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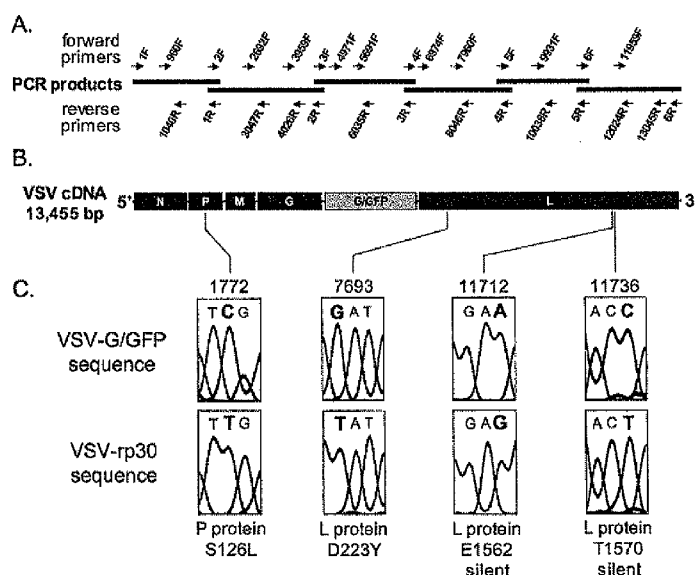
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(54) **Title:** COMPOSITIONS AND METHODS OF USE OF AN ONCOLYTIC VESICULAR STOMATITIS VIRUS



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COMPOSITIONS AND METHODS OF USE OF AN ONCOLYTIC VESICULAR STOMATITIS VIRUS

CROSS REFERENCE TO RELATED APPLICATIONS

5 This application claims priority to and benefit of U.S. Provisional Patent Application No. 61/143,236 filed on January 8, 2009, and where permissible is incorporated by reference in its entirety.

GOVERNMENT SUPPORT

10 The United States government has certain rights in this invention by virtue of National Institutes of Health Grant Numbers 5RO1CA124737-03 and 5RO1AI048854-09 to Anthony N. van den Pol.

FIELD OF THE INVENTION

15 The present application is generally related to oncolytic vesicular stomatitis viruses and compositions and methods of use for treatment of cancer.

BACKGROUND OF THE INVENTION

20 There are many different types of cancers and means of treating the cancers. The most typical way of treating cancer is through the use of chemotherapeutic agents that selectively target the more rapidly proliferating tumor cells relative to the host cells. These have serious side effects, including death of normal cells, mucositis, nausea, and may give rise to drug resistant tumor cells. Antibodies and antibody targeted therapeutics are a desirable alternative to chemotherapeutics since they are more selective, but are limited to the few tumors expressing antigens that can be effectively
25 targeted. Drugs that inhibit angiogenesis are another approach having fewer side effects, but have been found to only limit tumor growth, not kill existing tumors.

30 Viruses are an alternative approach for combating cancer. One approach to treating tumors is to use replication-incompetent viral vectors to deliver genes to the tumor. Replication-incompetent viruses have value in delivering genes to the area of the tumor that might then alter the general environment near the tumor, making it less hospitable to the tumor. There are a number of interesting strategies based on viral vectors, including

delivery of suicide genes such as HSV-tk or ricin, genes that reduce vascular proliferation, restore cell cycle control and encourage apoptosis such as p53, or stimulate an immune response (IL-12, interferon, tumor necrosis factor). One problem with replication incompetent viruses is that, even with direct
5 injection into a tumor, the number of cells infected in a solid tumor is generally quite small, averaging about 7% of the total tumor cell population (Puumalainen et al., *Adv Exp Med Biol*, 451:505-509 (1998); Rainov and Ren, *Acta Neurochir Suppl*, 88:113-123 (2003)). Thus with viruses that do not replicate, it has not been possible to infect a substantial percentage of the
10 tumor cells.

A primary advantage of conditional replication competent viruses is that they infect and kill tumor cells, and then their new viral progeny are released to kill additional tumor cells. In contrast to replication incompetent viral vectors that only infect a small number of tumor cells, a small injection
15 of replication competent VSV or Sindbis virus can lead to a rapid and complete intratumoral spread of the virus. Beneficially, due to local self-amplification, replication competent viruses may be effective with one single application, whereas repetitive injections have to be applied for the less effective replication incompetent agents. A number of viruses have been
20 shown to have oncolytic potential, including recombinant herpes, adeno, polio and alpha viruses. Myxoma virus was effective in killing medulloblastoma, and infection was increased in combination with Rapamycin (Lun, et al., *Cancer Res.*, 67(18):8818-8827 (2007). Herpes simplex virus has been rendered conditionally replication-competent for
25 tumors by inserting mutations in several HSV genes. Oncolytic adenovirus agents specifically restrict their replication to p53 deficient tumor cells, and retrovirus to tumors with activated Ras-signaling pathways (Chiocca, *Nat. Rev. Cancer*, 2: 938-950 (2002); Rainov and Ren, *Acta Neurochir Suppl*, 88:113-123 (2003)). These strategies are restricted to defined mutations of
30 the tumor. Oncolytic viruses that are not strictly dependent on a single gene mutation are therefore desirable to treat cancers that exhibit a heterogeneous array of genetic aberrations.

One replication competent virus with oncolytic potential is vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) (Lun, et al. *J. Nat. Can. Instit.*, 98(21): 1546-1557 (2006), Wu, et al., *Clin. Cancer Res.*, 14(4):1218-1227 (2008), Ozduman, et al., *J. Virol.*, 83(22):11540-11549 (2009), Wollmann, et al., *J. Virol.*, (2009 Epub; 2010 *J. Virology* 84(3). VSV is an RNA virus that uses a negative strand RNA to encode its genome. Although some viruses may express over a hundred different genes, VSV with its 11-12 kilobase genome encodes five structural genes, N, P, M, G, and L, encoding proteins that each may have multiple functions. The virus envelope consists of a host cell-derived lipid bilayer that contains several hundred copies of viral glycoprotein spikes (G-protein) and forms a characteristic bullet shape. The nucleocapsid protein N forms a tight complex with the helical coiled non-segmented RNA genome and the viral matrix protein M bridges the gap between nucleocapsid and viral envelope. A complex formed by the phosphoprotein P and the large polymerase L facilitates viral polymerase activity. Phosphorylation is thought to play a role in the function of the of P protein, for example, unphosphorylated P is much less active in supporting viral transcription at low concentrations (Spadafora et al., *J. Virol.*, 70(7): 45-38-4548 (1996)).

VSV binds to the cell membrane, becomes internalized, and then replicates in the cell cytoplasm. VSV replicates fairly quickly, about 6 hours for progeny virus to bud from the plasma membrane of the infected cell. A single infected cell can release many VSV progeny, although some of the progeny are defective particles. VSV blocks the ability of infected cells to transport mRNA out of the nucleus (VSV M-protein blocks nuclear pores), and usurps the host cell translational mechanisms to synthesize primarily viral gene products. VSV is found around the world. Many mammals, including humans, can be infected by the virus which is probably spread by biting flies (de Mattos et al. In *Fields of Virology*, pp. 1245-1277, (Knipe, et al., Eds) (2001)). Humans show only modest symptoms, or none, with infection which clears as the immune system eliminates the virus. In some rural regions of central America, the majority of adults show seropositivity with antisera against VSV with few symptoms detectable (Tesh, et al., *Am. J. Epidemiol.*, 90:255-261, (1969)). Replication competent VSVs are in human

clinical trials as a carrier virus to generate immune responses against more dangerous viruses, including HIV, influenza, and papilloma viruses cloned into the VSV genome (Roberts, et al., *J. Virol.*, 73:3723-32 (1999); Roberts, et al., *J. Virol.*, 78: 3196-3199 (2004); Okuma et al., *J. Virol.* 346(1):86-97 (2006); Rose et al., *Cell*, 106:539-549 (2001)).

VSV has demonstrated potential as an oncolytic virus. In a battery of *in vitro* and *in vivo* tests, VSV showed the greatest promise among nine replication competent viruses including Sindbis, human and mouse cytomegalovirus, pseudorabies virus, the parvoviruses MVMi and MVMp, and others that have been described as having oncolytic potential (Wollmann et al., *J. Virol.*, 79(10): 6005-6022 (2005)). Normal cells possess innate mechanisms to reduce or block viral infections. VSV replication can be attenuated or blocked by cellular interferon (IFN). Defects in this system are thought to contribute to the oncolytic activity of VSV (Wollmann, et al., *J. Virol.*, 81(3):1479-1491 (2007)). In addition to destroying glioblastoma cells, VSV has also shown promise outside the brain as an anti-cancer agent in recent experimental studies on various solid tumors, for example carcinoma of colon (Stojdl et al., *Cancer Cell*, 4:263-275 (2003)), breast (Ebert et al., *Cancer Gene Ther*, 12:350-358 (2005)), prostate (Ahmed et al., *Virology*, 330:34-49 (2004)) and liver (Shinozaki et al, 2005) or hematological malignancies such as leukemia (Lichty et al., 2004b).

To further enhance the potential selectivity of VSVs for brain cancer cells, a recombinant wildtype-based VSV expressing a gene coding for green fluorescent protein (GFP), VSV-G/GFP (7,30), was grown for many generations on human glioblastoma cancer cells using a protocol that enhanced viral fitness based on viral internalization, replication, and cell selectivity. This cell-adapted propagation resulted in a virus that displayed an enhanced rate of infection and replication on the U-87MG glioblastoma line used to grow the virus and was named VSV-rp30 (Wollmann et al., *J. Virol.*, 79(10): 6005-6022 (2005), Ozduman, et al., *J. of Neurosci.*, 28(8): 1882-1893 (2008)). Identification of the differences between VSV-rp30 and less effective VSV viruses, such as the parent strain, would provide an avenue for

development of a range of oncolytic viruses with improved oncolytic potential for anti-cancer therapeutics.

It is an object of the invention to provide isolated oncolytic VSV virus with enhanced oncolytic potential, compared to naturally occurring
5 wild strains.

It is a further object of the invention to provide mutant VSVs with an increased replicative capacity in cancer cells relative to normal cells.

It is another object of the invention to provide a viral composition effective to reduce tumor burden.

10 It is another object of the invention to provide methods for making and using the viral compositions for treating cancer.

SUMMARY OF THE INVENTION

Oncolytic VSV viruses have been developed as a strategy for combating cancer, where the virus selectively infect, and kill, tumor cells.

15 Mutant VSV that have one or more mutations in the nucleic acid sequence encoding the viral genome, specifically, mutations in the P and/or L proteins enhance the oncolytic potential, of the virus. Some viruses have more than one mutation. For example, a virus can have mutations of both the L and P proteins. An exemplary virus is VSV-rp30. In some embodiments, viruses
20 are modified to include one or more targeting or therapeutic proteins. In other embodiments viral genes are substituted or rearranged to modulate infectivity and replication frequency of the virus.

Pharmaceutical compositions containing virus and one or more excipients may be systemically or locally administered. For example,
25 compositions are administered for the treatment of benign or malignant tumors. In a preferred embodiment, administration of the virus reduces one or more symptoms of a tumor. Preferred routes of administration include intratumoral, intravenous, and intraarterial injection, and intranasal delivery.

Administration of the disclosed compositions containing oncolytic
30 viruses may be coupled with surgical, radiologic, other therapeutic approaches to treatment of cancer. For example, co-administration of virus with an immunosuppressant will preferentially reduce or inhibit the subject's immune response, extending the infective half-life of the virus.

Compositions containing virus can also be co-administered with traditional cancer treatments such as chemotherapy.

Methods of manufacturing virus are disclosed. Additional mutant VSV viruses exhibiting desired properties can be developed by applying selective pressure, or through directed or random mutagenesis.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Figures 1A, 1B, 1C, 1D, and 1E are graphs illustrating VSV-rp30 oncolysis of five tumor cell lines: (1A) Mcf-7 human breast cancer cells, (1B) T47-D human breast cancer cells, (1C) BT-474 human breast cancer cells, (1D) A-549 human lung cancer cells, and (1E) Calu-1 human lung cancer cells. Each graph illustrates the % infected cells (line rising from bottom left to top right), and cells with intact morphology (line falling from top left to bottom right), as a function of time (hours).

Figure 2 is a schematic comparing VSV genomes, as indicated. The five viral genes are labeled, N, P, M, G and L. Additional genes including Green Fluorescent Protein (GFP) and G/GFP fusion are also indicated. Mutations are identified with an arrow head. S126L indicates a serine to leucine substitution as codon 126 of the P protein, and D223Y indicates an aspartic acid to tyrosine substitution at codon 223 of the L protein of VSV-rp30. M51 indicates a deletion of the methionine at position 51 of the M protein, and CT9 indicates deletion of all but 9 of the 27 amino acids of the C-terminal cytoplasmic tail in VSV-M51/CT9.

Figure 3 is a chart illustrating the plaque size (diameter) that developed in the monolayer of 11 cancer cell lines (as labeled from top to bottom above the dotted line) and 3 non-cancer cell lines (as labeled from top to bottom below the dotted line) following infection with 4 different VSV viruses (as labeled from left to right). Each circle represents the mean of 30 randomly selected plaques measured across their diameter, then normalized with respect to the corresponding VSV-G/GFP mean plaque diameter. Small marks at the top of each circle represent standard error of the mean. "NS" indicates the only plaques that were not statistically different ($p < 0.05$).

Figure 4 is a chart illustrating the plaque size (black circles) compared to EthD-1 labeled cytotoxic areas (white circles) that developed in

the monolayer of four cancer cell lines (as labeled from top to bottom) following infection with 4 different VSV viruses (as labeled from left to right). Measurements were collected and normalized as in Figure 3.

Figure 5A is a diagram depicting the series of six overlapping PCR products derived from the amplification of the VSV genomic cDNA and used for sequencing. Sequencing primers are illustrated with arrows. Figure 5B is a schematic of the parent VSV-G/GFP genome, and illustrates the positions of the four mutations (C1772T, G7693T, A11712G, C11736) identified in the variant VSV-rp30. Figure 5C is a section of the sequencing chromatographs of both the parent, VSV-G/GFP (top) and mutated VSV-rp30 (bottom) codons.

Figures 6A, 6B, and 6C are bar graphs illustrating the average plaque diameters (%) of VSV-rp30 plaques (black bars) relative to VSV-G/GFP plaques (white bars) on U-373MG cell monolayers after treatment of increasing concentrations (left to right), of different kinase inhibitors: (6A) Staurosporine (nM), (6B) Genistein (μ M), and (6C) Tyrphostin 51 (μ M).

Figures 7A, 7B and 7C are a schematized general outline of VSV oncolysis in the SCID mouse brain tumor model. After intravenous injection (7A), VSV-rp30 infection starts at few scattered foci (7B) around the brain tumor vasculature and spreads to infect the entire tumor (7C).

Figure 8 is a bar graph illustrating tumor area (%) as a function of time post-infection. Tumor infectivity (% of tumor GFP-positive) is represented by vertical bars from the bottom up: left hand bar represents the parent virus VSV-G/GFP and the right hand bar represents the mutant virus VSV-rp30 for each time point (24, 48, 72 hours, left to right). Intact tumor (%) infected with each virus is represented by vertical bars from the top down. The black space between each top and bottom bar represents tumor debris (%).

Figure 9A is a bar graph illustrating the number of tumor cells with intact morphology as a function of hours post infection (HPI) with VSV-rp30. Figure 9B is a bar graph illustrating the number tumor cell nuclei with intact morphology as a function of hours post infection (HPI) with VSV-

rp30. Figure 9C is a bar graph illustrating the number of apoptotic tumor cells as a function of hours post infection (HPI) with VSV-rp30.

Figure 10 is a bar graph illustrating the percent of apoptotic cells in various tumor xenograft models infected with VSV-rp30 by intravenous injection. From left to right bars represent U118 (glioma) tumor in T- and B-deficient SCID mouse, 4T1 (mouse mammary carcinoma) tumor in SCID mouse, and rU87 (glioma) tumor in nude mouse.

Figure 11 is a graph showing the percent surface area infected of glioma tumor in a mouse brain as a function of time (hours) following infection with VSV-rp30.

Figure 12A is a bar graph illustrating the relative VSV quantity (%) cell surface bound to normal human astrocytes (Astro) or rU87 glioma cells 20 min after infection. Figure 12B is a bar graph illustrating the relative VSV quantity (%) cell surface bound and intracellular to/in normal human astrocytes (Astro) or rU87 glioma cells 30 min after infection. Figure 12C is a bar graph illustrating the relative VSV quantity (%) in endosomes in normal human astrocytes (Astro) or rU87 glioma cells 90 min after infection. Figure 12D is a bar graph illustrating the relative VSV quantity (%) in intracellular in normal human astrocytes (Astro) or rU87 glioma cells 90 min after infection.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE INVENTION

I. Definitions

As used herein the term "isolated" is meant to describe a compound of interest (e.g., either a polynucleotide or a polypeptide) that is in an environment different from that in which the compound naturally occurs e.g. separated from its natural milieu such as by concentrating a peptide to a concentration at which it is not found in nature. "Isolated" is meant to include compounds that are within samples that are substantially enriched for the compound of interest and/or in which the compound of interest is partially or substantially purified. With respect to nucleic acids, the term "isolated" includes any non-naturally-occurring nucleic acid sequence, since such non-naturally-occurring sequences are not found in nature and do not have immediately contiguous sequences in a naturally-occurring genome.

As used herein, the term "nucleic acid(s)" refers to any nucleic acid containing molecule, including, but not limited to, DNA or RNA. The term encompasses sequences that include any of the known base analogs of DNA and RNA including, but not limited to, 4-acetylcytosine, 8-hydroxy-N6-methyladenosine, aziridinylcytosine, pseudoisocytosine, 5-(carboxyhydroxymethyl) uracil, 5-fluorouracil, 5-bromouracil, 5-carboxymethylaminomethyl-2-thiouracil, 5-carboxymethylaminomethyluracil, dihydrouracil, inosine, N6-isopentenyladenine, 1-methyladenine, 1-methylpseudouracil, 1-methylguanine, 1-methylinosine, 2,2-dimethylguanine, 2-methyladenine, 2-methylguanine, 3-methylcytosine, 5-methylcytosine, N6-methyladenine, 7-methylguanine, 5-methylaminomethyluracil, 5-methoxy-aminomethyl-2-thiouracil, beta-D-mannosylqueosine, 5'-methoxycarbonylmethyluracil, 5-methoxyuracil, 2-methylthio-N6-isopentenyladenine, uracil-5-oxyacetic acid methylester, uracil-5-oxyacetic acid, oxybutoxosine, pseudouracil, queosine, 2-thiocytosine, 5-methyl-2-thiouracil, 2-thiouracil, 4-thiouracil, 5-methyluracil, N-uracil-5-oxyacetic acid methylester, uracil-5-oxyacetic acid, pseudouracil, queosine, 2-thiocytosine, and 2,6-diaminopurine. In accordance with standard nomenclature, nucleic acid sequences are

denominated by either a three letter, or single letter code as indicated as follows: adenine (Ade, A), thymine (Thy, T), guanine (Gua, G) cytosine (Cyt, C), uracil (Ura, U).

As used herein, the term "polynucleotide" refers to a chain of nucleotides of any length, regardless of modification (e.g., methylation).

The term "gene" refers to a nucleic acid (e.g., DNA or RNA) sequence that comprises coding sequences necessary for the production of a polypeptide, RNA (e.g., including but not limited to, mRNA, tRNA and rRNA) or precursor. The polypeptide, RNA, or precursor can be encoded by a full length coding sequence or by any portion thereof. The term also encompasses the coding region of a structural gene and the sequences located adjacent to the coding region on both the 5' and 3' ends for a distance of about 1 kb on either end such that the gene corresponds to the length of the full-length mRNA. The term "gene" encompasses both cDNA and genomic

forms of a gene, which may be made of DNA, or RNA. A genomic form or clone of a gene may contain the coding region interrupted with non-coding sequences termed "introns" or "intervening regions" or "intervening sequences." Introns are segments of a gene that are transcribed into nuclear RNA (hnRNA); introns may contain regulatory elements such as enhancers. Introns are removed or "spliced out" from the nuclear or primary transcript; introns therefore are absent in the messenger RNA (mRNA) transcript. The mRNA functions during translation to specify the sequence or order of amino acids in a nascent polypeptide.

10 As used herein, the term "nucleic acid molecule encoding," refers to the order or sequence of nucleotides along a strand of nucleotides. The order of these nucleotides determines the order of amino acids along the polypeptide (protein) chain. The nucleotide sequence thus codes for the amino acid sequence

15 As used herein, the term "polypeptide" refers to a chain of amino acids of any length, regardless of modification (e.g., phosphorylation or glycosylation). In accordance with standard nomenclature, amino acid residue sequences are denominated by either a three letter or a single letter code as indicated as follows: Alanine (Ala, A), Arginine (Arg, R),
20 Asparagine (Asn, N), Aspartic Acid (Asp, D), Cysteine (Cys, C), Glutamine (Gln, Q), Glutamic Acid (Glu, E), Glycine (Gly, G), Histidine (His, H), Isoleucine (Ile, I), Leucine (Leu, L), Lysine (Lys, K), Methionine (Met, M), Phenylalanine (Phe, F), Proline (Pro, P), Serine (Ser, S), Threonine (Thr, T), Tryptophan (Trp, W), Tyrosine (Tyr, Y), and Valine (Val, V).

