

# Mapping In Vivo Tumor Oxygenation within Viable Tumor by <sup>19</sup>F-MRI and **Multispectral Analysis<sup>1</sup>**

Yunzhou Shi\*, Jason Oeh† , Jeffrey Eastham-Anderson<sup>‡</sup>, Sharon Yee<sup>†</sup>, David Finkle<sup>t</sup>, Franklin V. Peale Jr<sup>‡</sup>, Jed Ross<sup>\*</sup>, Maj Hedehus\*, Nicholas van Bruggen\*, Rayna Venook† , Sarajane Ross† , Deepak Sampath† and Richard A. D. Carano\*

\*Department of Biomedical Imaging, Genentech Inc, South San Francisco, CA; † Department of Translational Oncology, Genentech Inc, South San Francisco, CA; <sup>‡</sup>Department of Pathology, Genentech Inc, South San Francisco, CA

## Abstract

Quantifying oxygenation in viable tumor remains a major obstacle toward a better understanding of the tumor microenvironment and improving treatment strategies. Current techniques are often complicated by tumor heterogeneity. Herein, a novel in vivo approach that combines <sup>19</sup>F magnetic resonance imaging (<sup>19</sup>F-MRI)  $R_1$  mapping with diffusionbased multispectral (MS) analysis is introduced. This approach restricts the partial pressure of oxygen (pO<sub>2</sub>) measurements to viable tumor, the tissue of therapeutic interest. The technique exhibited sufficient sensitivity to detect a breathing gas challenge in a xenograft tumor model, and the hypoxic region measured by MS<sup>19</sup>F-MRI was strongly correlated with histologic estimates of hypoxia. This approach was then applied to address the effects of antivascular agents on tumor oxygenation, which is a research question that is still under debate. The technique was used to monitor longitudinal  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  changes in response to an antibody to vascular endothelial growth factor (B20.4.1.1) and a selective dual phosphoinositide 3-kinase/mammalian target of rapamycin inhibitor (GDC-0980). GDC-0980 reduced viable tumor  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  during a 3-day treatment period, and a significant reduction was also produced by B20.4.1.1. Overall, this method provides an unprecedented view of viable tumor  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  and contributes to a greater understanding of the effects of antivascular therapies on the tumor's microenvironment.

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## Introduction

Regional hypoxia is one of the most important factors regulating tumor growth as well as influencing the clinical outcome after therapeutic intervention [1,2]. Assessing tumor regional hypoxia quantitatively, both spatially and temporally, is challenging because of the need for a noninvasive technique and the complications arising from heterogeneity in tumor morphometry. A number of techniques have been developed in an effort to better visualize tumor hypoxia, either by detecting the presence of hypoxic cells or quantitatively measuring the partial pressure of oxygen  $(pO_2)$  [3]. Hypoxic cells can be detected immunohistochemically or by positron emission tomography in which 2-nitroimidazole–like imaging markers covalently bind to hypoxic cells. However, these methods are single time-point measurements and are dependent on a biochemical reaction. Direct  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  measurements can be achieved by several techniques that each face individual limitations: polarographic electrodes invasively measure oxygenation in the local tissue around the electrode; optical measurements are severely

limited by penetration depth; Overhauser imaging and electron paramagnetic resonance imaging are not as readily available to most research groups as alternative imaging approaches, such as magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) [3].  $^{19}$ F-MRI oximetry [4–7], which uses perfluorocarbon (PFC) emulsions as an imaging contrast agent, is a noninvasive method that can map tumor  $pO_2$  in vivo. Compared to <sup>1</sup>H-MRI pO<sub>2</sub> techniques [8,9], <sup>19</sup>F-MRI has no background signal resulting in a  $pO_2$  signal that is specific to the contrast agent. Given that PFCs are well tolerated in animals and are highly stable in tissue,

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Address all correspondence to: Richard A. D. Carano, PhD, Genentech, Inc, MS-228, 1 DNA Way, South San Francisco, CA 94080. E-mail: carano.richard@gene.com

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the use of PFCs allows repeated measurements [10]. The underlying principle is that the spin-lattice, or longitudinal, relaxation rate  $(R_1)$ of certain PFCs is a linear function of oxygen levels at a given temperature. Therefore, the power of <sup>19</sup>F-MRI oximetry is that the  $pO<sub>2</sub>$ measurement is independent of the absolute <sup>19</sup>F signal intensity (PFC uptake). Taken together, <sup>19</sup>F-MRI can provide a direct noninvasive oxygen measurement [4–7].

Unfortunately, all of these attempts to measure tumor oxygenation suffer from the confounding effects of tumor heterogeneity. Regional hypoxia, associated with the spatial heterogeneity of tumor perfusion and metabolism, contributes to the heterogeneous tissue morphology of solid tumors [2,11]. Tumor heterogeneity can complicate the quantification of tissue  $pO_2$  for a number of reasons, including the following: sampling errors associated with point measurements (e.g., polarographic electrodes), variability in the distribution of the contrast agent, and the inclusion of nonviable tumor regions in whole-tumor estimates. To address tumor heterogeneity, Carano et al. developed a diffusion-based multispectral (MS) technique to distinguish regions of viable tumor, necrosis, and subcutaneous adipose tissue based on the apparent diffusion coefficient (ADC), spin-spin relaxation time  $(T_2)$ , and proton density  $(M_0)$  [12]. Specifically, the viable tumor, the tissue of therapeutic interest, was previously found to be well correlated with a histologic estimate of viable tumor [12].

