

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

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Antitumor effects of the combination immunotherapy with interleukin-12 and tumor necrosis factor α in mice

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Abstract There is strong evidence that antitumor activity of interleukin-12 (IL-12) *in vivo* is mediated, in part, through interferon (IFN γ) produced by IL-12-stimulated natural killer and T cells. Since IFN γ and tumor necrosis factor α (TNF α) have been reported to synergize in antitumor effects in a number of models, we decided to examine whether the combined treatment with recombinant mouse IL-12 and recombinant human TNF α would produce similar effects. The efficacy of the combined IL-12/TNF α immunotherapy was evaluated in three tumor models in mice: B16F10 melanoma, Lewis lung (LL/2) carcinoma and L1 sarcoma. Intratumoral daily injections of 1 μ g IL-12 in combination with 5 μ g TNF α into B16F10-melanoma-bearing mice resulted in a significant retardation of the tumor growth as compared with that in controls and in mice treated with either cytokine alone. Similar effects were obtained using 0.1 μ g IL-12 and 5 μ g TNF α in LL/2 carcinoma and L1 sarcoma models. Antitumor activity against L1 sarcoma was still preserved when TNF α at a low dose (1 μ g) was combined with 0.1 μ g IL-12 and applied for a prolonged time. Potentiation of antitumor effects, which was observed in IL-12/TNF α -based immunotherapy, could result from at least three different mechanisms, partly related to stimulation of IFN γ and TNF α production in treated mice: (a) direct cytostatic/cytotoxic effects on tumor cells, (b) induction of antitumor activity of macrophages, and (c) inhibition of blood vessel formation in the tumor. Our studies demonstrate that combination tumor immunotherapy with IL-12 and TNF α may be more effective than single-cytokine treatment, and suggest possible mechanisms by which IL-12 and TNF α may exert potentiated therapeutic effects against locally growing tumors.

Key words Tumor immunotherapy · Interleukin-12 · TNF α

Introduction

Interleukin-12 (IL-12), a heterodimeric cytokine of p35 and p40 subunits, was discovered as a natural-killer(NK)-stimulatory factor [15] and also as a cytotoxic lymphocyte maturation factor [29]. IL-12 is produced mainly by monocytes/macrophages and mediates a broad range of biological effects. In particular, IL-12 enhances NK- and T-cell-mediated cytotoxicity [15, 10] and stimulates proliferation of these cells [9], promotes differentiation of Th1 clones [19] and may induce secretion of interferon γ (IFN γ) from both resting and activated NK cells and T lymphocytes [15, 4]. IL-12 has also been demonstrated to play a role in intrathymic T cell development [12] as well as in the maturation of bone marrow cells [1].

When administered *in vivo*, IL-12 has been shown to exert antitumor activity against a number of murine tumors resulting in the inhibition of tumor growth as well as the reduction of the number of experimental metastases [3, 21, 36]. Combining IL-12 with other agents may enhance its antitumor efficacy and indicate the directions to pursue in clinical trials. Several attempts have already been undertaken to enhance the antitumor activity of IL-12. For example, IL-12 administered in combination with IL-2 displayed greater antitumor activity than that observed with either IL-12 or IL-2 alone [35]. Synergy in the induction of tumor immunity has also been observed between IL-12 and B7-1 [7]. Recently, IL-12 has been found to be an effective antitumor agent in established murine tumors when combined with macrophage-colony-stimulating factor and radiation treatment [31].

Since IFN γ seems to be required for optimal antitumor effects of IL-12 [3, 21], and given the evidence that IFN γ and TNF α synergize in their antitumor activity [2, 16, 30], we decided to examine whether the antitumor effects of

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IL-12 could be strengthened by administration of this cytokine together with TNF α in established murine tumors.

Materials and methods

Mice

BALB/c and (C57BL/6 \times DBA/2)F1 mice, hereafter called B6D2F1, 8–12 weeks of age, were used in the experiments. Breeding pairs were obtained from the Inbred Mice Breeding Center of the Institute of Immunology and Experimental Medicine, Wrocław, Poland. Mice were bred in a local animal facility and were kept in conventional conditions with full access to food and water during experiments.

Tumors

The following tumor cell lines were used: B16F10 melanoma (obtained from Dr. M. Kubin, Wistar Institute, Philadelphia, Pa.), Lewis lung carcinoma (LL/2) and L1 sarcoma (from Dr. P. Janik, Institute of Oncology, Warsaw, Poland). Tumor cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (Gibco BRL, Paisley, UK) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal calf serum, antibiotics, 2-mercaptoethanol (50 μ M) and L-glutamine (2 mM) (all from Gibco BRL). Cells were maintained in 25-cm² tissue-culture flasks (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark) at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂ and were passaged two or three times weekly using trypsin/EDTA (Gibco BRL) pretreatment.

Cytokines

Recombinant mouse IL-12 (specific activity 4.6 \times 10⁶ U/mg protein) was a generous gift from the Genetics Institute, Cambridge, Mass. Recombinant human TNF α was kindly provided by Knoll AG/BASF, Ludwigshafen, Germany (specific activity 5 \times 10⁷ U/mg protein), and from Dr. W. Stec, Department of Bioorganic Chemistry, Center for Molecular and Macromolecular Studies, Łódź Poland (specific activity 4.3 \times 10⁷ U/mg protein). TNF α from both sources was found to have comparable biological efficacy when tested *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Cytokines were diluted with 0.1% bovine serum albumin (BSA; Sigma Chemicals, St. Louis, Mo.) in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; Gibco BRL) for *in vivo* experiments. Murine recombinant IFN γ (specific activity 1 \times 10⁷ U/mg protein) was purchased from Genzyme Corporation, Cambridge, Mass.

