: Research Paper

# VeloceGenomics: An Accelerated in Vivo Drug Discovery Approach to Rapidly Predict the Biologic, Drug-Like Activity of Compounds, Proteins, or Genes

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**Purpose.** The aim of this study is to test the predictive power of in vivo multiorgan RNA expression profiling in identifying the biologic activity of molecules.

Methods. Animals were treated with compound A or B. At the end of the treatment period, in vivo multiorgan microarray-based gene expression data were collected. Investigators masked to the identity of the compounds analyzed the transcriptome signatures to define the molecular pathways affected by treatment and to hypothesize the biologic activity and potential therapeutic indications of the blinded compounds.

Results. For compound A, G-protein-coupled receptors and factors associated with cell growth were affected—growth hormone/insulin-like growth factor-1, glucagon/insulin axes, and general somatomedin-like activity. Deblinding showed the compound to be a somatostatin analog, SOM230, confirming the accuracy of the predicted biologic activity. For compound B, components of the inflammatory cascade potentially mediated by lipopolysaccharide, tumor necrosis factor, or proinflammatory cytokines were affected. The gene expression signatures were most consistent with an interleukin-6 family activity. Deblinding revealed that compound B was leukemia inhibitory factor.

Conclusions. VeloceGenomics is a strategy of coupling in vivo compound testing with genomic technologies. The process enables prediction of the mechanism of action and, coupled with other relevant data, prediction of the suitability of compounds for advancement in the drug development process.

KEY WORDS: in vivo compound profiling; in vivo RNA expression profiling; mechanism of action; microarray; pharmacogenomics.

# INTRODUCTION

Because of the analytic power of gene expression studies, microarray technology has become an integral part of the drug discovery and drug development processes (1). This has been possible to a great extent because microarray experiments can measure simultaneously the expression of thousands of genes. Gene expression profiling in the pharmaceutical industry is applied in studies of toxicology, target identification, and validation and has become an integral component of drug discovery and the preclinical phase of drug development  $(2-4)$ .

The traditional drug discovery process is based on screening chemicals or biologic products, in an in vitro, highthroughput mode, against a battery of defined, preselected drug targets (e.g., enzymatic reactions, ligand-receptor interactions) (5). The use of in vitro models for screening compound activity has proven to be successful because the complexity of the biologic response is reduced and focused onto specific cell types and molecular targets. However, the weakness of this approach is the "artificially disconnected" use of in vitro target models that do not reflect the tightly interconnected and interdependent relationships of the different targets that exist in a whole organism  $(5-7)$ . Another drawback is that the biologic activity against all nonselected targets is missed. Therefore, the full biologic consequences—beneficial or detrimental—are not fully revealed. Drug discovery research strategies that introduce in vivo studies early in the process and truly validate the full pharmacologic activity of potentially interesting compounds can circumvent many of the pitfalls of early-stage research  $(4,8-11)$ . An investigative approach that integrates molecular information

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ABBREVIATIONS: AMPA, a-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4 isoxazolepropionic acid; ERK, extracellular signal-related kinase; GH, growth hormone; GPCR, G-protein-coupled receptor; IGF, insulin-like growth factor; IL, interleukin; JAK, Janus kinase; LIF, leukemia inhibitory factor; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; LRR, leucinerich repeats; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; NF- $\kappa$  $\beta$ , nuclear factor kappa beta; OSM, oncostatin M; PI3K, phosphatidylinositol 3 kinase; SOCS, suppressor of cytokine signaling; SSTR, somatostatin receptors; STAT, signal transducer and activator of transcription; TIMP, tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase; TLR, Toll-like receptor; TRAF, tumor necrosis factor receptor-associated factor.

(e.g., gene expression profiling) on the actions of a compound throughout an organism may provide a more efficient and effective solution to the challenges of pharmacologic efficacy and safety evaluation in complex biologic systems.

We describe an approach to the drug discovery process that we have termed VeloceGenomics, an accelerated drug discovery strategy for predicting the biologic, drug-like function of a molecule using *in vivo* multiorgan whole transcriptome analyses (organism-wide gene expression profiling). This strategy may be used irrespective of the molecular target or the therapeutic indication. In vivo testing is the only accepted approach that can bring understanding of the full pharmacologic, toxicologic, and therapeutic potential of a compound under evaluation (10,11).

We tested the capability of this strategy to produce a compound-specific, multiorgan molecular signature through a series of blinded evaluations of two well-characterized proteins. The results demonstrated that through careful analysis of the gene expression profile, data miners working on the coded samples were able to predict the pharmacologic activities, most of the potential therapeutic indications, potential adverse effects, and protein family of the blinded compounds. This comprehensive approach, used early in the drug discovery process, should allow more accurate risk assessment of a compound's potential for drug development success.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Outline of the VeloceGenomics Process

The VeloceGenomics process is outlined in Fig. 1. A gene (cDNA), protein, small molecule, or other type of compound is selected for analysis. The animals may be otherwise healthy, naive animals, or they may be specifically bred or engineered as disease models. Appropriate route of administration, dose, treatment schedule, and treatment duration are established. At the end of treatment, RNA is extracted from multiple organs, glands, and tissues. The primary data captured after treatment are the multiorgan RNA expression profiles. However, this information can be supplemented with a vast array of additional assays during and at the end of treatment (e.g., hematology or clinical biochemistry). Data mining and analysis are performed to enable prediction of the most plausible mode(s) of action, therapeutic indications, safety concerns, and issues that would affect the decision to promote a compound for further testing or commercial development.

#### Origin of Tissue, Treatments, and Tissue Processing

In this study, purpose-bred male and female cynomolgus monkeys (Macaca fascicularis), each approximately 24 months of age and weighing approximately 3 kg, were used. The monkeys were bred at the Centre de Recherches Primatologiques, Port Louis, Mauritius. At the breeder's facilities, the monkeys were treated against parasitic arthropods and helminths and subjected to a program of tuberculin testing.

The in vivo phase of this study was conducted at CIT (Evreux, France). On arrival at CIT, each animal was given a complete clinical examination under the supervision of a



Fig. 1. Outline of the VeloceGenomics process.

veterinarian. Anthelmintic treatment was administered. Coprologic examination and tuberculin testing were performed. The animals were held in quarantine for at least 3 weeks.

### *In Vivo* Whole Transcriptome Compound Profiling 1599 **1599** 1599

After quarantine, they were acclimated to the study conditions for at least 5 days before treatment began. The animals were individually identified by chest or thigh tattoo from the breeder's facility and by a unique CIT identity number given at the beginning of the study.

From their arrival at CIT, the animals were housed in a dedicated primate unit. The animal room conditions were set as follows: temperature,  $24 \pm 3$ °C; relative humidity, 50  $\pm$  $20\%$ ; light/dark cycle, 12 h each  $(0700-1900)$  h); ventilation, approximately 12 cycles/h of filtered, nonrecycled air. The corresponding instrumentation and equipment were checked and calibrated at regular intervals. Temperature and relative humidity were recorded continuously, and records were checked daily and filed.

All animals had free access to tap water (filtered with a 0.22- $\mu$ m filter). Approximately 200 g of UAR 107 C pelleted diet (UAR; Villemoisson, Epinay-sur-Orge, France) was distributed daily to each animal. The food was given at least 1 h after dosing on the days of treatment. In addition, two fruits or vegetables were given daily to each animal.

The study was conducted in compliance with the following French Animal Health regulation: Council Directive No. 86/609/EEC of 24th November 1986 on the harmonization of laws, regulations, or administrative provisions relating to the protection of animals used for experimental or other scientific purposes.

For each treatment, two male and two female cynomolgus monkeys received compound A or B  $(100 \mu g / \text{animal per})$ day) or the vehicle (autologous serum) administered subcutaneously for 14 days. On day 15, all animals were humanely killed, and tissues for RNA extraction were immediately snap frozen and kept at  $-80^{\circ}$ C until processing. Investigators were masked to treatment type.

