

**Activation of Alternate Pro-Survival Pathways Accounts for Acquired Sunitinib  
Resistance in U87MG Glioma Xenografts**

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Nonstandard abbreviations: ANOVA, one-way analysis of variance; AUC, area under the curve; BH, Benjamini–Hochberg; c-Jun, Jun proto-oncogene; DAG, diacylglycerol; DMEM, Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium; ERK1/2, extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2; GSK3 $\alpha/\beta$ , glycogen synthase kinase 3 $\alpha/\beta$ ; HPBCD, 2-hydroxypropyl- $\beta$ -cyclodextrin; IF, interstitial fluid; IL, interleukin; IP3, inositol 1,4,5- trisphosphate; JNK, c-Jun NH<sub>2</sub>-terminal kinase; MAP, mitogen-activated protein; MMP, matrix metalloproteinase; NG2, neurogenin 2 chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan; NIH, National Institute of Health; PBS, phosphate buffered saline; PCA, Principal component analysis; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; PDGFR, platelet-derived growth factor receptor; PK, pharmacokinetic; PLC- $\gamma$ 1, phospholipase C- $\gamma$ 1; RCC, renal cell carcinoma; RTK, receptor tyrosine kinase;  $\alpha$ -SMA,  $\alpha$ -smooth muscle actin; STAT5 $\alpha/\beta$ , signal transducers and

activators of transcription  $5\alpha/\beta$ ; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor; VEGFR, vascular endothelial growth factor receptors.

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**Abstract**

Acquired drug resistance represents a major obstacle to using sunitinib for the treatment of solid tumors. Here, we examined the cellular and molecular alterations in tumors that are associated with acquired brain tumor resistance to sunitinib using an *in vivo* model. U87MG tumors obtained from nude mice that received sunitinib 40 mg/kg/day for 30 days were classified as sunitinib-sensitive and -resistant groups based on tumor volume and underwent targeted gene microarray and protein array analyses. The expression of several angiogenesis-associated genes was significantly modulated in sunitinib-treated tumors compared with those in control tumors ( $p < 0.05$ ), whereas no significant differences were observed between sunitinib-sensitive and -resistant tumors ( $p > 0.05$ ). Tumor vasculature based on microvessel density, neurogenin 2 chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan (NG2) density and  $\alpha$ -smooth muscle actin ( $\alpha$ -SMA) density was also similar in sunitinib-treatment groups ( $p > 0.05$ ). The moderate increase in unbound sunitinib tumor-to-plasma area-under-the-curve (AUC) ratio in sunitinib-resistant mice was accompanied by upregulated ABCG2 expression in tumor. The most profound difference between sunitinib-sensitive and -resistant groups was found in the expression of several phosphorylated proteins involved in intracellular signaling. In particular, phospholipase C- $\gamma$ 1 (PLC- $\gamma$ 1) phosphorylation in sunitinib-resistant tumors was upregulated by 2.6 folds compared with that in sunitinib-sensitive tumors ( $p < 0.05$ ). In conclusion, acquired sunitinib resistance in U87MG tumors is not associated with revascularization in tumors, but rather with activation of alternate pro-survival pathways involved in an escape mechanism facilitating tumor growth and possibly insufficient drug uptake in tumor cells due to an upregulated membrane efflux transporter.

## Introduction

The concept that sustained angiogenesis is an essential feature of many human cancers has rendered the inhibition of tumor angiogenesis a promising strategy for cancer treatment [Hanahan and Weinberg, 2000]. The finding of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) as a key mediator of angiogenesis in cancer was a milestone that spurred appreciable research efforts to develop therapeutic agents selectively targeting VEGF ligands and their receptors [Leung *et al.*, 1989; Ferrara *et al.*, 2004]. In spite of impressive preclinical results and initial positive responses of patients, anti-VEGF therapy has yet to show an overall survival benefit and most patients eventually relapse due to the acquisition of drug resistance [Shojaei and Ferrara, 2007]. The postulated resistance mechanisms are diverse and as such attest to the challenge of devising treatment strategies that might prevent drug resistance [Bergers and Hanahan, 2008; Azam *et al.*, 2010].

Acquired tumor resistance to antiangiogenic therapy occurs after treatment with selective inhibitors targeting VEGF receptors [Casanovas *et al.*, 2005; Lucio-Eterovic *et al.*, 2009] as well as other multitargeted antiangiogenic agents, such as sunitinib. Sunitinib is a small-molecule multi-kinase inhibitor having antiangiogenic and antitumor activities achieved through the inhibition of several related receptor tyrosine kinases (RTKs), including vascular endothelial growth factor receptors 1-3 (VEGFR1-3), platelet-derived growth factor receptor  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  (PDGFR  $\alpha/\beta$ ), stem cell factor receptor and FMS-like tyrosine kinase 3 [Sun *et al.*, 2003; Mendel *et al.*, 2003]. Despite initial reports suggesting clinical efficacy in various types of solid tumors [George 2007; Motzer *et al.*, 2006; Liljegren *et al.*, 2009], acquired resistance to sunitinib has emerged as a major obstacle for improving overall response rate and survival of cancer patients. Even though there is an urgent need to understand the mechanisms underlying acquired sunitinib resistance, only a handful of experimental studies have been performed to date. A diversity of mechanisms underlying the sunitinib resistance phenotype has been

elucidated under different experimental conditions, including various *in vitro* and/or *in vivo* approaches utilizing different tumor cell lines [Yang *et al.*, 2012; Kutikov *et al.*, 2011; Bender and Ullrich, 2011; Huang *et al.*, 2010; Gotink *et al.*, 2011]. Each individual study has focused merely on one aspect of resistance, either a distinct proangiogenic factor, a pro-survival signaling pathway [Yang *et al.*, 2012; Kutikov *et al.*, 2011; Bender and Ullrich, 2011; Huang *et al.*, 2010], or lysosomal sequestration [Gotink *et al.*, 2011]; thus, in-depth knowledge about the mechanisms involved in acquired sunitinib resistance is still lacking.

Brain tumor chemotherapy also suffers from the development of acquired drug resistance and in addition, due to the presence of the blood-brain barrier can negatively impact drug penetration, and might be considered an intrinsic resistance factor. Nonetheless, a recent study demonstrated the potent antiangiogenic and anti-invasive effects of sunitinib on experimental human glioblastomas using mouse brain slices implanted with GL15 glioblastoma cells or fresh human glioma biopsy specimens [de Boüard *et al.*, 2007], and thus, provided a rationale of using sunitinib for patients with malignant gliomas. Currently, a phase II trial of sunitinib in patients with recurrence malignant gliomas is underway at the National Institute of Health (NIH) (<http://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT00923117>). In light of the potential use of sunitinib for the treatment of brain cancer and possible occurrence of sunitinib resistance over time, additional knowledge about the molecular alterations and features of brain tumors in relation to tumor resistance to sunitinib would be essential for the design of effective drug combinations that may maximize patient responses. The aim of this study was to identify pharmacokinetic (PK), cellular and molecular alterations in gliomas that are associated with phenotypic resistance to sunitinib. To accomplish this, an *in vivo* drug resistance tumor model was established based on the differential growth of subcutaneous tumors in mice to determine the role of both cellular and vascular components in the acquisition of sunitinib resistance. The expression levels of angiogenesis markers and angiogenesis-associated genes in tumors were measured as well as

the phosphorylation levels of various proteins that regulate various pro-survival signaling pathways in the sensitive and resistant phenotypes. This approach enabled us to provide a broader understanding of sunitinib resistance.

## Materials and Methods

### Materials

Sunitinib malate (Sutent®. N-[2-(Diethylamino)ethyl]-5-[(Z)-(5-fluoro-1,2-dihydro-2-oxo-3H-indol-3-ylidene)methyl]-2,4-dimethyl-1H-pyrrole-3-carboxamide (2S)-2-hydroxybutanedioic acid (1:1) salt) was purchased from LC Laboratories (Woburn, MA) and dissolved in deionized water at a stock concentration of 5.35 mg/ml (= 4 mg of sunitinib base per ml). All other chemicals, solvents and reagents were obtained from commercial sources.

Male NIH Swiss nude mice (*nu/nu*, 6-7 weeks old) were purchased from Taconic Farms (Germantown, NY). All animal experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee and performed according to the NIH guidelines.

U87MG human glioma cells were purchased from the American Type Culture Collection and cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 100 units/ml penicillin and 100 µg/ml streptomycin, and maintained in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO<sub>2</sub> in air at 37°C.

### Sunitinib-Sensitive and –Resistant Xenograft Tumor Model

U87MG cells ( $5 \times 10^6$ ) suspended in 0.2 ml Matrigel (BD Biosciences) were inoculated subcutaneously in the dorsal neck region of the nude mice. Tumor growth was monitored once a week with the volume calculated as  $0.5 \times \text{length} \times \text{width}^2$ . Tumor engraftment and growth was observed in all animals 14 days after tumor implantation. Tumor-bearing mice were randomized into two groups to initiate treatment; vehicle control ( $N = 5$ ) and 40 mg/kg sunitinib group ( $N = 21$ ), based on tumor volume. Each mouse received oral once-daily administration of either vehicle or sunitinib with a 6-day-on and 1-day-off dosing schedule for 30 days. Phenotypic sensitivity of individual mice to sunitinib treatment was defined based on the degree of

suppression of tumor growth. Sunitinib-treated mice were classified into sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant groups according to the median value of fold change of tumor volume after the 30-day treatment period, which was calculated as the ratio of tumor volume on Day 30 to that on Day 0.

### **Pharmacokinetic Blood Sampling and Tumor Microdialysis**

On Day 30, a subgroup of sunitinib-treated tumor-bearing mice that consisted of 6 sunitinib-sensitive and 4 sunitinib-resistant animals underwent PK measurements. The day before the last dose of sunitinib, the carotid artery of each mouse was catheterized for blood sampling [Zhou *et al.*, 2008]. Blood samples were taken prior to, and at 5, 15 and 30 min, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8 and 24 h after sunitinib administration on Day 30. Plasma was separated by centrifugation and stored at -80 °C until analyzed for sunitinib. Tumor microdialysis was performed to determine unbound sunitinib concentrations in tumor interstitial fluid (IF). In brief, on the day of PK study, a CMA/20 Elite microdialysis probe with the membrane length of 4 mm and molecular weight cut-off of 20 kDa was inserted into the central region of the tumor and perfused with Ringer's solution containing 5% (w/v) 2-hydroxypropyl- $\beta$ -cyclodextrin (HPBCD) at a flow rate of 0.6  $\mu$ L/min. After the first 5 hours of sample collection after drug administration, dialysate samples were collected at different flow rates 0.6, 1.2, and 2  $\mu$ L/min at a time interval of 30 min consistent with the zero flow rate calibration method as described in the supplementary methods [Elmeliegy *et al.*, 2011].

Sunitinib concentrations in plasma and tumor IF were determined using a validated liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) method as previously reported [Zhou and Gallo, 2010].

### **Immunofluorescence Double Staining**

Frozen subcutaneous tumor samples collected from the PK study were cryosectioned at 10  $\mu$ m, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde, and then blocked with 1.5% goat serum in phosphate

buffered saline (PBS). Sections were incubated overnight at 4°C in either a mixture of 1:400 rat anti-mouse CD31 (BD Pharmingen) and 1:200 rabbit anti-mouse  $\alpha$ -SMA (Abcam) or a mixture of 1:400 rat anti-mouse CD31 and 1:200 rabbit anti-mouse NG2 (Millipore). After washed with PBS, tumor sections were incubated for 1 hour at room temperature in dark with a mixture of 1:200 Alexa Fluor 488 conjugated goat anti-rat IgG and 1:200 Alexa Fluor 568 conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (Invitrogen). Fluorescent immunostained sections were examined under a Zeiss Axioplan2IE fluorescence microscope with Zeiss HC PL Fluotar 10 and 20X/0.5 NA dry objective. Images were processed with MetaMorph 4.6-5 (Molecular Devices).

