Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics effects of Everolimus and Sorafenib combination: Impact of doses and sequence of administration on the combination

Thesis

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List of Abbreviations

Abb.	Full term
([18F] FLT)-PET	[18F]-fluorodeoxy-L-thymine
(AUC _T)	Areas under the concentration versus time curves within the dosing interval
4E-BP1	eIF4E-binding proteins
AEs	
AGT	Human O^6 -alkylguanine-DNA alkyltransferase
AKT Total	Protein kinase B
	Serine/Threonine Kinase 1
	Area under the curve
	Confidence Interval
	Apparent oral clearance
	Peak concentration
	Complete response
	Case report form
	Common terminology criteria of adverse events
	Coefficient of variation
	Cytochrome P450 3A4
DCE-MRI	Dynamic contrast enhanced magnetic resonance
	imaging.
	Dose limiting toxicity
	Epidermal growth factor receptor
	European medical agency
	Total extracellular signal regulated kinase
FOCEI	First order conditional estimation method with an
GT1 5 5	interaction option.
	Genetically engineered mouse model
	Hepatocellular Carcinoma
	Human epidermal growth factor receptor2
	Hypoxia-inducible factor
	Ideal Body Weight
	Inhibitory concentration 50
	Inter-occasion variability
	Absorption rate constant
KRAS	V-Ki-ras2 Kirsten rat sarcoma viral oncogene
	homolog

LC-MS/MS	Liquid chromatography MS/MS
	Modeling and simulation
	Model based drug design
	Mitogen activated protein kinase
	Morris Hepatoma
	Molecular profiling
	Microtubule-targeting agents
	Maximum tolerated dose
	Mammalian target of rapamycin
	Non-linear mixed effect modeling
	Non small cell lung cancer
	Optimal biological dose
	Phosphorylated p70 ribosomal protein S6 kinase
	Phosphorylated protein kinase B
PBMCs	Peripheral Blood Mononuclear cells
	Pharmacodynamics
	Patient derived xenografts
	Phosphorylated extracellular signal regulated kinase
	Progression free survival
	Pharmacologically guided dose escalation
PgP	Glycoprotein P
PI3K	Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase
PIK3CA	Phosphatidylinositol-4,5-Bisphosphate 3-Kinase
	Catalytic Subunit Alpha
PK	Pharmacokinetics
PK-PD	Pharmacokinetics-pharmacodynamics
PR	Partial response
PtdInsP3	Phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-trisphosphate
PTEN	Phosphatase and tensin homolog
Q/F	Intercompartimental clearance.
	Research and development
RAF	Serine/threonine specific protein kinases
RAS	Reticular activating system
RP2D	Recommended phase 2 dose
RSE	Relative standard error
RTK	Receptor tyrosine kinase
SAEs	Serious adverse event
SIGMA	Exponential residual error
	System Organ Class
SUSARs	Suspected unexpected serious adverse reactions

TRAIL	. Tumour Necrosis Factor-Related Apoptosis-Inducing
	Ligand
UGT1A1	. UDP-glucuronosyltransferases 1A1
UGT1A9	. UDP-glucuronosyltransferases 1A9
V2/F	. Peripheral volume of distribution
Vd _{central}	. Central volume of distribution
VEGF	. Vascular endothelial growth factor
VEGFR1	. Vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 1
VEGFR2	. Vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 2
VPC	. Visual predictive check



Introduction

The translation of cancer research to successful clinical application has been proved to be very challenging over the past decade. The attrition rate of drug development remains high despite the efforts and the financial investments that have been brought by many different parties including scientists, researchers and pharmaceutical companies.

Only 5% of agents that have anticancer activity in preclinical development are licensed after demonstrating sufficient efficacy in phase III testing, which is much lower than, other diseases. This issue involved also many new cancer agents including microtubule-targeting agents (MTA) that were withdrawn or suspended with 40–50% of development programs being discontinued even in clinical Phase III ^{1,2}.

Diverse reasons were reported as factors contributing for the high attrition rate of anticancer agents³. The concepts used for development of cytotoxic drugs were not adequate for new targeted agents: toxicity based escalation trials, MTD. Therefore, limitations and major challenges for the research based drug development could be summarized in the following:

Poorly predictive preclinical models in cancer research: the limitations of preclinical tools such as inadequate cancer-cell-line and mouse models might explain the challenging mission of the scientists to make a discovery that will have an impact in the clinic ⁴. Despite the progress of genetically engineered mouse model (GEMMs) and patient derived xenografts (PDXs), these models still not widely implemented ⁵. However, recently, GEMMs have been used to



identify the importance of mTOR and EGFR inhibitors in neuroendocrine cancers, leading to the successful translation of mTOR inhibitors into clinical practice in this tumor type ^{6,7}. PDXs are also increasingly used to guide personalised therapy ^{8,9}.

- Lack of reliability of published data: An analysis by Prinz F et al., 2011 was based on input received from 23 scientists and collected data from 67 projects, revealed that in almost two-thirds of the projects there were inconsistencies between published data and in-house data. This concern has been addressed based on what some scientists have claimed about the presentation of specific experiments that supported their underlying hypothesis which were not reflective of the entire data set. Also, data were not routinely analyzed by investigators blinded to the experimental versus the control group. On the other hand, in studies for which findings could be reproduced, authors had paid close attention to controls, reagents, investigator bias and describing the complete data set 10.
- Starting dose determination: endpoints based on optimal biological doses (OBD) were used to determine the recommended phase 2 dose (RP2D) for several FDA approved agents, such as bevacizumab, imatinib and vismodegib, as they didn't reach an established MTD in the phase I trial. Accordingly, a new approach was set using PK or PD as an endpoint to determine biologically active dose in preclinical experiments. This could be applied alongside with preclinical toxicology data to inform starting dose decisions. This binomial approach has the potential to reduce the number of dose escalations while keeping an optimised benefit /risk ratio. A number of



conditional and accelerated approvals have been granted based on phase II data relying on patient benefit ¹¹ ¹².

- Patient selection: Multiple genomic aberrations that drive oncogenesis may act as treatment targets. Therefore, the identification of a sufficient number of patients with a specific molecular aberration can significantly slow clinical trial accrual as the majority of these abnormalities have been reported with low frequency. In these cases multi-center studies with frequent communications investigator sites should ameliorate these limitations. Geographic heterogeneity due to spatial variations in molecular aberrations has been demonstrated within a single tumor, or between different lesions. Multiple tumor biopsies, ultra deep sequencing and non-invasive tumor imaging could potentially overcome the limitations of geographic heterogeneity ¹³⁻¹⁵.
- The concept of target-based drug discovery with the related complexity of target selection: the reliance on standard criteria for evaluating tumour response and the challenges of selecting patients prospectively also play a significant part in the success rate of a new molecule to be translated to clinic ¹⁶. The disappointing results in the clinic produced by some anticancer agents like mitotic kinases could be partially related to the lack of a balanced benefit /risk ratio as their efficacy was at the expense of high toxic effects. This might be explained by a non 'druggable' tumor cells which means that the activity of the key target of the anticancer agents was not inhibited in the tumor cells¹⁷.