

# Therapies for cancer targeting endothelin receptors

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## Introduction

The endothelin (ET) axis exerts potent effects on normal cells through a variety of cell processes such as tissue differentiation, repair and growth. The ETs comprise a family of 3 small (21-amino acid) peptides: ET-1, ET-2 and ET-3 (3). Endothelins exert their effects in the body by binding to cell surface ET receptors, of which there are 2 types, ET<sub>A</sub> and ET<sub>B</sub>. Both receptors belong to the G-protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) system and mediate biological responses from a variety of stimuli, including growth factors, vasoactive polypeptides, neurotransmitters, hormones and phospholipids (1-3).

Endothelin-1 is produced by a wide variety of cells, including endothelial cells, vascular smooth muscle cells and various epithelial tissues (*e.g.*, bronchial, endometrial, mammary and prostatic) and is mitogenic for many cell types including endothelial cells, vascular and bronchial smooth muscle cells, fibroblasts, glomerular mesangial cells, osteoblasts, melanocytes and endometrial stromal cells. The mitogenic activity of ET-1 can be augmented by synergistic interactions with other growth factors including epidermal growth factor (EGF), basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF), insulin, insulin-like growth factor (IGF), platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), transforming growth factor (TGF) and interleukin-6 (IL-6) (4).

ET-1 is a relevant growth factor in many tumor types including carcinoma of the prostate, ovary, colon, cervix, breast, endometrium, as well as melanoma and Kaposi's sarcoma. ETs and their receptors have been implicated in cancer progression through autocrine and paracrine pathways (5-9). There is increasing evidence that implicates ET-1 in a range of disease processes involved in neoplasia, including cell proliferation, inhibition of apoptosis, matrix remodeling, bone deposition and metastases (Table I) (10). Identification of ET-1 as a mediator in the malignant progression of many tumors and the potential of the ET axis as a therapeutic target has propelled the investigation of ET-1 receptor antagonists into clinical trials (Table II) (5-36). Investigation into the role of the ET axis has accelerated markedly, with the development of several potent and selective ET-1 receptor antagonists. These molecules have provided tools for elucidating the biological significance of the ET axis and have strengthened the hypothesis that antagonism of the ET-1

## Abstract

The endothelin (ET) axis, which includes ET-1, ET-2, ET-3 and the ET receptors, ET<sub>A</sub> and ET<sub>B</sub>, plays an important physiological role in normal tissue, acting as a modulator of vasomotor tone, tissue differentiation and development, cell proliferation and hormone production. Recent investigations into the role of the ET axis in mitogenesis, apoptosis inhibition, bone remodeling, invasiveness and angiogenesis have provided evidence of the importance of ET-1 in cancer. Data suggest that ET-1 plays a significant role in the growth and progression of a variety of tumors. Development of ET-1 receptor antagonists has provided a better understanding of the ET axis in cancer pathogenesis and suggests an important role for these antagonists in novel therapeutic interventions. The increasing evidence that the ET<sub>A</sub> receptor plays a role in the progression of human cancer has led to an extensive search for antagonists that selectively block the ET<sub>A</sub> receptor. Atrasentan is one such antagonist that is orally bioavailable and has suitable pharmacokinetic and toxicity profiles for clinical use. Preliminary data from clinical trials of atrasentan in patients with prostate cancer are encouraging. The role of the ET axis and the therapeutic relevance of ET-1 receptor antagonists in a range of malignancies requires further investigation.

Table I: Cancer-promoting functions of endothelins.

Proliferation	ET <sub>A</sub>	Fibroblasts and smooth muscle cells Synergism with other growth factors Regulatory functions
	ET <sub>B</sub>	Endothelial cells
Survival	ET <sub>A</sub>	Fibroblasts and smooth muscle cells Cancer cells
	ET <sub>B</sub>	Endothelial cells
Angiogenesis	ET <sub>A</sub>	Proliferation of vascular smooth muscle cells and myofibroblasts Induction of VEGF
	ET <sub>B</sub>	Proliferation and migration of endothelial cells
Metastasis	ET <sub>A</sub>	Induction of MMPs Downregulation of TIMP-1 and TIMP-2 Induction of uPA and its receptor

system may have significant therapeutic potential (Table III) (37, 38).

