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REAGI A UNE THERAPIE ANTERIEURE
(54) Title: ANTIANGIOGENESIS THERAPY OF AUTOIMMUNE DISEASE IN PATIENTS WHO HAVE FAILED PRIOR
THERAPY

(57) **Abrégé/Abstract:**

The present application describes therapy with angiogenesis antagonists such as anti-VEGF antibodies. In particular, the application describes the use of such antagonists to treat autoimmune disease in a patient who has failed prior treatment such as treatment with DMARDs or TNF α -inhibitors.



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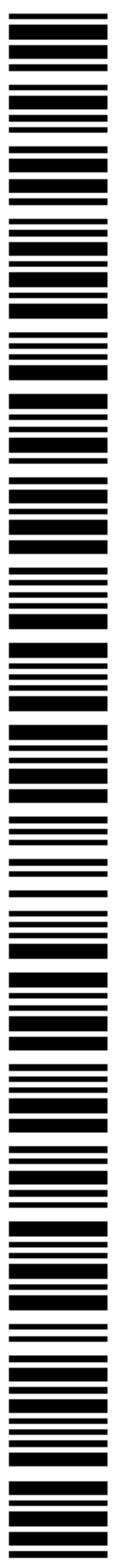
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(54) **Title:** ANTIANGIOGENESIS THERAPY OF AUTOIMMUNE DISEASE IN PATIENTS WHO HAVE FAILED PRIOR THERAPY

(57) **Abstract:** The present application describes therapy with angiogenesis antagonists such as anti-VEGF antibodies. In particular, the application describes the use of such antagonists to treat autoimmune disease in a patient who has failed prior treatment such as treatment with DMARDs or TNF α -inhibitors.



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ANTIANGIOGENESIS THERAPY OF AUTOIMMUNE DISEASE
IN PATIENTS WHO HAVE FAILED PRIOR THERAPY

Related Applications

This is a non-provisional application filed under 37 CFR §1.53(b), claiming priority under 35 U.S.C. §119(e) to U.S. Provisional Application Serial No. 60/637,169 filed on December 17, 2004, the entire contents of which is hereby incorporated by reference.

Field of the Invention

The present invention concerns therapy with angiogenesis antagonists, such as an anti-VEGF antibody. In particular, the invention concerns the use of such antagonists to treat autoimmune disease, particularly in a patient who has failed prior treatment.

Background of the Invention

Autoimmune diseases, such as rheumatoid arthritis, multiple sclerosis, vasculitis, and lupus, among others, remain clinically important diseases in humans. Collectively, autoimmune diseases affect about 5% of North Americans and Europeans, two-thirds of whom are women. As the name implies, autoimmune diseases wreak their havoc through the body's own immune system. The immune system, normally efficient in defeating external threats from the microbial world, at times directs its potent arsenal against the body's self-constituents, causing autoimmunity. While the pathological mechanisms differ among individual types of autoimmune diseases, one general mechanism involves the binding of certain antibodies (referred to herein as self-reactive antibodies or autoantibodies) present. The diseases often involve distinct anatomic regions. For example, the immune system attacks the synovial lining of the joints in rheumatoid arthritis (RA), the thyroid gland in thyroiditis, the insulin-secreting beta cells of the pancreas in type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM), and the myelin sheath of the brain and the spinal cord in multiple sclerosis (MS). In systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), there are protean manifestations with involvement of skin, kidneys, joints, and brain.

Rheumatoid arthritis (RA) is a chronic autoimmune disorder of unknown etiology, typically characterized by symmetrical pain and swelling of the small joints of the hands and feet. Virtually any other joint in the body may become affected by inflammation, including the large joints, such as the shoulders, knees, and hips, jaws, and cervical spine. Persistent joint inflammation often produces articular cartilage and bone destruction as well as permanent deformities. The natural history of disease is described in years, but joint damage may occur as early as 3 to 6 months after onset. Although RA predominantly affects the joints, it is a systemic disease and may cause fatigue, low-grade fever, and involve other organ systems, including the eyes, lungs, and blood vessels. For example, RA may cause scleritis

(inflammatory eye disease), pleuritis, interstitial pulmonary fibrosis, and vasculitis. RA exacts a considerable toll on a patient's quality of life, causing pain and functional disability, with associated restrictions on household, family, and recreational activities. Limitations in work capacity and in some cases, unemployment, can have substantial economic ramifications for both individuals and society.

The diagnosis of RA is based on clinical manifestations and the results of selected laboratory tests. Approximately 75% of patients will test positive for rheumatoid factor (an autoantibody reactive with the Fc portion of immunoglobulin G [IgG]), but this finding may not be present during the first year of disease. Furthermore, rheumatoid factor is not specific for rheumatoid arthritis and is found in 5% of healthy individuals. The erythrocyte sedimentation rate is increased in most patients with RA, and C-reactive protein, another acute phase reactant, is typically elevated in patients with active disease. X-rays of the hands and feet, or possibly other joints, may be useful in some cases, demonstrating periarticular bony demineralization, joint space narrowing, and bony erosions.

Currently there is no cure for RA. Since the cause of the disease is unknown, current therapies are directed toward suppression of the inflammatory response. Like most chronic arthritides, the goal of treatment is to preserve joint function and limit disease progression. The medication list of a patient with active RA may include a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID), a low dose of prednisone, and one or more disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs (DMARDs). See "Guidelines for the management of rheumatoid arthritis" *Arthritis & Rheumatism* 46(2): 328-346 (February, 2002). The majority of patients with newly diagnosed RA are started with disease-modifying antirheumatic drug (DMARD) therapy within 3 months of diagnosis. DMARDs commonly used in RA are hydroxychloroquine, sulfasalazine, methotrexate (MTX), leflunomide, azathioprine, D-penicillamine, Gold (oral), Gold (intramuscular), minocycline, cyclosporine, and Staphylococcal protein A immunoadsorption. Recent studies indicate that patients with active RA develop significant joint damage during the first few years of disease. This knowledge has led to a more aggressive treatment approach using combinations of DMARDs. However, combination DMARD therapy does not completely abrogate disease activity and may result in serious drug-related complications. Moreover, most patients still develop joint erosions despite aggressive treatment.

Overactivity of the cytokine tumor necrosis factor (TNF) has been associated with synoviocyte proliferation, neo-angiogenesis, the recruitment of inflammatory cells, and the production of degradative enzymes. These findings have stimulated the development of anticytokine therapies. Further investigation has shown that the signs and symptoms of RA can be abrogated when certain proinflammatory cytokines, such as TNF and IL-1, are neutralized by monoclonal antibodies, naturally occurring cytokine antagonists, or cytokine receptor blockers.

Etanercept (ENBREL®) is an injectable drug approved in the US for therapy of active RA. Etanercept binds to TNF α and serves to remove most TNF α from joints and blood, thereby preventing TNF α from promoting inflammation and other symptoms of rheumatoid arthritis. Etanercept is an “immunoadhesin” fusion protein consisting of the extracellular ligand binding portion of the human 75 kD (p75) tumor necrosis factor receptor (TNFR) linked to the Fc portion of a human IgG1. The drug has been associated with negative side effects including serious infections and sepsis, nervous system disorders such as multiple sclerosis (MS).

Infliximab, sold under the trade name REMICADE®, is an immune-suppressing drug prescribed to treat RA and Crohn's disease. Infliximab is a chimeric monoclonal antibody that binds to TNF α and reduces inflammation in the body by targeting and binding to TNF α which produces inflammation. Infliximab has been linked to fatal reactions such as heart failure and infections including tuberculosis as well as demyelination resulting in MS.

In December 2002, Abbott Laboratories received FDA approval to market adalimumab (HUMIRA™), previously known as D2E7. Adalimumab is a human monoclonal antibody that binds to TNF α and is approved for reducing the signs and symptoms and inhibiting the progression of structural damage in adults with moderately to severely active RA who have had insufficient response to one or more traditional disease modifying DMARDs.

Angiogenesis is an important cellular event in which vascular endothelial cells proliferate, prune and reorganize to form new vessels from preexisting vascular network. There are compelling evidences that the development of a vascular supply is essential for normal and pathological proliferative processes (Folkman and Klagsbrun (1987) *Science* 235:442-447). Delivery of oxygen and nutrients, as well as the removal of catabolic products, represent rate-limiting steps in the majority of growth processes occurring in multicellular organisms. Thus, it has been generally assumed that the vascular compartment is necessary, albeit but not sufficient, not only for organ development and differentiation during embryogenesis, but also for wound healing and reproductive functions in the adult.

Angiogenesis is also implicated in the pathogenesis of a variety of disorders, including but not limited to, proliferative retinopathies, age-related macular degeneration, tumors, autoimmune diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis (RA), and psoriasis. Angiogenesis is a cascade of process consisting of 1) degradation of the extracellular matrix of a local venue after the release of protease, 2) proliferation of capillary endothelial cells, and 3) migration of capillary tubules toward the angiogenic stimulus. Ferrara et al. (1992) *Endocrine Rev.* 13:18-32.

In view of the remarkable physiological and pathological importance of angiogenesis, much work has been dedicated to the elucidation of the factors capable of regulating this

process. It is suggested that the angiogenesis process is regulated by a balance between pro- and anti- angiogenic molecules, and is derailed in various diseases, especially cancer. Carmeliet and Jain (2000) *Nature* 407:249-257.

Vascular endothelial cell growth factor (VEGF), a potent mitogen for vascular endothelial cells, has been reported as a pivotal regulator of both normal and abnormal angiogenesis. Ferrara and Davis-Smyth (1997) *Endocrine Rev.* 18:4-25; Ferrara (1999) *J. Mol. Med.* 77:527-543. Compared to other growth factors that contribute to the processes of vascular formation, VEGF is unique in its high specificity for endothelial cells within the vascular system. Recent evidence indicates that VEGF is essential for embryonic vasculogenesis and angiogenesis. Carmeliet et al. (1996) *Nature* 380:435-439; Ferrara et al. (1996) *Nature* 380:439-442. Furthermore, VEGF is required for the cyclical blood vessel proliferation in the female reproductive tract and for bone growth and cartilage formation. Ferrara et al. (1998) *Nature Med.* 4:336-340; Gerber et al. (1999) *Nature Med.* 5:623-628.

In addition to being an angiogenic factor in angiogenesis and vasculogenesis, VEGF, as a pleiotropic growth factor, exhibits multiple biological effects in other physiological processes, such as endothelial cell survival, vessel permeability and vasodilation, monocyte chemotaxis and calcium influx. Ferrara and Davis-Smyth (1997), *supra*. Moreover, recent studies have reported mitogenic effects of VEGF on a few non-endothelial cell types, such as retinal pigment epithelial cells, pancreatic duct cells and Schwann cells. Guerrin et al. (1995) *J. Cell Physiol.* 164:385-394; Oberg-Welsh et al. (1997) *Mol. Cell. Endocrinol.* 126:125-132; Sondell et al. (1999) *J. Neurosci.* 19:5731-5740.

Substantial evidence also implicates VEGF's critical role in the development of conditions or diseases that involve pathological angiogenesis. The VEGF mRNA is overexpressed by the majority of human tumors examined (Berkman *et al. J Clin Invest* 91:153-159 (1993); Brown *et al. Human Pathol.* 26:86-91 (1995); Brown *et al. Cancer Res.* 53:4727-4735 (1993); Mattern *et al. Brit. J. Cancer.* 73:931-934 (1996); and Dvorak *et al. Am J. Pathol.* 146:1029-1039 (1995)). Also, the concentration of VEGF in eye fluids are highly correlated to the presence of active proliferation of blood vessels in patients with diabetic and other ischemia-related retinopathies (Aiello *et al. N. Engl. J. Med.* 331:1480-1487 (1994)). Furthermore, recent studies have demonstrated the localization of VEGF in choroidal neovascular membranes in patients affected by AMD (Lopez *et al. Invest. Ophthalmol. Vis. Sci.* 37:855-868 (1996)).

The recognition of VEGF as a primary regulator of angiogenesis in pathological conditions has led to numerous attempts to block VEGF activities. Inhibitory anti-VEGF receptor antibodies, soluble receptor constructs, antisense strategies, RNA aptamers against VEGF and low molecular weight VEGF receptor tyrosine kinase (RTK) inhibitors have all been proposed for use in interfering with VEGF signaling (Siemeister *et al. Cancer*

Metastasis Rev. 17:241-248 (1998). Indeed, anti-VEGF neutralizing antibodies have been shown to suppress the growth of a variety of human tumor cell lines in nude mice (Kim *et al. Nature* 362:841-844 (1993); Warren *et al. J. Clin. Invest.* 95:1789-1797 (1995); Borgström *et al. Cancer Res.* 56:4032-4039 (1996); and Melnyk *et al. Cancer Res.* 56:921-924 (1996)) and also inhibit intraocular angiogenesis in models of ischemic retinal disorders (Adamis *et al. Arch. Ophthalmol.* 114:66-71 (1996)). Therefore, anti-VEGF monoclonal antibodies or other inhibitors of VEGF action are promising candidates for the treatment of solid tumors and various intraocular neovascular disorders. Although the VEGF molecule is upregulated in tumor cells, and its receptors are upregulated in tumor infiltrated vascular endothelial cells, the expression of VEGF and its receptors remain low in normal cells that are not associated with angiogenesis. Thus, such normal cells would not be affected by blocking the interaction between VEGF and its receptors to inhibit tumor angiogenesis, and therefore tumor growth and cancer metastasis.