Determination of endogenous IFN γ and TNF α in mouse serum

Serum levels of IFN γ and TNF α were measured following a 7-day intertumoral (*i.t.*) treatment of tumor-bearing mice with recombinant mouse IL-12 (0.1 μ g, daily) and/or recombinant human TNF α (5 μ g, daily). Mice were bled (under ether anesthesia) 4 h after the last injection of cytokines, and the levels of endogenous IFN γ and TNF α in serum samples were measured using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kits purchased from Genzyme Corp. (Factor-test-X for mouse TNF α , Intertest- γ for mouse IFN γ). In preliminary testing, a Factor-test-X kit was found specifically to detect mouse TNF α and no crossreactivity was observed with the recombinant human TNF α that was used for the treatment of the mice.

MTT assay

The direct cytostatic/cytotoxic effect of IL-12, TNF α and IFN γ on B16F10 melanoma cells was tested in a standard 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay as described previously [16]. Briefly, tumor cells were dispensed in a 96-well flat-bottomed microtiter plate (Nunc) at a concentration of 2.5 \times 10³ cells in 100 μ l/well. Plates were incubated overnight, and then serial

dilutions of the tested cytokines, alone or in combination, were added in quadruplicate to a final volume of 200 μ l. After an incubation period of 68 h, 25 μ l MTT (Sigma Chemicals) solution was added to each well. The plates were centrifuged 4 h later and 200 μ l supernatant was carefully removed from each well and replaced with 200 μ l acid dimethylsulfoxide. After solubilization of formazan crystals, the plates were read on an ELISA reader (Organon Technika, Reader 510), using a 540-nm filter. The cytostatic/cytotoxic effect was expressed as relative viability (percentage of control) and was calculated as follows:

$$\text{Relative viability (\%)} = \frac{\text{experimental absorbance} - \text{background absorbance}}{\text{absorbance of untreated controls} - \text{background absorbance}} \times 100$$

Assay for macrophage cytostatic/cytotoxic activity and production of nitric oxide (NO) by macrophages

B6D2F1 mice were treated *i.p.* with IL-12 (0.1 μ g, daily) and TNF α (5 μ g, daily), alone or in combination, for 3 days. One day after the last injection, peritoneal exudate cells were collected by lavage of the peritoneal cavity with chilled Dulbecco's PBS (Gibco BRL) containing 10 U/ml heparin. After centrifugation, cells were plated in 92 \times 21-mm plastic petri dishes (Nunc) in culture medium, incubated for 1 h at 37 °C in 5% CO₂, and washed gently three times with warm RPMI-1640 medium to remove non-adherent cells. Adherent cells with the morphological characteristics of macrophages were harvested by forced rinsing with cold Dulbecco's PBS (without calcium and magnesium), using a 50-ml syringe and 20-gauge needle and, in addition, any remaining cells were scraped by a rubber policeman. Following one washing, macrophages were resuspended in culture medium, counted and dispensed into wells of a 96-well flat-bottomed microtiter plate at a concentration of either 10⁵ or 5 \times 10⁴ cells in 0.1 ml/well. Then, 5 \times 10³ B16F10 melanoma cells in 0.1 ml culture medium were added to each well (within 2 h), giving the E:T ratio 20:1 or 10:1 respectively. Cultures were incubated for 3 days. The cytotoxic/cytostatic effect of macrophages on melanoma cells was tested in a standard MTT assay, where cells were incubated with MTT for the last 4 h of a 3-day culture. The antitumor effect of macrophages from IL-12- and/or TNF α -treated mice, expressed as the relative viability of tumor cells (percentage of control cultures) was calculated according to the formula: relative viability (%) = [(A_{exp} - A_{min})/(A_{max} - A_{min})] \times 100, where: A_{exp} = absorbance in experimental macrophage cultures with B16F10 melanoma cells after subtracting absorbance of macrophages alone, A_{min} = background absorbance, A_{max} = absorbance in control macrophage cultures with B16F10 melanoma cells after subtracting the absorbance of macrophages alone. The means and standard errors of the mean were determined for quadruplicate samples.

NO production by macrophages from mice treated with IL-12 and/or TNF α was assessed by nitrite accumulation in 18-h culture supernatants using a colorimetric microtiter assay with Griss reagent. Briefly, samples of 100 μ l were incubated with equal parts of 50 μ l 1% sulfanilamide dihydrochloride (Sigma) in 5% H₃PO₄ and 0.1% N-(1-naphthyl)ethylenediamine (Sigma) in distilled water at room temperature for 15 min. The absorbance was determined with an ELISA reader using a 540-nm filter. Concentrations of nitrite were determined from a linear standard curve generated from 1.25–100 μ M sodium nitrite in culture medium. The means and standard deviations were determined for triplicate samples.

Angiogenesis assay

The tumor-induced angiogenesis assay was used as described previously [18]. Briefly, female BALB/c mice were immunosuppressed by X-irradiation (6 Gy) and, 1 day later, were anesthetized with chloral hydrate and shaved on both flanks. To induce angiogenesis, each mouse was given tumor-cell suspension intradermally (3 \times 10⁵ B16F10 melanoma cells in 0.1 saline with trypan blue for better visualization of the injection site) and, after 3 days, the mice were killed and the inner surface of their skin was assessed according to Sidky and Auerbach [28] for the number of newly formed blood vessels. The effects of IL-12 and/or TNF α on angiogenic response was assessed blindly 1 day following three cytokine injections (0.1 μ g and/or 5 μ g respectively, daily, on days 0, 1, and 2).

