



# Advances in histone deacetylase inhibitors in targeting glioblastoma stem cells

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## Abstract

Glioblastoma multiforme (GBM) is a lethal grade IV glioma (WHO classification) and widely prevalent primary brain tumor in adults. GBM tumors harbor cellular heterogeneity with the presence of a small subpopulation of tumor cells, described as GBM cancer stem cells (CSCs) that pose resistance to standard anticancer regimens and eventually mediate aggressive relapse or intractable progressive GBM. Existing conventional anticancer therapies for GBM do not target GBM stem cells and are mostly palliative; therefore, exploration of new strategies to target stem cells of GBM has to be prioritized for the development of effective GBM therapy. Recent developments in the understanding of GBM pathophysiology demonstrated dysregulation of epigenetic mechanisms along with the genetic changes in GBM CSCs. Altered expression/activity of key epigenetic regulators, especially histone deacetylases (HDACs) in GBM stem cells has been associated with poor prognosis; inhibiting the activity of HDACs using histone deacetylase inhibitors (HDACi) has been promising as mono-therapeutic in targeting GBM and in sensitizing GBM stem cells to an existing anticancer regimen. Here, we review the development of pan/selective HDACi as potential anticancer agents in targeting the stem cells of glioblastoma as a mono or combination therapy.

**Keywords** Glioblastoma multiforme · Cancer stem cell · Epigenetic therapeutics · Histone deacetylase inhibitors

## Introduction

Glioblastoma multiforme (GBM), most frequently reported primary brain malignancy categorized as GBM IDH-wild type, GBM IDH-mutant, and GBM NOS tumors (WHO classification), is a lethal and aggressive grade IV glioma (WHO classification) with global prevalence [1–4]. GBM comprises about 16% of all primary brain tumors and constitutes a major part (about 54%) of gliomas with a median survival of 15 months post diagnosis [2, 3]. GBM is mostly

managed in a case-dependent manner: contemporary treatment regimen is mostly palliative medical care and includes maximal surgical resection of tumor, followed by concomitant radiation and Temozolomide (TMZ) therapy, and long-term maintenance with adjuvant Temozolomide chemotherapy [5–7]. Despite some therapeutic advancement in the anticancer treatment of non-CNS cancers, GBM tumor has remained medically intractable due to impediments posed by a limited understanding of GBM microenvironment intricacies and restricted permeability of anticancer drugs to brain and GBM tumors [8–10]. Furthermore, similar to the presence of heterogeneity in non-CNS cancers [11–13], there is mounting evidence that shows the presence of cellular heterogeneity in GBM [14–18] and several cellular studies have established the existence of a distinct subpopulation of cancer stem cells (stem cell-like cancer cells or tumor stem cells or tumor-initiating cells) within GBM tumors [19–21]. Such Glioblastoma CSCs are highly potent in tumor initiation, progression, maintenance, invasion, angiogenesis, immune response modulation, intracellular drug efflux, and possess efficient metabolic plasticity and repair machinery [21–28]. These characteristics of GBM stem cells pose greater therapeutic resistance to existing anticancer therapeutics [23, 24],

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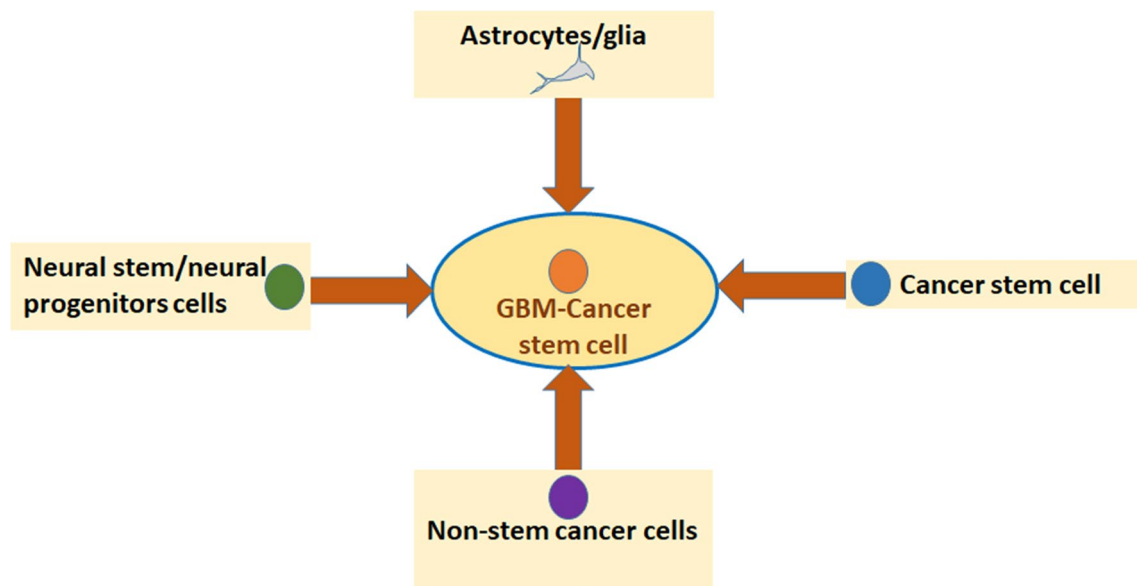
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and necessitates the development of alternative therapeutic strategies to effectively treat GBM and improve quality of life post-diagnosis [19, 28]. There is growing interest to augment current treatment modalities by targeting these CSCs with HDACi to develop better and effective anticancer therapeutics for GBM treatment [29, 30]. In this review, we have focused on the use of histone deacetylase inhibitors (HDACi)—an epigenetic drug in targeting GBM stem cells for the development of effective anticancer therapeutics.

