

PREFACE

The purpose of *Tumor Targeting in Cancer Therapy* is to describe both experimental and clinical applications of antibodies for targeting tumors. Drug targeting has gone a long way since the initial concept of “magic bullets” was developed by Paul Ehrlich at the beginning of the 20th century.

Twenty-five years after their discovery and after many years of failure to bring them to the bedside for therapeutic uses, monoclonal antibodies are now in a renaissance phase, both clinically and commercially.

Monoclonal antibodies are theoretically ideal for the therapeutic area with all the required properties such as an extreme specificity and binding affinity that could be adjusted as needed, low cost commercial production, and a potential to be tailored to specific needs such as they could be made to fix, complement, be monomers, dimers, to be toxic or nontoxic; they could also be made to fix the same antigen on both arms of the antibody or different ones as needed. They have limitless applications in the therapeutic area.

When Ehrlich proposed the concept of magic bullets for the treatment of cancer, he probably had in mind drug targeting with polyclonal antibodies, but with the development of other fields in cancer therapy and in biotechnology, the concept has now been applied to radioimmunotherapy, radioimmunodetection, therapy with cytotoxic antibodies, immunotoxins, enzyme-prodrug immunotherapy, immunotherapeutics with fusion proteins, and a whole range of applications that are discussed in *Tumor Targeting in Cancer Therapy*.

Presently, more than 15% of all drugs in development are derived from the monoclonal antibody technology. The drug industry has entered a new era, and products derived from biotechnology, and more specifically antibodies, are now applied to heart disease, cancer, and infectious diseases.

The immunogenicity of monoclonal antibodies for humans, which was for a long time a stumbling block, and the short half-life in circulation are now better understood and controlled by various strategies such as chimerization, phage display technology, and humanization. These technologies have also permitted the affinity of monoclonal antibodies to be increased to the picomolar range. It must be remembered, however, that for cancer therapy the high affinity antibody is not always the best candidate.

Many pharmaceutical companies have built on these technologies, and the number of clinical trials with monoclonal antibodies is still increasing.

Tumor Targeting in Cancer Therapy is intended for scientists, clinicians, and pharmaceutical investigators in cancer immunology and cancer therapeutics. It covers the various aspects of targeted cancer therapy, from fundamentals to biodistribution and clinical applications. The contributors come from academic institutions, government, the drug industry, and the biotechnology industry.

Each chapter covers a specific aspect of targeting without too many technical details. *Tumor Targeting in Cancer Therapy* is not an accumulation of scientific papers on the subject, but instead offers state-of-the-art reviews on each topic.

For graduate students and for new scientists in the field, the first chapter gives a complete review on the subject. It also gives the necessary information to be able to evaluate technologies available to start new projects, and for teaching cancer therapeutics and immunology.

It was a pleasure to edit this book and I thank all the authors for their collaboration. I also learned as an editor new reasons for not respecting the deadline. Many that I had never used before. I thank you for writing these exceptional scientific papers and I wish all authors and readers good luck in their research.

Michel Pagé, PhD

2

Clinical Applications of Targeted Therapeutics

Tarunendu Ghose

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION
LYMPHOMAS, LEUKEMIAS, AND PLASMA-CELL MALIGNANCIES
SOLID TUMORS
BREAST CANCER
COLORECTAL CANCER
GENITO-URINARY CANCERS
OVARIAN CANCER
CANCERS OF THE LUNG
MELANOMA
TUMORS OF THE CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM
REFERENCES

1. INTRODUCTION

The acceptance of monoclonal antibody (MAb)-based therapies in the treatment of human cancer has been slow but many of the obstacles identified by the initial trials have now been overcome and objective tumor regression has been obtained in lymphomas, several types of leukemias, breast cancer, colon cancer, and melanomas (1–3). The tumor-associated antigens (TAAs) or other molecules that have been targeted by MAbs for the treatment of human cancer have been listed by Scott and Welt (2). Most impressive results have been obtained using MAbs against the idiotype of B cells, CD20 on malignant B cells, CD33 on leukemic blast cells, and Her2/neu on breast-cancer cells.

2. LYMPHOMAS, LEUKEMIAS, AND PLASMA-CELL MALIGNANCIES

Hematological malignancies constitute about 9% of all malignancies in the USA (4). Malignant lymphomas are one of the 10 most frequent cancers worldwide with about a 7% increase in their prevalence per year (5). Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (NHL) is a heterogeneous group of lymphomas that arises from the lymphocytes in spleen, thymus, and lymph nodes. NHLs are the most common hematopoietic neoplasms account-

From: *Cancer Drug Discovery and Development: Tumor Targeting in Cancer Therapy*
Edited by: M. Pagé © Humana Press Inc., Totowa, NJ

ing for approx 4% of all cancer diagnoses. Approximately 75% of NHLs arise from B cells, 20% from T cells, 4% from null cells, and 1% from histiocytes (6). Low-grade and follicular lymphomas are the most common B-cell malignancies in the Western hemisphere. They usually have an indolent course. Even though there has been impressive progress in the clinical management of hematological malignancies, cure rate is still dismal (7). For example, in high-grade NHLs, in spite of the high rate of initial response to combination chemotherapy, 50–70% of patients relapse and die of the disease. In patients with low-grade B-cell NHL, only a small proportion of patients with limited disease can be saved. Thus, there is a need to develop innovative methods of treatment for improving the survival and the quality of life of these patients. The use of MAbs is one of the several new approaches that are now being used in the clinic to further improve the results of treatment of cancers of the hemopoetic system.

2.1. Non-Hodgkin's B-Cell Lymphomas (B-Cell NHL)

2.1.1. UNCONJUGATED MAbs

2.1.1.1. Anti-Id Antibodies. The first successful use of a MAb in the treatment of cancer was by Miller et al. when they treated a B-cell lymphoma patient with an anti-Id MAb (8). The results of the treatment of 52 B-cell NHL patients with anti-id MAbs have been summarized by Levy (9). A majority of patients had significant tumor regression including complete regression lasting 10 years or longer. Adding interferon alpha (IFN- α) (10) or chlorambucil (11) to anti-id antibodies did neither add to the antitumor effect of antibodies alone nor did they affect the emergence of clones that did not react with the therapeutic antibody. The clinical use of anti-id MAbs have several limitations, i.e., difficulty in the production of patient-specific MAbs; the neutralization of anti-Id antibodies by circulating Id-containing products of the neoplastic clones, and the selection of malignant B-cell clones that express Id-variants that do not bind the MAb. To overcome the problem of Id-variants, attempts have been made to target different epitopes of the idiotype with a second or third anti-Id MAb (10). To avoid the problems associated with the production of patient-specific anti-Id MAbs, TAAs, which are expressed by more than one patient's tumor cells, are now favored for therapeutic targeting. These more generic NHL B cell-associated TAAs include the lineage-specific antigens CD20, CD19, CD10, CD5, or Lym1. Anti-CD20 MAbs have produced the most encouraging results in the treatment of B-cell lymphomas. The chimeric anti-CD20 MAb, IDEC-C2B8 (Rituximab), is currently the MAb of choice for the treatment of non-Hodgkin's B-cell lymphomas.

The CD20 antigen is a 297-amino acid phosphoprotein expressed only by cells of B-lymphocyte lineage but not by pro-B cells and minimally by plasma cells. It is expressed on normal mature B cells and in high density ($>100,000$ mol/cell) on all malignant B cells in more than 90% of B-cell lymphomas such as follicular, mantle-cell, and prolymphocytic lymphomas; also in some large-cell NHLs and hairy-cell leukemias (12–14). CD20 is also expressed in lower density on malignant B cells of chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL) and small lymphocytic lymphoma (12). The function and the natural ligand of CD20 are not known. CD20 is neither secreted nor is it shed or substantially internalized after binding to anti-CD20 MAbs (15). Rituximab is a high-affinity humanized anti-CD20 MAb. In initial trials, rituximab was used as a single agent in low-grade NHL. More recent trials have included patients with aggressive NHLs, mantle-cell lymphoma, post-transplantation lymphomas, and

other types of NHLs in previously untreated as well as relapsed patients. Results have been presented and reviewed by a number of authors (9,12,16,17–26). Best results were obtained in follicular lymphoma patients with low tumor burden (18,19). Response rate varied from 54–73%. In one study (20), 10/49 patients had complete molecularly confirmed remission. In patients with refractory (21) or bulky disease (22), overall response rates were 57% (14% complete response [CR]; 43% partial response [PR]) in refractory disease and 43% in bulky disease. Single-agent rituximab had moderate effect in mantle-cell lymphoma and immunocytoma but was much less effective in small lymphocytic lymphoma (23,24). Rituximab induced complete remission in 2/3 patients with post-transplant lymphoproliferative disease (25) and 3/3 patients with post-transplant Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) lymphoma (26). Combining rituxan with the standard CHOP (cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, vincristine, and prednisone) regimen in the treatment of aggressive B-cell lymphomas, neither added to the toxicity of CHOP nor improved the results of CHOP therapy alone (27). Adding IFN- α to rituximab induced 8% CR and 50% PR in a group of 26 follicular lymphoma patients (28). In a group of seven intermediate-grade NHL patients who had progressive disease after chemotherapy and peripheral stem-cell transplantation, rituximab induced 2 CR and 1 PR at the 204th median day of follow-up (29). Comparison between different treatment groups is difficult because the trial groups are small and the criteria for inclusion in these trials were different. The follow-up periods in these studies are relatively short but still it appears that the remissions induced by anti-CD20 MAbs are temporary. In one study (19) regressions had a median duration of ~13 mo but subsequent remissions tended to last longer.

2.1.1.2. Anti-CD52 MAbs (CAMPATH-1 MAbs). CD52 is a nonmodulating, 21 kD-28kD antigen consisting of a 12 amino acid residue linked to the cell membrane by a glycosylphosphatidylinositol anchor. Approximately 500,000 copies of CD52 are expressed on mature T and B lymphocytes and monocytes but not on their stem cells. Anti-CD52 MAbs lyse CD52-expressing cells by both ADCC and C'-mediated pathways (30,31). A Phase I/II trial of CAMPATH-1H was abandoned because of toxicity and lack of efficacy of the MAb (32).

Finally, the Id-containing monoclonal products B-cell lymphomas and leukemias have been used as tumor-specific vaccines to induce antitumor immune response. About 50% of the vaccinated patients produced ant-Id antibody. The responders had significant prolongation of remission and survival (9,33).

2.1.2. RADIOIMMUNOTHERAPY (RIT) OF B-CELL NHL

Although the results obtained with unconjugated rituximab in the treatment of B-cell NHL have been very promising, limitations of unconjugated MAbs are now quite obvious. For example, 40–50% low-grade lymphomas and 60–70% aggressive lymphomas do not respond to rituximab and only 5–10% remissions are complete and lasting. RIT is one method for increasing the potency of rituximab and other B-cell antibodies because it adds another mechanism of tumor cell kill to the cytotoxic mechanisms of unconjugated MAbs. Furthermore most hematological malignancies are very radiosensitive and the “cross fire” effect of beta particles emitted by the radioisotopes used for RIT can eliminate nearby antigen-negative malignant cells.

The antigens targeted for the RIT of B-cell NHLs include CD19, CD20, CD22 (34,35), CD37 (36,37), Id-IG (38), and a MHC class II allele HLA-DR 10 cell surface antigen (39). CD 20 is now the target antigen of choice.

The radionuclides that have been used in the RIT of B-cell NHLs are ^{131}I , ^{90}Y (with ^{111}In for immunoscintigraphic evaluation) (38,40,41) and ^{67}Cu (42). Because of its availability, low cost, and ease of conjugation chemistry, ^{131}I has been used more often than ^{90}Y despite the latter's more energetic (and therefore therapeutically more effective) beta emissions and a more suitable physical $t_{1/2}$.

Results of RIT of B-cell lymphomas have been recently summarized by Press (43), DeNardo et al. (44), Buske et al. (16), Wilder et al. (45), and Davis and Knox (46). In brief, two strategies have been adopted in the RIT of B-cell NHLs. In the first strategy, myeloablative doses are delivered along with peripheral-blood stem-cell transplantation (43,47). However the second or lower nonmyeloablative fractionated treatment strategy (48) has produced almost equally good results. Highest response rates (including complete response) and longest remissions have been obtained with anti-CD20 MAbs. As stated, unconjugated anti-CD20 MAbs induced 60% remissions (including 5–10% CR) in relapsed follicular lymphoma, but ^{131}I or ^{90}Y labeled anti-CD20 MAbs induced 71–80% remissions (including 34–40% CR) at nonmyeloablative doses and 85–90% remissions (including 75–80% CR) at myeloablative dose regime (43). There were significantly more responders in patients with low-grade or transformed NHL than in patients with *de novo* intermediate-grade NHL (48). The median progression-free survival was 12 mo for all responders and 20.3 mo for those with PR (48). Reversible myelotoxicity has been the main toxicity especially at higher doses. Non-hematological toxicities include thyroid dysfunction and usually mild (Grade 1) chill, fever, nausea, muscle pain, etc., which are mostly related to the carrier MAb.