A novel approach that combines <sup>19</sup>F-MRI  $R_1$  mapping with a diffusion-based MS analysis approach as a means to spatially map in vivo  $pO_2$  in the viable tumor, the tissue of therapeutic interest, is presented in this manuscript. Using a breathing gas challenge experiment, it is shown that  $pO_2$  measurements can be restricted to the viable tumor, the most relevant area of the tumor rather than including the necrotic areas as occurs with whole-tumor estimates.

The ultimate goal of developing this approach is to study hypoxia in the tissue of therapeutic interest (viable tumor) during tumor progression and to monitor the response to treatments. Specifically, the effects of antivascular agents on tumor oxygenation have been in question for a number of years, where differing responses for tumor  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  have been reported [11,13–16]. To address this question, an antibody that blocks both murine and human vascular endothelial growth factor A (VEGF-A; B20.4.1.1) was evaluated by MS  $^{19}$ F-MRI. B20.4.1.1 has been previously shown to reduce vascular density [17] and, thus, may alter  $O_2$  supply through this mechanism. Furthermore, a novel dual phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K)/mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) inhibitor, GDC-0980, that potentially could affect both  $O_2$  supply and consumption was evaluated. The PI3K/mTOR pathway is a key signaling pathway in human cancer. The pathway not only plays an important role in tumor cell signaling, which affects  $O_2$  consumption, but also is a key component of VEGF receptor 2 intracellular signaling in vascular endothelial cells, which can affect  $O_2$  supply [17]. The potent and selective dual PI3K/mTOR inhibitor, GDC-0980, has been shown to produce a strong and rapid antivascular response in murine xenograft tumor models [17]. However, the effects of dual PI3K/mTOR inhibition on tumor oxygen level remain unknown. Given that GDC-0980 has entered clinical development [18], it will be valuable to ascertain the tumor metabolic changes associated with PI3K/mTOR inhibition.

## Materials and Methods

## PFC Emulsion Preparation

Perfluoro-15-crown-5-ether (SynQuest Laboratories, Inc, Alachua, FL) was mixed with an emulsifying solution of lecithin soy (MP Biomedicals, Solon, OH) and lactated Ringers solution (Baxter, Deerfield, IL). The mixture was processed using a microfluidizer (LV1; Microfluidics, Newton, MA) at 30,000 psi to form emulsions with a mean diameter of 250 nm, as measured by dynamic light scattering (DynaPro Nanostar; Wyatt Technology, Santa Barbara, CA). The final concentration of perfluoro-15-crown-5-ether was 60% wt/vol. The PFC solutions were then sterilized by microfiltration using membrane filters with a pore size of 0.45 μm (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) and adjusted to a pH of 7.4.

## Animal Preparation

The Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at Genentech Inc (South San Francisco, CA) approved all animal protocols in this study. Female athymic nude mice ( $n = 50$ , 20-25 g; Harlan Laboratories, Indianapolis, IN) were inoculated subcutaneously on the hindlimb with HM-7 colorectal cancer cells  $(3.5 \times 10^6$  cells per mouse). The animals that were used in the study had an approximate tumor volume range of 150 to 250 mm<sup>3</sup> (volume =  $0.5 \times$  length  $\times$  width<sup>2</sup>) at the time when the animals entered the study. Animals were injected intravenously (i.v.) with 400 μl of the PFC solution at 48 hours and, again, at 24 hours before MRI.

Mice were placed under anesthesia by administration of 2% isoflurane in a warm anesthesia induction box and then placed in a custom-built animal holder and moved to the magnet bore, where anesthesia was maintained with 1% to 2% isoflurane that was adjusted according to the respiration rate of the animal. The animals' breathing rate was monitored, and temperature was maintained at 37°C using warm airflow controlled by a LabVIEW software module with feedback provided by a rectal temperature probe (SA Instruments, Stony Brook, NY).

#### MRI Measurements

Experiments were performed on a 9.4-T Agilent MRI System equipped with a <sup>1</sup>H/<sup>19</sup>F 10-mm surface coil (Agilent Technologies Inc, Santa Clara, CA). <sup>1</sup>H-MRI measurements were performed first. Twelve 1-mm-thick coronal slices were acquired (field of view = 25.6 × 25.6 mm, matrix =  $64 \times 64$ ). A diffusion-weighted fast spin-echo multislice (FSEMS) sequence was used to calculate an ADC spatial map with the following parameters: six b values ranging from 270 to 1000 s/mm<sup>2</sup>, repetition time  $(TR) = 3$  seconds, echo train length = 4, echo spacing = 3.95 milliseconds, number of averages (NA) = 2, diffusion gradient separation ( $\Delta$ ) = 30 milliseconds, duration ( $\delta$ ) = 3.3 milliseconds, resulting in a total scan time of 9 minutes. A spin echo multislice (SEMS) sequence was used to generate  $T_2$  and  $M_0$  maps that employed the following parameters: echo times = 5, 26, 47, and 68 milliseconds,  $TR = 3$  seconds,  $NA = 1$ , and a scan time of 12 minutes. Spatial maps of ADC were obtained from the diffusion data by applying a linear leastsquares regression to the natural logarithm of the signal intensity. Similarly,  $T_2$  maps were obtained from the  $T_2$ -weighted, spin-echo data by a linear least-squares regression [12].

