

Flt-1 Intracellular Retention Signals Inhibit Hypoxia-Induced VEGF Expression In Vitro and Corneal Neovascularization In Vivo

Nirbhai Singh,^{1,2} Shivan Amin,^{1,2} Elizabeth Richter,¹ Saadia Rashid,¹ Vincent Scoglietti,¹ Pooja D. Jani,¹ Jin Wang,³ Rajwinder Kaur,¹ Jayakrishna Ambati,⁴ Zheng Dong,³ and Balamurali K. Ambati¹

PURPOSE. To determine whether subunits of VEGF receptor-1 coupled with an endoplasmic reticulum retention signal can block hypoxia-induced upregulation of VEGF secretion in corneal epithelial cells and block murine corneal angiogenesis induced by corneal injury.

METHODS. Human corneal epithelial cells, transfected with plasmids encoding Flt23K or Flt24K (the VEGF-binding domains of the Flt-1 receptor coupled with the endoplasmic reticulum retention peptide KDEL), were subjected 2 days after transfection to 5% hypoxia for 24 hours. Supernatant was sampled at 24 hours and assayed for VEGF by ELISA. For in vivo models, mouse corneas underwent intrastromal injections of plasmids encoding Flt23K or Flt24K, and 2 days later, sustained injury induced by topical NaOH and mechanical scraping. Corneas were assessed 2 days later for VEGF ELISA and leukocyte counting or 1 week later for quantification of neovascularization.

RESULTS. Hypoxia induced VEGF by human corneal epithelial cells was sequestered by both Flt23K and Flt24K; Flt-1 23K suppressed VEGF secretion as well. Intrastromal delivery of plasmid Flt23K suppressed VEGF by 40.4% ($P = 0.009$), leukocytes by 49.4% ($P < 0.001$), and neovascularization by 66.8% ($P = 0.001$). Flt24K suppressed VEGF expression by 30.8% ($P = 0.042$), leukocytes by 25.8% ($P < 0.001$), and neovascularization by 49.5% ($P = 0.015$).

CONCLUSIONS. Flt-1 intracellular retention signal-coupled VEGF receptors, significantly suppress hypoxia-induced VEGF secretion by corneal epithelial cells in vitro. In vivo, delivery of naked plasmids expressing these intracellular retention signals inhibits injury-induced upregulation of VEGF, leukocyte infiltration, and corneal neovascularization.

From the Departments of ¹Ophthalmology and ³Cell Biology and Anatomy, Medical College of Georgia, Augusta, Georgia; and the ⁴Department of Ophthalmology, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.

²Contributed equally to the work and therefore should be considered equivalent authors.

The materials presented herein are part of a provisional patent application filed with the U.S. Patent Office.

Supported by the Knights-Templar Eye Foundation (BKA).

Submitted for publication October 2, 2004; revised December 20, 2004; accepted January 27, 2005.

Disclosure: N. Singh (P); S. Amin (P); E. Richter, None; S. Rashid, None; V. Scoglietti, None; P.D. Jani, None; J. Wang, None; R. Kaur, None; J. Ambati, None; Z. Dong, None; B.K. Ambati (P)

The publication costs of this article were defrayed in part by page charge payment. This article must therefore be marked "advertisement" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. §1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Corresponding author: Balamurali K. Ambati, Department of Ophthalmology, Medical College of Georgia, 1120 15th Street, BA-2720, Augusta, GA 30912; bambati@mail.mcg.edu.

(*Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci.* 2005;46:1647-1652) DOI: 10.1167/iovs.04-1172

Angiogenesis, the growth of new blood vessels, is a fundamental biological process that plays a central role in the pathogenesis of cancer, diabetic retinopathy, and macular degeneration, in which vascular overgrowth is detrimental. In the eye, vision-threatening angiogenesis can be caused by diabetes mellitus, age-related macular degeneration, rejection of corneal transplants, chemical burns, infections such as trachoma, Stevens-Johnson syndrome, and other disorders.¹ The cornea is normally avascular, to permit optimal visual clarity. However, in pathologic conditions, neovascularization can occur, compromising clarity and thus vision. Corneal neovascularization is a central feature in the pathogenesis of many blinding corneal disorders, and a major sight-threatening complication in corneal infections and chemical injury and after keratoplasty, in which neovascularization adversely affects the corneal transplant's survival.¹ New approaches to diminishing or completely preventing corneal neovascularization are greatly needed.

Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) has been demonstrated to be a key mediator of angiogenesis in many models.²⁻¹³ In the cornea, the angiogenic process has been shown to be driven by increased secretion of VEGF.² Although several studies have shown that VEGFR-2/KDR is the signal transducer for VEGF-induced mitogenesis, chemotaxis, and cytoskeletal reorganization and thus is the principal receptor involved in angiogenesis,^{3,14-16} VEGFR-1/Flt-1 has a 10-fold higher binding affinity. Domain deletion studies have shown that a subunit construct of domains 2 to 3 binds VEGF with near wild-type affinity and that domain 1 serves as a secretion signal sequence. Domain 4 is also thought to participate somewhat in VEGF binding.¹⁶⁻¹⁸