25 As used herein, a "variant," "mutant," or "mutated" polynucleotide contains at least one polynucleotide sequence alteration as compared to the polynucleotide sequence of the corresponding wild-type or parent polynucleotide. A "variant," "mutant," or "mutated" polypeptide contains at least one amino acid sequence alteration as compared to the amino acid
30 sequence of the corresponding wild-type, or parent polypeptide. Mutations may be natural, deliberate, or accidental.

 As used herein, a "nucleic acid sequence alteration" can be, for example, a substitution, a deletion, or an insertion of one or more

nucleotides. An "amino acid sequence alteration" can be, for example, a substitution, a deletion, or an insertion of one or more amino acids.

As used herein, a "vector" is a replicon, such as a plasmid, phage, or cosmid, into which another DNA segment may be inserted so as to bring about the replication of the inserted segment. The vectors described herein can be expression vectors.

As used herein, the term "effective amount" or "therapeutically effective amount" means a dosage sufficient to treat, inhibit, or alleviate one or more symptoms of a disease state being treated or to otherwise provide a desired pharmacologic and/or physiologic effect. The precise dosage will vary according to a variety of factors such as subject-dependent variables (e.g., age, immune system health, etc.), the disease, and the treatment being effected.

As used herein, the terms "neoplastic cells," "neoplasia," "tumor," "tumor cells," "cancer" and "cancer cells," (used interchangeably) refer to cells which exhibit relatively autonomous growth, so that they exhibit an aberrant growth phenotype characterized by a significant loss of control of cell proliferation (i.e., de-regulated cell division). Neoplastic cells can be malignant or benign.

As used herein, the terms "VSV-rp30" and "VSV-rp30a" are used interchangeably, and refer to a mutant VSV with improved oncolytic potential compared to the parent strain VSV-G/GFP.

II. Compositions

A. Viruses

The viruses disclosed herein may be "native" or naturally-occurring viruses, or engineered viruses, such as recombinant viruses. Mutations are introduced into the viral genome to provide viruses with enhanced selectivity and cytolytic activity for cells of interest, such as cancer cells.

1. Oncolytic Viruses

The present invention includes mutant VSV that have one or more mutations in the nucleic acid sequence encoding the viral genome. The mutations may reduce or inhibit post translational phosphorylation of viral proteins, or may work well due to other independent mechanisms. Changes

in post translational phosphorylation of viral proteins, such as the P and/or L proteins, may increase the specificity or infectivity of oncolytic viruses. Increasing the specificity or infectivity of a virus for one or more types of cancers compared to normal cells increases the oncolytic potential of the virus.

5 A protein kinase is an enzyme that modifies proteins by covalently adding phosphate groups to them in a chemical reaction known as phosphorylation. Phosphorylation can cause a functional change of the phosphorylated protein, such changing enzyme activity, cellular location, or association with other proteins. The amino acids serine, threonine, and tyrosine, and sometimes others such as histidine, can be phosphorylated in the presence of a kinase. Cells contain a number of kinases, and each kinase may be capable of phosphorylating one or more amino acids. For example, some kinases phosphorylate serine and threonine, while others phosphorylate serine, threonine, and tyrosine. Changes in the nucleic acid sequence of viral genes, have the potential to increase or decrease the post translational phosphorylation of viral proteins, by increasing or decreasing the number of amino acids that can be phosphorylated. Mutations altering the phosphorylation of viral proteins will become apparent when viral genes are translated in the presence of kinases, such as cellular kinases.

10 In some embodiments, the mutant virus has one or more mutations in at least one codon in the viral genome encoding a phosphorylation site. In some viruses, the mutation is designed to inhibit phosphorylation of at least one phosphorylation site. For example, the mutation can result in amino acid insertions, deletions, and/or substitutions, introduced at the phosphorylation sites in order to block phosphorylation. The mutation can result in substitution of at least one serine, threonine, and/or tyrosine, amino acid by an amino acid, such as alanine. The mutation can result in amino acid insertions, deletions, and/or substitutions that reduce or inhibit phosphorylation of a serine, threonine, or tyrosine by sterically blocking kinase activity.

15 20 25 30 Mutations may promote or increase post translational phosphorylation of viral proteins in the presence of a kinase. In one embodiment, the mutant

virus has one or more mutations in at least one codon in the viral genome encoding an amino acid that is not phosphorylated, such that the substituted amino acid can be phosphorylated in the presence of a kinase. Substitutions may be made at any amino acid such that phosphorylation of the viral protein is increased. The mutation can be a substitution from any amino acid that can not be phosphorylated, to an amino acid that can be phosphorylated, such as an alanine to a serine, threonine, or tyrosine. The mutation can result in amino acid insertions, deletions, and/or substitutions introduced adjacent to phosphorylation sites in order to increase or promote phosphorylation in the presence of kinase. For example, removal of amino acids that sterically block phosphorylation of another amino acid may be replaced or deleted. Mutations in one or more codons in the viral genome resulting in the substitution of one phosphorylation site or another phosphorylation site are also considered. For example a serine can be replaced by threonine. Substitution of the amino acid at phosphorylation sites may increase, decrease, or otherwise alter the phosphorylation of viral proteins by presenting an alternative substrate for the available cellular kinases.

In one embodiment, one or more mutations in at least one codon in the viral genome of a self-replicating VSV genome alters the phosphorylation of the P protein, the L protein, or a combination thereof. Non-limiting illustrations of mutations that alter the phosphorylation of the P protein, and the L protein are described in the examples below.

VSV-G/GFP is an oncolytic VSV virus with a genome encoded by nucleic acid SEQ ID 1 which is a cDNA sense strand.

The P protein of VSV-G/GFP (SEQ ID NO: 3) is encoded by the nucleic acids between 1396-2193 of SEQ ID NO: 1 (SEQ ID NO: 2). The L protein of VSV-G/GFP (SEQ ID NO: 5) is encoded by the nucleic acids between 7027-13356 of SEQ ID NO:1 (SEQ ID NO: 4). The L protein has an amino acid SEQ ID NO: 5.

In the preferred embodiment the virus has a mutation in codon 126 of SEQ ID NO: 3 encoding the P protein. In one embodiment the mutation in codon 126 of SEQ ID NO: 3 results in replacement of the serine (S), with another amino acid such alanine (A), arginine (R), asparagine (N), aspartic

acid (D), cysteine (C), glutamine (Q), glutamic acid (E), glycine (G), histidine (H), isoleucine (I), leucine (L), lysine (K), methionine (M), phenylalanine (F), proline (P), tryptophan (W), or valine (V). In an alternative embodiment, the mutation in codon 126 of SEQ ID 3, results in replacement of the serine (S) with a leucine (L) (S126L substitution). In the most preferred embodiment, the mutation is a C1772T mutation in nucleic acid SEQ ID NO: 1.

In another embodiment the virus has a mutation in codon 223 of SEQ ID NO: 5 encoding the L protein. In one embodiment the mutation in codon 223 results in a replacement of the asparagine (D) with a serine (S), threonine (T), or tyrosine (Y). In a further embodiment the mutation in codon 223 results in a replacement of the asparagine (D) in VSV-G/GFP with a tyrosine (Y) (D223Y substitution). In a preferred embodiment, the mutation is a G7693T mutation that appears in nucleic acid SEQ ID NO: 1.

Some viruses have more than one mutation. For example, a virus can have mutations that result in a change of both the L and P proteins. This mutation may or may not alter phosphorylation state. A virus can have mutations that result in a decrease in the phosphorylation of both the P and L proteins. Mutations of more than one nucleic acid are also possible, and may result in altered phosphorylation of both the P and L proteins at the same time. For example, a virus can have mutations that result in an increase in phosphorylation of the P protein and a decrease in the phosphorylation of the L protein. In a preferred embodiment, the composition includes a virus with a decrease in phosphorylation of the P protein and an increase in the phosphorylation of the L protein. In the most preferred embodiment, the composition includes a VSV with both a S126L substitution in the P protein encoded by SEQ ID NO: 3 and a D223Y substitution in the L protein encoded by SEQ ID NO 5.

In preferred embodiments, the virus is VSV-rp30 encoded by SEQ ID NO: 6 which is a cDNA sense strand

VSV-rp30 was generated by growing VSV for many generations on glioblastoma cells, and the resultant virus displayed enhanced infection of the U87 glioblastoma line on which the virus had been cell-adapted, and on

other glioblastoma lines (Wollmann et al, *J. Virol.*, 79(10): 6005-6022 (2005)). The resulting change in phenotype was achieved by combining VSV's inherent potential to adapt to different hosts with the application of selective pressure during viral propagation. Sequencing VSV-rp30 identified two amino acid-altering mutations. One mutation is in the P protein encoded by nucleic acid SEQ ID NO: 7,

atggataatctcacaaaagttcgtgagtatctcaagtcctattctcgtctggatcaggcggtaggagagatagat
gagatcgaagcacaaacgagctgaaaagtccaattatgagttgtccaagaggatggagtggaaagagcatact
aagccctcttattttcaggcagcagatgattctgacacagaatctgaaccagaaattgaagacaatcaaggctt
gtatgcaccagatccagaagctgagcaagttgaaggctttatacaggggccttagatgactatgcagatgag
gaagtggatgttatttacttcggactggaaacagcctgagcttgaatctgacgagcatggaaagaccttacg
gttgacattgccagagggttaagtggagagcagaaatcccagtggtttcgacgattaaagcagtcgtgcaa
agtgccaaatactggaatctggcagagtgcacattgaagcatcgggagaaggggtcattatgaaggagcgc
cagataactccggatgtatataaggtcactccagtgatgaacacacatccgtcccaatcagaagcagtatcag
atgtttggtctctctcaaagacatccatgactttccaacccaagaaagcaagtcttcagcctctcaccatattcctt
ggatgaattgttctcatctagaggagagttcatctctgtcggaggtgacggacgaatgtctcataaaggccca
tctctgctcggcctgagatacaaaaagttgtacaatcaggcgagagtgaaatattctctgtag,
and amino acid sequence

mdnltkvreyllksysrldqavgeideieaqraksnelyfqedgvechtkpsyfqaaddsdtesepeied
nqglyapdpeaeqvegfiqgpldddyadeevdvvftsdwkqpelesdehgtlrltlpeglsg eqksqwl
tikavvqsakywnlaectfeasgegvimkerqitpdvykvtpvmnthpsqseavsdvwslsktsmtfq
pkkaslqpltlldelfssrgefisvggdgrmshkeailglrykklynqarvkysl (SEQ ID NO: 8).

Another mutation is in the L protein encoded by nucleic acid SEQ ID NO: 9, and by amino acid SEQ ID NO: 10.

2. Gene switching and rearrangement

VSV is highly immunogenic, and a substantial B and T cell response from the adaptive immune system will ultimately limit VSV infection, which is good from the perspective that it will halt runaway long-lasting viral infections. A virus that shows enhanced selectivity, and a faster rate of infection, will have a greater likelihood of eliminating cancer cells before the virus is eliminated by the immune system. However, the use of VSV against cancer cells does not have to be restricted to a single application. By molecular substitution of the G-protein for enhancing immune responses

against foreign genes expressed by VSV, one could switch the original Indiana G protein of the virus with the G protein from VSV New Jersey or Chandipura, allowing a slightly different antigen presentation, and reducing the initial response of the adaptive immune system to second or third
5 oncolytic inoculations with VSV.

It also may be desirable to rearrange the VSVrp30 genome. For example, shifting the L-gene to the sixth position, by rearrangement or insertion of an additional gene upstream, can result in attenuated L-protein synthesis and a slight reduction in replication (Dalton and Rose, *Virology*,
10 279(2):414-21 (2001)), an advantage when considering treatment of the brain. Additional examples of attenuating VSV viruses by gene shifting, gene truncations, gene deletions, and combinations thereof, are described in Wollmann, et al., *J. Virol.*, (2009) Epub; *J. Virol.* 84(3): (2010))

3. Viruses engineered to express targeting or therapeutic 15 proteins

Viruses may be modified to express one or more targeting or therapeutic proteins, separately or as a part of other expressed proteins. The viral genome of VSV has the capacity to accommodate additional genetic material. At least two additional transcription units, totaling 4.5 kb, can be
20 added to the genome, and methods for doing so are known in the art. The added genes are stably maintained in the genome upon repeated passage (Schnell, et al., *EMBO Journal*, 17:1289-1296 (1998); Schnell, et al., *PNAS*, 93: 11359-11365 (1996); Schnell, et al., *Journal of Virology*, 70:2318-2323 (1996); Kahn, et al., *Virology*, 254, 81-91 (1999)).

25 Viruses can be engineered to include one or more additional genes that target the virus to cells of interest, see for example U.S. Patent No. 7,429,481. In preferred embodiments, expression of the gene results in expression of a ligand on the surface of the virus containing one or more domains that bind to antigens, ligands or receptors that are specific to tumor
30 cells, or are upregulated in tumor cells compared to normal tissue. Appropriate targeting ligands will depend on the cell or cancer of interest and will be known to those skilled in the art.

For example, virus can be engineered to bind to antigens, ligands or receptors that are specific to tumor cells or tumor-associated neovasculature, or are upregulated in tumor cells or tumor-associated neovasculature compared to normal tissue.

5 **a. Antigens, ligands and receptors to target**
 1. Tumor-specific and tumor-associated
antigens

 In one embodiment the viral surface contains a domain that specifically binds to an antigen that is expressed by tumor cells. The antigen
10 expressed by the tumor may be specific to the tumor, or may be expressed at a higher level on the tumor cells as compared to non-tumor cells. Antigenic markers such as serologically defined markers known as tumor associated antigens, which are either uniquely expressed by cancer cells or are present at markedly higher levels (e.g., elevated in a statistically significant manner)
15 in subjects having a malignant condition relative to appropriate controls, are known.

 Tumor-associated antigens may include, for example, cellular oncogene-encoded products or aberrantly expressed proto-oncogene-encoded products (e.g., products encoded by the neu, ras, trk, and kit genes), or
20 mutated forms of growth factor receptor or receptor-like cell surface molecules (e.g., surface receptor encoded by the c-erb B gene). Other tumor-associated antigens include molecules that may be directly involved in transformation events, or molecules that may not be directly involved in oncogenic transformation events but are expressed by tumor cells (e.g.,
25 carcinoembryonic antigen, CA-125, melonoma associated antigens, etc.) (see, e.g., U.S. Patent No. 6,699,475; Jager, et al., *Int. J. Cancer*, 106:817-20 (2003); Kennedy, et al., *Int. Rev. Immunol.*, 22:141-72 (2003); Scanlan, et al. *Cancer Immun.*, 4:1 (2004)).

 Genes that encode cellular tumor associated antigens include cellular
30 oncogenes and proto-oncogenes that are aberrantly expressed. In general, cellular oncogenes encode products that are directly relevant to the transformation of the cell, so these antigens are particularly preferred targets for immunotherapy. An example is the tumorigenic neu gene that encodes a

cell surface molecule involved in oncogenic transformation. Other examples include the ras, kit, and trk genes. The products of proto-oncogenes (the normal genes which are mutated to form oncogenes) may be aberrantly expressed (e.g., overexpressed), and this aberrant expression can be related to cellular transformation. Thus, the product encoded by proto-oncogenes can be targeted. Some oncogenes encode growth factor receptor molecules or growth factor receptor-like molecules that are expressed on the tumor cell surface. An example is the cell surface receptor encoded by the c-erbB gene. Other tumor-associated antigens may or may not be directly involved in malignant transformation. These antigens, however, are expressed by certain tumor cells and may therefore provide effective targets. Some examples are carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA), CA 125 (associated with ovarian carcinoma), and melanoma specific antigens.

In ovarian and other carcinomas, for example, tumor associated antigens are detectable in samples of readily obtained biological fluids such as serum or mucosal secretions. One such marker is CA125, a carcinoma associated antigen that is also shed into the bloodstream, where it is detectable in serum (e.g., Bast, et al., *N. Eng. J. Med.*, 309:883 (1983); Lloyd, et al., *Int. J. Canc.*, 71:842 (1997). CA125 levels in serum and other biological fluids have been measured along with levels of other markers, for example, carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA), squamous cell carcinoma antigen (SCC), tissue polypeptide specific antigen (TPS), sialyl TN mucin (STN), and placental alkaline phosphatase (PLAP), in efforts to provide diagnostic and/or prognostic profiles of ovarian and other carcinomas (e.g., Sarandakou, et al., *Acta Oncol.*, 36:755 (1997); Sarandakou, et al., *Eur. J. Gynaecol. Oncol.*, 19:73 (1998); Meier, et al., *Anticancer Res.*, 17(4B):2945 (1997); Kudoh, et al., *Gynecol. Obstet. Invest.*, 47:52 (1999)). Elevated serum CA125 may also accompany neuroblastoma (e.g., Hirokawa, et al., *Surg. Today*, 28:349 (1998), while elevated CEA and SCC, among others, may accompany colorectal cancer (Gebauer, et al., *Anticancer Res.*, 17(4B):2939 (1997)).

The tumor associated antigen mesothelin, defined by reactivity with monoclonal antibody K-1, is present on a majority of squamous cell

- carcinomas including epithelial ovarian, cervical, and esophageal tumors, and on mesotheliomas (Chang, et al., *Cancer Res.*, 52:181 (1992); Chang, et al., *Int. J. Cancer*, 50:373 (1992); Chang, et al., *Int. J. Cancer*, 51:548 (1992); Chang, et al., *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 93:136 (1996);
- 5 Chowdhury, et al., *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 95:669 (1998)). Using MAb K-1, mesothelin is detectable only as a cell-associated tumor marker and has not been found in soluble form in serum from ovarian cancer patients, or in medium conditioned by OVCAR-3 cells (Chang, et al., *Int. J. Cancer*, 50:373 (1992)). Structurally related human mesothelin polypeptides,
- 10 however, also include tumor-associated antigen polypeptides such as the distinct mesothelin related antigen (MRA) polypeptide, which is detectable as a naturally occurring soluble antigen in biological fluids from patients having malignancies (see WO 00/50900).

- A tumor antigen may include a cell surface molecule. Tumor
- 15 antigens of known structure and having a known or described function, include the following cell surface receptors: HER1 (GenBank Accession NO: U48722), HER2 (Yoshino, et al., *J. Immunol.*, 152:2393 (1994); Disis, et al., *Canc. Res.*, 54:16 (1994); GenBank Acc. Nos. X03363 and M17730), HER3 (GenBank Acc. Nos. U29339 and M34309), HER4 (Plowman, et al., *Nature*,
- 20 366:473 (1993); GenBank Acc. Nos. L07868 and T64105), epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) (GenBank Acc. Nos. U48722, and KO3193), vascular endothelial cell growth factor (GenBank NO: M32977), vascular endothelial cell growth factor receptor (GenBank Acc. Nos. AF022375, 1680143, U48801 and X62568), insulin-like growth factor-I (GenBank Acc.
- 25 Nos. X00173, X56774, X56773, X06043, European Patent No. GB 2241703), insulin-like growth factor-II (GenBank Acc. Nos. X03562, X00910, M17863 and M17862), transferrin receptor (Trowbridge and Omary, *Proc. Nat. Acad. USA*, 78:3039 (1981); GenBank Acc. Nos. X01060 and M11507), estrogen receptor (GenBank Acc. Nos. M38651, X03635,
- 30 X99101, U47678 and M12674), progesterone receptor (GenBank Acc. Nos. X51730, X69068 and M15716), follicle stimulating hormone receptor (FSH-R) (GenBank Acc. Nos. Z34260 and M65085), retinoic acid receptor (GenBank Acc. Nos. L12060, M60909, X77664, X57280, X07282 and

X06538), MUC-1 (Barnes, et al., *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA*, 86:7159 (1989); GenBank Acc. Nos. M65132 and M64928) NY-ESO-1 (GenBank Acc. Nos. AJ003149 and U87459), NA 17-A (PCT Publication NO: WO 96/40039), Melan-A/MART-1 (Kawakami, et al., *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA*, 91:3515 (1994); GenBank Acc. Nos. U06654 and U06452), tyrosinase (Topalian, et al., *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA*, 91:9461 (1994); GenBank Acc. NO: M26729; Weber, et al., *J. Clin. Invest*, 102:1258 (1998)), Gp-100 (Kawakami, et al., *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA*, 91:3515 (1994); GenBank Acc. NO: S73003, Adema, et al., *J. Biol. Chem.*, 269:20126 (1994)), MAGE (van den Bruggen, et al., *Science*, 254:1643 (1991)); GenBank Acc. Nos. U93163, AF064589, U66083, D32077, D32076, D32075, U10694, U10693, U10691, U10690, U10689, U10688, U10687, U10686, U10685, L18877, U10340, U10339, L18920, U03735 and M77481), BAGE (GenBank Acc. NO: U19180; U.S. Pat. Nos. 5,683,886 and 5,571,711), GAGE (GenBank Acc. Nos. AF055475, AF055474, AF055473, U19147, U19146, U19145, U19144, U19143 and U19142), any of the CTA class of receptors including in particular HOM-MEL-40 antigen encoded by the SSX2 gene (GenBank Acc. Nos. X86175, U90842, U90841 and X86174), carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA, Gold and Freedman, *J. Exp. Med.*, 121:439 (1985); GenBank Acc. Nos. M59710, M59255 and M29540), and PyLT (GenBank Acc. Nos. J02289 and J02038); p97 (melanotransferrin) (Brown, et al., *J. Immunol.*, 127:539-46 (1981); Rose, et al., *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 83:1261-61 (1986)).