2.1.2.1. Combination of RIT and Chemotherapy in B-Cell NHL. To further improve the response rates and durations of response achieved by RIT in the treatment of NHL, Press and his colleagues demonstrated that *in vitro* there was marked synergism between ^{131}I -labeled anti-CD20 MAb and the nucleoside analogues cytarabine or flutabine; moderate synergism with a camptothecin analogue, etoposide, or doxorubicin; and no synergism with a cyclophosphamide metabolite, cisplatin, or 5FU (49). A Phase I/II trial with myeloablative doses of ^{131}I linked anti-CD20 MAb, followed by the administration of etoposide and cyclophosphamide and then autologous stem-cell transplantation indicated some improvement in overall survival and progression-free survival (50).

2.1.3. IMMUNOTOXIN (IT) THERAPY OF B-CELL NHL

The recent results of IT therapy of B-cell lymphomas have been summarized by Buske (16), Kreitman (51), Grossbard et al (52). The toxin components in most of the ITs used in clinical trials have been deglycosylated ricin A chain or ricin A chain with blocked galactose-binding sites. The antigens that have been most often targeted are CD19 (52,53), CD22 (53), and interleukin (IL)-2R (or CD25). CD 25 has been targeted by anti-CD25 (or anti-Tac) MAbs (54) or its natural ligand, IL-2 (55). CD22 targeting has yielded highest response rates including long-lasting, complete remissions (56,57). This may be due to better internalization and intracellular processing of ITs (51).

These clinical trials have demonstrated potent antitumor activity of ITs, but the therapeutic efficacy of ITs has been severely limited by their unacceptable toxicity, high immunogenicity (of both antibody and toxin moieties), rapid clearance from the circulation, and poor penetration into tumor masses. To avoid the problems of immunogenicity and penetration into solid tumors, ITs have been administered as continuous

infusions at frequent intervals to NHL patients in complete remission (52). Twenty-six of 31 patients given an anti-CD 19-bR IT remained in CR after a median follow up of 54.5 mo. However 4-yr follow-up data showed increasing relapse. Toxicity was reversible. Twenty-three of 31 patients had developed antibody against one or both components of the IT.

Combination therapy with dgA-linked anti-CD19 and anti-CD22 MAbs (Combotox) had unpredictable clinical results, including two deaths probably related to the ITs (53). IT therapy in patients with prior extensive radiotherapy also had unacceptable side effects (58).

2.1.4. BISPECIFIC ANTIBODIES IN B-CELL NHL

Recently CD3 × CD19 bispecific MAb constructs have been used, with (59) and without (60) co-administration of anti-CD28 MAb for costimulation, to eliminate residual tumor cells after cytotoxic therapy of NHL. In a Phase I trial, 10 patients with advanced low-grade B-cell NHL were given locoregional injection of CD3 × CD19 bispecific MAb together with anti-CD28 MAbs (59). There was evidence of upregulation of T-cell activity markers by the MAbs and evidence of lymphoma-specific T-cell recruitment in some patients. There were mild to moderate toxicities after the injection of these preparations and 5/10 patients developed HAMA after a single injection (61).

2.2. Peripheral T-Cell Lymphomas (PTCLs) Including Mycosis Fungoides

PTCLs include a number of categories of T-cell lymphomas, which, together, constitute less than 15% of all NHLs in adults (62). In contrast to B-cell NHLs, the pattern of expression T cell-marker antigens is very variable and most subset of PTCLs have their characteristic array of marker expression. Most PTCLs express CD2, CD3, and CD4 and lose one or more of the mature T-cell markers such as CD5 and CD7. A subset of PTCLs (i.e., the angioimmunoblastic T-cell lymphoma) express NK cell markers, e.g., CD2, CD56, CD45RO, and CD43, and lack CD3 and TCR (63).

2.2.1. UNCONJUGATED MAbs IN PTCLs

The chimeric anti-CD4 MAb, cMT412, has been effective against the skin lesions of T-cell cutaneous lymphoma (64). CD5 antigen, expressed by neoplastic T cells of mycosis fungoides, has been targeted by several MAbs including T101 and Leu-1. Unconjugated T101 and Leu-1 MAbs could induce transient response in about 50% of mycosis fungoides patients (65).

2.2.2. RADIOIMMUNOTHERAPY (RIT) OF PTCLs

The results of RIT of T-cell lymphomas and leukemias show an overall response in about 60% of patients but the number of treated patients was small and myeloablative doses were not used (66,67). ¹³¹I and ⁹⁰Y were the radionuclides of choice for these studies. The targeted antigens were CD5 (MAb T-101), CD25 (anti-Tac MAb), and CD2T (expressed by the transformed T cells in human T-cell lymphotropic virus type 1 malignancy).

2.2.3. IMMUNOTOXIN (IT) THERAPY IN PTCLs

Only a very small number of IT therapy trials have been carried out in PTCLs (67). In an early trial, an anti-CD5 MAb-ricin A chain conjugate induced PR in 4/10

patients. Complications were vascular leak syndrome (VLS) and production of blocking anti-IT antibodies in 7/10 patients (68). More recently, an anti-CD7 MAb)-dgRA IT induced PRs in 2/11 T-cell lymphoma patients (69). Another conjugate of dgRA with an anti-CD7 MAb, induced PR in 2/11 relapsed T-cell lymphoma patients (70). For IT therapy of cutaneous and other T-cell lymphomas, T-cell leukemias, and Hodgkin's disease, the target antigens of choice were CD6, CD7, IL-2R, and CD25 (51). Response rates (including a few CRs) varied between 10 and 25%. Recently PR was observed in 1/1 cutaneous T-cell lymphoma patient given an anti-T ac(Fv)-PE38 IT (54). The same IT induced PR in 3/4 hairy-cell leukemia and 1/2 adult T-cell leukemia patients. A conjugate of deglycosylated RA with an anti-CD7 MAb, induced PR in 2/11 relapsed T-cell lymphoma patients.

2.3. Hodgkin's Lymphoma (Hodgkin's Disease)

Approximately 7,500 new cases of Hodgkin's disease (HD) are diagnosed every year in the USA (4). Multiple-agent chemotherapy together with extended-field radiotherapy can now induce remission in ~80% of patients in both early-(71) and advanced-(72) stage diseases. Nevertheless, 30–50% of patients with advanced disease at diagnosis succumb to the disease (72) most probably due to the persistence of a small number residual tumor cells that survive after the first line of treatment (73). The goal of MAb-based therapeutic approaches is the elimination of these residual tumor cells.

The cellular origin of HD is controversial (74). The present consensus presumes the Hodgkin and Reed-Sternberg cells (H/R-S cells) to be the malignant-cell population (75). They constitute >1% of the cellular population inside lesions. H/R-S cells express antigens found on activated and nonactivated B-cells (CD19, CD20, CD22, CD79a, and T-cells (CD3, CD4, CD8, and the T-cell receptor [TCR] B chain) (76). HD is especially suitable for MAb-based therapies because the number of tumor cells in lesions is small and the tumors are well-vascularized. IT-therapy after first-line polychemotherapy and radiation therapy has the theoretical advantage that ITs can kill radio- and drug-resistant tumor cells.

The TAAs considered as targets for MAb-based therapy of HD are CD15(Leu-M1), CD21 (C3d/EBV receptor), CD25 (Tac, IL-2 receptor), CD30(Ki-1), CD45 (T-200), CD71 (transferrin receptor, T9) (75), and CD80(B7-1) (77). Of these, CD25 and CD30 have attracted the most interest. Furthermore, the iron-storage protein, ferritin, is found in high concentration in Hodgkin's lymphoma lesions (78). Antiferritin antibodies have been used to target Hodgkin's lymphomas (79).

2.3.1. UNCONJUGATED MABS IN HD

The anti-CD25 humanized MAb, anti-Tac-H, and the anti-CD30 MAb, Ber-H2, failed to show any significant response despite evidence of localization of the MABs in at least 50% of the patient (75).

2.3.2. RIT IN HD

RIT with polyclonal anti-ferritin antibodies labeled either with ^{131}I or ^{90}Y induced response in 15/37 and 18/29 patients. Response was better at higher doses but toxicity, especially bone-marrow suppression, was severe at these dose levels (77,80). Fractionation of doses did not improve results (79).

2.3.4. IT THERAPY IN HD

IT, using an anti-Tac (Fv)-PE38 could induce PR in 1/11 HD patients (54). An IT composed of an anti-CD25 MAb (RFT5) and dgRA induced PR in 2/17 patients (77). All patients given two or more injections developed anti-IT antibodies. There were mild to moderate toxicity including VLS in 5/18 patients.

2.3.5. BISPECIFIC ANTIBODIES IN HD

The administration of an anti-CD16 (a natural killer [NK] cell-associated antigen) antibody × anti CD30 (a HD-associated antigen) bispecific antibody induced one complete and one partial remission in a group of 15 refractory HD patients (81).

2.4. Leukemias

Leukemias can arise from either myeloid hematopoietic cells (i.e., myeloid or myelogenous leukemias) or from lymphoid precursors (i.e., lymphocytic leukemias). Each category has subcategories based on the differentiation status of the tumor cells and their expression of phenotypic markers. Clinically, each category of leukemias may be either acute or chronic. Not only does the biological behavior of leukemia cells differ between acute and chronic forms of the disease, but they also differ in their expression of TAAs and tumor markers.

Recent progress in the chemotherapy of leukemias has been spectacular. For example, over 95% of children and 80–90% of adults with acute lymphocytic leukemia (ALL) undergo CR after initial therapy. Similar (but somewhat lower) CR rates have been obtained also in myeloid leukemias. However, the overall long-term, disease-free survival in adults is only about 15–30% and there are subgroups of leukemia patients in whom conventional chemotherapy regimens are not effective (82; also *see ref. 83*). There is thus a need to explore and develop novel and more effective therapeutic approaches.

Leukemias are attractive targets for MAb-based therapies because a major proportion of malignant cells in leukemias are free-floating and the relatively large number of lineage-specific and proliferation-related TAAs on their surface are readily accessible to intravascularly administered high molecular-weight therapeutic agents such as MAb-based preparations. Furthermore, the noncirculating leukemia cells reside mostly in well-vascularized tissues such as the bone marrow and spleen and are thus also accessible to MAb-based preparations. However, the rapid binding of administered agents by the circulating tumor cells usually leads to rapid clearance of MAb-based agents so that they can not reach and penetrate into solid organs infiltrated by tumor cells (82). The potential target molecules for MAb-based therapy of leukemias, especially acute leukemias, have been listed by Multani and Flavell (82). They include:

1. CD10 (also known as the common acute lymphoblastic leukemia antigen or CALLA): targeted by MAbs such as J-5;
2. CD5: targeted by MAbs such as Leu1. Leu 1 has been used either alone or in association with MAbs against other T cell-specific antigens.
3. CD25 (IL-2 receptor): targeted by anti-Tac MAb that recognizes the p55 chain of the IL-2 receptor;
4. CD33: targeted by MAbs such as M195; and
5. CD52: targeted by MAbs such as the IgG2b isoform of the CAMPATH-1 family of rat MAbs.

In general, most of the unconjugated MABs could induce rapid but transient decrease in the number of targeted cells in circulation, but there was no sustained response.

2.5. Acute and Chronic Myeloid Leukemias (AML and CML)

AML is the most common variant of acute leukemia in adults, constituting about 80% of adult acute leukemias. CML accounts for ~15% of all patients with leukemia (4). CML is a clonal proliferative disorder of pluripotent hematopoietic progenitor cells with a specific chromosomal abnormality (i.e., reciprocal translocation between the long arms of chromosomes 9 and 22). This translocation creates a new *bcr-abl* fusion gene, the products of which are constitutively activated tyrosine kinases, which, in their part, influence in an unregulated manner, a number of cellular functions including proliferation, differentiation, cell-cell interactions, and apoptosis (84). These tyrosine kinases and other molecules in their signaling pathways offer excellent targets for designing novel therapeutic agents for CML. At present CD33 is the target of choice in myeloid leukemias because CD33 is expressed by myeloid progenitor cells and on AML cells of some patients, but not by the pluripotent stem cell (82).

2.5.1. UNCONJUGATED MABS IN AML AND CML

An early trial with four murine MABs against myeloid differentiation antigens could only elicit transient decrease in the number of circulating leukemia cells without any PR or CR (85). An unconjugated anti-CD 33 MAB, M195, had no antitumor effect in 10 AML patients (86). The humanized M195 MAB could induce CR only in 2/35 patients with refractory or relapsed AML, even though there was persistent saturation of the circulating leukemia cells at least for 4 wk (87). In another trial of HuM195 in acute promyelocytic leukemia, patients, who were in *trans* retinoic acid and/or chemotherapy-induced CR were given HuM195 along with further chemotherapy. Results were inconclusive (88). HuM195 was well tolerated in all the trials. CD44, a glycoprotein, is expressed on blast cells from most AML patients. Several anti-CD44 MABs can induce differentiation in AML blast cells *in vitro*. No clinical trial of anti-CD44 MABs has been reported yet (89,90). p75/AIRM1 is a sialoadhesion family surface molecule that is normally expressed on NK cells and has homology with the myeloid-cell antigen CD33. p75/AIRM1 is also expressed on myelomonocytic-cell precursors and CML cells. Anti-CD33 or anti-p75/AIRM1 MAB could induce marked inhibition of proliferation of CML cells *in vitro* (91). No clinical trial of anti-p75/AIRM1 MAB has been reported.

