

# An Overview of Mesoporous Silica Nanoparticles (MSNS) As Drug Delivery System

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**ABSTRACT:** Medication delivery systems could be made with mesoporous silica nanoparticles. Nanoparticles could be employed as a medical chemical transporter, according to researchers at the University of Bath and the Wales Royal Infirmary. They may be able to limit disease progression and minimise inflammatory responses, so improving cancer treatment effectiveness. Delivery strategies that improve the pharmacokinetics of loaded medications have grown in popularity in recent years. Because of their inherent structural, textural, and chemical properties, mesoporous silica nanoparticles may be employed as drug delivery platforms. Researchers are drawn to it because of its high loading capacity, increased biocompatibility, and simplicity of functionalization (DDS). In reaction to internal or external cues, nanosystems can target sick tissue and disseminate cargo. This carrier should be available shortly, according to current trends.

**KEYWORDS:** Nanoparticles of mesoporous silica; methods for drug administration; methods for drug loading; pharmacokinetics; toxicity; and biocompatibility.

## I. INTRODUCTION :

Mesoporous silica nanoparticles (MSNs) with pore sizes ranging from 2 to 50 nm are defined by the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry. The Mobil Corporation created the first ordered MSNs, known as Mobil Composition of Matter or Mobil Crystalline Materials, in 1992. (MCM).<sup>[1-4]</sup> Nanoparticles outperform typical drug carriers in terms of pharmacokinetics and biodistribution, reducing toxicity while enhancing therapeutic agent concentration at the target site.<sup>[5]</sup> Mesoporous silica nanoparticles have grabbed the interest of many biomedical researchers due to their numerous benefits. Only a few of them are biocompatibility, distinctive pore size and structural properties, large surface areas and pore volumes, and excellent thermal and chemical stabilities.<sup>[6-10]</sup> They could be

employed as carriers for a variety of therapeutically beneficial guest molecules in drug delivery systems (e.g., anticancer medications<sup>[11]</sup>, proteins<sup>[12]</sup>, genes<sup>[13-14]</sup>, antibiotics, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, and so on).<sup>[15]</sup> Silica-based nanoparticles have received a lot of attention recently as contrast agents<sup>[16-18]</sup> and drug delivery vehicles.<sup>[19-20]</sup> Silicosis, lung cancer, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease have all been associated to crystalline silicates. Amorphous silica nanoparticles have shown promise as an imaging and therapeutic platform.<sup>[21]</sup> Because of its inherent biodegradability and wide surface area, MSNs are emerging as promising imaging platforms. Because of their well-known medication transport and targeting capabilities, mesoporous nanoparticles are gaining prominence. Nanotechnology has changed both the pharmaceutical industry and medical delivery.<sup>[23]</sup> Nanoparticles of mesoporous silica have emerged as a feasible and distinct drug carrier for a number of therapeutic compounds.<sup>[24-25]</sup> Vallet-Reg et al. presented MCM-41 in 2001 as a medication delivery system for a variety of illnesses, with a particular emphasis on cancer treatment. Much work has been put into generating adaptive MSNs for the treatment of a wide range of illnesses, including cancer.<sup>[27-28]</sup> Furthermore, the textural features of MSNs influence how well these nanosystems operate as drug delivery mechanisms.<sup>[29-30]</sup> SBA-12, SBA-15, SBA-16, MCM-41, and MCM-48, are all mesoporous carriers with different morphologies, pore sizes, and structures.<sup>[31-32]</sup> SBA-15, MCM-41, and MCM-48 are three of the most well-known mesoporous silica materials, with pore sizes ranging from 2 to 10 nm and structural properties ranging from 2D-hexagonal to 3D-cubic.<sup>[33-34]</sup> The International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) categorises materials according to their fluid accessibility (closed, open, blind, or via pores) and form (holes that are cylindrical, ink-bottle-shaped, funnel-shaped, or slit-shaped).<sup>[35-37]</sup>

Nanomaterials are used as excipients in medications, cosmetics, and nutritional supplements, according to the Food and Drug Administration in the United States. Because of their structural benefits, including as large pore size and surface area, MSNs are a versatile substrate that can be used for a variety of biological applications, including diagnostic imaging,<sup>[38]</sup> biosensing,<sup>[39]</sup> biocatalysis,<sup>[40-42]</sup> drug administration,<sup>[43-45]</sup> as well as bone restoration and scaffold engineering.<sup>[46-48]</sup> Caruso and colleagues created submicron-sized polymer capsules for cancer medication delivery by using mesoporous silica particles as templates.<sup>[49-50]</sup> The most recent study on mesoporous silica particles as drug transporters is presented in "Drug formulation." Loading processes and physicochemical methods for assessing the molecular state of the drug will be discussed. For the first time, the European Medicines Agency (EMA) issued an assessment of MSN and other pharmaceuticals used in DDS production procedures, drug loading techniques, alterations, pharmacokinetics, pharmacology, biocompatibility, and toxicity.<sup>[51]</sup>

