Veterinary Antiparasitic to Human Anticancer

Subjects: Oncology Contributor: Jeongik Lee, Tania Sultana, Umair Jan

Cancer is an extensive disease and the most common cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide. It is characterized by a deregulation of the cell cycle, which primarily results in a progressive loss of control of cellular growth and differentiation. The repurposing of veterinary antiparasitic drugs for the treatment of cancer is gaining traction, as supported by existing literature. A prominent example is the proposal to implement the use of veterinary antiparasitics such as benzimidazole carbamates and halogenated salicylanilides as novel anticancer drugs. These agents have revealed pronounced antitumor activities and gained special attention for "double repositioning", as they are repurposed for different species and diseases simultaneously, acting via different mechanisms depending on their target. As anticancer agents, these compounds employ several mechanisms, including the inhibition of oncogenic signal transduction pathways of mitochondrial respiration and the inhibition of cellular stress responses.

Keywords: drug repurposing ; antiparasitic ; benzimidazole carbamates ; halogenated salicylanilides ; cancer therapy

1. Introduction

Cancer is an extensive disease and the most common cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide. It is characterized by a deregulation of the cell cycle, which primarily results in a progressive loss of control of cellular growth and differentiation ^[1]. Although there are numerous ongoing studies on anticancer therapy, with many lead candidates at various phases of preclinical or clinical research, only 5% of potential anticancer therapies entering phase I clinical trials have been approved and have entered the market ^[2]. The standard cancer treatments include surgery, immunotherapy, radiation, and chemotherapy. Currently, chemotherapy is one of the most efficient and potent strategies used to treat malignant tumors. However, the development of multidrug resistance to chemotherapeutics has become a huge impediment to successful cancer treatment. Clearly, new therapeutic alternatives are required to improve cancer diagnosis and treatment. Prior to being marketed as a new drug, the lead compounds face many hurdles during preclinical and clinical studies to ensure their quality, safety, dosage, and efficacy. Clinical trials are costly and time-consuming, requiring ten to fifteen years of dedicated research. The entire development process of getting a single candidate compound onto the market is hindered by the exorbitant costs (approximately \$1-\$2.5 billion) associated with the necessary trials required for U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approval ^[3].

Drug repurposing has gained recognition in the last decade, enabling existing pharmaceutical products to be reconsidered for alternative applications. It has reduced the risk of a drug failing to reach the market, owing to the low burden of adverse effects, the attenuation of the economic load, and the expedition of the approval process ^[4]. It can also offer an improved risk versus reward trade-off as it shortens the timeline of the drug development process and is also economically feasible when compared to other drug development strategies ^[5]. Additionally, the preclinical results obtained from the use of repurposed drugs may expedite the process of the preclinical to clinical translation of cancer treatment ^[6].

2. BZ Carbamates

BZ antiparasitics are a group of heterocyclic aromatic organic compounds that are extensively used in both human and veterinary medicines to inhibit internal parasites. Some important BZ drugs include MZ, albendazole (ABZ), fenbendazole (FZ), flubendazole (FLU), triclabendazole, parbendazole, oxibendazole, and ricobendazole. In the last few years, some of these have been successfully investigated for various types of cancers worldwide.

2.1. Mechanism of Action of BZ Carbamates

The molecular mode of action of BZ carbamates involves inhibiting the polymerization of tubulin and facilitating the disruption of microtubules in parasite cells (**Figure 1**) ^[Z]. An in vitro study using the extracts of helminthic and mammalian tubulin has implicated tubulin as the leading molecular target of BZ carbamates ^[8]. Tubulin is pivotal to cell motility,

proliferation, and division; the intercellular transport of organelles; the maintenance of cell shape; and the secretion process of cells in all living organisms ^[9]. By blocking microtubule elongation in worms, BZ carbamates perturb glucose uptake in cells. Eventually, the glycogen reserves are exhausted, and their energy management mechanisms are depleted, culminating in the death of the parasites ^[10].

