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# **Cancer Stem Cells and Its Therapeutic Implication**

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**ABSTRACT:** The recent concept of 'cancer stem cells' has directed scientific communities towards a different wide new area of research field and possible potential future treatment modalities for the cancer. Stem cells have certain features like unlimited proliferation potential, which give rise to cancer and are called cancer stem cells. Cancer stem cells (CSCs) play crucial roles in tumor progression, chemo- and radiotherapy resistance, and recurrence. Recent studies on CSCs have advanced understanding of molecular oncology and development of novel therapeutic strategies. Strategies aimed at efficient targeting of CSCs are becoming important for monitoring the progress of cancer therapy and for evaluating new therapeutic approaches. In this review, we primarily focuses on the recent developments in the cancer stem cells, now considered as backbone in the development of the cancer; and their role in carcinogenesis and their implications in the development of possible new cancer treatment options in future. Rapid advances in the cancer stem cell (CSC) field have provided cause for optimism for the development of more reliable cancer therapies in the future and discussed about new diagnostic and therapeutic opportunities.

**KEYWORDS:** Cancer Stem Cell, Chemo resistance, Target Therapy, apoptotic death pathways

## **I. INTRODUCTION**

Cancer is the most common cause of mortality and morbidity in all over the world. Cancer cells are cells having unlimited proliferation potential which is dividing at a fast rate in an unregulated manner. In the transformation of the normal cell into cancer cell, the genes which regulate the cell growth and differentiation will be altered. The development of cancer is a complex multistep process that requires the accumulation of mutations resulting in a cell acquiring the essential hallmarks of cancer: evasion of apoptosis, self-sufficiency in growth signals, and insensitivity to antigrowth signals, invasive and metastatic abilities, limitless replicative potential, and sustained angiogenesis. The cancer stem cell (CSC) theory has given a broad view about tumor development and progression. CSCs, also called as, cancer initiating cells, are defined as the fraction of cells within a tumor that are long lived, possess the potential to proliferate indefinitely. CSCs have some character which are commonly found in stem cell populations such as differential metabolic activity, specific signaling pathway activity, and regulation of cell cycling characteristics. The CSCs have the capability of both self-renewal and multi-lineage differentiation into diverse cancer cells, which plays an important role in malignant proliferation, invasion, metastasis, and tumor recurrence. CSCs, also termed tumor initiating cells (TICs) or cancer metastasis-initiating cells (CMICs), are known to exhibit aggressive phenotype. Cancer cell dormancy, host immune insult due to tumors or high dose chemotherapy, radiotherapy and surgical operation may lead to treatment failure and tumor recurrence. However, recent studies suggest that the few cells that exist in the tumor and have the characteristics of stem cells may be causative of cancer metastasis, recurrence, and drug resistance. This current review discusses the new breakthroughs and discoveries in the CSCs and provides a theoretical basis for developing therapies that target the minority CSC population and presents a new perspective for the treatment of cancer.

## **A. ORIGIN OF CANCER STEM CELLS**

In 1875 Julius Cohnheim introduced a theory, that tumors may arise from stem cells which are left over from embryonic development [1]. Thereafter; leukemia stem cells were first isolated in 1997 [2]; and CSCs were isolated and characterized from solid tumors in breast cancer in 2003 [3]. From the consensus of an American Association for Cancer Research (AACR) workshop in 2006, CSCs are defined as a kind of cell that posses stem cell-like properties, *i.e.*, self-renewal and pluripotency [4]. CSCs usually account for 1–4 in 100 leukemia cells [5,6] or 1 in 1000–5000 cells in lung; ovarian; and breast cancers [7]; but have strong tumorigenicity; metastaticity and resistance to radio- and chemotherapy; playing critical roles in cancer progression and therapeutic response [8,9].

