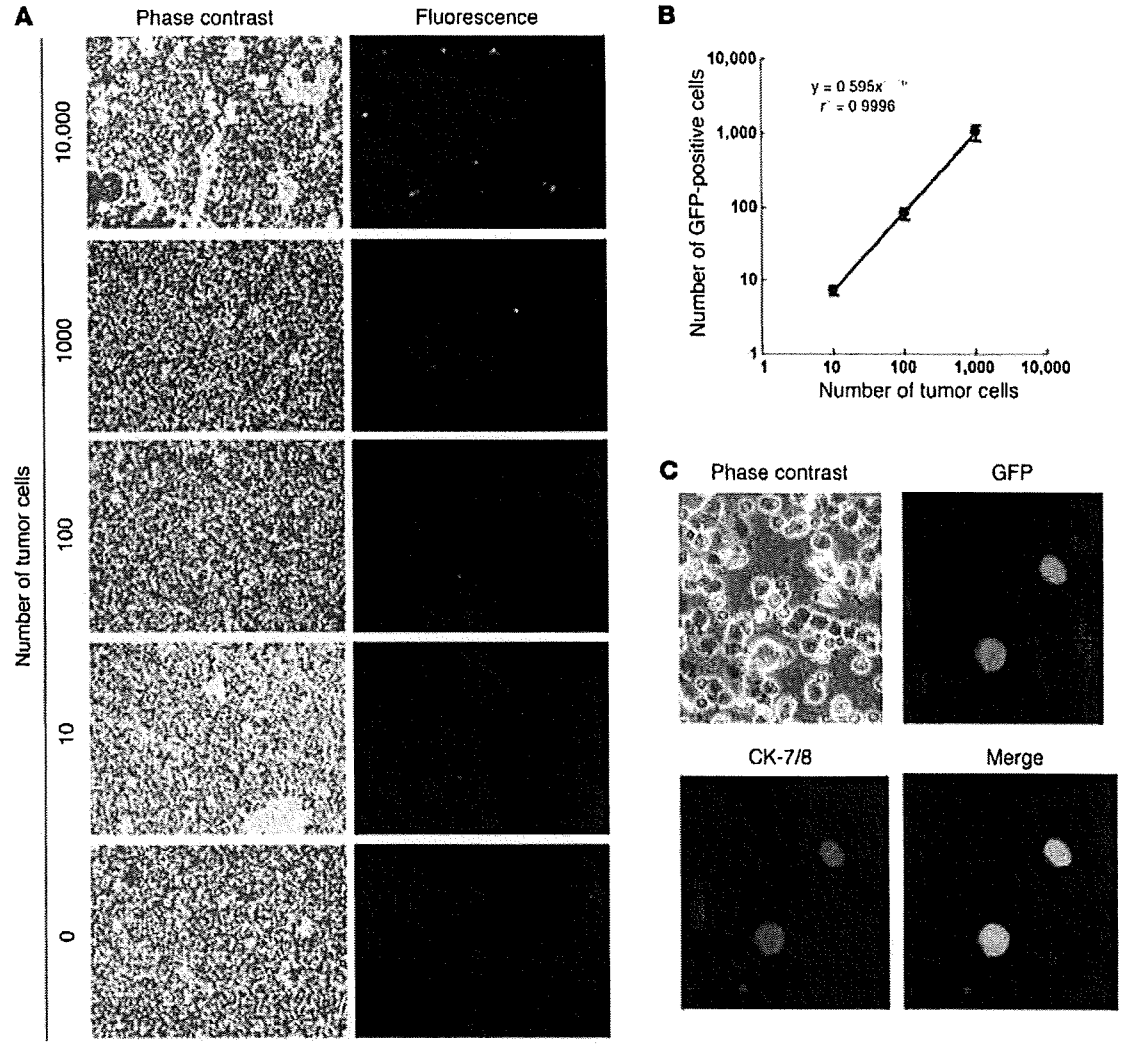

Figure 3
Selective visualization of human cancer cells by OBP-401. (**A**) Phase-contrast and fluorescent images of peripheral blood cells mixed with H1299 human lung cancer cells. Variable numbers of H1299 cells were spiked into 5 ml of whole blood samples from healthy donors and then immediately analyzed for GFP expression. Original magnification, ×100. (**B**) Efficiency of labeling tumor cells added to whole human blood with OBP-401. The number of tumor cells spiked into whole blood versus the number of GFP-expressing cells is plotted. Each value represents the mean ± SD. (**C**) Immunohistochemical staining of GFP-expressing cells for CK-7/8. The blood samples mixed with H1299 cells were analyzed for GFP expression, fixed with 2% glutaraldehyde, and then stained with rhodamine-labeled anti–CK-7/8 antibody. Overlap of green (GFP) and red (CK-7/8) fluorescence was displayed as yellow fluorescence. Original magnification, ×600.

quantitative RT-PCR assay could not detect *CK7* mRNA expression in all samples tested (Figure 4B), although H1299 cells were positive for CK-7/8 (Supplemental Figure 4). We also used flow cytometry to detect H1299 tumor cells in the blood; however, the number of GFP-positive cells following ex vivo OBP-401 infection was much lower than expected (Supplemental Figure 4 and Figure 4C). These results suggest that enrichment of tumor cells or depletion of unwanted cells is necessary for CTC detection by real-time RT-PCR and flow cytometry.

Viable CTCs detected with OBP-401 in patients with various cancers. To examine whether CTCs from cancer patients can be labeled with GFP signals by OBP-401 replication to permit their detection in whole blood, we analyzed fresh blood samples collected from 37 patients with histologically confirmed gastric cancer and 9 patients with other malignancies, including colon cancer, hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), breast cancer, and non–small cell lung cancer. Although the CTC level varied widely, ranging from 0 to 47 cells in 5-ml samples, 26 gastric cancer patients (70.3%) had more than 1 CTC; there was, however, no apparent relationship between CTC counts and TNM stages (Figure 5A, Table 1, and Supplemental Table 1). CTCs were also identified in samples from 6 of 9 (66.7%) patients with other cancers. The number of CTCs that were isolated ranged from 0 to 56 cells per 5-ml sample (Figure 5B, Table 1, and Supplemental Table 2).

To confirm the infectivity of OBP-401 to tumor cells at the primary sites, we applied this assay to single-cell suspensions isolated

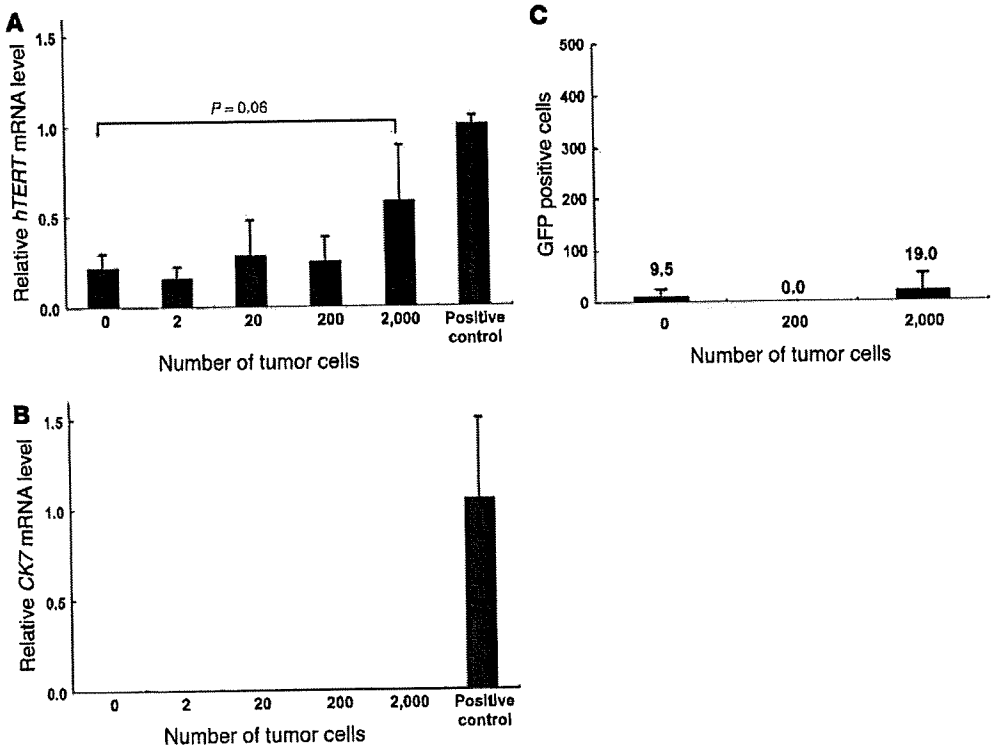

Figure 4

Comparison of the sensitivity of CTC detection by real-time RT-PCR and flow cytometry. (**A** and **B**) Variable numbers of H1299 cells spiked into 1 ml of whole blood samples from healthy donors were prepared. The relative expression of *hTERT* (**A**) and *CK7* (**B**) mRNA was determined by real-time RT-PCR analysis. The amount of *hTERT* and *CK7* mRNA was normalized with data from the real-time amplification of the *GAPDH* housekeeping gene. The blood without H1299 cells was used as a negative control, and H1299 cells without the blood were used as a positive control. (**C**) Flow-cytometric enumeration of variable numbers of H1299 cells mixed in 1 ml of blood samples. After the lysis of rbc, blood samples were infected with 10^4 PFUs of OBP-401 for 24 hours, and then subjected to flow-cytometric analysis. The numbers above the bars indicate the actual numbers of GFP-positive cells. Each value represents the mean ± SD of triplicate experiments.

from surgically removed primary tumors. A gallery of cellular images showed sufficient GFP expression in tumor cells obtained from gastric and colon cancer patients, following OBP-401 infection at a MOI of 100 (Figure 6). The size and morphology of GFP-labeled cells isolated from primary tumors were consistent with those of CTCs detected in the peripheral blood of the same patients.

We further assessed the CTC dynamics in patients who were undergoing chemotherapy or surgery, to demonstrate the clinical potential of our approach for monitoring treatment responses. The results from a representative patient with advanced stage IV gastric cancer (case 1) are shown in Figure 7A. A 5-ml blood sample contained 6 CTCs before treatment. Fourteen days after the initiation of systemic chemotherapy, 7 CTCs were detected in the peripheral blood; the patient, however, had no CTCs after 2 cycles of chemotherapy. A patient who had a recurrence of gastric cancer in the regional lymph nodes (case 10) had decreased CTC counts after a cycle of chemotherapy (Figure 7B). Elimination or reduction of CTCs correlated well with a decrease in the levels of tumor markers such as CEA, CA19-9, and CA125. In contrast, the number of CTCs gradually increased in an advanced gastric cancer patient (case 25) who developed retroperitoneal tumor invasion despite chemotherapy (data not shown). As this patient showed no elevated levels of tumor markers, the kinetic of CTC numbers would enable a faster prediction of the treatment response than that of other radiographic imaging methods. In the 4 patients who underwent surgery (gastric cancer, cases 5 and 9; colon cancer, cases 3 and 4), the CTC level dropped 4 weeks after complete resection (Figure 7, C and D). These results suggest that enumeration of CTCs might be useful for monitoring the efficacy of local and systemic treatments.

Discussion

Early and accurate evaluation of therapeutic efficacy is the hallmark of successful cancer treatment. We have described a simple method, without any complicated processing steps, for detecting viable human CTCs in the peripheral blood, by using telomerase-specific GFP-expressing adenovirus. Viable CTCs may be a less-invasive, repeatable biomarker for monitoring tumor responses against various types of therapies, although its clinical significance is still debatable. In our pilot study, reported herein, serial blood sampling demonstrated that surgical removal of primary tumors was associated with decreased CTC counts. Thus, quantitative detection of CTCs can be also a substantial surrogate marker for treatment efficacy in candidates for chemotherapy.

