

NOVEL APPROACHES TO REDUCE TEMOZOLOMIDE RESISTANCE IN GLIOBLASTOMA MULTIFORME: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

C. JALILI¹, I. RASHIDI², M. PAZHOUHI²

¹Medical Biology Research Center, Health Technology Institute, Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences, Kermanshah, Iran

²Department of Anatomical Sciences, School of Medicine, Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences, Kermanshah, Iran

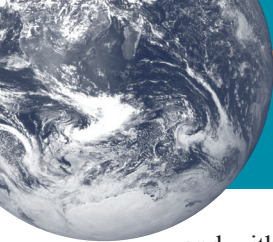
Abstract: Temozolomide (TMZ), an oral alkylating agent, is currently used as a part of standard treatment for glioblastoma multiforme (GBM). GBM is considered one of the most lethal forms of human cancers, and despite recent improvement in cancer therapy, it remains an incurable disease, with a rare long-term survival of the patients due to the rapid emergence of cell clones resistant to treatment. Like other chemotherapeutic agents, resistance to TMZ is the major therapeutic obstacle to an effective therapy; thereby the development of new therapeutic strategies is required to overcome this problem. In the present review, an overview of the recent works on the reduction of TMZ resistance is presented.

KEYWORDS: Temozolomide, Glioblastoma multiforme, Drug resistance, Alkylating agents, O6 alkylguanine DNA alkyltransferase.

BACKGROUND

Temozolomide (TMZ, $C_6H_6N_6O_2$) is an imidazotetrazine (a class of bicyclic aromatic heterocycles (derivative of dacarbazine¹. It was first synthesized by Stevens et al² in the early 1980s. In the 1990s they identified a series of imidazotetrazine derivatives with different chemical, structural, and biological properties. Among these compounds, mitozolomide showed a strong anti-tumor activity against a broad spectrum of murine and human xenografts tumors³, but in phase I clinical trials it showed a cruel and unpredictable life-threatening toxicity, including the human bone marrow suppression and deep platelet damage (thrombocytopenia) due to cross linking of DNA strands⁴. In 1987, Stevens described the activity of some analogues of mitozolomide, and reported the chemical and anti-tumor properties of a series of 3-substituted derivatives in which chloroethyl group of mitozolomide has been replaced by alkyl group, and in particular the methyl analogue of mitozolomide (TMZ) in mice⁵. Subsequent studies⁵⁻⁷ demonstrated the anti-tumor activity of TMZ against a variety of

cancers, including glioma, metastatic melanoma, and other cancers. Preclinical studies indicated that TMZ passed blood brain barrier and penetrated into the central nervous system. It had relatively low toxicity compared with mitozolomide, and good anti-tumor activity against a wide range of cancers⁵⁻¹⁰. Phase 1 and 2 clinical studies showed that after oral administration, TMZ was rapidly absorbed into the blood, had excellent penetration of the blood-brain barrier, and its bioavailability was approximately 100%. It showed an anti-cancer property against recurrent GBM, melanoma, and mycosis fungoides¹¹⁻¹⁴. Finally, on March 15, 2005, the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approved TMZ for the treatment of adult patients with newly diagnosed glioblastoma multiforme (GBM) showing progression after treatment with a nitrosurea drug (BCNU or CCNU) and procarbazine¹⁵. Recently the effect of temsirolimus (a m-TOR inhibitor that also showed anti-tumor effects in a wide range of different tumor in preclinical models) on GBM has been evaluated in trials in combination with other treatments. It was used in combination with standard radiation therapy (RT) with



and without TMZ. No superiority of temsirolimus to TMZ in combination with standard RT was observed. Data suggested that TMZ could be safely substituted by temsirolimus in combination with standard RT in TMZ-resistant GBM patients. Infectious related toxicities are one of the side effects associated with standard RT/TMZ. It is also associated with temsirolimus as well. Therefore, Combination therapy with temsirolimus/TMZ/RT showed significant suppression of cellular, humoral, and innate immunity¹⁶.

MECHANISM OF TMZ ACTION

As previously mentioned, TMZ is an oral alkylating agent administered as a chemotherapeutic drug for management of GBM and melanoma tumors growth. Alkylating agents are among the oldest kind of drugs used for cancer treatment¹⁷. TMZ is considered as a prodrug without the need for metabolic activation. Due to its lipophilic nature and small molecular weight, it can efficiently pass blood-brain-barrier and penetrate into the brain tissue. The property that makes TMZ suitable for oral administration is its stability at acidic pH values, so it does not change in the stomach. In systemic circulation and under physiological pH, TMZ rapidly hydrolyzes to its short-lived active form, 5-(3-methyltriazene-1-yl) imidazole-4-carboxamide (MTIC) and CO₂¹⁸. This spontaneous reaction is started with the cleavage of the tetrazolium ring with the effect of water molecules¹⁵.

pH in brain tumors is slightly more basic than normal tissue¹⁹⁻²¹, and this condition is in favour of selective activation of prodrug in tumor environment. MTIC then hydrolyzes to 5-amino-imidazole-4-carboxamide (AIC) (which is excreted from kidneys) and methyl diazonium cation, which transfers alkyl group to DNA^{22,23}. The methyl diazonium cation can also interact with cellular RNAs and proteins²⁴. However, there is no evidence that RNAs alkylation and/or proteins alkylation or carbamylation has a significant role in TMZ cytotoxicity.

Methyl groups are added at N⁷ and O⁶ positions of guanine and the O³ position of adenine in DNA²⁵. The roles of N⁷ methyl guanine and O³ methyl adenine in TMZ cytotoxicity are controversial²⁶⁻²⁸ and will be discussed later. O⁶ methyl guanine plays the most important role in TMZ activity. TMZ cytotoxicity is due to the lack of ability of mismatch repair system to find a complementary base for methylated guanine. During subsequent DNA replication, O⁶ methyl guanine is paired with a thymine instead of a cytosine and this mismatch pair bases activates DNA repair signaling pathway. Thymine in daughter strand is identified by DNA mismatch repair system and excised. However, the O⁶ methyl guanine

remains, and the lack of a suitable base for pairing with it cause the insertion of thymine in daughter strand again. This futile cycle of repair continues and finally results in activation of Checkpoint kinase 1, generation of double-strand breaks (DSBs), and induction of apoptosis cell death²⁹.

MECHANISM OF TMZ RESISTANCE

Resistance to chemotherapy is one of the major challenges to the success of cancer treatment. Drug resistance is caused by various mechanisms including inactivation of the drug, inhibiting cell death (apoptosis suppression), changes in drug metabolism, epigenetic and drug targets, enhance DNA repair, and gene amplification. Chemotherapy resistance can be inherent in subpopulation of cancer cells or adopted over time and after exposing to the chemotherapeutic agents. Tumors often consist of a heterogeneous population of cells and respond differently to the chemotherapy. These cells usually show different sensitivity to chemotherapeutic drugs. As treatment continues, sensitive cells die, and resistance cells remain. These resistance cells will grow and in next step due to the resistance of all cells, chemotherapy will fail completely³⁰.

The most important factor associated to TMZ resistance in GBM is the expression of O⁶ methylguanine DNA methyltransferase (MGMT) gene in brain tumor cells³¹, inefficient mismatch repair system³², and activity of base excision repair (BER) system³³.

O⁶ alkylguanine DNA alkyltransferase (AGT) (encoded by MGMT) eliminates the cytotoxic effect of TMZ by direct removal of methyl group from guanine base. The expression level of AGT varies in different tissues, for example the liver expressing the highest and haematopoietic tissues and brain the lowest levels^{34,35}. In tumor cells also the expression level of AGT varies from high protein expression in breast, ovarian, and lung tumors to low protein expression in gliomas, pancreatic carcinomas, and malignant melanomas³⁶. Expression of this protein in brain tumors predicts poor response to chemotherapy. *In vitro* studies showed that cell lines with high expression level of AGT were more resistance to TMZ than cell lines in which the expression level of this enzyme is low^{37,38}. So, a good response to TMZ needs a low level of AGT.

