pHPMA), and polyvinyl pyrrolidine (pVPyrr) have also been utilized [20]. When administered systemically, the neutral liposomes and hydrophobic polymers produce less toxicity. The tumors' blood vessels are susceptible to leakage, which makes it possible for macromolecules like polymer-shielded DNA to enter the tumor. Animal subcutaneous tumors have been found to passively accumulate PEGylation of plasmid DNA after it circulates in the blood for several hours [21].

7.2 Viral Vectors

Infections have the inherent capacity to convey the nucleic acids inside its own genome to explicit cell types, including malignant growth cells. These appealing and well-liked gene-delivery vehicles are the result of this capability. In the treatment of cancer, baculoviruses, retroviruses, adenoviruses, adeno-associated viruses, herpes simplex virus, poxviruses, and poxviruses are frequently modified and utilized as gene therapy vectors. Chimeric viral-vector systems that combine the characteristics of two or more distinct virus types are also being developed. A lipid envelope and a linear single-stranded RNA of approximately 7–10 kb make up retroviral vectors derived from retroviruses. Retrovirus-specific receptors are expressed when the viral particles enter mammalian cells [22]. The viral reverse transcriptase converts the virus RNA into double-stranded DNA (dsDNS) once it enters the cell. By binding cellular proteins, the dsDNA transcribed in the cytoplasm creates a nucleoprotein preintegration complex (PIC) [23]. The PIC moves to the core and accordingly incorporates the host genome. Retroviral vectors for cancer gene therapy have the advantage of only allowing transgene expression in cells that are dividing, preventing unwanted expression in nondividing tissues. Transgene expression over time is made possible by retroviral genes being incorporated into the host genome. Although this is advantageous, a nonspecific incorporation of viral DNA may cause host gene function to be compromised or cellular oncogene expression to be abnormal [24]. The risk of insertional oncogenesis seen in the trial of X-SCID infants in 2003 has limited the use of retroviral gene transfer systems in humans [25] despite the fact that retroviral

Copyright to IJARSCT www.ijarsct.co.in





International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 4, Issue 2, December 2024

vectors have been the most widely used vehicle for gene transfer in the clinic. Another safety concern regarding the clinical use of those vectors is the possibility of producing retroviruses capable of replication [26]. Long-term gene expression can be achieved with stable integration of the transgene into the host genome by lentiviral vectors derived from retroviruses. Compared to retroviruses, these vectors are a better and more effective vehicle for gene transfer because they can transduce both dividing and nondividing cells. Focusing on methodologies of vectors at the degree of cell section and transgene record worked on the utilization of lentiviral vectors in quality treatment preliminaries [27]. However, these vectors are constrained by the biosafety concerns posed by random integration into the host genome, as in retroviruses. The therapeutic genes are frequently introduced into the tumor cells using adenoviral vectors. They can taint an expansive scope of cell types, move the qualities being not subject to cell division, and have high titers and elevated degree of quality articulation [28]. Type 5 (Ad5) and type 2 (Ad2) of adenoviruses are the most frequently used serotypes for developing vectors in human cancer gene therapy research. They have the limit of around 8-10 kb of helpful qualities with original vectors and up to 36 kbp with gutless third era adenoviral vectors [29]. Notwithstanding, alongside the immunogenic potential, the expansive scope of host cells by adenovirus restricts its fundamental use in human disease quality treatment preliminaries [30]. In human gene therapy trials, the utilization of adenoviral vectors has been made possible by targeting strategies. Adenoviral vectors can't incorporate to cell genome and express the transgene episomally. They are unable to cause random mutations. However, expression of the transgene is restricted to 7-10 days after infection [31]. Thusly, rehashed organizations of the vector are expected to accomplish economical reactions in disease treatment. By deleting the immediate early genes of the E1 region, adenoviruses could be engineered to be either replication-deficient or replication-competent. Oncolytic viruses will provide a more in-depth discussion of replication-capable adenoviral vectors. Simple viruses known as adeno-associated viruses (AAVs) have approximately 4.7 kilobases of single-stranded DNA [32]. They are a member of the parvovirus family and require a helper virus like adenovirus or herpes virus for lytic replication and cell release [33]. They are able to infect a wide range of cells without interrupting the cell cycle. This property makes AAV as appropriate vectors for malignant growth quality treatment. Moreover, not at all like adenoviruses, they get minimal resistant reaction when taint the ordinary host cells. The ability of AAV to integrate the transgene into a specific location on the 19th chromosome of human cells is another advantage that sets them apart from adenoviruses [34]. Dissimilar to retroviruses, AAV can't incite transformations. However, the main disadvantage of AAV is that it can only carry about 4 kilobytes of therapeutic genes in its cargo. AAV was able to transduce some kinds of cells. Subsequently, focusing on methodologies like adjustment of viral capsid proteins, restricting monoclonal antibodies, or bispecific proteins have been created to work on the proficiency of AAV frameworks in disease quality treatment [35,36,37,38]. Baculoviruses are wrapped viral particles with a huge dsDNA of roughly 80-180 kb. They naturally infect the cells of insects. There have been no sicknesses connected with baculoviruses in people. Alongside their profoundly security profile in people, they appear to be exceptionally valuable quality treatment vehicles with their exceptionally huge freight limit of around 40 kb with conceivable various