2.5.2. RIT IN AML

2.5.2.1. Radiolabeled Anti-CD33 MAB. ¹³¹I-Conjugate of MAB M195, was given to 25 patients including 16 AML patients and one patient with blast transformation of CML. There was significant eradication of blast cells in the peripheral blood and bone marrow in most patients. Three patients had complete response (92). Recently, Jurcic et al. treated 18 relapsed or refractory AML or chronic myelomonocytic leukemia patients with ²¹³Bi-linked to huM195. Ten patients had reduction of leukemic cells in the peripheral blood and 13 had reduction in the number of blast cells in the marrow (93). Pharmacokinetic and dosimetric studies with this conjugate are in progress (94). Results of biodistribution studies of radiolabeled huM195 demonstrated 1000-fold higher localization of radioactivity in liver, spleen, and bone marrow than in the rest of the body of AML patients (94).

2.5.2.2. Radiolabeled Anti-CD45 MAbs in AML. CD45 is present in relatively large copy numbers on the majority of lymphocytic as well as myeloid leukemias (83). After a biodistribution study and Phase I evaluation of an ^{131}I labeled anti-CD45 MAb (BC8) (95), a phase II trial on the efficacy of ^{131}I -BC8 is currently in progress (83).

2.5.3. ITs IN AML

A ricin-containing IT of an anti-CD33 MAb was found to be too toxic for the continuation of a clinical trial (82).

2.5.4. DRUG-MAB CONJUGATES IN AML

In a Phase I trial of CMA-676 (an immunoconjugate in which a humanized anti-CD33 MAb is linked to calicheamicin gamma 1-1) in 40 patients with refractory or relapsed AML, leukemic cells were eliminated from the blood and bone marrow of 20% of treated patients. Toxicity was primarily hematological but was not dose-limiting (96).

2.6. Acute Lymphocytic Leukemia (ALL)

Despite their common morphologic and immunophenotypic features, there is a striking difference in the outcome of childhood and adult ALL. The outcome rapidly worsens with the age of the patient (4). For example, the cure rate of adult ALL in the last decade has been 30–40%, which is half the cure rate of childhood ALL (83). Approximately 75–85% of ALL are of B-cell origin, displaying CD10(CALLA), CD19(B4), CD20, and IG gene rearrangements. The rest of ALLs are of T-cell origin and express CD3, CD7, and CD52 (83). Some ALL blast cells co-express myeloid markers such as CD13 and CD33. For MAb-based therapies to be effective, the target antigen(s) should be present on at least 30% but preferably 50% of the blast cells.

2.6.1. UNCONJUGATED MAbs IN ALL

CD20 is expressed by >30% of the leukemic cells by the majority of comparatively mature B-cell CLL and by about one-third of B- precursor ALL (83). ALL is thus a good candidate for anti-CD20 MAb therapy. An unconjugated humanized anti-CD52 MAb (CAMPATH-1H) has been effective in T-cell prolymphocytic leukemia. CD 52 is expressed by most lymphoblasts, but by a higher proportion of T-lymphoblasts than B-lymphoblasts. Eleven of 15 patients, given CAMPATH-1H, had a major remission including CR in nine patients. However as is usual with this MAb, treatment resulted in significant toxicity including severe bone-marrow failure in two patients (97). In another trial, Campath-1H induced PR in 1/5 CD52⁺ ALL patients (98). Unconjugated anti-CD25 MAbs have also produced PRs and CRs in a proportion of adult T-cell leukemia patients (99).

2.6.2. RIT IN ALL

A humanized anti-Tac (i.e., CD25) MAb- ^{90}Y conjugate was given to 17 patients suffering from adult T-cell ALL. Eleven patients had sustained PR or CR (100).

2.6.3. RIT + WHOLE-BODY RADIATION + CYCLOPHOSPHAMIDE + HLA-MATCHED BONE-MARROW TRANSPLANTATION

Twenty-five patients with advanced AML and nine with advanced ALL were subjected to the aforementioned regime. Seven of the AML patients were surviving tumor-free 15–89 mo post-bone marrow transplantation. Three of the ALL patients were surviving tumor-free 19–16 mos post-transplantation (101).

2.6.4. IT THERAPY IN ALL

2.6.4.1. CD19-Based ITs. CD19 is associated with the Src family of protein tyrosine kinase (PTK) and is a constituent of the membrane-associated CD19-PTK complex that acts as an endogenous, p-53- and Bcl2-independent regulator of apoptosis (102). CD 19 is expressed in high copy numbers by the leukemic cells of the majority of ALL patients but not by bone-marrow stem cells (102). Seven children and eight adult patients of CD19+ B-cell ALL and one patient of B-cell CLL were treated with a conjugate containing the anti-CD19 MAb, B43, and the PTK inhibitor, Genistein. There were two transient responses and one durable CR. There was considerable toxicity including VLS in two patients. Three of nine patients developed human antimouse immunoglobulin antibody (HAMA) response (103). A conjugate containing the same MAb and pokeweed antiviral protein induced CR in 10/15 and PR in 2/15 relapsed childhood ALL patients. However the patients were simultaneously given a four-drug reinduction chemotherapy regimen (104). A bRA conjugate of the anti-CD19 MAb, B4, had no demonstrable effect in 46 patients with CD19+ ALL (105).

2.7. Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia (CLL)

CLL is characterized by progressive accumulation of monoclonal B lymphocytes developmentally arrested between pre-B cell and mature B cell. CLL constitutes ~30% of all adult leukemias in the Western world (106). CLL cells express pan-B-cell markers such as CD19 and CD20, the activation marker CD23, and the T-cell marker CD5. The malignant B-cell clones in CLL bear scanty amounts of sIg (107). However, the expression of phenotypic markers in some subsets of CLL differs from this general pattern (107). MAb-based therapies of CLL have mostly targeted CD20 and CD52 using rituximab and campath-1H MAbs, respectively.

Even though the introduction of purine analogues such as flutrabine has improved the outcome of CLL, response to other currently available therapies is poor when the disease becomes refractory or does not respond *ab initio* to flutrabine. This underlines the need for developing novel treatments for CLL.

2.7.1. UNCONJUGATED MAbs IN CLL

2.7.1.1. Rituximab. Even though CD20 is expressed by CLL cells of 95% of patients, the density of CD20 expression on CLL cells is usually very low (108). It is therefore not surprising that early studies (109,110) had very low response rates, i.e., from 12–13%, at once a week dose of 375 mg/m² for 4 wk. This could have been due to the difficulty in achieving and maintaining adequate plasma concentration of the MAb (24,111,112). In two subsequent dose-escalation studies, response rate increased to 39% and 45% with subsequent reduction in blood-cell counts and organ involvement with the exception, in most cases, of bone-marrow involvement (113,114). A number of clinical trials with high doses of rituximab and a combination of rituximab and chemotherapeutic agents, especially flutrabine and cyclophosphamide, are in progress (111). The rationale for the combination therapy is based on the observation that rituximab chemosensitizes lymphoma cells (115).

2.7.1.2. Campath-1H. The anti-CD52 MAb campath-1H has demonstrated significant activity against untreated (116) as well as previously treated CLL (117–120). In the largest Phase II trial containing 29 previously treated patients there was 4% CR and 38% PR (119). However, in most patients there was no response in lymph-nodal

lesions. The limiting problem with campath-1H is its severe immunosuppressive effect, leading to susceptibility to infections (111). Reducing the dose and duration of campath-1H administration has reduced toxicity, yielding a PR of 33% in flutrabine refractory CLL (120).

2.7.1.3. Anti-CD25(Tac) MAbs. An anti-Tac MAb induced complete response in 10% of patients. Response lasted from 2 mo to 3 yr. All T cell-specific MAbs induced profound immunosuppression and complications such as pneumocystis pneumonia and Kaposi's sarcoma.

2.7.1.4. ID10 Antigen and HuID 10 MAb. Hu ID 10 MAb binds to an epitope associated with a variant of HLA-DRb chain on the surface of malignant B-lymphocytes. It is expressed on malignant B-lymphocytes of ~50% of CLL and NHL patients. Responses have been noted in a Phase I trial (111,121).

2.7.2. IT THERAPY OF B-CELL CLL

B-cell CLLs have been targeted via CD19 or CD22 by dgA or truncated PE containing ITs. CR was obtained in 1/42 patients (51). Recently, CR was obtained in 1/8 CLL patients after treatment with an anti-Tac (Fv)-PE38 IT (50).

2.8. *Indirect MAb-Therapy of B-Cell Malignancies: Neutralization of Stimulatory Cytokines*

In those B-cell malignancies that are thought to be driven by IL-6 (e.g., aggressive B-cell lymphomas in HIV-positive patients and multiple myeloma), anti-IL-6 MAbs have been successfully used to lower the serum level of IL-6. This mainly alleviated symptoms such as cachexia and fever (122,123).

2.9. *Plasma-Cell Malignancies: Multiple Myeloma (MM), and Waldenstrom's Macroglobulinemia (WM)*

MM and WM are malignant proliferation of plasma cells or B cells accompanied by the presence in the serum and/or urine of monoclonal Ig or Ig fragments. Every year there are ~ 14,000 new cases of MM and ~ 1,500 new cases of WM in the USA, making plasma-cell malignancies the second most common malignancy in that country (124). Even though flutrabine and other purine analogues can induce from 40–80% response after initial therapy and 40–50% response in salvage therapy, eventual chemotherapy fails and patients succumb to the disease (124).

The clonal origin of the malignant cells in MM and WM is uncertain. The clonogenic cells may be plasma cells, B cells, pre-B cells, or all the three (125). However, the potential targets for MAb-based therapy of MM and WM are: The idiotypic Ig of the malignant clone, CD19, CD20, CD38, CD54, CD138, HM1.24, and the MUC1 core protein (125). In both MM and WM malignant clonotypic B cells are found in the circulation (125) and they have to be eradicated for therapy to be effective.

Anti-idiotypic MAbs are not likely to be effective in MM and WM because of the large amounts of free idiotypic proteins in the serum of these patients. Both CD19 and CD20 are B cell-specific antigens that are expressed from early B-cell to mature B-cell stage. Both are only minimally expressed on malignant clones of MM but CD19 is expressed by 75–100% of malignant clones of WM and the expression of CD20 by malignant plasma cells in MM can be enhanced by IFN- γ (125). The usefulness of CD38 is limited because it is also expressed on normal plasma cells, pre-B cells, T

cells, and CD34+ hematopoietic progenitor cells. Even though CD54 (ICAM-1) is strongly expressed on MM plasma cells, its usefulness is also limited because it is also expressed on activated T cells, endothelial cells, epithelial cells, and bone-marrow stromal cells. Furthermore there may be higher than normal levels of soluble ICAM-1 in the serum of MM patients. CD138 (syndecan-1) is another adhesion protein that is strongly expressed on MM cell lines but like ICAM-1, its usefulness is also limited because anti-CD138 MABs also bind to normal plasma cells as well as epithelial and endothelial cells. There is evidence that the MUC1 core protein is selectively expressed by MM plasma cells and B cells. The transmembrane protein, HM1.24 antigen, has been identified on MM plasma cells and myeloma cell lines. Anti-HM1.24 MABs have demonstrated tumor-specific localization and antitumor effect in MM-xenograft models (126). The humanized anti-HM1.24 MAB mediated tumor inhibition via ADCC (127).

2.9.1. UNCONJUGATED MABS IN MM

2.9.1.1. Multiple Myeloma. In a preliminary report, 1 PR was obtained in 18 MM patients treated with unconjugated rituximab (124,125). In another study, in which melphalan and prednisone were added to rituximab, 5/22 patients had a response to rituximab, before the administration of the chemotherapeutic agents (128). There was no significant response in four stage III MM patients given unconjugated rituximab (129).

2.9.1.2. Waldenstrom's Macroglobulinemia. Several preliminary studies indicate that rituximab can induce relatively short-term remissions in WM (*see ref. 125*).

2.9.2. IT THERAPY IN MM

There was no clinical response in 5 MM patients after treatment with a blocked ricin-linked anti-CD19 MAB (130).

2.9.3. RIT FOR EX-VIVO BONE MARROW PURGING IN MM

²¹³Bi-linked anti-syndecan-1 MAB, B-B4 (131), and ¹³¹I-linked anti-MUC1 MAB, MA5 (132) were found to be suitable for the specific elimination of MM cells from bone marrow.

2.10. Hazards and Limitations of Anti-Lymphocyte MABs

2.10.1. ANTI-CD20 MABS

Rituximab has been offered in the market as a nontoxic alternative to chemotherapy (133). Indeed, in most cases the adverse effect profile of rituximab has been very benign. Infusion-related symptom complex, consisting of fever, chill, and rigors, usually occurs within 0.5–2 h of the first infusion in ~50% of patients given rituximab. The symptoms are mostly self-limited but sometimes necessitate temporary interruption of rituximab infusion along with some supportive measures. Subsequent infusions of the MAB are usually well-tolerated. More severe infusion-related adverse reactions like severe bronchospasm and hypotension have been reported in ~2% of patients. HAMA response has been very infrequent probably because of the anti-B-cell activity of the MAB. Furthermore, immunosuppression by rituximab has been much less severe than that induced by the anti-CD52 MAB, Campath-1H (17).