Other reason contributing to TMZ resistance is the inefficiency of mismatch repair system in tumor cells. Studies showed that cells with deficient mismatch repair system were up to 100-fold less sensitive to alkylating agent's effect compared with normal cells^{39,40}. Mutations in proteins that are responsible for identifying or repairing errors in mismatch repair system lead to lack of recognition O⁶ methyl guanine mispairs, toleration of O⁶ methyl guanine lesions, continuing of cell cycle and surviving⁴⁰.

The activity of BER system is the third reason for TMZ resistance. N⁷ methyl guanine and N³ methyl adenine are two main products of DNA methylation and overall make up 80% of TMZ activity products. After production, these methylated bases are identified and repaired by BER system rapidly. So TMZ can be cytotoxic when BER system is disrupted⁴¹. Studies about inhibition of BER system proteins and cell line with inefficient BER system, showed the role of this repair system in TMZ resistance discussed in this paper.

ISOCITRATE DEHYDROGENASE (IDH) MUTATIONS AND RESPONSE TO TMZ

Isocitrate dehydrogenase 1 and 2 (IDH 1 and 2) are key enzymes in cellular metabolism, epigenetic regulation, redox states, and DNA repair. These enzymes convert Isocitrate and NADP⁺ into αKetoglutarate (αKG), CO₂, and NADPH. IDH1 and IDH2 genes are located on chromosome 2q33 and 15q26.1, respectively. IDH1 and IDH2 mutations have been identified in multiple tumor types, including gliomas. IDH mutations are found in >80% of low-grade gliomas and secondary GBMs, but <10% of primary GBMs⁴²⁻⁴⁴. Research showed that IDH1/2 mutations were associated with a relatively prolonged patient survival for glioma⁴⁵ and GBM⁴⁶. Also, IDH1/2 mutations predicted for improved tumor responses to chemotherapy and/or RT in clinical trials^{47,48} and retrospective analyses⁴⁹⁻⁵². Furthermore, cancer cells are sensitized to RT and chemotherapy by the introduction of mutant IDH1/2 or silencing of wild-type IDH1/2. So, IDH1/2 mutations or the absence of IDH1/2 wild-type enzymes improve the treatment process⁴⁴. A study about the impact of IDH 1/2 mutation on the prognosis and chemosensitivity of low-grade gliomas showed that it was associated with prolonged overall survival and a higher rate of response to TMZ. Response to TMZ was estimated by progression-free survival, as well as measuring the tumor size on successive MRI scans, then correlated with molecular alterations. Data showed that patients with both IDH 1/2 mutations had the best response rate to TMZ⁵⁰. Therefore, it can be a significant marker of positive chemosensitivity in secondary GBM. Also, *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies showed that overexpression of IDH1 gene resulted in chemotherapy resistance to a high dose of TMZ. The IDH1 mutation caused cell cycle arrest in G1 stage and a reduction of proliferation and invasion ability, while raising sensitivity to chemotherapy⁵³. The reaction of IDH1/2 leads to NADPH production and this product plays an important role in cellular protection from oxidative stress. This protective effect of NADPH may undo the oxidative stress induced by TMZ in cells. Therefore, IDH mutation sensitizes the cells to therapy.

OVERCOMING TMZ RESISTANCE

Down Regulation of MGMT

Nowadays, gene therapy is a promising approach to treat various diseases, including cancer. It is defined as a technology that aims to modify the genetic complement of cells to obtain therapeutic benefit⁵⁴. As mentioned above, MGMT expression in brain tumor cells is the most important reason for chemotherapy resistance. So, a decrease in MGMT expression level can be a good strategy for enhancing the efficiency of TMZ in tumor cell death.

Interferons (IFNs) are signaling proteins produced by host cells in the presence of some pathogens. They activate immune cells and have important roles in the immune system⁵⁵. They have been classified into three types based on their receptors: Interferon I binds to a specific cell surface receptor complex known as the IFN-α/β receptor⁵⁶. The type I interferon present in humans are IFN-α, IFN-β, IFN-ε, IFN-κ, and IFN-ω⁵⁷. Human IFN-β enhances the cytotoxicity of TMZ^{58,59}, by down regulation of the MGMT expression. IFN-β sensitizes resistant glioma cells to TMZ and anti-tumor effect of TMZ is potentiated by a combination of IFN-β and TMZ^{60,61}. Down regulation of MGMT by IFN-β, could be a good choice to overcome TMZ resistance. Detailed role of combined IFN-β and TMZ to increase tumor sensitivity to chemotherapy and the toxicity profile of combined IFN-β and TMZ is not clear.

p53 is a DNA-binding transcription factor that regulates the expression of genes involved in cell-cycle checkpoint and apoptosis in response to DNA damage⁶². Some studies⁶³⁻⁶⁵ indicated the relationship between p53 and MGMT expression. Transient transfection of wild-type p53 protein into the IMR human fibroblasts cell line suppressed MGMT transcription and expression⁶⁶. They proposed the improvement of chloroethylnitrosourea cancer treatment protocols by combining them with either a p53 inducing modality, such as ionizing radiation, or p53 adenoviral transduction. Also, expression of p53 in a tetracycline-regulated system, in a p53-null MGMT-proficient human lung tumor cells down-regulated the transcription of the MGMT gene and altered their sensitivity to alkylating agents⁶⁷. Inhibition of MGMT expression by p53 is mediated by separation of the Sp1 transcription factor from cognate cis elements in the MGMT promoter. Overexpression of Sp1 can remove the inhibitory effect of p53 on the MGMT expression. So, a decrease of Sp1 enhances sensitivity of tumor cells to alkylating drugs like TMZ⁶⁸.

RNA interference (RNAi) is a process leading to post-transcriptional gene down-regulation or silencing by endogenous production or artificial introduction of small interfering double strand RNA (siRNA) with sequences complementary to the targeted



gene⁶⁹. It was proposed as a potential therapeutic approach to treat cancer⁷⁰. In a study, siRNA for MGMT was encapsulated in cationic liposomes and delivered to the U251SP, T98G, and U251 human glioma cell lines. Results showed that siRNA-based down-regulation of MGMT could enhance the sensitivity of glioma cells against TMZ⁷¹.

In a study using lentiviral-based anti-MGMT small hairpin RNA (shRNA) technology, a specific inhibition of the MGMT expression in GBM cell lines and in subcutaneous tumors was observed. Bioluminescence imaging measurements indicated that luciferase and shRNA-expressing lentiviruses were able to efficiently transduce the GBM xenografts *in vivo*. Combination treatment with injection of a lentivirus expressing an anti-MGMT shRNA and TMZ induced a reduction of the size of the tumors more effective than TMZ alone⁷².

Conditionally replicating adenoviruses (CRADs) represent a potential novel approach for cancer therapy⁷³. CRADs specifically replicate in cancer cells and have no or negligible toxicity to normal cells^{74,75}. Based on the fact that methylation and subsequent silencing of the MGMT promoter sensitize cells to TMZ, Alonso et al⁷⁶ hypothesized that the oncolytic adenovirus Delta-24-RGD in combination with TMZ can overcome the MGMT-mediated resistance. The results of delta-24-RGD and TMZ combination treatment showed an increase in cytotoxic effect of TMZ in glioma U87MG and T98G cells. Δ-24-RGD infection down-modulated the MGMT by preventing the recruitment of p300 to the MGMT promoter.

Recently, it has been shown that endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress-inducing drugs such as Salinomycin sensitize glioma cells to TMZ through down-regulation of MGMT with unknown mechanism. It has been suggested that ER stress is involved in both development and treatment of cancers. ER stress causes a complex cellular response, including the up-regulation of aberrant protein degradation in the ER, with the goal of resolving that stress⁷⁷.

Valproic acid (VPA) is an approved drug for the treatment of epileptic seizures, bipolar disorders, and migraine. It acts via inhibition of the transamination of gamma-aminobutyric acid and shows the anti-cancer effect through inhibition of histone deacetylases. Combination of VPA and TMZ significantly enhanced the anti-tumor effect of TMZ in TMZ-resistant malignant glioma cells (U87, U138, T98, and U251) via down-regulation MGMT expression by unknown mechanism⁷⁸.