The technical platform of CTC enumeration has improved rapidly (13). PCR-based techniques, which are commonly used to detect CTCs (14, 15), can detect dead tumor cells and cell-free circulating DNA or RNA, which may result in overestimation of the neoplastic

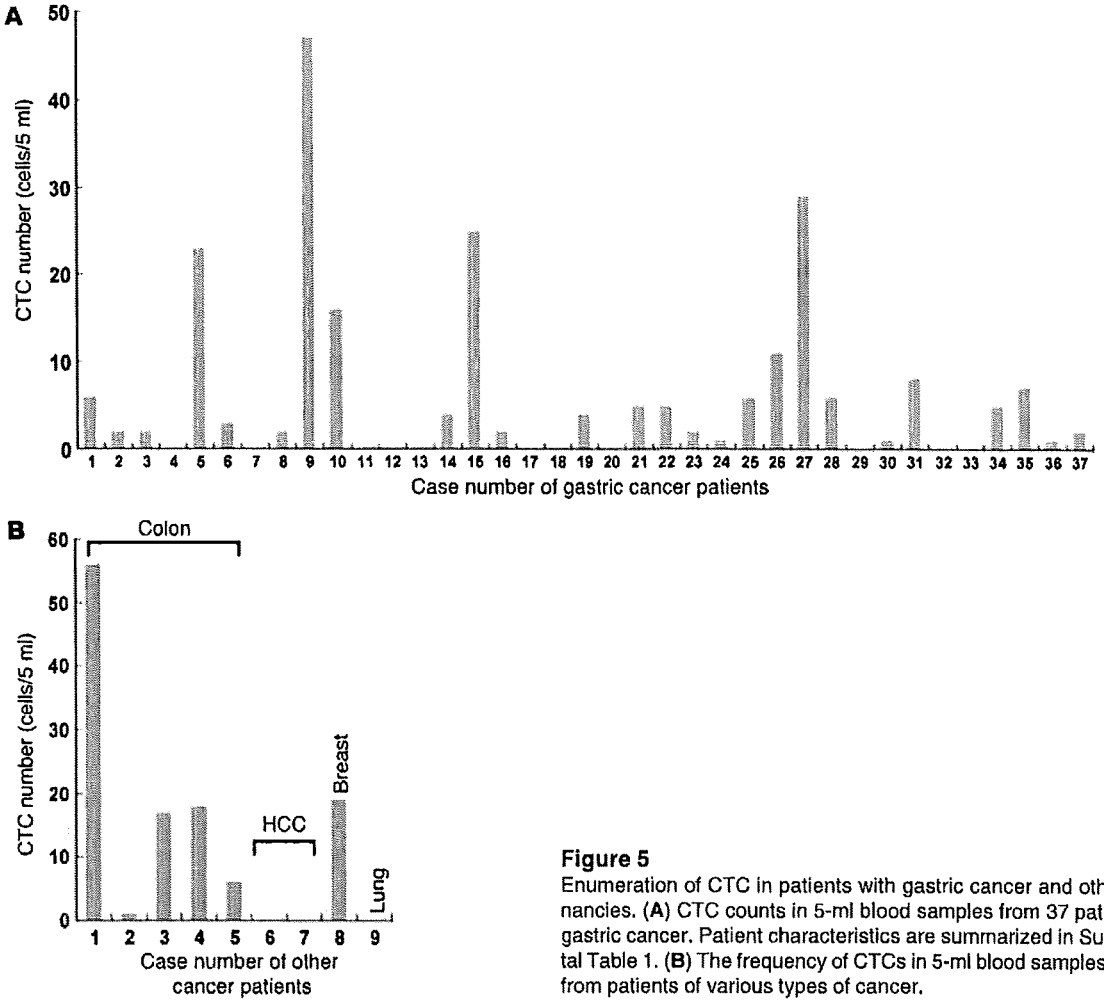

Figure 5
Enumeration of CTC in patients with gastric cancer and other malignancies. (**A**) CTC counts in 5-ml blood samples from 37 patients with gastric cancer. Patient characteristics are summarized in Supplemental Table 1. (**B**) The frequency of CTCs in 5-ml blood samples obtained from patients of various types of cancer.

state. In addition, our data demonstrated that neither quantitative RT-PCR for *hTERT* mRNA nor that for *CK7* mRNA could identify as many as 2,000 human tumor cells per 1 ml of blood without enrichment. Recently, Diehl et al. have reported that circulating tumor DNA is useful as a measure of tumor dynamics and that it can be beneficial for monitoring many types of human cancer (16). Although the system has the ability to quantify the level of circulating DNA and the sufficient sensitivity to detect very small amount of nucleic acids, it requires the identification of a somatic mutation in the individual tumor by sequencing of DNA. Our GFP-based fluorescence imaging can allow simple detection of target cancer cells, without any time-consuming steps, and it seems to be much more reliable and sensitive.

To date, various approaches have been also used to visually identify CTCs; however, the techniques employed to perform cell enrichment, immunohistochemical detection, and image analysis are complicated (17–19). Moreover, epithelial markers are currently used to detect CTCs; tumor cells, however, may lose their epithelial features during metastasis/dissemination or may not express these markers because of their heterogeneity (20). Indeed, the human non-small cell lung cancer cells that we used lack CK-19 expression, which is the marker most extensively studied for the detection of CTCs. The mechanism by which epithelial cells acquire the motile properties is epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT), a process that is currently popular for investigators of the onset of cancer cell migration, invasion, and metastatic dissemination (21, 22). EMT also promotes cytoskeletal rearrangement in tumor cells, which results in the downregulation of epithelial markers and upregulation of mesenchymal markers (22, 23). Nagrath et al. developed a unique microfluidic platform (CTC-chip) for CTC separation by using anti-epithelial cell adhesion molecule (EpCAM) antibody, and they demonstrated sensitive real-time monitoring of responses to cancer therapy with this technology (24); the loss of EpCAM expression, however, has been reported in metastatic and drug-resistant cancer cells (25). The multimarker assay may show slightly increased sensitivity for CTC detection over the single-marker method (26, 27); the procedures, however, are complicated. In contrast, telomerase is activated in most human cancers and is known to be associated with their malignant properties (28). Recent studies have reported that EMT can produce the cancer stem cell phenotype (29, 30). Since telomerase activity is one of the stem-cell properties (31), our system may be capable of detecting circulating cancer stem cells, even with EMT features, such as the loss and/or redistribution of the epithelial markers, that are

Table 1
CTC numbers classified by disease stage (as defined by the TNM classification system) and type

Cancer	Stage	GFP-positive cells (per 5 ml)					
		0	1–5	6–10	11–20	21–30	≥31
Gastric	I	5	5	2			1
Gastric	II		4			2	
Gastric	III	3	2	1			
Gastric	IV	3	4	1	2	1	
Colon	I				1		
Colon	II						
Colon	III			1	1		1
Colon	IV		1				
HCC	II	1					
HCC	III	1					
Breast	IV				1		
Lung	I	1					

responsible for metastasis. Moreover, as GFP-positive cells could be collected by flow-cytometric sorting (32), this technology might be applicable for molecular analysis of CTCs.

One of the crucial features that we believe to be unique of our approach is to use the virus with the self-proliferation potency. Although adenovirus-mediated transduction of the reporter genes into target cells is a common strategy in basic research, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first demonstration of ex vivo visualization of live CTCs, with a genetically engineered adenoviral agent, combined with an automated optical scan system for clinical studies. Infection efficiency of the adenoviral agent, which is derived from human adenovirus serotype 5, varies widely depending on the expression of Coxsackie-adenovirus receptor (CAR) (33). This might be one of the potential advantages of our system, because most of human hematopoietic cells are almost refractory to transduction by adenovirus vectors, due to the lack of CAR for virus binding (34). Therefore, when OBP-401 is used to detect CTCs in the peripheral blood, OBP-401 infection is limited in hematopoietic cells, including leukocytes. Moreover, OBP-401 replication is unlikely in normal hematopoietic cells, because of their low telomerase activity.

Our patient data demonstrate that enumeration of CTCs reflects the tumor burden, as the CTC counts decreased upon complete surgical removal of primary tumors. In addition, although the sample size is too small to perform a statistical analysis, 2 gastric cancer patients, who favorably responded to systemic chemotherapy, exhibited a gradual lowering of CTC counts in parallel with a decrease in the level of tumor markers, whereas a radiographically nonresponding patient had an increased CTC count. In contrast, the absolute number of CTCs did not correspond with tumor sizes or TNM stages in patients, and a small number of CTCs (0–4 cells in 5-ml samples) were detected in healthy normal volunteers (data not shown). These results suggest that it is more important to measure the change in CTC quantity, than to simply determine whether the value is below or above a disease-specific cutoff point; the CTC count was, however, mostly analyzed with this endpoint in clinical trials that used immunomagnetic-bead purification (3, 4, 17). Recently, Scher et al. have demonstrated that the use of CTC count as a continuous variable enables the prediction of survival in patients with castration-resistant prostate cancer (35). Although we cannot comment on the prognostic utility of CTC values in the absence of outcome data, our OBP-401–based method is at least useful as a measure of tumor dynamics. A larger series of clinical trials and longer follow-up studies are necessary to confirm the feasibility of this technology.

In conclusion, we developed an ex vivo GFP-based fluorescence imaging system that is very simple and suitable for accurate identification and enumeration of viable CTCs. This technology has the potential to allow physicians to assess the response to treatment as a relevant clinical parameter, especially in patients without elevated levels of tumor markers.

Methods

Cell culture. The human non-small cell lung cancer cell line H1299, the human tongue squamous carcinoma cell lines SCC-4 and SCC-9, the human gastric cancer cell line MKN45, the human colorectal cancer cell lines HT-29 and SW620, the human prostate cancer cell line PC-3, the human cervical adenocarcinoma cell line HeLa, and the human mammary gland adenocarcinoma cell line MCF-7 were cultured according to the specifications supplied by the vendor.

Virus. OBP-401 is a telomerase-specific replication-competent adenovirus variant, in which the hTERT promoter element drives the expression of the *E1A* and *E1B* genes linked with an internal ribosome entry site (IRES), and the *gfp* gene is inserted under the CMV promoter into the E3 region (7, 8, 10). The virus was purified by ultracentrifugation in cesium chloride step gradients, the titer was determined by a plaque-forming assay using 293 cells, and the virus sample was stored at –80°C.

Quantitative real-time RT-PCR analysis. Total RNA from cultured cells was obtained by using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen). The *hTERT* and *CK7* mRNA copy numbers were determined by real-time quantitative RT-PCR with a StepOnePlus system and TaqMan Gene Expression Assays (Applied Biosystems). Specific primers for hTERT (Hs00972650_m1), CK-7 (Hs00559840_m1), and GAPDH (Hs99999905_m1) were used (Applied Biosystems). PCR amplification began with a 20-second denaturation step at 95°C and then 40 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 1 second and annealing/extension at 60°C for 20 seconds. Data analysis was performed using StepOne Software (Applied Biosystems). The *GAPDH* housekeeping gene was used as the reference gene for PCR normalization. The ratios normalized by dividing the value of H1299 cells were presented for each sample.

Fluorescence microplate reader. Cells were infected with OBP-401 at the indicated MOI values in a 96-well black-bottom culture plate and then further incubated for the indicated time periods. GFP fluorescence was measured by using a fluorescence microplate reader (DS Pharma Biomedical) with excitation/emission at 485 nm/528 nm. The GFP fluorescence was expressed relative to that of MCF-7 cells.

