

# **Annals of Case Reports & Reviews**

doi: 10.39127/ACRR:1000106.

Miranda MLP, et al. Annal Cas Rep Rev: ACRR-106.

# **Review Article**

# **Chemotherapy Overview: Treating Cancer and Overcoming Resistance**

Mayara L.P. Miranda<sup>1</sup>, Camile Castilho Fontelles<sup>2</sup>, Fábia de Oliveira Andrade<sup>2</sup>, Kelly Silva Furtado<sup>1</sup>

**Citation:** Miranda MLP, Fontelles CC, Andrade FdO, Furtado KS (2018) Chemotherapy Overview: Treating Cancer and Overcoming Resistance. Annal Cas Rep Rev: ACRR-106.

Received Date: 23 August, 2018; Accepted Date: 27 August, 2018; Published Date: 03 September, 2018

#### **Abstract**

Chemotherapy has been the most used approach in cancer treatment. It can be used alone or as adjuvant therapy in order to prevent tumor reoccurrence in association with radiotherapy or surgery. Nevertheless, certain cancers can development of Multi Drug Resistance (MDR) the remains a major challenge in the treatment of cancer. The present review aims to elucidate most common cancer treatments, as well as explain the leading drug resistance mechanisms and key strategies to overcome it. Although there are many mechanisms that seems to be a potential in overcoming MDR, such ABC transporters, synthetic and natural chemosensitizers and epigenetic therapy, the use of these approaches and the possible interactions is not yet fully understood, therefore further studies aiming at understanding this dynamic are necessary.

**Keywords:** Chemotherapy, Multidrug Resistance, Chemosensitizers

# Introduction

Cancer figure among the leading worldwide health problems, with approximately 20.3 million new cases and 13.2 million deaths expected for 2030 [1]. The most common sites of cancer occurrence can differ for men and women. Among men, lung, prostate, colorectum, stomach, and liver cancer were the most diagnosed in 2012, while among women were breast, colorectum, lung, cervix, and stomach cancer (WHO, 2017). Given its broad occurrence and harmful consequences treating cancer has been the aspiration of researches worldwide [2]. The central goal of cancer treatment is to cure or significantly extend the life of patients, guaranteeing the best potential life quality to survivors [3]. There are numerous kinds of cancer treatments, depending on the type of cancer and on its developmental stage [4]. The traditional approach to cancer patients' treatment is the combination of chemotherapy and radiotherapy, besides surgical resection [5]. Additional therapies can be used, including immunotherapy, targeted therapy and hormone therapy [6].

Chemotherapy has been the most used approach in cancer treatment aiming at stopping or reducing the growth of cancer cells that usually display higher growth and division rates [7], Chemotherapy can shrink tumors before surgery or radiation therapy (neoadjuvant chemotherapy), destroy remaining cancer cells after treatment with surgery or radiation therapy (adjuvant chemotherapy), enhance other treatments and exterminate cancer cells that are returning or spreading to other tissues [8]. However, chemotherapy does not solely kill or slow the growth

of cancer cells, it also act on healthy cells, promoting undesirable side effects on hair follicles, bone marrow and gastrointestinal tract cells, among others [9].

Cancer chemotherapy is the most used treatment against cancer, aiming to decrease the number of cancer cells with minimum toxic side effects [10]. Nevertheless, chemotherapy alone can be effective only for few cancer types, such as haematological neoplasm (lymphomas and leukemia) [11] and gastric cancer [12]. Similarly solely surgery and sometimes radiation can only be effective for small and located tumors, displaying the need to combine different treatments [13]. Additionally, chemotherapy can be used as adjuvant therapy in order to prevent tumor reoccurrence and, in association with radiotherapy, can be used as neoadjuvant therapy so as to shrink tumor size before surgical proceeding [14].

Nevertheless, certain cancers can eventually develop resistance to the chemotherapy treatment [15]. There are several mechanisms underlying this process such as cell signaling reprogramming, DNA damage and repair and epigenetic regulation [16-18]. In this context, better therapeutic approaches have been proposed in order to improve drug efficiency and inhibit resistance mechanisms [19]. Therefore, the present review aims to elucidate most commom cancer treatments, as well as explain the leading drug resistance mechanisms and key strategies to overcome it.

# Chemotherapy

Initially, the development of cancer chemotherapy drugs was based on cytotoxicity assays using cells lines derived from neoplasias with a phenotype of fast growth [20]. The first drugs

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>University of São Paulo, São Paulo, Brazil.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Georgetown University Lombardi Comprehensive Cancer Center, Washington, DC, USA.

<sup>\*</sup>Corresponding author: Kelly Silva Furtado, University of São Paulo, São Paulo, Brazil. Email: ksfurtado@gmail.com

developed can act, predominantly, through inducing DNA damage in the tumor cells that show increased replication rate and inadequate repairing mechanisms [5]. Although efficient these drugs have numerous side effects reported, such as increase incidence of secondary tumors and high toxicity levels for healthy cells [21]. In order to reduce the side effects new drugs appeared, with increased specificity and targeting specific intermediaries of oncogenic signalization pathway [20].

