

Published in final edited form as:

*J Genet Syndr Gene Ther.* 2012 October 22; 2012(3): . doi:10.4172/2157-7412.1000e114.

## Frontiers in Suicide Gene Therapy of Cancer

**Marek Malecki, MD PhD\***

Phoenix Biomolecular Engineering Foundation, San Francisco, CA, USA and University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI, USA

### Abstract

The National Cancer Institute (NCI) and the American Cancer Society (ACS) predict that 1,638,910 men and women will be diagnosed with cancer in the USA in 2012. Nearly 577,190 patients will die of cancer of all sites this year. Patients undergoing current systemic therapies will suffer multiple side effects from nausea to infertility. Potential parents, when diagnosed with cancer, will have to deposit oocytes or sperm prior to starting systemic radiation or chemo-therapy for the future genetic testing and in vitro fertilization, while trying to avoid risks of iatrogenic mutations in their germ cells. Otherwise, children of parents treated with systemic therapies, will be at high risk of developing genetic disorders. According to these predictions, this year will carry another, very poor therapeutic record again.

The ultimate goal of cancer therapy is the complete elimination of all cancer cells, while leaving all healthy cells unharmed. One of the most promising therapeutic strategies in this regard is cancer suicide gene therapy (CSGT), which is rapidly progressing into new frontiers.

The therapeutic success, in CSGT, is primarily contingent upon precision in delivery of the therapeutic transgenes to the cancer cells only. This is addressed by discovering and targeting unique or / and over-expressed biomarkers displayed on the cancer cells and cancer stem cells. Specificity of cancer therapeutic effects is further enhanced by designing the DNA constructs, which put the therapeutic genes under the control of the cancer cell specific promoters. The delivery of the suicidal genes to the cancer cells involves viral, as well as synthetic vectors, which are guided by cancer specific antibodies and ligands. The delivery options also include engineered stem cells with tropisms towards cancers. Main mechanisms inducing cancer cells' deaths include: transgenic expression of thymidine kinases, cytosine deaminases, intracellular antibodies, telomeraseses, caspases, DNases. Precautions are undertaken to eliminate the risks associated with transgenesis.

Progress in genomics and proteomics should help us in identifying the cancer specific biomarkers and metabolic pathways for developing new strategies towards clinical trials of targeted and personalized gene therapy of cancer.

### Keywords

cancer suicide gene therapy; targeted therapy; personalized therapy; apoptosis; necrosis; brain cancer; ovarian cancer; pancreatic cancer; lung cancer; colon cancer; prostate cancer; breast cancer; testicular cancer; variable fragment antibodies; thymidine kinase; cytosine deaminase; intracellular antibodies; telomeraseses; caspases; DNases; viral vectors; stem cells

---

\*Corresponding Author: Marek Malecki MD PhD; Tel: 4157134370; mm@pbmef.org..

**Conflict of Interest** The author declares no conflict of interest.

## Introduction

The NCI and the ACS predict that 1,638,910 men and women will be diagnosed with cancers of all sites in the USA in 2012 [1–2]. Nearly 577,190 patients will die of cancer this year. Patients undergoing current systemic therapies will suffer multiple side effects from nausea to infertility. Some cancers have particularly rapid pace of progression in the most vital organs, which results in the high rate of mortality, e.g., brain neoplasms. In other cancers, asymptomatic progression occurs to the advanced stages, which results in the high mortality e.g., ovarian or pancreatic cancers. Although deadly, but not immediately life threatening, other cancers impair dramatically the quality of various aspects of the patients' lives, e.g., colon, prostate, or breast cancers. Cancers, which disseminate by metastases into multiple vital organs and remain hidden within them, are beyond the capabilities of the local therapy and are extremely difficult to cure even with systemic therapies; thus are responsible for nearly 90% of cancer related deaths [1–2].

The serious problem for cancer therapy is the fact that patients undergoing current systemic therapies will suffer multiple side effects. Some of these side effects (e.g., nausea or vomiting) will cause the need for reduction of the dose of chemotherapeutics or radiation below the most effective levels, or withdrawal from a particular treatment altogether.

One of iatrogenic effects of systemic therapies may be patients' infertility. This prompts taking preventive measures. Potential parents, if diagnosed with cancer, may deposit oocytes or sperm prior to starting systemic radiation or chemo-therapies for the future genetic testing and in vitro fertilization [3]. Otherwise, children of parents, treated with systemic therapies, are at high risk of developing genetic disorders [4].

The ultimate goal of cancer therapy is the complete elimination of all cancer cells. Ideally, such a therapy would be leaving all healthy cells unharmed and would have no iatrogenic effects. Although not risks-free [5–6], one of the most promising therapeutic strategies in this regard is cancer suicide gene therapy (CSGT), which is rapidly progressing into new frontiers.

## Cancers Treated with Cell Suicide Inducing Genes

Selective elimination of cancer cells is particularly critical in cases in which they are intermingled with the healthy cells. Therefore, the surgical resection unavoidably removes the functional, healthy cells together with the cancerous ones; thus impairs the patients' abilities to function normally. Radiation therapy affects all the exposed cells. While this therapy relies on the higher sensitivity of rapidly proliferating cells to the ionizing radiation, some of the healthy cells, including reproductive, immune, and hormonal systems' cells are most sensitive. Moreover, cancer initiating stem cells are shown to be resistant to radiation.

Chemotherapeutics penetrate into and affect all the cells. Most of them are relying upon the higher intake rate into rapidly proliferating cells and blocking mitosis, which lead to activating apoptotic cascades. Nevertheless, populations of the healthy cells, including those involved in regeneration and immunity, are also seriously affected. Moreover, side populations of ABCG2 expressing cancer stem cells are capable of expulsion of therapeutics, thereby developing resistance.

Efficacy of immunotherapy relies upon high specificity and sensitivity of the used antibodies, which attract the patient's immune response to the cells pointed with these antibodies. Any lack of specificity, or worse - cross reactivity with molecules on the surfaces of the healthy cells, directs killing power of immune systems towards the healthy cells. This misdirected immunological response may result in serious side effects, which the

patients will endure, worse than, if they would not be treated at all. All these cases qualify for suicide gene therapy trials, while the clinical diagnoses determine the choice of strategy.

**Glioblastoma multiforme** (GBM) is the most often and the most deadly brain cancer [7–13]. It is incurable. Nearly 13,700 patients, out of almost 22,910 newly diagnosed, will die this year in the USA [1–2]. The average survival time of patients with GBM, from the time of diagnosis to death, is approximately 14.6 months for the patients in the USA. However, even during those months, neurosurgical resection, followed by radiation and chemotherapy with Temozolomide, leads to serious impairment of the quality of life. This prompts attempts of delivery of suicidal genes into gliomas. It is often accomplished by targeted delivery by viral and non-viral vectors targeting over-expressed (e.g., EGFR) or uniquely mutated (e.g., EGFRvIII) receptors [14–31]. A spectrum of the targeted biomarkers is expanded with those being displayed on cancer initiating cells including CD133 and its variants [11–12]. Moreover, genetically engineered stem cells, with tropism toward the tumors, are used as the carriers delivering the suicidal genes [29–31].

**Ovarian cancer** is the most deadly neoplasm of the female reproductive system. Almost 15,500 women will die, out of nearly 22,280 newly diagnosed, this year in the USA [1–2]. Asymptomatic progression to the advanced stages, leads to the very high mortality rate, while more than 63% of women are diagnosed only at these advanced stages. Lifetime risk estimates for ovarian cancer among women in the general population indicate that 1.4 % (14 out of 1,000) will be diagnosed with ovarian cancer compared to up to 40 % of women (400 out of 1,000), who have harmful BRCA1 or BRCA2 mutations [32]. Radical therapy of the ovarian cancers involves oophorectomy and hysterectomy, which leave women infertile. Systemic therapy may lead to mutations in the oocytes' genomes. These iatrogenic effects of therapies prompt preventive collecting oocytes prior to therapy for the in vitro fertilization [4]. Moreover, SSEA-4, TRA-1-60, CD44, CD133 biomarkers defined recently on stem cells in germ cell tumors and epithelial carcinomas constitute a novel group of specific targets [33–40]. **Germ cell tumors** in male patients exhibit similar molecular profiles [34]. As in the ovaries, the same mutations are also responsible for **breast cancers**, which will be diagnosed in nearly 229,060 and will be cause of deaths of nearly 39,920 women this year in the USA [41–42]. Radical therapy of the advanced breast cancer - mastectomy leads to permanent disfiguring women's bodies. Although immunotherapy with Herceptin is very effective, it is restricted to women overexpressing Her2/neu. The cancer suicide gene therapy, which targets mutated receptors displayed on surfaces of ovarian and breast cancer cells e.g., EGFRvIII, offers a fertility saving and offspring protecting alternative [43–46].

