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IV. 研究成果の刊行物・別刷

Natural killer cell-mediated ablation of metastatic liver tumors by hydrodynamic injection of IFN α gene to mice

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Interferon (IFN) α is a pleiotropic cytokine acting as an antiviral substance, cell growth inhibitor and immunomodulator. To evaluate the therapeutic efficacy and mechanisms of IFN α on hepatic metastasis of tumor cells, we hydrodynamically injected naked plasmid DNA encoding IFN α 1 (pCMV-IFN α 1) into Balb/cA mice having 2 days hepatic metastasis of CT-26 cells. Single injection of pCMV-IFN α 1 efficiently enhanced the natural killer (NK) activity of hepatic mononuclear cells, induced production of IFN γ in serum and led to complete rejection of tumors in the liver. Mice protected from hepatic metastasis by IFN α therapy displayed a tumor-specific cytotoxic T cell response and were resistant to subcutaneous challenge of CT-26 cells. NK cells were critically required for IFN α -mediated rejection of hepatic metastasis, because their depletion by injecting anti-asialo GM1 antibody completely abolished the antimetastatic effect. To find whether NK cells are directly activated by IFN α and are sufficient for the antimetastatic effect, the responses to IFN α were examined in SCID mice lacking T cells, B cells and NKT cells. IFN α completely rejected hepatic metastasis in SCID mice and efficiently activated SCID mononuclear cells, as evidenced by activation of STAT1 and a variety of genes, such as MHC class I, granzyme B, tumor necrosis factor-related apoptosis-inducing ligand and IFN γ , and also enhanced Yac1 lytic ability. Study of IFN γ knockout mice revealed that IFN γ was not necessary for IFN α -mediated NK cell activation and metastasis protection. In conclusion, IFN α efficiently activates both innate and adaptive immune responses, but NK cells are critically required and sufficient for IFN α -mediated initial rejection of hepatic metastasis of microdisseminated tumors.

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Key words: DNA; innate; adaptive; immunity NK

The liver is the most common site of metastatic malignancy and the status of this organ is an important determinant of survival in patients with advanced disease. The risk of hepatic metastasis remains high in many patients after potentially curative surgery at primary sites.¹ This suggests that the spread of tumor cells can occur in the liver even when they cannot be detected by current diagnostic modalities. To suppress the incidence of liver metastasis, whole liver therapy against microdisseminated tumors should be considered.² Since the liver contains an abundance of immune cells, the cytokine-mediated activation of these cells may be a promising approach toward this end.^{3,4}

Interferon (IFN) α is a pleiotropic cytokine acting as an antiviral substance, cell growth inhibitor and immunomodulator. IFN α as well as IFN γ are primarily induced in response to viral infection of cells and ligate a cognate receptor for the Type 1 IFN expressed on target cells.⁵ On the other hand, Type 2 IFN, IFN γ , is produced predominantly by T lymphocytes, natural killer (NK) cells and NKT cells and uses a distinct receptor. IFN α -mediated antiviral activity includes induction of 2'-5' oligoadenylate synthetases, double-stranded RNA-activated protein kinase (PKR) and Mx proteins. IFN α can exert direct effects on tumor cells by inhibiting proliferation, inducing apoptosis and inhibiting the release of proangiogenic factors such as vascular endothelial growth factor.⁶ IFN α -mediated immunomodulation includes dendritic cell maturation, NK cell activation, MHC Class I induction and cytokine production.⁷ Most, if not all, of these actions are mediated by the Jak-STAT signaling pathway downstream of the Type 1 IFN receptor.^{8–10} Type 1 IFN receptor upon ligand ligation phosphorylates Jack1 and then phosphorylates STAT1, which activates a

variety of IFN-regulated genes. IFN α and IFN β have been shown to elicit antitumor effects in various murine models of cancer.^{11–14} IFN β was also shown to be effective for retarding metastatic tumor growth in murine liver, but the underlying mechanisms have not been elucidated.¹⁵

In the present study, we investigated the efficacy of hydrodynamic-based expression of IFN α in the liver against a murine model of hepatic metastasis of CT-26 colon cancer cells and the mechanisms of an IFN α -mediated therapeutic effect of hepatic metastasis. Mice treated with IFN α completely rejected hepatic metastasis and became resistant to rechallenge by CT-26 cells. Although IFN α induced a variety of host responses including increased NK activity, increased IFN γ production and tumor-specific T cell responses, the initial rejection of hepatic metastasis was solely dependent on NK cells. Our study has shed light on NK cell activation as an important mechanism by which IFN α ablates microdisseminated tumors in the liver.

Material and methods

Mice

Specific pathogen-free female Balb/cA mice, SCID mice and their wild-type control mice were purchased from Clea Japan, Inc. (Tokyo, Japan). Rag2 knockout (Rag2 KO) mice were purchased from Taconic (Germantown, NY). IFN γ knockout (GKO) mice with a Balb/cA background was kindly provided by Dr. Yoichiro Iwakura (Institute of Medical Science, University of Tokyo).¹⁶ All mice were used at the age of 5 to 8 weeks. They were housed under conditions of controlled temperature and light with free access to food and water at the Institute of Experimental Animal Science, Osaka University Graduate School of Medicine. All animals received humane care, and the study protocol complied with the institution's guidelines.

Tumor models

Intrasplenic injection of tumor cells was used to establish microdisseminated liver tumors in mice.¹⁷ CT-26 colon cancer cells originating from Balb/cA mice were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% FCS. Syngeneic mice were anesthetized with pentobarbital and given a cut on the left side flank. CT-26 cells (1×10^5) were suspended in 150 μ l of PBS and injected into the spleen. For subcutaneous tumor models, CT-26 cells (5×10^5) were injected into the back of the mice under light anesthesia.