## II. SYNTHESIS OF MSNS

MSNs are molecules formed by hydrolyzing, condensing, or dissolving silanes in acidic, neutral, or basic aqueous solutions.<sup>[52]</sup> As structure-directing agents, non-ionic (cationic or non-ionic surfactant) or amphiphilic block copolymers are used and are essential in the synthesis of organic molecules such as paint, plastics, paints, and detergents.<sup>[53]</sup> The specific method through which MSNs emerge has been

questioned. To characterise the MSN production mechanism, a "current bun model" was proposed. Time-resolved small-angle neutron scattering was used to confirm the "current bun model", which involved Hydrolyzed silicon sources were either electrically arranged onto cationic micelles or silica polymers were synthesised before attaching to non-ionic micelles. Micelles condensed into larger particles as a result of silica condensation.<sup>[54-55]</sup> Understanding and predicting MSN formation necessitates the finding of interactions between silica precursors and micelles during hydrolysis and condensation. A novel "swelling-shrinking" approach has been developed to discover the origins of MSNs. MSN synthesis with TEOS as a silicon source and CTAB as a structure-directing agent aided the "swelling-shrinking" mechanism. To begin, CTAB was dissolved in a buffer solution (pH 7.2). When TEOS was added to CTAB hydrocarbon cores, it was solubilized, resulting in micelle enlargement. The micelles shrivelled and shrunk when all of the TEOS in the CTAB hydrocarbon cores was eaten.<sup>[56-58]</sup> One-pot synthesis and microwave-assisted synthesis are two of the novel techniques that have been demonstrated.<sup>[59-60]</sup>

## III. MSN CLASSIFICATION USED FOR DRUG DELIVERY

In recent years, drug delivery systems such as SBA systems, MCM systems, TUD systems, and KIT systems have been developed. MSNs with various morphologies and structures can be produced utilising various structure-directing agents.<sup>[61-64]</sup>

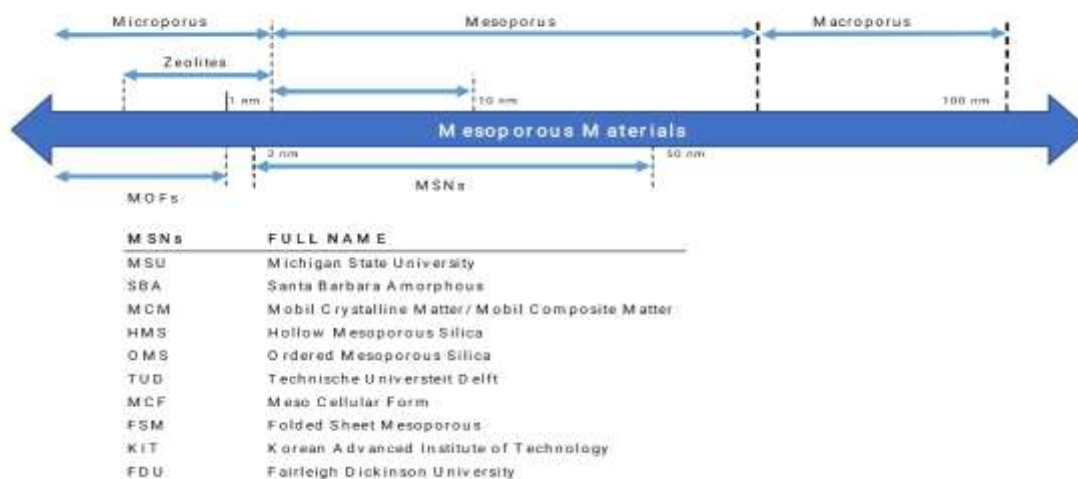


FIG 01: Various Mesoporous materials utilised as drug delivery systems are depicted in a schematic diagram.

### 3.1 Traditional MSNs

The MCM system, a two-dimensional hexagonal structure with a huge surface area, and a narrow pore size distribution and high thermal stability, has found widespread application in biomedicine. MCM-41 has successfully delivered vancomycin, IBU, aspirin, and hypocrellin A. These are the primary components of the MCM system.<sup>[65-68]</sup> The surface area of MCM-48 is 1.3 times that of MCM-41, and the pores are regular cubic bicontinuous. Surfactant molecules have a one-dimensional stratiform shape due to sheets or bilayers with hydrophilic head groups oriented toward the silicate at the interface.<sup>[69]</sup> In drug distribution, a medicine having a hexagonal mesoporous structure was used. Pore walls with thinner walls (3.1–6.4 nm), bigger pore sizes (5–30 nm), The SBA-15 is distinguished by a finer surface morphology.<sup>[70-71]</sup> zKIT-6 with pH-responsive Curcumin (CUR)-loaded guanidine functionalized polyethylene glycolated (PEGylated) controlled characteristics and highly programmed release was discovered to be particularly beneficial in treatment of breast cancer.<sup>[72]</sup>

### 3.2 Hollow MSN

Hollow mesoporous drug carriers (HMSNs) have a hollow core. The mesoporous shell functions as a conduit for chemical encapsulation, while the hollow core functions as a reservoir or microreactor or as a large surface area for diverse reactions.<sup>[73]</sup> Further research found that IBU in HMSNs had a higher loading capacity than MCM-48 and MCM-41.<sup>[74]</sup> HMSNs exhibit shell fragility when the template is removed due to their flimsy shell, which might as a result of medication loading or tableting, the mesopore wall collapses, lowering the therapeutic efficacy of the medication.<sup>[75]</sup>