In vivo experiments

B16F10 melanoma, LL/2 carcinoma or L1 sarcoma cells, prepared as described elsewhere [17], were injected into the footpad of the right hind limb at the dose of 1×10^6 cells (B16F10 melanoma in B6D2F1 mice and L1 sarcoma in BALB/c mice) or 5×10^5 cells (LL/2 carcinoma in B6D2F1 mice) in 20 μ l medium. Mice were treated intratumorally with IL-12 and/or TNF α according to protocols that are presented in the legends of tables and figures showing the results of individual experiments, starting from day 7 after tumor cell inoculation. Cytokines were given at daily doses of 1 μ g or 0.1 μ g (IL-12) and 5 μ g or 1 μ g (TNF α) in 20 μ l 0.1% BSA/PBS. Each injection of cytokines was paralleled by i.t. injections of 0.1% BSA/PBS into mice from the control groups. Local tumor growth was determined by measuring footpad diameter (anterior-posterior dimension) with calipers every 2 days, starting from day 7 following inoculation of tumor cells. Tumor size was calculated according to the formula: tumor diameter = (diameter of footpad with growing tumor) - (diameter of non-treated contralateral footpad). Independently, in all experiments, two-dimensional measurements of the footpad (anterior-posterior + side-to-side measure) were performed to evaluate the tumor growth. No substantial difference between the one-dimensional and two-dimensional methods of evaluation of the tumor size was found.

Statistical analysis

Differences between samples in tests in vitro and differences in tumor diameter in experiments in vivo were analyzed for significance by Student's *t*-test (two-tailed). To determine the difference in mouse survival between experimental groups, the Mann-Whitney *U*-test was used.

Results

Antitumor effects of IL-12 and TNF α against B16F10 melanoma, LL/2 carcinoma, and L1 sarcoma

To evaluate the effects of IL-12 and TNF α on B16F10 melanoma, LL/2 carcinoma, and L1 sarcoma, mice were injected with tumor cells on day 0 and treated i.t. daily with IL-12 and/or TNF α , starting on day 7 after tumor cell inoculation. As shown in Fig. 1A, administration of IL-12 at a daily dose of 1 μ g for 7 days induced significant retardation of the B16F10 melanoma growth ($P < 0.05$, from day 17). TNF α was ineffective in this treatment schedule. The most potent antitumor effect was observed when melanoma-bearing mice were treated with both TNF α and IL-12. This double-cytokine treatment produced a significant delay of tumor progression, not only in comparison with controls and TNF α -treated mice (from day 17, $P < 0.01$ and $P < 0.05$ respectively) but also when compared with mice treated with IL-12 alone (from day 23, $P < 0.05$). The delay in tumor growth in mice treated with TNF α + IL-12 resulted in nonsignificant prolongation of mouse survival (the median survival time in this group was 62 days, in comparison with 46 days in IL-12-treated mice, 39 days in TNF α -treated animals, and 42 days in diluent-injected controls). The combined treatment with IL-12 and TNF α was also effective in LL/2 carcinoma and L1 sarcoma (Figs. 1B, 2) despite the lower IL-12 doses that were used in these models. The reduction of the IL-12 dose was necessary to avoid toxic effects. Beginning on day 13, significantly smaller tumors were observed in LL/2-carcinoma-bearing mice injected with IL-12 and TNF α together

