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Endoglin-Targeted Cancer Therapy

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Abstract

Vascular-targeting antiangiogenic therapy (VTAT) of cancer can be advantageous over conventional tumor cell targeted cancer therapy if an appropriate target is found. Our hypothesis is that endoglin (ENG; CD105) is an excellent target in VTAT. ENG is selectively expressed on vascular and lymphatic endothelium in tumors. This allows us to target both tumor-associated vasculature and lymphatic vessels to suppress tumor growth and metastasis. ENG is essential for angiogenesis/vascular development and a co-receptor of TGF- β . Our studies of selected anti-ENG monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) in several animal models and *in vitro* studies support our hypothesis. These mAbs and/or their immunoconjugates (immunotoxins and radioimmunoconjugates) induced regression of preformed tumors as well as inhibited formation of new tumors. In addition, they suppressed metastasis. Several mechanisms were involved in the suppressive activity of the naked (unconjugated) anti-ENG mAbs. These include direct growth suppression of proliferating endothelial cells, induction of apoptosis, ADCC (antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity) and induction of T cell immunity. To facilitate clinical application, we generated a human/mouse chimeric anti-ENG mAb termed c-SN6j and performed studies of pharmacokinetics, toxicology and immunogenicity of c-SN6j in nonhuman primates. No significant toxicity was detected by several criteria and minimal immune response to the murine part of c-SN6j was detected after multiple i.v. injections. The results support our hypothesis that c-SN6j can be safely administered in cancer patients. This hypothesis is supported by the ongoing phase 1 clinical trial of c-SN6j (also known as TRC105) in patients with advanced or metastatic solid cancer in collaboration with Tracon Pharma and several oncologists (NCT00582985).

Keywords

Endoglin; CD105; Anti-endoglin antibody; vascular-targeting therapy; antiangiogenic therapy; chimeric antibody

1. Introduction

Vascular-targeting antiangiogenic therapy (VTAT) is highly attractive in treating solid tumors compared with tumor cell-targeted therapy and conventional antiangiogenic therapy

[1-6]. For instance, VTAT can potentially minimize the problems of poor delivery, drug resistance and tumor heterogeneity. In addition, a single agent developed for VTAT could be applied to most or all types of solid tumors unlike the case of tumor-cell targeted therapy. VTAT can be more effective for destroying established tumors than conventional antiangiogenic therapy [1]. Nevertheless, a critical issue in VTAT is availability of an appropriate target. We believe that endoglin (ENG; CD105) is a promising target for VTAT.

A homodimeric cell surface glycoprotein, later termed ENG, was initially identified as a human leukemia-associated cell membrane antigen [7-9]. ENG is mainly expressed on immature B-lineage/myeloid leukemia cells and endothelial cells [7]. Although several cell lines and cultured cells were reported to express ENG, it was not detected on these cells in fresh tissues in most cases. This issue is further addressed in the text below. Two isoforms of ENG, L-ENG and S-ENG, differing in the size of their cytoplasmic tails, have been characterized [10]. ENG is a proliferation-associated cell membrane antigen [9, 11-13] and strongly expressed on the tumor-associated vascular and lymphatic endothelium [9, 13-16]. In addition, ENG is essential for angiogenesis/vascular development [17, 18] and a co-receptor of the transforming growth factor (TGF)- β [19]. ENG gene expression was substantially increased in circulating endothelial cells-enriched samples from metastatic carcinoma patients compared with the corresponding samples from healthy donors [20]. Irradiation may upgrade ENG expression [21] and ENG expression was stimulated in the presence of hypoxia and TGF- β [22]. Anti-VEGF therapy may increase ENG expression [23]. Yamashita *et al.* [24] and others [25] reported that ENG forms a heterodimeric complex with TGF- β receptors I and II. L-ENG and S-ENG may differentially modulate TGF- β signaling [26]. ENG promotes endothelial proliferation and TGF- β /ALK1 signal transduction [27]; ALK1, activin receptor-like kinase 1, is an endothelial specific TGF- β type 1 receptor. Endothelial cells lacking ENG do not grow because TGF- β /ALK1 signaling is reduced and TGF- β /ALK5 signaling is increased [27]; ALK5 is the conventional type 1 TGF- β receptor that is ubiquitously expressed [28]. Conley *et al.* [29] reported that ENG controls cell migration and composition of focal adhesions. In addition, Lee and Blobel [30] reported that ENG inhibits endothelial cell migration and antagonizes TGF- β -mediated ERK activation by interaction with β -arrestin 2.

