

## **REVIEW**

### **Epigenetic therapy for cancer**

**Mohammad Saleem<sup>1\*</sup>, Khizar Abbas<sup>1</sup>, Maria Manan<sup>1</sup>, Hira Ijaz<sup>1</sup>, Bilal Ahmed<sup>1</sup>,  
Muhammad Ali<sup>2</sup>, Muhammad Hanif<sup>3</sup>, Ammad Ahmad Farooqi<sup>4</sup>  
and Muhammad Imran Qadir<sup>2</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>College of Pharmacy, GC University, Faisalabad, Pakistan

<sup>2</sup>Institute of Molecular Biology and Biotechnology & <sup>3</sup>Faculty of Pharmacy, Bahauddin Zakariya University, Multan, Pakistan

<sup>4</sup>Laboratory for Translational Oncology and Personalized Medicine, RLMC, 35 Km Ferozepur Road, Lahore, Pakistan

---

**Abstract:** Epigenetics means the study of alterations in the genetic material that affect the phenotype but does not affect the genotype. Epigenetics cause alterations in cell properties, which are inherited; but it does not cause alterations in DNA sequence. Epigenetic mediated silencing of gene is of four types, which are DNA methylation, histone deacetylation, RNA associated silencing and Genomic imprinting. Other factors (environmental and xenobiotics) can also cause gene silencing but DNA methylation and changes in histones of chromatin are two important changes, which are responsible for malignant diseases. Two groups of drugs are under development, which corrects the epigenetic alterations. These are histone deacetylation (HDAC) inhibitors and DNA methyltransferase (DNMT) inhibitors. These drugs may be used in cancer because in cancer, hypermethylation of cancer suppressor gene causes gene silencing. Epigenetic therapy scope is likely to increase in future.

**Keywords:** Epigenetics, silencing, DNMTs, HDACs

---

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Inheritance of information on the base of expression of gene is called epigenetics. Genetics is opposite to it. So, the inheritance of information on the bases of sequences of genes is called genetics. Diploid human genome consists of approximately 6 billion DNA base pairs per cell packaged in 23 chromosomes. Human body consists of 50 trillion cells approximately, which forms 100 trillion meter of DNA per human. The distance of sun from earth is 150 billion meters. DNA is of such enough length that we can go from earth to sun and can again come back more than 300 times. Histones protein pack the larger chromosomal DNA into the microscopic space of eukaryotic nucleus (Hake *et al.*, 2004). More compact DNA is formed by addition of H1 into it. Energy is provided by histones to fold the DNA. After this, chromatin becomes pack into very small volume. Histones are family of proteins having positive charge. These can bind with negatively charged DNA very tightly (Van Holde, 1988). Chromatin contains nucleosomes which are the basic units of chromatin. Nucleosomes consist of 166 DNA base pairs and nine histone proteins (Van Holde, 1988; Wolffe, 1999). In nucleosome H2A, H3, H4, H2B forms a discrete histone octamer which binds and rolled approximately 146 base pairs of DNA or about 1.7 turns of DNA. H1 protein again wraps 20 base pairs so that two full turns rolled around the octamer and having approximately 166 base pairs. CPG or CG sites are

\*Corresponding author: e-mail: saleem2978@hotmail.com

the regions where a guanine base follows cytosine. In CPG phosphate (P) joins both cytosine (C) and guanine (G). Promoters are the DNA regions where transcription of a particular gene is started. They are present in the vicinity of gene they transcribe. In the mammal's genome epigenetic changes takes place when cytosine comes before guanine. CPG dinucleotide may be methylated and non-methylated. 60-90% of dinucleotide is in methylated form while CPG island contain CPG dinucleotide in non-methylated form (Ng and Bird, 1999). In genome CPG dinucleotides are very occasionally found. They are not distributed uniformly. One in 80 dinucleotides is CPG dinucleotide. Genome contains 1% CPG content region. This region is known as CPG island (CPG clusters) (Bestor *et al.*, 1988). CPG island is 90% in unmethylated form. CPG island are present in promoters region. In normal cells, unmethylated CPG island is present.

Active gene associates when CPG site is in unmethylated form, when methylation occurs at lysine 4 on histamine (H3K4), when there is histone acetylation and when chromatin is openly configured. Active gene undergoes transcription. Inactive gene occurs when CPG regions are methylated, lysine 9 and 27 of histone H3 are methylated, histone is deacetylated with changed chromatin configuration. Four systems DNA methylation, Histone deacetylation, RNA associated silencing and genomic imprinting are responsible for epigenetic silencing initiation and maintenance. First three systems interact and stabilize one and other. The most well identified

epigenetic alteration is CPG island hypermethylation. Disturbed pattern of DNA methylation which inhibited gene expression have been observed in cancers (Baylin and Herman, 2000; Das and Singal, 2004). Gene silencing may not be initially started by DNA methylation rather than prior silenced gene may cause CPG island methylation. It is also a fact that histone code alterations are required before cytosine methylation (Clark and Melki, 2002). DNA hypomethylation can also cause cancer. Highly repeated DNA sequences show hypomethylation. Most commonly hypomethylation is observed in prostate cancer (Costello and Plass, 2001), Solid tumors (Kim *et al.*, 1994) and hepatocellular tumors. DNA hypomethylation and hypermethylation are two independent processes (Ehrlich, 2002). Any disturbance in any of these systems inhibition of gene expression and silencing which ultimately causes epigenetic diseases such as cancer. Some other factors such as environmental and xenobiotics are also responsible for epigenetic silencing of tumor suppressive gene. Gene silencing inhibits gene transcription, which after transcription in normal cells regulates cell division, suppress tumor and repair DNA. So in turn cancer develops. Cancer is uncontrolled growth of cells and proliferation, which can be prevented by modifying cellular machinery so that underlying genetic information are restored. Transcriptional inactivation is causally caused by DNA methylation (Bednarik *et al.*, 1990). Many genes can be silenced in CPG island areas. These are p16, p15, Rb, p14, BRCA1, DAPK, MGM, TMSI etc (Das and Singal, 2004). P16 methylation has been found in colon tumors.