Additional tumor associated antigens include prostate surface antigen (PSA) (U.S. Pat. Nos. 6,677,157; 6,673,545); β -human chorionic gonadotropin β -HCG (McManus, et al., *Cancer Res.*, 36:3476-81 (1976); Yoshimura, et al., *Cancer*, 73:2745-52 (1994); Yamaguchi, et al., *Br. J. Cancer*, 60:382-84 (1989); Alfthan, et al., *Cancer Res.*, 52:4628-33 (1992)); glycosyltransferase β -1,4-N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferases (GalNAc) (Hoon, et al., *Int. J. Cancer*, 43:857-62 (1989); Ando, et al., *Int. J. Cancer*, 40:12-17 (1987); Tsuchida, et al., *J. Natl. Cancer*, 78:45-54 (1987); Tsuchida, et al., *J. Natl. Cancer*, 78:55-60 (1987)); NUC18 (Lehmann, et al., *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 86:9891-95 (1989); Lehmann, et al., *Cancer Res.*, 47:841-45 (1987)); melanoma antigen gp75 (Vijayasardahi, et al., *J.*

Exp. Med., 171:1375-80 (1990); GenBank Accession NO: X51455); human cytokeratin 8; high molecular weight melanoma antigen (Natali, et al., *Cancer*, 59:55-63 (1987); keratin 19 (Datta, et al., *J. Clin. Oncol.*, 12:475-82 (1994)).

- 5 Tumor antigens of interest include antigens regarded in the art as “cancer/testis” (CT) antigens that are immunogenic in subjects having a malignant condition (Scanlan, et al., *Cancer Immun.*, 4:1 (2004)). CT antigens include at least 19 different families of antigens that contain one or more members and that are capable of inducing an immune response,
- 10 including, but not limited to, MAGEA (CT1); BAGE (CT2); MAGEB (CT3); GAGE (CT4); SSX (CT5); NY-ESO-1 (CT6); MAGEC (CT7); SYCP1 (C8); SPANXB1 (CT11.2); NA88 (CT18); CTAGE (CT21); SPA17 (CT22); OY-TES-1 (CT23); CAGE (CT26); HOM-TES-85 (CT28); HCA661 (CT30); NY-SAR-35 (CT38); FATE (CT43); and TPTE (CT44).
- 15 Additional tumor antigens that can be targeted, including a tumor-associated or tumor-specific antigen, include, but are not limited to, alpha-actinin-4, Bcr-Abl fusion protein, Casp-8, beta-catenin, cdc27, cdk4, cdkn2a, coa-1, dek-can fusion protein, EF2, ETV6-AML1 fusion protein, LDLR-fucosyltransferaseAS fusion protein, HLA-A2, HLA-A11, hsp70-2,
- 20 KIAA0205, Mart2, Mum-1, 2, and 3, neo-PAP, myosin class I, OS-9, pml-RAR α fusion protein, PTPRK, K-ras, N-ras, Triosephosphate isomeras, Bage-1, Gage 3,4,5,6,7, GnTV, Herv-K-mel, Lage-1, Mage-A1,2,3,4,6,10,12, Mage-C2, NA-88, NY-Eso-1/Lage-2, SP17, SSX-2, and TRP2-Int2, MelanA (MART-I), gp100 (Pmel 17), tyrosinase, TRP-1, TRP-2,
- 25 MAGE-1, MAGE-3, BAGE, GAGE-1, GAGE-2, p15(58), CEA, RAGE, NY-ESO (LAGE), SCP-1, Hom/Mel-40, PRAME, p53, H-Ras, HER-2/neu, BCR-ABL, E2A-PRL, H4-RET, IGH-IGK, MYL-RAR, Epstein Barr virus antigens, EBNA, human papillomavirus (HPV) antigens E6 and E7, TSP-180, MAGE-4, MAGE-5, MAGE-6, p185erbB2, p180erbB-3, c-met, nm-
- 30 23H1, PSA, TAG-72-4, CA 19-9, CA 72-4, CAM 17.1, NuMa, K-ras, β -Catenin, CDK4, Mum-1, p16, TAGE, PSMA, PSCA, CT7, telomerase, 43-9F, 5T4, 791Tgp72, α -fetoprotein, 13HCG, BCA225, BTAA, CA 125, CA 15-3 (CA 27.29\BCAA), CA 195, CA 242, CA-50, CAM43, CD68\KP1,

CO-029, FGF-5, G250, Ga733 (EpCAM), HTgp-175, M344, MA-50, MG7-Ag, MOV18, NB\70K, NY-CO-1, RCAS1, SDCCAG16, TA-90 (Mac-2 binding protein\cyclophilin C-associated protein), TAAL6, TAG72, TLP, and TPS. Other tumor-associated and tumor-specific antigens are known to those of skill in the art and are suitable for targeting by the disclosed fusion proteins.

2. Antigen associated with tumor

neovasculature

Oncolytic viral therapeutics can be more effective in treating tumors by targeting to blood vessels of the tumor. Tumor-associated neovasculature provides a readily accessible route through which protein therapeutics can access the tumor. In one embodiment the viral proteins contain a domain that specifically binds to an antigen that is expressed by neovasculature associated with a tumor.

The antigen may be specific to tumor neovasculature or may be expressed at a higher level in tumor neovasculature when compared to normal vasculature. Exemplary antigens that are over-expressed by tumor-associated neovasculature as compared to normal vasculature include, but are not limited to, VEGF/KDR, Tie2, vascular cell adhesion molecule (VCAM), endoglin and $\alpha_5\beta_3$ integrin/vitronectin. Other antigens that are over-expressed by tumor-associated neovasculature as compared to normal vasculature are known to those of skill in the art and are suitable for targeting by the disclosed fusion proteins.

3. Chemokines/chemokine receptors

In another embodiment, the fusion proteins contain a domain that specifically binds to a chemokine or a chemokine receptor. Chemokines are soluble, small molecular weight (8–14 kDa) proteins that bind to their cognate G-protein coupled receptors (GPCRs) to elicit a cellular response, usually directional migration or chemotaxis. Tumor cells secrete and respond to chemokines, which facilitate growth that is achieved by increased endothelial cell recruitment and angiogenesis, subversion of immunological surveillance and maneuvering of the tumoral leukocyte profile to skew it

such that the chemokine release enables the tumor growth and metastasis to distant sites. Thus, chemokines are vital for tumor progression.

Based on the positioning of the conserved two N-terminal cysteine residues of the chemokines, they are classified into four groups: CXC, CC, CX3C and C chemokines. The CXC chemokines can be further classified into ELR+ and ELR- chemokines based on the presence or absence of the motif 'glu-leu-arg (ELR motif)' preceding the CXC sequence. The CXC chemokines bind to and activate their cognate chemokine receptors on neutrophils, lymphocytes, endothelial and epithelial cells. The CC chemokines act on several subsets of dendritic cells, lymphocytes, macrophages, eosinophils, natural killer cells but do not stimulate neutrophils as they lack CC chemokine receptors except murine neutrophils. There are approximately 50 chemokines and only 20 chemokine receptors, thus there is considerable redundancy in this system of ligand/receptor interaction.

Chemokines elaborated from the tumor and the stromal cells bind to the chemokine receptors present on the tumor and the stromal cells. The autocrine loop of the tumor cells and the paracrine stimulatory loop between the tumor and the stromal cells facilitate the progression of the tumor. Notably, CXCR2, CXCR4, CCR2 and CCR7 play major roles in tumorigenesis and metastasis. CXCR2 plays a vital role in angiogenesis and CCR2 plays a role in the recruitment of macrophages into the tumor microenvironment. CCR7 is involved in metastasis of the tumor cells into the sentinel lymph nodes as the lymph nodes have the ligand for CCR7, CCL21. CXCR4 is mainly involved in the metastatic spread of a wide variety of tumors.

b. Molecular classes of targeting domains

1. Ligands and receptors

In one embodiment, tumor or tumor-associated neovasculature targeting domains are ligands that bind to cell surface antigens or receptors that are specifically expressed on tumor cells or tumor-associated neovasculature or are overexpressed on tumor cells or tumor-associated neovasculature as compared to normal tissue. Tumors also secrete a large

number of ligands into the tumor microenvironment that affect tumor growth and development. Receptors that bind to ligands secreted by tumors, including, but not limited to, growth factors, cytokines and chemokines, including the chemokines discussed above, are suitable for use in the disclosed fusion proteins. Ligands secreted by tumors can be targeted using soluble fragments of receptors that bind to the secreted ligands. Soluble receptor fragments are fragments of polypeptides that may be shed, secreted or otherwise extracted from the producing cells and include the entire extracellular domain, or fragments thereof.

2. Single polypeptide antibodies

In another embodiment, tumor or tumor-associated neovasculature targeting domains are single polypeptide antibodies that bind to cell surface antigens or receptors that are specifically expressed on tumor cells or tumor-associated neovasculature or are overexpressed on tumor cells or tumor-associated neovasculature as compared to normal tissue. Single domain antibodies are described above with respect to coinhibitory receptor antagonist domains.

3. Fc domains

In another embodiment, tumor or tumor-associated neovasculature targeting domains are Fc domains of immunoglobulin heavy chains that bind to Fc receptors expressed on tumor cells or on tumor-associated neovasculature. As defined herein, the Fc region includes polypeptides containing the constant region of an antibody excluding the first constant region immunoglobulin domain. Thus Fc refers to the last two constant region immunoglobulin domains of IgA, IgD, and IgG, and the last three constant region immunoglobulin domains of IgE and IgM. In a preferred embodiment, the Fc domain is derived from a human or murine immunoglobulin. In a more preferred embodiment, the Fc domain is derived from human IgG1 or murine IgG2a including the C_H2 and C_H3 regions.

4. Therapeutic Proteins

Viruses can also be engineered to include one or more additional genes that encode a therapeutic protein. Suitable therapeutic proteins, such as cytokines or chemokines, are known in the art. Preferred cytokines

include, but are not limited to, granulocyte macrophage colony stimulating factor (GM-CSF), tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF α), tumor necrosis factor beta (TNF β), macrophage colony stimulating factor (M-CSF), interleukin-1 (IL-1), interleukin-2 (IL-2), interleukin-4 (IL-4), interleukin-5 (IL-5),
5 interleukin-6 (IL-6), interleukin-10 (IL-10), interleukin-12 (IL-12), interleukin-15 (IL-15), interleukin-21 (IL-21), interferon alpha (IFN α), interferon beta (IFN β), interferon gamma (IFN γ), and IGIF, and variants and fragments thereof.

Suitable chemokines include, but are not limited to, an alpha-
10 chemokine or a beta-chemokine, including, but not limited to, a C5a, interleukin-8 (IL-8), monocyte chemotactic protein 1 alpha (MIP1 α), monocyte chemotactic protein 1 beta (MIP1 β), monocyte chemoattractant protein 1 (MCP-1), monocyte chemoattractant protein 3 (MCP-3), platelet activating factor (PAFR), N-formyl-methionyl-leucyl-[3 H]phenylalanine
15 (FMLPR), leukotriene B $_4$, gastrin releasing peptide (GRP), RANTES, eotaxin, lymphotactin, IP10, I-309, ENA78, GCP-2, NAP-2 and MGSA/gro, and variants and fragments thereof.

B. Pharmaceutical Carriers

Pharmaceutical compositions containing virus may be for systemic or
20 local administration, such as intratumoral. Dosage forms for administration by parenteral (intramuscular (IM), intraperitoneal (IP), intravenous (IV) or subcutaneous injection (SC)), or transmucosal (nasal, vaginal, pulmonary, or rectal) routes of administration can be formulated.

In some *in vivo* approaches, the compositions disclosed herein are
25 administered to a subject in a therapeutically effective amount. As used herein the term "effective amount" or "therapeutically effective amount" means a dosage sufficient to treat, inhibit, or alleviate one or more symptoms of the disorder being treated or to otherwise provide a desired pharmacologic and/or physiologic effect. The precise dosage will vary according to a
30 variety of factors such as subject-dependent variables (e.g., age, immune system health, etc.), the disease, and the treatment being effected.

Therapeutically effective amounts of the viruses disclosed herein cause a reduction in tumor progression or reduction of tumor burden.

For the compositions disclosed herein and nucleic acids encoding the same, appropriate dosage levels for treatment of various conditions in various patients, can be determined by a person skilled in the art, considering the therapeutic context, age, and general health of the recipient. The selected dosage depends upon the desired therapeutic effect, on the route of administration, and on the duration of the treatment desired. Active virus can also be measured in terms of plaque-forming units (PFU). A plaque-forming unit can be defined as areas of cell lysis (CPE) in monolayer cell culture, under overlay conditions, initiated by infection with a single virus particle. Generally dosage levels of virus between 10^2 and 10^{12} PFU are administered to humans. Virus is typically administered in a liquid suspension, in a volume ranging between 10 μ l and 100 ml depending on the route of administration. Generally, dosage and volume may be lower for intratumoral injection, than systemic administration or infusion. The dose may be administered once or multiple times. Typically the dose will be 100 μ l administered intratumorally in multiple doses, while systemic or regional administration via subcutaneous, intramuscular, intra-organ, or intravenous administration will be from 10 to 100 ml.

The term "pharmaceutically acceptable" means a non-toxic material that does not interfere with the effectiveness of the biological activity of the active ingredients. The term "pharmaceutically-acceptable carrier" means one or more compatible solid or liquid fillers, diluents or encapsulating substances which are suitable for administration to a human or other vertebrate animal. The term "carrier" refers to an organic or inorganic ingredient, natural or synthetic, with which the active ingredient is combined to facilitate the application.

Pharmaceutical compositions may be formulated in a conventional manner using one or more physiologically acceptable carriers including excipients and auxiliaries which facilitate processing of the active compounds into preparations which can be used pharmaceutically. The compositions may be administered in combination with one or more

physiologically or pharmaceutically acceptable carriers, thickening agents, co-solvents, adhesives, antioxidants, buffers, viscosity and absorption enhancing agents and agents capable of adjusting osmolarity of the formulation. Proper formulation is dependent upon the route of administration chosen. If desired, the compositions may also contain minor amount of nontoxic auxiliary substances such as wetting or emulsifying agents, dyes, pH buffering agents, or preservatives. The formulations should not include membrane disrupting agents which could kill or inactivate the virus.

10 **1. Formulations for local or parenteral administration**

In a preferred embodiment, compositions including oncolytic virus disclosed herein, are administered in an aqueous solution, by parenteral injection. Injection includes, but it not limited to, local, intratumoral, intravenous, intraperitoneal, intramuscular, or subcutaneous. The formulation may also be in the form of a suspension or emulsion. In general, pharmaceutical compositions are provided including effective amounts of virus, and optionally include pharmaceutically acceptable diluents, preservatives, solubilizers, emulsifiers, adjuvants and/or carriers. Such compositions include diluents sterile water, buffered saline of various buffer content (e.g., Tris-HCl, acetate, phosphate), pH and ionic strength; and optionally, additives such as anti-oxidants (e.g., ascorbic acid, sodium metabisulfite), and preservatives and bulking substances (e.g., lactose, mannitol). Examples of non-aqueous solvents or vehicles are propylene glycol, polyethylene glycol, vegetable oils, such as olive oil and corn oil, gelatin, and injectable organic esters such as ethyl oleate. A preferred solution is phosphate buffered saline or sterile saline.

2. Formulations for mucosal administration

In some embodiments, the compositions are formulated for mucosal administration, such as through nasal, pulmonary, or buccal delivery.

Mucosal formulations may include one or more agents for enhancing delivery through the nasal mucosa. Agents for enhancing mucosal delivery are known in the art, see for example U.S. Patent Application No.

20090252672 to Eddington, and U.S. Patent Application No. 20090047234 to Touitou. Acceptable agents include, but are not limited to, chelators of calcium (EDTA), inhibitors of nasal enzymes (boro-leucin, aprotinin), inhibitors of muco-ciliar clearance (preservatives), solubilizers of nasal membrane (cyclodextrin, fatty acids, surfactants) and formation of micelles (surfactants such as bile acids, Laureth 9 and taurodehydrofusidate (STDHF)). Compositions may include one or more absorption enhancers, including surfactants, fatty acids, and chitosan derivatives, which can enhance delivery by modulation of the tight junctions (TJ) (B. J. Aungst, et al., *J. Pharm. Sci.* 89(4):429-442 (2000)). In general, the optimal absorption enhancer should possess the following qualities: its effect should be reversible, it should provide a rapid permeation enhancing effect on the cellular membrane of the mucosa, and it should be non-cytotoxic at the effective concentration level and without deleterious and/or irreversible effects on the cellular membrane, virus membrane, or cytoskeleton of the TJ.

C. Kits

Dosage units include virus in a pharmaceutically acceptable carrier for shipping and storage and/or administration. Active virus should be shipped and stored using a method consistent with viability such as in cooler containing dry ice so that cells are maintained below 4°C, and preferably below -20°C. VSV virus should not be lyophilized. Components of the kit may be packaged individually and can be sterile. In one embodiment, a pharmaceutically acceptable carrier containing an effective amount of virus is shipped and stored in a sterile vial. The sterile vial may contain enough virus for one or more doses. Virus may be shipped and stored in a volume suitable for administration, or may be provided in a concentrated titer that is diluted prior to administration. In another embodiment, a pharmaceutically acceptable carrier containing an effective amount of virus can be shipped and stored in a syringe.

Typical concentrations of viral particles in the sterile saline, phosphate buffered saline or other suitable media for the virus is in the range of 10^8 to 10^9 with a maximum of 10^{12} . Dosage units should not contain

membrane disruptive agents nor should the viral solution be frozen and dried (i.e., lyophilized), which could kill the virus.

Kits containing syringes of various capacities or vessels with deformable sides (e.g., plastic vessels or plastic-sided vessels) that can be squeezed to force a liquid composition out of an orifice are provided. The size and design of the syringe will depend on the route of administration. For example, in one embodiment, a syringe for administering virus intratumorally, is capable of accurately delivering a smaller volume (such as 1 to 100 μ l). Typically, a larger syringe, pump or catheter will be used to administer virus systemically.

The kits optionally include one or more of the following: bioactive agents, media, excipients and one or more of: a syringe, a bandage, a disinfectant, a local anesthetic, an analgesic agent, surgical thread, scissors, a sterile fluid, and a sterile vessel. Kits for intranasal administration may optionally contain a delivery device for facilitating intranasal delivery, such as a nasal sprayer. The kits are generally provided in a container, e.g., a plastic, cardboard, or metal container suitable for commercial sale. Any of the kits can include instructions for use.

III. Methods of use

A. Subjects to be treated

In general, the compositions are useful for targeting and destroying a cell or cells of interest. In a preferred embodiment, the cells of interest are cancer cells. For example, compositions are useful as therapeutic compositions, which can be used to treat benign or malignant tumors.

In a mature animal, a balance usually is maintained between cell renewal and cell death in most organs and tissues. The various types of mature cells in the body have a given life span; as these cells die, new cells are generated by the proliferation and differentiation of various types of stem cells. Under normal circumstances, the production of new cells is so regulated that the numbers of any particular type of cell remain constant. Occasionally, though, cells arise that are no longer responsive to normal growth-control mechanisms. These cells give rise to clones of cells that can expand to a considerable size, producing a tumor or neoplasm. A tumor that

is not capable of indefinite growth and does not invade the healthy surrounding tissue extensively is benign. A tumor that continues to grow and becomes progressively invasive is malignant. The term cancer refers specifically to a malignant tumor. In addition to uncontrolled growth, malignant tumors exhibit metastasis. In this process, small clusters of cancerous cells dislodge from a tumor, invade the blood or lymphatic vessels, and are carried to other tissues, where they continue to proliferate. In this way a primary tumor at one site can give rise to a secondary tumor at another site.

10 The compositions and method described herein are useful for treating subjects having benign or malignant tumors by delaying or inhibiting the growth of a tumor in a subject, reducing the growth or size of the tumor, inhibiting or reducing metastasis of the tumor, and/or inhibiting or reducing symptoms associated with tumor development or growth. The examples
15 below demonstrate that the VSV virus disclosed herein are oncolytic to tumors *in vivo*.

 Malignant tumors which may be treated are classified herein according to the embryonic origin of the tissue from which the tumor is derived. Carcinomas are tumors arising from endodermal or ectodermal
20 tissues such as skin or the epithelial lining of internal organs and glands. The disclosed compositions are particularly effective in treating carcinomas. Sarcomas, which arise less frequently, are derived from mesodermal connective tissues such as bone, fat, and cartilage. The leukemias and lymphomas are malignant tumors of hematopoietic cells of the bone marrow.
25 Leukemias proliferate as single cells, whereas lymphomas tend to grow as tumor masses. Malignant tumors may show up at numerous organs or tissues of the body to establish a cancer.

 The types of cancer that can be treated with the provided compositions and methods include, but are not limited to, cancers such as
30 vascular cancer such as multiple myeloma, adenocarcinomas and sarcomas, of bone, bladder, brain, breast, cervical, colo-rectal, esophageal, kidney, liver, lung, nasopharyngeal, pancreatic, prostate, skin, stomach, and uterine. In some embodiments, the disclosed compositions are used to treat multiple

cancer types concurrently. The compositions can also be used to treat metastases or tumors at multiple locations. As shown in the examples below, the oncolytic virus VSV-rp30 is particularly effective in treating gliomas (including astrocytomas) in the brain, as well as bone, breast, prostate, colon, and lung cancers. It can also infect and kill pancreatic and stem cells from brain cancer. In some embodiments, the composition is used to treat lung or breast cancer carcinomas, which are the source of many brain cancers. In a preferred embodiment, a composition containing an oncolytic VSV such as VSV-rp30 is used for treating glioblastoma.