However, postmarketing monitoring for adverse reactions has now revealed several hazards and limitations of rituximab, as summarized below.

1. Tumor-lysis (TLS) and cytokine-release (CRS) syndromes: A few CLL (*134*) and NHL patients (*135*) with high lymphocyte count in the peripheral blood developed elevated levels of phosphate, uric acid, and LDH from massive necrosis of tumor cells usually soon after the first infusion of rituximab at 375 mg/m² dose levels. A gradual step-up of rituximab dose may delay the onset and attenuate the severity of TLS and CRS (*135*). Similar TLS has been observed after chemotherapy of rapidly proliferating lymphomas (*136*), leukemias (*137*), and solid tumors (*138*).

In cytokine-release syndrome, patients with high peripheral-blood lymphocyte counts develop within ~2 h of the first MAb infusion severe fever, chill, rigors, nausea, vomiting, hypotension, and bronchospasm along with elevated levels of serum TNF- α , IL-6, and liver enzymes. There is also usually prolongation of prothrombin time (*134,135*).

2. Loss of CD20 expression: Loss of CD20 expression has been documented in one patient after two courses of therapy with rituximab (*136*).
3. Acceleration of disease: There is also one report about the acceleration of multiple myeloma after treatment with rituximab (*137*).

2.10.2. HAZARDS OF OTHER MABS

As already stated, Campath-1H induces profound immunosuppression, especially the downregulation of T cell-mediated immunity, which predisposes to opportunistic infections. TLS and CRS have been observed after therapy with the anti-CD52 MAb, Campath-1H (*120*), anti-CD5 MABs such as T101 (*138*), and the anti-lymphoma MAB Ab89 (*139*).

3. SOLID TUMORS

The difficulties in the use of MAb-based therapies in solid tumors, especially the problems associated with the accessibility of targeted tumor cells to circulating antibodies, have already been discussed in the preceding chapter. However results from experimental models and from patients clearly show that RIT can deliver more radioactivity to the target tumor tissue than to normal tissues. A recent pharmacokinetic and biodistribution study in patients with advanced breast cancer has demonstrated that RIT may deliver between 3 and 50 times the dose of radiation to target tumor tissues throughout the body compared to the normal tissue doses (*145*).

4. BREAST CANCER

There has been a resurgence of interest in MAb-based therapy of solid tumors, because of the impressive results of the trials on the effectiveness of the recombinant humanized anti-HER2/neu MAB, 'Herceptin,' in metastatic breast cancer, when the lesions overexpress HER2/neu (*146*). The amplification of the protooncogene c-erbB (also known as HER-2 or neu because this gene was identified independently by different groups) is one of the earliest abnormality seen in breast-cancer cells. This gene codes for a 185 KD transmembrane protein with tyrosine kinase activity and has about 50% amino acid homology with EGFR. This protein is overexpressed, with or without gene amplification, in about 60% of ductal carcinomas and 20–30% of invasive breast cancer. HER-2/neu is an excellent target because: 1) it is located on the cell surface; 2) in lesions that express HER-2/neu, the antigen is present on a large proportion of cells; and 3) metastases of positive lesions also express the antigen.

In Phase I and Phase II trials, response rates varied between 12% and 15% (147–147c). There is also evidence that this MAb potentiates the antitumor effect of a number of chemotherapeutic agents including cisplatin, carboplatin, anthracyclines, cyclophosphamide, paclitaxel, docetaxel and vinorelbine (148–148f).

However, long term follow up has revealed cardiotoxicity in 4.7% of patients given trastuzumab alone. Cardiotoxicity is considerably increased (i.e. 27%) in patients given trastuzumab and chemotherapy especially when given trastuzumab + an anthracycline and cyclophosphamide (*see ref. 148g*).

Other potentially targetable breast cancer-associated antigens and the available results of clinical trials, based on MAbs against these antigens, are listed in ref. (149). The targeted antigens include EGFR, HER-2/neu, CEA, and several mucin antigens like tumor-associated glycoprotein 72 (TAG 72), Lewis- γ antigen, muc-1, and L6 antigen. Most of these were MAb-based Phase I trials. The MAbs had tolerable toxicity. The chimeric antiCEA MAb, T84.66, showed good localization in CEA producing metastatic lesions. There was no evidence of any significant tumor inhibition by any MAb other than rhu MAb, HER2/neu.

4.1. RIT

A Phase I study using 90-Y linked, chimeric anti-CEA MAb, T84.66 demonstrated good tumor localization of radioactivity at metastatic breast-cancer lesions without any significant tumor inhibition (150). However, the result of a Phase I study using 90-Y- MAb 170H.82 conjugate on metastatic breast cancer patients appears to be therapeutically more promising (151).

4.2. Drug-Antibody Conjugates

In a Phase I trial on a mixed bag of carcinoma (including breast carcinoma) patients, using an immunoconjugate consisting of the chimeric anti-Ley antibody, BR 96, and doxorubicin, a prolonged serum level of the drug could be maintained. Depositions of the antibody and doxorubicin could be seen in several samples of biopsied tumor tissue. Objective clinical responses were observed in 2/66 patients. Acute hemorrhagic gastritis, caused by the carrier antibody, was the dose-limiting toxicity but there were no significant hematological or cardiac toxicities (152). In a Phase II trial in patients with metastatic breast carcinoma, there was only one partial response in a patient with liver metastases out of the 14 patients who received the conjugate, but there were three partial and one complete responses in the nine patients who had received doxorubicin alone (153). It appears that this conjugate could not deliver adequate amounts of doxorubicin to the target tumor tissue. Dose escalation was not possible because of the toxicity of the carrier MAb. MAbs that do not react with the gastro-intestinal epithelium may be better carriers.

4.3. Immunotoxin

A conjugate of MAb B3 (that binds to a carbohydrate moiety of the Ley family) and the truncated PE (PE 38) produced 1 CR and 1 PR in patients with disseminated breast and colon cancers, respectively (154).

4.3.1. BISPECIFIC ANTIBODIES

A humanized Fab anti-CD64 \times antiHER-2neu (MDX-H210) marketed by Medarex Inc. has produced some “promising antitumor effects” in breast cancer patients refractory to other methods of treatment (155).

5. COLORECTAL CANCER

Colorectal cancers were the focus of early studies on the effectiveness of MAb-based therapeutic approaches. The targeted antigens include TAG 72, the 40–47 kD extracellular-adhesion glycoprotein Ep-CAM, and CEA. The results of clinical trials are in (156,156a). The most promising results have been obtained with unconjugated anti-Ep-CAM MAb, 17-1A (156b). A pilot study in Duke's C stage colon cancer, after prior curative surgery, led to 30% reduction in death rate and 27% reduction in recurrence rate. The results of this study are notable because of the following: 1) the 17-1A antigen is widely expressed in normal tissues, 2) injections of this murine MAb was continued even though 80% of the patients developed HAMA without any major toxicity and without affecting the therapeutic outcome, and 3) the MAb was effective only in minimal residual disease. Larger trials are now under way. The precise mode of action of this murine MAb is not known but has been postulated to be due to ADCC (157) or immunization via the idiotype-antiidiotypic network (158).

Combination of MAb 17-1A with GM-CSF and interleukin-2 (156e) or with gamma interferon (156f) did not add to the effectiveness of MAb 17-1A alone. Combination of 5FU with this MAb did not reveal any additive toxicity (156b).

5.1. RIT/IT/ICT

Radioimmunotherapy using a ^{131}I linked, anti-Tag 72 MAbs (158a) or ^{131}I labeled A33 MAb (against a high molecular-weight glycoprotein expressed by both normal and malignant gastrointestinal epithelium) (158b) did not produce any objective improvement. The maximum dose delivered was 5–6 cGy of tumor-absorbed dose. Most patients, given the higher doses required stem-cell support to overcome dose-limiting bone-marrow toxicity. To avoid myelosuppression, Meredith et al. linked MAb 17.1 with the low-energy Auger electron emitter ^{125}I up to a dose of 250 mCi. There was no myelosuppression but there was also no response (158c). Systemic administration of an immunotoxin constructed with ricin-A chain and MAb 791t/36, led to the reduction in the size of liver metastases in 2/17 patients (158d). A group of eight patients were treated with the chemotherapeutic agent neocarsinostatin linked to MAb A7. Two had PR and two other had minor response (158e).

5.2. ADEPT

A conjugate containing the F(ab)₂ fragment of a murine anti-CEA MAb and the bacterial enzyme carboxypeptidase G2 was given to patients with advanced colon cancer who did not respond to conventional therapy along with a benzoic acid mustard pro-drug. After three cycles of treatment, five of the eight patients had >50% regression in their identifiable tumor masses (159). All non-immunosuppressed patients developed antibodies against both the components of the conjugate by the tenth day after conjugate injection. There was also myelosuppression in all patients. Myelosuppression was the predominant complication also in another trial in which only a single injection of the same conjugate was administered (160).

5.2.1. BISPECIFIC ANTIBODIES

A bispecific antiCD3 × anti17-1A (antiEpCAM or EGP2) antibody could significantly reduce the overall death rate in a group of 189 patients with resected Duke C colorectal carcinoma (161).

6. GENITO-URINARY CANCERS

6.1. Immunotoxins (ITs)

Local instillation of TP40, an IT consisting of TGF- α and truncated PE, led to histologically confirmed improvement of cancer *in situ* of bladder (162).

6.2. Bispecific Antibodies

Intravenous administration of a humanized Fab anti-CD64 \times anti-EGF-receptor bispecific antibody (MDX 447, marketed by Medarex Inc.) has produced "promising anti-tumor effects in patients with refractory cancers of the kidney, bladder, prostate, breast, ovary and head and neck" (161).

7. OVARIAN CANCER

A number of MAbs have been used in the treatment of ovarian cancer (156). Unconjugated MAb, L6, which binds to a number of carcinomas, did not produce any response.

7.1. RIT

Intraperitoneal administration of ^{90}Y -linked MAb HMFG1 (directed against polymorphic epithelial mucin) increased survival (compared to historical controls) only in the adjuvant setting (162b) ^{186}Re -linked MAb NR-LU-10 could induce response only in a cytoreductive surgery or chemotherapy (162c). ^{177}Le -linked MAb CC49 could induce PR only in an occasional patient with macroscopic disease in spite of good tumor localization of radioactivity (162d).

A single patient, intraperitoneally given *Pseudomonas* exotoxin linked MAb OVB3, developed encephalopathy without any tumor inhibition (156).

7.2. Bispecific Antibodies

Intraperitoneal administration of an anti-CD3 \times anti-folate receptor antibody, autologous T lymphocytes, and IL-2 in a group of 19 patients with advanced ovarian cancer led to 3 complete response, 4 partial response, and 7 stable disease (163).

A bispecific MAb, MDX-210 with specificity for Fc receptor (FcR) and HER2/neu (that can be overexpressed in ovarian cancer) led to a mixed response in 1/6 stage 3 or stage 4 patients (163a).

8. CANCERS OF THE LUNG

8.1. Immunotoxin

An IT consisting of EGF and the truncated diphtheria toxin (DT), DAB389, was found to be effective in an EGFR+ lung cancer-patient (164).

9. MELANOMA

Antibody-defined melanoma antigens are mostly differentiation antigens and include ganglioside antigens GD2, GD3 (the most widely expressed melanoma-associated antigen) and GM2, p97/gp95 antigen (or melanotransferrin) and the high molecular-weight melanoma-associated antigen, p240. These antigens are also present in limited amounts in some normal tissues. The unconjugated MAb R24 against GD3 was

evaluated in several different Phase I trials (164a–164g). Inflammatory reaction was seen around bulky lesions in most patients. Partial response was seen in small proportion of cases. There was spectacular remission lasting over 6 yr in a patient with melanosis of the meninges (164d). Deposit of R24 could be detected in most of the lesions examined. Similar results were obtained with several MAbs against GD2 and GD3 (164h–164j). Unconjugated MAbs against p97 and p240 had no effect on melanoma lesions (164k).

9. IMMUNOSCINTIGRAPHY

MAbs to p95 and p240 have been widely investigated for the detection of melanoma metastases after linkage to ^{111}In , ^{131}I , or ^{125}I . Between 19 and 74% of known lesions could be detected by scintigraphy.

9.1. Unconjugated MAbs Along With Other Agents

Addition of the unconjugated anti-GD3 MAb, R24, to cisplatin or the radioprotective agent, WR-2721 did not add to the effects of cisplatin or WR-2721 alone (165). Addition of GM-CSF to MAb R24 did not improve the outcome (166) but the addition of M-CSF induced several mixed responses (167). Co-administration of IL-2, in high doses, with R24 (168) induced partial response in 10/23 melanoma patients in one treatment group and partial or minor responses in 3/20 patients in another group (169). However, lower doses of IL-2 with another anti-GD3 MAb, MG-22, did not elicit any response (170). Coadministration of recombinant TNF- α and R24 did not produce any beneficial effect. (171).

9.2. RIT/Immunoscintigraphy

In melanoma patients given IFN- α 24 h before the administration of ^{111}In -labeled anti-melanoma MAb 96.5, immunoscintigraphy led to a threefold increase in radioactivity in melanoma lesions but not in any normal tissue compared to control patients who were not pretreated with IFN- α . It appears that pretreatment with IFN- α may increase tumor-specific deposition of anti-TAA MAb by inducing increased TAA expression (172).