embeds, simple control, and creation [39]. The Autographa californica multiple nucleopolyhedrovirus (AcMNPV) is the type of baculovirus that is utilized in gene therapy research the most frequently. It has a 135 kb circular dsDNA genome [38]. They easily induce high transgene expression in the host cell and can easily transduce mammalian cells, including many types of cancer cells.1 [40,41]. They have already received approval to manufacture human vaccine components, such as Cervarix (GlaxoSmithKline) for the treatment of prostatic cancer and Provenge (Dendreon) for the treatment of cervical cancer [42,43]. Herpes simplex infection (HSV) is a huge DNA infection with roughly 152 kb of dsDNA genome. It cannot integrate into the host genome and has a natural affinity for nerve tissues [44]. There are three distinct designs for HSV vectors: replication-competent, replication-defective, and amplicons [446]. In studies on cancer gene therapy, replication-competent HSV vectors are typically utilized as oncolytic agents [45]. The first viruses to be utilized as gene therapy vectors were poxviruses. They have been utilized in the in vitro creation of genetic cancer vaccine trials [47]. Poxviruses are ideal agents for inducing immunity against tumors due to their immunostimulatory properties. The attenuated MVA virus derived from the Turkish smallpox vaccine strain chorioallantoid vaccinia Ankara (CVA) has been extensively utilized in cancer vaccine development strategies [48].

Copyright to IJARSCT www.ijarsct.co.in





International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 4, Issue 2, December 2024

VIII. GENETIC MATERIAL TO BE TRANSFERRED

The majority of nucleotide sequences are genes, which are the sequences that a cell will use to make a protein. The therapeutic gene must perform a function that aids in disease treatment. On account of infection brought about by a damaged (transformed) quality the expectation is to present a typical quality. A growth factor gene is added in order to create new tissue. In the case of cancer, the objective is to either stop the growth of neoplastic cells or get rid of them. Coming up next are the most well-known adjusted elements of carcinogenic cells: 1) uncontrolled rapid growth, 2) invasion of vital organs, 3) rapid angiogenesis, and 4) evasion of the immune system to avoid being eliminated [49]. Anticancer therapeutic genes will need to either produce cytotoxic effects that directly cause malignant cell death or block these capabilities of cancer cells. In human gene therapy trials, more than 220 different genes have been introduced into cells. Anti-angiogenic genes, tumor-suppressor genes (pro-apoptotic), suicide genes (that produce a direct toxic effect), anti-angiogenic genes, and, to a much lesser extent, antisense or short interfering RNA are the ones that are most frequently used to combat cancer. The latter two are capable of interfering with and preventing the production of a selected gene. Other much of the time utilized qualities are the development factor qualities. They are almost all being used to combat cardiovascular diseases, not cancer. Before therapeutic proteins or interfering RNA molecules can be produced, the genes or therapeutic sequences inside the cell need to be activated. This is made possible by regulating sequences known as promoters, which control genes. A therapeutic gene will always have a promoter that controls its "activation" or expression (see the section titled "Targeting Gene Therapy for Cancer")[50].