<sup>19</sup>F-MRI was then carried out (field of view =  $25.6 \times 25.6$  mm, matrix =  $32 \times 32$ , zero-filled to  $64 \times 64$ ). A <sup>19</sup>F-weighted SEMS sequence was used to obtain a fluorine anatomic reference image (TR = 5 seconds, echo time = 8.5 milliseconds, NA = 4, scan time of 10 minutes).  $A^{19}F$  single-shot, inversion recovery FSEMS sequence was employed to generate spatial maps of  $R_1$  [FSEMS, inversion times  $(TI) = 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.9, 1.2, 1.8, and 2.5 seconds; TR =$ 6 seconds, echo spacing = 4.1 milliseconds, echo train length = 32,

NA = 32, a scan time of 29 minutes]. Then, the  $R_1$  of the <sup>19</sup>F nucleus was calculated by using the following equation [19]:

$$
I(TI) = I_0 * (1 - a * e^{-R_1 * TI}),
$$
\n(1)

where I(TI) is the signal intensity at time TI,  $I_0$  is the signal intensity at equilibrium magnetization,  $a$  is a coefficient, and  $R_1$  is the spin-lattice relaxation rate.  $R_1$ , a, and  $I_0$  are determined from Equation 1 using a nonlinear regression algorithm. The  $pO_2$  was then determined according to the calibration curve between  $R_1$  and  $pO_2$ . The calibration curve was obtained by measuring the  $R_1$  of PFC phantoms at known concentrations of dissolved oxygen (0%, 10%, 21%, 60%, and 100%). Twentyone percent of oxygen corresponds to 160 mm Hg, and 100% of oxygen corresponds to 760 mm Hg. Phantoms were prepared in triplets.

#### MS Analysis

 $MS$  analysis of the  ${}^{1}H$  data was used for tissue segmentation. K -means (KM) clustering was performed using the ADC, proton density, and  $T_2$  maps as previously described [12,20,21]. The KM algorithm segmented the tumors into the following four tissue classes: viable tumor tissue, subcutaneous adipose tissue, low- $T_2$  necrotic class, and high-ADC necrotic class. The low- $T_2$  necrotic class represents an area of necrosis with active or recent hemorrhage, and the high-ADC necrotic class has been found to represent an acellular "cyst-like" region [12]. The tissue class map was combined with the <sup>19</sup>F pO<sub>2</sub> map to estimate  $pO_2$  in the four tissue classes.

#### Histologic Analysis

After the final imaging time point, the animals were injected intraperitoneally (20 mg/kg) with hypoxyprobe (Hypoxyprobe Inc, Burlington, MA) 1 hour before being killed by cervical dislocation under anesthesia. The tumors were extracted and fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin solution. Hematoxylin and eosin, MECA-32, and hypoxyprobe stains were used to identify tissue architecture, blood vessels, and hypoxic cells, respectively. The histologic hypoxic region was identified by hypoxyprobe staining that is typically considered to label cells present in a hypoxic environment where the  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  is between 0 and 10 mm Hg [22]. Histologic viable tumor tissue was identified by hematoxylin and eosin staining.

Whole slide images were acquired by the Olympus Nanozoomer automated slide scanning platform (Hamamatsu, Bridgewater, NJ) at ×200 final magnification. Scanned slides were analyzed in the Matlab software package (version R2011b by MathWorks, Natick, MA) as 24-bit RGB images. Various tumor regions (viable area, necrotic area, hypoxyprobe positive) were identified using a combination of support vector machines (SVMs) [23] and genetic programming [24]. A training set of representative areas was first generated manually and assigned a binary classification (positive for the region of interest or negative for regions to exclude). Then, an SVM was trained using RGB and texture values from these selections. Application of this SVM resulted in a binary image for each selection, and the noise in the resulting images was removed through the application of genetic programming, which found a sequence of simple morphologic operators that maximized the solution accuracy for both positive and negative selections, which was then applied to the entire image.

The analysis of vascular density was restricted to viable tumor tissue. A segmentation algorithm uses a sequence of morphologic operations to consolidate MECA-32–stained areas into individual vessels. The identification of vessels was aided by including vessel lumens, as characterized by empty white spaces that are adjacent to MECA-32–stained regions. Size and shape-based filtering of the resulting objects was used to remove noise. The vessel density here was defined as the vessel perimeter divided by the viable tumor area (mm<sup>-1</sup>). Similarly, the percent hypoxic fraction was measured as the hypoxyprobe stain– positive area divided by the viable tumor area (%).

## Experimental Protocols

Validation study. In the validation study, the first group of mice ( $n = 10$ ) received two consecutive <sup>19</sup>F  $R_1$  measurements acquired at normoxia (21%  $O_2$ ) to assess the intrasessional reproducibility of the  $pO_2$  measurement. For a second group of mice ( $n = 20$ ), <sup>19</sup>F  $R_1$  maps were acquired at normoxia (21%  $O_2$ ) and during hyperoxia (carbogen:  $95\%$  O<sub>2</sub>,  $5\%$  CO<sub>2</sub>) conditions, which were done sequentially by changing the breathing gas. A 10-minute gap was employed between the two acquisitions to allow for the blood oxygenation to reach equilibrium, where the blood oxygen saturation was continuously monitored by the O2C System (LEA Medizintechnik GmbH Inc, Giessen, Germany) on the hind footpad of the animal. The MS estimates of the hypoxic region  $(0 < pO<sub>2</sub> < 10$  mm Hg) in viable tumor tissue were compared with the histologic estimates of hypoxia (hypoxyprobe analysis).