VSV has a good oncolytic profile in part by taking advantage of defects in the innate cellular anti-viral defense system, which is a common feature in malignancies, including colon, breast, prostate, liver, and leukemia. Reduction in interferon-related antiviral defenses enhance infection of cancer cells by VSVrp30. Activation of the interferon pathway protects normal human brain cells from VSV infection while maintaining the vulnerability of human glioblastoma cells to viral destruction (Wollmann, et al. *J. Virol.*, 81(3): 1479-1491 (2007)). In some embodiments, the disclosed compositions and methods are used to treat a population of cells with defects in the interferon system. In preferred embodiments, the cells with a defective interferon system or defective antiviral defense system are tumor cells that are susceptible to VSV infection and destruction in the presence of exogenous interferons such as IFN- α , or IFN- α/β pathway inducer polyriboninosinic polyribocytidylic acid [poly(I:C)].

B. Methods of administration

Any acceptable method known to one of ordinary skill in the art may be used to administer a formulation to the subject. Preferably, administration of the formulations may be accomplished by any acceptable method which allows an effective amount of the oncolytic virus to reach their target. As generally used herein, an "effective amount" is that amount which is able to induce a desired result in a treated subject. The desired results will depend on the disease or condition to be treated. For example, in treating a subject with a tumor, in one embodiment, an effective amount of the composition reduces or stops tumor progression or at least reduces one or more symptoms

of the tumor. Symptoms of cancer may be physical, such as tumor burden, or biological such as proliferation of cancer cells. The actual effective amounts of virus can vary according to factors including the specific virus administered, the particular composition formulated, the mode of
5 administration, and the age, weight, condition of the subject being treated, as well as the route of administration and the disease or disorder.

The particular mode of administration selected will depend upon factors such as the particular formulation, the severity of the state of the subject being treated, and the dosage required to induce an effective
10 response. The administration may be localized (i.e., to a particular region, physiological system, tissue, organ, or cell type) or systemic. The compositions can be administered by a number of routes including, but not limited to, injection: intravenous, intraarterial, intraperitoneal, intramuscular, or subcutaneous, or to a mucosal surface (oral, sublingual or buccal, nasal,
15 rectal, vaginal, pulmonary) and special means such as convection enhanced delivery. In a preferred embodiment, the oncolytic virus is administered in an aqueous solution, by parenteral injection. In one embodiment, the composition is injected locally at the site of treatment, such as a tumor. In some embodiments, the composition is delivered systemically, by injection
20 into the circulatory system (i.e. intravenous) or an appropriate lymphoid tissue, such as the spleen, lymph nodes or mucosal-associated lymphoid tissue. The injections can be given at one, or multiple locations. In a preferred embodiment, one treatment is sufficient. In some embodiments, multiple treatments are required.

25 The composition can also be administered mucosally. One example of mucosal administration is intranasal delivery. Intranasal administration can result in systemic or local delivery of oncolytic virus. For example, following intranasal delivery, virus gain access to the CNS through the olfactory nerve, which projects to the glomeruli in the olfactory bulb of the
30 brain (van den Pol et al., *J. Virol*, 76 1309-27 (2002)).

C. Combination therapies

Administration of the disclosed compositions containing oncolytic viruses may be coupled with surgical, radiologic, other therapeutic approaches to treatment of cancer.

1. Surgery

The disclosed compositions and methods can be used as an adjunct to surgery. Surgery is a common treatment for many types of benign and malignant tumors. As it is often not possible to remove all the tumor cells from during surgery, the disclosed compositions containing oncolytic virus are particularly useful subsequent to resection of the primary tumor mass, and would be able to infect and destroy even dispersed tumor cells.

An additional situation where an oncolytic virus may be helpful is in regions where the tumor is either wrapped around critical vasculature, or in an area that is difficult to treat surgically. Widely disseminated metastatic carcinomas are also a potential target given the high efficiency of VSV against many systemic malignancies such as breast, prostate, liver or colon carcinomas or lymphomas (Stojdl et al, 2003; Ahmet et al., 2000; Bbert et al, 2005; Shinozaki ei al, 2005; Lichty et al., 2004b).

In a preferred embodiment, the disclosed compositions and methods are used as an adjunct or alternative to neurosurgery. The compositions are particularly well suited to treat areas of the brain that is difficult to treat surgically, for instance high grade tumors of the brain stem, motor cortex, basal ganglia, or internal capsule. High grade gliomas in these locations are generally considered inoperable.

2. Therapeutic agents

The viral compositions can be administered to a subject in need thereof alone or in combination with one or more additional therapeutic agents selected based on the condition, disorder or disease to be treated. A description of the various classes of suitable pharmacological agents and drugs may be found in Goodman and Gilman, *The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics*, (11th Ed., McGraw-Hill Publishing Co.) (2005).

Additional therapeutic agents include conventional cancer therapeutics such as chemotherapeutic agents, cytokines, chemokines, and radiation therapy. The majority of chemotherapeutic drugs can be divided into: alkylating agents, antimetabolites, anthracyclines, plant alkaloids, 5 topoisomerase inhibitors, and other antitumour agents. All of these drugs affect cell division or DNA synthesis and function in some way. Additional therapeutics include monoclonal antibodies and the tyrosine kinase inhibitors e.g. imatinib mesylate (GLEEVEC® or GLIVEC®), which directly targets a molecular abnormality in certain types of cancer (chronic myelogenous 10 leukemia, gastrointestinal stromal tumors).

Representative chemotherapeutic agents include, but are not limited to, cisplatin, carboplatin, oxaliplatin, mechlorethamine, cyclophosphamide, chlorambucil, vincristine, vinblastine, vinorelbine, vindesine, taxol and derivatives thereof, irinotecan, topotecan, amsacrine, etoposide, etoposide 15 phosphate, teniposide, epipodophyllotoxins, trastuzumab (HERCEPTIN®), cetuximab, and rituximab (RITUXAN® or MABTHERA®), bevacizumab (AVASTIN®), and combinations thereof.

Preferred chemotherapeutics will affect tumors or cancer cells, without diminishing the activity of the virus. For example, in a preferred 20 embodiment, the additional therapeutic agent inhibits proliferation of cancer cells without affecting targeting, infectivity, or replication of the virus.

a. Immunosuppressants

It may be desirable to administer viral compositions in combination with an immunosuppressant. Oncolytic viruses such as VSV are highly 25 immunogenic, and a substantial B and T cell response from the adaptive immune system would ultimately limit viral infection. An immunosuppressant attenuates the host immune response and prolongs viral infection. Immunosuppressants are known in the art and include glucocorticoids, cytostatics (such as alkylating agents, antimetabolites, and 30 cytotoxic antibodies), antibodies (such as those directed against T-cell receptors or Il-2 receptors), drugs acting on immunophilins (such as cyclosporine, tacrolimus, and sirolimus) and other drugs (such as interferons, opioids, TNF binding proteins, mycophenolate, and other small molecules

such as fingolimod). The dosage ranges for immunosuppressant agents are known in the art. The specific dosage will depend upon the desired therapeutic effect, the route of administration, and on the duration of the treatment desired. For example, when used as an immunosuppressant, a

5 cytostatic maybe administered at a lower dosage than when used in chemotherapy. Suitable immunosuppressants include, but are not limited to, FK506, prednisone, methylprednisolone, cyclophosphamide, thalidomide, azathioprine, and daclizumab, physalin B, physalin F, physalin G, seco-steroids purified from *Physalis angulata* L., 15-deoxyspergualin, MMF,

10 rapamycin and its derivatives, CCI-779, FR 900520, FR 900523, NK86-1086, depsidomycin, kanglemycin-C, spergualin, prodigiosin25-c, cammunomicin, demethomycin, tetranactin, tranilast, stevastelins, myriocin, gliotoxin, FR 651814, SDZ214-104, bredinin, WS9482, mycophenolic acid, mimoribine, misoprostol, OKT3, anti-IL-2 receptor antibodies, azasporine,

15 leflunomide, mizoribine, azaspirane, paclitaxel, altretamine, busulfan, chlorambucil, ifosfamide, mechlorethamine, melphalan, thiotepa, cladribine, fluorouracil, floxuridine, gemcitabine, thioguanine, pentostatin, methotrexate, 6-mercaptopurine, cytarabine, carmustine, lomustine, streptozotocin, carboplatin, cisplatin, oxaliplatin, iproplatin, tetraplatin,

20 lobaplatin, JM216, JM335, fludarabine, aminoglutethimide, flutamide, goserelin, leuprolide, megestrol acetate, cyproterone acetate, tamoxifen, anastrozole, bicalutamide, dexamethasone, diethylstilbestrol, bleomycin, dactinomycin, daunorubicin, doxorubicin, idarubicin, mitoxantrone, losoxantrone, mitomycin-c, plicamycin, paclitaxel, docetaxel, topotecan,

25 irinotecan, 9-amino camptothecin, 9-nitro camptothecin, GS-211, etoposide, teniposide, vinblastine, vincristine, vinorelbine, procarbazine, asparaginase, pegaspargase, octreotide, estramustine, and hydroxyurea, and combinations thereof. Preferred immunosuppressants will preferentially reduce or inhibit the subject's immune response, without reducing or inhibiting the activity of

30 the virus. For example, in a preferred embodiment, the additional therapeutic agent inhibits activation and/or proliferation without affecting targeting, infectivity, or replication of the virus.

b. Anticancer agents

The compositions can be administered with an antibody or antigen binding fragment thereof specific for growth factor receptors or tumor specific antigens. Representative growth factors receptors include, but are not limited to, epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR; HER1); c-erbB2 (HER2); c-erbB3 (HER3); c-erbB4 (HER4); insulin receptor; insulin-like growth factor receptor 1 (IGF-1R); insulin-like growth factor receptor 2/Mannose-6-phosphate receptor (IGF-II R/M-6-P receptor); insulin receptor related kinase (IRRK); platelet-derived growth factor receptor (PDGFR); colony-stimulating factor-1receptor (CSF-1R) (c-Fms); steel receptor (c-Kit); Flk2/Flt3; fibroblast growth factor receptor 1 (Flg/Cek1); fibroblast growth factor receptor 2 (Bek/Cek3/K-Sam); Fibroblast growth factor receptor 3; Fibroblast growth factor eceptor 4; nerve growth factor receptor (NGFR) (TrkA); BDNF receptor (TrkB); NT-3-receptor (TrkC); vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 1 (Flt1); vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 2/Flk1/KDR; hepatocyte growth factor receptor (HGF-R/Met); Eph; Eck; Eek; Cek4/Mek4/HEK; Cek5; Elk/Cek6; Cek7; Sek/Cek8; Cek9; Cek10; HEK11; 9 Ror1; Ror2; Ret; Axl; RYK; DDR; and Tie.

c. Therapeutic proteins

It may be desirable to administer the disclosed compositions in combination with therapeutic proteins. VSV is an effective oncolytic virus, in-part, by taking advantage of defects in the interferon system. Administration of therapeutic proteins such as IFN- α , or IFN- α/β pathway inducer polyriboinosinic polyribocytidylic acid [poly(I:C)] are effective in protecting normal cells from the oncolytic activity, while leaving the tumor cells susceptible to infection and death (Wollmann, et al. *J. Virol.*, 81(3): 1479-1491 (2007), (Wollmann, et al., *J. Virol*, (2009)). Therefore, in some embodiments, the disclosed compositions are administered in combination with a therapeutic protein to reduce infectivity and death of normal cells. Suitable therapeutic proteins are described above.

d. Peripheral immunization

It may be desirable to administer the disclosed compositions after peripheral immunization with the virus. Evidence suggests that peripheral
5 activation of the systemic immune system can protect the brain from VSV damage (Ozduman, et al., *J. Virol.*, 83(22):11540-11549 (2009)).

Immunization is carried out first, preferably by intranasal or intramuscular delivery, or combination thereof. Immunization is followed by administration of therapeutic compositions by intracranial injection.

10 IV. Methods of Manufacture

A. Engineering recombinant VSV viruses

The VSV genome is a single negative-sense, non-segmented stand of RNA that contains five genes (N, L, P, M, and G) and has a total size of 11.161 kb. Methods of engineering recombinant viruses by reconstituting
15 VSV from DNA encoding a positive-sense stand of RNA are known in the art (Lawson, et al., *PNAS*, 92:4477-4481 (1995), Dalton and Rose, *Virology*, 279:414-421 (2001)). For example, recombinant DNA can be transcribed by T7 RNA polymerase to generate a full-length positive-strand RNA complimentary to the viral genome. Expression of this RNA in cells also
20 expressing the VSV nucleocapsid protein and the two VSV polymerase subunits results in production of VSV virus (Lawson, et al., *PNAS*, 92:4477-4481 (1995)). In this way, VSV viruses can be engineered to express variant proteins, additional proteins, foreign antigens, targeting proteins, or therapeutic proteins using known cloning methods.

25 B. Creating mutant VSV virus

RNA viruses are prone to spontaneous genetic variation. The mutation rate of VSV is about 10^{-4} per nucleotide replicated, which is approximately one nucleotide change per genome (Drake, et al., *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 96:13910-13913). Therefore, mutant VSV viruses
30 exhibiting desired properties can be developed by applying selective pressure. Methods for adaption of VSV viruses through repeated passaging is described in the art. See, for example, Wollmann, et al., *J. Virol.*, 79(10): 6005-6022 (2005). Selective pressure can be applied by repeated passaging

and enhanced selection to create mutant virus with desirable traits such as increased infectivity and oncolytic potential for a cell type of interest. The cell type of interest could be general, such as cancer cells, or specific such as glioblastoma cells. Mutant virus can also be selected based on reduced toxicity to normal cells. Methods of enhanced selection include, but are not limited to, short time for viral attachment to cells, collection of early viral progeny, and preabsorption of viral particles with high affinity of undesirable cells (such as normal cells). Mutations can be identified by sequencing the viral genome, for instance as described in Example 4 below.

DNA encoding the VSV genome can also be used as a substrate for random or site directed mutagenesis to develop VSV mutant viruses. Mutagenesis can be accomplished by a variety of standard, mutagenic procedures. Changes in single genes may be the consequence of point mutations that involve the removal, addition or substitution of a single nucleotide base within a DNA sequence, or they may be the consequence of changes involving the insertion or deletion of large numbers of nucleotides.

Mutations can arise spontaneously as a result of events such as errors in the fidelity of nucleic acid replication or the movement of transposable genetic elements (transposons) within the genome. They also are induced following exposure to chemical or physical mutagens. Such mutation-inducing agents include ionizing radiations, ultraviolet light and a diverse array of chemicals such as alkylating agents and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons all of which are capable of interacting either directly or indirectly (generally following some metabolic biotransformations) with nucleic acids. The nucleic acid lesions induced by such environmental agents may lead to modifications of base sequence when the affected DNA is replicated or repaired and thus to a mutation. Mutation also can be site-directed through the use of particular targeting methods. Various types of mutagenesis such as random mutagenesis, e.g., insertional mutagenesis, chemical mutagenesis, radiation mutagenesis, in vitro scanning mutagenesis, random mutagenesis by fragmentation and reassembly, and site specific mutagenesis, e.g., directed evolution, are described in U.S. Patent Application No. 2007/0026012.

Mutant viruses can be prepared by site specific mutagenesis of nucleotides in the DNA encoding the protein, thereby producing DNA encoding the mutant. Techniques for making substitution mutations at predetermined sites in DNA having a known sequence are well known, for example M13 primer mutagenesis and PCR mutagenesis. Amino acid substitutions are typically of single residues, but can occur at a number of different locations at once. Insertions usually will be on the order of about from 1 to 10 amino acid residues; and deletions will range about from 1 to 30 residues. Substitutions, deletions, insertions or any combination thereof can be combined to arrive at a final construct. The mutations must not place the sequence out of reading frame and preferably will not create complementary regions that could produce secondary mRNA structure. Substitutional variants are those in which at least one residue has been removed and a different residue inserted in its place.

Examples

Example 1: VSV-rp30 kills human cancer cells that can cause brain tumors

Materials and Methods

Cell culture

U87MG human high-grade glioma cells and 4T1 mouse mammary carcinoma cells were obtained from American Type Culture Collection (Rockville, MD). A549 and Calu-1 human lung carcinomas and T-47D, MCF-7, and BT474 human breast carcinoma cells were provided by the Yale Cancer Center (Yale University, New Haven, CT). U118MG glioma cells were provided by Dr. R. Matthews, Yale University. Primary human glioblastoma cultures were established from tissue derived from two patients undergoing resective surgery. Nontumor primary human astrocytes were prepared as explant outgrowth cultures from human temporal lobectomy material, removed for intractable epilepsy, solely for the benefit of the patient, and the use was approved by the Yale University Human Investigation Committee. Astrocyte identity was confirmed by positive immunofluorescence for human glial fibrillary acidic protein. Cells were maintained in Minimal Essential Medium (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA)

supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 1% sodium pyruvate, 100 μ M nonessential amino acids, and 25 mM HEPES buffer. For VSV susceptibility experiments, 2×10^5 cells were cultured in six-well plates and infected with VSVrp30a at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 1. The total number of viable and infected cells was counted at 12 h intervals in 15 high-magnification microscopic fields.

Results

To test the tumor cell tropism, VSVrp30a was tested on five human carcinoma lines, selected by the fact that lung and breast cancers are the most common sources for brain metastasis. All human cancer lines tested, including A549, Calu-1 lung carcinoma, and T-47D, MCF7, and BT-474 breast carcinoma, were infected and killed by VSVrp30a at an MOI of 1. All cells exhibited viral green fluorescence by 60 h after infection, and all cells, dividing and nondividing, in the culture dish were killed by 48–72 h after infection (Figure 1). In addition, multiple cultures were established from tissue derived from resected glioblastoma surgery. These primary high-grade gliomas were grown in culture and infected with VSVrp30a at an MOI of 1. Complete infection and presence of cytopathic effects were observed within 36 h after virus application indicating that the oncolytic capacity of VSV seen on established glioma and other cancer cell lines could translate to tumor cells directly derived from human cancer patients.

Example 2: VSV-rp30 has improved oncolytic potential

Materials and Methods

Viruses

VSV-G/GFP (additional G protein with GFP reporter fusion inserted at 5th gene position), VSV-M51/CT9 (M protein M51 mutation + G protein with cytoplasmic tail truncated to 9 amino acids) and VSV-1'GFP (GFP reporter inserted in 1st gene position) were obtained from J. Rose (Yale University) and propagated using BHK-21 cells (Figure 2). VSV-rp30 was generated from VSV-G/GFP through repeated passage and adaptation on U-87MG glioblastoma cells. The four VSVs used in the present study (VSV-G/GFP, VSV-rp30, VSV-M51/CT9 and VSV-1'GFP) were all derived from a recombinant version of the San Juan strain of Indiana serotype VSV, the

genome of which consists of a single negative strand of RNA that encodes five genes, N, P, M, G and L, depicted on the top (VSV). (see Figure 2). All four express enhanced GFP, a fluorescent reporter protein that enables the visualization of infected cells. VSV-G/GFP (G/GFP) incorporates a GFP reporter gene (shown in grey) encoding an additional copy of the G-protein with a C-terminal fusion of GFP. VSV-rp30 (RP30) is a glioblastoma cell-adapted variant of VSV-G/GFP that has been previously described to display increased oncolytic activity in glioblastoma cells. The P and L genes (shown in white) are the genes found to contain the mutations S126L and D223Y identified in the present study. VSV-M51/CT9 (M51/CT9) contains a GFP reporter gene (in grey) inserted between the G and L genes. The M gene (in white) has been modified to delete the methionine at position 51 of the M protein and the G gene (white) encodes a truncated version of the G protein that removes all but 9 of the 27 amino acids of the C-terminal cytoplasmic tail. Both of these mutations have previously been reported to result in attenuated viral propagation (Clarke et al., *J. Virol.*, 81: 2056-2064 (2007); Publicover et al., *J. Virol.*, 78: 9317-9324 (2004); Publicover et al., *J. Virol.*, 80: 7028-7036 (2006)). VSV-1'GFP (1'GFP) contains a GFP reporter gene (grey) inserted into the first position in the gene order, thus decreasing the level of transcription from the remaining five downstream genes and leading to attenuated viral propagation (Clarke et al., *J. Virol.*, 81: 2056-2064 (2007); Flanagan et al., *J. Virol.*, 75: 6107-6114 (2001); Ramsburg et al., *J. Virol.*, 79: 15043-15053 (2005)).

Cell lines

The human glioblastoma tumor cell line U-87MG, the baby hamster kidney cell line BHK-21, and the embryonic mouse cell line N1FV3T3 were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) (Manassas, VA). The human glioblastoma tumor cell lines U-118MG and U-373MG were provided by R. Matthews, Yale University. The human prostate tumor cell line DU-145 was provided by B. Gullen, Yale University. The human cell lines SJSA-I, BT-549, T-47D, HCT116, LS180, SfV480 and A549 and established from tumors of bone, breast, breast, colon, colon, colon and lung, respectively, were provided by S. Mella, Yale University Cancer Center. The

primary human astrocyte culture was established from human brain tissue obtained in the course of epilepsy surgery, as described by Wollmann, et al., *J Virol*, 81:1479-1491 (2007), with patient welfare being the sole basis for resection of brain tissue. All cell lines were propagated using MEM growth media consisting of minimum essential medium (Gibco, Carlsbad, CA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Gibco) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin solution (Gibco) and housed in a humidified incubator at 37°C supplied with 57% CO₂.