Chemotherapy drugs can be categorized as: alkylating agents (i.e., cyclophosphamide, ifosfamide, melphalan, busulfan), antimetabolites 5-fluorouracil. capecitabine. (i.e., methotrexate, gemcitabine), antitumor antibiotics (i.e., daunorubicin, doxorubicin, epirubicin), topoisomerase inhibitors (i.e., topotecan, irinotecan, etoposide, teniposide), and mitotic inhibitors (i.e., paclitaxel, docetaxel, vinblastine, vincristine) [22]. Chemotherapy drugs can be given as injection into the bloodstream (usually through a vein), drip (intravenous infusion) into the bloodstream and as tablets or capsules [23]. Although chemotherapy drugs are normally administered intravenously, 25% of them can also be administered orally, offering patients convenience and superior life quality [24]. Among the benefits of oral chemotherapy it is worth to mention: fewer interferences with work and social life activities, avoidance of hurting injections and extended infusion times [25]. Moreover some types of oral chemotherapy (i.e., topoisomerase I inhibitors and fluoropyrimidines) can offer prolonged drug exposure when compared to parenteral therapy, being a more effective delivery choice [26]. Nevertheless, it is important to consider oral chemotherapy drugs and food interactions that can contribute to increase treatment-related toxicities [27]. Although chemotherapy has been advance in recent years, its efficacy is limited by multidrug resistance that remains a major hurdle to the successful treatment of various types of cancers [28].

# **Multidrug Resistance**

Despite all efforts to improve chemotherapy drugs' delivery and concentration there is an emergent concern regarding multidrug resistance [29]. Multidrug resistance (MDR) to chemotherapy, is the process whereby cancer cells develop resistance to the cytotoxic effects of numerous structurally and mechanistically unrelated chemotherapeutic agents [30], leading to the failure of chemotherapy in about 80% of cancer patients [31]. There some potential mechanisms of MDR currently reported: ABC transporter family, apoptosis induction, autophagy induction, cancer stem cell regulation, hypoxia induction, DNA damage and repair, and epigenetic regulation [19].

The most extensively studied mechanism of MDR is the overexpression of ABC transporter pumps, which are located on the cytoplasmic side of the resistant cell membrane, leading to removal of a large amount of chemotherapeutic agents from cells thus decreasing their intracellular accumulation [32].

The process of drug-induced apoptosis involves the upregulation of pro-apoptotic factors as well the modulation of cell survival factors. The deregulation of one or more of these factors may give rise to a failure of drug-induced apoptosis leading to chemoresistance [33]. The autophagy is upregulated

in response to cancer treatments and has a cytoprotective in cancer effect by degrading the drug molecules helping cancer cells evade apoptosis. Cell populations that respond to drugs by inducing autophagy are more drug-resistant and will recover after the withdrawal of the chemotherapeutic agents [19,34]. The hypoxia can also modulate apoptosis and autophagy mechanisms contributing to MRD. In hypoxia, the hypoxia-inducible factor-1 (HIF-1) can change the drug-induced apoptosis and authophagy and reduce drug-induced senescence in response to drugs. The inhibition of HIF-1 re-sensitises cells to drug treatment [35].

In normal cells the DNA damage activate checkpoint pathways, which cause an arrest in cell cycle unless DNA is repaired, but in cancer cells efficient repair of DNA will contribute to drug resistance. Moreover, in response of dysfunction of one DNA repair pathway can be overcome by another compensatory pathway, which could contribute to the resistance to chemotherapy [36].

The cancer stem cells (CSCs) have the ability of self-renewal and asymmetric division, which, is responsible for giving rise to differentiated daughter cells which make up the bulk of the tumor. These cells contributed to initiation and progression of cancer [36]. In addition, stem cells are involved in MDR by several mechanisms, such as the expression of multiple transport proteins of the ABC family, resistance to DNA damage and apoptosis, and the ability to make the epithelial transition to mesenchymal [37,38].

The epigenetic mechanism such us DNA methylation histone modifications and variation on miRNA expression can work gene expression and can also be involved in drug resistance [39-41].

However the MDR phenotype is usually the synergistic result of a combination of different MDR mechanisms, thus inhibiting only one contributor to cellular resistance is usually insufficient to overcome all mechanisms of cancer-cell resistance to chemotherapy [42]. In order to overcome MDR oncologists and researchers came up with certain alternatives, for example finding analogs of regularly used chemotherapeutic agents, which would have wider activity and lower toxicity. However, few analogs become clinically useful, due to reduced anticancer activity and high risk of toxicity [43]. Additional strategy was to administrate MDR modulators, known as chemosensitizers in combination with anti cancer drugs, these modulators can block the efflux pumps of the ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporter family, however in many cases they are toxic at the concentration capable of inhibiting MDR [44]. In this context better drug delivery strategies are being developed, such as the ones citied bellow.

#### **Metronomic Therapy**

Cancer chemotherapy customarily employs the highest tolerated drug dose that a regular patient can take, leading to the need of prolonged time intervals between treatment cycles to allow for normal tissue recovery from the cytotoxic effects of the treatment [45]. This approach is useful in tumors that are less genetically complexes, like acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) in children [46], gestational choriocarcinomas, certain germ-cell tumors [47], testicular cancer [48], Hodgkin disease

[49] and B-cell non-Hodgkin lymphomas [50]. However in tumors that are more genetically complexes, for example sarcomas, breast, prostate, pancreas and lung cancers, this sort of treatment is less effective [51].

A plausible explanation for the failure of treatments that use the highest tolerated drug dose followed by the intervals between treatment cycles is that during treatment drugs stimulate weak endothelial cell damage [52]. During the intervals these endothelial cells are able to repair themselves and recover, and since they can support tumor growth, their regrowth generates tumor resistance, which reinforce the hypothesis that more condensed or accelerated schedules of drug administration, using smaller individual doses, would be more effective and less toxic to patients [53].

Instead the metronomic chemotherapy uses a cytotoxic agent at a lower, less toxic dose given at regular, more frequent time intervals [46]. Benefits of this type of treatment includes less gastrointestinal disorders, such as vomiting, nausea, and mucositis, resulting in fewer supportive care procedures, like prophylactic growth factors and intense antiemetic schedules [54]. Finally, oral chemotherapy (i.e. capecitabine, vinorelbine, cyclophosphamide, methotrexate) can be used, reducing the inconvenient of altering to a greater extend the patient lifestyle, since it makes home therapy possible and reduce costs due to the lower dosage [55].