Treatment studies. Treatment studies were performed in two additional cohorts of mice. In the first treatment study, B20.4.1.1 treatment (10 mg/kg,  $n = 13$ ) or a control IgG ( $n = 11$ ) was administrated as a single i.v. dose. Imaging was performed pretreatment (day 0) and 24 hours posttreatment (day 1). In the second study, B20.4.1.1 (10 mg/kg,  $n = 10$ ) was administered as a single i.v. dose after pretreatment imaging on day 0. In the second group, GDC-0980 (10 mg/kg,  $n = 10$ ) was administered orally daily on days 0, 1, and 2. For the control group ( $n = 10$ ), a control IgG and 0.5% methycellulose/ 0.2% Tween 80 were used as controls for B20.4.1.1 and GDC-0980, respectively. Imaging was performed on day 0, 1, 2, and 3.

## Statistical Analysis

Statistical significance was defined as  $P < .05$ . To compare two groups, an unpaired  $t$  test was used. To compare pretreatment to posttreatment data within a group, a paired  $t$  test was used. Statistical analysis was performed with JMP 9 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC) and Excel 2010 (Microsoft Inc, Redmond, WA). Data are presented as means ± standard error.

#### Results

## Reproducibility of In Vivo  $MS$  <sup>19</sup>F-MRI

The uptake of the PFCs was significant but variable within the tumor (Figure 1,  $A$  and  $B$ ). A very strong <sup>19</sup>F signal was visualized within some areas of the viable tissue class (Figure 1,  $B$  and  $C$ ), consistent with the presence of vessels in these regions. In addition, strong  $^{19}{\rm F}$  uptake was observed in the low- $T\rm _2$  necrosis class (Figure 1*B, green* arrows), where leakage is likely due to hemorrhage. This class has been found histologically to contain intact RBCs that shorten the  $T_2$  and is likely an area of recent or active hemorrhage [12].

The  $^{19}F$   $R_1$  maps of PFC calibration samples were obtained, and these data were then used to estimate  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  for all studies according to the measured linear relationship between  $R_1$  and the oxygen level



Figure 1. Anatomic images of PFC uptake in an HM-7 xenograft tumor. (A) The <sup>19</sup>F density images acquired in the same anatomic locations with <sup>1</sup>H density images reveal variable, albeit adequate PFC uptake. (B) A sample image of PFC uptake from the second slice in A is highlighted in red. The PFC uptake was heterogeneous. Some areas showed strong uptake of PFCs in the center of the tumor slice (green arrowheads). (C) The corresponding KM class map for the slice in B revealed that strong uptake of PFCs occurred in some areas of viable tumor, some areas of adipose tissue, and the low- $T_2$  necrosis class.

 $[R_1 = 0.0246 * O_2 (%) + 0.7473, R^2 = 0.999$ ; Figure W1]. To test the intrasessional reproducibility of  $pO_2$  measurements, two <sup>19</sup>F  $R_1$ mapping acquisitions were made under normoxia (Figure 2A). The mean  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  values of the two acquisitions for each of the four classes are given as follows: viable tumor class, 51.92 ± 9.21 and 56.22 ± 9.24 mm Hg ( $P = .42$ ); adipose tissue class, 55.16  $\pm$  9.87 and 52.45 ± 9.71 mm Hg ( $P = .59$ ); low- $T_2$  necrosis class, 53.26 ± 12.91 and 55.27  $\pm$  15.07 mm Hg (P = .82); high-ADC necrosis class, 44.35  $\pm$  17.23 and 33.42  $\pm$  10.90 mm Hg (P = .84). The repetitive measurements revealed no significant change of mean  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  over time in all four tissue classes ( $P > .05$ , paired t test). The overall tumor response is a weighted average of all four tissue classes; therefore, the overall tumor did not exhibit a difference between the two measurements (49.98 ± 9.16 and 51.96 ± 9.53 mm Hg,  $P = .50$ ; Figure 2A). An example of consecutive  $pO_2$  estimates of the same tumor are shown in Figure 2B.

# $MS$  <sup>19</sup>F-MRI Detects  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  Increase in Viable Tumor due to Carbogen Challenge

To test the hypothesis on tumor heterogeneity and  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  response, a second group of mice underwent a carbogen breathing gas challenge. Two measurements were made under normoxia and hyperoxia, respectively. Under the breathing gas challenge, there was a heterogeneous response within the tumor (Figure 3). Statistical analysis revealed that the viable tumor class (normoxia:  $45.73 \pm 4.30$  mm Hg; hyperoxia:  $61.06 \pm 5.98$  mm Hg, paired t test,  $P = .018$ ), adipose tissue class (normoxia: 54.80 ± 5.75 mm Hg; hyperoxia: 65.71 ± 7.13 mm Hg,  $P < .01$ ), and low- $T_2$  necrosis class (normoxia: 32.46 ± 5.98 mm Hg; hyperoxia: 44.64 ± 8.02 mm Hg, P < .01) exhibited a significant increase in  $pO_2$  in response to hyperoxia challenge

(Figure 3A), where both viable regions (viable tumor and adipose tissue) showed an increase in  $pO_2$  consistent with a vascularized tissue. The increase in  $pO_2$  for the low- $T_2$  necrosis class provided further evidence of active hemorrhage. The high-ADC necrosis class showed no significant change in  $pO_2$  (normoxia: 34.37  $\pm$  5.09 mm Hg; hyperoxia:  $43.44 \pm 8.67$  mm Hg,  $P = .10$ ), consistent with the acellular "cyst-like" nature of the region [12]. An example of the response of a tumor to the breathing gas challenge is shown in Figure 3B.

