Cancer Therapy: Preclinical

Vandetanib Restores Head and Neck Squamous Cell Carcinoma Cells’ Sensitivity to Cisplatin and Radiation In Vivo and In Vitro

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Abstract

Purpose: We investigated whether vandetanib, an inhibitor of the tyrosine kinase activities of vascular endothelial growth factor receptor-2 (VEGFR-2), epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR), and rearranged during transfection (RET), could augment the antitumor activity of radiation with or without cisplatin in preclinical in vitro and in vivo models of human head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC).

Experimental Design: OSC-19 and HN5 HNSCC cells that were cisplatin and radioresistant were treated with vandetanib, cisplatin, and radiation alone or in combination in vitro and in vivo using an orthotopic nude mouse model. Treatment effects were assessed using clonogenic survival assay, tumor volume, bioluminescence imaging, tumor growth delay, survival, microvessel density, tumor and endothelial cell apoptosis, and EGFR and Akt phosphorylation data.

Results: Vandetanib plus cisplatin radiosensitized HNSCC cells in vitro and in vivo. The combination treatment with vandetanib, cisplatin, and radiation was superior to the rest of treatments (including the double combinations) in antitumoral effects, prolonging survival, decreasing cervical lymph node metastases in vivo. It also increased both tumor and tumor-associated endothelial cell apoptosis and decreased microvessel density in vivo. An analysis of tumor growth delay data revealed that vandetanib plus cisplatin enhanced radioresponse in vivo. All vandetanib-containing treatments inhibited EGFR and Akt phosphorylation in vitro and in vivo.

Conclusion: The addition of vandetanib to combination therapy with cisplatin and radiation was able to effectively overcome cisplatin and radioresistance in in vitro and in vivo models of HNSCC. Further study of this regimen in clinical trials may be warranted. Clin Cancer Res; 17(7); 1815–27. ©2011 AACR.

Introduction

Head and neck squamous cell carcinomas (HNSCC), which represent approximately 3.2% of cancers in the United States, accounted for approximately 49,260 new cancer diagnoses and 11,480 deaths in 2010 (1). Despite advances in treatment, the 5-year survival of patients with HNSCC has not significantly improved over the past several decades (2). Treatment failure primarily takes the form of locoregional recurrences or distant metastatic disease (3).

Although surgery and radiation have traditionally been used to treat locoregionally advanced HNSCC (4), the addition of platinum-based chemotherapy such as cisplatin is playing an increasingly prominent role in HNSCC treatment (5). Treating patients who have locoregionally advanced HNSCC with platinum-based chemotherapy and concurrent radiation improves locoregional control, organ preservation, and disease-free and overall survival (6–8). However, because some patients develop chemoradioresistance, only 50% and 60% of the HNSCC patients treated with radiation and concurrent platinum-based chemotherapy are cured of their disease. To improve treatment efficacy in patients with HNSCC, researchers must have a more thorough understanding of the pathways mediating chemoradioresistance (9, 10).

Identifying the factors that cause tumor cells’ radioresistance is essential to improving therapy outcomes in patients with HNSCC (11). One potential mechanism by which tumor cells become radioresistant is epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) signaling, which can be activated by radiation (12). EGFR is overexpressed in a...
variety of epithelial malignancies including HNSCC (13), and studies have shown that EGFR expression is related to tumor radioresistance (14, 15). EGFR overexpression, which occurs in a large portion of HNSCCs, is related to HNSCC growth and development (16) and is predictive of poor prognosis (17). Therefore, inhibiting the EGFR pathway is a potential radiosensitization strategy in patients with HNSCC.

Another potential strategy for overcoming radioresistance in HNSCC is angiogenesis inhibition. In addition to preventing the formation of new blood vessels and interrupting the supply of oxygen and nutrients in tumors (18), anti-angiogenesis therapy alone or in combination with other treatments transiently normalizes the structure and function of tumor vasculature (19). Thus, antiangiogenic agents could be used to induce a remodeling of the tumor vasculature, leading to a temporary improvement in tumor perfusion and reoxygenation that potentially enhances the actions of chemotherapeutic drugs (20). In addition, antiangiogenic agents have been reported to enhance the tumor cell response to platinum-based chemotherapeutic drugs (21). Vandetanib (AstraZeneca), an inhibitor of vascular endothelial growth factor receptor-2 (VEGFR-2), EGFR, and rearranged during transfection (RET) tyrosine kinases, plus cisplatin radiosensitized both HNSCC cells in vitro and in vivo. Vandetanib in combination with cisplatin and radiation inhibited both tumor growth and the incidence of cervical lymph node metastases, and prolonged survival in an orthotopic nude mouse model of HNSCC. Thus, the blockade of both VEGFR-2 and EGFR pathway by the addition of vandetanib to combination therapy with cisplatin and radiation may overcome cisplatin- and radioresistance in HNSCC effectively and this regimen could represent a potential novel therapeutic strategy that may warrant evaluation for patients with advanced HNSCC.