### 3.3 MSNs with lipid bilayer coating

Phosphatidylcholine-structured liposomes spontaneously fuse to the surface of lipid bilayer-coated MSNs (LB-MSNs), also known as protocells.<sup>[76]</sup> The lipid bilayer preserves biomolecules by limiting or reducing nonspecific adsorption and protein denaturation.<sup>[77]</sup> Furthermore, the lipid bilayer of MSNs can operate as a drug diffusional barrier, preventing undesirable drug leakage. MSNs have a huge surface area and can transport large payloads while also providing solid support for a more stable lipid bilayer.<sup>[78-79]</sup> MCF-7 cells absorb LB-MSNs

more readily after lipid coating, and their biocompatibility improves. MSNs were coated with a lipid layer (hypocrellin B, HB) containing drugs, short interfering RNA, and toxins. After light irradiation, HB was more hazardous than HB-loaded MSNs.<sup>[80]</sup> Recently, GEM/PTX were co-delivered to Mice with human pancreatic cancer at a 10:1 ratio via LB-MSNs, GEM was found in the MSNs, and PTX was found in the lipid bilayer.<sup>[81]</sup> Co-delivery of PTX and GEM using LB-MSNs reduced pancreatic cancer stromal volume and tumour growth, exceeding free GEM with Abraxane. Hepatocellular carcinoma in humans showed a 10,000-fold increase in attraction for hepatocytes, endothelial cells, and immune cells.<sup>[82-84]</sup>

### 3.4 Modified MSNs

Drug adsorption and release control, as well as personalised medicinal delivery, are made possible by modifying MSNs. polymers, targeting moieties and Organic functional groups, can be used to replace surface silanol groups on MSNs. Organic molecules, such as silanes, can be synthesised by covalently connecting functional groups through co-condensation.<sup>[85]</sup> Co-condensation has been demonstrated to be preferable for the interior surface of the mesopores due to its ease of use, consistency in functionalization distribution, and high drug loading. Due to its ease of use, consistency in functionalization distribution, and For the interior surface of mesopores with high drug loading, co-condensation has been stated to be preferable. The most striking characteristic of the post-synthetic grafting process is its capacity to selectively functionalize the exterior or interior surfaces of MSNs. The surface can still be selectively functionalized if the grafting surfactant is still present. In biomedical applications, MSN modification can be utilised to modify the surface charge and chemically Interact with functional molecules either within or outside of pores.<sup>[86]</sup>

## IV. DRUG LOADING PROCESS

Melt procedures, supercritical fluid technologies, and organic solvent loading techniques have all advanced in the recent decade. The drug loading approach is built around drug adsorption on the surface of mesoporous silica.<sup>[87-88]</sup> A perfect medicine loading technique would be capable of rapidly loading a big quantity of the medicine, followed by emptying it with the specified release profile and minimal waste.<sup>[89-91]</sup>

#### 4.1 Melting process

The melt technique includes heating the drug-loaded mesoporous system exceeding the drug's melting point, which may lead to drug degradation.<sup>[92]</sup> A melt method was used to load IBU into MCM-41. When utilising this method, it is vital to consider the drug's melt viscosity and temperature stability.<sup>[93]</sup> IBU was mixed with MSNs and heated to 5°C above the melting point of IBU. ITR was combined with SBA-15 and heated to temperatures exceeding the melting point of ITR. This is an excellent method of containing Medicine is injected into the pores at a filling ratio of 60%. (medication loading through the pores).<sup>[94]</sup>

#### 4.2 The solvent immersion process

Several research groups have published extensively on organic solvent drug loading techniques in the literature. The most common approach involves adsorption from an organic solution and filtering to remove the drug-loaded mesoporous silica.<sup>[95-97]</sup> Adsorption is usually a low-yield approach since it is restricted to a monolayer on the surface.<sup>[98]</sup> Furthermore, according to ICH guideline Q3 (International Conference on Harmonisation), the solvent must be reduced to acceptable levels (R5).<sup>[99]</sup> Polar solvents such as dimethylformamide (DMF), and dimethylacetamide (DMA) dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) resulted in limited ibuprofen loading onto MCM-41. Interactions between the medication, silica, and the solvent can have an impact on drug loading.<sup>[100]</sup> In ethanol and hexane, drug loading concentrations were relatively high (nonpolar solvents). If the concentration of the drug is too high, it will easily adsorb on the surface and clog the mesopores. The correct drug concentration in solvent must be estimated prior to drug loading.<sup>[101]</sup>

#### 4.3 The process of impregnation by wetness

Creating a concentrated drug solution in solvent, adding it to MSNs drop by drop, as well as drying the drug-laced powder are all steps in a single-step incipient wetness impregnation technique. When the solvent is withdrawn, the concentrated drug mixture is taken up by capillary forces and retained within the pores.<sup>[102-103]</sup> Fenofibrate was injected into MSNs through solvent impregnation. Preliminary wetness impregnation Long-term drug soaking is required and has a significantly lower filling factor, is less efficient than melt impregnation. The similar procedure was used to import IBU into MCM-41.<sup>[104]</sup>