Nonetheless, the metronomic therapy solely could hardly perform overall effects against the disease, introducing the possibility of combining metronomic drugs and regular chemotherapy, in a treatment called "chemo switching", in which patients go through a short-term conventional chemotherapy followed by a long-term maintenance metronomic chemotherapy, eventually combined with targeted therapies [56].

#### Chemo sensitizers

Chemosensibilization is a process capable of increasing tumor sensitivity to chemotherapy, through agents that can be synthetic or natural [57]. The natural bioactive agents are safer and showed several mechanisms of action, such as efflux protein modulation, upregulation of apoptotic proteins and downregulation of antiapoptotic proteins to reverse drug resistance and increase drug sensitivity [27]. Additionally these natural agents are not harmful to healthy cells and interfere with multiple signaling cancer pathways, leading to cell death besides chemosensitizing tumor cells [58]. Examples of these chemosensitizers include: nanoparticles [9], food bioactive compounds [59], drugs with epigenetic targets [60].

# **Nanocarriers**

Nanotechnology was able to prevent MDR by encapsulating, attaching, and conjugating drugs or therapeutic biological products to nanocarriers, that can comprise small molecules such as lipids or polymer nanoparticles that target the therapeutic cargo to tumors or tumor cells [61]. One mechanism used by these nanoparticles is known as the enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) effect and it is generally referred to as 'passive drug targeting' [62]. The EPR consists in improving the circulation time of the entrapped or

conjugated chemotherapeutic agents by relying on the pathophysiological properties of solid tumors, which tend to present a leaky vasculature, in contrast to the vasculature of healthy tissues, allowing the nanoparticles with sizes up to several hundreds of nanometers to accumulate in solid tumors over time [63].

In this context Doxil<sup>TM</sup> is one of the best examples of nanomedicines that work through EPR, it is coated with a hydrophilic polymer called PEG which attenuates the uptake of particles by macrophages and monocyte members of the reticuloendothelial system, enhancing efficient targeting of tumors, Doxil<sup>TM</sup> is commonly used to treat breast cancer [64]. Further examples of passive targeting nanomedicines approved for clinical use are: Myocet<sup>TM</sup>, DaunoXome<sup>TM</sup>, Genexol-PM and Marqibo<sup>TM</sup>. Although these nanoparticles have great therapeutic effects, EPR effect heterogeneity within and between tumors is an obstacle, since there is a wide spectrum of possible responses, even tumors without EPR [65].

In order to overcome the EPR heterogeneity scientists developed the "active drug targeting", that consists in active bind to specific receptor in cancer cells. Among other mechanism, nanoparticles can: bind to extracellular matrix adjacent to the tumor, bind with high affinity and specificity to a particular cell surface receptor and recognize and bind to target cells through ligand-receptor interactions [66]. Some examples of drugs with active targeting are: Rituxan<sup>TM</sup>, Herceptin<sup>TM</sup> and Avastin<sup>TM</sup>.

### Carbon Nanotubes

Although particularly effective, nanomedicines have its shortcomings, such as production multiple steps process, including the fabrication of the nanoparticle itself, the addition of a layer compatible with the target, derivatization for functional groups, addition of the functional group and ultimately drug loading step. This complex process involves a purification procedure for each step, resulting in an ineffective process, which is inconvenient for large-scale synthesis [67]. Therefore, more resourceful delivery agents are needed, such as carbon nanotubes, which are allotropes of carbon with a cylindrical nanostructure with distinctive properties, such as high aspect ratio, surface area, and simple drug loading mechanism [68].

Carbon nanotubes have already shown interestingly uses in the biomedical field, due to its capacity to absorb and convert electromagnetic radiation, like the near infrared, into heat or sound energy, they can be effectively employed in photothermal therapy [69] and in photoacoustic therapy against cancer cells [70]. Regarding their application in drug delivery, carbon nanotubes have already been used in carrying various therapeutic agents, such as chemotherapeutic drugs, showing great efficiency [71]. However, there are some concerns regarding carbon nanotubes, since *in vitro* studies showed that they are toxic at concentrations of 5-10 mg/mL, due their ability to activate multiple cellular pathways (Mattheolabakis, Rigas & Constantinides 2012). Nevertheless *In vivo* studies suggest that they are safe at similar or higher concentrations [72].

# **Bioactive Compounds**

Bioactive compounds are essential and non-essential food compounds (e.g., vitamins or polyphenols) that occur in nature that can have significant effects on human health [73] both in preventing cancer and improving chemotherapy efficiency [74]. Among these compounds genistein, resveratrol and curcumin can act as chemosensitizers of anticancer drugs [59]. Genistein decreased cell growth and apoptosis when administered in combination with cisplatin, docetaxel, doxorrubicin or gemcitabine in prostate, breast, lung, pancreas and ovary cancer cells [75]. Moreover, Genestein was also able to intensify the gemcitabine effect through inhibition of NF-kB and AKT in osteosarcoma and pancreas cancer [76]. Similarly, genestein restored cell sensitivity in ovary cancer that was resistance to cisplatin, docetaxel and gemcitabine through inhibition of NF-kB pathway targets (c-IAP1, Bcl-2, Bcl-xL) and surviving [75]. Resveratrol also sensitized cells from several cancers, when administered in combination with doxorubicin, cytarabine (AraC), actinomycin D, taxol and methotrexate, by increasing the apoptosis rate and decreasing survivin expression, aside from acting in cell proliferation through inhibition of inflammatory pathways involving NF-kB e STAT-3 [77]. In association with docetaxel, resveratrol showed synergetic effect inducing apoptosis in cells with overexpression of HER-2 in breast cancer [78]. Furthermore, when resveratrol was associated with cisplatin it showed increase average surviving time among animals with breast cancer, due to reduction of cell proliferation [79].