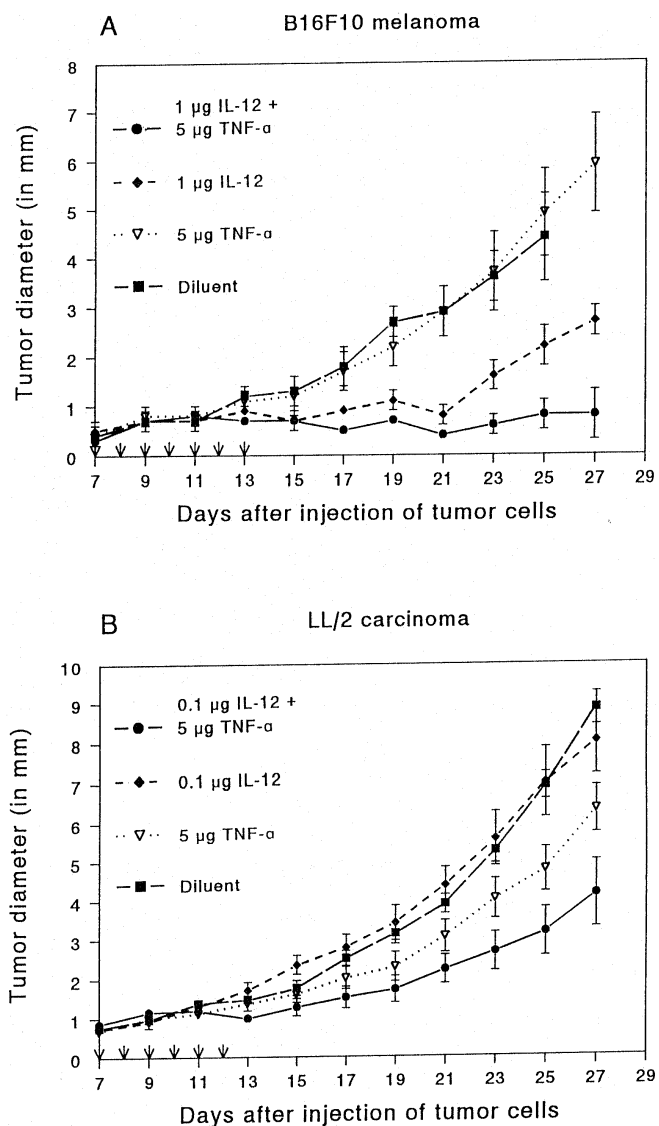


Fig. 1A, B Effect of treatment with interleukin-12 (IL-12) and/or tumor necrosis factor α (TNF α) on growth of B16F10 melanoma and Lewis lung (LL/2) carcinoma. **A** Mice were inoculated with 10^6 melanoma cells into the footpad of the right hind limb and then treated intratumorally with 1 μ g IL-12 and/or 5 μ g TNF α per day, starting on day 7 after tumor inoculation for 7 consecutive days (arrows). **B** Mice were inoculated with 5×10^5 LL/2 carcinoma cells into the footpad of the right hind limb and then treated intratumorally with 0.1 μ g IL-12 and/or 5 μ g TNF α per day for 6 consecutive days, starting on day 7 after tumor inoculation (arrows). Groups consisted of four to six mice. Data are expressed as means \pm SE

noma-bearing mice injected with IL-12 and TNF α together (0.1 μ g and 5 μ g respectively, for 6 days) in comparison with controls or the IL-12-treated group ($P = 0.01$ and $P < 0.05$ respectively) (Fig. 1B). Under the same experimental conditions, IL-12 was completely ineffective, and TNF α produced a statistically significant retardation of tumor growth in the last two measurements (on days 25 and 27, $P < 0.01$).

In comparison with B6D2F1 mice injected with B16F10 melanoma or LL/2 carcinoma, BALB/c mice bearing L1

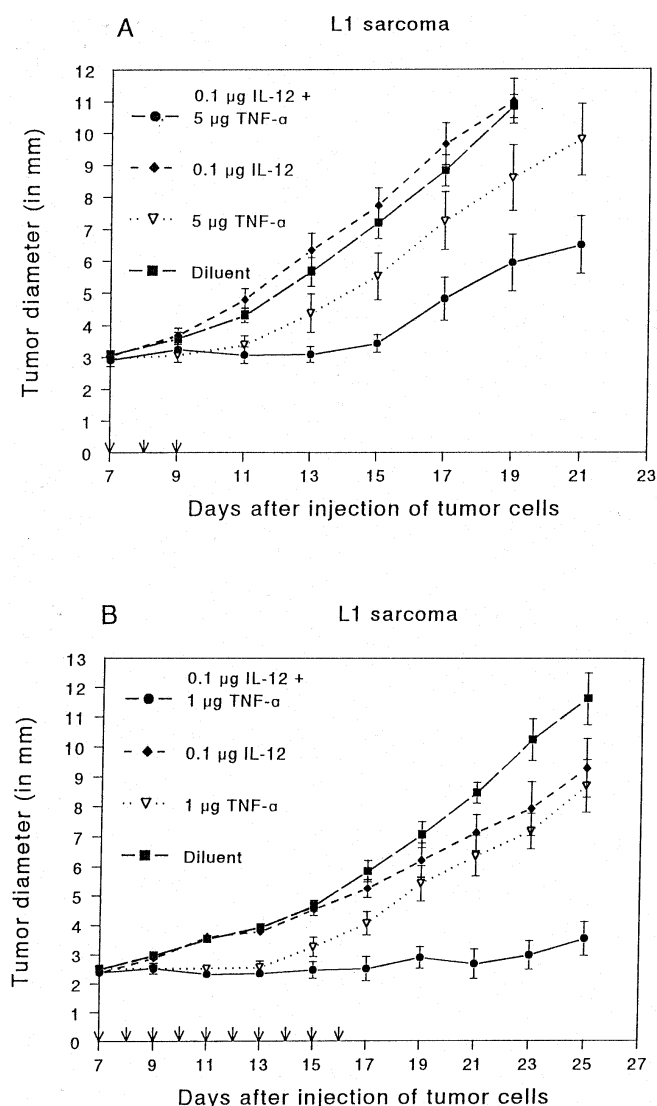


Fig. 2A, B Effect of treatment with IL-12 and/or TNF α on growth of L1 sarcoma. Mice were inoculated with 1×10^6 L1 sarcoma cells into the footpad of the right hind limb and treated intratumorally with 0.1 μ g IL-12 and/or 5 μ g TNF α per day for 3 consecutive days (A) or with 0.1 μ g IL-12 and/or 1 μ g TNF α per day for 10 consecutive days (B), starting on day 7 after tumor inoculation (arrows). Groups consisted of five or six mice. Data are expressed as means \pm SE

sarcoma were found to be very susceptible to the action of IL-12 + TNF α (and also to TNF α alone). One of six mice treated with both cytokines died on day 10 after tumor inoculation, so a 3-day treatment schedule was adopted. We observed a similar high susceptibility of BALB/c mice in our earlier studies on the effect of TNF α and actinomycin D [17]. As shown in Fig. 2A, the response pattern of L1 sarcoma to the treatment with IL-12 and/or TNF α was quite similar to that observed in LL/2 carcinoma. Significant retardation of tumor growth was demonstrated in mice treated with both cytokines ($P < 0.01$, as compared with IL-12- or diluent-treated mice from day 11, and $P < 0.05$, as compared with mice injected with TNF α alone on day 15),