## RNA Expression Profiling

Total RNA was obtained from liver, kidney, spleen, thyroid gland, and pituitary by acid guanidinium isothiocyanate-phenol-chloroform extraction (12) using Trizol (Invitrogen Life Technologies, San Diego, CA, USA) and was purified on an affinity resin column (RNeasy; Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA microarray experiments were conducted as recommended by the manufacturer of the GeneChip system (Affymetrix Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA) and as previously described (13). The human gene expression probe array used was HG-U95Av2 (Affymetrix), containing 12,627 probe sets interrogating approximately 10,000 full-length, annotated human genes. One GeneChip was used per tissue, per animal. The resultant image files (.dat files) were processed using the Microarray Analysis Suite 5 (MAS5) software (Affymetrix). Tab-delimited files containing data regarding signal intensity (Signal) and categorical expression level measurement (Absolute Call) were obtained. The data were quality checked and were transferred to GeneSpring software version 7.0 (Silicon Genetics, Redwood City, CA, USA) for analysis.

## Data Analysis

Data were normalized by array to the 50th percentile of all measurements on that array, and each measurement for each gene in those arrays was normalized to the mean of that gene's signal intensity measurements in the corresponding control arrays. To determine which genes were differentially expressed between the treatment groups (i.e., treated vs. nontreated), averages of gene expression levels in the groups were calculated; low values were cut off using a lower threshold of 20 [based on  $PM - MM$  calculation where the mismatch (MM) value is deducted from the perfect match (PM) value], and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied to genes that had been marked present by Absolute Call (see above) in at least one of the samples of a given tissue. No multiple testing correction was applied. Genes with  $p < 0.05$  were considered statistically significant. Group fold changes were calculated by using the mean of the signal intensities of the treatment group compared with the control group. Data were combined for the treated male and female animals and for the control groups.

To rank genes based on their ability to differentiate among multiple groups of conditions (e.g., tissues), the hypergeometric Fisher exact test (from K-nearest neighbors' class prediction tool) was applied. Specificity ranks were calculated by taking the inverse of the sum of the  $p$  value from ANOVA (nonspecific) and the inverse value of the class predictor Fisher exact test prediction strength (1/ prediction strength). The final number was the rank of the gene's specificity to multiple groups [specificity rank = 1/ (ANOVA  $p$  value + 1/prediction strength)]. These filters can be applied to a dataset for individual tissues or can be used to identify genes with differential expression across tissues. The decision to keep or to reject a specific gene was based on the conjunction of numerical changes identified by comparative and statistical algorithms and on the relationship to other modulated genes that point to a common biologic theme. Data analysts assessed the weight of this relationship after a review of the relevant scientific literature. The annotation of the genes was determined by using NetAffx (http://www.affymetrix.com/analysis/netaffix/index.affix) (14). Information on probe sets was found in the literature or in the KEGG database (http://www.genome.ad.jp/kegg/kegg2.html).

## **RESULTS**

At the end of the treatment period, more than 100 tissue samples per animal were dissected and snap frozen for storage. Total RNA was extracted from liver, kidney, spleen, thyroid gland, and pituitary and processed for gene expression profiling. Affymetrix microarray data were generated for each of the five tissue samples. The other stored tissues and organs may be evaluated if there was an indication from the analysis of the first five tissues that pointed to pathways better represented in specific tissues. The task of the investigators, who were masked to the treatment conditions, was to predict the identity or class of the peptide compounds with which the animals had been treated based solely on the gene expression signature from each compound.

To evaluate the effect of each compound on the transcriptome, genes were selected based on their expression level and on the statistical significance of the change in expression in all or a subset of the five tissues: kidney, liver, pituitary gland, spleen, and thyroid gland. This yielded a total of 974 probe sets for compound A (ANOVA  $p < 0.05$ ) and 1,074 probe sets for compound B (ANOVA  $p < 0.01$ ).

# Evaluation of Compound A

The bulk of changes in gene expression for compound A was related to signal transduction pathways through Gprotein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) and glutamate receptors (Tables I and II). Downstream of these receptors, several pathways were affected, including the phosphatidylinositol 3'kinase (PI3K), protein kinase C, phospholipase, calciumcalmodulin, Ras/mitogen-activated protein kinase/extracellular regulated kinase (Ras/MAPK/ERK), Janus kinase/signal transducer and activator of transcription (JAK/STAT), and adenylate/guanylate cyclase pathways (Tables I and II). A large number of gene expression changes with compound A also involved factors governing cell growth and apoptosis (Table II). In particular, the growth hormone/insulin-like growth factor-1 (GH/IGF-1) and the glucagon/insulin axes were altered in several organs (Tables I and II). Growth factors such as growth hormone (GH) and IGF-1, or an upstream regulator of their secretion such as somatomedin, can elicit this type of response. However, the change in expression level of receptors suggested that compound A was most likely a ligand rather than a downstream effector.

The primary molecular evidence of an endocrine hormonal effect was derived from the pituitary findings, including the alteration of the glucagon/insulin axes (Table II). For example, the involvement of a GH-like effect in the pituitary was clearly suggested by the compound's impact on IGFBPs, the leptin receptor, and the prostaglandins  $(15-17)$ . Therefore, the alteration of the subsequent following pathways, adenylate cyclase, and phosphatidylinositol pointed to the transmission of the hormonal message through G-protein-coupled cell surface receptors (18-20). Other evidence, such as the effects on calcium, potassium channels, protein tyrosine phosphatases, and MAPKs, substantiated the hypothesis of the binding of a somatostatin receptor (SSTR)  $(21-25)$ .

Based on these findings (i.e., signaling through Gprotein-coupled receptors, effects on the entire GPCR downstream signaling cascade, changes in the GH/IGF-1 and insulin axes and on cell growth/apoptosis), we surmised that the effect of compound A was analogous to that of a somatomedin-like molecule (26). Binding to somatostatin receptors (SSTRs) results in activation of the PI3K signaling pathway, inhibition of adenylyl cyclase, activation of protein tyrosine phosphatases, modulation of MAPK, and coupling to inward-rectifying  $K^+$  channels, voltage-dependent  $Ca^{2+}$ channels, Na<sup>+</sup>/H<sup>+</sup> exchanger, AMPA/kainate glutamate

channels, phospholipase C, and phospholipase  $A_2$  (27,28). Somatostatin receptor activation blocks cell secretion by inhibiting intracellular cyclic adenosine monophosphate and  $Ca<sup>2+</sup>$  and by a receptor-linked distal effect on exocytosis. SSTR1, SSTR2, SSTR4, and SSTR5 induce cell cycle arrest through the phosphotyrosine phosphatase-dependent modulation of MAPK, associated with the induction of the retinoblastoma tumor-suppressor protein and p21. SSTR3 triggers phosphotyrosine phosphatase-dependent apoptosis accompanied by the activation of p53 and Bax. Deblinding revealed that compound A was the somatostatin analog SOM230 (Sandostatin $\mathbb{S}$ ).

## Evaluation of Compound B

Treatment with compound B demonstrated an expression profile that included numerous genes involved in the inflammatory cascade, from acute-phase protein generation to immune response and repair (Tables III and IV). This type of response can be elicited by many agents, such as lipopolysaccharide (LPS), interleukin-1 (IL-1), and some of the IL-6 family cytokines  $(29-31)$ . On specific binding to their cellular receptors, the proinflammatory cytokines of the IL-6 family generate downstream signaling events that include the JAK/STAT pathway, the suppressor of cytokine signaling (SOCS), and the Ras/MAPK pathway responsible for the physical manifestations of inflammation, from amplification to repair. In this study, gp130, the signal transducing subunit of IL-6 family receptors [oncostatin M (OSM) receptor or IL-6 receptor], was observed to be strongly upregulated in each organ (Tables III and IV).

