

# THE METABOLISM OF CANCER CELLS: A PERSPECTIVE FOR THERAPEUTIC TARGETING

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## Article Info

### Article history:

Received August 5<sup>th</sup>, 2023

Revised September 12<sup>th</sup>, 2023

Accepted September 15<sup>th</sup>, 2023

### Keyword:

Cancer metabolism  
Therapy resistant  
Drug discovery  
Computational chemistry  
Malignant tumors

## ABSTRACT

The Warburg effect refers to a metabolic alteration seen in cancer cells, distinguished by an increased absorption and use of glucose. The sustained stimulation of aerobic glycolysis in cancer cells has been associated with the activation of oncogenes or the loss of tumor suppressors, indicating an accelerated process of cancer development. The suppression of glycolytic ability can potentially contribute to the reduction of carcinogenic properties in malignant cells. The comprehension of the mechanisms behind aerobic glycolysis has the potential to pave the way for novel therapeutic approaches in the treatment of cancer. Inhibition of tumor growth might be achieved by targeting lactate fermentation and other metabolic areas promoting cancer development. This study aims to investigate the dysregulation and reprogramming of cancer metabolism, along with exploring the potential therapeutic significance of metabolic enzymes such as hexokinase, phosphofructokinase, pyruvate kinase M2, lactate dehydrogenase, and pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase. Effectively regulating these metabolic domains may provide therapeutic advantages, enabling the circumvention of chemotherapy or radiation resistance.

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## How to Cite:

Konyak L et al. The metabolism of cancer cells: a perspective for therapeutic targeting. *IJBTCM*. 2023; Volume 2 (Issue 3): Page 01-08.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The occurrence of COVID-19 in the population increased the risk of metabolic diseases and attracted immense scientific research for disclosing different therapeutic effects [1–4]. Cancer cell metabolism directly influences the regulation of intracellular signaling pathways disrupted by mutant oncogenes and tumor-suppressor genes. Mutated oncogenic genes can cause cancer cells to change metabolism [5]. Mutated metabolic enzymes can also aid malignant transformation. Metabolism is an energy-producing mechanism that helps cells maintain cell homeostasis while allowing them to grow and increase [6,7]. Normal cells have sophisticated signaling networks controlled by critical regulatory enzymes that detect environmental inputs and activate metabolic machinery precisely to provide enough energy for survival [8,9]. During cell proliferation, normal cells use metabolic pathways to adapt to the heightened demand for adenosine triphosphate (ATP) required for cell replication. In addition to the metabolic enhancement, by-products generated during aerobic metabolism, such as reactive oxygen species, possess the potential to inflict damage upon cells and induce mutations in DNA [10,11]. As a result, changes in cell metabolism may play a role in cancer development. Mutations in oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes can alter intracellular signaling pathways and, as a result, cell metabolism, making tumorigenesis easier [12]. A shift in signaling pathways allows cells to adapt to tumor cell metabolism, but some metabolic alterations are also essential for malignant transformation [13]. The Warburg effect, also known as aerobic glycolysis, is a metabolic characteristic of tumor metabolism discovered by Otto Warburg in 1926. Unlike normal cells, which create energy largely by pyruvate oxidation in the mitochondria, cancer cells, even under

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aerobic conditions, generate energy predominantly through enhanced glycolysis in the cytosol [14]. Most cancer cells use glycolysis as an energy source, regardless of whether in a normoxic or hypoxic environment [15,16]. The link between glycolytic ATP generation and tumor aggressiveness has been documented several times. Initially, it was thought that these metabolic alterations were due to damage to mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation, meaning that cancer cells could not effectively respire to get enough ATP [17]. However, research has discovered that many cancer cells can synthesize ATP via mitochondrial respiration. Regardless of whether mitochondrial respiration is diminished, cancer cells still have high rates of glycolysis and lactate fermentation, and this glucose reliance might be exploited for therapeutic intervention [9,18]. Studies on mitochondrial function in cancer cells over the last decade have revealed that the Warburg effect is more directly connected to changes in signaling pathways that govern glucose absorption and utilization than mitochondrial abnormalities [19]. Because researchers have begun to re-evaluate the importance of aerobic glycolysis in tumor cells, the Warburg effect has recently resurfaced in cancer research [20]. Oncogenes, tumor suppressors, a hypoxic microenvironment, mtDNA mutations, and other factors contribute to aerobic glycolysis in cancer. Understanding the intricate energy metabolism of cancer will aid in developing innovative ways for early detection and cancer treatment [21]. This review will look at tumor cell metabolism, focusing on changes in enzyme activity in aerobic glycolysis, as well as current cancer treatment strategies that target metabolic pathways.