Curcumin was able to increase the sensibility of tumors to different drugs such as doxorubicin, 5-FU, paclitaxel, vincristine, vinorelbine, melphalan, cisplatin, oxaliplatin, celecoxib, gemcitabine, etoposide, sulfinosine and thalidomide in both solid and haematological tumors [75]. When associated with cisplatin, curcumin reduced drug resistance by acting on the signaling pathways of NF-kB, STAT3, Akt, Notch and inhibiting DNA repair [80]. Similarly in association with carboplatin, curcumin displayed synergetic effect on cell invasion and migration, through inhibition of MMP2 and MMP9 activity [81]. This evidence suggests that the bioactive compounds can act as powerful agents against MDR by increasing chemotherapy efficiency [74].

# **Epigenetics**

Epigenetic alterations are structural modification in genomic regions that alter the gene expression without alterations in the DNA sequence [82]. These modifications can be involved in the carcinogenesis process in all stages [83]. The most common described epigenetic mechanisms are: DNA methylation histone modifications and variation on miRNA expression [84].

**DNA** methylation is extensively the most studied epigenetic modification [85] and refers to the covalent addition of a methyl group to the nucleotides in the cytosine located to guanine (dinucleotide these dinucleotides are often enriched in certain genomic regions known as "CpG islands" [84]. The main forms of aberrant methylation are global hypomethylation, responsible generating genomic instability, and site-specific hypermethylation, which is related to the silencing of tumor suppressor genes [86]. DNA methylation is mediated by a family of DNA methyltransferase enzymes (DNMTs). High levels of DNMT1 expression have been reported in cancer patients who are not responsive to cancer chemotherapy [39].

In addition, the modification of histones are involved with MDR and plays a key role in the regulation of chromatin structure [73] and are involving in chromatin condensation, DNA accessibility and transcriptional activity [86], the changes caused will depend from which residues are modified and the type of modifications present [85]. Histone modifications can be of different types including acetylation which is regulated by histone acetyl transferases (HATs) and histone deacetylases (HDACs) [87]. Abnormal expression of these enzymes can contribute to carcinogenesis [88].

Another important mechanism in chemosensibilization involve miRNAS, small non-codifying RNAs that are capable of regulating genetic expression through binding to the 3' region of the target messenger RNA, modulating its stability and/or transduction [89]. miRNAs can act either in oncogenes as well as in tumor suppressor's genes, depending on its target genes. They have been considered important circulating biomarkers due to it stability in the circulation and specificity in tissue expression [90].

Recent studies have indicated that this epigenetics mechanism can be used on the chemosensibilization of chemotherapy drugs [40,91]. Preclinical data with numerous cancer cell lines showed that the combination of HDAC inhibitors with a variety of chemotherapy drugs have synergetic or additive effect [92]. The HDAC inhibitors, especially SAHA and TSA, downregulated the expression of multidrug resistance protein 2 (MRP2) in KBV20C cells. In addition, this downregulation of MRP2 is associated with synergistic increase in paclitaxel-induced G2/M arrest and apoptosis [93]. When administered together, decitanine and vorinostat, is a potent inhibitor of HDAC activity [94], the synergetic effect results in increased apoptosis in colon carcinoma cells [95].

Drugs with epigenetic mechanisms can be effective in sensitizing tumor even before chemotherapy begins [60]. In an experiment in which patients with lung cancer were treated with azacitidine (demethylating agent) and entinostat (histone deacetylase inhibitor) [96], exhibiting better chemotherapy subsequent response [97].

Certain miRNAs, such as miR-520, miR-519c, miR-328, miR-181a and miR-487a were identified as being able to regulate expression of ABCG2, gene associated with chemoresistance, therefore sensitizing differents tumor cells to the chemotherapy treatment [98]. The high levels of miR-30c, that is a prognostic marker for breast cancer in humans, resulted in a significant decrease in survival of chemo-resistant MDA-MB-231 breast cancer cells to paclitaxel and doxorubicin at even low doses. Elevated miR-30c also sensitized the drug response of a second breast cancer cell line BT-20 to paclitaxel and doxorubici, and increased the apoptotic sub-G1 population of these cancer cells upon paclitaxel and doxorubicin treatments [99]. The association between gefitinib and miR-34a inhibited cellular growth and induced apoptosis and tumoral regression [100]. In vitro and In vivo breast cancer studies showed that the combination of 5-fluorouracilo with adenoviral vector, which express the tumor suppressor miR-145, exhibited anti-proliferative effect in comparison with treatment using 5-fluorouracilo alone.

There is a controversy in the literature regarding miRNA role improving chemotherapy drug efficiency [14]. Although there is evidence that support the improving efficiency and activity that miRNAs exerts on these drugs [98] there are also studies that show miRNAs can increase MDR [101-103]. Therefore more studies are needed in order to fully understand the miRNAs effects in MDR [104].

#### Conclusion

The chemotherapy is the main cancer treatment; unfortunately a long-term use causes MDR and decrease the effectivity of drugs. Several different approaches have been developed to sensitize tumors such as ABC transporters, synthetic and natural chemosensitizers, nanocarriers and epigenetic therapy. Although this mechanism seems to be a potential in overcoming MDR, the use of these approaches and the result of their possible interactions in the long term is not yet fully understood, therefore further studies aiming at understanding this dynamics are necessary.