#### 4.4 Loading using supercritical fluid technology

SCF is a technique for loading medicines into mesoporous silicas, which find application in the chromatography industries and food.<sup>[105-107]</sup> They can be utilised as impregnating agents because to their peculiar features, which include gas-like viscosity, liquid-like density, low interfacial tension and higher diffusivity than liquids.<sup>[108]</sup> SCF drug loading approaches provide various advantages by utilising the solvent power fluctuation caused by altering the supercritical fluid pressure and temperature, CO<sub>2</sub> is the most commonly used SCF fluid because of its low critical point (7.4 MPa, 31.2°C). In supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> settings, many medications have been shown to disintegrate.<sup>[109-111]</sup> SCF generates no residual solvent when conducted without the use of a cosolvent. Many medicines, including FEN, clotrimazole, glyburide, and asarone have demonstrated SCCO<sub>2</sub> solubility.<sup>[112-113]</sup> Another advantage of SCF for drug loading is that after fluid evacuation, the final product is solvent-free. The SCF method has been directly compared to the solvent method in studies.<sup>[114]</sup> The SCF technology offers an alternate, environmentally friendly means of loading drugs onto silica support, as well as a two-hour processing time. The yield, lifespan, and physical features of the drug were compared for each impregnation process. Stam and colleagues discovered that a low concentration of ibuprofen in nonpolar liquid CO<sub>2</sub> was sufficient to induce maximum drug loading in MCM-41 pores.<sup>[115]</sup> According to these findings, liquid CO<sub>2</sub>, which is less expensive than SCCO<sub>2</sub>, can be a viable "green solvent" for medication incorporation into mesoporous silica. Ahern and colleagues investigated the use of supercritical and liquid CO<sub>2</sub> technologies in the mixing, melting, and solvent evaporation processes.<sup>[116-117]</sup> A novel sol-gel synthesis technique for loading pharmaceuticals into MSNs has also been revealed, employing drug micelles as a template.<sup>[118-119]</sup> Measuring the success of drug loading in MSNs using direct and indirect strategies. The supernatant can then be collected and analysed using high-performance liquid chromatography or UV spectroscopy after drug loading. By subtracting the drug added from the drug unloaded, the amount of drug loaded is calculated using indirect measurement methods.<sup>[120-121]</sup> HPLC can, however, be used to determine the amount of medication put into MSNs powder. Aminosilanes can be used to functionalize negatively charged MSNs on the silica surface. The



drug's molecular size should be determined using density functional theory prior to loading (DFT).<sup>[122-123]</sup> As a result, various features of compressed carbon dioxide have been noted as potential benefits of this method, such as its ability to lower the melting point of the compound and make the molten products less viscous.<sup>[124]</sup>

#### 4.5 Large-scale loading techniques

Prior laboratory procedures for pharmaceutical loading are adequate for small batch sizes. Linnell et al. investigated rotavapor, immersion, and fluid-bed loading.<sup>[125]</sup> They stated that these methods reduce the need for large doses of drugs, making them less expensive. Researchers at the University of Bristol have also looked into a co-spray drying technique. Furthermore, they asserted that in the immersion approach, which is more cost-effective, these procedures reduce the need for large doses of drugs. During testing, they discovered that the amorphous drug had a high level of drug loading and physical stability.<sup>[126-127]</sup> Indomethacin was co-milled onto a silica

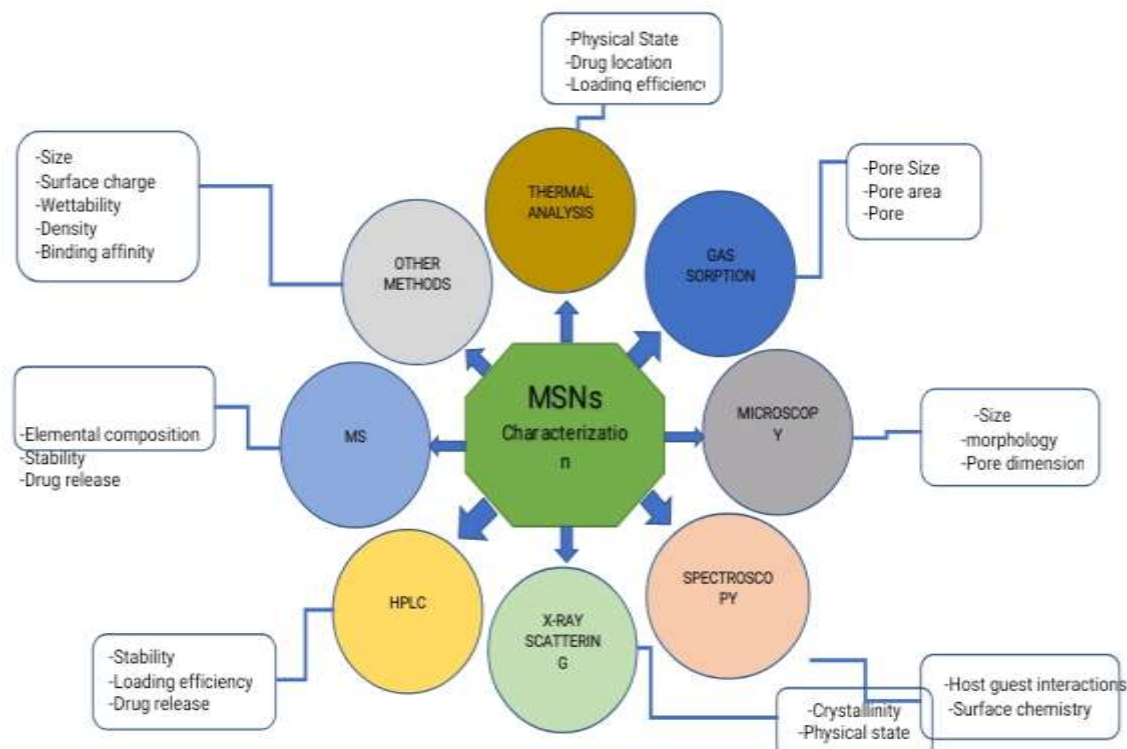
substrate by Bahl et al. using a rolling jar mill. The material remained physically stable for 3–6 months at 40°C and 75% relative humidity (RH).<sup>[128]</sup>