## **2. THE WARBURG EFFECT: METABOLIC REPROGRAMMING**

Glucose is the main energy source and the major fuel for cellular respiration. Oxidative phosphorylation provides 70% of ATP in normal glucose consumption, whereas glycolysis produces 30% [22]. Because ATP production fluctuates with biological conditions, the glycolysis to oxidative phosphorylation ratio varies in different cells, growth stages, and microenvironments. In hypoxia, for example, increased glycolysis compensates for reduced oxidative phosphorylation to maintain cellular energy balance [23–25]. Despite having a functional oxidative phosphorylation machinery, most solid tumor cells switch to glycolysis rather than respiration, resulting in cancer-specific aerobic glycolysis [26,27]. When the oxidative phosphorylation machinery is hampered for whatever cause (hypoxia, mitochondrial respiration suppression, etc. ), alternative routes, such as lactate fermentation, are called upon to provide the cellular energy needed. To multiply, cancer cells demand a large quantity of energy in a short amount of time [28–31]. Muscle cells in hypoxic circumstances and embryo cells during development can adapt to an altered metabolism when the oxygen supply is limited, or the growth rate exceeds the regular energy supply [32–34]. Despite high glucose consumption, these cells convert glucose to lactate to make ATP quickly but inefficiently. Similarly, as the tumor develops, cancer cells modify their metabolism to meet their energy demands, a phenomenon known as the Warburg effect [35]. Even in the presence of properly functioning mitochondria, cancer cells employ aerobic glycolysis instead of mitochondrial respiration for energy generation [14]. Because the former produces fewer ATP molecules per glucose unit, converting glucose to lactate rather than metabolizing it via mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation is inefficient [36]. A high rate of glucose absorption is required to meet the greater energy needs associated with rapid tumor growth [37]. All of these systems come together to create the Warburg effect.

When glucose uptake and glycolytic activity are greatly increased in transformed cancer cells, the reliance on fermentative metabolism for ATP synthesis implies long-term metabolic reprogramming [38]. Even in normoxia, an acute restrictive signaling cascade imposed on mitochondrial activity is commonly observed [39]. When normal cells become cancer cells, they undergo an irreversible metabolic shift toward glucose transport and consumption and the suppression of mitochondrial respiration [40,41]. If the respiratory system operates correctly, many routes will regulate glycolytic activity to maintain an energy balance [42]. Although Warburg did not mention glutamine, it is a critical bioenergetic and anabolic substrate for various cancer cell types. Aerobic glycolysis is used by cancer cells that employ glutamine as well as glucose as a carbon source [7,43]. By producing intermediates of the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle, glutamine feeds other metabolic pathways as precursors. As a result, cancer cells need glutamine, just as they do with glucose during aerobic glycolysis, to keep the TCA cycle operating [44–46]. Several investigations have found that alterations in glucose metabolism provide additional energy to promote tumor growth. Cell proliferation and tumor formation are both slowed when glycolysis is reduced. Furthermore, blocking glycolysis-related metabolic pathways reduces tumor growth [47,48]. These findings suggest that reducing glycolysis might be a useful strategy for preventing or delaying cancer progression [49,50].

## **3. ONCOGENIC SIGNALS AND METABOLIC REPROGRAMMING**

Mutations that activate oncogenes or inactivate tumor suppressors can significantly influence metabolic enzyme activity, which is important for cancer's aerobic glycolysis [51]. Phosphatidylinositol 30-kinase (PI3K), phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN), Myc, and p53 mutations, among other oncogenic alterations, can all