#### **DNA methylation**

In epigenetic modifications DNA methylation is most widely studied in mammals. In promoter gene CPG dinucleotide is methylated. In DNA methylation there is transfer of methyl group by cytosine methyl transferase to C5 position of cytosine from S-adenosyl methionine (SAM) and DNA methyltransferases helps in this (Claus and Lubbert, 2003). This causes gene silencing which then inhibits expression of gene and its activation because its transcription is inhibited. These methylated regions are transferred heritably by cell division. In DNA methylation, MeCP2 (repressor) binds with methylated DNA then there is recruitment of complex containing histone deacetylase and a repressor of transcription. After this there is reduction in the affinity of gene sequence for transcriptional factors. This leads to inhibition of transcription of tumor suppressive gene. This gene regulates division of cell, suppression of cancer and cause repairing of DNA. Methyl CPG binding protein can also bind with cytosine in methylated form and this causes inhibition of binding of different factors which involve in transcription (Jain, 2003; Kass *et al.*, 1997). When it binds, it causes attachment of histone deacetylases with methylated sites (Bird and Wolffe, 1999; Egger *et al.*, 2004). Then some proteins and histones come in non-

acetylated form (Bird and Wolffe, 1999; Claus and Lubbert, 2003). Methyl cytosine inhibits the binding of transcriptional factors to the methylated regions of DNA (Claus and Lubbert, 2003; Kass *et al.*, 1997). Binding affinity may also be reduced (Jain, 2003; Mancini, 1998; Tate and Bird, 1993). Abnormal methylation can cause carcinogenesis. Epigenetic mechanisms are responsible for regulation of 600 genes. Alone DNA methylation may not be responsible for tumor. DNA methylation along with the hypermethylated gene may be the cause of gene silencing (Kouzarides, 2007). Methylation of cytosine is the most exclusive DNA Modification while histone changes are of many types.

#### **DNA methyltransferases (DNMTs/DNA MTase)**

DNA methyltransferases are enzymes that catalyze the transfer of methyl group to DNA. All DNA methyltransferases utilize a methyl donor, which is S-adenosylmethionine (SAM). DNMTs interact with proteins possessing transcriptional repression properties and histone deacetylases and directly cause inhibition of transcription (Bachman, 2001; Fuks *et al.*, 2001). DNMTs cause gene silencing with or without DNA methylation (Barbara, 2003; Fuks *et al.*, 2000; Robertson *et al.*, 2000; Rountree *et al.*, 2000). In mammals there are 3 active DNA methyltransferases. These are DNMT1, DNMT3A and DNMT3B. DNMT2 is fourth enzyme, which is not DNA methyltransferase. There are two kinds of methyltransferases de novo methylation methyltransferases and maintenance methyltransferases. New cytosine methylation is done by de novo methyltransferases. They usually undergo expression during early embryonic life. Maintenance methyltransferases methylate DNA when one strand is methylated already. They maintain methylation pattern established by de-novo methylation throughout an organism's life. DNMT1 is the DNMTase, which is most abundantly found in mammalian cells. In normal and cancer cells DNMT1 cause maintenance of pre-existing methylation. DNMT1 copies the methylated pattern in the newly formed DNA strand by acting on hemimethylated DNA. *In vitro* this enzyme is 7 to 100 times more active for hemi methylated DNA than for unmethylated DNA. Maintenance and de-novo methylation of tumor suppressor gene is carried out by DNMT1 in human cancer cells. DNMT1 contains 1620 amino acids. It contains regulatory and catalytic domain. Catalytic functions require both domains. De novo methylation is carried out by DNMT3 enzyme. DNMT3 is responsible for addition of methyl group to CPG sequence which forms hemi methylated then completely methylated CPG. So it performs methylation of unmethylated and hemi methylated CPG at the same rate. It has three members DNMT3A, DNMT3B, DNMT3L. CPG dinucleotide methylation by enzyme DNMT3A occurs at much slower rate than DNMT1 but it occurs at greater rate than DNMT3B. Structurally DNMT3L closely resembles with DNMT3A and DNMT3B. It is inactive on its own but for

DNA methylation it is critical. Sequence similarities of DNMT2 (TRDMT1) are same as that of 5-methylcytosine methyltransferases. This enzyme is not responsible for DNA methylation but it methylates aspartic acid tRNA at position 38. Its name has been changed to TRDMT1 (tRNA aspartic acid methyltransferase 1) to show its different functions.

**Histone modifications**

Histone alteration occurs in N-terminal area not in the body of histone because N-tail area is accessible. In active gene lysine 4 of histone H3 (H3K4) (Lachner et al., 2001) is methylated and in inactive gene lysine 9 and 27 of histone H3 are methylated (Jones et al., 1987-1991; Kouzarides, 2007). H3 hypoacetylation, methylation of H3K9 and phosphorylation are main transcriptional changes. These are responsible for changes in chromatin structure and silencing of gene. Histone acetylation is responsible for marking active transcribing regions. Histone deacetylated areas are inactive transcriptionally (Marushige, 1976). Histone methylation is responsible for marking both active and inactive areas (Baylin and Herman, 2000). DNA methylation can start histones modification and on the other hand histone modification can also start DNA methylation (Jones and Baylin, 2002). At lysine residues histone acetyltransferases (HATs) are responsible for hypoacetylation of histone but histone deacetylase remove acetyl group and are responsible for histone deacetylation. This causes chromatin condensation, silencing of gene and inhibition of transcription. Chromatin condensation takes place when histone is deacetylated. Recruitment of histone deacetylases is caused by methyl CPG binding protein. HDACs cause histones and some other proteins deacetylation. This is responsible for silencing of gene, which develops cancer. DNMTs are also activated by HDACs. Methylation of lysine 27 and 9 on histone also causes gene silencing and cause transcription inhibition. Histone deacetylases are also recruited by DNMTs. It is also possible that histone mediated silencing of cancer suppressive gene is responsible for increased DNA methylation (Cortez and Jones, 2008). They both are responsible for gene silencing. Activation of gene is associated with histone acetylation and inactivation of gene is associated with histone deacetylation.

**RNA associated silencing/Chromatin remodeling**

RNA associated gene silencing is of two types transcriptional and post transcriptional. In post transcriptional gene silencing RNA forms heterochromatin and causes heritable transcriptional gene silencing. RNA transcriptional gene silencing occurs when RNA is present as anti-sense transcripts, non-coding RNAs and RNAi (RNA interference). RNA associated silencing also enhances DNA methylation and modifications in histone. In mammals RNAi associated silencing is not described (Panning and Jaenisch, 1998).

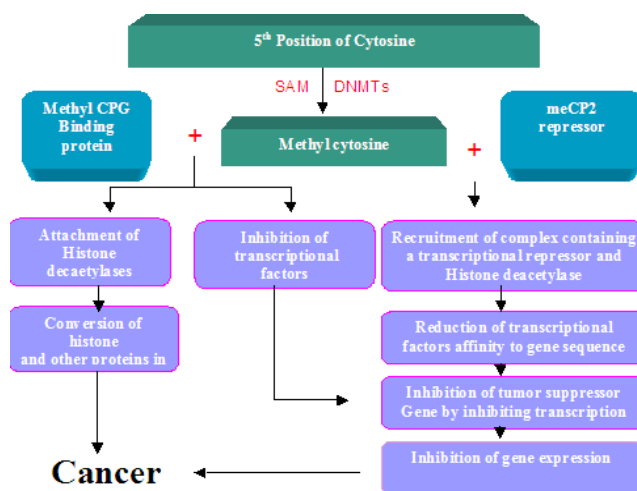
However gene silencing by anti-sense RNA is reported. Anti-sense transcription is responsible for causing globin gene silencing and methylation of DNA in  $\alpha$ -thalassaemia.