NK cell depletion

For depletion of NK cells *in vivo*, anti-asialo GM1 antibody (Wako, Osaka, Japan) was intraperitoneally administered.¹⁷ We

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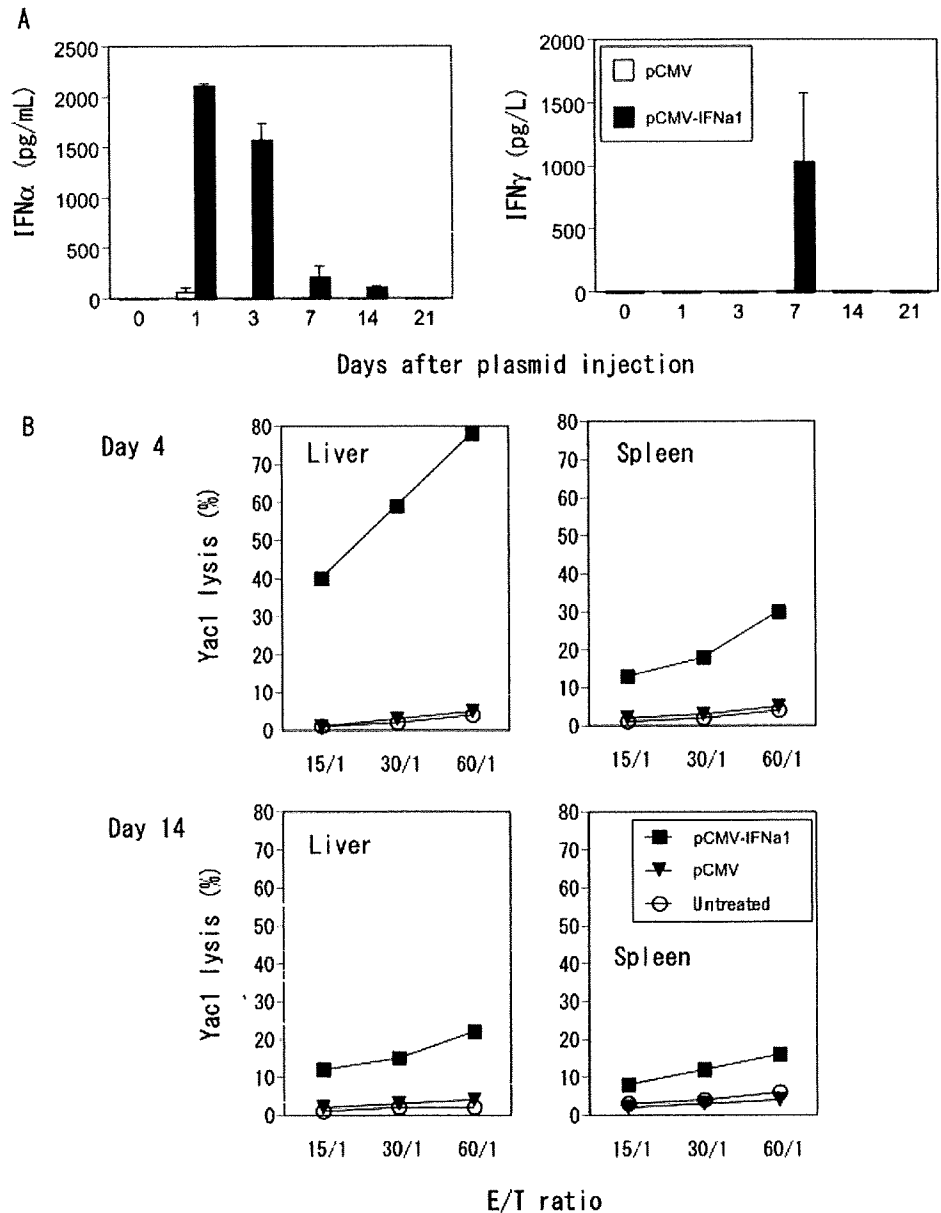


FIGURE 1 – Effects of hydrodynamic injection of IFN α -expressing plasmid. (a) Serum IFN α and IFN γ concentration. Balb/cA mice were hydrodynamically injected with either pCMV-IFN α (closed bars) or pCMV (open bars) and bled at indicated time points to measure the levels of serum IFN α and IFN γ . The results are indicated as mean and SD (n = 3/group). Shown are representative data for 2 independent experiments. (b) Yac1 lytic ability. Hepatic or splenic mononuclear cells were isolated from naive Balb/cA mice (open circles) and those injected with either pCMV-IFN α (closed squares) or pCMV (closed triangles). Yac1 lytic ability was measured by a standard chromium-release assay at indicated effector and target ratios (E/T ratio). All experiments were performed at least 3 times and representative data are shown.

determined the appropriate dosing to be 500 μ g/mouse (50 μ l when dissolved according to the manufacturer's instructions) based on FACS analysis of hepatic mononuclear cells. Injection of this dose of anti-asialo GM1 antibody depleted more than 95% of DX-5 positive, TCR β -negative cells (NK cells) in the liver. NKT cells were less affected than NK cells, because 40% of Cd1d-tetramer positive cells, which are invariant NKT cells, still remained in the liver after the treatment. Anti-asialo GM1 antibody was injected 1 day after tumor inoculation and then every 5 days. For the control, the same amount of normal rabbit immunoglobulin (DAKO, Copenhagen, Denmark) was intraperitoneally administered.

Injection of naked plasmid DNA

A plasmid coding the murine IFN α gene, pCMV-IFN α , was generously provided by Dr. Daniel J. J. Carr (University of Oklahoma, Health Science Center).¹⁸ Plasmid DNA was prepared using an EndoFree plasmid system (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Hydrodynamic injection of plas-

mid DNA was performed as previously described.¹⁹ In brief, 25 μ g of plasmid DNA was diluted with 2.0 ml of lactated Ringer's solution and injected into the tail vein, using a syringe with a 30-gauge needle. DNA injection was completed within 8 to 15 sec.

ELISA

Blood samples were serially obtained from the venous plexus in the retro-orbita under light anesthesia. The levels of serum IFN α and IFN γ were measured using commercially available ELISA kits (Biomedical Laboratories for murine IFN α ; Endogen for murine IFN γ).