Recently, several studies indicated that ENG represents a more specific and sensitive marker for tumor angiogenesis and/or tumor progression than the commonly used pan-endothelial markers such as CD34 and CD31 in various types of human malignancies [31-34].

Previously, we showed that immunoconjugates (immunotoxins and radioimmunoconjugates) and the naked form of selected anti-ENG mAbs were effective for suppression of tumor growth [9, 35-39] and metastasis [40] by targeting angiogenic vasculature in mice. In these studies, we targeted tumors in SCID mice [9, 35, 36], immunocompetent mice [38, 39] and human skin/SCID mouse chimeras in which human tumors were implanted intradermally in human skins grafted into SCID mice [37]. Recently we demonstrated the immune status of the hosts play an important regulatory role in the ENG-targeted vascular targeting therapy [39]. CpG oligodeoxynucleotides synergistically enhanced antitumor efficacy of anti-ENG mAb SN6j, and antitumor efficacy of SN6j in immunocompetent mice was abrogated when CD4⁺ T cells and/or CD8⁺ T cells were depleted [39]. More recently we showed that

selected anti-ENG mAbs (i.e., SN6j, SN6k and SN6a) were capable of suppressing metastasis in five different metastasis models [40]. These mAbs and SN6f [9] were selected from our 12 anti-ENG mAbs for therapeutic studies in mice partly based on the cross-reactivity with SVEC4-10 murine endothelial cell line [9, 35-37, 39, 40]; the cross-reactivity was measured by flow cytometry [9, 35], a cellular radioimmunoassay [9] and a fluorescence-labeled antibody binding/internalization assay [36, 39]. SVEC4-10 [41] was kindly provided to us by Dr. Kathryn O'Connell of Johns Hopkin's University, and it showed substantial cross-reactivity with the selected anti-human ENG mAbs. However, the properties of SVEC4-10 gradually changed with increased passage number during cell culture as advised by Dr. O'Connell; this type of cell property change with increased cell culture passages is common for endothelial cells. SVEC4-10 from ATCC was not useful and did not show significant cross-reactivity with our selected anti-ENG mAbs. The weak cross-reactivity of the four anti-ENG mAbs with murine endothelial cells was supported by Matrigel plug assay [39, 40] and/or immunohistochemical staining of tissues [9, 35].

To facilitate clinical application, we generated a human/mouse chimeric anti-ENG mAb, termed c-SN6j, and performed studies of pharmacokinetics, toxicology and immunogenicity of c-SN6j in nonhuman primates [42]. No significant toxicity was detected by several criteria and minimal immune response to the murine part of c-SN6j was detected after multiple i.v. injections. The results support our hypothesis that c-SN6j can be safely administered in cancer patients. Indeed, this hypothesis was further supported by the ongoing phase 1 clinical trial of c-SN6j (also known as TRC105) in patients with advanced and/or metastatic solid cancers; this trial is performed in collaboration with Tracon Pharma and several oncologists (see below VIII. Conclusions and Future Directions)

Recently several review articles that address issues relevant to the ENG targeting were published [43-46]. These articles will be useful for understanding ENG further.

2. Restricted Expression of Eng on Different Cells and Tissues

2.1. Isolated Cells

Our initial test of GP160 [7], that was later proven to be ENG, showed that expression of ENG is highly restricted; the test was performed using a prototype anti-ENG mAb termed SN6. SN6 reacted with immature human B-lineage leukemia cells (mainly acute lymphoblastic leukemia cells) and myelomonocytic leukemia cells, but did not react with other types of leukemia/lymphoma cells [7]. Expression of ENG is highly consistent between fresh leukemia cells from patients and cultured leukemia cell lines of the same phenotypes [7]. Such consistent expression of ENG was not observed for carcinoma cells (see below). SN6 did not show significant reaction with normal peripheral blood cells tested, which included B cells, T cells, granulocytes, monocytes and erythrocytes. However, it reacted with a small population (approximately 1%) of normal bone marrow cells [7]. It is worthy to note that ENG became detectable on the monocyte-derived cells during *in vitro* culture although ENG was not detectable on freshly isolated monocytes [47]. This finding is consistent with the report of Lastres *et al.* [48] that ENG is absent from peripheral blood monocytes but it is expressed on *in vitro* differentiated monocytes.