Time-lapse fluorescence microscopy. Cells were infected with OBP-401 at an MOI of 10 for 2 hours in vitro. Phase-contrast and fluorescent time-lapse recordings were obtained to concomitantly analyze cell morphology and GFP expression with an inverted microscope (Olympus) equipped with a heated stage and controlled CO_2 environment (37°C, 8.5% CO_2) (Tokai Hit). Images were taken every 10 minutes.

Sample preparation and automated optical imaging analysis. A simple 3-step method is used to detect viable human CTCs in the peripheral blood. Briefly, 5-ml blood samples were drawn into heparinized tubes and incubated with lysis buffer containing ammonium chloride (NH_4Cl) for 15 minutes to remove

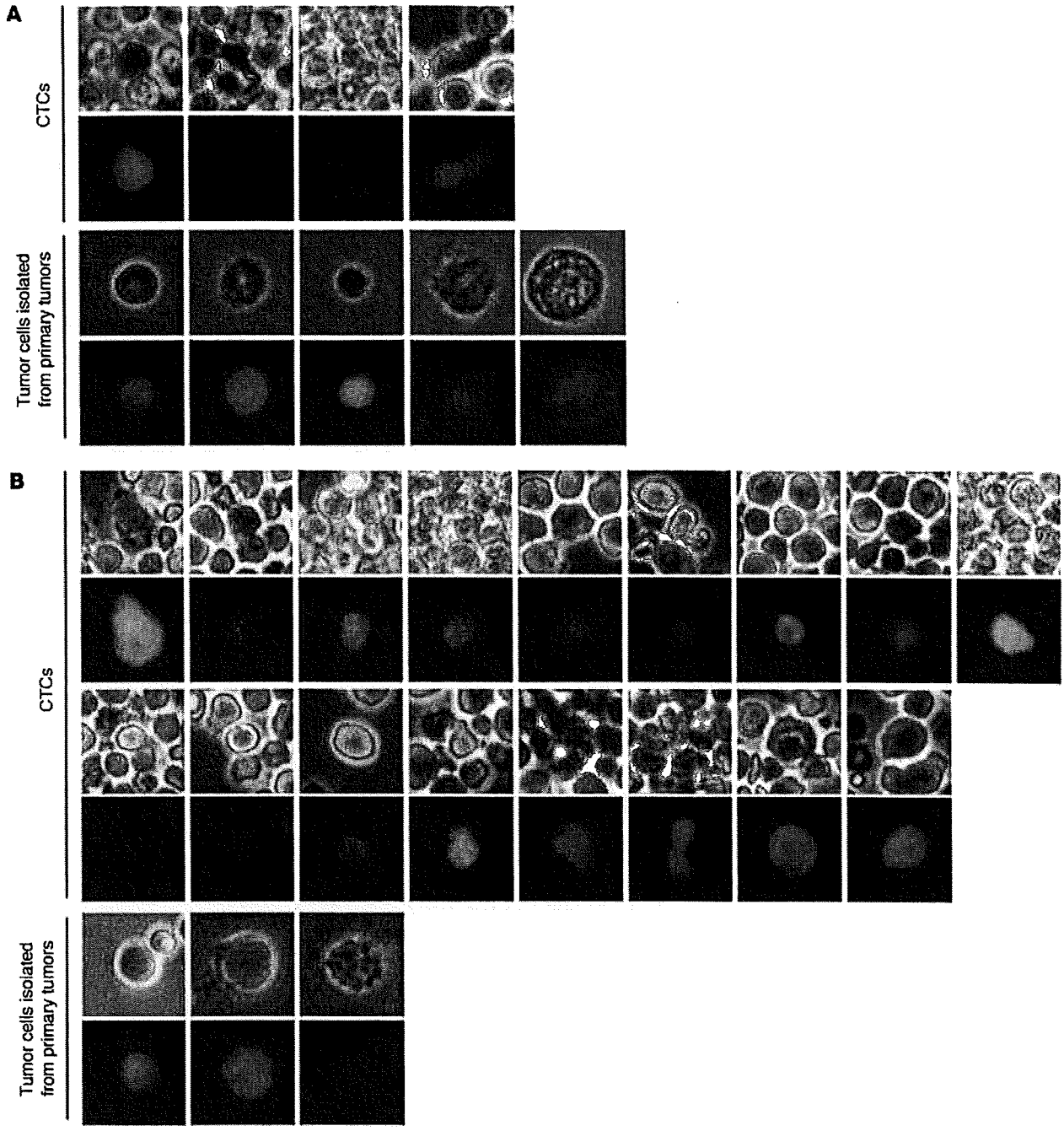

Figure 6
Images of GFP-positive cells obtained from the peripheral blood and the primary tumors. (**A**) CTCs were visualized by GFP expression among peripheral blood leukocytes in the blood sample obtained from a stage Ib gastric cancer patient (case 31). A single-cell suspension was also prepared from surgically removed primary tumor and exposed to OBP-401 at an MOI of 100 for 24 hours. (**B**) Primary tumor cells were also isolated from a patient with stage IIIa colon cancer (case 3) and infected with OBP-401 at an MOI of 100. Cell morphology of CTCs and primary tumor cells is shown by phase-contrast microscopy (first and third rows in **A** and first, third, and fifth rows in **B**), and GFP expression is shown by fluorescence microscopy (second and fourth rows in **A** and second, fourth, and sixth rows in **B**). Original magnification, ×600.

erythrocytes. After centrifugation, the cell pellets were mixed with 10^4 PFUs of OBP-401 and incubated at room temperature for another 24 hours. Following centrifugation, the cells were resuspended in 15 μl of PBS and then placed onto a slide under a coverslip. A motorized stage (Tokai Hit), mounted on a fluorescence microscope, serially captured segmented tile images in the area of the coverslip. The captured segmented tile images were joined together by MetaMorph 7.5, an image acquisition and analysis software (Molecular Devices), to create a large image of a 20-mm × 20-mm area. GFP signals could be

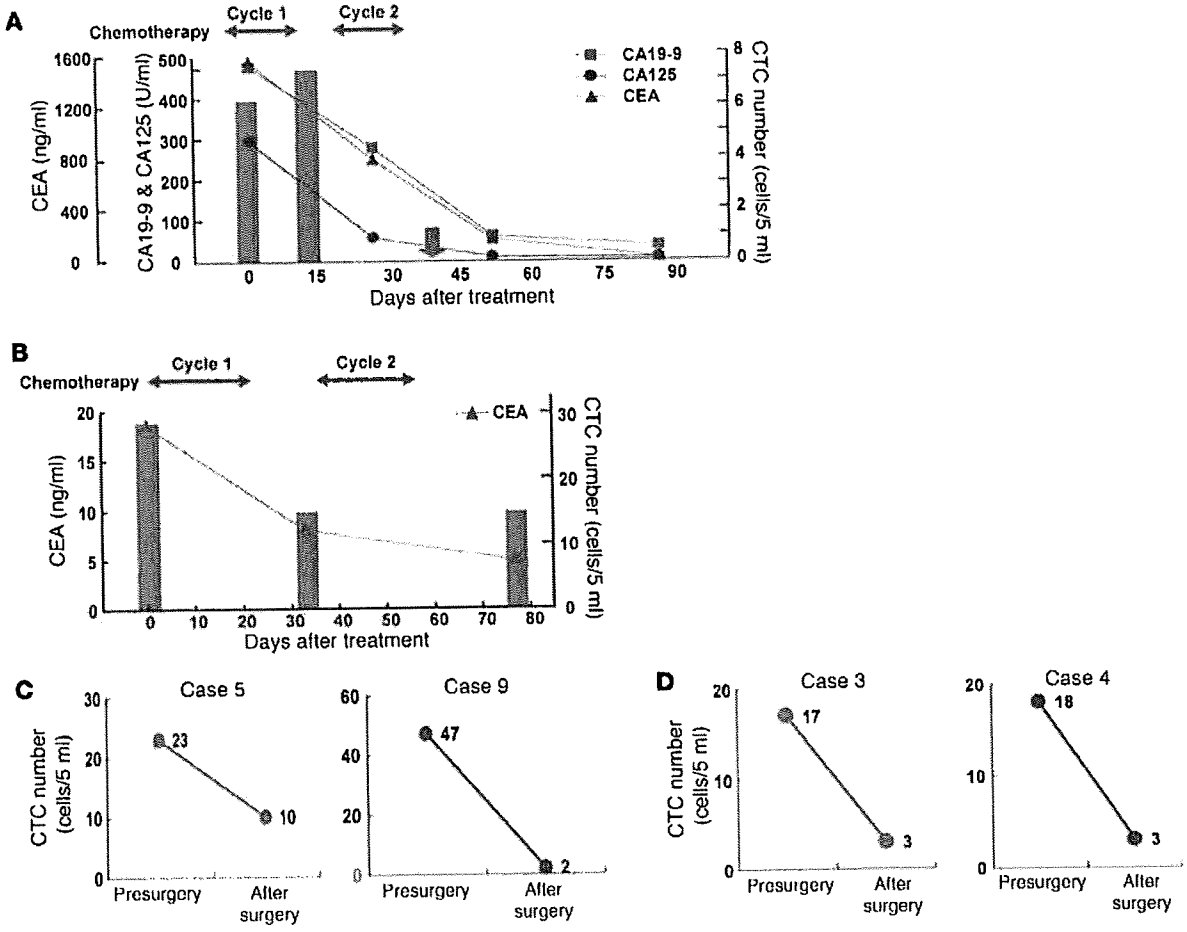

Figure 7
CTC dynamics at baseline and after treatment in patients with gastric or colon cancer. (**A**) Quantitation of CTCs in peripheral blood samples from an advanced gastric cancer patient (case 1) with multiple liver metastases who received 2 cycles of systemic chemotherapy. CTC counts at the indicated time points (orange bars) were plotted along with the levels of tumor markers CEA, CA19-9, and CA125. A decrease in the CTC number from 7 to 0 was observed 38 days after starting chemotherapy (red arrows). (**B**) The patient with recurrent gastric cancer at regional lymph nodes (case 27) was treated with 2 cycles of systemic chemotherapy. The CTC quantity (orange bars) and CEA level were well correlated over the course of treatment. (**C** and **D**) Changes in CTC numbers after surgery. CTC numbers were measured before and 4 weeks after surgical resection of primary tumors and regional lymph node dissection. (**C**) Two gastric cancer patients (cases 5 and 9) underwent a total gastrectomy and distal gastrectomy, respectively. (**D**) Low anterior resection was performed in 2 colorectal cancer patients (cases 3 and 4).

visualized easily in high-magnification images with a large field of view. The institutional review board at Okayama University Graduate School approved the study protocol, and all patients provided written informed consent.

Immunohistochemistry. Cells on the slides were fixed with 2% glutaraldehyde and washed 3 times with PBS. The slides were subsequently incubated with rhodamine-labeled anti-CK-7/8 antibody (CAM5.2; BD Biosciences) for 1 hour at 37°C. After washing 3 times with PBS, the slides were mounted with buffered glycerol for examination by fluorescence microscopy.

Tumor cell preparation. Primary solid tumors were surgically removed from patients with gastric cancer or other types of cancer. The tumor tissue was homogenized by mechanical mincing, and then the cell mixtures were passed through a cell strainer (BD Biosciences – Discovery Labware) and suspended as a single-cell suspension.