Plaque size assay

In order to compare VSV propagation among various cell types, a plaque size assay was devised. For each cell type, confluent cell monolayers were grown in six-well plates and triplicate wells were infected with each of the VSVs to be tested. Immediately prior to viral inoculation, media in all wells was aspirated and replaced with 0.9 ml of MEM growth medium followed by inoculation using 0.1 ml of serially diluted VSV generated previously and stored in MEM growth medium at -80°C. After inoculation, plates were placed back in the incubator for 1 hr to allow time for the virus to adsorb into the cell monolayer. The inoculation media was then aspirated and cell monolayers were overlaid with 2 ml of 0.5% (w/vol) agarose (Ultrapure GPG/LE; American Bioanalytical, Natick, MA) in MEM growth medium. After solidification of the agarose, plates were incubated at 37°C in 5% CO₂ for 18 - 36 hr to allow time for plaque development. Since each of the VSVs expressed enhanced GFP as a reporter protein, fluorescent microscopic imaging was employed to visualize and measure individual GFP fluorescent plaques. The fluorescent imaging system consisted of an Olympus IX71 inverted microscope (Tokyo, Japan) fitted with an Olympus UPlanFl 4X objective and EGFP filter set. Images were captured using a SPOT-RT digital camera (Diagnostic Instruments, Sterling Heights, MI) and further processed using Adobe Photoshop 7.0 software (Adobe Systems, San Jose, CA). Fluorescent plaque diameter measurements were taken after VSV-G/GFP plaques had grown to between 0.5 - 1.5 mm in diameter. For each VSV tested, 30 plaques were randomly selected under fluorescent visualization and measured across their diameter to the nearest 0.05 mm. The

mean VSV-G/GFP plaque diameter was used as the normalization factor for all plaque diameter measurements in each cell line (normalized mean VSV-G/GFP plaque diameter = 100%). All uncertainties represent the standard error of the mean (SE) of normalized values. Statistical calculations were performed using InStat 3.0 software (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA). One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with post hoc Bonferroni multiple comparison tests were used to determine statistical significance. Comparisons between groups yielding a p-value < 0.05 were considered significantly different.

10 Results

In order to more fully assess the relative differences in the growth characteristics of VSV-rp30 with respect to the parent VSV-G/GFP from which it was derived, a panel of eleven widely used cancer cell lines was assembled for use in a plaque size assay. These lines were established from tumors of a number of different types of common human adult cancers including bone, brain, breast, colon, lung and prostate. Additionally, two other GFP-expressing VSVs were included for comparison in the assay (VSV-M51/CT9 and VSV-I'GFP) that have been reported to display attenuated growth characteristics *in vitro* (Clarke et al., *J. Virol.*, 81: 2056-2064 (2007); Publicover et al., *J. Virol.*, 78: 9317-9324 (2004); Publicover et al., *J. Virol.*, 80: 7028-7036 (2006); Ramsburg et al., *J. Virol.*, 79: 15043-15053 (2005)). A diagram illustrating the genomic composition of each of the four VSVs assayed is shown in Figure 2. Analysis of the average size of VSV-rp30 plaques relative to those produced by VSV-G/GFP indicated that VSV-rp30 plaques had a significantly larger diameter ($165\% \pm 7$ SE, $p < 0.001$, $n=30$) than VSV-G/GFP plaques ($100\% \pm 5$ SE, $n=30$) and that both VSV-M51/CT9 and VSV-I'GFP plaques had significantly smaller diameters ($55\% \pm 3$ SE, $p < 0.001$, $n=30$; $53\% \pm 4$ SE, $p < 0.001$, $n=30$) respectively, than VSV-G/GFP plaques (Figure 3).

30 A similar analysis was performed for each of the 11 cancer cell lines (Figure 3). Each circle represents the mean of 30 randomly selected plaques measured across their diameter, then normalized with respect to the corresponding VSV-G/GFP mean plaque diameter. The small marks at the

top of each circle represent the standard error of the mean. VSV-rp30
 plaques were significantly larger ($p < 0.001$) than VSV-G/GFP plaques in all
 cancer cell lines tested. The VSV-rp30 plaques ranged in average diameter
 from a low of $137\% \pm 6$ SE ($p < 0.001$, $n = 30$) in brain U-87MG cells to a
 5 high of 165% in the previously mentioned brain U-373MG cells. In 9 of 11
 cancer lines, VSV-4 M51/CT9 plaques were significantly smaller than VSV-
 G/GFP plaques and ranged in average diameter from a low of $10\% \pm 1$ SE (p
 < 0.001 , $n = 30$) in breast T-47D cells to a high of $83\% \pm 4$ SE ($n = 30$) in
 brain U-87MG cells. In 10 of 11 cancer lines, VSV-1'GFP plaques were also
 10 significantly smaller, ranging in diameter from a low of $39\% \pm 4$
 SE ($p < 0.001$, $n=30$) in brain U-87MG cells to a high of $114\% \pm 5$ SE ($n =$
 30) in lung A549 cells.

Three additional non-cancer-derived cell lines (primary human
 astrocytes, mouse NIH3T3 and hamster BHK-21 cells) were also tested in
 15 the assay (Figure 3). The primary 12 human astrocyte cells displayed an
 average VSV-rp30 plaque diameter ($118\% \pm 6$ SE, $n = 30$) that was
 marginally larger than that of VSV-G/GFP plaques ($100\% \pm 5$ SE, $n = 30$),
 however, this difference achieved significance only at the $p < 0.05$ level of
 confidence. Conversely, both VSV-MS1/CT9 and VSV-1'GFP plaques had
 20 significantly smaller diameters ($19\% \pm 3$ SE, $p < 0.001$, $n=30$; $61\% \pm 5$ SE,
 $p < 0.001$, $n = 30$, respectively). The mouse NIH/3T3 cells displayed an
 average VSV-rp30 plaque diameter ($98\% \pm 6$ SE, $n = 30$) that was not
 significantly different from that of VSV-G/GFP ($100\% \pm 7$ SE, $n = 30$),
 however, both VSV-MS1/CT9 and VSV-1'GFP plaques had significantly
 25 smaller diameters ($41\% \pm 3$ SE, $p<0.001$, $n=30$; $74\% \pm 6$ SE, $p < 0.05$, $n =$
 30 , respectively). Finally, hamster BHK-21 cells displayed average VSV-
 rp30 ($109\% + 3$ SE, $n = 30$), VSV-M51/CT9 ($88\% + 4$ SE, $n = 30$), and
 VSV- 1'GFP ($93\% \pm 4$ SE, $n = 30$) plaque diameters that were not
 significantly different than that of VSV-G/GFP ($100\% \pm 4$ SE, $n = 30$).

30 Taken together, these data indicate that VSV-rp30 plaques develop to
 become significantly larger than VSV-G/GFP plaques when grown on
 cancer-derived cells, in contrast to the little or no difference in size observed

when grown on non-cancerous cells. Additionally, VSV-M51/CT9 and VSV-1'GFP plaques tend to be significantly smaller than VSV-G/GFP plaques in the majority of cell lines tested, independent of whether the cells are of a cancerous or non-cancerous origin.

5 The larger plaques associated with VSV-rp30 were indicative of a faster rate of infection and replication of this virus than the other VSVs tested here. This enhanced rate of infection may prove beneficial in treating cancer, as it would give VSV-rp30 a headstart in the race against the immune system. Although VSV-rp30 was more aggressive in infecting tumors, the
10 relative efficacy of VSV-rp30 in infecting normal human astrocytes was reduced compared with the tumors; this is an attribute of VSV-rp30, as it suggests that the virus has a greater replication potential in tumor than in non-tumor tissue. Based on plaque size, VSV-rp30 displayed a mean 50% greater infection of all human cancer lines than the parent VSV-G/GFP, and
15 showed a three-fold greater infection than VSV-CT9/M51 or VSV-1'GFP. In contrast, VSV-rp30 showed only a modest 9% greater infection on human non-cancer control cells.

Example 3: VSV-rp30 exhibits increased oncolytic activity

Materials and Methods

20 *Plaque cytotoxicity labeling with ethidium homodimer*

Assessments of cell death were performed on plaques after treatment with ethidium homodimer (EthD-1), an agent that yields a bright red fluorescence upon binding to the exposed nucleic acids of dead or damaged cells. EthD-1 (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR) was prepared in D-PBS at a 4
25 μM concentration according to the manufacturer's instructions and 1 ml was used to overlay the agar layer of infected cell monolayers on which plaques had been allowed to develop for 48 hrs. One well from each condition was overlaid with 1 ml of D-PBS alone as a negative EthD-1 control. After
incubation for 30 minutes at 37°C, plaques were visualized with the
30 fluorescent microscopic imaging system described above using either EGFP or Texas red filters. Under red fluorescent visualization, plaques were easily identifiable due to the greatly increased density of dead cells labeled by EthD-1. After confirming the location of the plaque using GFP fluorescence,

the diameter of the red fluorescent EthD-1 labeled area of cell death associated with the plaque was measured. The diameters of these cytotoxic areas were normalized with respect to the corresponding mean VSV-G/GFP cytotoxic area diameter of each cell line tested. Thirty plaques from each condition were randomly selected and analyzed in this manner and statistical comparisons were performed as described above.

Results

To assess the oncolytic activity of VSV-rp30 relative to VSV-G/GFP, VSV10 M51/CT9 and VSV-1'GFP, plaque assays treated with ethidium homodimer were used to visualize the cell death associated with plaques. Ethidium homodimer (EthD-1) is an agent that yields a bright red fluorescence upon binding to the exposed nucleic acids of dead or damaged cells and is routinely used in assessments of cytotoxicity. Under red fluorescent illumination, VSV plaques were easily identifiable due to the greatly increased density of dead cells. Analysis of the cytotoxic areas associated with VSV plaques indicated that the relative size of the regions of enhanced cell death closely mirrored the GFP fluorescent plaque size in all four of the cancer cell lines tested (Figure 4). Cytotoxic area measurements were collected and normalized as in Figure 3. Unless otherwise indicated, all cytotoxic areas differed significantly ($p < 0.05$) in size from the corresponding VSV-G/GFP cytotoxic areas, with no statistically significant difference indicated by ns. Thus, VSV-rp30 not only propagates more quickly than VSV-G/GFP, overall, it yields a greater oncolytic effect than VSV-G/GFP as well. Additionally, VSV-M51/CT9 and VSV-1'GFP both yielded less of an oncolytic effect than VSV-G/GFP, consistent with the smaller plaque size attendant to each of these viruses.

Example 4: Genotype of VSV-rp30

Materials and Methods

VSV genome sequencing

Viral genomic RNA was extracted from VSV-G/GFP and VSV-rp30 using the QIAamp Viral RNA Mini Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA). Reverse transcription of isolated VSV genomic RNA was performed using Thermo-X Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) at a reaction temperature

of 53.9°C and an RT-oligo with the sequence, 5'- ACG AAG ACA AAC
 AAA CCA TTA TTA TC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 11) designed to anneal to the
 initial 26 bases of the 3'-end of the VSV genome. Full-length genomic VSV
 cDNA (13.5 kb) was then used as template in a series of 6 PCR reactions that
 5 generated overlapping products covering the entire genome and ranging in
 size from 2.0 - 2.7 kb. Primers were designed on the basis of the VSV-
 G/GFP sequence, SEQ ID NO: 1 (Genbank accession FJ478454). The
 primers, annealing temperatures and product sizes for these reactions were as
 follows. PCR 1: 1F = RT-oligo shown above (SEQ ID NO: 11), 1R 5'-GAT
 10 ATG GTG AGA GGC TGA AGA C-3': (SEQ ID NO: 12) 54.2°C; 2054 bp.
 PCR 2: 2F 5'-CCA GTG ATG AAC ACA CAT CC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 13), 2R
 5'-AGT CTC GAG CGT GAT ATC TGT TAG-3' (SEQ ID NO: 14); 54.3°C;
 2726 bp. PCR 3: 3F 5'-CTC AAA TCC TGC TAG GTA TG-3' (SEQ ID NO:
 15), 3R 5'-GAC TTC CAT GAT TGC TGT TAG-3' (SEQ ID NO: 16);
 54.2°C; 2422 bp. PCR 4: 4F 5'-TTC AAG GAC GAC GAC GGC AAC
 TAC AAG AC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 17), 4R 5'-ACC CTC TTG TCC TTG CCA
 AC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 18); 54.3°C; 2559 bp. PCR 5: 5F 5'-CTT AAT CGA
 GAG AAC TCA TG-3' (SEQ ID NO: 19), 5R 5'-GAT CTG TTT TAT CTC
 TTG TC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 20); 50.4°C; 2131 bp. PCR 6: 6F 5'-GAC TCA
 20 AGT ATG GAC TAC AC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 21) 6R 5'-ACG AAG ACC ACA
 AAA CCA G-3' (SEQ ID NO: 22); 50.4°C; 2496 bp. All PCR was
 performed using the Expand High Fidelity PCR Kit (Roche Diagnostics,
 Indianapolis, IN) and the reaction products were purified using the QiAquick
 PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen). Samples from all reactions were run on 0.8%
 25 agarose gels to confirm the presence of a single product of the appropriate
 molecular weight. Purified products were spectrophotometrically quantified,
 mixed with the appropriate sequencing primers and submitted to the W.M.
 Keck DNA Sequencing Facility (Yale University) for automated DNA
 sequencing. Sequencing of each PCR product was performed on both the
 30 sense and antisense DNA strands using the following primers. PCR 1: 1F
 (shown above, SEQ ID NO: 11) , 960F 5'-AAA ACC CTG CCT TCC ACT
 TC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 23), 1040R 5'-CAA ACC TGC TGT AGT AAG AG-3'
 (SEQ ID NO: 24), 1R (shown above, SEQ ID NO: 12). PCR 2: 2F, (as shown

above, SEQ ID NO: 13), 2962F 5'-CTA GTC TAA CTT CTA GCT TCT G-3' (SEQ ID NO: 25), 3959F 5'-TTC AGG ACG TTG AGA GGA TC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 26), 3047R 5'-AAC AGA TCG ATC TCT GTT AG-3' (SEQ ID NO: 27), 4026R 5'-GGA GCA AGA TAG CTG AGA TC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 28), 2R (shown above, SEQ ID NO: 14) PCR 3: 3F (shown above, SEQ ID NO: 15), 4971F 5'-TTC CAT CCG ATC CTT CAC TC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 29), 569IF 5'-ATT CAA GAC GCT GCT TCG CAA C-3' (SEQ ID NO: 30), 6035R 5'-GAG CTT TTC CAA CTA CTG AAC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 31), 3R, (SEQ ID NO: 16). PCR 4: 4F (shown above, SEQ ID NO: 17), 6974F 5'-GTG ATA CCA TGC TCA AAG AG-3' (SEQ ID NO: 32), 7960F 5'-CCT TTA GTC CCA CAA TTC C-3' (SEQ ID NO: 33) 8046R 5'-GAT CCA CTG TTT TCA CAC TC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 34), 4R (shown above, SEQ ID NO: 18). PCR 5: 5F (shown above, SEQ ID NO: 19), 9931F 5'-CGA ACT TGT TAA AGA CTG AGG-3' (SEQ ID NO: 35), 10038R 5'-GGA ACA GAG GAT TTA TTG AC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 36), 5R, (shown above, SEQ ID NO: 20). PCR 6: 6F (shown above, SEQ ID NO: 21), 11959F 5'-GAA TCA GGT TGG GCC AAT TAC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 37) 12024R 5'-AGC CGT CTC CAC AAC TCA AG-3' (SEQ ID NO: 38), 13045R 5'-CAC TTC TGC TTG TAT CCT CC-3' (SEQ ID NO: 39), 6R, (shown above, SEQ ID NO: 22). All oligonucleotides were synthesized by the Department of Pathology Oligonucleotide Synthesis Facility (Yale University School of Medicine). Inspection of sequence chromatographic data was performed using 4Peaks Version 1.6 software (Mek&Tosj.com) and base-call files were assembled and analyzed using DNA Strider Version 1.3fl4 software (Ch. Marck, Cedex, France). In general, any sequencing ambiguities that arose in one strand were easily resolved by inspection of sequence results from the complementary strand.

VSV-rp30 mutation analysis with BsrDI

Restriction digestions using *BsrDI* (New England Biolabs, Beverly, MA) were performed on a 2.1kb PCR product encompassing the site of the C1772T mutation identified in the gene for the P protein of VSV-rp30. This mutation creates a unique *BsrDI* restriction site in the VSV-rp30 PCR product that is not present in the VSV-G/GFP product, and when cleaved,

yields two smaller species of 1298 bp and 828 bp. The 2126 bp PCR product was amplified from VSV-G/GFP and VSV-rp30 cDNA using the same methods as described above and primers 960F and 3047R at an annealing temperature of 52°C for 30 cycles. Products were purified and quantified as described above and 350 ng of each were included in restriction digestion reactions and control reactions (no enzyme) and incubated according to the manufacturer's instructions. Digestion products were run on 1.2% agarose gels stained with ethidium bromide.

Results

The genotypic alterations were identified by sequencing the genomes of the parent VSV-G/GFP and glioblastoma cell-adapted VSV-rp30 viruses using RT-PCR and automated nucleotide sequencing (Figures 5A-C). Sequencing of the parent virus as a control showed an identical nucleotide sequence to that used in generating the virus, showing that the parent VSV had population stability, at least over the estimated minimum of 50 generations of viral progeny from the stock previously generated. The sequences of both viruses were found to be identical except for four point mutations located in the genes for the P protein (C1772T) and L protein (G7693T, A11712G, and C11736T) with nucleotide numbering according to SEQ ID NO: 1 (Genbank accession FJ478454)) (Figure 5 A-C). The P and L proteins of VSV form an RNA polymerase complex that is responsible for both viral mRNA transcription and genome replication. Whereas the P protein itself has not been found to display enzymatic activity, it is believed to modulate L protein activity, with phosphorylation of serine and threonine residues located on P being important for this function.

Inspection of the sequence chromatograph data indicated that all of the detected VSV-rp30 mutations were represented by a single unambiguous chromatographic peak (Figure 5C), suggesting that these mutations were present throughout the entire VSV-rp30 viral population. Since the C1772T mutation in SEQ ID NO: 1 results in the creation of a *Bsr* *DI* restriction site in VSV-rp30, the apparent homogeneity of this mutation within the viral population was determined by means of restriction digestion. Using a 2.1 kb PCR product encompassing the C1772T mutation site, *Bsr* *DI* application

yielded a complete digestion of the VSV-rp30 amplified PCR product and no detectable digestion of VSV-G/GFP derived product. Thus, there appears to be no detectable 'residual' parent VSV-G/GFP present in the VSV-rp30 population. Taken together these results indicate an absence of any
5 detectable sequence heterogeneity within the VSV-rp30 population at the identified mutation sites.

The A11712G and C11736T mutations in SEQ ID NO: 1 were both found to be silent base substitutions appearing in the third position of codons 1562 and 1570 of the amino acid sequence of the L protein (SEQ ID NO: 5),
10 respectively. Additionally, these silent mutations appear to be relatively comparable substitutions with respect to human codon usage frequencies (1562: GAA=29.0 vs GAG=39.6 per thousand codons and 1570: ACC=18.9 vs ACT=13.1 per thousand codons) (Codon Usage Database [<http://www.kazusa.or.jp/codon/>]). Not only are both mutations silent, but
15 they also result in comparable substitutions with respect to codon usage frequency. Thus, it is possible, but less likely that these mutations play a significant role in the enhanced oncolytic phenotype displayed by VSV-rp30.

The C1772T mutation of SEQ ID NO: 1 appears in the second position of codon 126 of the P protein and results in a replacement of the
20 serine (S) in VSV-G/GFP (SEQ ID NO: 3) with a leucine (L) in VSV-rp30 (S126L) (SEQ ID NO: 8). A Genbank search (October 2008 [<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>]) indicated that a number of Indiana serotype VSV strains have been identified that, like VSV-rp30, possess a leucine (L) at position 126 of the P protein, (SEQ ID NO: 8). These include strain
25 85CLB South America, strain 94GUB Central America, strain 98COE North America, strain Glasgow, and strain Mudd-Summers, with the P protein sequences of these strains available using Genbank accession numbers Q8B0H8, Q8B0H3, Q8B0I3, P04879, and P04880, respectively. The only Indiana serotype VSV strain found to possess a serine (S) at position 126 of
30 the P protein, was the San Juan strain (Genbank accession P03520), the same strain from which VSV-G/GFP was originally recombinantly engineered (Lawson 1995). Thus, among the various strains of VSV that have been sequenced and are available on Genbank, the serine (S) at position 126 of the

P protein (SEQ ID NO: 3) does not appear to be a residue that is strictly conserved. The oncolytic activity of the San Juan strain relative to the other Indiana serotype VSV strains is unknown.