Table 1 Serum levels of endogenous interferon γ (IFN γ) and tumor necrosis factor α (TNF α) following treatment with recombinant mouse interleukin-12 (IL-12) and recombinant human TNF α . Mice were treated intratumorally for 1 week with IL-12 (0.1 μ g, daily) and/or TNF α (5 μ g, daily), beginning on day 7 after tumor inoculation. Mice were bled 4 h after the last injection and levels of endogenous IFN γ and TNF α were measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay, as described in Materials and methods. Data represent mean \pm SE serum levels from four or five mice per group

Treatment	IFN γ level (pg/ml)	TNF α level (pg/ml)
IL-12	7811 \pm 1804*	51 \pm 23**
TNF α	0 \pm 0	12 \pm 1
IL-12 + TNF α	1978 \pm 513	56 \pm 8***
Diluent	0 \pm 0	5 \pm 4

* $P < 0.001$ as compared with the group receiving IL-12 + TNF α

** $P < 0.01$ as compared with diluent-treated mice

*** $P < 0.001$ as compared with diluent-treated mice

while administration of TNF α produced a minor antitumor effect ($P < 0.05$, as compared with controls on day 11 only) and IL-12 treatment was completely ineffective. To determine if a decrease of TNF α dose could reduce toxicity in BALB/c mice, 1 μ g instead of 5 μ g TNF α was used with 0.1 μ g IL-12 in mice inoculated with L1 sarcoma. As seen in Fig. 2B, application of a lower dose of TNF α allowed prolongation of cytokine treatment (10 days) while potentiation of the antitumor effect of TNF α by IL-12 was still preserved [$P < 0.001$, from day 11, when compared with controls or IL-12-treated mice, and $P < 0.05$ on day 17 (and $P < 0.01$ from day 19), when compared with mice treated with TNF α]. What is more important, no life-threatening toxicity was found in this treatment schedule and, in one mouse in the group treated with both cytokines, complete tumor regression was observed. In both the LL/2 carcinoma and L1 sarcoma models, treatment of mice with IL-12 in combination with TNF α resulted in slightly longer survivals in comparison with those observed in other groups. However, the differences did not reach statistical significance (data not shown).

Serum levels of endogenous IFN γ and TNF α

Since one of the properties of IL-12 in vivo is its ability to induce the secretion of IFN γ [21], we decided to measure serum level of this cytokine, as well as the level of endogenously produced TNF α , shortly after the 7-day course of IL-12/TNF α treatment in tumor-bearing mice. As shown in Table 1, high levels of IFN γ were detected in sera of mice treated with 0.1 μ g IL-12 (mean 7811 pg/ml, $P < 0.001$ in comparison with controls). Surprisingly, combination therapy with 0.1 μ g IL-12 and 5 μ g TNF α induced a much lower level of IFN γ in the serum (mean 1978 pg/ml, $P < 0.001$ as compared with the IL-12-treated group or controls). Treatment with IL-12, alone or in combination with TNF α , also led to elevation of the endogenous TNF α level, but this increase was not so dramatic as that of IFN γ (51 pg/ml TNF α was detected in the serum of IL-12-treated

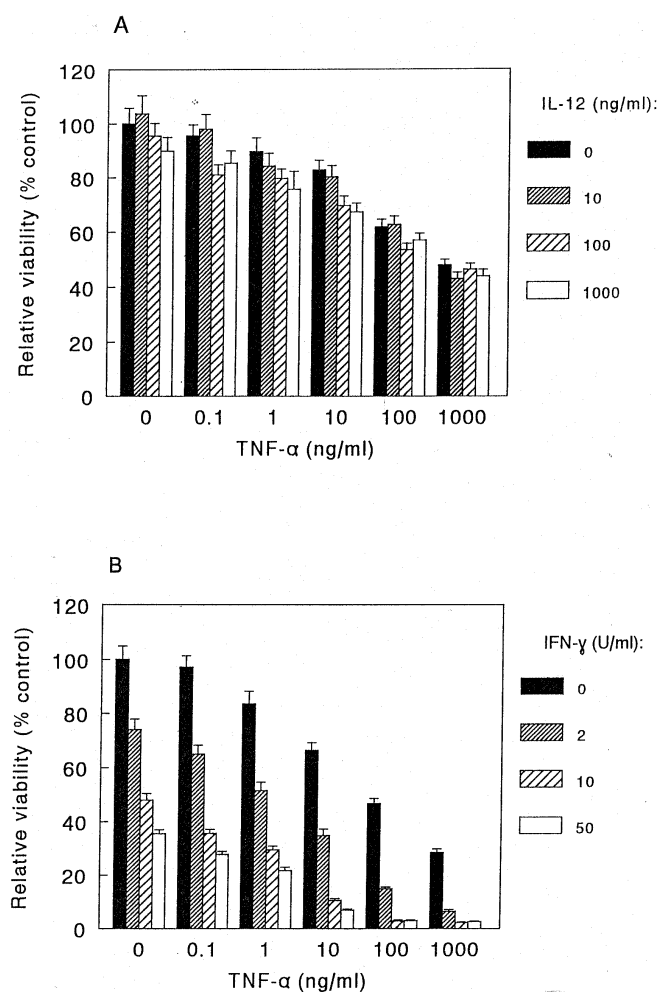


Fig. 3A, B Effects of IL-12 and TNF α , or interferon γ (IFN γ) and TNF α on B16F10 melanoma cells in vitro. One-day-old monolayers of melanoma cells were exposed for 72 h to various concentrations of IL-12 and TNF α (A) or IFN γ and TNF α (B). Cytostatic/cytotoxic effects of cytokines, expressed as relative viability (percentage of control), were tested in a standard MTT assay (see Materials and methods). Data are expressed as means \pm SE

mice and 56 pg/ml TNF α in mice treated with both IL-12 and TNF α , $P < 0.01$ and $P < 0.001$ respectively in comparison with controls).

