

Experimental Cancer Therapeutics II

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Outline – Specific Topics

- **Introduction to cancer drug design and discovery**
 - **First generation of cancer drugs**
 - **Molecularly targeted small molecule cancer drugs**

- **New approaches to molecular cancer therapeutics**
 - **Process of developing new molecular-targeted therapeutics**
 - **Druggable genome**
 - **Lead generation and lead optimization**

- **Application of Biomarkers**
 - **Role of molecular imaging (PET) in cancer drug development**

Selected References

Cancer drug design and development:

Collins I, Workman P. New approaches to molecular cancer therapeutics. *Nat. Chem. Biol.* 2006; 2(12):689-700.

Billingsley ML. Druggable targets and targeted drugs: enhancing the development of new therapeutics. *Pharmacology.* 2008; 82(4):239-44.

van Montfort RL, Workman P. Structure-based design of molecular cancer therapeutics. *Trends Biotechnol.* 2009; 27(5):315-28.

Hopkins AL, Groom CR. The druggable genome. *Nat. Rev. Drug. Discov.* 2002; 1(9):727-30.

Biomarkers and molecular imaging:

Carden CP, Sarker D, Postel-Vinay S, Yap TA, Attard G, Banerji U, Garrett MD, Thomas GV, Workman P, Kaye SB, de Bono JS. Can molecular biomarker-based patient selection in Phase I trials accelerate anticancer drug development? *Drug Discov. Today.* 2010; 15(3-4):88-97.

Pysz MA, Gambhir SS, Willmann JK. Molecular imaging: current status and emerging strategies. *Clin. Radiol.* 2010; 65(7):500-16.

McCarthy TJ. Positron emission tomography imaging as a key enabling technology in drug development. *Ernst Schering Res. Found Workshop.* 2007; (62):329-39.

Belouèche-Babari M, Workman P, Leach MO. Exploiting tumor metabolism for non-invasive imaging of the therapeutic activity of molecularly targeted anticancer agents. *Cell Cycle.* 2011; 10(17):2883-93.

Modern cancer drug design and discovery

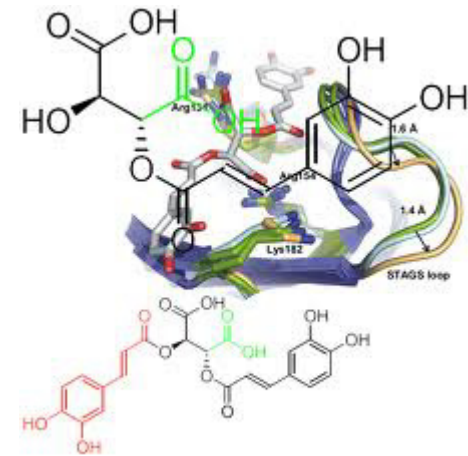
Modern cancer drug design and discovery:

Integrating

→ Targets

→ Technologies

→ Treatments



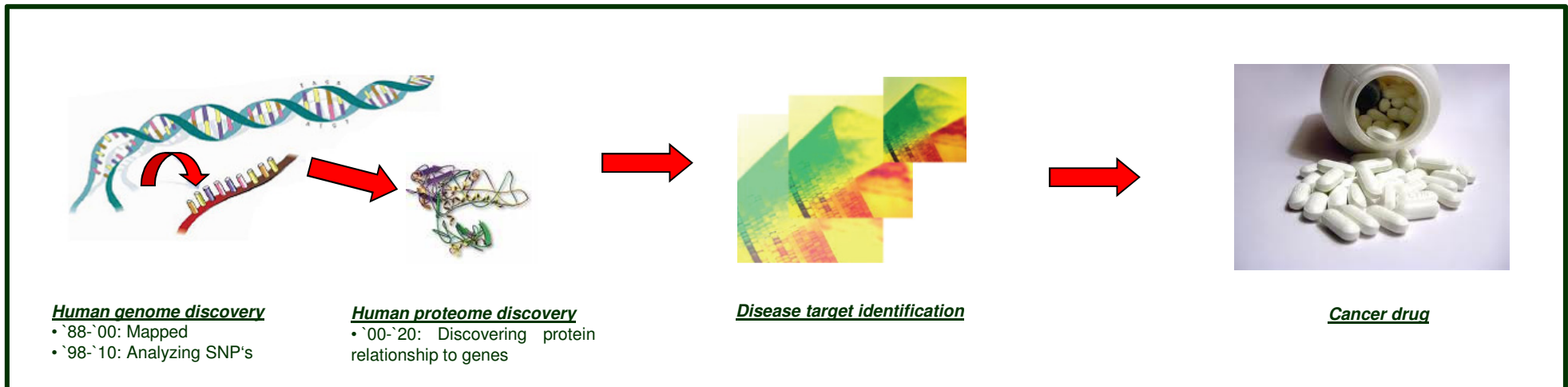
FOCUS:

Opportunities and challenges in the discovery and the design of molecularly targeted small-molecule cancer drugs

Modern cancer drug design and discovery

1. Molecular targets of contemporary drug discovery projects:

- ➔ Reflection of our increasing understanding of genes and signalling pathways responsible for the initiation and malignant progression of cancer
- ➔ How can potential new molecular targets be considered, validated and prioritized?

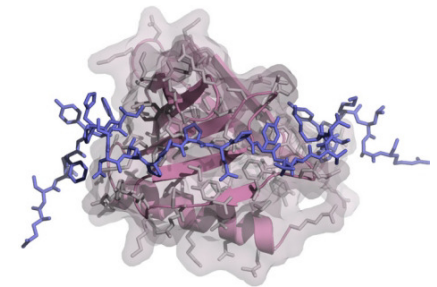
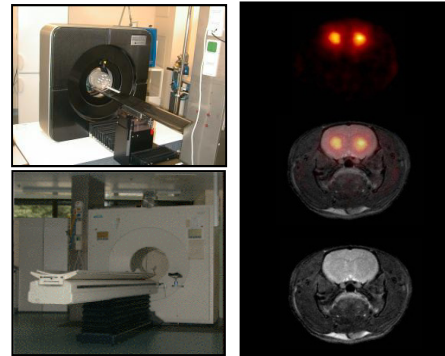
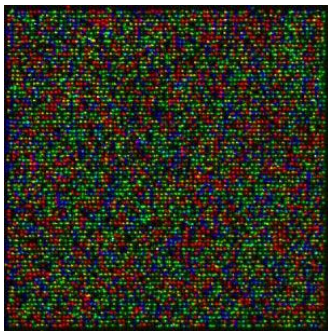


Modern cancer drug design and discovery

2. Integrated application of a range of powerful drug discovery and drug evaluation technologies:

- ➔ Genomics
- ➔ High-throughput screening (HTS)
- ➔ Molecular imaging
- ➔ Structural biology

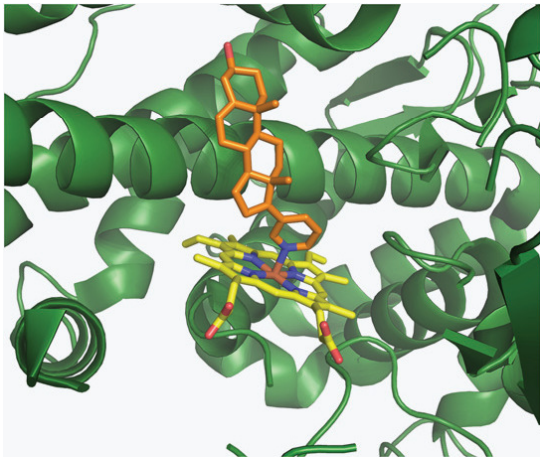
GOAL: Multi-parameter optimization of lead structures towards effective cancer drugs



Modern cancer drug design and discovery

3. Novel treatments:

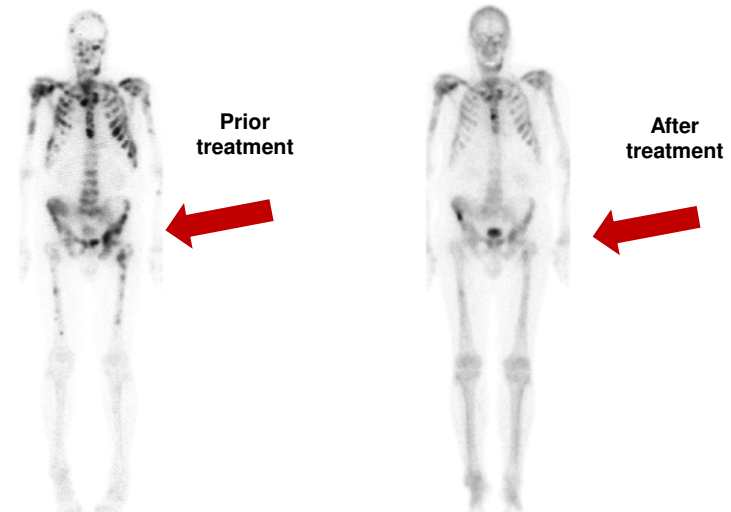
- ➔ Reflection of the success of new mechanism-based molecular therapeutics which act on cancer-causing targets
- ➔ Novel treatments which benefit from technological innovations in drug design