### CSCs and GBM

Cellular heterogeneity and hierarchy of cells in hematological malignancies and other cancers have been well established [11–17, 31, 32]. Recent application of technological advancements of single-cell sequencing experiments to cancer research has been pivotal in advancing molecular understanding of cellular heterogeneity in cancers, provided a foundational basis for the phylogeny of cancer cells and augmented clonal evolution concept in cancers viz. copy number evolution and point mutation evolution in tumors of different origins [12, 31, 33–43]. Such studies have been instrumental in identifying a rare population of cells (usually less than 1% of cells and characterized as cancer stem cells) within cancer mass and have demonstrated the presence of common founder mutation for different lineage trajectories within cancer tissues [12, 35, 37]. Many other studies have also described similar rare cell sub-populations within cancer mass as CSCs [21, 44–51]. These cells have been shown to possess self-renewal properties [52–54], tumor-initiating potentials [52, 55] and are often implicated

in treatment resistance to a wide range of anticancer agents in many cancers [22, 24, 56, 57]. Identification and characterization of these CSCs in solid tumors have remained debatable due to usage of conventional marker-dependent strategies that could not account for their small number [58–61], high variability in marker gene expression [62–66], overlapping molecular profiles with other cancer cells [48, 67, 68], functional heterogeneity [69], metabolic plasticity [70–72] and potential to switch from differentiated tumor cells, and vice versa [36, 73–75]. Despite these challenges, a large number of reports [76–82] have described the identification and characterization of CSCs at the molecular level to much finer details. Similar to the presence of CSCs in non-CNS cancers, GBM also nurtures subpopulations of cells that have been characterized as GBM stem cells [21, 83–85] and have been shown to be potentially originating from neural stem/progenitor cells [86–88], non-stem cancer cells and from local brain cells [75, 89–92] (Fig. 1). GBM CSCs express a wide range of markers like CD133 [21, 93–95], SOX2 [96–98], Nestin [95, 99], Musashi1 [100, 101], Bmi-1 [102–104], SALL4 [105, 106], OCT-4 [97, 107, 108], STAT3 [109], NANOG [110, 111], c-Myc [112, 113], and some of these markers are common either to embryonic stem cells and/or to adult neural stem cells [114, 115]. Although GBM stem cells share many markers with neural stem cells and non-stem cancer cells, still GBM stem cells are distinguishable due to the expression of embryonic stem cell markers [114] and dysregulation of specific signaling pathways viz. Wnt, Hedgehog-Gli, RTK-Akt, STAT3, TGF- $\beta$  Notch signaling and bone morphogenetic protein (BMPs) pathway [28, 75, 116–119]. In addition to the expression of



**Fig. 1** Origin of Cancer stem cells in GBM tumors. Cancer stem cells formed from aberrant genetic or epigenetic dysregulation of neural stem/progenitors, non stem cancer cells, glia and from cancer stem cells

differential markers than non-stem cancer cells, GBM stem cell-associated genetic and epigenetic [120, 121] signatures provide for high tumorigenicity, capability to resist niche-induced differentiation [117] and for greater therapeutic resistance to conventional anticancer agents [22, 24, 122]. Studies suggest that anticancer treatment results in transient quiescence in GBM stem cells followed by enrichment and/or enhanced proliferation of GBM stem cells, which in turn result in much aggressive, resistant and recurrent glioma [123]. Recent efforts have established the role of epigenetic and chromatin remodeling mechanisms in regulating GBM stem cell transitioning between slow-cycling persistent and fast cycling forms in response to kinase inhibitors, and this transitioning has been shown in mediating resistance to anticancer agents [122]. Next-generation sequencing technologies have been instrumental in identifying distinct epigenome states associated with molecular profiles of GBM stem cells in different transitional states [124]. Along with other regulatory mechanisms, several reports demonstrated differential regulation of histone and non-histone acetylation—a key regulatory modification in GBM tumors [125].

### Histone deacetylases in GBM cancer stem cell

HDACs are the epigenetic enzymes that dynamically regulate the acetylation status of histones and non-histone proteins by removing acetyl moieties from specific lysine residues. HDACs mediate deacetylation of histone proteins which in turn alters chromatin conformation dynamics towards transcriptionally non-permissive chromatin resulting in downregulation of gene expression [126]. Furthermore, HDACs regulate various cellular activities by deacetylation of non-histone proteins like STATs, NF- $\kappa$ B, P53, FOXO, HSP90, tubulin, etc. [127, 128]. HDACs are generally categorized into four different classes: class I (HDAC 1, 2, 3 and 8), class II (class IIa – 4, 5, 7, 9 and class IIb- 6, 10), class III (sirt1-7) and class IV (HDAC 11). Among these, class I, class II and class IV are Zinc dependent, while class III is NAD<sup>+</sup> dependent. HDACs have been implicated in many GBM tumors [129–131], hematological [132–136] and in several other solid malignancies [129, 137, 138]. Aberrant HDAC expression/activities [139–142] regulate tumor progression, invasion, poor prognosis and survival outcome [143–145], and changes in HDACs expression level have been reported in several gliomas [141, 143–147]. Furthermore, resistance to anticancer therapy has been associated with the expression of HDAC4, HDAC6 and HDAC8 [130, 131, 143], and Knockdown of HDAC1 and 2 induces anticancer effects in glioma tumors [146]. In addition, differential expression/activity of HDACs has been reported in GBM CSCs compared to non-stem cancer cell or neural stem/progenitor cells and dysregulated HDAC expression has been associated with altered signaling mechanisms like