The combination of IL-12 and TNF α in vitro, in contrast to the IFN γ and TNF α combination, does not seem to result in potentiation of the cytostatic/cytotoxic effect on B16F10 melanoma cells

To determine whether the direct antitumor effect of IL-12 could contribute to inhibition of the tumor growth following treatment with IL-12 + TNF α in vivo, B16F10 melanoma cells were incubated in vitro with IL-12 and/or TNF α for 3 days and the viability of cells was tested in a MTT assay. As shown in Fig. 3A, TNF α exerted a dose-dependent cytostatic/cytotoxic effect in this experiment. Adding IL-12 to melanoma cell cultures seemed to reduce the viability of

Table 2 Antitumor activity of peritoneal macrophages from IL-12 and/or TNF α -treated mice against B16F10 melanoma cells. Mice were treated i.p. with IL-12 (0.1 μ g, daily) and/or TNF α (5 μ g, daily) for 3 days (three or four mice per group). Peritoneal macrophages, obtained as described in Materials and methods, were dispensed into wells of a 96-well flat-bottomed microtiter plate at a concentration of either 1×10^5 or 5×10^4 cells/well. Then, 5×10^3 B16F10 melanoma cells were added to each well within 2 h, giving the E:T ratio 20:1 or 10:1 respectively. After a 3-day incubation, cytostatic/cytotoxic effects of macrophages on melanoma cells, expressed as the relative viability of tumor cells (% of control cultures), were tested in a standard MTT assay (see Materials and methods)

Source of macrophages	Viability of B16F10 melanoma cells in cultures with macrophages, mean \pm SE (% of control cultures)	
	E:T = 20:1	E:T = 10:1
Mice treated with:		
IL-12	51 \pm 2	55 \pm 2
TNF α	118 \pm 7	128 \pm 3
IL-12 + TNF α	38 \pm 2*	58 \pm 4
Diluent	100 \pm 4	100 \pm 1

* Significantly different in comparison with each other group ($P < 0.001$), at the 20:1 ratio

melanoma cells, at least in cultures in which TNF α was combined with the highest concentration of IL-12 (1000 ng/ml). However, only in three IL-12/TNF α combinations (for TNF α concentrations 0.1, 10 and 100 ng/ml) was the difference statistically significant ($P < 0.001$, $P < 0.001$, and $P < 0.05$ respectively, as compared with cultures with no IL-12). In contrast, strong cytostatic/cytotoxic effects against melanoma cells were observed when TNF α was combined with IFN γ (Fig. 3B). In cultures with the highest concentrations of TNF α and IFN γ almost no viable tumor cells were detected. Therefore, it seems highly probable that the tumor-growth-inhibitory effect observed when IL-12 was injected intratumorally together with TNF α was due to the IL-12-induced stimulation of IFN γ production rather than any direct effect of IL-12 itself.

Augmented antitumor activity of macrophages from mice treated with IL-12 and TNF α

As shown in Table 1, treatment with IL-12 induced a high level of IFN γ in serum. Since, in many experimental settings in vitro, IFN γ has been demonstrated to synergize with TNF α in stimulation of macrophages for tumoricidal activity [5, 14, 16], we decided to examine whether the combined treatment of mice with IL-12 and TNF α could produce a similar effect in vivo. To study this problem, mice were treated i.p. with IL-12 and/or TNF α for 3 days, and the antitumor effects of ex vivo peritoneal macrophages was tested against B16F10 cells in a 3-day MTT assay. The data presented in Table 2 show that, indeed, the mechanisms considered above could contribute to the antitumor effects of IL-12/TNF α -based therapy and could explain the higher antitumor efficacy of double-cytokine treatment in comparison with single-agent therapy. Ex vivo macro-

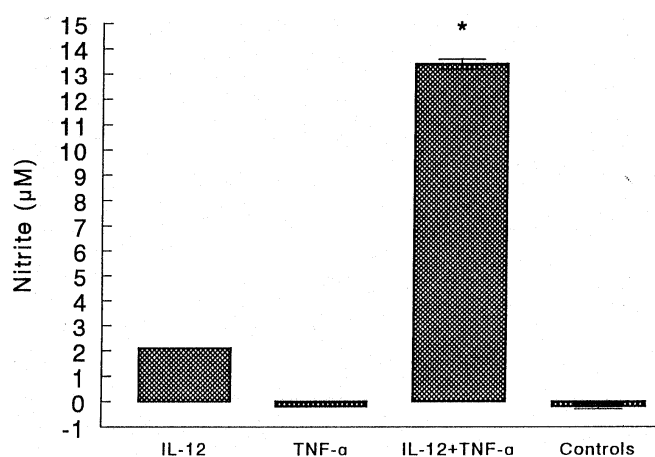


Fig. 4 Nitric oxide (NO) production by macrophages from mice treated with IL-12 and/or TNF α . Peritoneal macrophages from mice treated with 0.1 μ g IL-12 and/or 5 μ g TNF α for 3 days were cultured for 18 h and NO production was then assessed by nitrite accumulation in culture supernatants as described in Materials and methods. Data are expressed as means \pm SE. * P <0.001 as compared with other groups

phages from mice treated with both cytokines together were able to inhibit proliferation of B16F10 melanoma cells in cultures more effectively than those from either IL-12- or TNF α -treated mice (P <0.001, at the E:T ratio of 20:1). This effect, at least in part, was mediated by nitric oxide (Fig. 4).