Strategies to inhibit VEGF include VEGF receptors with blocking antibodies, decoy receptors for VEGF, and anti-VEGF antibodies.¹⁹⁻²⁶ These strategies generally reduce neovascularization by only 30% to 50%. We believe it important to target VEGF intracellularly, as several cell types respond to their own VEGF production in an autocrine fashion. Cancer cells producing VEGF and VEGFR-2 include prostate carcinoma, leukemia, pancreatic carcinoma, melanoma, Kaposi's sarcoma, and osteosarcoma.²⁷⁻³⁴ VEGF autocrine loops have also been demonstrated in endothelial cells,^{35,36} including hypoxic human umbilical vascular endothelial cells (HUVECs). Further, VEGF can upregulate its own receptor VEGFR-2.²⁹ Intracellular autocrine loops would render these cell types resistant to modalities targeting VEGF extracellularly. Intracellular disruption of VEGF signaling may represent a powerful addition to the antiangiogenic arsenal, by sabotaging VEGF secretion and intracellular autocrine loops.

This study introduces a method of disrupting VEGF secretion intracellularly by the use of "intracellular" receptor subunits that are coupled with the endoplasmic reticulum (ER)

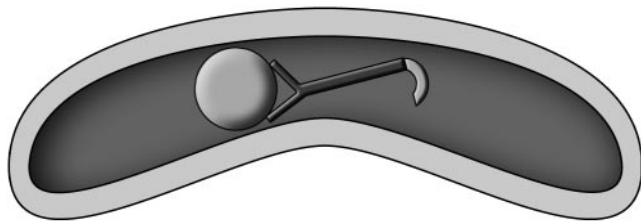


FIGURE 1. Cells expressing VEGF (shown as a *circle*) are transfected to express Flt23K or Flt24K (the KDEL sequence is a C-terminal tag). Transfection binds VEGF before it is released and prevents VEGF secretion. It is thought that the KDEL tag would ensure retention and ultimate degradation within the ER (the lumen of which is depicted).

retention-signaling sequence KDEL, as a viable system for the disruption of VEGF signaling. KDEL is a peptide retention signal with the amino acid sequence Lys-Asp-Glu-Leu that binds ER retention receptors,³⁷ preventing secretion of endogenous ER proteins coupled to KDEL. Linkage of KDEL to various chemokines (termed intrakines) has enabled decreased expression of cognate receptors with significant roles in various diseases processes.^{38,39} Coupling of stromal-derived factor (SDF)-1 with KDEL has been demonstrated to block cell surface expression of the SDF receptor CXCR-4. Similar efforts have been used to downregulate cell surface expression of CCR-5 and interleukin-4 receptor.³⁹⁻⁴¹

In this study, domain-specific intrareceptors consisting of a subunits of Flt-1 coupled with KDEL were designed to downregulate VEGF expression significantly. The domain-specific design of the intrareceptors is targeted at maximizing VEGF affinity, while minimizing membrane appurtenance. We hypothesized that coupling domains 2 and 3 (and in a second construct, domain 4 as well) of Flt-1 with KDEL would substantially bind VEGF in the ER and prevent its secretion (as just noted, domain 1 is a secretion signal, domains 2 and 3 are the critical domains for VEGF binding, and domain 4 may also enhance binding), and thus reduce angiogenic events *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Fig. 1). We first tested the efficacy of these intrareceptors in an *in vitro* model of hypoxia-induced VEGF upregulation, then in a murine model of corneal injury which induces VEGF production and leukocyte infiltration, which are driving events in the development of corneal angiogenesis.⁴²⁻⁴⁴

METHODS

All experiments were conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and the ARVO Statement for the Use of Animals in Ophthalmic and Vision Research.

Vector Construction

Separate vectors were constructed containing domains 2 and 3 or 2, 3, and 4 with the ER retention signal tag linked to the end of both sequences. Human Flt-1 cDNA was used as template DNA for PCR reactions (Open Biosystems, Huntsville, AL). Primers were designed for attachment of the retention signal tag to the truncated receptor sequences. Primers flt2-3(+) (5'-TAG GAT CCA TGG ATA CAG GTA GAC CTT TCG TAG AG-3') and flt2-3(-) (5'-TAG AAT TCT ATT ACA GCT CGT CCT TTT TTC GAT GTT TCA CAG TGA-3') were used to amplify flt2-3/KDEL. Primers flt2-4(+) (see flt2-3(+)) and flt2-4(-) (5'-TAG AAT TCT ATT ACA GCT CGT CCT TGG CCT TTT CGT AAA TCT GG-3') were used to amplify flt2-4/KDEL. Both products were digested with *EcoRI/BamHI* and cloned into a pCMV vector (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA). The pCMV vectors containing the modified flt-1 clones were transfected into competent *Escherichia coli* (DH1 α) cells and selected for using kanamycin antibiotics. Desired colonies were cultured under

selective pressure in Luria's broth, and miniprep (Eppendorf, Westbury, NY), with plasmid DNA suspended in buffer. Puc19 was used throughout transformations as a positive control.

