

**VOLUME 9**

**ISSUE 1**

**2023**

**ISSN 2454 – 3055**



**INTERNATIONAL  
JOURNAL OF  
ZOOLOGICAL  
INVESTIGATIONS**

*Forum for Biological and  
Environmental Sciences*

**Published by Saran Publications, India**



## International Journal of Zoological Investigations

Contents available at Journals Home Page: [www.ijzi.net](http://www.ijzi.net)

Editor-in-Chief: Prof. Ajai Kumar Srivastav

Published by: Saran Publications, Gorakhpur, India



ISSN: 2454-3055

### Testing and Treating Cancer with Radation Pharmaceutical Therapy (RPT)

**Padmapriya V., Babu M., Ashok K. and Mullai Nila K.\***

Department of Microbiology and Biotechnology, School of Basic Sciences, Faculty of Arts and Science, Bharath Institute of Higher Education and Research (BIHER), Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India

*\*Corresponding Author*

**Received:** 14<sup>th</sup> December, 2022; **Accepted:** 8<sup>th</sup> January, 2023; **Published online:** 28<sup>th</sup> January, 2023

<https://doi.org/10.33745/ijzi.2023.v09i01.018>

**Abstract:** Radation Pharmaceutical Therapy (RPT) is a safe and effective targeted approach to many cancers. In RPT, radiation is administered either systemically or locally utilising drugs that preferably attach to cancer cells or accumulate through physiological systems. Nearly all radionuclides in RPT generate imageable photons that allow the biodistribution of the therapeutic agent to be displayed without invasion. RPT has showed low toxicity in comparison to nearly all other systemic therapy alternatives for cancer. The extraordinary potential of this process is now acknowledged with the recent FDA approval of numerous RPT medicines. This review deals with the basic characteristics, clinical development and associated difficulties of RPT.

**Keywords:** Radiation therapy, CT, MRI, Chemotherapy, Cancer

**Citation:** Padmapriya V., Babu M., Ashok K. and Mullai Nila K.: Testing and treating cancer with radation pharmaceutical therapy (RPT). Intern. J. Zool. Invest. 9(1): 164-170, 2023.

<https://doi.org/10.33745/ijzi.2023.v09i01.018>



This is an Open Access Article licensed under a Creative Commons License: Attribution 4.0 International (CC-BY). It allows unrestricted use of articles in any medium, reproduction and distribution by providing adequate credit to the author (s) and the source of publication.

### Introduction

Radiation is used for the destruction or damage of cancer cells by high energy particles and waves such as x-rays, gamma rays, electron beams or protons. Cells usually develop into new cells and divide. But cells of cancer grow and split more quickly than ordinary cells (Fisher *et al.*, 1988). Radiation acts by tiny cellular fractures inside the DNA. These fractures prevent the growth and division of cancer cells and lead them to perish. Radiation may also damage near-normal cells, although most recover and return to their work (Hudson *et al.*, 1989). While chemotherapy and other therapies taken by mouth or injection

normally expose the whole body to cancer-control medicines, radiation therapy generally is a local therapy. This typically implies that just the area of the body that needs therapy is targeted and affected (Schmid *et al.*, 1993). Radiation therapies are scheduled such that cancer cells are damaged to healthy neighbouring cells as little as feasible. Some radiation therapies are using radioactive chemicals administered in the vein or mouth. Some of them are used for radiation (Lawrence *et al.*, 1995). Even if this kind of radiation travels throughout the body, the radioactive material mainly accumulates in the tumour region, thus the

remainder of the body is still under-effect (Zelevsky *et al.*, 1998).

### *Who's receiving radiation treatment?*

Over 50% cancer patients receive radiation treatment. Radiation therapy is sometimes the only treatment needed for cancer, and occasionally further treatment is performed (Morris *et al.*, 1999). The choice of radiation therapy varies depending on the cancer kind and stage and other health concerns that a patient may have.

### *What are radiation treatment objectives?*

Most radiation therapies do not reach all regions of the body, therefore they are not effective in cancer treatment that has spread to many areas of the body (Zelevsky *et al.*, 2000). However, radiation therapy can be used either alone or in conjunction with other therapies to treat many kinds of cancer (Franco *et al.*, 2001). Although every individual malignancy should be remembered, radiation is typically the preferred treatment for the following objectives (Fisher *et al.*, 2001).