Antiangiogenic effects of IL-12 and TNF α

In studies by Voest et al. [34], IL-12 has been proven to inhibit fibroblast-growth-factor-induced corneal neovascularization. To determine whether IL-12, alone or in combination with TNF α , could induce a similar effect in the tumor, we used the tumor-cell-induced angiogenesis model, which was effective in previous studies on retinoids and IFN α [18]. As shown in Fig. 5, short-term (3 days) intraperitoneal administration of either 0.1 μ g IL-12 or 5 μ g TNF α resulted in significant inhibition of blood vessel formation at the site of B16F10 cell injection (a mean of 21.1 and 21.9 blood vessels in IL-12- and TNF α -treated mice respectively, in comparison with 23.9 blood vessels in diluent-injected controls, P <0.001). The combined treatment with IL-12 and TNF α was more effective in inhibiting the formation of new blood vessels than was treatment with either cytokine alone (a mean of 19.1 blood vessels, P <0.001 as compared with TNF α -treated and P <0.01 as compared with IL-12-treated mice) - altogether a 20% decrease in the number of newly formed vessels was observed in comparison with controls (P <0.001).

Discussion

In the present study, the combination immunotherapy with IL-12 and TNF α resulted in potentiation of antitumor

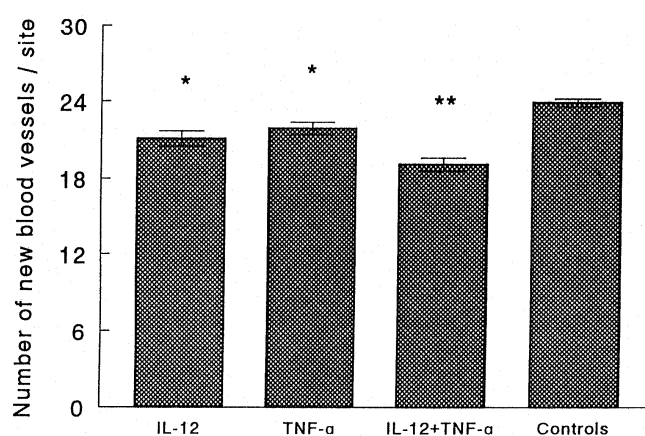


Fig. 5 Effects of IL-12 and TNF α on tumor-cell-induced angiogenesis. X-irradiated BALB/c mice were injected intradermally with 3×10^5 B16F10 melanoma cells and treated intraperitoneally for 3 consecutive days with 0.1 μ g IL-12 and/or 5 μ g TNF α per day, starting on the day of tumor cell inoculation. Angiogenic response was evaluated blindly 1 day following the last cytokine injection. Data are expressed as mean number \pm SE of newly formed blood vessels at a single injection site. Each group consisted of four mice injected with B16F10 cells into three or four sites. * P <0.001 as compared with controls, ** P <0.01 as compared with TNF α -treated mice and P <0.001 as compared with controls and mice treated with IL-12

effects in three different tumor models in mice, both sensitive and non-sensitive to antitumor activity of TNF α (Figs. 1, 2). TNF α did not by itself show any antitumor activity against B16F10 melanoma at a daily dose of 5 μ g but it significantly strengthened the antitumor effects of 1 μ g IL-12 when used in a 7-day treatment schedule (Fig. 1A). In Lewis lung carcinoma and L1 sarcoma models, minor antitumor activity displayed by TNF α was potentiated when the same dose of TNF α (5 μ g) was applied with a lower dose of IL-12 (0.1 μ g) (Figs. 1B, 2A), and also, in the case of L1 sarcoma, when 1 μ g TNF α was combined with 0.1 μ g IL-12 (Fig. 2B). Retardation of the tumor growth was not associated with significant prolongation of mouse survival in our treatment schedule (one cycle of daily injections). However, it is highly probable that changing the therapeutic protocol (e.g. administration of cytokines in several cycles) would improve the overall results and could bring about statistically significant differences in mouse survival between groups.

Augmentation of the antitumor effect by IL-12 and TNF α has not been reported to date. The only study dealing with combined use of IL-12 and TNF α examined the in vitro effect of these and other cytokines on splenocytes from severe combined immunodeficiency (SCID) mice: an increase in the IFN γ level was found in splenocyte cultures incubated with IL-12 and TNF α [32]. Since IFN γ seems to play an important role in the development of the antitumor effects of IL-12 [21] and since IFN γ has been demonstrated to synergize in the antitumor effect with TNF α [2, 30], it could be assumed that the beneficial antitumor effect of the IL-12 + TNF α -based therapy could result, at least in part, from the joint action and cooperation of TNF α and IFN γ . In

an attempt to shed more light on the participation of endogenously produced IFN γ (and also TNF α) in antitumor effects observed in our study, we measured serum levels of these cytokines in mice treated with IL-12 and/or TNF α . Treatment with IL-12 induced high serum levels of IFN γ (Table 1), confirming observations of other authors who demonstrated stimulation of IFN γ production *in vivo* by IL-12 [21, 11]. Unexpectedly, in mice treated with IL-12 in combination with TNF α , IFN γ levels were significantly lower, suggesting that antitumor effects observed in mice treated with both cytokines could be mediated, at least in part, by IFN γ -independent mechanisms. The possibility cannot be excluded that lower IFN γ levels in mice treated with IL-12 and TNF α , in comparison with those in mice injected with IL-12 alone, could result from exhaustion of NK cells [11] (and maybe other cells) responsible for IFN γ production. Rapid consumption of IFN γ in the course of IL-12 and TNF α therapy can also be considered, as up-regulation of IFN γ receptors has been observed on monocytic cells following treatment with TNF α [23].

