Journal of Population Therapeutics & Clinical Pharmacology

REVIEW ARTICLE DOI: 10.47750/jptcp.2023.30.09.026

The Concept of Cancer Translational Research - A Review

S. Ramachandran^{1*}, Ramam Sripada², Lakshmi Himaja Bandaru², P. Himasree² ¹Department of Pharmacology, GIET School of Pharmacy, Rajahmundry, Andhra Pradesh, India ²Department of Pharmacy Practice, GIET School of Pharmacy, Rajahmundry, Andhra Pradesh, India *Corresponding author: S. Ramachandran, Professor & Head Department of Pharmacology GIET School of Pharmacy Rajahmundry Andhra Pradesh-India, Email: ramsnetin@yahoo.com

Submitted: 11 February 2023; Accepted: 17 March 2023; Published: 26 April 2023

ABSTRACT

The translational research is a multidisciplinary research model which includes the process of discovering the concepts of research by using basic science and applying that knowledge with in the clinical praxis. This model appears to be well constructed and highly systematic and it bridges the concept of basic research and the clinical practice. This research paradigm is one of the basis for developing translational medicine which leads to progression of evidence based medicine to solve the public health issues. In this review, the concept of translational research along with various stages, cancer therapeutics & prevention, the main reasons for inadequate therapeutics along with contemporary and future perspectives were discussed. The terminal goal of translational research is to identify the therapeutic guidelines and regimes which are highly effective with low toxicity. The evolution of biotechnology lead to the development of indisputable chances for ameliorating the ability to diagnose, treat and prevent the neoplasms. Preclinical investigations are undergoing for latest developments and advancements in the molecular biology or molecular targeted therapies which lead to the increased identification of the latest agents for treatment. For the expected quality of oncological practice large variety of molecular tumor characteristics and their supporting models will be helpful for allowing continuous reassessment of human malignancies at molecular level. In conclusion, translational research can be used to improve the public health outcomes and can develop the therapeutic and preventive strategies regarding various diseases or disorders and can provide cost benefit health care analysis. Thus, consistent efforts in translational research stimulate the logical and reasonable inventions in the field of multidisciplinary cancer research in future.

Keywords: Chemotherapy, Oncology, Palliative care, Translational Research

INTRODUCTION

The translational research is a multidisciplinary research model which includes the process of discovering the concepts of research by using basic science and applying that knowledge with in the clinical praxis. This model appears to be well constructed and highly systematic and it bridges the concept of basic research and the clinical practice. This research paradigm is one of the basis for developing translational medicine which leads to progression of evidence based medicine to solve the public health issues. The main aim of the translational research is to promote patient centered care and to develop the preventive measures which help to offer the effective health care services.

Translational research is bidirectional and this model forms a complex network as it includes the exchange of knowledge among the researchers, health care professionals as well as the patients for a proper team work & coordination to perform research effectively. As this research paradigm is having a greater importance in the medical practice with in the community, the interventional epidemiology should also be taken into consideration. The model of translational research can be classified into four different stages that include T1, T2, T3 and T4 [1-5].

T1 Stage

It is a preclinical phase of translational research, which can be described as "bench to bedside". In this stage, researchers develop the discoveries from basic science and human medicine through early phases of clinical trials. Phase-I clinical trials are involved in this stage and the researchers try to identify the bridge between the concept of basic science and human medicine. Once if the link is evaluated, the researchers try to initiate using the healthy human models or non human models, computerized programs, tissue samples etc, for allowing the evidence of the concept to establish. Some examples are development of the drugs, study of different disease mechanisms involved with proteins, genes & genetics and technologies used for the treatment [6-9].

T2 Stage

It can also be described as a phase, from "bedside to practice" of translational research where phase-II and phase-III clinical trials are involved in this stage. The safety and efficiency of an intervention is verified and established by the researchers in this stage. The concept that is discovered and established in T1 stage is applied among the human volunteers and the response is observed and assessed using a clinical trial. The quality and validity of the evidence that is generated in these studies are more important and required for receiving an approval for doing interventions related to the patient safety and as well as patient care. The clinical guidelines can also be developed and established in this stage [10-13].

T3 Stage

The T3 stage of translational research is evaluative in nature. It involves the phase-IV about clinical trials which describes dissemination research and implementation research. Dissemination research includes the evidence based interventions which are confirmed from human volunteers by observing them with in a patient care setting. Implementation research includes the integration of interventions within the existing program. The main aim of T3 is not only to give treatment to the patients but also to spread the knowledge regarding the results of the previously conducted trials. This stage provides a further scope of research to understand the clinical outcomes and to identify any new clinical concepts for further interventions.

T4 Stage

It is the ultimate stage of translational research which mainly focuses on positive outcomes within a population to establish the value of the research. The main aim of this stage is to improve the community based health status or health benefits and to decrease the economic burden that could be related to etiology of an intervention. Diffusion research is involved in this stage and it describes the benefits to the public by adapting the evidence based interventions into the clinical practice for improving the health status & preventive measures. As the interventions could impose financial burden, the cost benefit analysis study should also be done [5-7].

Translational Cancer Research

Translational cancer research can be defined as a logical tumour research continuum in which it is obligatory to convey the cancer problems effectively. The increasing cancer difficulties can only be substantially altered by taking coordinated action and also by implementing the preventive measures. These measures must be helpful to decrease the occurrence of cancer cases, early observation to improve the healing rate, individualized cancer medicine to improve the chance of recovery and treatment to the biological attributes of a tumour. The cancer translational research continuum includes the

principle aspects of cancer research. The main aim of translational cancer research continuity is to improve the preserving rate, enhance the survivability and increasing the health related quality of life. The therapeutics of translational cancer research mainly targets the needs of the patients there by preventing the negative consequences among the at-risk population [14].