We did not detect ENG in carcinoma cells in tissues by extensive studies (see below). Nevertheless, we detected ENG on several cultured carcinoma cell lines [49]. We consider therefore that ENG on these cultured cell lines is probably an artifact that was induced by culturing the cells. This type of induced expression of ENG will not be important in therapeutic targeting of ENG in patients. Several cultured cells and cell lines were reported to express ENG [45]. However, it will be important to confirm the ENG expression on fresh cells in tissues before initiation of cell culture.

2.2. Tissues

We tested approximately one-hundred malignant tissues of many different cancers by Immunohistochemical (IHC) staining using anti-ENG mAbs from Seon laboratory (e.g., SN6, SN6h, SN6f, SN6j, SN6k etc.) [47, 49]. An example of such IHC staining is presented in Fig. (1). Two different anti-ENG mAbs SN6 and SN6h that define distinctively different epitopes of ENG [50] reacted strongly with vascular endothelium of tumor tissues. Reactivity of SN6h with blood vessels in tumor tissue was particularly strong (Fig. (1C)) while SN6h showed only marginal reactivity with a few blood vessels in normal breast tissue (Fig. (1D)). SN6h possesses an extremely high binding avidity to ENG on the cell surface (equilibrium association constant $K = 1.38 \times 10^{11}$ liters/mol; [51]. It strongly binds both native and denatured forms of ENG. Therefore, SN6h is suitable for IHC staining of formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded tissues as well as frozen tissues. Our test results of many malignant tissues of a variety of cancers (breast, colorectal, lung, prostate, brain, bladder, ovary, thyroid, lymphoma etc.) revealed that reactivity of our anti-ENG mAbs is restricted to vascular endothelium and these mAbs do not react with tumor cells *per se* in the tissues [9, 35, 47, 49].

3. In Vitro Activity of Anti-Eng mAbs

3.1. Antigen-Binding Avidity and Number of ENG Molecules on the Cell

We generated twelve anti-ENG mAbs which are SN6, SN6a, SN6b, SN6c, SN6d, SN6e, SN6f, SN6g, SN6h, SN6i, SN6j and SN6k. Epitopes defined by these mAbs were mapped [50]. Scatchard plot analysis was performed to determine antigen-binding avidity and number of antigen expressed on endothelial/leukemia cells using seven of these mAbs (i.e., SN6a, SN6b, SN6e, SN6f, SN6h, SN6j and SN6k). Antigen-binding avidity varied in the range of $1.2 \times 10^9 - 1.4 \times 10^{11}$ liters/mol for the equilibrium association constant (K) [37, 51]. There was no significant difference in the antigen-binding avidity of anti-ENG mAbs between ENG on endothelial cells and ENG on leukemia cells [37]. However, endothelial cells (human umbilical vein endothelial cells, HUVECs) express approximately 100-fold as many ENG protein as leukemia cells (KM-3) per cell, i.e., 10^6 vs 10^4 ENG/cell [37].

3.2. Suppressive and Cytotoxic Activity

Anti-ENG mAbs SN6, SN6a, SN6h and SN6j showed suppressive activity against proliferation of HUVECs in the absence of any accessory cells [52]. This suppressive activity was synergized with TGF- β . SN6j induced apoptosis of HUVECs in a dose-dependent manner [39]. Test results suggest that SN6j induces T cell immunity in

immunocompetent hosts [39]. A human/mouse chimeric antibody c-SN6j (also known as TRC105) showed strong ADCC against HUVECs.

Burrows *et al.* [12] reported that an anti-ENG immunotoxin TEC-11-dgRA showed selective toxicity against proliferating endothelial cells *in vitro*. Volkel *et al.* [53] generated immunoliposomes (ILA5) targeting proliferating endothelial cells by chemically coupling a single-chain Fv fragment directed against human endoglin to the liposomal surface. *In vitro*, doxorubicin-loaded ILA5 showed an increased cytotoxicity towards endothelial cells compared to untargeted liposomes and free doxorubicin. Munoz *et al.* [54] generated an immunotoxin by conjugating nigrin b to an anti-ENG mAb which killed specifically ENG-expressing target cells *in vitro*.

4. Correlation between Endoglin-Stained Intratumoral Microvessel Density and Prognosis

Several groups including us reported that high microvessel density in tumor tissues determined using an anti-ENG mAb correlated with poor prognosis in patients with various solid cancers; these cancers included breast cancer [31, 34], lung cancer [32], colorectal cancer [33, 55], prostate cancer [56] gastric cancer [57], endometrial cancer [58], hepatocellular carcinoma [59], ovarian cancer [60], cervical cancer [61], head and neck cancer [62, 63] and glioblastoma [64]. In these tests, SN6h has been most commonly used because it effectively immunostains formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded tissues as well as frozen tissues.