Statistics. We used the Student's 2-tailed t test to identify statistically significant differences between groups. Results are reported as mean ± SD. P values of less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

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Address correspondence to: Toshiyoshi Fujiwara, Center for Gene and Cell Therapy, Okayama University Hospital, 2-5-1 Shikata-cho, Okayama 700-8558, Japan. Phone: 81-86-235-7997; Fax: 81-86-235-7884; E-mail: toshi_f@md.okayama-u.ac.jp.

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Use of telomelysin (OBP-301) in mouse xenografts of human head and neck cancer

OUMI NAKAJIMA[1], DAIJU ICHIMARU[2], YASUO URATA[2], TOSHIYOSHI FUJIWARA[3], TOMOHISA HORIBE[1], MASAYUKI KOHNO[1] and KOJI KAWAKAMI[1]

[1]Department of Pharmacoepidemiology, Graduate School of Medicine and Public Health, Kyoto University, Yoshidakonoe-cho, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8501; [2]Oncolys Biopharma Inc., 3-16-33 Roppongi, Minato-ku, Tokyo 106-0032; and [3]Center for Gene and Cell Therapy, Okayama University Hospital, 2-5-1 Shikata-cho, Okayama 700-8558, Japan

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Abstract. We previously reported that telomerase-specific replication-component adenovirous, Telomelysin (OBP-301) has cytotoxic activity to the YCUT892, KCCT873, KCCT891, KCCL871, YCUM862, HN12, and KCCOR891 cell lines *in vitro*, and investigated the association between cytotoxic activity and adenoviral receptor expression. In this study, we evaluated the most appropriate way to administer telomelysin (OBP-301) in the treatment of squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck (SCCHN), and assessed the effect of OBP-301 in large subcutaneous KCCT873 human SCCHN tumors in immunodeficient mice. We also compared antitumor responses following three intratumoral (i.t.) injections of OBP-301 given daily, every 2 days or weekly. To investigate the mechanism of the antitumor effect, we evaluated cellular infiltration in treated tumors. OBP-301 showed remarkable antitumor activity against large KCCT873 tumors, and three treatment schedules produced similar antitumor effects. The weekly regimen also significantly reduced the growth of large tumors. Immunochemistry revealed that macrophages, but not natural killer cells, were responsible for tumor regression. A regimen of three weekly injections of OBP-301 has remarkable antitumor effects against large KCCT873 tumors. These results may provide a new platform for treating patients with localized SCCHN.

Introduction

Squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck (SCCHN) accounts for 5% of newly diagnosed cancers in adults in the US and 8% of cancers worldwide (1). Most patients are treated with various combinations of surgery, radiotherapy and systemic agents, but treatment fails in about half of patients (2). In light of the poor outlook for patients with recurrent disease, additional effective local-regional therapies are clearly required for the treatment of SCCHN. Conditionally replicating viruses targeted to tumors are being developed as a novel class of oncolytic agents. Oncolytic virotherapy has been evaluated in clinical trials of patients with SCCHN. For example, in a phase II trial, the addition of systemic cisplatin or 5-fluorouracil following direct intratumoral (i.t.) injection of the oncolytic adenovirus ONXY-015 resulted in clinical regression of SCCHN tumors (3).

Telomerase is a ribonucleoprotein complex responsible for the complete replication of chromosomal ends (4). It is expressed in >85% of human cancers (5) but in only a few normal somatic cells (6). Telomerase activation is considered to be a critical step in carcinogenesis, and its activity is closely correlated to expression of human telomerase reverse transcriptase (hTERT) (7). hTERT can therefore be exploited as a cancer-specific promoter.

Telomelysin (OBP-301) is a telomerase-specific replication-competent adenovirus vector in which the hTERT promoter element drives the expression of *E1A* and *E1B* genes, which are linked to an internal ribosome entry site (8,9). Telomelysin has been shown to selectively kill human cancer cells (8-11). In infected human tumor cells *in vitro*, OBP-301 replication produces the endogenous danger-signaling molecule uric acid, which in turn stimulates dendritic cells to produce interferon γ (IFNγ) and interleukin (IL)-12 (12). *In vivo*, OBP-301 induces $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T cells following production of INFγ (13).

A phase I study of OBP-301 has been started in the US in patients with various types of progressive solid cancer, including SCCHN (14). We have previously reported that a 5-day i.t. administration of OBP-301 to nude mice bearing subcutaneous KCCT873 human SCCHN xenografts had significant antitumor activity (15). In the present study, we extend this work by assessing the antitumor activity of OBP-301 in advanced SCCHN tumors. We also compared different treatment schedules, in order to explore the likely use of OBP-301 in a clinical setting, and performed immunohistochemistry to evaluate the mechanism of the antitumor response.

Correspondence to: Dr Koji Kawakami, Department of Pharmacoepidemiology, Graduate School of Medicine and Public Health, Kyoto University, Yoshida Konoecho, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8501, Japan
E-mail: kawakami-k@umin.ac.jp

Key words: telomelysin, OBP-301, telomerase, adenovirus, squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck

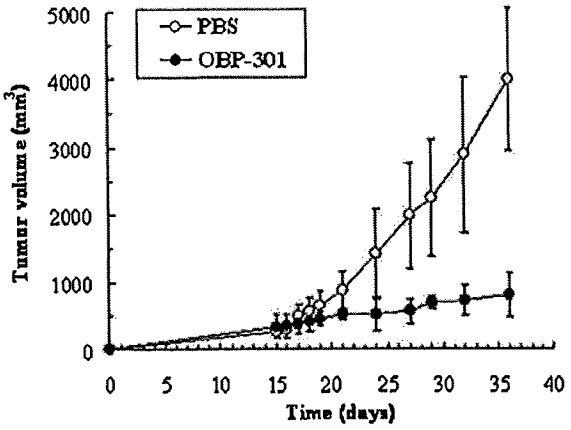

Figure 1. Growth of large SCCHN tumors following intratumoral injection of OBP-301 ($3x10^{10}$ v.p.) daily for 5 days from day 15 to day 19 after inoculation of KCCT873 cells. Tumors had an average volume of 298±33 mm^3 at the start of treatment. Control mice were given injections of vehicle. Values are means ± SD (n=7 mice per group).

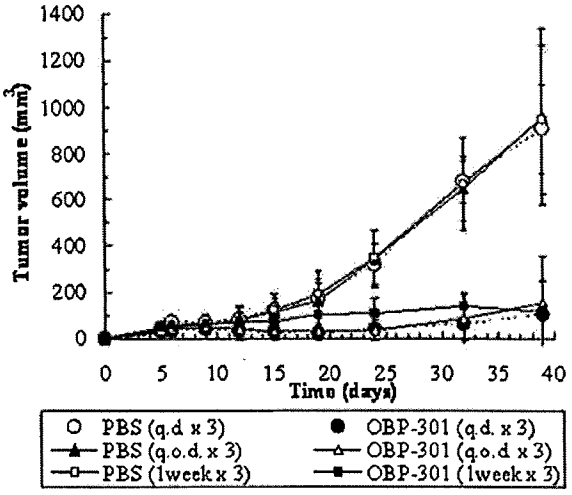

Figure 2. Growth of KCCT873 tumor xenografts in nude mice following three intratumoral injections of OBP-301 given daily (q.d., days 5, 6 and 7 after tumor inoculation), every 2 days (q.o.d., days 5, 7 and 9), or weekly (days 5, 12 and 19) compared with controls (which received injections of vehicle). Values are means ± SD (n=6 mice per group). Similar results were obtained in a second experiment.

Materials and methods

Adenovirus. OBP-301 was provided by Oncolys Biopharma Inc. (Tokyo, Japan). The ratio of virus particle (v.p.) titer to infection titer (plaque-forming units) was 51:1.

Cell culture. The KCCT873 (16) human SCCHN cell line was cultured in RPMI-1640 (Nacalai Tesque, Kyoto, Japan) containing 10% fetal bovine serum, 1 mM HEPES, 100 μg/ml penicillin and 100 μg/ml streptomycin. Cells ($3x10^6$ cells per 150-mm dish) were incubated for 3 days before injection, at 37°C in an atmosphere containing 5% CO_2.

Xenograft model. Female athymic nude mice (BALB/c *nu/nu*), aged 5-6 weeks, were obtained from SLC Inc. (Hamamatsu, Japan). Animal care and experiments were in accordance with the guidelines of the Kyoto University School of Medicine. The mice were allowed to become acclimatized for 1 week in a sterile environment and were maintained at 24°C and 50% humidity. KCCT873 cells [$5x10^6$ in 150 μl phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)] were injected subcutaneously into the flanks of nude mice. Palpable tumors developed within 5 days. Tumors were measured using Vernier calipers. Tumor volume on a given day was calculated using the formula: ½[(tumor length) x (tumor width)^2].

Antitumor effect of OBP-301 in large tumors. Tumors were allowed to grow to a mean volume of 298±33 mm^3 (day 15). Mice were then given OBP-301 ($3x10^{10}$ v.p. in a volume of 30 μl) i.t. daily for 5 days. Control mice were given i.t. injections of PBS. Our previous studies had shown that this titer had marked antitumor effects.

Optimization of OBP-301 treatment schedule. To assess the effect of the treatment schedule with OBP-301, mice were given three i.t. injections of OBP-301 ($3x10^{10}$ v.p. in a volume of 30 μl), which were administered every day (q.d., on days 5, 6 and 7 after tumor inoculation, when mean tumor volume was 39 mm^3), every 2 days (q.o.d., on days 5, 7 and 9), or once a week (days 5, 12 and 19). The weekly regimen was also tested in mice bearing large established KCCT873 tumors, starting 14 days after tumor implantation, when mean volume had reached 204±3 mm^3. Mice were given i.t. injections of OBP-301 ($9x10^{10}$ v.p.) on days 14, 21 and 28. A larger titer was used in these experiments, as preliminary studies had shown that $3x10^{10}$ v.p. did not induce tumor regression in these larger tumors.

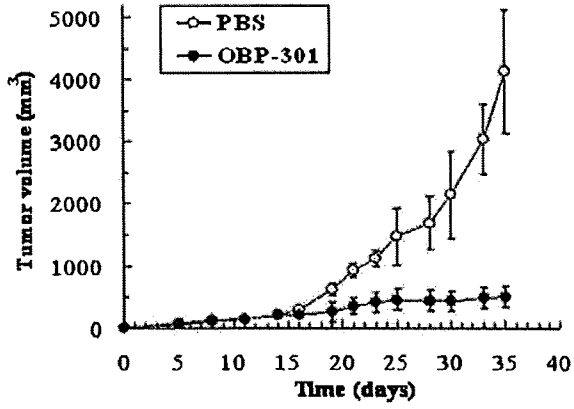

Figure 3. Antitumor activity of OBP-301 in large KCCT873 tumors. Nude mice with established KCCT873 tumors were given three i.t. injections of OBP-301 ($9x10^{10}$ v.p) or vehicle on days 14, 21 and 28 after tumor inoculation. Values are means ± SD (n=6 mice per group). Similar results were obtained in a second experiment.