Monoclonal antibodies are now commonly manufactured using recombinant DNA technology. Widespread use has been made of monoclonal antibodies, particularly those derived from rodents. However, nonhuman antibodies are frequently antigenic in humans. The art has attempted to overcome this problem by constructing "chimeric" antibodies in which a nonhuman antigen-binding domain is coupled to a human constant domain (Cabilly *et al.*, U.S. patent No. 4,816,567). The isotype of the human constant domain may be selected to tailor the chimeric antibody for participation in antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC) and complement-dependent cytotoxicity. In a further effort to resolve the antigen binding functions of antibodies and to minimize the use of heterologous sequences in human antibodies, humanized antibodies have been generated for various antigens in which substantially less than an intact human variable domain has been substituted by the corresponding sequence from a non-human species have substituted rodent (CDR) residues for the corresponding segments of a human antibody to generate. In practice, humanized antibodies are typically human antibodies in which some complementarity determining region (CDR) residues and possibly some framework region (FR) residues are substituted by residues from analogous sites in rodent antibodies. Jones *et al.*, *Nature* 321:522-525 (1986); Riechmann *et al.*, *Nature* 332:323-327 (1988); Verhoeyen *et al.*, *Science* 239:1534-1536 (1988).

Several humanized anti-human VEGF (hVEGF) antibodies have been successfully generated, and have shown significant hVEGF-inhibitory activities both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Presta *et al.* (1997) *Cancer Research* 57:4593-4599; Chen *et al.* (1999) *J. Mol. Biol.* 293:865-881. One specific humanized anti-VEGF antibody, bevacizumab (Avastin®, Genentech, Inc.), has been approved in the US for use in combination with chemotherapeutic agents for treating metastatic colorectal cancer (CRC). The drug is currently used in several clinical trials for

treating various other cancers. Another high-affinity variant of the humanized anti-VEGF antibody is currently clinically tested for treating age-related macular degeneration (AMD).

There is increasing evidence to suggest that VEGF is associated with the pathogenesis of inflammatory joint diseases such as RA. VEGF has been identified in synovial tissues such as synovial lining cells, synovial lining macrophages, perivascular fibroblasts, and vascular smooth muscle cells in the inflamed joints of patients with RA. Nagashima et al (1995) *J. Rheumatol.* 22:1624-1630. VEGF levels in synovial fluid and serum are found to be significantly elevated in both adult and juvenile RA and to correlate with disease activity. Koch et al. (1994) *J. Immunol.* 152:4149-4156. Recently, it has been demonstrated that neutralization of VEGF can prevent collagen-induced arthritis and ameliorate established RA in mice. Sone et al. (2001) *Bioch. Bioph. Res. Comm.* 281:562-568.

Despite these developments, there remains a need for effective therapies of autoimmune diseases, especially therapies using angiogenesis antagonists.

Summary of the Invention

The present invention provides, in a first aspect, a method of treating an autoimmune disease in a mammal who has failed a prior treatment, comprising administering to the mammal a therapeutically effective amount of an angiogenesis antagonist.

For instance, the invention provides a method of treating rheumatoid arthritis in a mammal who has failed or experiences an inadequate response to a DMARD therapy such as MTX or a TNF α -inhibitor, comprising administering to the mammal a therapeutically effective amount of an antibody that binds to and blocks VEGF.

The invention also concerns a method of reducing the risk of a negative side effect selected from the group consisting of an infection, heart failure and demyelination, comprising administering to a mammal with an autoimmune disease a therapeutically effective amount of an angiogenesis antagonist.

Also provided are uses of angiogenesis antagonists such as anti-VEGF antibodies in the preparation of medicaments for the treatment of autoimmune diseases such as RA, in patients who have failed prior therapies.

Detailed Description of the Preferred Embodiments

I. Definitions

For the purposes herein, "angiogenesis antagonist" is a composition capable of blocking, inhibiting, abrogating, interfering or reducing pathological angiogenesis associated with a disease or disorder. Many angiogenesis antagonists have been identified and are known in the arts, including those listed by Carmeliet and Jain (2000). Generally, angiogenesis antagonist is a composition targeting a specific angiogenic factor or an angiogenesis pathway. In certain aspects, the angiogenesis antagonist is a protein

composition such as an antibody targeting an angiogenic factor. One of the most recognized angiogenic factors is VEGF, and one of the most potent angiogenesis antagonists is a neutralizing anti-VEGF antibody.

The terms "VEGF" and "VEGF-A" are used interchangeably to refer to the 165-amino acid vascular endothelial cell growth factor and related 121-, 189-, and 206- amino acid vascular endothelial cell growth factors, as described by Leung *et al. Science*, 246:1306 (1989), and Houck *et al. Mol. Endocrin.*, 5:1806 (1991), together with the naturally occurring allelic and processed forms thereof. The term "VEGF" is also used to refer to truncated forms of the polypeptide comprising amino acids 8 to 109 or 1 to 109 of the 165-amino acid human vascular endothelial cell growth factor. Reference to any such forms of VEGF may be identified in the present application, e.g., by "VEGF (8-109)," "VEGF (1-109)" or "VEGF₁₆₅." The amino acid positions for a "truncated" native VEGF are numbered as indicated in the native VEGF sequence. For example, amino acid position 17 (methionine) in truncated native VEGF is also position 17 (methionine) in native VEGF. The truncated native VEGF has binding affinity for the KDR and Flt-1 receptors comparable to native VEGF.

An "anti-VEGF antibody" is an antibody that binds to VEGF with sufficient affinity and specificity. Preferably, the anti-VEGF antibody of the invention can be used as a therapeutic agent in targeting and interfering with diseases or conditions wherein the VEGF activity is involved. An anti-VEGF antibody will usually not bind to other VEGF homologues such as VEGF-B or VEGF-C, nor other growth factors such as PlGF, PDGF or bFGF. A preferred anti-VEGF antibody is a monoclonal antibody that binds to the same epitope as the monoclonal anti-VEGF antibody A4.6.1 produced by hybridoma ATCC HB 10709. More preferably the anti-VEGF antibody is a recombinant humanized anti-VEGF monoclonal antibody generated according to Presta *et al. (1997) Cancer Res.* 57:4593-4599, including but not limited to the antibody known as bevacizumab (BV; Avastin®).

The anti-VEGF antibody "Bevacizumab (BV)", also known as "rhuMAb VEGF" or "Avastin®", is a recombinant humanized anti-VEGF monoclonal antibody generated according to Presta *et al. (1997) Cancer Res.* 57:4593-4599. It comprises mutated human IgG1 framework regions and antigen-binding complementarity-determining regions from the murine anti-hVEGF monoclonal antibody A.4.6.1 that blocks binding of human VEGF to its receptors. Approximately 93% of the amino acid sequence of Bevacizumab, including most of the framework regions, is derived from human IgG1, and about 7% of the sequence is derived from the murine antibody A4.6.1. Bevacizumab has a molecular mass of about 149,000 daltons and is glycosylated.

A “VEGF antagonist” refers to a molecule capable of neutralizing, blocking, inhibiting, abrogating, reducing or interfering with VEGF activities including its binding to one or more VEGF receptors. VEGF antagonists include anti-VEGF antibodies and antigen-binding fragments thereof, receptor molecules and derivatives which bind specifically to VEGF thereby sequestering its binding to one or more receptors, anti-VEGF receptor antibodies and VEGF receptor antagonists such as small molecule inhibitors of the VEGFR tyrosine kinases.

An “autoimmune disease” herein is a disease or disorder arising from and directed against an individual’s own tissues or a co-segregate or manifestation thereof or resulting condition therefrom. Examples of autoimmune diseases or disorders include, but are not limited to arthritis (rheumatoid arthritis, juvenile-onset rheumatoid arthritis, osteoarthritis, psoriatic arthritis, and ankylosing spondylitis), psoriasis, dermatitis including atopic dermatitis, chronic idiopathic urticaria, including chronic autoimmune urticaria, polymyositis/dermatomyositis, toxic epidermal necrolysis, scleroderma (including systemic scleroderma), sclerosis such as progressive systemic sclerosis, inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) (for example, Crohn's disease, ulcerative colitis, autoimmune inflammatory bowel disease), pyoderma gangrenosum, erythema nodosum, primary sclerosing cholangitis, episcleritis), respiratory distress syndrome, including adult respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), meningitis, IgE-mediated diseases such as anaphylaxis and allergic and atopic rhinitis, encephalitis such as Rasmussen's encephalitis, uveitis or autoimmune uveitis, colitis such as microscopic colitis and collagenous colitis, glomerulonephritis (GN) such as membranous GN (membranous nephropathy), idiopathic membranous GN, membranous proliferative GN (MPGN), including Type I and Type II, and rapidly progressive GN, allergic conditions, allergic reaction, eczema, asthma, conditions involving infiltration of T cells and chronic inflammatory responses, atherosclerosis, autoimmune myocarditis, leukocyte adhesion deficiency, systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) such as cutaneous SLE, subacute cutaneous lupus erythematosus, lupus (including nephritis, cerebritis, pediatric, non-renal, discoid, alopecia), juvenile onset (Type I) diabetes mellitus, including pediatric insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM), adult onset diabetes mellitus (Type II diabetes), multiple sclerosis (MS) such as spino-optical MS, immune responses associated with acute and delayed hypersensitivity mediated by cytokines and T-lymphocytes, tuberculosis, sarcoidosis, granulomatosis including lymphomatoid granulomatosis, Wegener’s granulomatosis, agranulocytosis, vasculitis (including large vessel vasculitis (including polymyalgia rheumatica and giant cell (Takayasu’s) arteritis), medium vessel vasculitis (including Kawasaki’s disease and polyarteritis nodosa), CNS vasculitis, systemic necrotizing vasculitis, and ANCA-associated vasculitis, such as Churg-Strauss vasculitis or syndrome

(CSS)), temporal arteritis, aplastic anemia, Coombs positive anemia, Diamond Blackfan anemia, hemolytic anemia or immune hemolytic anemia including autoimmune hemolytic anemia (AIHA), pernicious anemia, pure red cell aplasia (PRCA), Factor VIII deficiency, hemophilia A, autoimmune neutropenia, pancytopenia, leukopenia, diseases involving leukocyte diapedesis, CNS inflammatory disorders, multiple organ injury syndrome, antigen-antibody complex mediated diseases, anti-glomerular basement membrane disease, anti-phospholipid antibody syndrome, allergic neuritis, Bechet's or Behcet's disease, Castleman's syndrome, Goodpasture's syndrome, Reynaud's syndrome, Sjogren's syndrome, Stevens-Johnson syndrome, pemphigoid such as pemphigoid bullous, pemphigus (including vulgaris, foliaceus, and pemphigus mucus-membrane pemphigoid), autoimmune polyendocrinopathies, Reiter's disease, immune complex nephritis, chronic neuropathy such as IgM polyneuropathies or IgM-mediated neuropathy, thrombocytopenia (as developed by myocardial infarction patients, for example), including thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura (TTP) and autoimmune or immune-mediated thrombocytopenia such as idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura (ITP) including chronic or acute ITP, autoimmune disease of the testis and ovary including autoimmune orchitis and oophoritis, primary hypothyroidism, hypoparathyroidism, autoimmune endocrine diseases including thyroiditis such as autoimmune thyroiditis, chronic thyroiditis (Hashimoto's thyroiditis), or subacute thyroiditis, autoimmune thyroid disease, idiopathic hypothyroidism, Addison's disease, Grave's disease, polyglandular syndromes such as autoimmune polyglandular syndromes (or polyglandular endocrinopathy syndromes), paraneoplastic syndromes, including neurologic paraneoplastic syndromes such as Lambert-Eaton myasthenic syndrome or Eaton-Lambert syndrome, stiff-man or stiff-person syndrome, encephalomyelitis such as allergic encephalomyelitis, myasthenia gravis, cerebellar degeneration, limbic and/or brainstem encephalitis, neuromyotonia, opsoclonus or opsoclonus myoclonus syndrome (OMS), and sensory neuropathy, Sheehan's syndrome, autoimmune hepatitis, chronic hepatitis, lupoid hepatitis, chronic active hepatitis or autoimmune chronic active hepatitis, lymphoid interstitial pneumonitis, bronchiolitis obliterans (non-transplant) vs NSIP, Guillain-Barré syndrome, Berger's disease (IgA nephropathy), primary biliary cirrhosis, celiac sprue (gluten enteropathy), refractory sprue, dermatitis herpetiformis, cryoglobulinemia, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS; Lou Gehrig's disease), coronary artery disease, autoimmune inner ear disease (AIED), or autoimmune hearing loss, opsoclonus myoclonus syndrome (OMS), polychondritis such as refractory polychondritis, pulmonary alveolar proteinosis, amyloidosis, giant cell hepatitis, scleritis, a non-cancerous lymphocytosis, a primary lymphocytosis, which includes monoclonal B cell lymphocytosis (e.g., benign monoclonal gammopathy and monoclonal gammopathy of undetermined significance, MGUS), peripheral neuropathy, paraneoplastic syndrome, channelopathies such as epilepsy, migraine, arrhythmia, muscular

disorders, deafness, blindness, periodic paralysis, and channelopathies of the CNS, autism, inflammatory myopathy, focal segmental glomerulosclerosis (FSGS), endocrine ophthalmopathy, uveoretinitis, autoimmune hepatological disorder, fibromyalgia, multiple endocrine failure, Schmidt's syndrome, adrenalitis, gastric atrophy, presenile dementia, demyelinating diseases, Dressler's syndrome, alopecia arcata, CREST syndrome (calcinosis, Raynaud's phenomenon, esophageal dysmotility, sclerodactyly, and telangiectasia), male and female autoimmune infertility, ankylosing spondylitis, mixed connective tissue disease, Chagas' disease, rheumatic fever, recurrent abortion, farmer's lung, erythema multiforme, post-cardiotomy syndrome, Cushing's syndrome, bird-fancier's lung, Alport's syndrome, alveolitis such as allergic alveolitis and fibrosing alveolitis, interstitial lung disease, transfusion reaction, leprosy, malaria, leishmaniasis, kypansomiasis, schistosomiasis, ascariasis, aspergillosis, Sampter's syndrome, Caplan's syndrome, dengue, endocarditis, endomyocardial fibrosis, endophthalmitis, erythema elevatum et diutinum, erythroblastosis fetalis, eosinophilic fasciitis, Shulman's syndrome, Felty's syndrome, filariasis, cyclitis such as chronic cyclitis, heterochronic cyclitis, or Fuch's cyclitis, Henoch-Schönlein purpura, human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection, echovirus infection, cardiomyopathy, Alzheimer's disease, parvovirus infection, rubella virus infection, post-vaccination syndromes, congenital rubella infection, Epstein-Barr virus infection, mumps, Evan's syndrome, autoimmune gonadal failure, Sydenham's chorea, post-streptococcal nephritis, thromboangitis obliterans, thyrotoxicosis, tabes dorsalis, and giant cell polyomyalgia.