The cancer stem cells reveal many mysteries related to a cancer growth, however origin of the cancer stem cells is yet to be defined. The origin of the cancer stem cells are recognized by two important factors, first one is a number of mutations that required for a cell to be cancerous[10] and a stem cell needs to overcome any genetic constraints on both self-renewal and proliferation capabilities[11]. It is unlikely that all the mutations could occur in the lifespan of a progenitor/ mature cell. Therefore, cancer stem cells should be derived from either the self-renewing normal stem cells or from the progenitor cells that have acquired the ability of selfrenewal due to mutations which [12] is shown in figure1. The hypothesis that cancer stem cells are derived from normal stem cells rather than more committed progenitorcells have been addressed in the cases of AML where leukaemia initiating cells (LIC) from various subtypes of AML with different stages of differentiation have been shown to share the same cell-surface markers with normal haematopoietic stem cells [13,14]. However, from different studiesit was suggested that cancer stem cells can be derived from the normal stem cells, as well as from the committed short-lived progenitors, giving rise to the tumors with comparable latencies, phenotypes and gene expression profiles[15-25] Lack of the markers in the solid tumors, has made it difficult to study and characterize the origins of the cancer stem cells, however there have been identification of cell-surface markers in the brain[26], lung[27-32] and prostate[33] which may allow the separation of the stem or progenitor cells with the tumour initiating function.

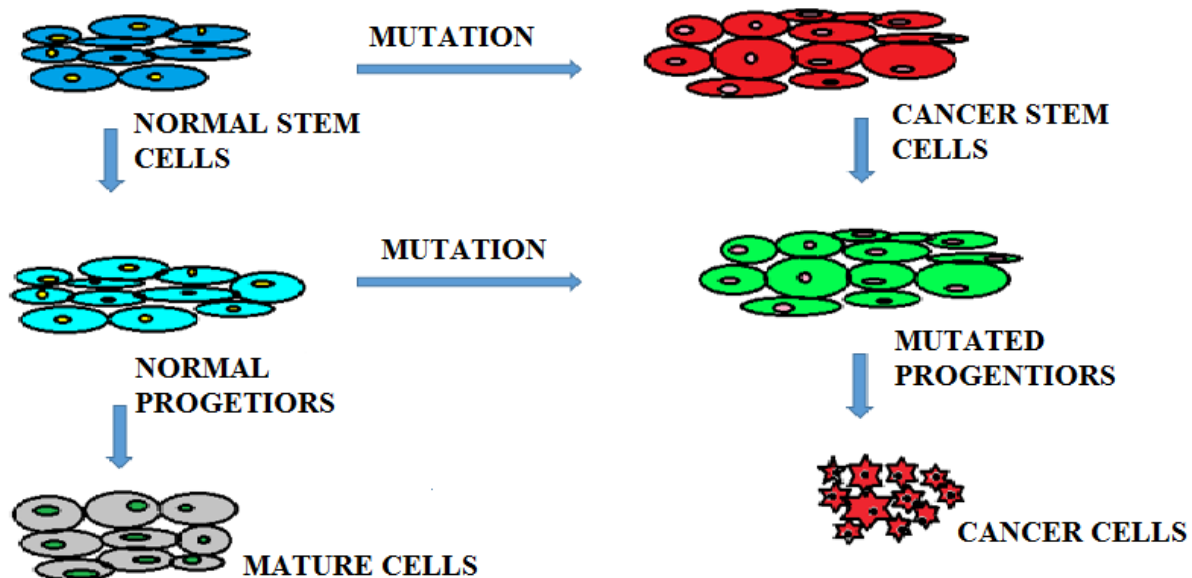


FIGURE 1: A SIMPLE MODEL OF ORIGIN OF CANCER STEM CELLS

Understanding of CSCs has advanced in the past decade. CSCs and normal stem cells exist in a dynamic equilibrium and could interconvert [34,35]. Normal stem cells could acquire the properties and tumor formation ability of CSCs by reprogramming [36,37]. If CSCs are a fixed cell population, after progressive proliferation of the ratio of cancer cells should be reduced, but it is clearly not the case. The proportions of CSCs in cancer cell lines remain about 0.1% in the constant culture [38,39]. Hypoxia-inducible factor (HIF2 $\alpha$ ) promotes the self-renewal of the stem cells and enhances a more stem-like phenotype in the non-stem population [40-45]. The CSCs may also develop *de novo* from differentiated cancer cells (*i.e.*, reprogramming) by the induction of microenvironment.