### V. THE PROPERTIES OF MESOPOROUS SILICA IN REGULATING DRUG RELEASE AND LOADING

#### 5.1 Silica particle properties and pore structure

The most important factors are pore volume, pore size, and surface area. Particle characteristics (such as particle shape and size) also have an effect. By loading ibuprofen onto various mesoporous silicas, Heikkilä et al. investigated the effect of pore volume on drug adsorption.<sup>[129]</sup> The total volume of mesopores has a major impact on drug loading. Excessive drug loading can result in the formation of a crystalline drug coating on the silica surface, which limits drug release. The total pore volume and pore size, according to Zhang et al., limit maximal drug loading.<sup>[130-135]</sup>

Fig: Different groups of analytical techniques used for MSNs characterization



Several organisations have observed that Amorphous drugs can be kept for a long time in mesopores. The drug molecule will not

recrystallize if the confinement space width is less than or equal to 15 times the diameter of the drug molecule.<sup>[136-137]</sup> The rate of release slows as

molecules congregate closer together in mesopores. The amount of drug loaded decreases with decreasing pore size. All aspects of drug loading and release, as well as pore size, have been investigated.<sup>[138]</sup> Ibuprofen molecules released through the same sized holes were compared to the pore size of erythromycin molecules. To allow for simple drug loading and release, the pore size should be at least three times larger than the diameter of the drug molecule.<sup>[139-140]</sup> During the manufacturing process, the pore sizes of ordered mesoporous silicas such as MCM-41 and SBA-15 can be changed. As a result, the rate at which medication is released can be regulated.<sup>[141-142]</sup> Certain chemicals, however, have a hole size threshold at which increasing pore width does not improve release rate.<sup>[143]</sup> Furthermore, greater recrystallization has been linked to a reduction in Larger pore diameters in silica samples enable nano-containment capabilities.<sup>[144-147]</sup> In vitro, a larger pore diameter resulted in faster release, whereas in vivo, a smaller hole diameter resulted in the fastest release profile. The slower rate of supersaturation in the colon, according to the researchers, is related to the smaller pore diameter, which improves fenofibrate absorption across the intestinal wall.<sup>[148-150]</sup> Particle size and shape have been studied in terms of drug loading and release. It is possible to create mesoporous silica particles with a monodisperse particle size.<sup>[151-152]</sup> The literature has paid little attention to the utility of reducing silica particle size further to improve drug loading and release. The importance of particle morphology has been investigated, however the results have been mixed.<sup>[153-155]</sup> Mesoporous silica is an excellent carrier for drugs that are not water soluble due to its huge surface area.<sup>[156]</sup> A higher surface area increases pharmacological loading and breakdown, according to several research.<sup>[157]</sup> According to a recent study, Increases in surface area do not always result in a linear increase in drug release rate.<sup>[158]</sup>

### 5.2 Surface functionalization

Silica surface functionalization opens up new avenues for drug adsorption and release management. The goal of functionalization is to increase the drug's silica affinity. For functionalizing co-condensation, grafting, mesoporous silica and the impression coating method are all viable methods.<sup>[159-160]</sup> Numerous medications have been integrated into various functionalized systems in this fast evolving business. Balas et al. investigated the loading of

alendronate in amino-functionalized and nonfunctionalized silica. According to a solvent loading approach, the drug loading for the modified silica material was around three times higher.<sup>[161]</sup> To develop a controlled-release erythromycin formulation, SBA-15 was functionalized with octyl and octadecyl groups. Aqueous media have a hard time penetrating the functionalized silica structure. Binding hydrophobic species to the surface is the second strategy for surface functionalization.<sup>[162]</sup> Using aqueous solutions, the functional groups reduced the SBA-15's effective pore size and wettability, resulting in a controlled-release formulation. Captopril and ibuprofen were used as model medicines, and silylated mesoporous silica was used to create controlled-release formulations. These technologies hold promise for regulated and targeted medicine delivery in the future.<sup>[163]</sup>

## VI. MSNS PHARMACOKINETICS

MSNs are a promising biomaterial, but their interaction with the body is unknown. MSN absorption, distribution, and excretion have been characterized. The primary modalities for MSN biomedical application are intravenous (IV) or oral administration.