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have an impact on cellular metabolism [52,53]. The PI3K pathway is altered in various human cancers and plays a key role in tumor development and survival [54,55]. The PI3K enzyme antagonizes the tumour suppressor PTEN, and the loss of PTEN increases glycolysis by activating AKT and HIF-1. AKT stimulates glycolysis by increasing glucose transporter expression and membrane translocation, as well as phosphorylating glycolytic enzymes such as hexokinase (HK) and phosphofructokinase (PFK) [56,57]. HIF-1 also activates pyruvate dehydrogenase kinases (PDKs), preventing pyruvate from entering the TCA cycle by inactivating pyruvate dehydrogenase [58,59]. When pyruvate transport into the mitochondria is inhibited, the rate of oxidative phosphorylation and oxygen consumption is lowered [60]. These modifications result in high levels of glycolysis and glutaminolysis in Myc-induced liver cancer, which are connected to an aggressive tumor phenotype and histology. It's worth mentioning that, in addition to increasing the glycolytic pathway, Myc also improves mitochondrial respiration, all of which contribute to enhanced metabolic activity in cancer cells [61–63].

FH mutations cause fumarate hydratase insufficiency, and it has been associated with uterine and cutaneous leiomyomas and papillary renal cancer [64,65]. The genomic sequencing of cancer patients has shown a relationship between a mutated metabolic enzyme and tumors [66]. IDH1 and IDH2 (nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide IDH1 and IDH2 catalyze the conversion of isocitrate to  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate (aKG) in human cells by producing one molecule of NADPH. IDH1 and IDH2 are homodimeric enzymes in the cytoplasm and mitochondria [67]. Gliomas and acute myeloid leukemia have been shown to contain heterozygous point mutations in many IDH1 residues [68,69]. Importantly, levels of aKG, isocitrate, and several other TCA metabolites are unaffected in cells or tissues with IDH1 mutations. This indicates that alternate metabolic pathways may adapt and maintain normal levels of key metabolites [70,71].

Mutations in the metabolic enzymes SDH, FH, and IDH are associated with an aberrant accumulation of carcinogenic potential compounds [72,73]. The metabolic products of mutant SDH, FH, and IDH obstruct the function of aKG-dependent enzymes (for example, prolyl hydroxylases) [74,75]. Surprisingly, these aKG-dependent enzymes normally seek for and destroy HIF. HIF activation has also been reported in mutant SDH, FH, and IDH [74,75]. For example, oncogenic alterations in cellular metabolism might control non-metabolic pathways that contribute to the oncogenic process, such as altered HIF activity [76,77]. Changes in mitochondrial metabolism may help carcinogenesis. Phosphoglycerate dehydrogenase (PHGDH) and glycine decarboxylase are two enzymes that have similar mutation patterns and might affect mitochondrial metabolism during oncogenesis [78,79]. When overexpressed in estrogen receptor-negative breast tumors, PHGDH catalyses the first step in serine synthesis and is suggested to be an oncogenic enzyme. By transferring glycolytic intermediates into the one-carbon metabolic pathway, PHGDH also regulates nucleotide synthesis [80]. The quantity of aKG, a crucial TCA intermediate, is reduced by PHGDH deficiency, but not the amount of serine. Glycine decarboxylase, an enzyme involved in glycine/serine metabolism and the one-carbon metabolic pathway, is overexpressed in cancer cells [71,81].

#### 4. METABOLIC TARGETING

Metabolic targeting for cancer treatment is now being researched to discover tiny molecules that can specifically interrupt crucial metabolic processes connected to tumor formation [82]. Glycolysis inhibition or attenuation prevents cancer development, implying that glycolysis is essential for cancer proliferation, invasion, and metastasis. It can be stopped by inhibiting the glycolytic enzymes HK, PFK, and pyruvate kinase (PK), all of which control irreversible and rate-limiting steps in glycolysis. Consequently, by blocking the enzymatic activity of these three proteins, cancer cells' increased glycolysis is slowed or completely stopped [83,84]. HK facilitates the early step of glycolysis, where glucose is phosphorylated with the help of ATP. 2-deoxyglucose (2-DG), 3-bromopyruvate (3-BrPA), and lonidamine (LON, 1-[(2,4-chlorophenyl)methyl]-1H-indazole-3-carboxylic acid) are HK inhibitors that are now in preclinical and early phase clinical trials. 2-DG prevents glucose from reaching the HK enzyme as a competitive inhibitor [85–87]. Because the following glycolytic enzyme, phosphoglucose isomerase, can not recognize or process 2-DG-P, it is taken up by glucose transporters and phosphorylated by HK to 2-DG-P, which is then kept inside the cell. This causes a build-up of 2-DG-P inside the cell and a reduction in cellular ATP generation [88].