5. Endoglin as a Target for Tumor Imaging

Fonsatti *et al.* [65] reported that ENG was effectively targeted for radioimaging in a canine mammary carcinoma model. Others also targeted ENG for radioimaging in mice bearing B16 melanoma xenografts [66], in excised kidneys from renal carcinoma patients [67], and in mice bearing Calu6 lung cancer xenografts [68]. Korpanty *et al.* [69] targeted ENG for imaging with microbubbles conjugated to mAbs in a mouse model of pancreatic carcinoma.

6. Therapeutic Targeting of Endoglin in Animal Models

6.1. SCID Mice Bearing Human Tumors

In our study, MCF-7 human breast cancer cell line was used to generate xenograft tumors in SCID mice [9, 35-38]. Many human breast cancer cell lines (e.g., MDA-MB-231 and MCF-7 AR) express varying degrees of ENG on the cell surface. However, ENG was not detected on wild type MCF-7 cells. Systemic (i.v.) administration of deglycosylated ricin A-chain (dgRA) conjugates of SN6f (SN6f-dgRA) inhibited the growth of tumors from s.c. inoculated MCF-7 [9]. Systemic administration of SN6j-dgRA or SN6k-dgRA induced regression of established MCF-7 tumors [35]. In addition, ¹²⁵I-labeled SN6f and SN6j inhibited growth of MCF-7 tumors [36].

6.2. Human Skin/SCID Mouse Chimera

To facilitate antitumor therapy with naked anti-ENG mAbs in animal models, we used human skin/SCID mouse chimeras bearing MCF-7 tumors [37]. Blood vessels in the chimeras were analyzed by immunostaining with species (human or mouse)-specific anti-CD31 and anti-ENG mAbs including an anti-human ENG mAb SN6h. Blood vessels in the completely healed grafted human skins consisted of a mixture of human (43.5%) and murine (56.5%) vessels while only murine vessels were detected in the adjacent murine skins and subcutaneous tissues. Therefore, murine vessels infiltrate into the human skin grafts from the adjacent murine tissues whereas the growth of human vessels is limited within the boundary of human skins. Growth of human MCF-7 tumors in the human skin grafts increased the ratio of human vessels to murine vessels. Analyses of the grafted skins before and after tumor transplantation showed that SN6h reacted with tumor-induced angiogenic blood vessels but not with non-angiogenic vessels, whereas anti-human CD31 mAb reacted with both angiogenic and non-angiogenic vessels. The results show that SN6h is capable of distinguishing the tumor-induced angiogenic vasculature from the non-angiogenic vasculature in the present model. Vascular-targeting antiangiogenic therapy of the chimeras bearing established MCF-7 tumors was carried out by i.v. administration of a mAb *via* the tail vein of mice. SN6j and SN6k were effective for suppressing the established tumors while tumor suppression was weaker with SN6f. The results indicate the absence of a direct correlation between antigen-binding avidity and *in vivo* antitumor efficacy of anti-ENG mAbs, and suggest importance of other factors (e.g., epitopes) in antitumor efficacy. No significant toxicity of the mAbs was detected. Combination of SN6j and cyclophosphamide using an antiangiogenic schedule (continuous low-dose; [70, 71] of drug dosing showed synergistic antitumor efficacy. The combination therapy induced lasting complete regression of the established tumors in two of the eight treated chimeras. The results show that systemic administration of naked anti-human ENG mAbs can suppress established tumors and the efficacy was markedly enhanced by combining a chemotherapeutic drug using an antiangiogenic schedule of drug dosing. Multiple mechanisms may contribute to the enhanced antitumor efficacy by combining an anti-ENG mAb with cyclophosphamide or other chemotherapeutic drugs. One possible mechanism is that anti-ENG mAb normalizes tumor vasculature *in vivo* which will lead to enhancement of the antitumor efficacy of cyclophosphamide and other drugs [72, 73].

We examined human and murine blood vessels in large human tumors from the chimeras at the end of the therapeutic experiment. The test showed that SN6j therapy resulted in complete or nearly complete suppression of human vessels in the tumors but resulted in only weak suppression of murine vessels. The results indicate that these mAbs should show stronger antitumor efficacy in patients whose tumors depend entirely on human blood vessels.