Research in Cancer Therapeutics

The model of cancer translational research can be categorized into two different phases which includes early translational research and late translational research. Early translational research links the basic or preclinical research with the clinical research. By closely observing the cancer research continuum, the components of the late translational research were not properly linked and were observed with four extra gaps. Based on the basic research innovations in the clinical trials in gap-1, the intended proof of the concept can be developed. For linking the extensive information between fundamental tumour biology and basic research, there is a need of censorious group of skillful professionals; sophisticated facilities and funds along with huge study population. The tumour biology and basic research includes the recognition of cancer triggering molecular pathways, identification of latest targets for therapy and recognizing the molecular markers for research to develop anticipating tumour medication. Early translational research includes the evaluation of the clinical efficacy within a few patients with confined information of side effects whereas the late translational research is to explain the clinical value and effectiveness of research ideas in the aspect of health care system thereby bringing out a "pharmaceutical product" for effective treatment. As it is a tough move, it demands important investments and basic assurance from pharmaceutical and biotechnology industries which is related to gap-2 of cancer translational research. To encounter the requirements, coalition of Comprehensive Cancer Centers (CCCs) which are prepared to take on scientific research and early clinical research have been established. These centres play a key role by linking the research with health

care system will reduce the time for the research inventions to reach the patients [15-19].

Implementation research is helpful for connecting the research outcomes to its use within the health care system that represents the gap-3. It's better to follow the firm rules and practice regarding the therapeutics and documentation of both the positive and negative outcomes of the therapy in the implementation research. The main goal of this research is to evaluate the outcome that is observed in the research can be procreated in a systematic clinical set up. Due to intricacy of diagnostic methods and therapeutic conventions, there is a chance of developing the issues while managing the individualized tumor medicine. At this stage of research. the health related pharmacoeconomics should always be taken into the consideration. The revised medical guidelines conveying the latest therapy should be included after identifying the positive outcomes of the implementation research that is related to gap-4. The clinical guidelines should endorse data collection for the clinical cancer registry to authorize outcomes research. The clinical data that is gathered by maintaining the quality will be evaluated for the medical utility and connected to pharmacoeconomics for evaluating the cost effectiveness and use for patients and the public [19].

The capability to perform outcomes research and evaluate the health related financial aspects of the latest diagnostic methods and therapies will be considerable and provides essential information to health care organizations. So it's better to collaborate with more number of CCCs is required for prioritization of various aspects of diagnostic methods and treatment. An increase in cancer patients with or without proof of residual illness should be concentrated as they suffer from long-term somatic and psychodynamic side effects. Hence, long duration of follow up is required related to cancer survivorship. As this is entangled with various problems related to patients and health care systems, lots of information should be gathered by long period follow up with patients especially those who underwent the treatment is needed to draw conclusions about the positive and negative consequences of new research inventions as well

as health economics and to know the worth of cancer treatment. To make certain that the assortment of data from centres can be promptly evaluated, connecting therapy with long term follow up should be carefully contemplated and comprehensive standards of clinical registers have to be accepted based on gap-5 of cancer translational research [20, 21].

Research in Cancer prevention

Early translational research connects the basic preclinical research with the advancement of probable prevention strategy. It mainly concentrates on the detection of etiology of cancer and spotting of risk and protective factors representing the gap-1. Gap-2 mainly aims to evaluate the efficacy of the newly developed strategy which has to be tested in the clinical trials. The healthcare systems should document the preventive research and required economic outcomes in order to prevent the gap-3. This gap is having its own significance as it reduces cancer difficulty by 30-40%. The prevention programmes should be planned in the implementation research as the major goal for outcomes research is linked with the health economics related to gap 4 [17].

Cancer Medicine in Translational Research: Bench to Bedside

In cancer translational research, development of unique diagnostic methods and drugs play a significant role and the anti-neoplastic agent should have a targeted effect for cancer cells by not affecting the healthy or normal cells. Before 1945 there was no existence of any medications or treatment strategies for the management of cancer. During World War-I, the first chemotherapeutic agent was accidentally discovered where the individuals exposed to mustard gas and they were observed with the suppressed lymphoid and myeloid leukemia. Hence, it was identified that mustard gas might be able to treat leukemia or blood cancer. In the next generation, DNA damaging agents, antimetabolites, taxanes and combination of the therapeutic agents have been developed. At the early stages of the chemotherapy development, cell growth inhibition was mainly concentrated and various aspects of the concept of growth regulation, vasculature and tumour cell growth were explained later [22].

Radiation therapy

Ionizing radiation is widely used for the treatment of cancer which utilizes the radiation energy at the higher levels and sometimes along with the chemotherapy or surgery for effective treatment of tumors. Radiation therapy is well tolerated but, can cause side effects such as secondary neoplasms, bone related complications and heart diseases due to radiation exposure. So, there is a need for developing the therapies specified to cancer cells by sensitizing them to radiation and protecting the normal cells from harmful effects of the radiation [23-29].

Chemotherapy

It mainly includes the use of the drugs that mainly targets the cell growth. The chemotherapeutic agents differ from each other in the various aspects of their chemical composition/structure, function, specific actions and their toxicities. As these agents can cause severe side effects, there is a requirement to develop the chemo-protective and chemo-sensitizing agents which are tumor specific [30, 31].

Molecular targeted therapy

For the effective preclinical and clinical trials, rational drug development and identification of suitable targets for drug were based on the specific tumour characteristics. Examples of these molecular targets include EGFR (Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor), VEGF (Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor), C-MET (Mesenchymal Epithelial transition Factor). Src, (Human Epidermal growth factor HER2 Receptor) can also be involved in the tumor therapy. Increased proliferation, angiogenesis, invasion, metastasis and decreased cell death can be observed due to the amplification of the genes and the proteins which can further lead to disease aggression, less chance of survival rate, resistance to the drugs that makes the drug target sites ideal for the specificity of the cancer molecule inhibitors therapy. Small or

monoclonal antibodies mostly inhibit these targets by specifically acting against a gene or protein [32]. In various cancers, kinase inhibitors inhibit the inappropriate signaling and the examples of these inhibitors include imatinib, erlotinib and lapatinib. Around 30 antibody and kinase inhibitors were identified in the preclinical development in which they were more specific to cancer cells and less toxic to the normal cells [33].

EGFR is the first receptor identified for tumour targeted therapy that belongs to the family of the trans-membrane receptor tyrosine kinases. This receptor is involved in the cell growth of the neoplasm, tumour invasion and metastasis of the cancer. Excessive expression of EGFR can be observed in the epithelial tumors [34-39]. The monoclonal antibody cetuximab inhibits the signaling of the EGFR which mediate the immunoglobulin dependent cellular toxicity [40]. The monoclonal antibody transtuzumab acts against HER2 which initiate the antibody dependent cellular cytotoxicity that prevents the receptor activation and signaling which inhibits the angiogenesis and induces the programmed cell death [41, 42]. The drug lapatinib inhibits both EGFR and HER2 by involving the intracellular signaling which has shown highly effective outcomes in the clinical trials [43, 44].

Angiogenesis is the crucial factor and major concern that is associated with primary tumour and metastasis in the cancer patients which has to be treated with the anti-angiogenesis agents [45-47]. Bevacizumab is a humanized monoclonal antibody that works against VEGF and is the most advanced drug available at present. This drug is the first compound to treat angiogenesis authorized by USFDA and is used to treat various types of neoplasms associated with lungs, colorectal regions, prostate cancer in men and breast cancer in women [45, 48, 49]. Imatinib mesylate inhibits the Philadelphia chromosome which is the first line agent for treating the chronic myelogeneous leukemia (CML) [50, 51]. As this drug is having disadvantages such as it cannot completely eliminate the residual leukemic stem cells and progenitor cells that causes the risk of recurrence. This drug has the tendency to develop drug resistance which another disadvantage [52].

Reasons for inadequate therapeutics in clinical scenario

The terminal goal of the treatment of cancer is to eliminate all the neoplastic cells at the site of origin or other parts of the body which might cause recurrence after certain period of The drug therapy dormancy. resistance, inadequate primary drug therapy or possessing resistant cancer cells are some of the factors that lead to re-growth of the tumors. Based on the type of cancer, the recurrence of the disease varies from individual to individual. The period of time taken for the occurrence of relapse and the therapeutic regimen that was initially given also shows impact on the recurrence of the disease. By giving the additional therapies there is a chance to completely remove the cancer cells in the aspect of the recurrent neoplasms. Controlling the growth of the tumor, pain management and monitoring toxic effects should be the goals of the treatment if it is difficult to eliminate the cancer recurrence that helps to improve the quality of life of the patient [51, 53, 54]. Cancer with metastasis is mostly not curable with in a less number of individuals observed with long term survival even after giving the standard therapies. There is a need for developing the unique therapies which can mainly act on the specific drug resistant cells, cells that trigger the recurrence of the tumour and cells with metastasis which ultimately leads to the improvement of effectiveness and specificity [57-59]. To inhibit the multi-drug-resistant pumps (P-glycoprotein, MDR1, ABCG2/BCRP), newer therapeutic agents have been developed to stay longer within the cancerous cells [60-62].

The cancer stem cells (CSCs) are mainly involved in the formation of the new cancers which are having the characteristics of the normal stem cells. CSCs are immortal, pleuripotent cells and the capacity to self-renovate which can multiply to various cell lines. CSCs can be traced out in both solid and non-solid neoplasms. It includes breast, blood cancer, prostate, brain and multiple myelomas [63-68]. There is a lack of information regarding the physiological features and expression of markers, so it is difficult to define the CSCs among the various types of neoplasms. Stem cell marker heterogeneity is trendy for conducting the new aspect of the

research. Quiescent cancer stem cells might start the recurrence of the tumour cells even after completion of the initial treatments. To identify the difference between the CSCs and the normal cells, the recent therapeutic strategies are failing to eliminate the solid tumors [63, 64, 66-72].

Contemporary and future perspectives

Large number of opportunities has been created regarding the latest methods of the diagnosis, treatment and prevention due to recent improvements in the field of the biotechnology. In the cancer cells, there will be ideal therapeutic targets which play a crucial role to maintain the tumor. Huge efforts should be kept to develop the newer agents for treatment of cancer without damaging the normal cells, by targeting the cancer specific molecular targets.

Omics

Genomic and the proteomic studies play an important role in oncology to understand the gene stimulation and expression within the normal and the cancer disease states. Targeted proteomic methods determine the effectiveness of the targeted therapy and may be helpful in future aspects. The genomic and proteomic studies lead to the identification of the biochemical substances called the biomarkers used for the evaluation of the disease. These biomarkers can be classified into three different types that include diagnostic, prognostic and predictive markers. Diagnostic biomarker helps for diagnosing the disease. Prognostic markers are used to know the clinical outcome of the disease status where as the predictive markers are used to predict the disease state and response to the therapy and all these markers are required for designing the therapeutic regimens [49, 73-79].

Gene /protein regulation

Highly tolerable drugs such as latest generation of the SERMs, 5 alpha reductase inhibitors and inhibitors of COX-2 can be useful in the cancer prevention [80, 81]. Mitotic inhibitors were also proved to be efficient anti-neoplastic agents where as they are highly toxic, because they are toxic to the normal cells and as they are not specific to the cancer cells [82-84]. Transcriptional inhibitors help to inhibit the cell migration, development of new blood vessels, and induction of apoptosis in the cancer therapeutics. Abnormal gene expression is mostly present in all the types of the neoplasms [85-87].

Apoptotic pathway is complex where the antiapoptotic signaling plays a key role in the and the radiation therapy chemotherapy resistance which may reduce the efficacy of the treatment of the cancer. Apoptosis inhibitor proteins are expressed in the tumor cells which can lead to poor prognosis and can show impact on the therapeutic targets. IAPs (inhibitors of apoptosis proteins) can escalate cell death induced by the ionizing radiation and chemotherapy. "Survivin" is an important IAP which can be used as diagnostic markers to differentiate cancer and the noncancerous cells. In some aspects of cell death, TNF (tumor necrosis factor) will be involved in this process [88-92].

Nanotechnology

In this new innovative technology, the radioactive atoms will bind to the tumor specific immunoglobulin which is injected into the systematic circulation and carried out directly to the location of the tumor. Several factors like location of tumor, shape, size, presence of blood an important role in the vessels play radionuclide-based therapies. For the radioimmunotherapy of the lymphoma, two radiolabeled antibodies of anti-CD 20 were available and these antibodies were having the higher risk of re-emission of cancer compared to the unlabelled antibody. In patients with solid tumors, radio-labeled antibody therapy is less successful as these tumors are poorly sensitized by the radiation which have the restricted vascularization and do not have the equal uptake of the radio-labeled immunoglobulin. Usage of the nanoparticles promotes the pharmacokinetics, distribution and release of the associated drug for the treatment of cancer. Nanotechnology decreases the toxic effects by promoting the tumor cell specificity of the drug targets. It is also used to establish sensitive assay

J Popul Ther Clin Pharmacol Vol 30(9):e258-e270; 26 April 2023.

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non Commercial 4.0 International License. ©2021 Muslim OT et al.

techniques for the identification of the latest tumor biomarkers [93-95]. Quantum Dots (QDs) are the inorganic fluorephores which are highly specific, brighter and highly stable compared to the other fluorescent markers. One disadvantage is the penetration of the light into the body is restricted. Ultimately, nanotechnology is useful in understanding the progression of the disease and outcomes of the therapeutics [96-99].

Telomerase

About 85-90% of the human cancers were identified with the telomerase activity that mainly increases during the progression of the tumor. Hence, it can be used as potential biomarker for the diagnosis of the cancer. In the cancer therapy, telomerase inhibition can specifically act on the targeted cancer cells by slowing the progression of the primary cancers and decreases the movement of the cancer cells towards the lungs.

Immunotherapy

Cancer cells are mostly escaped from the immune response which is considered as the essential feature that is observed in the cancer disease progression. Anti neoplastic immune therapies might contribute to control the tumor after treating with the conventional chemotherapy. Vaccines for cancer, immune stimulating antibodies and the inhibiting antibodies are involved in the response of the immune system for the treatment of cancer which can further lead to progression of cancer cell death and the cancer stem cell stimulation [100-109].

Cancer Translational Research - Contemporary Practice of Palliative Care

There is a necessity to conduct research based on the aspect of palliative care for cancer patients to gather more knowledge and to face the new challenges in the cancer translational research [110-112].

Micro assay technology and genetic sequencing techniques gathers great amount of genomic information to disentangle the convoluted tumour biology and contrasts in the clinical responses

which can leads to development of immunotherapy of cancer and the targeted gene therapy. There is a difference between the palliative care and end-of-life care. In critically cancer patients, it is difficult to observe the transition of the palliative care and the end-of-life care to be provided. Hence, identification with in the time limit is required for optimal care [113-115]. Humanized murine models have been developed to perform the in-vivo study for understanding the human biology by overcoming the ethical and the technical considerations. The cancer related pain studies can be affected by the various types of factors such as gender, genotype and communication with the society, as the pain phenomenon itself is complicated context. So, all these factors should be taken into consideration when the murine models are used in the research aspects [116].

Palliative care drugs are frequently utilized outside their authorizing license. Unique research techniques may be helpful in preventing the unanticipated suggestions of such practice like high content screening technologies in humans, PK-PD modeling and Langendroff-perfused heart model in female rabbit for grasping the medication induced conducting effects of electrophysiology [117]. Biochemical markers can be utilized for the diagnostic aspects, selecting the drug therapy, understanding the prognosis and also plays a vital role in biology of dying [118, 119].

For the rehabilitation research in the aspect of palliative care neuroimaging techniques have become the essential tools for identifying the brain trauma effects or cognitive behavioral symptoms. These diagnostic techniques can include the MRI, positron emission tomography encephalographic techniques, scan, IR and transcranial spectroscopy magnetic stimulation. Quantification of the integrity of white matter can be examined by diffusionweighted magnetic resonance techniques like diffusion tensor imaging and high angular resolution diffusion [120].

Palliative care related research can include the quantitative and the qualitative methods and can be descriptive as well as interventional study patterns [121]. The proper balance should be

J Popul Ther Clin Pharmacol Vol 30(9):e258–e270; 26 April 2023.

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non Commercial 4.0 International License. ©2021 Muslim OT et al.

maintained to safeguard the ethical rights of the patient by providing adequate care and to promote & evaluate the efficacy or safety aspects of the scientific research. Randomized Control Trials can be useful for the validation of the prospective and retrospective clinical information in the aspects of the scientific research areas but there are some barriers while conducting RCT in the aspect of the palliative care. By using the inventive approaches like response adaptive randomization methods can also be considered. These study designs can concentrate on minimizing the predicted therapeutic failures while maintaining the benefits of the randomization. The RCTs can include the "add-on- trial" designs and the cross over study designs. In the "add on" trial designs the newer therapy is added to the present ongoing therapy of the patient. Cross over trial designs can be applicable in the disease state where the clinical presentation and the symptoms of the patient are stable and useful for the study of various diseases. The strength of the study can be increased markedly by using the patients as their own control the carryover effects might be observed which can cause a serious imminence for the study validity within the therapeutic period [122-124]. Hesitation of the study participants can lead to under enrolment or selective enrolment which results in failure of gathering the adequate information and identifying the effect of the therapeutic effect. By adding the patients with the early to mild symptoms into the inclusion criteria the rate of the response or outcome can be greater than the predicted. The study participants who are uncooperative may show less outcome rate than the standard treatment there by miscalculating the usefulness of the therapy. Less adherence by the study participants and dropping in the middle of the study are the issues which can further lead to the bias within the trial [125, 126]. Latest trials can be designed to prevent these challenges or barriers. They include the "N-of-1" trial, standard parallel-arm RCTs, fast-track RCTs and adaptive RCTs [119, 127]. These can include either an individual participant or group of the participants like cluster randomization types. They bring the scientific research closer to real life health care which includes pragmatic trials, implementation

research, community based research and project demonstration are the latest methods which can reduce the gap and distortion in the aspects of the translational research related to the cancer biology/oncology aspect [128, 129].

Limitations of Translational Research

Translational research paradigm appears to be highly systematic and well intact. But, some of the factors can impede the process of translational research. The examples are failure to implement the core aspects like developing the focused concept of interest, accomplishing an effective multidisciplinary effort, usage of the standard bio-banking protocols, maintaining the research bi-directionality, introducing the indepth education and mentoring methods and developing the programmes that can reach to community. During these past two decades, less number of the effective educational programs were conducted which has lead to the 95% of failure rate by influencing the investments and advances in the molecular science. Effective interdisciplinary cooperation and effective training programmes are the main aspects of an effective translational research that should be focused [1, 129].

CONCLUSION

The terminal goal of translational research is to identify the therapeutic guidelines and regimes which are highly effective with low toxicity. The evolution of biotechnology lead to the development of indisputable chances for ameliorating the ability to diagnose, treat and prevent the neoplasms. Preclinical investigations are undergoing for latest developments and advancements in the molecular biology or molecular targeted therapies which lead to the increased identification of the latest agents for treatment. To develop these new agents there is a requirement of proper coordination between the persons involved in the basic research, clinicians, computational biologists and the pharmaceutical industry. The exchange of information from each section will improve and help out to face the challenges endlessly to trace out the latest therapeutic approaches. Approaches in the study of genetics and proteins permit to understand the

J Popul Ther Clin Pharmacol Vol 30(9):e258–e270; 26 April 2023. This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non Commercial 4.0 International License. ©2021 Muslim OT et al.

features or characteristics of cancer to develop individualized treatment patterns based on the genetics and protein construction. At present, various drug discovery programmes have been expanded internationally for sequencing the genomes of diverse human malignancies. In these drug discovery programmes, the diagnostic tests plays a key role in anticipating the worth of the anti tumor agents at the molecular level. These agents are visualized and approved collaterally with new micro-molecular treatments and immune cell therapies assisted by better preclinical cancer models. The DNA sequencing techniques have been improved due to complex interactions between cancer cells and their microenvironment, illumination of interaction between genetic drivers of cancer (oncogenes and tumor suppressor agents) and recent perception into the genetic heterogeneity of human neoplasms. These developments are used in the genomic clinical trials of the first generation which will scrutinize the viability of matching the systemic therapies in an extensive range to specific attributes of the tumor molecules. For the expected quality of oncological practice large variety of molecular tumor characteristics and their supporting models will be helpful for allowing continuous reassessment of human malignancies at molecular level. In conclusion, translational research can be used to improve the public health outcomes and can develop the therapeutic and preventive strategies regarding various diseases or disorders and can provide cost benefit health care analysis. Thus, consistent efforts in translational research stimulate the logical and inventions reasonable in the field of multidisciplinary cancer research in future.

REFERENCES

- 1. Choi PJ, Tubbs RS, Oskouian RJ. The Current Trend of the Translational Research Paradigm. Cureus. 2018; 10(3): e2340.
- 2. Mehic B. Translational research in medicine. Bosn J Basic Med Sci. 2011 May;11(2):73.
- 3. Gonzales R, Handley MA, Ackerman S et al. A framework for training health professionals in implementation and dissemination science. Acad Med. 2012; 87:271-8.
- 4. Dilmore TC, Moore DW, Bjork Z. Developing a competency-based educational structure within

clinical and translational science. Clin Transl Sci. 2013; 6:98–102.

- 5. Munoz DA, Nembhard HB, Kraschnewski JL. Quantifying complexity in translational research: an integrated approach. Int J Health Care Qual Assur. 2014; 27:760–76.
- Griswold-Theodorson S, Ponnuru S, Dong C et al. Beyond the simulation laboratory: A realist synthesis review of clinical outcomes of simulation-based mastery learning. Acad Med. 2015; 90:1553-60.
- Hiss RG. USA: Natcher Conference Center, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland; 2004. Fundamental issues in translational research. Translational research two phases of a continuum. In: From clinical trials to community: the science of translating diabetes and obesity research; pp. 11–4.
- Peyraud F, Cousin S, Italiano A. CSF-1R Inhibitor Development: Current Clinical Status. Curr Oncol Rep. 2017; 19:70.
- 9. Zarbin M. What Constitutes Translational Research? Implications for the Scope of Translational Vision Science and Technology. Transl Vis Sci Technol. 2020 Jul 14; 9(8):22.
- 10. Vukotich CJ. Jr. Challenges of T3 and T4 translational research. J Res Pract. 2016;12:P2.
- 11. Khoury MJ, Gwinn M, Yoon PW et al. The continuum of translation research in genomic medicine: how can we accelerate the appropriate integration of human genome discoveries into health care and disease prevention? Genet Med. 2007; 9: 665–74.
- Westfall JM, Mold J, Fagnan L. Practice-based research–"Blue Highways" on the NIH roadmap. JAMA. 2007; 297:403–6.
- 13. Fort DG, Herr TM, Shaw PL et al. Mapping the evolving definitions of translational research. J Clin Transl Sci. 2017;1: 60–6.
- Ringborg U. Translational cancer research a coherent cancer research continuum. Mol Oncol. 2019 Mar;13(3):517-520.
- 15. McGartland Rubio D, Schoenbaum EE, Lee LS et al. Defining translational research: implications for training. Acad Med. 2010; 85: 470–5.
- Calvo F, Apolone G, Baumann M et al. Cancer Core Europe: a European cancer research alliance realizing a research infrastructure with critical mass and programmatic approach to cure cancer in the 21st century. Eur J Cancer. 2018; 103:155– 9.
- Forman D, Bauld L, Bonanni B et al. Time for a European initiative for research to prevent cancer: a manifesto for Cancer Prevention Europe (CPE). J Cancer Policy. 2018; 17:15–23.

J Popul Ther Clin Pharmacol Vol 30(9):e258–e270; 26 April 2023. This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non Commercial 4.0 International License. ©2021 Muslim OT et al.

- Lacombe D, Bogaerts J, Tombal B et al. Late translational research: putting forward a new model for developing new anti-cancer treatments that addresses the needs of patients and society. Mol Oncol. 2019; 13: 558–66.
- Jonsson B and Sullivan R. Mission-oriented € translational cancer research – health economics. Mol Oncol. 2019; 13: 636–47.
- 20. Lagergren P, Schandl A, Aaronson NK et al. Cancer survivorship: an integral part of Europe's research agenda. Mol Oncol. 2019; 13:624-35.
- Oberst S. Bridging research and clinical care the comprehensive cancer centre. Mol Oncol. 2019; 13:614–18.
- 22. Goldblatt EM, Lee WH. From bench to bedside: the growing use of translational research in cancer medicine. Am J Transl Res. 2010 Jan 1; 2(1):1-18.
- Bernier J, Hall EJ et al. Radiation oncology: A century of achievements. Nat Rev Cancer. 2004; 4:737-47.
- 24. Haffty BG, Kim JH et al. Concurrent chemoradiation in the conservative management of breast cancer. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys.2006; 66:1306-12.
- 25. Hirbe A, Morgan EA, Uluçkan O et al. Skeletal Complications of Breast Cancer Therapies. Clin Cancer Res. 2006; 12:6309-14.
- Munshi A. Breast cancer radiotherapy and cardiac risk: The 15-year paradox! J Cancer Res Ther. 2007; 3:190-2.
- 27. Torres-Roca JF and Stevens CW. Predicting Response to Clinical Radiotherapy: Past, Present, and Future Directions. Cancer Control. 2008; 15:151-6.
- 28. Sofou S. Radionuclide carriers for targeting of cancer. Int J Nanomed. 2008; 3:181-99.
- Van Meerbeeck JP, Meersschout S, de Pauw R et al. Modern Radiotherapy as Part of Combined Modality Treatment in Locally Advanced Non-Small Cell Lunch Cancer: Present Status and Future Prospects. The Oncologist. 2008; 13:700-8.
- Scott RB. Cancer Chemotherapy- The First Twenty-five Years. British Med J. 1970; 4:259-65.
- 31. Devita VT and Chu E. A History of Cancer Chemotherapy. Cancer Res. 2008; 68:8643-53.
- Saijo N, Nishio K, Tamura T. Translational and clinical studies of target-based cancer therapy. Int J Clin Oncol. 2003; 8:187-92.
- Fabian MA, Biggs WH, Treiber DK. A small molecule-kinase interaction map for clinical kinase inhibitors. Nature Biotech. 2005; 23:329-36.

- 34. Voldborg BR, Damstrup L, Spang-Thomson M et al. Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor (EGFR) and EGFR mutations, function, and possible role in clinical trials. Ann Onc. 1997; 8:1197-1206.
- 35. Nicholson RI, Gee JM, Harper ME. EGFR and cancer prognosis. Eur J Cancer. 2001; 37:9-15.
- Slamon DJ, Leyland-Jones B, Shak S et al. Use of Chemotherapy Plus a Monoclonal Antibody Against HER2 for Metastatic Breast Cancer that Overexpresses HER2. N Engl J Med. 2001; 344:783-92.
- Ross JS, Fletcher AJ, Linette GP et al. The HER-2/neu Gene and Protein in Breast Cancer 2003: Biomarker and Target of Therapy. The Oncologist. 2003; 8:307-25.
- Bareschino MA, Schettino C, Troiani T et al. Erlotinib in cancer treatment. Ann Onc. 2007; 18:35-41.
- Gridelli C, Bareschino MA, Schettino C et al. Erlotinib in Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer Treatment: Current Status and Future Development. The Oncologist. 2007; 12:840-9.
- 40. Ono M and Kuwano M. Molecular Mechanisms of Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor (EGFR) Activation and Response to Gefitinib and Other EGFR-Targeting Drugs. Clin Cancer Res. 2006; 12:7242-51.
- 41. Ross JS, Fletcher JA, Bloom KJ et al. Targeted Therapy in Breast Cancer: the HER2/neu gene and protein. Mol Cell Proteomics. 2004; 3.4:379-98.
- Hudis CA. Trastuzumab-Mechanism of Action and Use in Clinical Practice. N Eng J Med. 2007; 357:39-51.
- 43. Steeghs N, Nortier JWR, Gelderblom H. Small Molecule Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitors in the Treatment of Solid Tumors: And Update of Recent Developments. Ann Surg Onc. 2006; 14:942-53.
- 44. Moy B, Kirkpatrick P, Kar S, Goss P. Lapatinib. Nat Rev Drug Discov. 2007; 6:431-2.
- 45. Hayes DF, Miller K, Sledge G. Angiogenesis as targeted breast cancer therapy. The Breast. 2007; 16:S17-9.
- Salter JT and Miller KD. Antiangiogenic Agents in Breast Cancer. Cancer Investigation. 2007; 25:518-26.
- 47. Ho QT and Kuo CJ. Vascular endothelial growth factor: Biology and therapeutic applications. Int J of Biochem and Cell Biol. 2007; 39:1349- 57.
- Sato Y. Molecular diagnosis of tumor angiogenesis and anti-angiogenic cancer therapy. Int J Clin Oncol. 2003; 8:200-6.
- 49. Augustin HG. Translating angiogenesis research into the clinic: the challenges ahead. British J Radiol 2003; 76:S3-10.

J Popul Ther Clin Pharmacol Vol 30(9):e258-e270; 26 April 2023.

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non

Commercial 4.0 International License. ©2021 Muslim OT et al.

- 50. Huguet F, Giocanti N, Hennequin et al. Growth inhibition by STI571 in combination with radiation in human chronic myelogenous leukemia K562 cells. Mol Cancer Ther. 2008; 7:398-406.
- Li S. Src-family kinases in the development and therapy of Philadelphia chromosome-positive chronic myeloid leukemia and acute lymphoblastic leukemia. Leuk and Lymph. 2008; 49:19-26.
- 52. Joske DJL. Chronic myeloid leukaemia: the evolution of gene-targeted therapy. MJA. 2008; 189:277-82.
- Barni S and Mandalà M. Chemotherapy for metastatic breast cancer. Annals of Oncol. 2005; 16:23-7.
- 54. Orlando L, Colleoni M, Fedele P et al. Management of advanced breast cancer. Annals of Oncology. 2007; 18:74-6.
- 55. Welch DR, Steeg PS, Rinker-Schaeffer CWR. Molecular biology of breast cancer metastis; Genetic regulation of human breast carcinoma metastasis. Breast Cancer Res. 2000; 2:408- 16.
- 56. Stevanovic A, Lee P, Wilcken N. Metastatic Breast Cancer. Aust Fam Physician. 2006; 35:309-12.
- 57. Sarkadi B, Homolya L, Szakács G et al. Human multidrug resistance ABCB and ABCG transporters: participation in a chemoimmunity defense system. Physiol Rev. 2006; 86:1179-236.
- 58. Sauna ZE and Ambukdar SV. About a switch: how P-glycoprotein (ABCB1) harnesses the energy of ATP binding and hydrolysis to do mechanical work. Mol Cancer Ther. 2007; 6:13-23.
- 59. Hardwick LJ, Velamakanni S, van Veen HW. The emerging pharmacotherapeutic significance of the breast cancer resistance protein (ABCG2). Br J Phamacol. 2007; 151:163-74.
- 60. Eom Y-W, Kim MA, Park SS. Two distinct modes of cell death induced by doxorubicin: apoptosis and cell death through mitotic catastrophe accompanied by senescence-like phenotype. Oncogene. 2005; 24:4765-77.
- 61. Okada H and Mak TW. Pathways of Apoptotic and Non-Apoptotic Death in Tumour Cells. Nat Rev Cancer. 2004; 4:592-603.
- 62. Ashkenazi A and Herbst RS. To kill a tumor cell: the potential of proapoptotic receptor agonists. J Clin Invest. 2008; 118:1979–90.
- Behbod F and Rosen JM. Will cancer stem cells provide new therapeutic targets? Carcinogenesis. 2004; 26:703-11.
- 64. Bjerkvig R, Tysnes BB, Aboody KS et al. The origin of the cancer stem cell: current

controversies and new insights. Nat Rev Cancer. 2005; 5:899-904.