Prostate cancer drug abiraterone targeting active site of cytochrome P450



abiraterone



Effect of abiraterone treatment on reducing bone metastases in prostate cancer patients using ^{99m}Tc -MDP SPECT

<http://www.jointcancerreport.org/discovery-development/cancer-drug-discovery-and-development>

Modern cancer drug design and discovery

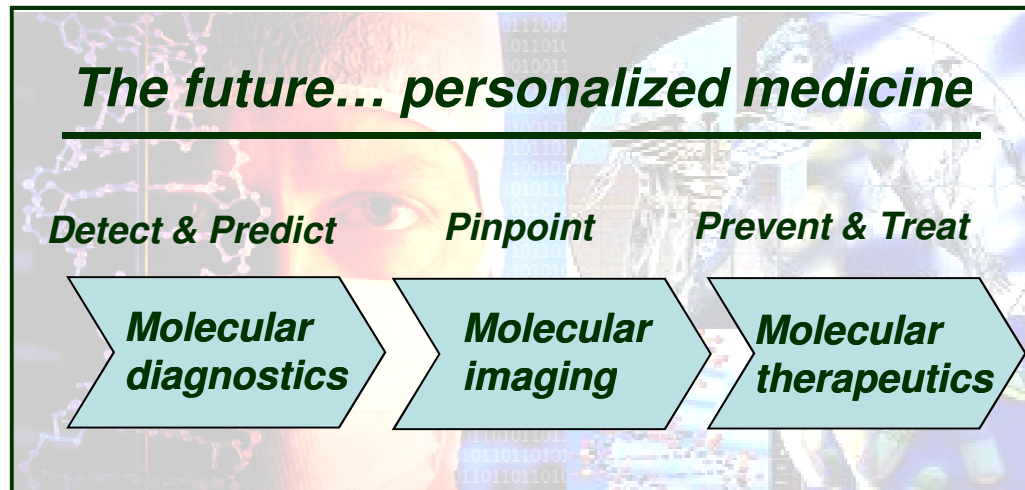
CONCLUSION:

Design, discovery and evaluation of cancer drugs are leading the way in the development of personalized molecular medicine

Key: Identification of biomarkers for:

→ Patient selection

→ Monitoring treatment effects (Molecular imaging!!!)



Modern cancer drug design and discovery

Changing times:

First generation of cancer drugs

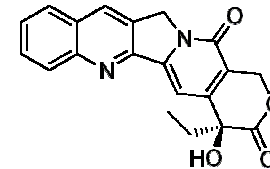
→ Almost all acted as cytotoxic agents (often based on natural products)

Mode of action:

- DNA damage
- Inhibition of DNA synthesis
- Interference with mechanisms of cell division

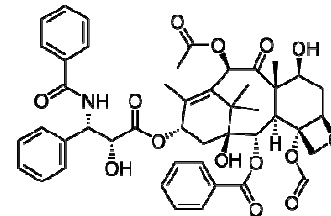
Examples:

→ Topoisomerase inhibitors



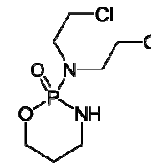
Camptothecin

→ Microtubuli-binding drugs



Paclitaxel

→ DNA alkylating agents



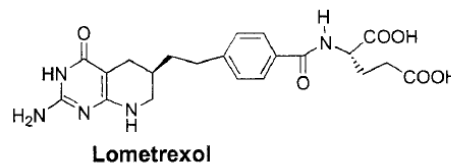
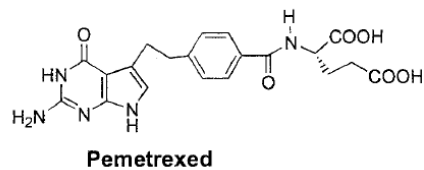
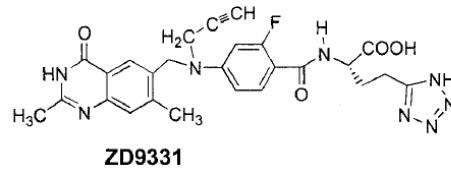
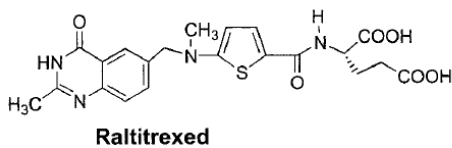
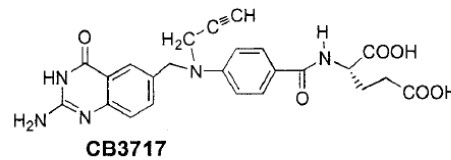
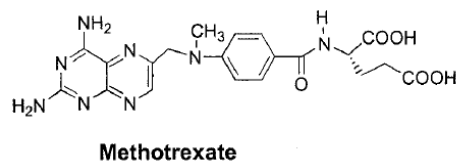
Cyclophosphamide

Modern cancer drug design and discovery

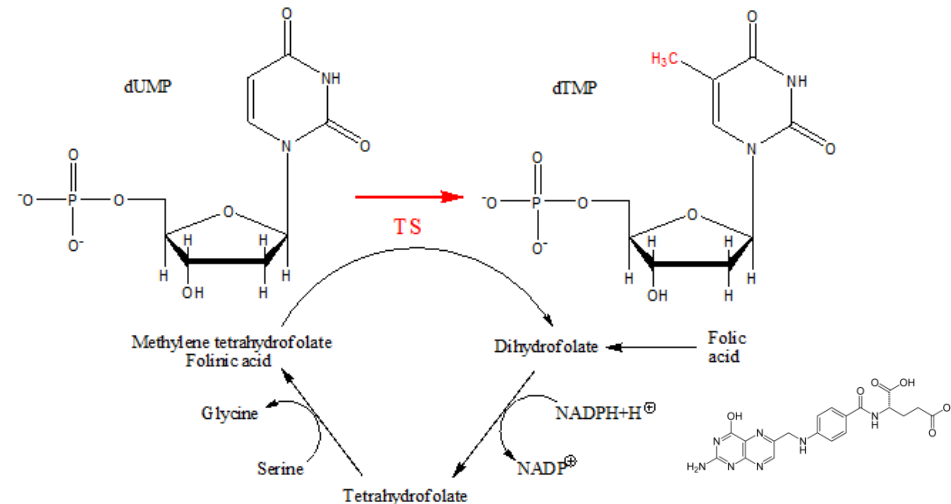
Drugs developed in the first, cytotoxic era of cancer drug development were not designed to take advantage of our current knowledge of the genetic and molecular basis of cancer

But: Many acted according to the “molecular targeting” approach
Designed according to contemporary medicinal chemistry including SAR and X-ray crystallography

→ E.g. Antifolate thymidylate synthase inhibitors (anti-metabolites)



Structures of antifolate drugs (anti-metabolites)



Mode of action

<http://clincancerres.aacrjournals.org/content/10/3/1080.full>

Modern cancer drug design and discovery

Success and limitations:

Notable successes with conventional cytotoxic drug treatment of cancer

But: Effectiveness of drug treatment varies across the different anatomical, histological, and molecular types of cancer



Major improvements in the treatment of leukemias, lymphomas, testicular cancer, and children's malignancies



Cancer still second most frequent cause of death in the Western world

No major improvement through simple fine-tuning of classical cytotoxic agents

This view coincided with the arrival of novel molecular targets emerging from basic cancer research and genomics



Emerging of “molecular cancer therapeutics”



Novel mechanism-based drugs acting on drug targets involved in the molecular causation of cancer

Modern cancer drug design and discovery

What has changed? - A brief summary -

- 1. Today's molecular targets reflect our increasing understanding of the genes and signaling pathways responsible for initiation and malignant progression of cancer***
- 2. Integrated application of a range of powerful drug discovery technologies***
- 3. New treatments which reflect the success of mechanism-based molecular therapeutics***