Mononuclear cells

Mononuclear cells were isolated from the liver or spleen as previously described.²⁰ The NK activity of mononuclear cells was assessed with standard 4-hr ⁵¹Cr-releasing assay using Yac1 cells as targets. To examine CT-26-specific responses, splenocytes were stimulated with CT-26 cells for 5 days in the presence of 30 U/ml

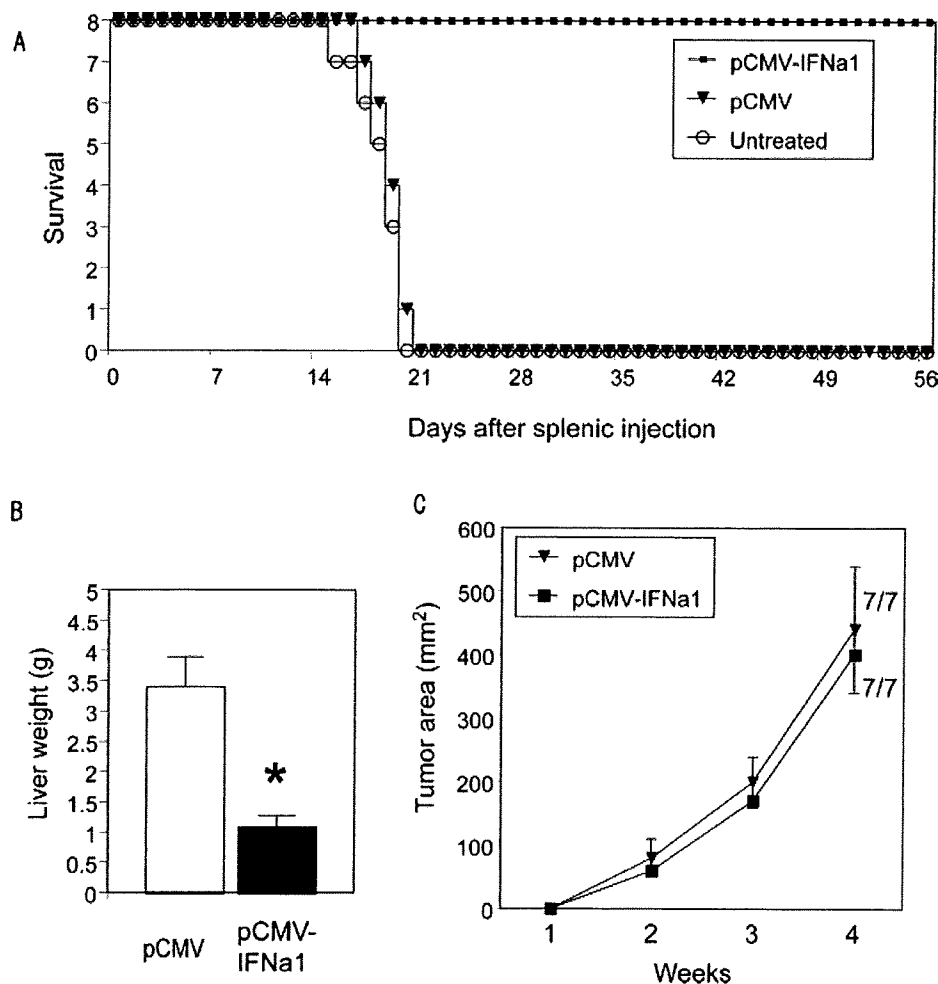


FIGURE 2 – Anti-tumor effects of IFN α therapy. (a) Survival. Balb/cA mice were intrasplenically injected with CT-26 cells. Two days later, the mice were randomly assigned to 3 groups and received hydrodynamic injection of either pCMV-IFN α 1 (closed squares) or pCMV (closed triangles) or untreated (open circles). The number of survivors in each group was monitored. (b) Anti-metastatic effects. Balb/cA mice were intrasplenically injected with CT-26 cells and hydrodynamically injected with either pCMV-IFN α 1 (closed bars) or pCMV (open bars) 2 days later. At 14 days after the splenic injection, the mice were sacrificed to examine liver tumor development by measuring liver weight. All experiments were performed at least 3 times and representative data are shown. *, $p < 0.05$ vs. pCMV injection group. (c) Anti-tumor effects on subcutaneous tumors. Balb/cA mice were subcutaneously injected with CT-26 cells and hydrodynamically injected with either pCMV-IFN α 1 (closed squares) or pCMV (closed triangles) 2 days later. Tumor growth was examined every week. Tumor size was expressed as the mean tumor size of only those mice bearing tumors. Each data point represents the mean tumor size and SD. The ratio of the number of mice bearing tumor/the number challenged for each treatment group at 4 weeks is shown in the figure.

of murine IL-2 and subjected to analysis for lytic activity against CT-26 cells or BNL A.7 murine hepatoma cells by 4-hr ^{51}Cr -releasing assay. In some experiments, mononuclear cells were separated into CD90-positive cells (T cells) and CD90-negative cells (non-T cells) using the MACS system (Miltenyi Biotec GmbH, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany).

Western blotting

Mouse recombinant IFN α was generously provided by Fujisaki Institute, Hayashibara Biochemical Laboratories (Okayama, Japan). Mononuclear cells were treated with or without IFN α . Whole cell lysate was prepared from mononuclear cells from mice, and 20 μg of protein was separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred to PVDF membrane. The membrane was stained with anti-STAT1 antibody (Upstate Biotechnology, Lake Placid, NY) or antiphospho-specific STAT1 (Y701) antibody (Upstate Biotechnology) and visualized by chemiluminescence. The specificities of STAT1 and phosphorylated STAT1 signals were confirmed by siRNA experiment using BNL A.7 cells in the presence or absence of IFN α treatment (data not shown). Anti-STAT antibody recognizes STAT1 α , whereas antiphospho-STAT1 antibody recognizes phosphorylated form of both STAT1 α and STAT1 β .

Microarray analysis

Total RNA was isolated from cultured SCID splenocytes in the presence or absence of IFN α by ISOGEN. RNA was analyzed using the GeneChip Mouse Genome Array 430 2.0 (Affymetrix,

Santa Clara, CA). Analysis of difference expression was performed by GeneChip Operating Software Ver. 1.1. Genes were considered to be significantly upregulated according to the following criteria: (i) the mean fold increase was more than 4-fold; (ii) the expression of a gene was significant in NK cells after IFN α treatment; (iii) a significant increase was registered based on the algorithm of the software.