### *Early stage cancer cures or shrink:*

Some tumours are very radiation-sensitive (Warren *et al.*, 2002). In some situations, radiation alone can reduce or entirely go away from the malignancy. Chemotherapy or other cancer medicines may be used initially in some instances (Bradley *et al.*, 2004). In other cases. Radiation can be used to reduce the tumour prior to surgery (pre-operation therapy or neoadjuvant therapy) or after surgery to prevent cancer from reappearing (called adjuvant therapy) (Chen *et al.*, 2005). Radiation may be the chosen treatment for some tumours that can be treated by radiation or by surgery. This is because radiation can do less harm and the bodily component can operate the way it is supposed to do following treatment. Radiation and chemotherapy may be utilised in some forms of cancer or in some other types of anti cancer medicines (Aoyama *et al.*, 2006). Some medicines (called radiosensitizers) enable radiation operate more effectively by radiation-

sensitive cancer cells. Research has demonstrated that in combination with anti-cancer medicines and radiation, they can enable each other to operate more effectively than when they have been administered alone. However, one downside is that when they are administered simultaneously, side effects are frequently greater (Vapiwala *et al.*, 2006).

### *To stop (recurring) cancer from coming back:*

Cancer can spread to other areas of the body. Physicians frequently believe that even when they cannot be detected on imagery scans such as CT scans and MRIs some cancer cells could have disseminated (Einstein *et al.*, 2007). In some situations the area in which the cancer is most commonly disseminated can be radiated to destroy cancer cells before it develops into tumours. For example, even if there is no cancer known to be there, patients with some types of lung cancer may receive radiation into the skull, as their sort of lung cancer commonly extends into the brain. This works to prevent cancer even before it may spread to the skull (Lilja *et al.*, 2008). Radiation may be used to prevent future cancer, in particular if the region where the cancer spread may be near to the cancer itself, at the same time radiation is used to treat current cancer (Chalmers, 2009).

### *Treating advanced cancer symptoms:*

Cancer has spread to be healed excessively at times. However, some of these tumours can still be treated to make the individual feel smaller (Cooperberg *et al.*, 2010). Radiation can assist to ease the difficulties that might be caused by the advanced cancer, such as discomfort, swallowing or breathing problems. This is referred to as palliative radiotherapy (Whelan *et al.*, 2010).

### *Treating returned cancer (recurred):*

Radiation can be used to treat the cancer or to treat symptoms produced by advanced cancer if someone has returned to cancer (recurred) . It depends on several aspects whether radiation is needed following recurrence. For example, if the cancer has returned to a portion of a body already

treated with radiation, additional radiation may not be available in the same location. The quantity of radiation utilised before depends (Zhang *et al.*, 2012). In other cases, the same part of the body or another location may be utilised by radiation. Some cancers may not react to radiation as well. Therefore, even when they reoccur, radiation may not be utilised (Howington *et al.*, 2013).

#### *Cancer type radiation therapy treated:*

Many kinds of cancer are utilised for radiation treatment. Radiation treatment is needed for 60 per cent of cancer patients. Some malignancies that are treated with radiation therapy are listed, such as: prostate, skin, head, neck, throat, larynx, breast, brain, colorectal, pulmonar, bone, leukaemia, ovarian and uterine cancer (Anastasov *et al.*, 2015). Depends on each instance, the quantity of radiation and type needed, considering the tumour size, the stage of cancer, the position of the tumour, the patient's health, the mode of radiation supply and the overall dosage. Some cancer kinds are regarded radiation treatment more receptive. Radiation may occasionally stop development in certain tumours without harming the normal surrounding tissue permanently (Liu *et al.*, 2016). The cure rate is high before metastasis, if these cancers can be treated early. Most other malignant tumours do not have radiation since they are not detectable at the early stage or have a significantly faster pace of development. The substantial radiation dosage needed to destroy the tumour cannot treat tumours situated in particularly sensitive tissue (Bhurosy *et al.*, 2021). Radiation on its own against extremely metastatic cancers is typically unsuccessful. In certain cases, after surgery, radiation or a combination of both a restricted number of cures can be achieved.