#### References

- 1. Bray F, Jemal A, Grey N, Ferlay J, Forman D (2012) Global cancer transitions according to the Human Development Index (2008-2030): a population-based study. Lancet Oncol 13: 790-801.
- 2. Holohan C, Van Schaeybroeck S, Longley DB, Johnston PG (2013) Cancer drug resistance: an evolving paradigm. Nat Rev Cancer 13: 714-726.
- 3. Siegel RL, Miller KD, Jemal A (2016) Cancer statistics, 2016. CA Cancer J Clin 66: 7-30.
- Estanqueiro M, Amaral MH, Conceição J, Sousa Lobo JM (2015) Nanotechnological carriers for cancer chemotherapy: the state of the art. Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces 126: 631-48.
- 5. Bouwman P, Jonkers J (2012) the effects of deregulated DNA damage signalling on cancer chemotherapy response and resistance. Nat Rev Cancer 12: 587-598.
- 6. Diaby V, Tawk R, Sanogo V, Xiao H, Montero AJ (2015) A review of systematic reviews of the cost-effectiveness of hormone therapy, chemotherapy, and targeted therapy for breast cancer. Breast Cancer Res Treat 151: 27-40.
- 7. Vasir JK, Labhasetwar V (2005) Targeted drug delivery in cancer therapy. Technol Cancer Res Treat 4: 363-74.
- 8. Mauri D, Pavlidis N, Ioannidis JP (2005) Neoadjuvant versus adjuvant systemic treatment in breast cancer: a meta-analysis. J Natl Cancer Inst 97: 188-194.
- 9. Pérez-Herrero E, Fernández-Medarde a (2015) Advanced targeted therapies in cancer: Drug nanocarriers, the future of chemotherapy. Eur J Pharm Biopharm 93: 52-79.
- 10. Algoul S, Alam MS, Hossain MA, Majumder MA (2011) Multi-objective optimal chemotherapy control model for cancer treatment. Med Biol Eng Comput 49: 51-65.
- 11. Miller KD, Siegel RL, Lin CC, Mariotto AB, Kramer JL, et al. (2016) Cancer treatment and survivorship statistics. CA Cancer J Clin 66: 271-289.
- 12. Fujitani K, Yang HK, Mizusawa J, Kim YW, Terashima M, et al. (2016) Gastrectomy plus chemotherapy versus chemotherapy alone for advanced gastric cancer with a

- single non-curable factor (REGATTA): a phase 3, randomised controlled trial. Lancet Oncol 17: 309-318.
- 13. Tanaka H, Yamaguchi T, Hachiya K, Okada S, Kitahara M, et al. (2017) Radiotherapy for locally recurrent rectal cancer treated with surgery alone as the initial treatment. Radiat Oncol J 35: 71-77.
- Li H, Yang BB (2013) Friend or foe: the role of microRNA in chemotherapy resistance. Acta Pharmacol Sin 34: 870-879
- 15. Luqmani YA (2005) Mechanisms of drug resistance in cancer chemotherapy. Med Princ Pract 14: 35-48.
- 16. Yardley DA (2013) Drug resistance and the role of combination chemotherapy in improving patient outcomes. Int J Breast Cancer: 137414.
- 17. Brown R, Curry E, Magnani L, Wilhelm-Benartzi CS, Borley J (2014) Poised epigenetic states and acquired drug resistance in cancer. Nat Rev Cancer 14: 747-753.
- 18. Sun WL, Lan D, Gan TQ, Cai ZW (2015) Autophagy facilitates multidrug resistance development through inhibition of apoptosis in breast cancer cells. Neoplasma 62: 199-208.
- 19. Wu Q, Yang Z, Nie Y, Shi Y, Fan D (2014) Multi-drug resistance in cancer chemotherapeutics: mechanisms and lab approaches. Cancer Lett 347: 159-166.
- 20. Moffat JG, Rudolph J, Bailey D (2014) Phenotypic screening in cancer drug discovery past, present and future. Nat Rev Drug Discov 13: 588-602.
- 21. Dobbelstein M, Moll U (2014) Targeting tumoursupportive cellular machineries in anticancer drug development. Nat Rev Drug Discov 13: 179-196.
- 22. Thanki K1, Gangwal RP, Sangamwar AT, Jain S (2013) Oral delivery of anticancer drugs: challenges and opportunities. J Control Release 170: 15-40.
- 23. Bhattacharyya GS (2010) Oral systemic therapy: Not all "win-win". Indian J Med Paediatr Oncol 31: 1-3.
- 24. Verbrugghe M1, Verhaeghe S, Lauwaert K, Beeckman D, Van Hecke A (2013) Determinants and associated factors influencing medication adherence and persistence to oral anticancer drugs: a systematic review. Cancer Treat Rev 39: 610-621.
- 25. Biganzoli L, Lichtman S, Michel JP, Papamichael D, Quoix E, et al. (2015) Oral single-agent chemotherapy in older patients with solid tumours: A position paper from the International Society of Geriatric Oncology (SIOG). Eur J Cancer 51: 2491-500.
- 26. Segal EM, Flood MR, Mancini RS, Whiteman RT, Friedt GA, et al. (2014) Oral chemotherapy food and drug interactions: a comprehensive review of the literature. J Oncol Pract 10: e255-268.
- Parsad S, Ratain MJ (2017) Food Effect Studies for Oncology Drug Products. Clin Pharmacol Ther 101: 606-612
- 28. Saraswathy M, Gong S (2013) Different strategies to overcome multidrug resistance in cancer. Biotechnol Adv 31: 1397-407.
- Kunjachan S, Rychlik B, Storm G, Kiessling F, Lammers T (2013) Multidrug resistance: Physiological principles and nanomedical solutions. Adv Drug Deliv Rev 65: 13-14
- 30. Sivak L, Subr V, Tomala J, Rihova B, Strohalm J, et al. (2017) Overcoming multidrug resistance via simultaneous delivery of cytostatic drug and P-glycoprotein inhibitor to cancer cells by HPMA copolymer conjugate. Biomaterials