## MS<sup>19</sup>F-MRI In Vivo Estimate of Hypoxic Area Correlates with Histologic Staining of Hypoxic Cells

The in vivo estimate of hypoxic area by MS<sup>19</sup>F-MRI exhibited a strong correlation ( $r = 0.79$ ,  $P < .01$ ) with the *ex vivo* estimate of hypoxia derived from the hypoxyprobe stain–positive area histologic analysis (Figure 4A). The MRI hypoxia region was defined as  $pO<sub>2</sub>$ values between 0 and 10 mm Hg based on the in vivo  $pO_2$  maps (Figure 4B, red). Histologically hypoxic (hypoxyprobe-positive) tissue (Figure 4B, brown) corresponds to areas in which the cellular  $pO_2$  is below 10 mm Hg. The histologic hypoxic area in viable tissue was assessed in a centrally located section of each tumor (approximately coplanar with the MRI plane) and was then compared with the corresponding imaging slice in the in vivo MRI data.

# MS<sup>19</sup>F-MRI Detects Decrease of  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  after Anti-VEGF (B20.4.1.1) Treatment

In the first treatment study, the B20.4.1.1-treated group ( $\Delta_{\text{day 1 - day 0}}$  =  $7.38 \pm 7.53$  mm<sup>3</sup>) at 24 hours posttreatment did not exhibit a significant difference in viable tumor growth, identified by MS classification, when compared with control ( $\Delta_{\text{day 1 - day 0}}$  = 19.07 ± 6.17 mm<sup>3</sup>, P > .05; Figure 5A). However, a significant reduction in  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  was detected



Figure 2. Repeated  $pO_2$  measurements revealed no significant change over time in the HM-7 mouse xenograft tumor model. (A) Two consecutive  $pO_2$  data sets were obtained under normoxia (black and blue). There was no significant change of mean  $pO_2$  over time in all four tissue classes. The overall tumor response is a weighted average of all four tissue classes. Data are shown as means  $\pm$  SEM. (B) An example of a  $pO_2$  spatial map for the same tumor slice generated from the two consecutive measurements.



Figure 3. The change in mean  $pO_2$  under hyperoxia challenge for the MS tissue classes. (A)  $pO_2$  data were acquired under normoxia (black) and once again under carbogen (95%  $O_2$ , 5%  $CO_2$ ) breathing gas challenge (red). The p $O_2$  in viable tumor class increased from  $45.73 \pm 4.30$  to 61.06  $\pm$  5.98 mm Hg, and the adipose tissue class and low- $T_2$  necrosis class also exhibited a significant increase of pO<sub>2</sub>. The high-ADC necrosis class showed no change in  $pO<sub>2</sub>$ . The overall response is a weighted average of the four tissue classes. Data are shown as means  $\pm$  SEM. (B) An example of a pO2 spatial map response to hyperoxia challenge. There was a heterogeneous response within the tumor, some areas increased dramatically, whereas other regions did not respond. \*P < .05 and \*\*\*P < .001; NS, not significant.



Figure 4. MS<sup>19</sup>F-MRI–identified hypoxic regions in viable tumor correlate with histology. (A) A one-to-one comparison between the hypoxic area in viable tissue for the center slice of each tumor measured by MS<sup>19</sup>F-MRI and pimonidazole-positive area in viable tissue in the corresponding tumor slice measured by histology showed a significant correlation. (B) The MRI hypoxia region was shown in red, and the histologic hypoxia area was shown in brown. The images showed similar patterns of hypoxia (pointed by arrows).

within the viable tumor. The B20.4.1.1-treated group showed a reduction of viable tumor  $pO_2$  not only with respect to its pretreatment level ( $\Delta_{\text{day 1 - day 0}}$  = -18.78 ± 3.92 mm Hg, P < .001) but also in comparison with the control group ( $\Delta_{\text{day 1 - day 0}}$  = -4.27 ± 5.52 mm Hg,  $P < .05$ ; Figure 5*B*), which can also be visually confirmed in the representative images (Figure 5C).

# Histology Confirms MS<sup>19</sup>F-MRI Assessment of an Anti*–*VEGF-Induced Hypoxic Response

The reduction of  $pO_2$  in viable tumor in the B20.4.1.1 group was attributed to the reduction of vessel density that was quantified by MECA-32 staining (Figure 6A). Compared with the control group (7.96 ± 0.76 mm−<sup>1</sup> ), the B20.4.1.1-treated group exhibited a 40% decrease in vessel density (4.76 ± 0.40 mm<sup>-1</sup>,  $\overline{P}$  < .01; Figure 6*B*). Consistent with the MRI  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  results, tissue hypoxia measured by hypoxyprobe staining showed that at 24 hours posttreatment, the B20.4.1.1-treated group exhibited an increased hypoxic area fraction (Figure 6C) of approximately 13% [B20.4.1.1 (30.14  $\pm$  2.78%) vs control  $(17.11 \pm 4.00\%)$ ,  $P < .02$ ; Figure 6D].

