Cilengitide inhibits metastatic bone colonization in a nude rat model

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Abstract. Integrins αvβ3 and αvβ5 are considered to play an important role in the pathogenesis of breast cancer bone metastases. This study investigates the effects of the αvβ3/αvβ5 integrin-specific inhibitor cilengitide during early metastatic bone colonization. The impact of cilengitide on the migration, invasion and proliferation of MDA-MB-231 human breast carcinoma cells as well as on bone resorption by osteoclasts was investigated in vitro. For in vivo experiments, nude rats were treated with cilengitide for 30 days starting one day after site-specific tumor cell inoculation in the hind leg, and the course of metastatic changes in bone was followed using flat-panel volumetric computed tomography (VCT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). Vascular changes in bone metastases were investigated using dynamic contrast-enhanced (DCE-) MRI-derived parameters amplitude A and exchange rate coefficient kex. In vitro, cilengitide treatment resulted in a decrease in proliferation, migration and invasion of MDA-MB-231 cells, as well as of osteoclast activity. In vivo, the development of bone metastasis in the hind leg of rats was not prevented by adjuvant cilengitide treatment, but cilengitide reduced the volumes of osteolytic lesions and respective soft tissue tumors of developing bone metastases as assessed with VCT and MRI, respectively. DCE-MRI revealed significant changes in the A and kex parameters including decreased relative blood volume and increased vessel permeability after cilengitide treatment indicating vessel remodeling. In conclusion, during early pathogenic processes of bone colonization, cilengitide treatment exerted effects on tumor cells, osteoclasts and vasculature reducing the skeletal lesion size of experimental skeletal metastases.

Introduction

Metastasis is a common finding during malignant tumor disease and is the major cause of death in women with breast cancer. Bone metastases occur in approximately 70% of breast cancer patients and cause severe complications including pathological bone fracture, bone pain, hypercalcemia and spinal cord compression (1). Adjuvant treatment options for inhibiting breast cancer bone metastases are currently limited to hormone therapy, chemotherapy and bisphosphonates. Although these drugs are administered to decrease the number and size of developing bone metastases, their use may be limited due to severe side effects or non-responsiveness (2-4). It is therefore crucial to understand the factors that regulate pathogenic processes in the establishment of bone metastases and to develop new and more effective therapies.

Members of the integrin family influence several aspects of tumor progression and metastasis. Specific integrins such as αvβ3 and αvβ5 are involved in regulating migration, invasion and proliferation of osteotropic tumor cells as well as bone colonization and angiogenesis induced by metastasized cells. αvβ3 and αvβ5 integrins were shown to influence these processes by mediating interactions with extracellular matrix (ECM) proteins, e.g. bone sialoprotein (BSP), through the arginine-glycine-aspartic acid (RGD) motif and matrix metalloproteinase-2 (MMP-2) in promoting osteotropic cancer cell invasion (5-8). In tumor-induced angiogenesis, αvβ3 and αvβ5 integrins are up-regulated on activated endothelial cells, and are involved in the initiation of new vessel formation, endothelial cell survival and vascular permeability (9,10). Osteoclasts also express αvβ3 integrin to facilitate migration, adhesion to bone, and resorption of the bone matrix (11). The preventive treatment of animals bearing MDA-MB-435 breast cancer cells with a peptidomimetic inhibitor of αvβ3 was shown to reduce bone destruction (12).

Cilengitide (EMD 121974) is a small cyclic RGD-containing pentapeptide that selectively inhibits αvβ3 and αvβ5 integrins (13-15). Cilengitide acts on αvβ3/αvβ5-expressing tumor cells, depriving them of signals needed for survival and proliferation, which results in the inhibition of angiogenesis and tumor growth (15-17). In late-stage clinical trials, cilengitide exerted anti-tumor effects in glioblastoma multiforme and demonstrated a good safety profile (18,19).
Recently, we demonstrated that the inhibition of \( \alpha_\beta_5/\alpha_\beta_5 \) integrins by cilengitide reduced bone resorption and soft tissue tumor growth in well-established experimental breast cancer bone metastases (20). However, the effect of the inhibition of \( \alpha_\beta_5/\alpha_\beta_5 \) integrins during the processes of bone colonization by breast cancer cells is unknown, i.e. in an adjuvant treatment setting. To examine whether therapeutic targeting of \( \alpha_\beta_5/\alpha_\beta_5 \) integrins by cilengitide impedes bone metastasis formation, we first investigated the effects of cilengitide on the migration, invasion and proliferation of MDA-MB-231 human breast cancer cells and on osteoclast activity in vitro. Furthermore, we studied the effects of adjuvant cilengitide treatment in vivo assessing tumor growth, bone resorption and angiogenesis of developing skeletal metastases in nude rats by non-invasive imaging techniques.