- 115: 65-80.
- 31. Li W, Zhang H, Assaraf YG, Zhao K, Xu X, et al. (2016) Overcoming ABC transporter-mediated multidrug resistance: Molecular mechanisms and novel therapeutic drug strategies. Drug Resist Updat 27: 14-29.
- 32. Shaffer BC, Gillet JP, Patel C, Baer MR, Bates SE, et al. (2012) Drug resistance: still a daunting challenge to the successful treatment of AML. Drug Resist Updat 15: 1-2.
- 33. Fraser M, Leung B, Jahani-Asl A, Yan X, Thompson WE, et al. (2003) Chemoresistance in human ovarian cancer: the role of apoptotic regulators. Reprod Biol Endocrinol 1: 66.
- 34. Lee JG, Shin JH, Shim HS, Lee CY, Kim DJ, et al. (2015) Autophagy contributes to the chemo-resistance of non-small cell lung cancer in hypoxic conditions. Respir Res 16: 138
- 35. Adamski J, Price A, Dive C, Makin G (2013) Hypoxia-induced cytotoxic drug resistance in osteosarcoma is independent of HIF-1Alpha. PLoS One 8: e65304.
- 36. Wang J, Yang M, Li Y, Han B (2015) the Role of MicroRNAs in the Chemoresistance of Breast Cancer. Drug Dev Res 76: 368-374.
- 37. Baguley BC (2010) Multiple drug resistance mechanisms in cancer. Mol Biotechnol 46: 308-316.
- 38. Alisi A1, Cho WC, Locatelli F, Fruci D (2013) Multidrug resistance and cancer stem cells in neuroblastoma and hepatoblastoma. Int J Mol Sci 14: 24706-24725.
- Vijayaraghavalu S1, Labhasetwar V (2013) Efficacy of decitabine-loaded nanogels in overcoming cancer drug resistance is mediated via sustained DNA methyltransferase 1 (DNMT1) depletion. Cancer Lett 331: 122-129.
- 40. Housman G, Byler S, Heerboth S, Lapinska K, Longacre M, et al. (2014) Drug resistance in cancer: an overview. Cancers (Basel) 6: 1769-1792.
- 41. Magee P, Shi L, Garofalo M (2015) Role of micro RNAs in chemoresistance. Ann Transl Med 3: 332.
- 42. Saad M, Garbuzenko OB, Minko T (2008) Co-delivery of siRNA and an anticancer drug for treatment of multidrugresistant cancer. Nanomedicine (Lond) 3: 761-776.
- 43. Minotti G, Menna P, Salvatorelli E, Cairo G, Gianni L (2004) Anthracyclines: molecular advances and pharmacologic developments in antitumor activity and cardiotoxicity. Pharmacol Rev 56: 185-229.
- 44. Choi CH (2005) ABC transporters as multidrug resistance mechanisms and the development of chemosensitizers for their reversal. Cancer Cell Int 5: 30.
- 45. Gerber DE, Schiller JH (2013) Maintenance chemotherapy for advanced non-small-cell lung cancer: new life for an old idea. J Clin Oncol 31: 1009-1020.
- 46. Kareva I, Waxman DJ, Lakka Klement G (2015) metronomic chemotherapy: an attractive alternative to maximum tolerated dose therapy that can activate antitumor immunity and minimize therapeutic resistance. Cancer Lett 358: 100-106.
- 47. Murugaesu N, Schmid P, Dancey G, Agarwal R, Holden L, et al. (2006) Malignant ovarian germ cell tumors: identification of novel prognostic markers and long-term outcome after multimodality treatment. J Clin Oncol 24: 4862-4866.
- 48. Fung C, Fossa SD, Milano MT, Sahasrabudhe DM, Peterson DR, et al. (2015) Cardiovascular Disease Mortality After Chemotherapy or Surgery for Testicular Nonseminoma: A Population-Based Study. J Clin Oncol 33: 3105-3115.
- 49. Strobbe L, Valke LL, Diets IJ, van den Brand M, Aben K,