### Role of the endothelin axis in ovarian cancer

#### Signaling pathways activated by ET-1

ET-1, which is the most common circulating form of ETs, is produced by many epithelial tumors. The peptide signals through two G-protein-coupled receptors, ET<sub>A</sub> and ET<sub>B</sub>, that have different affinities for ETs (12). The ET<sub>B</sub> receptor (ET<sub>B</sub>R) binds the three peptide isoforms with equal affinity. In contrast, ET<sub>A</sub>R binds ET-1 with higher affinity than the other isoforms. The ET-1/ET<sub>A</sub>R autocrine pathway has a key role in the development and progression of prostatic, ovarian and cervical cancers.

We have previously demonstrated that ET-1 and the ET<sub>A</sub>R are overexpressed in primary and metastatic ovarian carcinomas, as compared to normal ovaries. In ovarian tumor cells, ET-1 acts selectively as an autocrine growth factor through the ET<sub>A</sub>R. Ligand binding to the receptor results in activation of a pertussis toxin-insensitive G-protein that stimulates phospholipase C activity and increases intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels, activation of protein kinase C, MAPK and p125 focal adhesion kinase phosphorylation. Among downstream events after ET<sub>A</sub>R activation in ovarian carcinoma, ET-1 causes epidermal growth factor (EGF) receptor transactivation, which is partly responsible for MAPK activation, suggesting that the coexistence of ET-1 and EGF autocrine circuits in these tumor cells could enhance their growth potential (39, 40).

#### ET-1 and tumor neovascularization

Endothelins, which function as mitogens for endothelial cells, vascular smooth muscle, fibroblasts and pericytes, are angiogenic factors. Endothelial cell mitogenesis is thought to be mediated by ET<sub>B</sub>R, while vascular smooth muscle cells and pericyte mitogenesis appear to

be mediated predominantly or solely by the ET<sub>A</sub>R. ET-1 modulates various stages of neovascularization, including endothelial cell proliferation, migration, invasion, protease production and tube formation and stimulates neovascularization *in vivo* (41). Neovascularization is an early and critical event in ovarian cancer progression. In this regard, we have shown that elevated expression of ET-1 and its cognate receptor was significantly associated with microvessel density and vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) expression (13). Furthermore, activation of ET<sub>A</sub>R by ET-1 stimulates VEGF production by increasing the levels of hypoxia-inducible factor-1α, a critical regulator of tumor growth and angiogenesis (42). These results indicate that ET-1 could modulate tumor angiogenesis through direct angiogenic effects on endothelial cells and, in part, through VEGF stimulation.

#### ET-1 and apoptosis

ET-1 acts as an antiapoptotic factor, suggesting that the peptide may also modulate cell survival pathways. This is further supported by the demonstration that ET-1 is effective in inhibiting paclitaxel-induced apoptosis, and that an ET<sub>A</sub>R antagonist completely blocks the ET-1-induced survival effect. Engagement of the ET<sub>A</sub>R by ET-1 triggers activation of antiapoptotic signaling through the Bcl-2-dependent and phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase-mediated Akt pathway (43).

#### ET-1 and tumor invasion

High levels of ET-1 were detected in the majority of ascitic fluids of ovarian cancer patients and were significantly correlated with VEGF ascitic concentrations, suggesting that ET-1 enhances the secretion of extracellular matrix-degrading proteinases (13). Thus, ET-1 acting through the ET<sub>A</sub>R consistently induces the activity of two families of metastasis-related proteinases, matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) and the urokinase type plasminogen activator system. Interestingly, we found that addition

Table II: Role of ET-1, its receptors and receptor antagonists in different malignancies.