9.3. Immunochemotherapy (ICT)

In the first report on the use of immunoconjugates in cancer patients, a group of 13 melanoma patients with disseminated disease were intravenously injected with the alkylating agent chlorambucil linked to polyclonal antimelanoma antibodies. Objective tumor regression was seen in two patients and five others showed stabilization of cutaneous, nodal, and visceral lesions and significant prolongation of survival compared to a group that received chemotherapy alone (173). Antimelanoma antibody adriamycin or mitomycin conjugates produced only mixed results (173a,173b).

9.4. Immunotoxin (IT)

In two separate studies a total of more than 200 patients were given XOMAZYME-MEL, an immunotoxin, constructed with an IgG2a MAb against the high molecular-weight melanoma-associated antigen and the A chain of ricin. The preparation had acceptable toxicity. There were several mixed responses and a few complete

responses. Most patients produced antibodies to the preparation leading to its rapid clearance (174,175).

10. TUMORS OF THE CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM

10.1. Immunotoxins (ITs)

Transferrin receptor (TfR) is expressed by many tumors but not by any normal tissue (at least in any significant number) except liver. The TfR of CNS tumors have been targeted either by anti-TfR MAbs or human Tf-based conjugates. A conjugate consisting of the anti-TfR MAb 454A12 and rA chain of ricin, could clear (after intraventricular administration), 50% of malignant cells from the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) of approx half the patients (176). In another trial, an IT consisting of a mutant DT and Tf was directly instilled into the tumors of 18 patients. There were 2 CRs and 7 PRs (176a). Several ongoing clinical trials in high-grade glioma patients are evaluating the effectiveness of the intratumoral administration an IT consisting of PE and a circularly permuted variant of IL-4 that has high affinity for its receptor (177). High-grade gliomas overexpress IL-4R.

REFERENCES

1. Welt S, Divgi CR, Scott AM. Antibody targeting in metastatic colon cancer: a Phase I study of monoclonal antibody F19 against a cell-surface protein of reactive tumor stromal fibroblasts. *J Clin Oncol* 1994; 12:1193–1203.
2. Scott AM, Welt S. Antibody-based immunological therapies. *Curr Opin Immunol* 1997; 9:717–722.
3. Cragg MS, French RR, Glennie MJ. Signaling antibodies in cancer therapy. *Curr Opin Immunol* 1999; 11:541–547.
4. Landis SH, Murray T, Bolden S, et al. Cancer Statistics, 1999. *CA Cancer J Clinicians* 1999; 49:8–31.
5. Coleman MP, Esteve J, Damiecki P, Arslan A, Renard H. Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (ICD9 200,202) in trends in cancer incidence and mortality, 1993. IARC Publication No: 121, Lyon, 1993, pp 641–653.
6. Harris N, Jaffe E, Stein H, et al. Lymphoma classification proposal: clarification. *Blood* 1995; 85:857–860.
7. Hiddeman W. Non-Hodgkin's lymphomas-current status of therapy and future perspectives. *Eur J Cancer* 1995; 31:2141–2145.
8. Miller RA, Maloney DG, Warnke R, Levy R. Treatment of B cell lymphoma with monoclonal anti-idiotype antibody. *N Engl J Med* 1982; 306:517–22.
9. Levy R. Karnofsky lecture immunotherapy of lymphoma. *J Clin Oncol* 1999; 17:7–12.
10. Brown SL, Miller RA, Horning SJ, et al. Treatment of B-cell lymphomas with anti-idiotype antibodies alone and in combination with alpha interferon. *Blood* 1989; 79:651–661.
11. Maloney DG, Brown S, Czerwinski DK, et al. Monoclonal anti-idiotype antibody therapy of B-cell lymphoma: the addition of a short course of chemotherapy does not interfere with the antitumour effect of nor prevent the emergence of idiotype-negative variant cells. *Blood* 1992; 80:1502–1510.
12. Maloney DG. Preclinical and phase I and II trials of rituximab. *Semin Oncol* 1999; 26 (Suppl 14):74–78.
13. Anderson K, Bates M, Slaughenhaupt B, Pinkus G, Schlossma S, Nadler L. Expression of human B-cell associated antigens on leukemias and lymphomas: a model of human B cell differentiation. *Blood* 1984; 63:1424–1433.
14. Chang K, Arber D, Weiss L. CD20: a review. *Appl Immunohistochem* 1996; 41–15.
15. Stashenko P, Nadler LM, Hardy R, et al. Characterization of a human B lymphocyte specific antigen. *J Immunol* 1980; 125:1678–1625.
16. Buske C, Feuring Buske M, Unterhalt M, Hiddeman W. Monoclonal antibody therapy for non-Hodgkin's lymphomas: emerging concepts of a tumour targeted strategy. *Eur J Cancer* 1999; 35:549–557.

17. Vose JM. Antibody-targeted therapy for low-grade lymphoma. *Semin Hematol* 1999; 36(Suppl 6):15–20.
18. Kuehnle I, Huis MH, Liu Z, Semmelmann M, Krance RA, et al. CD20 monoclonal antibody(rituximab) for therapy of Epstein-Barr virus lymphoma after hemopoietic stem-cell transplantation. *Blood* 2000; 95:1502–1505.
19. Hainsworth JD, Burris HA, Morrissey LH, Litchy S, Scullin DC, et al. Rituximab monoclonal antibody as initial systemic therapy for patients with low-grade non-Hodgkin's lymphoma. *Blood* 2000; 95:3052–3056.
20. Colombati P, Salles G, Brousse N, Eftekhari P, Soubetran P, et al. Rituximab(anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody) as single first-line therapy for patients with follicular lymphoma with a low tumor burden: clinical and molecular evaluation. *Blood* 2001; 97:101–106.
21. Piro LD, White CA, Grillo-Lopez AJ, Janakiraman N, Saven A, et al. Extended rituximab (anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody) therapy for relapsed or refractory low-grade or follicular non-Hodgkin's lymphoma. *Ann Oncol* 1999; 10:655–661.
22. Davis TA, White CA, Grillo-Lopez AJ, Velasquez WS, Link B, et al. Single-agent monoclonal antibody efficacy in bulky non-Hodgkin's lymphoma: results of a phase II trial of rituximab. *J Clin Oncol* 1999; 17:1851–1857.
23. Foran JM, Rohatiner AZS, Cunningham D, Popescu RA, Solal-Celigny P, et al. European phase II study of rituximab (chimeric anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody) for patients with newly diagnosed mantle-cell lymphoma and previously treated mantle-cell lymphoma, immunocytoma, and small B-cell lymphocytic lymphoma. *J Clin Oncol* 2000; 18:317–324.
24. McLaughlin P, Grillo-Lopez AJ, Lynk PK, et al. Rituximab chimeric anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody therapy for relapsed indolent lymphoma: half of patients respond to a four dose treatment program. *J Clin Oncol* 1998; 16:2825–2833.
25. Cook RC, Connors JM, Gascoyne RD, Fradet G, Levy RD. Treatment of post-transplant lymphoproliferative disease with rituximab monoclonal antibody after lung transplantation. *Lancet* 1999; 354:1698–1699.
26. Kuehnle I, Huis MH, Liu Z, Semmelmann M, Krance RA, et al. CD20 monoclonal antibody(rituximab) for therapy of Epstein-Barr virus lymphoma after hemopoietic stem-cell transplantation. *Blood* 2000; 95:1502–1505.
27. Vose JM, Link ML, Grossbard ML, Czuczman M, Grillo-Lopez A, et al. Phase II study of rituximab in combination with CHOP chemotherapy in patients with previously untreated, aggressive non-Hodgkin's lymphoma. *J Clin Oncol* 2001; 19:389–397.
28. Davis T, Maloney D, White CA, et al. Combination immunotherapy in low grade or follicular (LG/F) non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (NHL) with Rituximab and alpha interferon: interim analysis. *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol* 1998; 17:11a.
29. Tsai DE, Moore HCF, Hardy CL, Porter DL, Loh EY, et al. Rituximab (anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody) therapy for progressive intermediate-grade non-Hodgkin's lymphoma after high dose therapy and autologous peripheral stem cell transplantation. *Bone Marrow Transplant* 1999; 24:521–526.
30. Treuman A, Lifely MR, Schneider P, et al. Primary structure of CD52. *J Biol Chem* 1995; 270:6088–6099.
31. Hale G, Xia MQ, Tighe HP, et al. The CAMPATH-1 antigen. *Tissue Antigens* 1990; 35:118–127.
32. Dyer MJS. The role of CAMPATH-1 antibodies in the treatment of lymphoid malignancies. *Semin Oncol* 1999; 26(Suppl 14):52–57.
33. Hsu FJ, Caspar Cb, Czerwinsky D, et al. Tumor-specific idiotype vaccines in the treatment of patients with B-cell lymphoma: long term results in a clinical trial. *Blood* 1997; 89:3129–3135.
34. Linden O, Tennvall J, Cavallin-Stahl E, Darte L, Garkaviz M, et al. Radioimmunotherapy using ¹³¹I-labeled anti-CD22 monoclonal antibody (LL2) in patients with previously treated B-cell lymphomas. *Clin Cancer Res* 1999; 5(Suppl):1287s–1291s.
35. Behr TM, Wormann B, Gramatzki M, Riggert J, Gratz S, et al. Low-versus high-dose radioimmunotherapy with humanized anti-CD22 or chimeric anti-CD20 antibodies in a broad spectrum of B-cell-associated malignancies. *Clin Cancer Res* 1999; 5(Suppl):3304–3314.
36. Czuczman MS, Sraus DJ, Divgi CR, Graham M, Garinchesa P, et al. Phase I dose escalation of iodine 131-labelled monoclonal antibody OKB7 in patients with non-Hodgkin's lymphoma. *J Clin Oncol* 1993; 11:2021–2031.
37. Press OW, Eary JF, Badger CC, Martin PJ, Applebaum FR, et al. Treatment of refractory non-Hodgkin's lymphoma with radiolabelled MB-1(anti-CD37) antibody. *J Clin Oncol* 1989; 7:1027–1036.

38. Parker BA, Vassos AB, Halpern SE, Miller RA, Hupt H, et al. Radioimmunotherapy of B-cell lymphoma with ⁹⁰Y-conjugated anti-idiotypic monoclonal antibody. *Cancer Res* 1990; 50(Suppl):1022s–1027s.
39. Denardo GL, O'Donnel RT, Rose LM, Mirick GR, Kroger LA, et al. Milestones in the development of Lym-1 therapy. *Hybridoma* 1999; 18:1–11.
40. Witzig TE, White CA, Wisemn GA, Gordon LI, Emmanouilides C, et al. Phase I and II trial of IDEC-90Y radioimmunotherapy for treatment of relapsed or refractory CD20+ B-cell non-Hodgkin's lymphoma. *J Clin Oncol* 1999; 17:3793–3803.
41. Juweid ME, Stadtmauer E, Hajjar G, Sharkey RM, Suleiman S, et al. Pharmacokinetics, dosimetry, and initial therapeutic results with ¹³¹I- and ¹¹¹In/⁹⁰Y-labeled humanized LL2 anti-CD22 monoclonal antibody in patients with relapsed refractory non-Hodgkin's lymphoma. *Clin Cancer Res* 1999; 5(Suppl): 3392s–3303s.
42. O'Donnel RT, DeNardo GL, Kukis DL, Lamborn KR, Shen S, et al. Clinical trial of radioimmunotherapy with ⁶⁷Cu-2IT-BAT-Lym-1 for non-Hodgkin's lymphoma. *J Nucl Med* 1999; 40:2014–2020.
43. Press OW. Radiolabeled antibody therapy of B-cell lymphoma. *Semin Oncol* 1999; 26(Suppl 14):58–65.
44. DeNardo SJ, Kroger LA, DeNardo GL. A new era for radiolabeled antibodies in cancer? *Curr Opin Immunol* 1999; 11:563–569.
45. Wilder RB, DeNardo GL, DeNardo SJ. Radioimmunotherapy: recent results and future directions. *J Clin Oncol* 1996; 14:1383–1400.
46. Davis TA, Kmox SJ. Radioimmunoconjugate therapy of non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, in *Monoclonal Antibody-Based Therapy of Cancer* (Grossbard ML, ed). Marcel Dekker, New York, 1998, pp 113–135.
47. Press OW, Eary JF, Appelbaum FR, Martin PJ, Nelp WB, et al. Phase II trial of I-131 B1 (anti-CD20) antibody therapy with autologous stem-cell transplantation for relapsed B-cell lymphomas. *Lancet* 1995; 346:336–340.
48. Kaminski MS, Estes J, Zasadny KR, Francis IR, Ross CW, et al. Radioimmunotherapy with iodine ¹³¹I tositumoab for relapsed or refractory B-cell non-Hodgkin's lymphoma: updated results and long-term follow-up of the University of Michigan experience. *Blood* 2000; 96:1259–1266.
49. Johnson TA, Press OW. Synergistic cytotoxicity of iodine-131-anti-CD20 monoclonal antibodies and chemotherapy for treatment of B-cell lymphomas. *Intl J Cancer* 2000; 85:104–112.
50. Press OW, Eary JF, Gooley T, Gopal AK, Liu S, et al. A phase I/II trial of iodine 131-tositumoab(anti-CD20), etoposide, cyclophosphamide, and autologous stem cell transplantation for relapsed B-cell lymphomas. *Blood* 2000; 96:2934–2942.
51. Kreitman RJ. Immunotoxins in cancer therapy. *Curr Opin Immunol* 1999; 11:570–578.
52. Grossbard ML, Multani PS, Freedman AS, O'Day S, Gribben JG, et al. A phase II study of adjuvant therapy with anti-B4-blocked ricin after autologous bone marrow transplantation for patients with relapsed B-cell non-Hodgkin's lymphoma. *Clin Cancer Res* 1999; 5(Suppl):2392s–2398s.
53. Messman RA, Vitetta ES, Headlee D, Senderowicz AM, Figg WD. A phase I study of combination therapy with immunotoxins IgG-HD 37-deglycosylated ricin A chain(dgA) and Ig G-RFB4-dgA (Combotox) in patients with refractory CD19(+), CD22(+) B cell lymphoma. *Clin Cancer Res* 2000; 6:1302–1313.
54. Kreitman RJ, Wilson WH, White JD, Stevenson MS, Jaffe ES, et al. Phase I trial of recombinant immunotoxin anti-Tac(Fv)-PE38 (LMB2) in patients with hematologic malignancies. *J Clin Oncol* 2000; 18:1622–1636.
55. Nichols J, Foss F, Kuzel TM, et al. Interleukin-2 fusion protein: an investigational therapy for interleukin-2 receptor expressing malignancies. *Eur J Cancer* 1997; 33(Suppl. 1):S34–S36. or truncated forms of *pseudomonas exotoxin* (412).
56. Bonardi MA, Bell A, French R, Gromo G, Hamblin T, et al. Initial experience in treating human lymphoma with a combination of bispecific antibody and saporin. *Intl J Cancer* 1992; (Suppl)7:73–77.
57. Sederowicz AM, Vitetta E, Headlee D, Ghettie V, Uhr JVV, et al. Complete sustained response of a refractory, post-transplantation, large cell B-cell lymphoma to an anti-CD22 immunotoxin. *Ann Intern Med* 1997; 126:882–885.
58. Sausville EA, Vitetta ES. Clinical studies with ricin A-chain Immunotoxins, in *Monoclonal Antibody-Based Therapy of Cancer* (Grossbard ML, ed). Marcel Dekker, New York, 1998, pp 81–89.
59. Manzke O, Tesch H, Lorenzen J, Diehl V, Bohlen H. Locoregional treatment of low-grade B-cell lymphoma with CD3×CD19 bispecific antibodies and CD28 costimulation: II Assessment of cellular immune responses. *Intl J Cancer* 2001; 91:516–522.