Materials and Methods

Animals

We purchased 8-to-12-week-old male athymic nude mice from the National Cancer Institute (Bethesda, MD). The mice were kept in a specific pathogen-free facility approved by the American Association for the Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care that met all current regulations and standards of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, and the National Institutes of Health. Mice were fed irradiated standard mouse chow and autoclaved, reverse osmosis-treated water. Animal procedures were carried out according to a protocol approved by The University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center’s Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee.

Cell lines

Seventeen human HNSCC cell lines were used. FaDu cells were obtained from American Type Culture Collection. Dr. Luka Milas provided HN5 cells. UM-SCC-1, -4, -11A, -14A, -17A, -17B, -22A, and -47 cells were provided by Dr. Thomas Carey (Department of Otolaryngology/Head and Neck Surgery, University of Michigan, MI). TU-138 cells were provided by Dr. Gary Clayman (Department of Head and Neck Surgery, MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX). SCC-61 cells were provided by Dr. Ralph Weichselbaum (Department of Radiation and Cellular Oncology, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL). OSC-19 cells were obtained from Dr. Faye Johnson (Department of Thoracic/Head and Neck Medical Oncology, MD Anderson Cancer Center). SqCC/Y1 cells were obtained from Dr. Vali Papadimitriakopoulou. MDA-1386TU cells were obtained from Dr. Peter G. Sacks (Department of Basic Sciences, New York University, New York, NY). TR-146 cells were provided by Dr. Ho-Young Lee (Department of Thoracic/Head and Neck Medical Oncology, MD Anderson Cancer Center). PCI-13 cells were provided by Dr. Jennifer Grandis, (Department of Otalaryngology, The University of Pittsburgh Medical Center, Pittsburgh, PA).

OSC-19 cells were retrovirally infected with the green fluorescent protein and the luciferase gene (OSC-19-luc) as described previously (23). SCC61 cells were maintained in Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM) supplemented with 20% fetal bovine serum (FBS), l-glutamine, sodium pyruvate, nonessential amino acids, a 2-fold vitamin solution (Life Technologies, Inc.), and 0.4 µg/mL hydrocortisone. SqCC/Y1 cells were maintained in DMEM/F12 low glucose supplemented with 10% FBS and l-glutamine. JHU028 cells were maintained in RPMI 1640 supplemented with 10% FBS, l-glutamine, sodium pyruvate, and nonessential amino acids. All other HNSCC cells were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, l-glutamine, sodium pyruvate, nonessential amino acids, and a 2-fold vitamin solution. Adherent monolayer
cultures were maintained on plastic plates and incubated at 37°C in 5% carbon dioxide and 95% oxygen. The cultures were Mycoplasma-free and maintained for no longer than 12 weeks after they were recovered from frozen stocks.

Reagents

Vandetanib (ZD6474) was provided by AstraZeneca Pharmaceuticals. For in vitro testing, vandetanib was dissolved in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) containing 1% Tween 80. For in vitro testing, stock solutions of vandetanib were prepared in dimethylsulfoxide (Sigma-Aldrich Corp.) and diluted with culture medium. Cisplatin was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich as a stock solution of 1 mg/mL. For animal studies, cisplatin was diluted in 0.9% saline immediately before injection. Propidium iodide and 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl-tetrazolium bromide (MTT) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Stock solutions were prepared by dissolving either 0.5 mg of propidium iodide or 2 mg of MTT in 1 mL of PBS. Each solution was filtered, protected from light, stored at 4°C, and used within 1 month.

Cell proliferation assay

The antiproliferative activity of cisplatin against HNSCC cells in vitro was determined using an MTT assay as previously described (24). Briefly, 17 HNSCC cell lines were plated in 96-well plates in medium. After a 24-hour attachment period, the cells were incubated for 72 hours in various concentrations of cisplatin (0.01–90 μM) or with PBS alone as a control. Cells were then incubated in medium containing 2% FBS and 0.25 mg/mL MTT for 3 hours. The cells were then lysed in 100 μL dimethylsulfoxide to release formazan. We used an EL-808 96-well plate reader (BioTek Instruments) set at an absorbance of 570 nm to quantify the conversion of MTT to formazan.

Orthotopic nude mouse model of HNSCC

We used an orthotopic nude mouse model of HNSCC because its host microenvironment is more similar to that of patients with HNSCC than that of subcutaneous xenograft models of HNSCC (25). OSC-19-luc, OSC-19, and HN5 cells were harvested from subconfluent cultures by trypsinization and washed with PBS. An orthotopic nude mouse model of an oral tongue tumor was established by injecting OSC-19-luc (1 × 10⁵), OSC-19 (1 × 10⁵), or HN5 (2 × 10⁵) cells suspended in 30 μL of serum-free DMEM into the tongues of mice as described previously (26).