#### *What are the differences between Photon and Proton Beam therapy?*

While photon and proton therapy are kinds of radiation treatment, there are two key distinctions. The kind of tumor-targeted particle: Photons like X-rays are supplied as waves that have no charge (Liu *et al.*, 2016). They cross the

body and release energy during the route. A proton is a positive particle that is invisibly tiny (sub-atomical). The degree to which a proton enters the body relies on the speed of the proton leaving the machine. The energy of photon beams (such as X-rays) is progressively absorbed by tissues passing through the beams. This causes tissue damage when they move to the target tumour. It causes tissue damage. If the tumour does not absorb the remainder of the energy of the beam, a photon beam may pass through and harm or kill healthier cells until it is removed from the patient's bodies. Protons are releasing their energies simultaneously. It will not harm cells unless it discharge energy in one explosion. How quickly it moves depends on the amount of distance a proton goes before it releases energy. Proton beams are provided at speeds that discharge almost all the energy into the tumour (Bhurosy *et al.*, 2021). Since the entire energy from radiation is aimed towards the tumour the energy is reduced beyond the tumour to the tissues (Check *et al.*, 2021). This prevents any harm to the surrounding tissue. Photoning is frequently done as many weaker, target-oriented beams. A single beam is delivered for proton treatment. No beam of any kind can be seen.

#### *Risks, benefits and other:*

In our daily lives, we all confront hazards. They cannot all be eliminated, but they may be reduced (Dercle *et al.*, 2021). For example, the utilisation of coal, oil and nuclear energy for the generation of electricity is linked to some kind of health risk, however, slight. The accompanying risks are often accepted by society to reap appropriate rewards. Any person exposed to cancerous chemicals is susceptible to cancer. In the nuclear sector hard endeavours are being made to eliminate these hazards to the lowest possible extent (Entezam *et al.*, 2021). Radiation protection provides examples in two distinct respects for other safety disciplines. First of all, it is assumed to have a danger of damage to the health of any radiation above the natural background. Secondly, it is aimed at protecting future generations from



today's activities. Radiation and nuclear technology have provided very great advantages to civilization in medical, industry, agriculture, energy, and other scientific and technical sectors. The medical advantages for human life-saving diagnosis and treatment are huge (Flerlage *et al.*, 2021). The treatment of some cancers is mostly based on radiation. There is some sort of nuclear medicine in three of four patients hospitalised in the industrialised nations. The benefits in other sectors are same. There are no related hazards in human activities or practises. Radiation should be regarded as less damaging than many other agents to the advantage of humanity.

A systemically successful strategy to treating patients with cancer is the administration of short-range powerful radiation, with several benefits over existing therapy techniques (Ku *et al.*, 2021). The advantages include the ability to picture and calculate the amounts directly affecting efficacy and potential toxicity such as absorbed dose, the ability to produce radiation which is impermeable in almost every traditional mechanism of resistance and the ability to rationally combine RPT and dose-driven radiation treatment with a view to reducing empiricism levels in clinical trials (Rega *et al.*, 2021). For over 40 years, the area of RPT is active and developing and attracts a high degree of respect and trade interest.

Aside from the development of trained doctors, the future development of RPT will also be driven by the continued discovery of tumourally-associated targets, improved radiological chemistry, increased and low cost availability of radionuclides (in particular  $\alpha$ -particle emitters) (Saadat *et al.*, 2021). One important and unique characteristic of this treatment strategy is the capacity to image and quantitatively define the probable biological result of RPT using dosimetry and treatment planning. The question is how does the field strike the correct balance among the use of the RPT characteristics - imaging, dosimetry, and therapeutic programming - that can help guide, optimise and advance patient treatment and the

more convenient approach to taking a chemotherapy dosing paradigm over other cancer therapies? While the former is already in use, is considered to perform effectively and has introduced economically viable and useful agents for patients (Weiser *et al.*, 2021). The solution is in clinical studies in the early stages that include imagery and dosimetry, in order to evaluate and compare strictly the usefulness of these unique elements of RPT with conventional treatment methods (Xie and Kim, 2021).