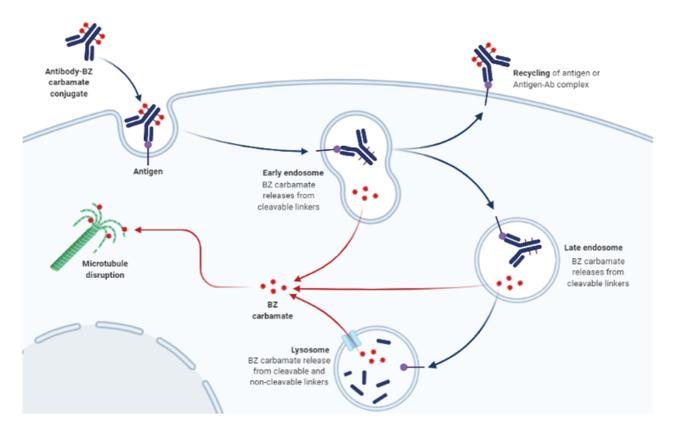


Figure 1. Mechanism of action of benzimidazole (BZ) carbamates targeting tubulin. Tubulin is the leading molecular target of BZ carbamates. They selectively bind to parasitic β -tubulin, promoting their immobilization and death. dapted from "Antibody-Drug Conjugate Drug Release", by BioRender.com (2022). Retrieved from <u>https://app.biorender.com/biorender-templates</u>, accessed on 10 March 2022.

2.2. Anticancer Activity of BZ Carbamates

BZ carbamates are cancer cell-selective, causing minimal cytotoxicity in normal cells but increased cytotoxicity in different tumor cells. Several studies have reported that BZ carbamates inhibit the polymerization of mammalian tubulin in vitro. Whether the same effect would be observed in human cells, and if so, whether such targeted efforts could be effective against tumors, are some questions raised by these reports. Lacey et al. first addressed the activity of BZ carbamates against mouse leukemia cells L1210 in 1985 ^[11]. A more thorough inquiry into the antitumor effects of BZ carbamates was carried out; the most promising outcomes of this inquiry are summarized in **Table 1**. The general pharmacokinetic properties of BZ carbamates are as follows: slow absorption; wide distribution throughout the body; extensive hepatic metabolism; and excretion via urine and feces (**Figure 2**a). Their common side effects are fever, nausea, vomiting, abdominal discomfort, and hepatotoxicity. The low intestinal absorption rate of BZ carbamates may make it difficult for them to reach concentrations in the systemic circulation effective in treating cancers in humans. Increased bioavailability is necessary to enhance their antitumor effect, making them safe and well tolerable in human and veterinary use.