Eight to 10 days after the cells were injected, the mice were randomly assigned to 1 of 8 treatment groups (7 or 8 mice per group): (1) control, (2) cisplatin (3) vandetanib (4), vandetanib plus cisplatin (5), radiation (6), cisplatin plus radiation (7), vandetanib plus radiation (8), vandetanib plus cisplatin and radiation. Cisplatin was administered intravenously once a week for 2 weeks at a dose of 1 mg/kg, and vandetanib was administered by oral gavage once a day for 2 weeks at a dose of 20 mg/kg. Control mice were given 200 μL of 1% Tween 80 by oral gavage once daily for 2 weeks and/or 200 μL PBS intraperitoneally once weekly for 2 weeks.

Mice bearing tumors in the tongue were locally irradiated with a single dose of 5 Gy using a small-animal irradiator (γ-rays using a cesium-137 source, 4.762 Gy/min). Sodium pentobarbital was administered by intraperitoneal injection at a dose of 50 mg/kg before radiation treatment. The mice were immobilized on a customized jig during irradiation with the tumor centered in the 3-cm diameter circular irradiation field. When cisplatin and radiation were combined, cisplatin was given 1 hour before single-dose irradiation (27). When vandetanib and radiation were combined, vandetanib was given 4 hours before single-dose irradiation (28).

Mice were examined twice a week for tumor size and weight loss. Tumor size was measured with micrometer calipers. Tumor volume was calculated as A(B²)/π/6, where A is the longest dimension of the tumor and B is...
the dimension of the tumor perpendicular to A. The degree of growth delay was expressed as the absolute tumor growth delay (AGD), defined as the time in days required for OSC-19-luc tumors HN5 tumors to grow to 40 mm³ minus the time in days for the tumors in the untreated control group to reach the same sizes; or the normalized growth delay (NGD), defined as the time in days required for OSC-19-luc tumors and HN5 tumors to grow to 40 mm³ minus the time to reach the same size in mice treated with drug(s) alone. Treatment enhancement factors (EFs) were obtained by dividing the NGD in mice treated with drugs plus radiation by the AGD in mice treated with radiation alone (29).

We used bioluminescence imaging to monitor orthotopic tumor growth in vivo. Bioluminescence was quantitated using Living Image software 3.2 (Xenogen) as described previously (30). Animals were anesthetized with 2% isoflurane (Abbott), and an aqueous solution of luciferin (Xenogen) at 150 mg/kg in a volume of 0.1 mL was injected intraperitoneally 5 minutes before imaging. We used an IVIS 200 Imaging System (Xenogen) to image the animals and Living Image software (Xenogen) to quantify the photons emitted from luciferase-expressing cells. Photon flux was calculated using a rectangular region of interest encompassing the head and neck region of each mouse while in a dorsal position. Animals were imaged on an almost weekly basis. Before engineered OSC-19-luc cells were used in vivo, we used the IVIS imaging system to confirm in vitro that the cells homogeneously expressed high levels of luciferase.

We euthanized mice by CO₂ asphyxiation when they lost more than 20% of their preinjection body weight or at 50 days after cell injection. Half of the mouse tumors were fixed in formalin and embedded in paraffin for immunohistochemical and hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining; the other half were embedded in optimal cutting temperature compound (Miles, Inc.), rapidly frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at −80°C. Cervical lymph nodes were resected, fixed in formalin and embedded in paraffin for immunohistochemical and hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining; 1 H&E slide, which was prepared using Adobe Photoshop 10.0.1 software (Adobe Systems). Photomontages were prepared using Adobe Photoshop 10.0.1 software (Adobe Systems).

Quantification of microvessel density and apoptotic endothelial cells

To quantify TUNEL expression, we counted the positively stained cells in 12 random 0.04-mm² fields at 200× magnification. To quantify microvessel density (MVD), we identified areas containing high numbers of tumor-associated blood vessels at 100× magnification; vessels that had stained completely with anti-CD31 antibody were counted in 12 random 0.04-mm² fields at 200× magnification. We calculated the number of apoptotic endothelial cells as the average of the ratio of apoptotic endothelial cells to the total number of endothelial cells in 10 random 0.01-mm² fields at 400× magnification.

