Engineering Oncolytic Vaccinia Viruses for Non-Invasive Optical Imaging of Tumors

Béla Dénes^{1,2}, Nadja Fodor¹, Andre Obenaus³ and István Fodor^{1,4,*}

¹Center for Health Disparities and Molecular Medicine, Loma Linda University; ²Central Veterinary Institute, Budapest, Hungary; ³Department of Radiation Medicine, Loma Linda University and ⁴Department of Biochemistry & Microbiology, Loma Linda University, 11085 Campus St., Loma Linda, CA 92354, USA

Abstract: Attenuated vaccinia viruses (VV) selectively replicate in malignant cells and confer oncolytic effect *in vivo*. Here we demonstrate that oncolytic VV may also be used as a diagnostic agent for tumor-bearing mice. A series of recombinant vaccinia viruses has been constructed expressing optical reporters to mediate emission of bioluminescent and fluorescent light which can be visualized. Data show that following systemic virus delivery the developing tumors can be non-invasively visualized in mice *in vivo*. *Renilla* luciferase and *Aquoria* GFP have been effective in imaging xenografted PC-3 prostate and orthotopic MB-49 bladder tumors. Brighter reporters, *Gaussia* luciferase and *Renilla* GFP have been used for imaging TRAMP prostate cancer and C6 subcutaneous model of glioma. The C6 imaging data have been corroborated by traditional MRI. We are also developing a VV-mediated system for tumor detection in far red or near infra red fluorescent light. Results suggest that VV-mediated imaging is a promising alternative for early diagnosis of various human cancers.

INTRODUCTION

Current methods of external imaging of internally growing tumors, e.g. X-ray, MRI, PET, ultrasonography, etc., are convenient for noninvasive imaging of the body, but they are less sensitive for monitoring the growth of small tumors, metastatic dissemination, and recurrence. To date, few methods exist that allow noninvasive and repetitive imaging of reporter gene expression in living cells and animals. Reporter genes with optical signatures may become a low-cost alternative for real-time analysis of early stages of tumor development and metastases [1-7]. Advances in technology have made it possible to noninvasively image optical reporter-labeled tumors in living animal [8, 9] and define critical pathways involved in tumorigenesis, metastasis, and evaluate the efficiency of gene therapy strategies [3, 10-12]. In particular, green fluorescence protein (GFP) and luciferase-labeled tumor/metastasis growth have been visualized and analyzed using fluorescence [7, 13-16] or bioluminescence [17-19] imaging instrumentation.

Optical imaging of GFP gene expression offers specificity, sensitivity, simplicity, and good resolution at a cellular level. No contrast agent or other compounds or treatments are needed, only UV illumination is necessary. The GFP delivered to various organs of mice is stable over long time periods allowing visualization of dynamic studies in whole body noninvasively and in real-time, and at necropsy as well. Visualization of gene expression at high resolution at the single-cell level is possible using fluorescence reporters, confocal laser, two-photon excitation, or stereo fluorescence

microscopy [20, 21]. Micro-vessel development can also be followed in real time, allowing precise evaluation of tumor progression and neovascularization. The sensitivity of external imaging in vivo is currently limited by light scattering in intervening tissue, especially in skin, and is sufficient for relatively shallow organs, e.g., in subcutaneous labeled xenograft-bearing nude mice [22]. Nevertheless, due to rapid progress in technology whole-body, real-time visualization of GFP in the major internal organs of intact mice, including brain, liver, pancreas, prostate, and bone, has already become feasible [10]. Metastases of GFP-labeled cancer cells inoculated into mice can also be visualized in various organs throughout the body [9]. The resolution of visualized internal organs and tumors significantly depends on the intensity and spectrum of emitted fluorescence signal [7, 23, 24]. If tumor cells labeled with GFP are sufficiently bright they often could be viewed through simple video equipment located externally to the animal [23]. The use of brighter GFP fluorescence may enable detection of internal tumors and metastases labeled with these reporters in critical organs, such as the pancreas, spleen, and liver [7].

In contrast to fluorescence, bioluminescence imaging is not limited by the autofluorescence properties of living cells and does not require any external source of light for activation [25]. It rather depends on the delivery of specific substrates, such as the luciferin in case with firefly luciferase (Fluc). The emitted luciferases-mediated signals are weak, and the imaging resolution at the cellular level is low. However, it can be amplified by prolonged counting of photon emission by charge-coupled device (CCD) cameras combined with an intensifier. The major advantage of bioluminescence imaging is that the low light video camera enables detection of very low levels of bioluminescence emitted from internal parts of the body [26-28] and thus, determining

^{*}Address correspondence to this author at the Department of Biochemistry & Microbiology, Loma Linda University, 11085 Campus St., Loma Linda, CA 92354, USA; E-mail: ifodor@llu.edu

the location of the light source. To date, Fluc and Renilla (Rluc) luciferases are the main bioluminescence reporters, which have been used as markers of gene expression in bacteria, yeast, plant and mammalian cells [28, 29], and in living mice [6]. The Rluc substrate (CTZ) is diffusable to many tissues upon tail-vein injection and is non-toxic for mammalian cells [30]. Previously, we reported optical imaging of virus-expressed luciferases and GFP for analyses of gene expression and viral replication in cultured mammalian cells, live insect larvae, and experimental animals [31-39]. Noninvasive bioluminescent imaging of luc-labeled murine tumor models has also been shown to correlate with the tumor volume [18] and number of labeled cancer cells injected to animal [40]. Modeling of photon diffusion through tissue indicates that bioluminescent cell counts as low as a few hundred can be detected subcutaneously, while approximately 10⁶ labeled cells are required to detect signals at approx. 2 cm depth in tissue [41]. New technical solutions for detection of bioluminescence in the future will lead to significant improvement in localizing and quantifying the emitted light, and in resolution [42]. However, for noninvasive visualization and diagnosis of spontaneously emerging (non-labeled) cancer cells in a living organism development of new strategies are required.

VIRUS-BASED STRATEGY OF TUMOR IMAGING IN VIVO

Previously, grafted GFP- and luciferase-labeled tumor/ metastasis growth in vivo has been visualized non-invasively [7, 13-19]. However, labeling of cultured cancer cells with optical reporters prior to inoculation was an indispensable condition of these studies. Inoculated labeled cancer cells in inoculated animals develop tumors/metastasis which can be visualized in vivo by optical instruments. Therefore, currently known optical imaging of tumors is effective only in grafted animal cancer models. Naturally developing tumors, caused by spontaneous or introduced (in transgenic models) mutations, can not be imaged and detected by this approach. However, it can be achieved using tumor-targeting recombinant viruses. Over last several years, attention of many investigators in the area of cancer therapy, including our laboratory, was turned to oncolytic viruses, i.e. viruses selectively lysing cancer cells [43-48]. It has become evident that oncolytic recombinant VV carrying sensitive reporters could be a safe and promising tool for specific tumor targeting and imaging. Indeed, each viral particle is able to propagate in tumor cells up to 1,000-10,000 virus copies per cell producing abundant amount of reporter proteins, e.g. fluorescence protein and luciferase, which is an important condition for optical imaging of deep tissues. Recently, we have learned that certain attenuated VV strains possess these useful attributes. Thus, oncolytic activity of systemically delivered attenuated VV in established tumors has been demonstrated in murine and rabbit tumor models [49-53]. Here, we describe our experience in using oncolytic VV as a powerful tool for optical imaging of solid tumors in several experimental animal cancer models.