**Genomic imprinting**

It is specific allele silencing. In this one parental allele is silenced while other parental allele is not. It is maintained by methylated areas near or within the imprinted gene.

**Other factors responsible for epigenetic variations**

Environmental factors cause dys-regulation in DNA methylation pattern e.g. cigarette smoke and hormone. They develop cancer. Xenobiotics such as diethyl stilbesterol also change methylation pattern and are responsible for abnormal expression of gene. Nutritional factors also alter methylation pattern and can develop tumor.



**Fig. 1:** Comprehensive diagram showing how DNA methylation causes cancer

**DNA methylation role in prognosis and prevention**

In clinical setting DNA methylation changes serve many functions. Hypermethylated gene occurs in cancer cells. While normal cells contain unmethylated CPG island. Keeping in view these, malignant changes can be assessed. These techniques can be used for detecting malignant alterations because hypremethylated gene precedes these changes. Altered methylation patterns can give prognostic information to clinicians. For example lung cancer can be detected by p16 gene hypermethylation. Methylation can be detected by various techniques.

**Drugs used for epigenetic cancer therapy**

The problem of resistance and tolerance to the existing drugs has created a decreased efficacy of these drugs in use. This problem has been tried to be overcome by increasing the drug delivery to the target site by the use of

polymers (Khalid *et al.*, 2009; Hussain *et al.*, 2011) or through nanotechnology (Naz *et al.*, 2012; Ehsan *et al.*, 2012), synthesis of new drugs, either by the use of proteomics (Qadir, 2011), or synthesis from lactic acid bacteria (Masood *et al.*, 2011), or marine microorganisms (Javed *et al.*, 2011). The modern era of research on medicine is searching for new drugs especially anti-inflammatory (Qadir, 2009), hypotensive (Qadir, 2010), hepatoprotective (Ahmad *et al.*, 2012; Qadir *et al.*, 2013; Mallhi *et al.*, 2014; Qadir *et al.*, 2014a; Qadir *et al.*, 2014b; Saleem *et al.*, 2014a), hypoglycaemic (Nisa *et al.*, 2009; Qadir and Malik, 2010), amoebicidal (Asif and Qadir, 2011), anti-fertility, cytotoxic, antibiotic (Amin *et al.*, 2012; Saleem *et al.*, 2014b), spasmolytic, bronchodilator (Janbaz *et al.*, 2013a), antioxidant (Janbaz *et al.*, 2012), anti-diarrheal (Janbaz *et al.*, 2013b) and anti-Parkinsonism drugs. Similarly, a large number of anticancer drugs are also under consideration for their positive effects (Ameen *et al.*, 2012; Bokhari *et al.*, 2012; Farooqi *et al.*, 2013; Saleem *et al.*, 2013; Iqbal *et al.*, 2014).

Epigenetic alterations are reversible so these alterations can be therapeutically treated. We have synthetic drugs which inhibit enzymes e.g. histone deacetylases and DNA methyltransferases. Synthetic drugs are used in combination or as single agent in clinical setting. Combination therapy targets both mechanisms DNA methylation and histone modifications because of linkage between these two. Increase DNMT inhibitors doses cause cytotoxicity but lower doses can be given when they are combined with HDAC inhibitors. Another approach of combine therapy is that firstly use epigenetic therapy to cancer cells then use traditional chemotherapy, immunotherapy or interferon (Karpf and Jones, 2002). HDACs alone are not responsible for gene hypermethylation unlike DNMTs. DNA methyltransferase mostly are tested clinically. DNMTi and HDACi have been used for treating haematological cancers. They possess little efficacy for solid tumors (Hauschild *et al.*, 2008). DNMTi are dominant over HDACi because HDACi alone cannot express the hyperacetylated gene (Herman and Baylin, 2003; Suzuki *et al.*, 2002). Nutrition has been suggested to reverse abnormal epigenetic patterns. Dietary factors and epigenetic interventions decrease HDACs, MBD and DNMTs and these agents can change the DNA methylation status and restores histone in acetylated form. They can also increase methyl marks at promoters of inactive gene. After this, gene will be available for transcriptional factors, which activate transcription. DNA and modifications in histones are the common types of epigenetic alterations. Breast cancer treatment requires multidisciplinary therapies. Treatment options for treating breast cancer include options such as combination of surgery therapy, radiation therapy, cytotoxic chemotherapy and molecular targeted therapy. Recent treatment modifications now are focusing on the

modifications, which are epigenetically controlled. These alterations depend upon the function of special enzymes histone deacetylases and DNA methyltransferases. These enzymes are considered now a target for epigenetic treatment (Handel and Ebers, 2010). Inhibitors of these enzymes in epigenetic therapy show anticancer effects in malignant diseases.