Western blotting

Western blot analyses of tumor and cultured cells were performed. Tumors were snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and homogenized in lysis buffer. OSC-19 cells (2 × 10⁶ per well) were plated in 6-well plates (Costar) in 2 mL medium containing 10% FBS, incubated for 24 h, and then treated with vandetanib, cisplatin, and irradiation as described earlier. Total cell lysates were then obtained and subjected to Western blot analysis as previously described (24). The membranes were blocked for 1 h at room temperature with 5% bovine serum albumin in 0.1% Tween 20 in Tris-buffered saline and incubated overnight at 4°C with anti-EGFR (Santa Cruz Biotechnology; 1:500), anti-phospho-EGFR (Tyr1068; Cell Signaling; 1:500), anti-Akt (Cell Signaling; 1:1000), anti-phospho-Akt (Ser473; Cell Signaling; 1:1000), anti-mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK; Cell Signaling; 1:1000), or anti-phospho-MAPK (Thr180/Tyr182; Cell Signaling; 1:1000) in 5% bovine serum albumin.
in 0.1% Tween 20 in Tris-buffered saline. Next, the membranes were washed with 0.1% Tween 20 in Tris-buffered saline and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature in horseradish peroxidase-conjugated anti-rabbit immunoglobulin G (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) to detect EGFR, phosphorylated EGFR, or species-appropriate fluorescently conjugated proteins (goat anti-rabbit IRDye 800 and goat anti-mouse IRDye 800, Invitrogen). The membranes were then analyzed using the SuperSignal West chemiluminescent system (Pierce Biotechnology) and an Odyssey Infrared Imaging System (LI-COR Biosciences), and relevant signal intensities were determined using LI-COR imaging software 3.0. To verify equal protein loading, we stripped and reprobed the membranes with anti-β-actin (1:5000).

Statistical analysis
Potential correlations between SF2 and cisplatin GI50 values were analyzed by the Pearson’s correlation coefficients with P values for the 2-tailed test of significance. Two-tailed t tests were used to compare tumor volumes between control groups and treatment groups. Survival was determined using the Kaplan-Meier method and compared using log-rank tests. Fisher’s exact test was used to analyze associations between treatment groups and cervical lymph node metastases. Quantitative data related to the immunohistochemical expression of CD31, TUNEL, and CD31-TUNEL were compared with 2-tailed Student’s t tests. Statistical analyses were performed with Prism 5.01 software (GraphPad Software). P values <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Results

OSC-19 HNSCC cells and HN5 HNSCC cells were cisplatin and radiation resistant

MTT assays with cisplatin and clonogenic survival assays with radiation revealed cisplatin GI50 values ranging from 1.03 to 9.52 μM and SF2 values ranging from 0.22 to 0.80 (Supplementary Table S1). SF2 values were not correlated with cisplatin GI50 values ($R = 0.0992$, $P = 0.4132$, data not shown). OSC-19 cells and HN5 cells were relatively cisplatin and radiation-resistant: The cisplatin GI50 values were 5.19 μM for OSC-19 cells and 9.08 μM for HN5 cells, and the SF2 values were 0.63 for OSC-19 cells and 0.70 for HN5 cells (Supplementary Table S1).

Vandetanib plus cisplatin radiosensitized OSC-19 and HN5 cells
In clonogenic survival assays, radiation alone resulted in a dose-dependent decrease in HN5 and OSC-19 cell survival. Cell growth inhibition was observed in both cell lines after 1 hour of exposure to cisplatin and 6 hour of exposure to vandetanib. OSC-19 cells treated with 2 μM vandetanib and 4 μM cisplatin exhibited more growth inhibition than control cells (Fig. 1A). Although the radiosensitizing effect of treatment with 2.5 μM vandetanib and 9 μM cisplatin on HN5 cells was milder than the radiosensitizing effect on OSC-19, both cell lines demonstrated enhancement compared with control cells (Fig. 1B).

Vandetanib plus cisplatin and radiation inhibits both human radiation resistance and cisplatin and radiation resistance HNSCC tumor growth in an orthotopic nude mouse model
In the OSC-19-luc model, there was a significant antitumor effect in the mice treated with vandetanib plus cisplatin and radiation compared with the mice in the control group on day 35 after cell inoculation ($P = 0.0106$; Fig. 2A). Mice in the cisplatin alone group, vandetanib alone group, radiation alone group, cisplatin plus radiation group, and vandetanib plus radiation group all had smaller tumor volumes than mice in the control group; however, the difference was not statistically significant. In addition, the vandetanib plus cisplatin and radiation group also showed significant antitumor effect compared with the vandetanib alone group, cisplatin alone group, radiation alone group, and the vandetanib plus radiation group ($P = 0.0059$, $P = 0.0039$, $P = 0.0051$), and $P = 0.0366$, respectively).
respectively). To see the effects of the treatment, we also monitored the bioluminescence intensity of OSC-19-luc cells (Fig. 2C and F). The mice treated with vandetanib plus cisplatin and radiation had a marked reduction in bioluminescence compared with mice in the control group on day 32 significantly ($P = 0.0006$).