6.3. Immunocompetent Mice Bearing Murine Tumors

6.3.1. Mechanisms by Which Naked Anti-ENG mAbs Suppress Tumor Growth

—In this study, we investigated the mechanisms by which anti-ENG mAbs suppress angiogenesis and tumor growth. Anti-human ENG mAbs effectively suppressed angiogenesis in mice in the Matrigel plug assay [39, 40]. The test results of SN6j are

illustrated in Fig. (2). Microvessel density of Matrigel plugs of the SN6j-treated mice was significantly lower than that of the isotype-matched control IgG-treated mice ($p < 0.05$; Fig. 2A and 2B). Moreover, vessels in the plugs of the SN6j-treated mice showed shrinkage and attenuation compared with those of the control IgG-treated mice.

We found that SN6j is more effective for tumor suppression in immunocompetent mice than in SCID mice. We hypothesized that T cell immunity is important for effective antitumor efficacy of SN6j *in vivo*. To test this hypothesis, we investigated effects of depletion of CD4⁺ T cells and/or CD8⁺ T cells on antitumor efficacy of SN6j in mice [39]. In addition, we investigated effects of CpG oligodeoxynucleotides (ODN) on the antitumor efficacy of SN6j [39]. Systemic (i.v.) administration of a relatively small dose (0.6 $\mu\text{g/g}$ body weight/dose) of SN6j suppressed the growth of established s.c. tumors of colon-26 in BALB/c mice and improved survival of the tumor-bearing mice. Addition of CpG ODN to SN6j synergistically enhanced antitumor efficacy of SN6j. In contrast, such enhancing effects of CpG ODN were not detected in SCID mice. Antitumor efficacy of SN6j in BALB/c mice was abrogated when CD4⁺ T cells and/or CD8⁺ T cells were depleted; effect of CD8⁺ T cell depletion was stronger. Interestingly, CD4-depletion decreased tumor growth while CD8-depletion enhanced tumor growth in the absence of SN6j. The results suggest that SN6j induces T cell immunity probably by antigen cross-presentation [39]. SN6j induced apoptosis in HUCECs in a dose-dependent manner which indicates an additional mechanism of antiangiogenesis by SN6j [39].

6.3.2. Suppression of Metastasis—Anti-metastatic activity of an antitumor agent is exceedingly important because metastasis is the primary cause of death for most solid cancer patients. We found that three anti-ENG mAbs SN6a, SN6j and SN6k which define individually distinct epitopes of ENG are capable of suppressing tumor metastases in the multiple metastasis models [40]. The metastasis models were generated by i.v., s.c. (into the flank) or mammary gland fat pad injection of 4T1 murine mammary carcinoma cells and splenic injections of two types of colon 26 murine colorectal carcinoma cells. Individual mAbs were injected i.v. *via* the tail vein of mice. SN6a and SN6j effectively suppressed formation of metastatic colonies of 4T1 in the lung in all of the three 4T1 metastatic models. In addition, these mAbs were effective for suppressing the primary tumors of 4T1 in the skin and mammary fat pad. These mAbs effectively suppressed microvessel density and angiogenesis in tumors as measured by the Matrigel plug assay in mice. No significant side effects of the administered mAbs were detected. Furthermore, SN6a and SN6j extended survival of the tumor-bearing mice. SN6j, SN6k and their immunoconjugates with deglycosylated ricin A-chain were all effective for suppressing hepatic metastasis of colon 26. These findings in the present study are clinically relevant in view of the ongoing clinical trial of a chimerized form of SN6j in patients with metastatic and/or advanced solid cancers.

7. Generation of a Human/Mouse Chimeric mAb c-SN6j and Test of c-SN6j in Nonhuman Primates

7.1. Generation and Characterization of c-SN6j

To facilitate clinical application of anti-ENG mAbs, we generated a human/mouse chimeric antibody c-SN6j from the parental murine anti-ENG mAb SN6j by replacing the constant regions of the light chain and the heavy chain (i.e., C_L and C_H) of mouse IgG with C_L and C_H of human IgG. We used human C_κ as C_L and human C_{γ1} or C_{γ3} as C_H. In generation of c-SN6j, we used the cassette expression vectors that were reported by Norderhaug *et al.* [74]. We generated both IgG1 and IgG3 chimeric mAbs to obtain γ1-c-SN6j and γ3-c-SN6j. The latter showed a slightly higher antigen-binding avidity than the former, but it showed substantially weaker ADCC than the former. In addition, human IgG1 is known to have a longer plasma half life *in vivo* than human IgG3 [75, 76]. In view of these facts, we selected γ1-c-SN6j (simply termed as c-SN6j) for the clinical application. The primary sequences of the variable regions of the light chain (V_L) and the heavy chain (V_H) of c-SN6j (also of SN6j) are shown in Figs. (3) and (4) respectively. The sequence analyses show that SN6j-V_L belongs to V_κ subgroup VI while SN6j-V_H belongs to V_H subgroup IIIC.