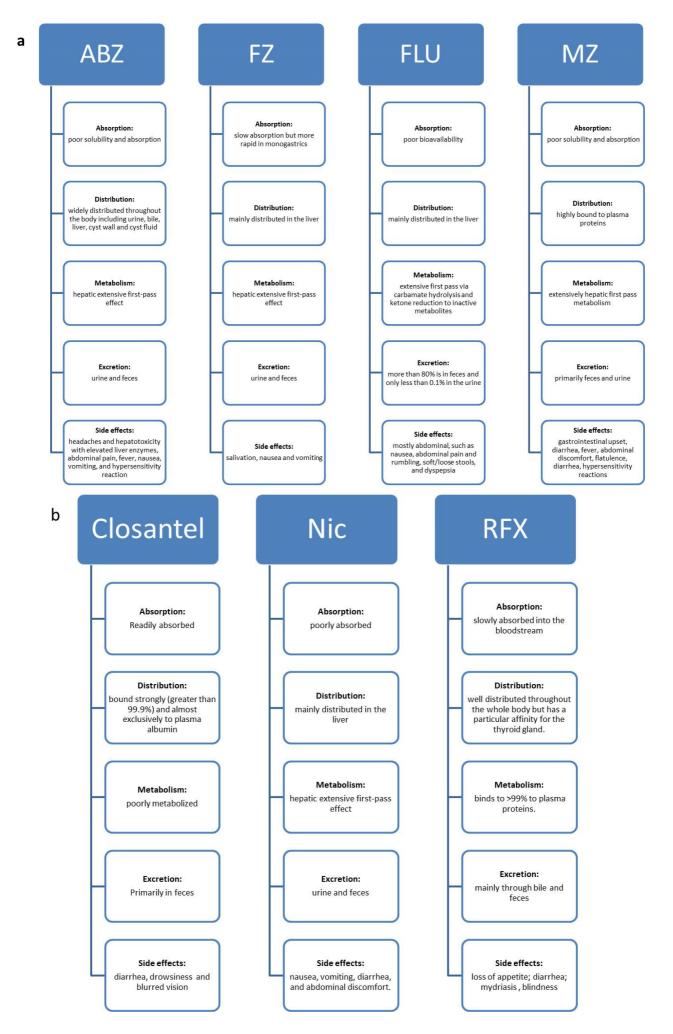


Figure 2. Pharmacokinetic properties and side effects of veterinary antiparasitic drugs. (a) The BZ carbamate drugs are poorly absorbed; have a wide distribution in the body; show extensive hepatic metabolism; and are excreted via feces and

urine. (b) The halogenated salicylanilides (HS) antiparasitic drugs show poor absorption, distribution throughout the body, are poorly metabolized and are excreted in bile, feces, or urine.

Cell Source	Cell Lines	Procedure of Study	Species	Antiparasitics	Cancer Type	Target Pathway	Reference
Human	Hep G2 and Hep3B	in vitro	Mice	ABZ	HCC	Cytotoxicity	[<u>12]</u>
Human	Hep G2 and Hep3B, PLC/PRF/5 and SKHEP-1	in vitro					
	SKHEP-1	in vivo	Mice	ABZ	HCC	Tubulin disruption	[13]
Rat	HTC, Novikoff	in vitro					
Mice	Hep1-6	in vitro					
	SW480, SW620,			ABZ,			
Human	HCT8 and Caco2	in vitro	Mice	RBZ,	Intestinal cancer	Tubulin disruption	[<u>14]</u>
				FLU			
Human	HT-29	in vitro	Mice	ABZ	CRC	Apoptosis	[15]
Human	CEM/dEpoB300	in vitro	Mice	ABZ	Leukemia	Apoptosis	[16]
Human	1A9Pc TX22	in vitro	Mice	ABZ	OC	Apoptosis	[17]
		in vitro			Mammary		[18]
Mouse	EMT6	in vivo	Mice	FZ	carcinoma	Cytotoxicity	[10]
Human	H460 and A549	in vitro in vivo	nu/nu mice	FZ	LC	microtubule disruption, p53 activation and down regulation of pivotal glycolytic enzymes	[19]
Human	P493-6	in vitro in vivo	SCID mice	FZ	Lymphoma	Tubulin disruption	[20]

Table 1. Anticancer activity of BZ carbamates.

Cell Source	Cell Lines	Procedure of Study	Species	Antiparasitics	Cancer Type	Target Pathway	Reference
Mice	EMT6	in vitro in vivo	BALB/c Rw mice	FZ	Mammary carcinoma	Tubulin disruption	[21]
Human	OCI-AML-2	in vitro in vivo	SCID mice	FLU	Leukaemia and Myeloma	Tubulin disruption	[22]
Human	MDA-MB-231, BT-549, SK-BR-3 and MCF-7	in vitro in vivo	Mice	FLU	BC	Tubulin disruption	[23]
Human	TNBC cell lines MDA-MB-231 and MDA-MB- 468	in vitro in vivo	Mice	FLU	ВС	Apoptosis	[24]
Human	BT474, SK-BR-3, MDA-MB-453, JIMT-1	in vitro in vivo	BALB/c mice	FLU	BC	Tubulin disruption Apoptosis	<u>[25]</u>
Human	HCT116, RKO and SW480	in vitro in vivo	BALB/c mice	FLU	CRC	Apoptosis	[<u>26</u>]
Human	H295R and SW- 13	in vitro	Mice	MZ	Adrenocortical carcinoma	Apoptosis	[27]
Human	H460, A549, H1299 and WI- 38	in vitro in vivo	Mice	MZ	LC	Tubulin disruption, Apoptosis	[<u>28]</u>
Human	HCT 116 and RKO	in silico	-	MZ	сс	Tubulin disruption	[<u>29]</u>
Human	DLD-1, HCT-116, HT-29 and SW480	in vitro	Mice	MZ	сс	Tubulin disruption	[30]
Human	ACP-02, ACP-03 and AGP-01	in vitro in vivo	Mice	MZ	GC	Tubulin disruption	<u>[31]</u>