Bone morphogenetic protein 2 (BMP2) belongs to the TGF- β superfamily of proteins and plays an important role in the development of bone and cartilage⁷⁹⁻⁸¹. A study indicated that BMP2 raised sensitivity to TMZ in GBM cells by down-regulation of MGMT expression. BMP2 decreased the hypox-

ia-inducible factor (HIF)-1 α protein stability. MGMT expression is directly regulated by HIF-1 α at the transcriptional level^{82,83}. Overall, HIF-1 α suppression promotes down-modulation of MGMT, and this is sufficient to override GBM resistance to TMZ.

DNA methylation [the addition of a methyl group (-CH₃) covalently to the cytosine in the dinucleotide 5'-CpG-3'] directly prevents transcription factor binding to the gene promoter⁸⁴. So, the lack of MGMT expression due to a methylated MGMT promoter is considered a good therapeutic strategy for TMZ-treated GBM patients. A retrospective study of MGMT promoter methylation in 10 pediatric GBM revealed that methylation of the MGMT promoter was correlated with survival. The average survival time for patients with methylated MGMT was increased as compared to patients with unmethylated MGMT promoter. The patients with the methylated MGMT gene promoter responded better to treatment with TMZ⁸⁵.

Inhibition of BER

As mentioned above, the N⁷-methylguanine and N³-methyladenine are the majority products of the TMZ activity. However, these DNA adducts play little role in TMZ cytotoxicity due to the rapid repair by BER. Hence, the BER pathway is a major contributor to cellular resistance to TMZ and BER system inhibition could be an attractive strategy for enhancing TMZ toxicity independent of the O⁶-methylguanine DNA lesion⁷³.

Methoxyamine, an alkoxyamine derivative, is able to block the BER pathway through covalently binding to apurinic/aprimidinic (AP) DNA damage sites. The formed adduct is a stable intermediate and refractory to the catalytic activity of AP endonuclease and polymerase b (pol b), which are downstream members of the BER pathway⁸⁶. The results obtained from an *in vitro* study demonstrated the efficiency of methoxyamine to overcome GBM resistance to TMZ treatment regardless of MGMT or mismatch repair status⁸⁷.

Alkylpurine-DNA-N-glycosylase (APNG) is a BER enzyme that has an important role in TMZ resistance. It repairs the cytotoxic lesions N³-methyladenine and N⁷-methylguanine. Silencing of APNG in *in vitro* and *in vivo* test showed that expression of APNG attenuated the repair of TMZ-induced DNA damage and conferred resistance to TMZ⁸⁸. So, APNG inhibition may be useful in the treatment of the disease.

Inhibition of Chitinase-3-Like Protein 1

Chitinase-3-like protein 1 (CHI3L1), also known as YKL-40, is a secreted glycoprotein expressed in several tissues and involved in activation of the innate

immune system. It plays some roles in cancer cell proliferation, survival, invasiveness, and cell-matrix interactions regulation. In a study, TMZ-resistant U87 cell line was established and novel targeting molecules, other than MGMT were investigated. Gene expression analysis indicated that YKL-40, MAGEC1, and MGMT mRNA expression were up-regulated in the TMZ resistant U87 cell line. Notably, short hairpin (sh) RNA-based inhibition against the YKL-40 resulted in moderate growth inhibition in the resistant cells. Also, inhibition of YKL-40 gene exhibited significant restored the sensitivity to TMZ. Therefore, YKL-40 is a key molecule in addition to MGMT, which is responsible for TMZ resistance in GBM cell lines and could be a new target to overcome TMZ resistance in recurrent GBM in the future⁸⁹.

MicroRNAs (MiRNAs)

MiRNAs regulate a wide spectrum of gene expression in a post-transcriptional manner. They play crucial roles in tumorigenesis, angiogenesis, invasion, and apoptosis in various types of tumors. Alteration of miRNAs expression in GBM cells compared with normal brain tissues, were reported. Taken together, 52 up-regulated miRNAs and 33 down-regulated miRNAs have been reported between 2005 and 2010. Recurrent aberrations of expression were detected in only four miRNAs (miR-21, miR-10b, miR-128-1, and miR128-2). So, these four miRNAs have the potential to contribute to the molecular pathogenesis of GBM. Also, some reports showed the relation between miRNA dysregulation and acquired TMZ resistance⁹⁰. Hence, miRNA-targeted therapies could be another strategy for GBM.

MiR-21 overexpression was reported in all types of human cancers. To date, 16 miRNAs were identified that their expression was significantly altered in GBM compared with anaplastic astrocytoma and among them negative correlation of miR-196a/b overexpression with overall survival of GBM patients was reported^{91,92}. In a study the expression profiles of 157 miRNAs in patients with glioma were investigated. The results showed that the expression levels of 12 miRNAs (miR-9, miR-15a, miR-16, miR-17, miR-19a, miR-20a, miR-21, miR-25, miR-28, miR-130b, miR-140, and miR-210) were increased, and expression levels of two miRNAs (miR-184 and miR-328) were reduced with progression of disease. Also, they suggested miR-17 and miR-184 as interesting candidates contributing to the glioma progression⁹³. Also, clinical implications of miR-26 gene amplification in GBM patients were reported⁹⁴. In a large-scale, genome-wide miRNA expression profiling of GBM, anaplastic astrocytoma and normal brain samples, several differential-

ly regulated miRNAs between these groups were found. In malignant gliomas 55 up-regulated and 29 down-regulated miRNAs were reported. Also, a cluster of only 23 miRNAs was sufficient to distinguish GBM from anaplastic astrocytoma⁹⁵. In another study 10 miRNA was identified that their expression signature could predict overall survival of GBM patients⁹⁶. Expression profiles of 261 miRNA were analyzed and the results showed five clinically and genetically distinct subclasses of GBM. So, miRNAs are important determinants of GBM subclasses through their ability to regulate developmental growth and differentiation programs in several transformed neural precursor cell types⁹⁷.

Recent studies have shown that miRNAs play an important role in drug resistance. It was reported that some miRNAs like miR-21, miR-195, and miR-455-3p play some roles in the resistance of GBM cells to TMZ⁹⁸⁻¹⁰⁴. In a study TMZ-sensitive glioma cell lines (U-138MG, A172, LN382, AM-38, U-251MG, and KMG4) were used to generate TMZ resistant variants by continuous exposure to the drug. Then, comprehensive analysis of miRNA expression using miRNA microarray was performed to investigate the mechanisms of acquired resistance against TMZ. Data showed that miR-16 played a role in TMZ resistance. The selective miR-16 mimics and inhibitor were transfected into cells. Treatment with the mimics of miR-16 greatly decreased the sensitivity of cells to TMZ, while sensitivity to these drugs was increased by treatment with the miR-16 inhibitor. In addition, the down-regulation of miR-16 in TMZ-sensitive cells was concurrent with the up-regulation of Bcl-2 protein. Conversely, overexpression of miR-16 in TMZ-resistant cells inhibited Bcl-2 expression and decreased TMZ resistance¹⁰⁵. Therefore, miR-16 modulates TMZ resistance by regulating Bcl-2 in human glioma cells. A similar study with an *in vitro* model of acquired TMZ resistance (D54MG cell line) showed that chronic TMZ exposure up-regulated the expression of miR-21, and inhibition of miR-21 resensitized chemoresistant GBM cells to TMZ¹⁰⁶. So, miR-21 inhibitor can be a good chemotherapy adjunct in the treatment of TMZ-resistant GBM.

Combination Therapy With Other Anti-Cancer Agents

Currently, there is a growing interest in combination therapy using multiple anti-cancer agents, as a suitable solution to overcome the drug resistance. Different anti-cancer drugs affect different targets and cell subpopulations and therefore can enhance the therapeutic effects, reduce dose and side effects, and prevent or delay the induction of drug resistance¹⁰⁷.



TABLE 1. *In vitro* studies about the synergistic effect of TMZ and some anti-cancer agents.