The antitumor effects of treatment with the combination treatment with vandetanib plus cisplatin, and radiation
were also observed in the HN5 orthotopic model (Fig. 2B). The mice treated with vandetanib, cisplatin, and radiation had a significantly lower mean tumor volume than the mice in the control group at day 35 ($P < 0.0001$). A significant antitumor effect was also observed in the mice treated with vandetanib alone ($P = 0.0076$), vandetanib plus cisplatin ($P < 0.0001$), and the mice treated with vandetanib plus radiation ($P = 0.0001$). The mice treated with vandetanib, cisplatin, and radiation also had a significantly lower mean tumor volume than the mice in the cisplatin alone group and the cisplatin plus radiation group ($P = 0.0002$ and $P = 0.0451$, respectively). The antitumor effects of these treatments were confirmed in a repeat animal experiment with OSC-19 and HN5 cells (data not shown). All treatments appeared to be well tolerated, with no evidence of treatment-related weight loss (data not shown).

**Vandetanib plus cisplatin enhanced the radiosensitivity of orthotopic HNSCC tumors**

The antitumor effects of the experimental treatments measured by tumor growth delay in OSC-19-luc tumors are shown in Table 1. Cisplatin only slightly delayed tumor growth by 2.9 ± 0.9 days, and a single dose of 5 Gy radiation delayed tumor growth by 5.1 ± 1.1 days, whereas vandetanib treatment delayed tumor growth by 10.6 ± 0.8 days. When vandetanib and cisplatin were combined, the AGD value (11.3 ± 1.0 days) was smaller than the sum of tumor growth delays caused by individual treatments (EF = 0.23).

Cisplatin plus radiation slowed tumor growth more than additively; the treatment increased AGD to 10.5 ± 3.1 days (EF = 1.50). However, vandetanib plus radiation only slightly increased AGD to 13.4 ± 1.2 days (EF = 0.55). In contrast, vandetanib plus cisplatin and radiation achieved a more than additive effect, resulting in an AGD of 25.6 ± 4.0 days, which was considerably higher than the sum of tumor growth delays caused by individual treatments (5.1 ± 1.1 days with radiation and 11.3 ± 1.0 days with vandetanib plus cisplatin; EF = 2.82).

Similarly, although cisplatin enhanced the effects of radiation treatment in HN5 tumors (EF = 1.62), the addition of vandetanib treatment to radiation only slightly increased AGD (EF = 0.45). However, vandetanib plus cisplatin enhanced the radioresponsiveness of HN5 tumors, increasing tumor growth delay more than additively even though 2 of 8 mice which were cured were not used in the analysis (EF = 1.42/data not shown). Thus, vandetanib plus cisplatin enhanced HNSCC tumors’ radioresponse more than vandetanib plus radiation.

**Vandetanib plus cisplatin and radiation prolonged survival in an orthotopic nude mouse model of human HNSCC**

All OSC-19-luc control mice in the survival study were euthanized within 25 days following cell inoculation (Fig. 2D). The median survival duration for the control mice was 19.5 days. The median survival periods for the cisplatin, vandetanib, vandetanib plus cisplatin, radiation,

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**Table 1. Effect of treatment on human head and neck squamous cell carcinoma cells’ radioresponse**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>Time required to grow to 40 mm³ (d)</th>
<th>Absolute growth delay (d)</th>
<th>Normalized growth delay (d)</th>
<th>Enhancement factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>13.8 ± 0.6</td>
<td>2.9 ± 0.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cisplatin</td>
<td>16.8 ± 0.9</td>
<td>10.6 ± 0.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vandetanib</td>
<td>25.1 ± 1.0</td>
<td>11.3 ± 1.0</td>
<td>0.7 ± 1.0^a</td>
<td>0.23^b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vandetanib + cisplatin</td>
<td>27.2 ± 1.2</td>
<td>13.4 ± 1.2</td>
<td>2.8 ± 1.2^c</td>
<td>0.55^d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radiation</td>
<td>39.4 ± 4.0</td>
<td>25.6 ± 4.0</td>
<td>14.3 ± 4.0^o</td>
<td>2.82^d</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: All data are means ± standard error unless otherwise indicated.

^aDefined as the time in days for tumors to reach 40 mm³ in the mice treated with the combination of vandetanib and cisplatin, minus the time in days to reach 40 mm³ in mice treated with vandetanib alone.

^bObtained by dividing normalized tumor growth delay in mice treated with vandetanib and cisplatin with the absolute growth delay in mice treated with cisplatin alone.

^cDefined as the time in days for tumors to reach 40 mm³ in the mice treated with the combination of vandetanib or cisplatin plus radiation, minus the time in days to reach 40 mm³ in mice treated with vandetanib or cisplatin alone.

