

# Drug Resistance in Targeted Cancer Treatment: Clinical Difficulties, Molecular Mechanisms, and Emerging Strategies

Bharath B.<sup>1\*</sup>, Darshan G.<sup>1</sup>, Hamsa Priya M.<sup>1</sup>

## Abstract

*Targeted cancer therapy, which selectively inhibits the molecular mechanisms responsible for tumor growth and development, has revolutionized modern oncology. Targeted therapies have lower systemic toxicity and better therapeutic efficacy when compared to traditional chemotherapy. However, the emergence of medication resistance often limits the long-term efficacy of these treatments, ultimately resulting in treatment failure and disease progression. Drug resistance develops through a number of intricate biological processes and can be innate or acquired. These mechanisms include pharmacokinetic changes that impact medication absorption and intracellular accumulation, tumor heterogeneity, epigenetic modifications, activation of alternative signaling pathways, genetic mutations in drug targets, and protection mediated by the tumor microenvironment. To improve treatment outcomes and create more potent anticancer therapies, it is crucial to comprehend these resistance pathways. The molecular and pharmacological mechanisms underlying resistance to the main kinds of targeted anticancer medicines, including as tyrosine kinase inhibitors, monoclonal antibodies, and hormone-targeted therapies, are thoroughly described in this article. The paper also covers new approaches to combat drug resistance, including combination therapy, next-generation targeted inhibitors, precision oncology guided by biomarkers, and sophisticated drug delivery methods, including formulations based on nanoparticles. Future targeted cancer treatments may be more long-lasting and successful if resistance mechanisms and novel therapeutic techniques are better understood.*

**Keyword:** Pharmacogenomics, precision oncology, tyrosine kinase inhibitors, drug resistance, and targeted cancer treatment

## INTRODUCTION

Cancer is one of the leading causes of morbidity and mortality worldwide [1, 2], despite significant breakthroughs in detection and treatment. Even while it works well on quickly proliferating cells, traditional cytotoxic chemotherapy is frequently linked to serious systemic toxicity and poor selectivity. By enabling the selective suppression of oncogenic pathways that are essential for tumor initiation, development, and survival, targeted cancer therapy represented a paradigm shift in oncology [3, 4].

### \*Author for Correspondence

Bharath B.

E-mail: [bharath04b@gmail.com](mailto:bharath04b@gmail.com)

<sup>1</sup>Student, Department of Pharmacy, Aditya Bangalore Institute of Pharmacy Education and Research, Bangalore, Karnataka, India