Novel molecular cancer therapeutics

| Agent | Target for agent | Targeted cancer | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------------------|-----------------|---------------|-----|------|--------------|-------------------|------------------------|-----|------------|-----|-----------------|
| | | Solid tumours | | | | | | Haematological tumours | | | | |
| | | NSCLC | Breast cancer | CRC | GIST | Renal cancer | Pancreatic cancer | HNSCC | AML | B-cell CLL | CML | B-cell lymphoma |
| mAbs | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cetuximab (Erbix) | EGFR | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Trastuzumab (Herceptin) [†] | ERBB2 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bevacizumab (Avastin) [†] | VEGF | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Rituximab (Rituxan) ^{**} | CD20 | | | | | | | | | | | ✓ |
| Ibritumomab tiuxetan (Zevalin) [*] | CD20 | | | | | | | | | | | ✓ |
| Tositumomab- ¹³¹ I (Bexxar) [*] | CD20 | | | | | | | | | | | ✓ |
| Gemtuzumab ozogamicin (Mylotarg) ^{##} | CD33 | | | | | | | | ✓ | | | |
| Alemtuzumab (Campath) | CD52 | | | | | | | | | ✓ | | |
| Small-molecule inhibitors | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Imatinib mesylate (Gleevec) | TKs (BCR-ABL, KIT, PDGFR) | | | | ✓ | | | | | | | ✓ |
| Gefitinib (Iressa) | TK (EGFR) | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | |
| Erlotinib (Tarceva) | TK (EGFR) | ✓ | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sunitinib (Sutent) | TKs (VEGFR, PDGFR, KIT, FLT3) | | | | ✓ | ✓ | | | | | | |
| Sorafenib (Nexavar) | Kinases (B-Raf, VEGFR2, EGFR, PDGFR) | | | | | ✓ | | | | | | |
| Bortezomib (Velcade) | 28S protease | | | | | | | | | | | ✓ |

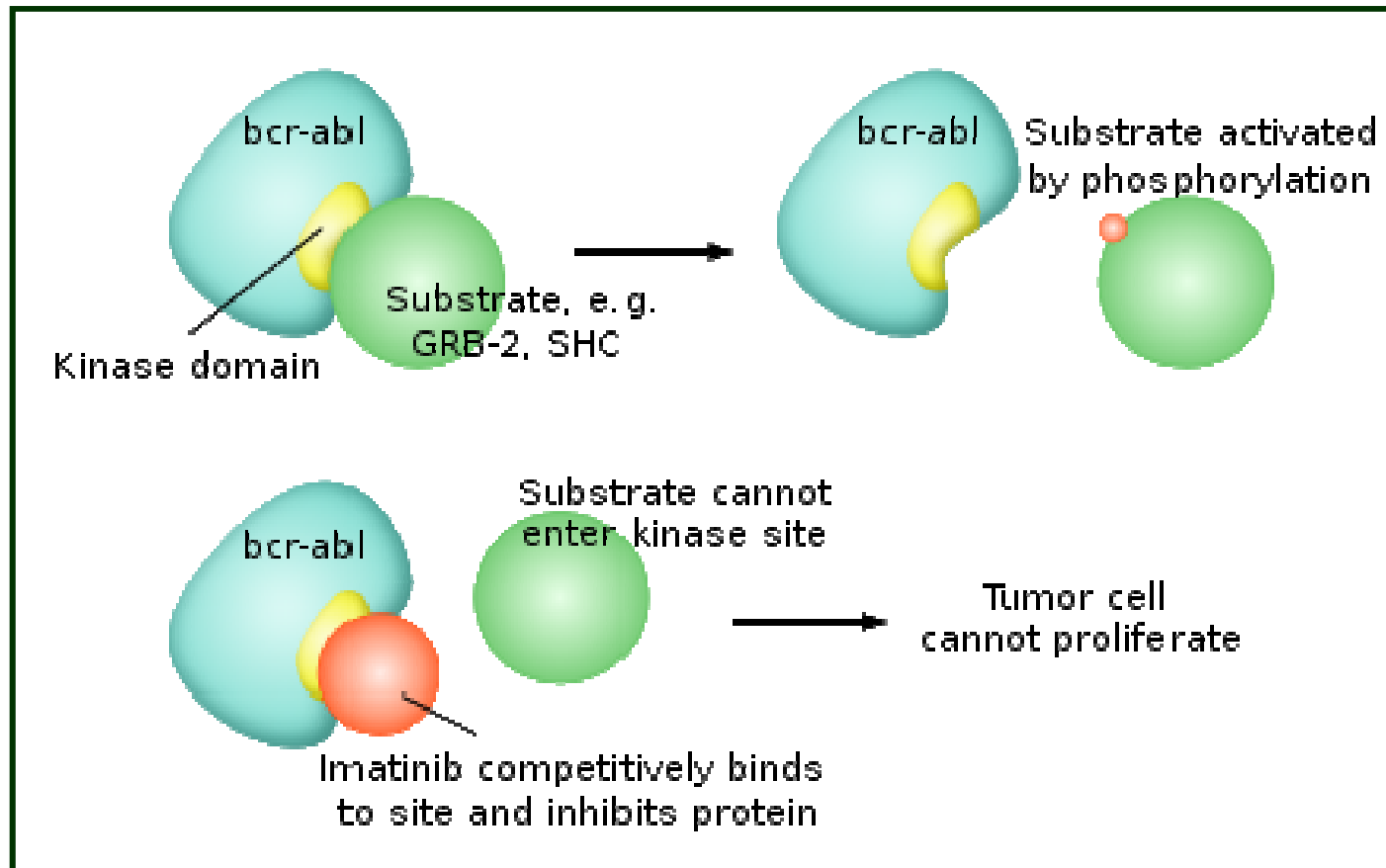
Gleevec:
First successful small molecule for molecularly targeted cancer therapy



Source: Nat Rev Cancer © 2006 Nature Publishing Group

Gleevec: How it works – An example for molecular targeting

Chronic myelogenous leukemia (CML): \$30.000 - \$100.000 per year
Gastrointestinal stromal tumors (GIST): \$65.000 per year



<http://www.goshdawnit.com/2008/08/message-from-mike.html>

Novel molecular cancer therapeutics

Current challenges of oncology drug discovery and development with respect to small-molecule drug development:

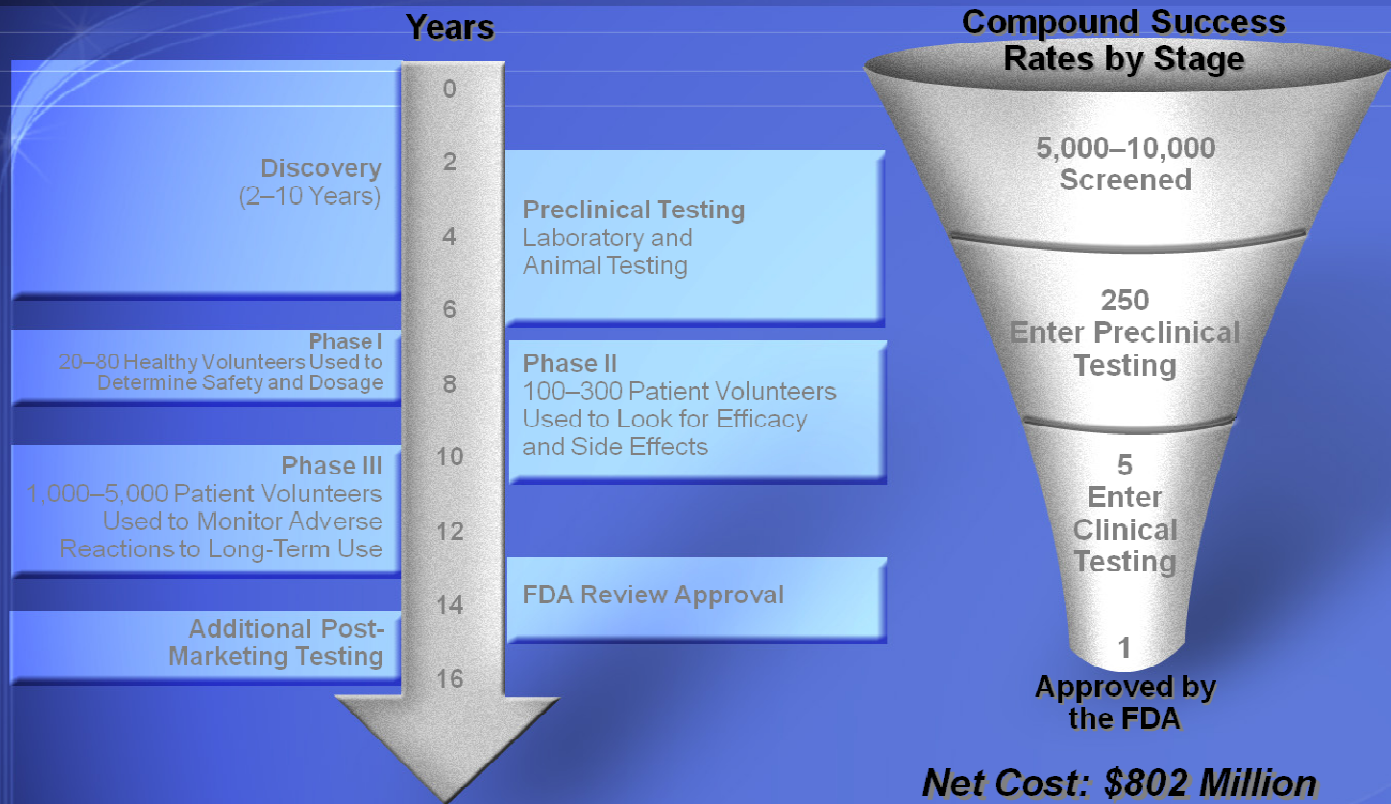
- ***Many of recently approved drugs are mAbs***
- ***Others are not first-in-class agents***

