

Advancing Cancer Stem Cell-Targeted Therapeutic Applications

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Abstract: Cancer stem cells (CSCs), first identified in blood cancers, are increasingly recognized as significant biomarkers and targets in tumor therapy due to their metastatic potential and role in cancer recurrence. Recent research has demonstrated the dedication of scientists in targeting CSCs to explore novel therapeutic strategies. Many types of cancer exhibit metastasis, heterogeneity, and resistance to treatment, all of which are influenced by CSCs. These cells utilize various transcription factors and signaling pathways to carry out these functions. By identifying and understanding these pathways, new therapeutic breakthroughs can be achieved. Thus, targeting cancer stem cells holds great potential and importance in cancer treatment. Moreover, CSCs offer promising avenues for treating otherwise incurable diseases. However, targeting CSCs presents challenges such as immunological rejection and disease recurrence. Advancing research into CSCs may reveal new insights in the fight against cancer and ultimately improve human health. This review explores the roles of CSCs in cancer development and treatment, aiming to uncover new therapeutic approaches.

Keywords: Cancer stem cells; Cancer; Therapy

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1. Introduction

Cancer stem cells (CSCs) are a specific subpopulation of tumor cells that possess unique characteristics and are known to initiate tumors. CSCs share traits with stem cells, such as the ability to self-renew and differentiate into various types of tumor cells, unlike most cancer cells. Even without CSCs, tumors can exhibit rapid growth, but CSCs are thought to be the primary drivers of tumor initiation, progression, and treatment resistance [1]. Because of their ability to evade current cancer therapies, CSCs have become a major focus of research, raising questions about their potential for curative applications. A combination of stochastic and hierarchical factors is believed to play a critical role in the transformation of normal stem cells into CSCs. As stem cells continue to proliferate and differentiate into various cell types, they accumulate environmental influences and genetic changes over time $[2]$. These cells are evolutionarily adapted to thrive in hostile conditions, allowing them to proliferate and become more aggressive regardless of their environment. An extensive network of transcription factors and signaling pathways regulates the maintenance, growth, and division of CSCs across different types of cancer [3].

Transcription factors such as OCT4 and KLF4 serve as key regulators by controlling gene expression and maintaining the pluripotent state of CSCs. Additionally, signaling pathways like JAK-STAT, Hedgehog, and Wnt are crucial for the complex regulation of CSC behavior, with β-catenin playing a central role in promoting selfrenewal and stemness [4]. Notch and Hedgehog pathways help maintain stemness while sequentially limiting differentiation. The JAK-STAT pathway regulates the balance between CSC longevity and growth, while TGF/ SMAD signaling, depending on the context, can either promote or inhibit CSC self-renewal. Furthermore, CSC differentiation can be driven by activating peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs). These intricate biological components work together to form a dynamic regulatory system that governs CSC functions and growth in the context of cancer. Proper regulation of CSC survival and proliferation is critical for tumor progression and development [5]. A comprehensive understanding of these molecular interactions is crucial for designing effective therapeutic strategies. Since CSCs are resistant to conventional chemotherapy, tumors driven by these cells are more dangerous, as even a single surviving CSC can lead to tumor recurrence. Moreover, CSCs may be protected by altered microenvironmental conditions, unlike normal stem cells. Targeting CSCs could revolutionize cancer therapies and significantly improve patient outcomes by eliminating the cells responsible for metastasis, relapse, and treatment resistance, increasing the chances of long-term recovery and improving survival rates [6]. Developing drugs that specifically target CSCs offers new hope for individuals battling aggressive cancers.