60. De Gast GC, Van Houten AA, Haagen IA, Klein S, De Weger RA, et al. Clinical experience with CD3×CD19 bispecific antibodies in patients with B-cell malignancies. *J Hematother* 1995; 4:433–437.
61. Manzke O, Tesch H, Borchmann P, Wolf J, Lackner K, et al. Locoregional treatment of low-grade B-cell lymphoma with CD3×CD 19 bispecific antibodies and CD28 costimulation: I Clinical phase I evaluation. *Intl J Cancer* 2001; 91:508–515.
62. Armitage A, Weisenburger D. New approach to classifying nonHodgkin's lymphomas: clinical features of the major histologic subtypes. *J Clin Oncol* 1998; 16:2780–2795.
63. Jaffe E. Classification of natural killer(NK)-cell and NK-like T-cell malignancies. *Blood* 1996; 87:1207–1210.
64. Knox S, Hoppe RT, Maloney D, et al. Treatment of cutaneous T cell lymphoma with chimeric anti-CD4 monoclonal antibody. *Blood* 1996; 87:893–899.
65. Dillman RO, Beauregard J, Shawler DI. Continuous infusion of T-101 monoclonal antibody in chronic lymphocytic leukemia and cutaneous T Cell lymphoma. *J Biol Res Mod* 1986; 5:394–510.
66. Davis TA, Knox SJ. Radioimmunoconjugate therapy of non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, in *Monoclonal Antibody-Based Therapy of Cancer* (Grossbard ML, ed). Marcel Dekker, New York, 1998, pp 113–136.
67. Kuzel TM, Rosen ST, Monoclonal antibody based therapy of cutaneous T-cell non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, in *Monoclonal Antibody-Based Therapy of Cancer* (Grossbard ML, ed). Marcel Dekker, New York, 1998, pp 137–147.
68. LeMaistre CF, Rosen S, Frankel A, et al. Phase I trial of H65-RTA immunoconjugate in patients with cutaneous T-cell lymphoma. *Blood* 1991; 78:1173–1182.
69. O'Toole JE, Esseltine D, Lynch TJ, Lambert JM, Grossbard ML. Clinical trials with blocked ricin immunotoxins. *Curr Top Microbiol Immunol* 1998; 234:35–56.
70. Frankel AE, Laver JH, Willingham MC, et al. Therapy of patients with T-cell lymphomas and leukemias using an anti-CD7 monoclonal antibody-ricin A chain immunotoxin. *Leuk Lymphoma* 1997; 26:287–298.
71. Specht L, Gray R, Clarke M, et al. The influence of more extensive radiotherapy and adjuvant chemotherapy on long-term outcome of early stage Hodgkin's disease: a meta-analysis of 23 randomized trials involving 3888 patients. *J Clin Oncol* 1998; 16:830–843.
72. DeVita B, Serpick A, Carbone P. Combination chemotherapy in the treatment of advanced Hodgkin's disease. *Ann Intern Med* 1970; 73:881–895.
73. Stein H, Diehl V, Marafioti T, et al. Nature of the Reed-Sternberg cells, the L and H cell and their molecular biology in Hodgkin's disease, in *Hodgkin's Disease* (Mauch PM, ed). Lippincott Williams and Wilkins, Philadelphia, 1999, pp 121–137.
74. Wolf J, Kapp U, Bohlh H, Kornacker M, Schoch C, et al. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells of a patient with advanced Hodgkin's lymphoma give rise to permanently growing Hodgkin/Reed-Sternberg cells. *Blood* 1996; 87:3418–3428.
75. Morein HL, Junghaus RP. Antibody-based therapies for Hodgkin's disease, in *Antibody-Based Therapy of Cancer* (Grossbard ML, ed). Marcel Dekker, New York, 1998, pp 149–187.
76. Agnarsson BA, Kadin Me. The immunophenotype of Reed-Sternberg cells. A study of 50 cases of Hodgkin's lymphoma using fixed frozen tissue. *Cancer* 1989; 63:2083–2087.
77. Lenhard RE, Spunberg J, Order SE, Asbell SO, Leibel SA. Isotopic immunoglobulin: A new systemic therapy for advanced Hodgkin's disease. *J Clin Oncol* 1985; 3:1296–1300.
78. Eshbar Z, Order SE, Katz DH. Ferritin, a Hodgkin's disease associated antigen. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 1974; 71:3956–3960.
79. Vriesendorp HM, Quadri SM, Wyllie CT, Lai J, Borchardt PE, et al. Fractionated radiolabeled antiferritin therapy for patients with recurrent Hodgkin's disease. *Clin Cancer Res* 1999; 5(Suppl):3324s–3329s.
80. Herpst JM, Klein JL, Leichner PK, Quadri SM, Leibel SA. Survival of patients with resistant Hodgkin's disease after polyclonal Yttrium-90-labeled antiferritin treatment. *J Clin Oncol* 1995; 13:2394–2400.
81. Hartmann F, Renner C, Jung W, Deisting C, Juwana M, et al. Treatment of refractory Hodgkin's disease with an anti-CD16/CD30 bispecific antibody. *Blood* 1997; 89:2042–2047.
82. Multani PS, Flavell DJ. Antibody-based therapies for the treatment of acute leukemia, in *Monoclonal Antibody-Based Therapy of Cancer* (Grossbard ML, ed). Marcel Dekker, New York, 1998, pp 189–209.
83. Hoelzer d, Gokbuget N. New approaches to acute lymphoblastic leukemia in adults: where do we go? *Semin Oncol* 2000; 27:540–559.

84. Fadel S, Talpaz M, Estrov Z, O'Brien S, et al. The biology of chronic myeloid leukemia. *N Engl J Med* 1999; 341:164–172.
85. Ball Ed, Bernier GM, Cornwell GG, et al. Monoclonal antibodies to myeloid differentiation antigens: In vivo studies of three patients with acute myelogenous leukemia. *Blood* 1983; 62:1203–1210.
86. Schneiber DA, Lovett D, Divgi CR, et al. A Phase I trial of monoclonal antibody M195 in acute myelogenous leukemia: specific bone marrow targeting and internalization of radionuclide. *J Clin Oncol* 1991; 9:478–490.
87. Feldman E, Kalaycio M, Schulman P, et al. Humanized monoclonal anti-CD33 antibody HuM195 in the treatment of relapsed/refractory acute myelogenous leukemia (AML): preliminary report of a phase II study. *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol* 1999; 18:4a (Abstract).
88. Jurcic JG, DeBlasio A, Dumont L, et al. Molecular remission induction with retinoic acid and anti-CD33 monoclonal antibody HuM195 in acute promyelocytic leukemia. *Clin Cancer Res* 2000; 6:372–380.
89. Kincaid PW. Blasting away leukemia. *Nature Med* 1999; 5:619–620.
90. Charrad R-S, Li Y, Delpech B, Balitrand N, Clay D, et al. Ligation of CD44 adhesion molecule reverses blockage of differentiation in human acute myeloid leukemia. *Nature Med* 1999; 5:669–676.
91. Vitale C, Romagnani C, Falco M, Ponte M, Vitale M, et al. Engagement of p75/AIRM1 or CD 33 inhibits the proliferation of leukemic myeloid cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 1999; 96:15091–15096.
92. Schwartz MA, Lovett DR, Redner A, et al. Dose escalation trial of M195 labeled with iodine 131 for cytoreduction and marrow ablation in relapsed or refractory myeloid leukemias. *J Clin Oncol* 1993; 11:294–303.
93. Jurcic JG, McDevitt MR, Sgouros G, Ballangrud A, Finn RD, Ma D, et al. Targeted alpha-particle therapy for myeloid leukemias: a Phase I trial of bismuth-213-Hu-M195 (anti CD33). *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol* 1999; 18:7 (Abstract).
94. Sgouros G, Ballangrud A, Jurcic JG, McDevitt MR, Humm JL, et al. Pharmacokinetics and dosimetry of an alpha-particle emitter labeled antibody: 213 Bi-HuM195 (anti-CD33) in patients with leukemia. *J Nucl Med* 1999; 40:1935–1946.
95. Matthews DC, Appelbaum FR, Eary JF, et al. Phase I study of ¹³¹I-anti-CD45 antibody plus cyclophosphamide and total body irradiation for advanced acute leukemia and myelodysplastic syndrome. *Blood* 1999; 94:1237–1247.
96. Sievers EL, Appelbaum FR, Spielberger RT, Forman SJ, Flowers D, et al. Selective ablation of acute myeloid leukemia using antibody-targeted chemotherapy: a phase I study of an anti-CD33 calicheamicin immunoconjugate. *Blood* 1999; 93:3678–3684.
97. Pawson R, Dyer MJ, Barge R, et al. Treatment of T-cell prolymphocytic leukemia with human CD52 MAb. *J Clin Oncol* 1997; 15:2667–2672.
98. Koltz JE, O'Mara V, Willemze R, et al. Treatment of acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) with Campath-1H: initial observations. *Blood* 1994; 84(Suppl 1):191a. (Abstract).
99. Junghans RP, Waldmann TA, Landolfi NF, Adalovic NM, et al. Anti-Tac-H, a humanized antibody to the interleukin 2 receptor with new features for immunotherapy in malignant and immune disorders. *Cancer Res* 1990; 50:1495–1502.
100. Myers DE, Jun X, Waddick KG, Forsyth C, Chelstrom LM, et al. Membrane-associated CD19-LYN complexes an endogenous p53-independent and Bcl-2-independent regulator of apoptosis in human B-lineage lymphoma cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 1995; 92:9575–9579.
101. Matthews DC, Appelbaum FR, Eary JF, Fisher DR, Durack LD, et al. Phase I study of ¹³¹I-anti-CD45 antibody plus cyclophosphamide and total body irradiation for advanced acute leukemia and myelodysplastic syndrome. *Blood* 1999; 94:1237–1247.
102. Uckun FM, Messinger Y, Chen C-L, O'Neill K, Myers DE, et al. Treatment of therapy-refractory B-lineage acute lymphoblastic leukemia with an apoptosis-inducing CD19-directed tyrosine kinase inhibitor. *Clin Cancer Res* 1999; 5:3906–3913.
103. Messinger Y, Levine A, Fuchs E, et al. B34(anti-CD19) Genistein treatment of therapy refractory B-lineage acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Blood* 1998; 92(Suppl 1):2530a (Abstract).
104. Seibel NL, Krailo M, O'Neill K, et al. Phase I study of B43-PAP immunotoxin combination with standard four drug-induction for patients with CD19+ acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) in relapse. A Children's Cancer Group Study. *Blood* 1998; 92(Suppl 1):1651 (Abstract).
105. Hernandez Sztatrowski TP, Lawson RA, George S, et al. Anti-B4- blocked ricin as consolidation therapy for patients with B-lineage acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL). A phase II trial(CALGB 9311). *Blood* 1992; 86(Suppl):783a (Abstract).