Received Date: March 14, 2026

Accepted Date: March 29, 2026

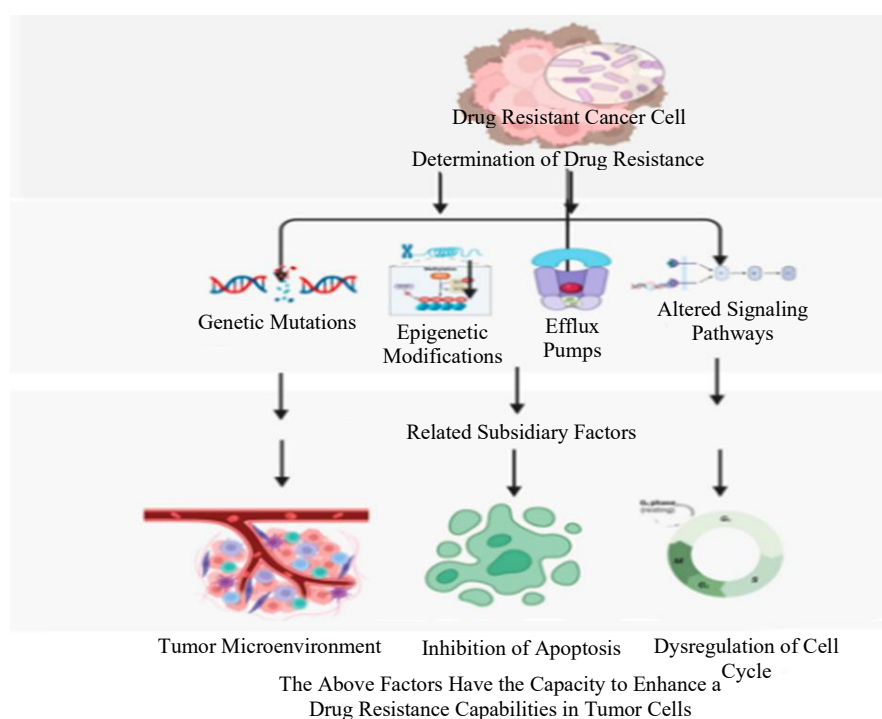
Published Date: March 31, 2026

**Citation:** Bharath B., Darshan G., Hamsa Priya M. Drug Resistance in Targeted Cancer Treatment: Clinical Difficulties, Molecular Mechanisms, and Emerging Strategies. Research & Reviews: A Journal of Pharmaceutical Science. 2026; 17(1): 130–138p.

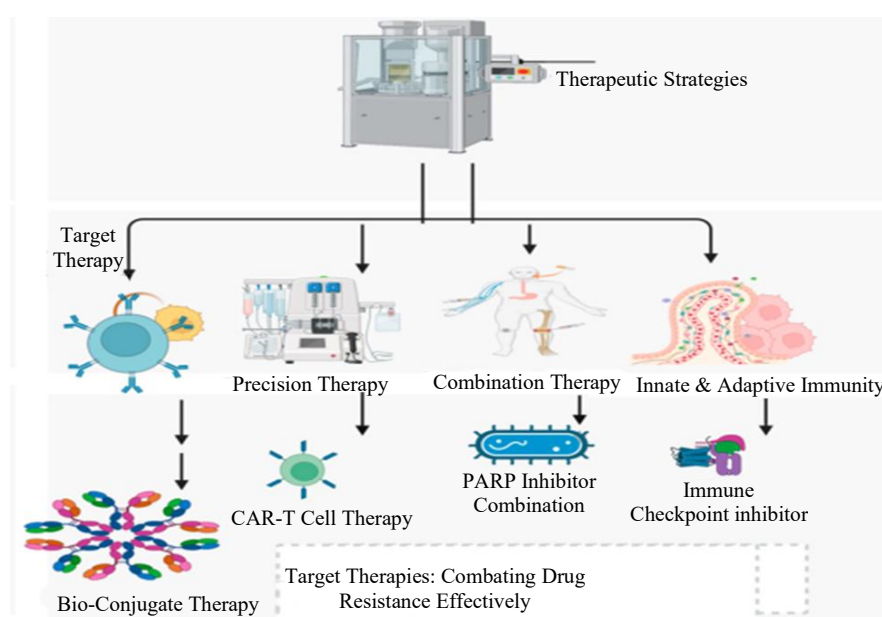
Tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs), monoclonal antibodies, and hormone-targeted medicines are examples of targeted therapy that have shown impressive clinical advantages in a variety of cancers, including colorectal, lung, breast, and leukemia. However, medication resistance often develops after these drugs' initial therapeutic

efficacy, which presents a significant challenge to long-term illness treatment. Understanding the reasons of resistance is crucial from a pharmacological and pharmacy standpoint in order to optimize treatment plans, enhance patient outcomes, and direct the creation of novel anticancer drugs. This study presents a detailed and organized overview of drug resistance in targeted cancer therapy, with an emphasis on molecular underpinnings, clinical problems, and novel options for overcoming resistance. This review's integrated pharmacological and clinical viewpoint, which emphasizes the changing importance of precision oncology in the treatment of resistant malignancies, is what makes it valuable.

The major causal factors responsible for drug resistance are illustrated in (Figure 1), while strategies to overcome resistance are summarized in (Figure 2).



**Figure 1.** Casual factor for drug resistance.



**Figure 2.** Suggestive strategies to combat drug resistance.

## METHODOLOGY

- *Study Design:* This study was intended to provide a thorough narrative evaluation with a pharmacological and mechanistic focus. The review summarizes data on resistance in targeted cancer therapy from preclinical investigations, clinical trials, and translational studies [5–10].
- *Information Sources:* The following electronic databases were used to do a thorough literature search- PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science, and Google Scholar.

## DATA ANALYSIS

A qualitative data synthesis approach was used because study designs and results varied widely. Research was classified based on:

- Kind of focused treatment.
- Cancer kind.
- Resistance system.