Despite the progress made, researchers must exercise caution when advancing therapeutic strategies. The biological role of CSCs is still in its early stages, and new evidence is constantly emerging, either challenging or confirming current knowledge. It is crucial to address the cultural, ethical, and political implications as science moves from the lab to the clinic. While not every issue can be resolved, ongoing dialogue and collaboration are essential $[7]$. Understanding the molecular mechanisms governing cell division is the key to achieving a controlled balance between self-renewal and differentiation, which could promote tissue repair. More specific guidelines for the optimal use of therapeutic cells are needed to improve patient's quality of life. Novel stem cell therapies have the potential to replace existing, often expensive and ineffective treatments. Additionally, stem cells are regarded as valuable research tools for studying cancer development, embryonic growth, and cell differentiation. In the near future, advancements in our understanding of basic biology may lead to improved therapies for both human and animal diseases. Therefore, this review highlights the crucial role that CSCs play in cancer treatment [8].

2. Origination of cancer stem cells

In a physiological setting, stem cells seldom ever proliferate. Although stem cells are infinitely expanding, they divide rather infrequently—only 10% of bone marrow stem cells are in the reproduction, pre-division, or mitotic stages simultaneously. According to current theories, CSCs can arise from completely developed somatic cells, partially developed progenitor cells found in a particular niche, or normal stem cells. As a result, CSCs have characteristics that are comparable to those of normal stem cells. Nevertheless, some requirements must be satisfied for a regular stem cell to differentiate into a CSC, particularly the absence of cell cycle regulation and a buildup of epigenetic and genetic modifications ^[9]. Because they enhance drug efflux pumps, produce detoxifying enzymes, and exhibit a strong potential to promote pro-survival and anti-apoptotic processes in addition to repairing DNA, CSCs are challenging to remove. Chemotherapy presently in practice is not effective enough to treat CSCs that have low repetition indices since it concentrates on quick cell division. The ability of CSC communities to smoothly transition between distinct stages of the cell cycle in reaction to

common cell cues caused by anticancer medications is one of the hypothesized mechanisms of CSC resistance to anticancer treatments. CSCs in the G0 phase can therefore withstand prolonged periods of dormancy because they are resistant to signals of cell cycle blockage accompanied by the apoptotic cascade's collapse [10].

3. Involvement of non-coding RNA in CSCs

There is little information on the control of CSC epigenetics, despite the extensive description of the roles played by miRNA, lncRNA, and circRNA in CSCs. These fragments demonstrate the role of non-coding RNA in CSC epigenetics. Research demonstrated that *miR-135a* can work on DNMT1 to decrease NANOG regulator DNA methylation, increasing the potential of CSC. LncRNA HotairM1 attracted many transcription factors (TFs) to the operator of its intended gene, *HOXA1*, which led to histone H3K27 trimethylation and epigenetic silencing of HOXA1. Afterward, H3K27 acetylation was triggered at the NANOG gene enhancer site, which increased the activity of HOXA1 [11]. NANOG buildup subsequently suppresses HOXA1, creating a reciprocal regulatory circuit that keeps CSC growth and regeneration intact. Furthermore, prior work has documented that lncTCF7 attracts SWI/SNF clusters to the TCF7 promoter, inducing TCF7 transcription and consequently activating Wnt signaling, which in turn amplifies the tumorigenic potential of liver $CSCs$ ^[12].