## Conclusion

Active field of research is radiation treatment. One of the major aims is to develop more selective therapies that damage cancer cells and spare normal ones. In combination with intensity modulated radiation therapy, we shall consider one current treatment under investigation (IMRT). A technique for employing radiation technology to promote the production of cytotoxic (cell killing) chemicals in cancer cells has been proposed for radiogenic treatment. The use of lesser doses of biological radiation alone, but with lower toxicity, may provide the same outcomes as larger doses of radiation. Three radiation treatment groups exist: Radiation stimulation to generate cytotoxic substances directly or indirectly. The aim is to regulate genes using a radiation-induced promoter in order to create proteins or enzymes that can activate the medication. The method is used to control the genes. The medication is triggered to attack the cells of cancer. Radio-labeled compounds emitter-auger. These treatments can suppress cancer by supplying particular receptor carrying cells with focused radiation. Electrodes are issued through radioactive isotopes (Iodine-125 or Indium-111). The electrons have relatively small distance and may thus be given to particular target cell groups, which spares healthy cells. Genes producing a protein that can be targetted by a cytotoxic chemical are radiated.

Although considerable advances have been made to identify the characteristics of cancer, one out of eight fatalities globally is due to cancer. The overall results for cancers continue to be dismal

despite the use of chemotherapy, radiation treatment and surgery. The main objective of radiation treatment is to restrict the capacity for cancer cells to reproduce themselves and finally destroy the cells. Radiation treatment is useful for advanced cancer. However, the original site and/or malignancy remain an important therapeutic issue in cancer management, with radio-resistance and repopulation (relapses or recurrences). Some cancers are inherently radio-resistant whereas others become resistant during therapy. It will be difficult to find tumor-specific pathways and inhibitors to overcome the radioresistance of tumour cells. In recent times tremendous advances in radiation treatment have been achieved to allow more energy (proton beam therapy, such as Bragg Peak) to be deposited into the tumours while the surrounding normal tissues are being spared. There is no comprehensive response to the molecule processes involved in initiating cancer, establishing treatment resistance and subsequent changes in treatment sensitivity, in particular positive or harmful consequences connected to therapy. Cancer cells are affected by different growth signal pathways in a microenvironment, resisting the action of radiation and modifying the neighbouring normal tissues further to prevent tumour recurrence or metastase. Overall, the little increase in radio-resistance will lead to a high number of cancer cell survival and subsequent growth creates the mass of cancer and logarithmic reduction in cancer cell death following radiation therapy. Therefore, the cancer cell radio-sensitivity, for example, will focus on various regions together with molecular medicines to manage this rapidly developing disease throughout the globe in future years. Moreover, with a deeper understanding of tumour biology, radiation treatment will continue to evolve and perhaps deceive cancer cells with less adverse effects through improving imagery, computer and engineering.

## References

- Anastasov N, Höfig I, Radulović V, Ströbel S, Salomon M, Lichtenberg J, Rothenaiger I, Hadian K, Kelm JM, Thirion C and Atkinson, M. J. (2015). A 3D-microtissue-based phenotypic screening of radiation resistant tumor cells with synchronized chemotherapeutic treatment. *BMC Cancer* 15(1): 1-11.
- Aoyama H, Shirato H, Tago M, Nakagawa K, Toyoda T, Hatano K, Kenjyo M, Oya N, Hirota S, Shioura H, Kunieda E, Inomata T, Hayakawa K, Katoh N and Kobashi G. (2006) Stereotactic radiosurgery plus whole-brain radiation therapy vs stereotactic radiosurgery alone for treatment of brain metastases: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA* 295(21): 2483-2491.
- Bhurosy T, Niu Z and Heckman CJ. (2021) Breastfeeding is possible: a systematic review on the feasibility and challenges of breastfeeding among breast cancer survivors of reproductive age. *Annals Surgical Oncology* 28(7): 3723-3735.
- Bradley J, Thorstad WL, Mutic S, Miller TR, Dehdashti F, Siegel BA, Bosch W and Bertrand RJ. I(2004) Impact of FDG-PET on radiation therapy volume delineation in non-small-cell lung cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 59(1): 78-86.
- Chalmers AJ. (2009) The potential role and application of PARP inhibitors in cancer treatment. *British Medical Bull.* 89(1): 23-40.
- Check DK, Zullig LL, Davis MM, Davies L, Chambers D, Fleisher L, Kaplan SJ, Proctor E, Ramanadhan S, Schroeck FR, Stover AM and Koczwara B. (2021) Improvement Science and Implementation Science in Cancer Care: Identifying Areas of Synergy and Opportunities for Further Integration. *J Gen Intern Med.* 36(1): 186-195.
- Chen Y, Hyrien O, Williams J, Okunieff P, Smudzin T and Rubin P. (2005) Interleukin (IL)-1A and IL-6: applications to the predictive diagnostic testing of radiation pneumonitis. *Int J Radiation Oncology Biology Physics* 62(1): 260-266.
- Cooperberg MR, Broering JM and Carroll PR. (2010) Time trends and local variation in primary treatment of localized prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncology* 28(7): 1117.
- Derckx L, Henry T, Carré A, Paragios N, Deutsch E, Robert C. (2021) Reinventing radiation therapy with machine learning and imaging bio-markers (Radiomics): state-of-the-art, challenges and perspectives. *Methods* 188: 44-60.
- Einstein AJ, Henzlova MJ and Rajagopalan S. (2007) Estimating risk of cancer associated with radiation exposure from 64-slice computed tomography coronary angiography. *JAMA* 298(3): 317-323.
- Entezam A, Fielding A, Davide M, Bradley D, Ratnayake G, Sim L, Kralik C and Fontanarosa D. (2021) Investigation of scattered dose in a mouse phantom