To find similar resistance patterns across several treatment classes, comparative analysis was carried out. Descriptive tables and schematic representations were used to summarize the main findings. Because study methodology and endpoints varied, a quantitative meta-analysis was not carried out.

## DETAILED ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

### Targeted Anticancer Therapy Classification

The major classes of targeted anticancer therapies are summarized in (Table 1).

The following major categories can be used to group targeted anticancer treatments:

**Table 1.** Major classes of targeted anticancer therapies.

| Therapeutic class          | Examples                       | Primary indications        |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Tyrosine kinase inhibitors | Imatinib, Erlotinib, Gefitinib | Leukemia, NSCLC.           |
| Monoclonal antibodies      | Trastuzumab, Cetuximab         | Breast, Colorectal cancer. |
| Hormone-targeted therapies | Hormone-targeted therapies     | Breast, Prostate cancer.   |

### Genetic Modifications to Drug Targets

Genetic alterations in the molecular targets of treatment are one of the most thoroughly researched mechanisms of resistance. Targeted agents can become ineffective because to secondary mutations that change their binding affinity. For instance, the effectiveness of first-generation EGFR inhibitors is considerably diminished by the EGFR T790M mutation [4].

### Alternative Signaling Pathway Activation

Because of their exceptional signaling flexibility, cancer cells can activate compensatory signaling networks like the PI3K/AKT/mTOR and MAPK pathways to get around blocked pathways [11–20]. Despite targeted suppression, this redundancy permits tumor growth to persist.

### Heterogeneity of Tumors

The development of resistance is significantly influenced by tumor heterogeneity. Disease relapse results from resistant populations' ability to withstand the selective pressure produced by targeted medicines due to the existence of genetically different sub clones [21–23].

### Changes in Epigenetics

Reversible drug tolerance is influenced by epigenetic changes, such as DNA methylation and histone modification. These modifications enable cancer cells to respond to therapeutic stress in a dynamic manner [10].

### Resistance Mediated by the Tumor Microenvironment

Tumor cells can be shielded from therapeutic medicines by the extracellular matrix, immune cells, cytokines, and stromal cells that make up the tumor microenvironment. Drug penetration is further restricted by hypoxia and impaired vascularization [17, 18].

### Drug Transport Mechanisms and Pharmacokinetics

Therapeutic response is greatly impacted by changes in drug distribution, metabolism, excretion, and absorption. Drug concentrations inside cells are decreased when efflux transporters like P-glycoprotein are overexpressed [6].

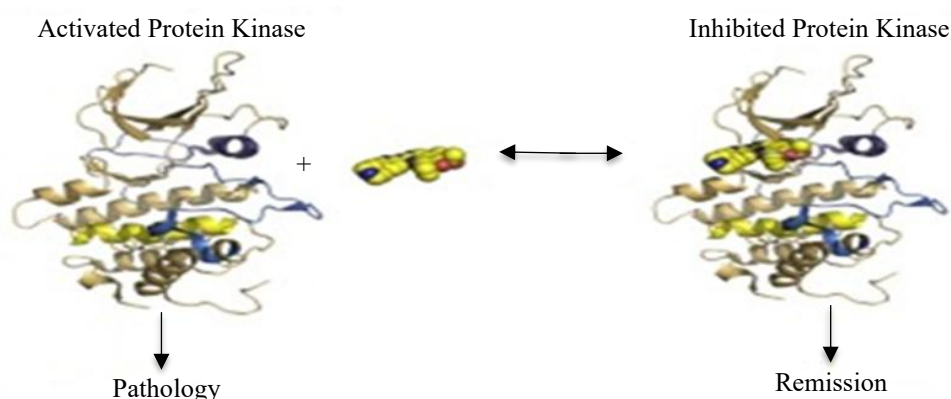
The key mechanisms of drug resistance and their clinical impact are summarized in (Table 2).

**Table 2.** Key mechanisms of drug resistance in targeted therapy.

| Mechanism           | Description                         | Clinical impact          |
|---------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Target mutation     | Reduced drug binding                | Loss of efficacy.        |
| Pathway bypass      | Activation of alternative signaling | Disease progression.     |
| Tumor heterogeneity | Expansion of resistant clones       | Relapse.                 |
| Epigenetic changes  | Reversible drug tolerance           | Partial response.        |
| Drug efflux         | Reduced intracellular drug levels   | Subtherapeutic exposure. |

### Drug–Enzyme Inhibitors and Their Properties:

The mechanism of action of kinase inhibitors in cancer therapy is shown in (Figure 3).