Cell Source	Cell Lines	Procedure of Study	Species	Antiparasitics	Cancer Type	Target Pathway	Reference
Mouse	GL261	in vitro	C57BL6 Mice	MZ	Brain tumour	Tubulin disruption	[<u>32]</u>
		in vivo				Apoptosis	
Human	GBM U87-MG, D54, H80, H247, H392, H397, H502 and H566	in vitro in vivo	C57BL/6 mice	MZ	Brain cancer	Apoptosis	[<u>33]</u>
Mouse	GL261						
Human	D425 MB	in vivo	p53 mice	MZ	Medullo- blastoma	Tubulin disruption	[34]
Human	293T and hTERT-RPE1	in vitro in vivo	<i>nu/nu</i> athymic mice	MZ	Medullo- blastoma	Hedgehog inhibitor	[35]
Murine	CP2 and SP1	in vitro in vivo	BALB/c mice	MZ	PC	Tubulin disruption	[<u>36]</u>
Human	KKU-M213	in vitro in vivo	Nude mice	MZ	Bile duct Cancer	Apoptosis	[<u>37]</u>
Human	PANC-1	in vitro	Mice	MZ	Pancreatic cancer	-	[38]
Human	CAL27 and HCC15	in vitro in vivo	Nude mice	MZ	Head and neck cancer	Apoptosis	[39]
Human	SK-Br-3	in vivo	Mice	MZ	BC	Tubulin disruption	[<u>40]</u>
Human	M-14 and SK- Mel-19	in vitro	Mice	MZ	Melanoma	Tubulin disruption	[41]
Human	MM622, MM540, D08, MM329, D17, and UACC1097	in vitro in vivo	Mice	MZ	Melanoma	Tubulin disruption	[42]

Cell Source	Cell Lines	Procedure of Study	Species	Antiparasitics	Cancer Type	Target Pathway	Reference
Human	NRAS ^{Q61K}	in vitro in vivo in silico	Athymic mice	MZ	Melanoma	Apoptosis	[<u>43]</u>
Human	GL261	in vitro in vivo	C57BL/6 mice	MZ	Brain cancer	Tubulin disruption	[44]
Human	Burkitt's lymphoma Ramos cells, Hela cells, PANC-1 cells, and HepG2 cells	in vivo	Zebra-fish	Closantel	Lymphoma, cervical cancer, PC, and LC	Suppression of antiangiogenesis and Closantel	[<u>45]</u>
Human	Du146	in vitro	Mice	Nic	PC	Inhibition of STAT3 Pathway	[46]
Human	HEK293 cells	in vitro	Mice	Nic	PC and BC	Inhibition of Wnt/ β-catenin Pathway	[<u>47]</u>
Human	MCF7 and MDA- MB-231	in vitro in vivo	NOD/SCID mice	Nic	BC	Apoptosis and downregulation stem pathways	[48]
Human	MDA-MB-231	in vitro in vivo	BALB/c nude mice	Nic and cisplatin	BC	Apoptosis and inhibition of Akt, ERK, and Src pathways	[49]
Human	MDA-MB-468 and MCF-7	in vitro	Mice	Nic	BC	Inhibition of cell motility and STAT3 activity	[50]
Human	TNBC MDA-MB- 231, MDA-MB- 468 and Hs578T	in vitro in vivo	Athymic nude mice	Nic	BC	Inhibition of Wnt/ β-catenin Pathway	[51]