Although, the number of **prostate cancers** is declining, still nearly 28,170 men will die of the disease this year [1–2]. However, nearly 241,740 newly diagnosed and 2 million cancer surviving men will suffer daily problems associated with this cancer's progression. Due to the anatomical passage of the urinary and reproductive tracks through the prostate, surgery on the prostate cancer in many cases leads to iatrogenic complications: erectile dysfunction and urinary incontinence. Several biomarkers have been identified for the prostate cancer including PSMA, androgen, CXCR4 or EpCAM [47–52]. Those serious side effects propel trials of suicide gene therapy of the prostate cancers [53–63].

Nearly 43,920 Americans will be newly diagnosed with **pancreatic cancer** this year. Almost 37,930 of them will die [1–2]. This translates into an average 4% one year survival rate (4 patients surviving a year out of 100 diagnosed). Surgery, including pancreatic transplantation, is effective in the early stages. However, the anatomical location results in asymptomatic progression of the neoplasm to the advanced stages. Unbearable pain develops with this cancer's progression. Often, non-specific symptoms are associated with impairment of the numerous functions of pancreas within the digestive and hormonal

systems. Those functions result from diversity of specialized cells with variety of lineage specific display profiles. Discoveries of new biomarkers make pancreatic cancer another good candidate for targeted cancer suicide gene therapy [64–67].

Cancers of the digestive system include **gastric and colon cancers**. An estimated 103,170 people will be newly diagnosed with colon in 2012 [1–2]. Almost 51,960 of the patients will die during the year, while suffering from increasing malnutrition. Several unique biomarkers are present on the cancer cells including well established carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA) [68]. To that, there are added newly emerging biomarkers, including those on the colon cancer stem cells CD44 and CD133 [68–72]. Not only they facilitate early diagnosis due to shedding of these biomarkers into the patients' blood, but also they are targets for diagnostic molecular imaging and targeted therapies. The targeted therapies include cancer suicide gene therapies [73–77].

Almost 160,340 people will die of the **lung cancer** this year [1–2]. More than 226,180 people will be newly diagnosed. This cancer will take more lives than any other cancer. The overall 5 year survival rate is 15% (15 out of 100 diagnosed patients will survive 5 years). Progression of cancer not only is reducing the active area of oxygen supply, but also is often associated with pleural effusion, which rapidly fills up large volume of pleural cavity and suppresses the lungs' volumes. Both lead to deaths by asphyxia. Contributing factors include clones of cancer stem cells resistant to therapies, which are identified with the recently discovered biomarkers [78–81]. They propel targeted cancer suicide gene therapy trials [82–85].

## Receptors Displayed on Living Cells - Targets for Therapeutic Transgenes' Vectors

The most essential element of attaining high therapeutic efficacy, while avoiding iatrogenic effects, is the precise delivery of the therapeutics to the treated cells only. This is also the case for cancer suicide gene therapy. However, only a few unique, qualitative biomarkers, which are present exclusively on cancer cells, have been identified. They offer the ultimate targeting precision for delivering the suicidal genes' carrying vectors.

**Epidermal growth factor receptors** constitute a family of the receptors ErbB 1–4. First member of this family - an epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) or ErbB1 is present on most healthy cells and their cancerous derivatives. However, the number of receptors on cells may differ. While a normal healthy glial cell displays  $\sim 3 \times 10^4$  receptors, the malignant glioma cell may display  $\sim 2-3 \times 10^6$  receptors. It is the result of increased levels of gene expression or / and multiple copies of genes in cancer cells, what is leading to an increased number of the gene expression products - cell surface receptors. Supplying the same concentrations of vectors to both, glial and glioma cells in patients with brain tumors, would result in two orders of magnitude higher therapeutics' saturation of glial cells than normal cells. Nevertheless, the apoptosis inducing transgenes would cause harm in healthy cells, if no other protective measures would be involved. However, the EGFR variant III – the truncated product of deletion mutation of the gene, is present uniquely on the cancer cells including brain, lung, ovarian, and many others. As such, it is an excellent immunogen for cancer vaccines [86]. This receptor is a target for recombinant adenoviral vector [87]. The EGFRvIII is the target for genetically engineered variable fragment antibodies, which guide delivery of the suicidal genes into ovarian and breast cancers [88]. Another member of this receptors family is Her2 or ErbB2. Its over-expression in breast and other cancers broadcasts poor prognosis. It is a target for immunotherapy. Engineering multivalent adapters refine precision of delivery to this receptor by viral vectors in gene therapy [89].

A standard version of the **cluster of differentiation 44** (CD44s) is present on cells from variety of tissues, including those of epithelial origin as prostate, ductal epithelium of breast, mucosa, and many others, as well as on cells in neoplasms. However, alternative splicing patterns (CD44v) are present on various cancers and their metastases including cancers of the lungs, bladder, breast. In particular CD44v6, specific for epithelial cancers, is an antigen for monoclonal antibodies in immuno- and gene therapies [90–91]. The recombinant antibodies are manufactured to guide suicide gene therapy vectors against ovarian cancers [88].

Tumorigenic cancer cells, with stem cell profiles, display **cluster of differentiation 133** (CD133) / prominin [11–12, 92], often in association with **CXCR4**. They are resistant to cisplatin treatment. Therefore, CD133 and CXCR4 became the points for delivery of the lentivirus driven suicidal genes [92].

**Carcino-embryonic antigen** (CEA) is present on the luminal surfaces of the mucosal cell, but amplified and diffused on all surfaces of cancer cells [68]. It has become the cancer biomarker, which after coupling antibodies with radionuclides, is detected by diagnostic imaging. It is shed by cancerous cells into blood of cancer patients, so it is routinely detected in lab tests. It is also the target for the vectors delivering therapeutic genes [93–94].

Folic acid aka vitamin B9 is imported into the cells with the aid of the **folate receptor** (FR). Folic acid is used in synthesis and repair of the genomic DNA. Therefore, highly mitotic cancer cells, which have high demands for the folates, are characterized by over-expression of the folate receptors on their surfaces. As such, they become guides for delivery of therapeutics. Folate linked nanoparticles transfer HSV TK into prostate and nasopharyngeal cancer cells [95].

Also **transferrin receptor** (TfR) aka cluster of differentiation 71 (CD71) is overexpressed on cancer cells to meet their high demands for iron [96]. Iron chelating enzymes, ribonucleotide reductase and cytochrome-c reductase, heavily influence cancer cell metabolism. Depletion of iron is one of the therapeutic strategies of cancer therapy. Radioactive isotopes of iron are used in nuclear medicine. Iron is imported into cells by transferrin receptor. The same mechanism is used to deliver therapeutic suicidal genes [88, 97–99].

**Mucins** are displayed on cell surfaces as glycosylated proteins. Although present on normal cells, their expression onto the cancer cells is greatly upregulated. Moreover, the carbohydrates present on breast, pancreatic, and ovarian cancer cells are fewer and simpler. This translates in variation in antibody cross reactivity between MUC1 labeling normal versus cancer cells. Moreover the MUC-1/Y is often replaced by the MUC-1/Z form. These features are exploited for making specific antibodies. These antibodies serve as the guides for the vectors with the therapeutic cargo to the cancer cells [88, 100–101].

Cancer stem cells or cancer initiating cells have recently been suggested as responsible for propelling growth of tumors. Resistance to radiation and chemotherapy has been attributed to the clones of cancer stem cells. Therefore, the biomarkers of stem cells become potential, novel guides for targeted therapies. Among them, **stage specific embryonic antigen 4** (SSEA-4) and **tumor resistance antigen 1–60** (TRA-1-60) have been identified on the pluripotent stem cells of the embryonal carcinomas of the testes and ovaries [33–34]. It is worth noting, that these biomarkers of pluripotency are being expressed only on undifferentiated pluripotent stem cells, while ceasing to express immediately upon the cells' differentiation. Therefore, they are unique biomarkers for delivery of the therapeutic transgenes to the pluripotent stem cells only.

The ligands and antibodies for the aforementioned receptors serve as the guides for the delivery of the vectors to these receptors. Nevertheless, it is necessary to keep in mind, that therapeutics guided by these ligands and antibodies will deliver therapeutic genes to cancer cells only, if they are uniquely specific. However, if for a particular antibody, there is any cross reactivity between cancer and healthy cells' receptors, then obviously the therapeutic genes will affect healthy cells, what will manifest as the side effects, on the same way as with the non-specific systemic therapies. Therefore, continued effort towards defining the molecular display profiles on the spectra of heterogenous populations of clones of single, living cancer cells, should be the primary goal for designing targeted, personalized therapy [102–103].