Reference	Cell line and tissue of origin	Agent	Mechanism
Balça-Silva et al ¹⁰⁸	U87 (GBM), U118 (GBM)	Tamoxifen	Intensifying apoptotic cell death
Pazhouhi et al ^{109,110} and Khazaei et al ¹¹¹	U87MG (GBM)	Thymoquinone	Intensifying apoptotic cell death Inhibiting autophagy
Atif et al ¹¹²	U87MG (GBM), U118MG (GBM)	Progesterone	Suppressing the EGFR/PI3K/Akt/mTOR signaling pathway and MGMT expression
Zandi et al ¹¹³	A-172 (GBM)	Ciprofloxacin	Unknown
Ren et al ¹¹⁴	U87MG (GBM), T98G (GBM), LN2308 (Astrocytoma), RG (GBM), G44 (GBM), G112 (GBM), G130 (GBM), G168 (GBM)	Imatinib	Altering cell cycle control mechanisms
Bak et al ¹¹⁵	C6 (Glioma)	Vitamin D	Enhancing autophagy cell death
Yu et al ¹¹⁶	U87 (GBM) and C6 (Glioma)	Metformin	Increasing apoptotic rates
Zanotto-Filho et al ¹¹⁷	C6 (Glioma), U251MG (GBM), U87MG (GBM)	Curcumin	Unknown
Marutani et al ¹¹⁸	T98 (GBM), A172 (GBM)	Levetiracetam	Enhancing cellular senescence
Gupta et al ¹¹⁹	A172 (GBM), U87 (GBM)	Hypericin	Intensifying apoptosis via the down-regulation of critical cell cycle-regulatory and prosurvival components
Chen et al ¹²⁰	U87MG (GBM), Hs683 (Glioma), DBTRG-05MG (GBM)	Valproic acid	Increasing apoptosis by p53 and Bax expression, mitochondrial transmembrane potential loss, reactive oxygen species production, and glutathione depletion. Also decreasing in nuclear translocation of the Nfe-2 p45-related factor and heme oxygenase-1 and γ -glutamyl-cysteine synthetase expression
Brassesco et al ¹²¹	T98G (GBM), U251 (GBM), U138MG (GBM), U87MG (GBM)	Dehydroxymethylpoxiquinomicin	Unknown
Hanif et al ¹²²	U87 (GBM)	N-(2-hydroxy-phenyl)acetamide	Increasing apoptosis cell death with increased Bax/Bcl-2 ratio and Caspase-3 expression
Lee et al ¹²³	U87-MG (GBM), U373 (Astrocytoma)	Chloroquine	Enhancing autophagy, caspases activation and p53- dependent apoptosis
Torres et al ¹²⁴	U87MG (GBM), A172 (GBM), SW1783 (astrocytoma), U373MG (GBM), T98G (GBM), SW1088 (astrocytoma), LN405 (GBM)	Cannabinoids	Enhancing autophagy
Khazaei et al ¹²⁵	U87MG (GBM)	Trifolium Pratens L.	Enhancing apoptosis and autophagy
Khazaei et al ¹²⁶	U87MG (GBM)	Tranilast	Increasing apoptosis cell death with increased Bax/Bcl-2 ratio and p53 expression.

Some studies were carried out to determine the synergistic effect of TMZ and other anti-cancer agents in human glioma cell lines that are summarized in

Table 1. However, the efficacy of these combination treatments has not yet been confirmed in clinical trials.

Some combinations were investigated in clinical trials. For example, a study with 30 patients with surgically confirmed GBM confined to one cerebral hemisphere, with a Karnofsky performance score greater than 70, no comorbid disease, and age younger than 60 years was performed. Along with conventional therapy, they used chloroquine (an autophagy inhibitor) orally for 12 months. Results showed that chloroquine improved mid-term survival for GBM that received conventional therapy. So, chloroquine as adjuvant therapy for GBM is warranted¹²⁷. Phase I clinical study showed that the combination of TMZ and procarbazine was reasonably effective and well-tolerated in treating patients with relapsed gliomas. There is little difference in terms of side effects between TMZ alone and the combination with procarbazine¹²⁸. Moreover, in clinical trials, the combination of carmustine and TMZ as neo-adjuvant therapy in GBM exhibited promising activity with a good safety profile¹²⁹.

CONCLUSIONS

Epidemiological studies showed a significant increase in incidence and death rate of brain cancers in the world¹³⁰. Since GBM tumor cells are resistant to TMZ and the median survival of GBM patient is very short, TMZ is not a convincing therapeutic agent. Recently *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies proposed some strategies to enhance the efficacy of TMZ. But few clinical studies are performed in this field. It is worth re-examining the effect of TMZ with these agents on survival of patients with brain GBM tumor in clinical studies.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS:

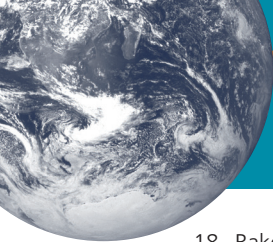
The Authors would like to thank the vice-chancellor for research of Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST:

The Authors declare that they have no conflict of interests.

REFERENCES

1. Moody CL, Wheelhouse RT. The medicinal chemistry of imidazotetrazine prodrugs. *Pharmaceuticals (Basel)* 2014; 7: 797-838.
2. Stevens MFG, Hickman JA, Stone R, Gibson NW, Baig GU, Lunt E, Newton CG. Antitumor imidazotetrazines. 1. Synthesis and chemistry of 8-carbamoyl-3-(2-chloroethyl)imidazo[5,1-d]-1,2,3,5-tetrazin-4(3H)-one, a novel broad-spectrum antitumor agent. *J Med Chem* 1984; 27: 196-201.
3. Hickman JA, Stevens MFG, Gibson NW, Langdon SP, Fizames C, Lavelle F, Atassi G, Lunt E, Tilson RM. Experimental antitumor activity against murine tumor model systems of 8-carbamoyl-3-(2-chloroethyl)imidazo[5,1-d]-1,2,3,5-tetrazin-4(3H)-one (mitozolomide), a novel broad-spectrum agent. *Cancer Res* 1985; 45: 3008-3013.
4. Newlands ES, Blackledge G, Slack JA, Goddard C, Brindley CJ, Holden L, Stevens MFG. Phase I clinical trial of mitozolomide. *Cancer Treat Rep* 1985; 69: 801-805.
5. Stevens MFG, Hickman JA, Langdon SP, Chubb D, Vickers L, Stone R, Baig G, Goddard C, Gibson NW, Slack JA, Newton C, Lunt E, Fizames C, Lavelle F. Antitumor activity and pharmacokinetics in mice of 8-carbamoyl-3-methylimidazo[5,1-d]-1,2,3,5-tetrazin-4(3H)-one (CCRG 81045: M & B39831), a novel drug with potential as an alternative to dacarbazine. *Cancer Res* 1987; 47: 5846-5852.
6. Friedman HS, Dolan ME, Pegg AE, Marcelli S, Keir S, Catino JJ, Bigner DD, Schold SC Jr. Activity of temozolomide in the treatment of central nervous system tumor xenografts. *Cancer Res* 1995; 55: 2853-2857.
7. Plowman J, Waud WR, Koutsoukos AD, Rubinstein LV, Moore TD, Grever MR. Preclinical antitumor activity of temozolomide in mice: efficacy against human brain tumor xenografts and synergism with 1,3-bis(2-chloroethyl)-1-nitrosourea. *Cancer Res* 1994; 54: 3793-3799.
8. Pera MF, Koerberle B, Masters JRW. Exceptional sensitivity of testicular germ cell tumour cell lines to the new anti-cancer agent, temozolomide. *Br J Cancer* 1995; 71: 904-906.
9. Carter CA, Waud WR, Plowman J. Responses of human melanoma, ovarian, and colon tumor xenografts in nude mice to oral temozolomide. *Proc Am Assoc Cancer Res* 1994; 35: 297.
10. Wedge SR, Porteous JK, Newlands ES. Effect of single and multiple administration of an O6-benzylguanine/temozolomide combination: an evaluation in a human melanoma xenograft model. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol* 1997; 40: 266-272.
11. Newlands ES, Blackledge GRP, Slack JA, Rustin GJS, Smith DB, Stuart NSA, Quarterman CP, Hoffman R, Stevens MFG, Brampton MH, Gibson A C. Phase I trial of temozolomide (CCRG 81045: M&B 39831: NSC 362856). *Br J Cancer* 1992; 65: 287-291.
12. Bleehen NM, Newlands ES, Lee SM, Thatcher N, Selby P, Calvert AH, Rustin GJS, Brampton M, Stevens MFG. Cancer Research Campaign Phase II trial of temozolomide in metastatic melanoma. *J Clin Oncol* 1995; 13: 910-913.
13. O'Reilly SM, Newlands E S, Glaser MG, Brampton M, Rice-Edwards JM, Illingworth RD, Richards PG, Kennard C, Colquhoun IR, Lewis P, Stevens MFG. Temozolomide: a new oral cytotoxic chemotherapeutic agent with promising activity against primary brain tumours. *Eur J Cancer* 1993; 29A: 940-942.
14. Bower M, Newlands ES, Bleehen NM, Brada M, Bengt RJH, Calvert H, Colquhoun I, Lewis P, Brampton MH. Multicentre CRC Phase II trial of temozolomide in recurrent or progressive high-grade glioma. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol* 1997; 40: 484-488.
15. Friedman HS, Kerby T, Calvert H. Temozolomide and treatment of malignant glioma. *Clin Cancer Res* 2000; 6: 2585-2597.
16. Borran M, Mansouri A, Gholami KH, Hadjibabaie M. Clinical experiences with temsirolimus in Glioblastoma multiforme; is it promising? A review of literature. *WCRJ* 2017; 4: e923.
17. Chaney SG, Sancar A. DNA repair: enzymatic mechanisms and relevance to drug response. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1996; 88: 1346-1360.