Cell Cultures and Hypoxia

Corneal epithelial cells (CRL-11,515; ATCC, Manassas, VA) were grown on culture plates precoated with 0.01 mg/mL fibronectin, 0.01 mg bovine serum albumin (BSA; both from Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), and 0.03 mg/mL bovine collagen type I (Vitrogen 100; Cohesion, Palo Alto, CA) in keratinocyte-serum free medium (ATCC) with 5 ng/mL human recombinant endothelial growth factor (EGF), 0.05 mg/mL bovine pituitary extract (both from Invitrogen-Gibco, Carlsbad, CA), 0.005 mg/mL insulin, and 500 ng/mL hydrocortisone (both from Sigma-Aldrich). After passage 3, cells were used for experiments at 30% confluence.

For hypoxia experiments, cells were placed in 12- or 24-well culture plates in a hypoxia chamber (Coy Laboratory Products, Inc., Grass Lake, MI) programmed for 5% oxygen-5% carbon dioxide-90% nitrogen, which studies have shown is optimal for inducing VEGF without impairing cell viability.^{45,46} Cell culture experiments were performed in triplicate.

Transfection of Corneal Epithelial Cells

Corneal epithelial cells at 30% confluence were incubated with pCMV.Flt23K or pCMV.Flt24K and transfection reagent (siPORT; Ambion, Austin, TX). Forty-eight hours after transfection, cells were placed in hypoxic conditions (5% O₂) in a hypoxia chamber (Coy Laboratory Products, Inc.). Three transfections were made per experiment. Nontransfected cells and cells transfected with empty pCMV vector served as control cultures. The former were placed in hypoxia 48 hours after reaching 30% confluence, although the latter were placed in hypoxia 48 hours after transfection, on schedule with the cells transfected with pCMV.Flt23K or pCMV.Flt24K.

Model of Corneal Neovascularization

As previously described,⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ topical proparacaine and 2 μ L of 0.15 M NaOH is applied to one cornea of each mouse. The corneal and limbal epithelia were fully removed with a corneal knife (Tooke; Katena, Denville, NJ) in a rotary motion parallel to the limbus. Erythromycin ophthalmic ointment was instilled immediately after epithelial denudation. Seven animals per subgroup were used.

Corneal Intrastromal Injection

Effective transfection of plasmid delivery to the cornea has been described.⁵⁰ A 30-gauge needle was used to nick the corneal stroma, a 33-gauge needle on a syringe (Hamilton; Reno, NV) was passed through the nick to the center, and 1 μ g plasmid in 2 μ L of solution (or 2 μ L of PBS) was injected. Mice were injected with PBS, empty pCMV vector, pCMV.Flt23K, or pCMV.Flt24K. This procedure was performed by an investigator who did not perform the corneal injury.

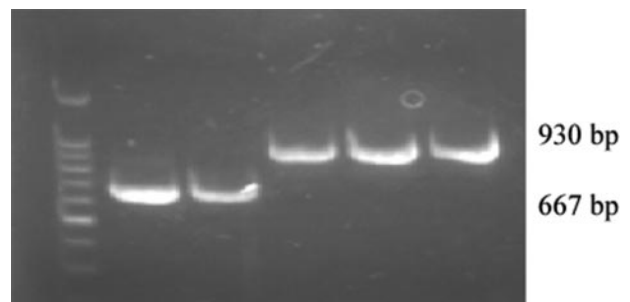


FIGURE 2. An image of PCR of Flt23K and Flt24K constructs is shown. Molecular weight marker (*lane 1*). Flt23K was 667 bp in size (*lanes 2 and 3*), and Flt24K was 930 bp (*lanes 4-6*).

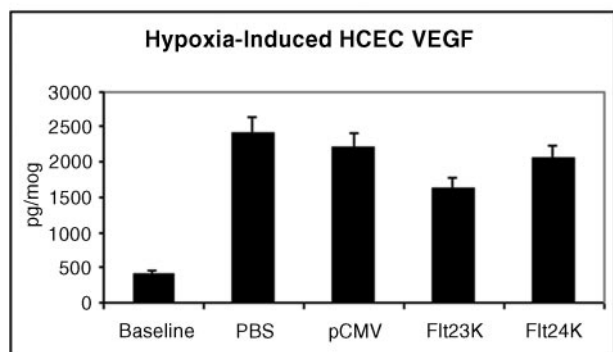
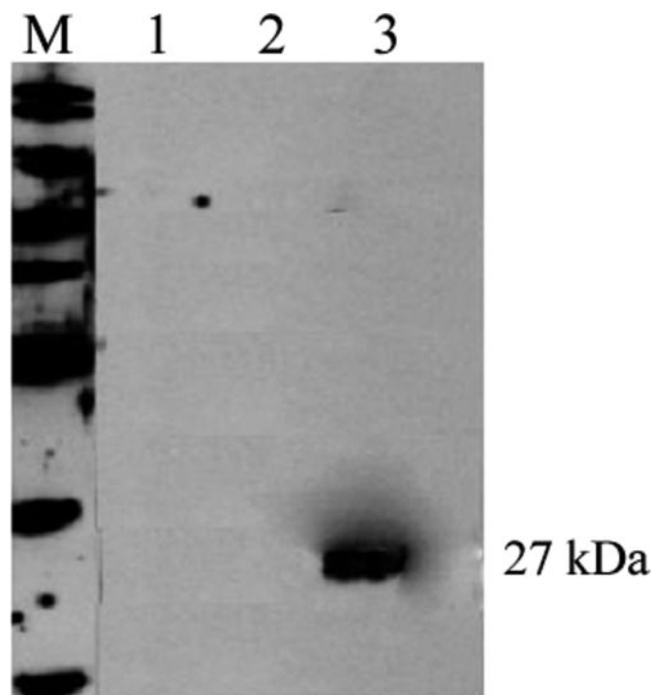