4. Cancer stem cell mechanisms and tissue-specific microenvironment

The formation and survival of stem cells are guaranteed by the particular milieu found in a specific area. The area where stem cells are stored in preparation for self-regeneration, proliferation, and specialization required to preserve tissue homeostasis is known as the stem cell niche. CSC-specific niches are characterized by an increase in cancerous cells and an immune system disturbance. In this regard, it is critical to remember that ongoing swelling is a normal promoter in niches known to promote tumors ^[13]. The buildup of cancer-associated fibroblasts, tumor-associated neutrophils, tumor-associated macrophages, and cell-mediated attachment, that govern contacts between cells as well as stromal, endothelial, and T cells, maintains particular features of CSC niches. Extracellular capsules, soluble variables, and the extracellular matrix are further constituents that aid the environment connected to cancer. Certain characteristics of CSCs, such as penetration, dissemination, and promotion of tumor-associated neovasculature, are favored in such an environment $^{[14]}$. It is commonly recognized that reduced oxygen environments initiate neoangiogenesis; nevertheless, the neovasculature system exhibits abnormalities because of increased permeability and an undeveloped, twisted architecture. Furthermore, hypoxic niches sustain immature CSCs by restricting cell cycling and therefore reducing the rate of cell division, which triggers the G0 phase transition. It is interesting to note that hypoxia has an impact on cancer and creates a shield against damage to the DNA. Hypoxia-inducible factors (HIFs) influence CSCs' capacity for self-renewal, division of cells, and carcinogenic potential. Accordingly, some investigations have shown increased CD44⁺ and CD133⁺ expression in hypoxic circumstances $^{[15]}$. In blood cancers, alteration of the bone marrow (BM) niche architecture is an ongoing condition. Leukaemia cell aggregation and invasion encourage the removal of healthy hematopoietic progenitor cells from bone marrow niches and create the perfect habitat for these cells to grow in. The altered BM habitat permits LSCs to engage in normal activities such as selfregeneration, inactivity, and evading apoptosis ^[16]. Furthermore, LSCs continue to occupy the changed BM niche, serving as an accumulation for leftover leukemia cells and encouraging relapse. It is important to note that the vascular niches and the osteoblastic niche, two distinct microenvironmental zones found in the BM niche, probably influence how LSCs cycle. These environments work well together to support the movement, self-renewal, proliferation, and organization of LSCs and BM-related stem cells [17].

Several alterations accumulate during the tumorigenesis process, and these changes, when subjected to selection by chance, lead to the growth of more vigorous groups of cells and ultimately accelerate the growth of the tumor. While this idea is hardly new, the process of experimentally identifying the cells that can cause cancers has only recently started. As seen in leukemia, breast cancer, and prostate cancer, a tiny percentage of cancer mass cells can proliferate when transplanted into susceptible animals and create new tumors. These cells are known as CSCs, and they resemble conventional stem cells in several ways [18]. Because both cell types can self-regenerate, the stem cell community can be maintained eternally, and new cells can be produced that can differentiate into at least one line. Spreading rates decline with differentiation, making ultimately differentiated cells less likely to proliferate and more likely to initiate the apoptotic pathway within a certain amount of time. As a result, the bulk of the tumor mass's cells are not carcinogenic ^[19]. Tumors are unique to each other because they are made up of distinct cells during various phases of development. Understanding the biology of cancers requires in-depth research on the impact of microenvironments on the survival of CSCs because stem cells depend on a particular microenvironment to sustain their ability for regeneration and because peritumoral organs affect the preservation of the tumor territory ^[20]. Two basic properties of stem cells that impact tumor progression are the elevated production of multidrug resistance proteins and the limited degree of proliferation. These characteristics suggest that conventional chemotherapy, which mostly targets cells that are reproducing, could prove useless in getting rid of these populations ^[21].

Chemotherapy causes cancer cells to go through senescence or dormancy. When ATR protein inhibitors are given before treatment, they successfully stop tumor cells from going into inactivity, according to research done on AML organoids and mice models. This strategy may enhance the efficacy of treatment for gastrointestinal, prostate, breast, and other cancers ^[22]. Moreover, research has demonstrated that some cancer cell subgroups that can hibernate may have a role in the return of disease. To prevent the illness from relapsing and enhance the effectiveness of therapy, it is crucial to address the dormant tumor cells. Subtypes of tumor cells that understand "hibernation" can cause cancer to return $^{[23]}$. Even though more investigation is required to fully understand the complicated processes of diapause and its consequences for tumor development, understanding this biological phenomenon provides new opportunities for developing more effective cancer treatments. Researchers work to combat cancer by understanding the cellular processes governing diapause and creating methods to specifically target cancerous cells that are inactive. This helps to avoid tumor return, eliminate resistance to therapy, and eventually enhance the lives of patients [24]. **Table 1** shows comprehensive information about cancer stem cell therapy, possible challenges, and the main outcomes of the investigations.