- et al. (2016) A 20-year population-based study on the epidemiology, clinical features, treatment, and outcome of nodular lymphocyte predominant Hodgkin lymphoma. Ann Hematol 95: 417-4123.
- 50. Huang HH, Xiao F, Chen FY, Wang T, Li JM, et al. (2012) Reassessment of the prognostic value of the International Prognostic Index and the revised International Prognostic Index in patients with diffuse large B-cell lymphoma: A multicentre study. Exp Ther Med 4: 475-480.
- 51. Savage P, Stebbing J, Bower M, Crook T (2009) why does cytotoxic chemotherapy cure only some cancers? Nat Clin Pract Oncol 6: 43-52.
- 52. Bergers G, Hanahan D (2008) Modes of resistance to antiangiogenic therapy. Nat Rev Cancer 8: 592-603.
- 53. Bocci G, Loupakis F (2012) the possible role of chemotherapy in antiangiogenic drug resistance. Med Hypotheses 78: 646-648.
- 54. Gnoni A, Silvestris N, Licchetta A, Santini D, Scartozzi M, et al. (2015) Metronomic chemotherapy from rationale to clinical studies: a dream or reality? Crit Rev Oncol Hematol 95: 46-61.
- 55. Drevs J, Fakler J, Eisele S, Medinger M, Bing G, et al. (2004) Antiangiogenic potency of various chemotherapeutic drugs for metronomic chemotherapy. Anticancer Res 24: 1759-1763.
- 56. Moserle L, Amadori A, Indraccolo S (2009) the angiogenic switch: implications in the regulation of tumor dormancy. Curr Mol Med 9: 935-941.
- 57. Abdallah HM, Al-Abd AM, El-Dine RS, El-Halawany AM (2015) P-glycoprotein inhibitors of natural origin as potential tumor chemo-sensitizers: A review. J Adv Res 6: 45-62.
- 58. Bordoloi D, Roy NK, Monisha J, Padmavathi G, Kunnumakkara AB (2016) Multi-Targeted Agents in Cancer Cell Chemosensitization: What We Learnt from Curcumin Thus Far. Recent Pat Anticancer Drug Discov 11: 67-97.
- 59. Sak K (2012) Chemotherapy and dietary phytochemical agents. Chemother Res Pract 2012: 282570.
- 60. Strauss J, Figg WD (2015) Epigenetic approaches to overcoming chemotherapy resistance. Lancet Oncol 16: 1013-1015.
- 61. Gao Z, Zhang L, Sun Y (2012) Nanotechnology applied to overcome tumor drug resistance. J Control Release 162: 45-55.
- 62. Kommareddy S, Tiwari SB, Amiji MM (2005) Long-circulating polymeric nanovectors for tumor-selective gene delivery. Technol Cancer Res Treat 4: 615-625.
- 63. Peer D, Karp JM, Hong S, Farokhzad OC, Margalit R (2007) Nanocarriers as an emerging platform for cancer therapy. Nat Nanotechnol 2: 751-760.
- 64. Barenholz Y (2012) Doxil®--the first FDA-approved nano-drug: lessons learned. J Control Release 160: 117-134.
- 65. Bogart LK, Pourroy G, Murphy CJ, Puntes V, Pellegrino T, et al. (2014) Nanoparticles for imaging, sensing, and therapeutic intervention. ACS Nano 8: 3107-3122.
- 66. Iyer AK, Singh A, Ganta S, Amiji MM (2013) Role of integrated cancer nanomedicine in overcoming drug resistance. Adv Drug Deliv Rev 65: 13-14.
- 67. Bhirde AA, Chikkaveeraiah BV, Srivatsan A, Niu G, Jin AJ, et al. (2014) targeted therapeutic nanotubes influence the viscoelasticity of cancer cells to overcome drug resistance. ACS Nano 8: 4177-4189.
- 68. Mehra NK, Jain NK (2013) Development, characterization and cancer targeting potential of surface engineered carbon

- nanotubes. J Drug Target 21: 745-758.
- 69. Zhou F, Wu S, Wu B, Chen WR, Xing D (2011) Mitochondria-targeting single-walled carbon nanotubes for cancer photothermal therapy. Small 7: 2727-2735.
- 70. Zhou F, Wu S, Yuan Y, Chen WR, Xing D (2012) Mitochondria-targeting photoacoustic therapy using single-walled carbon nanotubes. Small 8: 1543-1550.
- 71. Ali-Boucetta H, Al-Jamal KT, McCarthy D, Prato M, Bianco A, et al. (2008) Multiwalled carbon nanotube-doxorubicin supramolecular complexes for cancer therapeutics. Chem Commun (Camb) 4: 459-461.
- 72. Firme CP 3rd, Bandaru PR (2010) Toxicity issues in the application of carbon nanotubes to biological systems. Nanomedicine 6: 245-256.
- 73. Liu M, Jiang L, Guan XY (2014) the genetic and epigenetic alterations in human hepatocellular carcinoma: a recent update. Protein Cell 5: 673-691.
- 74. Shukla S, Meeran SM, Katiyar SK (2014) Epigenetic regulation by selected dietary phytochemicals in cancer chemoprevention. Cancer Lett 355: 9-17.
- Shen M, Chan TH, Dou QP (2012) Targeting tumor ubiquitin-proteasome pathway with polyphenols for chemosensitization. Anticancer Agents Med Chem 12: 891-901
- 76. Vinod BS, Maliekal TT, Anto RJ (2013) Phytochemicals as chemosensitizers: from molecular mechanism to clinical significance. Antioxid Redox Signal 18: 1307-1348.
- 77. Gupta SC, Kannappan R, Reuter S, Kim JH, Aggarwal BB (2011) Chemosensitization of tumors by resveratrol. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1215: 150-160.
- 78. Vinod BS, Nair HH, Vijayakurup V, Shabna A, Shah S, et al. (2015) Resveratrol chemosensitizes HER-2-overexpressing breast cancer cells to docetaxel chemoresistance by inhibiting docetaxel-mediated activation of HER-2-Akt axis. Cell Death Discov 1: 15061.
- 79. Osman AM, Telity SA, Damanhouri ZA, Al-Harthy SE, Al-Kreathy HM, et al. (2015) Chemosensitizing and nephroprotective effect of resveratrol in cisplatin -treated animals. Cancer Cell Int 15: 6.
- 80. Kwon Y (2014) Curcumin as a cancer chemotherapy sensitizing agent. Journal of the Korean Society for Applied Biological Chemistry 57: 273-280.
- 81. Kang JH, Kang HS, Kim IK, Lee HY, Ha JH (2015) Curcumin sensitizes human lung cancer cells to apoptosis and metastasis synergistically combined with carboplatin. Exp Biol Med (Maywood) 240: 1416-1425.
- 82. Allis CD, Jenuwein T (2016) the molecular hallmarks of epigenetic control. Nat Rev Genet 17: 487-500.
- Verma M (2013) Cancer control and prevention: nutrition and epigenetics. Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care 16: 376-384.
- Anwar SL, Lehmann U (2014) DNA methylation, microRNAs, and their crosstalk as potential biomarkers in hepatocellular carcinoma. World J Gastroenterol 20: 7894-7913
- 85. Sharma S, Kelly TK, Jones PA (2010) Epigenetics in cancer. Carcinogenesis 31: 27-36.
- 86. Ferrín G, Aguilar-Melero P, Rodríguez-Perálvarez M, Montero-Álvarez JL, de la Mata M (2015) Biomarkers for hepatocellular carcinoma: diagnostic and therapeutic utility. Hepat Med 7: 1-10.
- 87. Ceccacci E, Minucci S (2016) Inhibition of histone deacetylases in cancer therapy: lessons from leukaemia. Br J Cancer 114: 605-611.
- 88. Ni X, Li L, Pan G (2015) HDAC inhibitor-induced drug resistance involving ATP-binding cassette transporters