Malignancy	Action of ET-1	ET receptors	Receptor antagonists and effects
Prostate cancer	Promotes prostate cancer growth, inhibits apoptosis through the ET <sub>A</sub> R	High expression, decreased or absent ET <sub>B</sub> R expression, frequent methylation of ET <sub>A</sub> R gene	Atrasentan (ET <sub>A</sub> R antagonist) relieved pain and delayed time to clinical and biochemical progression
Ovarian cancer	ET-1 mRNA was detected in 90%-100% of carcinomas examined. Promotes cell proliferation survival, invasion and VEGF-dependent angiogenesis through ET <sub>A</sub> R	ET <sub>A</sub> R mRNA was detected in 84% of carcinomas examined, ET <sub>B</sub> R in only 40%. ET <sub>A</sub> R mediated all ET-1 induced tumor promoting effects	BQ-123 (ET <sub>A</sub> R antagonist) slowed the growth rate of tumor cells. Atrasentan inhibited growth of ovarian carcinoma xenografts and displayed additive effects in combination with taxanes
Melanoma	Promotes growth and migration of melanoma cells	ET <sub>A</sub> R are downregulated in melanoma cells. ET <sub>B</sub> R expression seems to be increased in melanoma cells in comparison to benign nevi	BQ-788 (ET <sub>B</sub> R antagonist) inhibited growth of melanoma cell lines and reduced human melanoma tumor growth in nude mice. BQ-123 did not affect melanoma cell growth.
Bone malignancies	Increased the expression of osteocalcin protein and new bone formation. ET-1 overexpressing osteoblastic-inducing WISH tumor produced significantly more bone than control	Both ET <sub>A</sub> R and ET <sub>B</sub> R are expressed	BQ-123 blocked ET-1-induced osteocalcin expression. Atrasentan decreased ET-1-induced new bone formation and also inhibited osteoblastic bone metastases that occurred in prostate and breast cancer patients
Breast cancer	Increased ET-1 expression in cancer tissue, inversely correlated with the degree of tumor cell differentiation	Elevated expression of ET <sub>A</sub> R has been detected in breast cancer tissue in comparison to normal tissue	
Renal cancer	ET-1 opposed the paclitaxel-induced apoptosis in renal carcinoma cell lines	All cell lines expressed ET <sub>A</sub> R	
Lung cancer	ET-1 was detected in most squamous cell and adenocarcinomas	Both ET <sub>A</sub> R and ET <sub>B</sub> R are expressed. ET <sub>A</sub> R seems downregulated in comparison to normal bronchial tissue	
Colon cancer	ET-1 protected colon carcinoma cells from FasL-induced apoptosis	Increased expression of ET <sub>A</sub> R and ET <sub>B</sub> R in neoplastic tissue	Bosentan, mixed ET <sub>A/B</sub> R antagonist, potentiated FasL-induced apoptosis of tumor cells
Cervical cancer	ET-1 induced proliferation of HPV-positive cervical cell lines	Both ET <sub>A</sub> R and ET <sub>B</sub> R are expressed. Increased expression of ET <sub>A</sub> R on HPV-positive cells	Atrasentan inhibited cell proliferation and the growth of cervical carcinoma xenografts and displayed additive effects in combination with taxanes
Kaposi's sarcoma	ET-1 and ET-3 induced cell proliferation, migration and invasion	Both ET <sub>A</sub> R and ET <sub>B</sub> R are expressed	ET <sub>A/B</sub> R antagonist blocked ET-1-induced cell proliferation and invasion and inhibited growth in nude mice
CNS tumors	ET-1 promoted meningioma cell proliferation	Both ET <sub>A</sub> R and ET <sub>B</sub> R are expressed	BQ-123 blocked ET-1-induced effects. ET <sub>A</sub> R antagonist had no effect

of a specific ET<sub>A</sub>R antagonist blocked ET-1-induced migration and invasion of ovarian carcinoma cells (44). Moreover, exposure of HEY and OVCA 433 ovarian carcinoma cell lines to ET-1 led to a 50-75% inhibition in gap junction intercellular communication (GJIC) and to a decrease in the connexin 43 (Cx43)-based gap junction plaques. To investigate the phosphorylation state of Cx43, ovarian carcinoma cell lysates were immunoprecipitated and transient tyrosine phosphorylation of Cx43

was detected in ET-1-treated cells. BQ-123, a selective ET<sub>A</sub>R antagonist, blocked the ET-1-induced Cx43 phosphorylation and cellular uncoupling. Gap junction closure was prevented by tyrphostin 25 and by the selective c-Src inhibitor, PP2. Furthermore, the increased Cx43 tyrosine phosphorylation was correlated with ET-1-induced increase of c-Src activity and PP2 suppressed the ET-1-induced Cx43 tyrosine phosphorylation, indicating that inhibition of Cx43-based GJIC is mainly mediated by the

Table III: Therapeutic potential of ET<sub>A</sub> antagonists in cancer.