Statistics

Data are represented as mean \pm SD. Comparisons between groups were analyzed by unpaired t -test with Welch's correction or ANOVA for experiments with more than two subgroups. *Post hoc* tests were done using the Bonferroni's t -test. $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

Results

Single intravenous injection of IFN α 1 gene enhances NK activity and completely rejects hepatic metastasis of CT-26 cells

Hydrodynamics-based gene delivery establishes efficient foreign gene expression predominantly in the liver, especially in hepatocytes.^{21,22} Serial measurement of serum IFN α demonstrated that pCMV-IFN α 1 injection led to substantial IFN α production on Day 1. The levels of serum IFN α then declined but were still detectable at Day 14 (Fig. 1a). To examine biological effects of the produced IFN α , we evaluated the NK activity of mononuclear cells from the liver and spleen. pCMV-IFN α 1 injection, but not

control pCMV injection, increased Yac1 lytic activity of hepatic mononuclear cells and, to a lesser extent, splenic mononuclear cells at 4 days. The levels of Yac1 lytic activity declined but were still higher at 14 days after the injection (Fig. 1b). We also measured IFN γ production in serum, since IFN α is known to activate IFN γ production.^{23,24} pCMV-IFN α 1 injection, but not pCMV injection, increased serum IFN γ at 7 days (Fig. 1a). Since serum IFN γ increased relatively at a later time point, it may be an indirect effect rather than a direct effect of IFN α . These data indicated that hydrodynamic injection of pCMV-IFN α 1 efficiently produced biologically active IFN α for a while in mice.

To evaluate the therapeutic effects of IFN α , Balb/cA mice were intrasplenically injected with CT-26 cells. Two days later, the mice were randomized into 3 groups and intravenously injected with either pCMV-IFN α 1 or pCMV or were not treated. All pCMV-injected mice or untreated mice died within 3 weeks (Fig. 2a). They exhibited massive liver tumor in the liver. In contrast, all mice receiving pCMV-IFN α 1 survived more than 2 months. To evaluate tumor metastasis, we sacrificed another cohort of mice at 2 weeks after tumor inoculation. There were no macroscopic or microscopic liver tumors in the pCMV-IFN α 1-injected mice. In contrast, livers

from pCMV-injected mice had massive tumors and were significantly heavier than those from pCMV-injected mice (Fig. 2b).

These results clearly indicated the striking therapeutic effects of IFN α on hepatic metastasis of CT-26 cells. To examine this therapeutic effect at a site other than the liver, Balb/cA mice were subcutaneously injected on the back with CT-26 cells and hydrodynamically injected 2 days later with pCMV-IFN α 1 or pCMV. No difference in tumor growth was noted between pCMV-IFN α 1-injected mice and pCMV-injected mice (Fig. 2c).

Mice protected from hepatic metastasis by IFN α gene therapy were resistant to subcutaneous challenge of CT-26 cells and exhibited a tumor-specific T cell response

We next investigated the possibility of IFN α -mediated rejection of hepatic metastasis being followed by induction of an adaptive immune response to the original tumor. To this end, we subcutaneously injected CT-26 cells into the mice that had been protected from CT-26 hepatic metastasis by IFN α therapy. The mice were rechallenged with CT-26 cells 1 month after the initial splenic injection. The controls were naïve Balb/cA mice as well as those receiving pCMV-IFN α 1 but not CT-26 splenic inoculation. The incidence of tumor formation was lower in mice that had rejected hepatic metastasis by IFN α therapy than in the control mice. Even if they developed subcutaneous tumors, tumor size was significantly smaller than in the control mice (Fig. 3a).

To examine the tumor-specific response, splenocytes were isolated 3 weeks after tumor inoculation and restimulated *in vitro* with CT-26 cells. Splenocytes isolated from CT-26 bearing mice treated with IFN α showed significant levels of killing ability against CT-26 cells, but not against BNL A.7 cells (Fig. 3b). When mice were intrasplenically injected with UV-irradiated CT-26 cells, the splenocytes did not show significant killing activity regardless of the subsequent IFN α therapy (Fig. 3c). Separation of effector cells into T cells and non-T cells based on CD90 expression revealed that this killing ability was mediated by T cells, but not by non-T cells (data not shown). Thus, a tumor-specific cytotoxic T cell response was established in mice that had rejected hepatic metastasis of CT-26 cells by IFN α therapy.