Cell Source	Cell Lines	Procedure of Study	Species	Antiparasitics	Cancer Type	Target Pathway	Reference
Mouse	4T1	in vitro in vivo	BALB/c mice	Nic	BC	Apoptosis and suppression of cell migration	[52]
Human	MDA-MB-231, MDA-MB-468 and MCF-7	in vitro	nnce			and invasion	
Human	2LMP, SUM159, HCC1187, and HCC1143	in vitro in vivo	NOD/ SCID mice	Nic	BC	Cytotoxicity	[53]
Human	K562 and KBM5- T315I cells	in vitro in vivo	NOD mice	Nic	Chronic myelogenous leukemia	Inhibition of FOXM1/β- catenin Pathway	[54]
Human	HL-60, U937, OCI-AML3, Molm13, MV4- 11, and U266 cells	in vitro in vivo	BALB/c mice	Nic	Acute myelogenous leukemia	Apoptosis and Inhibition of NF- κΒ pathway	[<u>55]</u>
	MCF7 HCC1954	in vitro			Adeno- carcinoma Carcinoma		
Human	BT-474 MDA-MB-361 and	in vivo	Mice	Nic	Ductal Carcinoma Adeno- carcinoma	Inhibition of PI3K-dependent signalling	(<u>56</u>)
	SKBR3 cell	in silico			Adeno- carcinoma		
Human	HCT116, SW620, and HT29	in vivo	Mice	Nic	сс	Inhibition of STAT3 phosphorylation	[57]
Human	HCT116, SW480, DLD1 and 293 cells	in vitro in vivo	APC-MIN mice	Nic	сс	Inhibition of Wnt/Snail- mediated EMT	<u>[58]</u>

Cell Source	Cell Lines	Procedure of Study	Species	Antiparasitics	Cancer Type	Target Pathway	Reference
Human	HCT116, SW620, LS174T, SW480, and DLD-1	in vitro in vivo in situ	NOD/SCID mice	Nic	СС	Inhibition of S100A4-induced metastasis formation	<u>[59]</u>
Human	HT29, HCT116, CaCO2 and MCF-10A	in vitro in vivo	NOD/SCID mice	Nic	сс	Inhibition of Wnt/ β-catenin Pathway	[60]
Human	HEK293T, U2OS, WIDR, DLD-1, CRC 240, COLO205, CRC57 and HCT116	in vitro	Mice	Nic	СС	Induction of autophagy and inhibition of Wnt/ β-catenin Pathway	[<u>61]</u>
Human	SW480 and SW620	in vitro	Mice	Nic	сс	Reduction of Wnt activity	[<u>62]</u>
Rodent	CC531	in vivo					
Murine	MC38	in vitro in vivo					
Human	HCT116	in vitro	APC ^{min/+} mouse	Nic-EN and oxyclozanide	СС	Mitochondrial uncoupling	[63]
Rodent	C2C12	in vitro in vivo					
Human	SKOV3 and CP70	in vitro in vivo	SCID mice	Nic	OC	Induction of metabolic shift to glycolysis	[<u>64]</u>
Human	OVCAR-3, SKOV-3 and A2780	in vitro in vivo	NOD/ SCID mice	Nic	OC	Inhibition of CP70sps and primary OTICs	[<u>65]</u>
Human	SKOV3.ip1	in vitro in vivo	Mice	Nic	OC	Inhibition of Wnt/ β-catenin Pathway	[66]

Cell Source	Cell Lines	Procedure of Study	Species	Antiparasitics	Cancer Type	Target Pathway	Reference
Human	SKOV3 and HO8910	in vitro in vivo	Athymic Nude mice	Nic	OC	Mitochondrial Respiration and aerobic glycolysis	[<u>67]</u>
Human	A2780ip2, A2780cp20, and SKOV3Trip2	in vitro in vivo	SCID mice	Nic	OC	Inhibition of Wnt/ β-catenin, mTOR and STAT3 pathways	<u>[68]</u>
Human	Tumorspheres	in vitro in vivo	Mice	Nic and its analogs in combination with carboplatin	OC	Cytotoxicity	<u>[69]</u>
Human	HepG2 and QGY7701	in vitro	Mice	Nic	НСС	Apoptosis and suppression of ATF3 expression	[70]
Human	NSCLC, NCI- H1299 and HCT116	in vitro	Mice	Nic	LC	Apoptosis through ROS- mediated p38 MAPK-c-Jun activation	[71]
Human	SK-Hep-1 and Huh7	in vitro	Mice	Nic	HCC	Inhibition of metastasis of HCC, and CD10	[72]
Human	HCC827, H1650, and H1975	in vitro in vivo	Nu/Nu nude mice	Nic	LC	Inhibition of STAT3 phosphorylation	[73]
Human	A549/DDP	in vitro	Mice	Nic combined with cisplatin (DDP)	Cisplatin- resistant LC	Apoptosis and reduction of c- myc protein	[<u>74</u>]
Human	HepG2, QGY- 7703 and SMMC-7721	in vitro	Mice	Nic	НСС	Inhibition of cell growth and STAT3 pathway	[75]