**Figure 3.** Mechanism of action of kinase inhibitors in cancer therapy.

The properties and characteristics of drug–enzyme inhibitors are presented in (Table 3).

**Table 3.** Drug–Enzyme inhibitors and their properties.

| Drug               | Chemical class           | Inhibitor type | Primary targets (kinases)                | Approved indications                               | Notes                                                         |
|--------------------|--------------------------|----------------|------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
| <i>Bosutinib</i>   | Anilino-quinoline        | Type I         | Abl, Src, Src-family kinases (e.g., Fyn) | CML (Philadelphia chromosome-positive)             | Multikinase inhibitor with nanomolar IC <sub>50</sub> values. |
| <i>Dabrafenib</i>  | Amino-pyrimidine         | Type I½A       | B-Raf (especially BRAFV600E)             | BRAFV600E-mutant melanoma, NSCLC (with trametinib) | Limited data on broader kinase spectrum.                      |
| <i>Binimetinib</i> | Small-molecule inhibitor | Type I½A       | MEK1/2                                   | Melanoma (often with encorafenib)                  | Same class as encorafenib and vemurafenib.                    |
| <i>Encorafenib</i> | Small-molecule inhibitor | Type I½A       | B-Raf (BRAFV600E)                        | Melanoma                                           | Often combined with binimetinib.                              |

|                    |                                |                         |                                          |                                                   |                                                       |
|--------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------|
| <i>Vemurafenib</i> | Small-molecule derivative      | Type I½A                | B-Raf (BRAFV600E)                        | BRAFV600E-mutant melanoma                         | Partner drug of cobimetinib.                          |
| <i>Abemaciclib</i> | Amino-pyrimidine-benzimidazole | Type I½B                | CDK4/6                                   | HR-positive, HER2-negative advanced breast cancer | Crystal structure shows key amino-group interactions. |
| <i>Palbociclib</i> | Pyridopyrimidine               | Type I½B                | CDK4/6                                   | Advanced breast cancer                            | Used with endocrine therapy.                          |
| <i>Ribociclib</i>  | Triazine derivative            | Type I½B                | CDK4/6                                   | Advanced breast cancer                            | Similar to abemaciclib/palbociclib.                   |
| <i>Cobimetinib</i> | Anilino-benzene                | Type III / VI           | MEK1/2                                   | BRAFv600E-mutant melanoma (with vemurafenib)      | Forms hydrogen bonds via 3-hydroxyl group.            |
| <i>Axitinib</i>    | Indazole                       | Type II                 | VEGFR1/2/3, PDGFRα/β, Kit, Abl, Aurora-C | Advanced renal cell carcinoma                     | Potent multikinase inhibitor.                         |
| <i>Dacomitinib</i> | Anilino-quinazoline            | Type VI (irreversible)  | EGFR (covalent binding to Cys797)        | EGFR-mutant NSCLC (exon-19 del, L858R)            | Second-generation irreversible EGFR-TKI.              |
| <i>Baricitinib</i> | Pyrrolo[2,3-d]pyrimidine       | Unknown (JAK inhibitor) | JAK1/2/3, Tyk2                           | Moderate-severe rheumatoid arthritis              | Similar to tofacitinib.                               |

## New Approaches to Combat Drug Resistance

### *The Combination Approach*

Combining medications that target different pathways has demonstrated potential for increasing treatment results and postponing resistance. Combination therapy involves the use of two or more anticancer medicines that operate through separate mechanisms or molecular targets. Through the activation of alternative survival pathways or the development of genetic abnormalities, cancer cells can quickly adapt to single-agent therapy. Combination therapies improve therapeutic efficacy while decreasing this adaptability.

### *Mechanisms of Action*

- Concurrent suppression of several carcinogenic pathways.
- Preventing the activation of compensatory signaling pathways.
- decrease in the clonal selection of cancer cells that are resistant.
- Enhancement of anticancer actions by synergy.