Materials and methods

In vitro assays

Migration assay. A model for cell migration was used to characterize the metastatic ability of MDA-MB-231 cells in the presence of cilengitide. The migration assay consisted of two compartments. The bottom layer (24-well plate, Nunc) was utilized to stimulate and take up those cells which were to migrate through the pores of a polycarbonate filter membrane (pore size 8 µm; upper layer) as previously described with the following minor modifications (21,22). MDA-MB-231 cells (1x10^5) (purchased from ATCC and cultivated under standard conditions) were incubated with cilengitide (EMD 121974; Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) at concentrations ranging from 1-200 µg/ml (1.7-340 µM). The bottom layer was filled with 0.5 ml conditioned media from SAOS-2 osteosarcoma cells as a chemoattractant instead of SAOS-2 osteosarcoma cells. The polycarbonate filter was removed from the bottom chamber after 24, 48 and 72 h of cultivation and transferred onto a fresh bottom chamber well. Cells migrating through the pores into the bottom layer were counted daily for four days using an inverted microscope.

Invasion assay. Cell culture inserts (24-well) with 8-µm pores were coated with a thin layer of collagen type I solution prepared as follows: 8 volumes of ice-cold collagen solution (4 mg/ml in 0.1% acetic acid) and 1 volume of 10X Hanks' buffered saline were neutralized with NaOH as previously described (23). MDA-MB-231 cells (10^5) suspended in 1 ml RPMI-1640 medium were plated onto the upper compartment of a transwell chamber. The lower chamber was filled with 1 ml RPMI-1640 medium. MDA-MB-231 cells were incubated with cilengitide or RPMI-1640 medium alone for 5 days with cilengitide at concentrations of 1-200 µg/ml. After incubation for 1, 3 and 5 days, filters were then washed with PBS, and the non-invading cells that remained on the upper surface of the filter were removed with a cotton swab. Invading cells were fixed in 80% ethanol for 30 min and stained with耍er's Hemalaun solution for 3 h. These invaded cells were visualized and counted from six randomly selected fields of view under an inverted microscope.

Proliferation assay. RPMI medium (100 µl per well) containing 5x10^4 MDA-MB-231 cells was seeded onto 96-well plates (Microtest™, Becton-Dickinson, Heidelberg, Germany) as previously described (22). After 24 h, 100 µl medium was added which contained cilengitide (1-200 µg/ml). The plates were cultured for 1-5 days, and then 10 µl/well of 3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl]-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT; 10 mg/ml) was added. The supernatant was removed after 3 h of incubation, and the formazan crystals that developed were dissolved by adding 100 µl acidified 2-propanol/well (0.04 N HCl). Extinction was measured by an automated microtiter plate reader at 540 nm, reference filter 690 nm (Multiscan FC, Thermo Fisher Scientific Oy, Vantaa, Finland).

Bone resorption assay. A 96-well OsteoLysertm cell culture plate (Lanza, Walkersville, MD, USA) coated with fluorophore-derivatized human bone matrix (europium-conjugated collagen) was used. Primary osteoclast precursors (BioCat, Heidelberg, Germany) were seeded onto the cell culture plate in medium containing M-CSF (macrophage colony-stimulating factor) and soluble RANKL (receptor activator of nuclear factor \( \kappa \)B ligand). After 5 days of differentiation, osteoclasts were cultured for 5 days and treated with cilengitide (1-200 µg/ml). The resorptive activity of the osteoclasts, as reflected by the release of europium-labelled collagen fragments, was measured by sampling the cell culture supernatant after 5 days of incubation with cilengitide. The cell culture supernatants were added to a fluorophore-releasing reagent in a second 96-well assay plate and counted using a time-resolved fluorescence fluorimeter (excitation 340 nm; emission 615 nm).