FIGURE 3. *Top:* Western blot analysis of human corneal epithelial cell lysates. Analysis (anti-VEGF; 1:200) of human corneal epithelial cells transfected with pCMV.Flt23K (*lane 1*), Flt24K (*lane 2*), or control (*lane 3*). Only the control lane displays free VEGF protein. *Lane M:* standard molecular weight ladder. *Bottom:* Flt23K suppressed hypoxia-induced VEGF upregulation in human corneal epithelial cells in triplicate experiments 56 hours after hypoxia.

Labeling of Corneal Neovascularization

As previously described,^{47–49} immunohistochemical staining for vascular endothelial cells was performed on corneal flatmounts by a masked investigator. Fresh corneas were dissected, rinsed in PBS for 30 minutes, and fixed in 100% acetone (Sigma-Aldrich) for 20 minutes. After the corneas were washed in PBS, nonspecific binding was blocked with 0.1 M PBS, 2% albumin (Sigma-Aldrich) for 1 hour at room temperature (RT). Incubation with FITC-coupled monoclonal anti-mouse CD31 antibody (BD PharMingen, San Diego, CA) at a concentration of 1:500 in 0.1 M PBS, 2% albumin at 4°C overnight was followed by subsequent washes in PBS at RT. Corneas are mounted with an antifading agent (Gelmount; Biomedica, Inc, San Francisco, CA) and visualized with a fluorescence microscope.

Quantification of Corneal Neovascularization

Digital quantification of corneal neovascularization has been described.⁵¹ Images of the corneal vasculature were captured with a

CD-330 charge-coupled device (CCD) camera attached to a fluorescence microscope. The images were analyzed (LSM-5 Image Examiner; Carl Zeiss Meditec, Jena, Germany), resolved at 624 × 480 pixels, and converted to tagged information file format (TIFF) files. The neovascularization was quantified by setting a threshold level of fluorescence, above which only vessels were captured. The entire mounted cornea was analyzed to minimize sampling bias. The quantification of the neovascularization was performed in masked fashion. The total corneal area was outlined, using the innermost vessel of the limbal (rim of the cornea) arcade as the border. The total area of neovascularization was then normalized to the total corneal area.

Harvest for ELISA

Culture medium or corneas harvested for ELISA were placed in 60 μL lysis buffer (20 mM imidazole hydrochloride, 10 mM potassium chloride, 1 mM magnesium chloride, 10 mM EGTA, 1% Triton X-100, 10 mM sodium fluoride, 1 mM sodium molybdate, and 1 mM EDTA [pH 6.8]), supplemented with protease inhibitor (Sigma-Aldrich), followed by homogenization. The lysate was cleared of debris by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm for 15 minutes (4°C), and the supernatant was collected. Total protein was determined with a Bradford protein assay (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA).

VEGF ELISA

VEGF was determined by a commercially available ELISA kit (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN) which recognizes the unbound 164-amino-acid splice variant of mouse VEGF. The assay was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, standards, cell culture medium, or tissue lysate samples (50 μL) were pipetted into an antibody-coated, 96-well plate containing 50 μL assay diluent and incubated for 2 hours at RT on a shaker. The wells were then washed five times with

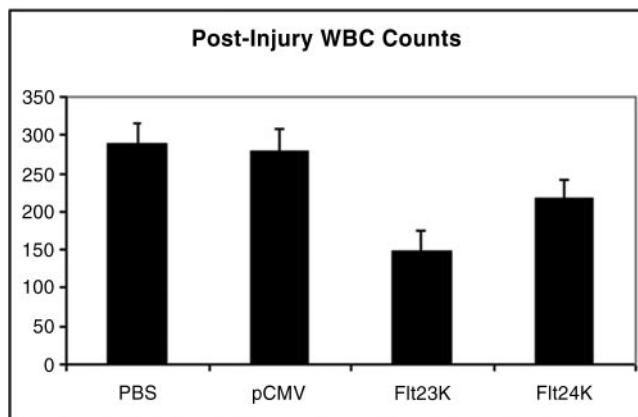
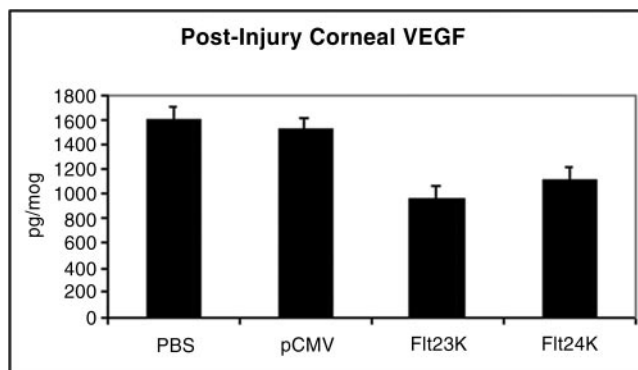


FIGURE 4. Flt23K and Flt24K significantly suppressed VEGF expression and leukocyte infiltration 2 days after corneal injury (mean of $n = 7$ per subgroup).