#### **Dna methyltransferase inhibitors**

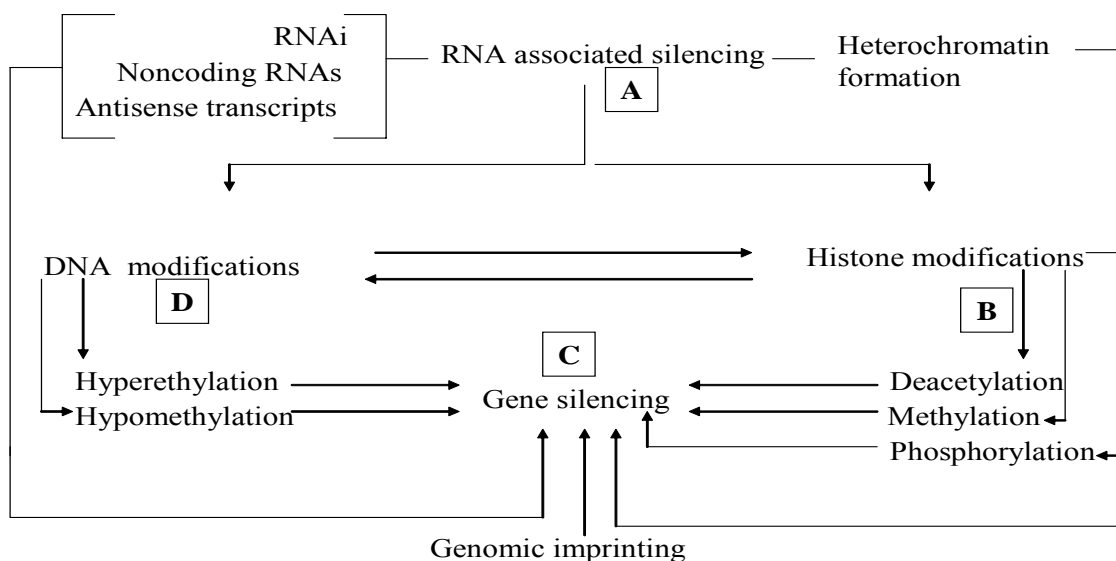
DNA methylation affects the gene expression in the gene regulatory regions. In mammalian genome a new DNA alteration which is 5-hydroxymethylcytosine causes demethylation of DNA (Tahiliani *et al.*, 2009; Robertson *et al.*, 2011). CPG island hypermethylation causes transcriptional gene inactivation. Hypermethylation often is found in promoters regions of gene. These regions involve in the regulation of cell cycle, repairing DNA and apoptosis. CPG island DNA hypermethylation have been observed in many malignancies, which include myelodysplastic syndrome, myelogenous leukemia (AML), (Voso *et al.*, 2010; Hatziapostolou and Iliopoulos, 2011). DNA methylation is established and maintained by enzymes DNA methyltransferases (Bestor, 2000). In mammals active DNA methyltransferases are DNMT1, DNMT3A and DNMT3B. In mammalian cell DNMT1 causes maintenance of methylation pattern of DNA. DNMT3A and DNMT3B performs denovo establishment of methylation pattern (Schaefer *et al.*, 2009). Demethylation of DNA can be acquired by the failure of maintaining methylation after when DNA is replicated or by the processes which are independent on DNA replication involving base excision repair (BER) and nucleotide excision repair (NER) (Chen and Riggs *et al.*, 2011; Gehring *et al.*, 2009). TET1 an iron dependant  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate dioxygenase enzyme which is responsible for converting 5-methylcytosine to 5-hydroxy methyl cytosine and this causes demethylation. A recent drug development is mainly focusing on DNMT inhibitors, which include nucleoside, nonnucleoside analogues and antisense nucleotides. After inhibition of DNMTs gene could be reactivated which have been silenced in carcinogenic process by the DNA methylation and non carcinogenic state of cell can then be reconstituted. DNMTs inhibitors are not specific for any cancer type and they are used to treat many cancers (Cortez and Jones, 2006). Based upon their structure DNMTs are divided into three groups.

#### **Nucleoside analogues**

Nucleoside analogues cause inhibition of synthesis of DNA. They transform into nucleotide and then incorporate into the DNA. They forms covalent complexes with the enzyme DNMTs and cause their depletion and then finally methylation patterns reversed. Nucleoside analogues which are well characterized are of five types; 5-azacytidine, 5-aza-2-deoxycytidine (5-aza-cdr), 5-fluoro-2-deoxycytidine, zebularine and decitabine.

**Table 1:** Classification of epigenetic drugs

DNMT inhibitors	HDAC inhibitors
<p><u>Nucleoside analogues</u></p> <p>5-azacytidine (5-aza-CR)</p> <p>5-aza-2'-deoxycytidine</p> <p>5-aza-fluoro-2'-deoxycytidine</p> <p>Zebularine</p> <p>Decitabine (5-aza-cdR)</p> <p><u>Non-nucleoside analogues</u></p> <p>Procainamide</p> <p>Procaine</p> <p>Epigallocatechin-3-gallate (EGCG)</p> <p>RG 108</p> <p>Psammaplins</p> <p>NVP-LAQ 824</p> <p>MG 98</p> <p>Hydralazine</p> <p><u>Antisense oligonucleotides</u></p> <p>DNMT1 ASO</p>	<p><u>Short chain fatty acids</u></p> <p>Butyrate (Phenyl butyrate)</p> <p>Valproic Acid</p> <p><u>Hydroxamates</u></p> <p>Trichostatin A</p> <p>Suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid (SAHA)</p> <p>ITF2357</p> <p>LBH589</p> <p>Oxamflatin</p> <p>PCI-24781</p> <p>PXD101</p> <p><u>Cyclic terapeptides</u></p> <p>Apicidin</p> <p>Depsipeptide (FK228, Romidepsin)</p> <p>Trapoxin</p> <p>Tasidotin</p> <p>Cyclic hydroxamic acid containing peptide (CHAP)</p> <p><u>Benzamides</u></p> <p>MS-275 (Entinostat, MS-27-275)</p> <p>MGCD-0103</p> <p>CI-994</p> <p><u>Electroplilic ketones</u></p> <p>Trifluoromethyl ketones</p> <p><math>\alpha</math>- Ketoamides</p> <p><u>Miscellaneous</u></p> <p>Depudecin</p> <p>SNDX-275</p> <p>Isothiocyanates</p>



**Fig. 2:** (A) RNA associated silencing facilitates his tone modifications and DNA methylation. RNA associated silencing is transcriptional and post transcriptional. (B) His tone modifications can also start the process of DNA methylation. His tone modifications (acetylation and methylation, phosphorylation) cause gene silencing. (C) Genomic imprinting can also cause gene silencing. (D) DNA methylation initiates his tone modification. DNA hypermethylation and hypomethylation are responsible for gene silencing.

### 5-azacytidine

5-azacytidine is a prototype DNMTi can be used for treating myelodysplastic syndrome. Its anticancer activity is due to two mechanisms, which are DNA methylation and cytotoxicity. It incorporated in both RNA and DNA. Mammalian cell treatment with 5-aza-CR causes defective rRNAs and tRNAs and inhibition of protein synthesis (Christman, 2002). This causes rearrangement in chromosomes and cytotoxicity (Kuo *et al.*, 2007).

### 5-aza-2-deoxycytidine

It is cytosine analogue during replication becomes incorporated in the DNA. It inhibits both DNMT3 B and DNMT1. It causes in histone H3 and H4 acetylation at promoter regions. It activates silenced cancer suppressor gene. It increases the sensitivity of breast tumor cells to the anticancer agents (Mirza, 2010).

### 5-fluoro-2-deoxycytidine

This is DNA methyltransferase inhibitor. It inhibits methyltransferase reaction (Beumer, 2008; Gowher and Jeltsch, 2004). This drug forms very toxic metabolites (Boothman *et al.*, 1989).