^dObtained by dividing normalized tumor growth delay in mice treated with vandetanib or cisplatin plus radiation, or vandetanib, cisplatin plus radiation with the absolute growth delay in mice treated with radiation alone.

^oDefined as the time in days for tumors to reach 40 mm³ in the mice treated with the combination of vandetanib and cisplatin plus radiation, minus the time in days to reach 40 mm³ in mice treated with vandetanib plus cisplatin.
combination treatment markedly inhibited the development of cervical lymph node metastases, and the difference in cervical lymph node metastasis incidence between mice treated with vandetanib, cisplatin, and radiation and control mice was significant ($P = 0.0048$). In addition, the vandetanib, cisplatin, and radiation group showed decreased cervical lymph node metastases when compared with the cisplatin alone group, vandetanib alone group, radiation alone group, and the vandetanib plus cisplatin group ($P = 0.0154, P = 0.0414, P = 0.0414$, respectively). The difference between the control group and any another treatment group did not reach statistical significance.

In the mice with HN5 tumors, 40.0% of control mice, 11.1% of cisplatin-treated mice, 27.2% of radiation-treated mice, and 18.1% of cisplatin- and radiation-treated mice had cervical lymph node metastases. No cervical lymph node metastases were found in vandetanib-treated mice, vandetanib- and cisplatin-treated mice, vandetanib- and radiation-treated mice, or vandetanib-, cisplatin-, and radiation-treated mice (Table 2) and the difference for all treatment groups compared with the control group was significant ($P < 0.05$).

### Table 2. Effects of treatment with vandetanib, cisplatin, and radiation, alone or in combination, on lymph node metastases in nude mice bearing orthotopic head and neck squamous cell carcinoma xenografts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>OSC-19 xenografts</th>
<th>HN5 xenografts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mice with cervical lymphatic metastasis (%)</td>
<td>Fisher’s exact test vs. control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cisplatin</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>0.9999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vandetanib</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>0.6668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vandetanib + cisplatin</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>0.6668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radiation</td>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>0.6727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cisplatin + radiation</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>0.4109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vandetanib + radiation</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>0.2261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vandetanib + radiation + cisplatin</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>0.0048</td>
</tr>
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</table>
significantly lower than that in the other treatment groups ($P < 0.001$).

TUNEL assay was performed to examine cell apoptosis in vivo. Compared with the percentage of TUNEL-positive cells in the tumors from mice in the control group (0.92%/$C60.29\%$), the percentages of TUNEL-positive cells in the tumors from mice in all treatment groups were increased significantly (cisplatin, 3.72%/$C60.85\%$; vandetanib, 11.49%/$C60.67\%$; vandetanib plus cisplatin, 12.46%/$C61.22\%$; radiation, 9.98%/$C61.09\%$; cisplatin plus radiation, 16.58%/$C62.03\%$; vandetanib plus radiation, 19.03%/$C62.99\%$; vandetanib plus cisplatin and radiation, 24.41%/$C62.50\%$). The difference for all treatment groups compared with the control group was significant ($P < 0.01$; Fig. 3A and C). In addition, the percentages of TUNEL-positive cells in the vandetanib plus cisplatin and radiation group were also significantly greater than in the vandetanib alone group, cisplatin alone group, radiation alone group, and the vandetanib plus radiation group ($P < 0.05$).

Double immunofluorescence staining for CD31/TUNEL revealed that vandetanib, vandetanib plus cisplatin, and vandetanib plus radiation significantly increased apoptosis for tumor-associated endothelial cells compared with the control group (control, 0%; vandetanib, 5.38%/$C62.51\%$, $P = 0.0460$; vandetanib plus cisplatin, 5.62%/$C62.40\%$, $P = 0.0306$; vandetanib plus radiation, 5.94%/$C62.53\%$, $P = 0.0304$). The apoptosis for tumor-associated endothelial cells was further enhanced when vandetanib was combined with radiation and cisplatin (8.01%/$C62.74\%$, $P = 0.0090$; Fig. 3A and D).

Vandetanib with or without cisplatin and/or radiation inhibited EGFR and Akt phosphorylation in vitro and
improving organ preservation as well as patient survival. Treatment for patients with HNSCC, with the aim of prolonging survival in an orthotopic nude mouse model by inhibiting tumor size and cervical lymph node metastases and radiosensitizing HNSCC cells both 


did not inhibit Akt phosphorylation in some of the tumors; however, treatment with vandetanib-containing treatments inhibited Akt and MAPK phosphorylation in OSC-19 tumors; however, treatment did not inhibit Akt phosphorylation in some of the tumors in mice in the vandetanib alone, vandetanib plus cisplatin, and vandetanib plus radiation groups. These in vivo results confirmed in vitro findings with Western blot analysis of OSC-19 cells that vandetanib alone or in combination with cisplatin and/or radiation inhibited EGFR phosphorylation (Fig. 4B).