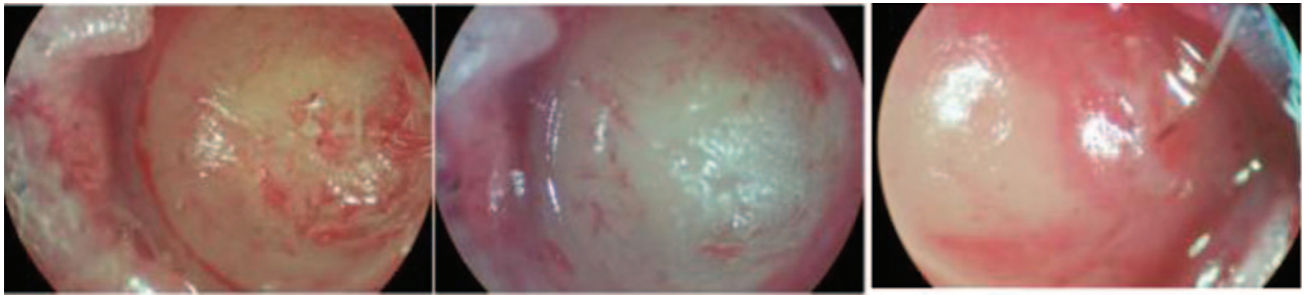


FIGURE 5. Representative color photographs of mouse corneas 1 week after injury and 9 days after injection with the empty pCMV vector (*left*), pCMV.Flt23K (*middle*), or pCMV.Flt24K (*right*). Zones of inhibition of neovascularization were visible in corneas injected with plasmids expressing Flt23K or Flt24K.

wash buffer, 100 μ L of VEGF conjugate was added, and the samples were again incubated for 2 hours at RT. Samples were washed five times, 100 μ L substrate buffer was added, the samples were incubated for 30 minutes at RT, the reaction was stopped, and the absorption was measured with an ELISA reader (Emax; Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA) at 450 nm with λ correction at 570 nm. All measurements were performed in duplicate. The lower limit of ELISA was 3.0 pg/mL. The tissue sample concentration was calculated from the standard curve and corrected for total protein.

Leukocyte Counts

Two days after corneal injury, corneas were embedded in optimal cutting temperature compound, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and cut into 7- μ m-thick sections. After fixation with ice-cold acetone and blocking with normal goat serum, sections were stained with monoclonal rat anti-mouse CD45 (leukocyte common antigen; BD PharMingen), followed by 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (DABE)-conjugated anti-rat IgG. Cells were visualized by light microscopy and counted in a masked fashion at $\times 40$. Eight consecutive serial sections were studied.

Western Blot

Corneal cell and matrix was harvested and placed in 150 μ L RIPA buffer (Tris-HCl, NaCl, NP-40, Na-deoxycholate, and protease inhibitors). Immediately afterward, tissue samples were sonicated on ice four times at 15-second intervals, each at level-7 intensity. After centrifugation, samples were loaded onto a 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gel, transferred, and probed for VEGF protein. Membranes were blocked for 1 hour at room temperature with 5% milk in PBST, followed by overnight incubation at 4°C in a concentration of 1:1000 VEGF primary antibody (BD PharMingen), which detects unbound VEGF. The appropriate secondary antibody concentration of 1:5000 (BD PharMingen) was

used to incubate the membrane for 2 hours at RT, after which the membrane was washed in PBST and developed on film using a chemiluminescence kit (ECL; Pierce, Rockford, IL).

Statistics

Data analysis was performed on computer (Excel; Microsoft, Redmond, WA; and SPSS for Windows; SPSS Science, Chicago, IL). Statistical significance was assessed with Student's *t*-test. Data are expressed as the mean \pm SEM.

RESULTS

Plasmid Synthesis

CDNA inserts of Flt23K and Flt24K were generated and verified to be of the predicted size (Fig. 2). Sequencing verified proper sequence (data not shown).

Flt23K and Flt24K Sequestered VEGF Intracellularly, and Flt23K Suppressed Hypoxia-Induced VEGF Upregulation in Corneal Epithelial Cells

Western blot analysis showed that cells transfected with Flt23K and Flt24K lost the free VEGF band (Fig. 3). Baseline levels in culture medium of control cells were 405.0 ± 120.1 pg/ μ g of total protein. There was no significant difference in baseline VEGF expression among the different groups ($P > 0.05$ for all). After 56 hours of hypoxia, VEGF concentration was 2405.3 ± 346.6 pg/ μ g of total protein in untransfected cells, 2196.7 ± 288.4 pg/ μ g in cells transfected with empty pCMV vector, 1618.8 ± 89.5 pg/ μ g in cells transfected with pCMV.Flt23K