Immunohistochemistry. To investigate the mechanism of the antitumor response induced by OBP-301, we examined cellular infiltration in subcutaneous KCCT873 human SCCHN tumors in immunodeficient mice. These mice were given a single i.t. injection of OBP-301 ($9x10^{10}$ v.p.) 14 days after tumor inoculation. Tumors were excised on days 1, 7, 14 and 21

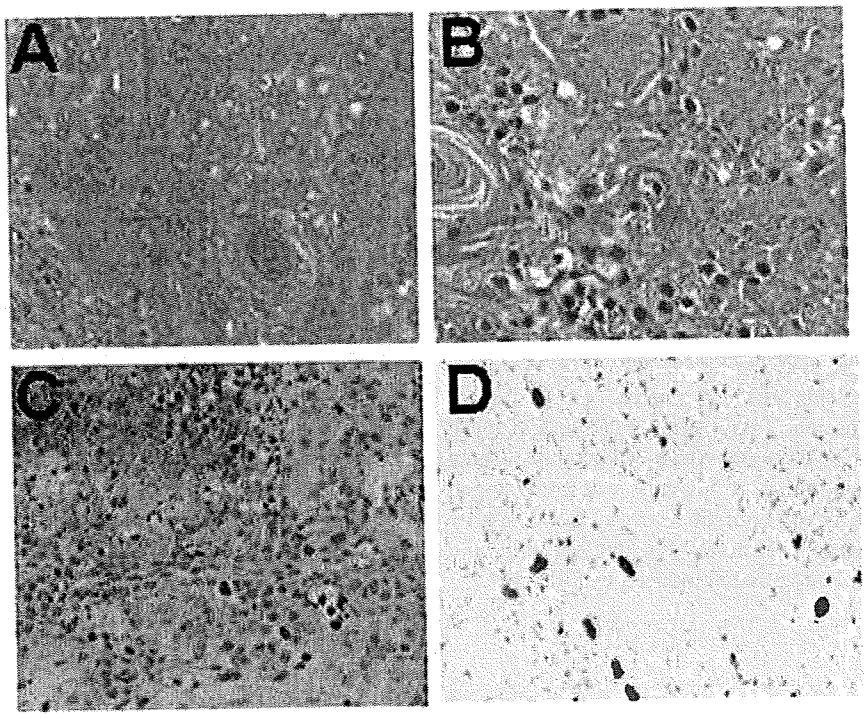

Figure 4. Effects of OBP-301 treatment on tumor histology. Mice with established KCCT873 tumors were given a single intratumoral injection of OBP-301 ($9x10^{10}$ v.p.). The images show sections stained with hematoxylin and eosin from control (A) and treated (B) mice (both x200) and sections from treated mice labeled with antibodies to murine macrophages (C) or natural killer cells (D; both x400).

after administration of OBP-301 and immediately fixed in 10% formalin. Sections (5 μm) of the paraffin-embedded tissues were prepared and analyzed by immunohistochemistry as described previously (17). Slides were incubated with antibodies against murine macrophages (F4/80) or natural killer (NK) cells (NK 1.1; both Caltag Laboratories, Burlingame, CA) or isotype control for 18 h at 4°C. The sections were counterstained with hematoxylin and eosin. Immunohistochemical assays were performed twice and showed similar results.

Statistical analysis. Data are presented as mean ± SD. Differences in tumor growth between treatment and control groups were analyzed by the Student's t-test. $P<0.05$ was considered significant.

Results

Effect of OBP-301 on large SCCHN tumors. Treatment started when tumors had reached a mean volume of 298±33 mm^3 (day 15). The control tumors grew rapidly, reaching 4001 mm^3 by day 36, whereas tumors treated with OBP-301 showed less growth during the treatment period (Fig. 1): by day 36, mean tumor volume in the treated group was 806 mm^3, which was significantly smaller than the controls ($P<0.001$). Complete tumor regression did not occur but OBP-301 clearly mediated antitumor effects in large SCCHN tumors.

Optimization of OBP-301 treatment schedule. To assess the effect of treatment schedule on tumor growth, mice were given three i.t. injections of OBP-301, q.d., q.o.d. or weekly, starting on day 5 after tumor inoculation. As shown in Fig. 2, i.t. administration of OBP-301 showed considerable antitumor activity in all groups. The mean tumor volume in the q.d. group was 105 mm^3 at day 39, which was 88% smaller than that in control tumors (909 mm^3) ($P<0.005$). Four of the seven tumors had regressed completely by day 24, although two of these tumors had re-appeared and started to grow again by day 39. The mean tumor volume in the q.o.d. group was 156 mm^3 at day 39, which was 84% smaller than control tumors (959 mm^3; $P<0.001$). Tumors disappeared completely in two of the seven mice by day 39. Marked antitumor activity was also seen in animals given i.t. injections of OBP-301 at weekly intervals: the mean tumor volume on day 39 was 118 mm^3, which was 88% smaller than control tumors (947 mm^3; $P<0.001$). These results show that three i.t. injections of OBP-301 effectively reduced KCCT873 SCCHN tumor growth, regardless of the interval between injections. Since one injection per week provided significant antitumor activity, we also assessed this regimen in animals bearing large established KCCT873 tumors. Mice were given i.t. injections of OBP-301 ($9x10^{10}$ v.p.) on days 14, 21 and 28 after tumor innoculation. Mean tumor volume on day 14 was 204 mm^3. Tumors of treated mice continued to grow slowly during the treatment period but mean tumor volume on day 35 was significant smaller (501 mm^3) than in control mice (4133 mm^3; $P<0.001$) (Fig. 3). These results show that larger SCCHN tumors can be successfully treated with OBP-301 using a regimen of one injection per week.

Infiltration of immune cells into tumor site after OBP-301 treatment. To investigate the mechanism of antitumor response

induced by OBP-301 treatment, we examined treated tumors for cellular infiltration 1, 7, 14 and 21 days after administration of a single i.t. injection of OBP-301 ($9x10^{10}$ v.p.). No cellular infiltration was seen in tumors from control mice (Fig. 4A). Several necrotic areas were seen in sections of dying tumor 1 and 7 days after OBP-301 treatment (Fig. 4B). These areas were surrounded by fibrotic elements. Interestingly, a number of phagocytes, most resembling monocytes morphologically, were seen in necrotic areas and in viable tumor areas. We then performed immunohistochemical staining to determine the characteristics of inflammatory cells. As shown in Fig. 4C and D, moderate numbers of macrophage-marker-positive cells (Fig. 4C), and NK-marker-positive cells (Fig. 4D) were seen. Tumors treated with OBP-301 showed localization of macrophages in the tumors 7 days after injection but these cells had disappeared 14 days after OBP-301 treatment (data not shown). Since the number of NK cells was not changed dramatically in treated or control tumors, these results suggest that macrophage infiltration, but not NK cells, are responsible for the tumor regression induced by OBP-301.

Discussion

We recently reported that three or five i.t. injections of OBP-301 dramatically inhibited the growth of KCCT873 tumors *in vivo* (15). The present study adds to the antitumor profile of OBP-301 in SCCHN tumor-bearing mice, showing that OBP-301 has antitumor activity against large tumors.

Three i.t. injections of OBP-301 showed pronounced antitumor activity in KCCT873 tumors, regardless of whether the injections were given q.d., q.o.d. or weekly. The weekly treatment regimen also had marked antitumor effects in large KCCT873 tumors. These results show that OBP-301 is likely to provide therapeutic benefit in localized SCCHN tumors even when tumors are large. However, to achieve complete regression of large tumors patients may require OBP-301 in combination with conventional chemotherapy.

Histological examination showed that macrophages were present in regressing tumors 1 and 7 days after OBP-301 treatment. Thus, OBP-301 treatment seems to enhance the host immune response at the tumor site, thereby eliminating residual tumor cells that have escaped the cytotoxic effects of OBP-301. Endo and colleagues reported that, *in vitro*, replication of OBP-301 produced the endogenous danger-signaling molecule, uric acid, in infected human tumor cells, which in turn stimulated dendritic cells to produce INFγ and IL-12 (12). Fujita and colleagues reported that OBP-301 induced $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T cells following production of INFγ in immune-competent mice (13). Taken together with our current results obtained in athymic nude mice, it is suggested that the effect of OBP-301 against SCCHN tumors might involve immune responses in addition to direct effects on cancer cells.

In this study, we demonstrated that OBP-301 exerts a strong antitumor effect against human SCCHN tumors and may therefore be a promising tool for virotherapy. Generally, to improve the therapeutic index, there is a need for antitumor agents that selectively target tumors and spare normal tissues, and many investigators have been working to develop such cancer-specific biochemical drugs. To achieve this tumor specificity, OBP-301 was developed from a replication-selective tumor-specific oncolytic adenovirus. OBP-301 has been shown to be effective against human cancers (8,9,15). A phase I study has been initiated in the US to assess the safety and tolerability of OBP-301 in patients with various types of progressive solid cancers, including SCCHN. Fujiwara and colleagues reported that nine patients received escalating dose levels of OBP-301 ($1x10^{10}$ to $1x10^{12}$ v.p.) as monotherapy had stable disease at day 28 of assessment, although 6 patients showed 6.6 to 34% tumor size reduction (14). Results from current clinical trials should yield additional information on its efficacy. In this study, i.t. injections of OBP-301 showed significant antitumor activity in SCCHN tumors, regardless of the interval between injections. These results suggest that OBP-301 can be used as outpatient treatment, once a week in clinic. OBP-301 is thought to be a treatment that may be possible to administer long-term in a weekly regimen with a low invasiveness. The preliminary information obtained from our study will be useful for the planning of future clinical trials of OBP-301 in SCCHN.

In conclusion, this study clearly demonstrates that a regimen of three weekly injections of OBP-301 has remarkable antitumor effects *in vivo* against large KCCT873 SCCHN tumors. These findings suggest that the replication-selective oncolytic virus provides a new platform for treating patients with localized SCCHN.

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Selective metastatic tumor labeling with green fluorescent protein and killing by systemic administration of telomerase-dependent adenoviruses

Hiroyuki Kishimoto,[1,2,3] Yasuo Urata,[5] Noriaki Tanaka,[3] Toshiyoshi Fujiwara,[3,4] and Robert M. Hoffman[1,2]

[1]AntiCancer, Inc.; [2]Department of Surgery, University of California, San Diego, California; [3]Division of Surgical Oncology, Department of Surgery, Okayama University Graduate School of Medicine, Dentistry and Pharmaceutical Sciences; [4]Center for Gene and Cell Therapy, Okayama University Hospital, Okayama, Japan; and [5]Oncolys BioPharma, Inc., Tokyo, Japan

Abstract

We previously constructed telomerase-dependent, replication-selective adenoviruses OBP-301 (Telomelysin) and OBP-401 [Telomelysin-green fluorescent protein (GFP); TelomeScan], the replication of which is regulated by the human telomerase reverse transcriptase promoter. By intratumoral injection, these viruses could replicate within the primary tumor and subsequent lymph node metastasis. The aim of the present study was to evaluate the possibility of systemic administration of these telomerase-dependent adenoviruses. We assessed the antitumor efficacy of OBP-301 and the ability of OBP-401 to deliver GFP in hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) and metastatic colon cancer nude mouse models. We showed that i.v. administration of OBP-301 significantly inhibited colon cancer liver metastases and orthotopically implanted HCC. Further, we showed that OBP-401 could visualize liver metastases by tumor-specific expression of the *GFP* gene after portal venous or i.v. administration. Thus, systemic administration of these adenoviral vectors should have clinical potential to treat and detect liver metastasis and HCC. [Mol Cancer Ther 2009;8(11):3001–8]

Introduction

Primary and metastatic liver tumors are a common cause of death throughout the world. Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), the most common primary liver tumor, is the fifth most common malignancy and the third most frequent cause of cancer death worldwide (1, 2). HCC often metastasizes widely, and distant metastatic sites include lung, bone, adrenals, and brain. The 5-year survival rates of these patients are usually in the range of 16% to 25% (3). Colorectal cancer is also one of the most common tumors worldwide. The liver is the most preferential site for metastasis of colorectal cancer and over half of these patients die from their metastatic liver diseases (4). Therefore, management of the liver metastases is a key factor for colorectal cancer prognosis.