To determine whether compound B was an LPS-like molecule or a proinflammatory cytokine, we looked for a gene expression signature of LPS. Lipopolysaccharide has been shown to bind to the cell surface molecule CD14, which acts as a signal enhancer and associates with tolllike receptor 4 (TLR4) (32,33). Toll-like receptors, which recognize pathogen-specific molecules by their extracellular leucine-rich repeat (LRR) domain, then activate a signaling cascade involving MyD88, IL-1 receptor-associated kinase, TRAF6, IKK $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , JNK1, and NF- $\kappa$ B through their cytoplasmic Toll/IL-1 receptor (TIR) domain and lead to the synthesis of inflammatory mediators, such as cytokines or nitric oxide. End products of this pathway are, for example, IL-1 and IL-6 family cytokines, such as OSM and leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF)  $(34-37)$ . These factors can induce the expression of acute-phase proteins as an initial line of defense. None of the above-mentioned members of the Tollreceptor pathway were affected by treatment with compound

Table I. Data Analysts' Selection of Genes Deemed Most Significant in Guiding the Classification of Compound A

Analysis	<b>Results</b>
Kidney	IGF2 <sup>-</sup> , SLC9A1, urocortin <sup>+</sup> , calmodulin 1 and $2^+$ , VEGF <sup>+</sup> , IGBP6 <sup>-</sup> , EIF <sup>+</sup> , CACNB1 <sup>+</sup> , DAXX <sup>+</sup> , histone <sup>+</sup>
Liver	IGF2 <sup>-</sup> , prostaglandin D2 synthase <sup>+</sup> , SLC9A1, calmodulin 1 and $2^+$ , VEGF <sup>+</sup> , EIF <sup>+</sup> , CACNB1 <sup>+</sup> , adenylate cyclase $6^+$ , DAXX, histone <sup>+</sup> , leptin $R^+$
Pituitary	prostaglandin D2 synthase <sup>+</sup> , calmodulin 1 and $2^+$ , VEGF <sup>+</sup> , EIF, adenylate cyclase 6, histone <sup>+</sup> , leptin R <sup>+</sup>
Spleen	IGF2 <sup>-</sup> , prostaglandin D2 synthase <sup>+</sup> , calmodulin 1 and 2 <sup>+</sup> , VEGF <sup>+</sup> , IGBP6 <sup>+</sup> , CACNB1 <sup>+</sup> , adenylate cyclase 6 <sup>+</sup> , $DAXX^+$ , histone <sup>+</sup> , leptin R
Thyroid	IGF2 <sup>+</sup> , IGBP6 <sup>+</sup> , EIF <sup>+</sup> , CACNB1 <sup>+</sup> , DAXX <sup>+</sup> , histone <sup>+</sup>

+, Up-regulated expression in treated vs. nontreated animals; -, down-regulated expression in treated vs. nontreated animals.



Table II. Continued

Ratio of expression levels (treated/untreated)

Affymetrix ID	Gene title	Kidney	Liver	Pituitary gland	Spleen	Thyroid gland	Gene symbol	GenBank
$1383$ <sub>-at</sub>	Protein tyrosine phosphatases/other phosphatases Protein phosphatase 2 (formerly 2A), regulatory subunit B (PR 52), alpha isoform	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.1	PPP2R2A	M64929
$903$ <sub>-at</sub>	Protein phosphatase 2, regulatory subunit B (B56), alpha isoform	1.2	1.2	1.5	1.2	1.5	PPP2R5A	L42373
39068_at	Protein phosphatase 2, regulatory subunit B (B56), delta isoform	1.5	1.6	1.2	1.5	0.9	PPP2R5D	L76702
39127_f_at	Protein phosphatase 2A, regulatory subunit $B'$ (PR 53)	1.3	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.6	PPP2R4	X73478
38277_at	Protein phosphatase 3 (formerly 2B), catalytic subunit, beta isoform (calcineurin A beta)	1.5	1.8	1.3	1.3	1.0	PPP3CB	M29550
382_at	Protein phosphatase 4 (formerly X), catalytic subunit	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.1	0.8	PPP4C	X70218
$392-g_{at}$	Protein phosphatase 5, catalytic subunit	1.9	1.4	1.3	1.6	0.8	PPP <sub>5</sub> C	X89416
$37581$ <sub>-at</sub>	Protein phosphatase 6, catalytic subunit	1.1	1.4	1.4	2.0	1.6	PPP6C	X92972
$1241$ <sub>-at</sub>	Protein tyrosine phosphatase type IVA, member 2	1.3	0.9	1.3	1.1	1.3	PTP4A2	U14603
36008_at	Protein tyrosine phosphatase type IVA, member 3	1.3	2.1	1.0	1.2	1.0	PTP4A3	AF041434
588_at	Protein tyrosine phosphatase, nonreceptor type 1	1.8	1.4	2.1	2.1	1.3	<b>PTPN1</b>	M31724
38443_at	Protein tyrosine phosphatase, nonreceptor type 11 (Noonan syndrome 1)	1.3	1.1	1.6	1.3	0.9	PTPN11	U79291
$1463$ <sub>-at</sub>	Protein tyrosine phosphatase, nonreceptor type 12	1.1	1.1	1.6	1.7	1.1	PTPN12	M93425
34198_at	Protein tyrosine phosphatase, nonreceptor type 13 $(APO-1/CD95)$ (Fas)- associated phosphatase)	0.8	0.1	0.9	1.0	1.2	PTPN13	U12128
$41782$ <sub>-g-at</sub>	Protein tyrosine phosphatase, receptor type, F polypeptide (PTPRF), interacting protein (liprin), alpha 1	1.9	1.4	1.5	1.6	0.9	PPFIA1	U22815
	Ras/MAPK/ERK-related pathways and adaptor proteins							
36660_at	RAB11A, member RAS oncogene family	1.2	1.7	0.9	1.5	1.9	RAB11A	AF000231
40210_at	RAB13, member RAS oncogene family	1.3	3.0	4.9	1.2	1.5	RAB13	X75593
35325_at	RAB14, member RAS oncogene family	1.4	0.9	1.4	$1.2\,$	$1.3\,$	RAB14	AF052113
$1074$ <sub>-at</sub>	RAB1A, member RAS oncogene family	1.3	1.2	1.5	1.9	1.0	RAB1A	M28209
$623$ _s_at	RAB2, member RAS oncogene family	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.1	RAB2	M28213
$39272$ g_at	RAB4B, member RAS oncogene family	1.0	1.4	1.3	1.6	1.6	RAB4B	AA461365
37362_at	RAB5B, member RAS oncogene family	1.1	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.1	RAB5B	X54871
35304_at	RAB6A, member RAS oncogene family	0.9	1.3	1.2	1.7	1.1	RAB6A	AF052130
35339_at	RAB8A, member RAS oncogene family	1.3	0.9	$1.1\,$	1.6	1.0	RAB8A	AI743606
39628_at	RAB9A, member RAS oncogene family	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.3	RAB9A	AI671547