## Dual PI3K/mTOR Inhibition Induces a Sustained Hypoxic Response in Viable Tumor

In the second treatment study, PFCs remained in the tumor throughout the course of the 4-day study following i.v. injection. No significant loss of  $^{19}F$  signal was observed during the 4-day period (Figure 7A), which enabled the longitudinal study of  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  changes over this time period. In general, both the B20.4.1.1- and GDC-0980–treated groups showed decreased  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  in viable tumor, relative to pretreatment levels, following the onset of treatment. In the B20.4.1.1-treated group, the  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  values in viable tumor on day 1  $(\Delta_{\text{day 1 - day 0}} = -13.26 \pm 5.02 \text{ mm Hg})$ , day 2  $(\Delta_{\text{day 2 - day 0}} =$  $-10.31 \pm 3.06$  mm Hg), and day 3 ( $\Delta_{\text{day 3 - day 0}} = -12.67 \pm 10.31$ 6.35 mm Hg) were all significantly lower than baseline at day 0 ( $P <$ .05). When compared with the control group on day 1 ( $\Delta_{\text{day 1 - day 0}}$  =  $-2.15 \pm 5.12 \text{ mm Hg}$ , day 2 ( $\Delta_{\text{day 2 - day 0}} = -3.55 \pm 5.75 \text{ mm Hg}$ ), and day 3 ( $\Delta_{\text{day }3}$  –  $_{\text{day }0}$  = -2.26 ± 5.33 mm Hg), the changes in  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  for the B20.4.1.1-treated group did not differ significantly from the changes observed for the control group on any of the 3 days (P values were .14, .33, and .24 for days 1, 2, and 3, respectively; Figure 7B). GDC-0980 had a strong effect for all 3 days after the onset of the treatment relative to its baseline at day 0



Figure 5. At 24 hours posttreatment, B20.4.1.1 exhibited a significant decrease in viable tumor  $pQ_2$ . (A) The B20.4.1.1-treated group showed no significant change in viable tumor volume (NS,  $P > .05$ ). (B) The viable tumor pO<sub>2</sub> was significantly reduced in the B20.4.1.1 group relative to the pretreatment level ( $###P$  < .001) as well as in comparison with the control group ( $*P$  < .05). (C) Images showing pO<sub>2</sub> change after 24 hours.



Figure 6. At 24 hours posttreatment, B20.4.1.1 significantly decreased vascular density and increased hypoxic fraction in the viable tumor. (A) Images show vessel density (brown, MECA-32 staining) at 24 hours posttreatment. Bar, 100  $\mu$ m. (B) The B20.4.1.1 group showed a 40% reduction of vascular density in comparison with the control (\*\* $P < .01$ ). (C) Images depict hypoxic cells (brown, hypoxyprobe staining) at 24 hours posttreatment. Bar, 100  $\mu$ m. (D) The B20.4.1.1 group showed a 13% increase in the hypoxic fraction in comparison with the control ( $P < .02$ ).



**Figure 7.** (A) PFCs remained in the tumor throughout the course of the 4-day study following i.v. delivery. No significant loss of <sup>19</sup>F signal was observed, which enabled a multiday longitudinal study of  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  change. Every effort was made to locate the same imaging slice in the tumor according to the distance and shape, but deviations may still exist due to the positioning of the animal on different days, as well as tumor growth. (B) The temporal evaluation of mean  $\Delta pO<sub>2</sub>$  in viable tumor. Both the B20.4.1.1 and GDC-0980 groups exhibited a decrease in  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  in the viable tumor posttreatment relative to pretreatment levels. When compared with the control group, the GDC-0980 group exhibited a significant decrease in viable tumor  $pQ_2$ , whereas the B20.4.1.1 group showed a trend toward a reduction of  $pQ_2$  (P = .14) on day 1). (C) The viable tumor volume change with time. Only the GDC-0980 group showed a significant reduction on day 3 in comparison with the control. \*P < .05 in comparison with the control group.  $^{#}P$  < .05 versus pretreatment;  $^{#}P$  < .01 versus pretreatment. Data are shown as means  $\pm$  SEM.



**Figure 8.** At 72 hours posttreatment, GDC-0980 significantly increased the hypoxic fraction in viable tumor as assessed by histology. (A) Images showed hypoxic cells at 72 hours posttreatment. Bar, 300  $\mu$ m. (B) GDC-0980 showed a significant increase in hypoxic fraction ( $P < .05$ ), whereas the B20.4.1.1-treated group showed no significant change ( $P > .05$ ).

 $(\Delta_{\text{day 1 - day 0}} = -18.85 \pm 5.24 \text{ mm Hg}, P < .01; \Delta_{\text{day 2 - day 0}} = -26.16 \pm 1.04 \text{ m}$ 6.12 mm Hg,  $P < .01$ ;  $\Delta_{\text{day 2 - day 0}} = -22.49 \pm 6.72$  mm Hg,  $P < .01$ ; Figure 7B). When compared with the control group, the GDC-0980 group exhibited a significant decrease in viable tumor  $pO_2$  ( $P < .05$ ). The significant decrease of  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  in the GDC-0980 treatment group occurred only in the viable tumor, whereas there were no significant  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  changes detected relative to control in any of the other tissue classes (Figure W2). Similar to the first study, the B20.4.1.1-treated group ( $\Delta_{\text{day 1 - day 0}}$  = 14.61 ± 2.94 mm<sup>3</sup>,  $P > .05$ ;  $\Delta_{\text{day 2 - day 0}}$  =  $29.96 \pm 9.58$  mm<sup>3</sup>,  $P > .05$ ;  $\Delta_{\text{day 3 - day 0}} = 36.86 \pm 10.80$  mm<sup>3</sup>,  $P > .05$ ) did not exhibit a significant difference in viable tumor growth when compared with control ( $\Delta_{\text{day 1 - day 0}}$  = 17.09 ± 3.25 mm<sup>3</sup>,  $\Delta_{\text{day 2 - day 0}} = 35.26 \pm 5.60 \text{ mm}^3$ , and  $\Delta_{\text{day 3 - day 0}} = 40.52 \pm 1.5$  $7.58$  mm<sup>3</sup>). Only the GDC-0980 group showed a significant reduction on day 3 in comparison with the control group ( $\Delta_{\text{day 1 - day 0}}$  = 24.11 ± 5.90 mm<sup>3</sup>,  $\overline{P}$  > .05;  $\Delta_{\text{day 2 - day 0}} = 11.78 \pm 14.64 \text{ mm}^3$ ,  $P > .05; \Delta_{\text{day }3 - \text{day }0} = 0.26 \pm 15.00 \text{ mm}^3$ ,  $P < .05; \text{ Figure } 7C$ ).