RECOMBINANT VIRUSES FOR TUMOR IMAGING IN VIVO

To monitor the spread of vaccinia virus in live animals first we constructed the recombinant vaccinia virus VV-RG [39] expressing the fusion protein of Rluc and Aquoria jellyfish GFP (Fig. 1). Replication of the VV-RG can be monitored on live animals by both fluorescent microscopy or imager and low-light video imager (bioluminescence). Furthermore, we have constructed more advanced VV expressing brighter optical reporters (provided by Prolume Ltd, Pinetop, AZ). Investigators of the indicated company isolated and characterized three new gfp genes from the sea pansies and pens and demonstrated that these reporters emit fluorescence light of higher intensity increasing the sensitivity and enhancing GFP-mediated imaging of internal tissues of living animals [54]. The Renilla mullerei GFP (R-GFP) has spectral properties, such as high quantum efficiency, high molar absorbency and efficient use with universally available fluorescein filters, which seem likely to make it very useful for optical imaging. According to Prolume, Ltd., the R-GFP is 6-fold brighter than the A-GFP on a molar basis, and 3-fold brighter than the available brightest modified GFP. In addition, R-GFP is less cytotoxic than A-GFP.

New bioluminescent light emitting luciferase reporter genes have been isolated from the Gaussia princeps, in both natural and "humanized" (optimized in codon usage) versions [54]. The Gaussia luciferase (Gluc) is extremely stable to elevated temperature. In our study we have constructed a recombinant VV strain expressing both Gluc and R-GFP optical reporters. First, the Gluc and R-gfp genes were inserted into the transfer plasmid p2B8R under control of two early/late synthetic vaccinia-specific promoters and then, the resulting plasmids pBGR12 and pBGR13 were used for the construction of VV-BGR12 and VV-BGR13 virus, respectively, through homologous recombination of the B8R sequences of the VV genome as described earlier [39]. Then, mammalian cells were infected/transfected with the vaccine strain Lister (LIVP) of VV and with the transfer plasmid (pBGR12 or pBGr13). The newly constructed hyper-attenuated viruses VV-BGR12 and VV-BGR13 (Fig. 1) emitted green fluorescent and bioluminescent lights of approximately equally high intensity. We found that bioluminescent light emitted by Gluc is significantly brighter than the Rluc (Fig. 2). Comparing VV-BGR12 with VV-RG in identical in vitro conditions, cells infected with VV-BGR12 emitted significantly brighter fluorescent light than VV-RG-infected cells expressing the A-GFP (Fig. 3).

For tumor imaging we are currently developing recombinant viruses which can induce light of far red or near infrared (NIR) wavelengths. These fluorescence proteins are of special interest in optical tumor imaging due to the low absorption in tissue at these wavelengths. While current noninvasive macroscopic imaging with GFP is limited to superficial tumors, it has been predicted that NIR fluorescent light can penetrate the tissue for several centimeters [24]. Potential of red fluorescent proteins (RFP) has already been demonstrated earlier by imaging of RFP-labeled orthotopic prostate tumors in mice [55]. We are constructing a recombinant VV- GRF1 expressing both the RFP and Gluc (Fig. 1). Testing the constructed transfer plasmid pGRF1 carrying the optical reporters we have confirmed that the RFP is suitable for visualization of VV replication in far red light spectrum of fluorescence (Fig. 4). We expect that the VV-GFR1 virus will have an advantage in fluorescent optical imaging due to more efficient penetration of RFP-generated far red light. In addition, we explore the possibility of using chemically syn-

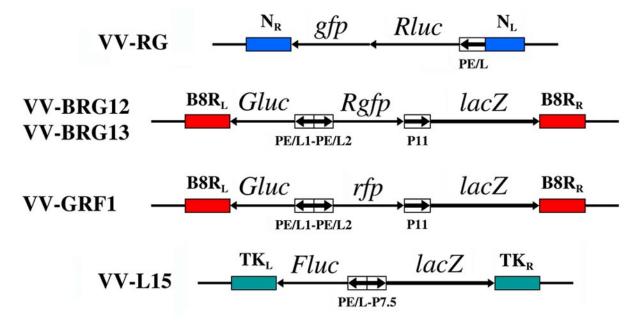


Fig. (1). Expression cassettes of the recombinant vaccinia viruses. The construction of the VV-RG virus expressing fused Rluc and GFP was described earlier [39]. The Rluc/gfp expression cassette was inserted into HindIII-N fragment of the virus genome disrupting the 150 bp F14.5L gene located between F14L and F15L of the Lister strain. Other recombinant viruses were constructed using the plasmid p2B8R (provided by Dr. T. Yilma, UC Davis, CA) and traditional infection/transfection method [39]. In the viruses VV-BGR12 and VV-BGR13 the cassette is inserted into VV B8R gene and the expression of the optical reporters, humanized Gluc [57] and *Renilla* gfp (Rgfp, humanized), is driven by two identical promoters PE/L1 and PE/L2, respectively. The VV-BGR12 virus expresses the entire Gluc gene while in the VV-RGR13 the Gluc lacks the 15 aa signal peptide and expresses the non-secreting reporter protein. In the VV-GRF1, the expression of Gluc and red fluorescence protein (rfp) was driven by PE/L1 and PE/L2. The VV-L15 expressing lacZ and Fluc was described earlier [37].

thesized fluorogenic compounds for virus-mediated tumor imaging that may offer an alternative approach for tumor labeling and imaging in far red or NIR spectra [56]. Preliminary data with the fluorogenic lacZ substrate DDAOC are promising (Fig. 5) and future experiments on optimizing of imaging of deep malignant tissues may lead to harnessing this less explored imaging method.

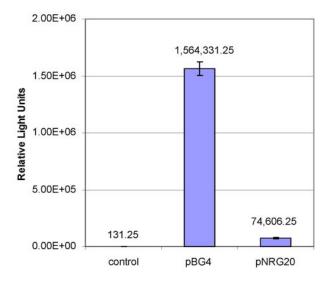


Fig. (2). Bioluminescence of *Renilla* and *Gaussia* luciferases in CV-1 cells. Cells were infected with VV (MOI=1) and then transfected with a plasmid encoding Rluc (pNRG20) or Gluc (pBG4). Light emission of the extracts was measured by luminometer (Dynatech Laboratories, Inc., Chantilly, VA). *In vivo*, the Gluc is 200-fold brighter than the Rluc [54].