				Ratio of expression levels (treated/untreated)				
Affymetrix ID	Gene title	Kidney	Liver	Pituitary gland	Spleen	Thyroid gland	Gene symbol	GenBank
	Ras/MAPK/ERK-related pathways and adaptor proteins							
$1394$ <sub>-at</sub>	Ras homolog gene family, member A	1.3	$1.1\,$	1.5	1.3	1.6	<b>RHOA</b>	L25080
1395_at	Ras homolog gene family, member C	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.3	<b>RHOC</b>	L25081
31846_at	Ras homolog gene family, member D	1.0	1.5	1.8	2.2	1.2	<b>RHOD</b>	AW003733
36902_at	Ras homolog gene family, member G	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.0	<b>RHOG</b>	X61587
	$(\text{rho } G)$							
$1675$ <sub>-at</sub>	RAS p21 protein activator (GTPase-activating protein) 1	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.7	1.0	RASA1	M23379
40864_at	Ras-related C3 botulinum toxin substrate 1 (rho family, small	1.2	1.3	1.7	1.5	1.0	RAC1	D25274
39989_at	GTP-binding protein Rac1) Ras-related GTP binding B	2.2	1.9	1.2	1.5	1.9	<b>RRAGB</b>	X90530
$1000$ <sub>-at</sub>		1.5	1.0	1.2	1.3		MAPK3	
35617_at	Mitogen-activated protein kinase 3	1.0	1.6	1.6	1.4	$1.1\,$ 1.2	MAPK7	X60188 U29725
41279_f_at	Mitogen-activated protein kinase 7							
	Mitogen-activated protein kinase 8 interacting protein 1	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2	$1.1\,$	<i>MAPK8IP1</i>	AF007134
1238_at	Mitogen-activated protein kinase 9	1.4	1.2	1.7	1.1	1.4	MAPK9	U09759
$1844$ _s_at	Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 1	1.5	1.8	1.2	1.7	0.8	MAP2K1	L05624
1398_g_at	Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase kinase 11	1.3	1.3	2.0	1.5	1.0	<b>MAP3K11</b>	L32976
$520$ <sub>-at</sub>	Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase kinase 12	1.2	1.3	0.9	1.9	$1.1\,$	<i>MAP3K12</i>	U07358
35651_at	Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase kinase 4	1.0	1.4	1.6	1.4	1.2	MAP3K4	AF002715
$1327$ _s_at	Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase kinase 5	1.5	1.1	1.2	1.6	1.4	MAP3K5	U67156
36179_at	Mitogen-activated protein kinase-activated protein kinase 2	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.2	1.2	MAPKAPK2	U12779
GH/IGF/glucagon/insulin axis								
36782_s_at	Insulin-like growth factor 2	0.5	0.5	1.0	0.3	1.3	IGF2	J03242
$1741$ _s_at	(somatomedin A) Insulin-like growth factor	1.8	2.1	2.0	2.0	1.2	IGFBP2	S37730
37319_at	binding protein 2, 36 kDa Insulin-like growth factor	1.1	1.0	1.7	1.4	1.2	IGFBP3	M35878
39781_at	binding protein 3 Insulin-like growth factor	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.3	1.4	<i>IGFBP4</i>	U20982
1736_at	binding protein 4 Insulin-like growth factor	1.4	1.0	1.1	1.8	2.0	IGFBP6	M62402
	binding protein 6							
41752_at	Growth hormone-inducible transmembrane protein	1.0	1.6	$1.5\,$	$1.6\,$	1.7	<b>GHITM</b>	W28190
33830_at	Leptin receptor	1.0	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2	<b>LEPR</b>	AW026535
38406_f_at	Prostaglandin D2 synthase 21 kDa (brain)	1.2	1.9	1.3	3.8	1.0	<b>PTGDS</b>	AI207842
33772_at	Prostaglandin E receptor 4 (subtype EP4)	0.8	0.6	0.4	1.2	0.5	<i>PTGER4</i>	L25124
41246_at	Serine (or cysteine) proteinase inhibitor, clade E (nexin,	1.2	1.2	2.5	1.0	1.3	SERPINE2	AI743134
	plasminogen activator inhibitor type 1), member 2							
	Ion channels and related pathways							
38516_at	Sodium channel, voltage-gated, type I, beta	1.6	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.2	<b>SCN1B</b>	L10338
36558_at	Calcium channel, voltage-dependent, beta 1 subunit	1.0	1.3	1.1	1.9	1.4	CACNB1	M92302
38225_at	Potassium voltage-gated channel, subfamily H (eag-related), member 2	1.1	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.9	KCNH <sub>2</sub>	AF052728

Table II. Continued

Table II. Continued

	Gene title			Ratio of expression levels (treated/untreated)				
Affymetrix ID		Kidney	Liver	Pituitary gland	Spleen	Thyroid gland	Gene symbol	GenBank
	Ion channels and related pathways							
$40527$ <sub>-at</sub>	Potassium voltage-gated channel, KQT-like subfamily, member 1	1.2	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.5	KCNQ1	AF000571
$31608 - g_{at}$	Voltage-dependent anion channel 1	1.5	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.2	<i>VDAC1</i>	AJ002428
37697_s_at	Voltage-dependent anion channel 2	1.0	1.2	1.9	1.4	1.8	<i>VDAC2</i>	L08666
36102_at	Voltage-dependent anion channel 3	1.3	1.2	1.6	1.3	1.4	VDAC3	AF038962
38225_at	Potassium voltage-gated channel, subfamily H (eag-related), member 2	1.1	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.9	KCNH <sub>2</sub>	AF052728
Cell growth/proliferation								
39388_at	Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase (CaM kinase) II gamma	1.7	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.1	CAMK2G	AA902713
251_at	Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase I	1.7	2.0	1.4	1.3	1.0	<i>CAMK1</i>	L41816
33514_at	Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase IV	0.6	0.3	0.5	1.1	0.3	CAMK4	D30742
38716_at	Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase kinase 2, beta	1.7	2.7	1.8	1.7	1.0	CAMKK <sub>2</sub>	AB018330
41739_s_at	Caldesmon 1	1.3	1.0	1.6	1.7	1.2	CALD1	M83216
41288_at	Calmodulin 1 (phosphorylase kinase, delta)	$1.1\,$	1.4	1.5	1.1	1.9	CALM1	AL036744
33458_r_at	Calmodulin 2 (phosphorylase kinase, delta)	0.8	1.4	1.6	1.9	1.4	CALM2	AI688098
41421_at	Calmodulin-binding transcription activator 2	1.2	1.1	1.5	1.3	1.2	CAMTA2	AB020716
$40887$ <sub>-g-at</sub>	Eukaryotic translation elongation factor 1 alpha 1	1.3	2.1	1.7	1.6	1.3	<i>EEF1A1</i>	L41498
41256_at	Eukaryotic translation elongation factor 1 delta (guanine nucleotide exchange protein)	1.3	1.5	1.8	1.3	1.4	<b>EEF1D</b>	Z21507
40587_s_at	Eukaryotic translation elongation factor 1 epsilon 1	$1.1\,$	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	<i>EEF1E1</i>	AF054186
36587_at	Eukaryotic translation elongation factor 2	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.2	EEF2	Z11692
$1154$ <sub>-at</sub>	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2, subunit 1 alpha, 35 kDa	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.2	1.1	<i>EIF2S1</i>	J02645
39368_at	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2, subunit 2 beta, 38 kDa	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.2	EIF2S2	AL031668
$1272$ <sub>-at</sub>	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2, subunit 3 gamma, 52 kDa	1.7	1.8	1.1	2.1	1.4	EIF2S3	L19161
40515_at	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2B, subunit 2 beta, 39 kDa	1.3	1.4	1.0	1.5	1.0	EIF2B2	AF035280
32659_at	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2B, subunit 4 delta, 67 kDa	1.3	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.1	EIF2B4	AL050109
34758_at	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2B, subunit 5 epsilon, 82 kDa	1.5	1.7	1.1	1.4	1.3	EIF2B5	U23028
1644_at	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3, subunit 2 beta, 36 kDa	2.1	1.9	1.2	1.6	1.8	EIF3S2	U36764
35298_at	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3, subunit 7 zeta, 66/67 kDa	1.6	1.5	$1.2\,$	1.3	1.6	EIF3S7	U54558
32844_at	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4 gamma, 1	1.4	1.4	1.1	1.2	1.5	EIF4G1	AF104913
41785_at	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4 gamma, 2	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.3	1.1	EIF4G2	U73824
1199_at	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4A, isoform 1	1.3	1.7	1.2	1.4	1.0	EIF4A1	D13748
$1420$ _s_at	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4A, isoform 2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.2	EIF4A2	D30655