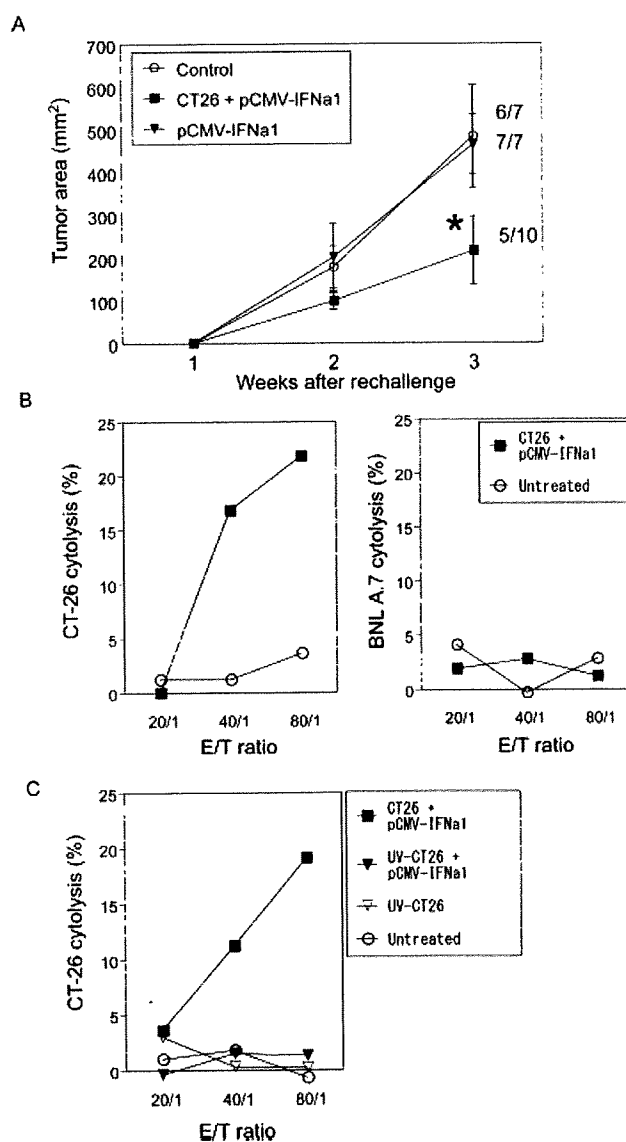


FIGURE 3 – Systemic immunity and tumor-specific T cell response. (a) Anti-tumor effects on rechallenged tumors. Balb/cA mice that had rejected hepatic metastasis of CT-26 cell by IFN α (closed squares), those treated with IFN α alone (closed triangles), and naïve mice (open circles) were challenged with subcutaneous injection of CT-26 cells 1 month after the previous treatment. Subcutaneous tumor growth was examined every week by measuring tumor area. Tumor size was expressed as the mean tumor size of only those mice bearing tumors. Each data point represents the mean tumor size and SD. The ratio of the number of mice bearing tumor/the number challenged for each treatment group at 3 weeks is shown in the figure. *, $p < 0.05$ vs. control or pCMV-IFN α 1 injection only group. (b) *In vitro* tumor-specific killing ability. Balb/cA mice were intrasplenically injected with CT-26 cells and then treated with pCMV-IFN α 1 2 days later. Splenocytes were isolated from CT-26 plus pCMV-IFN α 1-injected mice at 3 weeks (closed squares) or naïve mice (open circles), restimulated with CT-26 cells for 5 days and then subjected to analysis for the lytic ability against CT-26 cells (left) or BNL A.7 cells (right). Shown are representative data for 3 independent experiments. (c) Requirement of CT-26 cells and IFN α on induction of tumor-specific killing ability. Balb/cA mice were intrasplenically injected with live CT-26 cells (squares) or UV-irradiated CT-26 cells (triangles) and then treated with (closed symbols) or without (open symbols) pCMV-IFN α 1 2 days later. Splenocytes were isolated from mice at 3 weeks, restimulated with CT-26 cells for 5 days and then subjected to the analysis for the lytic ability against CT-26 cells. Mice injected with live CT-26 cells without following injection of pCMV-IFN α 1 did not survive for 3 weeks naïve mice were included as controls (open circles). Shown are representative data for 3 independent experiments.

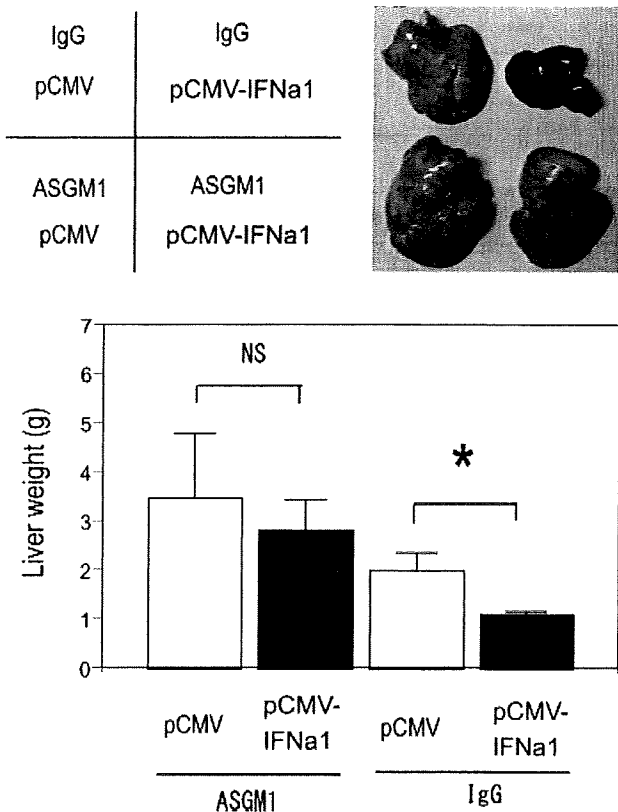


FIGURE 4 – Requirement of NK cells on IFN α -mediated anti-metastatic effects. Balb/cA mice were intrasplenically injected with CT-26 cells, intraperitoneally injected with either anti-ASGM1 or control IgG at 1 day, and hydrodynamically injected with either pCMV-IFN α 1 (closed bars, $n = 8$ /group) or pCMV (open bars, $n = 7$ /group). Mice were sacrificed at 14 days to examine tumor growth in the liver. Top, a representative picture of the liver in each group. Bottom, comparison of liver weight among treatment groups. Experiments were performed at least 3 times and representative data are shown. *, $p < 0.05$. NS, not significant.

NK cells are required for IFN α -mediated initial rejection of hepatic metastasis

To examine whether the observed increase in NK activity of hepatic mononuclear cells is involved in the complete rejection of hepatic metastasis, we induced depletion of NK cells by injecting anti-asialo GM1 antibody. pCMV-IFN α 1 injection completely abrogated hepatic tumor formation in control immunoglobulin-injected mice. In sharp contrast, pCMV-IFN α 1 injection did not offer antimetastatic effects in anti-asialo GM1 antibody-injected mice, suggesting the critical contribution of NK cells to the anti-metastatic effects of IFN α (Fig. 4). We examined the possibility that hepatic mononuclear cells can serve as direct effectors cells for CT-26 eradication. Although CT-26 cells were more resistant to hepatic mononuclear cells than Yac1 cells, pCMV-IFN α 1 injection clearly enhanced the killing ability of hepatic mononuclear cells against CT-26 cells (data not shown). This result indicated that CT-26 is potentially susceptible to hepatic mononuclear cells upon IFN α therapy.