## II. BIOMARKERS OF CANCER STEM CELLS

Cancer stem cells are the small aggressive thing within the entire population of cancer cells and it is important to identifysuch population of CSC and to target it for the successful cancer therapies. CSCs of various origins have been known to express different marker proteins like ABCG2, ALDH1,CD44, CD24 and CD133, Thy-1, Sca-1 [46-54]. Such marker proteins, hence, have an aggressive effect to be harnessed as biomarkers for CSCs. These marker molecules are also known to play roles in various biological processes. A list of common marker proteins of CSCs, is

represented in Table1. Novel antigen profiles emerge with CD117+, CD133+ hepatic precursors in regenerating liver tissue[55]and with a resident CD45-, CD90+ subpopulation of tumor cells in hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), both of which might selected as hepatic CSCs .The CD90+ cells are not present in the normal liver cells and, when injected into immune deficient mice, create tumors[56].In human HCC and HCC cell lines, specifically CD133+ cells, not CD133- cells, has the ability to do self-renewal, create differentiated progenies and form tumors[57]. Pancreatic adenocarcinoma is the fourth most common cause of cancer death in the USA, displays extensive local destruction and early metastasis and has the worst prognosis of all human tumors (3% five-year survival). Pancreatic CSCs represent less than 1% of all pancreatic cancer cells and express the surface markers CD44+, CD24+ and epithelial specific antigen (ESA)+. Colorectal cancer is the third most frequent cancer and the second leading cause of cancer-related death in the Western world[58]. Current anticancer therapies fails to target colorectal cancer cells. Colorectal carcinoma develops as a result of successive mutations during clonal expansion of a single stem cell located at the bottom of the colorectal crypt. Colorectal CSCs express CD133+, ESA+ (EpCAM+) but are devoid of differentiation markers such as CK20 CD133+ [59]colorectal CSCs grow exponentially in vitro as undifferentiated spheres under serum-free conditions and generate tumors in NOD/SCID mice with morphological and antigenic profiles similar to their tumor of origin. Breast cancer is the major cause of death among women worldwide, and more than 40,000 breast cancer fatalities occur annually in the USA alone. MCF-7 breast cancer cells expresses the luminal epithelial marker MUC-1, and this SP produced MUC+ tumors in vivo[60] thus identifying MUC-1 as a new potential stem/progenitor cell marker. Recently, the cellsurface receptor PROCR (protein C receptor, CD201), CD44+ and CD24 is found to be present on 100% of breast cancer cells, and CD44+, CD24, PROCR+ cells were enriched for genes involved in cell motility, chemotaxis, hemostasis and angiogenesis.In prostate cancer, the basal cell marker profile CD44+[61] CD133+ collagen receptor [62] was observed.

TABLE 1: A LIST OF MARKERS IN CANCER STEM CELLS

CANCER TYPES	MARKERS	REFERENCE
Glioma/Medulloblastoma, head and Neck cancers, Lung, Prostate,Melanoma, Osteosarcoma	ABCG2 (ATP-binding cassette transporter)	Guo et al.
Breast, Pancreas, Bladder, Prostate	A1/ALDH1A1 (Aldehyde Dehydrogenase 1)	de Beca et al.
Glioma/Medulloblastoma, Head and neck cancers, Breast, Pancreas, Bladder, Prostate,Ovarian, Osteosarcoma, Leukemia	CD44	deBeça et al. [46], Wang et al.
Breast, Pancreas, Liver, Oesophagus, Gastric	CD24	Wang et al.
Glioblastomas, Prostate, Gastric, and Breast	CD133/Prominin1	Yasuda et al. [49], Brescia et al. [50]
Breast and Prostate	Stem Cell Antigen (Sca-1)	Xin et al. [53], Witz IP. [54], Miles et al. [55]
Osteosarcomas, Leukemia, ovarian cancers, Melanomas, Laryngeal cancers	CD105/Endoglin	Taskiran et al. [51], Marioni et al. [52]



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### III. IMPLICATIONS FOR THERAPEUTIC APPLICATIONS

If there is cancer stem cells in the tumors there exists three possibilities to take place. First one is the mutation of normal stem cells or progenitor cells into cancer stem cells which leads to the development of the primary tumour. Second one is, during chemotherapy, most of the primary tumour cells may be destroyed but if cancer stem cells are not eradicated, they become refractory cancer stem cells and may lead to recurrence of tumour. Third, the cancer stem cells will migrate from one place to another thus causing metastasis. Theoretically, identification of the cancer stem cells may allow the development of treatment modalities that target the cancer stem cells rather than rapidly dividing cells in the cancer. The cancer stem cells are relatively quiescent compared to other cancer cells and do not appear to have the hyper-proliferation signals activated such as tyrosine kinase. These make the cancer stem cells resistant to the toxicity of the anti-cancer drugs, which traditionally target the rapidly dividing cells. In addition, the tumour suppressor gene *PTEN* [63], polycomb gene *Bmi1* [64] and the signal transduction pathways such as the Sonic Hedgehog (Shh), Notch and Wnt that are crucial for normal stem cell regulation, have been shown to be deregulated in the process of carcinogenesis [65]. These deregulated signalling pathways and gene expressions may have impact on response to cancer therapy.