Discussion

We found that vandetanib augmented the antitumor activity of cisplatin with concurrent radiation in preclinical models of human cisplatin- and radiation-resistant HNSCC in vitro and in vivo. Vandetanib plus cisplatin effectively radiosensitized HNSCC cells both in vitro and in vivo. Vandetanib alone or in combination with cisplatin and/or radiation inhibited the phosphorylation of EGFR and its downstream mediators, Akt and MAPK, both in vitro and in vivo. Treatment with vandetanib, cisplatin, and radiation led to reductions in tumor size and cervical lymph node metastases and prolonged survival in an orthotopic nude mouse model by inducing apoptosis in tumor and endothelial cells.

Chemoradiotherapy with cisplatin remains a standard treatment for patients with HNSCC, with the aim of improving organ preservation as well as patient survival. However, resistance to cisplatin or radiation leading to treatment failure and locoregional recurrence is a critical problem. In addition, cisplatin causes significant treatment-limiting toxicities including myelosuppression, nephrotoxicity, ototoxicity, and nephrotoxicity, which can be exacerbated by radiotherapy (8, 32). Therefore, the addition of more selective agents that target cancer cells may enable the reduction of cisplatin and possibly radiation to less toxic doses.

A number of studies have shown that the EGFR and its downstream PI3K pathway mediate radio-resistance (14, 15, 33). In a phase III randomized trial, Bonner and colleagues found that patients with locally advanced HNSCC who were treated with radiation plus cetuximab, a monoclonal antibody against EGFR, had better locoregional control, longer disease-free survival, and longer overall survival than patients treated with radiation alone (34). In addition, antiangiogenic agents have been reported to enhance radioresponsiveness (35). These previous studies indicate a potentially important role for EGFR and VEGFR signaling in radio-resistance and suggest that blocking these receptors may result in improved response to radiotherapy. Therefore, we evaluated whether the combination of cisplatin and radiotherapy with vandetanib, a potent inhibitor of both VEGFR and EGFR signaling, may represent a valuable therapeutic approach against experimental HNSCC cancer in this study.

In this study, OSC-19 and HN5 were selected as representative cell lines as relatively cisplatin- and radiation-resistant cell lines from a panel of 17 different HNSCC cell lines. In this study, we found a lack of correlation between radiosensitivity and cisplatin sensitivity consistent with the results of previous reports (36, 37). The effect of cisplatin on radiosensitization on HN5 was weaker than on OSC-19, which is consistent with the GI50 values for cisplatin alone.

**Figure 4.** Vandetanib alone or in combination with cisplatin and/or radiation inhibited epidermal growth factor receptor and Akt phosphorylation in vivo and in vitro (OSC-19). A, tumors were harvested after 7 days of treatment, and snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen. They were then homogenized in lysis buffer before being subjected to Western immunoblotting. B, cells were treated with 2 μM of vandetanib for 6 hours, 4 μM of cisplatin for 1 hour, and irradiation (3 Gy). Whole-cell lysates were obtained and subjected to Western immunoblotsing to resolve proteins. Antibodies to total (unphosphorylated) receptors and β-actin were used as protein loading controls.

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In this study, although 1 mg/kg of cisplatin had only a slight antitumor effect, treatment with cisplatin and radiation slowed OSC-19-luc and HN5 tumor growth more than additively. These results are consistent with those of previous studies that led to the widespread use of cisplatin as a radiosensitizer (38). In this study, vandetanib slowed tumor growth to a greater extent than cisplatin alone. Mice treated with vandetanib had significantly longer survival than control mice. These results are consistent with the results of our previous study (22). However, in our previous study, we found that the GI50 of vandetanib for HN5 cells (2.357) was higher than its GI50 for OSC-19 cells (1.981; ref. 22), whereas in this study, we found no significant differences in the antitumor effects of vandetanib in vivo between HN5 tumors and OSC-19-luc tumors. This inconsistency may have arisen because vandetanib’s antitumor effects in HNSCC may be a result of the agent’s inhibition of VEGF signaling within the tumor microvasculature rather than its direct antiproliferative effects via EGFR signaling inhibition. These inconsistent findings might also reflect the biological differences between the 2 cell lines. When vandetanib was combined with radiation, it did not significantly enhance the response of OSC-19-luc or HN5 tumors to radiation. However, a number of studies have shown that vandetanib enhances radiation effects in preclinical models (28, 39, 40) including HNSCC (41). This inconsistency may have been due to the relatively low dose of vandetanib (20 mg/kg) used in this study, differences in vandetanib and/or radiation treatment schedules, and differences in the type of preclinical mouse models used. However, the combined treatment with vandetanib, cisplatin, and radiation showed the most marked reduction in OSC-19-luc and HN5 tumor growth and prolongation of survival in orthotopic oral tongue tumor models compared with not only control but also when compared with all of the other treatments. Similar results with significant tumor inhibition by the combination of vandetanib, cytotoxic chemotherapy, and radiation have been reported for other xenograft tumor models (42, 43).