IFN α directly activates NK cells

IFN α is known to be able to activate a variety of immune cells. To examine whether NK cells can be directly activated by IFN α , we analyzed SCID mice that lack T cells, B cell and NKT cells due to spontaneous DNA-dependent protein kinase point muta-

tion.²⁵ SCID or wild-type splenocytes were cultured with IFN α and examined for STAT1 phosphorylation, which peaked at 30 min and declined at 6 hr after IFN α stimulation in both mice (Fig. 5a). However, the signals of STAT1 phosphorylation were weaker in SCID splenocytes than in wild-type cells. Of interest is the finding that STAT1 expression was reduced in SCID cells compared to wild-type cells. Similar data were also obtained from experiments on Rag2 KO mice, another model of deficiency for T cells, B cells and NKT cells. To examine the reasons for SCID or Rag2 KO cells expressing low levels of STAT1, we separated wild-type splenocytes into T cells and non-T cells based on CD90 expression. The levels of STAT1 expression were weaker in non-T cells than in T cells (Fig. 5b). Taken together, the difference in the levels of STAT1 expression among lymphocyte subsets could explain the reduced phosphorylation signals after IFN α treatment in SCID or Rag2 KO cells.

To examine the gene profiles activated by IFN α in NK cells, we used Affymetrix DNA array analysis on SCID hepatic mononuclear cells. Six hours treatment of IFN α (1,000 U/ml) upregulated 243 of 45,101 genes in SCID cells by more than 4-fold. They included well known IFN α -regulated genes such as H2, 2'-5' oligoadenylate synthetases, Mx1, IRF and suppressor of cytokine signaling (SOCS). Among the effector molecules for cytotoxicity, tumor necrosis factor-related apoptosis-inducing ligand (TRAIL) and granzyme B were activated. Various cytokines such as IL-15 and IFN γ were also upregulated. These data revealed that NK cells upon IFN α stimulation produced well-characterized IFN-inducible genes and others that are relatively specific to killer cells or immune cells.

pCMV-IFN α 1 injection completely suppressed tumor formation in the liver in SCID mice

We examined the *in vivo* effects of IFN α in SCID mice. In agreement with SCID cell activation *in vitro*, pCMV-IFN α 1 injection enhanced the Yac1 lytic ability of hepatic mononuclear cells in SCID mice (Fig. 5c). To examine whether NK cells are sufficient for IFN α -mediated rejection of hepatic metastasis, we injected pCMV-IFN α 1 or pCMV into mice that had been intrasplenically injected with CT-26 cells 2 days earlier. pCMV-IFN α 1 completely suppressed tumor formation in the liver (Fig. 5d). As described in the *Material and methods* section, anti-asialo GM1 injection reduces the number of NKT cells. However, this SCID experiment clearly showed that NKT cells are not required for NK cell activation by IFN α and its antimetastatic effects.

pCMV-IFN α 1 injection completely suppressed tumor formation in the liver in GKO mice

IFN γ has been established as an endogenous inhibitor of tumor development and progression.²⁶ Exogenous administration of IFN γ suppresses tumor formation in a variety of models.^{15,27} To examine the possibility of IFN γ being involved in antimetastatic effects on IFN α , we injected pCMV-IFN α 1 or pCMV plasmid into GKO mice exposed to 2 days of metastasis of CT-26 cells. IFN α treatment led to complete rejection of CT-26 cells in GKO mice (Fig. 6a). pCMV-IFN α 1 injection, but not pCMV injection, augmented the Yac1 lytic ability of mononuclear cells (Fig. 6b).

Discussion

Here we report that a single injection of pCMV-IFN α 1 could lead to complete rejection of preexisting hepatic metastasis of colon cancer cells. This partly agrees with a previous report by Kobayashi et al.,¹⁵ who hydrodynamically injected IFN β - or IFN γ -expressing plasmid into CT-26 bearing mice and reported the antimetastatic effects of IFN β or IFN γ . In contrast to our study, all mice died within 45 days due to metastasized tumor growth even if plasmid injection was began one day after tumor inoculation and repeated every other day. The complete protection against hepatic metastasis observed in the present study allowed