- model for pre-clinical dosimetry studies. *Radiation Physics Chem.* 189: 109691.
- Fisher B, Land S, Mamounas E, Dignam J, Fisher ER and Wolmark N. (2001) Prevention of invasive breast cancer in women with ductal carcinoma in situ: an update of the National Surgical Adjuvant Breast and Bowel Project experience. *Seminars Oncology* 28(4): 400-418.
- Fisher B, Wolmark N, Rockette H, Redmond C, Deutsch M, Wickerham DL, Fisher ER, Caplan R, Jones J, Lerner H, Gordon P, Feldman M, Cruz A, Legault-Poisson S, Wexler M, Lawrence W and Robidoux A. (1988) Postoperative adjuvant chemotherapy or radiation therapy for rectal cancer: results from NSABP protocol R-01. *J Natl Cancer Inst.* 80(1): 21-29.
- Flerlage JE, Hiniker SM, Armenian S, Benya EC, Bobbey AJ, Chang V, Cooper S, Coulter DW, Cuglievan B, Hoppe BS, Isenalumhe L, Kelly K, Kersun L, Lambie AJ, Larrier NA, Magee J, Oduro K, Pacheco M, Price AP, Roberts KB, Smith CM, Sohani AR, Trovillion EM, Walling E, Xavier AC, Burns JL and Campbell M. (2021) Pediatric Hodgkin Lymphoma, Version 3.2021. *J Natl Compr Canc Netw.* 19(6): 733-754.
- Franco EL, Duarte-Franco E and Ferenczy A. (2001) Cervical cancer: epidemiology, prevention and the role of human papillomavirus infection. *CMAJ* 164(7): 1017-1025.
- Howington JA, Blum MG, Chang AC, Balekian AA and Murthy SC. (2013) Treatment of stage I and II non-small cell lung cancer: diagnosis and management of lung cancer: American College of Chest Physicians evidence-based clinical practice guidelines. *Chest* 143(5): e278S-e313S.
- Hudson MLA, Bahnson RR and Catalona WJ. (1989) Clinical use of prostate specific antigen in patients with prostate cancer. *J Urology* 142(4): 1011-1017.
- Ku TC, Wang PH, Huang JL, Chen HY, Fang JT, Hsieh HL and Chen JL. (2021) The survival outcome of nasopharyngeal cancer patients with traditional Chinese medicine external use: A hospital-based study. *J Ethnopharmacol.* 279: 114380.
- Lawrence TS, Robertson JM, Anscher MS, Jirtle RL, Ensminger WD and Fajardo LF. (1995) Hepatic toxicity resulting from cancer treatment. *Int J Radiation Oncology Biology Physics* 31(5): 1237-1248.
- Lilja H, Ulmert D and Vickers AJ. (2008) Prostate-specific antigen and prostate cancer: prediction, detection and monitoring. *Nature Reviews Cancer* 8(4): 268-278.
- Liu J, Wang P, Zhang X, Wang L, Wang D, Gu Z, Tang J, Guo M, Cao M, Zhou H, Liu Y and Chen C. (2016) Rapid degradation and high renal clearance of Cu<sub>3</sub>BiS<sub>3</sub> Nanodots for efficient cancer diagnosis and photothermal therapy in vivo. *ACS Nano* 10(4): 4587-4598.
- Morris M, Eifel PJ, Lu J, Grigsby PW, Levenback C, Stevens RE, Rotman M, Gershenson DM and Mutch DG. (1999) Pelvic radiation with concurrent chemotherapy compared with pelvic and para-aortic radiation for high-risk cervical cancer. *N Engl J Med.* 340(15): 1137-1143.