Table II. Continued	

Ratio of expression levels (treated/untreated)



Table II. Continued

Ratio of expression levels (treated/untreated)

				Ratio of expression levels (treated/anticated)				
Affymetrix ID	Gene title	Kidney	Liver	Pituitary gland	Spleen	Thyroid gland	Gene symbol	GenBank
Cell growth/proliferation								
$2010$ <sub>-at</sub>	S-phase kinase-associated protein $1A$ (p $19a$ )	1.3	1.8	1.5	1.8	1.4	SKP1A	U33760
$1685$ <sub>-at</sub>	S-phase response (cyclin related)	0.9	1.1	1.8	1.9	0.8	<b>SPHAR</b>	X82554
Apoptosis								
36199_at	Death-associated protein	1.5	0.9	0.9	1.0	2.3		X76105
$1754$ <sub>-at</sub>	Death-associated protein 6	1.4	2.6	1.2	1.9	1.1		AF006041
$822$ _s_at	CASP2 and RIPK1 domain containing adaptor with death domain	1.7	1.4	1.1	1.7	1.2		U79115
$1326$ <sub>-at</sub>	Caspase 10, apoptosis-related cysteine protease	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.7	CASP10	U60519
$486$ <sub>-at</sub>	Caspase 9, apoptosis-related cysteine protease	1.3	1.7	1.4	2.4	1.0	CASP9	U60521
41816_at	Caspase recruitment domain family, member 10	1.4	1.3	2.0	2.6	0.7	CARD10	AL049851
$1861$ <sub>-at</sub>	BCL2-antagonist of cell death	1.3	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.1	<b>BAD</b>	U66879
38050_at	BCL2-associated transcription factor 1	1.3	1.1	2.1	1.8	0.8	<b>BCLAF1</b>	D79986
2067_f_at	BCL2-associated X protein	1.2	2.0	1.2	2.0	1.8	<b>BAX</b>	L22475
$1615$ <sub>-at</sub>	BCL2-like 1	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.6	0.9	BCL2L1	Z23115
36211_at	BCL2-like 2	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.4	1.1	BCL2L2	D87461
$609$ _ $f$ _at	Metallothionein 1B (functional)	1.1	1.1	1.6	1.4	1.9	MTIB	M13485
36130_f_at	Metallothionein 1E (functional)	1.0	0.7	2.0	1.7	2.1	MTIE	R92331
41446_f_at	Metallothionein 1F (functional)	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.3	2.1	MTIF	H68340
39594_f_at	Metallothionein 1H	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.2	2.1	<b>MT1H</b>	R93527
$855$ _at	Programmed cell death 2	1.3	0.9	1.7	0.9	1.2	PDCD <sub>2</sub>	S78085
37569_at	Programmed cell death 6	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.3	1.2	PDCD6	AF035606
32212_at	Programmed cell death 8 (apoptosis-inducing factor)	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.6	1.4	PDCD8	AL049703
$1715$ <sub>-at</sub>	Tumor necrosis factor (ligand) superfamily, member 10	1.0	1.5	3.0	0.9	1.3	TNFSF10	U37518
$1563$ _s_at	Tumor necrosis factor receptor superfamily, member 1A	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.8	1.2	<b>TNFRSF1A</b>	M58286

B. We concluded that the gene expression signature was not strongly related to the LPS signaling cascade.

We also considered whether a tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-like molecule may be compound B. Binding of TNF to one of its receptors can lead to induction of apoptosis through the involvement of death domain containing TNFreceptor binding proteins like TNF-receptor-associated death domain (TRADD) or Fas-associated death domain (FADD) or to the activation of NF-kB through IkB kinase (38,39). None of the TNF-receptor associated proteins were affected

Table III. Data Analysts' Selection of Genes Deemed Most Significant in Guiding the Classification of Compound B



+, Up-regulated expression in treated vs. nontreated animals; -, down-regulated expression in treated vs. nontreated animals.

Ratio of expression levels (treated/untreated)

Affymetrix ID	Gene title	Kidney	Liver	Pituitary gland	Spleen	Thyroid gland	Gene symbol	GenBank
Acute-phase response								
36780_at	Clusterin (complement lysis inhibitor, SP-40,40, sulfated glycoprotein 2, testosterone-repressed prostate message 2, apolipoprotein J)	1.9	1.2	1.7	3.4	2.7	<b>CLU</b>	M25915
38052_at	Coagulation factor XIII, A1 polypeptide	$1.1\,$	1.4	1.6	1.9	1.2	<i>F13A1</i>	M14539
$40766$ <sub>-at</sub>	Complement component 4A	3.7	1.2	2.1	1.3	3.5	C4A	U24578
31444_s_at	Annexin A2	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	2.3	ANXA2	M62895
31792_at	Annexin A3	3.2	5.2	1.7	1.2	2.1	ANXA3	M20560
$428$ _s_at	Beta-2-microglobulin	1.3	1.1	1.4	1.2	1.4	B2M	V00567
32550_r_at	CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein (C/EBP), alpha	0.8	0.5	0.7	0.9	0.8	<b>CEBPA</b>	Y11525
38354_at	CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein (C/EBP), beta	2.2	0.8	2.5	1.9	1.2	<b>CEBPB</b>	X52560
$1052$ _s_at	CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein (C/EBP), delta	3.6	2.8	3.6	2.2	3.0	<b>CEBPD</b>	M83667
$229$ <sub>-at</sub>	CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein zeta	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.3	2.1	<b>CEBPZ</b>	M37197
39008_at	Ceruloplasmin (ferroxidase)	1.2	1.6	5.0	1.6	1.4	$\mathcal{C}P$	M13699
32363_at	Cholesterol 25-hydroxylase	3.2	3.6	2.1	2.3	2.1	CH25H	AF059214
38111_at	Chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan 2 (versican)	1.8	3.7	5.5	2.0	1.1	CSPG2	X15998
36984_f_at	Haptoglobin	2.2	1.2	3.4	1.8	2.8	HP	X89214
37621_at	Interleukin-6 signal transducer (gp130, oncostatin M receptor)	1.5	1.5	1.2	2.3	1.4	IL6ST	M57230
$2049$ _s_at	Jun B proto-oncogene	4.7	8.6	1.8	3.8	5.5	<b>JUNB</b>	M29039
$37025$ <sub>-at</sub>	Lipopolysaccharide-induced tumor necrosis factor	2.7	2.1	1.6	1.6	2.1	<i>LITAF</i>	AL120815
32855_at	Low-density lipoprotein receptor (familial hypercholesterolemia)	6.7	2.3	12.9	4.7	2.5	<b>LDLR</b>	L00352
39428_at	Lymphocyte adaptor protein	1.8	1.9	1.7	1.3	1.4	<i>LNK</i>	AF055581
1497_at	Lymphotoxin beta receptor (tumor necrosis factor receptor superfamily, member 3)	2.0	1.2	1.6	3.6	2.3	<b>LTBR</b>	L04270
$1648$ <sub>-at</sub>	Oncostatin M receptor	1.8	4.6	2.6	1.6	3.7	<b>OSMR</b>	U60805
$614$ <sub>-at</sub>	Phospholipase A2, group IIA (platelets, synovial fluid)	2.0	10.4	1.1	2.0	8.5	PLA2G2A	M22430
32569_at	Platelet-activating factor acetylhydrolase, isoform Ib, alpha subunit 45 kDa	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.6	PAFAH1B1	L <sub>13385</sub>
32691_s_at	Prostaglandin E receptor 3 (subtype EP3)	1.0	1.4	1.1	1.1	1.7	PTGER3	D86096
$718$ <sub>-at</sub>	Protease, serine, 11 (IGF binding)	$1.1\,$	1.2	1.0	2.8	1.7	PRSS11	D87258
39255_at	Protein C (inactivator of coagulation factors Va and VIIIa)	0.5	$0.7\,$	$0.5\,$	0.7	0.6	${\it PROC}$	X02750
$647$ <sub>-at</sub>	Protein C receptor, endothelial (EPCR)	2.7	1.7	1.4	2.1	3.1	<b>PROCR</b>	L35545
37432_g_at	Protein inhibitor of activated STAT, 2	1.2	1.9	1.7	2.4	2.0	PIAS2	AF077953
$1810$ _s_at	Protein kinase C, delta	1.5	1.9	1.3	1.5	2.1	<b>PRKCD</b>	D10495
34342_s_at	Secreted phosphoprotein 1 (osteopontin, bone sialoprotein I, early T-lymphocyte activation 1)	13.9	1.8	2.2	1.4	5.6	SPP1	AF052124
32275_at	Secretory leukocyte protease inhibitor (antileukoproteinase)	1.2	2.1	2.9	2.2	1.8	<b>SLPI</b>	X04470
40366_at	Selectin P (granule membrane protein 140 kDa, antigen CD62)	1.7	5.5	3.7	1.1	4.4	$\ensuremath{\mathit{SELP}}$	M25322