## Cancer Specific Promoters

For therapy involving expression of genes leading to the cells' deaths, it is essential that these genes are targeted to and expressed in all and only targeted cancer cells, but not in healthy cells. Targeting to the cancer cells can be accomplished with the aid of ligands or / and antibodies specific for the molecules displayed on the surfaces of the living cells as discussed above. Expressing in the cancer cells can be restricted by selection of promoters of the genes, which are upregulated in the investigated cancers as determined by genomics and proteomics, i.e., promoters, which are lineage, oncogene, biomarker, or induction specific. The promoters of these genes are engineered into the DNA constructs driving effectively expression of the therapeutic cancer suicide genes. Therefore, the cancer suicide genes are expressed only in cancer cells. It is an important safety measure, so that if a suicidal gene is erroneously delivered into the healthy cells, it is not expressed – it remains inactive.

Two orders of magnitude higher expression of **epidermal growth factor receptors** (EGFR) in cancer cells over normal cells provides a rationale for using their promoters, while engineering the constructs driving expression of the cancer suicide inducing transgenes. This approach is further enhancement of the strategy, which also involves delivering transgenes through the receptors mutated only on cancer cells or present on pluripotent cancer stem cells [33].

Similarly to EGFR, **transferrin receptors** (TfR) are more heavily displayed on rapidly proliferating cancer cells, than on quiescent, normal, healthy cells. Therefore, the TfR promoters are efficiently used for expressing suicidal genes [88].

**Carcinoembryonic antigen** (CEA) is the result of the high CEA gene expression in various cancers including gastric and colorectal carcinomas. Therefore, the transgenes under control of its promoter are expressed only in those cancers. Further improvement of the expression occurs, when the transgene, e.g., cytosine deaminase, is set under the control of the Cre/LoxP regulation system [[104].

**Telomerase** is an RNA polymerase, which lengthens telomeres. Majority of cancers greatly over-express the hTERT subunit, while immortalizing the cells. Therefore, it is used as a promoter of suicidal genes in cancer cells. An example of such a strategy involves transduction of the ovarian cancers with HSV TK under the telomerase promoter [105–109].

**Prostate specific antigen** (PSA) and **prostate specific membrane antigen** (PSMA) are uniquely over-expressed by prostate cancer cells. Therefore, their promoters are incorporated into the constructs for cancer suicide genes, which are expressed into prostate cancers [59, 63].

Cytokeratins, uniquely present in epithelial cells, are histopathological biomarkers of the neoplasms of the epithelial lineage. They are also used to determine EM and ME transitions,



which occur during cancerogenesis and metastasis. For the human embryonic stem cells, they are also biomarkers of differentiation into one of three germ layers. **Cytokeratin 18 and 19** (CK19) are among these biomarkers. The promoter for CK19 is used to drive expression of the transgenes within epithelial cells [110].

Physiologically, prostaglandin-endoperoxide synthase (PTGS) aka **cyclooxygenase** (Cox) catalyzes formation of prostaglandins, prostacyclin and thromboxane. Aspirin is best known inhibitor of Cox providing relief from inflammation and pain. The Cox gene has a very high transcriptional activity in colorectal cancers. This prompts its' promoter use, after delivering the vectors through the coxsackievirus and adenovirus receptors (CAR), for using it in cancer suicide gene therapy of gastrointestinal cancers [111].

## Vectors of Suicidal Genes

Tropisms of natural or engineered viruses towards specific receptors are the foundations for constructing viral vectors for suicide cancer gene therapy. The attachment of these vectors to the targeted cells is contingent upon recognition of specific receptors on the cells' surfaces by the ligands on the vectors. In other words, only the viruses with the very specific ligands on their surfaces will anchor onto the specific receptors on the cells and vice versa - targeting the specific cells will require engineering viruses displaying ligands matching exactly those receptors, which are displayed on the targeted cells. Those interactions, between cell receptors and viral ligands are in vivo modulated by the immune system involving toll like receptors. Identical principles rule designing of the nonviral vectors. Similarly, tropism of the cells, which are bioengineered to deliver therapeutic cargo to cancers, is driven by selective interactions between the ligands and receptors. The entry of vectors, through receptor mediated endocytoses or membrane fusions, also requires specific set of domains. These domains promote vectors' escape from endosomal and / or lysosomal pathways. The other domains facilitate entries into nuclei. Replication, assembly, and egress or latency, all determine dynamics of interactions between the vector and the cell. All these elements have decisive effect upon the choice of the vectors, as well as engineering therapeutic cargo carrying cells, in designing cancer suicide gene therapies.

**Herpes simplex virus** (HSV) belongs to a family of herpesviridae - enveloped DNA viruses. They bind to the receptors through orthologs of their three main ligand glycoproteins: gB, gH, and gL, while sometimes employing accessory proteins. These ligands play decisive roles in the primary routes of viruses' entries in oral, ocular, and genital forms of the disease. The HSVs possess high tropism towards the cell receptors of the nervous system [112]. This tropism is utilized for engineering recombinant viruses delivering the suicide inducing genes into cancer cells [113]. The therapeutic bystander effects are enhanced by inclusion of connexin coding sequences into the constructs [114–115].

**Lentivirus** belongs to a family of retroviridae – enveloped, single stranded RNA retroviruses. The most known member of this group is Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV). It is a lentivirus that causes acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). The viruses' ligands have affinity towards CD4, which is present on the cells of the human immune system such as CD4+ T cells, macrophages, and dendritic cells [116]. To exert its activity after the entry into the cell, the viral RNA genome has to be reverse transcribed into double-stranded DNA, which is imported into the cell nucleus and integrated into the cellular DNA. This virus is used to deliver the therapeutic genes to leukemia cells [117–121]. The recombinant lentivirus is used to deliver deoxycytidine kinase. Recombinant lentivirus is effective in delivering suicide genes through the mucin receptor into pancreatic cancer cells, while sparing healthy cells. It also demonstrates affinity towards the epithelial

ovarian carcinoma expressing mucin. The recombinant lentivirus is also used to deliver suicidal genes into gliomas.

**Adenovirus** is a non-enveloped virus consisting of a double-stranded, linear DNA genome and a capsid. Naturally, it resides in adenoids and may be a cause of upper respiratory tract infections. The viruses utilize cells' coxsackievirus and adenovirus receptor (CAR) for the adenoviral fiber protein for entry into nasal, tracheal, and pulmonary epithelia [122]. The main problems to overcome are low levels of the CARs on the cancer cells and chromatinization by histone deacetylases. The recombinant virus is capable for delivering thymidine kinase and cytosine deaminase achieving therapeutic effects [123]. The adenovirus engineered with the H19 enhancer / DMD-H19 promoter complex induces apoptosis only in the cancer cells with loss of imprinting of the insulin-like growth factor 2 gene (IGF2). Artificial "death switches" are introduced into cancer cells by adenoviruses to initiate apoptosis [124–130]. Replication-competent adenovirus-mediated suicide gene therapy (ReCAP) is in the clinical trials for newly-diagnosed prostate cancer.

**Non-viral vectors** are designed and synthesized *de novo* by biotechnologies of biomolecular engineering. They are engineered at the various levels of complexity. In general, they primarily provide the structural framework for condensation of the transgenic DNA. The vectors based poly(oligoD)arginine are engineered to condense TK gene into small nanoparticles or to assemble into dendrimers. These nanoparticles are used to transfect and kill ovarian, breast, and prostate cancer cells [95, 131–134]. Their targeting selectivity towards cancer cells is enhanced by adding ligands or antibodies as the guides towards the cell receptors [88]. Delivery of the therapeutic transgenes can be further enhanced by adding superparamagnetic nanoparticles or rendering the vectors superparamagnetic and driving the vectors into the neoplasms by electromagnetic pulses [88]. The liposomes offer an option for encapsulation and enhanced penetration through all cell membranes [95]. Selectivity of these vectors towards specific cells is enhanced by intercalating the lipid layer with the ligands or antibodies to create immuno-liposomes. Nanobodies against MUC-1 linked with polyethylene glycol (PEG) - polyethylenimine (PEI) are the bases to induce apoptosis in the MUC-1 over-expressing breast cancer cells. The synthetic antibodies anchoring dsDNA constitute the founding framework for the complex biotag vectors, which incorporate signaling domains for cell entry, lysosomal escape, and nuclear entry of the therapeutic transgenes [88].