### IV. DIFFERENTIATION THERAPY WITH CANCER STEM CELLS

Even though, many new drugs are designed for the treatment of CSCs which target cellular mechanisms that regulate cell proliferation, including *Bmi-1*, Notch, Sonic hedgehog and Wnt signaling pathways. Nonetheless, these attempts are generally quite tissue-specific, making it difficult to extensively target CSCs across tumors to achieve broad therapeutic efficacy. Cancer develops when there is a block during the maturation scheme, thus termed maturation arrest, resulting in retention of the property of symmetric division in both daughter cells. The maturation arrest should occur in self-renewing progenitor cells, for they do not undergo typical turnover like mature cells and remain present before proliferative stimulus is given. The concept of this model also explains the differentiation state of the cancer that develops will depend on the stage of differentiation at which maturation arrest occurs. To this point, differentiation therapy has been proposed to induce terminal differentiation of the cancer stem or progenitor cells so that active proliferation and chemoresistance can be suppressed. The therapy has been encouraged by some preclinical and clinical outcomes including inhibiting glioblastoma expansion with BMP-4 [66], and in treating acute promyelocytic leukemia with retinoic acids (vitamin A analogs) to remove the maturation block [67]. The proposed study is aimed at preliminarily validating the concept described above. Our recent reports also demonstrated that the malignant potential of Osteosarcoma is reflective of the level of retained stem cell attributes and aldehyde dehydrogenase (ALDH) enzymatic activity [68,69]. When these putative CSCs were exposed to BMP-2, they were induced to express osteogenic phenotypes without stimulating proliferation, thereby drastically attenuating tumor formation and expansion. Moreover, the heterogeneous progenies associated with low ALDH expression were induced to generate structured, calcified bone tissue *in vivo* [70]. Recently, inhibition of aldehyde dehydrogenase (ALDH) activity was shown to reduce chemotherapy and radiation resistance of stem-like ALDH<sup>hi</sup>CD44<sup>+</sup> human breast cancer cells through their differentiation [71-73].

### V. THERAPEUTIC APPROACH BY INHIBITING SIGNALLING PATHWAY AND IMMUNO BASED THERAPY

These new therapeutic strategies target signaling pathways that are involved in the self-renewal processes of cancer stem/progenitor populations and block the growth of differentiated tumor cells. Thus, novel small molecules and specific antibodies have the potential not only to reduce tumor mass but also to eradicate the self-renewable source of CSCs [74-80]. Examples include the reduction of the SP fraction of metastatic UMSSC10B and HN12 head and neck cancer cell lines by (i) the targeting or inhibiting of membrane anchored tyrosine kinase receptor signaling by EGFR and Her2/Neu and (ii) the supra-additive combinatorial treatment of prostate cancer cell PC-3 xenographs in mice, which combines docetaxel or the anti-EGFR antibody cetuximab with sunitinib malate (SU11248), an oral multi-tyrosine kinase receptor block targeting vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)-1, -2 and -3/platelet derived growth factor

(PDGF)-a and -b/KIT/FLT-3. A new class of peptide molecules, apoptin, brevinin-2R, E4orf4 and hamlet, are emerging that have the capacity to (semi)specifically kill cancer cells. Some of them even appear to ‘hijack’ signaling pathways that normally promote cell survival and proliferation and redirect them to promote cell death [81-85]. Elucidating the mechanisms by which these promising anticancer peptides might kill CSCs could provide the basis for new gene- and peptide-based therapies.

The second element of a therapy against cancer stem cells, along with the appropriate target, is represented by the therapeutic platform which could be a biological or a small molecule capable to affect the viability or biological properties of such cells (Figure 2). Immune interventions are of particular interest as cancer stem cells or tumor initiating cells have a recognized refractoriness to conventional therapies (chemotherapy, radiotherapy) and small molecule targeted therapies.