Assessment of overall success rate for oncology drug development:

- ➔ **Failure rates for cancer drugs in clinical trials (1990-2000) were worse than for most other therapeutic areas (*Kola and Ladis, 2004*)**
- ➔ **Only 5% of oncology drugs entering the clinic went to gain regulatory approval for marketing (95% failed!!!, other disease fields have 11% success rate)**
- ➔ **Longer development timelines for oncology drugs than for other therapeutic areas**
- ➔ **Large number of cancer drug failures occurred in an advanced stage clinical evaluation (high costs!!!)**

Novel molecular cancer therapeutics

New Product Development – A Risky and Expensive Proposition



Source: Tufts Center for the Study of Drug Development

ONCL 520 – Experimental Cancer Therapeutics II

Novel molecular cancer therapeutics

Reasons for failure:

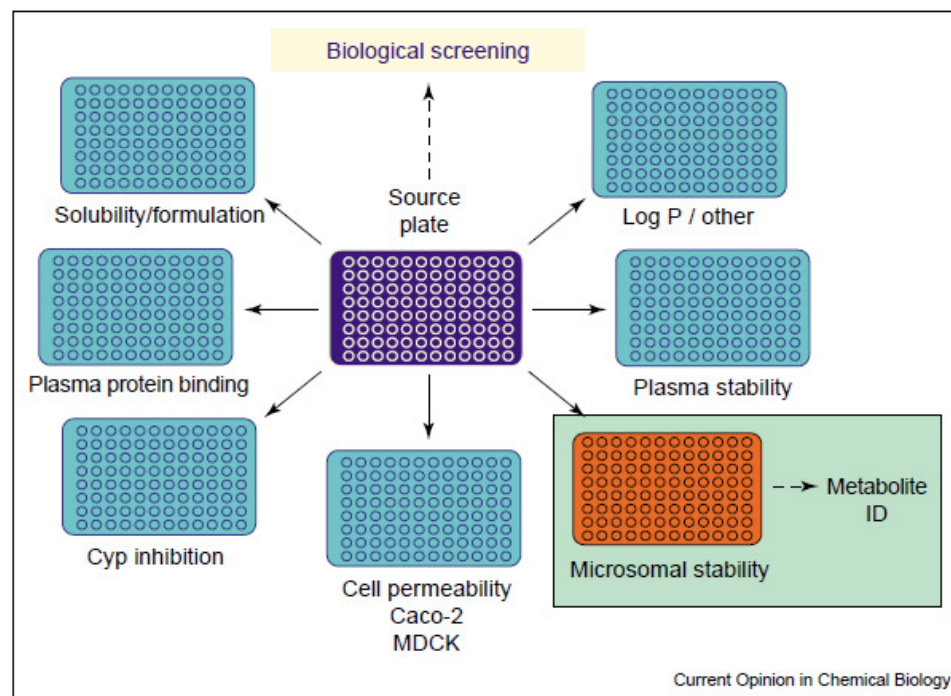
- In early 1990s: *Poor pharmacokinetics*
Limited bioavailability



Development of a predictive assay (ADME):

Absorption
Distribution
Metabolism
Excretion

Introduction of ADME assay led to a fall in clinical failure rate from 40 to 10% in 2000!!!



Novel molecular cancer therapeutics

Today's reason of attrition of a cancer drug :

 *Insufficient therapeutic efficacy !!!*

How to address the problem:

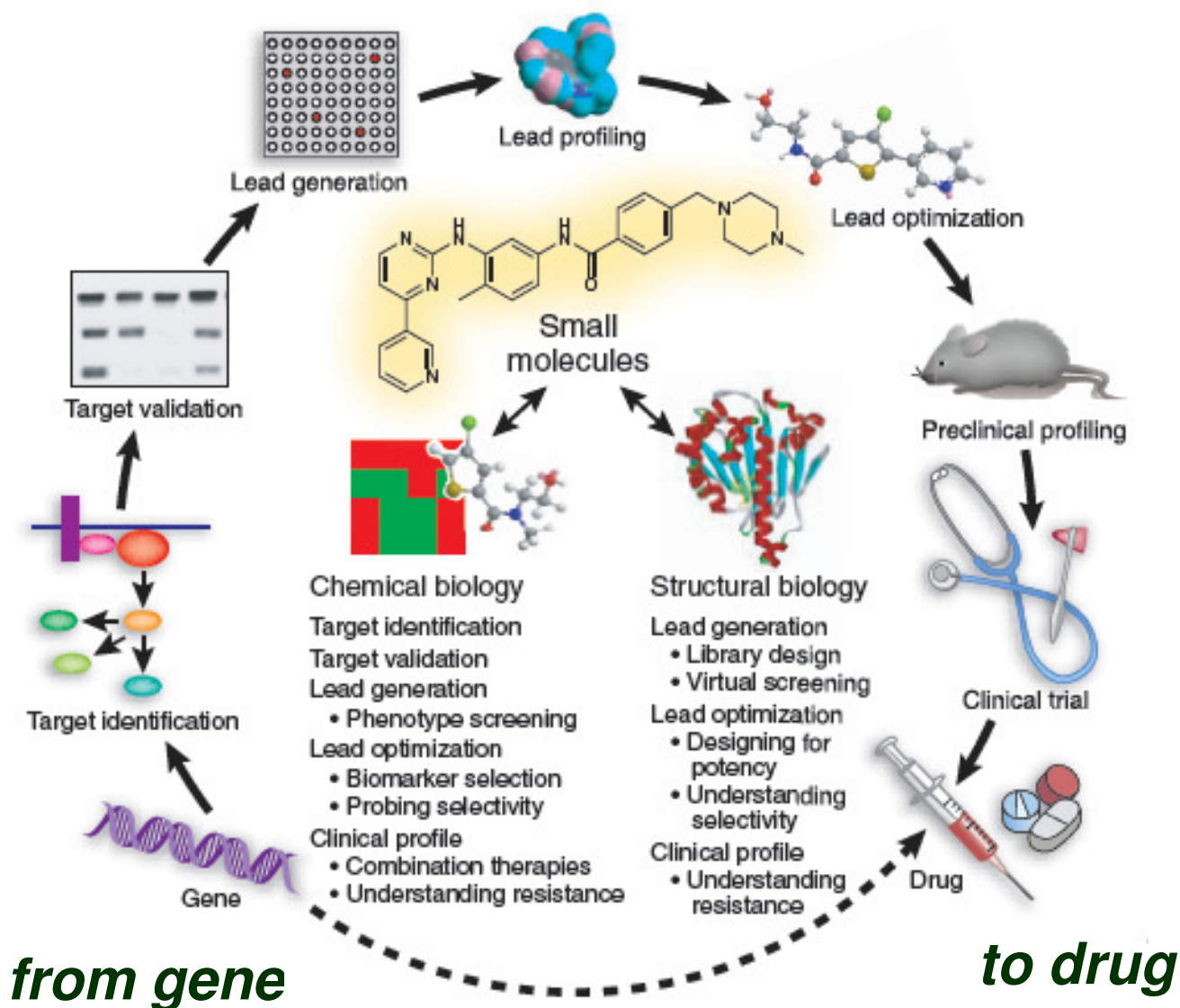
- 1. Selection of the best possible **molecular target***
- 2. Use of **animal models of human cancers** with improved predictive power*
- 3. Better **prediction of on-target and off-target toxicity** (side effects!!!)*
- 4. Careful **selection of biomarkers** to identify the most responsive patients and to provide proof-of-concept for the proposed molecular mechanism (→ molecular imaging)*

Integrated small-molecule drug discovery and development

The process of developing new molecular-targeted drugs:

Interplay between:

- Genetics
- Genomics
- Bioinformatics
- Cell and molecular biology
- Structural biology
- Pharmacology
- Tumor biology
- Medicinal chemistry
- Experimental medicine



Collins I, Workman P. Nat. Chem. Biol. 2006; 2(12):689-700.