A major problem for gene therapy is low efficacy in delivery and expression of therapeutic genes. **Bioengineered stem cells** are being tested for their potential of resolving this problem for two reasons: precise targeting and efficient expression. The human stem cells can be delivered directly into the tumor. The human embryonic stem cells, mesenchymal stem cells, as well as the induced stem cells are bioengineered to deliver therapeutics. Some of them they have affinity for targeting gliomas, while the others towards breast cancer metastasis to the brain; all after intravenous injection [135–148]. This feature makes them perfect vectors for carrying therapeutic genes. The recombinant version of thymidine kinase shows enhanced over the wild type activity after being secreted, while effective in inflicting bystander effects [140–141]. Adding the kappa chain leader and endoplasmic reticulum export signal improves secretion; thus therapeutic effects [142]. Adding valproic acid significantly enhances activity of thymidine kinases [142]. The stem cells are being tested for their potential for carrying the suicidal genes also into variety of other tumors [135–148].



## Mechanisms of Inducing Cancer Cells' Death

Induction of cancer cells' suicide can be accomplished on several ways. The ultimate goal is to eliminate all cancer cells and their nucleic acids carrying genetic information. The goal is also to spare all healthy cells including those of the reproductive system.

**Thymidine kinase (TK)** is an ATP-thymidine 5'-phosphotransferase present in all living cells. It is also present in viruses including herpes simplex virus (HSV), varicella zoster virus (VZV), and Epstein-Barr virus [EBV]. Physiologically, this enzyme converts deoxythymidine into deoxythymidine 5'- monophosphate (TMP), which is further phosphorylated to deoxythymidine diphosphate and thereafter to deoxythymidine triphosphate by thymidylate kinase and nucleoside diphosphate kinase respectively. As the triphosphate, it is incorporated into the synthesized DNA molecule by DNA polymerases or viral reverse transcriptases. Some dNTP analogs have the ability to terminate the DNA synthesis upon their incorporation into synthesized DNA. Ganciclovir is a synthetic analogue of 2'-deoxy-guanosine with such synthesis termination capability. Termination of synthesis triggers the apoptotic signaling cascades. This route of cancer suicide gene therapy involves two stages. First, HSV-TK gene is delivered and expressed in cancer cells. In most cases, it is delivered by viral vectors. Second, the suicidal gene delivery is followed by provision of Ganciclovir. HSV-TK is effectively used in cancer suicide gene therapy by expression in targeted cells to exert intracellular effects outlined above [15–19, 22–24]. Alternatively, TK is also secreted into the extracellular fluids by genetically engineered cells [135–148]. Thereafter, it is internalized by surrounding cancer cells to cause their death. A new recombinant version – 007 is shown to be more effective than the wild type [140]. Using valproic acid, as an inhibitor of deacetylases, enhances its efficacy [141].

**Cytosine deaminase (CD)** leads the hydrolysis reaction of cytosine to uracil with release of ammonia. If the modified site is recognized by endonucleases, then the phosphodiester bond in the DNA is broken, while initiating repair by incorporation of a new cytosine. However, upon provision of non-toxic prodrug - 5-fluorocytosine (5-FC), cytosine deaminase converts it into 5-fluorouracil (5-FU), which can inhibit cancer cell growth. Transgenic expression of CD in cancer cells leads to their deaths [31, 73, 94]. Cytosine deaminase in tandem with thymidine kinase under the carcinoembryonic antigen promoter is tested on lung cancers. Transfection by the engineered adenovirus and expression under the cytomegalovirus promoter, the double suicide gene constructs, are tested for inducing suicide of breast cancer cells. Alternatively, stem cells are engineered to express and secrete cytosine deaminase to kill neighbouring cells. Transduced mesenchymal stem cells with lentivirus driven cytosine deaminase are injected into gliomas. The engineered cells are injected directly into the cancerous tumors or delivered through intravenous injecting to reach cancers based upon their tropism [123, 148].

**Reactive oxygen species (ROS)** are by-products of cellular metabolism, while being primarily generated in mitochondria. Moderate levels of ROS may promote the cell divisions and differentiation. Increased metabolism, which occurs in cancer cells, may lead to significantly accelerated reactions of ROS with the genomic DNA causing its damage, with membrane lipids affecting their permeability, and with proteins causing reduced enzymatic activity and increased proteolysis susceptibility. These reactions lead to apoptosis and / or necrosis. In healthy cells, the balance between production and neutralization of ROS is retained by the antioxidative enzymes (AOEs). However, either increasing levels of ROS, or blocking AOEs, lead to shifting this balance towards unquenched ROS, thus to oxidative stress and death. The first mechanism is used in various modalities of radiation therapy, which cause generation of free radicals. The main problem with this approach is iatrogenic effect of ionizing radiation onto the healthy cells. This limits the effective therapeutic dose.

Alternatively, the AOE<sub>s</sub> are blocked by the intracellular antibodies expressed from the DNA constructs delivered via EGFRvIII, CEA, or TfR mediated endocytosis [33, 88]. The combination of both routes, blocking of the AOE<sub>s</sub>, which makes them more sensitive to ROS, followed by low doses of radiation, which increases ROS, are currently in progress.

**Telomerase** is a ribonucleoprotein responsible for maintaining functions of telomeres. Levels of its both components: RNA (hTR) and protein (hTERT) are increased in cancer cells. Putting bacterial nitroreductase gene under the telomerase promoter facilitates expression of the enzyme, which in turn converts a non-toxic prodrug into the cytotoxic alkylating agent [108].

Triggering of apoptotic cascades involves activation of **caspases**. Under two systems regulating transcription, muristerone and TetOn, the human, constitutively active caspases expressed from the viral vectors, effectively induce apoptosis of the human embryonic kidney and breast cancer cell lines [128]. Transgenic expression of 'death switches', bax and caspase 9, triggers apoptotic cascades and kills the cancer cells [126–129]. The final stage of many different routes leading to cancer cells' suicides is executed by **DNases**, what is manifested by hallmarks of apoptosis: collapse of chromatin and disintegration of the genomic DNA. The DNA constructs for the constitutively active DNases are first led by the multifunctional biotags to the EGFRvIII on the ovarian cancer cells, and after escaping from the endosomal / lysosomal pathway into the cell nuclei. Thereafter, targeting transgenically expressed DNases, through nuclear pore complexes into the nuclei, leads to the destruction of the genomic DNA and cancer cells' deaths [88].

## Conclusions

Progress in genomics and proteomics should help us in identifying the specific targets for developing new strategies for clinical trials of the targeted and personalized gene therapy of cancer.

## Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the funds from the NIH (RR000570), the NSF (9420056, 9522771, 9902020, 0094016), and the PBMEF, granted to Marek Malecki MD PhD, Principal Investigator.

## Abbreviations

<b>CSGT</b>	cancer suicide gene therapy
<b>ROS</b>	reactive oxygen species
<b>HSVTK</b>	Herpes simplex virus thymidine kinase
<b>ROS</b>	reactive oxygen species
<b>Fv</b>	variable antibody fragment
<b>CD</b>	cytosine deaminase
<b>SSEA-4</b>	stage specific embryonic antigen
<b>TRA-1-60</b>	tumor resistance antigen 1–60
<b>CD44</b>	cluster of differentiation 44
<b>CD133</b>	cluster of differentiation 133
<b>EGFR</b>	epidermal growth factor receptor

<b>PSA</b>	prostate specific antigen
<b>PSMA</b>	prostate specific membrane antigen
<b>CEA</b>	carcino-embryonic antigen
<b>TfR</b>	transferrin receptor
<b>MUC</b>	mucin receptor
<b>FR</b>	folate receptor