18. Baker SD, Wirth M, Statkevich P, Reidenberg P, Alton K, Sartorius SE, Dugan M, Cutler D, Batra V, Grochow LB, Donehower RC, Rowinsky EK. Absorption, metabolism, and excretion of C-14-temozolomide following oral administration to patients with advanced cancer. *Clin Cancer Res* 1999; 5: 309-317.
19. Arnold JB, Kraig RP, Rottenberg DA. In vivo measurement of regional brain and tumor pH using [14C] dimethylxazolinedione and quantitative autoradiography. II: Characterization of the extracellular fluid compartment using pH-sensitive microelectrodes and [14C] sucrose. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab* 1986; 6: 435-440.
20. Cadoux-Hudson TA, Blackledge MJ, Rajagopalan B, Taylor DJ, Radda GK. Human primary brain tumour metabolism in vivo: a phosphorus magnetic resonance spectroscopy study. *Br J Cancer* 1989; 60: 430-436.
21. Rottenberg DA, Ginos JZ, Kearfott KJ, Junck L, Dhawan V, Jarden JO. In vivo measurement of brain tumor pH using [11C]DMO and positron emission tomography. *Ann Neurol* 1985; 17: 70-79.
22. Spassova MK, Golovinsky EV. Pharmacobiochemistry of arylalkyltriazenes and their application in cancer chemotherapy. *Pharmacol Ther* 1985; 27: 333-352.
23. Denny BJ, Wheelhouse RT, Stevens MFG, Tsang LLH, Slack JA. NMR and molecular modeling investigation of the mechanism of activation of the antitumor drug temozolomide and its interaction with DNA. *Biochemistry* 1994; 33: 9045-9051.
24. Bull VL, Tisdale MJ. Antitumour imidazotetrazines-XVI macromolecular alkylation by 3-substituted imidazotetrazinones. *Biochem Pharmacol* 1987; 36: 3215-3220.
25. Denny BJ, Wheelhouse RT, Stevens MFG, Tsang LLH, Slack JA. NMR and molecular modeling investigation of the mechanism of activation of the antitumor drug temozolomide and its interaction with DNA. *Biochemistry* 1994; 33: 9045-9051.
26. Liu L, Taverna P, Whitacre CM, Chatterjee S, Gerson SL. Pharmacologic disruption of base excision repair sensitizes mismatch repair-deficient and -proficient colon cancer cells to methylating agents. *Clin Cancer Res* 1999; 5: 2908-2917.
27. Catapano CV, Brogginini M, Erba E, Ponti M, Mariani L, Citti L, D'Incalci M. In vitro and in vivo methazolastone-induced DNA damage and repair in L-1210 leukemia sensitive and resistant to chloroethylnitrosoureas. *Cancer Res* 1987; 47: 4884-4889.
28. Deans B, Tisdale MJ. Antitumour imidazotetrazines XXVIII 3-methyladenine DNA glycosylase activity in cell lines sensitive and resistant to temozolomide. *Cancer Lett* 1992; 63: 151-157.
29. Zhang J, Stevens MF, Bradshaw TD. Temozolomide: mechanisms of action, repair and resistance. *Curr Mol Pharmacol* 2012; 5: 102-114.
30. Redmond KM, Wilson TR, Johnston PG, Longley DB. Resistance mechanisms to cancer chemotherapy. *Front Biosci* 2008; 1: 5138-5154.
31. Citron M, White A, Decker R, Wasserman P, Li B, Randall T, Guerra D, Belanich M, Yarosh D. O6-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase in human brain tumors detected by activity assay and monoclonal antibodies. *Oncol Res* 1995; 7: 49-55.
32. von Bueren AO, Bacolod MD, Hagel C, Heinemann K, Fedier A, Kordes U, Pietsch T, Koster J, Grotzer MA, Friedman HS, Marra G, Kool M, Rutkowski S. Mismatch repair deficiency: a temozolomide resistance factor in medulloblastoma cell lines that is uncommon in primary medulloblastoma tumours. *Br J Cancer* 2012; 107: 1399-1408.
33. Zhang J, Stevens MF, Bradshaw TD. Temozolomide: mechanisms of action, repair and resistance. *Curr Mol Pharmacol* 2012; 5: 102-114.
34. Kaina B, Christmann M. DNA repair in resistance to alkylating anticancer drugs. *Int J Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2002; 40: 354-367.
35. Margison GP, Povey AC, Kaina B, Santibanez Koref MF. Variability and regulation of O6-alkylguanine-DNA alkyltransferase. *Carcinogenesis* 2003; 24: 625-635.
36. Kaina B, Christmann M, Naumann S, Roos WP. MGMT: key node in the battle against genotoxicity, carcinogenicity and apoptosis induced by alkylating agents. *DNA Repair* 2007; 6: 1079-1099.
37. Hegi ME, Diserens AC, Godard S, Dietrich PY, Regli L, Ostermann S, Otten P, Melle GV, de Tribolet N, Stupp R. Clinical trial substantiates the predictive value of O-6-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase promoter methylation in glioblastoma patients treated with temozolomide. *Clin Cancer Res* 2004; 10: 1871-1874.
38. Sarkaria JN, Kitange GJ, James CD, Plummer R, Calvert H, Weller M, Wick W. Mechanisms of chemoresistance to alkylating agents in malignant glioma. *Clin Cancer Res* 2008; 14: 2900-2908.
39. Stojic L, Brun R, Jiricny J. Mismatch repair and DNA damage signalling. *DNA Repair (Amst)* 2004; 3: 1091-1101.
40. Karran P. Mechanisms of tolerance to DNA damaging therapeutic drugs. *Carcinogenesis* 2001; 22: 1931-1937.
41. Sobol RW, Horton JK, Kuhn R, Gu H, Singhal RK, Prasad R, Rajewsky K, Wilson SH. Requirement of mammalian DNA polymerase-beta in base-excision repair. *Nature* 1996; 379: 183-186.
42. Dang L, Yen K, Attar EC. IDH mutations in cancer and progress toward development of targeted therapeutics. *Ann Oncol* 2016; 27: 599-608.
43. Willander K, Falk IJ, Chaireti R, Paul E, Hermansson M, Gr en H, Lotfi K, S oderkvist P. Mutations in the isocitrate dehydrogenase 2 gene and IDH1 SNP 105C>T have a prognostic value in acute myeloid leukemia. *Biomark Res* 2014; 2: 18.
44. Molenaar RJ, Maciejewski JP, Wilmsink JW, van Noorden CJF. Wild-type and mutated IDH1/2 enzymes and therapy responses. *Oncogene* 2018; 37: 1949-1960.
45. Yan H, Parsons DW, Jin G, McLendon R, Rasheed BA, Yuan W, Kos I, Batinic-Haberle I, Jones S, Riggins GJ, Friedman H, Friedman A, Reardon D, Herndon J, Kinzler KW, Velculescu VE, Vogelstein B, Bigner DD. IDH1 and IDH2 mutations in gliomas. *N Engl J Med* 2009; 360: 765-773.
46. Parsons DW, Jones S, Zhang X, Lin JC, Leary RJ, Angenendt P, Mankoo P, Carter H, Siu IM, Gallia GL, Olivi A, McLendon R, Rasheed BA, Keir S, Nikolskaya T, Nikolsky Y, Busam DA, Tekleab H, Diaz LA Jr, Hartigan J, Smith DR, Strausberg RL, Marie SK, Shinjo SM, Yan H, Riggins GJ, Bigner DD, Karchin R, Papadopoulos N, Parmigiani G, Vogelstein B, Velculescu VE, Kinzler KW. An integrated genomic analysis of human glioblastoma multiforme. *Science* 2008; 321: 1807-1812.
47. Buckner JC, Shaw EG, Pugh SL, Chakravarti A, Gilbert MR, Barger GR, Coons S, Ricci P, Bullard D, Brown PD, Stelzer K, Brachman D, Suh JH, Schultz CJ, Bahary JP, Fisher BJ, Kim H, Murtha AD, Bell EH, Won M, Mehta MP, Curran WJ Jr. Radiation plus procarbazine, CCNU, and vincristine in low-grade glioma. *Curran WJ Jr N Engl J Med* 2016; 374:1344-1355.
48. Cairncross JG, Wang M, Jenkins RB, Shaw EG, Gianini C, Brachman DG, Buckner JC, Fink KL, Souhani L, Laperriere NJ, Huse JT, Mehta MP, Curran WJ Jr. Benefit from procarbazine, lomustine, and vincristine in oligodendroglial tumors is associated with mutation of IDH. *J Clin Oncol* 2014; 32: 783-790.