A “tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF α)” refers to a human TNF α molecule comprising the amino acid sequence as described in Pennica *et al.*, *Nature*, 312:721 (1984) or Aggarwal *et al.*, *JBC*, 260:2345 (1985).

A “TNF α inhibitor” herein is an agent that decreases, inhibits, blocks, abrogates or interferes a biological function of TNF α , generally through binding to TNF α and neutralizing its activity. Examples of TNF inhibitors specifically contemplated herein are Etanercept (ENBREL®), Infliximab (REMICADE®) and Adalimumab (HUMIRA™).

The term “inadequate response to a TNF α -inhibitor” refers to an inadequate response to previous or current treatment with a TNF α -inhibitor because of toxicity and/or inadequate efficacy. The inadequate response can be assessed by a clinician skilled in treating the disease in question.

A mammal who experiences “toxicity” from previous or current treatment with the TNF α -inhibitor experiences one or more negative side-effects associated therewith such as infection (especially serious infections), congestive heart failure, demyelination (leading to multiple sclerosis), hypersensitivity, neurologic events, autoimmunity, non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, tuberculosis (TB), autoantibodies, etc.

A mammal who has “failed prior treatment” or experiences “inadequate efficacy” continues to have active disease following previous or current treatment with a drug such as a DMARD or a TNF α -inhibitor. For instance, the patient may have active disease activity after 1 month or 3 months of therapy with the DMARD (such as MTX) or the TNF α -inhibitor.

A “B cell surface marker” herein is an antigen expressed on the surface of a B cell which can be targeted with an antagonist which binds thereto. Exemplary B cell surface markers include the CD10, CD19, CD20, CD21, CD22, CD23, CD24, CD37, CD40, CD53, CD72, CD73, CD74, CDw75, CDw76, CD77, CDw78, CD79a, CD79b, CD80, CD81, CD82, CD83, CDw84, CD85 and CD86 leukocyte surface markers. The B cell surface marker of particular interest is preferentially expressed on B cells compared to other non-B cell tissues of a mammal and may be expressed on both precursor B cells and mature B cells. In one embodiment, the marker is one, like CD20 or CD19, which is found on B cells throughout differentiation of the lineage from the stem cell stage up to a point just prior to terminal differentiation into plasma cells. The preferred B cell surface markers herein is CD20.

The “CD20” antigen is a ~35 kDa, non-glycosylated phosphoprotein found on the surface of greater than 90% of B cells from peripheral blood or lymphoid organs. CD20 is expressed during early pre-B cell development and remains until plasma cell differentiation. CD20 is present on both normal B cells as well as malignant B cells. Other names for CD20 in the literature include “B-lymphocyte-restricted antigen” and “Bp35”. The CD20 antigen is described in Clark *et al. PNAS (USA)* 82:1766 (1985), for example.

“Growth inhibitory” antagonists are those which prevent or reduce proliferation of a cell expressing an antigen to which the antagonist binds. For example, the antagonist may prevent or reduce proliferation of B cells *in vitro* and/or *in vivo*.

The term “antibody” herein is used in the broadest sense and specifically covers intact monoclonal antibodies, polyclonal antibodies, multispecific antibodies (*e.g.* bispecific antibodies) formed from at least two intact antibodies, and antibody fragments so long as they exhibit the desired biological activity.

“Antibody fragments” comprise a portion of an intact antibody, preferably comprising the antigen-binding or variable region thereof. Examples of antibody fragments include Fab, Fab', F(ab')₂, and Fv fragments; diabodies; linear antibodies; single-chain antibody molecules; and multispecific antibodies formed from antibody fragments.

“Native antibodies” are usually heterotetrameric glycoproteins of about 150,000 daltons, composed of two identical light (L) chains and two identical heavy (H) chains. Each light chain is linked to a heavy chain by one covalent disulfide bond, while the number of disulfide linkages varies among the heavy chains of different immunoglobulin isotypes. Each heavy and light chain also has regularly spaced intrachain disulfide bridges. Each heavy chain has at one end a variable domain (V_H) followed by a number of constant domains. Each

light chain has a variable domain at one end (V_L) and a constant domain at its other end; the constant domain of the light chain is aligned with the first constant domain of the heavy chain, and the light-chain variable domain is aligned with the variable domain of the heavy chain. Particular amino acid residues are believed to form an interface between the light chain and heavy chain variable domains.

The term "variable" refers to the fact that certain portions of the variable domains differ extensively in sequence among antibodies and are used in the binding and specificity of each particular antibody for its particular antigen. However, the variability is not evenly distributed throughout the variable domains of antibodies. It is concentrated in three segments called hypervariable regions both in the light chain and the heavy chain variable domains. The more highly conserved portions of variable domains are called the framework regions (FRs). The variable domains of native heavy and light chains each comprise four FRs, largely adopting a β -sheet configuration, connected by three hypervariable regions, which form loops connecting, and in some cases forming part of, the β -sheet structure. The hypervariable regions in each chain are held together in close proximity by the FRs and, with the hypervariable regions from the other chain, contribute to the formation of the antigen-binding site of antibodies (see Kabat *et al.*, *Sequences of Proteins of Immunological Interest*, 5th Ed. Public Health Service, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD. (1991)). The constant domains are not involved directly in binding an antibody to an antigen, but exhibit various effector functions, such as participation of the antibody in antibody dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC).

Papain digestion of antibodies produces two identical antigen-binding fragments, called "Fab" fragments, each with a single antigen-binding site, and a residual "Fc" fragment, whose name reflects its ability to crystallize readily. Pepsin treatment yields an $F(ab')_2$ fragment that has two antigen-binding sites and is still capable of cross-linking antigen.

"Fv" is the minimum antibody fragment which contains a complete antigen-recognition and antigen-binding site. This region consists of a dimer of one heavy chain and one light chain variable domain in tight, non-covalent association. It is in this configuration that the three hypervariable regions of each variable domain interact to define an antigen-binding site on the surface of the V_H - V_L dimer. Collectively, the six hypervariable regions confer antigen-binding specificity to the antibody. However, even a single variable domain (or half of an Fv comprising only three hypervariable regions specific for an antigen) has the ability to recognize and bind antigen, although at a lower affinity than the entire binding site.

The Fab fragment also contains the constant domain of the light chain and the first constant domain (CH1) of the heavy chain. Fab' fragments differ from Fab fragments by the addition of a few residues at the carboxy terminus of the heavy chain CH1 domain including one or more cysteines from the antibody hinge region. Fab'-SH is the designation herein for

Fab' in which the cysteine residue(s) of the constant domains bear at least one free thiol group. F(ab')₂ antibody fragments originally were produced as pairs of Fab' fragments which have hinge cysteines between them. Other chemical couplings of antibody fragments are also known.

The "light chains" of antibodies (immunoglobulins) from any vertebrate species can be assigned to one of two clearly distinct types, called kappa (κ) and lambda (λ), based on the amino acid sequences of their constant domains.

Depending on the amino acid sequence of the constant domain of their heavy chains, antibodies can be assigned to different classes. There are five major classes of intact antibodies: IgA, IgD, IgE, IgG, and IgM, and several of these may be further divided into subclasses (isotypes), *e.g.*, IgG1, IgG2, IgG3, IgG4, IgA, and IgA2. The heavy-chain constant domains that correspond to the different classes of antibodies are called α , δ , ϵ , γ , and μ , respectively. The subunit structures and three-dimensional configurations of different classes of immunoglobulins are well known.

"Single-chain Fv" or "scFv" antibody fragments comprise the V_H and V_L domains of antibody, wherein these domains are present in a single polypeptide chain. Preferably, the Fv polypeptide further comprises a polypeptide linker between the V_H and V_L domains which enables the scFv to form the desired structure for antigen binding. For a review of scFv see Plückthun in *The Pharmacology of Monoclonal Antibodies*, vol. 113, Rosenberg and Moore eds., Springer-Verlag, New York, pp. 269-315 (1994).

The term "diabodies" refers to small antibody fragments with two antigen-binding sites, which fragments comprise a heavy-chain variable domain (V_H) connected to a light-chain variable domain (V_L) in the same polypeptide chain (V_H - V_L). By using a linker that is too short to allow pairing between the two domains on the same chain, the domains are forced to pair with the complementary domains of another chain and create two antigen-binding sites. Diabodies are described more fully in, for example, EP 404,097; WO 93/11161; and Hollinger *et al.*, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 90:6444-6448 (1993).

The term "monoclonal antibody" as used herein refers to an antibody obtained from a population of substantially homogeneous antibodies, *i.e.*, the individual antibodies comprising the population are identical except for possible naturally occurring mutations that may be present in minor amounts. Monoclonal antibodies are highly specific, being directed against a single antigenic site. Furthermore, in contrast to conventional (polyclonal) antibody preparations which typically include different antibodies directed against different determinants (epitopes), each monoclonal antibody is directed against a single determinant on the antigen. In addition to their specificity, the monoclonal antibodies are advantageous in that they are synthesized by the hybridoma culture, uncontaminated by other immunoglobulins. The modifier "monoclonal" indicates the character of the antibody as being

obtained from a substantially homogeneous population of antibodies, and is not to be construed as requiring production of the antibody by any particular method. For example, the monoclonal antibodies to be used in accordance with the present invention may be made by the hybridoma method first described by Kohler *et al.*, *Nature*, 256:495 (1975), or may be made by recombinant DNA methods (see, *e.g.*, U.S. Patent No. 4,816,567). The "monoclonal antibodies" may also be isolated from phage antibody libraries using the techniques described in Clackson *et al.*, *Nature*, 352:624-628 (1991) and Marks *et al.*, *J. Mol. Biol.*, 222:581-597 (1991), for example.

The monoclonal antibodies herein specifically include "chimeric" antibodies (immunoglobulins) in which a portion of the heavy and/or light chain is identical with or homologous to corresponding sequences in antibodies derived from a particular species or belonging to a particular antibody class or subclass, while the remainder of the chain(s) is identical with or homologous to corresponding sequences in antibodies derived from another species or belonging to another antibody class or subclass, as well as fragments of such antibodies, so long as they exhibit the desired biological activity (U.S. Patent No. 4,816,567; Morrison *et al.*, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 81:6851-6855 (1984)). Chimeric antibodies of interest herein include "primatized" antibodies comprising variable domain antigen-binding sequences derived from a non-human primate (*e.g.* Old World Monkey, such as baboon, rhesus or cynomolgus monkey) and human constant region sequences (US Pat No. 5,693,780).

"Humanized" forms of non-human (*e.g.*, murine) antibodies are chimeric antibodies that contain minimal sequence derived from non-human immunoglobulin. For the most part, humanized antibodies are human immunoglobulins (recipient antibody) in which residues from a hypervariable region of the recipient are replaced by residues from a hypervariable region of a non-human species (donor antibody) such as mouse, rat, rabbit or nonhuman primate having the desired specificity, affinity, and capacity. In some instances, framework region (FR) residues of the human immunoglobulin are replaced by corresponding non-human residues. Furthermore, humanized antibodies may comprise residues that are not found in the recipient antibody or in the donor antibody. These modifications are made to further refine antibody performance. In general, the humanized antibody will comprise substantially all of at least one, and typically two, variable domains, in which all or substantially all of the hypervariable loops correspond to those of a non-human immunoglobulin and all or substantially all of the FRs are those of a human immunoglobulin sequence. The humanized antibody optionally also will comprise at least a portion of an immunoglobulin constant region (Fc), typically that of a human immunoglobulin. For further details, see Jones *et al.*, *Nature* 321:522-525 (1986); Riechmann *et al.*, *Nature* 332:323-329 (1988); and Presta, *Curr. Op. Struct. Biol.* 2:593-596 (1992).

The term "hypervariable region" when used herein refers to the amino acid residues of an antibody which are responsible for antigen-binding. The hypervariable region comprises amino acid residues from a "complementarity determining region" or "CDR" (*e.g.* residues 24-34 (L1), 50-56 (L2) and 89-97 (L3) in the light chain variable domain and 31-35 (H1), 50-65 (H2) and 95-102 (H3) in the heavy chain variable domain; Kabat *et al.*, *Sequences of Proteins of Immunological Interest*, 5th Ed. Public Health Service, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD. (1991)) and/or those residues from a "hypervariable loop" (*e.g.* residues 26-32 (L1), 50-52 (L2) and 91-96 (L3) in the light chain variable domain and 26-32 (H1), 53-55 (H2) and 96-101 (H3) in the heavy chain variable domain; Chothia and Lesk *J. Mol. Biol.* 196:901-917 (1987)). "Framework" or "FR" residues are those variable domain residues other than the hypervariable region residues as herein defined.

An antagonist "which binds" an antigen of interest, *e.g.* VEGF, is one capable of binding that antigen with sufficient affinity and/or avidity such that the antagonist is useful as a therapeutic agent for targeting the antigen or a cell expressing the antigen.