5 The G7693T mutation of SEQ ID NO: 1 appears in the first position of codon 223 of the L protein and results in a replacement of the asparagine (D) in VSV-G/GFP (SEQ ID NO: 5) with a tyrosine (Y) in VSV-rp30 (D223Y) (SEQ ID NO: 10). A Genbank search (October 2008) indicated that the asparagine (D) at position 223 of the L protein (SEQ ID NO: 5) appears to be a highly conserved residue and is present among all the Indiana
10 serotype VSV strains for which sequence data are available. Thus, the presence of a tyrosine (Y) at this site has not been previously reported and is apparently unique to VSV-rp30 (SEQ ID NO: 10).

Example 5: C1772T (S126L) and G7693T (D223Y) mutations are possible targets for cellular kinases

15 Both serine and tyrosine can act as potential phosphorylation sites for cellular kinases. Both VSV-rp30a amino acid alterations involved either a serine or a tyrosine. Phosphorylation events that target these sites may be one basis for the novel phenotype observed in VSV-rp30, specifically the loss of the serine at 126, (SEQ ID NO: 8), and the gain of the tyrosine at 223,
20 (SEQ ID NO: 10), could remove and create, respectively serine and tyrosine kinase phosphorylation sites.

In order to investigate what (if any) serine or tyrosine kinases might recognize either of these mutated sites both the mutant and the wild-type P protein and L protein amino acid sequences were downloaded onto two
25 bioinformatics servers located at the Center for Biological Sequence Analysis (CBS) at the Technical University of Denmark (www.cbs.dtu.dk). The first server (NetPhos 2.0) is a database that predicts the likelihood that any particular serine, threonine or tyrosine in a protein sequence is a target of phosphorylation. The second server (NetPhosK 1.0) makes predictions as to
30 what specific kinases would be likely to recognize these sites. These servers indicated the following with respect to the mutant VSV-rp30 sites.

S126L in the P protein

The serine that is lost at position 126 of the P protein in VSV-rp30 (SEQ ID NO: 8) is predicted to have a very high likelihood of acting as a substrate for phosphorylation and displayed a score of 0.997. Two kinases were predicted to recognize this site, i.e. cdk5 and RSK. Cdk5 is a cyclin-dependent kinase that is specific to neurons and has an axonal subcellular localization. The serines at positions 60 and 64 were predicted to be phosphorylation sites and displayed scores of 0.985 and 0.989, respectively. The sites at 60 and 64 were predicted to be recognized by casein kinase 2 (CK2), the kinase that has been empirically identified as the kinase responsible for phosphorylating these sites in VSV.

D223Y in the L protein

The tyrosine that is gained at position 223 of the L protein in VSV-rp30 (SEQ ID NO: 10) is predicted to be phosphorylated with a score of 0.665. Three kinases were predicted to recognize this site, i.e. EGFR, Src and INSR. The EGFR kinase prediction is of particular interest since this kinase (epidermal growth factor receptor kinase) is one that has been found to be highly upregulated in glioblastomas. In fact, this particular kinase has emerged as a therapeutic target for the treatment of glioblastomas and a number of EGFR kinase inhibitors are currently undergoing clinical trials.

Example 6: Kinase inhibitors reduce VSV-rp30 efficacyMaterials and Methods*Kinase inhibitor assay*

The kinase inhibitors staurosporine, genistein and tyrphostin 51 were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO (catalog numbers: 54400, G6649 and T7665, respectively) and used to prepare 3 mM, 100 mM and 100 mM stock solutions, respectively, in 100% DMSO. Stock solutions were aliquotted and stored in a lightproof container at -20°C until use. Confluent U-373 cell monolayers in six-well plates were grown as described earlier. Thirty minutes prior to the start of the experiment, the cell monolayers were aspirated and washed once with 2 mls of PBS before replacing the media with 0.9 ml of low-serum MEM media (1% FBS).

Monolayers were then inoculated with either VSV-G/GFP or VSV-rp30 at a dilution selected to yield approximately 150 plaques per well and overlaid with 2 ml of agarose in low-serum MEM media as described earlier. After solidification of the agarose, a 0.5 ml volume of low-serum MEM media containing kinase inhibitor or vehicle (DMSO) at 5X the final concentration was overlaid onto the agarose. Plates were incubated at 37°C in 5% CO₂ for 24 hrs and 30 plaques from each condition were randomly selected, fluorescently visualized, measured and statistically compared as described earlier.

The individual doses of each kinase inhibitor were prepared by first serially diluting the kinase inhibitor stock solution in DMSO, then adding a constant volume of inhibitor/DMSO solution or DMSO alone (vehicle) to the 0.5 ml volume of low-serum MEM media. In this manner, all conditions were exposed to the same concentration of vehicle, i.e. 0.03% DMSO in the genistein experiments and 0.01% DMSO in the staurosporine and tyrphostin 51 experiments.

Results

An essential step in the replication cycle of VSV is the phosphorylation of the P protein by protein kinases expressed by the host cell (Barik and Banerjee, *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA* 89: 6570-6574 (1992); Das and Pattnaik, *J. Virol.*, 78: 6420-6430 (2004); Lenard, *Pharmacol. Ther.*, 83: 39-48 (1999). Additionally, a wide range of cancer cells have been shown to display aberrant protein phosphorylation activity and a variety of oncogenic mutations have been identified in kinase and phosphatase genes (Bardelli et al., *Science*, 300: 949 (2003); Parsons et al., *Nature*, 436: 792 (2005); Wang et al., *Science*, 304: 1164-1166 (2004). In order to investigate whether host cell phosphorylation activity might play a role in the enhanced propagation of VSV-rp30, three different kinase inhibitors (staurosporine, genistein and tyrphostin 51) were selected their effects on VSV-rp30 and VSV-G/GFP propagation in U-373MG cells using the plaque size assay (described earlier) were examined (Figure 6 A-C). Staurosporine is a broad-spectrum inhibitor of serine, threonine, and tyrosine kinases. Staurosporine caused a significant attenuation of the difference in plaque size between VSV-rp30 and VSV-

G/GFP at concentrations of 10 nM and 100 nM (Figure 6 A). Genistein is a protein kinase inhibitor selective for tyrosine kinases (Akiyama et al., J. Biol. Chem., 262: 5592-5595 (1987). Genistein also significantly attenuated the difference in plaque size between VSV-rp30 and VSV-G/GFP at a concentration of 10 μ M (Figure 6 B). Finally, tyrphostin 51 is a tyrosine kinase inhibitor selective for the epidermal growth factor receptor tyrosine kinase (EGFR). In contrast to the effects of both staurosporine and genistein, tyrphostin 51 had no significant effect on the difference in plaque size between VSV-rp30 and VSV-G/GFP at concentrations up to 10 μ M, the highest dose tested (Figure 6C).

The wide-spectrum kinase inhibitors staurosporine and genistein both produced an attenuation of the enhanced replication of VSV-rp30 relative to VSV-G/GFP, whereas tyrphostin 51, an inhibitor specific to the epidermal growth factor receptor tyrosine kinase (EGFR), did not (Figure 6A-C). Taken together, these results suggest that the enhanced propagation (i.e. enhanced rate of infection) of VSV-rp30 relative to VSV-G/GFP in cancer cells may be due, in part, to the activity of one or more cellular kinases sensitive to staurosporine and genistein.

Example 7: Tumor cells stably transfected with red fluorescent protein gene reliably form tumors

Materials and Methods

Transfection

For stable transfection, RFP [tetrameric phosphorylated Discosoma red (pDsRed1)-N1 and monomeric pDsRed-monomer-C1], cyan fluorescent protein [phosphorylated cytomegalovirus (pCMV)-CFP], and blue fluorescent protein (pCMV-BFP) plasmids were used. pCMV-CFP and pCMV-BFP were generated by exchanging the RFP expression cassette from pDsRed monomer-C1 with CFP or BFP cassettes from pRSET/CFP (Invitrogen). Cells were transfected using Lipofectamine 2000 reagent (Invitrogen), enriched, and maintained with G418 (Sigma, St. Louis, MO). rU87 and rU118 cells were sorted for brightest fluorescence on a FACSvantage SE fluorescence-activated cell sorter (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA). Growth characteristics were assessed using 3-(4,5-

dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide (MTT) (Invitrogen) assay according to the instructions of the manufacturer. Optical density was read at 570 nm using a Dynatech (Alexandria, VA) MR500 ELISA plate reader and corrected from background control.

5 Results

To choose the optimum nontoxic fluorescent protein that would allow simultaneous imaging with GFP encoding virus, several different fluorescent proteins, including cyan (pCMV-CFP), blue (pCMV-BFP), and red (tetrameric pDsRed1-N1 and monomeric pDsRedmonomer-C1) were tested. BFP was subject to quick photobleaching, and CFP was not practical for use simultaneously with GFP-expressing VSV because of overlap in their fluorescent spectrum. Transfection of U87 high-grade glioma cells with tetrameric RFP resulted in toxicity *in vitro*. Stable transfection of U87MG or U118MG glioma cells with a plasmid encoding the monomeric DsRed protein resulted in bright red fluorescence and did not alter growth characteristics as demonstrated by MTT assay. Over a 24 h period, absorbance measurements increased by $89.8 \pm 33.2\%$ in rU87 cells and by $103.8 \pm 32.5\%$ in U87MG cells (statistically nonsignificant $p = 0.75$, $n = 6$, Student's t test), indicating that the red glioma cells were replicating at their usual rate. After selection in G418 and fluorescence-activated cell sorting, all tumor cells expressed red fluorescent protein. Bilateral brain injections of either rU87 or rU118 cells in SCID or nude mice yielded tumors in 100% (90 of 90) of injections. Ten days after injection, noninfected rU87 xenografts in SCID mice had a mean calculated volume of $7.13 \pm 5.76 \text{ mm}^3$ ($n = 4$; calculated as ellipsoid volume: $4/3 \times y \times z$). Horizontal and vertical radi x and y represent half of the horizontal and vertical diameters in the coronal section that harbored the largest tumor cross-section area. The anteroposterior radius z represents half the tumor craniocaudal length, calculated by multiplying section thickness with the number of sections where the tumor is present. Tumor xenografts grew predominantly by expansion, although in a number of cases tumor cells separated from the main tumor body and invading the surrounding parenchyma. Tumors grew with no spontaneous regression or

hemorrhage until they reached a lethal size. For humane reasons, mice were killed at the onset of symptoms before tumor induced death.

Example 8: Intravenously injected VSVrp30a targets multifocal brain tumors with high selectivity

5 Materials and Methods

Mouse procedures

Animal experiments and postoperative care were performed in accordance with institutional guidelines of the Yale University Animal Care and Use Committee. Immunodeficient homozygous CB17-SCID (CB17SC-
 10 M) and NCr-Nude mice (NCr-Foxn1nu) at an age of 4–5 weeks were obtained from Taconic Farms (Germantown, NY). Animals were stereotactically grafted with 3×10^5 tumor cells bilaterally into the striatum (2mm lateral, 0.4mm rostral to bregma at 3 mm depth) or cortex or with 1×10^5 cells unilaterally in the left olfactory bulb (0.75 mm lateral, 4.5 mm
 15 rostral to bregma at 1.5 mm depth). For cranial window experiments, a teardrop-shaped skin flap (with an anteroposterior axis along the parasagittal plane crossing the midpupillary line) was removed, and a 5-mm-wide round craniectomy was drilled under an operating microscope (Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany). rU87 glioma cells, 5×10^4 , were injected along a trajectory
 20 parallel to the cortex immediately below the pia mater. The craniotomy was covered with a round glass coverslip of 8 mm diameter and glued to the bone margins using cyanoacrylate. Animals were followed with daily measurements of weight, food and water consumption, and overall health and activity, and the cranial window animals were given parenteral
 25 antibiotics. During *in vivo* brain imaging, mice were lightly anesthetized to reduce movement, and the head was maintained in a horizontal position during image acquisition. Animals were killed with a pentobarbital overdose and perfused transcardially with 4% paraformaldehyde. For determination of blood– brain barrier integrity, 2% Evans Blue (Sigma) in 100 μ l of sterile
 30 saline was injected intravenously 1 h before the animals were killed.

Viruses

Ten days after tumor grafting, 100 μ l of medium containing virus (10^7 plaque forming units (PFU) of VSVrp30a, VSV–GFP, VSV–

ΔG–GFP, or recombinant pseudorabies virus (PRV)–GFP or 10^{12} virions adeno-associated virus serotype 2 (AAV)–GFP) was injected through the tail vein. VSV–GFP and VSV–ΔG–GFP were generously provided by Dr. J. K. Rose (Yale University). PRV–GFP strain 152 was kindly provided
5 by Dr. L. W. Enquist (Princeton University, Princeton, NJ) (Smith et al., *Proc Natl Acad Sci*, 97:9264-9269 (2000)) and AAV–GFP was kindly provided by Dr. K. R. Clark (Ohio State University, Columbus, OH). Details on the generation and characteristics of the tumor-adapted VSV–GFP isolate VSVrp30a were described previously (Wollmann et al, *J. Virol.*, 79(10):
10 6005-6022 (2005)). VSV, PRV, and AAV were all shown to infect glioma cells previously.

Results

It was shown that in animals bearing two subcutaneous tumors, intratumoral VSV injection into one tumor resulted in selective infection also
15 in the second tumor on the contralateral side of the body. This strongly suggested vascular viral dissemination and led to the hypothesis that VSV could be delivered to brain tumors through the intravascular route. However, entry into brain tumors is more complex than elsewhere in the body because the blood– brain barrier can be a major obstacle, even for relatively small-
20 sized chemical or biological agents (Pardridge, *Neuron*, 36:555-558 (2002)). The ability of intravenously administered VSV to target intracranial tumor xenografts was tested. In mice that were implanted with bilateral brain rU87 xenografts ($n = 9$ animals, 18 tumors), intravenous injection of 10^7 PFU of VSVrp30a through the tail vein consistently resulted in infection of the
25 intracranial tumors. A single injection was sufficient to infect gliomas. After an injection of 10^7 PFU, VSVrp30a infection was found in different regions inside the tumor, suggesting multiple sites of virus seeding. Infection inside the tumor started with a time lag after intravenous delivery but was found in all tumors analyzed after 24 h.

30 **Example 9: VSVrp30a replicates and spreads within the tumor mass**

Materials and Methods

VSV is a replication-competent virus and spreads within the tumor. Early in the course of infection in the non-infected areas, red tumor cells

with intact cellular outlines were seen. Within the VSV-infected area, infected and dead tumor cells and debris were surrounded by VSV-infected cells with membranous GFP staining. The presence of newly infected cells at the boundary between killed and non-infected cells suggests that VSV spreads within the tumor. To document viral spread within the tumor mass, animals were killed 24, 48, and 72 h post-inoculation (HPI).

Results

Analyzing animals at different time points within the course of VSV infection and using serial histological sections through the tumor, it was found that the virus had spread from initially infected foci to encompass the whole tumor. In addition to the widespread infection and tumor cell killing inside the main tumor mass, tumor cells that were migrating into the normal brain at the tumor margin were also infected, with remarkable sparing of neighboring normal brain cells in immediate contact with the tumor. There was a remarkably high degree of selective infection of the brain tumors with relatively little infection of the surrounding normal brain; the ratio of infected tumor cells to infected normal brain cells was 10,000:1, or better.

Although most tumor xenografts grew by expansion, some isolated cell clusters of tumor cells remote from the main tumor bulk were observed. Of note, these distant cell conglomerates were also targeted by VSV. The course of VSV oncolysis in the brain is schematized in Figure 7. The results demonstrated a continuously increasing area of infection in the tumor mass, resulting in tumor cell death, as indicated by the loss of cellular integrity and the appearance of small granular debris after viral infection. Six tumors were used for analysis of VSV and four for VSVrp30a infection at each time point. In animals killed early in the course of infection, areas of infected and killed tumor cells surrounded by other cells that appeared live at the time of death but with early signs of infection and expression of viral reporter gene were documented. Intact cellular outlines and homogeneous intracellular DsRed signal were used to distinguish healthy cells from dead or dying cells. In addition, DAPI counterstain showed nuclear breakdown commonly found in dead cells, and areas of dead cells showed small granular debris in the place of intact cells. The mean infected area in coronal brain

sections with the largest tumor diameter increased from approximately 50 to 60% at 1 d post-inoculation (DPI) to what appeared to be infection of almost the entire tumor by 3 DPI (Figure 8). As shown in the fractionated bar graph in Figure 8, the proportion of viable tumor cells showing normal cellular and nuclear morphology decreased simultaneously.

Finally, the spread of infection was documented in real time using the cranial window animal model. *In vitro*, VSVrp30a was more effective at selective destruction of gliomas than the parental VSV–GFP. To determine whether this difference persisted *in vivo*, the relative abilities of the two VSVs to infect gliomas in the mouse brain were compared using the same concentration of virus inoculum. Both VSVrp30a ($n = 9$ animals, 18 tumors) and VSV–GFP ($n = 9$ animals, 18 tumors) successfully targeted the brain tumors after tail vein inoculation VSV–GFP. A high tumor selectivity of VSV infection was observed during the time period of our study. In animals implanted with multiple tumors, all brain tumors were infected simultaneously. VSV infection and resultant oncolysis were observed in all tumor masses regardless of the size and location.

Small and large tumors were infected at different localizations in the brain whether striatal, cortical, subventricular, or within the olfactory bulb. Tumors in the brain and periphery were also simultaneously infected (see below). In animals killed within the first 72 HPI, when the entire tumor mass was infected by VSVrp30a, no GFP expression in the brain parenchyma surrounding the tumor, choroids plexus, or in the leptomeninges was observed. After this period of high tumor-specific infection (72–96 HPI in our model), when the whole tumor bulk showed marked cytopathy, select periventricular groups of infected neurons and ependymal cells in immunodeficient mice were observed.

Example 10: VSVrp30a infection causes tumor cell death

Materials and Methods

Immunocytochemistry

Cryosections were mounted and counterstained with 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) (Invitrogen). For cleaved caspase 3 immunocytochemistry, 20 μm sections were incubated with a 1:150 dilution

of polyclonal rabbit cleaved caspase 3 antiserum (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA), followed by detection with a 1:200 dilution of biotinylated anti-rabbit antibody (Invitrogen) and ABC reagents detected with diaminobenzidine and hydrogen peroxide (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA). For von Willebrand factor staining, a 1:500 dilution of polyclonal rabbit antibody (Abcam, Cambridge, MA) was used following the same procedure outlined above.

Imaging

Histological sections were studied either on an Olympus Optical (Tokyo, Japan) IX71 fluorescent microscope fitted with a SPOT-RT camera (Diagnostic Instruments, Sterling Heights, MI) or on an Olympus Optical Fluo-300 laser confocal microscope using Fluoview 300 software version 4.3. Corresponding phase-contrast, green, red, and blue fluorescence photomicrographs were fused and corrected for color and contrast using Adobe Photoshop 7 software (Adobe Systems, San Jose, CA). Several high-resolution pictures were used for montage of whole coronal sections.

Tumor area calculations and cell and nuclear counting were done using NIH ImageJ software. Animals with cranial windows were imaged daily or more frequently under an Olympus Optical SZXZB12 stereo microscope and Olympus Optical Fluo-300 laser confocal microscope.

Results

VSV infection results in death of tumor cells *in vitro*. Similarly, VSVrp30a induced widespread tumor cell death in the brain *in vivo*. Such a fast and efficient elimination of the tumor is important because remaining resistant cells have the potential of repopulating the tumor mass, which is commonly observed in gliomas after conventional treatment. Widespread cell death was detected within the tumor mass. Cell death was indicated by loss of cellular outlines on confocal and light microscopy. Differential interference contrast (DIC) microscopy showed loss of cellular outlines and diffusion of intracellular tumor cell DsRed with fluorescent imaging and nuclear fragmentation assessed with DAPI staining. Infected tumors stained positively for the cellular apoptosis execution protein activated caspase 3. There was a statistically significant decrease in the number of cells with

intact cellular ($p = 0.0001$, ANOVA test) and nuclear morphology ($p = 0.0001$, ANOVA test) and a statistically significant increase in the number of tumor cells immunostained positive for activated caspase 3 ($p = 0.0001$, ANOVA test) after infection (Figure 9A-C).

5 Infected tumor cells underwent lysis several hours after expression of viral proteins. An important observation was that the mouse neovasculature and its cellular constituents, including endothelial cells, were not infected, as the intact vessel architecture was visible by DIC microscopy and the positive staining for the endothelial marker von Willebrand factor of these non-
10 infected cells. Blood vessels appeared mostly undamaged even late in infection. After widespread tumor cell lysis, both viral GFP and tumor DsRed intensity decreased in the tumor mass, which can be attributed to loss of cellular integrity and resultant diffusion of intracellular content.

Example 11: Oncolytic potential of VSVrp30a generalizes to human
15 **glioma and mammary carcinoma**

 VSVrp30a was adapted to human gliomas by passaging it on U87MG cells for many generations. Therefore, to test the hypothesis that the *in vivo* oncolytic potential of VSVrp30a was not restricted to the cell line on which it was developed, two other types of tumor implanted into the mouse brain
20 were also tested. One of the cell types was U118MG, a cell line derived from high-grade human glioma but with different genetic anomalies than found in U87MG. The two glioma types have been shown to differ from each other in their p53 status, *c-myc*, and epidermal growth factor receptor and PDGF (platelet-derived growth factor) receptor overexpression; they share p14, p16
25 deletion, and low expression of multidrug resistance gene.