Animal model and treatment application. Experiments performed in this study were approved by the governmental animal ethics committee (Regierungspräsidium Karlsruhe). Nude rats (RNU strain; Harlan-Winkelmann GmbH, Borchen, Germany) at the age of six weeks were housed in a specific pathogen-free environment in a mini barrier system under controlled conditions. For all procedures, rats were anesthetized using a mixture of nitrous oxide (1 l/min), oxygen (0.5 l/min) and isoflurane (1.5 vol%). MDA-MB-231 cells (10^5) were injected into the right superficial epigastric artery as described previously (24). Resulting bone metastases were observed exclusively in the femur, tibia and fibula of the right hind leg.

A total of 21 rats were treated with high dose (HD; 75 mg/kg) and 21 rats with low dose (LD; 25 mg/kg) cilengitide intraperitoneally five times per week, between days 1 and 30 after tumor cell inoculation. Animals that developed bone metastases after cilengitide treatment (HD, n=15 rats; LD, n=17 rats) were compared to the untreated control rats (n=17 rats) at days 30 and 35 after tumor cell inoculation using non-invasive imaging methods.

In vivo imaging and postprocessing. In vivo imaging of experimental bone metastases was performed on day 30 and 35 after the inoculation of cancer cells using a flat-panel volumetric computed tomograph (VCT; Volume CT; Siemens, Germany) and a 1.5 T clinical magnetic resonance scanner (Symphony; Siemens, Germany) as previously described (25). Briefly, VCT imaging was performed using the following parameters: tube voltage 80 kV, tube current 50 mA, scan time 51 sec, rotation speed 10 sec, frames per second 120,
matrix 512 x 512, and slice thickness 0.2 mm. T2-weighted MR imaging was performed using a turbo spin echo sequence (orientation axial, TR 3240 msec, TE 81 msec, matrix 152 x 256, FOV 90 x 53.4 mm², slice thickness 1.5 mm, 3 averages, scan time 3:40 min). Dynamic contrast-enhanced MRI (DCE-MRI) was performed using a saturation recovery turbo flash sequence through the largest diameter of the tumor (orientation axial, TR 373 msec, TE 1.86 msec, matrix 192 x 144, FOV 130 x 97.5 mm, slice thickness 5 mm, measurements 512, averages 1, scan time 6:55 min). After 20 sec baseline 0.1 mmol/kg Gd-DTPA (Magnevist, Schering, Germany) was infused intravenously over a time period of 10 sec.

The volumes (ml) of the osteolytic lesions and the soft tissue components were determined from unenhanced VCT and MRI-acquired T2-weighted images using the Medical Imaging Interaction Toolkit (MITK, Heidelberg, Germany), respectively. DCE-MRI data were analyzed using the Dynalab software (Fraunhofer Mevis Research, Bremen, Germany) according to the two-compartment pharmacokinetic model of Brix to calculate the parameters amplitude A [(a.u.), associated with blood volume] and exchange rate constant \( k_{ep} \) [(1/sec), associated with vessel permeability] as previously reported (25).

**Histology.** On day 35 after tumor cell inoculation, animals were sacrificed. The lower limbs of each animal were excised and processed as described previously (25). For immunostaining, the sections (embedded in Technovit® 9100 NEU, Heraeus Kulzer, Germany) were incubated overnight with the following primary antibodies: rabbit anti-collagen IV pAB (1:50, Progen Biotechnik GmbH, Heidelberg, Germany) and mouse anti-smooth muscle actin (SMA) polyclonal antibody (1:400; Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). Sections were incubated with the secondary antibody for 1 h at room temperature as follows: Cy™ 2-conjugated donkey anti rabbit IgG and Texas Red® dye-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (1:50 and 1:100, respectively; Jackson Immunoresearch, Suffolk, UK). After a nuclear staining step with 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; Serva, Germany) sections were mounted in Fluoromount G (Southern Biotech, USA). Sections were examined using a Leica microscope (DMRE Bensheim, Germany) equipped with an adapted digital camera. Mean positive area fractions of SMA and collagen IV (%) as well as mean vessel diameters (µm) were determined from 4 representative animals of each group analyzing 10 fields of view chosen randomly using Analysis software (cell²; Olympus Soft Imaging Solutions, Munich, Germany).