An "isolated" antagonist is one which has been identified and separated and/or recovered from a component of its natural environment. Contaminant components of its natural environment are materials which would interfere with diagnostic or therapeutic uses for the antagonist, and may include enzymes, hormones, and other proteinaceous or nonproteinaceous solutes. In preferred embodiments, the antagonist will be purified (1) to greater than 95% by weight of antagonist as determined by the Lowry method, and most preferably more than 99% by weight, (2) to a degree sufficient to obtain at least 15 residues of N-terminal or internal amino acid sequence by use of a spinning cup sequenator, or (3) to homogeneity by SDS-PAGE under reducing or nonreducing conditions using Coomassie blue or, preferably, silver stain. Isolated antagonist includes the antagonist *in situ* within recombinant cells since at least one component of the antagonist's natural environment will not be present. Ordinarily, however, isolated antagonist will be prepared by at least one purification step.

"Mammal" for purposes of treatment refers to any animal classified as a mammal, including humans, domestic and farm animals, and zoo, sports, or pet animals, such as dogs, horses, cats, cows, *etc.* Preferably, the mammal is human.

"Treatment" refers to both therapeutic treatment and prophylactic or preventative measures. Those in need of treatment include those already with the disease or disorder as well as those in which the disease or disorder is to be prevented. Hence, the mammal may have been diagnosed as having the disease or disorder or may be predisposed or susceptible to the disease.

The expression "therapeutically effective amount" refers to an amount of the antagonist which is effective for preventing, ameliorating or treating the autoimmune disease in question.

The term "immunosuppressive agent" as used herein for adjunct therapy refers to substances that act to suppress or mask the immune system of the mammal being treated herein. This would include substances that suppress cytokine production, downregulate or suppress self-antigen expression, or mask the MHC antigens. Examples of such agents include 2-amino-6-aryl-5-substituted pyrimidines (see U.S. Pat. No. 4,665,077, the disclosure of which is incorporated herein by reference); nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs (NSAIDs); azathioprine; cyclophosphamide; bromocryptine; danazol; dapsone; glutaraldehyde (which masks the MHC antigens, as described in U.S. Pat. No. 4,120,649); anti-idiotypic antibodies for MHC antigens and MHC fragments; cyclosporin A; steroids such as glucocorticosteroids, *e.g.*, prednisone, methylprednisolone, and dexamethasone; methotrexate (oral or subcutaneous); hydroxycloquine; sulfasalazine; leflunomide; cytokine or cytokine receptor antagonists including anti-interferon- γ , - β , or - α antibodies, anti-tumor necrosis factor- α antibodies (infliximab or adalimumab), anti-TNF α immunoahesin (etanercept), anti-tumor necrosis factor- β antibodies, anti-interleukin-2 antibodies and anti-IL-2 receptor antibodies; anti-LFA-1 antibodies, including anti-CD11a and anti-CD18 antibodies; anti-L3T4 antibodies; heterologous anti-lymphocyte globulin; pan-T antibodies, preferably anti-CD3 or anti-CD4/CD4a antibodies; soluble peptide containing a LFA-3 binding domain (WO 90/08187 published 7/26/90); streptokinase; TGF- β ; streptodornase; RNA or DNA from the host; FK506; RS-61443; deoxyspergualin; rapamycin; T-cell receptor (Cohen *et al.*, U.S. Pat. No. 5,114,721); T-cell receptor fragments (Offner *et al.*, *Science*, 251: 430-432 (1991); WO 90/11294; Ianeway, *Nature*, 341: 482 (1989); and WO 91/01133); and T cell receptor antibodies (EP 340,109) such as T10B9.

The term "cytotoxic agent" as used herein refers to a substance that inhibits or prevents the function of cells and/or causes destruction of cells. The term is intended to include radioactive isotopes (*e.g.* At²¹¹, I¹³¹, I¹²⁵, Y⁹⁰, Re¹⁸⁶, Re¹⁸⁸, Sm¹⁵³, Bi²¹², P³² and radioactive isotopes of Lu), chemotherapeutic agents, and toxins such as small molecule toxins or enzymatically active toxins of bacterial, fungal, plant or animal origin, or fragments thereof.

A "chemotherapeutic agent" is a chemical compound useful in the treatment of cancer. Examples of chemotherapeutic agents include alkylating agents such as thiotepa and cyclophosphamide (CYTOXANTM); alkyl sulfonates such as busulfan, improsulfan and piposulfan; aziridines such as benzodopa, carboquone, meturedopa, and uredopa; ethylenimines and methylamelamines including altretamine, triethylenemelamine, trietylenephosphoramidate, triethylenethiophosphoramidate and trimethylolomelamine; nitrogen

mustards such as chlorambucil, chlornaphazine, cholophosphamide, estramustine, ifosfamide, mechlorethamine, mechlorethamine oxide hydrochloride, melphalan, novembichin, phenesterine, prednimustine, trofosfamide, uracil mustard; nitrosureas such as carmustine, chlorozotocin, fotemustine, lomustine, nimustine, ranimustine; antibiotics such as aclacinomysins, actinomycin, authramycin, azaserine, bleomycins, cactinomycin, calicheamicin, carabycin, carminomycin, carzinophilin, chromomycins, dactinomycin, daunorubicin, detorubicin, 6-diazo-5-oxo-L-norleucine, doxorubicin, epirubicin, esorubicin, idarubicin, marcellomycin, mitomycins, mycophenolic acid, nogalamycin, olivomycins, peplomycin, potfiromycin, puromycin, quelamycin, rodorubicin, streptonigrin, streptozocin, tubercidin, ubenimex, zinostatin, zorubicin; anti-metabolites such as methotrexate and 5-fluorouracil (5-FU); folic acid analogues such as denopterin, methotrexate, pteropterin, trimetrexate; purine analogs such as fludarabine, 6-mercaptopurine, thiamiprine, thioguanine; pyrimidine analogs such as ancitabine, azacitidine, 6-azauridine, carmofur, cytarabine, dideoxyuridine, doxifluridine, enocitabine, floxuridine, 5-FU; androgens such as calusterone, dromostanolone propionate, epitiostanol, mepitiothane, testolactone; anti-adrenals such as aminogluthethimide, mitotane, trilostane; folic acid replenisher such as frolinic acid; aceglatone; aldophosphamide glycoside; aminolevulinic acid; amsacrine; bestabucil; bisantrene; edatraxate; defofamine; demecolcine; diaziqune; elfornithine; elliptinium acetate; etoglucid; gallium nitrate; hydroxyurea; lentinan; lonidamine; mitoguazone; mitoxantrone; mopidamol; nitracrine; pentostatin; phenamet; pirarubicin; podophyllinic acid; 2-ethylhydrazide; procarbazine; PSK®; razoxane; sizofiran; spirogermanium; tenuazonic acid; triaziqune; 2, 2',2''-trichlorotriethylamine; urethan; vindesine; dacarbazine; mannomustine; mitobronitol; mitolactol; pipobroman; gacytosine; arabinoside ("Ara-C"); cyclophosphamide; thiotepa; taxoids, *e.g.* paclitaxel (TAXOL®, Bristol-Myers Squibb Oncology, Princeton, NJ) and doxetaxel (TAXOTERE®, Rhône-Poulenc Rorer, Antony, France); chlorambucil; gemcitabine; 6-thioguanine; mercaptopurine; methotrexate; platinum analogs such as cisplatin and carboplatin; vinblastine; platinum; etoposide (VP-16); ifosfamide; mitomycin C; mitoxantrone; vincristine; vinorelbine; navelbine; novantrone; teniposide; daunomycin; aminopterin; xeloda; ibandronate; CPT-11; topoisomerase inhibitor RFS 2000; difluoromethylornithine (DMFO); retinoic acid; esperamicins; capecitabine; and pharmaceutically acceptable salts, acids or derivatives of any of the above. Also included in this definition are anti-hormonal agents that act to regulate or inhibit hormone action on tumors such as anti-estrogens including for example tamoxifen, raloxifene, aromatase inhibiting 4(5)-imidazoles, 4-hydroxytamoxifen, trioxifene, keoxifene, LY117018, onapristone, and toremifene (Fareston); and anti-androgens such as flutamide, nilutamide, bicalutamide, leuprolide, and goserelin; and pharmaceutically acceptable salts, acids or derivatives of any of the above.

The term "cytokine" is a generic term for proteins released by one cell population which act on another cell as intercellular mediators. Examples of such cytokines are lymphokines, monokines, and traditional polypeptide hormones. Included among the cytokines are growth hormone such as human growth hormone, N-methionyl human growth hormone, and bovine growth hormone; parathyroid hormone; thyroxine; insulin; proinsulin; relaxin; prorelaxin; glycoprotein hormones such as follicle stimulating hormone (FSH), thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH), and luteinizing hormone (LH); hepatic growth factor; fibroblast growth factor; prolactin; placental lactogen; tumor necrosis factor- α and - β ; mullerian-inhibiting substance; mouse gonadotropin-associated peptide; inhibin; activin; vascular endothelial growth factor; integrin; thrombopoietin (TPO); nerve growth factors such as NGF- β ; platelet-growth factor; transforming growth factors (TGFs) such as TGF- α and TGF- β ; insulin-like growth factor-I and -II; erythropoietin (EPO); osteoinductive factors; interferons such as interferon- α , - β , and - γ ; colony stimulating factors (CSFs) such as macrophage-CSF (M-CSF); granulocyte-macrophage-CSF (GM-CSF); and granulocyte-CSF (G-CSF); interleukins (ILs) such as IL-1, IL-1 α , IL-2, IL-3, IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-7, IL-8, IL-9, IL-11, IL-12, IL-15; a tumor necrosis factor such as TNF- α or TNF- β ; and other polypeptide factors including LIF and kit ligand (KL). As used herein, the term cytokine includes proteins from natural sources or from recombinant cell culture and biologically active equivalents of the native sequence cytokines.

The term "prodrug" as used in this application refers to a precursor or derivative form of a pharmaceutically active substance that is less cytotoxic to tumor cells compared to the parent drug and is capable of being enzymatically activated or converted into the more active parent form. See, *e.g.*, Wilman, "Prodrugs in Cancer Chemotherapy" *Biochemical Society Transactions*, 14, pp. 375-382, 615th Meeting Belfast (1986) and Stella *et al.*, "Prodrugs: A Chemical Approach to Targeted Drug Delivery," *Directed Drug Delivery*, Borchardt *et al.*, (ed.), pp. 247-267, Humana Press (1985). The prodrugs of this invention include, but are not limited to, phosphate-containing prodrugs, thiophosphate-containing prodrugs, sulfate-containing prodrugs, peptide-containing prodrugs, D-amino acid-modified prodrugs, glycosylated prodrugs, β -lactam-containing prodrugs, optionally substituted phenoxyacetamide-containing prodrugs or optionally substituted phenylacetamide-containing prodrugs, 5-fluorocytosine and other 5-fluorouridine prodrugs which can be converted into the more active cytotoxic free drug. Examples of cytotoxic drugs that can be derivatized into a prodrug form for use in this invention include, but are not limited to, those chemotherapeutic agents described above.

A "liposome" is a small vesicle composed of various types of lipids, phospholipids and/or surfactant which is useful for delivery of a drug (such as the antagonists disclosed herein and, optionally, a chemotherapeutic agent) to a mammal. The components of the

liposome are commonly arranged in a bilayer formation, similar to the lipid arrangement of biological membranes.

The term "intravenous infusion" refers to introduction of a drug into the vein of an animal or human patient over a period of time greater than approximately 5 minutes, preferably between approximately 30 to 90 minutes, although, according to the invention, intravenous infusion is alternatively administered for 10 hours or less.

The term "intravenous bolus" or "intravenous push" refers to drug administration into a vein of an animal or human such that the body receives the drug in approximately 15 minutes or less, preferably 5 minutes or less.

The term "subcutaneous administration" refers to introduction of a drug under the skin of an animal or human patient, preferable within a pocket between the skin and underlying tissue, by relatively slow, sustained delivery from a drug receptacle. The pocket may be created by pinching or drawing the skin up and away from underlying tissue.

The term "subcutaneous infusion" refers to introduction of a drug under the skin of an animal or human patient, preferably within a pocket between the skin and underlying tissue, by relatively slow, sustained delivery from a drug receptacle for a period of time including, but not limited to, 30 minutes or less, or 90 minutes or less. Optionally, the infusion may be made by subcutaneous implantation of a drug delivery pump implanted under the skin of the animal or human patient, wherein the pump delivers a predetermined amount of drug for a predetermined period of time, such as 30 minutes, 90 minutes, or a time period spanning the length of the treatment regimen.

The term "subcutaneous bolus" refers to drug administration beneath the skin of an animal or human patient, where bolus drug delivery is preferably less than approximately 15 minutes, more preferably less than 5 minutes, and most preferably less than 60 seconds. Administration is preferably within a pocket between the skin and underlying tissue, where the pocket is created, for example, - by pinching or drawing the skin up and away from underlying tissue.

II. Production of Antagonists

The methods and articles of manufacture of the present invention use, or incorporate, an angiogenesis antagonist. Accordingly, methods for generating such antagonists will be described here.

The angiogenesis antagonist can be a protein antagonist of an angiogenic factor. Preferably the antagonist is a VEGF antagonist. In addition to anti-VEGF antibody, which is a preferred VEGF antagonist for the purpose of this invention, other VEGF antagonists include VEGF variants, soluble VEGF receptor fragments, aptamers capable of blocking VEGF or VEGFR, neutralizing anti-VEGFR antibodies, and low molecule weight inhibitors of VEGFR tyrosine kinases.

A description follows as to exemplary techniques for the production of the antibody antagonists used in accordance with the present invention.

(i) *Polyclonal antibodies*

Polyclonal antibodies are preferably raised in animals by multiple subcutaneous (sc) or intraperitoneal (ip) injections of the relevant antigen and an adjuvant. It may be useful to conjugate the relevant antigen to a protein that is immunogenic in the species to be immunized, *e.g.*, keyhole limpet hemocyanin, serum albumin, bovine thyroglobulin, or soybean trypsin inhibitor using a bifunctional or derivatizing agent, for example, maleimidobenzoyl sulfosuccinimide ester (conjugation through cysteine residues), N-hydroxysuccinimide (through lysine residues), glutaraldehyde, succinic anhydride, SOCl_2 , or $\text{R}^1\text{N}=\text{C}=\text{NR}$, where R and R^1 are different alkyl groups.