VV-MEDIATED IMAGING OF UROLOGICAL TU-MORS

The VV-RG virus has been tested in non-invasive imaging in several tumor models following the rules and regulation of the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Experiments have confirmed that the virus selectively replicates in tumor tissues of the animal emitting bioluminescence and fluorescence lights. Visualization of an orthotopic MB-49 bladder tumor in a live mouse following inoculation with VV-RG is demonstrated in Fig. (6). A clearly glowing spot of luciferase-associated bioluminescence light has been observed during the whole-body optical imaging of the mouse. At autopsy, the malignant tissue of the bladder was

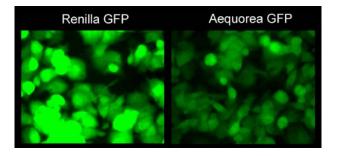


Fig. (3). Comparison of fluorescence brightness emitted by virus-encoded *Aequorea* and *Renilla* GFP. CV-1 monkey kidney cells were infected with VV (MOI=1) expressing either A-GFP (VV-RG) or R-GFP (VV-BGR12), and after overnight incubation the light emissions were compared by fluorescence microscope equipped with CCD Princeton camera.

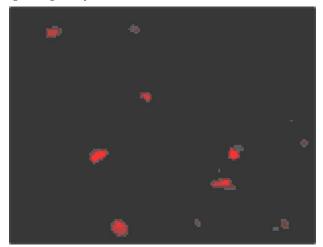


Fig. (4). Construction of recombinant VV expressing red fluorescent protein. The transfer plasmid pGRF1 carries genes for the optical reporters RFP and Gluc (see Fig. 1). The rfp gene was isolated from the pDsRed2 plasmid provided by B.A. Tannous (Boston, MA). The image demonstrates that cultured CV-1 cells infected with VV and transfected with the pGFR1 express RFP as detected by fluorescent microscopy (Axiovert 100TV, Zeiss equipped with XBO 150 W/10FR lamp and filter N14).

identified as a source of bioluminescence (Rluc) and fluorescence (A-GFP, data not shown). Furthermore, our data indicated that recombinant VV can induce antitumor effect in orthotopic MB-49 tumor model not only through the viral lytic effect and immunologic response, but also through expression of the tumor suppressor transgene p53 [48].

Feasibility of the VV-RG mediated bioluminescent visualization of implanted tumors was confirmed in a prostate SC cancer model PC3. Whole-body optical imaging of tumor-bearing mice following systemic inoculation of the virus detected clearly glowing spots in the tumor area (Fig. 7A). At autopsy, the bioluminescent (Rluc) and fluorescent (A-GFP) light sources were found to be associated with the tumor tissues (not shown). In other models, the feasibility of using the VV-RG virus (designated by authors as rVV-RUC-GFP or GLV-1d27) for tumor imaging and therapy has been reported elsewhere [58, 59].

The TRAMP mouse model serves as a general prototype for mimicking the pathways, parameters, and mechanisms of multistage prostate tumorigenesis in humans. Published data have proved that this mouse model is convenient and useful for cancer prevention and therapy studies [4, 60-62]. TRAMP mice characteristically express the T antigen oncoprotein by 8 weeks of age and develop pathology in the epithelium of the dorsolateral prostate. Distant site metastases can be detected as early as 12 weeks of age. The common sites of metastases are the periaortic lymph nodes and lungs, with occasional metastases to the kidney, adrenal gland, and bone. By 28 weeks of age, mice harbor metastatic prostate cancer in the lymph nodes or lungs [62]. In contrast with grafted bladder cancer model TRAMP mice develop genetically predetermined tumors/metastases.

Thus, the TRAMP model provides a consistent source of primary and metastatic tumors for molecular analysis to further define the earliest molecular events involved in the genesis, progression, and metastasis of prostate cancer.

We have also attempted to monitor the early development of the tumor in TRAMP mice using the recombinant VV-BGR13 virus. Early stage of cancer in this transgenic model can be observed in prostate gland and other genitourinary organs by 8 weeks of age and is confined to a small area (>2%) of the organ that can not be detected visually [55]. Only histological analyses of tissue sections following staining with hematoxylin and eosin can detect the cancer at this stage of cancer development. Using the VV-BGR13expressed optical reporters, we have observed clear signals of bioluminescence light in two TRAMP mice at 8 weeks of age (see Fig. 7B-C). Analysis of isolated glowing tissue on GFP expression showed patchy distribution of fluorescence of the tissue (Fig. 7D-E). The unusual GFP expression pattern possibly reflects the spread of the virus through microvessels of the cancer tissue. This observation will be further explored in future studies.

OPTICAL IMAGING OF GLIOMA IN MICE

The potential of the VV-encoded Gluc- and R-GFPmediated tumor imaging has been recently demonstrated in our lab using SC model of C6 glioma in mice. Two nude mice carrying tumors in the right flank were systemically injected with the rVV-BGR12 and after several days were analyzed by stereo fluorescence microscopy (Fig. 8), lowlight video imager, and compared with MRI data (Fig. 9).

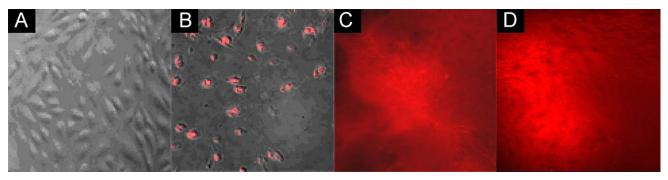


Fig. (5). VV-mediated far red fluorescence. A-B. CV-1 cells were infected with rVV-L15 (Fig. 1) expressing lacZ, and on the following day the DDAOG substrate was added to the cells. The virus-encoded lacZ cleaved the substrate releasing a fluorogenic compound with far red fluorescence properties (B), while uninfected cells (A) had no fluorescence. C-D. A nude mouse carrying SC-inoculated C6 tumor (see below) was injected with the VV-L15. A week later, the the DDAOG substrate was injected to tail vein, and 10 min later the mouse was sacrificed. The tumor was removed and analyzed by fluorescence microscopy. Multiple patches of distinct red fluorescence were found in the tumor, two representative images (C-D) of which are shown. Microscopy was performed as described in Fig. (4).

Both optical reporters were effective in visualizing the tumors, and optical data matched the MRI data.

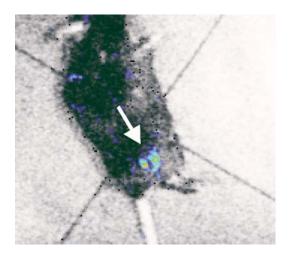


Fig. (6). Visualization of bladder MB-49 cancer in mice using VV-RG. Orthotopic bladder tumor in C57/Bl6 mouse was induced by intravesical instillation of MB-49 cancer cells. The palpable tumor was visualized after on day 3 after tail vein injection of 10⁸ PFU of VV-RG virus using Hamamatsu CCD camera. Intensive bioluminescence induced by Rluc expression was detected only in the bladder area following IV injection of CTZ only in the bladder tumor area.