IX. DISCUSSION AND RESULT

Currently, chemotherapy is the most common treatment for cancer. There are an assortment of short-and long haul incidental effects that can result from chemotherapy. While long-term incidental effects cause more serious and extremely long-lasting harm, transient aftereffects are secondary effects that are present during the treatment hour and frequently reversible. Short-term effects include baldness, illness, and vomiting, all of which have the potential to disrupt patient compliance at times. Some patients do experience long-term side effects like arthritis, appendicitis, and thyroid damage, though this is less common. These are only a few of the more typical adverse effects; However, the unique circumstances of each patient may pose additional dangers. Patients would tolerate chemotherapy better if they were assured that it would completely eradicate the disease. Chemotherapy, on the other hand, is frequently not the best option because it frequently fails to remove the cancer from the body. This paper will examine gene therapy to determine whether it is an improved treatment for cancer patients or simply another partial treatment. Other questions that need to be answered include how well it works and what side effects it causes.

X. CONCLUSION

Gene therapy for cancer treatment is a real possibility with bright prospects. The concepts that underpin gene therapy evoke a sense of hope for a miraculous cancer cure, but its implementation is still years away. It is atherapeutic region that has basically quite recently started and this makes the main business vectors costly. Vectors are valuable in unmistakable tumors and patients and despite the fact that they don't yet give a fix, they truly do work on persistent personal satisfaction and will keep on doing so to an ever increasing extent. To combat malignant tumors with success, it appears that this type of treatment is sufficient. However, before the ideal vector is found, there is still a considerable distance to travel.

REFERENCES

- [1]. Blaese RM, Culver KW, Miller AD, Carter CS, Fleisher T, Clerici M, et al. T lymphocyte-directed gene therapy for ADA-SCID: initial trial results after 4 years. Science 1995;270:475–80.
- [2]. Anonymous. The Journal of Gene Medicine. <u>www.wiley.co/</u> genmed Hollon T. Gene therapy a loss of innocence. Nat Med 2000;6:1–2.
- [3]. Cavazzana-Calvo M, Hacein-Bey S, de Saint Basile G, Gross F, Yvon E, Nusbaum P, et al. Gene therapy of human severe com-bined immunodeficiency (SCID)-X1 disease. Science 2000;288:669–72.
- [4]. Cross D, Burmester JK. Gene therapy for cancer treatment: past, present and thrure. Clin Med Res. 2006;4:218-227.

Copyright to IJARSCT www.ijarsct.co.in





International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 4, Issue 2, December 2024