Apart from stimulating the IFN γ production, IL-12, alone or in combination with TNF α , induced increased production of endogenous TNF α in our system (Table 1). Stimulation of TNF α synthesis by IL-12 has also been observed by other investigators [21]. Taking into account high-level production of IFN γ induced by IL-12 treatment (Table 1) it could be supposed that some of the augmented antitumor activity observed in tumor-bearing mice treated with IL-12 in combination with TNF α could result from well-established synergistic antitumor effects of IFN γ and TNF α [2, 16, 30]. This synergy *in vivo* was also demonstrated in our previous study and could result from both direct and indirect antitumor activity of TNF α and IFN γ . In the present study we confirmed potentiation of cytostatic/cytotoxic activity of TNF α and IFN γ on B16F10 melanoma cells *in vitro* (Fig. 3B). According to earlier reports, synergistic cytostatic/cytotoxic effects of IFN γ and TNF α against various tumor cells was probably due to reciprocal regulation of receptor expression exerted by these cytokines [23, 33]. Additive rather than synergistic interactions between TNF α and IFN γ are probably responsible for melanoma cell killing in our experiments, as the net cytostatic/cytotoxic effect against B16F10 cells in cultures with both cytokines is the sum of effects of each agent used alone (Fig. 3B).

As far as indirect antitumor effects of IFN γ and TNF α are concerned, these cytokines could synergize in inducing tumoricidal activity of macrophages *in vitro* [5, 14], which was also demonstrated in our previous report on a MmB16 melanoma in mice [16]. In the present study, we examined antitumor activity of *ex vivo* macrophages isolated from mice treated with IL-12 and/or with TNF α . As shown in Table 2, macrophages from mice treated with IL-12 + TNF α exerted significantly greater antitumor activity against melanoma B16F10 cells and produced more NO (Fig. 4) as compared with macrophages isolated from any other group. Since infiltration by macrophages is a common feature of melanoma [13], and since tumors regressing after local IL-12 delivery contained an increased macrophage

infiltrate [36], macrophage tumoricidal activity could participate in potentiating antitumor effects observed in our *in vivo* study in mice treated with IL-12 and TNF α .

It has long been known that vascular endothelial cells in tumor blood vessels constitute one of the targets of TNF activity. TNF exhibits cytostatic and cytotoxic effects on endothelial cells [24], inhibits their migration [20], and induces procoagulant activity in these cells, adding thrombus formation in tumor blood vessels and hemorrhagic necrosis of the tumor to the mechanisms responsible for antitumor effects of this cytokine [26]. IL-12 has only recently been shown to exhibit angiostatic activity [25]. IFN γ -induced C-X-C chemokine, known as interferon-inducible protein 10 (IP-10), has been implicated in the angiostatic effects of IL-12 and IFN γ . In our experiments, both IL-12 and TNF α exerted mild but significant angiostatic activity and this activity was significantly increased in mice subjected to combined IL-12 + TNF α treatment (Fig. 5). Therefore, the possibility cannot be excluded that the antiangiogenic effect could play a role in a strengthened antitumor activity of our IL-12 + TNF α experimental protocol and could especially be expressed in the long-term treatment schedule (Fig. 2B).

Since induction of IFN γ production is important [21] but not sufficient [3] to explain all antitumor effects of IL-12, other mechanisms, besides those discussed above, could participate in potentiating the antitumor activity exerted by IL-12/TNF α immunotherapy. IL-12 exhibits pleiotropic immunological activities, which include promotion of the development of Th1 clones and enhancement of NK- and T-cell-mediated cytotoxicity [10, 15, 19]. Similarly, TNF α mediates a broad range of immunoregulatory effects and, apart from influencing macrophage function [5], facilitates the generation of cytotoxic cells and enhances the expression of MHC antigens (for review see [27]). As far as NK cells are concerned, they seem to contribute significantly to the antitumor effect of IL-12/TNF α -based therapy only at the beginning of the treatment. Similarly to Gately et al. [11], we observed a sharp increase of NK activity (against YAC-1 cells) in cultures of splenocytes from mice treated with a single dose of IL-12, alone or in combination with TNF α . Prolonged daily administration of IL-12 caused a decline in NK activity (data not presented). A specific T cell response may also play a role in the antitumor effects in IL-12/TNF α -treated mice since the induction of antitumor immunity by mouse tumor cells transfected with the IL-12 gene has recently been reported [22] and CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T lymphocytes seemed to be necessary for optimal antitumor activity following *in vivo* treatment with IL-12 [21]. However, further studies should be performed to test this hypothesis.

One of the strategies to broaden the therapeutic margin of cytokines in cancer treatment is to use them together or in combination with chemotherapeutics. For example, TNF α with IFN γ (and melphalan) have been successfully applied in the treatment of locally growing tumors in an isolated-limb perfusion model [8]. Quite recently, it has been reported that, in IL-12-based immunotherapy, the amount of this cytokine at the tumor site was critical for

the antitumor effects [6]. These observations make IL-12/TNF α combination immunotherapy a potential therapeutic approach that could be useful in a locoregional treatment of neoplasia, which is supported by the results of our present studies in a murine model.

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