 U118 cells were stably transfected and sorted using the same protocol used for U87MG cells and will be called rU118 herein. SCID mice bearing rU118 human glioblastoma xenografts ($n = 12$ tumors) were killed 48 and 72 h (six tumors each) after a single intravenous injection of VSVrp30a;
30 widespread selective infection, and apoptotic cell death was noted. There was no significant statistical difference in VSV induction of apoptosis between rU118 tumors and rU87 tumors 72 HPI ($p = 0.1855$, Student's *t* test), suggesting that the virus targeted both types of glioma cells. A mouse

mammary carcinoma, the 4T1 cell, was also tested. 4T1 cells were transiently transfected with the monomeric DsRed gene and injected into the brain and periphery 48 h after transfection. 4T1 mouse mammary carcinoma cells were used to create an animal model with simultaneous peripheral and multiple brain tumors to mimic the setting of a disseminated systemic cancer. VSVrp30a infected all cranial and subcutaneous flank grafts in SCID mice ($n = 2$ mice) after a single intravenous injection.

Example 12: IV delivery of VSV efficiently targets and lyses brain xenografts in nude mice

10 Materials and Methods

SCID mice are deficient in both humoral and cellular immune defense. Nude mice, conversely, have an immune defect primarily affecting T-cells. To test whether the less compromised immune status would interfere with tumor targeting, striatal rU87 glioma xenografts were tested in NCr-Nude mice ($n = 6$ tumors).

Results

Tumor xenografts were infected and destroyed with similar efficiency and kinetics in the nude mouse as earlier in the SCID mouse (Figure 10). At 72 h after virus inoculation, there was no significant difference in dying cells revealed by activated caspase 3 immunostaining between rU87 tumors in SCID animals, rU118 tumors in SCID animals, and rU87 tumors in nude mice ($p = 0.085$, ANOVA test) (Figure 10). All brain tumors were similarly targeted by the virus.

After intravenous injection, selective viral infection was found in all tumors and tumor types, and in both SCID and nude mice on different genetic backgrounds, indicating a high efficiency of VSV-tumor targeting. A notable finding was the demonstration of simultaneous oncolytic infection in both subcutaneous flank and brain tumors in the same animal after a single systemic virus injection. In addition to demonstrating the efficiency of a systemic VSV-based therapy, this finding shows VSV infects widely metastatic cancers. Given the oncolytic activity of VSV against a range of cancer cells with diverse genetic defects (Stojdl et al., *Cancer Cell*, 4:263-275 (2003); Lichty et al., *Trends Mol Med*, 10:210-216 (2004); Barber,

Oncogene, 24:7710-7719 (2005)), an intravenous injection of VSV can be used to target simultaneously both brain and peripheral metastases of a systemic cancer.

Direct intratumoral injection may be useful for some tumors. To date, such intratumoral injections of viruses have resulted in a very limited viral spread around the injection site (Pulkkanen and Yla-Herttuala, *Mol Ther*, 12:585-598 (2005)). The ability of VSV to infect multiple independent central and peripheral sites and spread in them is substantive, making it possible to treat disseminated disease and even target minute tumor colonies that are otherwise difficult to detect. Xenograft models are limited in that human gliomas often grow expansively rather than infiltratively in mice. Nonetheless, infiltrating cells were observed within the host brain, and these were targeted by VSV.

Example 13: Intranasal VSV targets olfactory bulb tumors

15 Materials and Methods

After intranasal inoculation, VSV can enter the CNS. Nasal mucosal infection results in infection of olfactory neurons, and VSV can gain access to the CNS through the olfactory nerve, which projects to the glomeruli in the olfactory bulb (van den Pol et al., *J Virol*, 76:1309-1327 (2002)). The hypothesis that VSV could enter the brain along the olfactory nerve and target brain tumors in the olfactory bulb was tested. rU87 cells were stereotactically grafted into one of the two olfactory bulbs in SCID mice. Four days after tumor implantation, animals were inoculated in each nostril with 25 μ l containing 2.5×10^7 PFU of VSVrp30a.

25 Results

VSV was transported to the periphery of both olfactory bulbs after intranasal inoculation and infected the olfactory nerve and the tumor but did not show much infection in deeper parts of the control contralateral bulb lacking tumor. SCID mice with VSV in the olfactory bulb survived VSV infection for 2 weeks. A long survival in this tumor model demonstrated that few tumor cells could be found in the bulb after the viral challenge. In animals killed 3 DPI (four tumors) or 5 DPI (six tumors), VSV infection was located within the tumor but not in the surrounding parenchyma or in the

intact contralateral olfactory bulb. In nine additional mice killed 7, 10, 15, 16, or 17 d after virus inoculation, cellular debris indicative of a viral infection was found, but surviving tumor cells were not found, suggesting that the virus was successful in eliminating the tumor.

5 Although evidence was found of infected olfactory nerve fibers that could serve as entry to the CNS, there is still the possibility that VSV entered the blood circulation through intranasal application and might reach the olfactory bulb via the circulatory system. To address this question, peripheral sentinel tumors were placed into the flank of three animals simultaneously
10 with olfactory tumor grafting. Seven days later, mice received 2.5×10^7 PFU VSVrp30a into each nostril. At 3 d after inoculation, both olfactory bulb and peripheral tumors were analyzed. No viral infection was found at the remote sentinel tumor, whereas strong GFP expression was evident at the nasal mucosa, olfactory nerve and bulb, and at the olfactory tumor graft,
15 suggesting a direct path of VSVrp30a through the olfactory nerve route. This finding indicates that neural routes of VSV dissemination in brain can be exploited for targeting tumors in specific regions and facilitating of distant tumors or infiltrative tumor cells with minimal infection in normal brain parenchyma.

20 **Example 14: Real-time microscopy of VSVrp30a oncolysis in cortical glioma xenografts**

Materials and Methods

To study the kinetics of VSV oncolysis, a time-lapse *in situ* human brain tumor imaging model was used. rU87 cells were implanted subpially
25 into the SCID mouse cortex ($n = 3$) under a glass coverslip permanently mounted on a parasagittal craniectomy.

Results

By imaging tumor cells in the living animal brain using fluorescent and laser confocal microscopy, VSV infection as early as 16 HPI after tail
30 vein injection of 10^7 PFU of VSVrp30a could be detected (Figure 11) and followed through viral infection over several days in the live brain. Tumor growth and infection were observed every 4 – 8 h over a course of 4 d. VSV infection spread through the whole tumor bulk within 96 h (Figure 11);

although multiple points of infection were seen, the majority of tumor cells appeared to be infected by a locally spreading VSV infection. Laser confocal microscopy gave a cellular or even subcellular resolution, making visible not only single cells but also their processes. Using this technique, it was found
5 that VSV infected single infiltrating red tumor cells but not the surrounding normal brain tissue. Vascular patency and circulation appeared normal in tumor vessels within the infected area even at advanced stages of tumor cell lysis; in live real-time imaging, erythrocytes could be seen moving through the uninfected walls of the blood vessels within the tumor even when all
10 surrounding tumor cells were infected and dying.

Example 15: Mechanism of VSV tumor targeting

Materials and Methods

The blood-brain barrier may be leaky in some types of tumors. In normal circumstances, VSV does not enter the CNS through the
15 hematogenous route. Therefore, to explore what makes tumor xenografts permeable to VSV, blood-brain barrier integrity was tested in the xenograft neovasculature.

Results

Strong Evans Blue staining was detected within bilateral striatal
20 tumors in SCID ($n = 4$ tumors) and nude mice ($n = 2$ tumors) 1 h after intravenous injection of the dye. On all sections, the Evans Blue stained area completely overlapped with the red tumor mass, indicating a uniform permeability of the tumor to dye. Control experiments were performed to address the effect of needle injury alone on Evans Blue leakage. Evans Blue
25 leakage was observed only immediately after the injury. Ten days after injury, the same time given for tumor formation, no dye leakage could be observed. All brains showed dye leakage in circumventricular areas in which the blood– brain barrier is normally permissive for dye infiltration.

Sterile needle injury or human astrocyte transplants do not get infected

Materials and Methods

To test the hypothesis that tumor targeting of VSV was not a consequence of nonspecific parenchymal brain damage at the injection site,

bilateral sterile stab wounds were done using the same (Hamilton point style 2) needle at the same striatal coordinates ($n = 4$ wounds).

Results

When the same amount of intravenous virus was injected 10 d after this needle injury, no viral GFP was detected within the brain. In parallel, the question of whether the virus targets human cells, or transplanted cells in general, rather than tumor cells specifically, was addressed. When human ($n = 4$ injections) or mouse ($n = 4$ injections) normal astrocytes were transplanted into the same coordinates used for tumor cells, no viral GFP expression was detected in the brain 72 h after intravenous virus injection.

Is replication essential for infection

Materials and Methods

These data demonstrate that VSVrp30a does not enter the brain because of the injury of cell transplantation, nor does it target normal human or mouse cells transplanted into the brain. Infection of glioma xenografts appears specific for replication-competent VSV. To test whether replication was essential for effective tumor targeting, a recombinant replication deficient VSV (VSV- Δ G-GFP) was tested for its capacity to infect intracranial xenografts. This virus can infect cells but, because of the deletion of the VSV-G gene, cannot produce infectious progeny, resulting in only a single cycle of infection.

Results

Intravenous injection of 10^7 PFUs of VSV- Δ G-GFP to animals with bilateral striatal tumors ($n = 2$) did not result in tumor infection. As a positive control, GFP-expressing scattered cells were detected in the liver after intravenous injection of VSV- Δ G-GFP. To exclude the possibility that targeting of intracranial tumor xenografts by VSV was not the result of nonspecific viral entry, two other viruses that were previously shown to infect or lyse glioma cells *in vitro* was used. Intravenous injection of a replication-incompetent adenoassociated virus type 2 (AAV-GFP; $n = 2$; 3 DPI) or a replication-competent pseudorabies virus (PRV-GFP; $n = 2$; 2 DPI) did not result in infection of intracranial rU87 xenografts. All three of

these viruses were shown previously to infect tumor cells *in vitro*, and this was reconfirmed *in vitro* for the stocks used in this study.

Example 16: VSV binding to the plasma membrane and virus internalization is greater in glioma than in normal astrocytes

5 Materials and Methods

Virus binding and entry experiments.

Binding, entry, and uncoating of VSVrp30a were compared in rU87 glioma cells and normal human astrocytes using quantitative RT-PCR. To assess membrane-bound fraction, cells were incubated at 4°C with
10 VSVrp30a for 20 min and washed five times before RNA extraction. To quantify intracellular virus, cells were trypsinized for 10 min and washed five times in PBS. VSV was pooled in the endosomal compartment by incubating for 90 min in the presence of 5 mM ammonium chloride (Sigma). Ammonium chloride blocks acidification of the endosome and therefore
15 blocks viral uncoating into the cytoplasm. These experiments were done in triplicate using an MOI of 10.

Real-Time PCR for viral GFP

RNA was extracted from cell lysates using RNeasy kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA), and 1 µg of total RNA was reverse transcribed by random
20 hexamer priming using the Super Script III reverse transcriptase kit (Invitrogen). This was followed by quantitative PCR using TaqMan gene expression assays (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) for GFP and human glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH). Primer sequences for GFP were as follows: sense, 5' - GAG CGC ACC ATC TTC
25 TTC AAG - 3' (SEQ ID NO: 40); antisense, 5' - TGT CGC CCT CGA ACT TCA G - 3' (SEQ ID NO: 41).

Results

These data show that VSV selectively targets glioma in the brain, suggesting that some mechanism underlies the relative selectivity of the virus
30 to the tumor. A correlation exists between VSV infection and various defects in the interferon system in tumor cells (Stojdl et al., *Nat Med*, 6:821-825 (2000); Balachandran et al., *J Virol*, 75:3474-3479 (2001)). A series of five different brain tumor cell lines and normal human control astrocytes was

compared previously, and demonstrated an interferon-dependent selectivity of VSV for glial tumor cells over their nontumor counterpart (Wollmann et al., *J Virol*, 81:1479-1491 (2007)). However, antiviral defense may not exclusively account for the selectivity, and several additional mechanisms have been proposed (Wagner and Rose, Philadelphia *Raven Press*, (1996); Balachandran and Barber, *Cancer Cell*, 5:51-65 (2004); Barber, *Oncogene*, 24:7710-7719 (2005); Lyles and Rupprecht, *Lippincott Williams and Wilkins*, 1363-1408 (2007). No specific receptor has been identified for VSV; after binding, the virion undergoes clathrin-mediated endocytosis, and, after acidification in the endosome, the uncoated virus enters the cytoplasm.

To test the hypothesis that VSVrp30a binds and enters tumor cells with a higher efficiency, viral binding and entry in rU87 glioma cells was compared to primary normal adult human astrocytes *in vitro* using quantitative PCR (Figure 12). Viral quantity was normalized against cellular GAPDH. In separate quantitative PCR experiments, it was confirmed that GAPDH was expressed at comparable quantities in normal astrocytes and glioma cells. To test for the quantity of VSV that binds to cell surface, cells were incubated with virus at 4°C. After 20 min of incubation, the cells were washed five times with buffered medium before RNA extraction. Compared with human astrocytes, the quantity of cell-bound VSVrp30a at 20 min after infection appeared to be slightly (1.8 times) greater for rU87 glioma cells (statistically significant; $p = 0.005$, $n = 6$, Student's *t* test) (Figure 12 A). A somewhat greater viral quantity in rU87 cells was again found when surface-bound plus intracellular VSVrp30a was quantified after a 30 min incubation at an MOI of 10 ($p = 0.05$, $n = 6$, Student's *t* test) (Figure 12 B). It was next determined how efficiently the cells internalized VSV. For this purpose, cells were incubated with VSVrp30a at an MOI of 10 for 30 min and next incubated for another 1 h after changing the medium three times to eliminate unbound virus. At 90 min after infection, cells were washed five times with PBS and trypsinized, and intracellular VSV was quantified. Finally, to measure only the endosomal fraction, the same experiment was duplicated in the presence of ammonium chloride, which inhibits viral uncoating from the endosomes. At 90 min after infection, 2.6 times more

virus in the endosomes and 3.6 times more virus intracellularly in rU87 cells compared with normal astrocytes (both statistically significant; $p = 0.001$, $n = 6$, and $p = 0.003$, $n = 6$, respectively, Student's t test) (Figure 12 C, D).

These data suggest that VSV binding to the plasma membrane and virus internalization appear to be greater in glioma than in normal astrocytes. These factors may contribute to the greater level of VSV infection found in glioma.

Example 17: VSV-rp30 targets colon cancer in mouse

Materials and Methods

10 *Mouse procedures*

Animal experiments were performed in accordance with institutional guidelines of the Yale University Animal Care and Use Committee.

Immunodeficient NCr-Nude mice (NCr-Foxnl^{nu}) were obtained from Taconic Farms (Germantown, NY). Six to eight-week-old mice were briefly anesthetized by i.p. injection using a combination of ketamine and xylazine (100 and 10 mg/kg, respectively) and injected in both flanks with 500,000 HCT116 cells suspended in 0.1 ml sterile saline. Sizeable subcutaneous tumors formed within 3 weeks. Tumor bearing mice received a single tail vein injection of 0.1 ml of virus solution containing 5×10^6 pfu VSV-rp30.

20 Body weight and mouse health were monitored daily. Three days post VSV inoculation mice were sacrificed by an overdose of pentobarbital and perfused transcardially with physiological saline for 1 minute followed by freshly prepared 4% paraformaldehyde solution. Subcutaneous tumor masses and control tissues (liver, spleen, and lung) were excised, stored in 4%

25 paraformaldehyde solution, and cut in 20- μ m sections using a microtome. Cryosections were mounted using 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI (Invitrogen) and analyzed on a fluorescence microscope (Olympus Optical IXTI; Tokyo, Japan) coupled to a SPOT color camera (Diagnostic Instruments, Sterling Heights, MI).

30 Results

It has been shown that VSV-rp30 is oncolytic *in vivo* using U-87 brain tumor xenograft mouse models employing two different virus application strategies, direct intratumoral injection (34) as well as systemic

injection (20). To test the ability of VSV-rp30 to infect non-brain tumor cells *in vivo*, a HCT116 human colon carcinoma xenograft model was used. Four immunocompromised NCr nude mice bearing bilateral subcutaneous human HCT116 tumors received a single bolus of 100 μ l of saline containing 5x10⁶ pfu VSV-rp30 via tail vein injection. Mouse body weight showed a transient decrease after VSV injection, but recovered to pre-application values at 2 dpi. Tumors were harvested 3 days post inoculation and microscopic analysis revealed wide spread virus dissemination throughout the tumor masses. Importantly, viral GFP expression was restricted to the tumor mass and did not extend into the surrounding subcutaneous tissue. High magnification revealed the characteristic plasma membrane fluorescence of the GFP signal based on the unique viral G-GFP-fusion protein. During the viral replication cycle, viral G-protein incorporates into the cellular membrane. In contrast, analysis of control tissue from liver, spleen, and lung showed no GFP signal, thus indicating a lack of infection by VSV-rp30. In addition, no GFP signal was detected in tumors from mice (n = 2) that did not receive virus injection. Together, these data indicate that VSV-rp30 can be applied systemically and target and infect tumor xenografts remote from the injection site with a striking preference for tumor tissue over normal control tissue.

As a proof of principle test that the *in vitro* data suggesting VSV-rp30 is oncolytic to many types of cancer may generalize to the whole animal, human colon cancer tumor cells were transplanted into mice. Intravenous injections of VSV-rp30 resulted in selective infection and cell death of the tumor, with relatively little detectable infection of normal cells. The *in vivo* experiment suggests that the tissue culture experiments may generalize to *in vivo* situations.

Unless defined otherwise, all technical and scientific terms used herein have the same meanings as commonly understood by one of skill in the art to which the disclosed invention belongs.

We claim:

1. An isolated oncolytic VSV virus comprising one or more changes in nucleic acid sequence resulting in substitution of the serine at codon 126 SEQ ID NO. 3, with an amino acid selected from the group consisting of alanine (A), arginine (R), asparagine (N), aspartic acid (D), cysteine (C), glutamine (Q), glutamic acid (E), glycine (G), histidine (H), isoleucine (I), leucine (L), lysine (K), methionine (M), phenylalanine (F), proline (P), tryptophan (W), or valine (V) and substitution of aspartic acid (D) at codon 223 of SEQ ID NO. 5 with an amino acid selected from the group consisting of serine (S), threonine (T), or tyrosine (Y).
2. The isolated oncolytic VSV virus of claim 1, wherein the serine (S) at codon 126 SEQ ID NO. 3, is substituted with leucine (L) and the aspartic acid (D) at codon 223 of SEQ ID NO. 5 is substituted with a tyrosine (Y).
3. An isolated oncolytic VSV virus with SEQ ID NO: 6.
4. An isolated oncolytic vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) virus, comprising one or more mutations in the nucleic acid sequence encoding SEQ ID NO: 2 or SEQ ID NO: 4 that alter the post translational phosphorylation of the protein encoded by SEQ ID NO: 3 or SEQ ID: 5, or a combination thereof, in the presence of a kinase capable of phosphorylating amino acids in SEQ ID NO: 3 or SEQ ID: 5.
5. The isolated oncolytic VSV virus of claim 4, wherein the one or more changes in nucleic acid sequence increase the post translational phosphorylation of the protein encoded by SEQ ID NO: 3 or SEQ ID: 5, or a combination thereof.
6. The isolated oncolytic VSV virus of claim 4, wherein the one or more changes in nucleic acid sequence decrease the post translational phosphorylation of the protein encoded by SEQ ID NO: 3 or SEQ ID: 5, or a combination thereof.
7. The isolated oncolytic VSV virus of claim 4, wherein the one or more changes in nucleic acid sequence increase the post translational phosphorylation of the protein encoded by SEQ ID NO: 3 and decrease the post translational phosphorylation of the protein encoded by SEQ ID: 5.

8. The isolated oncolytic VSV virus of claim 4, wherein the one or more changes in nucleic acid sequence decrease the post translational phosphorylation of the protein encoded by SEQ ID NO: 3 and increase the post translational phosphorylation of the protein encoded by SEQ ID: 5.
9. An isolated oncolytic VSV virus, wherein the virus is engineered to express one or more additional genes encoding proteins selected from the group consisting of targeting proteins and therapeutic proteins.
10. An isolated oncolytic VSV virus, wherein one or more viral genes are rearranged, deleted, or inserted to alter the oncolytic potential of the virus.
11. The isolated oncolytic VSV virus of claim 10, wherein a gene not encoded by SEQ ID NO. 2 or SEQ ID NO. 4, is substituted for a variant gene that alters the oncolytic potential of the virus.
12. A sterile pharmaceutical dosage unit composition comprising an effective amount of an oncolytic virus to reduce tumor burden.
13. The dosage unit of claim 12, in an amount of virus effective to systemically treat an individual having metastatic cancer.
14. The dosage unit of claim 12, comprising an amount of virus effective to locally or regionally treat a tumor.
15. A method for treating cancer comprising administering to a subject in need thereof an effective amount of the viral dosage unit of any of claims 12-14.
16. The method of claim 15, wherein the cancer is selected from the group consisting of bone, bladder, brain, breast, cervical, colo-rectal, esophageal, kidney, liver, lung, nasopharyngeal, pancreatic, prostate, skin, stomach, and uterine.
17. The method of claim 15, wherein the cancer is a vascular cancer such as multiple myeloma, an adenocarcinomas or a sarcoma.
18. The method of claim 16, comprising administering a viral dosage unit effective to treat a glioma.
19. The method of any of claims 15-18, wherein the viral dosage unit is administered intratumorally or parenterally.
20. The method of claims 15-19, wherein the viral dosage unit is administered in combination with a second therapeutic agent selected from

the group consisting of immunosuppressants, anticancer agents, and therapeutic proteins.