**Fig. 3:** Classification of drugs used in epigenetic therapy

### Zebularine

It reactivates the gene which is silenced and inhibits methylation of DNA. It undergoes phosphorylation to diphosphate level then incorporates into the DNA. It causes post transcriptional DNMTs methyl CPG binding protein inhibition and causes modification in the histone acetylation state. Zebularine is less toxic than other DNMTi to breast tumor cell lines (Billam *et al.*, 2010).

### Decitabine

It is also a prototype DNA methyltransferase inhibitor.

### Non-Nucleoside analogues

Non nucleoside analogue which inhibit DNA methylation are very few. They do not incorporate into the DNA. They bind to the DNMTs catalytic region directly.

### RG 108

It inhibits DNMTs in human cell lines *in vitro*. It reactivates cancer suppressor gene and causes demethylation.

### EGCG

EGCG is a polyphenol compound present in green tea. Micromolar EGCG concentration increases the tumor suppressor gene transcription and decreases the DNA methylation (Fang *et al.*, 2003). It will be tested in phase 11 and 111 clinical trials in future (Moyers and Kumar, 2004)

### Psammaplins

They inhibit both HDACs and DNMTs (Pina *et al.*, 2003).

### NVP-LAQ824

It is derivative of psammplin. It has shown anticancer activity (Atadja, 2004). It is under phase 1 trial for hematologic malignancies.

### MG98

MGAS inhibits DNMT1 mRNA translation. It gets hybridize with DNMT1 mRNA. MG 98 has low toxicity.

### Hydralazine

Hydralazine cause transcriptional reactivation of tumor suppressor gene. Phase 1 clinical trials have shown that hydralazine is well tolerated and do not show common side effects of chemotherapeutic agents.

### Antisense oligonucleotides

These are short nucleotide sequences which are complementary to Mrna. They hybridize and inactivate mRNA by inhibiting their translation.

### Histone deacetylation inhibitors

In tumors, HDAC inhibitors are responsible for differentiation, apoptosis and growth arrest. The mechanism of histone deacetylation inhibitors is that they inhibit the enzyme histone deacetylase which in turn converts histone in acetylated form. By this different cellular processes which have become changed in cancer cells can then be restored to original state. Acetylated histone causes gene induction and upregulation that has silenced. HDAC inhibitors cause accumulation of hyperacetylated histones and they prevent cancer (Marsoni *et al.*, 2011). LSD1 is first enzyme which demethylates histones. It was identified in 2004 (Shi *et al.*, 2004). Histone deacetylation inhibitors are of four types: Short chain fatty acids, cyclic tetrapeptides, hydroxamic acids and benzamides (Fang and Ji, 2009). In the future HDAC inhibitors with chemotherapeutic agents may be used for treating breast cancer.

### Short chain fatty acid

#### Butyrate

Butyrate was first histone deacetylation inhibitor which inhibited cell growth and induced apoptosis (Candido *et al.*, 1978). Butyrate is responsible for hyperacetylation of H3 and H4.

### **Valproic acid**

Valproic acid is an anti-epileptic drug with anticancer activity. It inhibits the enzyme histone deacetylase on estrogen sensitive and insensitive breast tumor cells. Valproic acid causes tumor cell differentiation.

### **Hydroxamic acids**

Hydroxamates are effective at concentration of micromolar to subnanomolar.

### **Trichostatin A (TSA)**

TSA was first hydroxamic acid. It most effectively changes the viability of breast tumor cells. It inhibits histone deacetylases and increases the histone acetylation so it may be used for the treatment of breast cancer (Kim *et al.*, 2010). TSA combines with 5-aza-cdR and causes re-expression of silenced gene. It also possess anti-proliferative effects.

### **Suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid (SAHA)**

It inhibit enzyme HDAC both class I and class II. It possesses anticancer activity in hematological cancer. It is approved by FDA for treating cutaneous manifestation in T cell lymphoma patients (Steams and Zhou *et al.*, 2007). SAHA phase II clinical trials are undergoing for breast and other tumors (Xu *et al.*, 2005).

### **Cyclic Tetrapeptides**

#### **Trapoxin**

Trapoxin small concentrations inhibits HDACs and is responsible for preventing acetylated histone conversion in deacetylated form. Trapoxin possess effect on cell differentiation.

#### **Depsipeptide**

Depsipeptide cause increase expression of p53 gene in breast tumor cells not in normal cells. It possess anticancer activity in cancer patients.

#### **Tasidotin**

Tasidotin clinical trials are ongoing for cancer treatment.

### **Cyclic hydroxamic acid containing peptide (CHAP)**

CHAP inhibits enzyme HDAC *in vivo* and has effect on gene expression.

#### **Apicidin**

Apicidin has broad spectrum anti-proliferative effect in many cancers (Im *et al.*, 2008). In breast cancer it inhibits the proliferation of cells by changing the regulatory protein expression and by induction of apoptosis.

### **Benzamides**

#### **MS-27-275**

It is selective class I HDAC inhibitor. It has been investigated in phase I studies for cancer patients. Now its phase II trials are ongoing. MS-275 causes cancer metastasis suppression (Srivastava *et al.*, 2010).

### **CL-994 (N-acetyl-dinaline)**

It is oral HDAC inhibitor. It has anticancer activity *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Riva *et al.*, 2000). Its mechanism is not yet known. It is responsible for accumulating histone in acetylated form. It inhibits HDACs activity indirectly. It can be combined with other agents for use in cancer chemotherapy (Perabo and Muller, 2007).

## **CONCLUSION**

Epigenetic trait results from chromosome alteration without changes in the gene sequence and it is a stable phenotype that can be inherited (Berger *et al.*, 2009). Epigenetic mechanisms (DNA methylation and modification in histones) cause gene silencing without altering gene sequence. These events are heritable and reversible. The knowledge of epigenetic mechanisms offers opportunities for new drug discovery and therapeutic interventions. Epigenetic therapy (DNMT inhibitors, HDAC inhibitors) has a potential for treating cancer. It reverses the alterations in histone acetylation and DNA methylation pattern. DNMT inhibitors and HDAC inhibitors show synergistic effect. Epigenetic drugs are responsible for causing tumor suppressor gene reactivation. So the normal functioning of the cell can be restored. These drugs can be used alone or with the other agents having synergistic effects. It has been observed that conventional therapy combines with epigenetic therapy to produce optimal effects (Kristensen and Nielsen, 2009).

