

# Cancer stem cells targeting agents – a review

A.-M. SHI<sup>1</sup>, Z.-Q TAO<sup>2</sup>, H. LI<sup>1</sup>, Y.-Q. WANG<sup>3</sup>, J. ZHAO<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Public Health of Nanjing Medical University, Nanjing, China

<sup>2</sup>Department of Science and Education Division, Xuzhou Central Hospital, Xuzhou, China

<sup>3</sup>Department of Oncology surgical, Xuzhou Central Hospital, Xuzhou, Jiangsu, China

**Abstract.** – Major current cancer strategies like surgery, radiotherapy, and chemotherapy are compromised due to major problem of recurrence, which usually lead to mortality. The widely accepted reason for this is resistance offered by cancer cells towards cancer drugs or inability of a therapeutic procedure to target real culprits viz. cancer-initiating cells (cancer stem cells). So, there is a current need of development of new agents targeting these cancer stem cells in order to overcome resistance to therapeutic procedures.

The present review article is focused on new cancer cell targeting agents like salinomycin, apototin etc and their mechanisms to target cancer stems cells will be discussed.

*Key Words:*

Cancer stem cells, Antibiotics, Resistance, Chemotherapy.

## Introduction

Cancer exerts a death toll of ~8.2 million people every year, amounting to 12% of total human mortality. It is next only to cardiovascular and infectious diseases in human morbidity. The majority of cancers (~80%) are caused by environmental and lifestyle factors, while genetic predisposition constitutes the remaining 20%<sup>1</sup>. Lifestyle factors including tobacco and alcohol use, as well as a poor diet are the main risk factors for developing cancer worldwide. Environmental factors, including viral and bacterial infections vary geographically. Cancers caused by infectious agents account for 10% of all malignancies in technologically advanced nations. However, this number rises to 25% in tropical countries<sup>2</sup>.

Radiotherapy and chemotherapy are widely used treatment options for the management of cancer. However, resistance offered by cancer cells is the major obstacle hampering efficiencies of these treatment modalities. The recurrence of a tumor after radiation and/or chemotherapy is

often due to the presence of self-renewing cancer stem cells that are resistant to treatment. Cancer cells may also acquire resistance to drug treatment. The acquisition of resistance, as previously mentioned, is caused by the development of alternate cancer cell survival strategies. Cancer cells expressing glycoprotein and multidrug-resistance-associated protein (MRP) develop resistance to chemotherapy, and the identification of these resistance-mediating proteins has initiated vast interest in the field<sup>3</sup>. Further comparison of cancer stem cells, causing tumor recurrence, and normal stem cells that are relatively quiescent reveal that cancer stem cells possess a heightened ability to repair themselves and they express high levels of active ATP-binding cassette ABC drug transporters. These differences allude to the possible origin of drug-resistant cancer cells from normal stem cells that have been transformed (hierarchical hypothesis)<sup>4-6</sup>. It implies that the existence of small population of cells that possess self-renewal capacity and can generate terminally differentiated cells. The alternative stochastic model proposes the random acquisition of stem cell-like characteristics in differentiated cancer cells (the de-differentiation hypothesis)<sup>7,8</sup>. The authenticity of both models is widely debated, but the existence of the tumor initiating cells or cancer stem cells is more profoundly accepted<sup>9-11</sup>. In a recent past, a mathematical model correlating the probability of developing cancer to the number of stem cell divisions (which depends on the tissue type) shows convincing support of the stem cell origin of cancer stem cells<sup>12</sup>. However, because cancer cells undergo both genetic and epigenetic transformations, the de-differentiation of differentiated cancer cells to acquire stem cell-like properties (clonal evolution hypothesis) is also a possibility<sup>13-16</sup>. Regardless of the complexities surrounding stem cell origin, their identification, or the terminology used, metastatic recurrence of cancers caused by surviving cancer stem cells are a widely accepted mechanism.

### **Cancer Stem Cells Targeting Agents**

The upcoming cancer research is focused on cancer stem cell-targeting agents and was intimidated by the development of inhibitors against ABC cassette family members. Now cancer stem cell targeting is employed to treat the disease, and it is based on cell surface marker recognition through immuno-therapeutics, small molecule inhibitors against intrinsic signalling pathways like hedgehog, Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin, and notch, and tumor microenvironment targeting agents. The unique capacity of cancer stem cells to avoid immune attack favours the strategy of targeting directly their micro-environment in order to induce cancer stem cell death or promote the differentiation of cancer stem cells to prevent metastatic recurrence.