New molecular targets: The “druggable“ cancer genome

Selection of best possible molecular target

→ Crucial to the success of drug discovery

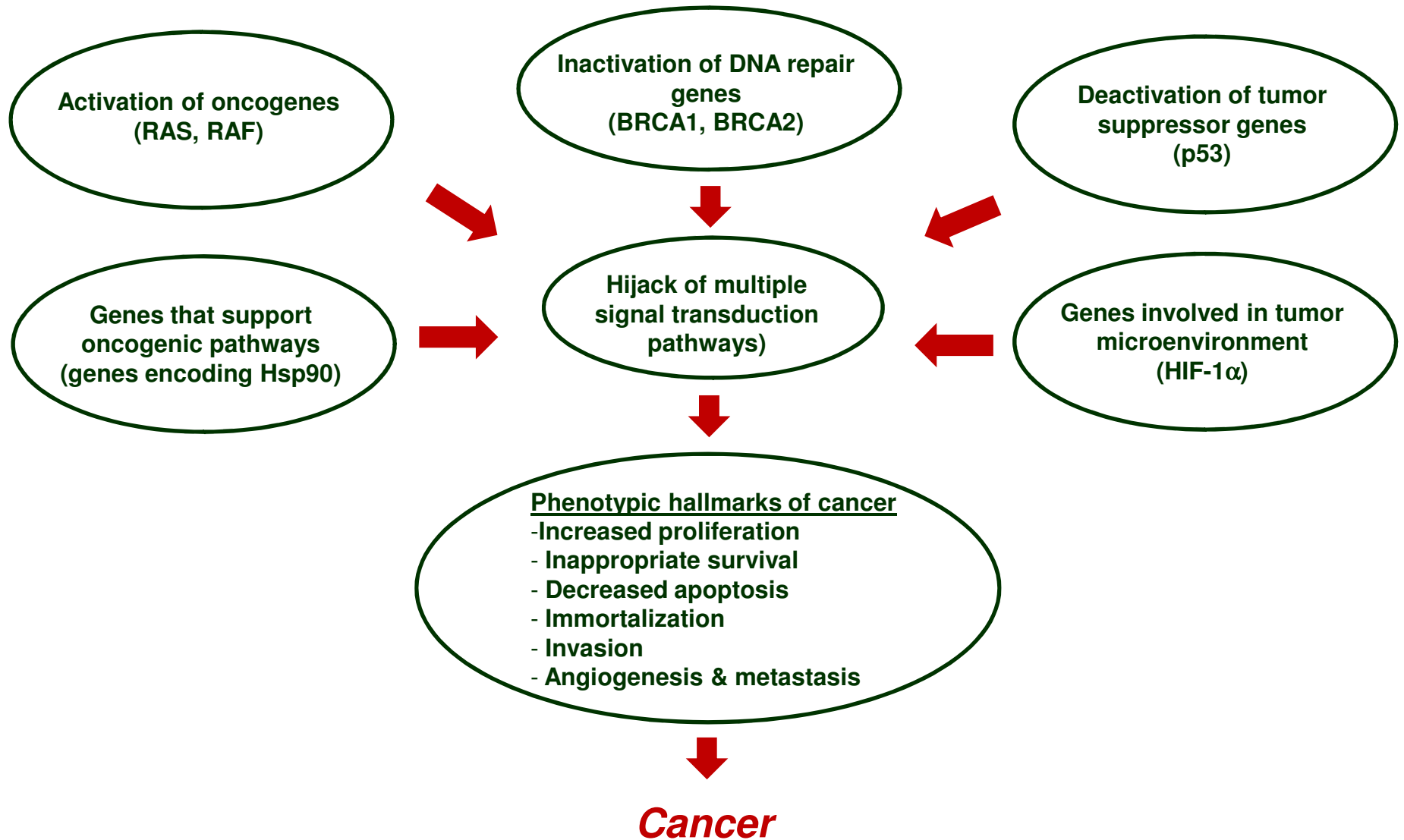
Factors influencing the choice of target:

- 1. Involvement of the target in the initiation and progression of cancer***
- 2. Technical feasibility (or “druggability“) of the target***

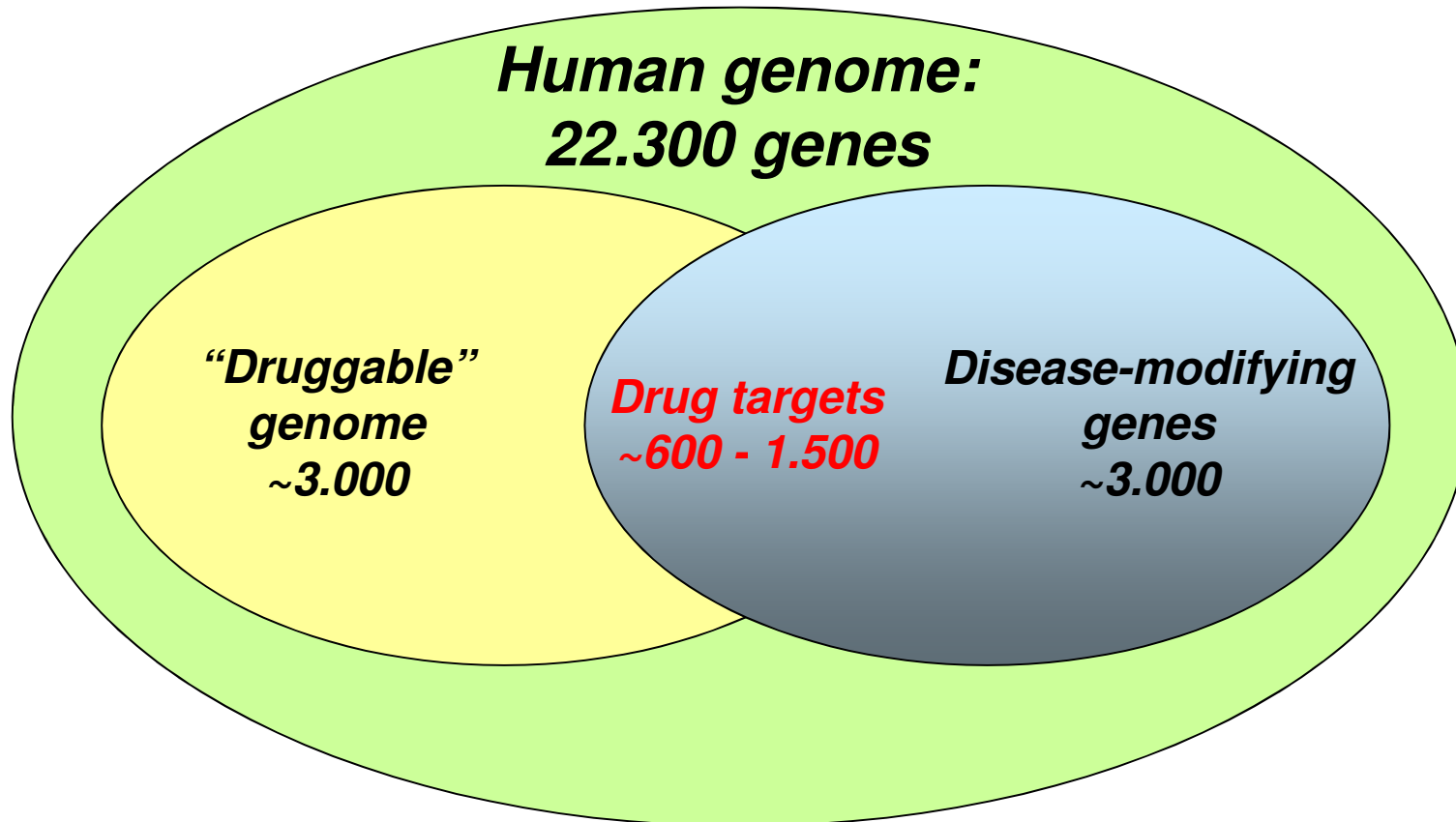


Concept of the “druggable“ genome (Hopkins and Groom, 2002)