### *Clinical Uses*

- Chemotherapy in conjunction with hormone treatment or HER2-targeted medications for breast cancer.
- *Lung Cancer*: EGFR inhibitors coupled with chemotherapy.
- *Colorectal Cancer*: Cytotoxic medications in conjunction with targeted therapy.

### *Benefits*

- Increased rates of tumor response.
- Delayed onset of resistance.
- Enhanced overall and progression-free survival.

### *Limitations*

- A higher chance of cumulative toxicity.
- Drug-drug interactions.
- Increased cost of therapy.

---

### **The Next Generation of Targeted Agents**

To get around known resistance mutations, second- and third-generation inhibitors have been developed. Second- and third-generation inhibitors created to combat resistance brought on by particular genetic alterations in cancer cells are known as next-generation targeted treatments. Changes in drug-binding sites frequently result in resistance to first-generation medicines.

These sophisticated agents are intended to:

- Bind with greater affinity or irreversibly.
- Selectively target mutant proteins.
- Reduce toxicity that is off-target.

### **Examples**

- Osimertinib for EGFR T790M-mutated non-small cell lung cancer.
- Ponatinib for leukemia with resistant BCR-ABL mutations.
- Encorafenib for tumors with BRAF mutations.

### **Clinical Importance**

- Beneficial for patients who don't respond to first-line targeted therapy.
- Better management of resistant tumors.
- Prolonged survival in cancers with advanced stages.

### **Precision Oncology Assisted by Biomarkers**

Identification of resistance mechanisms is made possible by molecular diagnostics, which also direct individualized treatment plans. Customized cancer treatment based on tumor-specific molecular and genetic traits is the main goal of precision oncology. In order to anticipate therapy response and discover resistance mechanisms, biomarkers are essential.

### **Types of Biomarkers Used in Cancer**

- Genetic biomarkers: mutations in EGFR, KRAS, and BRAF.
- Protein biomarkers: expression of PD-L1 and HER2.
- Circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA) is a liquid biopsy marker.

### **Contribution to the Overcoming of Drug Resistance**

- Identification of resistant tumor clones.
- Choosing the right targeted treatment.
- Early treatment approach change.
- Tracking the course of the illness and the effectiveness of treatment.

### **Benefits**

- Tailored and enhanced cancer treatment.
- Less exposure to ineffective medications.
- Better clinical results.

### **Obstacles**

- Molecular testing is expensive.
- Restricted accessibility in environments with low resources.
- Requirement of specialized laboratories.

### **Innovative Methods of Drug Distribution**

Drug delivery techniques based on nanotechnology reduce off-target toxicity, increase bioavailability, and improve tumor targeting. The goal of cutting-edge drug delivery methods is to reduce overall toxicity while improving tumor targeting. Common resistance mechanisms including drug efflux pumps and inadequate intracellular drug buildup can be circumvented by these methods.

- Cutting-Edge Medication Administration Systems.
- Drug carriers based on nanoparticles.
- Liposomal compositions.
- ADCs, or antibody-drug conjugates.
- Controlled release systems based on polymers.

#### ***Advantages of Cancer Treatment***

- Elevated medication concentration at the location of the tumor.
- Decreased toxicity off-target.
- Enhanced stability and bioavailability.
- Improved adherence to treatment.

#### ***Clinical Illustrations***

- In solid tumors, liposomal doxorubicin
- Albumin-bound paclitaxel nanoparticles
- In HER2-positive breast cancer, trastuzumab emtansine (T-DM1)

#### **Improvement of the Knowledge State**

This review provides a thorough understanding of resistance mechanisms in targeted cancer therapy by integrating molecular biology, pharmacology, and clinical oncology. This study helps rational drug development and therapy optimization and advances the field of precision oncology by summarizing current developments and highlighting new approaches.

Advancements in molecular oncology and pharmacogenomics have considerably deepened our understanding of why targeted cancer medicines finally fail. Drug resistance was first thought to be mostly caused by genetic alterations in the drug target, but more recent research has shown that resistance is a complicated process involving intricate connections between tumor genetics, signaling networks, and the tumor microenvironment. By identifying resistance-associated mutations like EGFR T790M or BCR-ABL T315I, improved genomic sequencing methods have improved the accuracy of diagnosis and treatment selection.