DISCUSSION

Preexisting Immunity

Oncolytic viruses are highly immunogenic in mammals and there was some concern that virus delivery to a preimmunized organism could be ineffective due to a primed virus-specific immune response. Indeed, there are data in mice [63] and some data in humans [64] suggesting that preexisting vaccinia immunity, such as that occurring in a large proportion of the adult population because of smallpox vaccination, limits the effectiveness of recombinant vaccinia vectors delivery. However, others demonstrated effective VV immunization in pre-immunized rabbits [65] and humans [66, 67]. Interestingly, under certain conditions preexisting immunity may even enhance intratumoral virotherapy. Thus, in mice pre-immunized with HSV subsequent intratumoral administration of oncolytic HSV showed enhanced efficacy compared to HSV-naïve mice [68]. Similarly, in mice pre-immunized with adenovirus or vaccinia virus the anti-tumor effect of both intra-tumorally injected oncolytic viruses was dramatically greater when compared with other control groups [69]. The authors suggested that the enhanced anti-tumor effect was due to a redirected adaptive immune response against foreign antigens released from virus-lysed tumor cells. Mucosal routes of immunization can be also used to induce systemic CTL and antibody responses with vaccinia vectors in the face of preexisting systemic im-

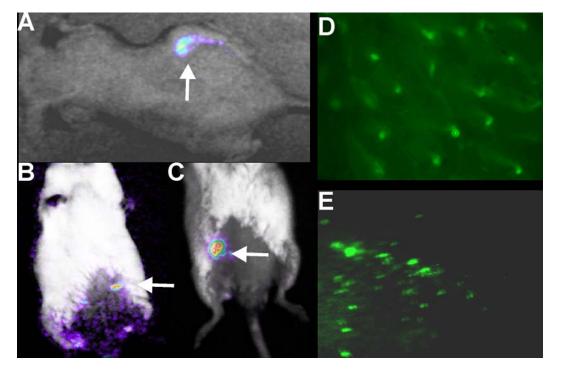


Fig. (7). Imaging of prostate tumors in mice. A. The VV-RG virus expressing fused Rluc/GFP (10^7 PFU) was intravenously injected to nude mice bearing SC human PC-3 prostate tumor in the right flank. On day 3 after virus injection, the whole bodies were monitors by low-light video imager as described in Fig. (**6**). **B-C**. VV-mediated early detection of cancer in TRAMP mice. Two TRAMP mice (8 weeks of age) were intraveinously (IV) inoculated with VV-BGR13 ($1x10^8$ PFU). Six days later, the abdominal part of the body was shaved, and 5 μg of Gluc substrate CTZ was injected IV. Accumulated bioluminescent light (5 min) was captured by Hamamatsu camera. Both mice emitted light from a single confined site (shown by arrows). Then mice were sacrificed and urogenital organs were removed for fluorescence microscopy (Axiovert 100TV, Zeiss) of R-GFP. Both mice had a small site of tissue containing multiple VV infection foci suggesting an early stage of malignancy. **D-E**. A 9-month of age TRAMP mouse was intravenously inoculated with $1x10^8$ PFU of VV-RG. A week later, when the animal succumbed from cancer all major organs were removed and analyzed for GFP fluorescence. Only sections of prostate tumor contained patches of GFP expression. A characteristic pattern of virus foci at microvessels can be seen.

munity to vaccinia [70]. It is conceivable that virus delivery to pre-immunized individuals for beneficial purposes can be achieved using alternative routes of administration. In naïve individuals, repeated systemic delivery of oncolytic viruses may be effective during 2-3 weeks after first injection. However, ultimately for extended virotherapy treatments or repeated tumor detection procedures several unrelated oncolytic viruses should be available for medicine, and studies to achieve that goal are currently in progress [71].

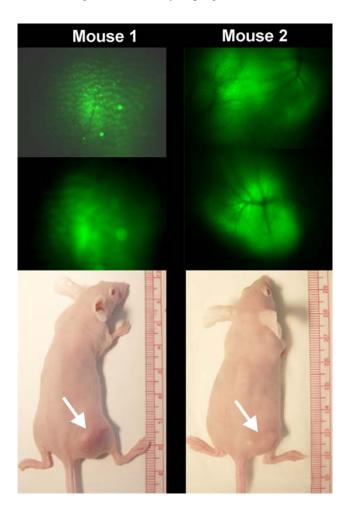


Fig. (8). Imaging of R-GFP fluorescence of tumors in a glioma model. Two subcutaneous C6 glioma-bearing nude mice (#1 and #2) were IV-injected with rVV-BGR12 (5x10⁷ PFU), and on day 5 p.i., the body was analyzed by fluorescence microscopy. Most of tumor surfaces (white arrows) emitted a characteristic pattern of R-GFP fluorescence shown on top. Two R-GFP images of each mouse are presented.

Routes of Administration

In most preclinical and clinical tumor therapy studies oncolytic viruses have been delivered intra-tumorally (IT). Although animals and patients may clearly benefit, most cancers are multifocal and, in addition, spread of viruses after IT delivery is confined to small area of tumor tissue surrounding the path of the needle. Consequently, in the majority of studies the anti-tumor effect has been moderate or low. For effective oncolytic virus-mediated tumor diagnosis or cancer therapy apparently systemic or regional delivery of viruses to tumors through the vasculature is necessary. Traditional IV administration of viruses encounters potential hurdles including rapid clearance of the virus from the bloodstream by reticuloendothelial organs and limited viral influx into tumor tissue. Therefore, the IV route requires higher doses of viruses than, for example, systemic or regional intra-arterial (IA) virus administration.

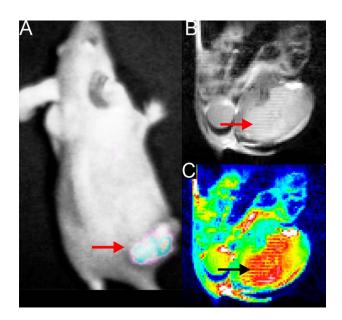


Fig. (9). Tumor detection by bioluminescence and MRI (on right). Optical imaging (on left). The C6 glioma-bearing mouse #2 of Fig. 12 was IP-inoculated with rVV-BGR12, and on day 6 p.i. the CTZ substrate was injected. Bioluminescence of the tumor was visualized as described in Fig. (6) (red arrow). MRI (on right): T2 weighted image of the tumor in the hind leg of the mouse #2 is seen three days later. High resolution imaging details not only the tumor but visible morphologic changes within the tumor itself. Analysis will consist of 3D volumetric analysis and reconstruction for total tumor volumes. Window-level colorization highlights the increased T2 intensity within the tumor, suggestive of increased water content (white to red).

For certain types of cancer, such as liver cancer, preferential perfusion of tumor masses can be achieved via the hepatic artery as a single 10-min infusion of the virus [72, 73]. To maximize the efficacy of virus-mediated of various cancer types the arterial anatomy should be defined first for subsequent arterial administration of the virus using an infusion pump or catheter. It is clear that further pre-clinical and clinical studies to evaluate the safety and efficacy of various routes of virus administration are warranted.