7.2. Production of GLP (Good Laboratory Practice)-Compliant c-SN6j and Test of the GLP c-SN6j in Non-human Primates

The genes for c-SN6j were transfected into NS0 mouse myeloma cells, and stable and high antibody-producing clones were selected. Gram quantities of GLP c-SN6j were produced using a selected clone at a commercial facility (Unisyn Technologies, Hopkinton, MA). We performed studies of pharmacokinetics (PKs), immunogenicity and toxicology of c-SN6j in monkeys after multiple i.v. injections [42]. A dose-escalation study was performed by administration of c-SN6j into six monkeys at the dose of 1 mg, 3 mg and 10 mg per kg body weight. In addition, both c-SN6j (3 mg/kg) and doxorubicin (0.275 mg/kg) were injected into two monkeys. c-SN6j and doxorubicin were injected twice a week for three weeks. We developed a unique and sensitive ELISA by sequentially targeting the common and idiotypic epitopes of c-SN6j-Fv to quantify plasma c-SN6j. Application of this ELISA showed that an increase in the c-SN6j dose resulted in a proportional increase in the circulating c-SN6j after the first injection. In addition, the estimated AUC (area under the curve) for the first injection of c-SN6j is proportional to the dose. We carried out detailed analyses of PKs of c-SN6j during and after the repeated injections. Our model of PKs fitted the empirical data well. Addition of doxorubicin modulated the PK parameters. We developed two new ELISAs to separately determine the immune responses to the murine part and the human part of c-SN6j in monkeys. Interestingly, the murine part induced a weaker immune response than the human part. Increases in the c-SN6j dose increased plasma levels of c-SN6j but did not increase the immune responses to c-SN6j. No significant toxicity of c-SN6j was detected by several criteria that included blood chemistry, observation of monkeys during and after the c-SN6j injections, and tissue histology after the SN6j-injected monkeys were sacrificed. An additional large scale dose-escalation study of c-SN6j was performed in monkeys in collaboration with Tracon Pharma. Results of this study were consistent with those of the earlier study [42] that are described above.

8. Conclusions and Future Directions

Tissue distribution pattern, molecular nature (e.g., a transmembrane glycoprotein), functional properties suggested us that endoglin (ENG) might be a promising target in vascular-targeting antiangiogenesis therapy (VTAT) of solid tumors and other angiogenesis-associated diseases such as hemangiomas, psoriasis and age-related macular degeneration [3, 77]. This hypothesis was supported by our studies of selected anti-ENG mAbs (SN6j, SN6a, SN6f and SN6k) and their immunoconjugates in tumor-bearing mice. To facilitate clinical application, we generated a human/mouse chimeric mAb termed c-SN6j and performed studies of pharmacokinetics (PKs), toxicology and immune response in nonhuman primates. No significant toxicity was detected by several criteria after repeated i.v. injections of c-SN6j and we detected minimal immune response to the murine part of c-SN6j. PK analysis indicated that the administered c-SN6j circulates in monkeys in a similar manner to other reported chimeric and humanized mAbs of IgG1 isotype in humans. The results suggest that c-SN6j can be safely administered in patients. This hypothesis is supported by an ongoing multicenter phase 1 clinical trial of GMP (Good Manufacturer Practice)-compliant c-SN6j (also known as TRC105; NCT00582985). This trial is conducted in collaboration with Tracon Pharma and oncologists at Premiere Oncology (Santa Monica, CA and Scottsdale, AZ), Roswell Park Cancer Institute and Duke University Medical Center [78]. Expansion of this clinical trial is under way.

It has been a long time since we first identified ENG as a tumor-associated homodimeric cell membrane glycoprotein in 1986 [7, 9]. Our long journey still continues and we hope that our efforts will lead to reductions of suffering of many cancer patients and their families, and will ultimately lead to saving of the lives of many cancer patients.