sonic hedgehog (SHH) pathway (essential for stemness, viability and radio-resistance) and in some cases correlates with glioma progression [130, 143]. Furthermore, increased levels of SIRT1, SIRT2 [148, 149], class III (NAD-dependent) HDACs, has been reported in CSC of GBM compared to NSC and normal brain cells. CD133 positive GBM cells express increased levels of SIRT1, SIRT2, SIRT4 and decreased levels of SIRT6 in comparison to CD133 negative populations [148]. In addition, SIRT1 knockdown enhances radio-sensitivity of GBM stem cells and reduces tumor volume with the positive therapeutic outcome on CD133 positive GBM tumors [148]. The interplay of SIRT3 and TRAP1 in GBM CSCs mediates enhanced metabolic plasticity, essential for reducing ROS production, maintaining mitochondrial functions and metabolic adaptations to GBM tumor microenvironment [150]. Thus, the role of HDACs in CSC functions of GBM is intriguing as a potential therapeutic candidate in targeting the CSC and development of better anticancer therapeutics for GBM.

### HDAC inhibitors in GBM cancer stem cells

In a pursuit to expand the repertoire of existing anticancer treatment, there have been efforts to sensitize GBM stem cells and restore aberrant gene expression by complementing existing treatment modalities with epigenetic therapeutics [151, 152]. Among various epigenetic targets, targeting Histone deacetylase (HDAC) activity by the use of various small molecule chemical HDACi in combination with existing anticancer treatments has been emerging as a promising anticancer strategy in preclinical studies [153]. HDACi exhibits anticancer function by increasing the acetylation levels of histone and non-histone proteins; eventually enhancing DNA alkylating agent-induced chromatin damage on de-condensed chromatin and also by mitigating cancer-associated gene silencing by regulating the transcriptional activation of various genes involved in apoptosis, cell cycle arrest and proliferation [154, 155]. Research on these lines has resulted in the development of many HDAC inhibitors with different class specificities, and interestingly some of them cross the blood–brain barrier (BBB) at physiologically tolerable concentrations. Several studies have demonstrated the development of pan/selective HDAC inhibition as adjuvant therapy in sensitizing GBM stem cells to existing treatments. Potent anticancer effects of HDACi is being explored at various stages of preclinical and clinical trials as a combination or monotherapy in GBM tumors.

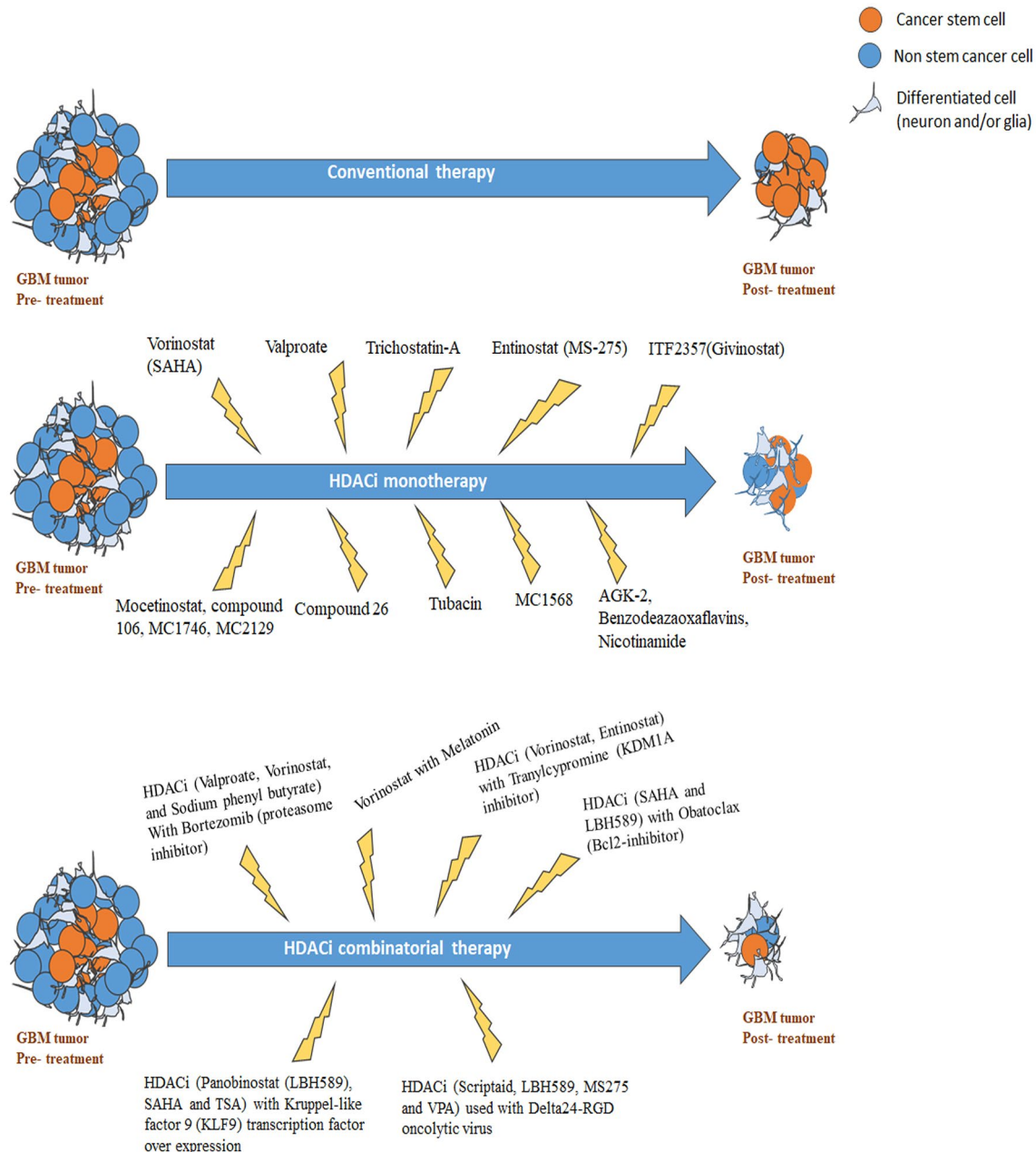
### HDACi as a mono-therapeutic in GBM stem cells