Broad applicability to many cancer types
Special relevance for bone metastasis
Chemoprevention of cancer
Excellent safety profile
Potential to be combined with existing cytotoxic therapies, such as taxanes or radiation

Src tyrosine kinase pathway (45). These findings indicate that the signaling mechanisms involved in GJIC disruption on ovarian carcinoma cells depend on ET<sub>A</sub>R activation which leads to the Cx43 tyrosine phosphorylation mediated by c-Src.

### The ET<sub>A</sub> receptor as a target for anticancer therapy

#### Ovarian cancer

In view of these findings, the ET<sub>A</sub>R has been proposed as a potential target for anticancer therapy. The recent identification of low-molecular-weight compounds that inhibit ligand-induced activation of the ET<sub>A</sub>R now offers the possibility of testing this therapeutic approach in a clinical setting. Among various ET<sub>A</sub>R antagonists, ABT-627 (atrasentan) is an orally bioavailable endothelin antagonist that potently ( $K_i = 34$  pM) and selectively binds to the ET<sub>A</sub>R, blocking signal transduction pathways implicated in cancer cell proliferation and other host-dependent processes promoting cancer growth.

To evaluate the effect of ABT-627 on the proliferation of various ovarian carcinoma cells, we used two primary cultures (PMOV1 and PMOV2) and two established cell lines (HEY and OVCA 433). All of these cells express functional ET<sub>A</sub>R and secrete high levels of ET-1. Primary cell cultures and cell lines were incubated for up to 5 days in the absence or presence of ABT-627 and ET<sub>B</sub>R antagonists. In all ovarian carcinoma cells, spontaneous growth was significantly inhibited in the presence of ABT-627. Addition of the ET<sub>B</sub>R antagonist did not affect the basal growth rate of the cells, demonstrating that endogenous ET-1 acts as an autocrine modulator of ovarian carcinoma cell proliferation only through ET<sub>A</sub>R and can be selectively inhibited by ABT-627.

To determine whether the antiproliferative effect of ABT-627 resulted in the induction of programmed cell death, we measured the percentage of dying cells in ABT-627-treated and control cultures. ABT-627 treatment increased the percentage of apoptotic HEY and OVCA 433 ovarian cancer cells after 48 h of treatment. In these cells, activation of ET<sub>A</sub>R by ET-1 prevents paclitaxel-induced apoptosis. We therefore evaluated the potential combined proapoptotic effect of treatment with an ET<sub>A</sub>R antagonist and paclitaxel. HEY and OVCA 433 cells were incubated with paclitaxel alone or in combination with ABT-627. As expected, the addition of ABT-627 signifi-

cantly increased paclitaxel-induced apoptosis in both cell lines. These results established that ET<sub>A</sub>R-activated survival pathways can be affected by treatment with ABT-627. Therefore, ET<sub>A</sub>R overexpression can promote tumor development through its stimulatory action on cancer cell growth and survival. However, ET<sub>A</sub>R may also regulate angiogenesis by promoting tumor production of VEGF. Untreated HEY cells secreted approx. 375 pg VEGF/10<sup>6</sup> cells/24 h. Treatment with either ABT-627 or paclitaxel alone caused approx. 45% inhibition of VEGF secretion. Combination of ABT-627 with paclitaxel exerted a marked inhibitory effect, reaching almost 60% reduction of VEGF secretion to 150 pg/10<sup>6</sup> cells/24 h.