Mechanism of Oncolvsis

Although little is known about mechanisms of virusmediated oncolysis there is sufficient evidence to suggest that it involves host defense and anti-viral mechanisms, like Toll-like Receptors (TLR), double-stranded RNA (dsRNA)activated protein kinase (PKR), RNase, and interferon (IFN) signaling pathways [71, 74, 75]. A critical role for type I IFN and activation of NK cells in the innate immune control of VV infection has recently been demonstrated in a murine model of infection [68, 76]. The importance of these signaling pathways for virus survival are supported by unique strategies acquired by poxviruses to prevent activation of the host anti-viral response targeting TLRs [77, 78], expression of type I and II IFN viroceptors, TNF-α, IL-1β or CC chemokines [79-82]. The cellular status of c-Jun NH2-terminal kinase (JNK) function also dramatically affected oncolytic VV replication and vaccinia virus-mediated host cell killing [83]. Other oncolytic viruses such as VSV showed preferential replication in cells with an activated Ras-ERK pathway and defective IFN pathway [84]. Tumor selectivity of myxoma virus depended on overexpression of Akt in human cancer cells which facilitated virus replication and oncolysis [85].

Alternatively, there is overwhelming evidence in support of immune system protection of the host against tumor development, and IFNs play a pivotal role in this process [86-90]. Thus, IFN-γ insensitive mice lacking important components of the IFN signaling, e.g. the IFNGR1, transcription factor STAT1, or the IFN-y gene, developed cancer more rapidly than control mice [91, 92]. In human patients, systemic administration of IFN-β or IFN-γ produced regression of vascular tumors, including Kaposi sarcoma, pulmonary hemangiomatosis, and hemangiomas [93-95]. Thus, it seems that defects of the IFN pathway which is linked with the TLR signaling pathway and anti-viral protection may be indeed crucial in rendering cancer cells sensitive to virus infection. Currently ongoing studies conducted in many laboratories may shed light on genetic mutations and/or deregulation of gene expression that are involved both in antiviral state and in the process of tumorigenesis.

Tumor tissues represent sites of immune privilege modulated mainly by transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) in which immune response and host defense functions are significantly dampened [96]. Consequently, immune surveillance mechanisms in tumors are compromised resulting in failure to recognize or properly respond to danger signal of malignant cells, or infections. Colonization of malignant masses by microorganisms is frequently observed in medical practice and considered to be a secondary effect caused by cancer development. However, we do not exclude an alternative cause/effect relationship when at penetration sites of infectious agents, virus, bacteria, etc. may locally deliver antagonists of anti-viral (or anti-bacterial) defense and immune systems. These antagonists may compromise immune surveillance of randomly developing transformed cells resulting in escape from destruction and tumorigenesis. Thus, according to this hypothesis, besides oncogenic viruses, such as HBV or HPV, lytic infectious viruses, such as pox- or herpes-viruses, may also be causative agents of cancer development. Future studies may shed light on this assumption.

CONCLUSIONS

The ultimate goal of this work is to explore the feasibility of a virus-based method for noninvasive visualization of malignant tumors and metastases in living organisms, especially at early stages of malignancy. Here we report that oncolytic tumor-targeting properties of attenuated recombinant VV carrying genes of highly sensitive optical reporters may provide a powerful tool for optical imaging of solid tumors and metastases in experimental animal models. In this system the bioluminescent optical reporter (luciferase) induces

emission of low intensity photons which are collected and amplified by a sensitive CCD/Intensifier camera. The instrument allows visualization of low light-emitting sources radiating from the tumors located in deep organs throughout the mouse body. The refined visualization of detected tumors/metastases at the cellular level is achieved by using fluorescent reporters, e.g., bright GFP or RFP. Further technological improvements, like combination with laser-induced fluorescence [97], the ultra-fast laser [98], or dual photon imaging [99], in near future may increase the sensitivity, depth of detection, and spatial resolution of proposed virus-mediated tumor diagnosis.

The recombinant viruses used for tumor imaging are non-toxic and can be applied for human use as well. Underlying molecular mechanisms of viral oncolyses remain to be investigated. Cancer cells have undergone drastic genetic alterations which provide them certain advantages for rapid growth over normal cells. However, these growth advantages in cancer cells often associated with loss of critical components of the intracellular pathways of defensive mechanisms against danger signals and thus, cells become highly sensitive to infection of many viruses. Therefore, engineered attenuated oncolytic VVs are likely to be effectively harnessed as diagnostic tool for different types of cancer. The imperative requirement of that is hyper-attenuation of the replication-competent virus strain.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Dr. B. Bryan (Prolume/Nanolight, Pinetop, AZ) and Dr. B.A. Tannous (Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA) for providing the *Gaussia* luciferase gene and plasmid pDsRed2-N1, respectively, and for helpful discussions.

ABBREVIATIONS

CTZ = Coelenterazine

DDAOG = A conjugate of beta-galactoside and 7-hydroxy-

9H-(1,3-dichloro-9,9-dimethylacridin-2-one)