Animals are immunized against the antigen, immunogenic conjugates, or derivatives by combining, *e.g.*, 100 μg or 5 μg of the protein or conjugate (for rabbits or mice, respectively) with 3 volumes of Freund's complete adjuvant and injecting the solution intradermally at multiple sites. One month later the animals are boosted with 1/5 to 1/10 the original amount of peptide or conjugate in Freund's complete adjuvant by subcutaneous injection at multiple sites. Seven to 14 days later the animals are bled and the serum is assayed for antibody titer. Animals are boosted until the titer plateaus. Preferably, the animal is boosted with the conjugate of the same antigen, but conjugated to a different protein and/or through a different cross-linking reagent. Conjugates also can be made in recombinant cell culture as protein fusions. Also, aggregating agents such as alum are suitably used to enhance the immune response.

(ii) *Monoclonal antibodies*

Monoclonal antibodies are obtained from a population of substantially homogeneous antibodies, *i.e.*, the individual antibodies comprising the population are identical except for possible naturally occurring mutations that may be present in minor amounts. Thus, the modifier "monoclonal" indicates the character of the antibody as not being a mixture of discrete antibodies. For example, the monoclonal antibodies may be made using the hybridoma method first described by Kohler *et al.*, *Nature*, 256:495 (1975), or may be made by recombinant DNA methods (U.S. Patent No. 4,816,567).

In the hybridoma method, a mouse or other appropriate host animal, such as a hamster, is immunized as hereinabove described to elicit lymphocytes that produce or are capable of producing antibodies that will specifically bind to the protein used for immunization. Alternatively, lymphocytes may be immunized *in vitro*. Lymphocytes then are fused with myeloma cells using a suitable fusing agent, such as polyethylene glycol, to form a hybridoma cell (Goding, *Monoclonal Antibodies: Principles and Practice*, pp.59-103 (Academic Press, 1986)).

The hybridoma cells thus prepared are seeded and grown in a suitable culture medium that preferably contains one or more substances that inhibit the growth or survival of the unfused, parental myeloma cells. For example, if the parental myeloma cells lack the enzyme hypoxanthine guanine phosphoribosyl transferase (HGPRT or HPRT), the culture medium for the hybridomas typically will include hypoxanthine, aminopterin, and thymidine (HAT medium), which substances prevent the growth of HGPRT-deficient cells.

Preferred myeloma cells are those that fuse efficiently, support stable high-level production of antibody by the selected antibody-producing cells, and are sensitive to a medium such as HAT medium. Among these, preferred myeloma cell lines are murine myeloma lines, such as those derived from MOPC-21 and MPC-11 mouse tumors available from the Salk Institute Cell Distribution Center, San Diego, California USA, and SP-2 or X63-Ag8-653 cells available from the American Type Culture Collection, Rockville, Maryland USA. Human myeloma and mouse-human heteromyeloma cell lines also have been described for the production of human monoclonal antibodies (Kozbor, *J. Immunol.*, 133:3001 (1984); Brodeur *et al.*, *Monoclonal Antibody Production Techniques and Applications*, pp. 51-63 (Marcel Dekker, Inc., New York, 1987)).

Culture medium in which hybridoma cells are growing is assayed for production of monoclonal antibodies directed against the antigen. Preferably, the binding specificity of monoclonal antibodies produced by hybridoma cells is determined by immunoprecipitation or by an *in vitro* binding assay, such as radioimmunoassay (RIA) or enzyme-linked immunoabsorbent assay (ELISA).

The binding affinity of the monoclonal antibody can, for example, be determined by the Scatchard analysis of Munson *et al.*, *Anal. Biochem.*, 107:220 (1980).

After hybridoma cells are identified that produce antibodies of the desired specificity, affinity, and/or activity, the clones may be subcloned by limiting dilution procedures and grown by standard methods (Goding, *Monoclonal Antibodies: Principles and Practice*, pp.59-103 (Academic Press, 1986)). Suitable culture media for this purpose include, for example, D-MEM or RPMI-1640 medium. In addition, the hybridoma cells may be grown *in vivo* as ascites tumors in an animal.

The monoclonal antibodies secreted by the subclones are suitably separated from the culture medium, ascites fluid, or serum by conventional immunoglobulin purification procedures such as, for example, protein A-Sepharose, hydroxylapatite chromatography, gel electrophoresis, dialysis, or affinity chromatography.

DNA encoding the monoclonal antibodies is readily isolated and sequenced using conventional procedures (*e.g.*, by using oligonucleotide probes that are capable of binding specifically to genes encoding the heavy and light chains of murine antibodies). The hybridoma cells serve as a preferred source of such DNA. Once isolated, the DNA may be

placed into expression vectors, which are then transfected into host cells such as *E. coli* cells, simian COS cells, Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO) cells, or myeloma cells that do not otherwise produce immunoglobulin protein, to obtain the synthesis of monoclonal antibodies in the recombinant host cells. Review articles on recombinant expression in bacteria of DNA encoding the antibody include Skerra *et al.*, *Curr. Opinion in Immunol.*, 5:256-262 (1993) and Plückthun, *Immunol. Revs.*, 130:151-188 (1992).

In a further embodiment, antibodies or antibody fragments can be isolated from antibody phage libraries generated using the techniques described in McCafferty *et al.*, *Nature*, 348:552-554 (1990). Clackson *et al.*, *Nature*, 352:624-628 (1991) and Marks *et al.*, *J. Mol. Biol.*, 222:581-597 (1991) describe the isolation of murine and human antibodies, respectively, using phage libraries. Subsequent publications describe the production of high affinity (nM range) human antibodies by chain shuffling (Marks *et al.*, *Bio/Technology*, 10:779-783 (1992)), as well as combinatorial infection and *in vivo* recombination as a strategy for constructing very large phage libraries (Waterhouse *et al.*, *Nuc. Acids. Res.*, 21:2265-2266 (1993)). Thus, these techniques are viable alternatives to traditional monoclonal antibody hybridoma techniques for isolation of monoclonal antibodies.

The DNA also may be modified, for example, by substituting the coding sequence for human heavy- and light-chain constant domains in place of the homologous murine sequences (U.S. Patent No. 4,816,567; Morrison, *et al.*, *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA*, 81:6851 (1984)), or by covalently joining to the immunoglobulin coding sequence all or part of the coding sequence for a non-immunoglobulin polypeptide.

Typically such non-immunoglobulin polypeptides are substituted for the constant domains of an antibody, or they are substituted for the variable domains of one antigen-combining site of an antibody to create a chimeric bivalent antibody comprising one antigen-combining site having specificity for an antigen and another antigen-combining site having specificity for a different antigen.

(iii) *Humanized antibodies*

Methods for humanizing non-human antibodies have been described in the art. Preferably, a humanized antibody has one or more amino acid residues introduced into it from a source which is non-human. These non-human amino acid residues are often referred to as "import" residues, which are typically taken from an "import" variable domain. Humanization can be essentially performed following the method of Winter and co-workers (Jones *et al.*, *Nature*, 321:522-525 (1986); Riechmann *et al.*, *Nature*, 332:323-327 (1988); Verhoeven *et al.*, *Science*, 239:1534-1536 (1988)), by substituting hypervariable region sequences for the corresponding sequences of a human antibody. Accordingly, such "humanized" antibodies are chimeric antibodies (U.S. Patent No. 4,816,567) wherein substantially less than an intact human variable domain has been substituted by the

corresponding sequence from a non-human species. In practice, humanized antibodies are typically human antibodies in which some hypervariable region residues and possibly some FR residues are substituted by residues from analogous sites in rodent antibodies.

The choice of human variable domains, both light and heavy, to be used in making the humanized antibodies is very important to reduce antigenicity. According to the so-called "best-fit" method, the sequence of the variable domain of a rodent antibody is screened against the entire library of known human variable-domain sequences. The human sequence which is closest to that of the rodent is then accepted as the human framework region (FR) for the humanized antibody (Sims *et al.*, *J. Immunol.*, 151:2296 (1993); Chothia *et al.*, *J. Mol. Biol.*, 196:901 (1987)). Another method uses a particular framework region derived from the consensus sequence of all human antibodies of a particular subgroup of light or heavy chains. The same framework may be used for several different humanized antibodies (Carter *et al.*, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 89:4285 (1992); Presta *et al.*, *J. Immunol.*, 151:2623 (1993)).

It is further important that antibodies be humanized with retention of high affinity for the antigen and other favorable biological properties. To achieve this goal, according to a preferred method, humanized antibodies are prepared by a process of analysis of the parental sequences and various conceptual humanized products using three-dimensional models of the parental and humanized sequences. Three-dimensional immunoglobulin models are commonly available and are familiar to those skilled in the art. Computer programs are available which illustrate and display probable three-dimensional conformational structures of selected candidate immunoglobulin sequences. Inspection of these displays permits analysis of the likely role of the residues in the functioning of the candidate immunoglobulin sequence, *i.e.*, the analysis of residues that influence the ability of the candidate immunoglobulin to bind its antigen. In this way, FR residues can be selected and combined from the recipient and import sequences so that the desired antibody characteristic, such as increased affinity for the target antigen(s), is achieved. In general, the hypervariable region residues are directly and most substantially involved in influencing antigen binding.

(iv) *Human antibodies*

As an alternative to humanization, human antibodies can be generated. For example, it is now possible to produce transgenic animals (*e.g.*, mice) that are capable, upon immunization, of producing a full repertoire of human antibodies in the absence of endogenous immunoglobulin production. For example, it has been described that the homozygous deletion of the antibody heavy-chain joining region (J_H) gene in chimeric and germ-line mutant mice results in complete inhibition of endogenous antibody production. Transfer of the human germ-line immunoglobulin gene array in such germ-line mutant mice will result in the production of human antibodies upon antigen challenge. See, *e.g.*, Jakobovits *et al.*, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 90:2551 (1993); Jakobovits *et al.*, *Nature*,

362:255-258 (1993); Bruggermann *et al.*, *Year in Immuno.*, 7:33 (1993); and US Patent Nos. 5,591,669, 5,589,369 and 5,545,807.

Alternatively, phage display technology (McCafferty *et al.*, *Nature* 348:552-553 (1990)) can be used to produce human antibodies and antibody fragments *in vitro*, from immunoglobulin variable (V) domain gene repertoires from unimmunized donors. According to this technique, antibody V domain genes are cloned in-frame into either a major or minor coat protein gene of a filamentous bacteriophage, such as M13 or fd, and displayed as functional antibody fragments on the surface of the phage particle. Because the filamentous particle contains a single-stranded DNA copy of the phage genome, selections based on the functional properties of the antibody also result in selection of the gene encoding the antibody exhibiting those properties. Thus, the phage mimics some of the properties of the B cell. Phage display can be performed in a variety of formats; for their review see, *e.g.*, Johnson, Kevin S. and Chiswell, David J., *Current Opinion in Structural Biology* 3:564-571 (1993). Several sources of V-gene segments can be used for phage display. Clackson *et al.*, *Nature*, 352:624-628 (1991) isolated a diverse array of anti-oxazolone antibodies from a small random combinatorial library of V genes derived from the spleens of immunized mice. A repertoire of V genes from unimmunized human donors can be constructed and antibodies to a diverse array of antigens (including self-antigens) can be isolated essentially following the techniques described by Marks *et al.*, *J. Mol. Biol.* 222:581-597 (1991), or Griffith *et al.*, *EMBO J.* 12:725-734 (1993). See, also, US Patent Nos. 5,565,332 and 5,573,905.

Human antibodies may also be generated by *in vitro* activated B cells (see US Patents 5,567,610 and 5,229,275).

(v) *Antibody fragments*

Various techniques have been developed for the production of antibody fragments. Traditionally, these fragments were derived via proteolytic digestion of intact antibodies (see, *e.g.*, Morimoto *et al.*, *Journal of Biochemical and Biophysical Methods* 24:107-117 (1992) and Brennan *et al.*, *Science*, 229:81 (1985)). However, these fragments can now be produced directly by recombinant host cells. For example, the antibody fragments can be isolated from the antibody phage libraries discussed above. Alternatively, Fab'-SH fragments can be directly recovered from *E. coli* and chemically coupled to form F(ab')₂ fragments (Carter *et al.*, *Bio/Technology* 10:163-167 (1992)). According to another approach, F(ab')₂ fragments can be isolated directly from recombinant host cell culture. Other techniques for the production of antibody fragments will be apparent to the skilled practitioner. In other embodiments, the antibody of choice is a single chain Fv fragment (scFv). See WO 93/16185; US Patent No. 5,571,894; and US Patent No. 5,587,458. The antibody fragment may also be a "linear antibody", *e.g.*, as described in US Patent 5,641,870 for example. Such linear antibody fragments may be monospecific or bispecific.

(vi) *Bispecific antibodies*

Bispecific antibodies are antibodies that have binding specificities for at least two different epitopes. Methods for making bispecific antibodies are known in the art. Traditional production of full length bispecific antibodies is based on the coexpression of two immunoglobulin heavy chain-light chain pairs, where the two chains have different specificities (Millstein *et al.*, *Nature*, 305:537-539 (1983)). Because of the random assortment of immunoglobulin heavy and light chains, these hybridomas (quadromas) produce a potential mixture of 10 different antibody molecules, of which only one has the correct bispecific structure. Purification of the correct molecule, which is usually done by affinity chromatography steps, is rather cumbersome, and the product yields are low. Similar procedures are disclosed in WO 93/08829, and in Traunecker *et al.*, *EMBO J.*, 10:3655-3659 (1991).