5. Models of CSCs working

Research platforms known as CSC models are designed to replicate the traits and actions of CSCs in a lab setting. These representations are crucial for researching the biology of CSCs, their function in the initiation, development, and failure of treatment of tumors, and the creation of new treatment approaches. CSC models can be created using known cell lines or cancer cell lines obtained from patient biopsies. In these models, stemlike cells that possess capabilities like self-renewal and differentiation potential are isolated and enriched. Through examining these cell populations, scientists can learn more about the biology of CSCs, pinpoint markers unique to CSCs, and find out how these cells react to different therapies. Models developed from cell lines provide many benefits for scientific study [32]. Many different types of study facilities can be them because of their affordability and ease of upkeep. Numerous cell lines develop quickly, which makes large-scale research possible. Some of these cell lines can also be genetically altered, which makes it possible to study the activities of particular genes.

Furthermore, using cell lines eliminates the moral dilemmas related to studying humans or animals, which makes them a useful option for a variety of clinical contexts. Cell line-derived models have drawbacks regardless of their benefits. There may be differences between the physiological reality and the results of experiments because they fall short of capturing the intricate *in vivo* settings and connections that exist throughout a whole body. A restricted variety of kinds of tissues constitute the source of many cell lines, which reduces their accuracy. Furthermore, cell lines may experience genetic and phenotypic movement, which could cause them to diverge from the initial features of the tumor tissue [33]. Living in laboratory settings, they do not interface with the extracellular matrix and have little biological significance. Ultimately, their reactions to medications might not precisely mirror *in vivo* reactions, which could result in false findings during the drug study and evaluation process. GEMMs entail modifying the biological composition of mice to induce particular cancer subtypes or to concentrate on particular genes connected to CSCs. Such models enable scientists to investigate the function of particular genetic mutations in the development of CSCs, the start of tumors, and their growth. The effectiveness of targeted treatments against CSCs in an additional intricate and changing framework can also be assessed using GEMMs. They are essential for numerous scientific purposes because they closely resemble illnesses in humans and allow exquisite genetic manipulation. They may not be appropriate for all conditions, require a lot of resources, and present ethical questions $^{[34]}$.

Immunodeficient mice are implanted with tumor tissues or CSC populations obtained from patients in PDX models. These models enable the investigation of tumor growth, spread, and response to treatment *in vivo*, and they provide a more accurate representation of the tumor surroundings. PDX models are useful resources for preclinical medication screening and customized treatment strategies because they preserve the genetic diversity and diversity of the underlying tumor. When it comes to simulating human cancers and evaluating medication responses, PDX models are quite advantageous. They do not have a human immune system, are resourceintensive, and might not be practical for all kinds of tumors. When selecting PDX models for their particular research objectives, researchers ought to critically analyze these advantages and disadvantages ^[35]. Organotypic models include a variety of cells and extracellular matrix elements in an attempt to replicate the intricacy of the cancer microenvironment. Cocultures of CSCs with additional cell kinds, such as immunological, stromal, or brain cells, can be included in these models to study how these cell types communicate and impact CSC activity. Organotypic models offer an environment for researching immune escape processes, CSC-mediated tumor-stroma connections, and possible treatments. With fewer ethical issues, organotypic models provide an extremely pertinent framework for researching medication reactions and illnesses unique to certain tissues. However, when employing patient-derived samples, they can be laborious, potentially not viable in the long run, and show inconsistency [36].