## **REFERENCES**

- Ahmad M, Mahmood Q, Gulzar K, Akhtar MS, Saleem M and Qadir MI (2012). Anti-hyperlipidaemic and hepatoprotective activity of *Dodonaea viscosa* leaves extracts in alloxan-induced diabetic rabbits (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*). *Pak. Vet. J.*, **32**(1): 50-54.
- Ameen S, Qadir MI and Ahmad B (2012). Pharmacogenomic approaches in the treatment of breast cancer by tamoxifen. *Pak. J. Pharm. Sci.*, **25**(2): 469-476.
- Amin N, Qadir MI, Khan TJ, Abbas G, Ahmad B, Janbaz KH and Ali M (2012). Antibacterial activity of Vacuum liquid chromatography (VLC) isolated fractions of chloroform extracts of seeds of *Achyranthes aspera*. *J. Chem. Soc. Pak.*, **34**(3): 589-592.
- Asif MA and Qadir MI (2011). Molecular approaches for development of malarial vaccines. *Rev. Pharmacol.*, **4**: 276-278.
- Atadja P, Gao L, Kwon P, Trogani N, Walker H, Hsu M, Yeleswarapu L, Chandramouli N, Perez L and Versace R *et al.*, (2004). Selective growth inhibition of tumor cells by a novel histone deacetylase inhibitor, NVP-LAQ824. *Cancer Res.*, **64**: 689-695.

- Bachman KE, Rountree MR and Baylin SB (2001). Dnmt3a and Dnmt3b are transcriptional repressors that exhibit unique localization properties to heterochromatin. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **276**: 32282-32287.
- Barbara KD, Mukesh V and Asad U (2003). Epigenetics in cancer prevention: Early detection and risk assessment. *Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci.*, **983**: 1-4.
- Baylin SB and Herman JG (2000). DNA hypermethylation in tumor igenesis: Epigenetics joins genetics. *Trends Genet*, **16**: 168-174.
- Bednarik DP *et al* (1990). Inactivation of the HIV LTR by DNA CpG methylation: Evidence for a role in latency. *EMBO J.*, **9**: 1157-1164.
- Berger SL *et al* (2009). An operational definition of epigenetics. *Genes Dev.*, **23**: 781.
- Bestor T, Laudano A and Mattaliano R *et al* (1988). Cloning and sequencing of a cDNA encoding DNA methyltransferase of mouse cells. The carboxylterminal domain of the mammalian enzymes is related to bacterial restriction methyltransferases. *J. Mol. Biol.*, **203**: 971-983.
- Bestor TH (2000). The DNA methyltransferases of mammals. *Hum. Mol. Genet*, **9**: 2395-2402.
- Beumer JH, Parise RA, Newman EM, Doroshow, JH, Synold TW, Lenz HJ and Egorin MJ (2008). Concentrations of the DNA methyltransferase inhibitor 5-fluoro-2'-deoxycytidine (FdCyd) and its cytotoxic metabolites in plasma of patients treated with FdCyd and tetrahydrouridine (THU). *Cancer Chemother. Pharmacol.*, **62**: 363-368.
- Billam M, Sobolewski MD and Davidson NE (2010). Effects of a novel DNA methyltransferase inhibitor zebularine on human breast cancer cells. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.*, **120**: 581-592.
- Bird AP (1986). CpG-rich is lands and the function of DNA methylation. *Nature*, **321**: 2009-2013.
- Bird AP and Wolffe AP (1999). Methylation-induced repression-Belts. *braces and chromatin*. *Cell*, **99**: 451-454.
- Bokhari TH, Hina S, Ahmad M, Iqbal M, Shafiq M, Arshad MN, Asghar MN, Aslam M, Qadir MI (2012). Concentration of 188Re-Perrhenate for Therapeutic Radiopharmaceuticals. *J Chem Soc Pak*, **35**: 147-150.
- Boothman DA, Briggles TV and Greer S (1989). Exploitation of elevated pyrimidine deaminating enzymes for selective chemotherapy. *Pharmacol. Ther.*, **42**: 65-88.
- Candido EP, Reeves R and Davie JR (1978). Sodium butyrate inhibits histone deacetylation in cultured cells. *Cell*, **14**: 105-113.
- Chen ZX and Riggs AD (2011). DNA methylation and demethylation in mammals. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **286**: 18347-18353.
- Christman JK (2002). 5-Azacytidine and 5-aza-2'-deoxycytidine as inhibitors of DNA methylation: Mechanistic studies and their implications for cancer therapy. *Oncogene*, **21**: 5483-5495.
- Clark SJ and Melki (2002). DNA methylation and gene silencing in cancer: Which is the guilty party? *Oncogene*, **21**: 5380-5387.
- Claus R and Lubbert M (2003). Epigenetic targets in hematopoietic malignancies. *Oncogene*, **22**: 6489-6496.
- Cortez CC and Jones PA (2008). Chromatin, cancer and drug therapies. *Mutat. Res.*, **647**: 44-51.
- Costello JF and Plass C (2001). Methylation matters. *J. Med. Genet*, **38**: 285-303.
- Das PM and Singal R (2004). DNA methylation and cancer. *J. Clin. Oncol.*, **22**: 4632-4642.
- Ehrlich M (2002). DNA methylation in cancer: Too much, but also too little. *Oncogene*, **21**: 5400-5413.
- Ehsan O, Qadir MI, Malik SA, Abbassi WS and Ahmad B (2012). Efficacy of nanogold-insulin as a hypoglycemic agent. *J. Chem. Soc. Pak.*, **34**(2): 365-370.
- Esteller M (2007). Cancer epigenomics: DNA methylomes and histone-modification maps. *Nat. Rev. Genet*, **8**: 286-298.
- Fang MH and Ji XM (2009). Histone modification and its application in therapy for hematologic malignancies. *Zhongguo Shi. Yan. Xue Ye. Xue Za. Zhi.*, **17**: 816-820.
- Fang MZ, Wang Y, Ai N, Hou Z, Sun Y, Lu H, Welsh W and Yang CS (2003). Tea polyphenol (-)-epigallocatechin-3-gallate inhibits DNA methyltransferase and reactivates methylation-silenced genes in cancer cell lines. *Cancer Res.*, **63**: 7563-7570.
- Farooqi AA, Butt G, Yousaf G, Qadir MI, Shaikat U, Mansoor Q, Awan M, Bhatti S, Begum A (2013). Making personalized prostate cancer medicine a reality: Challenges and opportunities in the re-establishment of gold standards. *Pak J Pharm Sci*, **26**: 831-840.
- Fuks F, Burgers WA and Brehm A *et al* (2000). DNA methyltransferase Dnmt1 associates with histone deacetylase activity. *Nat. Genet*, **24**: 88-91.
- Fuks F, Burgers WA and Godin N *et al* (2001). DNMT3A binds deacetylases and is recruited by a sequence-specific repressor to silence transcription. *EMBO J.*, **20**: 2536-2544.
- Gehring M, Reik W and Henikoff S (2009). DNA demethylation by DNA repair. *Trends Genet*, **25**: 82-90.
- Gowher H and Jeltsch A (2004). Mechanism of inhibition of DNA methyltransferases by cytidine analogs in cancer therapy. *Cancer Biol. Ther.*, **3**: 1062-1068.
- Hake SB, Xiao A and Allis CD (2004). Linking the epigenetic 'language' of covalent histone modifications to cancer. *Br. J. Cancer*, **90**: 761-769.
- Handel AE and Ebers GC (2010). Ramagopalan, S.V. Epigenetics: Molecular mechanisms and implications for disease. *Trends Mol. Med.*, **16**: 7-16.
- Hatzia Apostolou M and Iliopoulos D (2011). Epigenetic aberrations during oncogenesis. *Cell. Mol. Life Sci.*, **68**: 1681-1702.