Liver resection is the only potentially curative treatment option available for patients with primary and metastatic liver tumors (5, 6). However, because only a minority of patients with colorectal liver metastases or HCC are candidates for surgery (7–10), new therapeutic agents and innovative approaches for tumor detection are desired.

We previously constructed two conditionally replicating type 5 adenoviruses OBP-301 (Telomelysin) and OBP-401 [Telomelysin-green fluorescent protein (GFP); TelomeScan]. The replication of these viruses is regulated by the human telomerase reverse transcriptase (hTERT) promoter (11–15). hTERT is the catalytic subunit of telomerase, which is highly active in cancer cells but quiescent in most normal somatic cells (16). Therefore, these adenoviruses have tumor-specific replication regulated by the hTERT transcriptional activity. OBP-301 has shown a strong anticancer efficacy in a variety of tumors *in vitro* and *in vivo* (11, 12, 17–19). We also reported that OBP-401 can replicate in and label cancer cells with GFP *in vitro* and *in vivo* and thereby enables imaging of tumor cells by GFP fluorescence *in vivo* (15). Tumor specificity is conferred by selective replication of OBP-401 in the cancer cells. Replication of the virus, and therefore production of GFP, depends on the tumor-specific expression of telomerase. In those studies, however, the virus was administered locally such as by intratumoral injection or administration into a body cavity (thoracic or abdominal cavity). The efficacy of these viruses, when administered systemically, has not been evaluated.

In the present study, we examined the feasibility of systemic administration of OBP-301 and OBP-401 to colorectal liver metastases and to orthotopic HCC tumor in nude mice models, focusing on the antitumor efficacy of OBP-301 and the ability of OBP-401 to selectively induce *GFP* gene expression in cancer cells.

Materials and Methods

Recombinant Adenovirus

We previously constructed OBP-301, in which the hTERT promoter element drives the expression of the *E1A* and *E1B* genes linked with an internal ribosome entry site (11–14).

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OBP-401, was derived from OBP-301 and also contains the *GFP* gene under the control of the cytomegalovirus promoter, was also constructed previously (15, 20). These viruses were purified by ultracentrifugation in cesium chloride step gradients. Their titers were determined by a plaque-forming assay using 293 cells. The viruses were stored at −80°C.

Cell Culture

The human colorectal cancer cell line HCT-116 and the human HCC cell lines Hep3B and HepG2 were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection. The cells were cultured in RPMI 1640 (Irvine Scientific) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum.

***GFP* Gene Transduction of Cancer Cells**

For *GFP* gene transduction of cancer cells, 20% confluent HCT-116 or Hep3B cells were incubated with a 1:1 precipitated mixture of retroviral supernatants of the PT67 GFP-expressing packaging cells and RPMI 1640 containing 10% fetal bovine serum for 72 h. Fresh medium was replenished at this time. Tumor cells were harvested by trypsin/EDTA 72 h post-transduction and subcultured at a ratio of 1:15 into selective medium containing 200 μg/mL G418. The level of G418 was increased up to 800 μg/mL in a stepwise manner. GFP-expressing cancer cells were isolated with cloning cylinders (Bel-Art Products) using trypsin/EDTA and amplified by conventional culture methods in the absence of selective agent.

Animal Experiments

Athymic nude mice were kept in a barrier facility under HEPA filtration and fed with autoclaved laboratory rodent diet (Teklad LM-485; Western Research Products). All animal studies were conducted in accordance with the principles and procedures outlined in the NIH Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals under assurance no. A3873-1. All animal procedures were done under anesthesia using s.c. administration of a ketamine mixture (10 μL ketamine HCl, 7.6 μL xylazine, 2.4 μL acepromazine maleate, and 10 μL PBS).

Experimental Liver Metastasis Model of Human Colon Cancer

To generate a liver metastasis model, unlabeled HCT-116 or HCT-116-GFP human colon cancer cells were injected

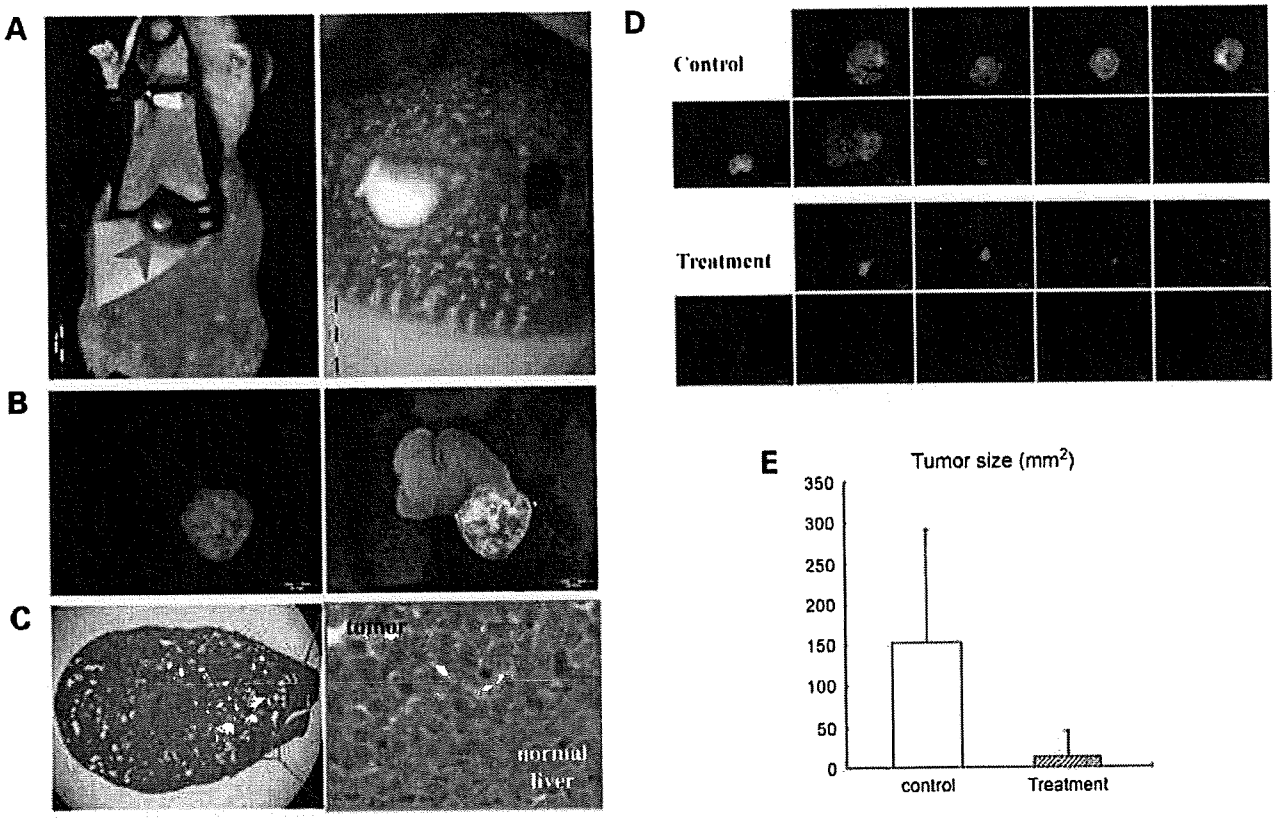

Figure 1. Efficacy of systemic OBP-301 administration on orthotopic HCC. **A**, Hep3B-GFP cells were subserosally injected into the left lobe of the liver (*red arrow*) to generate an orthotopic liver tumor model (*left*). Some cells could be seen accumulating in the terminal portal veins near the bleb of the injected site (*right*). **B**, macroscopic appearance of Hep3B-GFP liver tumor 8 wk after inoculation. *Left*, fluorescence detection; *right*, bright-field observation. **C**, H&E staining of Hep3B-GFP liver tumor section. *Left*, magnification, ×10; *right*, detail of the boxed region. Magnification, ×400. **D**, macroscopic appearance of liver. Livers were excised 8 wk after Hep3B-GFP cells injection. OBP-301 or PBS were i.v. injected biweekly starting from 2 wk after tumor cell inoculation. Excised livers were photographed under fluorescence. **E**, quantitative analysis of the tumor size (fluorescent area) of control and OBP-301–treated mice ($P < 0.01$).

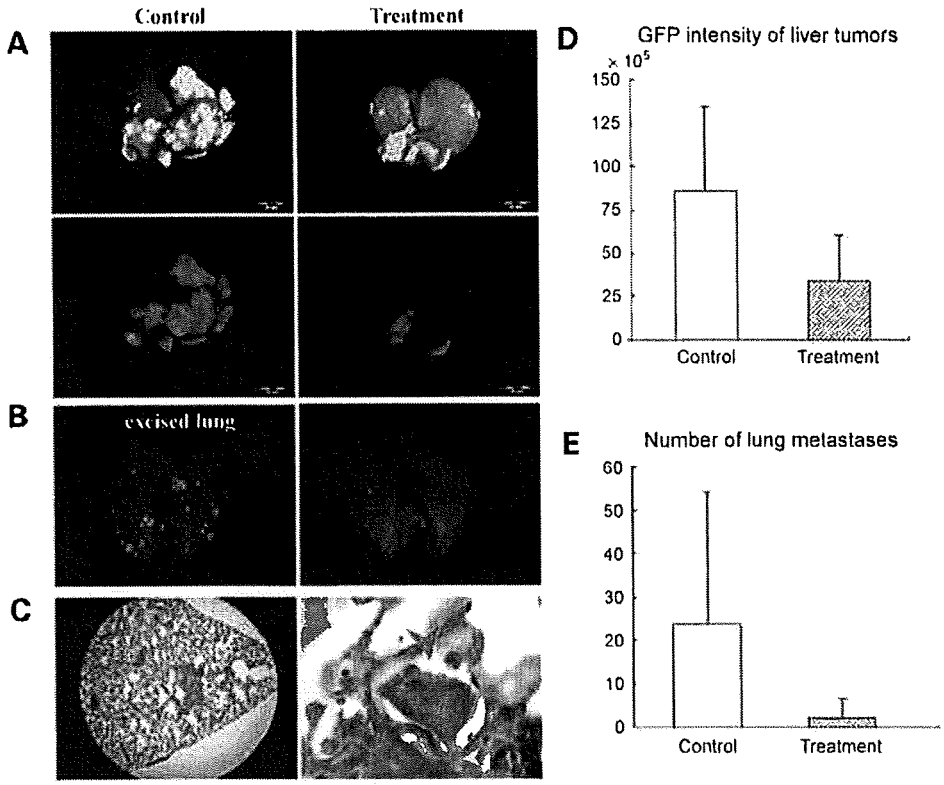

Figure 2. Systemic OBP-301 therapy of colon cancer liver metastases. **A**, macroscopic appearance of livers. HCT-116-GFP cells were injected into the spleen of nude mice, and the liver was excised 6 wk later. OBP-301 or PBS were i.v. injected 5 d after tumor cell inoculation. Excised livers were photographed under bright light (*top*). Fluorescence imaging showed GFP expression signals on the HCT-116-GFP liver metastasis (*bottom*). **B**, macroscopic appearance of lungs. Lung metastatic foci were detected with GFP fluorescence. *Left*, control; *right*, OBP-301 treatment significantly suppressed lung metastasis. **C**, H&E staining of lung metastasis in control mouse (*green arrow*). *Left*, magnification, ×40; *right*, protrusion of tumor (*green arrow*) into the adjacent alveoli through the Kohn's pore (*yellow arrow*). Magnification, ×400. **D**, quantitative analysis of the total GFP intensity in the liver of control and OBP-301–treated mice ($P < 0.05$). **E**, quantitative analysis of the number of lung metastases of control and OBP-301–treated mice ($P < 0.05$).

at a density of 2×10^6 in 50 μL Matrigel (BD Biosciences) into the spleen of nude mice through a 28-gauge needle at laparotomy.