106. JA, Land KJ, Mckenna RW. Leukemias, myeloma and other lymphoreticular neoplasms. *Cancer* 1995; 75:381–392.
107. Keating MJ. Chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *Semin Oncol* 1999; 14:107–114.
108. Ginaldi L, De Martinis M, Matutes E, et al. Levels of expression of CD19 and CD20 in chronic B cell leukemias. *Clin Pathol* 1998; 51:364–369.
109. Nguyen DT, Amess JA, Doughty H, Hendry L, Diamond LW. IDEC-C2B8 anti-CD20 (Rituximab) immunotherapy in patients with low-grade non-Hodgkin's lymphoma and lymphoproliferative disorders: evaluation of response on 48 patients. *Eur J Haematol* 1999; 62:76–82.
110. Winkler U, Jensen M, Manzke O, et al. Cytokine-relapse syndrome in patients with B-cell chronic lymphocytic leukemia and high lymphocyte counts after treatment with an anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody (rituximab, IDEC-C2B8). *Blood* 1999; 94:2217–2224.
111. Byrd Jc, Waselenko JM, Keating M, Rai K, Grever MR. Novel therapies for chronic lymphocytic leukemia in the 21st century. *Semin Oncol* 2000; 27:587–597.
112. Berinstein N, Grillo-Lopez A, White CA, et al. Association of serum rituxmab concentraion and anti-tumour response in the treatment of recurrent low-grade or follicular non-Hodgkin's lymphoma. *Ann Oncol* 1998; 9:1–7.
113. O'Brien S, Freireich E, Andreef M, et al. Phase I/II study of rituxan in chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *Blood* 1998; 92(Suppl 1):105a (Abstract).
114. Byrd JC, Greever MR, Davis B, et al. Phase I/II study of thrice weekly rituximab in chronic lymphocytic leukemia/small lymphocytic lymphoma. A feasible and active regimen. *Blood* 1999; 94(Suppl 1):704a (Abstract).
115. Demidem A, Hanna N, Hariharan H, et al. Chimeric anti-CD20 antibody (IDEC-C2B8) is apototic and sensitizes drug-resitant human B-cll lymphomas and AIDS related lymphomas to the cytotoxic effect of CDDP, VP-16, and toxins. *FASEB J* 1997; 9:206a (Abstract).
116. Ostreborg A, Fajas AS, Anagostopulos A, Dyer MJ, et al. Humanized CD52 monoclonal antibody Campath-1H as first line treatment in chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *Br J Haematol* 1996; 93:151–153.
117. Rawstron Ac, Davis FE, Evans P, et al. Campath-1H therapy for patients with refractory chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *Blood* 1997; 88(Suppl 1):529a (Abstract).
118. Dyer MJS, Kelsey SM, Mckay HJ, et al. In vivo purging of residual disease in CLL with Campath-1H. *Br J Haematol* 1997; 97:669–672.
119. Osterborg A, Dyer MJS, Bunjes D, et al. Phase II multicenter study of human CD52 antibody in previously treated chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *J Clin Oncol* 1997; 15:1567–1574.
120. Keating MJ, Byrd JC, Rai KR, et al. Multicenter study of campath-1H in patients with chronic lymphocytic leukemia refractory to fludarabine. *Blood* 1999; 94(Suppl 1):705a (Abstract).
121. Link Bk, Wang H, Byrd JC, et al. Phase I trial of humanized ID10(HulD10) monoclonal antibody targeting class II molecules in atients with relapsed lymphoma. *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol* 2000; 19:24a (Abstract).
122. Emile D, Wijdenes J, Gisselbrecht C, et al. Administration of an anti-interleukin-6 monoclonal antibody to parients with acquired immunodeficiency syndrome and lymphoma: effect on lymphom growth and on B clinical syndromes. *Blood* 1994; 84:2472–2479.
123. Beck JT, Hsu SM, Wijdenes J, et al. Brief report: alleviation of systemic manifestations of Castleman's disease by monoclonal anti-interleukin-6 antibody. *N Engl J Med* 1994; 330:602–605.
124. Treon SP, Shima Y, Preffer FI, Doss DS, Ellman L, et al. Treatment of plasma cell dyscrasias by antibody-mediated immunotherapy. *Semin Oncol* 1999; 26(Suppl 14):97–106.
125. Treon S, Noopur R, Anderson KC. Immunotherapeutic strategies for the treatment of plasma cell malignancies. *Semin Oncol* 2000; 27:598–613.
126. Ozaki S, Koska M, Wakatsuki S, et al. Immunotherapy of multiple myeloma with a monoclonal antibody directed against a plama cell-specific antigen, HM1.24. *Blood* 1997; 90:3179–3186.
127. Ozaki S, Kosaka M, Wakahara Y, Ozaki Y, Tsuchiya M, et al. Humanized anti-HM1.24 antibody mediates myeloma cell cytotoxicity that is enhanced by cytokine stimulation of effector cells. *Blood* 1999; 93:3922–3930.
128. Hussein MA, Karam MA, McLain DA, et al. Biologic and clinical evaluation of Rituxan in the management of newly diagnosed myeloma patients. *Blood* 1999; 94(Suppl 1):313a (Abstract).
129. Maloney DG, Donovan K, Hamblin TJ, et al. Antibody therapy for treatment of multiple myeloma. *Semin Hematol* 1999; 36:30–33.
130. Multani PS, Grossbard ML. Monoclonal antibody-based therapies for hematologic malignancies. *J Clin Oncol* 1998; 16:3691–3710.

131. Couturier O, Faivre-Chauvet A, Filippovich IV, Thedrez P, Sai-Maurel C, et al. Validation of ²¹³Bi-alpha radioimmunotherapy for multiple myeloma. *Clin Cancer Res* 1999; 5(Suppl):3165s-3170s.
132. Burton J, Mishina D, Cardillo T, Lew K, Rubin A, et al. Epithelial mucin 1 (MUC1) expression and MA5 anti-MUC1 monoclonal antibody targeting in multiple myeloma. *Clin Cancer Res* 1999; 5(Suppl):3065s-3072s.
133. IDEC Pharmaceuticals Corporation and Genentech. Prescribing information, 1997.
134. Yang H, Rosove MH, Flglin RA. Tumor lysis syndrome occurring after the administration of rituximab in lymphoproliferative disorders: high-grade non-Hodgkin's lymphoma and chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *Am J Hematol* 1999; 62:247-250.
135. Jensen M, Winker W, Manzke O, Diehl V, Engert A. Rapid tumour lysis in a patient with B-cell chronic lymphocyte leukemia and lymphocytosis treated with an anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody (IDEC-C2B8, rituximab). *Ann Hematol* 1998; 79:89-91.
136. Tsokos GC, Balow JE, McGrath IT. Renal and metabolic complications of undifferentiated and lymphoblastic lymphomas. *Medicine* 1981; 60:218-229.
137. Cheson BD, Frame JN, Vena D, et al. Tumor lysis syndrome: an uncommon complication of fludarabine therapy of chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *J Clin Oncol* 1998; 16:2313-2320.
138. Vogelzang NJ, Nelimark RA, Nath KA. Tumor lysis syndrome after induction chemotherapy of small-cell bronchogenic carcinoma. *JAMA* 1983; 249:513-514.
139. Winkler U, Jensen M, Manzke O, Schulz H, Diehl V, Engert A. Cytokine release syndrome in patients with B-cell chronic lymphocytic leukemia and high lymphocyte counts after treatment with an anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody (Rituximab, IDEC-C2B8). *Blood* 1999; 94:2217-2224.
140. Byrd JC, Wasalenko JM, Maneatis TJ, Murphy T, Ward FT, et al. Rituximab therapy in hematologic malignancies with circulating blood tumor cells; association with increased infusion-related side effects and rapid blood tumor clearance. *J Clin Oncol* 1999; 17:791-795.
141. Davis TA, Czerwinski DK, Levy R. Therapy of B-cell lymphoma with anti-CD20 antibodies can result in the loss of CD20 antigen expression. *Clin Cancer Res* 1999; 6:611-615.
142. Korte W, Jost C, Cogliatti S, Hess U, Cerny T. Accelerated progression of multiple myeloma during anti-CD20 (rituxemab) therapy. *Ann Oncol* 1999; 10:1249-1250.
143. Foon KA, Scroff RW, Bunn PA, Mayer D, Abrams PG, et al. Effects of monoclonal antibody therapy in patients with chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *Blood* 1984; 64:1085-1092.
144. Nadler LM, Stashenko P, Hardy R, Kaplan WD, Button LN, et al. Serotherapy of a patient with monoclonal antibody directed against a lymphoma associated antigen. *Cancer Res* 1980; 40:3147-3152.
145. DeNardo SJ, Richman CM, Goldstein DS, Shen S, Salako DS, et al. Yttrium-90/Indium-111 DOTA-peptide-chimeric L6: pharmacokinetics, dosimetry and initial results in patients with incurable breast cancer. *Anticancer Res* 1997; 17:1735-1744.
146. Goldenberg MM. Trastuzumab, a recombinant DNA-derived humanized monoclonal antibody, a novel agent for the treatment of metastatic breast cancer. *Clin Ther* 1999; 21:309-318.
147. Baselga J, Tripathy D, Mendelsohn J, et al. Phase II study of weekly intravenous recombinant humanized anti-p185HER2 monoclonal antibody in patients with her2/neu overexpressing metastatic breast cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 1996; 14:737-744.
- 147a. Crump M, Malley FO', Prichard K, Levine M, Johnson M et al. The use of trastuzumab Herceptin (R) for the treatment of metastatic breast cancer and methods of assessing HER2/neu status—an evidence summary. *Curr Oncol* 2001-2002; 7:242-251.
- 147b. Vogel C, Cobleigh MA, Tripathy D, Guthel JC Harris LN et al. First-line, single-agent Herceptin (R) (trastuzumab) in metastatic breast cancer: a preliminary report. *Eur J Cancer* 2001; 37:S25-S29.
- 147c. Baselga J. Clinical trials of Herceptin (R) (trastuzumab). *Eur J Cancer* 2001; 37:S18-S24.
148. Pegram M, Lipton A, Pietras R, Hayes D, Weber B, Baselga J, et al. Phase II study of intravenous recombinant humanized anti-p185 HER2/neu monoclonal antibody (rHu MAb HER-2) plus cisplatin in patients with HER2/neu overexpressing metastatic breast cancer. *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol* 1995; 14:106a.
- 148a. Slamon DJ, Leyland-Jones B, Shak S, Fuchs H, Paton V et al. Use of chemotherapy plus a monoclonal antibody against HER2 for metastatic breast cancer that overexpresses HER2. *N Eng J Med* 2001; 344:783-792.
- 148b. Fornier M, Francico E, Seldman AD. Trastuzumab in combination with chemotherapy for the treatment of metastatic breast cancer. *Semin Oncol* 2000; 27:38-45.
- 148c. Perez EA, Hortbagyi GN. Ongoing and planned adjuvant trials with trastuzumab. *Semin Oncol* 2000; 27:16-32.