### **Angiogenesis Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) Array**

Tumor samples obtained from another subgroup of sunitinib-treated animals, which were not recruited in the PK study and consisted of 4 sunitinib-sensitive and 7 sunitinib-resistant mice, were used in the angiogenesis real-time PCR arrays designed to determine the expression levels of genes involved in modulating the biological processes of angiogenesis in either humans or mice (SA Biosciences). Total RNA extracted from tumor tissues with Trizol reagent (Invitrogen) was converted to cDNA using random hexamer primers and AMV reverse transcription reagents as per the manufacturer's protocol (Promega). The cDNA samples were then subjected to the real-time PCR arrays. To visualize the results we subtracted the  $C_T$  values of angiogenesis genes from the GAPDH expression and then subtracted the mean and divided by the standard deviation across all samples (Z-score normalization). To identify differentially expressed genes across all groups the ANOVA was applied with Benjamini–Hochberg (BH) correction ( $p < 0.05$ ). To identify differentially expressed genes between sensitive and resistant groups a  $t$ -test was used with the BH correction ( $p < 0.05$ ). Principal component analysis (PCA) was applied to the expression vectors across all samples as well as to an average vector for each of the three groups; control, sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant.

## Human Phospho-Kinase Antibody Array Study

Representative subcutaneous tumor samples from individual study groups (N = 4 from each group) were processed using the human phosphor-kinase array kit (ARY003, R&D Systems), which include 46 intracellular serine/threonine/tyrosine kinases according to the manufacturer's protocol. A qualitative assessment of the modulation effect of sunitinib on the expression of phosphorylated kinases was performed with the following two criteria: 1) A protein expression ratio of the sunitinib-treated tumor to the control tumor being  $\geq 1.5$  was considered upregulation; 2). A protein expression ratio of the control tumor to the sunitinib-treated tumor being  $\geq 1.5$  was considered downregulation.

## Western Blot Analysis

Tumor lysate samples were prepared as previously described [Zhou *et al.*, 2008] and subjected to immunoblotting with the following antibodies purchased from Cell Signaling: Jun proto-oncogene (c-Jun, 1:1000), phosphorylated c-Jun (p-c-Jun, 1:1000), extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (ERK1/2, 1:1000), phosphorylated ERK1/2 (p-ERK1/2, 1:1000), glycogen synthase kinase 3 $\alpha/\beta$  (GSK3 $\alpha/\beta$ , 1:1000), phosphorylated GSK 3 $\alpha/\beta$  (p-GSK3 $\alpha/\beta$ , 1:1000), phospholipase C- $\gamma$ 1 (PLC- $\gamma$ 1, 1:1000), phosphorylated PLC- $\gamma$ 1 (p-PLC- $\gamma$ 1, 1:1000), signal transducers and activators of transcription 5 $\alpha/\beta$  (STAT5 $\alpha/\beta$ , 1:1000) and phosphorylated STAT5 $\alpha/\beta$  (p- STAT5 $\alpha/\beta$ , 1:1000) . Blots were incubated with horseradish peroxidase–conjugated secondary antibodies (1:15,000; Santa Cruz) and immunoreactive protein bands were visualized by the enhanced chemiluminescence system (PerkinElmer). Band areas were quantified by ImageJ software (from NIH and available at <http://rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/>). Normalization for loading differences was achieved by dividing the densitometry values for individual bands by the densitometry values for  $\beta$ -actin in the same lane. The expression levels

of individual proteins in sunitinib-treated tumors are presented as the percent change compared to those in the control tumors.

To measure the expression levels of ABCB1 and ABCG2, the crude membrane was extracted from individual tumor tissues as described in the supplementary methods and subjected to the Western blotting using the ABCB1 (1:100, Calbiochem) and ABCG2 antibodies (1:500, Santa Cruz) following the same abovementioned protocol.

### **Statistical Analyses**

Except for the real-time PCR array data, data analyses were performed using Number Cruncher Statistical Systems 2007 (Keyville, UT). Data are presented as the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD). Comparison of means between two independent groups was made using the Mann-Whitney U test. Comparison of means among three study groups was made using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the post-hoc Tukey-Kramer Multiple-Comparison Test. Spearman's rank correlation was used to describe relations between two variables. A two-sided *p*-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

## Results

### Inhibitory Effect of Sunitinib on Tumor Growth

Significant suppression of tumor growth in sunitinib treatment groups was observed on Day 9 and Day 16 ( $p < 0.01$  for both as compared with the vehicle control). Vehicle-treated mice were sacrificed 16 days after the initiation of the treatment due to their tumors reaching the allowed maximum size (2000 mm<sup>3</sup>). Sunitinib-treated mice exhibited different tumor growth rates during the 30-day treatment period. The fold change of tumor volume after the 30-day treatment period ranged from 0.7 – 11.5 with the median value of 4.7. This median value was then used as the cut-off point to classify sunitinib-treated mice into sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant groups (Fig. 1A; Supplementary Table S1). Significant differences in mean tumor volume (Supplementary Figure S1) and tumor volume ratio (*i.e.*, the ratio of tumor volume measured at an indicated time to tumor volume at the start of vehicle or sunitinib treatment) (Fig. 1B) between the sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant groups were observed on Day 23 and Day 30 ( $p < 0.01$  for both), indicating that sunitinib exhibits greater antitumor efficacy in sunitinib-sensitive mice than in sunitinib-resistant mice.

### Sunitinib Pharmacokinetic Study in Sunitinib-Sensitive and –Resistant Mice

The PK study was performed to determine if the reduced effectiveness of sunitinib was attributable to insufficient drug penetration into tumor cells. The unbound sunitinib plasma AUC was calculated based on the reported sunitinib unbound fraction value of 9% in the mouse plasma [Haznedar *et al.*, 2009]. Although there were trends of altered PK characteristics (*i.e.* decreased unbound plasma AUC and increased clearance) in the sunitinib-resistant group (Table 1), the differences were insignificant compared to the sunitinib-sensitive group ( $p > 0.05$ ). Nonetheless, a 19% increase in the mean unbound sunitinib tumor IF to plasma AUC ratio in the sunitinib-resistant group compared with that in the sunitinib-sensitive group raised

speculation that activated efflux pumps in the plasma membrane of tumor cells efflux drug from the intracellular space to the interstitial space.

### **Evaluation of Tumor Angiogenesis in Sunitinib-Sensitive and –Resistant Tumors**

Pericytes on tumor blood vessels express distinct markers at different stages of differentiation [Morikawa *et al.*, 2002]. NG2 proteoglycan is a cell surface molecule and a prominent component of pericytes in tumor microvessels. It has the potential to affect tumor progression by contributing to pericyte recruitment and to pericyte–endothelial cell interactions [Ozerdem *et al.*, 2002; Brekke *et al.*, 2006]. In contrast,  $\alpha$ -SMA has been reported as a marker of mature mural cells including both pericytes and smooth muscle cells [Yonenaga *et al.*, 2005]. In this study, sunitinib treatment significantly reduced the tumor microvessel density and pericyte recruitment as indicated by the CD31 and NG2 immunostaining ( $p < 0.01$  for both, Fig. 2A and 2C). Sunitinib had no effect on the  $\alpha$ -SMA density, but significantly increased the number of  $\alpha$ -SMA positive cells lining CD31-positive endothelial cells relative to the total number of CD31-positive endothelial cells, which is reflected by the percentage of  $\alpha$ -SMA/CD31 double-positive structures ( $p < 0.01$  for both sunitinib-resistant and –sensitive tumors; Fig. 2B and 2D) and considered an index of vessel maturation [Djokovic *et al.*, 2010]. The mean percentage of CD31-positive structures covered by NG2-positive area was significantly reduced in both sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant tumors as compared with that in the control tumors ( $p < 0.05$  and 0.01 for sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant tumors, respectively, Fig. 2A and 2C), suggesting markedly impaired pericyte recruitment, and also indicates reduced new blood vessel formation in tumors. Overall the results suggest that sunitinib targets mainly newly formed immature tumor vessels thereby increasing the proportion of functional vessels in tumors. No significant differences were found between sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant groups in tumor microvessel density, NG2 density,  $\alpha$ -SMA density and the percentage of either  $\alpha$ -SMA/CD31 or NG2/CD31 double-positive structures. This implies that even though tumor

angiogenesis is inhibited to the same extent in both sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant tumors, alternative pro-survival pathways that allow tumor growth to be less dependent on tumor neovascularization may be activated to a greater degree in the resistant tumors compared with those in the sensitive tumors.

### **Angiogenesis Polymerase Chain Reaction Array**

The species specific detection of the expression levels of human and mouse angiogenesis-associated genes was carried out using a real-time PCR array. The  $C_T$  values for individual genes are presented in Supplementary Tables S2 and S3. The unsupervised hierarchical bi-clustering approach was used to organize and explore the data and highlight groups of samples with similar gene expression patterns. Hierarchical clustering using the normalized  $C_T$  values generated two distinct clusters for both mouse and human angiogenesis-related genes. Cluster 1 contained all vehicle control animals ( $N = 5$ ), and cluster 2 contained all sunitinib-treated animals, including 4 sunitinib-sensitive and 7 resistant animals (Fig. 3A and 3B). Likewise, principal component analysis (PCA) demonstrated that sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant groups displayed overall similar expression patterns for both human and mouse angiogenesis-associated genes, whereas the control group showed differential gene expression pattern compared with the two sunitinib treatment groups (Fig. 3C-3F). Moreover, 21 of the 84 mouse genes and 35 of the 84 human genes were differentially expressed between the control tumors and either sunitinib-sensitive or –resistant tumors ( $p < 0.05$ , Fig. 3G and 3H). While most resistant and sensitive groups appear to be segregated into two distinct groups by visually inspecting the hierarchical clustering and PCA plots, no significantly differentially expressed genes were found. Hence, the difference in the expression levels of either mouse or human genes was not significant between sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant groups, suggesting similar patterns of angiogenesis-related gene expression in the sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant tumors.

## Human Phospho-Kinase Antibody Array Study

Even though the results of both immunostaining and angiogenesis PCR array showed that tumor angiogenesis was inhibited to a similar degree in both sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant tumors, the relatively rapid growth rate of sunitinib-resistant tumors suggests that there are potentially cell signaling pathways that differentially regulate tumor cell proliferation and survival in the resistant tumors. Since pro-survival signaling pathways are known to play an important role in drug resistance, a human phosphor-kinase antibody array was used to screen for potential markers for the acquisition of sunitinib resistance. Fig. 4A and 4B show the fold changes in protein expression of phosphorylated kinases and their substrates that were either upregulated ( $\geq 1.5$ , sunitinib-treated to control) or downregulated ( $\geq 1.5$ , control to sunitinib-treated), respectively. A network diagram depicting the relationships between these proteins and their substrates in the context of cell signaling pathways is shown in Fig. 4C and 4D; however it should be viewed as the definitive network since there are many other regulators involved that are not shown. In addition, the references for the links between components are from different cell types, being either human or mouse. However, it can be seen that the upregulated proteins in the resistant tumors and the down-regulated proteins in the sensitive tumors form a pathway that can mediate the phosphorylation of ERK1/2, which subsequently upregulates c-Jun expression, as well as another set of transcription factors, STAT5 $\alpha/\beta$ . Moreover, the upregulation of GSK3 $\alpha/\beta$  is also likely to play a role in the activation of c-Jun suggesting a coherent feed-forward network motif amongst effectors of c-Jun in sunitinib-resistant tumors.

## Western Blot Analysis

Based on the phosphor-kinase antibody array results, semi-quantitative Western blot analyses were conducted to confirm that the following proteins were upregulated in the

sunitinib-resistant tumors: ERK1/2 (T202/Y204), GSK3 $\alpha/\beta$  (S21/S9), PLC $\gamma$ -1 (Y783), c-Jun (S63), STAT5 $\alpha/\beta$  (Y699). As shown in Fig. 5B and 5C, the expression levels of p-PLC- $\gamma$ 1 ( $P < 0.01$ ), total PLC- $\gamma$ 1 ( $p < 0.05$ ) and total c-Jun ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the sunitinib-resistant tumor were significantly upregulated compared with those in the control tumors. The expression level of p-PLC- $\gamma$ 1 and total GSK3 $\beta$  in sunitinib-resistant tumors was significantly higher than that in sunitinib-sensitive tumors ( $p < 0.05$  and  $0.01$  for total GSK3 $\beta$  and p-PLC- $\gamma$ 1, respectively). Expression of p-c-Jun appeared to be upregulated in the sunitinib-resistant tumors but down-regulated in the sensitive tumors, and the difference between those two groups was significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). Differences in the expression levels of p-ERK1/2, total ERK, p-GSK3 $\alpha/\beta$ , and total GSK3 $\alpha$  among the three study groups were not statistically significant (Fig. 5C). The expression levels of phosphorylated and total STAT5 $\alpha/\beta$  were not detectable by the Western blotting analysis. To examine whether the expression of the tested proteins would be associated with tumor growth following sunitinib treatment, the expression levels of individual proteins were compared with tumor volume on Day 30 or fold changes of tumor volume after the 30-day treatment period using Spearman correlation coefficients. Since the relationship between any two variables might be linear or log-linear, rank-based coefficients, such as Spearman's coefficients, would yield more robust estimates of correlation than linear coefficients, such as Pearson's coefficients, which could be strongly biased by extreme values. Using Spearman correlation analyses, the fold change of tumor volume was found to be significantly correlated with p-PLC- $\gamma$ 1 ( $r = 0.636$ ,  $p = 0.048$ ; Supplementary Figure S2A), total ERK1/2 ( $r = 0.661$ ,  $p = 0.038$ ; Supplementary Figure S2B), and total GSK3 $\beta$  ( $r = 0.636$ ,  $p = 0.048$ ; Supplementary Figure S2C).