HDAC inhibitors have been potential therapeutic candidates for treating GBM tumors and recent molecular research efforts further support the emerging anticancer effects of

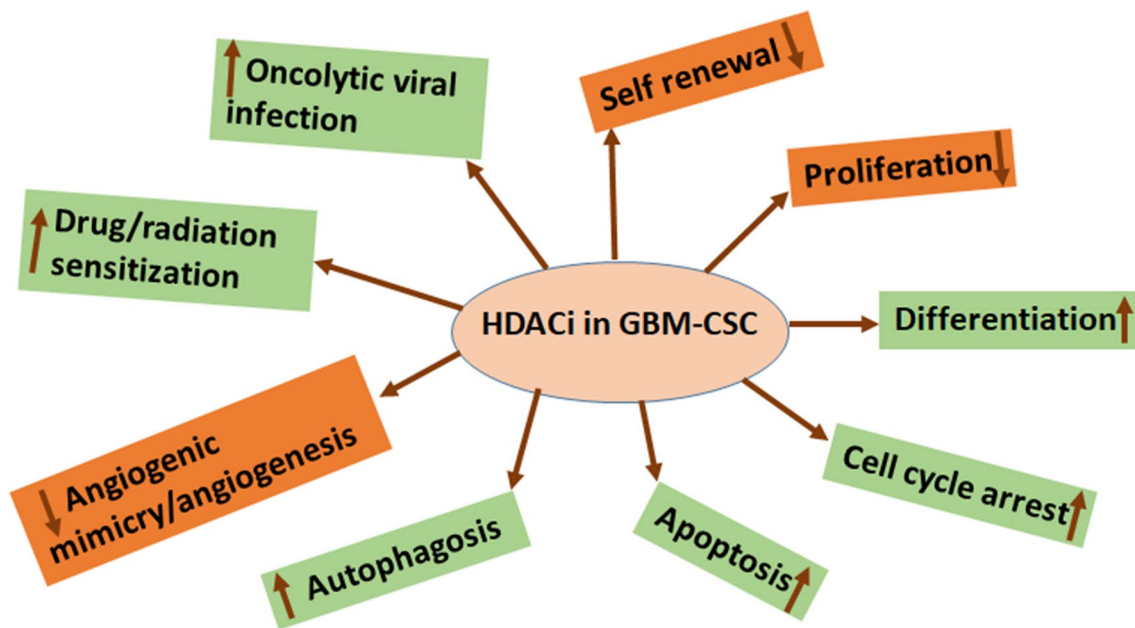
various HDACi on GBM. HDACi act as chemo/radio-sensitizers and target GBM CSCs to potentiate anticancer properties of conventional anticancer therapies. As a mono therapeutic anti-GBM agent, HDACi has been shown to reduce cancer stem cell burden in GBM tumors (Fig. 2) by modulating molecular pathways regulating stemness, proliferation, differentiation, cell cycle arrest, apoptosis, autophagy, vasculogenic mimicry of CSCs, etc. [143, 156–158] (Fig. 3).