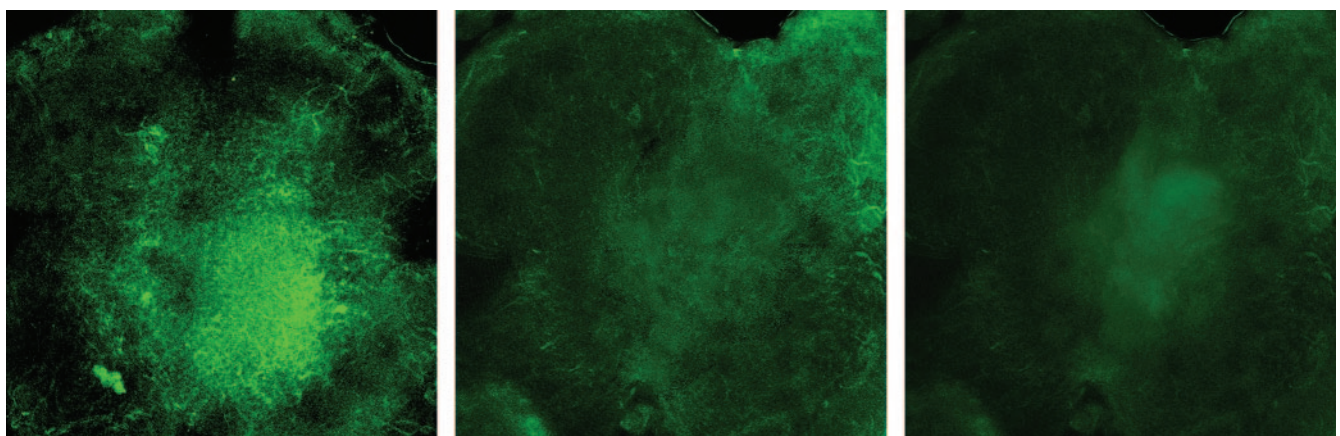


FIGURE 6. Representative micrographs of corneal flatmounts of mouse eyes 1 week after injury and 9 days after injection with the empty pCMV vector (*left*), pCMV.Flt23K (*middle*), or pCMV.Flt24K (*right*). Stained with FITC-coupled monoclonal murine anti-CD31 antibody. Magnification, $\times 40$.

($P = 0.03$), and 2037.8 ± 515.0 pg/ μ g in cells transfected with pCMV.Flt24K ($P = 0.665$; Fig. 3).

Effect of Flt23K and Flt24K on Injury-Induced Corneal VEGF Expression, Leukocyte Infiltration, and Neovascularization

Mice were injected with PBS, pCMV, pCMV.Flt23K, or pCMV.Flt24K and subjected to injury 2 days later. Corneas were harvested to determine VEGF level or count leukocytes 2 days after injury or for imaging of corneal vessels 1 week after injury. Corneal VEGF concentration was 1595.8 ± 102.9 pg/ μ g of total protein in mice injected with PBS, 1518.6 ± 65.8 pg/ μ g in mice injected with the empty pCMV vector, 952.2 ± 186.0 pg/ μ g in mice injected with pCMV.Flt23K ($P = 0.009$), and 1119.5 ± 152.1 pg/ μ g in mice injected with pCMV.Flt24K ($P = 0.042$; Fig. 4). Leukocyte counts per section were 288.0 ± 26.9 in mice injected with PBS, 280.0 ± 27.2 in mice injected with the pCMV vector, 148.6 ± 27.0 in mice injected with pCMV.Flt23K ($P < 0.001$), and 216.5 ± 27.4 in mice injected with pCMV.Flt24K ($P < 0.001$; Fig. 4). The mean percentage \pm SEM of corneal neovascularization 7 days after corneal injury was $57.7\% \pm 6.9\%$ in mice injected with PBS, $58.7\% \pm 7.7\%$ in mice injected with empty pCMV ($P > 0.05$), $19.5\% \pm 6.4\%$ in mice injected with pCMV.Flt23K ($P = 0.001$), and $30.3\% \pm 7.4\%$ in mice injected with pCMV.Flt24K ($P = 0.015$). Representative photographs are shown in Figures 5 and 6.

DISCUSSION

This study demonstrated that intracellular receptors consisting of the VEGF binding domains of Flt-1 combined with the ER retention signal KDEL can decrease hypoxia-induced VEGF expression in vitro and markedly inhibit injury-induced VEGF expression, leukocyte infiltration, and corneal neovascularization in vivo. We found that the presence of free VEGF, as detected by Western blot within hypoxic cells, was suppressed by both intracellular receptors, whereas secretion of VEGF as detected by ELISA was suppressed by Flt23K. Flt23K and Flt24K were able to inhibit corneal neovascularization by 66.8% and 49.5%, respectively.

It is unclear why the larger intracellular receptor, Flt24K, which consisted of domains 2, 3, and 4 of VEGF receptor 1 coupled with KDEL, was not as effective in suppressing hypoxia-induced VEGF upregulation in vitro, injury-induced corneal VEGF expression in vivo, or leukocyte infiltration in vivo and hence was not as effective in suppressing corneal angiogenesis. It is possible that its particular protein configuration impaired its binding to VEGF relative to Flt23K.