Sunitinib is known to be a substrate [Tang *et al.*, 2012] and inhibitor [Shukla *et al.*, 2009] of ABCG2, a membrane transporter that serves as a drug efflux pump. In this study, the ABCG2 expression levels in tumors appeared to be upregulated in both sunitinib-sensitive (by 36%) and

–resistant (by 72%) tumors as compared with that in the control tumors although only the difference between the sunitinib-resistant and control groups was statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ , Fig. 5C). This result suggests that the upregulation of ABCG2 in tumor cells may contribute to the acquired tumor resistance to sunitinib treatment. However, significant correlations were not found between tumor ABCG2 expression levels and either unbound sunitinib tumor or plasma AUC values or the tumor-to-plasma AUC ratios. The expression level of ABCB1 was not detected by the Western blot in all tumor samples.

## Discussion

Efforts to identify mechanisms of sunitinib resistance in various cancer types have begun but none have focused on gliomas [Yang *et al.*, 2012; Kutikov *et al.*, 2011; Bender and Ullrich, 2011; Huang *et al.*, 2010; Gotink *et al.*, 2011]. In this study, a U87MG xenograft model was used to explore the potential mechanism involved in acquired sunitinib resistance. In contrast to *in vitro* models, the subcutaneous glioma model used here has the advantage of flexibility of treatment duration and direct assessment of a resistant phenotype based on tumor size, yet suffers a drawback of not capturing the native environment of brain tumors. Nonetheless, this study provides a framework for understanding the sequence of biologically programmed events in brain tumors leading to acquired sunitinib resistance.

In this study, sunitinib-treated animals were classified into to sunitinib-sensitive and resistant groups based on the median value of fold change of tumor volume after the 30-day treatment period (Fig. 1). Although the designation of sensitive and resistant groups is partially arbitrary, having two phenotypically distinct groups aids in characterizing differences in sunitinib-induced cellular and molecular alterations in tumor as well as in sunitinib's PK behavior. A similar approach was reported by Huang *et al.* [2010], who defined the sunitinib-resistant renal cell carcinoma (RCC) xenografts as those with more than 25% increase in the initial tumor volume, whereas those with the initial tumor volume increase being less than 25% were considered sunitinib-sensitive.

Consistent with the early study showing that sunitinib significantly reduced blood vessel formation but had little effect on existing blood vessels [Osusky *et al.*, 2004], the double immunofluorescent staining results of this study suggest that the immature tumor vessels are more susceptible to sunitinib, while mature vessels are relatively resistant to it (Fig. 2). The remaining mature vessels in the tumors are able to maintain blood flow and provide oxygen and

nutrients, thereby supporting tumor growth [Jain 2001], which explains the observed gradually increased tumor volume in all sunitinib-treated animals in this study. Since there was no difference in tumor angiogenesis, measured in terms of microvessel density, pericyte density and percent of microvessel with pericyte coverage, between sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant groups, it is unlikely that the relatively rapid growth observed in sunitinib-resistant tumors is due to the restoration of sprouting tumor angiogenesis.

Resistance to antiangiogenic therapy in cancer involves both tumor cells and stromal components [Casanovas, 2011]. Although a human tumor xenograft in a mouse background is a mixture of human and mouse tissues, most studies on antiangiogenic drug resistance that included gene expression analyses of tumor xenografts have only determined human genes [Casanovas *et al.*, 2005; Huang *et al.*, 2010; Zhang *et al.*, 2011]. In this study, the real-time PCR array assay was performed to obtain species-specific gene expression profiles. This enabled us to distinguish between angiogenesis-associated factors derived from human tumor cells and those from the mouse stroma, and thus, gain insight into tumor-stromal interactions related to the acquisition of sunitinib resistance. In line with findings of the immunohistochemistry study, results of the real-time PCR array demonstrated that the expression patterns of both human and mouse angiogenesis-related genes were different between control and sunitinib treatment groups, but not between sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant groups. However, the directed angiogenesis arrays would not have captured genes related to other resistant mechanisms. For example, in recent studies treatment with antiangiogenic agents has been demonstrated to increase local invasion and accelerate metastases [Pàez-Ribes *et al.*, 2009; Ebos *et al.*, 2009]. In this regard, whole genome-wide expression analysis would be necessary to locate likely differences not captured in the scope of this study which focused on tumor neovascularization. Nonetheless, several differentially expressed genes observed in this study were also reported by other research groups. For

example, Finke *et al.* [2011] reported that sunitinib-persistent myeloid derived suppressor cells (MDSCs) in metastatic RCC were associated with the upregulated expression of intratumoral matrix metalloproteinase 9 (MMP9), matrix metalloproteinase 8 (MMP8) and interleukin 8 (IL-8). In a preclinical study by Huang *et al.* [2010], plasma IL-8 levels were higher in sunitinib-resistant mice compared with those in sunitinib-sensitive mice. In the present study, the expression levels of *Mmp9* and *IL8* were significantly upregulated in sunitinib-treated tumors compared with control tumors. However, no difference was found between sunitinib-sensitive and resistant tumors (Fig. 3G and 3H). The discrepancy between findings of this study and those of Finke *et al.* [2011] and Huang *et al.* [2010] may be due to differences in study designs, including various tumor model used, different tissue sample examined and different treatment regimen applied.

The angiogenic array results revealed that the phenotypic resistance to sunitinib treatment was not attributed to the upregulation of alternative proangiogenic factors, which raised the question of whether modulation of other pro-survival pathways might contribute to the acquisition of sunitinib resistance. Using an antibody array followed by Western blotting verification, we identified a few differentially expressed kinase proteins in sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant tumors. There was some discrepancy between phosphor-kinase antibody arrays and Western blotting in terms of the magnitude of the fold changes, which is possibly attributable to the different efficacy of applied antibodies.

Results of the Western blot analysis showed that the expression levels of phosphorylated and total PLC- $\gamma$ 1 were elevated in sunitinib-sensitive and -resistant tumors compared with control tumors, but to a various degree. Moreover, the p-PLC- $\gamma$ 1 expression level in sunitinib-treated tumors was significantly correlated with the fold change of tumor volume ( $p < 0.05$ ; Supplementary Figure S2A). The intracellular signaling molecule PLC- $\gamma$ 1 can be activated by various growth factors and hormones through their corresponding RTKs [Burgess *et al.*, 1990; Kundra *et al.*, 1994]. Activation of PLC- $\gamma$ 1 results in the formation of second messengers inositol

1,4,5- trisphosphate (IP3) and diacylglycerol (DAG), which subsequently mobilizes the release of calcium and activates protein kinase C isoforms, respectively, leading to diverse cellular responses. Phosphorylation on tyrosine residue 783 of PLC- $\gamma$ 1 is critical to its activation [Yu *et al.*, 1998; Poulin *et al.*, 2005]. A growing body of evidence has shown that PLC- $\gamma$ 1 promotes tumor invasion. For example, the PLC- $\gamma$ 1 expression in a metastatic tumor-derived head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) cell line was significantly upregulated compared with paired primary tumor-derived cell line. Treatment with the PLC inhibitor U73122 attenuated epidermal growth factor (EGF)-stimulated HNSCC invasion *in vitro* [Nozawa *et al.*, 2008]. A mechanistic study using the MDA-MB-231 breast cancer cell line revealed that the phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) mediated activation of PLC- $\gamma$ 1 provided a link between integrin- and growth factor-mediated signaling pathways to regulate cell motility [Piccolo *et al.*, 2002]. In this study, the upregulation of PLC- $\gamma$ 1 expression in sunitinib-treated tumors suggests that tumors change part of their molecular characteristics in response to sunitinib treatment to not only sustain tumor growth but also promote tumor invasion.

The expression of p-c-Jun was upregulated in the sunitinib-resistant tumors but down-regulated in the sensitive tumors (Fig. 5C). C-Jun and its upstream regulator c-Jun NH<sub>2</sub>-terminal kinase (JNK) belong to one sub-group of mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinases that can be stimulated by environmental stresses, cytokines and DNA-damaging agents [Weston and Davis, 2007]. The overexpression or activation of c-Jun appears to be antiapoptotic in various cancer cell lines, and targeting c-Jun increases the sensitivity of resistant cancer cells to DNA-damaging or microtubule-interacting agents [Pan *et al.*, 2002; Obey *et al.*, 2005; Duan *et al.*, 2007]. In our case, the upregulation of phosphorylated and total c-Jun in addition to PLC- $\gamma$ 1 in sunitinib-resistant tumors indicates that more than one pro-survival pathway is activated in tumors resistant to sunitinib.

Tumor resistance to pharmaceutical intervention may be due to PK resistance that would culminate in lower intracellular drug exposure. In this study, upregulated ABCG2 expression level in sunitinib-treated tumors was associated with increased unbound tumor-IF-to-plasma AUC ratios. Sunitinib being a substrate of ABCG2 could be subjected to enhanced tumor cell efflux causing lower intracellular concentrations but higher concentrations in tumor IF. This interesting phenomenon that was detected *in vivo* by using tumor microdialysis has not been previously reported and offers an experimental approach to ascertain how intracellular drug concentrations may be altered by drug transport modulation. Even though no correlation was found between tumor ABCG2 expression levels and unbound sunitinib tumor-IF-to-plasma AUC ratios possibly due to a limited sample size, there is a sufficient basis to further study the role of ABCG2 in acquired sunitinib resistance.

In summary, based on the findings of this study, acquired tumor resistance to sunitinib is not associated with the revascularization in tumor, but associated with the activation of alternate pro-survival pathways, notably those mediated by PLC- $\gamma$ 1 and c-Jun proteins. The reduced drug uptake in tumor cells attributable to upregulated ABCG2 also appears to play a role in acquired sunitinib resistance. Further studies are needed to clarify the role of these potential resistance factors in sunitinib resistance; however without the use of an *in vivo* model of drug resistance that provides a foundation for further exploration including novel combination therapies, these leads are not likely to be identified.

## **Authorship Contributions**

*Participated in research design:* Zhou and Gallo

*Conducted experiments:* Zhou and Lv.

*Contributed new reagents or analytic tools:* Lv.

*Performed data analysis:* Zhou, Mazloom, Xu, and Ma'ayan.

*Wrote or contributed to the writing of the manuscript:* Zhou, Xu, Ma'ayan and Gallo.

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## **Footnotes**

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**Fig. 1.** Differential tumor growth rate in sunitinib-treated tumor-bearing animals. U87MG human glioblastoma xenografts were grown subcutaneously in male NIH Swiss nude mice (*nu/nu*). Once daily oral administration of vehicle or 40 mg/kg of sunitinib was initiated 14 days after tumor implantation and continued for 30 days. (A) The distribution and median value of the Day-30-to-Day-0 tumor volume ratio in Sunitinib-treated tumor bearing mice ( $N = 21$ ). Sunitinib-treated mice with the Day-30-to-Day-0 tumor volume ratio value being no less than the median value of 4.7 were classified as the sunitinib-resistant animals ( $N = 11$ ), while the rest were defined as the sunitinib-sensitive animals ( $N = 10$ ). (B) Comparison of tumor growth ratio among control, sunitinib-sensitive and -resistant groups. Control animals ( $N = 5$ ) were sacrificed 16 days after the initiation of the treatment due to their tumors reaching the allowed maximum size ( $2000 \text{ mm}^3$ ).  $^{++}p < 0.01$  compared with the control group using one-way ANOVA followed by the post-hoc Tukey-Kramer Multiple-Comparison Test.  $^{**}p < 0.01$  compared with the sunitinib-sensitive group using the Mann-Whitney U test.