- 148d. Baselga J. Current and planned clinical trials with trastuzumab (Herceptin). *Semin Oncol* 2000; 27:27–32.
- 148e. Burstein HJ, Kuter I, Campos SM, Gelman RS, Tribou L et al. Clinical activity of trastuzumab and vinorelbine in women with HER2-overexpressing metastatic breast cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 2001; 19:2722–2730.
- 148f. Mackey JR. Advances in metastatic breast cancer. *Curr Oncol* 2002; 8:36–40.
- 148g. Eisenhauer EA. From the molecules to the clinic—inhibiting HER2 to treat breast cancer. *N Eng J Med* 2001; 344:841–842.
149. Esteva JE, Hayes DF. Monoclonal antibody-based therapy of breast cancer: in *Monoclonal Antibody-Based Therapy of Cancer* (Grossbard M, ed) 1998. Marcel Dekker, New York, NY.
150. Wong JY, Slomo J, Odom-Maryon T, Williams LE, Liu A et al. Initial clinical experience evaluating 90-Yttrium- chimeric T84.66 anti-carcinoembryonic antigen antibody and autologous menapoi-etic stem cell support in patients with carcinoembryonic antigen-producing metastatic breast cancer. *Clin Cancer Res* 1999; 5 (Suppl): 1224s–1231s.
151. Richman CM, DeNardo SJ, O'Donnell RT, Goldstein DS, Shen S et al. Dosimetry-based therapy in metastatic breast cancer patients using 90-Y monoclonal antibody170H.82 with autologous stem cell support and cyclosporin A. *Clin Cancer Res* 1999; 5(Suppl): 1243s–1248s.
152. Saleh MN, Lobuglio AF. Monoclonal antibody-based immunconjugate therapy of cancer: studies with BR96-doxorubicin, in *Monoclonal Antibody-Based Therapy of Cancer* Marcel Dekker, New York (Grossbard M, ed). 1998, pp 397–418.
153. Tolcher AW, Sugarman S, Gelmon KA, Cohen R, Saleh M, Isaacs C, et al. Randomized phase II study of BR96-doxorubicin conjugate in patients with metastatic breast cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 1999; 17:478–484.
154. Pai LH, Whites R, Setser A, Willingham MC, Pastan I. Treatment of advanced solid tumours with immunotoxin LMB-1: an antibody linked to Pseudomonas exotoxin. *Nat Med* 1996; 2:350–353.
155. Van Ojik HH, Repp R, Groenewegen G, Valerius T, van de Winkel JG. Clinical evaluation of the bis-pecific antibody MDX-H210 (antiFc-gammaR1xanti-HER-2neu) in combination with granulocyte colony stimulating factor (filgrastim) for treatment of advanced breast cancer. *Cancer Immunol Immunother* 1997; 45:207–209.
156. Fidas P. Monoclonal antibody therapy for solid tumors: An overview. In: *Monoclonal Antibody-Based Therapy of Cancer*. (Grossbard ML. Marcel Dekker Inc., New York, NY. 1998, 281–307.
- 156a. Foon KA, Yanelli J, Bhattacharyya-Chatterjee M. Colorectal cancer as a model for immunotherapy. *Clin Cancer Res* 1999; 5:225–236.
- 156b. Haller DG. Update of clinical trials with edrecolomab: a monoclonal antibody therapy for colorectal cancer. *Semin in Oncol* 2001; 28(Suppl 1):25–30.
- 156c. Riethmuller G, Scheider-Gadicke E, Schlimok G et al. Randomised trial of monoclonal antibody for adjuvant therapy of resected Dukes' C colorectal carcinoma. *Lancet* 1994; 343:1177–1183.
- 156d. Riethmuller G, Holtz E, Schlimok G et al. Monoclonal antibody therapy for resected Dukes' C colorectal carcinoma: Seven year outcome of a multicenter randomized trial. *J Clin Oncol* 1998; 16:1788–1794.
- 156e. Hjelm AI, Skog P, Ragnhammar J, Fagerberg JE, Frodin M et al. Clinical effects of monoclonal antibody 17-1A combined with granulocyte/macrophage-colony stimulating factor and interleukin-2 for treatment of patients with advanced colorectal carcinoma. *Cancer Immunol Immunother* 1999; 48:463–470.
- 156f. Weiner LM, Moldofsky PJ, Gatenby RA et al. Antibody delivery and effector cell activation in a Phase II trial of recombinant gamma-interferon and the murine monoclonal antibody CO17-1A in advanced colorectal carcinoma. *Cancer Res* 1988; 48:2568–2573.
157. Herlyn DM, Stepkowski Z, Herlyn MF, Koprowski H. Inhibition of growth of colorectal carcinoma in nude mice by monoclonal antibody. *Cancer Res* 1990; 40:717–720.
158. Fagerberg J, Raggenhammer P, Lijefora M, Hjelm AI, et al. Humoral anti-idiotypic and anti-anti-idiotypic immune response in cancer patients treated with monoclonal antibody 17-1A. *Cancer Immunol Immunother* 1996; 42:81–87.
- 158a. Murray JL, Macey DJ, Kasi LP. Phase II radioimmunotherapy trial with 131-I-CC49 in colorectal cancer. *Cancer* 1994; 73:1057–1066.
- 158b. Meredith RF, Bueschen AJ, Khazaeli MB. Phase I trial of iodine-131-chimeric B72.3 (human IgG4) in metastatic colorectal cancer. *J Nucl Med* 1992; 33:23–29.
- 158c. Meredith RF, Khazaeli MB, Plott WE et al. Initial clinical evaluation of iodine-125-labeled chimeric 17-1A for metastatic colon cancer. *J Nucl Med* 1995; 36:2229–2233.

- 158d. Byers VS, Rodvien R, Grant K et al. Phase I study of monoclonal antibody-ricin A chain immunotoxin Zomazyme -791 in patients with metastatic colon cancer. *Cancer Res* 1989; 49:6153–6160.
- 158e. Takahashi T, Yamaguchi T, Kitamura et al. Clinical application of monoclonal antibody-drug conjugates for immunotargeting chemotherapy of colorectal carcinoma. *Cancer* 1988; 61:881–888.
159. Bagshawe KD, Sharma SK, Springer CJ, Antoniw P. Antibody directed enzyme prodrug therapy. *Tumor Targeting* 1995; 1:17–29.
160. Bagshawe KD, Napier M. Early clinical studies with ADEPT, in *Enzyme-Prodrug Strategies for Cancer Therapy* (Melton RG, Knox RJ, eds). Kluwer Academic, London, 1999, pp 199–207.
161. Reithmuller G, Holz E, Schlimok G, Schmiegel W, Raab R, et al. Monoclonal antibody(mAb) adjuvant therapy of colorectal carcinoma: 7 year update of a prospective randomized trial. *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol* 1996; 15:444.
162. Theuer CP, Fitzgerald DJ, Pastan I. A recombinant form of Pseudomonas exotoxin A containing transforming growth factor alpha near its carboxyl terminus for the treatment of bladder cancer. *J Urol* 1993; 149:1626–1632.
- 162a. Goodman GE, Hellstrom I, Brodansky L et al. Phase I trial of a murine monoclonal antibody L6 in breast, colon, ovarian, and lung cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 1990; 8:1083–1092.
- 162b. Hird V, Maraveyas A, Snook D et al. Adjuvant therapy of ovarian cancer with radioactive monoclonal antibody. *Brit J Cancer* 1993; 68:403–406.
- 162c. Jacobs AJ, Fer M, Su FM et al. A phase I trial of rhenium-186-labeled monoclonal antibody administered intraperitoneally in ovarian carcinoma: toxicity and clinical response. *Obstet Gynecol* 1993; 82:586–593.
- 162d. Meredith RF, Partridge EE, Alvarex RD et al. Intrapertoneal radioimmunotherapy of ovarian cancer with lutetium-177-CC49. *J Nucl Med* 1996; 37:1491–1496.
163. Canaveari S, Mezzanatica D, Mazzoni A, Negri DR, Figini M, et al. Approaches to implement bispecific antibody treatment of ovarian carcinoma. *Cancer Immunol Immunother* 1997; 45:187–189.
- 163a. Valone FH, Kaufman PA, Guyre PM et al. Phase Ia/Ib trial of bispecific antibody MDX-210 in patients with advanced breast or ovarian cancer that overexpresses the proto-oncogene HER-2/neu. *J Clin Oncol* 1995; 13:2281–2292.
164. Foss FM, Saleh MN, Krueger JG, Nichols JC, Murphy JR. Diphtheria toxin fusion proteins, in *Clinical Applications of Immunotoxins* (Frankel AE, ed). Springer-Verlag, 1998; 63–81.
- 164a. Dippold WG, Knuth KRA, Meyer zum Buschenfelde KH et al. Inflammatory tumor response to monoclonal antibody treatment of ovarian carcinoma. *Cancer Clin Oncol* 1985; 21:907–912.
- 164b. Houghton AN, Mintzer D, Cordon Cardo C, Welt S, Fliegel B et al. Mouse monoclonal IgG3 antibody detecting GD3 ganglioside: a Phase I trial in patients with malignant melanoma. *Proc Nat Acad Sci* 1985; 82:1242–1246.
- 164c. Raymond J. A Phase Ib trial of murine monoclonal antibody R24 (anti-GD3) in metastatic melanoma. *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol* 1991; 10:298(abstract).
- 164d. Dippold W, Bernhard H, Meyer zum Buschenfelde KH. Immunological response to intrathecal and systemic treatment with ganglioside antibody R-24 in patients with malignant melanoma. *Eur J Cancer* 1994; 30A:137–144.
- 164e. Vadhan-Raj S, Cordon Cardo C, Carswell E et al. Phase I trial of a mouse monoclonal antibody against GD3 ganglioside in patients with melanoma. Induction of inflammatory responses at tumor sites. *J Clin Oncol* 1988; 6:1636–1648.
- 164f. Nasi ML, Meyers M, Livinston PO et al. Anti-melanoma effects of R24, a monoclonal antibody against GD3 ganglioside. *Melanoma Res* 1997; 2:S155–S162.
- 164g. Kirkwood JM, Mascari RA, Edington HD, Rabkin MS, Day RS et al. Analysis of therapeutic and immunologic effects of R-24 anti-GD3 monoclonal antibody in 37 patients with metastatic melanoma. *Cancer* 2000; 88:2693–2702.
- 164h. Lichtin A. Therapy of melanoma with an anti-melanoma ganglioside monoclonal antibody: a possible mechanism of a complete response. *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol* 1988; 7:247(Abstract).
- 164i. Cheung NKV, Lazarus H, Miraldi FD et al. Ganglioside GD2 specific monoclonal antibody 3F8: A phase I study on patients with neuroblastoma and malignant melanoma. *J Clin Oncol* 1987; 5:1430–1440.
- 164j. Murray JL, Cunningham JE, Brewer H et al. Phase I trial of murine monoclonal antibody 14G2a administered by prolonged intravenous infusion in patients with neuroectodermal tumors. *J Clin Oncol* 1994; 12:184–193.
- 164k. Goodman GE, Beaumier P, Hellstrom I et al. Pilot trial of murine monoclonal antibodies in patients with advanced melanoma. *J Clin Oncol* 1985; 3:340–352.

165. Bukowski RM. Phase I trial of cisplatin; WR-2721 and the murine monoclonal antibody R24 in patients with metastatic melanoma. *J Immunother Emphasis Tumour Immunol* 1994; 15:273–282.
166. Murray JL. Phase Ia/1b trial of anti-GD-2 chimeric monoclonal antibody 14.18(ch 14.18) and recombinant human granulocyte-macrophage colony stimulating factor (rhGM-CSF) in metastatic melanoma. *J Immunother Emphasis Tumour Immunol* 1996; 19:206–216.
167. Minasian LM. A phase I study of anti-GD3 ganglioside monoclonal antibody R24 and recombinant human macrophage-colony stimulating factor in patients with metastatic melanoma. *Cancer* 1995; 75:2251–2257.
168. Crekmore S. Phase Ib/II trial of R24 antibody and interleukin-2(IL2) in melanoma. *Proc ASCO* 1992; 11:1186
169. Bajorin DF. Phase I evaluation of a combination of monoclonal antibody R24 and interleukin 2 in patients with metastatic melanoma. *Cancer Res* 1990; 50:7490–7495
170. Goodman GE. Phase I trial of murine monoclonal antibody MG 22 and IL2 in patients with disseminated melanoma. *Proc ASCO*; 1992; 11:1190.
171. Minasian LM. Hemorrhagic tumour necrosis during a pilot trial of tumour necrosis factor alpha and anti-GD3 ganglioside monoclonal antibody in patients with metastatic melanoma. *Blood* 1994; 83:56–64.
- 171a. Butler MO, Haluska FG. Monoclonal antibody-based therapy of melanoma. In: *Monoclonal Antibody-Based Therapy of Cancer*. (ed. Grossbard ML). Marcel Dekker Inc. New York. NY 1998; pp. 339–364.
172. Rosenblum MG. Interferon-induced changes in the pharmacokinetics and tumour uptake of 111-In labelled antimelanoma antibody 96.5 in melanoma patients. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1988; 80:160–165.
173. Ghose T, Norvell ST, Guclu A, Bodurtha A, Tai J, MacDonald AS. Immunochemotherapy of malignant melanoma with chlorambucil-bound antimelanoma globulins: preliminary results in patients with disseminated disease. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1977; 58:845–852.
- 173a. Oldham RK, Lewis M, Ogden J et al. Adriamycin custom tailored immunoconjugates in the treatment of human malignancies. *Mol Biother* 1989; 1:103–113.
- 173b. Orr D et al. Phase I trial of mitomycin C immunoconjugates cocktails in human malignancies. *Mol Biother* 1989; 1229–1240.
174. Spittle LE, Mischak R, Scannon P. Therapy of metastatic malignant melanoma using Xomazyme Mel, a murine anti-melanoma ricin A chain immunotoxin. *Intl J Rad Appl Instrum B* 1989; 16:625–627.
175. von Wussow P. Immunotherapy in patients with advanced malignant melanoma using a monoclonal antibody ricin A immunotoxin. *Eur J Clin Oncol* 1988; 24(Suppl 2):S69–S73.
176. Laske DW, Muraszko KM, Oldfield EH, DeVroom HL, Sung C, et al. Intraventricular immunotoxin therapy for leptomeningeal neoplasia. *Neurosurgery* 1997; 41:1039–1949
- 176a. Lake DW, Youle R, Oldfield EH, et al. Tumor regression with regional distribution of the targeted toxin Tf-CRM107 in patients with malignant brain tumors. *Nat Med* 1997; 3(12):1362–1368.
177. Pun RK, Leland P, Kreitman R, Pastan I. Human neurological cancer cells express interleukin- (IL-4) receptors which are the targets for the toxic effects of IL4-*Pseudomonas* exotoxin chimeric protein. *Intl J Cancer* 1994; 58:574–581.