- Hauschild A *et al* (2008). Multicenter phase II trial of the histone deacetylase inhibitor pyridylmethyl-N-{4-[(2-aminophenyl)-carbamoyl]-benzyl}-carbamate in pretreated metastatic melanoma. *Melanoma Res.*, **18**: 274-278.
- Herman JG and Baylin SB (2003). Gene silencing in cancer in association with promoter hypermethylation. *N. Engl. J. Med.*, **349**: 2042-2054.
- Hussain A, Khalid SH, Qadir MI, Massud A, Ali M, Khan IU, Saleem M, Iqbal MS, Asghar S and Gul H (2011). Water Uptake and Drug Release Behaviour of Methyl Methacrylate-co-itaconic acid [P(MMA/IA)] Hydrogels Cross-linked with Methylene Bis-acrylamide. *J. Drug Delvr. Sci. Tech.*, **21**(3): 249-255.
- Im JY, Park H, Kang KW, Choi WS and Kim HS (2008). Modulation of cell cycles and apoptosis by apicidin in estrogen receptor (ER)-positive and-negative human breast cancer cells. *Chem. Biol. Interact.*, **172**: 235-244.
- Iqbal MZ, Qadir MI, Mallhi TH, Khan YH, Ahmad B (2014). Probiotics and their beneficial effects against various diseases. *Pak J Pharm Sci*, **27**: 405-415.
- Jain PK (2003). Epigenetics: The role of methylation in the mechanism of action of tumor suppressor genes. *Ann. N.Y Acad. Sci.*, **983**: 71-83.
- Janbaz KH, Jan A, Qadir MI and Gilani AH (2013a). Spasmolytic, bronchodilator and vasorelaxant activity of methanolic extract of *Tephrosia purpurea*. *Acta. Pol. Pharm.*, **79**: 261-269.
- Janbaz KH, Nizar U, Ashraf M and Qadir MI (2012). Spasmolytic, bronchodilator and antioxidant activities of *Erythrina superosa* Roxb. *Acta. Pol. Pharm.*, **69**(6): 1111-1117.
- Janbaz KH, Qadir MI, Jan A and Gilani AH (2013b). Anti-diarrheal activity of methanolic extract of *Tephrosia purpurea*. *Acta. Pol. Pharm.*, **79**: 345-347.
- Javed F, Qadir MI, Janbaz KH and Ali M (2011). Novel drugs from marine microorganisms. *Critical Rev. Micro*, **37**(3): 245-249.
- Jones PA and Baylin SB (2002). The fundamental role of epigenetic events in cancer. *Nat. Rev. Genet.*, **3**: 415-428.
- Jones PL, Veenstra GJ and Wade PA *et al* (1998). Methylated DNA and MeCP2 recruit histone deacetylase to repress transcription. *Nat. Gene.*, **19**: 187-191.
- Karpf AR and Jones DA (2002). Reactivating the expression of methylation silenced genes in human cancer. *Oncogene.*, **21**: 5496-5503.
- Kass SU, Pruss D and Wolffe AP (1997). How does DNA methylation repress transcription? *Trends Genet.*, **13**: 444-449.
- Khalid SH, Qadir MI, Massud A, Ali M and Rasool MH (2009). Effect of degree of cross-linking on swelling and drug release behaviour of poly(methyl methacrylate-co-itaconic acid) [P(MMA/IA)] hydrogels for site specific drug delivery. *J. Drug Delvr. Sci. Tech.*, **19**(6): 413-418.
- Kim SH, Kang HJ, Na H and Lee MO (2010). Trichostatin A enhances acetylation as well as protein stability of ER $\alpha$  through induction of p300 protein. *Breast Cancer Res.*, **12**: 22.
- Kouzarides T (2007). Chromatin modifications and their function. *Cell*, **128**: 693-705.
- Kristensen LS, Nielsen HM and Hansen LL (2009). Epigenetics and cancer treatment. *Eur. J. Pharmacol.*, **625**: 131-142.
- Kuo HK, Griffith JD and Kreuzer KN (2007). 5-Azacytidine induced methyltransferase-DNA adducts block DNA replication *in vivo*. *Cancer Res.*, **67**: 8248-8254.
- Lachner M. *et al* (2001). Methylation of histone H3 lysine 9 creates a binding site for HP1 proteins. *Nature*, **410**: 116-120.
- Mallhi TH, Qadir MI, Khan YH, Ali M (2014). Hepatoprotective activity of aqueous methanolic extract of *Morus nigra* against paracetamol-induced hepatotoxicity in mice. *Bangladesh J Pharmacol*, **9**: 60-66.
- Mancini DN, Rodenhiser DI and Ainsworth PJ *et al* (1998). CpG methylation within the 5' regulatory region of the BRCA1 gene is tumor specific and includes a putative CREB binding site. *Oncogene.*, **16**: 1161-1169.
- Marsoni S, Damia G and Camboni G (2011). A work in progress: The clinical development of histone deacetylase inhibitors. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.*, **12**: 4475.
- Marushige K (1976). Activation of chromatin by acetylation of histone side chains. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, **73**: 3937-3941.
- Masood MI, Qadir MI, Shirazi JH and Khan IU (2011). Beneficial effects of lactic acid bacteria on human beings. *Critical Rev. Micro*, **37**(1): 91-98.
- Mirza S, Sharma G, Pandya P and Ralhan R (2010). Demethylating agent 5-aza-2-deoxycytidine enhances susceptibility of breast cancer cells to anticancer agents. *Mol. Cell Biochem.*, **342**: 101-109.
- Moyers SB and Kumar NB (2004). Green tea polyphenols and cancer chemoprevention: Multiple mechanisms and endpoints for phase II trials. *Nutr. Rev.*, **62**: 204-211.
- Naz S, Qadir MI, Ali M and Janbaz KH (2012). Nanotechnology for imaging and drug delivery in cancer. *J. Chem. Soc. Pak.*, **34**(1): 107-111.
- Ng HH and Bird A (1999). DNA methylation and chromatin modification. *Curr. Opin. Genet Dev.*, **9**: 158-163.
- Nisa T, Qadir MI and Malik SA (2009). Effect of *Eugenia jambolana* leaves extracts on blood glucose levels of experimental diabetic rabbits. *Pharmacologyonline*, **3**: 829-835.
- Panning B and Jaenisch R (1998). RNA and the epigenetic regulation of X chromosome inactivation. *Cell*, **93**: 305-308.
- Perabo FG and Müller SC (2007). New agents for