## Bibliography

1. American Cancer Society. Cancer Facts and Figures 2012. 2012. <http://www.cancer.org/acs/groups/content/@epidemiologysurveillance/documents/document/acspc-031941.pdf>
2. Jemal A, Siegel R, Hao Y, et al. Cancer statistics. CA Cancer J Clin. 2010; 60:277–300. 2010. [PubMed: 20610543]
3. Dayal MB. Fertility Preservation Options for Female Cancer Patients. J Fertiliz In Vitro. 2012; 2:110–2.
4. Copeland GE, Kirby RS. Using birth defects registry data to evaluate infant and childhood mortality associated with birth defects. Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol. 2007; 79(11):792–7. [PubMed: 17990340]
5. van der Eb MM, de Leeuw B, van der Eb AJ, et al. Side effects of suicide gene therapy. Methods Mol Med. 2004; 90:479–90. [PubMed: 14657580]
6. Shalev M, Kadmon D, Teh BS, et al. Suicide gene therapy toxicity after multiple and repeat injections in patients with localized prostate cancer. J Urol. 2000; 163(6):1747–50. [PubMed: 10799174]
7. Galanis E, Wu W, Sarkaria J, et al. Incorporation of biomarker assessment in novel clinical trial designs: personalizing brain tumor treatments. Curr Oncol Rep. 2011; 13(1):42–9. [PubMed: 21125354]
8. Heimberger AB, Suki D, Yang D, et al. The natural history of EGFR and EGFRvIII in glioblastoma patients. J Transl Med. 2005; 3:38–43. [PubMed: 16236164]
9. Argyriou AA, Kalofonos HP. Molecularly targeted therapies for malignant gliomas. Mol Med. 2009; 15(3–4):115–22. [PubMed: 19148300]
10. Vitucci M, Hayes DN, Miller CR. Gene expression profiling of gliomas: merging genomic and histopathological classification for personalised therapy. British Journal of Cancer. 2011; 104:545–553. [PubMed: 21119666]
11. Osmond TL, Broadley KW, McConnell MJ. Glioblastoma cells negative for the anti-CD133 antibody AC133 express a truncated variant of the CD133 protein. Int J Mol Med. 2010; 25(6): 883–8.12. [PubMed: 20428792]
12. Kemper K, Sprick MR, de Bree M, et al. The AC133 epitope, but not the CD133 protein, is lost upon cancer stem cell differentiation. Cancer Res. 2010; 70(2):719–29. [PubMed: 20068153]
13. Qiang L, Yang Y, Ma YJ, et al. Isolation and characterization of cancer stem like cells in human glioblastoma cell lines. Cancer Lett. 2009; 279(1):13–21. [PubMed: 19232461]
14. Barzon L, Zanusso M, Colombo F, et al. Clinical trials of gene therapy, virotherapy, and immunotherapy for malignant gliomas. Cancer Gene Ther. 2006; 13:539–554. [PubMed: 16410822]
15. Fischer U, Steffens S, Frank S, et al. Mechanisms of thymidine kinase/ganciclovir and cytosine deaminase/ 5-fluorocytosine suicide gene therapy-induced cell death in glioma cells. Oncogene. 2005; 24(7):1231–43. [PubMed: 15592511]
16. Huszthy PC, Giroglou T, Tsinkalovsky O, et al. Remission of invasive, cancer stem-like glioblastoma xenografts using lentiviral vector-mediated suicide gene therapy. PLoS One. 2009; 4(7):e6314. [PubMed: 19617915]

17. Mercer RW, Tyler MA, Ulasov IV, et al. Targeted therapies for malignant glioma: progress and potential. *BioDrugs*. 2009; 23(1):25–35. [PubMed: 19344189]
18. Aboody KS, Brown A, Rainov NG, et al. Neural stem cells display extensive tropism for pathology in adult brain: evidence from intracranial gliomas. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2003; 97:12846–12851. 2000. [PubMed: 11070094]
19. Pu K, Li SY, Gao Y, et al. Bystander effect in suicide gene therapy using immortalized neural stem cells transduced with herpes simplex virus thymidine kinase gene on medulloblastoma regression. *Brain Res*. 2011; 1369:245–52. [PubMed: 21073865]
20. Rainov NG, Ren H. Gene therapy for human malignant brain tumors. *Cancer J*. 2003; 9(3):180–8. [PubMed: 12952303]
21. Sonabend AM, Nandi S, Han Y, et al. Neural stem cells target intracranial glioma to deliver an oncolytic adenovirus in vivo. *Gene Ther*. 2009; 16:262–278. [PubMed: 19078993]
22. Hu W, Liu W. Side populations of glioblastoma cells are less sensitive to HSV-TK/GCV suicide gene therapy system than the non-side population. *In Vitro Cell Dev Biol*. 2010; 46(6):497–501.
23. Huang Q, Liu XZ, Kang CS, et al. The anti-glioma effect of suicide gene therapy using BMSC expressing HSV/TK combined with overexpression of Cx43 in glioma cells. *Cancer Gene Ther*. 2010; 17(3):192–202. [PubMed: 19851353]
24. Uhl M, Weiler M, Wick W, et al. Migratory neural stem cells for improved thymidine kinase-based gene therapy of malignant gliomas. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*. 2005; 328:125–129. [PubMed: 15670759]
25. Yawata T, Maeda Y, Okiku M, et al. Identification and functional characterization of glioma-specific promoters and their application in suicide gene therapy. *J Neurooncol*. 2011; 104(2):497–507. [PubMed: 21347689]
26. Chiocca EA, Aghi M, Fulci G. Viral therapy for glioblastoma. *Cancer J*. 2003; 9:167–179. [PubMed: 12952302]
27. Ostertag D, Amundson KK, Lopez F, et al. Brain tumor eradication and prolonged survival from intratumoral conversion of 5-fluorocytosine to 5-fluorouracil using a nonlytic retroviral replicating vector. *Neuro Oncol*. 2012; 14(2):145–59. [PubMed: 22070930]
28. Tabatabai G, Weller M. Glioblastoma stem cells. *Curr Tissue Res*. 2011; 343:459–465.
29. Nakamizo A, Marini F, Amano T, et al. Human bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells in the treatment of gliomas. *Cancer Res*. 2005; 65:3307–3318. [PubMed: 15833864]
30. Nanda D, Driesse MJ, Sillevs Smitt PA. Clinical trials of adenoviral-mediated suicide gene therapy of malignant gliomas. *Prog Brain Res*. 132:699–710. [PubMed: 11545029]
31. Kim JH, Kim JY, Kim SU, et al. Therapeutic effect of genetically modified human neural stem cells encoding cytosine deaminase on experimental glioma. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*. 2012; 417(1):534–40. [PubMed: 22177952]
32. Liu J, Cristea MC, Frankel P, et al. Clinical characteristics and outcomes of BRCA-associated ovarian cancer: genotype and survival. *Cancer Genet*. 2012; 205(1–2):34–41. [PubMed: 22429596]
33. Malecki M, Anderson M, Beauchaine M, et al. TRA-1-60+, SSEA-4+, Oct4A+, Nanog+ Clones of Pluripotent Stem Cells in the Embryonal Carcinomas of the Ovaries. *J of Cancer Stem Cell Res & Therapy*. 2012; 2(5):130–141. [PubMed].
34. Andrews PW, Matin MM, Bahrami AR, et al. Embryonic stem (ES) cells and embryonal carcinoma (EC) cells: opposite sides of the same coin. *Biochem Soc Trans*. 2005; 33(Pt 6):1526–53034. [PubMed: 16246161]
35. Zhang J, Guo X, Chang DY, et al. CD133 expression associated with poor prognosis in ovarian cancer. *Mod Pathol*. 2011; 25(3):456–64. [PubMed: 22080056]
36. Kryczek I, Liu S, Roh M, et al. Expression of aldehyde dehydrogenase and CD133 defines ovarian cancer stem cells. *Int J Cancer*. 2012; 130(1):29–39. [PubMed: 21480217]
37. Sillanpää S, Anttila MA, Voutilainen K, et al. CD44 expression indicates favorable prognosis in epithelial ovarian cancer. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2003; 9(14):5318–24. [PubMed: 14614016]
38. Rodríguez-Rodríguez L, Sancho-Torres I, Mesonero C, et al. The CD44 receptor is a molecular predictor of survival in ovarian cancer. *Med Oncol*. 2003; 20(3):255–63. [PubMed: 14514975]

