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Exploring Biodegradable Scaffolds for Personalized Cancer Immunotherapy: Nanomaterial Approaches to Tumor Microenvironment Modulation

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Abstract

Personalized cancer immunotherapy has emerged as a transformative approach to combat cancer, focusing on tailoring treatments to individual patients. A critical challenge lies in effectively modulating the tumor microenvironment (TME) to overcome immune suppression and enhance therapeutic efficacy. Biodegradable scaffolds, particularly those incorporating advanced nanomaterials, offer innovative solutions for precise TME modulation. These scaffolds enable localized and sustained delivery of immunomodulatory agents, while their biodegradable nature minimizes long-term side effects. This review explores cutting-edge nanomaterial-based scaffolds designed for personalized cancer immunotherapy, highlighting their role in reshaping the TME, promoting immune activation, and advancing patient-specific therapeutic strategies. Future directions and translational challenges are also discussed, emphasizing the potential of these approaches to revolutionize cancer treatment.

Keywords: Biodegradable scaffolds; Tumor microenvironment (TME); Personalized cancer immunotherapy; Nanomaterials; Immune modulation; Localized drug delivery; Cancer treatment innovation

Introduction

Cancer remains one of the most complex and challenging diseases to treat, largely due to its heterogeneity and the adaptive nature of the tumor microenvironment (TME). Personalized cancer immunotherapy, a cutting-edge strategy that tailors treatments based on individual patient profiles, has shown promise in overcoming traditional therapeutic limitations. By leveraging the patient's immune system to target cancer cells, this approach provides a pathway to durable and specific therapeutic outcomes. However, the efficacy of immunotherapy is often hampered by the suppressive nature of the TME, which supports tumor progression and impedes immune responses [1].

The TME comprises various cellular and non-cellular components, including cancer-associated fibroblasts, immune cells, extracellular matrix (ECM), and signaling molecules. These elements create a dynamic and hostile environment for immune cells, characterized by hypoxia, nutrient deprivation, and immunosuppressive cytokines. Modulating the TME to counteract these barriers is critical for improving immunotherapy outcomes. To achieve this, advanced biomaterials, particularly biodegradable scaffolds, have emerged as powerful tools.

Biodegradable scaffolds provide a versatile platform for delivering immunomodulatory agents directly to the TME, ensuring localized and sustained release. These scaffolds can be engineered using nanomaterials, which offer unique properties such as high surface area, tunable biodegradability, and multifunctionality. Nanomaterialbased scaffolds can be designed to carry diverse therapeutic payloads, including cytokines, checkpoint inhibitors, and nucleic acids, enabling precise TME modulation. Additionally, their biodegradable nature ensures minimal residual toxicity, making them ideal for clinical applications [2].

Recent advances in nanotechnology have enabled the development of scaffolds with enhanced precision and functionality. These scaffolds not only support the delivery of immunotherapeutic agents but also interact dynamically with the TME. For instance, they can promote immune cell infiltration, disrupt tumor-supportive ECM, and reprogram suppressive immune cells. Moreover, nanomaterial-based scaffolds can be tailored to respond to specific TME cues, such as pH or enzymatic activity, ensuring targeted and efficient action.

Personalized cancer immunotherapy benefits significantly from these innovations. By integrating patient-specific data, such as tumor genomics and immune profiling, biodegradable scaffolds can be customized to address individual TME characteristics. This synergy between nanotechnology and precision medicine has the potential to revolutionize cancer treatment, offering a new dimension of efficacy and safety.

Despite these advances, several challenges remain. The complexity of designing multifunctional scaffolds, ensuring scalability for clinical use, and addressing regulatory hurdles are key areas requiring attention. Furthermore, understanding the long-term interactions between biodegradable scaffolds and the immune system is crucial for optimizing their design and application.

This paper explores the potential of biodegradable scaffolds for personalized cancer immunotherapy, with a focus on nanomaterial approaches to TME modulation. It reviews recent developments in scaffold design, discusses their impact on immunotherapy outcomes, and highlights the translational challenges and future prospects in this field. By bridging the gap between nanotechnology and immunotherapy, these innovative scaffolds hold the promise to redefine cancer treatment

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paradigms [3].

Materials and Methods

Materials

To design and evaluate biodegradable scaffolds for personalized cancer immunotherapy, the following materials are commonly used:

Biodegradable polymers

Natural Polymers: Collagen, chitosan, hyaluronic acid, alginate, and gelatin.

Synthetic Polymers: Poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA), polylactic acid (PLA), and polyethylene glycol (PEG).

Nanomaterials

Inorganic Nanoparticles: Gold nanoparticles, silica nanoparticles, and mesoporous nanoparticles.