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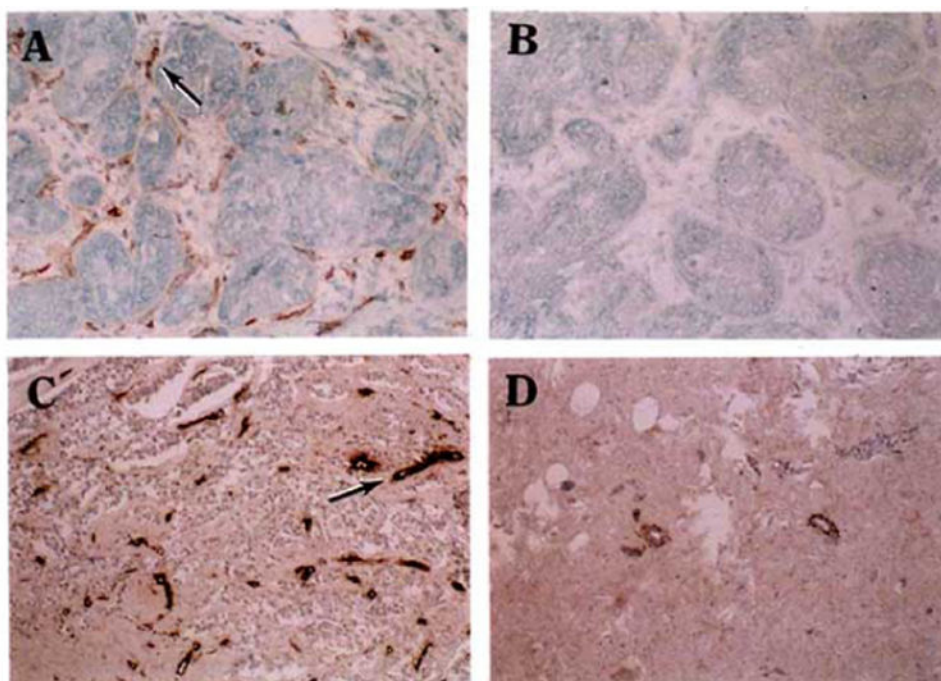


Fig. 1. Reactivity of anti-ENG mAbs with malignant and normal breast tissues. Frozen breast carcinoma tissues were allowed to react with anti-ENG mAb SN6 (**A**) or an isotype-matched control IgG (IgG1- κ) (**B**) and stained with DAKO staining kits. In an additional test, formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded tissues of breast carcinoma (**C**) or normal breast (**D**) were allowed to react with anti-ENG mAb SN6h and stained with DAKO staining kits. An example of the stained blood vessels is indicated by an arrow in panels **A** and **C**. SN6 and SN6h show strong staining with multiple blood vessels in malignant breast tissue (**A** and **C**). Control IgG did not show any significant staining in each of tested tissues and an example is presented in panel **B**. SN6h shows marginal staining with a few blood vessels in normal breast tissues (**D**). It is important to note that reactivity of SN6 and SN6h with malignant breast tissues is restricted to vascular endothelium and no significant reactivity of these mAbs with tumor cells *per se* is detected.