The potential antitumor effect of ABT-627 *in vivo* was assessed in murine tumor xenografts. Human HEY ovarian carcinoma cells were grown as subcutaneous tumors in nude mice. Seven days later, when well-established HEY xenografts were palpable with a tumor size of approx. 0.25 cm<sup>3</sup>, mice were randomized into treatment and vehicle control groups of 10 animals each. The treated mice were injected i.p. for 21 days with two different concentrations of ABT-627, 2 mg/kg/day and 10 mg/kg/day. Treatment with ABT-627 produced a 65% inhibition of HEY tumor growth on day 40 after tumor injection with either low (2 mg/kg/day) or high (10 mg/kg/day) doses ( $p < 0.001$  compared with control). ABT-627 treatment was generally well tolerated, with no detectable signs of acute or delayed toxicity even at the highest ABT-627 dose. Tumor growth suppression with 2 mg/kg/day ABT-627 was comparable to that achieved with paclitaxel (20 mg/kg i.v. x 3 every 4 days). Furthermore, the tumor growth inhibition obtained with ABT-627 persisted for up to 4 weeks following end of treatment. We then studied whether the proapoptotic effect of the combination of ABT-627 and paclitaxel that was observed *in vitro* could also be obtained *in vivo*. A more marked tumor growth inhibition (90% of controls) was observed with combination treatment with ABT-627 and paclitaxel, with no histological evidence of HEY tumors in 4 of 10 mice. The combination treatment at the dose and schedule tested was well tolerated, as judged by the absence of weight loss or other signs of acute or delayed toxicity. As compared with control tumor xenografts, the growth delay in established tumors lasted for up to 4 weeks following the end of treatment with ABT-627 and paclitaxel.

Because HEY cells express ET<sub>A</sub>R and various autocrine and paracrine angiogenesis-related factors including ET-1, VEGF and MMP-2, we investigated the expression of these factors *in vivo* after ABT-627 treatment at a lower dose (2 mg/kg/day). Immunohistochemical analysis of the expression of VEGF, performed on HEY tumors on day 40 after tumor cell injection, revealed a marked reduction in the percentage of VEGF and MMP-2 positive HEY cells in ABT-627-treated mice. Tumor-induced vascularization, which was quantified as microvessel density (MVD) using antibody against CD31, was directly proportional to the expression of VEGF. There was a parallel reduction (45%) in MVD in tumors after treatment with ABT-627. A significant increase in



the percentage of TUNEL-positive cells was found in HEY tumors treated with ABT-627. The inhibition of human ovarian tumor growth in nude mice induced by ABT-627 was also associated with a reduction in Cx43 phosphorylation, suggesting that ET<sub>A</sub>R blockade may also contribute to the control of ovarian carcinoma growth and progression by preventing the loss of GJIC (45).

Almost complete inhibition of VEGF, MMP-2 expression and tumor neovascularization, and an increase in apoptosis, were observed following combined treatment with ABT-627 and paclitaxel. HEY tumor xenografts freshly excised on day 40 after tumor cell injection were also analyzed for VEGF expression by Western blot. We observed a marked reduction of VEGF expression in animals treated with ABT-627 or paclitaxel. Approximately 70% inhibition was obtained when ABT-627 was combined with paclitaxel.

ET-1 acts through ET<sub>A</sub>R as a survival factor by protecting HEY and OVCA 433 cells against paclitaxel-induced apoptosis via activation of antiapoptotic signaling pathways. Because impairment of apoptotic pathways is a major molecular mechanism leading to chemoresistance, ET<sub>A</sub>R blockade by ABT-627 leading to sensitization of tumor cells to paclitaxel-induced apoptosis could produce an additive therapeutic effect. This indeed appears to occur *in vivo* following combined treatment with ABT-627 and paclitaxel, since the inhibition of tumor growth achieved with this protocol correlates with the highest tumor apoptotic index (46).

These findings demonstrate the antitumor activity of ABT-627 and provide a rationale for the clinical evaluation of this compound, alone and in combination with cytotoxic drugs, in patients with ovarian tumors and possibly in other epithelial tumors that overexpress functional ET<sub>A</sub>R.

#### *Prostate cancer*

The ET axis has been identified as contributing to the pathophysiology of prostate cancer (7). In the normal prostate gland, ET-1 is produced by epithelial cells; the highest concentrations of ET-1 in the body are found in seminal fluid. In prostate cancer, key components of the ET-1 clearance pathway, ET<sub>B</sub> and neutral endopeptidase, are diminished, resulting in an increase in local ET-1 concentrations. Increased ET<sub>A</sub>R expression is also seen with advancing tumor stage and grade in both primary and metastatic prostate cancer. There are multiple pathways by which the ET-1/ET<sub>A</sub> axis may promote prostate cancer progression. ET-1 is a mitogen for prostate cancer cell lines *in vitro* and acts synergistically with other peptide growth factors. ET-1 modulates apoptosis by affecting cell survival (6-9). ET-1 is also a mitogen for osteoblasts, the principal cell type in the osteoblastic response of bone in metastatic prostate cancer (47, 48).

