Bone marrow angiogenesis in multiple myeloma: closing in on the loop

Angiogenesis refers to the process of new blood vessel formation that occurs during embryonal growth, wound healing, the menstrual cycle, and in certain diseases of the eye. Angiogenesis is also recognized as being critical for tumor growth, invasion and metastasis. The various steps of angiogenesis, such as basement membrane disruption, endothelial cell migration and proliferation, and tube formation, occur in response to angiogenic triggers mediated by cytokines such as vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF).

VEGF (also referred to as VEGF-A) is one of the major inducers of angiogenesis. The protein is structurally related to PI GF (placenta growth factor), VEGF-B, VEGF-C, VEGF-D and Orf virus-derived VEGF (also called VEGF-E). VEGF is a survival and a proliferation factor for human microvascular endothelial cells. There are 5 different isoforms formed by mRNA splicing: VEGF121, VEGF145, VEGF165, VEGF189, and VEGF206. VEGF plays a critical role during embryo development; the loss of just one allele in knockout mouse models results in embryonic death. To date, there are two known receptor tyrosine kinases that bind VEGF: VEGFR-1 (also called Fms-like tyrosine kinase, Flt-1) and VEGFR-2 (also called kinase domain region, KDR). VEGFR-3 (also called FLT 4) is the receptor tyrosine kinase that mediates lymphangiogenesis; VEGF-C and VEGF-D serve as ligands for VEGFR-3. VEGF mRNA and protein are upregulated by hypoxia and VEGF mRNA is often elevated near areas of tumor necrosis. Tumor hypoxia and locally increased VEGF concentrations also upregulate VEGFR-1 and VEGFR-2. Stimulation of VEGF receptors in endothelial cells by VEGF leads to activation of the MAP kinase and JAK-STAT signaling pathways.

The role of angiogenesis and VEGF in multiple myeloma has been the subject of intense investigation in recent years. In 1994, Vacca et al. first determined that bone marrow angiogenesis was markedly increased in myeloma compared to in its premalignant state, monoclonal gammopathy of undetermined significance (MGUS). Further they showed that the increase in angiogenesis was correlated to plasma cell proliferative rate. Subsequent studies by our group have confirmed these pivotal observations. Further confirmation came from more recent work by Vacca et al., who demonstrated that 76% of purified myeloma samples from patients are angiogenic whereas only 20% of MGUS samples are so in the in vitro chick embryo chorioallantoic membrane (CAM) angiogenesis assay. Bone marrow angiogenesis has since been shown to have prognostic value in myeloma, and in some studies appears to persist even after conventional dose or high dose chemotherapy. In fact, microvessels in the marrow appear to persist even after therapy with thalidomide, an agent with known anti-angiogenic properties; however the lack of resolution of microvessels may not be an accurate way to measure the effect of anti-angiogenic therapy. Overall, these studies suggest that induction of angiogenesis is a feature of, and possibly important in the transformation of MGUS to myeloma, and in the progression of early stage myeloma to advanced, refractory disease.

Increased angiogenesis in myeloma, as in other tumors, is likely mediated by an alteration in balance between pro- and anti-angiogenic cytokines. Several studies show overexpression of VEGF by clonal plasma cells. bFGF also appears to be important. Sezer et al. found increased levels of serum bFGF in myeloma and that these levels decreased with effective chemotherapy. Vacca et al. have shown that antibodies to bFGF cause a significant inhibition (>50%) of the angiogenesis induced by myeloma cells in the CAM assay. Besides VEGF and bFGF, aquaporin 1 and matrix metalloproteinase-2 may be important, and their expression appears to correlate with the increased angiogenesis seen in myeloma.

Angiogenesis may contribute to the pathogenesis and progression of myeloma in two ways: (i) by ensuring an adequate tumor oxygen and nutrient supply and (ii) by paracrine stimulation of tumor cell migration and proliferation. Likewise, in addition to stimulating angiogenesis, VEGF may also have paracrine or even autocrine effects in myeloma. The paracrine role of VEGF in myeloma was first proposed by Dankbar et al., who found that stimulation of myeloma cell lines with interleukin-6 (IL-6) results in an increase in VEGF secretion. Similarly, stimulation of endothelial cells and bone marrow stromal cells with VEGF induced a significant increase in IL-6 secretion in a dose-dependent manner.

Starting with their pioneering observations in 1994, Vacca et al. have contributed immensely to our understanding of the role of angiogenesis and angiogenic cytokines in multiple myeloma. In this issue of Haematologica, they add to their vital contributions in an important paper that presents further evidence for the role of VEGF in myeloma. In a series of well conducted experiments, Vacca et al. show that VEGF is expressed and secreted by myeloma cells and that it stimulates proliferation and chemotaxis in both endothelial cells (VEGFR-2 signaling) and stromal cells (VEGFR-1 signaling). Their data provide further support for the presence of a paracrine loop for tumor growth and angiogenesis in multiple myeloma. The study adds to prior data about the role of VEGF during myeloma progression and provides further rationale for considering the
VEGF pathway as a target for myeloma therapy. Although the authors found interesting results with VEGF-C and VEGF-D secreted by stromal cells on plasma cell DNA synthesis rate, the role of these cytokines needs to be further studied and confirmed.