Dr. Richard Morgan from the National Cancer Institute had designed the genetically engineered T cells encompassing chimeric antigen receptors (CARs) against antigens such as EGFRvIII and CSPG4. Such CARs are endowed with co-stimulatory signalling domains that provide the engineered T cells with supra-physiological capabilities. Dr. Morgan discussed their results obtained in a glioblastoma model, with cancer stem cells in the neurosphere assay as targets for an EGFRvIII-directed CAR engineered T cell approach. These newer CARs complement a growing pipeline that includes anti-CD19 CAR that showed objective clinical responses in leukemia and lymphoma. A third generation CAR against EGFRvIII, encompassing 4-1BB, CD28, CD3z as signalling domains, is currently undergoing phase 1 clinical testing in patients with relapsed glioblastoma multiforme.

Dr. Elaine Hurt from Medimmune described an in vitro high throughput assay utilized in their laboratory to discover novel targets associated with cancer stem cells, applicable to breast cancer and other tumor types. These targets are amenable to antibody based immunotherapy and related approaches, as they are expressed on the cell membrane. She discussed the rationale supporting EZH2, a novel target associated with the Wnt/Notch pathway, and thus closely related to stemness. This assay and screening methodology carries the promise of leading to identification of numerous membrane borne targets associated with tumor initiating cells.

#### THERAPEUTIC PLATFORM TECHNOLOGIES



**CANCER STEM CELL**

- ⇒ ANTIBODIES
- ⇒ ANTIBODY DRUG CONJUGATES
- ⇒ VACCINES
- ⇒ REPROGRAMED T CELLS AND NKT CELLS THAT TARGET CSC

#### VI. APOPTOTIC MEDIATED THERAPY

Apoptosis is a characterization of antitumor drugs and it's regulated by several molecular phenomena, such as the expression of Bmi-1 and the loss of p53. Bmi-1, a member of the polycomb group (PcG) family, which is responsible for the self-renewal and maintenance of CSCs. Being, Bmi-1 as an oncogene, it could enable cancer cells to escape apoptosis by modulating multiple growth signaling pathways [86]. Thus, its overexpression in cancer cells could be used as a survival marker. The role of Bmi-1 in chemoresistance has been addressed recently. Silencing of Bmi-1 gene could promote sensitivity to cisplatin and induction of apoptosis.

##### A. Apoptotic Signaling in CSCs

Apoptosis is an active, strictly regulated, and energy-dependent cell death process. In mammalian cells, apoptosis is regulated via two different pathways, *i.e.*, the extrinsic and intrinsic pathways. Caspases play important roles in apoptosis. The activation of caspase family protein triggered by these two signaling pathways results in a series of

cellular substrate excision and changes, such as chromatin condensation, DNA fragmentation, membrane blebbing, and cell shrinkage. The extrinsic pathway is triggered through the binding of extracellular proapoptotic ligands to cell surface receptors, known as death receptors, such as CD95, nerve growth factor receptor (NGFR), and TNF-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL) receptors. After binding to the receptor, a death-inducing signaling complex (DISC) composed of the Fas associated death domain (FADD) and procaspase-8 and -10 is formed, and this protein complex activates procaspase-8 and -10 inside itself, and then cleaves procaspase-3 and initiates the apoptosis process. In the extrinsic pathway, the downregulation of cellular FLICE inhibitory protein long isoform (c-FLIPL) by ubiquitination at lysine residue (K) 195 occurs. The intrinsic pathway, also known as the mitochondrial pathway, is induced by a variety of stress signals that trigger cellular and DNA damage, such as ionizing radiation, cytotoxic agents, and growth factor withdrawal. They lead to mitochondrial outer membrane permeabilization (MOMP) and transcription or post-translational activation of BH3-only proapoptotic B-cell leukemia/lymphoma 2 (Bcl-2) family proteins. The mitochondrial permeability is a key step in the apoptosis cascade and mediated by Bcl-2 family proteins. The mitochondrial permeability allows the release of apoptotic proteins, such as cytochrome c and second mitochondria-derived activator of caspase (Smac), from the intermembrane space into cytosol. The assembly of cytochrome c and apoptotic protease-activating factor-1 (Apaf-1) activates caspase-9 which in turn activates the effectors caspase-3, -6, and -7, leading to apoptosis. Inhibitors of apoptosis protein (IAP) prevent both intrinsic and extrinsic apoptosis by inhibiting caspase activity, which represents the last protective measure against apoptosis. Death signaling can also be activated by c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK) signaling which leads to phosphorylation of Bcl-xL at Ser62, decreasing its anti-apoptotic activity in the intrinsic pathway. Intrinsic and extrinsic apoptosis pathways are both disordered in cancer cells; and apoptosis evasion is one of the hallmarks in cancer cells. Apoptotic signaling pathways, including extrinsic and intrinsic pathways, are also deregulated in CSCs. In glioblastoma and lung CSCs, the death receptors (DR) mediating the extrinsic pathway are expressed at a high level, and the upregulation of DR4 in colon CSCs leads to chemo-resistance. The FLICE-like inhibitory proteins (cFLIP) are a negative modulator of death receptor-induced apoptosis, consisting of two subtypes: long cFLIP (cFLIPL) and short cFLIP (cFLIPS). In CD133+ glioblastoma, breast cancer, and T-cell acute leukemia cells, the cFLIPs are up regulated. Silencing of cFLIPs by siRNA restores cell sensitivity to death stimuli, suppressing CSC self-renewal and tumor metastasis. It was reported that insufficient expression of death receptors and up expression of c-FLIPs leads to CSCs-enriched neurosphere resistance to trail.