Although vandetanib given with low concentrations of cisplatin has been reported to have synergistic activity in bladder cancer (21), the addition of cisplatin to vandetanib treatment in our in vivo studies showed only a slight additive effect. Aniaux and colleagues reported that the blockade of VEGFR signaling reduces oxygen consumption rate in tumor cells and cause an early increase in tumor oxygenation (44). Thus, the mechanism by which treatment with vandetanib plus cisplatin and radiation exerted its antitumor effect could be the result of a short-term increase in blood flow and oxygenation in the tumor, leading to improved delivery of cisplatin, which led to more cisplatin-induced radiosensitization in this study.

The presence of cervical lymph node metastasis is a critical event for patients with HNSCC (3). In this study, treatment with vandetanib alone inhibited metastases in HN5 mice; however, cisplatin and/or radiation did not significantly decrease the incidence of cervical lymph node metastases. Although the difference was not significant, OSC-19 mice treated with vandetanib alone and OSC-19 mice treated with vandetanib plus radiation had a much lower incidence of cervical lymph node metastases than control mice. These findings are consistent with our previous reports in which the blockade of both EGFR and VEGFR-2 pathways decreased the incidence of the neck lymph node metastases of HNSCC (22, 30). Moreover, treatment with vandetanib, cisplatin, and radiation produced the most marked decrease in cervical lymph node metastasis incidence.

In this study, immunohistochemical analysis and TUNEL assay revealed that vandetanib significantly decreased tumor MVD and induced apoptosis in tumor and endothelial cells. These findings are consistent with the results of our previous study as well as other studies (22, 28, 39, 40). Slight decreases in MVD along with enhanced radiation-induced endothelial apoptosis is consistent with a previous report indicating that radiation can kill tumor cells as well as tumor-associated endothelial cells (45). Again, the combined treatment with vandetanib, cisplatin, and radiation showed the most marked induction of apoptosis in tumor and endothelial cells, and suppression of MVD compared with the other treatment groups, indicating that vandetanib enhanced the combined effect of cisplatin and radiation. Finally, we confirmed previous studies’ findings that the inclusion of vandetanib leads to inhibition of EGFR activation and its downstream radioresistance-mediating signaling pathways in oral tongue tumors (14, 15). Although the inclusion of vandetanib into the treatment schedules inhibited EGFR and MAPK phosphorylation in OSC-19 oral tongue tumors, phosphorylation was not inhibited in some tumors treated with vandetanib, vandetanib plus cisplatin, and vandetanib plus radiation. This may have been attributable to predominance of the antiangiogenic activity of vandetanib compared with the blockade of EGFR signaling. Indeed, vandetanib’s primary antitumor effect in tumor endothelial cells is believed to be generated by its inhibition of VEGFR signaling (46).

Several clinical trials of vandetanib plus cytotoxic chemotherapy and/or radiation are currently under way (http://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/results?term=vandetanib). For HNSCC, clinical trials of EGFR-inhibiting agents combined with cisplatin have shown that these treatments are active and well tolerated meriting additional investigation (47–49). Papadimitrakopoulou and colleagues reported that 100 mg of vandetanib was the maximum tolerated dose when it was combined with radiation and cisplatin in patients with previously untreated advanced HNSCC (50).

In conclusion, we found that vandetanib plus cisplatin enhanced HNSCC radioresponsiveness in vitro and in vivo and that vandetanib plus cisplatin, and radiation had significant antitumor activity in an orthotopic mouse model of HNSCC and inhibited cervical lymph node metastases in vivo. The combination treatment with vandetanib, cisplatin, and radiation induced apoptosis in endothelial and tumor cells, decreased tumor MVD, and blocked EGFR phosphorylation to help to overcome radioresistance in HNSCC. These results suggest that vandetanib sensitizes some HNSCC.
cells to cisplatin and radiation. This combined treatment could have potential as treatment against advanced HNSCC and may warrant further evaluation in clinical trials.

Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest
No potential conflicts of interest were disclosed.

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Vandetanib Restores HNSCC Sensitivity to Cisplatin and Radiation

Vandetanib Restores Head and Neck Squamous Cell Carcinoma Cells' Sensitivity to Cisplatin and Radiation In Vivo and In Vitro

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