According to a different approach, antibody variable domains with the desired binding specificities (antibody-antigen combining sites) are fused to immunoglobulin constant domain sequences. The fusion preferably is with an immunoglobulin heavy chain constant domain, comprising at least part of the hinge, CH2, and CH3 regions. It is preferred to have the first heavy-chain constant region (CH1) containing the site necessary for light chain binding, present in at least one of the fusions. DNAs encoding the immunoglobulin heavy chain fusions and, if desired, the immunoglobulin light chain, are inserted into separate expression vectors, and are co-transfected into a suitable host organism. This provides for great flexibility in adjusting the mutual proportions of the three polypeptide fragments in embodiments when unequal ratios of the three polypeptide chains used in the construction provide the optimum yields. It is, however, possible to insert the coding sequences for two or all three polypeptide chains in one expression vector when the expression of at least two polypeptide chains in equal ratios results in high yields or when the ratios are of no particular significance.

In a preferred embodiment of this approach, the bispecific antibodies are composed of a hybrid immunoglobulin heavy chain with a first binding specificity in one arm, and a hybrid immunoglobulin heavy chain-light chain pair (providing a second binding specificity) in the other arm. It was found that this asymmetric structure facilitates the separation of the desired bispecific compound from unwanted immunoglobulin chain combinations, as the presence of an immunoglobulin light chain in only one half of the bispecific molecule provides for a facile way of separation. This approach is disclosed in WO 94/04690. For further details of generating bispecific antibodies see, for example, Suresh *et al.*, *Methods in Enzymology*, 121:210 (1986). According to another approach described in US Patent No. 5,731,168, the interface between a pair of antibody molecules can be engineered to maximize the percentage of heterodimers which are recovered from recombinant cell culture. The preferred interface

comprises at least a part of the C_H3 domain of an antibody constant domain. In this method, one or more small amino acid side chains from the interface of the first antibody molecule are replaced with larger side chains (*e.g.* tyrosine or tryptophan). Compensatory "cavities" of identical or similar size to the large side chain(s) are created on the interface of the second antibody molecule by replacing large amino acid side chains with smaller ones (*e.g.* alanine or threonine). This provides a mechanism for increasing the yield of the heterodimer over other unwanted end-products such as homodimers.

Bispecific antibodies include cross-linked or "heteroconjugate" antibodies. For example, one of the antibodies in the heteroconjugate can be coupled to avidin, the other to biotin. Such antibodies have, for example, been proposed to target immune system cells to unwanted cells (US Patent No. 4,676,980), and for treatment of HIV infection (WO 91/00360, WO 92/200373, and EP 03089). Heteroconjugate antibodies may be made using any convenient cross-linking methods. Suitable cross-linking agents are well known in the art, and are disclosed in US Patent No. 4,676,980, along with a number of cross-linking techniques.

Techniques for generating bispecific antibodies from antibody fragments have also been described in the literature. For example, bispecific antibodies can be prepared using chemical linkage. Brennan *et al.*, *Science*, 229: 81 (1985) describe a procedure wherein intact antibodies are proteolytically cleaved to generate F(ab')₂ fragments. These fragments are reduced in the presence of the dithiol complexing agent sodium arsenite to stabilize vicinal dithiols and prevent intermolecular disulfide formation. The Fab' fragments generated are then converted to thionitrobenzoate (TNB) derivatives. One of the Fab'-TNB derivatives is then reconverted to the Fab'-thiol by reduction with mercaptoethylamine and is mixed with an equimolar amount of the other Fab'-TNB derivative to form the bispecific antibody. The bispecific antibodies produced can be used as agents for the selective immobilization of enzymes.

Recent progress has facilitated the direct recovery of Fab'-SH fragments from *E. coli*, which can be chemically coupled to form bispecific antibodies. Shalaby *et al.*, *J. Exp. Med.*, 175: 217-225 (1992) describe the production of a fully humanized bispecific antibody F(ab')₂ molecule. Each Fab' fragment was separately secreted from *E. coli* and subjected to directed chemical coupling *in vitro* to form the bispecific antibody. The bispecific antibody thus formed was able to bind to cells overexpressing the ErbB2 receptor and normal human T cells, as well as trigger the lytic activity of human cytotoxic lymphocytes against human breast tumor targets.

Various techniques for making and isolating bispecific antibody fragments directly from recombinant cell culture have also been described. For example, bispecific antibodies have been produced using leucine zippers. Kostelny *et al.*, *J. Immunol.*, 148(5):1547-1553

(1992). The leucine zipper peptides from the Fos and Jun proteins were linked to the Fab' portions of two different antibodies by gene fusion. The antibody homodimers were reduced at the hinge region to form monomers and then re-oxidized to form the antibody heterodimers. This method can also be utilized for the production of antibody homodimers. The "diabody" technology described by Hollinger *et al.*, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 90:6444-6448 (1993) has provided an alternative mechanism for making bispecific antibody fragments. The fragments comprise a heavy-chain variable domain (V_H) connected to a light-chain variable domain (V_L) by a linker which is too short to allow pairing between the two domains on the same chain. Accordingly, the V_H and V_L domains of one fragment are forced to pair with the complementary V_L and V_H domains of another fragment, thereby forming two antigen-binding sites. Another strategy for making bispecific antibody fragments by the use of single-chain Fv (sFv) dimers has also been reported. See Gruber *et al.*, *J. Immunol.*, 152:5368 (1994).

Antibodies with more than two valencies are contemplated. For example, trispecific antibodies can be prepared. Tutt *et al.* *J. Immunol.* 147: 60 (1991).

III. Conjugates and Other Modifications of the Antagonist

The antagonist used in the methods or included in the articles of manufacture herein is optionally conjugated to a cytotoxic agent.

Chemotherapeutic agents useful in the generation of such antagonist-cytotoxic agent conjugates have been described above.

Conjugates of an antagonist and one or more small molecule toxins, such as a calicheamicin, a maytansine (US Patent No. 5,208,020), a trichothene, and CC1065 are also contemplated herein. In one embodiment of the invention, the antagonist is conjugated to one or more maytansine molecules (*e.g.* about 1 to about 10 maytansine molecules per antagonist molecule). Maytansine may, for example, be converted to May-SS-Me which may be reduced to May-SH3 and reacted with modified antagonist (Chari *et al.* *Cancer Research* 52: 127-131 (1992)) to generate a maytansinoid-antagonist conjugate.

Alternatively, the antagonist is conjugated to one or more calicheamicin molecules. The calicheamicin family of antibiotics are capable of producing double-stranded DNA breaks at sub-picomolar concentrations. Structural analogues of calicheamicin which may be used include, but are not limited to, γ_1^I , α_2^I , α_3^I , N-acetyl- γ_1^I , PSAG and θ_1^I (Hinman *et al.* *Cancer Research* 53: 3336-3342 (1993) and Lode *et al.* *Cancer Research* 58: 2925-2928 (1998)).

Enzymatically active toxins and fragments thereof which can be used include diphtheria A chain, nonbinding active fragments of diphtheria toxin, exotoxin A chain (from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*), ricin A chain, abrin A chain, modeccin A chain, alpha-sarcin, *Aleurites fordii* proteins, dianthin proteins, *Phytolacca americana* proteins (PAPI, PAPII, and

PAP-S), momordica charantia inhibitor, curcin, crotin, sapaonaria officinalis inhibitor, gelonin, mitogellin, restrictocin, phenomycin, enomycin and the tricothecenes. See, for example, WO 93/21232 published October 28, 1993.

The present invention further contemplates antagonist conjugated with a compound with nucleolytic activity (*e.g.* a ribonuclease or a DNA endonuclease such as a deoxyribonuclease; DNase).

A variety of radioactive isotopes are available for the production of radioconjugated antagonists. Examples include At^{211} , I^{131} , I^{125} , Y^{90} , Re^{186} , Re^{188} , Sm^{153} , Bi^{212} , P^{32} and radioactive isotopes of Lu.

Conjugates of the antagonist and cytotoxic agent may be made using a variety of bifunctional protein coupling agents such as N-succinimidyl-3-(2-pyridyldithiol) propionate (SPDP), succinimidyl-4-(N-maleimidomethyl) cyclohexane-1-carboxylate, iminothiolane (IT), bifunctional derivatives of imidoesters (such as dimethyl adipimidate HCL), active esters (such as disuccinimidyl suberate), aldehydes (such as glutaraldehyde), bis-azido compounds (such as bis (p-azidobenzoyl) hexanediamine), bis-diazonium derivatives (such as bis-(p-diazoniumbenzoyl)-ethylenediamine), diisocyanates (such as toluene 2,6-diisocyanate), and bis-active fluorine compounds (such as 1,5-difluoro-2,4-dinitrobenzene). For example, a ricin immunotoxin can be prepared as described in Vitetta *et al. Science* 238: 1098 (1987). Carbon-14-labeled 1-isothiocyanatobenzyl-3-methyldiethylene triaminepentaacetic acid (MX-DTPA) is an exemplary chelating agent for conjugation of radionucleotide to the antagonist. See WO94/11026. The linker may be a "cleavable linker" facilitating release of the cytotoxic drug in the cell. For example, an acid-labile linker, peptidase-sensitive linker, dimethyl linker or disulfide-containing linker (Chari *et al. Cancer Research* 52: 127-131 (1992)) may be used. Alternatively, a fusion protein comprising the antagonist and cytotoxic agent may be made, *e.g.* by recombinant techniques or peptide synthesis.

The antagonists of the present invention may also be conjugated with a prodrug-activating enzyme which converts a prodrug (*e.g.* a peptidyl chemotherapeutic agent, see WO81/01145) to an active anti-cancer drug. See, for example, WO 88/07378 and U.S. Patent No. 4,975,278.

The enzyme component of such conjugates includes any enzyme capable of acting on a prodrug in such a way so as to convert it into its more active, cytotoxic form. Enzymes that are useful in the method of this invention include, but are not limited to, alkaline phosphatase useful for converting phosphate-containing prodrugs into free drugs; arylsulfatase useful for converting sulfate-containing prodrugs into free drugs; cytosine deaminase useful for converting non-toxic 5-fluorocytosine into the anti-cancer drug, 5-fluorouracil; proteases, such as serratia protease, thermolysin, subtilisin, carboxypeptidases and cathepsins (such as cathepsins B and L), that are useful for converting peptide-containing prodrugs into free

drugs; D-alanylcarboxypeptidases, useful for converting prodrugs that contain D-amino acid substituents; carbohydrate-cleaving enzymes such as β -galactosidase and neuraminidase useful for converting glycosylated prodrugs into free drugs; β -lactamase useful for converting drugs derivatized with β -lactams into free drugs; and penicillin amidases, such as penicillin V amidase or penicillin G amidase, useful for converting drugs derivatized at their amine nitrogens with phenoxyacetyl or phenylacetyl groups, respectively, into free drugs. Alternatively, antibodies with enzymatic activity, also known in the art as "abzymes", can be used to convert the prodrugs of the invention into free active drugs (see, *e.g.*, Massey, *Nature* 328: 457-458 (1987)).

The enzymes of this invention can be covalently bound to the antagonist by techniques well known in the art such as the use of the heterobifunctional crosslinking reagents discussed above. Alternatively, fusion proteins comprising at least the antigen binding region of an antagonist of the invention linked to at least a functionally active portion of an enzyme of the invention can be constructed using recombinant DNA techniques well known in the art (see, *e.g.*, Neuberger *et al.*, *Nature*, 312: 604-608 (1984)).

Other modifications of the antagonist are contemplated herein. For example, the antagonist may be linked to one of a variety of nonproteinaceous polymers, *e.g.*, polyethylene glycol, polypropylene glycol, polyoxyalkylenes, or copolymers of polyethylene glycol and polypropylene glycol.

The antagonists disclosed herein may also be formulated as liposomes. Liposomes containing the antagonist are prepared by methods known in the art, such as described in Epstein *et al.*, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 82:3688 (1985); Hwang *et al.*, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 77:4030 (1980); U.S. Pat. Nos. 4,485,045 and 4,544,545; and WO97/38731 published October 23, 1997. Liposomes with enhanced circulation time are disclosed in U.S. Patent No. 5,013,556.

Particularly useful liposomes can be generated by the reverse phase evaporation method with a lipid composition comprising phosphatidylcholine, cholesterol and PEG-derivatized phosphatidylethanolamine (PEG-PE). Liposomes are extruded through filters of defined pore size to yield liposomes with the desired diameter. Fab' fragments of an antibody of the present invention can be conjugated to the liposomes as described in Martin *et al.* *J. Biol. Chem.* 257: 286-288 (1982) via a disulfide interchange reaction. A chemotherapeutic agent is optionally contained within the liposome. See Gabizon *et al.* *J. National Cancer Inst.* 81(19)1484 (1989).

Amino acid sequence modification(s) of protein or peptide antagonists described herein are contemplated. For example, it may be desirable to improve the binding affinity and/or other biological properties of the antagonist. Amino acid sequence variants of the antagonist are prepared by introducing appropriate nucleotide changes into the antagonist

nucleic acid, or by peptide synthesis. Such modifications include, for example, deletions from, and/or insertions into and/or substitutions of, residues within the amino acid sequences of the antagonist. Any combination of deletion, insertion, and substitution is made to arrive at the final construct, provided that the final construct possesses the desired characteristics. The amino acid changes also may alter post-translational processes of the antagonist, such as changing the number or position of glycosylation sites.

A useful method for identification of certain residues or regions of the antagonist that are preferred locations for mutagenesis is called "alanine scanning mutagenesis" as described by Cunningham and Wells *Science*, 244:1081-1085 (1989). Here, a residue or group of target residues are identified (*e.g.*, charged residues such as arg, asp, his, lys, and glu) and replaced by a neutral or negatively charged amino acid (most preferably alanine or polyalanine) to affect the interaction of the amino acids with antigen. Those amino acid locations demonstrating functional sensitivity to the substitutions then are refined by introducing further or other variants at, or for, the sites of substitution. Thus, while the site for introducing an amino acid sequence variation is predetermined, the nature of the mutation *per se* need not be predetermined. For example, to analyze the performance of a mutation at a given site, ala scanning or random mutagenesis is conducted at the target codon or region and the expressed antagonist variants are screened for the desired activity.