The identification of alternative signaling pathway activation as a key factor in therapeutic escape has also advanced. Research currently shows that tumors can evade blocked pathways by up regulating compensatory pathways such as PI3K/AKT/mTOR or MAPK, which allows them to continue growing in spite of treatment. Combination therapy techniques that co-target numerous pathways have been developed as a result of an understanding of these adaptive responses, delaying or preventing resistance. Instead than concentrating on specific molecular targets, this change represents a more comprehensive understanding of tumor biology.

Understanding how tumor heterogeneity and epigenetic plasticity contribute to the development of resistance is another significant advancement. It is now recognized that tumors contain a variety of sub clonal populations, some of which either naturally have resistance features or quickly develop them under treatment pressure. Additionally, cancer cells can develop temporary drug-tolerant states thanks to reversible epigenetic changes. These discoveries have highlighted how crucial it is to study changing resistance patterns over time using biomarkers, liquid biopsies, and real-time molecular profiling.

Additionally, developments in pharmacology and drug delivery science have improved our knowledge of resistance in relation to pharmacokinetics, efflux pumps, and drug penetration. Antibody-drug conjugates, liposomal formulations, and nanoparticle-based carriers have been developed to address poor intracellular drug accumulation, a role in resistance that was previously underappreciated. By enabling more individualized, flexible, and mechanism-driven methods to manage drug resistance in targeted cancer therapy, these advancements in the state of knowledge have collectively transformed clinical strategy [24–27].

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Targeted cancer medicines have revolutionized modern oncology by specifically blocking genetic drivers required for tumor growth and survival. These treatments, which include hormone-directed medicines, monoclonal antibodies, and tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs), provide less systemic toxicity and more accuracy than traditional chemotherapy. Drug resistance continues to be a significant obstacle despite their therapeutic success, ultimately reducing the efficacy of long-term treatment. Genetic, molecular, cellular, and pharmacological pathways interact intricately to cause resistance, which can be intrinsic or acquired.

Tumor heterogeneity, which enables resistant sub clones to withstand therapeutic pressure, activation of alternative survival pathways such as PI3K/AKT/mTOR and MAPK signaling, and target gene mutations that decrease drug binding (e.g., EGFR T790M, BCR-ABL T315I) are important mechanisms of resistance. While elements of the tumor microenvironment, including stromal cells, cytokines, immunological interactions, and hypoxia, further shield cancer cells and restrict therapeutic penetration, epigenetic changes, such as DNA methylation and histone remodeling, contribute to reversible drug tolerance. Pharmacokinetic factors decrease intracellular drug accumulation and therapeutic activity. One such factor is the overexpression of drug efflux pumps such as P-glycoprotein.

A number of new tactics have become popular in order to overcome resistance. By concurrently blocking several carcinogenic pathways, lowering compensatory signaling, and postponing clonal escape, combination therapy increases treatment efficacy. Combination regimens are beneficial, although they can be more expensive and hazardous. Osimertinib for EGFR T790M-mutant NSCLC and ponatinib for resistant BCR-ABL mutations are two examples of next-generation targeted medicines that have shown notable advantages by avoiding known resistance mutations. The development of biomarker-guided precision oncology significantly improves treatment customization by making it possible to choose the best course of action and identify resistant illness early on using liquid biopsy and genetic profiling technologies.

Antibody–drug conjugates (ADCs), liposomes, nanoparticles, and polymer-based controlled-release formulations are examples of advanced drug delivery systems that improve drug targeting, reduce off-target toxicity, and increase intracellular drug retention, all of which help to overcome significant pharmacokinetic resistance mechanisms.

In conclusion, overcoming drug resistance is still a major challenge even if targeted medicines have greatly improved cancer management. Genetic, epigenetic, environmental, and pharmaceutical factors all contribute to resistance. Future success hinges on integrating combination methods, next-generation inhibitors, precision diagnostics, and novel drug-delivery technologies. Improving long-term results, extending longevity, and resolving the enduring problem of resistance in targeted cancer therapy will require a more individualized, mechanism-driven approach to treatment.