# MS 19F-MRI Predicted Histologic Findings for Both GDC-0980 and B20.4.1.1

The MRI  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  results were further confirmed by histology (Figure 8A). Compared with the control group, the GDC-0980–treated group exhibited a 20% increase in hypoxic fraction ( $P < .05$ ), whereas the B20.4.1.1-treated group showed no significant change in comparison with control (Figure 8B). The histologic staining further revealed no significant change of vessel density between the B20.4.1.1 treated group and the control group ( $P = .60$ ), whereas a trend toward reduction of vessel density in the GDC-0980-treated group ( $P = .066$ ) was observed (data not shown).

## **Discussion**

This is the first study to employ a diffusion-based MS tissue segmentation approach to address the complications of tissue heterogeneity in

 $19$ F-MRI pO<sub>2</sub> mapping. The validation study demonstrated that this approach can detect tissue-dependent oxygenation changes in response to a breathing gas challenge, and this in vivo technique showed a good correlation with histologic estimates of hypoxia. The results from the treatment studies to assess the effects of two antivascular agents on tumor oxygenation demonstrated a rapid reduction in viable tumor pO2 after treatment. Dual PI3K/mTOR inhibition by GDC-0980 strongly suppresses tumor oxygenation consistent with the known antivascular response for this molecule [17]. Anti-VEGF treatment significantly lowered viable tumor  $pO_2$  relative to control in the first study but did not achieve statistical significance in the second study. In both treatment studies, in vivo MS<sup>19</sup>F-MRI pO<sub>2</sub> estimates predicted the histologic hypoxia results. These results advocate for the use of this MS<sup>19</sup>F-MRI technique as a tool to better understand the mode of action of therapies that alter the tumor's microenvironment.

Different PFCs have been used for *in vivo* oxygenation studies [10]. The perfluoro-15-crown-5-ether employed in this study as an imaging contrast agent has two major advantages over other PFCs: its sensitivity for measuring small changes in  $pO_2$  [4] and a lack of tissue toxicity [25]. The  $R_1$  parameter for the PFC contrast agent was measured to obtain  $pO_2$  estimates. Consistent with previously publish studies, the  $R_1$  relaxation rate of perfluoro-15-crown-5-ether is a linear function of oxygen level ( $R^2$  = 0.999) at 37°C at 9.4 T [4,7,25]. While the  $pO_2$  measured in the current study is similar to some previous studies [4,7], differences do exist with  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  values measured under different settings in other studies [26,27]. These differences may be due to the fact that  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  values have been shown to vary with tumor cell line, tumor size, and tissue heterogeneity [27,28], as well as the methodology that was used for measurements [6]. In addition, the method of PFC administration may affect the relative spatial PFC distribution. Although i.v. injection gives a more global measurement when compared with local PFC injection directly into the tumor, i.v. delivery of PFCs may bias  $pO_2$  estimates toward well-perfused areas and regions close to the blood vessels [29]. In the current studies, PFCs were administrated before treatments, when the tumors were highly vascularized, and this resulted in the PFCs being delivered and retained in the tumor at a sufficient level to make reliable  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  measurements throughout the study. Thus, any induced hypoxia due to treatment or tumor growth that occurs after PFCs were administrated could be accurately measured because the PFCs are already present in the tumor.

In this study, tumor heterogeneity is addressed by employing diffusion-based MS analysis to differentiate distinct tissue classes. A reproducibility study was performed by assessing the consistency of the  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  estimates for the four tissue classes from two repetitive measurements made under normoxic conditions. The class estimates were found not to differ significantly, demonstrating the reproducibility of the technique. It is worth noting that although there is no statistical difference between the two measurements, the two  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  maps were not fully identical on a voxel-by-voxel basis. These apparent voxel differences could be due to local acute hypoxic fluctuations that have been observed in tumors [30,31]. The current method, however, cannot fully resolve these transient changes in  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  due to its low temporal resolution. Apart from these physiological factors, the system and measurement noise could also contribute to specific voxel differences.