- [5]. Edelstein ML, Abedi MR and Wixon Jo. Gene therapy clinical trials worldwide to 2007-an update. J Gene Med. 2007; 9:833-842.
- [6]. Jin X, Yang YD, Li YM. Gene therapy: regulations, ethics and its practicalities in liver disease. World J Gastroenterol. 2008;14:2303-2307.
- [7]. Hanahan D, Weinberg RA. Hallmarks of cancer: the next generation. Cell 2011;144:646–74.
- [8]. Fidler IJ. Seed and soil revisited: contribution of the organ microenvironment to cancer metastasis. Surg Oncol Clin N Am 2001;10:257–69.
- [9]. Gacche RN, Meshram RJ. Angiogenic factors as potential drug target: efficacy and limitations of antiangiogenic therapy. Biochim Biophys Acta 2014;1846:161–79.
- [10]. Zhang J, Hochwald SN. Targeting receptor tyrosine kinases in solid tumors. Surg Oncol Clin N Am 2013;22:685–703.
- [11]. Cheng L, Ren W, Xie L, Li M, Liu J, Hu J, Liu BR, Qian XP. Anti-EGFR MoAb treatment in colorectal cancer: limitations, controversies, and contradictories. Cancer Chemother Pharmacol 2014;74:1–13.
- [12]. Naidoo J, Page DB, Wolchok JD. Immune checkpoint blockade. Hematol Oncol Clin North Am 2014;28:585–600.
- [13]. Frohlich MW. Sipuleucel-T for the treatment of advanced prostate cancer. Semin On- col 2012;39:245–52.
- [14]. Low D, Parker SE, Latimer T, Abai AM, Kuwahara-Rundell A, Doh SG, Yang ZY, Laface D, Gromkowski SH, Nabel GJ, Manthorpe M, Norman J. Cancer gene therapy using plasmid DNA: pharmacokinetic study of DNA following injection in mice Hum Gene Ther 1995;6:53–564.
- [15]. Legendre JY, Szoka F Jr. Delivery of plasmid DNA into mammalian cell lines using pH-sensitive liposomes: comparison with cationic liposomes. Pharm Res 1992;9:1235–1242.
- [16]. Paul FW, Dutzar B, Stayton PS, Hoffman A, Anklesiaria P, Harvie P. Poly propylacrylic acid (PPAA) functions as an endosomal escape agent synergistically enhancing the transfection potency of folate targeted cationic–lipid–protamine–DNA (LPD) complexes. Mol Ther 2003;7:208.
- [17]. Bruckheimer EM, Harvie P, Orthel J, Dutzar B, Furstoss K, Mebel E, Anklesaria P, Paul R. In vivo efficacy of folate-targeted lipid-protamine-DNA (LPD-PEG-Folate) complexes in an immunocompetent sybgeneic model for breast adenocarcinoma Mol Ther 2003;7:129.
- [18]. Bailey AL, Sullivan SM. Efficient encapsulation of DNA plasmids in small neutral liposomes induced by ethanol and calcium. Biochim Biophys 2000;1468:239–252.
- [19]. De Smedt Sc, Demeester J, Hennink WE. Cationic polymer based gene delivery systems. Pharm Res 2000;17:113–126.
- [20]. Kircheis R, Schuller S, Brunner S, Ogris M, Heider KH, Zauner W, Wagner E. Polycation-based DNA complexes for tumor-targeted gene delivery in vivo. J Gene Med 1999;1:111–120.
- [21]. Zou SM, Erbacher P, Remy JS, Behr JP. Systemic linear polyethynilemine (L-PEI)mediated gene delivery in the mouse. J Gene Med 2000;2:128.
- [22]. Oupicky D, Ogris M, Howard KA, Dash PR, Ulbrich K, Seymour LW. Importance of lateral and steric stabilization of polyelectrolyte gene delivery vectors for extended systemic circulation. Mol Ther 2002;5:463–472.
- [23]. Ogris M, Wagner E. Targeting tumors with non-viral gene delivery systems. Drug Discov Today 2002;15:479–485.
- [24]. Kircheis R, Wightman L, Schreiber A, Robitza B, Rouslar V, Kursa M, Wanger E. Pol- yethylenimine/DNA complexes shielded by transferring target gene expression to tu- mors after systemic application. Gene Ther 2001;8:28–40.
- [25]. Overbaugh J, Miller AD, Eiden MV. Receptors and entry cofactors for retroviruses include single and multiple transmembrane-spanning proteins as well as newly described glycophosphatidylinositol-anchored and secreted proteins. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev 2001;65:371–89.
- [26]. Yi Y, Jong Noh M, Hee Lee K. Current advances in retroviral gene therapy. Current Ther 2011;11:218–228.





International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 4, Issue 2, December 2024