### 6.1 MSN Absorption and distribution in vivo

MSN absorbs and disperses depending on the delivery technique, as opposed to IV medicine, which absorbs through the gastrointestinal tract. MSNs in the liver were identified using TEM and inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectrometry after MSNs were administered orally. MSN levels rose during the first seven days after an oral dose, then fell as a result of IV treatment. During IV therapy, MSNs primarily accumulated in the liver and spleen.<sup>[164-166]</sup> In contrast to IV medicine, which absorbs through the gastrointestinal tract, MSN absorbs and disperses depending on the delivery strategy. MSNs were discovered in the liver after MSN administration orally. During the first seven days after oral delivery, the amount of MSN grew, then dropped.<sup>[167-168]</sup> MSN increased during the first seven days following oral dose, then reduced as a result of IV treatment. MSNs largely gathered in the liver and spleen during IV therapy.<sup>[169]</sup>

### 6.2 MSN excretion in vivo

It is crucial to consider how nanoparticles will be removed from the body before using them in biomedicine. MSNs are primarily removed by

urine and faeces after delivery. Following injection, 95 percent of the Si was excreted in urine and faeces, suggesting that MSNs can be entirely eliminated by the body.<sup>[170]</sup> Furthermore, 24 hours after oral delivery, the majority of MSNs were discovered in the faeces. Following IV treatment, intact MSNs were detected in the urine. No undamaged MSNs were found in the urine after 24 hours. MSN metabolism and physicochemical properties alter in different physiological situations, which could explain the difference.<sup>[171]</sup> MSNs enter the bloodstream and go to nearly every organ, including the liver and spleen. However, the pharmacokinetic features of many drugs can vary depending on how they are administered. Porosity, shape and size, surface functionalization, and surface oxidation are all factors to consider.<sup>[172]</sup>

## VII. MSN TOXICITY AND BIOCOMPATIBILITY

Because MSNs are inorganic nanoparticles that are difficult to dissolve in the body, it is critical to understand their toxicity and biocompatibility before using them in a therapeutic setting.

### 7.1 Genotoxicity

MSN cytotoxicity has gotten a lot of attention, whereas MSN genotoxicity has gotten less.<sup>[173-176]</sup> After being exposed to MSNs with average sizes of 25 and 100 nm for 24 hours, HT-29 cells exhibited a mild genotoxic effect.<sup>[177-178]</sup> More research is needed to figure out how Genotoxicity is affected by MSN surface chemistry, shape and coating with other novel materials. However, even MSNs with high biocompatibility can cause genotoxicity. According to microarray studies, 579 genes were elevated when MSNs were administered at a dosage of 120 g/mL for 24 hours. According to the study, while employing MSNs with high drug loading, treatment duration and focus must be excessive.<sup>[179-180]</sup>

### 7.2 Biocompatibility and cytotoxicity of cells

MSNs have shown to easily integrate into the majority of normal and malignant cells, with no discernible effects on cell growth, proliferation, or differentiation. MSNs can only be employed in clinical settings if they are not harmful to people.<sup>[181]</sup> In an MTT assay, MSNs with wavelengths spanning from 30 to 300 nm were found to be non-toxic to HeLa cells. Smaller MSNs absorb more light and have more silanol groups available for cell contact, making larger MSNs excellent for medical applications.<sup>[182]</sup> Despite the

fact that low-dose MSNs have minimal cytotoxicity (50 g/mL), high-dose MSNs have significant cytotoxicity (> 200 g/mL). In vitro cytotoxicity tests with 800g/mL MSNs revealed nephrotoxicity. Furthermore, hazardous surfactants such as CTAB that are remaining in the pores following MSN production have been shown to be cytotoxic. As a result, toxic surfactants must be completely eliminated from MSN pores prior to drug loading via extraction or calcination.<sup>[183]</sup>

### 7.3 Biocompatibility of blood

When employing drug-loaded carriers for vein injection, blood biocompatibility is critical. Thrombogenicity, hemolytic activity, and blood protein adsorption should all be assessed prior to IV treatment. Surface functionalization, according to studies, reduces the activity of naked MSNs.<sup>[184]</sup> MSN surface modification may aid in blood biocompatibility. There was no thrombogenic activity in any of the MSNs. The activated partial thromboplastin time and prothrombin time were measured. No protein adsorption was observed on MSNs ionic-functionalized surfaces after exposure to gamma globulins and serum albumin.<sup>[185]</sup>

### 7.4 Tissue biocompatibility

For two months, mice were given 1 mg/mouse/d FMSNs twice a week, and no histological abnormalities or lesions were found. The long-term toxicity of fluorescent MSNs (FMSNs) or a saline solution was evaluated. Mice were given FMSNs or a saline solution. In the spleen, liver, heart, kidney, colon, muscle, or lungs, There were no obvious histological lesions, pathological abnormalities, or gross.<sup>[186-187]</sup> Histological examination of the kidney tissues revealed tissue degradation, hyperplasia, fibrosis and necrosis. New MSN generations are being used to lessen potential toxicity. Variants in physicochemical parameters, particle shape, size, charge, surface chemistry ranges have not been investigated. Mice's kidneys showed localised bleeding and glomerulus atrophy after receiving MSNs via IV injection.<sup>[188-189]</sup>

## VIII. MSNS IN DRUG DELIVERY SYSTEM

The US Department of Health and Human Services, as well as the US National Institute on Drug Abuse, state that, MSNs have the potential to be effective drug carriers, having been used to increase the solubility of a variety of pharmaceuticals (NIDAA).