39. Naor D, Wallach-Dayana SB, Zahalka MA, et al. Involvement of CD44, a molecule with a thousand faces, in cancer dissemination. *Semin Cancer Biol.* 2008; 18(4):260–7. [PubMed: 18467123]
40. Nam EJ, Lee M, Yim GW, et al. MicroRNA profiling of a CD133+ spheroid-forming subpopulation of the OVCAR3 human ovarian cancer cell line. *BMC Med Genomics.* 2012; 29(5): 18. [PubMed: 22643117]
41. Pal T, Vadaparampil ST. Genetic risk assessments in individuals at high risk for inherited breast cancer in the breast oncology care setting. *Cancer Control.* 2012; 19(4):255–66. [PubMed: 23037493]
42. Friedrichs K, Franke F, Lisboa BW, et al. CD44 isoforms correlate with cellular differentiation but not with prognosis in human breast cancer. *Cancer Res.* 1995; 55(22):5424–33. [PubMed: 7585612]
43. Kong B, Wang W, Liu C, et al. Efficacy of lentivirus-mediated and MUC1 antibody-targeted VP22-TK/GCV suicide gene therapy for ovarian cancer. *In Vivo.* 2003; 17(2):153–6. [PubMed: 12792977]
44. Malecki M, Malecki R. Ovarian cancer suicide gene therapy with genetically engineered, transgenically expressed, intracellular scFv antibodies against anti-oxidative enzymes. *Proc SD Acad Sci.* 2008; 87:249–260. [PubMed].
45. Grignet-Debrus C, et al. Identification of factors important for the success of suicide gene therapy after a comparative study of VZ and HSVTK efficacy on breast cancer cells. *Cell Mol Biol.* 2005; 51(1):37–48. [PubMed: 16171563]
46. Mangipudi SS, Canine BF, Wang Y, et al. Development of a genetically engineered biomimetic vector for targeted gene transfer to breast cancer cells. *Mol Pharm.* 2009; 6(4):1100–9. [PubMed: 19419197]
47. Dubrovskaya A, Elliott J, Salamone RJ, et al. CXCR4 expression in prostate cancer progenitor cells. *PLoS One.* 2012; 7(2):e31226. 2012. [PubMed: 22359577]
48. Miki J, Furusato B, Li H, et al. Identification of putative stem cell markers, CD133 and CXCR4, in hTERT-immortalized primary nonmalignant and malignant tumor-derived human prostate epithelial cell lines and in prostate cancer specimens. *Cancer Res.* 2007; 67(7):3153–61. [PubMed: 17409422]
49. Rental S, Mangamoori LN. Isolation, characterization and mobilization of prostate cancer tissue derived CD133+ MDR1+ cells. *J Stem Cells.* 2010; 5(2):75–81. [PubMed: 22049617]
50. Armstrong AJ, Marengo MS, Oltean S, et al. Circulating tumor cells from patients with advanced prostate and breast cancer display both epithelial and mesenchymal markers. *Mol Cancer Res.* 2011; 9(8):997–1007. [PubMed: 21665936]
51. Wu Q, Dhir R, Wells A. Altered CXCR3 isoform expression regulates prostate cancer cell migration and invasion. *Mol Cancer.* 2012; 11:11–3. [PubMed: 22404908]
52. Alptekin D, Izmirli M, Bayazit Y, et al. Evaluation of the effects of androgen receptor gene trinucleotide repeats and prostate-specific antigen gene polymorphisms on prostate cancer. *Genet Mol Res.* 2012; 11(2):1424–32. [PubMed: 22653589]
53. Ebara S, Nasu Y. Suicide gene therapy for prostate cancer. *Nihon Rinsho.* 2003; 61(7):1257–65. [PubMed: 12877094]
54. Ahn M, Lee SJ, Li X, et al. Enhanced combined tumor-specific oncolysis and suicide gene therapy for prostate cancer using M6 promoter. *Cancer Gene Ther.* 2009; 16(1):73–82. [PubMed: 18772902]
55. Hattori Y, Maitani Y. Folate-linked nanoparticle-mediated suicide gene therapy in human prostate cancer and nasopharyngeal cancer with HSVTK. *Cancer Gene Ther.* 2005; 12(10):796–809. [PubMed: 15891776]
56. Ikegami S, Tadakuma T, Ono T, et al. Treatment efficiency of a suicide gene therapy using prostate-specific membrane antigen promoter/enhancer in a castrated mouse model of prostate cancer. *Cancer Sci.* 95(4):367–70. [PubMed: 15072597]
57. Freytag SO, Movsas B, Aref I, et al. Phase I trial of replication-competent adenovirus-mediated suicide gene therapy combined with IMRT for prostate cancer. *Mol Ther.* 2007; 15(5):1016–23. [PubMed: 17375076]



58. Yoshimura I, Suzuki S, Tadakuma T, et al. Suicide gene therapy on LNCaP human prostate cancer cells. *Int J Urol*. 2001; 8(7):S5–8. [PubMed: 11442669]
59. Park HS, Cheon J, Cho HY, et al. In vivo characterization of a prostate-specific antigen promoter-based suicide gene therapy for the treatment of benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Gene Ther*. 2003; 10(13):1129–34. [PubMed: 12808443]
60. Petrigliano FA, Virk MS, Liu N, et al. Targeting of prostate cancer cells by a cytotoxic lentiviral vector containing a prostate stem cell antigen (PSCA) promoter. *Sep 15; 2009* 69(13):1422–34.
61. O'Keefe DS, Uchida A, Bacich DJ, et al. Prostate-specific suicide gene therapy using the prostate-specific membrane antigen promoter and enhancer. *Prostate*. 2000; 45(2):149–57. [PubMed: 11027414]
62. Nasu Y, Saika T, Ebara S, et al. Suicide gene therapy with adenoviral delivery of HSV-tK gene for patients with local recurrence of prostate cancer after hormonal therapy. *Mol Ther*. 2007; 15(4): 834–40. [PubMed: 17327829]
63. Uchida A, O'Keefe DS, Bacich DJ, et al. In vivo suicide gene therapy model using a newly discovered prostate-specific membrane antigen promoter/enhancer. *Urology*. 2001; 58((2)S):132–9. [PubMed: 11502468]
64. Lafitte M, Rousseau B, Moranvillier I, et al. In vivo gene transfer targeting in pancreatic adenocarcinoma with cell surface antigens. *Mol Cancer*. 2012; 11(1):81. 22. [PubMed: 23088623]
65. Fogar P, Greco E, Basso D, et al. Suicide gene therapy with HSV-TK in pancreatic cancer has no effect in vivo in a mouse model. *Eur J Surg Oncol*. 2003; 29(9):721–30. [PubMed: 14602490]
66. Wang J, Lu XX, Chen DZ, et al. Herpes simplex virus thymidine kinase and ganciclovir suicide gene therapy for human pancreatic cancer. *World J Gastroenterol*. 2004; 10(3):400–3. [PubMed: 14760766]
67. Freytag SO, Barton KN, Brown SL, et al. Replication-competent adenovirus-mediated suicide gene therapy with radiation in a preclinical model of pancreatic cancer. *Mol Ther*. 2007; 15(9):1600–6. [PubMed: 17551507]
68. Frängsmyr L, Baranov V, Hammarström S. Four carcinoembryonic antigen subfamily members, CEA, NCA, BGP and CGM2, selectively expressed in the normal human colonic epithelium. *Tumour Biol*. 1999; 20(5):277–92. [PubMed: 10436421]
69. Shmelkov SV, Butler JM, Hooper AT, et al. CD133 expression is not restricted to stem cells, and both CD133+ and CD133- metastatic colon cancer cells initiate tumors. *J Clin Invest*. Jun; 2008 118(6):2111–20. [PubMed: 18497886]
70. Haraguchi N, Ohkuma M, Sakashita H, et al. CD133+CD44+ population efficiently enriches colon cancer initiating cells. *Ann Surg Oncol*. 2008; 15(10):2927–33. [PubMed: 18663533]
71. Chen KL, Pan F, Jiang H, et al. Highly enriched CD133(+)CD44(+) stem-like cells with CD133(+)CD44(high) metastatic subset in HCT116 colon cancer cells. *Clin Exp Metastasis*. 2011; 28(8):751–63. [PubMed: 21750907]
72. Rocco A, Liguori E, Pirozzi G, et al. CD133 and CD44 cell surface markers do not identify cancer stem cells in primary human gastric tumors. *J Cell Physiol*. 2012; 227(6):2686–93. [PubMed: 21898409]
73. Ueda K, Iwahashi M, Nakamori M, et al. Carcinoembryonic antigen-specific suicide gene therapy of cytosine deaminase/5-fluorocytosine enhanced by the cre/loxP system. *Cancer Res*. 2001; 61:6158–62. [PubMed: 11507067]
74. Ricci-Vitiani L, Lombardi DG, Pilozzi E, et al. Identification and expansion of human colon-cancer-initiating cells. *Nature*. 2007; 445(7123):111–5. [PubMed: 17122771]
75. Leng A, Yang J, Liu T, et al. Nanoparticle-delivered VEGF-silencing cassette and suicide gene expression cassettes inhibit colon carcinoma growth in vitro and in vivo. *Tumour Biol*. 2011; 32(6):1103–11. [PubMed: 21761115]
76. Wang ZX, Bian HB, Yang JS, et al. Adenovirus-mediated suicide gene therapy under the control of Cox-2 promoter for colorectal cancer. *Cancer Biol Ther*. 2009; 8(15):1480–8. [PubMed: 19571664]
77. Imamura Y, Ishikawa S, Sato N, et al. Adenoviral oncolytic suicide gene therapy for a peritoneal dissemination model of gastric cancer in mice. *Ann Surg Oncol*. 2010; 17(2):643–52. [PubMed: 20012217]