- (Review). Oncol Lett 9: 515-5521.
- 89. Li H, Sun Q, Han B, Yu X, Hu B, et al. (2015) MiR-26b inhibits hepatocellular carcinoma cell proliferation, migration, and invasion by targeting EphA2. Int J Clin Exp Pathol 8: 4782-4790.
- 90. Hung CH, Hu TH, Lu SN, Kuo FY, Chen CH. et al. (2016) circulating microRNAs as biomarkers for diagnosis of early hepatocellular carcinoma associated with hepatitis B virus. Int J Cancer 138: 714-720.
- 91. Issa ME, Takhsha FS, Chirumamilla CS, Perez-Novo C, Vanden Berghe W, et al. (2017) Epigenetic strategies to reverse drug resistance in heterogeneous multiple myeloma. Clin Epigenetics 9: 17.
- 92. Namdar M, Perez G, Ngo L, Marks PA (2010) Selective inhibition of histone deacetylase 6 (HDAC6) induces DNA damage and sensitizes transformed cells to anticancer agents. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 107: 46.
- 93. Kim H, Kim SN, Park YS, Kim NH, Han JW, et al. (2011) HDAC inhibitors down regulate MRP2 expression in multidrug resistant cancer cells: implication for chemosensitization. Int J Oncol 38: 807-812.
- 94. Richon VM (2006) Cancer biology: mechanism of antitumour action of vorinostat (suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid), a novel histone deacetylase inhibitor. British Journal of Cancer 95: S2-S6.
- 95. Yang D, Torres CM, Bardhan K, Zimmerman M, McGaha TL, et al. (2012) Decitabine and vorinostat cooperate to sensitize colon carcinoma cells to Fas ligand-induced apoptosis in vitro and tumor suppression in vivo. J Immunol 188: 4441-4449.
- 96. Vendetti FP, Topper M, Huang P, Dobromilskaya I, Easwaran H, et al. (2015) Evaluation of azacitidine and entinostat as sensitization agents to cytotoxic chemotherapy in preclinical models of non-small cell lung cancer. Oncotarget 6: 56-70.
- 97. Juergens RA, Wrangle J, Vendetti FP, Murphy SC, Zhao M, et al. (2011) Combination epigenetic therapy has efficacy in patients with refractory advanced non-small cell lung cancer. Cancer Discov 1: 598-607.
- 98. To KK (2013) MicroRNA: a prognostic biomarker and a possible druggable target for circumventing multidrug resistance in cancer chemotherapy. J Biomed Sci 20: 99.
- 99. Bockhorn J, Dalton R, Nwachukwu C, Huang S, Prat A, Yee K. et al. (2013) MicroRNA-30c inhibits human breast tumour chemotherapy resistance by regulating TWF1 and IL-11. Nat Commun 4: 1393.
- 100.Zhou JY, Chen X, Zhao J, Bao Z, Chen X, et al. (2014) MicroRNA-34a overcomes HGF-mediated gefitinib resistance in EGFR mutant lung cancer cells partly by targeting MET. Cancer Lett 351: 265-271.
- 101. Wang T, Shigdar S, Gantier MP, Hou Y, Wang L, et al. (2015) Cancer stem cell targeted therapy: progress amid controversies. Oncotarget 6: 42.
- 102.Shang Y, Zhang Z, Liu Z, Feng B, Ren G, et al. (2014) miR-508-5p regulates multidrug resistance of gastric cancer by targeting ABCB1 and ZNRD1. Oncogene 33: 3267-3276.
- 103.Dong Z, Ren L, Lin L, Li J, Huang Y, et al. (2015) Effect of microRNA-21 on multidrug resistance reversal in A549/DDP human lung cancer cells. Mol Med Rep 11: 682-690
- 104.Riquelme I, Letelier P, Riffo-Campos AL, Brebi P, Roa JC, et al. (2016) Emerging Role of miRNAs in the Drug Resistance of Gastric Cancer. Int J Mol Sci 17: 424.
- 105.DeSantis CE, Lin CC, Mariotto AB, Siegel RL, Stein KD, et al. (2014) Cancer treatment and survivorship statistics,

- 2014. CA Cancer J Clin 64: 252-271.
- 106.Desoize B, Jardillier J (2000) Multicellular resistance: a paradigm for clinical resistance? Crit Rev Oncol Hematol 36: 193-207.
- 107.Ferlay J, Soerjomataram I, Dikshit R, Eser S, Mathers C, et al. (2012) Cancer incidence and mortality worldwide: sources, methods and major patterns in GLOBOCAN 2012. Int J Cancer 136: E359-386.
- 108.Harris AL, Hochhauser D (1992) Mechanisms of
- multidrug resistance in cancer treatment. Acta Oncol 31: 205-213.
- 109.Mattheolabakis G, Rigas B, Constantinides PP (2012) Nanodelivery strategies in cancer chemotherapy: biological rationale and pharmaceutical perspectives. Nanomedicine (Lond) 7: 1577-1590.
- 110.Szakács G, Paterson JK, Ludwig JA, Booth-Genthe C, Gottesman MM (2006) Targeting multidrug resistance in cancer. Nat Rev Drug Discov 5: 219-234.

**Copyright:** © 2018 Miranda MLP, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited