Role of Angiopoietin-2 in Adaptive Tumor Resistance to VEGF Signaling Blockade

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SUMMARY

Angiopoietin-2 (ANG2/ANGPT2) is a context-dependent TIE2 receptor agonist/antagonist and proangiogenic factor. Although ANG2 neutralization improves tumor angiogenesis and growth inhibition by vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)-A signaling blockade, the mechanistic underpinnings of such therapeutic benefits remain poorly explored. We employed late-stage RIP1-Tag2 pancreatic neuroendocrine tumors (PNETs) and MMTV-PyMT mammary adenocarcinomas, which develop resistance to VEGF receptor 2 (VEGFR2) blockade. We found that VEGFR2 inhibition upregulated ANG2 and vascular TIE2 and enhanced infiltration by TIE2-expressing macrophages in the PNETs. Dual ANG2/VEGFR2 blockade suppressed revascularization and progression in most of the PNETs, whereas it had only minor additive effects in the mammary tumors, which did not upregulate ANG2 upon VEGFR2 inhibition. ANG2/VEGFR2 blockade did not elicit increased PNET invasion and metastasis, although it exacerbated tumor hypoxia and hematopoietic cell infiltration. These findings suggest that evasive tumor resistance to anti-VEGFA therapy may involve the adaptive enforcement of ANG2-TIE2 signaling, which can be reversed by ANG2 neutralization.

INTRODUCTION

Tumor growth and progression depend on angiogenesis, the formation and expansion of intratumoral blood vessels. Among the positive regulators of tumor angiogenesis are the vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)-A and its endothelial cell (EC)-specific tyrosine kinase receptor, VEGF receptor 2 (VEGFR2) (Chung et al., 2010). However, preclinical studies in mice show that several tumor models are refractory or rapidly develop resistance to VEGFR2-targeting drugs (Bergers and Hanahan, 2008; Vasudev and Reynolds, 2014). Although there is clinical evidence for bevacizumab—a monoclonal antibody (moAb) that neutralizes human VEGFA—to decrease tumor angiogenesis, edema, and/or disease burden when administered as monotherapy (Van der Veldt et al., 2012; Willett et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2003), the survival improvements, also in combination with first-line anticancer drugs, are generally modest (Vasudev and Reynolds, 2014). The failure of VEGF pathway inhibitors to induce durable antitumoral responses mirrors that of other mechanism-targeted drugs (De Palma and Hanahan, 2012) and can be attributed to preexisting or induced compensatory proangiogenic signaling (Casanovas et al., 2005; Shojaei et al., 2008), some of which are conveyed by stromal cells (Bergers and Hanahan, 2008; De Palma and Lewis, 2013; Ferrara, 2010; Rivera et al., 2014). Furthermore, effective inhibition of tumor angiogenesis by anti-VEGFA/VEGFR2 moAbs or kinase inhibitors that also block the VEGFRs (e.g., sunitinib) may evoke forms of tumor adaptation that circumvent the need of angiogenesis, such as cancer growth by increased local invasion and blood vessel co-option (Bergers and Hanahan, 2008; Sennino and McDonald, 2012).

The angiopoietin (ANG)-TIE2 system regulates vascular development and maturation (Eklund and Saharinen, 2013). In the resting vasculature, pericyte-derived ANG1 constitutively binds the TIE2 receptor expressed on ECs to activate AKT signaling and promote EC survival and quiescence. Although angiopoietin-2 (ANG2/ANGPT2) can disrupt ANG1-TIE2 signaling, increasing data indicate that it can also function as a TIE2 agonist, particularly when overexpressed and/or in the absence of ANG1 (Daly et al., 2013; Gerald et al., 2013). In angiogenic tissues like tumors, ECs secrete high levels of ANG2, which operates autocrinally and paracrinally as the main TIE2 ligand to promote angiogenesis in concert with other proangiogenic factors, namely VEGFA (Eklund and Saharinen, 2013). ANG2, but not ANG1, levels are elevated in the plasma of patients with cancer compared to healthy subjects; furthermore, higher circulating ANG2 may correlate with a more advanced stage of the disease and/or a worse prognosis in some cancer types (Helfrich et al., 2009; Park et al., 2007). Although the mechanisms underlying the divergent vascular responses triggered by ANG1 and ANG2 remain poorly defined, different oligomerization states of ANG1 and ANG2 may differentially regulate the subcellular localization of TIE2 or its association with distinct cellular or matrix
coreceptors (Eklund and Saharinen, 2013). Furthermore, ANG2 may modulate the proangiogenic functions of perivascular TIE2-expressing macrophages (TEMs) (Mazzieri et al., 2011). ANG2 blockade decreases angiogenesis and slows the growth of several tumor models, often more prominently so when combined with VEGFA/VEGFR2 inhibitors (Brown et al., 2010; Daly et al., 2013; Hashizume et al., 2010; Holopainen et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2011; Kienast et al., 2013; Leow et al., 2012; Mazzieri et al., 2011). However, it is unclear whether ANG2-TIE2 signaling may sustain VEGF-independent angiogenesis in tumor models that are refractory or acquire resistance to VEGFA/VEGFR2-targeted drugs. For example, late-stage pancreatic neuroendocrine tumors (PNETs) that develop in RIP1-Tag2 mice revascularize following a transient response phase to VEGFA signaling blockade, a phenomenon associated with the compensatory upregulation of basic fibroblast growth factor 2 (FGF2) (Allen et al., 2011; Casanovas et al., 2005). Here, we employed two mouse tumor models, RIP1-Tag2 PNETs and MMTV-PyMT mammary adenocarcinomas, to investigate the putative role of ANG2 in adaptive tumor resistance to VEGFR2 blockade.

RESULTS

Combined ANG2/VEGFR2 Inhibition Blocks Revascularization and Progression of Late-Stage PNETs in RIP1-Tag2 Mice

We first studied ANG2/VEGFR2 blockade in late-stage PNETs of RIP1-Tag2 mice. We analyzed tumor growth and angiogenesis on pancreatic sections by anti-SV40 large T antigen (Tag) immunostaining (to identify Tag+ PNETs), anti-CD31/PECAM1 immunostaining (to identify blood vessels), and/or after in vivo fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-lectin perfusion and direct FITC visualization (to identify functional blood vessels).

We found that three consecutive doses (administered every 3.5 days) of either 0.5 or 1.0 mg of the anti-VEGFR2 moAb DC101 (Prewett et al., 1999) effectively and comparably decreased PNET vascularization by more than 60% in male RIP1-Tag2 mice treated starting at 12 weeks of age (versus rat immunoglobulin G [IgG] control [R.IgG]; Figure 1A). We therefore selected 0.5 mg DC101 per mouse given biweekly as the lower effective biological dose for further studies. We then treated 11.5- to 12.5-week-old male RIP1-Tag2 mice with biweekly injections of DC101, 3.19.3 (an anti-ANG2 moAb; Brown et al., 2010), the combination of the two (DC101 plus 3.19.3), or the appropriate IgG controls (R.IgG for DC101, human IgG [H.IgG] for 3.19.3, or the combination of the two [R plus H.IgG]), according to an extended treatment schedule (seven to eight consecutive doses for 3.5-4.0 weeks). We also treated a group of mice with three doses of DC101 followed by four doses of DC101 plus 3.19.3. We euthanized the treated mice at 15.0-16.0 weeks of age, which coincides with end-stage disease in this genetically engineered mouse model (GEMM) of cancer, or untreated mice at 12 weeks of age, in order to obtain pancreata at the initiation of therapy ($t_0$).

The total pancreatic tumor area was similar in DC101 and control IgG-treated mice (Figures 1B and 1C), indicating unaltered tumor progression under VEGFR2 blockade despite the initial antiangiogenic response. Likewise, 3.19.3 monotherapy had minimal effects on tumor progression. Conversely, DC101 plus 3.19.3-treated mice had a significantly smaller tumor area compared to mice treated with monotherapies or control IgGs. Of note, the pancreatic tumor area was indistinguishable from that at $t_0$, indicating that on average, DC101 plus 3.19.3-treated PNETs had not progressed since the $t_0$. The combination of DC101 and 3.19.3 was effective also when it was started after a short treatment schedule with DC101 monotherapy.

We then analyzed the pancreata by their gross appearance and found that those of DC101 plus 3.19.3-treated mice had exceedingly fewer hemorrhagic/vascularized tumors than those in the other groups (Figures 1D and S1A). To investigate this further, we analyzed tumor vascularization microscopically. Both DC101 and 3.19.3 administered singly decreased, albeit moderately, the relative CD31+ vascular area compared to control IgGs (by ~30% and 20%, respectively; Figure 1E). The relative vascular area in DC101-treated tumors had therefore increased compared to that at 1.5 weeks posttreatment (Figure 1A), a manifestation of adaptive resistance to antiangiogenic therapy (Casanovas et al., 2005). Of note, the combination of DC101 and 3.19.3 was much more effective than either alone and dramatically abated the proportion of PNETs with relatively high vascular area.

The tumor blood vessels differed qualitatively among the different treatment groups (Figure 1F). Control IgG-treated tumors displayed a dense vascular network, made of highly branched and heterogeneous vessels. Whereas DC101 did not appreciably modify the morphology of the blood vessels, those in 3.19.3-treated tumors were frequently more enlarged and less branched than in control IgG or DC101-treated tumors. Remarkably, DC101 plus 3.19.3 produced large avascular tumor areas (Figure S1B), suggesting that both inhibition of angiogenesis and vascular regression had occurred. In these tumors, the blood vessels were mostly located at the tumor periphery, were poorly branched, had a small diameter, and displayed enhanced coverage by neural-glial 2 (NG2)+ pericytes compared to those of control tumors (Figures 1G and 1H). The latter phenotype was possibly an anti-ANG2-mediated dominant effect because 3.19.3 induced a similar phenotype, in agreement with previous observations by Holopainen et al. (2012) and Mazzieri et al. (2011). Unlike DC101 monotherapy, both 3.19.3 and DC101 plus 3.19.3 reduced the relative lectin+ area compared to the controls (Figures 1I and S1C). The latter findings suggest that DC101 preferentially inhibits or prunes immature (nonperfused) blood vessels, whereas 3.19.3, or its combination with DC101, also targets more mature (perfused) blood vessels.

We obtained similar results in T and B cell-deficient Rag1−/−/RIP1-Tag2 mice, indicating that the antiangiogenic effects of ANG2/VEGFR2 blockade by 3.19.3 and DC101 are largely independent of the adaptive immune system (Figures 1I and S1A). Collectively, the aforementioned data indicate that ANG2 blockade effectively limits rebound angiogenesis following VEGF signaling blockade in PNETs.

ANG2/VEGFR2 Blockade Increases PNET Hypoxia and Hematopoietic-Cell Infiltration without Eliciting Increased Invasion and Metastasis in RIP1-Tag2 Mice

Efficient angiogenesis inhibition and/or vascular pruning by antiangiogenic drugs may exacerbate tumor hypoxia (Bergers and
Figure 1. **ANG2/VEGFR2 Blockade Abates PNET Progression and Angiogenesis in RIP1-Tag2 Mice**

(A) Relative lectin* vascular area (mean ± SEM) in PNETs treated for 1.5 weeks as indicated: R.IgG (n = 5 mice), low-dose DC101 (n = 6), and high-dose DC101 (n = 4). Each dot represents one mouse, of which multiple tumors were analyzed. Statistical analysis was performed by unpaired two-tailed Student’s t test.

(B) Representative images of TAg (green) immunostaining and DAPI (blue) nuclear staining of whole-pancreatic sections from mice treated as indicated. Scale bar, 3 mm.

(C) Total tumor area (mean ± SEM) in the largest pancreatic section of mice treated as indicated: t 0 (n = 21 mice), R.IgG (n = 6), H.IgG (n = 7), R+H.IgG (n = 15), DC101 (n = 9), 3.19.3 (n = 11), DC101+3.19.3 (n = 10), and DC101 followed by DC101+3.19.3 (n = 11). Each dot represents one mouse. Statistical analysis was performed by one-way ANOVA with multiple comparison Fisher’s LSD test. n.s., not significant.

(D) Left: representative images of whole pancreata from mice treated as indicated. Right panel shows the number of hemorrhagic PNETs (mean ± SEM) in each pancreas. Each dot represents one mouse. Statistical analysis was performed as in (C).

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Hanahan, 2008; Sennino and McDonald, 2012). Hypoxia was uneven, albeit prevalently low, in control PNETs (Figure 2A), consistent with adequate tumor perfusion by the rich vascular network. DC101-treated tumors were more hypoxic than the controls, but the degree of hypoxia was remarkably uneven, ranging from nonhypoxic to highly hypoxic regions, the latter often surrounding hemorrhagic/necrotic tumor areas. Consistent with their poor vascularization, DC101 plus 3.19.3-treated tumors were uniformly and highly hypoxic.

Previous studies have shown that antiangiogenesis-induced hypoxia may increase tumor invasion and metastasis (Bergers and Hanahan, 2008; Sennino and McDonald, 2012). We then analyzed PNET invasiveness as previously described by Paez-Ribes et al. (2009). Although being highly hypoxic, DC101 plus 3.19.3-treated tumors did not display increased invasiveness compared to the other experimental groups, as shown by the similar frequency of noninvasive (IC0), microinvasive (IC1), and widely invasive (IC2) PNETs (Figure 2B). Furthermore, we did not detect obvious, treatment-dependent effects on the incidence of liver micrometastases (Table S1; Figures S2A and S2B). These observations suggest that angiogenesis inhibition in DC101 plus 3.19.3-treated PNETs leads to a chronically hypoxic tumor state, which impedes tumor growth but does not elicit heightened invasion or metastasis.

Vascular-targeted therapies may also enhance tumor infiltration by proangiogenic cells through both hypoxia-dependent and -independent mechanisms (De Palma and Lewis, 2013; Ferrara, 2010; Rivera et al., 2014). We found that DC101 plus 3.19.3 increased tumor infiltration by CD45+ hematopoietic cells (Figures 2C and 2D)—the vast majority of which were macrophages (Figure 2E)—compared to the other treatment groups. Because the extent of tumor infiltration by CD45+ cells correlated with tumor vascularization in both DC101 plus 3.19.3 and control IgG-treated PNETs (Figure 2F), it is conceivable that therapy-induced, de novo recruitment of hematopoietic cells/macro- phages may have contributed to limit—at least to some degree—the antiangiogenic and tumor-suppressive effects of ANG2/VEGF2 blockade in RIP1-Tag2 mice.

VEGFR2 Blockade Upregulates ANG2 and TIE2 in the PNETs of RIP1-Tag2 Mice

We then sought to investigate the molecular events underlying the synergistic antiangiogenic and antitumoral effects of double ANG2/VEGF2 blockade in the PNETs. To this aim, we first dissected and classified individual tumors as either hemorrhagic/red (R) or nonhemorrhagic/whitish (W) based on their appearance under a stereomicroscope. Virtually all the PNETs in control IgG-treated mice and the vast majority in either DC101 or 3.19.3-treated mice were R. On the contrary, only a small minority of the tumors were classified so in DC101 plus 3.19.3-treated mice (Figures 1D and S1A; data not shown). Quantitative PCR (qPCR) analysis of the EC-specific gene VE-Cadherin (Cdh5) showed that the R and W categories fairly distinguished PNETs with relatively high and low abundance of vascular ECs, respectively (Figure S3A).

We found that DC101-treated tumors had significantly upregulated Angpt2 transcript levels specifically in the R samples compared to the W samples or IgG-treated tumors (Figures 3A and S3B), possibly through a hypoxia-mediated mechanism (Figure S3C). When normalized to the mean vascular area fraction (see Figure 1E), Angpt2 transcript levels were, on average, ~2.5 higher in the R DC101 than IgG-treated tumors (Figure 3A), a finding confirmed by ELISA of ANG2 protein (Figure 3B). Of note, circulating ANG2 levels did not increase in the plasma of DC101-treated mice (Figure S3D). We found that DC101 also upregulated Fgf2 in the R samples compared to IgG-treated tumors (Figure S3E), as reported previously by Casanovas et al. (2005).

Whereas ANG2 is restricted to ECs (Goede et al., 2010), TIE2 is expressed in tumors by both ECs and perivascular macrophages (Eklund and Saharinen, 2013; Mazzieri et al., 2011). When normalized to mean vascular area fraction values, the qPCR data showed a trend toward increased Tek transcript levels in R DC101 versus control IgG-treated PNETs (Figure 3C). Because ligand bioavailability and other ill-defined factors may control the trafficking and turnover of the TIE2 receptor posttranscriptionally (Eklund and Saharinen, 2013), we also analyzed TIE2 protein expression in blood vessels and macrophages by immunostaining. Although TIE2 expression was heterogeneous in the blood vessels, the relative TIE2+ vascular area was significantly higher in DC101-treated than control tumors (Figures 3D and 3E). Moreover, DC101 increased the proportion of TEMs among the total CD45+ hematopoietic cells (Figures 3F and 3G), in agreement with recent studies in other tumor models (Gabrusiewicz et al., 2014). Taken together, these findings indicate that VEGF2 blockade adaptively upregulated both ANG2 and TIE2 expression in late-stage PNETs, possibly to reinforce autocrine and/or paracrine ANG2-TIE2 signaling in ECs and TEMs.

Minor Addictive Effects of ANG2/VEGF2 Blockade in the Absence of ANG2 Upregulation in MMTV-PyMT Mammary Tumors

Human breast cancers are poorly sensitive to anti-VEGFA therapy (Vasudev and Reynolds, 2014). We then asked whether ANG2 blockade could improve the antitumoral activity of DC101 in MMTV-PyMT mammary adenocarcinomas growing orthotopically in syngenic mice (Mazzieri et al., 2011). DC101
Figure 2. ANG2/VEGFR2 Blockade Increases PNET Hypoxia and Hematopoietic-Cell Infiltration, but Not Local Invasion, in RIP1-Tag2 Mice

(A) Representative images of PNETs treated as indicated (R+H.IgG, n = 3 mice; DC101, n = 3; and DC101+3.19.3, n = 3) and stained with an anti-PIMO mAb (brown) to reveal hypoxia. Scale bars, 1 mm (left images) and 200 μm (middle and right images). Exo, exocrine pancreatic tissue; Hy, hypoxic/necrotic tissue. Asterisks indicate blood vessels/islands decorated unspecifically by the secondary Ab.

(B) Top panels present quantification of tumor invasion shown as the percentage (mean ± SEM) of IC0, IC1, and IC2 PNETs treated as indicated: R.IgG, H.IgG, or R+H.IgG (IgG) (n = 13 mice, 115 tumors); DC101 (n = 5 mice, 44 tumors); 3.19.3 (n = 5 mice, 36 tumors); and DC101+3.19.3 (n = 5 mice, 46 tumors). No significant differences were found by one-way ANOVA with multiple comparison Fisher’s LSD test. Bottom panels show representative images of IC0, IC1, and IC2 PNETs stained as in Figure 1B. Scale bars, 200 μm.

(C) Lectin (green) and CD45 (red) immunostaining and DAPI nuclear (blue) staining of PNETs treated as indicated. Scale bars, 300 μm.

(D) Relative area of CD45+ cells in PNETs treated as indicated: R.IgG (n = 6 mice), H.IgG (n = 7), R+H.IgG (n = 3), DC101 (n = 9), 3.19.3 (n = 7), and DC101+3.19.3 (n = 5). Each dot represents one mouse, of which multiple tumors were analyzed. The data show two independent experiments combined. Statistical analysis was performed as in Figure 1C.

(E) F4/80 (green) and CD45 (red) immunostaining of a representative PNET treated as indicated. Scale bar, 100 μm.

(F) Correlation between the relative lectin+ and CD45+ area in individual PNETs treated as indicated: R+H.IgG (n = 3 mice) and DC101+3.19.3 (n = 4). Each dot represents one tumor. Statistical analysis was performed by Spearman’s rank correlation test.
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inhibited the growth and decreased angiogenesis of established tumors more effectively than 3.19.3 (Figures 4A and 4B). However, evasive resistance to DC101 became apparent after an initial response phase (Figure 4C). ANG2 blockade delayed the emergence of evasive resistance to DC101 but did not produce disease stabilization and hardly had additive antiangiogenic effects compared to DC101 monotherapy (Figure 4D).

We then analyzed the expression of ANG2 and TIE2 in DC101-treated tumors harvested at either early or late stages of the resistance phase. Although VEGFR2 blockade increased Tek transcript levels and the proportion of TIE2+ blood vessels in the tumors (Figures S4A and S4B)—similar to the finding in RIP1-Tag2 mice—it did not increase Angpt2/ANG2 transcript and protein levels (Figures 4E and 4F). Overall, Angpt2 transcript levels were significantly lower in the mammary carcinomas than in the PNETs, both at baseline and after DC101 (Figure 4G). Together, these observations suggest a direct association between the lack of upregulation of Angpt2/ANG2 levels by DC101 and the lack of synergistic antiangiogenic/antitumoral activities by ANG2/VEGFR2 blockade in MMTV-PyMT mammary carcinomas.

**Higher Intratumoral ANGPT2 Levels May Predict a Worse Response to Bevacizumab-Containing Antiangiogenic Therapy**

The aforementioned data suggest that higher intratumoral levels of ANG2 might predict a worse response to VEGFA-targeting therapies, possibly also through routes that are independent of an adaptive mechanism of upregulation. To explore this hypothesis, we analyzed gene expression microarray data from a phase II trial of neoadjuvant bevacizumab and radiotherapy for resectable soft tissue sarcoma (Yoon et al., 2011). In that study, 50% of the patients showed major or complete pathologic responses (≥80% tumor necrosis). We found that higher pretreatment levels of ANGPT2 were, albeit weakly, associated with a poor response to neoadjuvant therapy (Figure S4C). Because the EC-specific genes CDH5 and KDR (VEGFR2) were not differentially expressed in tumors with a good or bad response, the data suggest that ANGPT2 may be a predictive biomarker of response to bevacizumab in this tumor type.

**DISCUSSION**

In this study, we report that (1) evasive resistance to antiangiogenic therapy by VEGFA signaling blockade in RIP1-Tag2 PNETs is associated with the adaptive upregulation of Angpt2/ANG2, (2) combined ANG2/VEGFR2 blockade blunts rebound angiogenesis and blocks tumor progression in the vast majority of the PNETs, and (3) the lack of adaptive upregulation of Angpt2/ANG2 may lie behind the lack of synergy between VEGFA and ANG2 signaling blockade in MMTV-PyMT mammary carcinomas. Our analysis of published microarray data (Yoon et al., 2011), although limited, further indicates that higher intratumoral levels of ANGPT2 in nontreated human sarcomas may predict a poor response to bevacizumab-containing neoadjuvant therapy, thus suggesting that elevated ANG2 may curb tumor responsiveness to VEGF neutralization also through a primary resistance/refractoriness mechanism (Bergers and Hanahan, 2008). Together with our findings in mouse tumor models, the aforementioned clinical data may motivate the selection of patients that are more likely to respond to bevacizumab-containing neoadjuvant therapy based on low intratumoral ANG2 levels.

Whereas intratumoral Angpt2/ANG2 levels were upregulated, its circulating levels did not increase in DC101-treated RIP1-Tag2 mice, possibly because of the overall low tumor burden in this GEMM of cancer. Recent studies have shown that higher pretreatment levels of plasma/serum ANG2 predict an unfavorable clinical outcome in patients with metastatic colorectal cancer (CRC) treated by bevacizumab in combination with chemotherapy (Goede et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2013). However, these studies did not stratify patients according to disease burden. We found that circulating levels of ANG2 increase proportionally with the tumor burden in transgenic MMTV-PyMT mice (data not shown), in agreement with findings in patients with melanoma (Helfrich et al., 2009). Thus, lower circulating ANG2 levels might mirror a lower disease burden, which may associate with a more favorable clinical outcome in metastatic CRC (Goede et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2013). It remains to be seen whether intratumoral ANG2 levels could predict tumor response to bevacizumab-containing therapies in CRC and, possibly, other cancer types.

A recent study has shown that ANG2 can activate the TIE2 receptor on ECs to protect them from the antiangiogenic effects of VEGF inhibition (Daly et al., 2013). Our findings in RIP1-Tag2 mice not only support those of Daly et al. (2013) but also put forward the concept that VEGFA signaling blockade may adaptively enforce ANG2-TIE2 signaling to promote VEGF-independent tumor angiogenesis. Although it is unclear why MMTV-PyMT mammary carcinomas did not upregulate ANG2 in response to VEGFR2 blockade, it is tempting to speculate that transient vascular pruning and increased tumor hypoxia may have enforced ANG2 transcription and secretion from the remaining blood vessels in the PNETs, thus rescuing angiogenesis. Consistent with this scenario and previous data (Oh et al., 1999), we...
Figure 4. ANG2/VEGFR2 Blockade Does Not Upregulate Angpt2/ANG2 and Has Minor Additive Effects in MMTV-PyMT Mammary Tumors

(A) Left panel shows volume (mean ± SEM) of orthotopic MMTV-PyMT tumors treated as indicated: R.IgG (n = 5), H.IgG (n = 4), DC101 (n = 4), and 3.19.3 (n = 4). Right panel shows tumor weight (fold change versus R.IgG, ±SEM) at the end of the experiment. Statistical analysis was performed by unpaired two-tailed Student’s t test versus the IgG control.

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found that hypoxia upregulated Angpt2 transcription in cultured ECs. Other cues may regulate ANG2 expression, possibly in concert with hypoxia. For example, the FOXO transcription factors can promote ANGPT2 transcription in human ECs in response to low AKT signaling (Daly et al., 2006). VEGFA activates the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/AKT pathway in ECs (Calessin-Welsh and Welsh, 2013), so attenuation of AKT signaling by VEGFR2 blockade may activate Angpt2 transcription via enhanced FOXO activity, restore AKT signaling, and promote EC survival via autocrine activation of the TIE2 receptor (Daly et al., 2013).

Tumor blood vessels typically display variegated TIE2 expression (Fathers et al., 2005; Felcht et al., 2012). Our finding of increased TIE2 expression in the blood vessels of DC101-treated tumors is intriguing. There is evidence for VEGFA signaling to directly inhibit TIE2 expression in ECs (Felcht et al., 2012), so its interception may enhance TIE2 expression. Furthermore, under the selective pressure of DC101, the growth of blood vessels that express higher TIE2 levels may be favored due to enhanced prosurvival signaling conveyed by the TIE2 receptor. Although we could not reliably assess TIE2 phosphorylation in tumor lysates (data not shown), DC101-treated PNETs upregulated the expression of both ANG2 and TIE2 in the tumor ECs, possibly re-inforcing TIE2 signal transduction. On the other hand, the mammalian tumors expressed lower ANG2, and DC101 did not increase its levels, hence hindering the ability of TIE2-expressing vessels to convey prosurvival and proangiogenic signals.

Late-stage RIP1-Tag2 PNETs develop resistance to VEGFA signaling blockade (Bergers and Hanahan, 2008). In agreement with previous studies by Casanovas et al. (2005), we found that a short treatment trial with DC101 substantially decreased the PNET vascular area, but consistent with the development of resistance, the tumors subsequently revascularized. It should be emphasized that, in our studies, we dosed DC101 at 0.5 mg/mouse (40 mg/kg/week), which is lower than the maximal effective (and tolerated) dose of 0.8–1.0 mg employed in other studies (Casanovas et al., 2005; Paez-Ribes et al., 2009). Because 0.5 and 1.0 mg DC101 similarly and effectively inhibited PNET angiogenesis after a short treatment trial, 0.5 mg per mouse given biweekly might represent the optimal biological dose of DC101 in RIP1-Tag2 mice. Incidentally, the recommended effective dose of ramucirumab—a clinically approved DC101-related H.IgG1 mAb that blocks VEGFR2 (Spritlin et al., 2010)—is several times lower than that employed in our preclinical studies.

Whereas there is consensus that high doses of the multikine inhibitor sunitinib may increase tumor invasion and metastasis, at least in mouse models of cancer (Blagoev et al., 2013; Chung et al., 2012; Ebos et al., 2009; Paez-Ribes et al., 2009; Singh et al., 2012), the effects of specific VEGFA/VEGFR2 inhibition have been inconsistent (Chung et al., 2012; Paez-Ribes et al., 2009; Sennino et al., 2012; Singh et al., 2012). Our findings indicate that, at a biweekly dose of 0.5 mg/mouse, DC101 does not aggravate PNET invasion and liver metastasis in RIP1-Tag2 mice. Furthermore, dual ANG2/VEGFR2 blockade blunted PNET (re)vascularization, increased hypoxia, but did not increase tumor invasion or metastasis in this mouse model. The anti-ANG2 mAb 3.19.3 potently suppresses spontaneous tumor metastasis in various mouse models of cancer (Holopainen et al., 2012; Mazzieri et al., 2011), so it is conceivable that ANG2 blockade retains its antimitastatic activity also in combination with other anticancer treatments. Because ANG2 blockade limits the proangiogenic functions of TEMs (Mazzieri et al., 2011), it is likely that the antitumoral activity of double ANG2/VEGFR2 blockade in PNETs also entails direct inhibitory effects on these perivascular macrophages.

Several ANG2-specific moAbs have been developed that are currently being evaluated in clinical trials (Eroglu et al., 2013; Gerald et al., 2013). Randomized trials of the ANG1/ANG2 bispecific peptibody AMG-386 (trebananib), in combination with chemotherapy or other antiangiogenic agents, have shown varying results (Eroglu et al., 2013; Monk et al., 2014; Peeters et al., 2013; Rini et al., 2012). Clinical studies employing ANG2-specific inhibitors are yet to be reported, and given the opposing roles of ANG1 and ANG2 in tumor angiogenesis, the clinical responses may differ from those obtained using bispecific inhibitors. ANG2 is increasingly recognized as an important molecular determinant for cancer cell metastasis (Holopainen et al., 2012; Mazzieri et al., 2011; Minami et al., 2013; Rigamonti and De Palma, 2013), so combined ANG2 and VEGFA signaling inhibition may represent a dual angioinhibitory and antimitastatic strategy that could increase the efficacy and safety of antiangiogenic therapy in cancer types that switch from a VEGF to an ANG2-dependent mode of angiogenesis.

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

Detailed methods are provided as Supplemental Experimental Procedures.

**Mouse Tumor Models**

FVB mice were purchased from Charles River Laboratories. Breeding pairs of transgenic C57Bl/6/J/RIP1-Tag2, C57Bl/6/J/Rag1−/−/RIP1-Tag2, and FVB/MMTV-PyMT mice were donated by Douglas Hanahan and Joerg Huelsken (ISREC, EPFL). Male mice heterozygous for the oncogene were bred with
wild-type females. Pups were genotyped for the SV40 large TAg (RIP1-Tag2 mice) or the Polyoma virus middle TAg (MMTV-PyMT mice) by Transnetyx (http://www.transnetyx.com). Starting from 12 weeks of age, RIP1-Tag2 mice were maintained on a sucrose-enriched diet and monitored daily. An orthotopic MMTV-PyMT tumor model was obtained by implanting dispersed tumor-derived cells from 14- to 15-week-old transgenic MMTV-PyMT mice in the fourth mammary fat pad of syngeneic (FVB) mice. All procedures were performed according to protocols approved by the Veterinary Authorities of the Canton Vaud according to the Swiss Law (licenses 2574 and 2577).

moAbs and Mouse Trials
All moAbs were provided by MedImmune and were screened for endotoxin content and activity before administration. We used the following moAbs: rat anti-mouse VEGFR2 IgG1 (DC101) at 20 mg/kg (Prewett et al., 1999); control R.IgGs at 20 mg/kg; human anti-mouse ANG2 IgG2 (3.19.3) at 10 mg/kg (Brown et al., 2010); control H.IgGs at 10 mg/kg; or their combination. The tu-

moAbs were provided by MedImmune and were screened for endotoxin content and activity before administration. We used the following moAbs: rat anti-mouse VEGFR2 IgG1 (DC101) at 20 mg/kg (Prewett et al., 1999); control R.IgGs at 20 mg/kg; human anti-mouse ANG2 IgG2 (3.19.3) at 10 mg/kg (Brown et al., 2010); control H.IgGs at 10 mg/kg; or their combination. The tumors (MMTV-PyMT model), pancreata, livers, and plasma (RIP1-Tag2 model) were harvested at necropsy for analysis, including (1) staining of tissue sections and analysis of vascularization, hypoxia, tumor invasion, and metastasis; (2) gene expression by qPCR; and (3) ELISA. In some experiments, before euthanasia, the mice received a systemic injection of FITC-labeled lectin (to reveal perfused blood vessels) or pimonidazole (to reveal hypoxic tissue).

Statistical Analysis
Unless indicated otherwise, values are expressed as mean ± SEM. Statistical analyses are performed by one-way ANOVA with multiple comparison Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) test or unpaired two-tailed Student's t test, as indicated in each figure panel. Detailed information is available in the Supplemental Experimental Procedures. Differences were considered statistically significant as follows: * = 0.01 ≤ p < 0.05; ** = 0.001 ≤ p < 0.01; *** = p < 0.001.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION
Supplemental Information includes Supplemental Experimental Procedures, four figures, and one table and can be found with this article online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2014.06.059.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
N.R. designed research and performed tumor studies and morphometric analyses. E.K. performed tumor studies and morphometric analyses. I.K. performed gene expression studies and ELISA. C.W.R. managed mouse colonies and performed treatment trials. C.C.L. provided moAbs and intellectual input. M.D.P. designed and supervised research, analyzed data, and wrote the paper with input from all authors.

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