Fluc = Firefly luciferase

GFP = Green fluorescence protein

Gluc = Gaussia luciferase

gfp = Green fluorescence protein gene

IA = Intra-arterial administration

IP = Intraperitoneal administration

IT = Intra-tumoral administration

IV = Intravenous administration

lacZ = E. coli β-galactosidase gene

MOI = Multiplicity of infection

MRI = Magnetic Resonance Imaging

NIR = Near infrared

ORF = Open reading frame

PFU = Plaque forming unit

p.i. = Post inoculation

RFP = Red fluorescence protein

Rluc = *Renilla* luciferase

SCSubcutaneous administration

TK Thymidine kinase

VV Vaccinia virus

REFERENCES

- Flotte TR, Beck SE, Chesnut K, Potter M, Poirier A, Zolotukhin S. A fluorescence video-endoscopy technique for detection of gene transfer and expression. Gene Ther 1998; 5(2): 166-73.
- Sun FX, Sasson AR, Jiang P, et al. An ultra-metastatic model of [2] human colon cancer in nude mice. Clin Exp Metastasis 1999;
- Yang M, Baranov E, Jiang P, et al. Whole-body optical imaging of [3] green fluorescent protein-expressing tumors and metastases. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2000; 97(3): 1206-11.
- Ray P, Bauer E, Iyer M, et al. Monitoring gene therapy with re-[4] porter gene imaging. Semin Nucl Med 2001; 31(4): 312-20.
- [5] Adams JY, Johnson M, Sato M, et al. Visualization of advanced human prostate cancer lesions in living mice by a targeted gene transfer vector and optical imaging. Nat Med 2002; 8(8): 891-7.
- [6] Bhaumik S, Gambhir S. Optical imaging of Renilla luciferase reporter gene expression in living mice. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2002; 99(1): 377-82.
- Bouvet M, Wang J, Nardin SR, et al. Real-time optical imaging of primary tumor growth and multiple metastatic events in a pancreatic cancer orthotopic model. Cancer Res 2002; 62(5): 1534-40.
- [8] Contag CH, Jenkins D, Contag PR, Negrin RS. Use of reporter genes for optical measurements of neoplastic disease in vivo. Neoplasia 2000; 2(1-2): 41-52.
- Hoffman RM. Visualization of GFP expression in tumors and me-[9] tastasis in vivo. Biotechniques 2001; 30(5): 1016-27.
- [10] Yang E, Baranov E, Moossa AR, Penman S, Hoffman RM. Visualizing gene expression by whole-body fluorescence imaging. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2000; 97(22): 12278-82.
- Gambhir SS. Molecular imaging of cancer with positron emission [11] tomography. Nat Rev Cancer 2002; 2(9): 683-93.
- [12] Vooijs M, Jonkers J, Lyons S, Berns A. Noninvasive imaging of spontaneous retinoblastoma pathway-dependent tumors in mice. Cancer Res 2002; 62(6): 1862-7.
- Bouvet M, Yang M, Nardin S, et al. Chronologically-specific me-[13] tastatic targeting of human pancreatic tumors in orthotopic models. Clin Exp Metastasis 2000; 18(3): 213-8.
- [14] Hasegawa S, Yang M, Chishima T, et al. In vivo tumor delivery of the green fluorescent protein gene to report future occurrence of metastasis. Cancer Gene Ther 2000; 7(10): 1336-40.
- Rashidi B, Yang M, Jiang P, et al. A highly metastatic Lewis lung carcinoma orthotopic green fluorescent protein model. Clin Exp Metastasis 2000; 18(1): 57-60.
- [16] Chaudhuri TR, Mountz JM, Rogers BE, Partridge EE, Zinn KR. Light-based imaging of green fluorescent protein-positive ovarian cancer xenografts during therapy. Gynecol Oncol 2001; 82(3): 581-
- [17] Sweeney TJ, Mailaender V, Tucker AA, et al. Visualizing the kinetics of tumor-cell clearance in living animals. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1999; 96(5): 2044-9.
- Rehemtulla A, Stegman LD, Cardozo SJ, et al. Rapid and quantitative assessment of cancer treatment response using in vivo bioluminescence imaging. Neoplasia 2000; 2(6): 491-5.
- [19] Diehn FE, Costouros NG, Miller MS, et al. Noninvasive fluorescent imaging reliably estimates biomass in vivo. Biotechniques 2002; 33(6): 1250-5.
- [20] Piston DW. Imaging living cells and tissues by two-photon excitation microscopy. Trends Cell Biol 1999; 9(2): 66-9.
- [21] Jakobs S, Subramaniam V, Schonle A, Jovin TM, Hell SW. EGFP and DsRed expressing cultures of Escherichia coli imaged by confocal, two-photon and fluorescence lifetime microscopy. FEBS Lett 2000: 479(3): 131-5.
- [22] Yang M, Baranov E, Wang JW, et al. Direct external imaging of nascent cancer, tumor progression, angiogenesis, and metastasis on internal organs in the fluorescent orthotopic model. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2002; 99(6): 3824-9.

- [23] Yang M, Baranov E, Li XM, et al. Whole-body and intravital optical imaging of angiogenesis in orthotopically implanted tumors. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2001; 98(5): 2616-21.
- [24] Ntziachristos V, Bremer C, Weissleder R. Fluorescence imaging with near-infrared light: new technological advances that enable in vivo molecular imaging. Eur Radiol 2003; 13(1): 195-208.
- [25] Contag PR, Olomu IN, Stevenson DK, Contag CH. Bioluminescent indicators in living mammals. Nat Med 1998; 4(2): 245-7.
- [26] Contag CH, Spilman SD, Contag PR, et al. Visualizing gene expression in living mammals using a bioluminescent reporter. Photochem Photobiol 1997; 66(4): 523-31.
- [27] Sternberg C, Eberl L, Poulsen LK, Molin S. Detection of bioluminescence from individual bacterial cells: a comparison of two different low-light imaging systems. J Biolumin Chemilumin 1997; 12(1): 7-13.
- Wu JC, Sundaresan G, Iyer M, Gambhir SS. Noninvasive optical [28] imaging of firefly luciferase reporter gene expression in skeletal muscles of living mice. Mol Ther 2001; 4(4): 297-306.
- [29] Lorenz WW, Cormier MJ, O'Kane DJ, Hua D, Escher AA, Szalay AA. Expression of the Renilla reniformis luciferase gene in mammalian cells. J Biolumin Chemilumin 1996; 11(1): 31-7.
- Dubuisson ML, de Wergifosse B, Trouet A, Baguet F, Marchand-Brynaert J, Rees JF. Antioxidative properties of natural coelenterazine and synthetic methyl coelenterazine in rat hepatocytes subjected to tert-butyl hydroperoxide-induced oxidative stress. Biochem Pharmacol 2000; 60(4): 471-8.
- Timiryasova T, Yu Y, Shabahang S, et al., Eds. Visualization of vaccinia virus infection using the Renilla luciferase-GFP fusion protein. Proceedings of the 11th International Symposium on Bioluminescence and Chemiluminescence 2000: Wiley, Chichester 2001; pp. 457-60.
- Boldogkoi Z, Erdelyi F, Sik A, Freund TF, Fodor I. Construction of a recombinant herpesvirus expressing the jellyfish green fluorescent protein. Luminescence 1999; 14(1): 1-6.
- [33] Kopylova-Sviridova TN, Gorelova TV, Krausova VI, Timirjasova TM, Fodor II, Shuppe NG. Baculovirus vector system for the expression of firefly luciferase in Mulberry silkworm cells. Doklady Biol Sci 1990; 312 (6): 287-406.
- [34] Kopylova-Sviridova TN, Krauzova VI, Timiryasova TM, Gorelova TV, Shuppe NG, Fodor I. Transient expression assay in a baculovirus system using luciferase gene as a reporter. Virus Genes 1992; 6(4): 303-10.
- Krausova VI, Kholodkov OA, Fodor I. In: Bayev AA, Fodor I, Eds. [35] Use of transient expression system with luciferase gene of Protinus pyralis for monitoring of functional activity of vaccinia promoters. Gene-engineered and synthetic vaccines: Pushchino, Russia 1990; pp. 81-7.
- [36] Krausova VI, Kopylova-Sviridova TN, Timirjasova TM, Fodor I. Expression of the genes for glowworm luciferase in mammalian cells with the use of vaccinia viral vectors. Mol Genet Microbiol Virol (Moscow) 1991; 2(1): 23-8.
- [37] Timirjasova TM, Kopylova-Sviridova TN, Fodor II. Analysis of reporter gene expression at different segments of the vaccinia virus genome. Mol Biol (Moscow) 1993; 27(2): 392-401.
- [38] Langridge WH, Krausova VI, Szalay A, Fodor I. Detection of baculovirus gene expression in insect cells and larvae by low light video image analysis. J Virol Methods 1996; 61(1-2): 151-6.
- [39] Dénes B, Gridley DS, Fodor N, Takátsy Z, Timiryasova TM, Fodor I. Attenuation of a vaccine strain of vaccinia virus via inactivation of interferon viroceptor. J Gene Med 2006; 8(7): 814-23.
- [40] Yang M, Jiang P, Sun FX, et al. A fluorescent orthotopic bone metastasis model of human prostate cancer. Cancer Res 1999; 59(4): 781-6.
- [41] Rice BW, Cable MD, Nelson MB. In vivo imaging of light-emitting probes. J Biomed Opt 2001; 6(4): 432-40.
- Ntziachristos V, Ripoll J, Wang LV, Weissleder R. Looking and listening to light the evolution of whole-body photonic imaging. Nat Biotechnol 2005; 23(3): 313-20.
- [43] Kirn D. In: Lattime EC, Gerson SL, Eds. Selectively replicating viruses as therapeutic agents against cancer. Gene Therapy of Cancer, Academic Press: San Diego 1999; 235-48.
- [44] Kirn D. Replication-selective oncolytic adenoviruses: virotherapy aimed at genetic targets in cancer. Oncogene 2000; 19(56): 6660-9.
- [45] Timiryasova TM, Li J, Chen B, et al. Antitumor activity of vaccinia virus in glioma model. Oncol Res 1999; 11(3): 133-44.