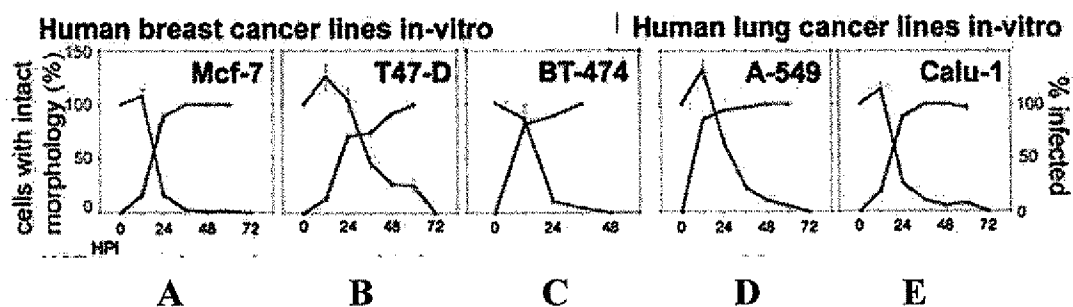


Figure 1

VSV



G/GFP



RP30



M51/CT9



1'GFP



Figure 2

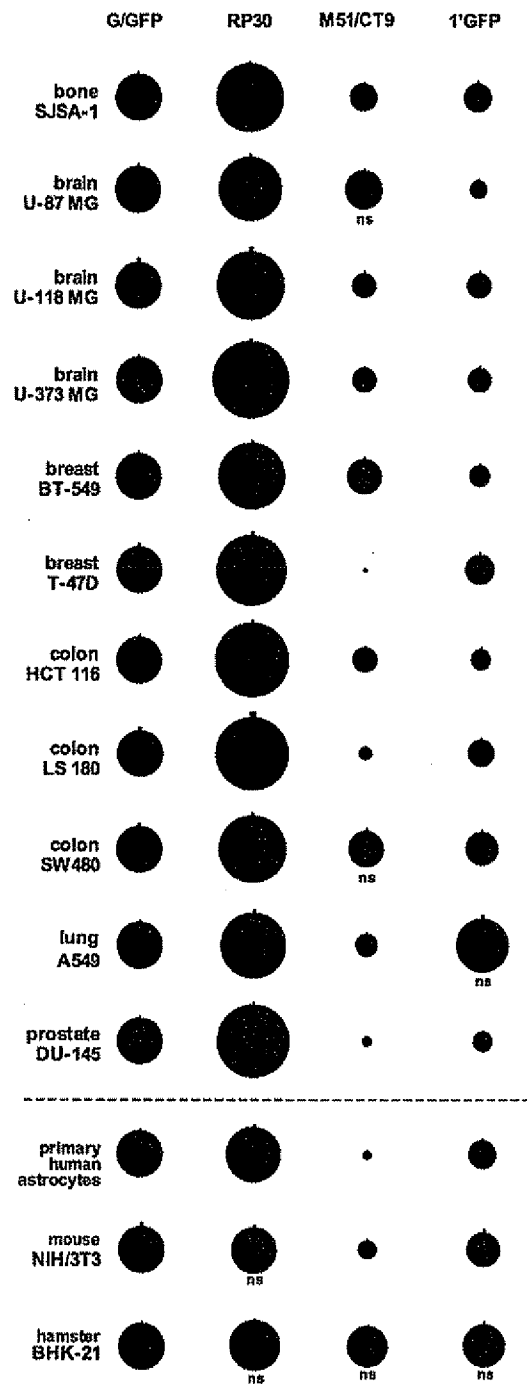


Figure 3

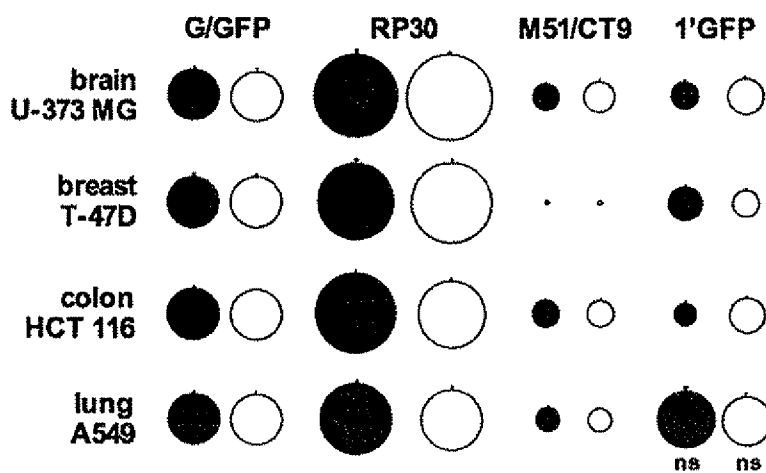
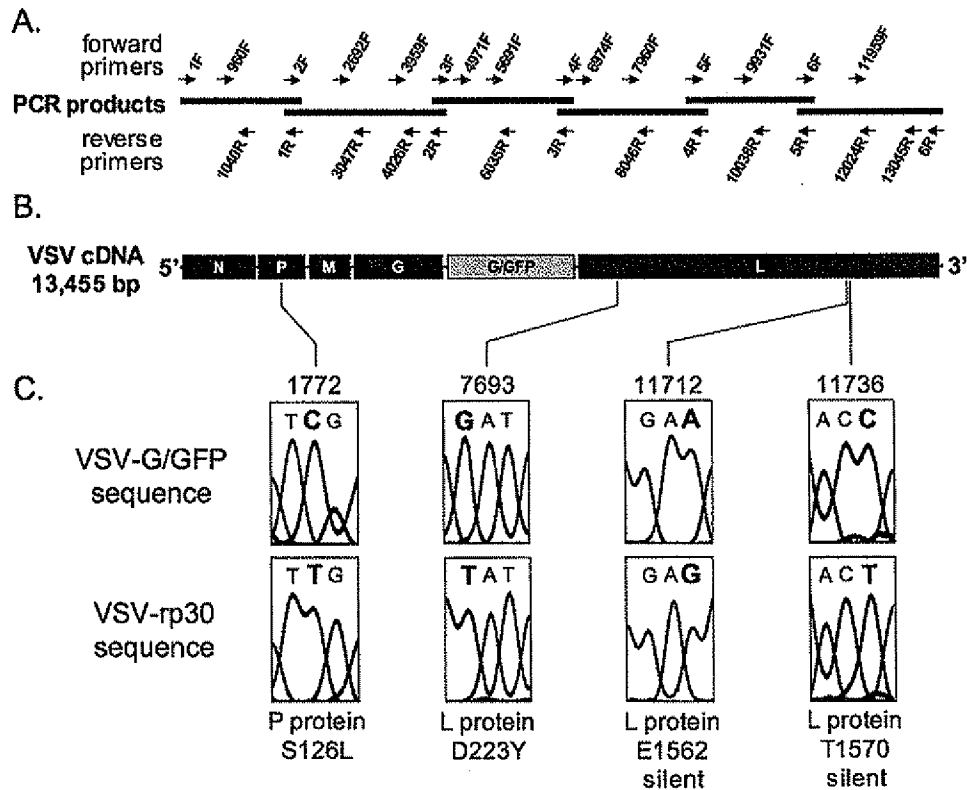
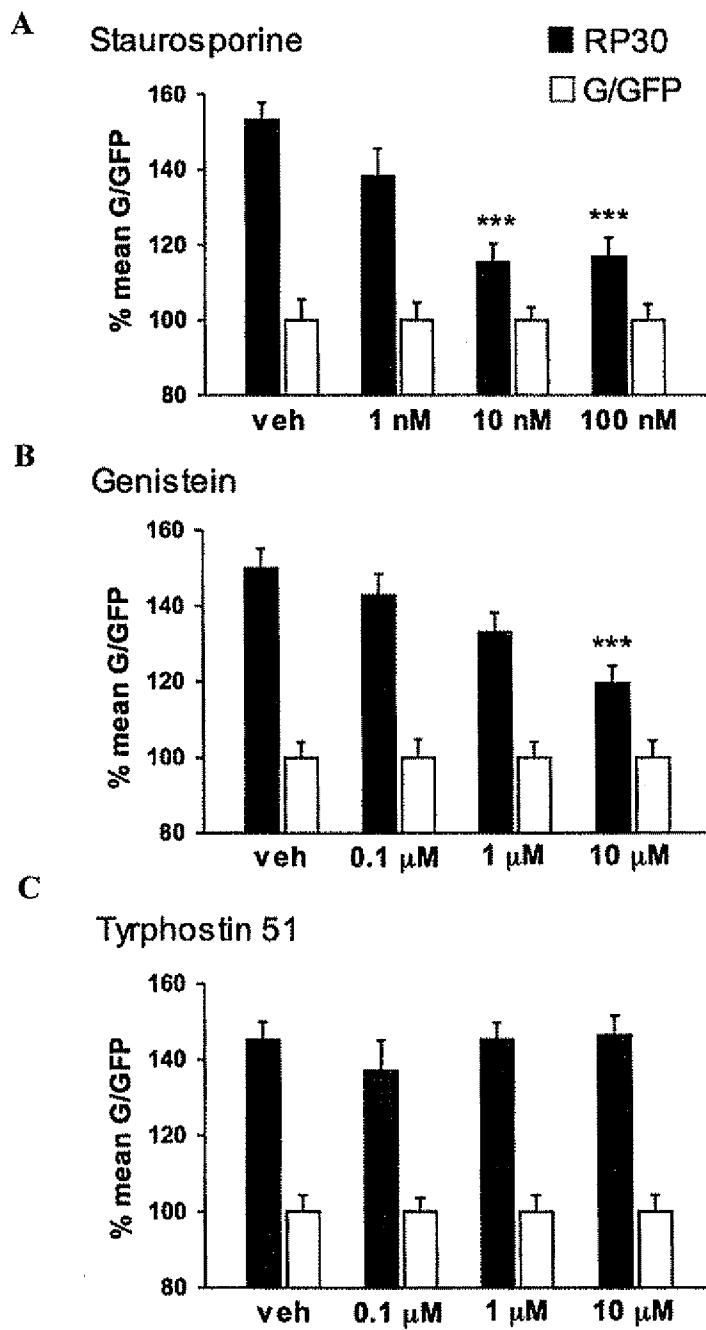


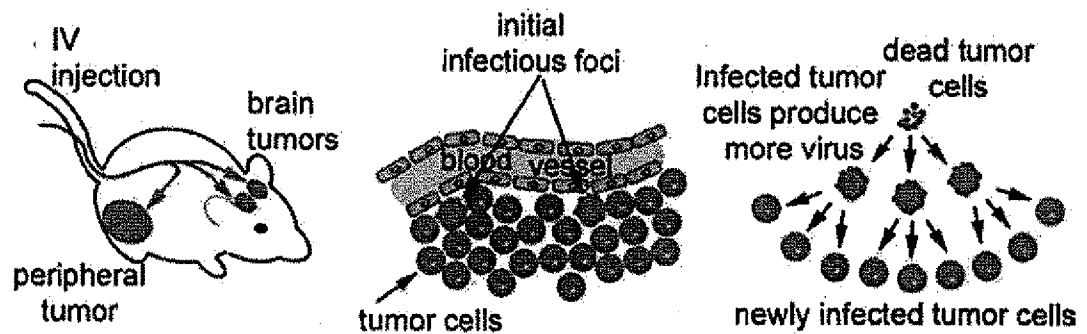
Figure 4



Figures 5 A, 5B, and 5C



Figures 6A, 6B, and 6C



Figures 7A, 7B and 7C

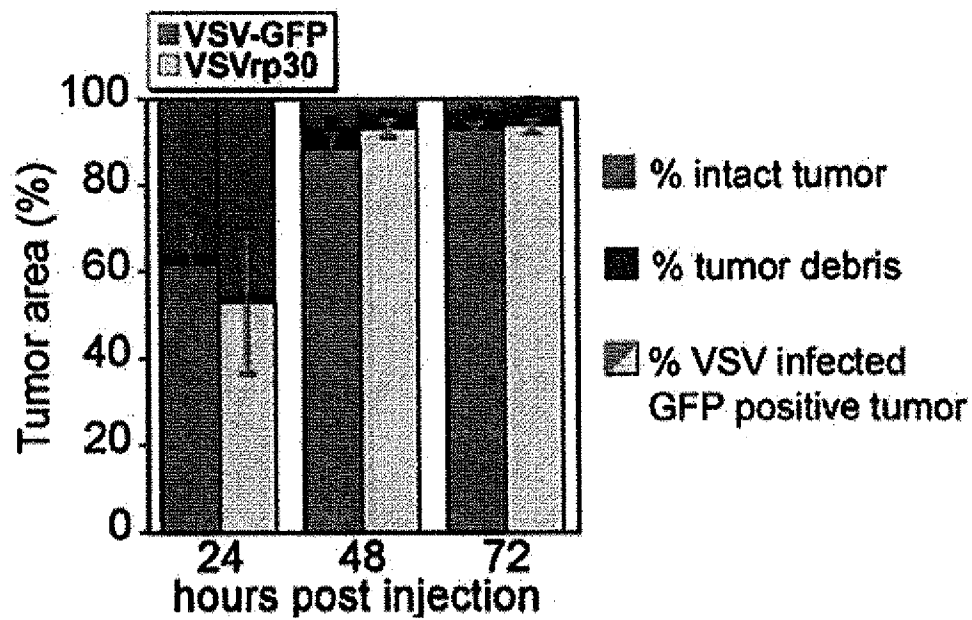
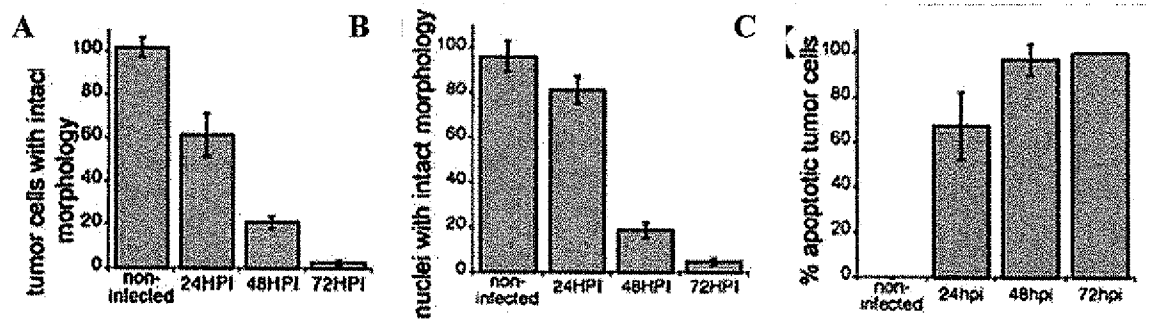


Figure 8



Figures 9A, 9B, and 9C

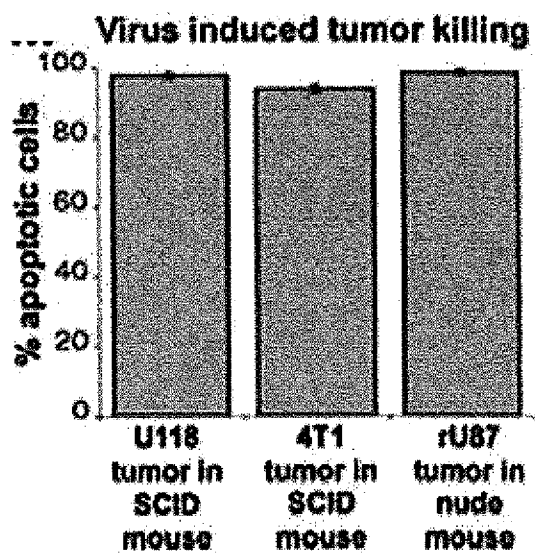


Figure 10

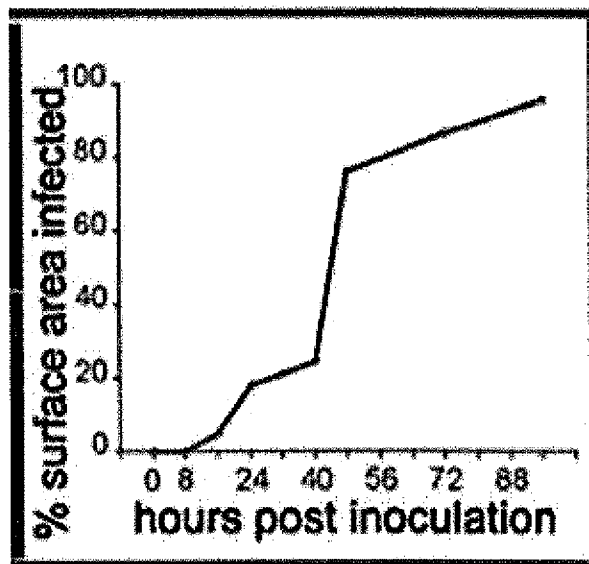
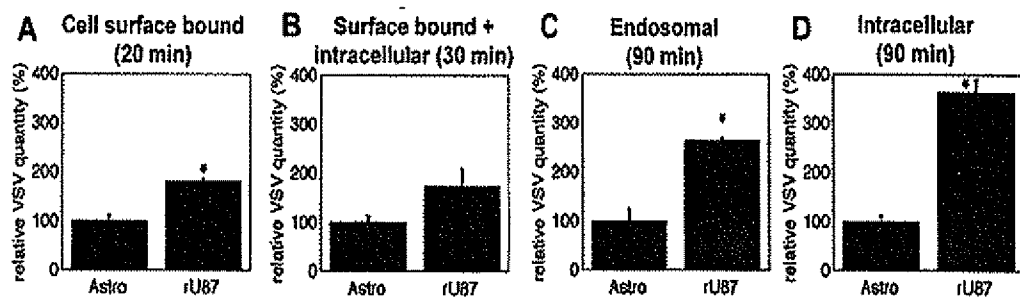


Figure 11



Figures 12A, 12B, 12C, and 12D

INTERNATIONAL SEARCH REPORT

International application No

PCT/US2010/020370

A. CLASSIFICATION OF SUBJECT MATTER

INV. C07K14/145 A61K35/76

ADD.

According to International Patent Classification (IPC) or to both national classification and IPC

B. FIELDS SEARCHED

Minimum documentation searched (classification system followed by classification symbols)

C07K A61K

Documentation searched other than minimum documentation to the extent that such documents are included in the fields searched

Electronic data base consulted during the international search (name of data base and, where practical, search terms used)

EPO-Internal, BIOSIS, CHEM ABS Data, WPI Data, EMBL

C. DOCUMENTS CONSIDERED TO BE RELEVANT

Category*	Citation of document, with indication, where appropriate, of the relevant passages	Relevant to claim No.
X	US 2004/170607 A1 (BELL JOHN C [CA] ET AL) 2 September 2004 (2004-09-02) paragraph [0096] - paragraph [0098] paragraph [0112] - paragraph [0114] example 4 figures 17,23; table 11 -----	1,4,6,8, 9,12-17, 19
X	DATABASE EMBL [Online] 24 December 2008 (2008-12-24), Davis J. N.: "Recombinant vesicular stomatitis Indiana virus rVSV-G/GFP, complete genome." XP002579704 Database accession no. FJ478454 abstract ----- -/--	3



Further documents are listed in the continuation of Box C.



See patent family annex.

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"&" document member of the same patent family

Date of the actual completion of the international search

27 April 2010

Date of mailing of the international search report

12/05/2010

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Mandl, Birgit

INTERNATIONAL SEARCH REPORT

International application No

PCT/US2010/020370

C(Continuation). DOCUMENTS CONSIDERED TO BE RELEVANT

Category*	Citation of document, with indication, where appropriate, of the relevant passages	Relevant to claim No.
X	WOLLMANN GUIDO ET AL: "Variable deficiencies in the interferon response enhance susceptibility to vesicular stomatitis virus oncolytic actions in glioblastoma cells but not in normal human glial cells." JOURNAL OF VIROLOGY, vol. 81, no. 3, February 2007 (2007-02), pages 1479-1491, XP002579705 ISSN: 0022-538X the whole document	1,2,4-8
X	BARBER GLEN N: "Vesicular stomatitis virus as an oncolytic vector." VIRAL IMMUNOLOGY, vol. 17, no. 4, 2004, pages 516-527, XP002579706 ISSN: 0882-8245 page 520, left-hand column, last paragraph. - page 523, right-hand column, last paragraph; table 1	9-19
X	SUNG CHIH-KWANG ET AL: "Combined VSV oncolytic virus and chemotherapy for squamous cell carcinoma." THE LARYNGOSCOPE, vol. 118, no. 2, February 2008 (2008-02), pages 237-242, XP002579707 ISSN: 0023-852X the whole document	12, 14-16, 19,20

INTERNATIONAL SEARCH REPORT

Information on patent family members

International application No

PCT/US2010/020370

Patent document cited in search report	Publication date	Patent family member(s)	Publication date
US 2004170607 A1	02-09-2004	US 2004208849 A1	21-10-2004