Tumor spheroids and organoids are examples of 3D culture methods that are designed to replicate the three-dimensional structure and molecular connections found in tumors. Wilson carried out a ground-breaking experiment in 1907 that revealed the extraordinary capacity for regeneration of sponge cells. Since then, stem cell scientists have accomplished great strides toward creating organoids from stem cells to study a variety of cancer kinds, such as breast, lung, colon, and pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma [37]. This marked the beginning of the technique for developing organoids. To research stomach cancer, there are currently stem cell clinical systems and inspired pluripotent stem cell organoids available. These models offer an additional biologically accurate setting for researching the behavior of CSCs, such as their differentiation, self-regeneration, and responsiveness to treatments. Tumor organoids have properties comparable to the original material and preserve the variability seen in individual tumors, however, organoids produced from benign conditions are useful models for comprehending tumor formation and examining tumor-related alterations^[38]. Because of this characteristic, they are potentially useful instruments for bridging investigation and targeted therapy, providing a strong foundation for investigating the biology of cancer and individualized treatment approaches. Either known cancer cell lines or patient specimens can be used to create 3D culture systems. For example, homologous recombination deficit, chromothripsis, tandem-duplicator phenotype, and whole genome duplication are some of the mutational pathways generating chromosomal instabilities that have been effectively studied using patient-derived organoids in high-grade epithelial ovarian cancer [39].

They can direct the emergence of targeted therapies and be utilized for evaluating chemical sensitivity. Heterogeneous reactions to distinct treatments have been examined in colorectal cancer organoids. Colorectal carcinoma organoids can forecast treatment reactions and assist in the design of tailored cancer therapies when combined with additional methods such as mass spectrometry and RNA-seq [40].

Organoid research in the context of cancer is however subject to many restrictions, nevertheless its enormous potential. Organoid model generation outcomes vary widely, and to improve reliability, the circumstances for organoid growth need to be optimized. Organoids' inability to contain particular kinds of cells, including stromal cells, makes it more difficult to assess the effectiveness of immunomodulatory therapies and make precise predictions about the clinical effects ^[41]. Furthermore, the incapacity of current organoid models to accurately replicate the intricacy of *in vivo* settings stems from their lack of vascularization and the inability to simulate connections between various tissues and organs. The wider integration of organoid equipment into medical facilities also depends on the standardization of protocols and the development of affordable production techniques. Consequently, organoids have great promise for the study of cancer; but, to fully realize their value as trustworthy preclinical and clinical models for medication assessment and customized therapy, it will be imperative to overcome these issues and advance organoid development $[42]$.

6. Role of CSCs in clinical findings

CSCs can serve as biomarkers for the early detection, diagnosis, and prognosis of various types of cancer. CSCs can also aid in drug radiation resistance and tumor initiation. Their presence and characteristics can provide valuable insights into tumor aggressiveness, treatment response, and the likelihood of recurrence. Identifying and targeting CSC-specific biomarkers can aid in personalized treatment strategies and monitoring disease progression ^[43]. SCs can be utilized for drug screening and testing novel therapeutic agents. By culturing CSCs *in vitro* or developing animal models with CSC populations, researchers can assess the efficacy of different drugs and identify potential candidates for further clinical development. This approach enables the identification of drugs that specifically target CSCs, ultimately leading to more effective treatment options.

Researchers have discovered new biomarkers in CSCs that govern the survival and spread of cancer, and hope is rising that drug discovery to kill CSCs can follow suit ^[44]. Biomarkers can help clinicians detect that an abnormal process may be underway and can appear as an array of aberrant proteins, such as hormones, enzymes, or signaling molecules, and may vary from patient to patient.