- Rega D, Granata V, Petrillo A, Pace U, Sassaroli C, Di Marzo M, Cervone C, Fusco R, D'Alessio V, Nasti G, Romano C, Avallone A, Pecori B, Botti G, Tatangelo F, Maiolino P and Delrio P. (2021) Organ sparing for locally advanced rectal cancer after neoadjuvant treatment followed by electrochemotherapy. *Cancers (Basel)* 13(13): 3199.
- Saadat LV, Chou JF, Gonen M, Soares KC, Kingham TP, Varghese AM, Jarnagin WR, D'Angelica MI, Drebin JA, O'Reilly EM and Wei AC. (2021) Treatment patterns and survival in patients with early-onset pancreatic cancer. *Cancer.* 127(19): 3566-3578.
- Schmid HP, McNeal JE and Stamey TA. (1993) Observations on the doubling time of prostate cancer. The use of serial prostate-specific antigen in patients with untreated disease as a measure of increasing cancer volume. *Cancer* 71(6): 2031-2040.
- Vapiwala N, Mick R, Hampshire MK, Metz JM and DeNittis AS. (2006) Patient initiation of complementary and alternative medical therapies (CAM) following cancer diagnosis. *Cancer J.* 12(6): 467-474.
- Warren JL, Klabunde CN, Schrag D, Bach PB and Riley GF. (2002) Overview of the SEER-Medicare data: content, research applications, and generalizability to the United States elderly population. *Med Care.* 40(8 Suppl): IV-3-18.
- Weiser R, Polychronopoulou E, Haque W, Hatch SS, He J, Qiu S, Markowitz A, Gradishar WJ, Kuo YF and Klimberg VS. (2021) Prognosis and chemotherapy use in breast cancer patients with multiple lymphatic micrometastases: An NCDB analysis. *Ann Surg Oncol.* 28(13): 8717-8727.
- Whelan TJ, Pignol JP, Levine MN, Julian JA, MacKenzie R, Parpia S, Shelly W, Grimard L, Bowen J, Lukka H, Pera F, Fyles A, Schneider K, Gulavita S and Freeman C. (2010) Long-term results of hypofractionated radiation therapy for breast cancer. *New England J Med.* 362(6): 513-520.
- Xie H and Kim RD. (2021) The application of circulating tumor DNA in the screening, surveillance, and treatment monitoring of colorectal cancer. *Annals Surgical Oncology,* 28(3): 1845-1858.

- Zelevsky MJ, Leibel SA, Gaudin PB, Kutcher GJ, Fleshner NE, Venkatraman ES, Reuter VE, Fair WR, Ling CC and Fuks Z. (1998) Dose escalation with three-dimensional conformal radiation therapy affects the outcome in prostate cancer. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.* 41(3): 491-500.
- Zelevsky MJ, Fuks Z, Happersett L, Lee HJ, Ling CC, Burman CM, Hunt M, Wolfe T, Venkatraman ES, Jackson A, Skwarchuk M and Leibel SA. (2000) Clinical experience with intensity modulated radiation therapy (IMRT) in prostate cancer. *Radiother Oncol.* 55(3): 241-249.
- Zhang XD, Wu D, Shen X, Chen J, Sun YM, Liu PX and Liang XJ. (2012) Size-dependent radiosensitization of PEG-coated gold nanoparticles for cancer radiation therapy. *Biomaterials* 33(27): 6408-6419.