To our knowledge, this is the first demonstration of the utility of complexing receptor subunits with KDEL. Previous studies have relied on complexing KDEL with cytokines to generate "intracellular cytokines."³⁷⁻⁴¹ By demonstrating the utility of targeting VEGF with ER-specific retention signals, the results in this study indicated that the "intracellular" approach can cause significant downregulation in the secretion of VEGF from human corneal epithelial cells and in corneal tissue after injury. In vivo experimentation also showed that neovascularization as a result of corneal insult can in fact be significantly diminished. Thus, possible therapeutic regimens for corneal neovascularization can be based on the utilization of Flt-1 intracellular receptors for the intracellular sequestration of VEGF.

We believe the intracellular receptor approach, which is highly efficient and specific, may be superior to current molecular interventions such as antibodies or aptamers, as it targets intracellular mechanisms and thus can prevent intracellular and extracellular effects of the genes of interest. In conclusion, intracellular receptors may also be significantly more effective than alter-

native gene-silencing approaches and show great promise as an investigational and therapeutic tool. Future studies should determine whether this approach can reduce corneal neovascularization or be used to curtail angiogenesis in other disorders.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Elizabeth Macnamara and Tushar Suthar for technical assistance and support, Brian Brockway for the medical illustrations, Paula Jackson and Brenda Sheppard for administrative support, and Ambati Rao and Gregory Liou for providing fruitful insights and guidance.

References

- Epstein RJ, Stulting RD, Hendricks RL, et al. Corneal neovascularization. *Cornea*. 1987;6:250-257.
- Amano S, Rohan R, Kuroki M, et al. Requirement for VEGF in wound- and inflammation-induced neovascularization. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 1998;39:18-22.
- Carmeliet P, Collen D. Role of vascular endothelial growth factor and vascular endothelial growth factor receptors in vascular development. *Curr Top Microbiol Immunol*. 1999;237:133-158.
- Dvorak HF. Vascular permeability factor/vascular endothelial growth factor and the significance of microvascular hyperpermeability in angiogenesis. *Curr Top Microbiol Immunol*. 1999;237:97-132.
- Alon T, Hemo I, Itin A, et al. Vascular endothelial growth factor acts as a survival factor for newly formed retinal vessels and has implications for retinopathy of prematurity. *Nat Med*. 1995;1:1024-1028.
- Kong HL, Hecht D, Song W, et al. Regional suppression of tumor growth by secreted flt-1. *Hum Gene Ther*. 1998;9:823-833.
- Abu-Jawdeh GM, Faix JD, Niloff J, et al. Strong expression of VEGF in ovarian neoplasms. *Lab Invest*. 1996;74:1105-1115.
- Ambati J, Chalam KV, Chawla DK, et al. Elevated GABA, glutamate, and VEGF in vitreous of patients with PDR. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 1997;115:1161-1166.
- Boocock CA, Charnock-Jones DS, Sharkey A, et al. Expression of VEGF in ovarian carcinoma. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 1995;87:506-516.
- Doldi N, Bassan M, Gulisano M, et al. VEGF mRNA in human ovarian and endometrial cancer. *Gynecol Endocrinol*. 1996;10:375-382.
- Pierce EA, Avery RL, Foley ED, et al. VEGF expression in a mouse model of retinal neovascularization. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1995;92:905-909.
- Miller JW, Adamis AP, Shima DT, et al. VEGF is temporally and spatially correlated with ocular angiogenesis in a primate model. *Am J Pathol*. 1994;145:574-584.
- Neufeld G, Cohen T, Gengrinovitch S, et al. VEGF and its receptors. *FASEB J*. 1999;13:9-22.
- Millauer B, Witzmann-Voos S, Schnurch H, et al. High affinity VEGF binding and developmental expression suggest FLK-1 as a major regulator of vasculogenesis and angiogenesis. *Cell*. 1993;72:835-846.
- Waltenberger J, Claesson-Welsh L, Siegbahn A, et al. Different signal transduction properties of KDR and FLT. *J Biol Chem*. 1994;269:26988-26995.
- Shibuya M. Structure and dual function of vascular endothelial growth factor receptor-1 (Flt-1). *Int J Biochem Cell Biol*. 2001;33:409-420.
- Wiesmann C, Fuh G, Christinger HW, et al. Crystal structure at 1.7 angstroms resolution of VEGF in complex with domain 2 of the Flt-1 receptor. *Cell*. 1997;91:695-704.
- Barleon B, Totzke F, Herzog C, et al. Mapping for the sites of ligand binding and receptor dimerization at the extracellular domain of the vascular endothelial growth factor Flt-1. *J Biol Chem*. 1997;272:10382-10388.
- Kim KJ, Li B, Winer J, et al. Inhibition of VEGF-induced angiogenesis suppresses tumor growth in vivo. *Nature*. 1993;362:841-844.