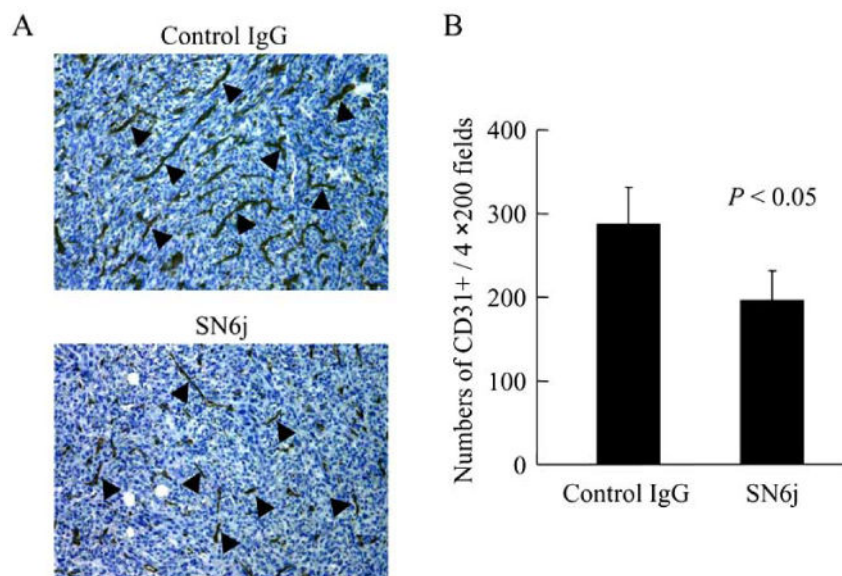


Fig. 2. Effect of SN6j on the Matrigel plug angiogenesis in mice. Matrigel Matrix mixed with 1.25×10^5 colon 26 cells was injected s.c. in the left flank of BALB/c mice on day 0. The mice were treated with $1.8 \mu\text{g/g}$ body weight of SN6j or isotype-matched control IgG via tail vein on day 1, 4 and 7. The Matrigel plugs were fixed on day 10 for immunohistochemical staining. *A*, examples of rat anti-mouse CD31 (PECAM-1) mAb staining of Matrigel plug sections from SN6j-treated and control IgG-treated mice. The sections were counterstained with hematoxylin. Arrowheads in the figure indicate representative CD31 positive vessels. *B*, the CD31 positive vessels in hotspots were counted in four separate $\times 200$ fields from 3 samples per group.

SN6j VL sequence

```

SN6JVL   Q I V L S Q S P A I L S A S P G E K V T
          CAA ATT GTT CTC TCC CAG TCT CCA GCA ATC CTG TCT GCA TCT CCA GGG GAG AAG GTC ACC
          60
-----FR1-----

SN6JVL   M T C R A S S S V S Y M H W Y Q Q K P G
          ATG ACT TGC AGG GCC AGT TCA AGT GTA AGT TAC ATG CAC TGG TAC CAG CAG AAG CCA GGA
          120
-----FR1-----\|-----CDR1-----\|-----FR2-----

SN6JVL   S S P K P W I Y A T S N L A S G V P V R
          TCC TCC CCC AAA CCC TGG ATT TAT GCC ACA TCC AAC CTG GCT TCT GGA GTC CCT GTT CGC
          180
-----FR2-----\|-----CDR2-----\|-----FR3-----

SN6JVL   F S G S G S G T S Y S L T I S R V E A E
          TTC AGT GGC AGT GGG TCT GGG ACC TCT TAC TCT CTC ACA ATC AGC AGA GTG GAG GCT GAA
          240
-----FR3-----

SN6JVL   D A A T Y Y C Q Q W S S N P L T F G A G
          GAT GCT GCC ACT TAT TAT TGC CAG CAG TGG AGT AGT AAT CCG CTC ACG TTC GGT GCT GGG
          300
-----FR3-----\|-----CDR3-----\|-----FR4-----

SN6JVL   T K L E L K R
          ACC AAG CTG GAG CTG AAA CGG
          321
-----FR4-----/
    
```

Fig. 3. Nucleotide sequence of the gene encoding V_L of c-SN6j (also of SN6j) and the deduced amino acid sequence of V_L of c-SN6j. FR and CDR denote the framework region and the complementarity-determining region of antibody, respectively.

SN6j VH sequence

```

SN6JVH   E V K L E E S G G G L V Q P G G S M K L
          GAA GTG AAG CTT GAG GAG TCT GGA GGA GGC TTG GTG CAA CCT GGA GGA TCC ATG AAA CTC
          60
          -----FR1-----
SN6JVH   S C A A S G F T F S D A W M D W V R Q S
          TCT TGT GCT GCC TCT GGA TTC ACT TTT AGT GAC GCC TGG ATG GAC TGG GTC CGC CAG TCT
          120
          -----FR1-----\|-----CDR1-----\|-----FR2-----
SN6JVH   P E K G L E W V A E I R S K A S N H A T
          CCA GAG AAG GGG CTT GAG TGG GTT GCT GAA ATT AGA AGC AAA GCT AGT AAT CAT GCA ACA
          180
          -----FR2-----\|-----CDR2-----
SN6JVH   Y Y A E S V K G R F T I S R D D S K S S
          TAC TAT GCT GAG TCT GTG AAA GGG AGG TTC ACC ATC TCA AGA GAT GAT TCC AAA AGT AGT
          240
          -----CDR2-----\|-----FR3-----
SN6JVH   V Y L Q M N S L R A E D T G I Y Y C T R
          GTC TAC CTG CAA ATG AAC AGC TTA AGA GCT GAA GAC ACT GGC ATT TAT TAC TGT ACC AGG
          300
          -----FR3-----\|-----CDR3-----
SN6JVH   W R R F F D S W G Q G T T L T V S S
          TGG CGG CGG TTT TTT GAC TCC TGG GGC CAA GGC ACC ACT CTC ACA GTC TCC TCA
          354
          -----CDR3-----\|-----FR4-----/

```

Fig. 4. Nucleotide sequence of the gene encoding V_H of c-SN6j (also of SN6j) and the deduced amino acid sequence of V_H of c-SN6j. FR and CDR denote as described in the legend to Fig. 3.