Amino acid sequence insertions include amino- and/or carboxyl-terminal fusions ranging in length from one residue to polypeptides containing a hundred or more residues, as well as intrasequence insertions of single or multiple amino acid residues. Examples of terminal insertions include an antagonist with an N-terminal methionyl residue or the antagonist fused to a cytotoxic polypeptide. Other insertional variants of the antagonist molecule include the fusion to the N- or C-terminus of the antagonist of an enzyme, or a polypeptide which increases the serum half-life of the antagonist.

Another type of variant is an amino acid substitution variant. These variants have at least one amino acid residue in the antagonist molecule replaced by different residue. The sites of greatest interest for substitutional mutagenesis of antibody antagonists include the hypervariable regions, but FR alterations are also contemplated. Conservative substitutions are shown in Table 1 under the heading of "preferred substitutions". If such substitutions result in a change in biological activity, then more substantial changes, denominated "exemplary substitutions" in Table 1, or as further described below in reference to amino acid classes, may be introduced and the products screened.

Table 1

Original Residue	Exemplary Substitutions	Preferred Substitutions
Ala (A)	val; leu; ile	val
Arg (R)	lys; gln; asn	lys
Asn (N)	gln; his; asp, lys; arg	gln
Asp (D)	glu; asn	glu
Cys (C)	ser; ala	ser
Gln (Q)	asn; glu	asn
Glu (E)	asp; gln	asp
Gly (G)	ala	ala
His (H)	asn; gln; lys; arg	arg
Ile (I)	leu; val; met; ala; phe; norleucine	leu
Leu (L)	norleucine; ile; val; met; ala; phe	ile
Lys (K)	arg; gln; asn	arg
Met (M)	leu; phe; ile	leu
Phe (F)	leu; val; ile; ala; tyr	tyr
Pro (P)	ala	ala
Ser (S)	thr	thr
Thr (T)	ser	ser
Trp (W)	tyr; phe	tyr
Tyr (Y)	trp; phe; thr; ser	phe
Val (V)	ile; leu; met; phe; ala; norleucine	leu

Substantial modifications in the biological properties of the antagonist are accomplished by selecting substitutions that differ significantly in their effect on maintaining (a) the structure of the polypeptide backbone in the area of the substitution, for example, as a sheet or helical conformation, (b) the charge or hydrophobicity of the molecule at the target site, or (c) the bulk of the side chain. Naturally occurring residues are divided into groups based on common side-chain properties:

- (1) hydrophobic: norleucine, met, ala, val, leu, ile;
- (2) neutral hydrophilic: cys, ser, thr;
- (3) acidic: asp, glu;
- (4) basic: asn, gln, his, lys, arg;
- (5) residues that influence chain orientation: gly, pro; and
- (6) aromatic: trp, tyr, phe.

Non-conservative substitutions will entail exchanging a member of one of these classes for another class.

Any cysteine residue not involved in maintaining the proper conformation of the antagonist also may be substituted, generally with serine, to improve the oxidative stability of the molecule and prevent aberrant crosslinking. Conversely, cysteine bond(s) may be added to the antagonist to improve its stability (particularly where the antagonist is an antibody fragment such as an Fv fragment).

A particularly preferred type of substitutional variant involves substituting one or more hypervariable region residues of a parent antibody. Generally, the resulting variant(s) selected for further development will have improved biological properties relative to the parent antibody from which they are generated. A convenient way for generating such substitutional variants is affinity maturation using phage display. Briefly, several hypervariable region sites (*e.g.* 6-7 sites) are mutated to generate all possible amino substitutions at each site. The antibody variants thus generated are displayed in a monovalent fashion from filamentous phage particles as fusions to the gene III product of M13 packaged within each particle. The phage-displayed variants are then screened for their biological activity (*e.g.* binding affinity) as herein disclosed. In order to identify candidate hypervariable region sites for modification, alanine scanning mutagenesis can be performed to identify hypervariable region residues contributing significantly to antigen binding. Alternatively, or in addition, it may be beneficial to analyze a crystal structure of the antigen-antibody complex to identify contact points between the antibody and antigen. Such contact residues and neighboring residues are candidates for substitution according to the techniques elaborated herein. Once such variants are generated, the panel of variants is subjected to screening as described herein and antibodies with superior properties in one or more relevant assays may be selected for further development.

Another type of amino acid variant of the antagonist alters the original glycosylation pattern of the antagonist. By altering is meant deleting one or more carbohydrate moieties found in the antagonist, and/or adding one or more glycosylation sites that are not present in the antagonist.

Glycosylation of polypeptides is typically either N-linked or O-linked. N-linked refers to the attachment of the carbohydrate moiety to the side chain of an asparagine residue. The tripeptide sequences asparagine-X-serine and asparagine-X-threonine, where X is any amino acid except proline, are the recognition sequences for enzymatic attachment of the carbohydrate moiety to the asparagine side chain. Thus, the presence of either of these tripeptide sequences in a polypeptide creates a potential glycosylation site. O-linked glycosylation refers to the attachment of one of the sugars N-aceylgalactosamine, galactose, or xylose to a hydroxyamino acid, most commonly serine or threonine, although 5-hydroxyproline or 5-hydroxylysine may also be used.

Addition of glycosylation sites to the antagonist is conveniently accomplished by altering the amino acid sequence such that it contains one or more of the above-described tripeptide sequences (for N-linked glycosylation sites). The alteration may also be made by the addition of, or substitution by, one or more serine or threonine residues to the sequence of the original antagonist (for O-linked glycosylation sites).

Nucleic acid molecules encoding amino acid sequence variants of the antagonist are prepared by a variety of methods known in the art. These methods include, but are not limited to, isolation from a natural source (in the case of naturally occurring amino acid sequence variants) or preparation by oligonucleotide-mediated (or site-directed) mutagenesis, PCR mutagenesis, and cassette mutagenesis of an earlier prepared variant or a non-variant version of the antagonist.

It may be desirable to modify the antagonist of the invention with respect to effector function, *e.g.* so as to enhance antigen-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity (ADCC) and/or complement dependent cytotoxicity (CDC) of the antagonist. This may be achieved by introducing one or more amino acid substitutions in an Fc region of an antibody antagonist. Alternatively or additionally, cysteine residue(s) may be introduced in the Fc region, thereby allowing interchain disulfide bond formation in this region. The homodimeric antibody thus generated may have improved internalization capability and/or increased complement-mediated cell killing and antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC). See Caron *et al.*, *J. Exp Med.* 176:1191-1195 (1992) and Shopes, B. *J. Immunol.* 148:2918-2922 (1992). Homodimeric antibodies with enhanced anti-tumor activity may also be prepared using heterobifunctional cross-linkers as described in Wolff *et al. Cancer Research* 53:2560-2565 (1993). Alternatively, an antibody can be engineered which has dual Fc regions and may

thereby have enhanced complement lysis and ADCC capabilities. See Stevenson *et al.* *Anti-Cancer Drug Design* 3:219-230 (1989).

To increase the serum half life of the antagonist, one may incorporate a salvage receptor binding epitope into the antagonist (especially an antibody fragment) as described in US Patent 5,739,277, for example. As used herein, the term "salvage receptor binding epitope" refers to an epitope of the Fc region of an IgG molecule (*e.g.*, IgG₁, IgG₂, IgG₃, or IgG₄) that is responsible for increasing the *in vivo* serum half-life of the IgG molecule.

IV. Pharmaceutical Formulations

Therapeutic formulations of the antagonists used in accordance with the present invention are prepared for storage by mixing an antagonist having the desired degree of purity with optional pharmaceutically acceptable carriers, excipients or stabilizers (*Remington's Pharmaceutical Sciences* 16th edition, Osol, A. Ed. (1980)), in the form of lyophilized formulations or aqueous solutions. Acceptable carriers, excipients, or stabilizers are nontoxic to recipients at the dosages and concentrations employed, and include buffers such as phosphate, citrate, and other organic acids; antioxidants including ascorbic acid and methionine; preservatives (such as octadecyldimethylbenzyl ammonium chloride; hexamethonium chloride; benzalkonium chloride, benzethonium chloride; phenol, butyl or benzyl alcohol; alkyl parabens such as methyl or propyl paraben; catechol; resorcinol; cyclohexanol; 3-pentanol; and m-cresol); low molecular weight (less than about 10 residues) polypeptides; proteins, such as serum albumin, gelatin, or immunoglobulins; hydrophilic polymers such as polyvinylpyrrolidone; amino acids such as glycine, glutamine, asparagine, histidine, arginine, or lysine; monosaccharides, disaccharides, and other carbohydrates including glucose, mannose, or dextrans; chelating agents such as EDTA; sugars such as sucrose, mannitol, trehalose or sorbitol; salt-forming counter-ions such as sodium; metal complexes (*e.g.* Zn-protein complexes); and/or non-ionic surfactants such as TWEEN™, PLURONICS™ or polyethylene glycol (PEG).

Lyophilized formulations adapted for subcutaneous administration are described in WO97/04801. Such lyophilized formulations may be reconstituted with a suitable diluent to a high protein concentration and the reconstituted formulation may be administered subcutaneously to the mammal to be treated herein.

The formulation herein may also contain more than one active compound as necessary for the particular indication being treated, preferably those with complementary activities that do not adversely affect each other. For example, it may be desirable to further provide a cytotoxic agent, chemotherapeutic agent, cytokine or immunosuppressive agent (*e.g.* one which acts on T cells, such as cyclosporin or an antibody that binds T cells, *e.g.* one which binds LFA-1). The effective amount of such other agents depends on the amount of antagonist present in the formulation, the type of disease or disorder or treatment, and other

factors discussed above. These are generally used in the same dosages and with administration routes as used hereinbefore or about from 1 to 99% of the heretofore employed dosages.

The active ingredients may also be entrapped in microcapsules prepared, for example, by coacervation techniques or by interfacial polymerization, for example, hydroxymethylcellulose or gelatin-microcapsules and poly-(methacrylate) microcapsules, respectively, in colloidal drug delivery systems (for example, liposomes, albumin microspheres, microemulsions, nano-particles and nanocapsules) or in macroemulsions. Such techniques are disclosed in *Remington's Pharmaceutical Sciences* 16th edition, Osol, A. Ed. (1980).

Sustained-release preparations may be prepared. Suitable examples of sustained-release preparations include semipermeable matrices of solid hydrophobic polymers containing the antagonist, which matrices are in the form of shaped articles, *e.g.* films, or microcapsules. Examples of sustained-release matrices include polyesters, hydrogels (for example, poly(2-hydroxyethyl-methacrylate), or poly(vinylalcohol)), polylactides (U.S. Pat. No. 3,773,919), copolymers of L-glutamic acid and γ ethyl-L-glutamate, non-degradable ethylene-vinyl acetate, degradable lactic acid-glycolic acid copolymers such as the LUPRON DEPOT™ (injectable microspheres composed of lactic acid-glycolic acid copolymer and leuprolide acetate), and poly-D-(-)-3-hydroxybutyric acid.

The formulations to be used for *in vivo* administration must be sterile. This is readily accomplished by filtration through sterile filtration membranes.

V. Treatment with the Antagonist

The present invention concerns therapy of a subpopulation of mammals, especially humans, with, or susceptible to, an autoimmune disease, who has failed or experience an inadequate response to previous or current treatment. Generally, the mammal to be treated herein will be identified following therapy with one or more treatments with one or more DMARDs or one or more TNF α -inhibitor(s), as experiencing an inadequate response to previous or current treatment because of toxicity and/or inadequate efficacy. However, the invention is not limited to a prior therapy step with such a treatment; for instance, the patient may be considered to be prone to experience a toxicity, *e.g.* cardiac toxicity, with a DMARD or a TNF α -inhibitor before therapy therewith has begun, or the patient may be determined to be one who is unlikely to respond to such therapy.

The various autoimmune diseases to be treated herein are listed in the definitions section above. The preferred indications herein are rheumatoid arthritis, lupus, psoriatic arthritis, multiple sclerosis or Crohn's disease.

For the prevention or treatment of disease, the appropriate dosage of antagonist will depend on the type of disease to be treated, as defined above, the severity and course of the

disease, whether the antagonist is administered for preventive or therapeutic purposes, previous therapy, the patient's clinical history and response to the antagonist, and the discretion of the attending physician. The antagonist is suitably administered to the patient at one time or over a series of treatments. In a combination therapy regimen, the compositions of the present invention are administered in a therapeutically effective or synergistic amount. As used herein, a therapeutically effective amount is such that co-administration of the antagonist and one or more other therapeutic agents, or administration of a composition of the present invention, results in reduction or inhibition of the targeting disease or condition. A therapeutically synergistic amount is that amount of antagonist and one or more other therapeutic agents necessary to synergistically or significantly reduce or eliminate conditions or symptoms associated with a particular disease.

Depending on the type and severity of the disease, about 1 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ to 50 mg/kg (*e.g.* 0.1-20 mg/kg) of antagonist is an initial candidate dosage for administration to the patient, whether, for example, by one or more separate administrations, or by continuous infusion. A typical daily dosage might range from about 1 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ to about 100 mg/kg or more, depending on the factors mentioned above. For repeated administrations over several days or longer, depending on the condition, the treatment is sustained until a desired suppression of disease symptoms occurs. However, other dosage regimens may be useful. In a preferred aspect, the antagonist is administered every two to three weeks, at a dose ranged from about 1.5 mg/kg to about 15 mg/kg. More preferably, such dosing regimen is used in combination with another therapeutic agent for autoimmune diseases. The progress of the therapy of the invention is easily monitored by conventional techniques and assays.