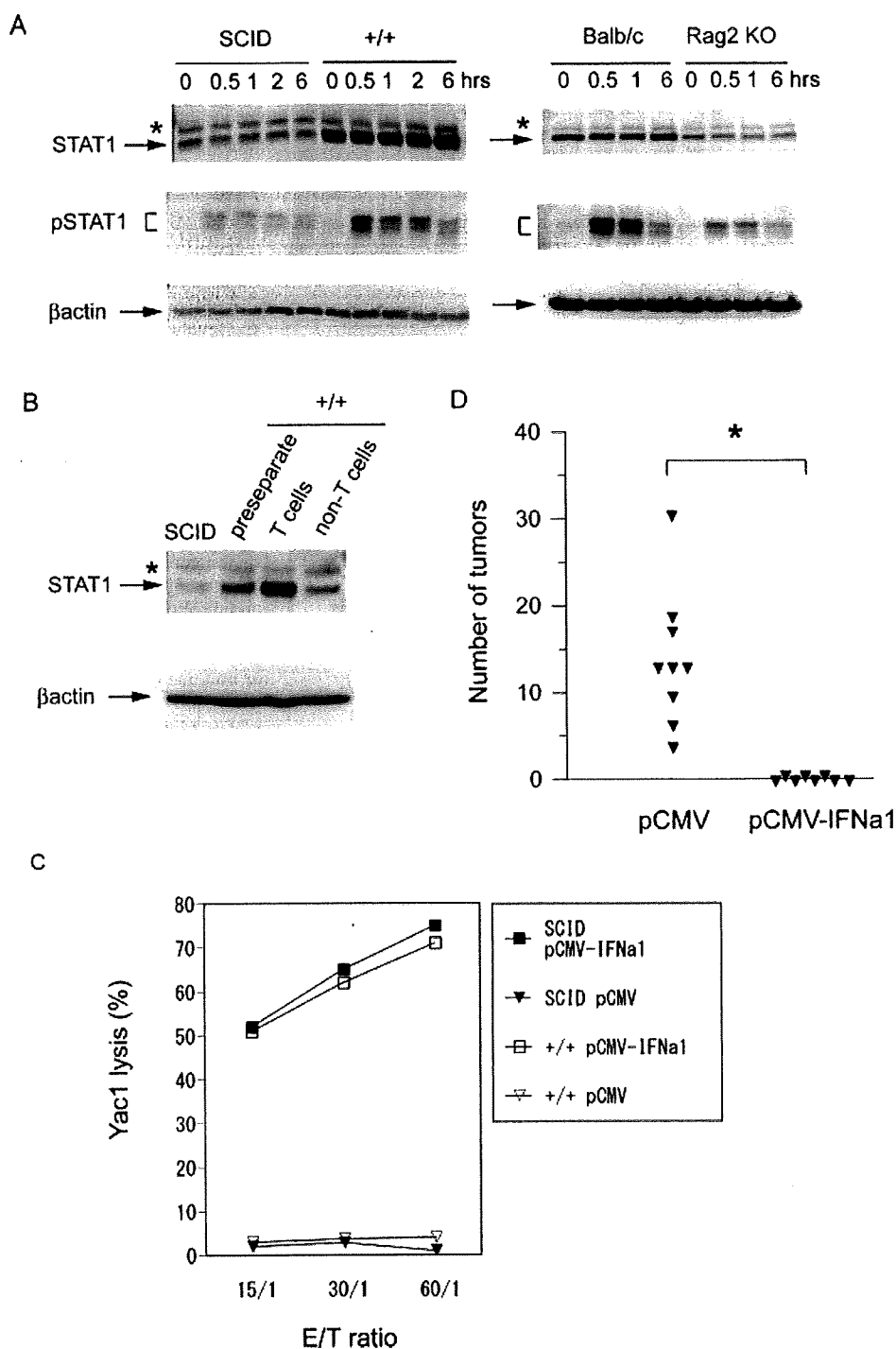


FIGURE 5 – IFN α -mediated NK cell activation and anti-metastatic effects in SCID mice. (a) STAT1 and phospho-STAT1 expression of splenocytes from SCID or Rag2 KO mice. Splenocytes were treated with 1,000 U/ml of IFN α and lysed at indicated time points (0 to 6 hr). Expression of STAT1 and phospho-STAT1 (pSTAT1) was analyzed by Western blot. +/+ and Balb/c indicate wild-type controls for SCID and Rag2 KO mice, respectively. *, non-specific band (see the *Material and methods* section). (b) STAT1 expression in T cells and non-T cells. Splenocytes from wild-type mice (+/+) were separated into T cells and non-T cells based on expression of CD90. Expression of STAT1 was analyzed by Western blot. SCID and pre-separated wild-type splenocytes were included as controls. *, non-specific band (see the *Material and methods* section). (c) Yac1 lytic ability. SCID mice (closed symbols) or wild-type mice (open symbols) were hydrodynamically injected with either pCMV-IFN α 1 (squares) or pCMV (triangles). Four days later, splenocytes isolated from the mice were examined for the lytic ability for Yac1 cells. Experiments were done at least 3 times and representative data are shown. (d) Anti-metastatic effects. SCID mice or wild-type mice were intrasplenically injected with CT-26 cells and hydrodynamically injected with either pCMV-IFN α 1 or pCMV 2 days later. After 14 days, mice were sacrificed to examine tumor development in the liver. The numbers of hepatic tumors were compared among the groups. Experiments were performed 3 times and representative data are shown. *, $p < 0.05$.

us to investigate the adaptive response after antimetastatic effects. Mice that had rejected CT-26 cells by IFN α showed a tumor-specific T cell response and suppressed tumor growth of rechallenged skin tumor. Therefore, pCMV-IFN α 1 injection not only caused initial rejection of metastasized tumors but also induced durable and systemic adaptive immunity. Interestingly, splenic injection of UV-irradiated CT-26 cells, even if followed by pCMV-IFN α 1 injection, did not elicit significant tumor-specific T cell responses. Therefore, the efficient induction of adaptive T cell responses requires IFN α -mediated rejection of live tu-

mor cells and cannot be recapitulated by simple injection of dead tumor cells and IFN α .

NK cells are present in a high percentage in the liver.²⁸ In the present study, we focused on NK cells which were rapidly activated by IFN α to examine the cellular mechanisms of protection against hepatic metastasis. Critical requirement of NK cells was demonstrated by anti-asialo GM1 antibody-injected mice which did not show protection against CT-26 metastasis. In contrast, T cells, B cells or NKT cells were dispensable for IFN α -mediated antimetastatic effects since IFN α therapy did show antimetastatic

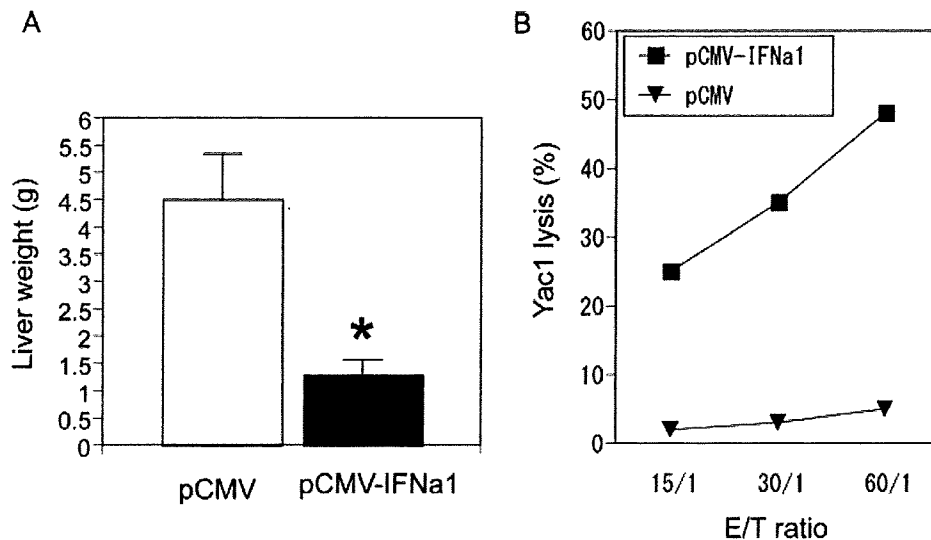


FIGURE 6 – NK cell activation and anti-metastatic effects in GKO mice. (a) Anti-metastatic effects. GKO mice were intrasplenically injected with CT-26 cells and hydrodynamically injected with either pCMV-IFN α 1 (closed bars) or pCMV (open bars) 2 days later. After 14 days, the mice were sacrificed to examine tumor development in the liver. The liver weight was compared between the groups ($n = 8/\text{group}$). Experiments were performed 3 times and representative data are shown. *, $p < 0.05$ vs. pCMV injection group. (b) Yac1 lytic ability. GKO mice were hydrodynamically injected with either pCMV-IFN α 1 (closed squares) or pCMV (closed triangles). Four days later, splenocytes isolated from the mice were examined for the lytic ability for Yac1 cells. All experiments were performed at least 3 times and representative data are shown.