49. Hartmann C, Hentschel B, Tatagiba M, Schramm J, Schnell O, Seidel C, Stein R, Reifenberger G, Pietsch T, von Deimling A, Loeffler M, Weller M; German Glioma Network. Molecular markers in low-grade gliomas: predictive or prognostic? *Clin Cancer Res* 2011; 17: 4588-4599.
50. Houillier C, Wang X, Kaloshi G, Mokhtari K, Guillemin R, Laffaire J, Paris S, Boisselier B, Idbaih A, Laigle-Donadey F, Hoang-Xuan K, Sanson M, Delattre JY. IDH1 or IDH2 mutations predict longer survival and response to temozolomide in low-grade gliomas. *Neurology* 2010; 75: 1560-1566.
51. Okita Y, Narita Y, Miyakita Y, Ohno M, Matsushita Y, Fukushima S, Sumi M, Ichimura K, Kayama T, Shibui S. IDH1/2 mutation is a prognostic marker for survival and predicts response to chemotherapy for grade II gliomas concomitantly treated with radiation therapy. *Int J Oncol* 2012; 41: 1325-1336.
52. Tran AN, Lai A, Li S, Pope WB, Teixeira S, Harris RJ, Woodworth DC, Nghiemphu PL, Cloughesy TF, Ellingson BM. Increased sensitivity to radiochemotherapy in IDH1 mutant glioblastoma as demonstrated by serial quantitative MR volumetry. *Neuro Oncol* 2014; 16: 414-420.
53. Wang JB, Dong DF, Wang MD, Gao K. IDH1 overexpression induced chemotherapy resistance and IDH1 mutation enhanced chemotherapy sensitivity in Glioma cells in vitro and in vivo. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev* 2014; 15: 427-432.
54. Inoue S, Branch CD, Gallick GE, Chada S, Ramesh R. Inhibition of Src kinase activity by Ad-mda7 suppresses vascular endothelial growth factor expression in prostate carcinoma cells. *Mol Ther* 2005; 12: 707-715.
55. De Andrea M, Gariglio M, Gioia D, Landolfo S, Ravera R. The interferon system: an overview. *Eur J Paediatr Neurol* 2002; 6: A41-58.
56. de Weerd NA, Samarajiwa SA, Hertzog PJ. Type I interferon receptors: biochemistry and biological functions. *J Biol Chem* 2007; 282: 20053-20057.
57. Liu YJ. IPC: professional type 1 interferon-producing cells and plasmacytoid dendritic cell precursors. *Annu Rev Immunol* 2005; 23: 275-306.
58. Yoshino A, Ogino A, Yachi K, Ohta T, Fukushima T, Watanabe T, Katayama Y, Okamoto Y, Naruse N, Sano E. Effect of IFN-beta on human glioma cell lines with temozolomide resistance. *Int J Oncol* 2009; 35: 139-148.
59. Natsume A, Wakabayashi T, Ishii D, Maruta H, Fujii M, Shimato S, Ito M, Yoshida J. A combination of IFN-beta and temozolomide in human glioma xenograft models: implication of p53-mediated MGMT downregulation. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol* 2008; 61: 653-659.
60. Natsume A, Ishii D, Wakabayashi T, Tsuno T, Hatano H, Mizuno M, Yoshida J. IFN-beta down-regulates the expression of DNA repair gene MGMT and sensitizes resistant glioma cells to temozolomide. *Cancer Res* 2005; 65: 7573-7579.
61. Park JA, Joe YA, Kim TG, Hong YK. Potentiation of anti-glioma effect with combined temozolomide and interferon-beta. *Oncol Rep* 2006; 16: 1253-1260.
62. Reisman D, Takahashi P, Polson A, Boggs K. Transcriptional regulation of the p53 tumor suppressor gene in S-phase of the cell-cycle and the cellular response to DNA damage. *Biochem Res Int* 2012; 2012: 808934.
63. Tentori L, Orlando L, Lacal PM, Benincasa E, Faraoni I, Bonmassar E, D'Atri S, Graziani G. Inhibition of O6-alkylguanine DNA-alkyltransferase or poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase increases susceptibility of leukemic cells to apoptosis induced by temozolomide. *Mol Pharmacol* 1997; 52: 249-258.
64. Hermisson M, Klumpp A, Wick W, Wischhusen J, Nagel G, Roos W, Kaina B, Weller M. O6-methylguanine DNA methyltransferase and p53 status predict temozolomide sensitivity in human malignant glioma cells. *J Neurochem* 2006; 96: 766-776.
65. Sasai K, Akagi T, Aoyanagi E, Tabu K, Kaneko S, Tanaka S. O6-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase is down-regulated in transformed astrocyte cells: implications for anti-glioma therapies. *Mol Cancer* 2007; 6: 36.
66. Harris LC, Remack JS, Houghton PJ, Brent TP. Wild-type p53 suppresses transcription of the human O6-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase gene. *Cancer Res* 1996; 56: 2029-2032.
67. Srivenugopal KS, Shou J, Mullanpudi SR, Lang FF Jr, Rao JS, Ali-Osman F. Enforced expression of wild-type p53 curtails the transcription of the O(6)-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase gene in human tumor cells and enhances their sensitivity to alkylating agents. *Clin Cancer Res* 2001; 7: 1398-1409.
68. Bocangel D, Sengupta S, Mitra S, Bhakat KK. P53-Mediated down-regulation of the human DNA repair gene O6-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase (MGMT) via interaction with Sp1 transcription factor. *Anticancer Res* 2009; 29: 3741-3750.
69. Boshier JM, Labouesse M. RNA interference: genetic wand and genetic watchdog. *Nat Cell Biol* 2000; 2: E31-E36.
70. Pei DS, Di JH, Chen FF, Zheng JN. Oncolytic-adenovirus-expressed RNA interference for cancer therapy. *Expert Opin Biol Ther* 2010; 10: 1331-1341.
71. Kato T, Natsume A, Toda H, Iwamizu H, Sugita T, Hachisu R, Watanabe R, Yuki K, Motomura K, Bankiewicz K, Wakabayashi T. Efficient delivery of liposome-mediated MGMT-siRNA reinforces the cytotoxicity of temozolomide in GBM-initiating cells. *Gene Ther* 2010; 17: 1363-1371.
72. Viel T, Monfared P, Schelhaas S, Fricke IB, Kuhlmann MT, Fraefel C, Jacobs AH. Optimizing glioblastoma temozolomide chemotherapy employing lentiviral-based anti-MGMT shRNA technology. *Mol Ther* 2013; 21: 570-579.
73. Jounaidi Y, Doloff JC, Waxman DJ. Conditionally replicating adenoviruses for cancer treatment. conditionally replicating adenoviruses for cancer treatment. *Curr Cancer Drug Targets* 2007; 7: 285-301.
74. Kirn D, Martuza RL, Zwiebel J. Replication-selective virotherapy for cancer: biological principles, risk management and future directions. *Nat Med* 2001; 7: 781-787.
75. Qian W, Liu J, Tong Y, Yan S, Yang C, Yang M, Liu X. Enhanced antitumor activity by a selective conditionally replicating adenovirus combining with MDA-7/interleukin-24 for B-lymphoblastic leukemia via induction of apoptosis. *Leukemia* 2008; 22: 361-369.
76. Alonso MM, Gomez-Manzano C, Bekele BN, Yung WK, Fueyo J. Adenovirusbased strategies overcome temozolomide resistance by silencing the O6-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase promoter. *Cancer Res* 2007; 67: 11499-11504.
77. Xipell E, Aragón T, Martínez-Velez N, Vera B, Idoate MA, Martínez-Irujo JJ, Garzón AG, Gonzalez-Huarriz M, Acanda AM, Jones C, Lang FF, Fueyo J, Gomez-Manzano C, Alonso MM. Endoplasmic reticulum stress-inducing drugs sensitize glioma cells to temozolomide through downregulation of MGMT, MPG, and Rad51. *Neuro Oncol* 2016; 18: 1109-1119.
78. Ryu CH, Yoon WS, Park KY, Kim SM, Lim JY, Woo JS, Jeong CH, Hou Y, Jeun SS. Valproic acid downregulates the expression of MGMT and sensitizes temozolomide-resistant glioma cells. *J Biomed Biotechnol* 2012; 2012: 987495.