78. Bertolini G, Roz L, Perego P, et al. Highly tumorigenic lung cancer CD133+ cells display stem-like features and are spared by cisplatin treatment. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2009; 106(38): 16281–6. [PubMed: 19805294]
79. Tirino V, Camerlingo R, Franco R, et al. The role of CD133 in the identification and characterisation of tumour-initiating cells in non-small-cell lung cancer. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg*. 2009; 36(3):446–53. [PubMed: 19464919]
80. Yae T, Tsuchihashi K, Ishimoto T, et al. Alternative splicing of CD44 mRNA by ESRP1 enhances lung colonization of metastatic cancer cell. *Nat Commun*. 2012; 3:883. [PubMed: 22673910]
81. Eramo A, Lotti F, Sette G, et al. Identification and expansion of the tumorigenic lung cancer stem cell population. *Cell Death Differ*. 2008; 15(3):504–14. [PubMed: 18049477]
82. Zarogoulidis P, Chatzaki E, Hohenforst-Schmidt W, et al. Management of malignant pleural effusion by suicide gene therapy in advanced stage lung cancer. *Cancer Gene Ther*. 2012; 19(9): 593–600. [PubMed: 22744209]
83. Steffens S, Sandquist A, Frank S, et al. A neuroblastoma-selective suicide gene therapy approach using the tyrosine hydroxylase promoter. *Pediatr Res*. 2004; 56(2):268–77. [PubMed: 15181182]
84. Tanaka M, Inase N, Miyake S, et al. Neuron specific enolase promoter for suicide gene therapy in small cell lung carcinoma. *Anticancer Res*. 2001; 21(1A):291–4. [PubMed: 11299750]
85. Qiu Y, Peng GL, Liu QC, et al. Selective killing of lung cancer cells using carcinoembryonic antigen promoter and double suicide genes, thymidine kinase and cytosine deaminase (pCEA-TK/CD). *Cancer Lett*. 2012; 316(1):31–8. [PubMed: 22099873]
86. Witlox MA, Van Beusechem VW, Grill J, et al. Epidermal growth factor receptor targeting enhances adenoviral vector based suicide gene therapy of osteosarcoma. *J Gene Med*. 2002; 4(5): 510–6. [PubMed: 12221644]
87. Heimberger AB, Sampson JH. The PEPvIII-KLH (CDX-110) vaccine in glioblastoma multiforme patients. *Expert Opin Biol Ther*. 2009; 9:1087–98. [PubMed: 19591631]
88. Malecki M. Cancer suicide gene therapy: Apoptosis of the ovarian cancer cells induced by EGFRvIII targeted delivery and cell nucleus targeted expression of the DNase transgenes. *J of Genetic Syndromes & Gene Ther*. 2012 in press.
89. Dreier B, Mikheeva G, Belousova N, et al. Her2-specific multivalent adapters confer designed tropism to adenovirus for gene targeting. *J Mol Biol*. 2011; 405(2):410–26. [PubMed: 21056576]
90. Heider KH, Kuthan H, Stehle G, et al. CD44v6: a target for antibody-based cancer therapy. *Cancer Immunol Immunother*. 2004; 53(7):567–79. [PubMed: 14762695]
91. Kuncová J, Kostrouch Z, Viale M, et al. Expression of CD44v6 correlates with cell proliferation and cellular atypia in urothelial carcinoma cell lines 5637 and HT1197. *Folia Biol*. 2005; 51(1):3–11.
92. Zhang SS, Han ZP, Jing YY, et al. CD133+CXCR4+ colon cancer cells exhibit metastatic potential and predict poor prognosis of patients. *BMC Medicine*. 2012; 10:85.
93. Kuroki M, Arakawa F, Khare PD, et al. Specific targeting strategies of cancer gene therapy using a single-chain variable fragment (scFv) with a high affinity for CEA. *Anticancer Res*. 2000; 20(6A): 4067–71. [PubMed: 11131674]
94. Shen LZ, Wu WX, Xu DH, et al. Specific CEA-producing colorectal carcinoma cell killing with recombinant adenoviral vector containing cytosine deaminase gene. *World J Gastroenterol*. 2002; 8(2):270–5. [PubMed: 11925606]
95. Duarte S, Faneca H, de Lima MC. Non-covalent association of folate to lipoplexes: a promising strategy to improve gene delivery in the presence of serum. *J Control Release*. 2011; 149(3):264–72. [PubMed: 21044650]
96. Habashy HO, Powe DG, Staka CM, et al. Transferrin receptor (CD71) is a marker of poor prognosis in breast cancer and can predict response to tamoxifen. *Breast Cancer Res Treat*. 2010; 119(2):283–93. [PubMed: 19238537]
97. Shimbo T, Kawachi M, Saga K, et al. Development of a transferrin receptor-targeting HVJ-E vector. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*. Dec 21; 2007 364(3):423–8. [PubMed: 17961511]
98. Neves S, Faneca H, Bertin S, et al. Transferrin lipoplex-mediated suicide gene therapy of oral squamous cell carcinoma in an immunocompetent murine model. *Cancer Gene Ther*. 2009; 16:91–101. [PubMed: 18690206]

99. Park K. Tumor regression after systemic administration of transferrin-targeted TNF alpha plasmid-dendrimer conjugates. *J Control Release*. 2010; 143(2):167. Epub 2010 Feb 26. No abstract available. [PubMed: 20193721]
100. Torres MP, Chakraborty S, Soucek J, et al. Mucin-based targeted pancreatic cancer therapy. *Curr Pharm Des*. 2012; 18(17):2472–81. [PubMed: 22372499]
101. Sadeqzadeh E, Rahbarizadeh F, Ahmadvand D, et al. Combined MUC1-specific nanobody-tagged PEG-PEI polyplex targeting and transcriptional targeting of tBid transgene for directed killing. *J Control Rel*. 2011; 156(1):85–91.
102. Malecki M, Szybalski W. Isolation of single, intact chromosomes from single, selected ovarian cancer cells for in situ hybridization and sequencing. *Gene*. 2012; 493(1):132–9. [PubMed: 22155315]
103. Navin N, Hicks J. Future medical applications of single-cell sequencing in cancer. *Genome Med*. 2012; 3(5):31–4. [PubMed: 21631906]
104. Cao G, Kuriyama S, Gao J, et al. In vivo gene transfer of a suicide gene under the transcriptional control of the CEA promoter results in bone marrow transduction but can avoid bone marrow suppression. 1999; 15:107–12.
105. Song JS, Kim HP, Yoon WS, et al. Adenovirus-mediated suicide gene therapy using the human telomerase catalytic subunit gene promoter induced apoptosis of ovarian cancer cell line. *Biosci Biot Bioch*. 2003; 67(11):2344–50.
106. Song JS. Adenovirus-mediated suicide SCLC gene therapy using the increased activity of the hTERT promoter by the MMRE and SV40 enhancer. *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem*. 2005; 69(1):56–62. [PubMed: 15665468]
107. Majumdar AS, Hughes DE, Lichtsteiner SP, et al. The telomerase reverse transcriptase promoter drives efficacious tumor suicide gene therapy while preventing hepatotoxicity. *Gene Gene Ther*. 2001; 8(7):568–78.
108. Plumb JA, Bilsland A, Kakani R, et al. Telomerase-specific suicide gene therapy vectors expressing bacterial nitroreductase sensitize human cancer cells to the pro-drug CB1954. *Oncogene*. 2001; 20(53):7797–803. [PubMed: 11753658]
109. Song Y, Kong BH, Liu PS, et al. Treatment of ovarian cancer cell line Skov3 with HSV-tk/GCV under the control of human telomerase reverse transcriptase gene promoter. *Zhongguo Yi Xue Ke Xue Yuan Xue Bao*. 2003; 25(4):438–42. [PubMed: 12974091]
110. Ishiwata N, Inase N, Fujie T, et al. Suicide gene therapy using keratin 19 enhancer and promoter in malignant mesothelioma cells. *Anticancer Res*. 2003; 23(2B):1405–9. [PubMed: 12820402]
111. Yamamoto M, Alemany R, Adachi Y, et al. Characterization of the cyclooxygenase-2 promoter in an adenoviral vector and its application for gastrointestinal cancers. *Mol Ther*. 2001; 3(3):385–94. [PubMed: 11273781]
112. Eisenberg RJ, Atanasiu D, Cairns TM, et al. Herpes virus fusion and entry: a story with many characters. *Viruses*. 2012; 4(5):800–32. [PubMed: 22754650]
113. Neve RL. Overview of Gene Delivery into Cells Using HSV-1-Based Vectors. *Curr Protoc Neurosci*. 2012; Chapter 4(Unit 4):12. [PubMed: 23093351]
114. Neschadim A, Wang JC, Lavie A, et al. Bystander killing of malignant cells via the delivery of engineered thymidine-active deoxycytidine kinase for suicide gene therapy of cancer. *Cancer Gene Ther*. 2012; 19(5):320–7. [PubMed: 22388453]
115. Nicholas TW, Read SB, Burrows FJ, et al. Suicide gene therapy with HSVTK and ganciclovir is enhanced with connexins to improve gap junctions and bystander effects. *Histol Histopathol*. 2003; 18(2):495–507. [PubMed: 12647801]
116. Douek DC, Roederer M, Koup RA. Emerging Concepts in the Immunopathogenesis of AIDS. *Annu Rev Med*. 2009; 60:471–84. [PubMed: 18947296]
117. Flynn RP, Zacharias J, Zhou X, et al. Non-integrating lentiviral vectors for specific killing of Epstein-Barr virus nuclear antigen 1-positive B cell lymphoma cells. *J Gene Med*. 2011; 13(9):487–96. [PubMed: 21850667]
118. Miyake K, Inokuchi K, Miyake N, et al. HIV vector-mediated targeted suicide gene therapy for adult T-cell leukemia. *Gene Ther*. 2007; 14(23):1662–7. [PubMed: 17898798]