**Statistical analyses.** Treatment over control values in percent (T/C%) of the cilengitide-treated MDA-MB-231 cells were plotted vs. time after incubation. Comparison of the rate of tumor uptake of the bone metastases between the groups was performed using the \( \chi^2 \) test. For each animal, absolute values for the osteolytic lesion and soft tissue component volumes, amplitude A as well as exchange rate constant \( k_{ep} \) were plotted vs. time after tumor cell inoculation. After quantitative histological analysis, the absolute values of the positive area fractions were compared. For statistical comparisons between the control and treatment groups, the absolute values were compared using the two-sided Wilcoxon-test; p-values <0.05 were considered significant.
Results

In vitro study

Migration. Following incubation of MDA-MB-231 cells with cilengitide for 4 days in a transwell migration model, less cells migrated in the treated (T) compared to the control (C) wells, and the ratio of the number of migrated cells of the treated to control cells (T/C%) on day 4 ranged from 86 (1 µg/ml, p>0.05) to 57 (200 µg/ml, p<0.01; Fig. 1A; Table I). Cells incubated with the highest concentration of 200 µg/ml cilengitide showed significantly reduced migration on all 4 days of the observation period compared to the controls (p<0.05).

Invasion. The number of invading cells incubated with cilengitide for 1, 3 and 5 days decreased significantly in a dose-dependent manner as compared to the controls (Fig. 1B; Table I). After cilengitide exposure, the T/C% values of the number of invaded cells from 107 (1 µg/ml, day 3; p>0.05) to 53 (200 µg/ml, day 5, p<0.01) were observed.

Proliferation. Incubation of MDA-MB-231 cells with cilengitide for 1, 3 or 5 days significantly decreased cell proliferation in a dose-dependent manner as determined by the MTT assay (Fig. 1C; Table I). T/C% values of the cells decreased from 92 (1 µg/ml, p>0.05) to 38 (200 µg/ml, p<0.01) after 5 days of incubation.

Bone resorption. Incubation of osteoclasts with cilengitide resulted in a decrease in the resorptive activity ranging from a T/C% value of 89 (1 µg/ml) to a T/C% value of 69 (200 µg/ml) after 5 days of incubation (Fig. 1D; Table I).

In vivo/ex vivo study

Morphological VCT and MRI. After tumor cell inoculation in nude rats, the tumor uptake in the bone metastases was not significantly different between the groups (controls, 77%; LD, 71%; HD, 81%; p>0.05, respectively). In the control animals the volumes for the osteolytic lesions (OL) and soft tissue components (SC) increased gradually between day 30 and day 35 (Figs. 2A and B, 3A and B; Table II). After therapy with cilengitide, OL and SC volumes were significantly reduced on days 30 and 35 in comparison to the untreated animals (p<0.05, respectively).

Dynamic contrast-enhanced MRI. Cilengitide treatment resulted in significantly decreased A values at days 30 and 35.
after tumor cell inoculation (p<0.05, respectively; Figs. 2C and 4; Table II). Values for $k_{ep}$ were significantly increased in the bone metastases after LD treatment in comparison to the untreated rats at day 30 (p<0.05), while HD treatment did not result in statistical differences between the groups (Fig. 2D).

Comparison between the treatment groups. No statistical difference was found between the treatment groups (LD and HD) for any measured parameters (tumor uptake rate, volumes of soft tissue components and osteolytic lesions as well as DCE-MRI parameters A and $k_{ep}$).
Histology. Immunofluorescent analysis indicated significantly increased mean area fractions of collagen IV (LD, p<0.05; HD, p<0.01) and significantly decreased mean area fractions of smooth muscle actin (SMA) (LD, p<0.05) in the treated animals (Fig. 5; Table II). The ratio of SMA and collagen IV (LD, 0.3; HD, 0.3; control, 0.9) was decreased in the animals after LD and HD treatment with cilengitide, and the mean vessel diameters in cilengitide-treated bone metastases (LD, 8.3 µm; HD, 9.2 µm) were significantly smaller than that in the control rats (17.7 µm, p<0.01; Figs. 5 and 6; Table II).

Figure 4. Color maps depicting DCE-MRI parameters of experimental bone metastases in the cilengitide-treated (low dose, LD and high dose, HD) and untreated animals. Amplitude A (A) and exchange rate constant \( k_{ep} \) (B) acquired by DCE-MRI, respectively, on day 30 and 35 after cancer cell injection. Red color denotes high (h) values for the given parameters, blue color denotes low (l) values. The same ranges were used to produce the images for the experimental and control animals. Circles delineate soft tissue tumors of bone metastases.
Discussion

Current adjuvant treatment options for breast cancer patients are limited due to various factors including adverse effects of the administered drugs and the non-responsiveness of cancer cells. Novel therapeutic options able to effectively inhibit the development of metastases, including those of the skeleton, are urgently needed. The aim of the study was to assess the effects of αvβ3/αvβ5 integrin inhibition by cilengitide on early pathogenic steps of bone colonization including migration, invasion and proliferation of human MDA-MB-231 breast cancer cells as well as bone resorption, tumor growth and angiogenesis in experimentally induced bone metastases.