As noted above, however, these suggested amounts of antagonist are subject to a great deal of therapeutic discretion. The key factor in selecting an appropriate dose and scheduling is the result obtained, as indicated above. For example, relatively higher doses may be needed initially for the treatment of ongoing and acute diseases. To obtain the most efficacious results, depending on the disease or disorder, the antagonist is administered as close to the first sign, diagnosis, appearance, or occurrence of the disease or disorder as possible or during remissions of the disease or disorder.

The antagonist is administered by any suitable means, including parenteral, subcutaneous, intraperitoneal, intrapulmonary, and intranasal, and, if desired for local immunosuppressive treatment, intralesional administration. Parenteral infusions include intramuscular, intravenous, intraarterial, intraperitoneal, or subcutaneous administration. In addition, the antagonist may suitably be administered by pulse infusion, *e.g.*, with declining doses of the antagonist. Preferably the dosing is given by injections, most preferably intravenous or subcutaneous injections, depending in part on whether the administration is brief or chronic.

One may administer other compounds, such as cytotoxic agents, chemotherapeutic agents, immunosuppressive agents and/or cytokines with the antagonists herein. The combined administration includes coadministration, using separate formulations or a single pharmaceutical formulation, and consecutive administration in either order, wherein preferably there is a time period while both (or all) active agents simultaneously exert their biological activities. For RA, and other autoimmune diseases, the antagonist (*e.g.* anti-VEGF antibody) may be combined with any one or more of disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs (DMARDs) such as hydroxychloroquine, sulfasalazine, methotrexate, leflunomide, azathioprine, D-penicillamine, Gold (oral), Gold (intramuscular), minocycline, cyclosporine, Staphylococcal protein A immunoadsorption; intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIG); nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs (NSAIDs); glucocorticoid (*e.g.* via joint injection); corticosteroid (*e.g.* methylprednisolone and/or prednisone); folate etc. The most preferred DMARD is MTX. Low-dose MTX therapy, administered weekly, inhibits DNA and RNA synthesis, accounting for its antiproliferative effects, and stimulates the release of adenosine, a mediator with anti-inflammatory activity. Adverse effects of MTX include nausea, diarrhea, fatigue, mouth ulcers, and hematologic suppression. Rarely, patients may develop a pneumonia-like reaction or cirrhosis. Methotrexate is usually initiated at a dose of 7.5 to 10 mg per week. The dose is increased as tolerated during the next several months, up to 20 to 25 mg per week. However, lower MTX doses should be prescribed to the elderly and those patients with mild renal dysfunction; MTX should not be given to patients with a serum creatinine level higher than 2.5 mg/dL. The ACR has established guidelines for monitoring patients receiving MTX, recommending that blood cell counts and liver enzymes be assessed at 4- to 8-week intervals.

In another embodiment, the angiogenesis antagonist is used in combination with other antagonist biologics that are effective in treating autoimmune diseases. For example, the angiogenesis antagonist can be used in combination with a TNF α -inhibitor, a B-cell antagonist, or both. A TNF α -inhibitor can be any agent that decreases, inhibits, blocks, abrogates or interferes a biological function of TNF α . Preferably, a TNF α -inhibitor binds to TNF α and neutralizes its activity. Examples of TNF inhibitors specifically contemplated herein are Etanercept (ENBREL®), Infliximab (REMICADE®) and Adalimumab (HUMIRA™). A B-cell antagonist can be an antagonist antibody that binds to a B-cell surface marker such as CD20, CD22, CD19 and CD40. Examples of antibodies which bind the CD20 antigen include: "C2B8" which is now called "rituximab" ("RITUXAN®") (US Patent No. 5,736,137, expressly incorporated herein by reference); the yttrium-[90]-labeled 2B8 murine antibody designated "Y2B8" (US Patent No. 5,736,137, expressly incorporated herein by reference); murine IgG2a "B1" optionally labeled with ¹³¹I to generate the "¹³¹I-B1"

antibody (BEXXAR™) (US Patent No. 5,595,721, expressly incorporated herein by reference); murine monoclonal antibody "1F5" (Press *et al. Blood* 69(2):584-591 (1987)); "chimeric 2H7 antibody" (US Patent No. 5,677,180, expressly incorporated herein by reference); "humanized 2H7 v16" (see below); huMax-CD20 (Genmab, Denmark); AME-133 (Applied Molecular Evolution); and monoclonal antibodies L27, G28-2, 93-1B3, B-C1 or NU-B2 available from the International Leukocyte Typing Workshop (Valentine *et al.*, In: *Leukocyte Typing III* (McMichael, Ed., p. 440, Oxford University Press (1987)). Examples of antibodies which bind the CD19 antigen include the anti-CD19 antibodies in Hekman *et al. Cancer Immunol. Immunother.* 32:364-372 (1991) and Vlasveld *et al. Cancer Immunol. Immunother.* 40:37-47 (1995); and the B4 antibody in Kiesel *et al. Leukemia Research II*, 12: 1119 (1987).

Aside from administration of protein antagonists to the patient the present application contemplates administration of antagonists by gene therapy. Such administration of nucleic acid encoding the antagonist is encompassed by the expression "administering a therapeutically effective amount of an antagonist". See, for example, WO96/07321 published March 14, 1996 concerning the use of gene therapy to generate intracellular antibodies.

There are two major approaches to getting the nucleic acid (optionally contained in a vector) into the patient's cells; *in vivo* and *ex vivo*. For *in vivo* delivery the nucleic acid is injected directly into the patient, usually at the site where the antagonist is required. For *ex vivo* treatment, the patient's cells are removed, the nucleic acid is introduced into these isolated cells and the modified cells are administered to the patient either directly or, for example, encapsulated within porous membranes which are implanted into the patient (see, *e.g.* U.S. Patent Nos. 4,892,538 and 5,283,187). There are a variety of techniques available for introducing nucleic acids into viable cells. The techniques vary depending upon whether the nucleic acid is transferred into cultured cells *in vitro*, or *in vivo* in the cells of the intended host. Techniques suitable for the transfer of nucleic acid into mammalian cells *in vitro* include the use of liposomes, electroporation, microinjection, cell fusion, DEAE-dextran, the calcium phosphate precipitation method, etc. A commonly used vector for *ex vivo* delivery of the gene is a retrovirus.

The currently preferred *in vivo* nucleic acid transfer techniques include transfection with viral vectors (such as adenovirus, Herpes simplex I virus, or adeno-associated virus) and lipid-based systems (useful lipids for lipid-mediated transfer of the gene are DOTMA, DOPE and DC-Chol, for example). In some situations it is desirable to provide the nucleic acid source with an agent that targets the target cells, such as an antibody specific for a cell surface membrane protein or the target cell, a ligand for a receptor on the target cell, etc. Where liposomes are employed, proteins which bind to a cell surface membrane protein associated with endocytosis may be used for targeting and/or to facilitate uptake, *e.g.* capsid proteins or

fragments thereof tropic for a particular cell type, antibodies for proteins which undergo internalization in cycling, and proteins that target intracellular localization and enhance intracellular half-life. The technique of receptor-mediated endocytosis is described, for example, by Wu *et al.*, *J. Biol. Chem.* 262:4429-4432 (1987); and Wagner *et al.*, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 87:3410-3414 (1990). For review of the currently known gene marking and gene therapy protocols see Anderson *et al.*, *Science* 256:808-813 (1992). See also WO 93/25673 and the references cited therein.

Further details of the invention are illustrated by the following non-limiting Examples. The disclosures of all citations in the specification are expressly incorporated herein by reference.

Example 1

A patient with active rheumatoid arthritis who has failed prior therapy and currently has an inadequate response to MTX is treated with an anti-hVEGF monoclonal antibody such as Avastin®.

Candidates for therapy according to this example include those who were diagnosed with RA for at least six months, according to the revised 1987 ACR criteria. The patients must have received MTX at a dose of 10-25 mg/week per oral or parenteral for at least twelve weeks, with the last four weeks prior to screening at a stable dose. Also, the patients must have failed treatment (lack of efficacy or tolerability) with no more than five DMARDs or biologics (including MTX).

Patients may have swollen joint count (SJC) no less than 6 (66 joint count), and tender joint count (TJC) no less than 6 (68 joint count) at screening and randomization; either CRP no less than 1.2mg/dl (12 mg/L) or ESR no less than 28 mm/h. Patients are preferably between 18 and 64 (inclusive) years old, with less than 5 years since RA diagnosis. Males of reproductive potential preferably use a reliable means of contraception (e.g., physical barrier), and females are preferably post-menopausal or surgically sterilized. Major exclusion criteria are based on concerns of general safety such as evidence of significant uncontrolled concomitant diseases including but not limited to cardiovascular diseases, nervous system, pulmonary, renal, hepatic, endocrine, or gastrointestinal disorders. Also, patients with history of thromboembolic diseases including PE, DVT or CVA, history of diabetes mellitus, history of uncontrolled hypertension or history of proteinuria should be excluded from the treatment.

The anti-VEGF antibody used for therapy is preferably bevacizumab (Avastin® , commercially available from Genentech, Inc.) or a variant thereof having improved binding affinity, inhibitory efficacy or pharmacokinetic properties.

Patients are treated with a therapeutically effective dose of the antibody, for instance, a single dose of 1-2.5 mg/kg i.v. every two weeks (1.0 mg/kg/wk). Patients can also receive

concomitant MTX (10-25 mg/week per oral (p.o.) or parenteral), together with a corticosteroid regimen consisting of methylprednisolone 100 mg i.v. 30 minutes prior to infusions of the anti-VEGF antibody and prednisone 60 mg p.o. on Days 2-7, 30 mg p.o. Days 8-14, returning to baseline dose by Day 16. Patients may also receive folate (5 mg/week) given as either a single dose or as divided daily doses. Patients optionally continue to receive any background corticosteroid (10 mg/d prednisone or equivalent) throughout the treatment period.

The primary endpoint is the proportion of patients with an ACR20 response at Week 24 using a Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel (CMH) test for comparing group differences, adjusted for rheumatoid factor and region.

Additional secondary endpoints include:

1. Proportion of patients with ACR50 and 70 responses at Week 24. These may be analyzed as specified for the primary endpoint.
2. Change in Disease Activity Score (DAS) from screening to Week 24. These may be assessed using an ANOVA model with baseline DAS, rheumatoid factor, and treatment as terms in the model.
3. Categorical DAS responders (EULAR response) at Week 24. These may be assessed using a CMH test adjusted for rheumatoid factor.
4. Changes from screening in ACR core set (SJC, TJC, patient's and physician's global assessments, HAQ, pain, CRP, and ESR). Descriptive statistics may be reported for these parameters.
5. Changes from screening in SF-36. Descriptive statistics are reported for the 8 domain scores and the mental and physical component scores. In addition, the mental and physical component scores are further categorized and analyzed.
6. Change in modified Sharp radiographic total score, erosion score, and joint space narrowing score. These are analyzed using continuous or categorical methodology, as appropriate.

Exploratory endpoints and analysis may involve:

ACR(20/50/70 and ACR n) and change in DAS responses over Weeks 8, 12, 16, 20, 24 and beyond will be assessed using a binary or continuous repeated measures model, as appropriate. Exploratory radiographic analyses including proportion of patients with no erosive progression may be assessed at weeks 24 and beyond.

Further exploratory endpoints (for example complete clinical response, disease free period) will be analyzed descriptively as part of the extended observation period. Changes from Screen in FACIT-F fatigue will be analyzed with descriptive statistics. Therapy of RA with the anti-VEGF antibody in patients with an inadequate response to DMARD or TNF α inhibitor therapy as described above will result in a beneficial clinical response according to any one or more of the endpoints noted above.

What is claimed is:

1. Use of an angiogenesis antagonist in the preparation of a medicament for the treatment of an autoimmune disease in a mammal who has failed prior therapy.
2. The use of claim 1 wherein the angiogenesis antagonist is a VEGF antagonist.
3. The use of claim 1 wherein the antagonist comprises an antibody.
4. The use of claim 3 wherein the antibody is an anti-VEGF antibody.
5. The use of claim 4 wherein the anti-VEGF antibody is bevacizumab.
6. The use of claim 1 wherein the mammal is human.
7. The use of claim 1 wherein the autoimmune disease is selected from the group consisting of rheumatoid arthritis, juvenile-onset rheumatoid arthritis, osteoarthritis, psoriatic arthritis, and ankylosing spondylitis.
8. The use of claim 1 wherein the prior therapy comprises administration of at least one DMARD agent.
9. The use of claim 8 wherein the prior therapy comprises administration of MTX.
10. The use of claim 1 wherein the prior therapy comprises administration of at least one TNF α -inhibitor.
11. The use of claim 1 wherein the angiogenesis antagonist is administered in combination with or in series of a DMARD agent.
12. The use of claim 11 wherein the DMARD agent is MTX.
13. The use of claim 1 wherein the angiogenesis antagonist is administered in combination with or in series of a TNF α -inhibitor.

14. The use of claim 13 wherein the TNF α -inhibitor is selected from the group consisting of etanercept, infliximab and adalimumab.

15. The use of claim 1 wherein the angiogenesis antagonist is administered in combination with or in series of a B-cell antagonist which binds to a B cell surface antigen.

16. The use of claim 15 wherein the B cell surface antigen is selected from the group consisting of CD10, CD19, CD20, CD21, CD22, CD23, CD24, CD37, CD40, CD53, CD72, CD73, CD74, CDw75, CDw76, CD77, CDw78, CD79a, CD79b, CD80, CD81, CD82, CD83, CDw84, CD85 and CD86.

17. The use of claim 15 wherein the B-cell antagonist comprises an antibody against CD20.

18. The use of claim 17 wherein the antibody against CD20 is rituximab.

19. The use of claim 17 wherein the antibody against CD20 is humanized 2H7 v16.

20. Use of an anti-VEGF antibody in the preparation of a medicament for the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis in a patient who has failed prior DMARD or TNF α -inhibitor therapy and currently has an inadequate response to MTX.