Organic Nanoparticles: Liposomes, polymeric nanoparticles, and micelles [4,5].

Hybrid Nanomaterials: Combining organic and inorganic components for enhanced functionality.

Immunomodulatory agents

Cytokines (e.g., IL-2, IFN-γ).

Immune checkpoint inhibitors (e.g., anti-PD-1, anti-CTLA-4).

Tumor antigens (e.g., peptides, DNA, or RNA).

Crosslinkers and stabilizers

Enzymatic crosslinkers (e.g., transglutaminase).

Chemical crosslinkers (e.g., glutaraldehyde, EDC/NHS).

Cell lines and animal models

Cancer cell lines (e.g., B16 melanoma, 4T1 breast cancer).

Immune cell lines (e.g., dendritic cells, T cells) [6].

Preclinical models such as murine models for TME studies.

Methods

Scaffold fabrication

Electrospinning: Produces nanofiber-based scaffolds with high surface area and porosity.

3D Bioprinting: Enables precise spatial control over scaffold structure and therapeutic agent incorporation.

Solvent Casting and Particulate Leaching: Creates porous scaffolds by embedding salt or polymer particles.

Hydrogel Formation: Crosslinking polymers into 3D hydrogels for localized delivery.

Nanomaterial synthesis and functionalization

Nanoparticle Synthesis: Bottom-up approaches like chemical reduction or self-assembly [7].

Surface Modification: Functionalize nanomaterials with targeting ligands (e.g., antibodies, peptides) or TME-responsive elements (e.g., pH-sensitive groups).

Loading Therapeutics: Encapsulation or conjugation of immunomodulatory agents into nanomaterials.

Characterization of scaffolds

Structural Analysis: Use scanning electron microscopy (SEM) or transmission electron microscopy (TEM) to assess scaffold architecture.

Mechanical Properties: Measure tensile strength and elasticity using mechanical testing.

Degradation Studies: Evaluate scaffold biodegradability under physiological conditions [8].

In vitro studies

Drug Release Profiles: Measure release kinetics of encapsulated agents using UV-vis spectroscopy or high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC).

Immune Cell Interaction: Assess dendritic cell or T cell activation using flow cytometry.

Cytotoxicity Studies: Test cancer cell viability using MTT or Live/ Dead assays.

In vivo studies

Tumor Models: Implant scaffolds in murine cancer models and monitor tumor growth using calipers or imaging.

Immune Response Analysis: Measure cytokine levels and immune cell infiltration using ELISA, immunohistochemistry, or flow cytometry [9].

Biodistribution and Biocompatibility: Use imaging techniques (e.g., fluorescence, MRI) to track scaffold degradation and therapeutic agent localization.

Data analysis

Perform statistical analysis using software like GraphPad Prism. Analyze the significance of results using tests such as ANOVA or Student's t-test [10].

Discussion

Biodegradable scaffolds represent a transformative tool in personalized cancer immunotherapy, addressing critical challenges associated with modulating the tumor microenvironment (TME). These scaffolds, particularly those incorporating advanced nanomaterials, offer a platform for precise, localized, and sustained delivery of immunomodulatory agents, thereby enhancing therapeutic outcomes. This discussion delves into the implications, current progress, and future directions of these technologies.

One of the major advantages of biodegradable scaffolds is their ability to overcome the physical and biochemical barriers of the TME. By delivering therapeutic agents directly to the tumor site, these scaffolds mitigate off-target effects and systemic toxicity, a limitation often encountered with conventional immunotherapy. Moreover, their tunable properties enable customization to specific TME conditions, such as hypoxia, low pH, or enzymatic activity, ensuring a responsive and targeted approach.

Nanomaterial-based scaffolds have demonstrated superior capabilities in modulating the TME. Inorganic nanoparticles, such as gold or silica, enhance scaffold mechanical stability and enable controlled release of payloads. Organic nanoparticles, such as

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liposomes or polymeric micelles, provide biocompatibility and facilitate the delivery of sensitive biomolecules like mRNA or proteins. The combination of these materials into hybrid systems further amplifies their functionality, offering a multifunctional platform for immune activation, drug delivery, and imaging.

These scaffolds also support immune cell recruitment and activation within the TME. By releasing cytokines or chemokines in a spatiotemporal manner, they promote the infiltration of effector T cells while reprogramming suppressive immune cells, such as tumor-associated macrophages or regulatory T cells. Additionally, scaffolds loaded with immune checkpoint inhibitors have shown promise in reversing immunosuppression, thereby enhancing the efficacy of T cell-mediated responses.

Personalization remains a cornerstone of these innovations. By integrating patient-specific data, such as tumor genomic profiles and immune signatures, scaffolds can be designed to address the unique characteristics of individual TMEs. For example, scaffolds can be tailored to release specific tumor antigens for dendritic cell activation, ensuring robust and precise anti-tumor responses. This personalized approach aligns with the broader goals of precision oncology, where treatments are customized to maximize efficacy and minimize adverse effects.

Despite these advancements, several challenges remain. Manufacturing scalable and reproducible scaffolds that retain their functionality in clinical settings is a key hurdle. The complexity of integrating nanomaterials, therapeutic agents, and responsive elements into a single platform often leads to variability in performance. Furthermore, the long-term effects of scaffold degradation products on the immune system and overall biocompatibility require further investigation.

Another challenge lies in regulatory and translational pathways. The novel nature of these materials demands comprehensive preclinical and clinical evaluations to ensure safety and efficacy. Bridging the gap between laboratory-scale innovations and real-world applications will require collaborative efforts among researchers, clinicians, and regulatory agencies.

Future research should focus on advancing the functionality and scalability of biodegradable scaffolds. Incorporating artificial intelligence and machine learning could optimize scaffold design by predicting patient-specific responses. Additionally, exploring multimodal therapies, combining scaffolds with radiation or chemotherapy, may further enhance therapeutic efficacy.

In conclusion, biodegradable scaffolds, empowered by nanomaterialbased approaches, offer an exciting avenue for personalized cancer immunotherapy. By effectively modulating the TME and integrating patient-specific strategies, these scaffolds hold immense potential to redefine cancer treatment paradigms. Continued innovation and collaboration across disciplines will be essential to translate these technologies from bench to bedside.

Conclusion

The exploration of biodegradable scaffolds for personalized cancer immunotherapy represents a significant advancement in the fight against cancer. These scaffolds, especially those incorporating nanomaterials, offer a novel and versatile platform to address the critical challenges posed by the tumor microenvironment (TME). By enabling localized, controlled, and sustained delivery of immunomodulatory agents, they effectively overcome the barriers that limit traditional immunotherapy, offering a new dimension of precision and efficacy.

One of the key strengths of biodegradable scaffolds is their capacity to reshape the TME. By disrupting immunosuppressive networks and enhancing immune cell infiltration, these scaffolds create a favorable environment for robust anti-tumor immune responses. The ability to integrate diverse therapeutic payloads, such as immune checkpoint inhibitors, cytokines, or tumor antigens, further enhances their therapeutic potential. Additionally, their biodegradability minimizes long-term risks, as the materials naturally degrade into non-toxic byproducts, addressing safety concerns often associated with traditional implants.

Nanomaterial-based scaffolds have pushed the boundaries of what is achievable in this domain. Their high surface area, tunable properties, and multifunctionality make them ideal for delivering complex biomolecules with precision. These scaffolds can also be engineered to respond to specific TME cues, such as hypoxia, acidic pH, or enzymatic activity, ensuring targeted action while sparing healthy tissues. Furthermore, hybrid systems combining organic and inorganic nanomaterials enable the development of multifunctional platforms that can simultaneously deliver therapies, monitor tumor responses, and guide imaging.

Personalization is a critical aspect of this technology, aligning with the broader goals of precision oncology. By incorporating patientspecific data, such as genomic and immune profiling, biodegradable scaffolds can be tailored to address the unique characteristics of each patient's TME. This personalized approach not only enhances therapeutic efficacy but also minimizes adverse effects, setting the stage for a new standard in cancer care.

Despite the remarkable progress, challenges remain. Translating these advanced scaffolds into clinical practice requires overcoming hurdles related to scalability, reproducibility, and cost. Additionally, regulatory pathways for complex biomaterials are still evolving, necessitating thorough preclinical and clinical validation. The longterm effects of scaffold degradation products and potential immune interactions also need to be comprehensively studied.

Looking forward, interdisciplinary collaboration will be essential to address these challenges and drive innovation. Advances in materials science, nanotechnology, and bioengineering will play a crucial role in optimizing scaffold design and functionality. Integration with emerging technologies such as artificial intelligence and machine learning could further enhance scaffold personalization, enabling predictive modeling of patient-specific responses. Combining scaffoldbased immunotherapy with other modalities, such as chemotherapy, radiation, or adoptive cell therapies, may offer synergistic benefits and broaden the scope of treatment options.

In conclusion, biodegradable scaffolds represent a groundbreaking approach to personalized cancer immunotherapy, with the potential to revolutionize cancer treatment paradigms. Their ability to modulate the TME, deliver therapies with precision, and adapt to patient-specific needs underscores their transformative potential. While challenges remain, continued research, innovation, and collaboration will pave the way for these scaffolds to transition from experimental systems to clinical realities, offering hope for more effective and personalized cancer care.

Conflict of interest

None

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