### 8.1 Drug solubility enhancement

Because of their high pore capacity and surface area, MSNs are used. Due to their low solubility, MSNs have been employed to administer hydrophobic medicines. Amorphous medications are more soluble than crystalline drugs because they have lower lattice energies.<sup>[190]</sup> MSNs enhanced MCM-48 saturation solubility by 95%. Res was bound in narrow, amorphous mesochannels compared to pure RES.<sup>[191]</sup> When compared to the marketed product,  $t_{max}$  was 0.75 hours shorter,  $C_{max}$  was 77 percent higher, and AUC<sub>0-24h</sub> was 54 percent higher.<sup>[192]</sup>

### 8.2 MSNs used as a carrier for targeted/controlled delivery

MSNs are designed to control the release of drugs and deliver specific chemicals to specific tissues or cells.

#### 8.2.1 Used as a controlled delivery vehicle.

PTX was loaded using three different MSNs (3–10 nm). Different MSNs with different pore diameters produced variable amounts of PTX. Light, magnetism, temperature, redox, pH, and other factors can all be controlled by MSNs.<sup>[193]</sup> In the pore outlet, a cyclobutane dimer is formed of thymine-functionalized MSNs after 365 nm UV irradiation. When the attached molecules were photocleaved with UV light at 240 nm, they were released. A fascinating external stimulus-triggered controlled pharmaceutical delivery technology is light-responsive controlled administration.<sup>[194-198]</sup> In addition to UV irradiation, vis-induced controlled MSN release has been established. SR101 was loaded into Ru (bpy) 2(PPh<sub>3</sub>)-moieties using mercaptopropyl-functionalized MSNs. After being exposed to Vis radiation, the capping moieties as well as the cargo Sr101 were liberated.<sup>[199]</sup> Near-infrared (NIR) two-photon stimulation has lower scattering loss, penetrates deeper into tissues, and provides three-dimensional spatial resolution. MSNs are created by fusing azobenzene moieties A, a fluorophore, and two fractophores F.<sup>[200]</sup> MSNs could be used to treat cancer using both low and high-intensity NIR laser irradiation. MSNs can be utilised in conjunction with other photothermal treatment materials, such as gold nanorods. Because of their high drug loading and huge specific surface area, MSNs can be employed in conjunction with other photothermal treatment materials such as gold nanorods (Au@SiO<sub>2</sub>).<sup>[201]</sup> The back-and-forth movement of azo molecules in conjunction with a

mesoporous silicon matrix created a molecular impeller, which allowed the drug to be delivered. As an external stimulation, magnetic fields have been used to help with the release of medications. They are non-toxic and have a high capacity to infiltrate living things without causing harm.<sup>[202]</sup> When a magnetic field is applied to double-stranded DNA, it can melt. A biodegradable silica-iron oxide hybrid nanovector is used to transport large proteins to cancer cells. Fluorescein was released by magnetic mesoporous silica particles, allowing a DDS to be activated remotely. The DDS's magnetic field increased temperature and fluid flow.<sup>[203]</sup> The unique zinc-doped iron oxide nanocrystals (ZnNCs) increased hyperthermic effects fourfold and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) contrast tenfold.<sup>[204]</sup> Tumor tissue has higher temperatures than healthy tissue. As gatekeepers, phase-change polymers are used with higher melting points could be a viable strategy for controlling distribution.<sup>[205]</sup> MSNs were created by mixing rhodamine B and a zwitterionic sulfobetaine copolymer in order to supply GSH 100–1000 times higher than in external fluids. MSNs can also be used to deliver redox-controlled GSH, which can be 100 times more effective than exogenous fluids.<sup>[206-208]</sup> In extracellular fluids, disulfide bonds are typically very stable and are more reactive in cancer cells that have higher GSH levels. In a high GSH environment, chitosan derivatized with disulfide linkages that dissociated and broke when in touch with GSH may prevent DOX release.<sup>[209]</sup> Lactobionic acid (LA) was grafted onto collagen-capped MSNs to create the LA-Col-linker-MSN cell-targeting moiety. Furthermore, redox-responsive DDS and cell-specific targeting (CSNT) were developed.<sup>[210]</sup> When GSH became scarce, the hybrid DDS began to emerge. Higher GSH concentrations caused MSNs to release drugs more quickly. Another study used TF as a gatekeeper as well as a DDS targeting agent that can be used for both controlled and targeted DDS. To summarise, New insights into the design of MSNs were obtained by combining diverse competencies into a single moiety.<sup>[211-215]</sup> To stimulate the release of antineoplastics from MSNs, supramolecular nanovalves, polyelectrolytes, pH-sensitive linkers, and acid-decomposable inorganic compounds were used. pH-responsive MSNs can be used in cancer therapy as controlled DDS because of the pH gradients.<sup>[216]</sup> The DDS's pH-sensitive -cyclodextrin (-CD) cap and pH-sensitive N-methylbenzimidazole (MBI) stalk were sensitive to endosomal acidification. At pH 7.4, the P pH-