Dysregulation of the intrinsic pathway in CSCs is mainly reflected in Bcl-2 family proteins and the DNA damage response. Bcl-2 family proteins are composed of anti-apoptotic proteins (Bcl-2, Bcl-XL and Mcl-1) and pro-apoptotic molecules (Bax, Bak, Bid, Bim, Bik, Noxa and Puma). It is the imbalance of anti- to pro-apoptotic protein ratio rather than a specific molecule expression level that tips the balance to cell survival and regulates sensitivity to apoptotic stimuli. In most tumors, anti-apoptotic Bcl-2 family proteins are overexpressed in CSCs. For instance, CD133+ glioma CSCs express a high level of anti-apoptotic proteins Bcl-2 and Bcl-XL and high expression of Mcl-1 correlates with resistance to the Bcl-2 inhibitor ABT-737 in glioma CSCs. In colon CSCs, Bcl-2 is increased and inhibits apoptosis and autophagy. Downregulation of Bcl-2 or upregulation of Bax induces apoptosis of CSCs. Therefore, inhibition of the mitochondrial death cascade has been attractive for CSC-targeted therapeutic intervention of cancers.[87]

CSC differentiation is reversible, *i.e.*, the mature tumor cells or precursor cells can obtain CSC properties by dedifferentiation. Understanding of CSCs has explained the heterogeneity, metastasis recurrence and chemo-/radiotherapy resistance of tumors, and the evasion of apoptosis of CSCs is considered a main mechanism of recurrence and chemoresistance of cancers, representing novel therapeutic potentials. The apoptosis is mediated by complex networks composed of many death and survival signaling molecules and pathways. Manipulating the apoptotic machinery, including activation of pro-apoptotic pathways and inactivation of anti-apoptotic pathways to eradicate CSCs, displays great potentials. Selective induction of CSC differentiation, suppression of their self-renewal, or triggering of their apoptosis by targeting key signaling molecules and microenvironment factors, are certainly attractive explorations to cancer researchers. Combined applications of agents targeting CSC apoptosis are an important advantage improving their antitumor efficacy.

## VII. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, stem cells and cancer cells share a lot of commonality. However, stem cells are proven to be more primitive as compared to cancer and cancer stem cells. Under normal circumstances, stem cells maintain a homeostasis and replenish the adult cell pool while deregulation or imbalances of stem cells can give rise to cancer stem cells and



eventually full blown cancer. Presently, cancer therapy has entered in to an exciting new era, with traditional therapies such as chemotherapy, radiotherapy and surgery on one side while the stem cells on the other hand. Apart from their well-known role in immuno-reconstitution, the stem cells have attracted much attention especially with the new gene technologies such as the gene incorporation into the eukaryotic cells allowing more focused delivery of the anti-cancer agents. Now the cancer may be considered as a cancer stem cell disorder rather than that of rapidly growing cells. Although the origin of the cancer stem cells is yet to be defined, the concept of the cancer stem cells may allow new treatment options in the possible cure of the cancer. However, further research is required to identify and separate the cancer stem cells in various cancers from normal stem cells and other cancer cells. Further work is also required to differentiate the genes and signalling pathways in the process of the carcinogenesis from cancer stem cells for development of new therapies, with the eventual goal of eliminating the residual disease and recurrence.

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