**Fig. 2.** Quantitation of CD31,  $\alpha$ -SMA and NG2 expression in control ( $N = 5$ ; open column), sunitinib-sensitive ( $N = 8$ ; horizontal striped column) and sunitinib-resistant ( $N = 10$ ; solid column) tumors. (A) Results of double fluorescent staining for CD31 and  $\alpha$ -SMA; (B) Results of double fluorescent staining for CD31 and NG2; (C) Representative images for the double fluorescent staining of CD31,  $\alpha$ -SMA and NG2 in tumor sections from the control, sunitinib-sensitive and -resistant groups. *Columns*, Mean; *bars*, SD.  $^{*}p < 0.05$  and  $^{++}p < 0.01$  compared with the control group using one-way ANOVA followed by the post-hoc Tukey-Kramer Multiple-Comparison Test.

**Fig. 3.** Unsupervised hierarchical bi-clustering of the expression patterns of 84 mouse (A) and 84 human (B) angiogenesis associated genes in 5 control tumors (CT), 4 sunitinib-sensitive (ST) tumors and 7 sunitinib-resistant tumors (RT). The color represents relative expression levels where orange represents expression levels greater than the mean for a given gene across all samples whereas blue expression less than the mean. Each colored cell in the heatmap represents the gene expression value for a probe in a sample. Principle Component Analysis (PCA) of the mouse (C, mean values, and E, individual animals) and human (D, mean values, and F, individual animals) angiogenesis-associated gene expression was performed to visualize the overall difference in expression levels across samples and groups. The percentage near each axis of the PCA plots denotes the contribution of the principle component to capturing the overall variability within the data. Expression levels of differentially expressed mouse (G) and human (H) angiogenesis-associated genes exhibiting significant difference between the control, sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant groups ( $P < 0.05$  compared with the control) are visualized as a bi-clustering heatmap using the same color scheme and normalization procedure as in A and B.

**Fig. 4.** Phosphorylated protein kinases and other kinase substrates protein expression levels in sunitinib-sensitive (A) and –resistant tumors (B) compared with control tumors. Upregulation: A protein expression ratio of the sunitinib-treated tumor to the control tumor being  $\geq 1.5$ . Downregulation: A protein expression ratio of the control tumor to the sunitinib-treated tumor being  $\geq 1.5$ . Network created from up- (C) and down-regulated (D) kinases and other phospho-proteins. Links denote activation (arrowheads) and inhibition (ball-head); dashed arrows represent indirect effects; nodes are color coded by up-regulated (red), down-regulated (blue) and unchanged (light gray); additional nodes that were not measured are color coded in dark

gray. Links are marked based on their database sources whereas numbers represent PubMed IDs.

**Fig. 5.** Modulated expression levels of ABCG2 and selected phosphorylated and total kinases in sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant tumors. (A) Western blot analysis of ABCG2 levels in untreated ( $N = 4$ ), sunitinib-sensitive ( $N = 6$ ) and –resistant ( $N = 4$ ) tumors. Anti- $\beta$ -actin immunoblot is shown as an independent loading control. (B) Western blot analysis of phosphorylated and total c-Jun, ERK1/2, GSK3 $\alpha/\beta$  and PLC $\gamma$ 1 in untreated, sunitinib-sensitive [S] and –resistant [R] tumors. S<sup>s</sup> - Sample was not included in the study due to the missing dose on Day 30. (C) Quantitation of Western blotting results using densitometric analysis. The results are plotted as percent of control. *Columns*, Mean; *bars*, SD. Open column, control group; horizontal striped column, sunitinib-sensitive group; solid column, sunitinib-resistant group. \* $p < 0.05$  compared with the control group using one-way ANOVA followed by the post-hoc Tukey-Kramer Multiple-Comparison Test. + $p < 0.05$  compared with the sunitinib-sensitive group using one-way ANOVA followed by the post-hoc Tukey-Kramer Multiple-Comparison Test.

**Table 1.** Unbound sunitinib systemic and tumor exposure in sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant tumors

<b>Groups</b>	<b>Unbound Tumor IF AUC<sub>0-24</sub> (ng*h/ml)</b>	<b>Unbound Plasma AUC<sub>0-24</sub> (ng*h/ml)</b>	<b>Unbound Tumor IF/Plasma AUC Ratio</b>
<b>Sensitive Tumor (N = 6)</b>	881.0 ± 682.1	548.6 ± 178.4	1.93 ± 1.70
<b>Resistant Tumor (N = 4)</b>	871.8 ± 268.7	405.2 ± 158.9	2.30 ± 0.79
<b><i>p</i>-values</b>	0.594	0.166	0.594

**Table 2.** Tumor angiogenesis in control, sunitinib-sensitive and –resistant tumors.

Groups	CD31/ $\alpha$ -SMA Double Staining			CD31/NG2 Double Staining		
	MVD (%)	$\alpha$ -SMA Density (%)	Vessel maturity	MVD (%)	NG2 Density (%)	Pericyte recruitment
<b>Control</b>	7.49 $\pm$ 2.06	2.05 $\pm$ 0.75	8.49 $\pm$ 3.09	8.91 $\pm$ 1.39	3.08 $\pm$ 1.14	18.39 $\pm$ 3.08
<b>Sensitive</b>	1.88 $\pm$ 0.55 **	1.28 $\pm$ 0.47	27.95 $\pm$ 10.37 **	1.86 $\pm$ 0.51**	0.64 $\pm$ 0.16 **	7.85 $\pm$ 5.93 *
<b>Resistant</b>	1.81 $\pm$ 0.47 **	1.18 $\pm$ 0.64	25.17 $\pm$ 9.56 *	1.52 $\pm$ 0.26 **	0.43 $\pm$ 0.12 **	9.88 $\pm$ 5.72 *

\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$  compared with control using one-way ANOVA and Tukey-Kramer Multiple-Comparison Test.

Fig. 1A

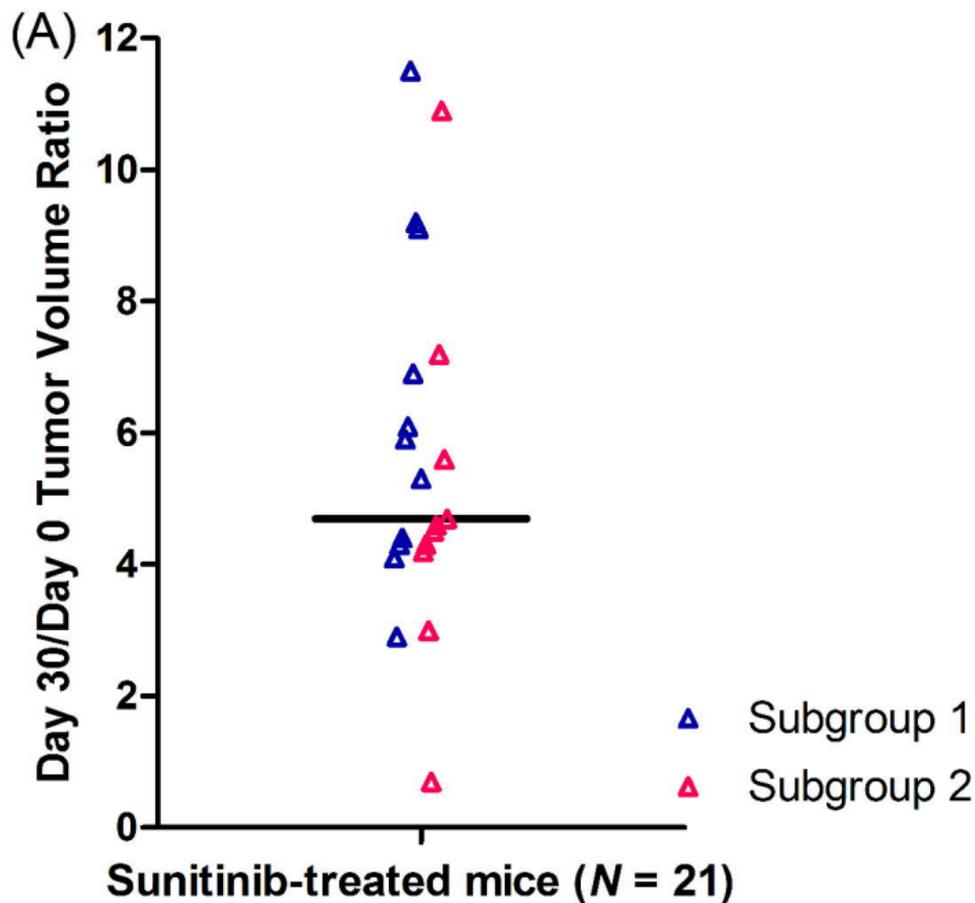


Fig. 1B

(B)