Cell Source	Cell Lines	Procedure of Study	Species	Antiparasitics	Cancer Type	Target Pathway	Reference
Human	Lung adenocarcinoma (549, EKVX, H358, Hop62, H322M, H522, H838, and H23), large cell lung carcinoma (H460, Hop92), NCSLC (H1299, H810) and small cell LC (H82)	in vitro	Mice	Nic	LC	Reduction in proliferation and inhibition of S100A4 protein	[<u>76]</u>
Human	U-87 MG	in vitro	Mice	Nic	Glioblastoma	Cell toxicity and inhibition of Wnt/ β-catenin, PI3K/AKT, MAPK/ERK, and STAT3	[77]
Human	TS15-88, GSC11	in vitro in vivo	Athymic nude mice	Nic and/or temo- zolomide	Glioblastoma	Inhibition of the expression of epithelial- mesenchymal transition-related markers, Zeb1, N-cadherin, and β-catenin	(<u>78</u>)
Human	LN229, T98G, U87(MG), U138, and U373(MG)	in vitro in vivo	Rag2 ^{-/} -II2rg ^{-/-} and SCID/ Beige mice	Nic	Glioblastoma	Cytotoxicity and diminished the pGBMs' malignant potential	[<u>79]</u>
Human	C4-2B, LNCaP and DU145	in vitro	Mice	Nic with enzalutamide	Enzalutamide resistance PC	Inhibition of migration, invasion and IL6-Stat3-AR pathway	[80]
Human	LNCaP, VcaP, CWR22Rv1, PC3 and HEK293	in vitro in vivo	SCID mice	Nic with enzalutamide	Castration- resistant PC	Inhibition of AR variant and enzalutamide- resistant tumor growth	[<u>81]</u>

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Salicylanilides are a very large group of compounds that show efficient activity against certain types of parasites. Their basic chemical structure consists of a salicylic acid ring and an anilide ring. Examples of HS drugs with potent Retrieved from https://encyclopedia.pub/entry/history/show/54232 antihemininic activity are Nic, ratoxanide (RFX), and closanter.

3.1. Mechanism of Action of HS

The primary mechanism of action of HS was investigated in vitro using houseflies and rat liver mitochondria. The authors found an association with the uncoupling of oxidative phosphorylation that halts the production of ATP. This seems to happen through the suppression of the activity of two enzymes, succinate dehydrogenase and fumarate reductase, and thus impairs the motility of parasites and eventually causes death ^[98]. Several researchers have subsequently confirmed the proposed mechanism in vivo ^{[45][99]}.

3.2. Anticancer Activity of HS

Several HS group drugs have been investigated for their effect on cancer in experimental and preclinical models. The pharmacokinetic properties and common side effects of HS drugs are shown in **Figure 2**b.

3.3. Anticancer Activity of HS in Clinical Models

Nic underwent clinical trials in patients with resectable colon cancer in 2017, but was terminated because of the low enrolment rate (NCT02687009). Two other clinical studies are currently underway to test the anticancer effects of Nic in patients with FAP (NCT04296851) and progression of metastases of colorectal cancer after therapy (NCT02519582). Although a phase I trial of Nic administered together with enzalutamide in patients with castration-resistant prostate cancer has concluded, anticipating the commencement of a phase 2 trial (NCT02532114), another phase I clinical trial is investigating the potent dose and side effects of Nic in combination with enzalutamide to treat castration-resistant prostate cancer patients (NCT03123978). A phase II clinical trial is also ongoing to evaluate the efficacy of abiraterone acetate, Nic, and prednisone in treating patients with hormone-resistant prostate cancer (NCT02807805).