- Locke M, Heywood M, Fawell S et al. Retention of Intrinsic Stem Cell Hierarchies in Carcinoma-Derived Cell Lines. Cancer Res. 2005; 65:8944-50.
- 66. Smalley M and Ashworth A. Stem Cells and Breast Cancer: A Field in Transit. Nat Rev Cancer. 2003; 3:832-44.
- 67. Al-Hajj M and Clark MF. Self-renewal and solid tumor stem cells. Oncogene. 2004; 23:7274- 82.
- Lawson DA and Witte ON. Stem cells in prostate cancer initiation and progression. J Cln Invest. 2007; 117:2044-50.
- 69. Hill RP and Perris R. "Destemming" Cancer Stem Cells. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2007; 99:1435-40.
- Croker AK and Allan AL. Cancer stem cells: implications for the progression and treatment of metastatic disease. J Cell Mol Med. 2008; 12:374-90.
- Wright MH, Calcagno AM, Salcido CD et al. Brca1 breast tumors contain distinct CD44+/CD24- and CD133+ cells with cancer stem cell characteristics. Breast Cancer Res. 2008; 10:R10.
- 72. Wicha MS. Cancer stem cell heterogeneity in hereditary breast cancer. Breast Cancer Res. 2008;10(2):105.
- Saijo N, Nishio K, Tamura T. Translational and clinical studies of target-based cancer therapy. Int J Clin Oncol. 2003; 8:187-92.
- 74. Hermiston TW and Kirn DH. Genetically Based Therapeutics for Cancer: Similarities and Contrasts with Traditional Drug Discovery and Development. Mol Ther. 2005; 11:496-507.
- 75. Sørlie T, Perou CM, Tibshirani R et al. Gene expression patterns of breast carcinomas distinguish tumor subclasses with clinical implications. PNAS. 2001; 98:10869-74.
- 76. Hinestrosa MC, Dickersin K, Klein P et al. Shaping the future of biomarker research in breast cancer to ensure clinical relevance. Nat Rev Cancer. 2007; 7:309-15.
- 77. Azad NS, Rasool N, Annunziata CM et al. Proteomics in Clinical Trials and Practice; Present Uses and Future Promise. Mol Cell Proteomics. 2006; 5:1819-29.
- 78. Tan DSP, Lambros MBK, Natrajan R et al. Getting it right: designing microarray (and not 'microawry') comparative genomic hybridization studies for cancer research. Laboratory Investigation. 2007; 87:737-54.
- 79. Clarke R, Ressom HW, Wang A et al. The properties of highdimensional data spaces: implications for exploring gene and protein expression data. Nat Rev Cancer. 2008; 8:37-49.

J Popul Ther Clin Pharmacol Vol 30(9):e258–e270; 26 April 2023.

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non

Commercial 4.0 International License. ©2021 Muslim OT et al.

- Nalepa G, Rolfe M, Harper JW. Drug discovery in the ubiquitin-proteosome system. Nat Rev Drug Discov. 2006; 5:596-613.
- 81. Petroski MD. The ubiquitin system, disease, and drug discovery. BMC Biochem. 2008; S1-7.
- Carvajal RD, Tse A, Schwartz GK. Aurora kinases: new targets for cancer therapy. Clin Cancer Res. 2006; 12:6869-75.
- Fumoleau P, Coudert B, Isambert N et al. Novel tubulin-targeting agents: anticancer activity and pharmacologic profile of epothilones and regulated analogues. Ann Oncol. 2007; 18:9-15.
- 84. Fojo T and Menefee M. Mechanisms of multidrug resistance: the potential role of microtubule-stabilizing agents. Ann Onc. 2007; 18: v3-8.
- 85. Futamura M, Kamiya S, Tsukamoto M et al. Malolactomycin D, a potent inhibitor of transcription controlled by the Ras responsive element, inhibits Ras-mediated transformation activity with suppression of MMP-1 and MMP-9 in NIH3T3 cells. Oncogene. 2001; 20:6724- 30.
- 86. Sah NK, Munshi A, Kurland JF et al. Translation Inhibitors Sensitize Prostate Cancer Cells to Apoptosis Induced by Tumor Necrosis Factorrelated Apoptosis inducing Ligand (TRAIL) by Activating c-Jun Nterminal Kinase. J Biol Chem. 2003; 278: 20593-602.
- Radhakrishnan SK and Gartel AL. A Novel Transcriptional Inhibitor Induces Apoptosis in Tumor Cells and Exhibits Antiangiogenic Activity. Cancer Res. 2006; 66:3264-70.
- Reed JC. Apoptosis-based therapies. Nat Rev Drug Discov. 2002; 1:111-21.
- 89. Reed JC and Pellecchia M. Apoptosis-based therapies for hematologic malignancies. Blood. 2005; 106: 408-18.
- Dai Y, Lawrence TS, Xu L. Overcoming cancer therapy resistance by targeting inhibitors of apoptosis proteins and nuclear factor-kappa B. Am J Transl Res. 2009; 1:1-15.
- Schimmer AD. Inhibitor of Apoptosis Proteins: Translating Basic Knowledge into Clinical Practice. Cancer Res. 2004; 64:7183-90.
- Ziegler DS and Kung AL. Therapeutic targeting of apoptosis pathways in cancer. Current Opinion in Oncology. 2008; 20:97-103.
- 93. Sharkey RM, Karacay H, Cardillo TM et al. Improving the Delivery of Radionuclides for Imaging and Therapy of Cancer Using Pretargeting Methods. Clin Cancer Res. 2005; 11:7109s-21s.
- Jain KK. Nanotechnology-based Drug Delivery for Cancer. Technology in Cancer Research & Treatment. 2005; 4:407-16.