effects in SCID mice. Research using a variety of murine models has revealed the direct effects of tumor cells¹¹ and the CD8 T cell response¹²⁻¹⁴ involved in the antitumor effects of IFN α . A recent study²⁹ using STAT1-deficient animals and STAT1-deficient tumor cells revealed that IFN α activation of host cells, but not tumor cells, is required for antitumor effects in a peritoneal model of melanoma. They also showed the involvement of NK cells in their model. Our data demonstrated that NK cells are critically required and sufficient for IFN α -mediated protection from liver metastasis. However, NK cells are not effective for controlling tumor growth at extrahepatic sites, because IFN α activated splenic (systemic) NK activity but did not elicit antitumor effects against subcutaneously injected CT-26 cells. Subcutaneous tumor growth appeared to be controlled by adaptive immunity rather than innate pathway.

The reason that IFN α -mediated activation of NK cells leads to such a strong antitumor effect in the liver but not under the skin is not known. In the present study, we applied hydrodynamic injection of the IFN α gene to obtain efficient and stable expression of IFN α . Since the hydrodynamic procedure leads to predominant expression of foreign genes in the liver, the concentration of IFN α may be greater in the liver than in circulation. This may be related to the observed strong antitumor effects in the liver. Another possibility is that NK cells are more numerically abundant and functionally potent in the liver than in other organs.³⁰ In any case, the hydrodynamic injection of the IFN α gene led to higher activation of the NK lytic ability of hepatic mononuclear cells than that of systemic mononuclear cells. This may be related to the stronger antitumor activity in the liver.

An earlier study on STAT1 knockout mice revealed that STAT1 is a critical signaling molecule for IFN α in macrophage and T cells.⁹ STAT1-deficient mice showed impairment of NK activity.³¹ STAT1-deficient splenocytes did not show increase in NK lytic activity upon IFN α stimulation.²⁹ Therefore, STAT1 should also play an important role in IFN α -mediated NK cell activation. However, the significance of STAT1 in NK cells on IFN α action had not been fully proven, because splenocytes consist of a variety of lymphocyte subsets. In the present study, we found that NK cells express lower levels of STAT1 than T cells, which is associ-

ated with lower levels of STAT1 expression in SCID splenocytes than those in wild-type splenocytes. Importantly, IFN α phosphorylated STAT1 in SCID splenocytes with similar kinetics to that in wild-type splenocytes even if the signal intensities in the former were lower than those in the latter. In agreement with this, IFN α was capable of activating a variety of genes in SCID mononuclear cells. Thus, IFN α does not require other lymphocyte subsets to activate NK cells and to induce NK cell expression of IFN-regulated genes.

IFN γ was shown to be produced in lymphocytes upon IFN α administration, which is dependent on STAT4 signaling.³² In the present study, IFN γ was produced in serum after pCMV-IFN α 1 injection. Furthermore, the IFN γ gene was activated in SCID NK cells upon IFN α stimulation. However, IFN γ is not necessary for NK cell activation in terms of killing ability as well as an IFN α -mediated antimetastatic effect. NK cells, upon IFN α stimulation, expressed well-established IFN-regulated genes³³ as well as killer cell-specific molecules granzyme B or TRAIL. Although our data showed that hepatic mononuclear cells from mice receiving IFN α can kill CT-26 cells *in vitro*, it remains unclear whether NK cells serve as direct effector cells for ablating CT-26 cells *in vivo*. Further study is needed to find whether killer cell-specific molecules are actually involved in the antimetastatic effects of IFN α .

IFN α has achieved a long record of clinical use in the treatment of hematological malignancy and solid tumors such as melanoma, renal cell carcinoma and Kaposi's sarcoma.^{34,35} In therapy for colon carcinoma, special attention has been paid to the use of IFN α in the combination with 5-FU, since IFN α has been shown to modulate 5-FU metabolism and to enhance its cytotoxic activity.³⁶ Although several clinical trials have evaluated the 5-FU plus IFN α combination for adjuvant therapy of colon carcinomas with encouraging results,^{37,38} recent randomized trials revealed that addition of IFN α to 5-FU + levamisole marginally increased the recurrence-free survival time compared to 5-FU + levamisole alone, but did not alter the over-all survival.³⁹ Therefore, use of IFN α as a modulator of 5-FU activity may have some limitations in future clinical use. In the present study, we demonstrated that

IFN α activates both innate and adaptive immunity and ablates microdisseminated colon carcinoma cells in the liver. There may be a variety of reasons which can explain the difference between the present study and the clinical use in the therapy of metastasizing colon cancer. We found CT-26 far less sensitive to NK cells than Yac1 cells but human colon carcinoma cells might be more resistant to NK cells activated by IFN α in a clinical setting. Systemic administration of recombinant IFN α may be less effective than enforced expression of IFN α gene in the liver. In any way, we used CT-26 cells just as a murine model of hepatic metastasis and observed similar therapeutic effect of the IFN α gene when using another cell line such as BL6 melanoma cells in a C57/BL6 background (our unpublished data). Our study raised the possibility that IFN α therapy may be a promising approach for developing future adjuvant therapy for metastatic liver tumors arising from various organs. Immunological aspect of IFN α is important when considering antimetastatic effect of this cytokine.

In conclusion, IFN α -mediated protection of CT-26 hepatic metastasis critically requires NK cells. NK cells, upon IFN α stimulation, do not require other immune cells such as T cells, B cells and

NKT cells for their activation and protection against hepatic metastasis. NK cell production of IFN γ is not involved in the increase in NK activity and antitumor effect. Our study has shown NK cells to be important mediators in ablating microdisseminating tumors in the liver in IFN α therapy. Eradication of microdisseminated tumor cells by IFN α led to long-lasting adaptive immune responses which may be important for suppressing tumor growth in extrahepatic sites and overall antitumor effects.

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