Vorinostat, also known as suberoylanilidehydroxamic acid (SAHA), is a class I and class II pan HDACi. It has been

in clinic for treating cutaneous T-cell lymphoma (CTCL) and is being actively investigated for treating various solid malignancies including GBM. As a mono therapeutic agent, Vorinostat targets both CSCs and non-stem cancer cells of GBM. Orzan et al. (2011) have shown Vorinostat induced downregulation of EZH2 (Enhancer of zeste homolog 2) expression—a PRC (polycomb repressor complex 2) associated main catalytic enzyme – regulates stemness, differentiation and apoptosis in cancer stem cell of GBM. Overall, Vorinostat treatment reduces stemness (low CD133



**Fig. 2** Therapeutic treatment of GBM with **a** Conventional anticancer therapy (Radiation and Temozolomide), **b** HDACi monotherapy and **c** HDACi combinatorial treatment. The CSCs in GBM were reduced by HDACi monotherapy and combinatorial therapy



**Fig. 3** Therapeutic role of HDACi in cancer stem cells of GBM tumors

markers), promotes differentiation and apoptosis in GBM CSCs [159]. In addition to this, Hsu et al. (2016) reported Vorinostat induced decrease in cell viability, cell growth, sphere and colony formation potential in CSCs of human glioblastoma line U87MG. Vorinostat treatment promotes apoptosis by inducing expression of cleaved PARP and caspase 3. Treatments with milder concentrations of Vorinostat results in cell cycle arrest with more G1 cells compared to S and G2/M cells [156] and has been found to decrease tube formation (vasculogenic mimicry) in GBM patient-derived stem cells [157]. Similar other reports also demonstrated Vorinostat-mediated increase in global histone H4 acetylation levels and significant induction of p21WAF1 and  $\gamma$ -H2AX proteins -markers of cell growth arrest and DNA damage response (DDR pathway), respectively.

Valproate, a short-chain fatty acid, inhibits class I and class IIa HDACs. It has been in clinical usage as an anti-convulsant and a mood stabilizer. Valproate also exhibits anticancer activity and capacity to target the CSCs of GBM. Riva et al. (2016) have shown temporal and cell line-dependent effects of Valproate on GBM CSCs. Valproate alone is a potent cytotoxic agent and induces differentiation in proliferating stem cells. Short-term and long-term treatments with Valproate also affect genome methylation levels although such changes are not consistent among various cancer stem cell lines. Valproate treatment to patient GBM derived CSCs in in vitro has been shown not only to decrease stemness marker expression like CD133, Nanog, Oct3/4, ZFP 342, Sox2 and telomerase reverse transcriptase but also to promote neuronal (increased expression of TUJ1

and glial (increased GFAP expression) differentiation markers, besides reducing the overall proliferation [158]. Also, Valproate fails to reduce cancer cell viability and sensitization to TMZ treatment in a subtype of GBM stem cell lines [160].

Treatment with Trichostatin A (TSA), another class of HDACi, to patient-derived GBM CSCs in vitro results in repression of stem cell markers viz. CD133, Nanog, Oct3/4, ZFP 342, Sox2 and overall promotion of neuronal (increased expression of TUJ1) and glial (increased GFAP expression) differentiation markers, besides reduction in proliferation [158]. In other systems like U87 derived stem cells, TSA alone reduces neurosphere formation, proliferation and promotes differentiation, besides affecting the cell viability [161]. TSA affects the activation of DNER/Deltex signaling pathway, which in turn reduces stemness (reduced CD133 expression) and proliferation in neurosphere assay and colony formation assay, increases apoptosis and induces differentiation markers like TUJ1 and GFAP expression in GBM CSCs [162]. TSA significantly decreases tube formation (vasculogenic mimicry) in GBM patient-derived stem cells [157].

Like TSA, Entinostat (MS-275) negatively regulates stemness (reduced CD133 expression) and proliferation (reduced neurosphere forming properties) and promotes differentiation via DNER/Deltex signaling pathway in GBM CSCs [162]. MS-275 significantly decreases tube formation (vasculogenic mimicry) in GBM patient-derived stem cells [157]. Recent efforts to screen and develop novel HDACi led to identification of compound 26, an analog of Entinostat,

as a blood–brain barrier permeable HDAC inhibitor capable of decreasing cell viability, inducing apoptosis, inhibiting sphere formation and promoting cell cycle arrest, besides increasing H3 acetylation in patient-derived GBM stem cells. Compound 26 HDACi has been found to extend the survival time when used in combination with TMZ [152], in orthotopic intracranial tumor models.

Similarly, ITF2357 (Givinostat)—a pan HDACi- BBB penetrant, has been shown to attenuate tumor growth [163] and cell viability by promoting the apoptosis and autophagy in GBM CSCs [164]. On similar lines, ITF2357 (Givinostat) reduces neurosphere formation in patient-derived GBM stem cells and promotes differentiation [163].

Tubacin, a selective HDAC6i, is shown to have therapeutic importance in CNS diseases including brain tumors. Tubacin acts as anticancer agent by inhibiting HDAC6, which is often increased in GBM CSCs and has been implicated in mediating radio-resistance. Besides inhibiting HDAC6 activity in GBM CSCs, tubacin treatment also increases acetylation levels of tubulin. Furthermore, it reduces the stemness by affecting the SHH pathway and promotes differentiation, apoptosis and radiation sensitivity [143]. In addition to nonspecific pan HDACi, use of specific HDAC inhibitors like Tubacin has also been shown to reduce GBM stem cell viability by promoting apoptosis and enhancing response to radiotherapy [143].