VEGF inhibitors that block angiogenesis are shown to alter the tumor vasculature when used with chemotherapeutics that modulate the pH of the microenvironment, promoting cancer stem cell differentiation and death<sup>17-20</sup>. FDA recently approved vismodegib for the treatment of basal cell carcinoma; this drug targets the protein smoothed (smo) because these tumor cells possess an active hedgehog signalling pathway<sup>21</sup>. This has initiated interest in blocking a similar signalling pathways to treat other cancers. Vismodegib's success in treating basal cell carcinoma is only partial. However, some resistant tumors develop. This drug was further tested for use in treating medullablastoma and pancreatic tumors<sup>22</sup>. Similarly, inhibitors of the Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin and notch signalling pathways were also explored. However, the abysmal results obtained from treating ovarian and colorectal cancers with vismodegib made researchers cautious when using inhibitors of crucial signalling pathways that are important for normal tissue and stem cell function<sup>22</sup>.

### **Salinomycin and its Role in Targeting Cancer Stem Cells**

Salinomycin is the being explored for its anti-cancer stem cells properties. It was originally used as an anti-coccidial drug in poultry feed and for efficient nutrient absorption in farmed pigs. Gupta et al<sup>23</sup> first described the preferential toxicity of salinomycin toward cancer-stem cells *in vitro*, using E-cadherin-targeted HMLER cells (HMLERshEcad), which show increased CD44+/CD24- phenotypes with high mammosphere formation capabilities. In the same study, they went on to further show that salinomycin is 300 times more effective in targeting cancer stem cell-like cells than paclitaxel. Salinomycin pre-treated cells show a 100-fold decrease in seeding capacity, or the ability to form tumors upon

xenotransplantation into immunocompromised mice. This study was followed by several reports<sup>24,25</sup> confirming salinomycin's toxicity among cancer stem cells in gastrointestinal sarcoma, osteosarcoma, pancreatic, colorectal cancer, and breast cancer.

Cell death mechanisms induced by salinomycin still remain elusive even though they are thought to be largely dependent on the impairment of mitochondrial function, excessive reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation, and caspase-dependent or independent pathways based on cell type<sup>26</sup>. The major pathways that are affected by salinomycin are the Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin and Akt/mTOR<sup>27-28</sup>. Lu et al<sup>29</sup>, showed that salinomycin targets cancer stem cells by inhibiting the Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin pathway. Nanomolar concentrations are sufficient to block Wnt, whereas higher concentrations (micromolar) hamper LRP5/6 phosphorylation and  $\beta$ -catenin activation. Salinomycin action on Wnt signaling is further reported among cancer stem cells of chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL) patients and gastric tumor mouse models. Salinomycin's action on Akt and mTOR is dependent on cancer cell type. While salinomycin treatment of non-small cell lung carcinoma and ovarian cancer cells led to reduced Akt and mTOR activity, cancer stem cells from head and neck squamous cell carcinoma showed elevated Akt activity<sup>30,31</sup>. Another vital function of salinomycin is its ability to inhibit multidrug resistance (MDR) protein function, leading to the increased susceptibility of ATP Binding Cassette (ABC) protein expressing drug resistant cells to treatment. Salinomycin inhibits the function of MDR1, ABCG2, and ABCC11 among both naturally expressing cells and cells that over express these respective proteins after drug treatment<sup>32</sup>. Salinomycin is also reported to be non-toxic to primary normal cells.

### **Apoptin in Targeting of Cancer Stem Cells**

Apoptin is a chicken anemia virus (CAV)-derived nonstructural protein consisting of 121 amino acids. Of the three different proteins encoded by the virus, only VP3/apoptin is involved in induction of apoptosis by CAV. Apoptin leads to regression of tumors in chickens carrying tumors induced by the Rous sarcoma virus<sup>33</sup>. Apoptin consists of a bi-partial nuclear localization sequence (NLS) present at the c-terminal end along with a putative nuclear export sequence (NES) at amino acids<sup>34</sup>. The nuclear and cytoplasmic shuttling of apoptin is driven by these sequences. Apoptin also has hydrophobic

leucine-rich region (aa 33 to 46), which facilitates its self-association and binding with a leukemia protein and its other interacting partners<sup>35</sup>.