- 95. Rawat M, Singh D, Saraf S et al. Nanocarriers: promising vehicles for bioactive drugs. Biol Pharm Bull. 2006; 29:1790-8.
- Jain KK. Applications of Nanobiotechnology in Clinical Diagnostics. Clinical Chemistry. 2007; 53:2002–9.
- 97. Thomson TA, Hayes MM, Spinelli JJ et al. HER-2/neu in Breast Cancer: Interobserver Variability and Performance of Immunohistochemistry with 4 Antibodies Compared with Fluorescent In Situ Hybridization. Mod Pathol. 2001; 14:1079-86.
- 98. Ellis CM, Dyson MJ, Stephenson TJ et al. HER2 amplification status in breast cancer: a comparison between immunohistochemical staining and fluorescence in situ hybridisation using manual and automated quantitative image analysis scoring techniques. J Clin Pathol. 2005; 58:710–4.
- 99. Barrett C, Magee H, O'Toole et al. Amplification of the HER2 gene in breast cancers testing 2+ weak positive by HercepTest immunohistochemistry: falsepositive or falsenegative immunohistochemistry? J Clin Pathol. 2007; 60:690-69.
- 100.Kim NW, Piatyszek MA, Prowse KR et al. Specific association of human telomerase activity with immortal cells and cancer. Science. 1994; 266: 2011-5.
- 101.Hoos A, Hepp HH, Kaul S et al. Telomerase Activity Correlates with Tumor Aggressiveness and Reflects Therapy Effect in Breast Cancer. Int J Cancer. 1998; 79:8-12.
- 102.Herbert BS, Wright WE, Shay J. Telomerase and breast cancer. Breast Cancer Research. 2001; 3:146-9.
- 103.Hahn WC, Stewart SA, Brooks MW et al. Inhibition of telomerase limits the growth of human cancer cells. Nat Med. 1999; 5:1164-70.
- 104.Zhang X, Mar V, Zhou W et al. Telomere shortening and apoptosis in telomerase-inhibited human tumor cells. Genes Dev. 1999; 13:2388-99.
- 105.Herbert BS, Pitts AE, Baker SI et al. Inhibition of human telomerase in immortal human cells leads to progressive telomere shortening and cell death. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA. 1999; 96:14276-81.
- 106.Shay JW and Wright WE. Telomerase therapeutics for cancer: challenges and new directions. Nat Rev. 2006; 5:577-84.
- 107.Gellert GC, Jackson SR, Dikmen ZG et al. Telomerase as a therapeutic target in cancer. Drug Discovery Today: Disease Mechansisms. 2005; 2:159-64.
- 108.Hochreiter AE, Xiao H, Goldblatt EM et al. The telomerase template antagonist GRN163L disrupts telomere maintenance, tumor growth and

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non

Commercial 4.0 International License. ©2021 Muslim OT et al.

J Popul Ther Clin Pharmacol Vol 30(9):e258–e270; 26 April 2023.

metastasis of breast cancer. Clin Cancer Res. 2006; 12:3184-92.

- 109.Jackson SR, Zhu CH, Paulson V, Watkins L, Dikmen ZG, Gryaznov SM, Wright WE, Shay JW. Antiadhesive effects of GRN163L--an oligonucleotide N3'->P5' thio-phosphoramidate targeting telomerase. Cancer Res. 2007;67(3):1121-9.
- 110.Ghoshal A. Translational Research in Oncology: Implications for Palliative Care. Indian J Palliat Care. 2017; 23(4): 462-7.
- 111.Wainwright SP, Williams C, Michael M et al. From bench to bedside? Biomedical scientists' expectations of stem cell science as a future therapy for diabetes. Soc Sci Med. 2006; 63:2052–64.
- 112.Pincus HA. Challenges and pathways for clinical and translational research: Why is this research different from all other research? Acad Med. 2009; 84:411–2.
- 113.Heuckmann JM, Thomas RK. A new generation of cancer genome diagnostics for routine clinical use: Overcoming the roadblocks to personalized cancer medicine. Ann Oncol. 2015; 26:1830–7.
- 114.Baudino TA. Targeted cancer therapy: The next generation of cancer treatment. Curr Drug Discov Technol. 2015; 12:3–20.
- 115.NIH. Targeted Cancer Therapies Fact Sheet. National Cancer Institute. 2014; 1–6.
- 116.Mogil JS. Animal models of pain: Progress and challenges. Nat Rev Neurosci. 2009; 10: 283–94.
- 117.Watson M, Lucas C, Hoy A et al. Oxford Handbook of Palliative Care. Ch. 4. Oxford: Oxford University Press; Principles of drug use in palliative care. 2009.
- 118.Rai AJ. Biomarkers in translational research: Focus on discovery, development and translation of protein biomarkers to clinical immunoassays. Expert Rev Mol Diagn. 2007; 7:545–53.
- 119.Reid VL, McDonald R, Nwosu AC et al. A systematically structured review of biomarkers of dying in cancer patients in the last months of life; An exploration of the biology of dying. PLoS One. 2017; 12:e0175123.

- 120.Lillie EO, Patay B, Diamant J et al. The n-of-1 clinical trial: The ultimate strategy for individualizing medicine? Per Med. 2011; 8:161– 73.
- 121.Farrar JT. Understanding clinical trials in palliative care research. Vol. 1. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 2015.
- 122.Rosenberger WF, Huc F. Maximizing power and minimizing treatment failures in clinical trials. Clin Trials. 2004; 1:141–7.
- 123.Boers M. Add-on or step-up trials for new drug development in rheumatoid arthritis: A new standard? Arthritis Rheum. 2003; 48:1481–23.
- 124.Hui D, Zhukovsky DS, Bruera E. Which treatment is better? Ascertaining patient preferences with crossover randomized controlled trials. J Pain Symptom Manage. 2015; 49:625–31.
- 125.Bouça-Machado R, Rosário M, Alarcão J et al. Clinical trials in palliative care: A systematic review of their methodological characteristics and of the quality of their reporting. BMC Palliat Care. 2017; 16:10.
- 126.Currow DC, Plummer JL, Kutner JS et al. Analyzing phase III studies in hospice/palliative care. a solution that sits between intention-to-treat and per protocol analyses: The palliativemodified ITT analysis. J Pain Symptom Manage. 2012; 44:595–603.
- 127.Farquhar MC, Prevost AT, McCrone P et al. Study protocol: Phase III singleblinded fast-track pragmatic randomised controlled trial of a complex intervention for breathlessness in advanced disease. Trials. 2011; 12:130.
- 128.Kramer MS, Shapiro SH. Scientific challenges in the application of randomized trials. JAMA. 1984; 252:2739-45.
- 129.Aktas A, Walsh D. Methodological challenges in supportive and palliative care cancer research. Semin Oncol. 2011; 38:460-6.