## REFERENCES

1. Hanahan D, Weinberg RA. Hallmarks of cancer: The next generation. *Cell*. 2011;144(5):646–674.
2. Holohan C, Van Schaeybroeck S, Longley DB, Johnston PG. Cancer drug resistance: An evolving paradigm. *Nat Rev Cancer*. 2013;13(10):714–726.
3. Roskoski R. Properties of FDA-approved small molecule protein kinase inhibitors. *Pharmacol Res*. 2019;144:19–50.
4. Mok TS, Wu YL, Ahn MJ, et al. Osimertinib or platinum-pemetrexed in EGFR T790M-positive lung cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2017;376:629–640.
5. Camidge DR, Pao W, Sequist LV. Acquired resistance to TKIs in solid tumours: Learning from lung cancer. *Nat Rev Clin Oncol*. 2014;11:473–481.
6. Szakács G, Paterson JK, Ludwig JA, Booth-Genthe C, Gottesman MM. Targeting multidrug resistance in cancer. *Nat Rev Drug Discov*. 2006;5:219–234.

7. Longley DB, Johnston PG. Molecular mechanisms of drug resistance. *J Pathol.* 2005;205:275–292.
8. Housman G, Byler S, Heerboth S, et al. Drug resistance in cancer: An overview. *Cancers (Basel).* 2014;6:1769–1792.
9. Garraway LA, Jänne PA. Circumventing cancer drug resistance in the era of personalized medicine. *Cancer Discov.* 2012;2:214–226.
10. Sharma SV, Lee DY, Li B, et al. A chromatin-mediated reversible drug-tolerant state in cancer cell subpopulations. *Cell.* 2010;141:69–80.
11. Vasan N, Baselga J, Hyman DM. A view on drug resistance in cancer. *Nature.* 2019;575:299–309.
12. Dienstmann R, Rodon J, Tabernero J. Genomic medicine frontier in human solid tumors: Prospects and challenges. *J Clin Oncol.* 2013;31:1874–1884.
13. Patel H, Pawara R, Pawara S, et al. Nanotechnology-based drug delivery systems in cancer therapy. *J Drug Deliv Sci Technol.* 2020;60:102097.
14. Blanco E, Shen H, Ferrari M. Principles of nanoparticle design for overcoming biological barriers. *Nat Biotechnol.* 2015;33:941–951.
15. Gottesman MM, Lavi O, Hall MD, Gillet JP. Toward a better understanding of the complexity of cancer drug resistance. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol.* 2016;56:85–102.
16. Swanton C. Intratumor heterogeneity: Evolution through space and time. *Cancer Res.* 2012;72:4875–4882.
17. Meads MB, Gatenby RA, Dalton WS. Environment-mediated drug resistance. *Nat Rev Cancer.* 2009;9:665–674.
18. Klemm F, Joyce JA. Microenvironmental regulation of therapeutic response in cancer. *Trends Cell Biol.* 2015;25:198–213.
19. Relling MV, Evans WE. Pharmacogenomics in the clinic. *Nature.* 2015;526:343–350.
20. Tannock IF, Hickman JA. Limits to personalized cancer medicine. *N Engl J Med.* 2016;375:1289–1294.
21. Burrell RA, McGranahan N, Bartek J, Swanton C. The causes and consequences of genetic heterogeneity in cancer evolution. *Nature.* 2013;501:338–345.
22. Wu P, Nielsen TE, Clausen MH. FDA-approved small-molecule kinase inhibitors. *Trends Pharmacol Sci.* 2015;36:422–439.
23. Turner NC, Reis-Filho JS. Genetic heterogeneity and cancer drug resistance. *Lancet Oncol.* 2012;13:e178–e185.
24. Al-Lazikani B, Banerji U, Workman P. Combinatorial drug therapy for cancer in the post-genomic era. *Nat Biotechnol.* 2012;30:679–692.
25. De Mattos-Arruda L, Cortes J, Santarpia L, et al. Circulating tumor cells and cell-free DNA as tools for managing breast cancer. *Nat Rev Clin Oncol.* 2013;10:377–389.
26. Yu HA, Arcila ME, Rekhtman N, et al. Analysis of tumor specimens at the time of acquired resistance to EGFR-TKI therapy. *Clin Cancer Res.* 2013;19:2240–2247.
27. Dienstmann R, Vermeulen L, Guinney J, Kopetz S, Tejpar S, Tabernero J. Consensus molecular subtypes and the evolution of precision medicine in colorectal cancer. *Nat Rev Cancer.* 2017;17:79–92.