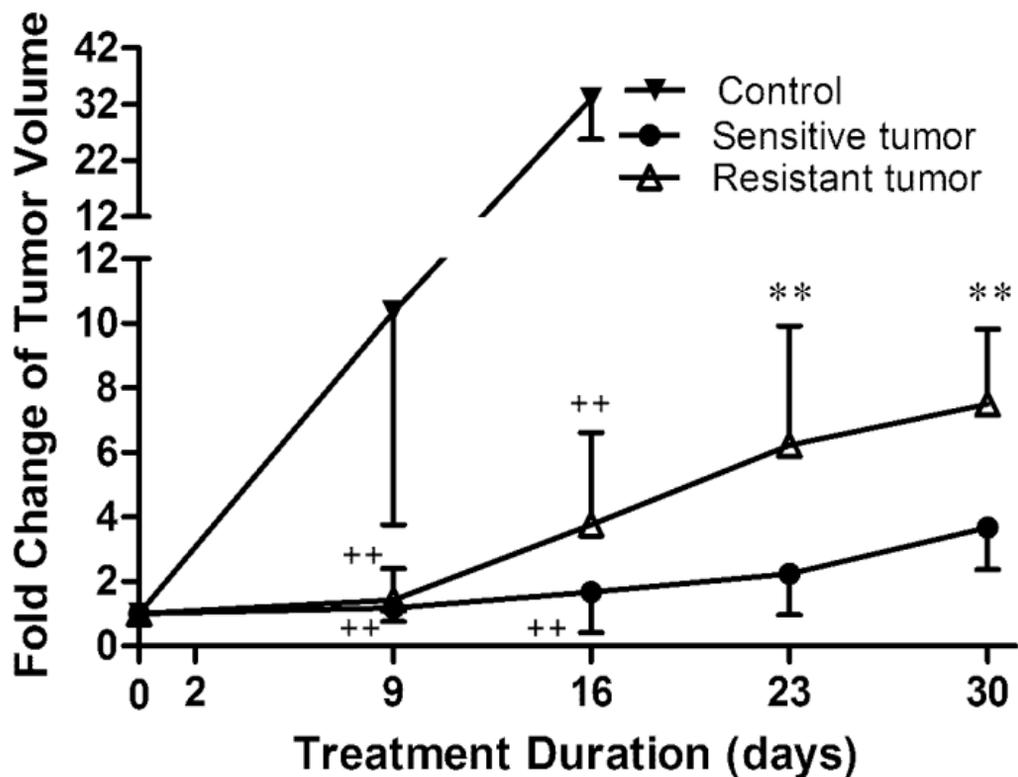


Fig. 2A

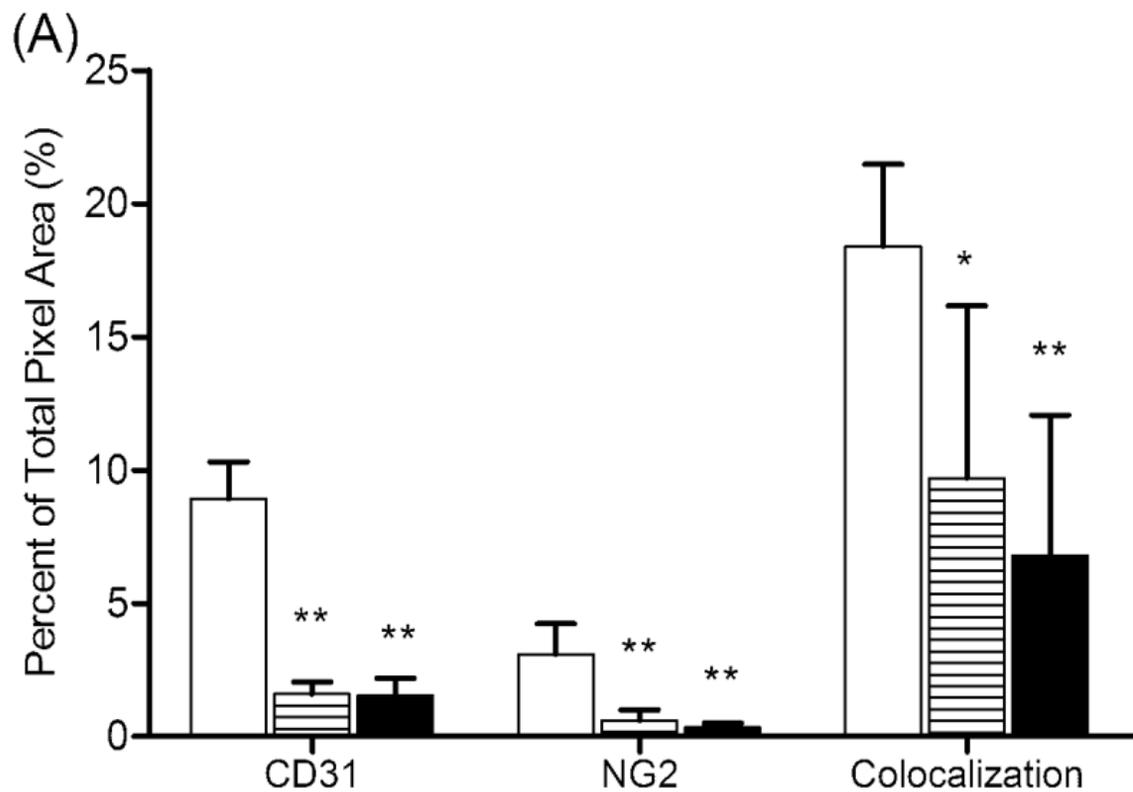
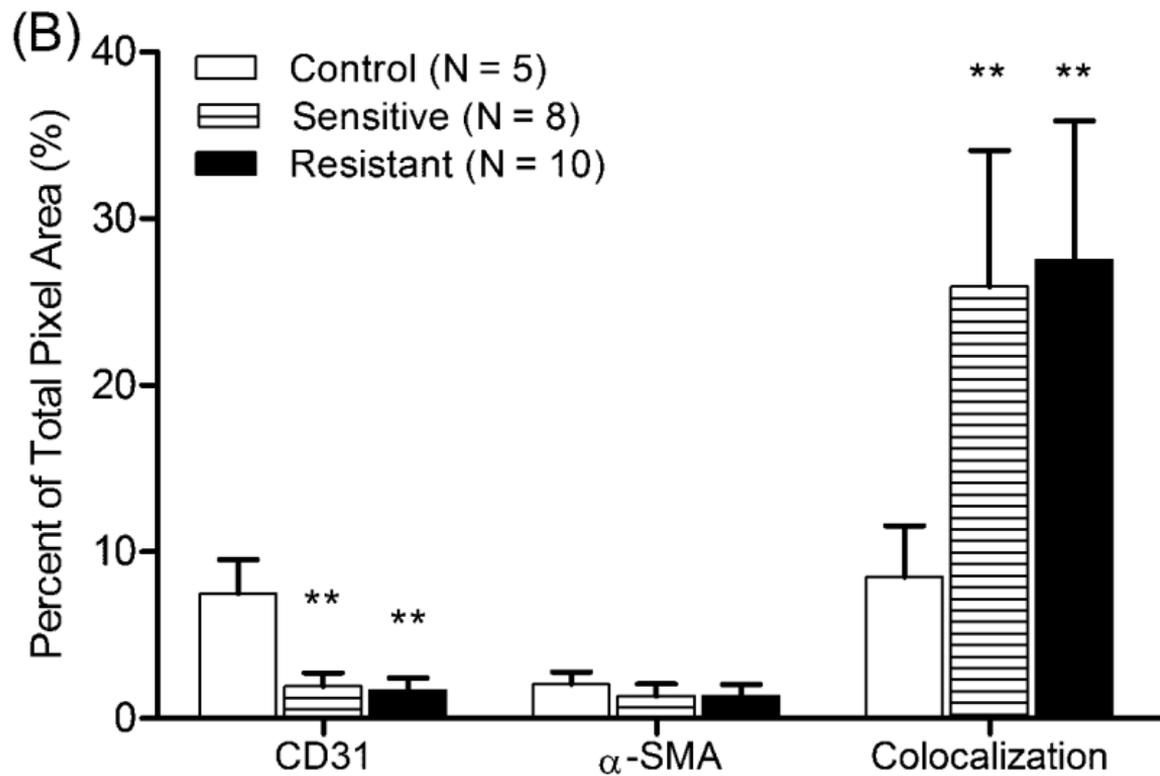
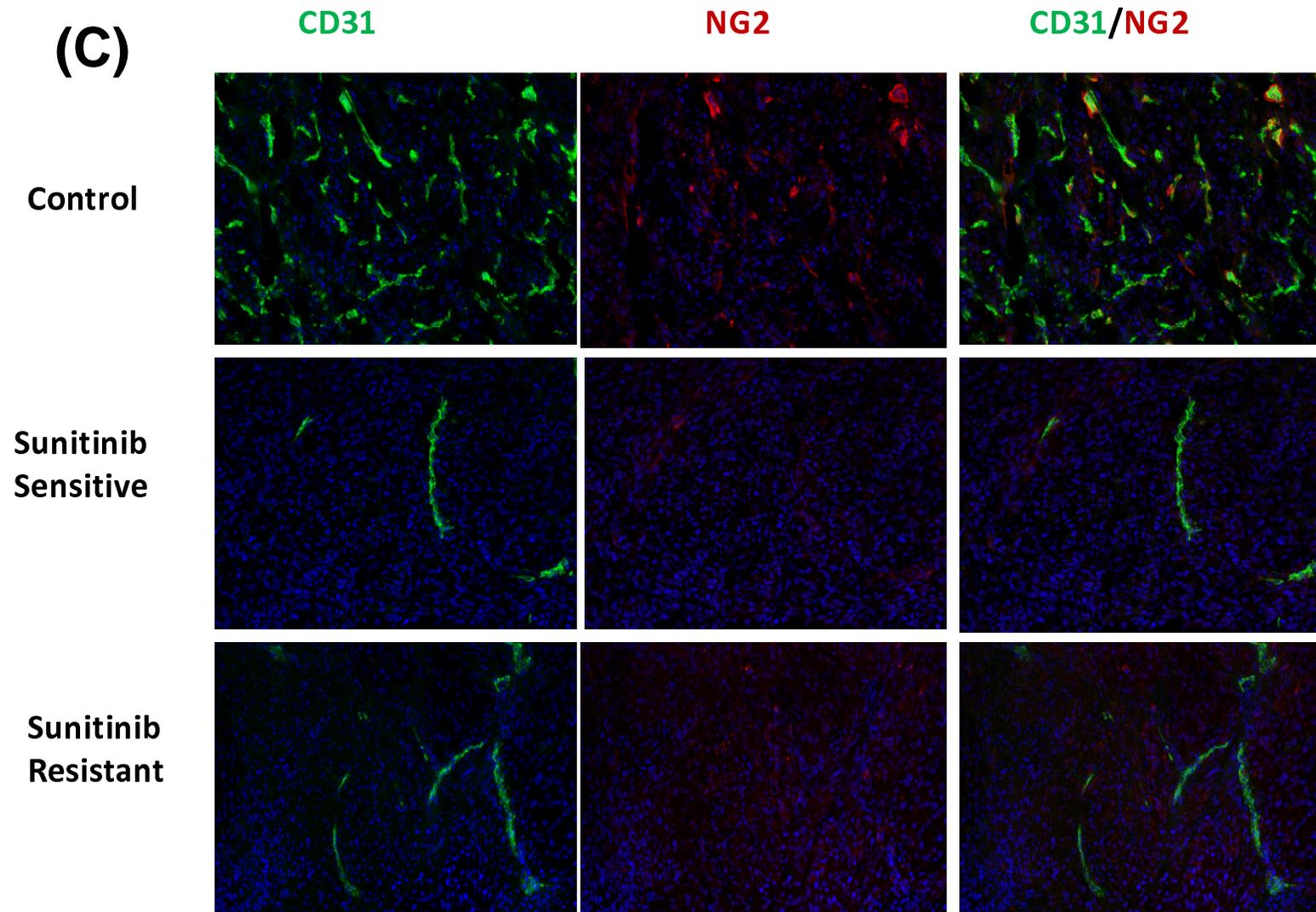