Tumor cell dissemination, from primary origin to secondary sites, is strongly related to cancer-associated mortality in two out of every three solid tumors. The CSC paradigm assumes that solid tumors and leukemias are hierarchically defined, with CSCs at the top of this pyramid, leading to tumor development, spread, relapse, and drug resistance. Interestingly, higher CSC counts have been detected in leukemias and lymphomas, while solid tumors presented lower numbers [45]. However, it is considered that higher-grade tumors show higher percentages of CSCs. Nevertheless, according to the CSC model, not all of those cells are able to trigger cancer progression. Tumor spreading depends on a more anomalous and particular subpopulation of $CSCs$ ^[46]. Thus, there is a need to identify at least two CSC/LSC subpopulations: early-stage (pre-neoplastic) and late-stage (pro-metastatic) CSCs/LSCs. To fully understand the relationship between CSCs and cancer progression, it is important to note that dysregulation of vascular homeostasis facilitates tumor progression $[47]$. Transcription factors specific for mesenchymal cells (Twist1, Slug, and Snail) and antigens (Vimentin and N-cadherin) are expressed on the surface of CSCs, helping them to undergo epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) and trigger the formation of secondary malignant phenotypes, cell migration, and apoptosis-resistant CSCs. Furthermore, the upregulation of stemness-related components, including Oct4, Notch, ALDH1, and SOX1, confirms the ability to effectively switch between CSC and non-CSC states [48].

The EMT is stimulated by mediators released from the niche, i.e., transforming growth factor β (TGF-β), hepatocyte growth factor (HGF), HIF, Hedgehog, Wnt, and Notch. The Wnt/β-catenin, Hedgehog, Notch, and PI3K/Akt/mTOR signaling pathways are upregulated in all solid and non-solid tumors, leading to the enhancement of CSC/LSC-specific properties. The Wnt pathway enhances cancer cell division, motility, and drug resistance, while the self-renewal of CSCs/LSCs is mediated by the Hedgehog and Notch pathways [49]. However, the research so far has not allowed us to fully understand and control the mechanism by which CSCs/ LSCs contribute to cancer invasion. Nevertheless, the above-indicated signaling pathways provide a mechanism for explaining the differences in behavior between early-stage (pre-tumorigenic stem cells) and late-stage CSCs/LSCs [50]. The Wnt/ß-catenin pathway is fundamental to preserving the self-renewal ability of early-stage stem cells in leukemias; breast, lung, and liver cancers; and melanomas, whereas the Notch signaling pathway has been implicated in stemness of late-stage cancer stem cells in AML, breast cancer, colon cancer, and glioblastoma. Stemness of late-stage CSCs in glioblastoma, colon cancer, and pancreatic cancer involves the Hedgehog signaling pathway [51].

Hematological malignancies are highly heterogeneous concerning the diversity of clinical presentation, cytogenetics, and molecular profiles, as well as a future outcome that is associated with patient- and leukaemiarelated factors. Hematological malignancies arise not only from the genetic alterations in malignant cells but also due to their communication/symbiotic relationship with the microenvironment. The evolution of the disease is strongly associated with reciprocal communication between stroma and malignant cells, which promotes anti-apoptotic signals in LSCs during their migration to the secondary space [52]. Many studies demonstrated that CSCs are quiescent or slowly dividing, whereas leukemia progenitors are able to divide rapidly by escaping the dormant state. Indisputably, LSCs hold great importance in the pathogenesis and relapse of leukemia; thus, hematological malignancies should be treated based on stemness patterns. Furthermore, the heterogeneous LSC population shows diversity at the level of functionality, since there exist sub-colonies that display the unfavorable phenotypes of dormancy, long-term neoplasm propagation, and drug insensitivity.

This has modified the understanding of therapeutic needs in hematological malignancies because unfavorable phenotypes of dormancy are reversible and give space to use LSC-targeted treatments that prolong remission periods [53].