- [27]. Ismail SI, Kingsman SM, Kingsman AJ, Uden M. Split-intron retroviral vectors: enhanced expression with improved safety. J Virol 2000;74:2365–71.
- [28]. Hacein-Bey-Abina S, von Kalle C, Schmidt M, Le Deist F, Wulffraat N, McIntyre E, Radford I, Villeval JL, Fraser CC, Cavazzana-Calvo M, Fischer A. A serious adverse event after successful gene therapy for Xlinked severe combined immunodeficiency. N Engl J Med 2003;348:255–6.
- [29]. Baum C, Dullmann J, Li Z, Fehse B, Meyer J, Williams DA, von Kalle C. Side effects of retroviral gene transfer into hematopoietic stem cells. Blood 2003;101:2099–114.
- [30]. Wold WS, Toth K. Adenovirus vectors for gene therapy, vaccination and cancer gene therapy. Curr Gene Ther 2013;1:421–33.
- [31]. Lopez-Gordo E, Podgorski II, Downes N, Alemany R. Circumventing antivector immunity: potential use of nonhuman adenoviral vectors. Hum Gene Ther 2014;25:285–300.
- [32]. Yao XL, Nakagawa S, Gao JQ. Current targeting strategies for adenovirus vectors in cancer gene therapy. Curr Cancer Drug Targets 2011;11:810–25.
- [33]. Khare R, Chen CY, Weaver EA, Barry MA. Advances and future challenges in adenoviral vector pharmacology and targeting. Curr Gene Ther 2011;11:241–58.
- [34]. Kasala D, Choi JW, Kim SW, Yun CO. Utilizing adenovirus vectors for gene delivery in cancer. Expert Opin Drug Deliv 2014;11:379–92.
- [35]. Lerch TF, Xie Q, Chapman MS. The structure of adeno-associated virus serotype 3B (AAV-3B): insights into receptor binding and immune evasion. Virology 2010;403[1]: 26–36.
- [36]. Luo J, Luo Y, Sun J, Zhou Y, Zhang Y, Yang X. Adeno-associated virus-mediated cancer gene therapy: current status. Cancer Lett 2015;356:347–56.
- [37]. Dunbar CE, Emmons RV. Gene transfer into hematopoietic progenitor and stem cells: progress and problems. Stem Cells 1994;12:563–76.
- [38]. Carruthers KH, Metzger G, During MJ, Muravlev A, Wang C, Kocak E. Gene-directed enzyme prodrug therapy for localized chemotherapeutics in allograft and xenograft tumor models. Cancer Gene Ther 2014;21:434–40.
- [39]. Kotterman MA, Schaffer DV. Engineering adeno-associated viruses for clinical gene therapy. Nat Rev Genet 2014;15:445–451.
- [40]. Airenne KJ, Hu Y-C, Kost TA, Smith RH, Kotin RM, Ono C, Matsuura Y, Wang S, Yla-Herttsala S. Baculovirus: an insect-derived vector for diverse gene transfer applications. Mol Ther 2013;21:739–749.
- [41]. Hu Y-C. Baculovirus vectors for gene therapy. Adv Virus Res 2006;68:287–320.
- [42]. Luo WY, Shih YS, Hung CL, Lo KW, Chiang CS, Lo WH, Huang SF, Wang SC, Yu CF, Chien CH, Hu YC. Development of the hybrid sleeping beauty: baculovirus vector for sustained gene expression and cancer therapy. Gene Ther 2012;19: 844–851.
- [43]. van Oers MM, Pijlman GP, Vlak JM. Thirty years of baculovirus-insect cell protein expression: from dark horse to mainstream technology. J Gen Virol 2015;96:6–23.
- [44]. Baldo A, van den Akker E, Bergmans HE, Lim F, Pauwels K. General considerations on the biosafety of virus-derived vectors used in gene therapy and vaccination. Curr Gene Ther 2013;13:385–394.
- [45]. Manservigi R, Argnani R, Marconi P. HSV recombinant vectors for gene therapy Open Virol J 2010;4:123– 156.
- [46]. Zhang G, Jin G, Nie X, Mi R, Zhu G, Jia W, Liu F. Enhanced antitumor efficacy of an oncolytic herpes simplex virus expressing an endostatin–angiostatin fusion gene in human glioblastoma stem cell xenografts. PLoS One 2014;9:e95872.
- [47]. Moss B. Genetically engineered poxviruses for recombinant gene expression, vaccination, and safety. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 1996; 93:11341–11348.
- [48]. Gómez CE, Nájera JL, Krupa M, Esteban M. The Poxvirus vectors MVA and NYVAC as gene delivery systems for vaccination against infectious diseases and cancer. Curr Gene Ther 2008;597, 120.

Copyright to IJARSCT www.ijarsct.co.in





International Journal of Advanced Research in Science, Communication and Technology (IJARSCT)

International Open-Access, Double-Blind, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Multidisciplinary Online Journal

Volume 4, Issue 2, December 2024

- [49]. Edelstein ML, Abedi MR and Wixon Jo. Gene therapy clinical trials worldwide to 2007-an update. J Gene Med. 2007; 9:833-842.
- [50]. Mbeunkui F, Johann DJ Jr. Cancer and the tumor microenvironment: a review of an essential relationship. Cancer Chemother Pharmacol. 2009;63:571-582.