Table IV. Continued

Ratio of expression levels (treated/untreated)

Affymetrix ID	Gene title	Kidney	Liver	Pituitary gland	Spleen	Thyroid gland	Gene symbol	GenBank
Acute-phase response								
33825_at	Serine (or cysteine) proteinase inhibitor, clade A (alpha-1 antiproteinase,	3.6	2.0	3.3	2.0	2.4	SERPINA3	X68733
33305_at	antitrypsin), member 3 Serine (or cysteine) proteinase inhibitor, clade B (ovalbumin), member 1	4.4	1.5	4.6	1.2	12.7	<i>SERPINB1</i>	M93056
$32103$ <sub>-at</sub>	Serine (or cysteine) proteinase inhibitor, clade F (alpha-2 antiplasmin, pigment epithelium	1.2	$1.1\,$	1.5	2.3	1.1	SERPINF2	M20786
39775_at	derived factor), member 2 Serine (or cysteine) proteinase inhibitor, clade G (C1 inhibitor), member 1, (angioedema, hereditary)	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.0	1.1	<b>SERPING1</b>	X54486
40109_at	Serum response factor (c-fos serum response element-binding transcription factor)	1.6	1.6	1.2	1.2	1.8	<b>SRF</b>	J03161
$1563$ _s_at	Tumor necrosis factor receptor superfamily, member 1A	1.6	1.8	1.6	2.2	1.7	<b>TNFRSF1A</b>	M58286
36988_at	Tumor necrosis factor, alpha-induced protein 1 (endothelial)	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.6	2.1	<b>TNFAIP1</b>	M80783
1519_at	v-ets erythroblastosis virus E26 oncogene homolog 2 (avian)	2.9	3.0	1.6	2.6	3.4	ETS2	J04102
$1916$ _s_at	v-fos FBJ murine osteosarcoma viral oncogene homolog	2.0	6.3	2.1	1.6	3.7	<b>FOS</b>	V01512
37724_at	v-myc myelocytomatosis viral oncogene homolog (avian)	8.1	3.4	1.6	1.6	1.3	<b>MYC</b>	V00568
$607$ _s_at	von Willebrand factor	1.4	1.0	3.4	2.9	1.4	<b>VWF</b>	M10321
<i>Immune response</i>								
$1796$ _s_at	B-cell CLL/lymphoma 3	1.2	1.8	1.2	2.0	1.2	BCL3	U05681
$40091$ <sub>-at</sub>	B-cell CLL/lymphoma 6	2.3	5.2	3.5	1.6	1.7	<b>BCL6</b>	U00115
$2036$ _s_at	(zinc finger protein 51) CD44 antigen (homing function and	2.6	1.7	1.9	1.2	1.1	<i>CD44</i>	M59040
37536_at	Indian blood group system) CD83 antigen (activated B lymphocytes, immunoglobulin superfamily)	0.5	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.7	CD83	Z11697
$875-g_{at}$	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 2	2.1	1.6	$1.0\,$	1.1	2.9	CCL2	M26683
$823$ <sub>-at</sub>	Chemokine (C-X3-C motif) ligand 1	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.4	CX3CL1	U84487
34344_at	Inhibitor of kappa light polypeptide gene enhancer in B-cells, kinase complex-associated protein	0.8	0.6	0.6	$0.8\,$	$0.8\,$	<i>IKBKAP</i>	AF044195
$120$ <sub>-at</sub>	Integrin, alpha 1	$1.1\,$	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.0	<b>ITGA1</b>	X68742
41005_at	Integrin, alpha 8	1.3	2.2	4.0	1.1	1.8	ITGA8	L36531
32808_at	Integrin, beta 1 (fibronectin receptor, beta polypeptide, antigen CD29 includes MDF2, <b>MSK12)</b>	1.2	1.3	1.1	2.1	1.3	<b>ITGB1</b>	X07979
37952_at	Integrin, beta 3 (platelet glycoprotein IIIa, antigen CD61)	3.8	2.9	2.1	3.6	2.2	ITGB3	M35999
32640_at	Intercellular adhesion molecule 1 (CD54), human rhinovirus receptor	3.7	3.5	5.0	1.9	3.6	ICAM1	M24283
38453_at	Intercellular adhesion molecule 2	1.2	$1.1\,$	2.6	1.1	1.2	ICAM2	X15606
$676$ <sub>-g-at</sub>	Interferon-induced transmembrane protein $1(9-27)$	1.7	2.3	3.9	1.3	$2.2\,$	<b>IFITM1</b>	J04164