The present study reveals that adjuvant cilengitide treatment does not prevent metastasis to bone, but decreases tumor growth and osteolysis, and induces vessel remodelling in developing experimental skeletal metastases. As imaged by VCT, cilengitide treatment of nude rats resulted in a significant inhibition of osteolysis, which is in good agreement with the decreased osteoclast activity we observed in vitro upon incubation with cilengitide. Carron et al (26) reported a reduction in bone resorptive activity of osteoclasts in vitro after the inhibition of αvβ3 integrin, and several groups have demonstrated a decrease in bone resorption in breast cancer bone metastasis after inhibition of αvβ3 (27,28). As αvβ3 is expressed at high levels by osteoclasts it can be assumed that the inhibition of this integrin is primarily responsible for the observed anti-resorptive effect during bone colonization (29).

Furthermore, adjuvant cilengitide treatment was found to significantly reduce volumes of soft tissue tumors in experimental bone metastases. In line with this observation, our data showed that αvβ3/αvβ5 inhibition by cilengitide resulted in a significant decrease in proliferation of MDA-MB-231 cells in vitro. Correspondingly, previous studies have suggested a direct anti-tumor activity of this compound (14,16,30) and the growth of well-established bone metastases was found to decrease by cilengitide (20). We previously confirmed that αvβ5 is the primary αv integrin expressed in MDA-MB-231 cells suggesting that the anti-tumor effect occurred due to the inhibition of this integrin rather than αvβ3 (20). However, the observed reduction in soft tissue component volumes after adjuvant cilengitide treatment may also be a consequence of the anti-angiogenic effect resulting from the inhibition of αvβ3 and αvβ5 on the endothelial of tumor vessels (14).

Concerning the effect of cilengitide on vascularization, we observed that adjuvant cilengitide treatment impaired vascular development, compatible with an anti-angiogenic effect during bone colonization. Non-invasive imaging displayed a decrease in the DCE-MRI-derived parameter associated with the relative blood volume (amplitude A) and an increase of the parameter associated with vessel permeability (exchange rate constant kep) in bone metastases. Immunohistological analysis revealed a decrease in the mean vessel diameter and SMA/collagen IV ratio in cilengitide-treated rats, which is in good agreement with DCE-MRI findings. These results are compatible with a decrease in blood volume due to smaller and partly non-functional blood vessels, and an increase in vessel permeability after adjuvant cilengitide treatment, e.g. due to the loss of intercellular contacts of endothelial cells.
(31). We previously showed that cilengitide treatment resulted in corresponding changes in DCE-MRI parameters A and k<sub>p</sub> in well-established bone metastases (20). Our present results therefore, indicate that cilengitide not only alters already existing blood vessels, but also inhibits newly developing vascularization in bone marrow. In fact, recent studies have reported that α<sub>β</sub> and α<sub>β</sub> appear to be selectively expressed on growing vessels (32,33).

The mechanism of action of cilengitide on the early pathogenic steps of bone metastasis is currently unclear. Notably, the effect of cilengitide on proliferation in vitro exceeded the inhibition of migration and invasion of MDA-MB-231 breast cancer cells. The moderate reduction in migration and invasion, however, is in line with our finding that the uptake rate of bone metastases was not reduced after adjuvant cilengitide treatment. When comparing results from in vitro and in vivo experiments, the apparent percent reduction in lesion size in the hind legs of rats exceeded the inhibition of individual pathogenic processes in vitro, although the comparison is not rigorous. We therefore conclude that the effects of cilengitide on tumor cells, osteoclasts and vasculature are at least additive resulting in the observed decrease of skeletal lesion size.

Taken together, our data demonstrated a reduction in breast cancer cell migration, invasion and proliferation as well as osteoclastic bone resorption upon α<sub>β</sub>/α<sub>β</sub> inhibition. Adjuvant cilengitide treatment in nude rats did not prevent bone metastasis formation, but reduced the volumes of soft tissue tumors and osteolytic lesions and induced vessel remodeling in vivo. In conclusion, cilengitide is a promising approach for the inhibition of bone metastasis formation during the processes of bone colonization in breast cancer and may serve as a combination partner for the adjuvant treatment of breast cancer patients in future clinical studies.

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