Selective ET<sub>A</sub>R antagonists may block the proliferative effects of exogenous ET-1 in both prostate cancer cells and osteoblasts. In a phase I clinical trial, patients

with advanced prostate cancer were treated with atrasentan (ABT-627). In this phase I trial stabilization and decline of prostate-specific antigen (PSA) occurred in 66% of patients. In a phase II study, atrasentan suppressed markers of biochemical and clinical prostate cancer progression in bone (49). These data substantiate the role of the ET-1/ET<sub>A</sub> axis as a growth and survival pathway and as a therapeutic target in hormone-refractory prostate cancer. Atrasentan may inhibit tumor growth in bone, both by direct effects on the tumor cells and by disrupting important bone/tumor interactions. In a randomized double-blind phase II study, 288 patients with hormone refractory prostate cancer were enrolled and treated with atrasentan (2.5 and 10 mg/day p.o.). In the 244 evaluable patients, atrasentan significantly delayed time to clinical and biochemical (PSA) progression. The most common side effects included rhinitis, peripheral edema and headache. Atrasentan also maintained total and bone alkaline phosphatase concentrations at baseline values compared to the placebo-treated group (50-52). These findings suggest that atrasentan may inhibit progression of hormone refractory prostate cancer in men with metastatic disease.

#### *Cervical cancer*

The ET-1/ET<sub>A</sub>R autocrine also participates in the malignant progression of human papilloma virus-associated cervical carcinoma, in which ET<sub>A</sub>R is increased and could be targeted for antitumor therapy. Thus, atrasentan inhibited the growth of cervical carcinoma cell xenografts. Two cycles of treatment completely reverted tumor growth. Atrasentan displayed additive effects when administered in combination with the cytotoxic drug paclitaxel, supporting its clinical use as monotherapy or combination therapy (30, 31).

#### *Kaposi's sarcoma*

A different approach in targeting the ET-1 receptor in cancer treatment is given by Kaposi's sarcoma (KS), in which ET-1 acts as an autocrine growth factor via both ET<sub>A</sub>R and ET<sub>B</sub>R. Binding of ET-1 and ET-3 to both receptors increased the proliferation, migration and invasiveness of the KS-derived cell line, KS IMM cells, by stimulating secretion and activation of multiple tumor proteases. Therefore, we tested the small-molecule ET<sub>A</sub>/ET<sub>B</sub> antagonist A-182086 on KS tumor growth in nude mice. Treatment of mice with A-182086 resulted in tumor growth inhibition which was probably related to its antiproliferative effect on tumor cells and its antiangiogenic effect on endothelial cells expressing ET<sub>B</sub>R. Thus, ET-1 receptor antagonists may be effective antiangiogenic and antitumor compounds for the treatment of KS (32, 33).

## Conclusions

The ET axis represents a novel therapeutic target for cancer. ET-1 is overexpressed in many malignancies, acting as an autocrine growth factor. Engagement of the ET<sub>A</sub>R by ET-1 triggers tumor proliferation, VEGF-induced angiogenesis, metastatic potential, antiapoptotic action and is synergistic with other growth factors. Direct mechanistic evidence of the role of ET<sub>A</sub>Rs in prostate, ovarian, cervical, colorectal and other cancers supports the concept that ET<sub>A</sub>R antagonists will have a strong impact on the malignant phenotype (10). The antitumor activity of selective ET<sub>A</sub>R antagonists observed in preclinical studies has been strongly supported in early clinical trials in which ET<sub>A</sub>R antagonists have demonstrated a significant therapeutic potential (53).

Ongoing controlled studies will determine if promising early results will lead to a new generation of molecularly targeted therapies for cancer. Additional studies are warranted in combination with chemotherapy in ovarian cancer and other solid tumors expressing ET<sub>A</sub>R.

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