Classes of genes and biological mechanisms involved in cancer



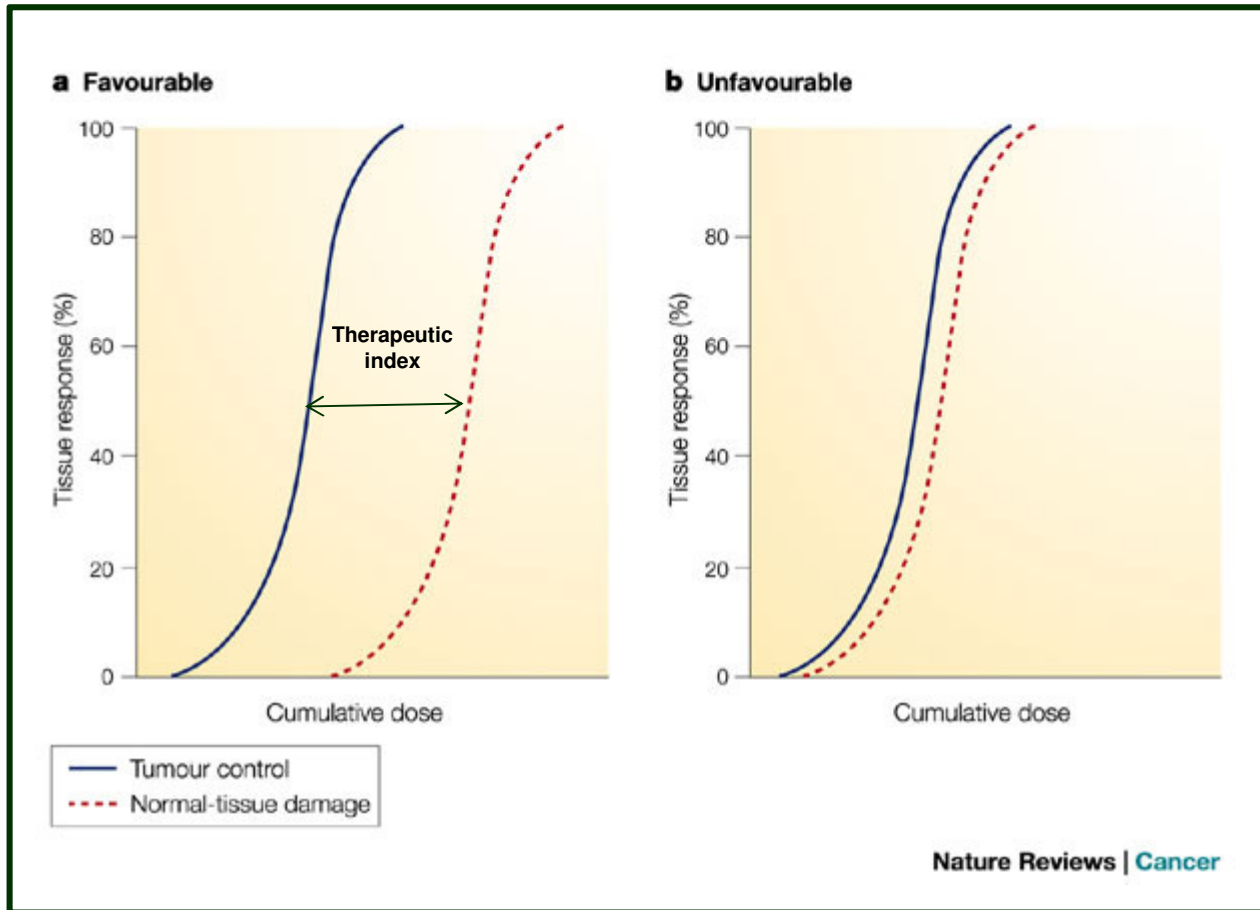
New molecular targets: The “druggable” cancer genome



Quelle: *Drug Discovery Today*, August 2005

New molecular targets

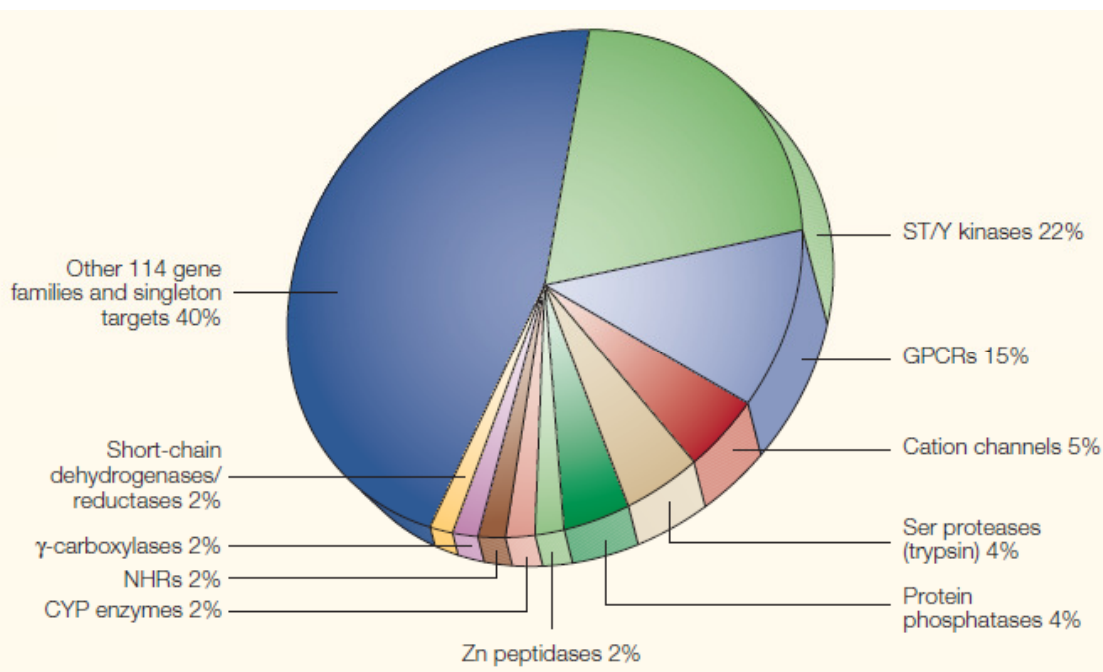
Best molecular targets for drug development of highly effective cancer drugs with minimal side effects will be those that are responsible for major differences between cancerous and healthy cells



Drugs acting on essential function would have a narrower therapeutic index than those that interfere with non-essential functions

New molecular targets: Druggable targets

The druggable genome



Hopkins AL, Groom CR. The druggable genome. Nat. Rev. Drug. Discov. 2002; 1(9):727-30.

High priority to:

Receptors for small endogeneous molecules

Enzymes with well-defind active site (kinases)

Protein-protein interactions involving small domains

Currently not druggable or difficult:

Phosphatases

Large domain-size protein-protein interactions

Mutant RAS G protein, mutant p53

New molecular targets: Druggable targets

Comparison of the druggable genomes of selected eukaryotes

| | <i>Homo sapiens</i> | <i>Drosophila melanogaster</i> | <i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i> | <i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> |
|---|---------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Total number of predicted genes ^{8,9,16} | ~30,000 | 13,601 | 18,424 | 6,241 |
| Number of proteins in proteome* | 21,688 | 13,849 | 17,946 | 6,127 |
| Number of estimated druggable targets | 3,051 | 1,714 | 2,267 | 508 |
| Percentage that are predicted druggable targets | ~10–14% | 12% | 12% | 8% |

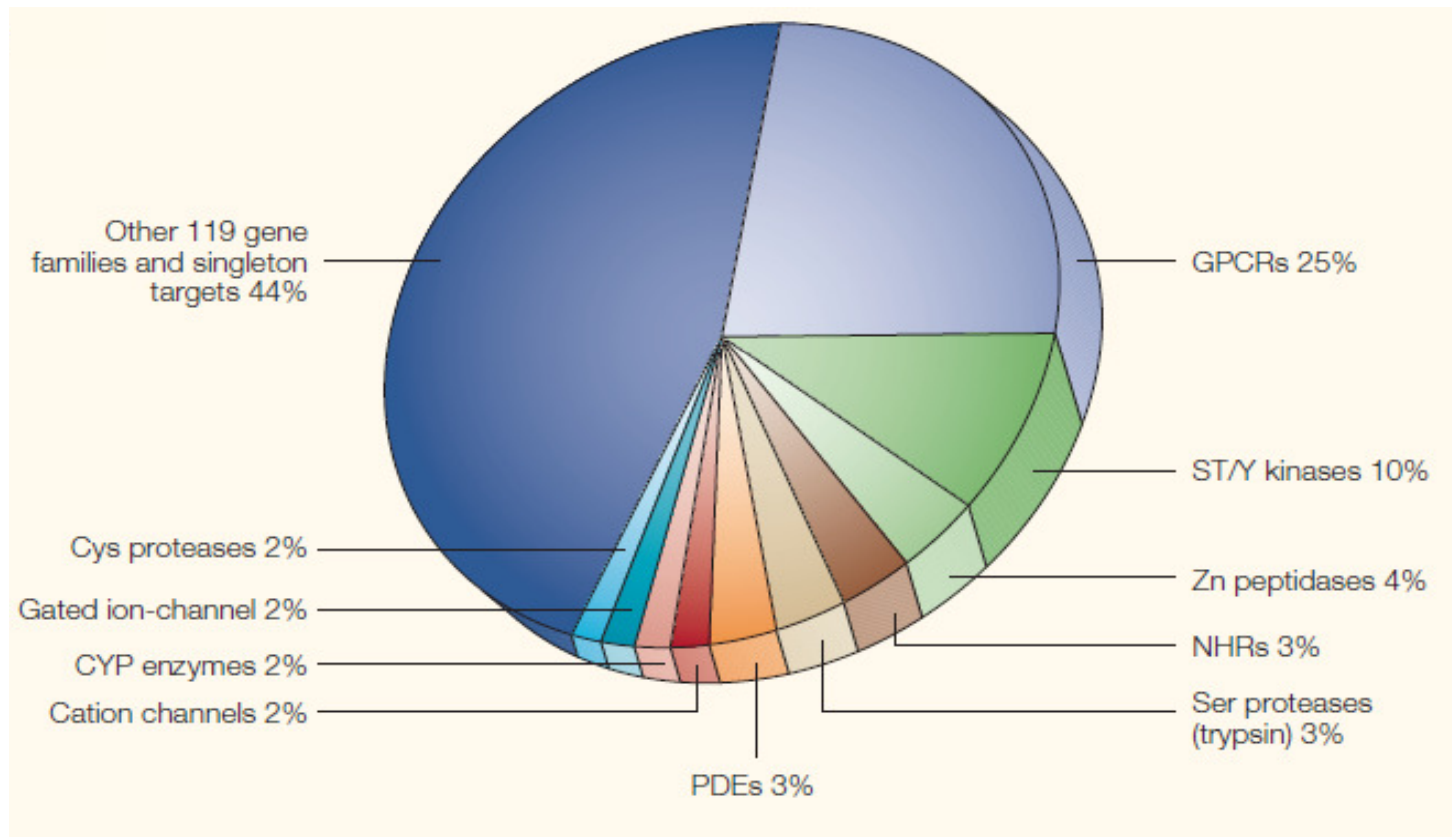
Not druggable targets:

Knowledge of biochemical pathway to allow selection of downstream targets
e.g. no inhibition of RAS → Targeting of downstream MEK kinases

Hopkins AL, Groom CR. The druggable genome. *Nat. Rev. Drug. Discov.* 2002; 1(9):727-30.

New molecular targets: Druggable targets

Molecular targets of “rule-of-five” compliant drugs



Hopkins AL, Groom CR. The druggable genome. *Nat. Rev. Drug. Discov.* 2002; 1(9):727-30.

Lipinski's "Rule-of-Five"

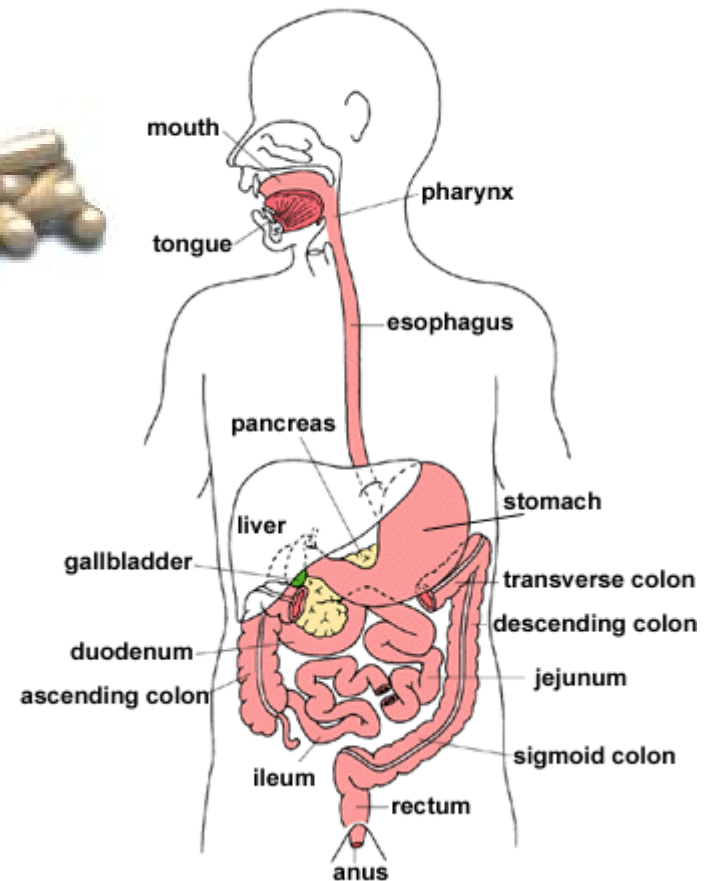
The rule describes molecular properties important for a drug's pharmacokinetics in the human body, including their absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion ("ADME"). However, the rule does not predict if a compound is pharmacologically active. *Poor ADME, when:*

Molecular mass: >500

Lipophilicity (logP): >5.0

>5 H-bond donors (e.g. OH und NH)

>10 H-bond acceptors (e.g. N und O)



Absorption
Distribution
Metabolism
Excretion

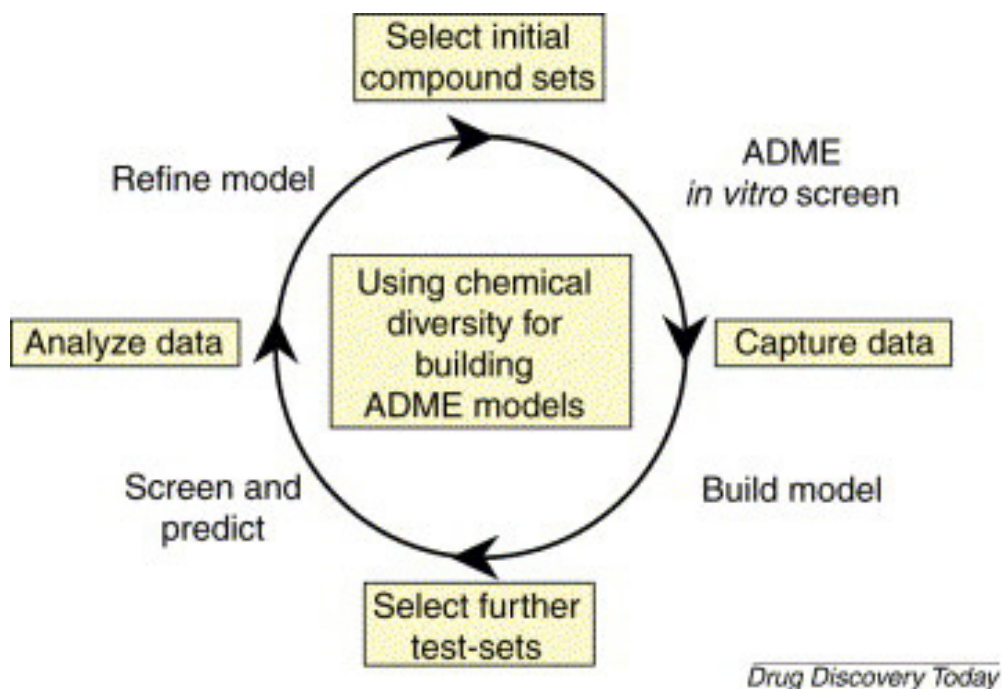
Pharmacokinetics
Bioavailability

From drug target to development candidate

After target selection → Generation of lead compounds

The heart of small molecule drug discovery is the iterative cycle of chemical synthesis and biological evaluation

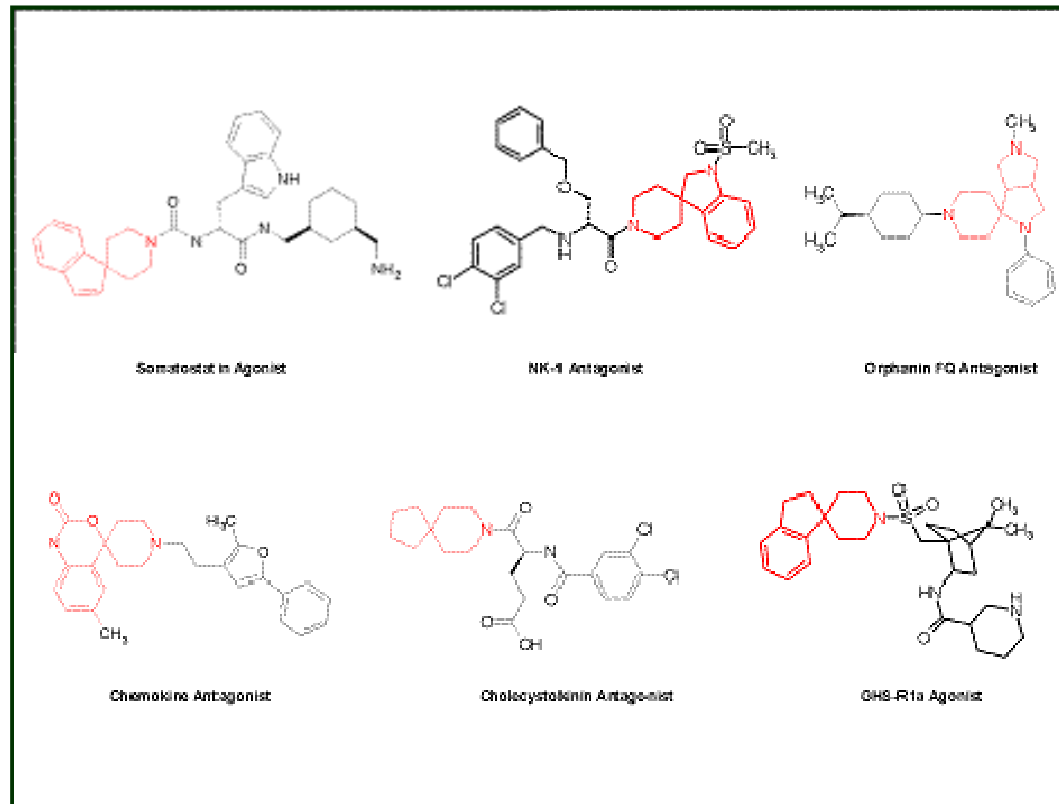
Natural products vs. synthetic compounds