- [46] Chen B, Timiryasova TM, Andres ML, et al. Evaluation of combined vaccinia virus-mediated antitumor gene therapy with p53, IL-2, and IL-12 in a glioma model. Cancer Gene Ther 2000; 7(11): 1437-47
- [47] Chen B, Timiryasova TM, Haghighat P, et al. Low-dose vaccinia virus-mediated cytokine gene therapy of glioma. J Immunother 2001; 24(1): 46-57.
- [48] Fodor I, Timiryasova T, Denes B, Yoshida J, Ruckle H, Lilly M. Vaccinia virus-mediated p53 gene therapy of an orthotopic murine bladder cancer model. J Urol 2005; 173(2): 604-9.
- [49] Gnant MF, Noll LA, Irvine KR, et al. Tumor-specific gene delivery using recombinant vaccinia virus in a rabbit model of liver metastases. J Natl Cancer Inst 1999; 91(20): 1744-50.
- [50] Gnant MFX, Puhlmann M, Alexander HR Jr, Bartlett L. Systemic administration of a recombinant vaccinia virus expressing the cytosine deaminase gene and subsequent treatment with 5fluorocytosine leads to tumor-specific gene expression and prolongation of survival in mice. Cancer Res 1999; 59(14): 3396-403.
- [51] Puhlmann M, Gnant M, Brown CK, Alexander HR, Bartlett DL. Thymidine kinase-deleted vaccinia virus expressing purine nucleoside phosphorylase as a vector for tumor-directed gene therapy. Hum Gene Ther 1999; 10(4): 649-57.
- [52] Hung CF, Tsai YC, He L, et al. Vaccinia virus preferentially infects and controls human and murine ovarian tumors in mice. Gene Ther 2007; 14(1): 20-9.
- [53] Tysome JR, Ghassan G, Fodor I, Francis J, Lemoine N, Wang Y. Systemic delivery of onco-lytic Lister vaccine strain vaccinia virus displays tumour selectivity and prolonged transgene expression in vivo. Mol Ther 2008; 16 (Suppl): S210.
- [54] Bryan B, Szent-Gyorgyi C, inventors; Luciferases, fluorescent proteins, nucleic acids encoding the luciferases and fluorescent proteins and the use thereof in diagnostics, high throughput screening and novelty items (Discovery of several novel genes encoding fluorescent proteins and luciferases). United States patent US 6232107. 2001
- [55] Yang M, Jiang P, Yamamoto N, et al. Real-time whole-body imaging of an orthotopic metastatic prostate cancer model expressing red fluorescent protein. Prostate 2005; 62(4): 374-9.
- [56] Tung CH, Zeng Q, Shah K, Kim DE, Schellingerhout D, Weissleder R. In vivo imaging of beta-galactosidase activity using far red fluorescent switch. Cancer Res 2004; 64(5):1579-83.
- [57] Tannous BA, Kim DE, Fernandez JL, Weissleder R, Breakefield XO. Codon-optimized Gaussia luciferase cDNA for mammalian gene expression in culture and in vivo. Mol Ther 2005; 11(3): 435-43
- [58] Yu YA, Shabahang S, Timiryasova TM, et al. Visualization of tumors and metastases in live animals with bacteria and vaccinia virus encoding light-emitting proteins. Nat Biotechnol 2004: 22(3): 313-20.
- [59] Zhang Q, Yu YA, Wang E, et al. Eradication of solid human breast tumors in nude mice with an intravenously injected light-emitting oncolytic vaccinia virus. Cancer Res 2007; 67(20): 10038-46.
- [60] Arap W, Haedicke W, Bernasconi M, et al. Targeting the prostate for destruction through a vascular address. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2002; 99(3): 1527-31.
- [61] Raghow S, Kuliyev E, Steakley M, Greenberg N, Steiner MS. Efficacious chemoprevention of primary prostate cancer by flutamide in an autochthonous transgenic model. Cancer Res 2000; 60(15): 4093-7
- [62] Gingrich JR, Barrios RJ, Morton RA, et al. Metastatic prostate cancer in a transgenic mouse. Cancer Res 1996; 56(18): 4096-102.
- [63] Rooney JF, Wohlenberg C, Cremer KJ, Moss B, Notkins AL. Immunization with a vaccinia virus recombinant expressing herpes simplex virus type 1 glycoprotein D: long-term protection and effect of revaccination. J Virol 1988; 62(5): 1530-4.
- [64] Cooney EL, Collier AC, Greenberg PD, et al. Safety of and immunological response to a recombinant vaccinia virus vaccine expressing HIV envelope glycoprotein. Lancet 1991; 337(8741): 567-72.
- [65] Kitabatake M, Inoue S, Yasui F, et al. SARS-CoV spike proteinexpressing recombinant vaccinia virus efficiently induces neutralizing antibodies in rabbits pre-immunized with vaccinia virus. Vaccine 2007; 25(4): 630-7.
- [66] Mukherjee S, Haenel T, Himbeck R, et al. Replication-restricted vaccinia as a cytokine gene therapy vector in cancer: persistent transgene expression despite antibody generation. Cancer Gene Ther 2000; 7(5): 663-70.