- treatment of advanced transitional cell carcinoma. *Annu. Oncol.*, **18**: 835-843.
- Piña IC, Gautschi JT, Wang GY, Sanders ML Schmitz FJ, France D, Cornell-Kennon S, Sambucetti LC, Remiszewski, SW and Perez LB *et al* (2003). Psammplins from the sponge *Pseudoceratina purpurea*: Inhibition of both histone deacetylase and DNA methyltransferase. *J. Org. Chem.*, **68**: 3866-3873.
- Qadir MI (2009). Medicinal and cosmetological importance of *Aloe vera*. *Int. J. Nat. Ther.*, **2**: 21-26.
- Qadir MI (2010) Medicinal values of ginger. *Int. J. Nat. Ther.*, **3**: 19-22.
- Qadir MI (2011) Qadirvirtide. *Pak. J. Pharm. Sci.*, **24**(4): 593-595.
- Qadir MI and Malik SA (2010). Anti-diabetic activity of inorganic metals *Eugenia jambolana* Lam. (Myrtaceae) flowers. *Pharmacologyonline*, **2**: 979-985.
- Qadir MI, Ahmad B, Ali M, Saleem M, Ali M (2013). Natural hepatoprotectives: Natural medicines for hepatitis. *RGUHS J Pharm Sci*, **3**: 26-34.
- Qadir MI, Ali M, Ali M, Saleem M, Hanif M (2014b). Hepatoprotective activity of aqueous methanolic extract of *Viola odorata* against paracetamol-induced liver injury in mice. *Bangladesh J Pharmacol*, **9**: 198-202.
- Qadir MI, Murad MSA, Ali M, Saleem M, Farooqi AA (2014a). Hepatoprotective effect of leaves of aqueous ethanol extract of *Cestrum nocturnum* against paracetamol-induced hepatotoxicity. *Bangladesh J Pharmacol*, **9**: 167-170.
- Riva L, Blaney SM, Dauser R, Nuchtern JG, Durfee J, McGuffey L and Berg SL (2000). Pharmacokinetics and cerebrospinal fluid penetration of CI-994 (N-acetyldinaline) in the nonhuman primate. *Clin. Cancer Res.*, **6**: 994-997.
- Robertson AB, Dahl JA, Vågbø CB, Tripathi P, Krokan HE and Klungland A (2011). A novel method for the efficient and selective identification of 5-hydroxymethylcytosine in genomic DNA. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **39**: 55.
- Robertson KD, Ait-Si-Ali S and Yokochi T *et al* (2000). DNMT1 forms a complex with Rb, E2F1 and HDAC1 and represses transcription from E2F-responsive promoters. *Nat. Genet.*, **25**: 338-342.
- Rountree MR, Bachman KE and Baylin SB (2000). DNMT1 binds HDAC2 and a new co-repressor, DMAP1, to form a complex at replication foci. *Nat. Genet.*, **25**: 269-277.
- Saleem M, Ahmed B, Qadir MI, Mahrukh, Rafiq M, Ahmad M, Ahmad B (2014a). Hepatoprotective effect of *Chenopodium murale* in mice. *Bangladesh J Pharmacol*, **9**: 124-128.
- Saleem M, Karim M, Qadir MI, Ahmad B, Rafiq M, Ahmad B (2014b). *In vitro* antibacterial activity and phytochemical analysis of hexane extract of *Vicia sativa*. *Bangladesh J Pharmacol*, **9**: 189-193.
- Saleem M, Qadir MI, Perveen N, Ahmad B, Saleem U, Irshad T, Ahmad B (2013). Inhibitors of apoptotic proteins: New targets for anti-cancer therapy. *Chem Biol Dru Desi*, **82**: 243-251.
- Schaefer M, Hagemann S, Hanna K and Lyko F (2009). Azacytidine inhibits RNA methylation at DNMT2 target sites in human cancer cell lines. *Cancer Res.*, **69**: 8127-8132.
- Shi Y *et al* (2004). Histone demethylation mediated by the nuclear amine oxidase homolog LSD1. *Cell*, **119**: 941-953.
- Srivastava RK, Kurzrock R and Shankar S (2010). MS-275 sensitizes TRAIL-resistant breast cancer cells, inhibits angiogenesis and metastasis and reverses epithelial-mesenchymal transition *in vivo*. *Mol. Cancer Ther.*, **9**: 3254-3266.
- Stearns V, Zhou Q and Davidson NE (2007). Epigenetic regulation as a new target for breast cancer therapy. *Cancer Invest*, **25**: 659-665.
- Suzuki H, Gabrielson E and Chen W *et al* (2002). A genomic screen for genes upregulated by demethylation and histone deacetylase inhibition in human colorectal cancer. *Nat. Genet.*, **31**: 141-149.
- Tahiliani M, Koh KP, Shen Y, Pastor WA, Bandukwala, H, Brudno Y, Agarwal S, Iyer LM, Liu DR and Aravind L *et al* (2009). Conversion of 5-methylcytosine to 5-hydroxymethylcytosine in mammalian DNA by MLL partner TET1. *Science*, **324**: 930-935.
- Tate PH and Bird AP (1993). Effects of DNA methylation on DNA-binding proteins and gene expression. *Curr. Opin. Genet Dev.*, **3**: 226-231.
- Van Holde KE (1988). Chromatin: Springer series in molecular Biology, Springer-Verlag, New York, pp.15-34.
- Voso MT, D'Alò F, Greco M, Fabiani E, Criscuolo M, Migliara G, Pagano L, Fianchi L, Guidi F and Hohaus S *et al* (2010). Epigenetic changes in therapy-related MDS/AML. *Chem. Biol. Interact.*, **184**: 46-49.
- Wolffe AP (1999). Chromatin: Structure and Function, 3<sup>rd</sup> ed., Academic, San Diego, pp.56.
- Xu WS, Perez G, Ngo L and Gui CY (2005). Marks, P.A. Induction of polyploidy by histone deacetylase inhibitor: A pathway for anti-tumor effects. *Cancer Res.*, **65**: 7832-7839.