cysteine protease

			<b>LADIC LV.</b> COMMUNICU	Ratio of expression levels (treated/untreated)				
				Pituitary		Thyroid		
Affymetrix ID	Gene title	Kidney	Liver	gland	Spleen	gland	Gene symbol	GenBank
Immune response								
41745_at	Interferon-induced transmembrane protein $3(1-8U)$	2.5	2.7	2.1	1.6	3.7	<b>IFITM3</b>	X57352
$669$ _s_at	Interferon regulatory factor 1	4.6	2.3	4.2	1.4	3.6	<i>IRF1</i>	L05072
36412_s_at	Interferon regulatory factor 7	2.2	2.7	1.7	1.4	2.8	IRF7	U53831
1358_s_at	Interferon, alpha-inducible protein $(clone IFI-6-16)$	2.2	6.4	1.1	5.9	1.6	G1P3	U22970
37641_at	Interferon-induced protein 44	1.1	1.8	1.4	1.8	1.8	<i>IFI44</i>	D <sub>28915</sub>
$915$ <sub>-at</sub>	Interferon-induced protein with tetratricopeptide repeats 1	1.1	2.1	1.9	1.8	2.7	<b>IFIT1</b>	M24594
36472_at	N-myc (and STAT) interactor	1.9	1.4	1.8	1.0	1.2	NMI	U32849
40822_at	Nuclear factor of activated T-cells, cytoplasmic, calcineurin- dependent 3	0.8	0.6	1.0	0.9	0.5	NFATC3	L41067
37397_at	Platelet/endothelial cell adhesion molecule (CD31 antigen)	1.1	2.4	1.6	1.5	1.0	PECAM1	L34657
33823_at	Scavenger receptor class B, member 2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.4	SCARB2	D <sub>12676</sub>
39708_at	Signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (acute-phase response factor)	1.6	1.6	2.3	1.8	2.2	STAT3	L29277
38994_at	Suppressor of cytokine signaling 2	2.6	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.3	SOCS2	AF037989
32669_at	Suppressor of cytokine signaling 5	1.3	1.4	1.9	$1.1\,$	1.2	SOCS5	AB014571
31557_at	Thymosin, beta 4, X-linked	1.2	1.2	1.5	1.0	1.2	<b>TMSB4X</b>	M17733
41433_at	Vascular cell adhesion molecule 1	2.5	1.5	6.4	1.2	2.0	VCAM1	M73255
Repair								
32307_s_at	Collagen, type I, alpha 2	1.5	2.2	1.1	1.7	1.6	COL1A2	V00503
32488_at	Collagen, type III, alpha 1 (Ehlers-Danlos syndrome type IV, autosomal dominant)	1.8	2.5	4.6	2.8	1.8	COL3A1	X14420
39333_at	Collagen, type IV, alpha 1	2.9	1.8	1.4	3.6	2.0	COL4A1	M26576
36659_at	Collagen, type IV, alpha 2	1.9	1.6	1.4	2.6	2.0	COL4A2	X05610
38722_at	Collagen, type VI, alpha 1	2.2	1.6	1.6	2.0	$1.1\,$	COL6A1	X15880
38077_at	Collagen, type VI, alpha 3	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.2	COL6A3	X52022
996_at	Fibroblast growth factor 1 (acidic)	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.4	<b>FGF1</b>	X59065
36184_at	Procollagen-lysine, 2-oxoglutarate 5-dioxygenase (lysine hydroxylase, Ehlers-Danlos syndrome type VI)	1.5	1.2	1.5	2.1	1.9	<b>PLOD</b>	L06419
$224$ <sub>-at</sub>	Transforming growth factor beta- inducible early growth response	1.0	1.1	1.8	1.1	1.4	<b>TIEG</b>	S81439
$1693$ _s_at	Tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase 1 (erythroid-potentiating activity, collagenase inhibitor)	8.9	21	1.5	7.2	6.2	<b>TIMP1</b>	D11139
$1767$ _s_at	Transforming growth factor beta 3	1.2	2.4	1.8	1.7	2.5	TGFB3	X14885
1897_at	Transforming growth factor beta receptor III (beta glycan, 300 kDa)	2.3	1.3	1.1	1.4	1.2	TGFBR3	L07594
Programmed cell death								
$1497$ <sub>-at</sub>	Lymphotoxin beta receptor (TNFR superfamily, member 3)	2.0	1.2	1.6	3.6	2.3	<b>LTBR</b>	L04270
$1563$ _s_at	Tumor necrosis factor receptor superfamily, member 1A	1.6	1.8	1.6	2.2	1.7	TNFRSF1A	M58286
$1911$ _s_at	Growth arrest and DNA-damage- inducible, alpha	2.6	1.2	1.3	2.3	2.0	GADD45A	M60974
$195$ _s_at	Caspase 4, apoptosis-related cysteine protease	5.6	3.0	4.7	1.6	1.9	CASP4	U28014
38281_at	Caspase 7, apoptosis-related	1.8	1.2	2.1	1.1	1.8	CASP7	U67319

Table IV. Continued

				Ratio of expression levels (treated/untreated)				
Affymetrix ID	Gene title	Kidney	Liver	Pituitary gland	Spleen	Thyroid gland	Gene symbol	GenBank
Programmed cell death								
$2092$ _s_at	Secreted phosphoprotein 1 (osteopontin, bone sialoprotein I, early T-lymphocyte activation 1)	11.0	1.6	2.8	1.6	2.0	SPP <sub>1</sub>	J04765
$34342$ s at	Secreted phosphoprotein 1 (osteopontin, bone sialoprotein I, early T-lymphocyte activation 1)	13.9	1.8	2.2	1.4	5.6	SPP <sub>1</sub>	AF052124
31888_s_at	Pleckstrin homology-like domain, family A, member 2	1.2	1.7	2.4	0.9	1.5	PHLDA2	AF001294
34185_at	Poly( $rC$ ) binding protein 4	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.5	0.4	PCBP4	W22541
39020_at	CD27-binding (Siva) protein	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	<b>SIVA</b>	U82938
41349_at	Presenilin 2 (Alzheimer disease 4)	1.6	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.9	PSEN <sub>2</sub>	L43964
$875$ <sub>-g-at</sub>	Chemokine (C–C motif) ligand 2	2.1	1.6	1.0	$1.1\,$	2.9	CCL <sub>2</sub>	M26683

Table IV. Continued

by compound B treatment, nor did we detect significant changes in TNF-receptor-associated factor (TRAF) signaling through NF-kB. Some genes involved in programmed cell death were dysregulated in most tissues by compound B, but we did not see the hallmark caspases 3 and 8 (Table III). This effect could be attributed to an activation of TNF-signaling pathway through death domain bearing receptor-associated proteins. While IL-6 like cytokines have antiapoptotic activity (40,41), it could not be excluded that the observed changes may reflect direct or indirect effects of this cytokine family. Members of the IL-6 cytokine family bind to receptor complexes comprising combinations of specific signaling receptor subunits and a common subunit, gp130. Downstream signaling events involve, among others, the JAK/STAT pathway, SOCS, and the Ras/MAPK pathway, some of which were affected by treatment with compound B. Oncostatin M receptor (IL-6 receptor) and tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase-1 (TIMP-1) were up-regulated in all tissues. Tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase-1, a target gene of LIF (42), was particularly overexpressed in the liver (Tables III and IV).

Because of the overall lack of upstream members of the TNF or LPS-stimulated signaling pathway in our gene list on one hand, and the presence of a number of members of the IL-6-family pathway, we came to the conclusion that the gene expression signature was not consistent with induction of the LPS or the TNF signaling cascades. Instead, we speculated that compound B could be a cytokine that may be downstream of those signaling pathways, with the ability to elicit acute phase response. Based on the components of the signaling pathways represented by gene expression signature, it was surmised that compound B was most likely a member of the IL-6 family of cytokines rather than an LPS-like or TNF-like molecule. In fact, deblinding revealed that compound B was LIF.

# DISCUSSION

Microarray gene expression profiles provide a readout of the concerted regulation of the transcriptome and may be considered fingerprints of cellular physiology (43). The approach we describe here, VeloceGenomics, provides a detailed overview of the early transcriptional events induced by any potential drug-like compound, but it may also include the secondary responses that manifest in the form of metabolic and physiologic changes in the animal. An example of the usefulness of our strategy was demonstrated by showing that it was possible for data analysts masked to treatment conditions to determine the biologic function or activity of compounds based solely on multiorgan whole transcriptome signature analysis. The goal of the exercise was not to determine precisely the identity of the compound but rather to test whether the gene expression profiles allowed the positioning of the compounds into classes of activity, could suggest a mode of action, and could propose possible therapeutic indications.

The gene expression signatures exhibited by each group of animals allowed us to identify compound A as having a GH-like activity and compound B as having activity related to proinflammatory cytokines. Indeed, after deblinding, compound A was revealed to be a somatostatin analog (SOM230) and compound B to be LIF. In each case, the expression patterns provided clues as to what pathways and activities were being regulated. For SOM230, the nature of the changes suggested the involvement of the glucagon/ insulin axes. The change in expression of various receptors suggested that compound A was acting along the lines of a ligand and stimulating many downstream pathways rather than acting as a downstream effector itself. For compound B, the gene expression signature clearly implicated the inflammatory response. More thorough evaluations ruled out certain possibilities (e.g., LPS) and suggested others as more plausible (i.e., IL-6-like cytokine activity).