- [67] Vollmar J, Arndtz N, Eckl KM, et al. Safety and immunogenicity of IMVAMUNE, a promising candidate as a third generation smallpox vaccine. Vaccine 2006; 24(12): 2065-70.
- [68] Zhu H, Su Y, Zhou S, et al. Immune analysis on mtHSV mediated tumor therapy in HSV-1 seropositive mice. Cancer Biol Ther 2007; 6(5): 724-31.
- [69] Hu W, Davis JJ, Zhu H, et al. Redirecting adaptive immunity against foreign antigens to tumors for cancer therapy. Cancer Biol Ther 2007; 6(11): 1773-9.
- [70] Belyakov IM, Moss B, Strober W, Berzofsky JA. Mucosal vaccination overcomes the barrier to recombinant vaccinia immunization caused by preexisting poxvirus immunity. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1999; 96(8): 4512-7.
- [71] Vähä-Koskela MJ, Heikkilä JE, Hinkkanen AE. Oncolytic viruses in cancer therapy. Cancer Lett 2007: 254(2): 178-216.
- [72] Reid T, Galanis E, Abbruzzese J, et al. Intra-arterial administration of a replication-selective adenovirus (dl1520) in patients with colorectal carcinoma metastatic to the liver: A phase I trial. Gene Ther 2001; 8(21): 1618-26.
- [73] Kemeny N, Brown K, Covey A, et al. Phase I, open-label, dose-escalating study of a genetically engineered herpes simplex virus, NV1020, in subjects with metastatic colorectal carcinoma to the liver. Hum Gene Ther 2006; 17(12): 1214-24.
- [74] Thorne SH, Hermiston T, Kirn D. Oncolytic virotherapy: approaches to tumor targeting and enhancing antitumor effects. Semin Oncol 2005; 32(6): 537-48.
- [75] Kirn DH, Wang Y, Le Boeuf F, Bell J, Thorne SH. Targeting of interferon-beta to produce a specific, multi-mechanistic oncolytic vaccinia virus. PLoS Med 2007; 4(12): e353.
- [76] Martinez J, Huang X, Yang Y. Direct action of type I IFN on NK cells is required for their activation in response to vaccinia viral infection in vivo. J Immunol 2008; 180(3): 1592-7.
- [77] Bowie A, Kiss-Toth E, Symons JA, Smith GL, Dower SK, O'Neill LA. A46R and A52R from vaccinia virus are antagonists of host IL-1 and toll-like receptor signaling. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2000; 97(18): 10162-7.
- [78] DiPerna G, Stack J, Bowie AG, et al. Poxvirus protein N1L targets the I-kappaB kinase complex, inhibits signaling to NF-kappaB by the tumor necrosis factor superfamily of receptors, and inhibits NFkappaB and IRF3 signaling by toll-like receptors. J Biol Chem 2004; 279(35): 36570-8.
- [79] Alcamí A, Smith GL. Vaccinia, cowpox, and camelpox viruses encode soluble gamma interferon receptors with novel broad species specificity. J Virol 1995; 69(8): 4633-9.
- [80] Smith CA, Hu FQ, Smith TD, et al. Cowpox virus genome encodes a second soluble homologue of cellular TNF receptors, distinct from CrmB, that binds TNF but not LT alpha. Virology 1996; 223(1): 132-47.
- [81] Graham KA, Lalani AS, Macen JL, et al. The T1/35kDa family of poxvirus-secreted proteins bind chemokines and modulate leukocyte influx into virus-infected tissues. Virology 1997; 229(1): 12-24.
- [82] Alcamí A, Symons JA, Collins PD, Williams TJ, Smith GL. Blockade of chemokine activity by a soluble chemokine binding protein from vaccinia virus. J Immunol 1998; 160(2): 624-33.
- [83] Hu W, Hofstetter W, Guo W, et al. JNK-deficiency enhanced oncolytic vaccinia virus replication and blocked activation of double-stranded RNA-dependent protein kinase. Cancer Gene Ther 2008; 15(9): 616-24
- [84] Noser JA, Mael AA, Sakuma R, et al. The RAS/Raf1/MEK/ERK signaling pathway facilitates VSV-mediated oncolysis: implication for the defective interferon response in cancer cells. Mol Ther 2007; 15(8): 1531-6.
- [85] Wang G, Barrett JW, Stanford M, et al. Infection of human cancer cells with myxoma virus requires Akt activation via interaction with a viral ankyrin-repeat host range factor. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2006; 103(12): 4640-5.
- [86] Abril E, Mendez RE, Garcia A, et al. Characterization of a gastric tumor cell line defective in MHC class I inducibility by both alphaand gamma-interferon. Tissue Antigens 1996; 47(5): 391-8.
- [87] Wong LH, Krauer KG, Hatzinisiriou I, et al. Interferon-resistant human melanoma cells are deficient in ISGF3 components, STAT1, STAT2, and p48-ISGF3gamma. J Biol Chem 1997; 272(45): 28779-85.
- [88] Shimada A, Shiota G, Miyata H, et al. Aberrant expression of double-stranded RNA-dependent protein kinase in hepatocytes of

- chronic hepatitis and differentiated hepatocellular carcinoma. Cancer Res 1998; 58(19): 4434-8.
- [89] Strong JE, Coffey MC, Tang D, Sabinin P, Lee PW. The molecular basis of viral oncolysis: usurpation of the Ras signaling pathway by reovirus. EMBO J 1998; 17(12): 3351-62.
- Dunn GP, Koebel CM, Schreiber RD. Interferons, immunity and [90] cancer immunoediting. Nat Rev Immunol 2006; 6(11): 836-48.
- [91] Kaplan DH, Shankaran V, Dighe AS, et al. Demonstration of an interferon gamma-dependent tumor surveillance system in immunocompetent mice. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1998; 95(13): 7556-61.
- [92] Street SE, Cretney E, Smyth MJ. Perforin and interferon-gamma activities independently control tumor initiation, growth, and metastasis. Blood 2001; 97(1): 192-7.
- [93] Real FX, Oettgen HF, Krown SE. Kaposi's sarcoma and the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome: treatment with high and low doses of recombinant leukocyte A interferon. J Clin Oncol 1986; 4(4): 544-51.

- [94] White CW, Sondheimer HM, Crouch EC, Wilson H, Fan LL. Treatment of pulmonary hemangiomatosis with recombinant interferon alfa-2a. N Engl J Med 1989; 320(18): 1197-200.
- [95] Ezekowitz RA, Mulliken JB, Folkman J. Interferon alfa-2a therapy for life-threatening hemangiomas of infancy. N Engl J Med 1992; 326(22): 1456-63.
- [96] Wahl SM, Wen J, Moutsopoulos N. TGF-beta: a mobile purveyor of immune privilege. Immunol Rev 2006; 213(1): 213-27.
- [97] Wack S, Hajri A, Heisel F, et al. Feasibility, sensitivity, and reliability of laser-induced fluorescence imaging of green fluorescent protein-expressing tumors in vivo. Mol Ther 2003; 7(6): 765-73.
- [98] Alfano RR, Demos SG, Gayen SK. Advances in optical imaging of biomedical media. Ann NY Acad Sci 1997; 820: 248-70.
- [99] Masters BR, So PT, Gratton E. Multiphoton excitation microscopy of in vivo human skin. Functional and morphological optical biopsy based on three-dimensional imaging, lifetime measurements and fluorescence spectroscopy. Ann NY Acad Sci 1998; 838: 58-67.

Received: July 29, 2008 Revised: November 6, 2008 Accepted: November 13, 2008

© Dénes et al.; Licensee Bentham Open.

This is an open access article licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/ by-nc/3.0/) which permits unrestricted, non-commercial use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the work is properly cited.