7. Treatment and side effects associated with stem cell therapy

Addressing CSCs in particular is a potential malignancy therapeutic strategy. Although fast-dividing cells are the main focus of traditional cancer procedures like radiation and chemotherapy, CSCs may not be eliminated since they are frequently more susceptible to these remedies. CSCs may endure the first course of treatment and aid in the spread and return of tumors. To create effective customized therapies, the separation and recognition of malignant tissues must be precisely programmed and constructed ^[54]. This involves comprehending the processes that control the growth of cancer stem cell populations and the emergence of drug tolerance. Immunomodulation, immunological evasion, and impact resistance induced by CSCs profoundly disrupt the homeostasis of the native defense system. Tumor advancement can be controlled by utilizing the signaling pathways of notch receptor, mammalian target of rapamycin, Wnt/β-catenin, and sonic hedgehog. The creation of medications that specifically target CSCs or interfere with their surroundings that support their existence is another aspect of CSC-based therapy. These strategies seek to prevent CSCs from proliferating, stimulate them to differentiate into noncancerous cell types, or make them more susceptible to standard therapeutics [55]. The use of immunotherapy for fighting CSCs is another new field of study. Immunotherapies use the immune response of the body to identify and eradicate CSCs. To boost the immune system towards CSCs and enhance therapeutic results, techniques such as immune checkpoint inhibitors, chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) T-cell therapy, and tumor vaccinations are being investigated [56].

The use of CSCs in therapeutics has the potential to enhance cancer medication results. However, this method carries some dangers and possible negative consequences, just like various medical methods. While the likelihood of these adverse reactions and consequences is usually low, some of the documented adverse consequences of CSC therapy involve nausea, vomiting, and sore throats and mouths. Blood-related issues have also required transfusions. Inflammation and bleeding are other risks, which are typical worries with any invasive medical operation [57]. Additional possible hazards associated with CSC therapy encompass hepatic hyperplasia and hepatic veno-occlusive disease. Nonetheless, care should be taken to reduce any possible dangers related to the therapy. One way to increase the likelihood of effective malignant tissue growth in the given surroundings is to minimize using immune-suppressive drugs during the course of therapy. Strict control of any adverse reactions and ongoing surveillance are required to guarantee the efficacy and efficacy of CSC intervention ^[58]. Researchers and medical experts are always trying to increase our knowledge of these risks and create plans to reduce them. The objective is to give patients more secure and efficient therapies for treating their cancer by decreasing the hazards and negative consequences related to CSC therapies.

CSCs have been thoroughly investigated for their possibility as immunizations since they are essential in enhancing the body's immune response to combat cancer. According to new investigations, putting CSCs into the body can boost the body's defenses in attacking different kinds of cancer and assist fight growth-promoting proteins. T-cancer cells are specific tumor cells found in humans that continuously scan the outside of malignant tissues for anomalies or possible hazards to the body. Viral or bacterial infection can be suggested by alterations in the patterns of cancer cells, such as mutations or changed transcription [59]. But as they have grown, cancers have evolved defense processes, making it difficult to find and cure throughout their initial phases. The body's immune reaction is weakened as a result of this escape, which lets cancer spread. Although surgery is frequently

regarded as the most successful way to remove tumors, it cannot ensure that all cancer cells are completely eradicated. Regenerating residual cells has the potential to cause illness relapse. This highlights the necessity of complementing strategies that might fortify the immune system and improve its capacity to identify and eradicate cancerous cells. Approaches for vaccination based on CSCs have a lot of potential to do this [60]. Through the utilization of CSCs' distinct qualities, scientists hope to create novel treatments that focus on and stimulate the immune response to combat cancer. These initiatives aim to strengthen the immune system's ability to combat malignant cells to conquer the obstacles presented by tumor avoidance strategies and increase therapeutic efficacy $[61]$. In the continuing struggle over malignancy, the adoption of CSC-based vaccination techniques offers new prospects for more potent and specialized therapy.