As the case in cancer cells, apoptin can also translocate into the nucleus of normal cells, but it is promptly exported back to cytoplasm, owing to its nuclear export signal located close to the N-terminus. Nuclear localization of apoptin in normal cells may lead to senescence, whereas in cancer cells, nuclear-apoptin induces apoptosis (typically after 16-30 h). Apoptin triggers apoptosis through a mitochondrial death pathway. The proposed mechanism suggests that apoptin associates with and activates PI3K in the cytoplasm, which leads to translocation of Akt into the nucleus<sup>36</sup>. In the nucleus, Akt activates CDK2 both directly and indirectly, by degradation of p27kip1. Activated CDK2 phosphorylates apoptin at Thr-108, leading to its nuclear accumulation<sup>37</sup>. Apoptin in the nucleus interacts with other proteins like DEDAF, APC, PML, and Nml, and it also leads to the phosphorylation of Nur77 and its translocation to cytoplasm where it converts anti-apoptotic Bcl2 into a pro-apoptotic molecule<sup>38</sup>. The potency of apoptin to induce cell death among minimally transformed cells and broad range of cancer cells has been established for over a decade. However, its translation to clinic has been hampered by poor stability and due to the lack of efficient tumor delivery methods. As a chicken-infecting virus derived protein, apoptin is in itself immunogenic. Therefore, an effective mechanism to deliver apoptin to the tumor site is the main confounding factor preventing the development of apoptin-based therapies. Several delivery methods including adenoviral, oncolytic, and bacterial systems have so far been tested in preclinical studies, and the oncolytic virus newcastle disease virus (NDV) has shown promise<sup>39</sup>. Other non-viral methods using small peptide tags, such as TAT and PTD4, which assist in cellular transduction or penetration and facilitate access to the entire tumor volume, are also under consideration<sup>40</sup>. With the recent discovery of human gyroviral-derived apoptin showing similar function in cell death as its chicken homolog, apoptin-based therapies may be developed in the foreseeable future.

## Conclusions

It is clear from above literature that a lot of researches are being focused to develop new cancer stem cells targeting agents in order to over-

come resistance offered by cancer cells by spherically targeting cancer stem cells. The strategy holds strong potential to become the gold standard therapeutic procedure for efficiently handling the cancer patients. Further research in the area is needed to explore more of these cancer cell targeting agents and strong initiative should be taken to encourage use of these agents in clinical settings for the help of mankind.

## Conflict of Interest

The Authors declare that they have no conflict of interests.

## References

- 1) WHO. WORLD CANCER REPORT 2014. <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs297/en/>.
- 2) DE MARTEL C, FERLAY J, FRANCESCHI S, VIGNAT J, BRAY F, FORMAN D, PLUMMER M. Global burden of cancers attributable to infections in 2008: a review and synthetic analysis. *Lancet Oncol* 2012; 13: 607-615.
- 3) TOMASETTI C. Drug resistance. *Advances in experimental medicine and biology*. *Adv Exp Med Biol* 2014; 844: 303-316.
- 4) VALENT P, BONNET D, DE MARIA R, LAPIDOT T, COPLAND M, MELO JV, CHOMIENNE C, ISHIKAWA F, SCHURINGA JJ, STASSI G, HUNTLY B, HERRMANN H, SOULIER J, ROESCH A, SCHUURHUIS GJ, WÖHRER S, AROCK M, ZUBER J, CERNY-REITERER S, JOHNSEN HE, ANDREEFF M, EAVES C. Cancer stem cell definitions and terminology: the devil is in the details. *Nat Rev Cancer* 2012; 12: 767-775.
- 5) VISVADER JE. Cells of origin in cancer. *Nature* 2011; 469: 314-322.
- 6) BECK B, BLANPAIN C. Unravelling cancer stem cell potential. *Nat Rev Cancer* 2013; 13: 727-738.
- 7) MEDEMA JP. Cancer stem cells: the challenges ahead. *Nat Cell Biol* 2013; 15: 338-344.
- 8) KELLY PN, DAKIC A, ADAMS JM, NUTT SL, STRASSER A. Tumor growth need not be driven by rare cancer stem cells. *Science* 2007; 317: 337.
- 9) AZIZI E, WICHA MS. Point: cancer stem cells--the evidence accumulates. *Clin Chem* 2013; 59: 205-207.
- 10) JAN M, MAJETI R. Clonal evolution of acute leukemia genomes. *Oncogene* 2013; 32: 135-140.
- 11) JAN M, SNYDER TM, CORCES-ZIMMERMAN MR, VYAS P, WEISSMAN IL, QUAKE SR, MAJETI R. Clonal evolution of preleukemic hematopoietic stem cells precedes human acute myeloid leukemia. *Sci Transl Med* 2012; 4: 149ra118.
- 12) TOMASETTI C, VOGELSTEIN B. Cancer etiology. Variation in cancer risk among tissues can be explained by the number of stem cell divisions. *Science* 2015; 347: 78-81.
- 13) MEDEMA JP. Cancer stem cells: the challenges ahead. *Nat Cell Biol* 2013; 15: 338-344.