Orthotopic Liver Tumor Model of HCC

An orthotopic liver tumor model with human HCC was made with unlabeled Hep3B or Hep3B-GFP human HCC cells. Unlabeled Hep3B or Hep3B-GFP cells (5.0×10^6 in 10 μL Matrigel) were subserosally injected into the left lobe of the liver through a 28-gauge needle at laparotomy. Unlabeled HepG2 cells, cells (3×10^6 in 50 μL Matrigel) were injected into the spleen of nude mice through a 28-gauge needle at laparotomy.

Antitumor Efficacy Studies

To assess the antitumor efficacy of i.v. administration of OBP-301 against liver metastases of the colorectal cancer, OBP-301 was injected once systemically into the tail vein at a dose of 5×10^8 plaque forming units (PFU)/100 μL 5 days after HCT-116-GFP cells were injected into the spleen. Control mice were injected with 100 μL PBS in an identical manner ($n = 9$ mice per group). Six weeks after tumor cell inoculation (5 weeks after treatment), fluorescence imaging was done using an Olympus OV100 Imaging System. GFP fluorescent intensity of the liver metastases and the number of lung metastases were determined. To obtain GFP intensity, exposure conditions were maintained constant at 30 ms to keep the data comparable. GFP intensity was quantified and presented in the units of SUM green intensity using Cell software (Olympus-Biosystems). The experimental data are presented as mean ± SD. Comparison of the GFP intensity and the number of lung metastases between the treatment and control groups were analyzed using a two-tailed Student's *t* test.

The antitumor efficacy of i.v. administration of OBP-301 was also assessed in an orthotopic liver tumor model of HCC. OBP-301 was i.v. injected biweekly (5×10^8 PFU/2 weeks for 6 weeks) starting from 2 weeks after Hep3B-GFP cells were injected into the liver. Control mice were injected with 100 μL PBS in an identical manner ($n = 9$ mice per group). All animals were examined 8 weeks after cancer cell inoculation (2 weeks after last treatment). Development of tumor growth and response to OBP-301 treatment were evaluated by the fluorescent area of the liver tumor calculated by Cell software using GFP images obtained with the Olympus OV100. The experimental data are presented as

mean ± SD. Comparison of the tumor area between the treatment and control groups was analyzed using a two-tailed Student's *t* test.

Viral GFP Labeling of Tumors

To assess the tumor detection ability of OBP-401 for metastatic liver tumors, a liver metastasis model of unlabeled HCT-116 cells was used. OBP-401 was injected i.v. or intrasplenically at a dose of 1×10^8 PFU/mouse. Animals were examined at laparotomy by fluorescence imaging with the OV100 5 days after OBP-401 was administered. Some mice had a second-look observation 1 week after the first open examination.

To assess the tumor detection ability of OBP-401 in the orthotopic liver tumor model, unlabeled Hep3B cells were

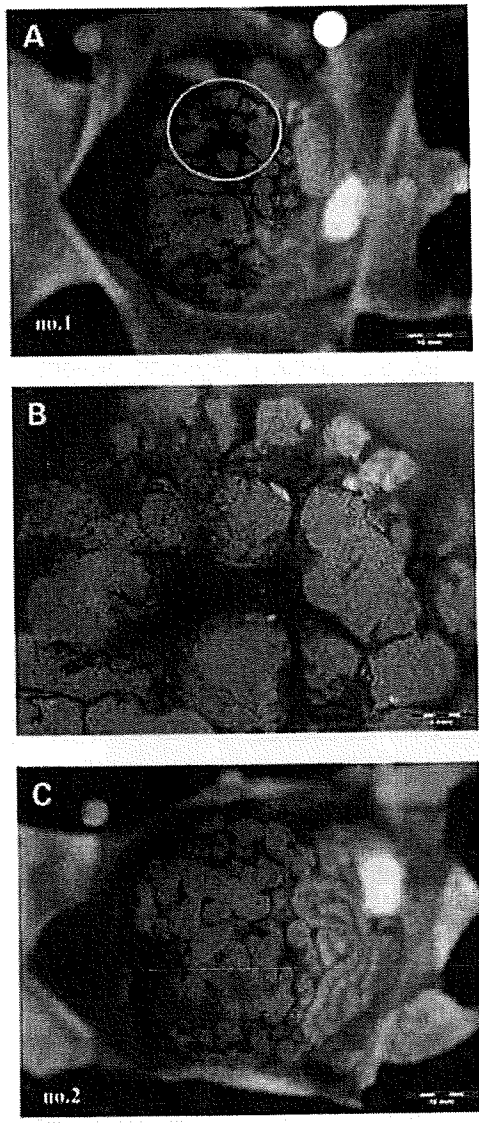

Figure 3. Portal venous delivery of OBP-401 selectively labeled multiple colon cancer liver metastases. **A**, gross appearance of the abdominal cavity (mouse no. 1). Five days after splenic injection of OBP-401, HCT-116 liver metastases were visualized by GFP fluorescence. **B**, higher magnification of the liver surface indicated by the *white circle* in **A**. **C**, liver metastases were visualized by GFP fluorescence in mouse no. 2.

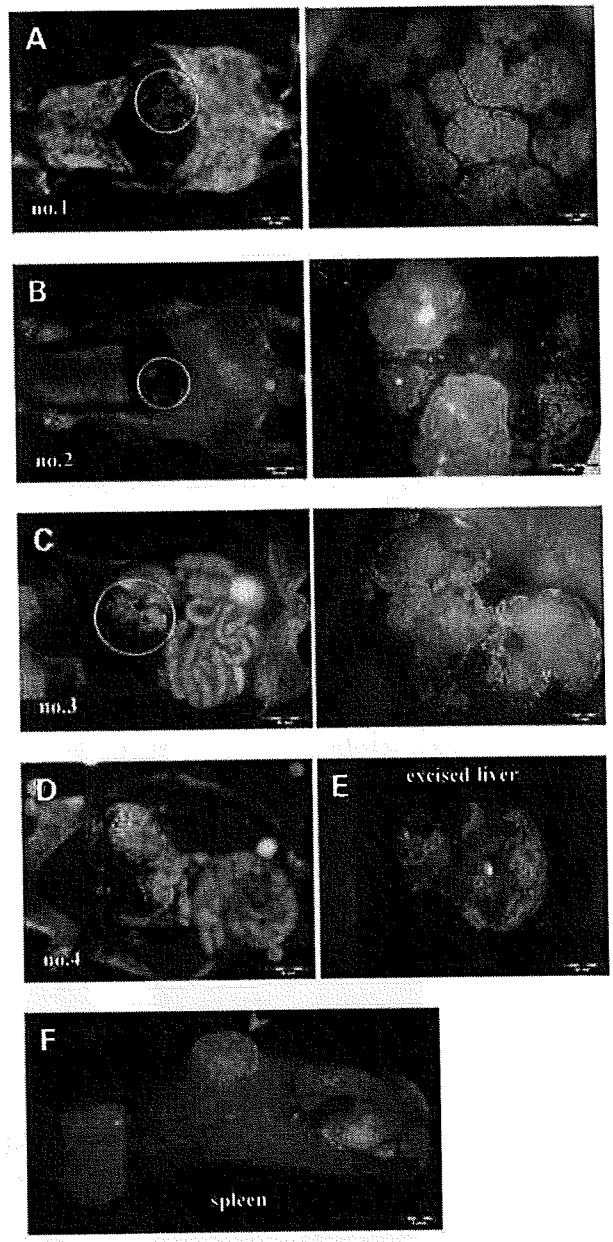

Figure 4. Selective GFP labeling of multiple liver metastases of human colon cancer by i.v. injection of OBP-401. **A** to **C**, 5 d after i.v. injection with OBP-401, HCT-116 liver metastases were visualized by GFP fluorescence (mouse nos. 1-3; *left*). Higher magnification of the liver metastasis indicated by a white circle (*right*). **D**, gross appearance of the abdominal cavity (mouse no. 4). **E**, macroscopic appearance of excised liver in mouse no. 4. The margin of the liver metastasis was visualized by GFP fluorescence. **F**, macroscopic appearance of spleen. Tumor development in the spleen was also visualized by GFP fluorescence 5 d after OBP-401 treatment (*red arrow*).

used. OBP-401 was injected systemically into the tail vein at a dose of 1×10^8 PFU/mouse 2 weeks after tumor cell inoculation. Animals were examined at laparotomy by fluorescence imaging with the OV100 5 days after OBP-401 was administered. Some mice had a second-look observation 4 weeks after i.v. injection of OBP-401.

Fluorescence Optical Imaging and Processing

The Olympus OV100 Imaging System containing an MT-20 light source was used. High-resolution images are captured directly on a PC (Fujitsu Siemens), and images are analyzed with the use of Cell software (Olympus-Biosystems).

Results and Discussion

Liver Metastasis Model of Human Colon Cancer

Intrasplenic inoculation of nude mice with unlabeled HCT-116 or HCT-116-GFP human colon cancer cells led to multiple experimental metastases in the liver within 14 days. With HCT-116-GFP, spleen tumors and lung metastasis could also be observed by fluorescence imaging at 6 weeks after cancer cell implantation.

Orthotopic Liver Tumor Model of HCC

When unlabeled Hep3B or Hep3B-GFP human HCC cells were subserosally injected into the liver of nude mice (Fig. 1A), a small tumor mass (~2 mm) was often observed on the liver surface by 2 weeks after cancer cell inoculation. Hep3B liver tumors usually grew only in the injected lobe and rarely spread to other lobes (Fig. 1B). These tumors showed abundant tumor blood vessels, indicating a rich blood supply for the tumor, which reflects HCC in human patients (Fig. 1C).

Unlabeled HepG2 cells were also inoculated in the spleen of nude mice with the same technique used in the experimental colorectal liver metastasis model. Two weeks after tumor cell inoculation, multiple HepG2 tumors were observed on the liver surface.

Inhibition of Experimental Colon Cancer Metastasis by OBP-301

OBP-301 was i.v. injected at a dose of 5×10^8 PFU/mouse 5 days after HCT-116-GFP inoculation in the spleen. At 6 weeks after HCT-116-GFP colon cancer cell inoculation, 100% of the control animals developed liver tumors, and tumors in the spleen developed in 40% of control animals. Treatment with OBP-301 caused a significant inhibition in liver metastasis growth ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 2A and D). Additionally, OBP-301–treated animals showed a reduced number of lung metastases colonies compared with controls ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 2B and E). These results show that systemic dosing of OBP-301 has significant antitumor activity against experimental colon cancer liver metastasis. In contrast to the experimental liver metastasis, OBP-301 did not have an apparent effect on the spleen tumors. The lack of effect of OBP-301 on the spleen tumors may be because of their very small size, which made differences difficult to discern.

Inhibition of Orthotopic HCC by OBP-301

To evaluate the antitumor efficacy of OBP-301 on HCC tumors, the orthotopic liver tumor model of Hep3B-GFP was used.