However, because 2-DG's efficacy as a single medication is limited, combining it with radiation or chemotherapy boosts tumor-killing effects. Because it affects cancer cell energy metabolism, 3-BrPA is a critical predictor of chemoresistance in various cancer types [89]. ATP depletion caused by 3-BrPA treatment lowers ABC transporter activity and, resulting in drug efflux, enhances drug retention. Consequently, 3-BrPA may improve cancer treatments and overcome chemoresistance [14,90,91]. According to the previous study, increased glycolysis is connected to glucocorticoid resistance, which is linked to treatment failure in children with acute lymphoblastic leukemia, and inhibiting glycolysis with 2-DG, 3-BrPA, or LON increases prednisolone-induced toxicity in leukemia cells [92]. As a combined technique for metabolic targeting of

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malignancies, modulation of both transamination and PK has been proposed [93,94]. Transamination-derived metabolites may also regulate the dimer/tetramer configuration of PK. Enzymatic activity necessitates a balanced presence of both PK forms and transamination metabolites, which can alter the dimer/tetramer ratio and harm tumor growth [95,96]. Dichloroacetate, a PDK inhibitor, successfully treats lactic acidosis and mitochondrial diseases and may be useful in treating cancer in multiple studies [97–99].

## 5. APPLICATION OF CHEMINFORMATICS IN CANCER THERAPEUTICS

In general, developing a medicine to treat cancer takes a long time and is expensive [100–102]. Advances in machine learning approaches will cut drug development time in half shortly, and researchers in this discipline will produce more and more applications that answer well-defined issues [103–105]. Virtual screening is one sector that has benefited considerably from the development of deep learning; however, the essential component of virtual screening is Drug–cancer Target (DTA) prediction, which directly influences its accuracy and efficiency [106]. The potential of a hybrid virtual screening pipeline established in multiple studies rests in its extremely efficient protein-ligand binding prediction algorithms and several stages of screening techniques [107,108], which stresses a progressive change from large-scale efficiency to accuracy in the later stages [109,110]. The hybrid drug screening pipeline dramatically increased the number of inhibitors for possible new cancer treatment targets [111]. Furthermore, the high success rate of the hybrid drug screening pipeline suggests that similar strategies may be used to develop drugs for different targets [112]. The active chemicals discovered thus far and their possible derivatives have the potential to speed up therapeutic development for various cancers [50,113,114]. Understanding the binding mechanism and drug design and improvement is aided by the detailed interaction between those inhibitors and their targets [115,116]. The research involving deep learning-based approaches and MD simulation-related methodologies in large-scale drug lead discovery has a bright future.

## 6. CONCLUSION

Cancer cells employ aerobic glycolysis, in which glucose is used for energy and glutamine is used to provide biosynthetic precursors to mitochondrial intermediates [117]. Most malignancies, including solid tumors, lymphoma, and leukemia, are expected to retain altered metabolism, which is thought necessary for transforming normal cells into cancer cells [118]. Because each cancer kind has a different tissue origin, malignancies have various characteristics. Cancer cells are deprived of food and oxygen due to the faulty vasculature created during carcinogenesis [119–121]. Cancer cells are more adaptable than normal cells, and it's worth noting. As a result, alterations in tumor cells' metabolic pathways may give a selective advantage to cancer cells in an unfavorable environment for rapid ATP production and appropriate biomolecule synthesis [122]. The metabolic changes in cancer cells are thought to be linked to hypoxia adaptation, which is necessary for tumor survival and development. There is a clear shift in mitochondrial activity from energy generator to biosynthetic intermediate creator, as well as a reduction in oxygen use and rapid energy generation [123,124]. Several metabolite analogs are now being explored as possible therapeutic options to target tumor metabolism [63,125–127]. Further research into the role of mitochondria in cancer cell metabolism might lead to developing a targeted delivery system for hazardous chemicals to cancer cells, boosting efficacy and lowering the toxicity of potentially strong chemotherapeutic treatments. New insights into cancer metabolic characteristics give us hope for developing a new class of cancer treatment drugs. As a result, the appropriate use of metabolic inhibitors might be a therapeutically beneficial treatment approach.

## FUNDING

Nil

## ETHICAL APPROVAL

Nil

## COMPETING INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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