Fig. 2B



**Fig. 2C**



**Fig. 2D**

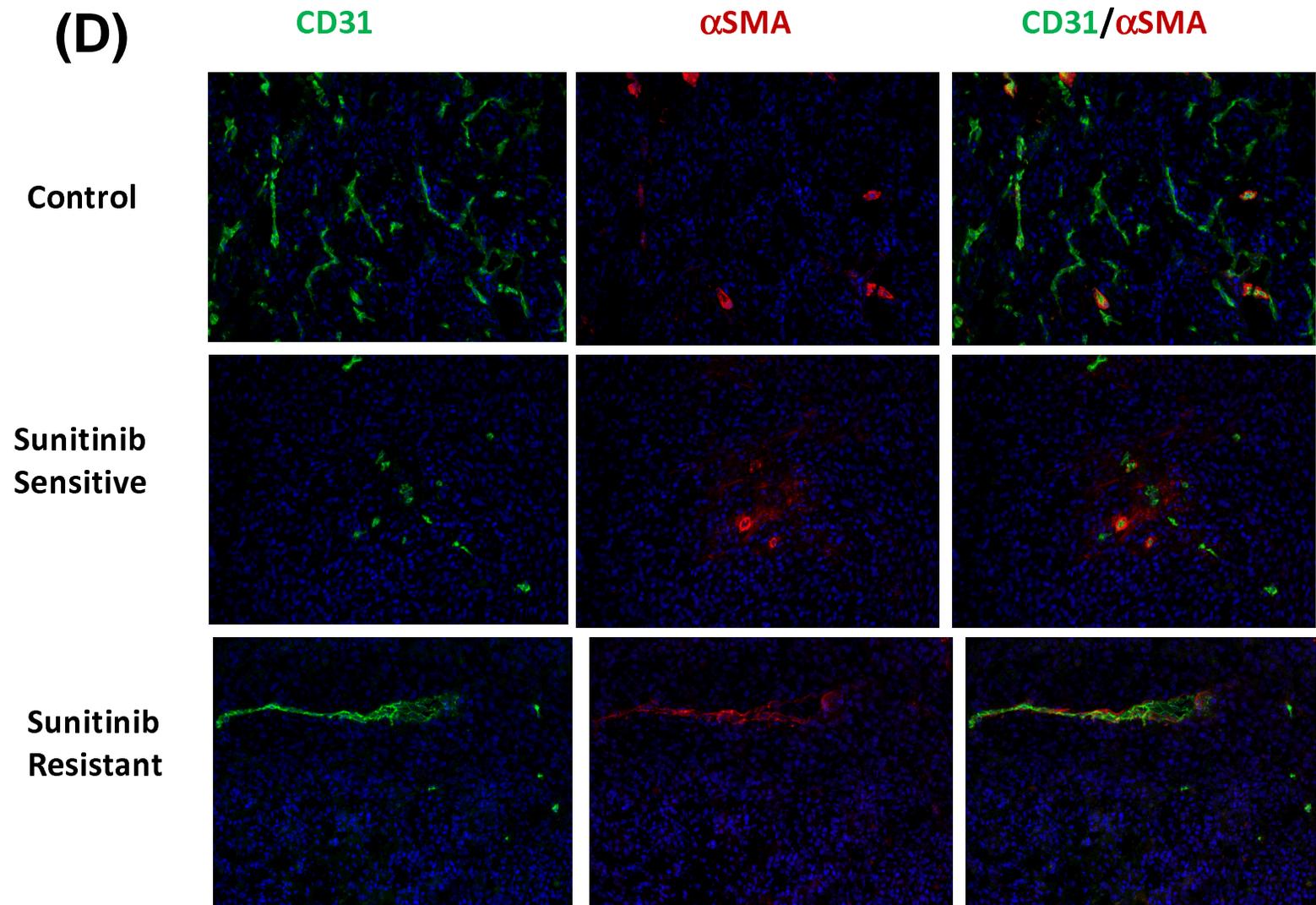


Fig. 3A – 3B

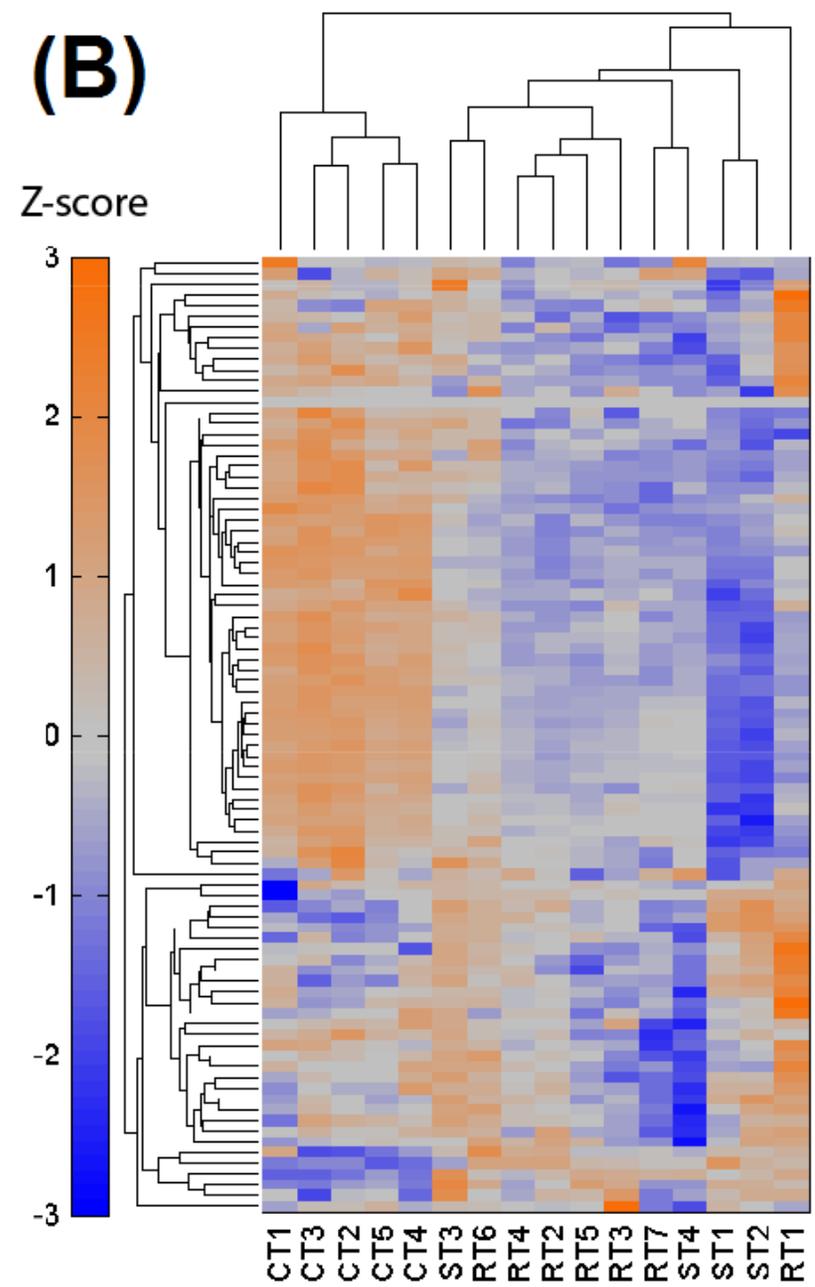
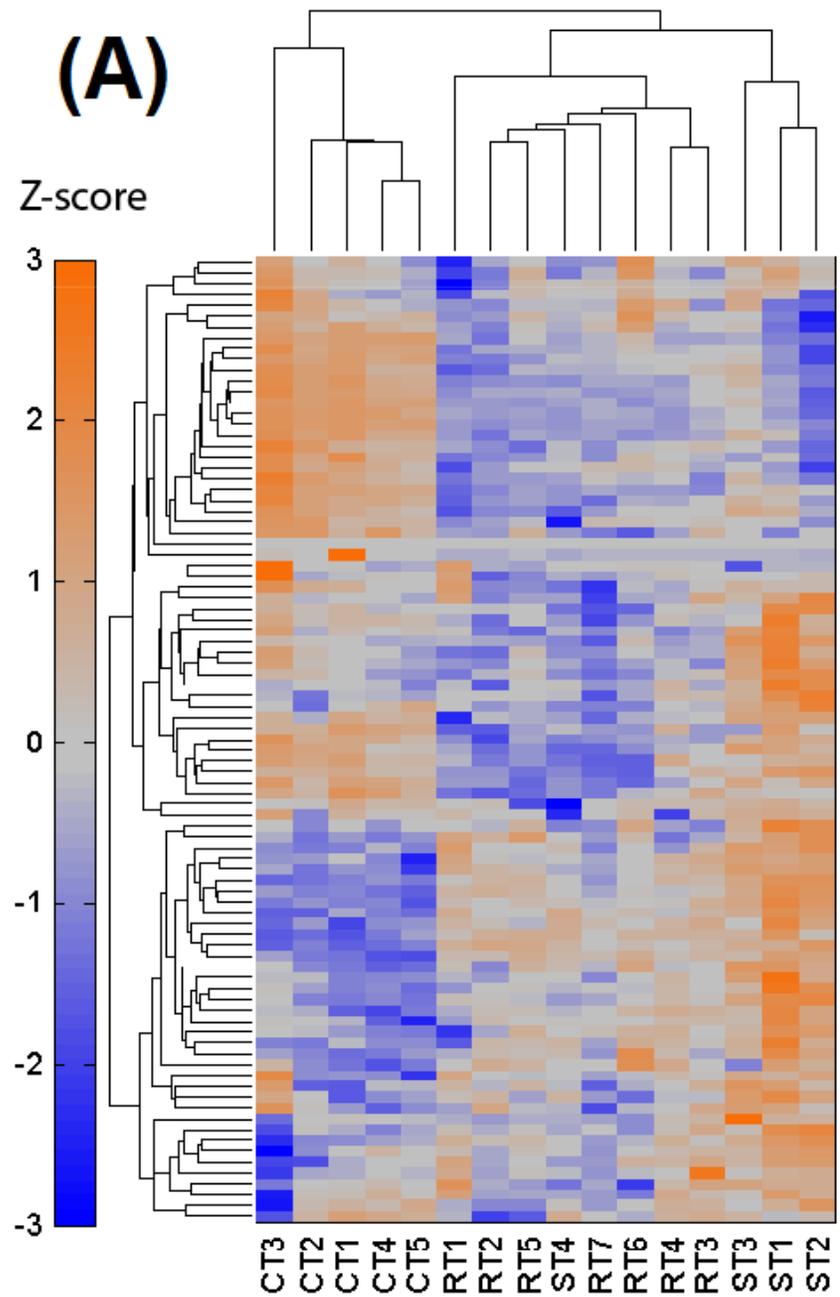


Fig. 3C – 3D

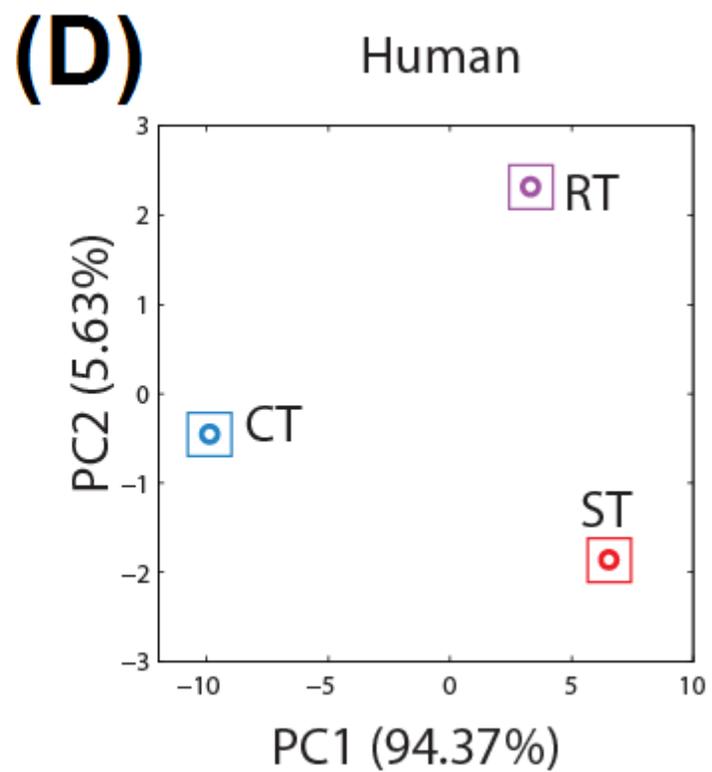
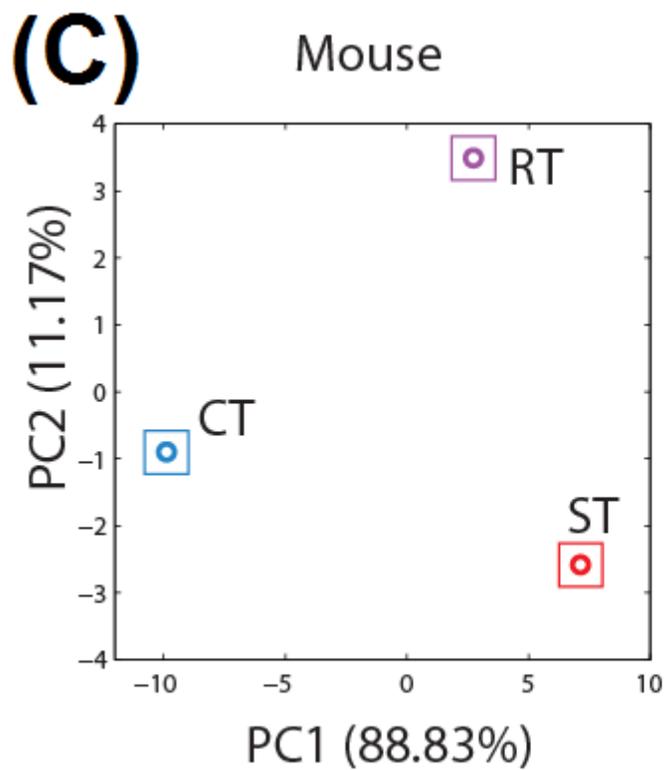