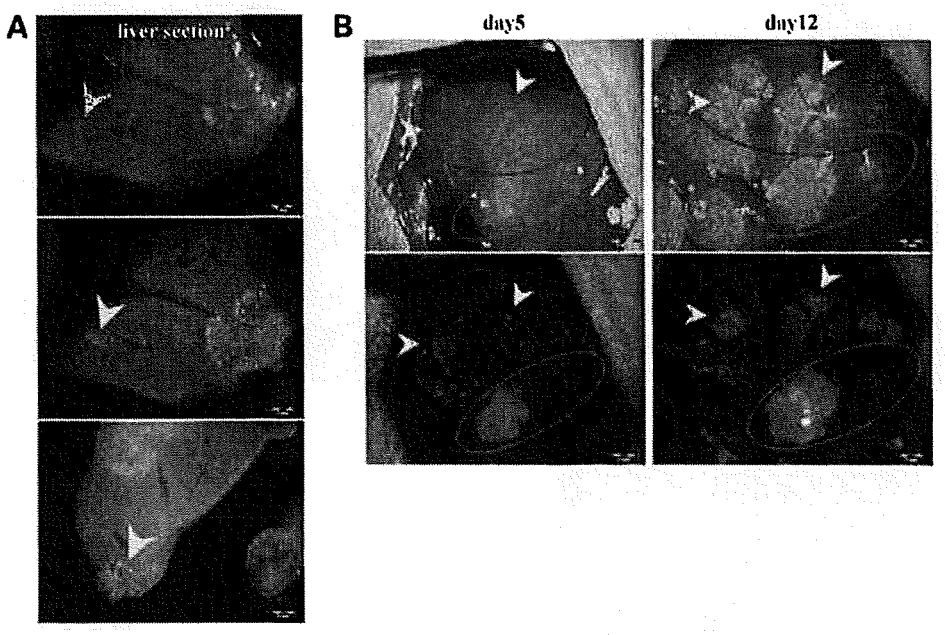

Figure 5. Early metastatic liver tumors not otherwise clearly visible could be visualized after i.v. injection of OBP-401. **A,** cross-sections of liver. GFP expression was mainly located at the periphery of the liver metastases. Tiny metastatic foci not otherwise clearly visible were visualized by GFP fluorescence after i.v. injection of OBP-401 (*yellow arrow*). **B,** 5 d after i.v. injection of OBP-401, HCT-116 liver metastases were visualized by GFP fluorescence (*red circle*). There were areas in the liver, which had GFP expression but seemed to be tumor-free in bright light (*blue circle*). Seven days later, metastases could be visualized by bright light as well as GFP fluorescence (*yellow arrows*), showing the power of OBP-401 to label very early, otherwise invisible metastases with GFP.

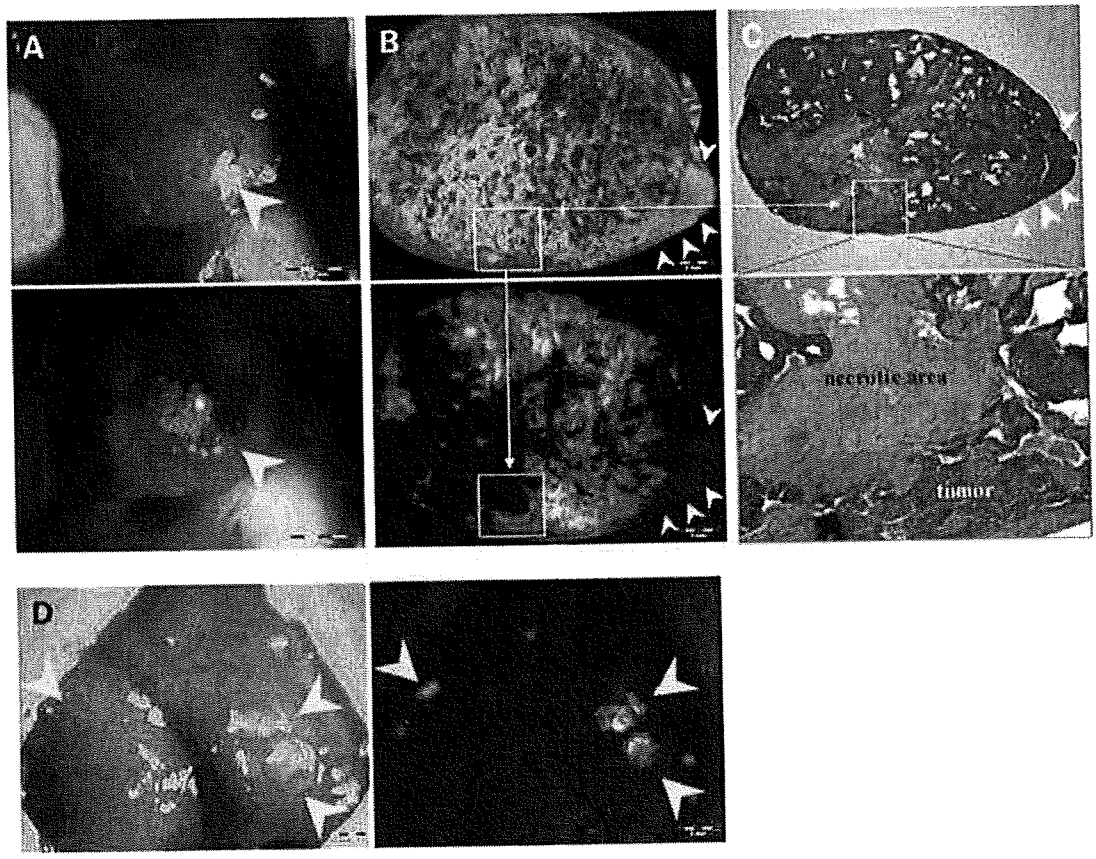

Figure 6. Selective visualization of orthotopic HCC tumors by i.v. injection of OBP-401. **A**, 5 d after systemic administration of OBP-401, orthotopic Hep3B HCC was visualized by GFP fluorescence (*yellow arrow*). *Top*, bright-field observation; *bottom*, fluorescence detection. **B**, cross-section of liver tumor 4 wk after i.v. injection of OBP-401. GFP expression was selectively detected in the tumor. *White arrow* indicates normal liver tissue. *Top*, bright-field observation; *bottom*, fluorescence detection. **C**, H&E section of Hep3B liver tumor of **B**. *Top*, magnification, ×10; *bottom*, detail of the boxed region. Magnification, ×40. Boxes refer to corresponding regions in **B** and **C** with high magnification in **B** and **C** (*bottom*). **D**, orthotopic HepG2 HCC tumors (*yellow arrows*) were visualized by GFP fluorescence (*yellow arrows*) 4 wk after i.v. injection of OBP-401.

The colorectal liver metastasis model was made by delivering cells into the portal vein as described above, whereas the orthotopic HCC model was made by injecting cells directly into the hepatic parenchyma, where at the early stage of tumor development most cells were thought to locate outside of the blood vessels. Thus, i.v. injected OBP-301 could target cancer cells more effectively in the colorectal liver metastasis model than in the HCC model. In the HCC model, therefore, we increased the number of injections of OBP-301, which was administered biweekly (5×10^8 PFU/2 weeks i.v. for 6 weeks) starting 2 weeks after tumor cell inoculation. Treatment of OBP-301 caused a significant inhibition in liver tumor growth ($P < 0.01$; Fig. 1D and E). These results show that systemic dosing of OBP-301 has significant antitumor activity against Hep3B-GFP human HCC tumors.

Selective Visualization of Colorectal Liver Metastases by OBP-401 Delivery of the GFP Gene

To assess the tumor detection ability of OBP-401 for colorectal liver metastases, OBP-401 was administrated to mice by portal venous delivery or systemic delivery using the tail vein.

Animals with HCT-116 experimental liver metastases were intrasplenically injected with OBP-401 (1×10^8 PFU/mouse) 12 days after tumor cell inoculation. The spleen was used to access the portal venous circulation. Five days after injection of OBP-401, the liver metastases could be visualized by GFP fluorescence. Representative mice are shown in Fig. 3. Cross-sections of the liver showed that GFP fluorescence occurred mainly at the periphery of the metastatic liver nodules (data not shown). Liver metastases in mice given 1×10^7 PFU of OBP-401 were not visualized efficiently by GFP expression (data not shown), indicating dose response.

HCT-116 liver metastases could also be visualized by GFP fluorescence after i.v. injection of OBP-401 (1×10^8 PFU/mouse; Fig. 4). Cross-sections of the liver also showed tiny metastatic foci visualized by GFP fluorescence (Fig. 5A). Moreover, a second-look observation done 1 week after the first laparotomy showed that early metastatic liver tumors, not clearly visible under bright light, had been visualized with GFP fluorescence after i.v. injection of OBP-401 at as early as day 5, indicating the possibility of early

detection of metastatic disease (Fig. 5B). When injected with more than 2×10^8 PFU of OBP-401, mice often showed GFP fluorescence in normal tissues such as liver, lung, spleen, and thoracic duct (data not shown). Theses results suggest that colorectal liver metastases can be visualized by GFP fluorescence both by portal venous and i.v. administration of OBP-401.

Selective Visualization of Orthotopic HCC by OBP-401

Five days after injection of OBP-401 (1×10^8 PFU/mouse) into the tail vein, HCC liver tumors were visualized by GFP fluorescence (Fig. 6A). Cross-sections of the liver at 4 weeks after i.v. injection of OBP-401 showed that GFP expression was in the cancer cells and not in normal cells (Fig. 6B and C). Small liver tumor nodules were also visualized by GFP fluorescence after i.v. OBP-401 administration (Fig. 6D). Thus, we showed that HCC liver tumors could be selectively visualized by GFP fluorescence after i.v. injection of OBP-401.

Many studies have shown that the majority of malignant human tumors tested express hTERT. OBP-301 and OBP-401 specifically replicate in tumors due to hTERT expression in tumors (11, 12, 17–19). In previous studies, OBP-301 and OBP-401 were administered locally, such as by intratumoral or intrapleural administration. The present report shows the systemic efficacy of OBP-301 and OBP-401 to selectively replicate in and kill and label primary and metastatic liver tumors after i.v. administration. Closely related virus constructs will be compared with OBP-301 and OBP-401 in the future.

Our laboratory pioneered the use of fluorescent proteins to visualize cancer cells *in vivo*. Cancer cells genetically labeled by fluorescent proteins have increased the possibility and sensitivity to observe progression of cancer cells in live animals (21). To evaluate antitumor efficacy of i.v. administration of OBP-301 against primary and metastatic liver tumors, we used GFP-expressing human cancer cell lines. We showed that i.v. administration of OBP-301 resulted in a significant reduction in experimental liver and pulmonary metastases in a colorectal liver metastases model and effectively inhibited tumor formation and growth in an orthotopic HCC model. OBP-401 has less but still significant cytotoxic effects compared with OBP-301 (22). In fact, a significant inhibition of tumor growth by intratumoral injection of OBP-401 was confirmed *in vivo* in our previous study (20). However, OBP-401 at the tumor-selective labeling dose used in this i.v. injection study could not inhibit tumor growth effectively.

The imaging strategy using OBP-401 has a potential of being available in humans as a navigation system in the surgical treatment of malignancy. During surgery, tumors that would be difficult to detect by direct visual detection could be positively identified with GFP fluorescence using a handheld excitation light and appropriate filter goggles as we have shown previously in mice (23–25). Employment of a fluorescence surgical microscope would enable visualization of the GFP-expressing microscopic leading edge of the tumor and allow accurate resection with sufficient margins.

As for toxicity of OBP-301 and OBP-401, only when injected with 5×10^8 PFU OBP-301 for the first time, a few mice showed lethargy but fully recovered within 1 h. None of the mice treated with OBP-301 or OBP-401 at the doses used in this study showed significant adverse effects during the observation period or histopathologic changes in the liver at the time of sacrifice. In the near future, the safety of OBP-301 will be confirmed in a phase I clinical trial, which is currently under way (26).

Our studies suggest the clinical potential of OBP-301 and OBP-401.

Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest

No potential conflicts of interest were disclosed.

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