Different tissue responses were observed during the hyperoxia challenge experiment, which provides further support for this MS approach. The viable tumor and subcutaneous adipose tissue are well-vascularized tissues and, thus, respond actively to the hyperoxia challenge. The low- $T_2$  necrosis class exhibited an increase in  $pO_2$  on breathing gas challenge. This could be due to several possible mechanisms that include the following: Circulating RBCs with an increased oxygen load may have entered the region due to active hemorrhage. Another possibility is that there may have been an increase in oxygen diffusing from the neighboring viable tissue. In addition, partial volume contamination from neighboring viable tissue may have contributed to the response. The high-ADC necrosis class did not show a significant change in  $pO_2$ , which is consistent with its acellular cyst-like nature [12], although the presence of an apparent trend in the data may be due to partial volume influence from neighboring viable tissue. The differing sensitivity in response to the gas challenge among the four tissue classes is likely due to the difference in pathophysiological features of these tissue classes that have been previously characterized [12,20,21]. These results indicate that the inclusion of nonviable tumor tissue regions in whole-tumor estimates of  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  response can mask or bias the changes of  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  within the tissue of therapeutic interest (viable tumor) depending on the relative volume ratio of each tissue class. Restricting the analysis of tumor oxygenation to the viable tumor is physiologically meaningful and could aid investigations of therapeutic responses.

The MS <sup>19</sup>F-MRI approach to assessing  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  within viable tumor was applied to serially monitor the effects of antivascular therapies on tumor oxygenation. Two treatments were used in this study, an anti-VEGF molecule (B20.4.1.1) and a dual PI3K/mTOR inhibitor (GDC-0980). The effect of antivascular agents on tumor oxygenation has been in question for a number of years. Some studies have shown increased tumor hypoxia after anti-VEGF treatment [13,15,16], whereas other studies show decreased tumor hypoxia (increased  $pO_2$ ) [14,32,33]. These different observations may be explained in part by the role of vessel normalization in the response of tumors to antiangiogenic therapy where antiangiogenic therapies initially improve both the structure and the function of tumor vessels, whereas sustained or more aggressive antiangiogenic regimens eventually prune away functional vessels resulting in a more hypoxic environment [34]. In the current studies, anti-VEGF (B20.4.1.1) treatment did not cause an increase in viable tumor  $pO_2$ . This may be due to the strong antivascular response caused by a 10 mg/kg dose of B20.4.1.1, resulting in a very short or the complete absence of a transient normalization window occurring after treatment. These results are consistent with previous findings where B20.4.1.1 was shown to reduce vascular density and inhibit tumor growth [17,35]. Although no evidence of an increase of  $pO_2$  was observed in the current studies, the possibility of a  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  increase at earlier time points cannot be ruled out. The difference in  $pO_2$  response by B20.4.1.1 treatment between the two treatment studies was likely due to the lack of statistical power. However, in both studies, the in vivo MRI  $pO_2$  measurements predicted the ex vivo histologic results of hypoxic fraction for B20.4.1.1 treatment response relative to control. The other treatment that was evaluated, GDC-0980, a novel dual inhibitor of mTOR and PI3K, exhibited a significant decrease in viable tumor  $pO_2$  ( $P < .05$ ). Ex vivo histologic measurements of hypoxic fraction confirmed a significant increase in hypoxic fraction of the GDC-0980–treated tumors. The strong suppression of  $pO_2$  induced by GDC-0980 is likely because of the suppression of oxygen supply due to the loss of small functional vessels as previously demonstrated [17]. In addition, compared to B20.4.1.1, an anti–VEGF-A monotherapy, GDC-0980 treatment resulted in greater tumor growth inhibition due to both PI3K pathway inhibition in the tumor cells and a strong antivascular effect [17]. It is also important to note that among the four tissue classes, viable tumor was

the only class where GDC-0980 produced a statistically significant decrease in  $pO_2$  relative to the changes observed in the control group (Figure W2). This supports the notion that, depending on the relative volume ratio of each tissue class, the inclusion of nonviable tumor tissue regions in whole-tumor estimates of  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  response can mask or bias the changes of  $pO_2$  within the tissue of therapeutic interest (viable tumor). Furthermore, targeting hypoxia in tumors has been a great interest to the field of combination therapies [2,11,36]. In this sense, MS<sup>19</sup>F-MRI may provide a valuable tool for research efforts into combination therapies that target the altered microenvironment.

In conclusion, this work has demonstrated for the first time that pO2 measurements can be restricted to the viable tumor and that the necrotic tissue classes contribute erroneous data to whole-tumor estimates of the  $pO_2$  response. The MS <sup>19</sup>F-MRI approach provides a means to measure  $pO_2$  within the viable tumor and address the issue of tumor heterogeneity that complicates  $pO_2$  tumor imaging. In addition, this methodology has been employed to better understand the effects of antivascular agents on tumor oxygenation. Detected by MS  $19$ F-MRI, a potent and selective PI3K/mTOR inhibitor showed strong suppression of tumor oxygenation for the first time. These results advocate for the use of the MS 19F-MRI technique as a tool to better understand the mode of action of therapies that alter the tumor's microenvironment and may provide insight into combination therapies that target the altered microenvironment.

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Figure W1. The linear relationship between the  $R_1$  of perfluoro-15-crown-5-ether and the oxygen level. The cartoon depicts the structure of the PFC emulsions that contain perfluoro-15-crown-5 ether (green) and a lipid bilayer (pink). Twenty-one percent of oxygen corresponds to 160 mm Hg, and 100% of oxygen corresponds to 760 mm Hg.

Figure W2. At 72 hours posttreatment, GDC-0980 significantly decreased  $pO<sub>2</sub>$  in the viable tumor but not in the other tissue classes when compared with the control group ( $P < .05$ ), whereas the B20.4.1.1-treated group showed no significant differences relative to the control ( $P > 05$ ).  $^{#}P < 0.05$  versus pretreatment;  $^{#}P < 0.01$ versus pretreatment level.