119. Ravet E, Lulka H, Gross F, et al. Using lentiviral vectors for efficient pancreatic cancer gene therapy. *Cancer Gene Ther.* 2010; 17(5):315–24. [PubMed: 19911032]
120. van Geer MA, Kuhlmann KF, Bakker CT, et al. Ex-vivo evaluation of gene therapy vectors in human pancreatic (cancer) tissue slices. *World J Gastroenterol* 21. 2009; 15(11):1359–66.
121. Kallifatidis G, Beckermann BM, Groth A, et al. Improved lentiviral transduction of human mesenchymal stem cells for therapeutic intervention in pancreatic cancer. *Cancer Gene Ther.* 2008; 15(4):231–40. [PubMed: 18202717]
122. Bergelson JM, Cunningham JA, Droguett G, et al. Isolation of a common receptor for Coxsackie B viruses and adenoviruses 2 and 5. *Science.* 1997; 275(5304):1320–3. [PubMed: 9036860]
123. Miyagi T, Koshida K, Hori O, et al. Gene therapy for prostate cancer using the cytosine deaminase/uracil phosphoribosyltransferase suicide system. *J Gene Med.* 2003; 5(1):30–7. [PubMed: 12516049]
124. Wiewrodt R, Amin K, Kiefer M, et al. Adenovirus-mediated gene transfer of enhanced Herpes simplex virus thymidine kinase mutants improves prodrug-mediated tumor cell killing. *Cancer Gene Ther.* 2003; 10(5):353–64. [PubMed: 12719705]
125. Li X, Marani M, Yu J, et al. Adenovirus-mediated Bax overexpression for the induction of therapeutic apoptosis in prostate cancer. *Cancer Res.* 2001; 61(1):186–91. [PubMed: 11196158]
126. Xie X, Zhao X, Liu Y, et al. Adenovirus-mediated tissue-targeted expression of a caspase-9-based artificial death switch for the treatment of prostate cancer. *Cancer Res.* 2001; 61(18):6795–804. [PubMed: 11559553]
127. Carlotti F, Zaldumbide A, Martin P, et al. Development of an inducible suicide gene system based on human caspase 8. *Cancer Gene Ther.* 2005; 12(7):627–39. [PubMed: 15746943]
128. Lowe SL, Rubinchik S, Honda T, et al. Prostate-specific expression of Bax delivered by an adenoviral vector induces apoptosis in LNCaP prostate cancer cells. *Gene Ther.* 2001; 8(18):1363–71. [PubMed: 11571575]
129. Shariat SF, Desai S, Song W, et al. Adenovirus-mediated transfer of inducible caspases: a novel “death switch” gene therapeutic approach to prostate cancer. *Cancer Res.* 2001; 61(6):2562–71. [PubMed: 11289132]
130. Lu M, Freytag SO, Stricker H, et al. Adaptive seamless design for an efficacy trial of replication-competent adenovirus-mediated suicide gene therapy. *Contemp Clin Trials.* 2011; 32(3):453–60. [PubMed: 21300181]
131. Kim KM, Won YW, Adhikary PP, et al. Suicidal gene therapy against tumor using reducible poly (oligo-D-arginine). *J Control Release.* 2011; 152(Suppl 1):e148–9. [PubMed: 22195813]
132. Wang Y, Canine BF, Hatefi A. HSV-TK/GCV cancer suicide gene therapy by a designed recombinant multifunctional vector. *Nanomedicine.* 2011; 7(2):193–200. [PubMed: 20817124]
133. Chen Y, Wang G, Kong D, et al. In vitro and in vivo double-enhanced suicide gene therapy mediated by generation 5 polyamidoamine dendrimers for PC-3 cell line. *World J Surg Oncol.* 2012; 10:3. [PubMed: 22226139]
134. Wang Y, Mangipudi SS, Canine BF, et al. A designer biomimetic vector with a chimeric architecture for targeted gene transfer. *J Control Release.* 2009; 137(1):46–53. [PubMed: 19303038]
135. Yang J, Lam DH, Goh SS, et al. Tumor tropism of intravenously injected human-induced pluripotent stem cell-derived neural stem cells and their gene therapy application in a metastatic breast cancer model. *Stem Cells.* 2012; 30(5):1021–9. [PubMed: 22311724]
136. Joo KM, Park IH, Shin JY, et al. Human neural stem cells can target and deliver therapeutic genes to breast cancer brain metastases. *Mol Ther.* 2009; 17(3):570–5. [PubMed: 19127251]
137. Zhao Y, Lam DH, Yang J, et al. Targeted suicide gene therapy for glioma using human embryonic stem cell-derived neural stem cells genetically modified by baculoviral vectors. *Gene Ther.* 2012; 19(2):189–200. [PubMed: 21633393]
138. Lee EX, Lam DH, Wu C, et al. Glioma gene therapy using induced pluripotent stem cell derived neural stem cells. *Mol Pharm.* 2011; 8(5):1515–24. [PubMed: 21755959]
139. Altanerova V, Cihova M, Babic M, et al. Human adipose tissue-derived mesenchymal stem cells expressing yeast CD: UPRT inhibit intracerebral rat glioblastoma. *Int J Cancer.* 2012; 130(10):2455–63. [PubMed: 21732344]

140. Preuss E, Muik A, Weber K, Otte J, et al. Cancer suicide gene therapy with TK.007: superior killing efficiency and bystander effect. *J Mol Med*. 2011; 89(11):1113–24. [PubMed: 21698427]
141. Beerens AM, Rots MG, Berm\_dez B, et al. Secretion of thymidine kinase to increase the effectivity of suicide gene therapy results in the loss of enzymatic activity. *J Drug Target*. 2008; 16(1):26–35. [PubMed: 18172817]
142. Ryu CH, Park KY, Kim SM, et al. Valproic acid enhances anti-tumor effect of mesenchymal stem cell mediated HSV-TK gene therapy in intracranial glioma. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*. 2012; 421(3):585–90. [PubMed: 22525671]
143. Bak XY, Lam DH, Yang J, et al. Human embryonic stem cell-derived mesenchymal stem cells as cellular delivery vehicles for prodrug gene therapy of glioblastoma. *Hum Gene Ther*. 2011; 22(11):1365–77. [PubMed]. [PubMed: 21425958]
144. Mori K, Iwata J, Miyazaki M, et al. Bystander killing effect of thymidine kinase gene-transduced adult bone marrow stromal cells with ganciclovir on malignant glioma cells. *Neurol Med Chir*. 2010; 50(7):545–53.
145. Amano S, Li S, Gu C, Gao Y, et al. Use of genetically engineered bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells for glioma gene therapy. *Int J Oncol*. 2009; 35(6):1265–70. [PubMed: 19885548]
146. Matuskova M, Hlubinova K, Pastorakova A, et al. HSV-tk expressing mesenchymal stem cells exert bystander effect on human glioblastoma cells. *Cancer Lett*. 2010; 290(1):58–67. [PubMed: 19765892]
147. Niess H, Bao Q, Conrad C, et al. Selective targeting of genetically engineered mesenchymal stem cells to tumor stroma microenvironments using tissue-specific suicide gene expression suppresses growth of hepatocellular carcinoma. *Ann Surg*. 2011; 254(5):767–74. [PubMed: 22042469]
148. Yi BR, Kim SU, Kim YB, et al. Antitumor effects of genetically engineered stem cells expressing yeast cytosine deaminase in lung cancer brain metastases via their tumor-tropic properties. *Oncol Rep*. 2012; 27(6):1823–8. [PubMed: 22426744]