- 14) KELLY PN, DAKIC A, ADAMS JM, NUTT SL, STRASSER A. Tumor growth need not be driven by rare cancer stem cells. *Science* 2007; 317: 337.
- 15) AZIZI E, WICHA MS. Point: cancer stem cells--the evidence accumulates. *Clin Chem* 2013; 59: 205-207.
- 16) JAN M, MAJETI R. Clonal evolution of acute leukemia genomes. *Oncogene* 2013; 32: 135-140.
- 17) CHEN K, HUANG YH, CHEN JL. Understanding and targeting cancer stem cells: therapeutic implications and challenges. *Acta Pharmacol Sin* 2013; 34: 732-740.
- 18) BURKHARDT JK, HOFSTETTER CP, SANTILLAN A, SHIN BJ, FOLEY CP, BALLON DJ, PIERRE GOBIN Y, BOOCKVAR JA. Orthotopic glioblastoma stem-like cell xenograft model in mice to evaluate intra-arterial delivery of bevacizumab: from bedside to bench. *J Clin Neurosci* 2012; 19: 1568-1572.
- 19) CALABRESE C, POPPLETON H, KOCAK M, HOGG TL, FULLER C, HAMNER B, OH EY, GABER MW, FINKLESTEIN D, ALLEN M, FRANK A, BAYAZITOV IT, ZAKHARENKO SS, GAJJAR A, DAVIDOFF A, GILBERTSON RJ. A perivascular niche for brain tumor stem cells. *Cancer Cell* 2007; 11: 69-82.
- 20) LEE ES, GAO Z, KIM D, PARK K, KWON IC, BAE YH. Super pH-sensitive multifunctional polymeric micelle for tumor pH(e) specific TAT exposure and multidrug resistance. *J Control Release* 2008; 129: 228-236.
- 21) GOULD A, MISSAILIDIS S. Targeting the hedgehog pathway: the development of cyclopamine and the development of anti-cancer drugs targeting the hedgehog pathway. *Mini Rev Med Chem* 2011; 11: 200-213.
- 22) SANDHIYA S, MELVIN G, KUMAR SS, DKHAR SA. The dawn of hedgehog inhibitors: Vismodegib. *J Pharmacol Pharmacother* 2013; 4: 4-7.
- 23) GUPTA PB, ONDER TT, JIANG G, TAO K, KUPERWASSER C, WEINBERG RA, LANDER ES. Identification of selective inhibitors of cancer stem cells by high-throughput screening. *Cell* 2009; 138: 645-659.
- 24) SCHENK M, AYKUT B, TESKE C, GIESE NN, WEITZ J, WELSCH T. Salinomycin inhibits growth of pancreatic cancer and cancer cell migration by disruption of actin stress fiber integrity. *Cancer Lett* 2015; 358: 161-169.
- 25) TANG QL, ZHAO ZQ, LI JC, , LIANG Y, YIN JQ, ZOU CY, XIE XB, ZENG YX, SHEN JN, KANG T, WANG J. Salinomycin inhibits osteosarcoma by targeting its tumor stem cells. *Cancer Letters* 2011; 311: 113-121.
- 26) KLOSE J, STANKOV MV, KLEINE M, RAMACKERS W, PANAYOTOVA-DIMITROVA D, JÄGER MD, KLEMPNAUER J, WINKLER M, BEKTAS H, BEHRENS GM, VONDRAN FW. Inhibition of autophagic flux by salinomycin results in anti-cancer effect in hepatocellular carcinoma cells. *PLoS One* 2014; 9: e95970.
- 27) CHOI AR, KIM JH, YOON S. Sensitization of cancer cells through reduction of total Akt and downregulation of salinomycin-induced pAkt, pGsk3beta, pTSC2, and p4EBP1 by cotreatment with MK-2206. *Biomed Res Int* 2014; 2014: 295760.