The VeloceGenomics method may be applied to virtually any organism used in preclinical settings and is not limited to the analysis of gene expression data. Indeed, the process may be enhanced by collecting additional data--physiologic, biochemical, hematologic—as complementary information, such that an entire picture of the physiologic responses to a compound can be gained in a single appropriately designed experiment. The VeloceGenomics approach provides an early in vivo pharmacologic evaluation of efficacy and safety. Information garnered from these experiments can lead to testable hypotheses of the mode of action and the biologic activity of the compound in focused experiments. The vast molecular readouts obtained from a single in vivo multiorgan transcriptome study can support a multitude of efforts in drug discovery research, including identifying and validating targets, selecting lead compounds, identifying new clinical indications for existing drugs, discovering biomarkers, and elucidating mechanisms of action. The VeloceGenomics approach combines the power of systems biology (physiology) and functional genomics (when applied to proteins or genes) to produce an innovative strategy to investigate the actions of compounds on an organism-wide level of complexity. Computational methods, such as structure-based design, have made significant contributions in the realm of synthetic chemical synthesis; however, such methods cannot replace empirical testing to establish the actual biologic activity of compounds (44). Our approach of in vivo global genomics is a strategy to capture quantitative data from such an empirical approach that has the potential to elucidate the entire spectrum of biologic activity of any compound.

The VeloceGenomics process may be used to derive the biologic function or action of any molecule or gene. Small molecules, proteins, and natural products-even genes through in vivo naked DNA injections—are all amenable to this strategy (45,46). Compounds can be applied to VeloceGenomics screening in the absence of any predetermined biologic selection criteria. The resultant in vivo organismwide pattern of transcriptome expression data provides an overview of the activities affected at the molecular and organismal levels. The accumulation of information in different organs not only helps to elucidate the mode of action, but it can provide also valuable insight into the potential therapeutic usefulness or toxicologic consequences of any molecule by providing a comprehensive reconstruction of the compound-induced perturbations throughout the entire organism. In vivo gene expression analysis may reveal the extent to which a compound acts at more than one target and in more than one target organ (5); both factors may be critical in determining product safety.

Targets of many currently marketed drugs were identified from pharmacology (physiology) studies rather than from a direct molecular approach (2). Our in vivo global genomics approach combines a physiologic approach with a simultaneous effort to evaluate the molecular pathways impacted by treatment. The physiology of the whole organism affects how a compound acts in vivo, and the in vivo gene expression profile reveals the molecular targets and the metabolic and biochemical pathways involved in that compound's in vivo biologic activity (2). The VeloceGenomics process is suitable for several stages in the drug discovery and drug development process. The phase of the process at which our strategy is introduced may reflect the type of molecule under evaluation. For example, novel proteins or genes may be subjected to the VeloceGenomics approach early in the evaluation process. In the case of small molecule chemical screening, the VeloceGenomics process may be invoked once a limited set of lead compounds is identified based on highthroughput evaluations of compound libraries.

In the past three decades, drug discovery has shifted from the extensive use of animal studies (classical pharmacology) to high-throughput *in vitro* screening systems using a target-oriented approach (5). However, it has been repeatedly demonstrated that the in vitro testing of compounds leads to promising drug candidates that often fail to show the expected or predicted efficacy in vivo (44). A recent publication has elegantly demonstrated the limitations of in vitro models in which detection of the number of different proteins expressed in vivo by endothelial cells of the lung microvasculature was approximately 2.5-fold greater than the number of proteins expressed by the same cells *in vitro* (7). These results have profound implications for drug discovery using *in vitro* cell-based assays when testing for the biologic activity of compounds. If, as in this example, the in vitro system expresses far fewer proteins, the suggestion is that not all relevant pathways may be expressed in vitro compared with the same cells growing under in vivo conditions. Thus, the in vitro system may be an inaccurate representation of the biochemical and metabolic pathways active in the in vivo condition. However, at the in vivo level, the congruence between animal physiology and biochemistry is substantially valid when compared with human biochemistry and physiology (6). Furthermore, in vitro screening and tests for biologic activity lack aspects of functional kinetics. As such, in vitro screening lacks the aspects of systems biology in which the various molecular, biochemical, and physiologic pathways interact and interconnect kinetically (6). The VeloceGenomics approach addresses these concerns.

In addition, many compounds undergo metabolic conversion to generate the biologically active drug species (or, in some cases, toxic metabolites). The discovery of such a compound would be dependent on its interaction with a metabolically competent test system. Hence, the therapeutic effect of the drug would depend on its interaction with the organism; this interaction cannot take place in an in vitro system  $(11)$ .

Attrition is one of the central issues confronting drug discovery and development. Most attrition that occurs late in drug development is attributed to lack of in vivo efficacy or to problems with absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, or toxicology (8). Predicting the biologic success or failure of a compound is critical in pharmaceutical discovery, where the guiding principle during research and development is to fail early and cheap. The ability to reconcile or unify genetics and physiology can play an important role in this process (48). Suggestions to improve the attrition rate include (a) strong evidence for mechanism (mode) of action, (b) elimination of compounds that have mechanism-based toxicity, (c) identification of biomarkers that signal correct dosing and on-target action, and (d) use of appropriate animal models for efficacy testing (8). The strategy presented by VeloceGenomics addresses each of these points and may be used to identify risk during the preclinical stages of drug discovery through an understanding of the mechanism of action and drug-like activity of a compound in a physiologically relevant setting (8,9). By refining or narrowing the scope of the in vivo global genomics approach—for instance, by using animal models of disease—the efficacy, potency, toxicity, and mechanism of action can be assessed in one study. Although this more focused approach may reduce the amount of information generated from an in vivo global genomics study, it does lend itself to focused drug discovery (3). Rather, the value of the data would depend on the animal model having relevance to the human disease or to the question being addressed (6). In many instances, one can generate preliminary knowledge regarding these points in a well-designed in vivo study. Because the VeloceGenomics strategy has the potential to reveal a compound's mechanism of action, it can assist in the choice of the best animal models and disease models to assess efficacy and safety.

In vivo microarray experiments help in elucidating the underlying principles of *in vivo* drug action; however, there are limitations. Compounds with poor pharmacokinetics may be unable to generate reliable in vivo transcriptome profiles and, hence, may fail to reveal information hidden in RNA expression levels. Furthermore, biologic activities caused by translational activity and posttranslational modifications, such as protein phosphorylation, are not seen at the transcript level.

Rapid advances are being made in microarray-related technologies and information databases. The availability of more human tissue transcriptome profiles representing healthy and pathologic states will greatly improve concordance between animal and human tissue transcriptomes. Human pathologic tissue signatures will be used (and are already used, where available) to evaluate the effect of compounds in preclinical testing. For example, human cancer tissue transcript expression profiles may be compared before and after treatment with the transcript expression profile of an animal model counterpart. Establishing databases of treatment signatures based on real treatment samples will substantially improve the predicative power of in vivo preclinical testing.

It has been estimated that  $12,000-14,000$  genes encode secreted proteins in the human genome  $(3)$ . If only 1-2% of these proteins become drugs, that would translate into  $120-280$  novel biopharmaceutics  $(3)$ . Biologicals have a high success rate (approximately 24%) in passing through clinical development and registration (8). The growth of biotechnology-based drugs has been impressive. In 1982, recombinant insulin was registered. By 2000, 60 protein-based drugs were introduced to the market (47,49). The VeloceGenomics strategy outlined in this work would most quickly apply to the search for novel protein-based drugs.

# **CONCLUSION**

In summary, VeloceGenomics in vivo whole transcriptome analysis attempts to answer in one study the following questions. (a) Is the compound worth further investigation? (b) What physiologic pathways are affected by treatment (i.e., mechanism of action)? (c) What are the potential therapeutic indications? (d) What are the potential safety concerns and adverse effects? Furthermore, through in vivo transcriptome analysis, additional targets for therapeutic intervention may be revealed. This information provides an important link back to disease research and discovery programs charged with the task of identifying valid, "drugable" targets for high-throughput screens. The drug discovery approach described as VeloceGenomics is a strategy to generate and analyze a vast amount of data from single in vivo studies to derive knowledge pertaining to a compound's mode of action, biologic activity, safety implications, and potential therapeutic indications. Use of an in vivo

system maintains the integrity of all physiologic interactions among the different organs, tissues, and cells, and any cellular pathway or target can be analyzed under physiologically relevant conditions.

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