79. Sampath TK, Coughlin JE, Whetstone RM, Banach D, Corbett C, Ridge RJ, Ozkaynak E, Oppermann H, Rueger DC. Bovine osteogenic protein is composed of dimers of OP-1 and BMP-2A, two members of the transforming growth factor-beta superfamily. *J Biol Chem* 1990; 265: 13198-13205.
80. Chen D, Zhao M, Mundy GR. Bone morphogenetic proteins. *Growth Factors* 2004; 22: 233-241.
81. Marie PJ, Debiasi F, Hay E. Regulation of human cranial osteoblast phenotype by FGF-2, FGFR-2 and BMP-2 signaling. *Histol Histopathol* 2002; 17: 877-885.
82. Lo Dico A, Martelli C, Diceglie C, Lucignani G, Ottobri L. Hypoxia-inducible factor-1 α activity as a switch for glioblastoma responsiveness to temozolomide. *Front Oncol* 2018; 8: 249.
83. Persano L, Pistollato F, Rampazzo E, Della Puppa A, Abbadi S, Frasson C, Volpin F, Indraccolo S, Scienza R, Basso G. BMP2 sensitizes glioblastoma stem-like cells to Temozolomide by affecting HIF-1 α stability and MGMT expression. *Cell Death Dis.* 2012 Oct; 3: e412.
84. DHK Lim, ER Maher. DNA methylation: a form of epigenetic control of gene expression. *Obstetrician Gynaecol* 2010; 12: 37-42.
85. Donson AM, Addo-Yobo SO, Handler MH, Gore L, Foreman NK. MGMT promoter methylation correlates with survival benefit and sensitivity to temozolomide in pediatric glioblastoma. *Pediatr Blood Cancer* 2007; 48: 403-407.
86. Goellner EM, Grimme B, Brown AR, Lin YC, Wang XH, Sugrue KF, Mitchell L, Trivedi RN, Tang JB, Sobol RW. Overcoming temozolomide resistance in glioblastoma via dual inhibition of NAD⁺ biosynthesis and base excision repair. *Cancer Res* 2011; 71: 2308-2317.
87. Montaldi AP, Sakamoto-Hojo ET. Methoxyamine sensitizes the resistant glioblastoma T98G cell line to the alkylating agent temozolomide. *Clin Exp Med* 2013; 13: 279-288.
88. Agnihotri S, Gajadhar AS, Ternamian C, Gorlia T, Diefes KL, Mischel PS, Kelly J, McGown G, Thorncroft M, Carlson BL, Sarkaria JN, Margison GP, Aldape K, Hawkins C, Hegi M, Guha A. Alkylpurine-DNA-N-glycosylase confers resistance to temozolomide in xenograft models of glioblastoma multiforme and is associated with poor survival in patients. *J Clin Invest* 2012; 122: 253-266.
89. Akiyama Y, Ashizawa T, Komiyama M, Miyata H, Oshita C, Omiya M, Iizuka A, Kume A, Sugino T, Hayashi N, Mitsuya K, Nakasu Y, Yamaguchi K. YKL-40 downregulation is a key factor to overcome temozolomide resistance in a glioblastoma cell line. *Oncol Rep* 2014; 32:159-166.
90. Mizoguchi M, Guan Y, Yoshimoto K, Hata N, Amano T, Nakamizo A, Sasaki T. Clinical implications of microRNAs in human glioblastoma. *Front Oncol* 2013; 3: 19.
91. Ma R, Yan W, Zhang G, Lv H, Liu Z, Fang F, Zhang W, Zhang J, Tao T, You Y, Jiang T, Kang X. Upregulation of miR-196b confers a poor prognosis in glioblastoma patients via inducing a proliferative phenotype. *PLoS One* 2012; 7: e38096.
92. Guan Y, Chen L, Bao Y, Qiu B, Pang C, Cui R, Wang Y. High miR-196a and low miR-367 cooperatively correlate with unfavorable prognosis of high-grade glioma. *Int J Clin Exp Pathol* 2015; 8: 6576-6588.
93. Malzkorn B, Wolter M, Liesenberg F, Grzendowski M, Stühler K, Meyer HE, Reifenberger G. Identification and functional characterization of microRNAs involved in the malignant progression of gliomas. *Brain Pathol* 2010; 20: 539-350.
94. [94] Kim H, Huang W, Jiang X, Pennicooke B, Park PJ, Johnson MD. Integrative genome analysis reveals an oncomir/oncogene cluster regulating glioblastoma survivorship. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2010; 107: 2183-2188.
95. Rao SAM, Santosh V, Somasundaram K. Genome-wide expression profiling identifies deregulated miRNAs in malignant astrocytoma. *Modern Pathology* 2010; 23: 1404-1417.
96. Srinivasan S, Patric IR, Somasundaram K. A ten-microRNA expression signature predicts survival in glioblastoma. *PLoS One* 2011; 6: e17438.
97. Kim TM, Huang W, Park R, Park PJ, Johnson MD. A developmental taxonomy of glioblastoma defined and maintained by MicroRNAs. *Cancer Res* 2011; 71: 3387-3399.
98. Mizoguchi M, Guan Y, Yoshimoto K, Hata N, Amano T, Nakamizo A, Sasaki T. MicroRNAs in human malignant gliomas. *J Oncol* 2012; 2012: 732874.
99. Asuthkar S, Velpula KK, Chetty C, Gorantla B, Rao JS. Epigenetic regulation of miRNA-211 by MMP-9 governs glioma cell apoptosis, chemosensitivity and radiosensitivity. *Oncotarget* 2012; 3: 1439-1454.
100. Shi L, Chen J, Yang J, Pan T, Zhang S, Wang Z. MiR-21 protected human glioblastoma U87MG cells from chemotherapeutic drug temozolomide induced apoptosis by decreasing Bax/Bcl-2 ratio and caspase-3 activity. *Brain Res* 2010; 1352: 255-264.
101. Shi L, Zhang S, Feng K, Wu F, Wan Y, Wang Z, Zhang J, Wang Y, Yan W, Fu Z, You Y. MicroRNA-125b-2 confers human glioblastoma stem cells resistance to temozolomide through the mitochondrial pathway of apoptosis. *Int J Oncol* 2012; 40: 119-129.
102. Ujifuku K, Mitsutake N, Takakura S, Matsuse M, Saenko V, Suzuki K, Hayashi K, Matsuo T, Kamada K, Nagata I, Yamashita S. MiR-195, miR-455-3p and miR-10a are implicated in acquired temozolomide resistance in glioblastoma multiforme cells. *Cancer Lett* 2010; 296: 241-248.
103. Wong ST, Zhang XQ, Zhuang JT, Chan HL, Li CH, Leung GK. MicroRNA-21 inhibition enhances in vitro chemosensitivity of temozolomide-resistant glioblastoma cells. *Anticancer Res* 2012; 32: 2835-2841.
104. Yang YP, Chien Y, Chiou GY, Cheng JY, Wang ML, Lo WL, Chang YL, Huang PI, Chen YW, Shih YH, Chen MT, Chiou SH. Inhibition of cancer stem cell-like properties and reduced chemoradioresistance of glioblastoma using microRNA145 with cationic polyurethane-short branch PEI. *Biomaterials* 2012; 3: 1462-1476.
105. Han J, Chen Q. MiR-16 modulate temozolomide resistance by regulating BCL-2 in human glioma cells. *Int J Clin Exp Pathol* 2015; 8: 12698-12707.
106. Wong ST, Zhang XQ, Zhuang JT, Chan HL, Li CH, Leung GK. MicroRNA-21 inhibition enhances in vitro chemosensitivity of temozolomide-resistant glioblastoma cells. *Anticancer Res* 2012; 32: 2835-2841.
107. Bijnsdorp IV, Giovannetti E, Peters GJ. Analysis of drug interactions. *Methods Mol Biol* 2011; 731: 421-434.
108. Balça-Silva J, Matias D, do Carmo A, Girão H, Moura-Neto V, Sarmiento-Ribeiro AB, Lopes MC. Tamoxifen in combination with temozolomide induce a synergistic inhibition of PKC-pan in GBM cell lines. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 2015; 1850: 722-732.
109. Pazhouhi M, Sariri R, Rabzia A, Khazaei M. Thymoquinone synergistically potentiates temozolomide cytotoxicity through the inhibition of autophagy in U87MG cell line. *Iran J Basic Med Sci* 2016; 19: 890-898.
110. Pazhouhi M, Sariri R, Khazaei MR, Moradi MT, Khazaei M. Synergistic effect of temozolomide and thymoquinone on human glioblastoma multiforme cell line (U87MG). *J Cancer Res Ther* 2018; 14: 1023-1028.
111. Khazaei M, Pazhouhi M. Temozolomide-mediated apoptotic death is improved by thymoquinone in U87MG cell line. *Cancer Invest* 2017; 35: 225-236.