20. Yuan F, Chen Y, Dellian M, et al. Time-dependent vascular regression and permeability changes in established human tumor xenografts induced by anti-VEGF antibody. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1996;93:14765-14770.
21. Lin P, Sankar S, Shan S, et al. Inhibition of tumor growth by targeting tumor endothelium using a soluble VEGF receptor. *Cell Growth Differ*. 1998;9:49-58.
22. Hasan J, Jayson GC. VEGF antagonists. *Expert Opin Biol Ther*. 2001;1:703-718.
23. Robinson GS, Pierce EA, Rook SL, et al. Oligonucleotides inhibit retinal neovascularization in a murine model of proliferative retinopathy. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1996;93:4851-4856.
24. Aiello LP, Pierce EA, Foley EA, et al. Suppression of retinal neovascularization in vivo by inhibition of VEGF using soluble VEGF-receptor chimeric proteins. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1995;92:10457-10461.
25. Honda M, Sakamoto T, Ishibashi T, et al. Experimental subretinal neovascularization is inhibited by sFLT. *Gene Ther*. 2000;7:978-985.
26. Lai YKY, Sjen WY, Brankov M, et al. Potential long-term inhibition of ocular neovascularization by recombinant AAV-mediated gene therapy. *Gene Ther*. 2002;2002:804-813.
27. Lee YH, Tokunaga T, Oshika Y, et al. Cell-retained isoforms of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) are correlated with poor prognosis in osteosarcoma. *Eur J Cancer*. 1999;35:1089-1093.
28. Masood R, Cai J, Zheng T, et al. VEGF is an autocrine growth factor for VEGF receptor-positive human tumors. *Blood*. 2001;98:1904-1913.
29. Shen BQ, Lee DY, Gerber HP, et al. Homologous upregulation of VEGFR-2 by VEGF. *J Biol Chem*. 1998;273:29979-29985.
30. Shih IM, Herlyn M. Autocrine and paracrine roles for growth factors in melanoma. *In Vivo*. 1994;8:113-123.
31. Bellamy WT, Richter L, Sirjani D, et al. VEGF is an autocrine promoter of abnormal localized immature myeloid precursors and leukemia progenitor formation in myelodysplasia. *Blood*. 2001;97:1427-1434.
32. Casella I, Feccia T, Chelucci C, et al. Autocrine-paracrine VEGF loops potentiate the maturation of megakaryocytic precursors through Flt1 receptor. *Blood*. 2003;101:1316-1323.
33. Fiedler W, Graeven U, Ergun S, et al. VEGF in human AML. *Blood*. 1997;89:1870-1875.
34. Straume O, Akslen LA. Expression of VEGF, its receptors and TSP-1 related to microvessel density and patient outcome in vertical growth phase melanomas. *Am J Pathol*. 2001;159:223-235.
35. Liu W, Ellis WM. Regulation of KDR by a soluble factor in confluent endothelial cells. *Pathobiology*. 1998;66:247-252.
36. Gerber HP, Mallk AK, Solar GP, et al. VEGF regulates haematopoietic stem cell survival by an internal autocrine loop mechanism. *Nature*. 2002;417:954-958.
37. Pelham HR. The retention signal for soluble proteins of the endoplasmic reticulum. *Trends Biochem Sci*. 1990;15:483-486.
38. Chen J, Bai X, Yang A, et al. Inactivation of chemokine co-receptor CXCR-4 by a novel intrakine strategy. *Nat Med*. 1997;3:1110-1116.
39. Kreitman RJ, Puri RK, Pastan I. Increased antitumor activity of a circularly permuted interleukin 4-toxin in mice with interleukin 4 receptor-bearing human cancer. *Cancer Res*. 1995;55:3357-3363.
40. Luis Abad J, Gonzalez MA, del Real G, et al. Novel interfering bifunctional molecules against the CCR5 coreceptor are efficient inhibitors of HIV-1 infection. *Mol Ther*. 2003;8:475-484.
41. Steinberger P, Andris-Widhopf J, Buhler B, et al. Functional deletion of CCR5 by intracellular immunization produces cells refractory to CCR5-dependent HIV-1 infection and cell fusion. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*. 2000;97:805-810.
42. Usui T, Ishida S, Yamashiro K, et al. VEGF 164(165) as the pathological isoform: differential leukocyte responses. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2004;45:368-374.
43. Gan L, Fagerholm P. Leukocytes in early events of corneal neovascularization. *Cornea*. 2001;20:96-99.
44. Becker MD, Kruse FE, Azzam L, et al. In vivo significance of ICAM-1 dependent leukocyte adhesion in early corneal angiogenesis. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 1999;40:612-618.
45. Namiki A, Brogi E, Kearney M, et al. Hypoxia induces VEGF in cultured human endothelial cells. *J Biol Chem*. 1995;270:31189-31195.
46. Nomura M, Yamagishi S, Harada S, et al. Possible participation of autocrine and paracrine VEGF in hypoxia-induced proliferation of endothelial cells and pericytes. *J Biol Chem*. 1995;270:28316-28324.
47. Ambati BK, Jousseaume AM, Anand A, et al. Angiostatin inhibits and regresses corneal neovascularization. *Arch Ophthalmol*. 2002;120:1063-1068.
48. Ambati BK, Anand A, Jousseaume AM, et al. Sustained inhibition of corneal neovascularization by genetic ablation of CCR5. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2003;44:590-593.
49. Ambati BK, Jousseaume AM, Kuziel WA, et al. Inhibition of corneal neovascularization by genetic ablation of CCR2. *Cornea*. 2003;22:465-467.
50. Stechschulte SU, Jousseaume AM, von Recum HA, et al. Rapid ocular angiogenic control via naked DNA delivery to cornea. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2001;42:1975-1979.
51. Proia AD, Chandler DB, Haynes WL, et al. Quantitation of corneal neovascularization using computerized image analysis. *Lab Invest*. 1988;58:473-479.