GBM tumors also develop resistance to anti-angiogenic therapeutics by developing angiogenic mimicry. HDACi MC1568 significantly decrease tube formation (vasculogenic mimicry) in GBM patient-derived stem cells [157]. In addition, treatment with mocetinostat, compound 106, MC1746, MC2129, results in histone H4 hyper-acetylation and significant induction of p21WAF1 and  $\gamma$ -H2AX proteins, markers of growth arrest and DDR pathway, respectively, with a slight increase of the cleaved PARP-1 levels, as evident by western blot analysis.

As mentioned in the previous section, apart from Zinc-dependent class I and class II HDAC enzymes, Sirtuins—NAD dependent class III HDACs—have been implicated in the pathophysiology of GBM and GBM CSCs [149, 150]. Sirtuin inhibitors like Ex-527 (SIRT1 selective), AGK-2 (SIRT2 selective) and Benzodeazaflavins (SIRT1/SIRT2 inhibitor) have been evaluated for the anticancer activity in GBM CSCs. AGK-2 and Benzodeazaflavins analogues show potent anti-proliferative activity in patient-derived CSCs of GBM [165]. Interestingly, Nicotinamide-induced inhibition of Sirtuins increases Trap1 acetylation which negatively affects metabolic plasticity and maintenance of CSCs [150].

Other malignant brain tumors (medulloblastoma) driven by CSCs have also been shown to be sensitive to HDAC inhibition and a pan HDAC inhibitor sodium butyrate in combination with Etoposide-induced significant reduction in

colony formation assay, reduced neurosphere formation ability of medulloblastoma cells, reduced cell viability and promoted neuronal (Gria2) and glial (GLAST) lineage differentiation [166]. HDACi from hydroxamic acids (Vorinostat and Panobinostat) to benzamide Entinostat and short-chain fatty acid VPA have been shown to effectively sensitize ependymoma stem cells, which usually pose resistance to chemotherapy, to standard anticancer drugs like Vincristine (VCR), Cisplatin (CDDP) and Temozolomide (TMZ) [167]. Also, in ependymoma tumors the resistance is shown by CSCs to established anticancer drugs like temozolomide, vincristine and cisplatin, but the cells respond to HDACi SAHA treatment, showing attenuation in neurosphere formation ability of CSCs and promoting neuronal differentiation [167].

### HDACi as a combinatorial therapeutics in GBM stem cells

Though HDACi as mono-therapeutic agents exhibit promising anticancer activity, efforts are underway to boost their anticancer activities in targeting the CSCs with combinatorial usage of existing anti-cancer drugs. Several studies have demonstrated the synergistic effect of combinatorial usage of HDACi with anticancer drugs in targeting CSCs of GBM (Fig. 2). Asklund et al. (2012) have demonstrated the application of HDACi Valproate, Vorinostat and Sodium phenylbutyrate along with the FDA approved drug Bortezomib (a proteasome inhibitor) in GBM stem cell lines TB101 and R11. These HDACi in combination with Bortezomib at clinically relevant drug concentrations have shown a synergistic effect in reducing cell viability of GBM CSCs. In addition, HDACi Vorinostat along with Bortezomib reduced colony formation and increased apoptosis in GBM stem cell lines [168]. Similar studies from Sung et al. (2019) showed a synergistic effect of co-treatment with Vorinostat and Melatonin on human Glioma CSC cell lines GSC267 and GSC23. Vorinostat and Melatonin treatment reduced the expression of Transcription factor EB (TFEB) and increased the expression of cleaved PARP and phosphorylated  $\gamma$ H2AX. Such co-treatments also reduced the number and size of tumor spheres formed by CSCs of GBM. Along similar lines, combined treatment severely compromised the tumorigenic potential of CSCs in orthotopic xenograft tumors induced by CSCs and resulted in prolonged survival [169]. Singh et al. (2015) reported epigenetic therapeutics based combinatorial treatment like Pan HDACi—Vorinostat and class I HDACi—Entinostat in combination with LSD1/KDM1A (lysine specific demethylase1) inhibitor Tranylcypromine, which resulted in reduced cell viability in patient-derived CSC of GBM, reducing TP53 and TP73 expression in mice GBM xenograft tumor model, reducing the tumor size and

promoting the survival of animals [153]. Valproate with Salinomycin has shown anticancer activity in GBM-CSC recently [170].

HDACi (SAHA and LBH589) have shown a synergistic effect with Obatoclax—(a BCL2 inhibitor in clinical trials for treating solid and circulatory tumors) in targeting GBM cells. Interestingly, subtypes of GBM with BCL2 family member's overexpression have been observed to develop resistance to radio-sensitizing effect of these HDACi but have responded positively to similar treatment supplemented/ reinforced with Obatoclax. The combinatorial application of SAHA and LBH589 with BCL2 inhibitor Obatoclax affected networks of genes linked to cell death and survival, cell morphology, cell cycle and resulted in increased caspase activity, LC3BI/II conversion and showed a synergistic effect to induce apoptosis and autophagy in GBM CSCs [171].