112. Atif F, Patel NR, Yousuf S, Stein DG. The synergistic effect of combination progesterone and temozolomide on human glioblastoma cells. *PLoS One* 2015; 10: e0131441.
113. Zandi A, Moini Zanjani T, Ziai SA, Khazaei Poul Y, Haji Molla Hoseini M. The synergistic effects of the combination of ciprofloxacin and temozolomide on human glioblastoma A-172 cell line. *Middle East J Cancer* 2017; 8: 31-38.
114. Ren H, Tan X, Dong Y, Giese A, Chao Chou T, Rainov N, Yang B. Differential effect of imatinib and synergism of combination treatment with chemotherapeutic agents in malignant glioma cells. *Basic Clin Pharmacol Toxicol* 2009; 104: 241-252.
115. Bak DH, Kang SH, Choi DR, Gil MN, Yu KS, Jeong JH, Lee NS, Lee JH, Jeong YG, Kim DK, Kim DK, Kim JJ, Han SY. Autophagy enhancement contributes to the synergistic effect of vitamin D in temozolomide-based glioblastoma chemotherapy. *Exp Ther Med* 2016; 11: 2153-2162.
116. Yu Z, Zhao G, Li P, Li Y, Zhou G, Chen Y, Xie G. Temozolomide in combination with metformin act synergistically to inhibit proliferation and expansion of glioma stem-like cells. *Oncol Lett* 2016; 11: 2792-2800.
117. Zanotto-Filho A, Braganhol E, Klafke K, Figueiró F, Terra SR, Paludo FJ, Morrone M, Bristot IJ, Battastini AM, Forcelini CM, Bishop AJR, Gelain DP, Moreira JCF. Autophagy inhibition improves the efficacy of curcumin/temozolomide combination therapy in glioblastomas. *Cancer Lett* 2015; 358: 220-231.
118. Marutani A, Nakamura M, Nishimura F, Nakazawa T, Matsuda R, Hironaka Y, Nakagawa I, Tamura K, Takeshima Y, Motoyama Y, Bokua E, Oujib Y, Yoshikawa M, Nakase H. Tumor-inhibition effect of levetiracetam in combination with temozolomide in glioblastoma cells. *Neurochemical Journal* 2017; 11: 43-49.
119. Gupta V, Su YS, Wang W, Kardosh A, Liebes LF, Hofman FM, Schönthal AH, Chen TC. Enhancement of glioblastoma cell killing by combination treatment with temozolomide and tamoxifen or hypericin. *Neurosurg Focus* 2006; 20: E20.
120. Chen CH, Chang YJ, Ku MSB, Chung KT, Yang JT. Enhancement of temozolomide-induced apoptosis by valproic acid in human glioma cell lines through redox regulation. *J Mol Med* 2011; 89: 303-315.
121. Brassesco MS, Roberto GM, Morales AG, Oliveira JC, Delsin LEA, Pezuk JA, Valera ET, Carlotti Jr CG, Rego EM, de Oliveira HF, Scrideli CA, Umezawa K, Tone LG. Inhibition of NF- κ B by dehydroxymethylepoxyquinomicin suppresses invasion and synergistically potentiates temozolomide and γ -radiation cytotoxicity in glioblastoma cells. *Chemother Res Pract* 2013; 2013: 593020.
122. Hanif F, Perveen K, Jawed H, Ahmed A, Malhi SM, Jamall S, Simjee SU. N-(2-hydroxyphenyl) acetamide (NA-2) and temozolomide synergistically induce apoptosis in human glioblastoma cell line U87. *Cancer Cell Int* 2014; 14: 133.
123. Lee SW, Kim HK, Lee NH, Yi HY, Kim HS, Hong SH, Hong YK, Joe YA. The synergistic effect of combination temozolomide and chloroquine treatment is dependent on autophagy formation and p53 status in glioma cells. *Cancer Lett* 2015; 360: 195-204.
124. Torres S, Lorente M, Rodríguez-Fornes F, Hernandez-Tiedra S, Salazar M, García-Taboada E, Barcia J, Guzman M, Velasco G. A combined preclinical therapy of cannabinoids and temozolomide against glioma. *Mol Cancer Ther* 2011; 10: 90-103.
125. Khazaei M, Pazhouhi M, Khazaei S. Evaluation of hydroalcoholic extract of *trifolium pratense* L. for its anti-cancer potential on U87MG cell line. *Cell J* 2018; 20: 412-421.
126. Khazaei M, Pazhouhi M, Khazaei S. Temozolomide and tranilast synergistic antiproliferative effect on human glioblastoma multiforme cell line (U87MG). *Med J Islam Repub Iran* 2019; 33: 39.
127. Sotelo J, Briceño E, López-González MA. Adding chloroquine to conventional treatment for glioblastoma multiforme: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Ann Intern Med* 2006; 144: 337-343.
128. Newlands ES, Foster T, S Zaknoen. Phase 1 study of temozolomide (TMZ) combined with procarbazine (PCB) in patients with gliomas. *Br J Cancer* 2003; 89: 248-251.
129. Prados MD, Yung WK, Fine HA, Greenberg HS, Junck L, Chang SM, Nicholas MK, Robins HI, Mehta MP, Fink KL, Jaeckle KA, Kuhn J, Hess KR, Schold SC Jr; North American Brain Tumor Consortium study. Phase 2 study of BCNU and temozolomide for recurrent glioblastoma multiforme: North American Brain Tumor Consortium study. *Neuro Oncol* 2004; 6: 33-37.
130. Khodamoradi F, Ghoncheh M, Pakzad R, Gandomani HS, Salehiniya H. The incidence and mortality of brain and central nervous system cancer and their relationship with human development index in the world. *WCRJ* 2017; 4: e985.