8. Future of CSCs

Future breakthroughs in CSC study will open the door to important new insights into the genetics of cancer and the creation of creative treatment strategies. Characterization of CSC indicators, which entails discovering particular DNA fingerprints and genetic characteristics linked with CSCs in diverse kinds of cancer, is one noteworthy area of development. By isolating and examining CSC populations, researchers can gain a better knowledge of their biology and behavior as well as identify prospective targets for treatment therapies. Investigating CSC diversity among tumors is a crucial component of CSC research [62]. It is now acknowledged that CSC populations show notable inclusion with several subpopulations exhibiting unique traits and activities. The processes causing this variation and their consequences for therapeutic opposition, metastasis, and tumor development are the subject of intense scientific investigation. Gaining an understanding of CSC heterogeneity is essential to creating tailored therapy plans that target particular CSC groups, improving therapeutic outcomes, and lowering the risk of cancer resurgence. Additionally, a lot of work is being done to target signaling systems unique to CSCs. Important functions such as CSC self-renewal, distinction, and preservation are regulated by these pathways. Researchers hope to impede tumor development and disturb CSC stability by focusing on these mechanisms. It has been determined that pathways like notch, Wnt, and hedgehog could be candidates for a prevention approach ^[63]. To improve therapeutic success, strategies that incorporate CSC-targeted medicines with traditional procedures including radiation and chemotherapy are being investigated. Targeting both the bulk tumor cells and the CSC subpopulations at the same time is intended to improve tumor shrinkage, avoid a return, and overcome drug resilience.

Research on CSCs is beginning to show potential with immunotherapies as well. When it comes to identifying and getting rid of tumor cells, particularly CSCs, the immune response is essential. To strengthen the body's reaction against CSCs and boost results for patients, researchers are creating immunotherapeutic strategies such as immune checkpoint inhibitors and adoptive cell treatments. To interfere with CSC niches and the relationships that sustain them, researchers are also concentrating on altering the tumor habitat $[64]$. The functioning of CSCs and the growth of tumors are significantly influenced by the tumor microenvironment, which includes immune cells, stromal cells, and extracellular matrix elements. Inhibiting CSC proliferation and metastasis through therapeutic targeting of the microenvironment has promise. Additionally, efforts are being made to create medications that particularly target CSCs, such as CSC destruction mediated by nanoparticles ^[65]. Drugs that precisely attack CSCs are designed to eradicate them while preserving normal stem cells, minimizing negative consequences, and enhancing the effectiveness of medication. Different strategies, outside of nanomedicine, are being investigated for their ability to target CSC-specific pathways or indicators, including small molecule inhibitors and antibodies. Individualized healthcare techniques are becoming possible due to

the genetic identification of CSCs made possible by technological advancements in single-cell sequencing and genomics ^[66]. Customized medicines can be created to address the distinctive traits of each patient's CSC community by comprehending the genetic and epigenetic changes particular to CSCs within their tumor, hence enhancing therapy results and patient mortality percentages. Research on cancer stem cells is quickly progressing due to continuing advancements in CSC biology and treatment approaches [67]. These developments have enormous potential to further our knowledge of CSCs, enhance the results of cancer treatments, and eventually provide cancer victims with greater flexibility and potent treatments. For CSC-based cancer therapy methods to reach their maximum effectiveness, more study and cooperation in this field are essential.

9. Conclusion

Strong populations of CSCs and LSCs possess the capacity to permanently transition between distinct stages of the cell cycle, enabling them to halt pro-apoptotic cues and extend their longevity in an inactive form. Therefore, to recognize individuals who are at high risk for repeated illnesses, more advanced but user-friendly approaches for identifying CSCs/LSCs are desperately needed. Decades of research have led to constant advances in the field of cancerous cell research, with stem cell therapies demonstrating great success. Notwithstanding the difficulties that still exist, every new study deepens our knowledge of the potential applications of stem cells in regenerative therapy. Cancer stem cell treatment has amazing possibilities for managing illnesses that were thought to be irreversible. Owing to the invention of pluripotency, it is now possible to use sufferers' malignant tissues. This has resulted in the creation of tissue banks, becoming an invaluable tool for restorative medicine in the treatment of a variety of illnesses. Cancer stem cell therapy has had an unparalleled effect on prolonging human life, presenting bright future possibilities. One of the most fascinating and potential branches of cancer study nowadays is the development of therapies that utilize cancer stem cells. Researchers hope that maximum approaches will be discovered in which such cancer stem cells will be used for therapeutic purposes and will emerge as a new treatment option for cancer with comprehensive treatment options.

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Disclosure statement

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