HDACi mediated synergistic effect is not restricted to only anti-cancer chemical agents but has also been reported with biological agents. Tung et al. (2018) reported synergistic effects of HDACi LBH589, SAHA and TSA and overexpression of transcription factor Kruppel-like factor 9 (KLF9) in inducing cell death by apoptosis and necrosis in human GBM stem cell lines [172]. Similar synergistic actions of HDACi have been observed with the oncolytic viral sensitizers like Delta 24-RGD. HDACi like Scriptaid, LBH589, MS275 and VPA used with Delta 24-RGD virus synergistically enhanced oncolytic ability of Delta 24-RGD oncolytic virus therapy in GBM CSCs [173].

### Clinical trials of HDACi for glioblastoma tumors

Many HDACi have been approved by the FDA and are in clinic for treating circulatory malignancies which are mostly driven by CSCs. The FDA approved HDACi for treating various circulatory cancers include Vorinostat and FK228 (Romidepsin) for treating cutaneous T-cell lymphoma (CTCL), Belinostat (PXD101) for peripheral T-cell lymphoma (PTCL) and Panobinostat (Farydak) for the treatment of multiple myeloma [174]. Interestingly, various promising HDACi are being evaluated in pre/clinical trials for treating GBM (Table 1) and some other cancer stem cell-driven solid malignancies. Few of the HDACi in clinical trials for treating GBM and other brain tumors exhibit potent anticancer activity in combination with radio and/or chemotherapy. However, in these studies, HDACi is being evaluated as a generalized anticancer agent and not for specifically targeting GBM stem cells. Future studies are warranted to evaluate anti-cancer stem cell properties of HDACi in clinical trials and such studies might provide better indices for evaluation of HDACi in targeting GBM stem cells.

**Table 1** Clinical trial data of HDACi in treating Glioblastoma tumors (source: ClinicalTrials.gov)

Treatment/Intervention	Clinical trial phase
Vorinostat+Pembrolizumab+Temozolomide+Radiotherapy	Phase 1
Valproic Acid+Temozolomide+Radiotherapy	Phase 3
Vorinostat+Bortezomib	Phase 2
Vorinostat	Phase 2
Belinostat+Temozolomide+Radiotherapy	Phase 2
Vorinostat+Temozolomide+Radiotherapy	Phase 1, 2
Vorinostat+Bortezomib+Irinotecan	Phase 1
Vorinostat+Bevacizumab	Phase 1, 2
Vorinostat+Isotretinoin+Temozolomide	Phase 1, 2
Valproic acid+Temozolomide+Radiotherapy	Phase 2
Vorinostat+Bevacizumab+Temozolomide	Phase 1, 2
Vorinostat+Temozolomide	Phase 1
Vorinostat+Radiotherapy	Phase 1, 2
Vorinostat+Bevacizumab	Phase 2

### HDACi anticancer drug efficacy and CSCs of GBM

Despite the therapeutic advancement in anticancer treatment, success of anticancer drugs in treating GBM is generally low due to many limitations: ability to cross the blood–brain barrier at toxicologically permissible concentrations, effective blood to CSF diffusion, blood to tumor barrier permeability and maintenance of pharmacologically effective drug concentration within tumor core, physiologically relevant diffusion rates in brain and tumor parenchyma, duration of effective plasma concentration, drug metabolism, elimination from the brain and to overcome resistance exhibited by CSCs of GBM [175, 176]. In general, CSCs pose a major obstacle in treating solid malignancies and often mediate refractory resistance to radio cum chemotherapies due to specially fortified survival mechanisms, ranging from physical avoidance of drugs to better drug-induced damage repair mechanisms and enhanced metabolic plasticity. Presence of CSCs in hypoxic tumor core microenvironment often provides physical protection from drug exposure [177]. Such hypoxia-associated niche microenvironment not only protects CSCs from the generation of excessive reactive oxygen

species on radiation therapy due to limited availability of oxygen but also generates signaling cascades from stromal connective tissues to activate other resistance mechanisms in CSCs upon exposure to an anticancer agent [177]. In case of physical exposure to cytotoxic drugs, CSCs deploy drug efflux mechanisms to reduce molecular exposure to the drugs in order to escape from drug-induced toxicity. CSCs of GBM contain efflux transport systems like multidrug resistance (MDR) associated protein family including ATP binding cassette (ABC) transporters. Two of these transporters, P-glycoprotein (P-gp) and MDR protein (MRP) are major components that limit drug penetration into the CNS and to GBM stem cells [177, 178]. In addition to this, CSCs limit drug-induced damage by expressing enzymes for drug inactivation or by repressing enzymes needed for conversion of prodrugs to an active form. GBM stem cells are metabolically more plastic and can reversibly transition from fast-dividing phenotype to slow dividing phenotypes to avoid favorable conditions for the drug action [179]. Many cancer-targeting drugs are DNA alkylating agents and induce DNA damage in cancer cells. CSCs overexpress checkpoint and DNA repair proteins viz. ATM, Chk1/2, p53, BRCA1 and XRCC5 and are better adapted to repair damages caused by the drugs and as such upregulate pro-survival and anti-apoptotic molecular programs.