Fig. 3E – 3F

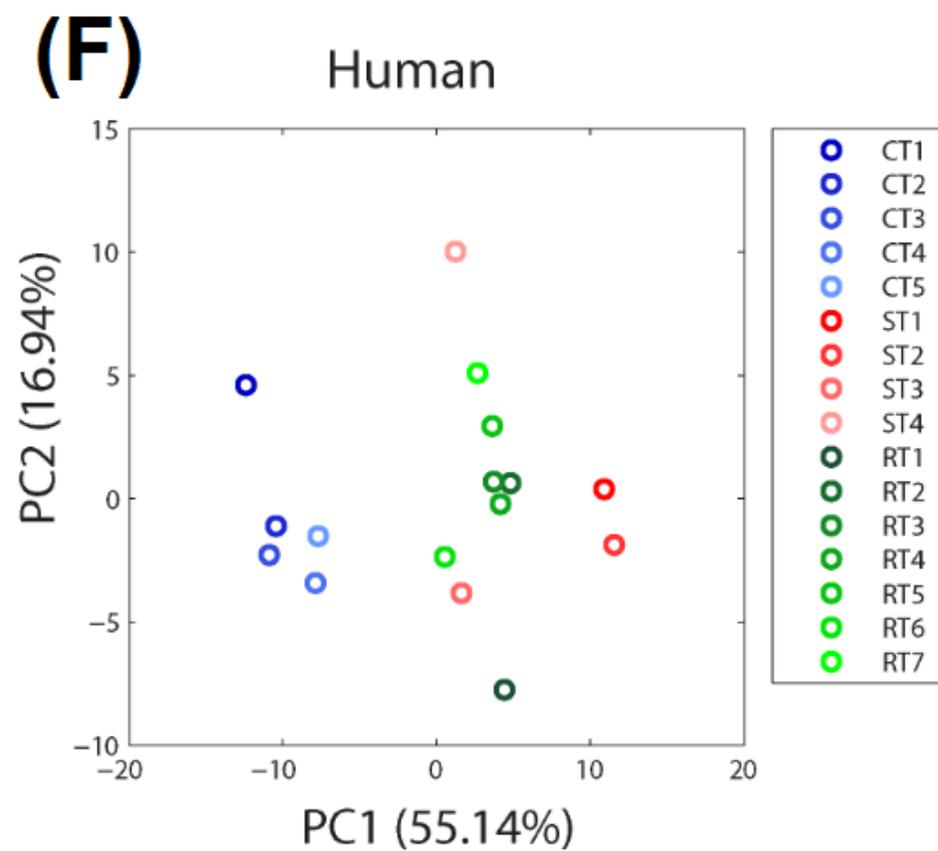
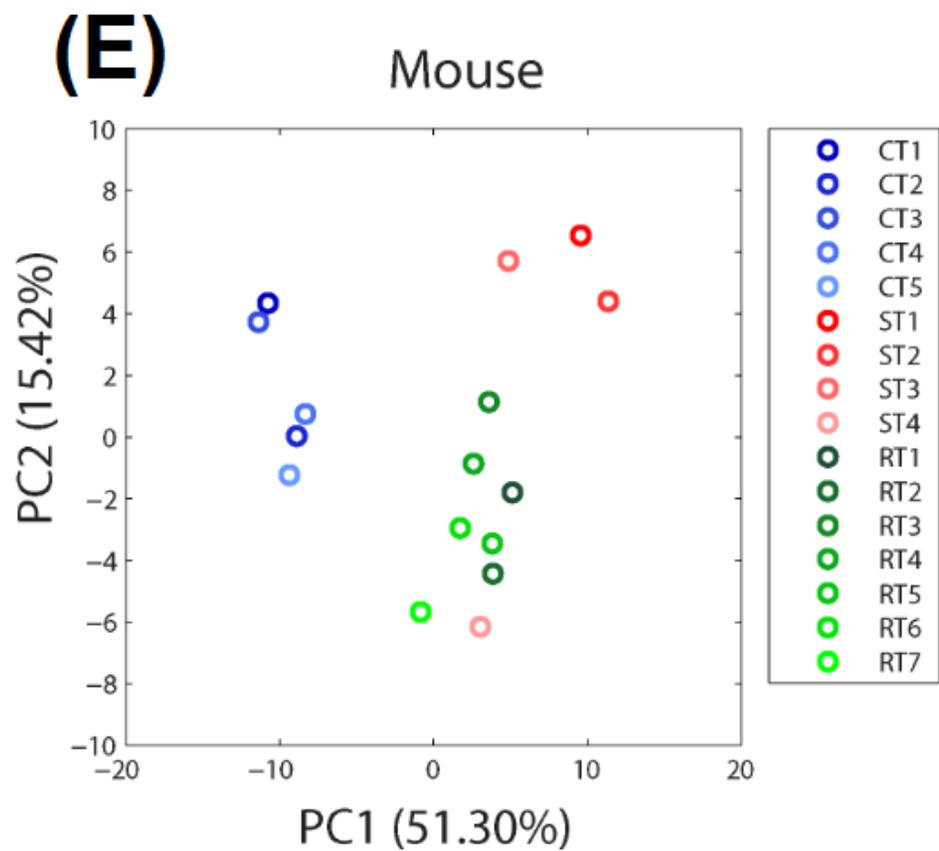
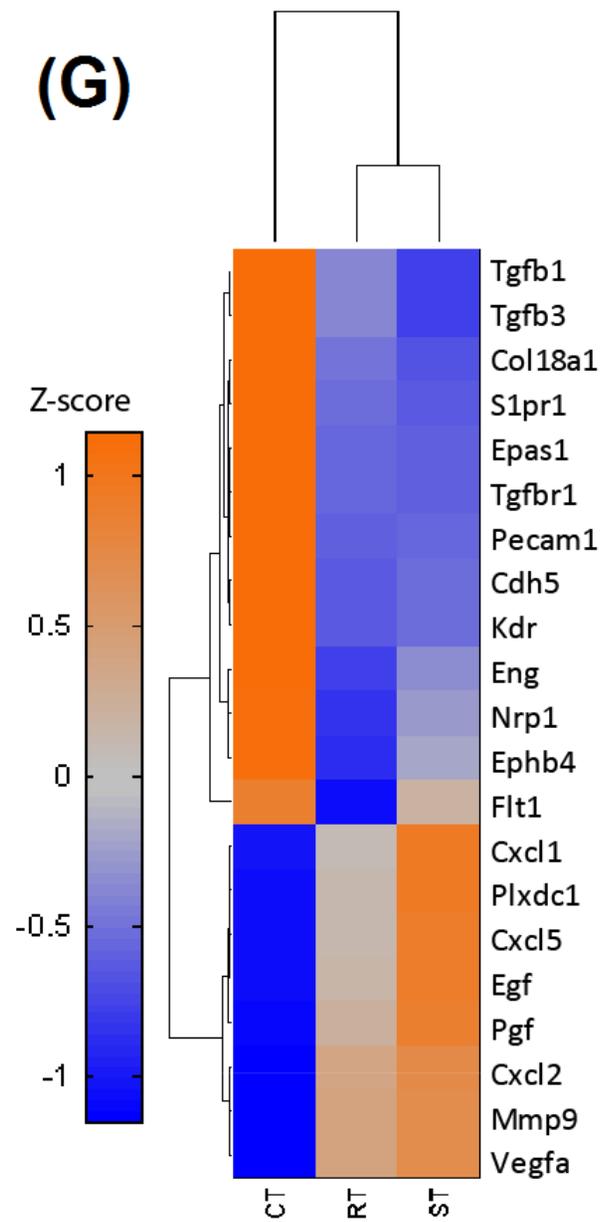


Fig. 3G – 3H

**(G)**



**(H)**

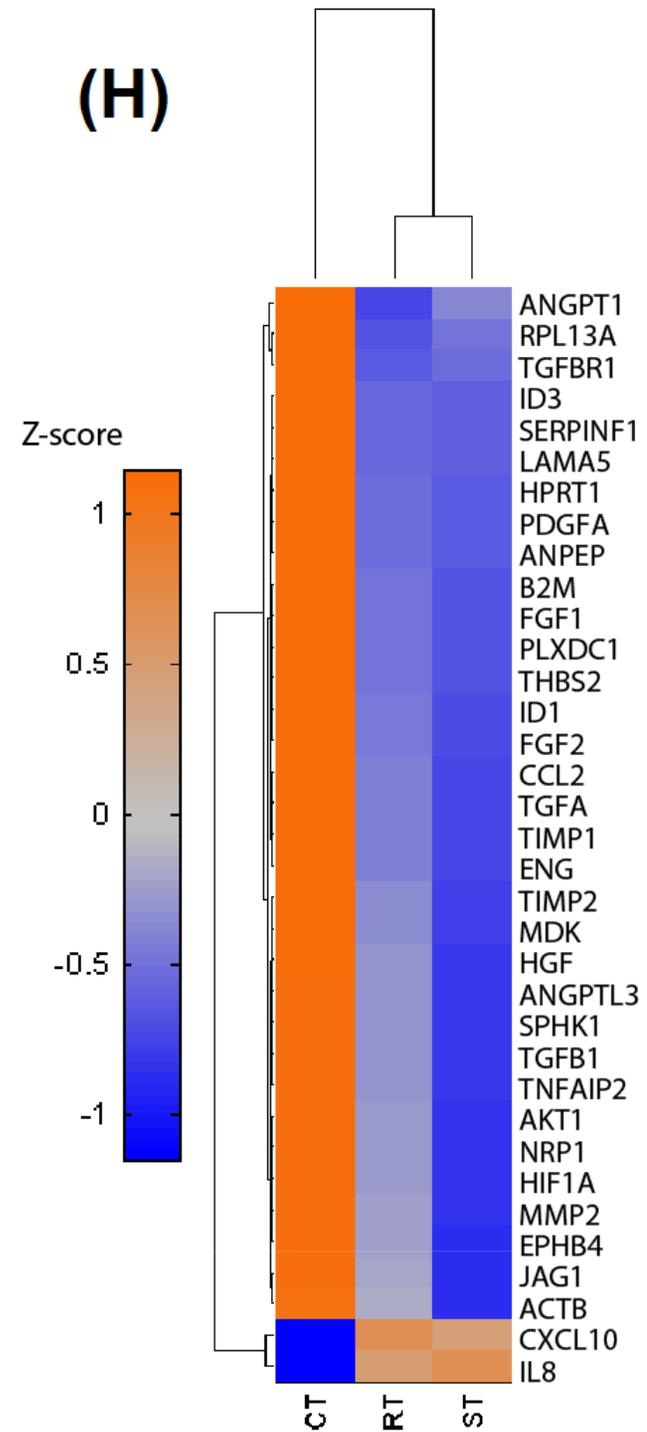


Fig. 4A

# (A) Resistant Tumors

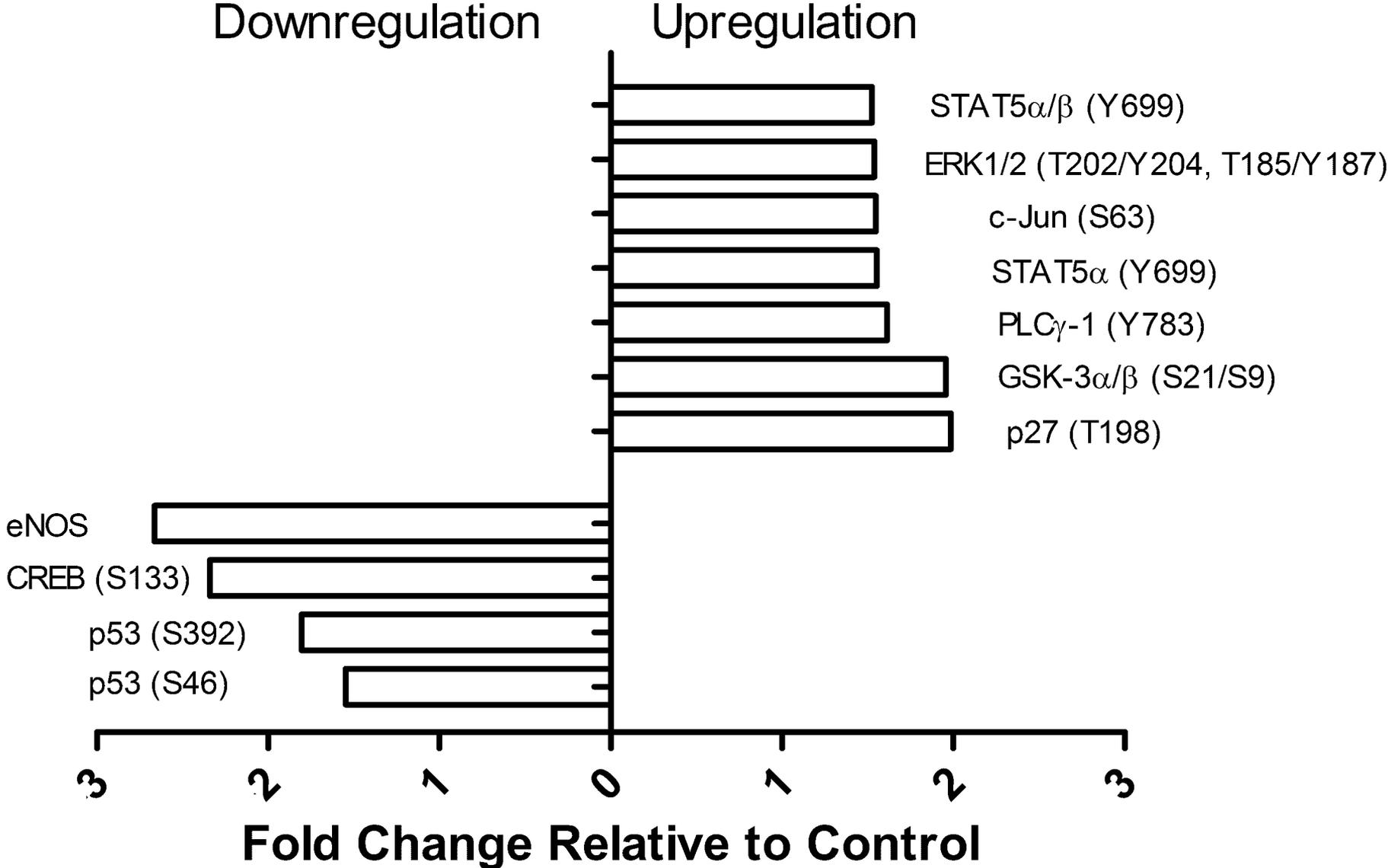


Fig. 4B

(B)