- 28) LU W, LI Y. Salinomycin suppresses LRP6 expression and inhibits both Wnt/beta-catenin and mTORC1 signaling in breast and prostate cancer cells. *J Cell Biochem* 2014; 115: 1799-1807.
- 29) LU D, CHOI MY, YU J, CASTRO JE, KIPPS TJ, CARSON DA. Salinomycin inhibits Wnt signaling and selectively induces apoptosis in chronic lymphocytic leukemia cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2011; 108: 13253-13257.
- 30) XIAO Z, SPERL B, ULLRICH A, KNYAZEV P. Metformin and salinomycin as the best combination for the eradication of NSCLC monolayer cells and their alveospheres (cancer stem cells) irrespective of EGFR, KRAS, EML4/ALK and LKB1 status. *OncoTarget* 2014; 5: 12877-12880.
- 31) PARAJULI B, LEE HG, KWON SH, CHA SD, SHIN SJ, LEE GH, BAE I, CHO CH. Salinomycin inhibits Akt/NF-kappaB and induces apoptosis in cisplatin resistant ovarian cancer cells. *Cancer Epidemiol* 2013; 37: 512-517.
- 32) FUCHS D, DANIEL V, SADEGHI M, OPELZ G, NAUJOKAT C. Salinomycin overcomes ABC transporter-mediated multidrug and apoptosis resistance in human leukemia stem cell-like KG-1a cells. *Biochem Biophys Res Comm* 2010; 394: 1098-1104.
- 33) NATESAN S, KATARIA JM, DHAMA K, BHARDWAJ N, SYLVESTER A. Antineoplastic effect of chicken anemia virus VP3 protein (apoptin) in Rous sarcoma virus-induced tumours in chicken. *J Gen Virol* 2006; 87: 2933-2940.
- 34) BISSINGER R, MALIK A, JILANI K, LANG F. Triggering of Erythrocyte Cell Membrane Scrambling by Salinomycin. *Basic Clin Pharmacol Toxicol* 2014; 115: 396-402.
- 35) BACKENDORF C, VISSER AE, DE BOER AG, ZIMMERMAN R, VISSER M, VOSKAMP P, ZHANG YH, NOTEBORN M. Apoptin: therapeutic potential of an early sensor of carcinogenic transformation. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 2008; 48: 143-169.
- 36) MADDIKA S, WIECHEC E, ANDE SR, POON IK, FISCHER U, WESSELBORG S, JANS DA, SCHULZE-OSTHOFF K, LOS M. Interaction with PI3-kinase contributes to the cytotoxic activity of apoptin. *Oncogene* 2008; 27: 3060-3065.
- 37) MADDIKA S, ANDE SR, WIECHEC E, HANSEN LL, WESSELBORG S, LOS M. Akt-mediated phosphorylation of CDK2 regulates its dual role in cell cycle progression and apoptosis. *J Cell Sci* 2008; 121: 979-988.
- 38) ROLLANO PENALOZA OM, LEWANDOWSKA M, STETEFELD J, OSSYSEK K, MADEJ M, BERETA J, SOB CZAK M, SHOJAEI S, GHAVAMI S, ŁOS MJ. Apoptins: selective anticancer agents. *Trends Mol Med* 2014; 20: 519-528.
- 39) GUELEN L, PATERSON H, GAKEN J, MEYERS M, FARZANEH F, TAVASSOLI M. TAT-apoptin is efficiently delivered and induces apoptosis in cancer cells. *Oncogene* 2004; 23: 1153-1165.
- 40) HUNDESHAGEN P, HAMACHER-BRADY A, EILS R, BRADY NR. Concurrent detection of autolysosome formation and lysosomal degradation by flow cytometry in a high-content screen for inducers of autophagy. *BMC Biol* 2011; 9: 38.