HDACi has been effective in restricting some of these above-mentioned resistance mechanisms in cancerous cells, e.g. use of HDACi Vorinostat, Trichostatin A, Entinostat not only sensitizes cancer cells to DNA damage agent but also limits the development of resistance to DNA alkylating agent by reducing expression of DNA repair-related proteins like RAD51, RAD52, BRCA1/2, CtIP, Ku70, Ku86, DNA-PKcs, XRCC4 and DNA ligase 4 [180]. HDACi like Vorinostat has been shown to induce the accumulation of DNA double-strand breaks in normal and transformed cells. Also, Vorinostat preferentially targets cancer cells via upregulation of thioredoxin binding protein (a negative regulator of ROS scavenging protein thioredoxin)(TRX) and promotes the accumulation of ROS for effective damage to cancer cells [180]. In relation to drug efflux mechanisms, certain HDACi viz. Valproic acid, Apicidin, Romidepsin and Sodium butyrate increase expression of P-glycoprotein (P-gp) and MDR protein (MRP) in several cancer cells and might diminish expected response in combination therapy [180]. Although multidrug resistance-related transporters are upregulated by certain HDACi, only Romidepsin has been characterized as a substrate of P-gp [181]. HDACi Vorinostat and Oxamflatin circumvent drug efflux mechanisms mediated by P-gp or MRP successfully and target cancer cells in P-gp expressing independent manner [180]. Despite being tolerant to drug efflux mechanisms, CSCs develop resistance to HDACi also by activating various signaling pathways in response to HDACi exposure: resistance to

Vorinostat, sodium butyrate, Valproic acid and Entinostat in BCL2 expressing cancer cells, activation of NF- $\kappa$ B by Vorinostat, Trichostatin A, Entinostat and Panobinostat reduce their efficacy in certain cancer cells, expression of retinoic signaling-associated proteins like RAR $\alpha$  or PRAME (Preferentially expressed antigen in melanoma) cause resistance to Entinostat, Vorinostat and butyrate in certain cancers [180]. In addition, resistance to HDACi has been observed in some specific genetic backgrounds like R132H mutation in isocitrate dehydrogenase 1 (IDH1<sup>R132H</sup>) GBM cells and resistance developed due to the elevated levels of Octyl-2HG which in turn mediates NANOG expression [182]. Similarly, BCL2 overexpressed GBM stem cells have shown resistance to the radiosensitizing effect of HDAC inhibitors (SAHA and LBH589) [171]. In spite of these drug resistance-related challenges, HDACi has been promising against cancer resistance and few reports demonstrated potential of HDACi in overcoming drug resistance like Trichostatin in eliminating resistant cells during transient resistance states to Temozolomide in GBM treatment [179]. However, detailed mechanisms of HDACi resistance specifically in GBM CSCs is not/poorly known and needs to be explored for the development of effective treatment strategies.

## Conclusion and future directions

The encouraging preclinical and clinical research data intriguing the researchers for further exploration of HDACi as promising futuristic addition to the contemporary anti-cancer regimens, in sensitizing and targeting cancer stem cells for GBM treatment. Although HDACis as combinatorial therapeutics sensitize GBM CSCs to classical anticancer agents, it fails to circumvent drug-induced cytotoxicity in non-cancerous tissues and also in the development of drug resistance to HDACi, as has been reported in few studies on GBM tumors [171, 182]. Furthermore, the use of HDACi does not elicit a similar progressive response in all patient studies owing to inter-tumoral enormous heterogeneity. These limitations mostly obscure potential of HDACi in targeting GBM stem cells and necessitate further investigations into the understanding of individual HDACs in the stem cell biology of GBM. Also, more precise prognostic molecular markers of GBM stem cells have to be identified and used to evaluate individual HDACi treatment response. In addition to pan HDAC inhibition, the role of individual HDACs and associated molecular pathways in GBM CSCs need further explorations [183]. Such studies could be instrumental in prioritizing individual HDACi with specific class selectivity over non-selective HDACis and would provide for minimized off-target toxicity.

In order to expand the repertoire of brain available HDACi, low HDACi BBB permeability issue should be



improved by better designing molecular architecture for efficient BBB permeability, CNS enrichment and brain retention. The futuristic design of next-generation HDACi should be focused on improving selectivity and efficacy in targeting CSCs of GBM; designing of HDACi equipped with surface recognition cap groups to uniquely expressed surface receptors in CSCs should be explored to increase therapeutic efficacy, bioavailability and decrease in side effects. Designing hybrid HDACi by conjugating with other pharmacophoric moieties may provide for multi functionalities to modulate multifactorial oncogenic targets. HDACi in combination with other anti-cancer drugs for targeting GBM stem cells targeting the drug efflux ability, DNA repair machinery, angiogenic mimicry or angiogenesis and others may provide better treatment outcomes. In addition, the HDACi dose optimization and time of treatment have to be considered for increasing the therapeutic efficacy of HDACi in GBM treatment. These aforementioned provisions need to be potentiated and improvised for GBM drug delivery to tumor core with the use of tissue or cell-selective drug accumulation approaches like nanoparticle [184, 185] or liposome formulations [186, 187] of HDACi. Moreover, the heterogeneity of CSCs and the presence of actively proliferating and quiescent CSCs in GBM are also observed. Thus, it is important to design HDACis targeted towards the proliferative as well as quiescent cells alike. Designing novel HDACi which can overcome the prevailing limitations to effectively target CSCs of GBM might not seem to be a distant dream.

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## Compliance with ethical standard

**Conflict of interest** None.

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