### Sensitive Tumors

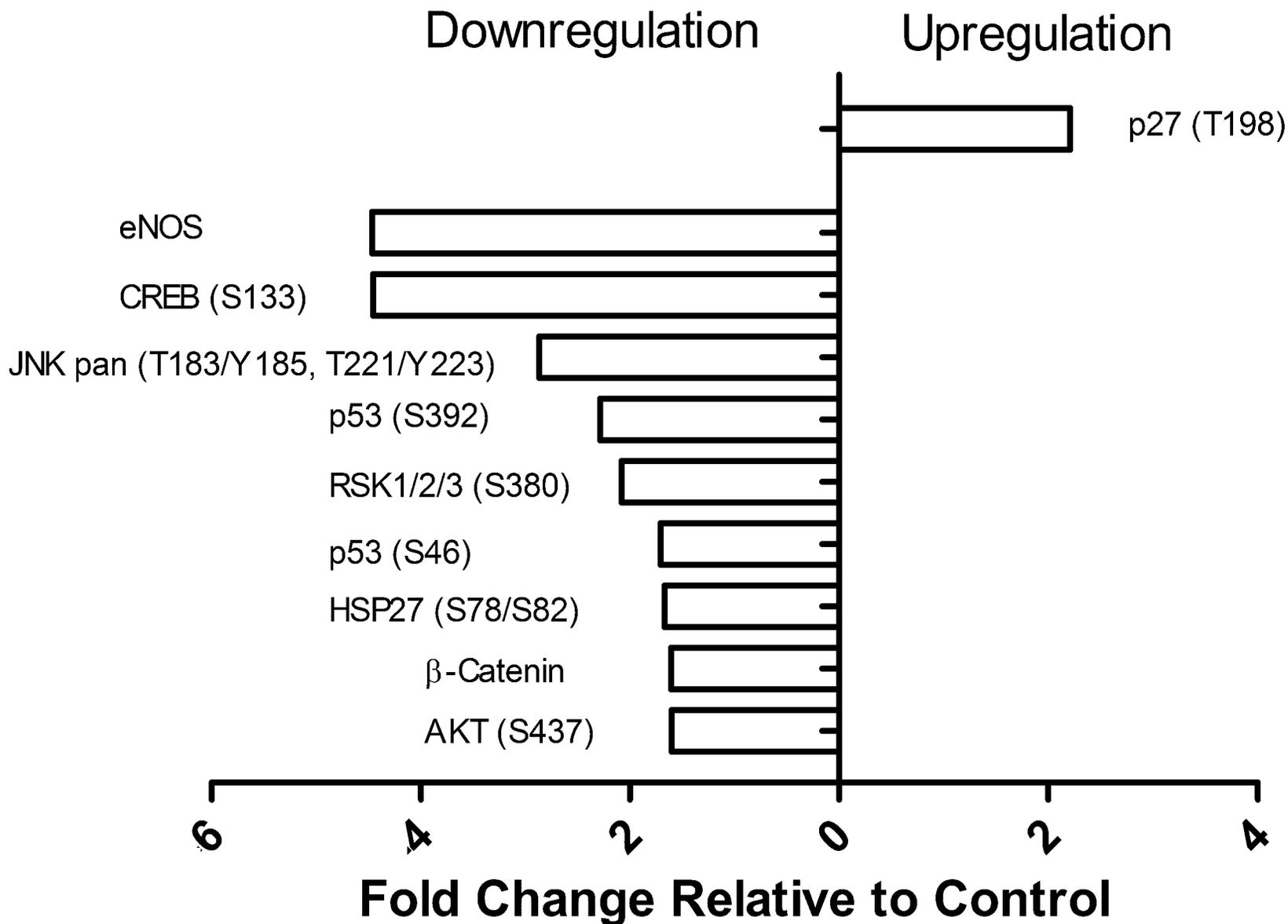


Fig. 4C

(C)

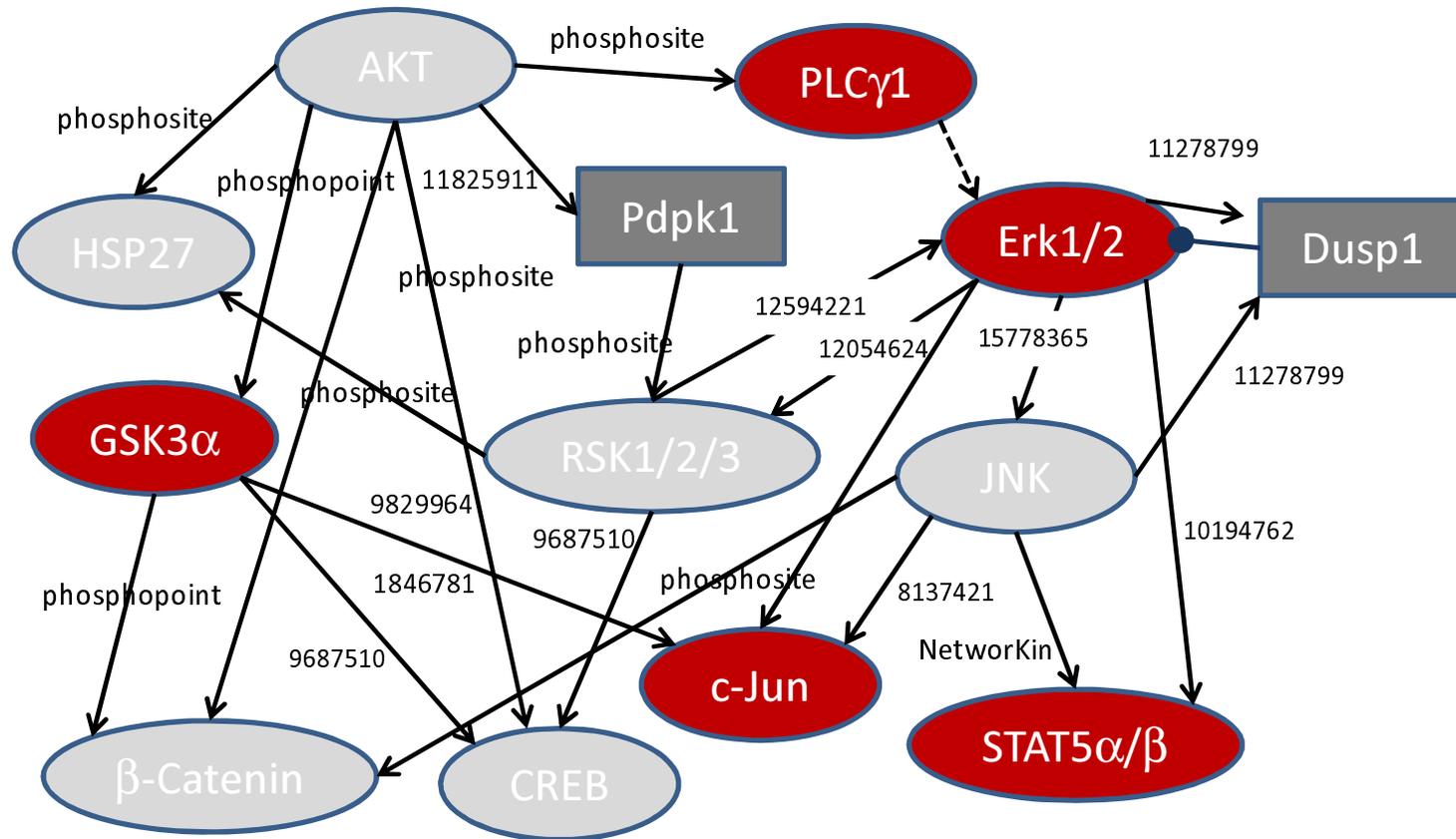
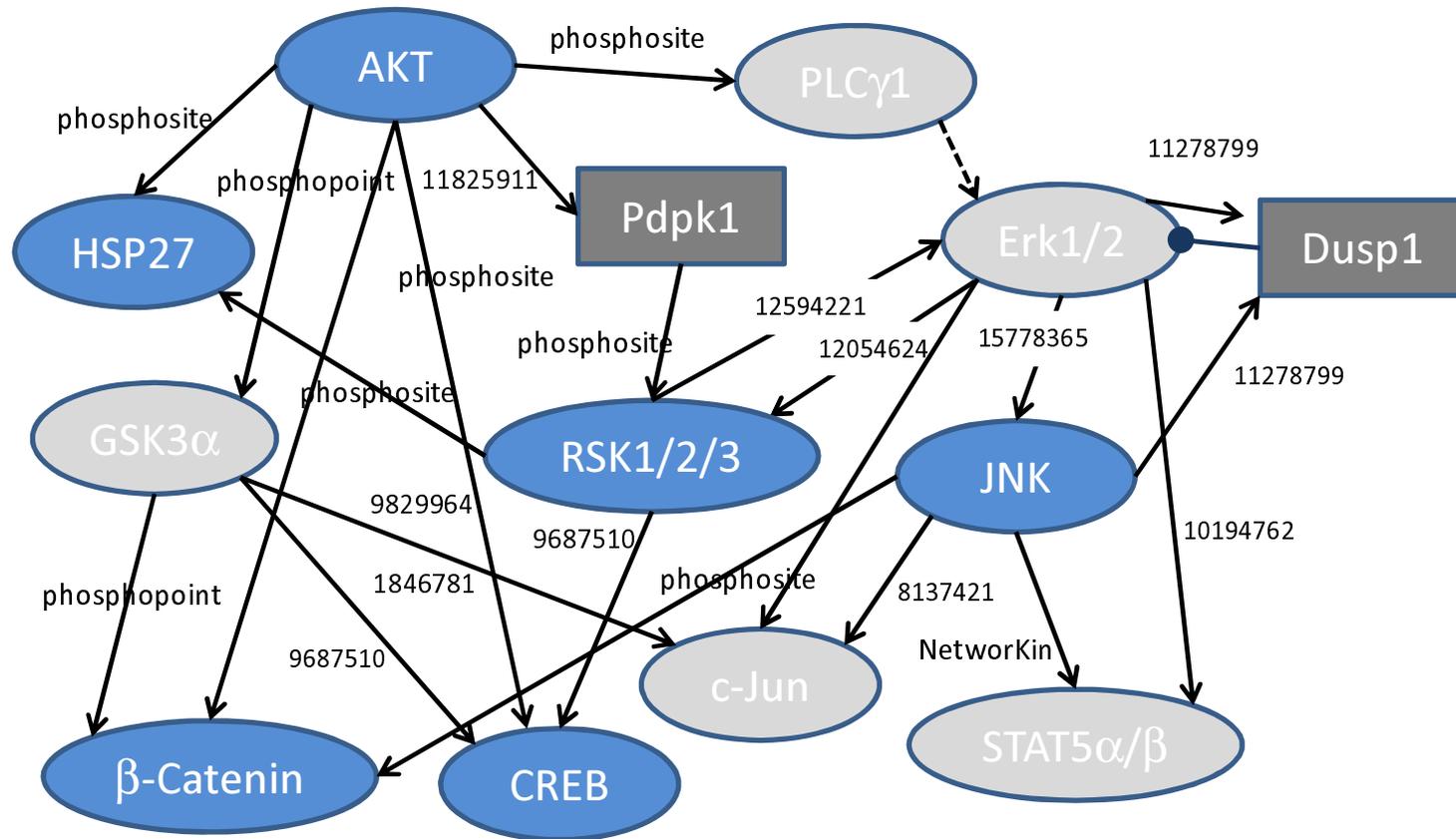


Fig. 4D

(D)



# Fig. 5A – 5C