sensitive  $\beta$ -cyclodextrin ( $\beta$ -CD) cap and N-methylbenzimidazole MBI stalk capture drug molecules. BSA nanogates shut pores, allowing two anticancer medications to be released in response to pH with less than 3% drug leakage.<sup>[217]</sup> PDA-modified MSNs were formed on the surface of MSNs modified with polydopamine (PDA). The FA functions as a ligand, and pH-sensitive PDA coating works as a gatekeeper. It is possible to combine drug targeting and pH-controlled release.<sup>[218]</sup> When certain enzymes are overexpressed in specific organs, they can function as controlled DDS. IBU is created by grafting MSN surfaces with bridged silsesquioxane-grafted MSNs.<sup>[219-221]</sup> To increase medicine release in low pH and GSH conditions, drug delivery methods have been created. To achieve triggered release of DDS in this environment, dual drug-loaded MSNs containing hyaluronic acid and PAMAM dendrimer were designed.<sup>[222]</sup> The magnetic MSNs were copolymer-coated (MMSNs@P) to coat magnetic MSNs (NIPAM). The saturation magnetization of the MSNs in an alternating magnetic field were measured to be 6.2 emu/g. As a result, heat is generated quickly.<sup>[223]</sup> When cancer cells are exposed to light in anCeO<sub>2</sub> NPs are formed in a low pH intracellular environment with a high GSH content. According to experts at Boston's Massachusetts General Hospital (MGH), HP creates IO<sub>2</sub> as part of photodynamic therap.<sup>[224]</sup>

### 8.2.2 As a vehicle for targeted delivery

When MSNs clump together in cancer cells or tissues, they form nanometer-sized clumps. Passive targeting can result in medication efflux and resistance due to a lack of cell-specific binding. MSNs have been developed to actively target medication delivery by adding targeting moieties such as mannose, HA, and lactose.<sup>[225-226]</sup> MSNs' active targeting moieties were altered, which, when paired with the EPR effect, increased MSN cellular uptake by certain tumour cells. According to the researchers, FA has the potential to be a cancer therapeutic target moiety.<sup>[227]</sup> Endothelial cell targeting, often known as vascular targeting, is a promising treatment option for solid tumours. The researchers created MSNs with a strong affinity for CD44-expressing HCT-116 cells using HA-modified MSNs. Tumor necrosis occurs when the feeding systems of quickly proliferating cancer cells are disturbed.<sup>[228-229]</sup> Anti-angiogenesis therapy may be ineffective in the battle against cancer on its own. Using it with chemotherapeutics is a good concept. For drug delivery, DOX and

CA4 peptides were loaded into MSNs modified with iRGD peptides (DOX/CA4 loaded IRGD-MSNs).<sup>[230]</sup> Small molecules are transported by subcellular organelles such as the nucleus and mitochondria. Nuclear pore complexes can pass small molecules ranging in size from 20 to 70 nm (NPCs), Intranuclear transfers require nuclear localization signals (NLS).<sup>[231]</sup> The University of Bristol in the United Kingdom has created a unique nanoparticle for cervical cancer therapy. The nanoparticles' The complex DDS's high-surface-area nanoporous core allowed for significant drug loading while PDA served as a gatekeeper to restrict leakage.<sup>[232-233]</sup> Following an IV infusion of the targeting ligand RGD, magnetic MSNs clump together at the tumour site. EPR is caused by both the magnetic and active targeting effects.<sup>[234]</sup>

### 8.2.3 As a vehicle for theranostics

MRI has made use of MSNs including inorganic nanoparticles such as manganese oxide. MSNs were loaded with QDs, organic dyes, CT contrast agents and MRI contrast agents.<sup>[235-236]</sup> Fe@MSNs are MRI scanners that are capable of detecting tumours in acidic conditions. FeOOH-loaded MSNs perform well in T1 MRI. One such device is a pH-responsive theranostic nanoplatform.<sup>[237]</sup> Some theranostic nanoplatforms are capable of performing precise diagnostics as well as personalised treatment regimens. MSN surfaces are linked to lanthanide-doped upconverting nanoparticles that are ultra-small, which are then impregnated with the anticancer drug DOX. This is a one-of-a-kind multipurpose MSN that can provide precise diagnostics as well as individualised treatment regimens.<sup>[238]</sup> To aid in the early identification of melanoma, fluorescent CT has been created. Magnetic core-MSNs labelled with technetium 99m have been created for single photon emission CT.<sup>[239-240]</sup>

## IX. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVE

One of the most important areas of research in future pharmaceuticals is nano-enabled drug delivery systems. MSNP-based multifunctional nanocarriers may be used to carry therapeutic compounds to ill Prior to releasing cells, organs, and/or organelles in response to internal or external stimuli. Melt operations, solvent immersion processes, SCF technologies, and other novel approaches have been used to convert pharmaceutical compounds into MSNs. MSNP design and manufacturing for nanomedicine

applications has advanced. A flexible method was used to selectively functionalize MSNs. They've perfected a technique for diagnostic, imaging agents, drug delivery and cancer treatment target drug delivery. One of the most important aspects of the design of a medicine delivery platform is the loading technique MSNs have the potential to be loaded or functionalized with a wide range of molecules in order to create multifunctional stimuli-responsive drug delivery platforms. According to researchers at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, "we believe that the enormous potential of MSNs will be realised soon."

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