Is VEGF overexpressed in myeloma compared to in MGUS? Vacca et al report higher VEGF expression in myeloma than in MGUS. Using immunohistochemistry methods, Bellamy previously made the same observation. However, in a recent study using immunohistochemistry we were unable to find a significant increase in expression of VEGF by plasma cells in myeloma compared to in MGUS. In our experience, quantifying the level of VEGF expression using bone marrow immunohistochemistry is difficult because of several factors, including intense VEGF staining by erythroid precursors and difficulties in identifying plasma cells accurately in MGUS. After adjusting for the difference in plasma cell numbers between MGUS and myeloma, we found no significant differences in proportion of plasma cells that express VEGF between the two groups. We also found no significant difference in mRNA expression between MGUS and myeloma using quantitative real time reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) studies. Thus, in our opinion, the question of whether overexpression and secretion of VEGF in myeloma is due to increased expression by each myeloma cell or merely a function of the increase in plasma cells in myeloma compared to MGUS remains to be determined.

What about expression of VEGF receptors by clonal plasma cells? Bellamy has reported expression of VEGFR-1 by myeloma cells. We have found expression of both VEGFR-1 and VEGFR-2 by both myeloma cell lines and primary myeloma cells using immunohistochemical and RT-PCR studies. In this issue of Haematologica, Vacca et al describe intense expression of VEGFR-3 by myeloma cells. The expression of VEGF receptors by myeloma cells raises the intriguing possibility of autocrine effects, especially in the light of recent data showing that VEGF can enhance myeloma cell migration and proliferation. This is also particularly interesting because there is evidence suggesting that VEGF has autocrine effects in other malignancies.

Vacca et al show that the increased proliferation and chemotaxis exhibited by endothelial and stromal cells in response to plasma cell conditioned media is not abolished fully by addition of VEGF antibody, suggesting the presence of other secreted angiogenic cytokines. This is important because future translational therapeutic efforts must take into account the redundancies built into the angiogenesis pathways, and the fact that blocking one cytokine (such as VEGF) with a small molecule inhibitor or humanized antibody will result in suboptimal results in the clinic. There is significant interest in anti-angiogenic therapy for myeloma based on results with thalidomide, and given the variety of novel anti-angiogenic compounds available. But clinical trials will need to be carefully designed and guided by findings from the laboratory to maximize chances of success. Research such as that presented in this issue of Haematologica certainly gives us a better understanding of myeloma and provides attractive targets to pursue in our fight against this currently incurable malignancy.

Finally, the issue of whether angiogenesis is truly important for the pathogenesis of hematologic malignancies such as myeloma is a point of debate. Given the growing evidence, there is no reason to believe that angiogenesis is any less important in myeloma than it is in solid tumors. Moreover, angiogenesis appears to have important prognostic value in solitary bone plasmacytoma, which is arguably the solid tumor equivalent of myeloma. Two types of studies may settle the debate. One is a serial follow-up study of MGUS patients over time to demonstrate that increased angiogenesis occurs just prior to progression. The second type is a study showing that myeloma responds to a drug whose sole mechanism of action is anti-angiogenesis such as endostatin or angiostatin. Preliminary data from Fuji et al show that endostatin does indeed induce regression of myeloma in a mouse model of myeloma, supporting a pathogenetic role for angiogenesis.

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Funding: this work was supported in part by grants CA93842, CA85818 and CA62242 from the National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, MD. Dr. Rajkumar is also supported by the Multiple Myeloma Research Foundation, the Goldman Philanthropic Partnerships and the Leukemia and Lymphoma Society.

References

Stem cell transplantation for patients with solid tumors

In this issue, Nieto1 analyzes the relative efficacy of high-dose chemotherapy with stem cell support compared to standard treatment for high-risk primary or metastatic breast-cancer. He concludes that high dose chemotherapy remains too important an option to be prematurely discarded after preliminary analyses of a portion of the data. Ongoing studies must mature and then the data will speak for itself.

Hematopoietic stem cells are used for other purposes in medical oncology. As underlined by Bregni,2 the observation that the benefits of allogeneic bone marrow transplantation in hematology depend, to a large extent, on an immunologic effect, has opened the way to exploitation of the same effect in oncology. The transfer of allografting to the solid tumor area has opened a new field of clinical research, focused on the alloreactive T-cell, and more generally, on adoptive immunotherapy as a treatment modality for selected malignancies. Several solid tumors are susceptible to the graft-versus-tumor effect. We also know that T-cells can eradicate tumor cells of host origin, but are also responsible for graft-versus-host disease, which still represents a major problem in allogeneic transplant. Many efforts are being devoted to understanding the graft-versus-tumor effect, and more specific strategies are being developed to increase selectivity of the allogeneic transplant. These issues were addressed at the meeting Allogeneic Hematopoietic Cell Transplantation for Solid Tumors held in Milan, Italy, on June 28, 2002. These papers3-11 are available online on the journal's web site.

References