From drug target to development candidate

Natural products: Pre-optimized through selective forces of evolution

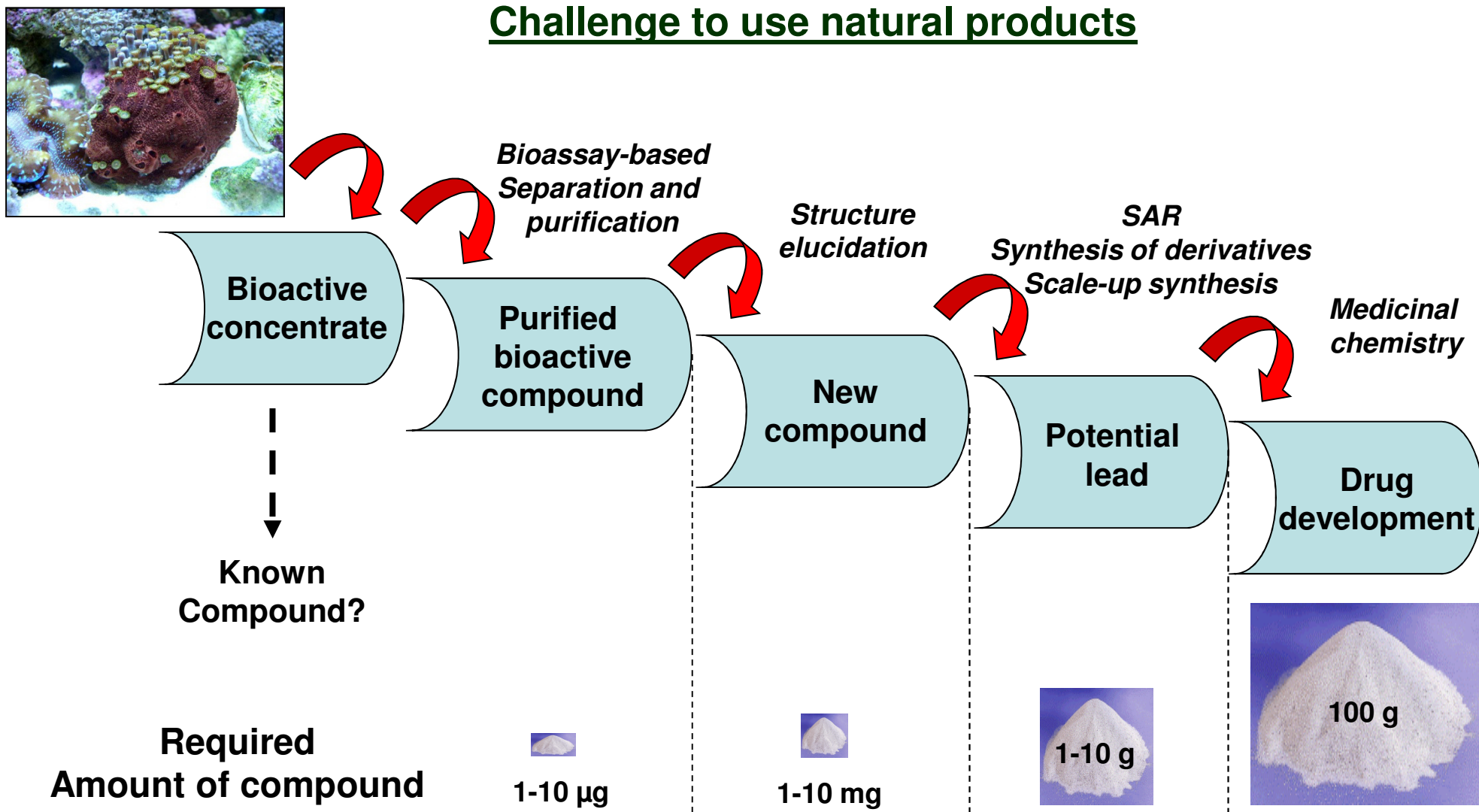
→ Priviledged structures



Reported GPCR ligands containing spiroperidines as recognition motives

From drug target to development candidate

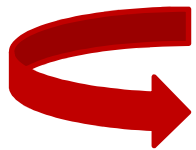
Challenge to use natural products



From drug target to development candidate

Challenge to use synthetic compounds

Small molecule compounds: Very rarely clinical candidates



Need for substantial structural modifications

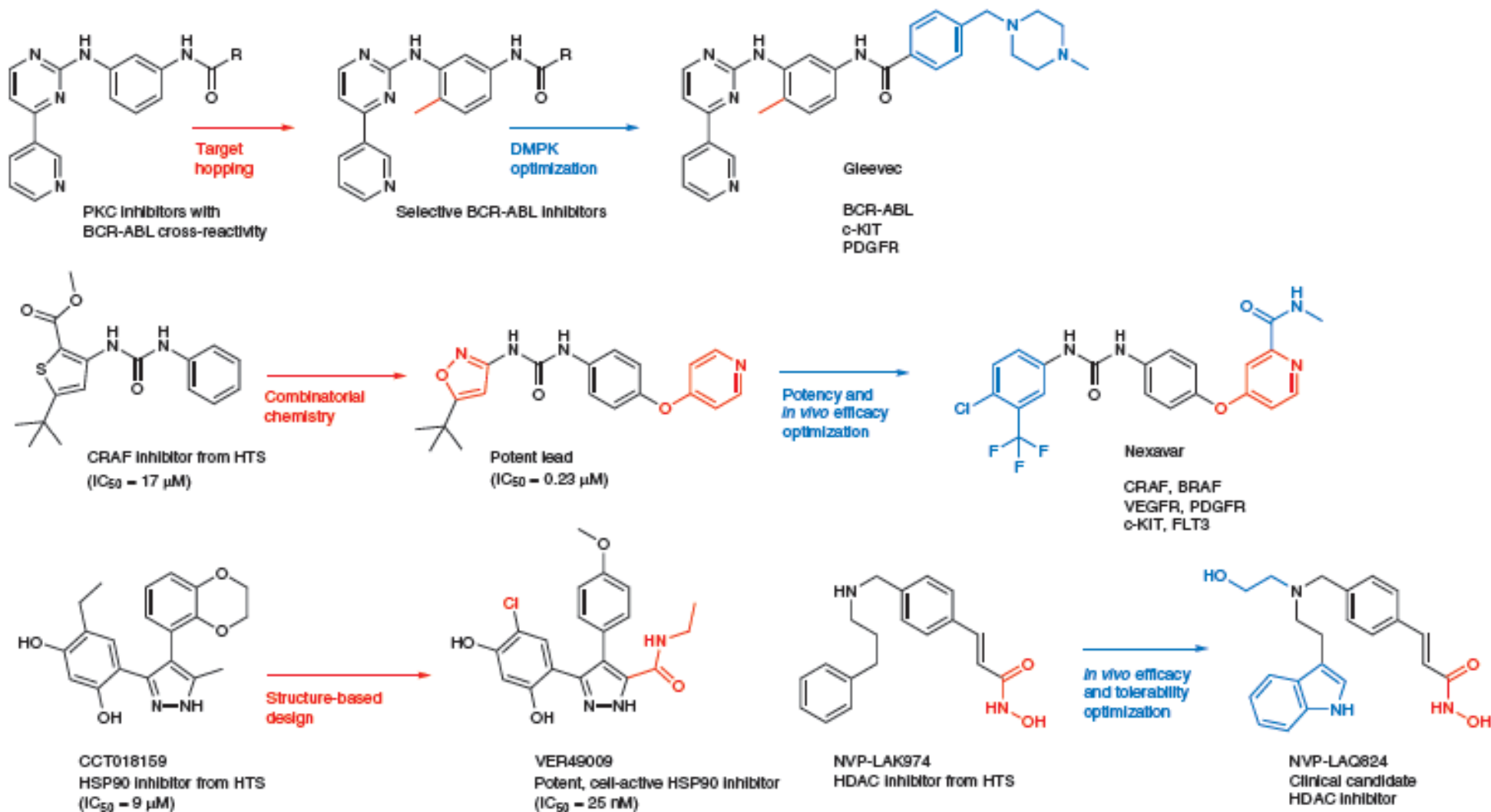
Chemical starting points: - Structure of endogeneous biological ligands

- Existing drugs**
- Natural product pool**

Alternative: Compound libraries from HTS

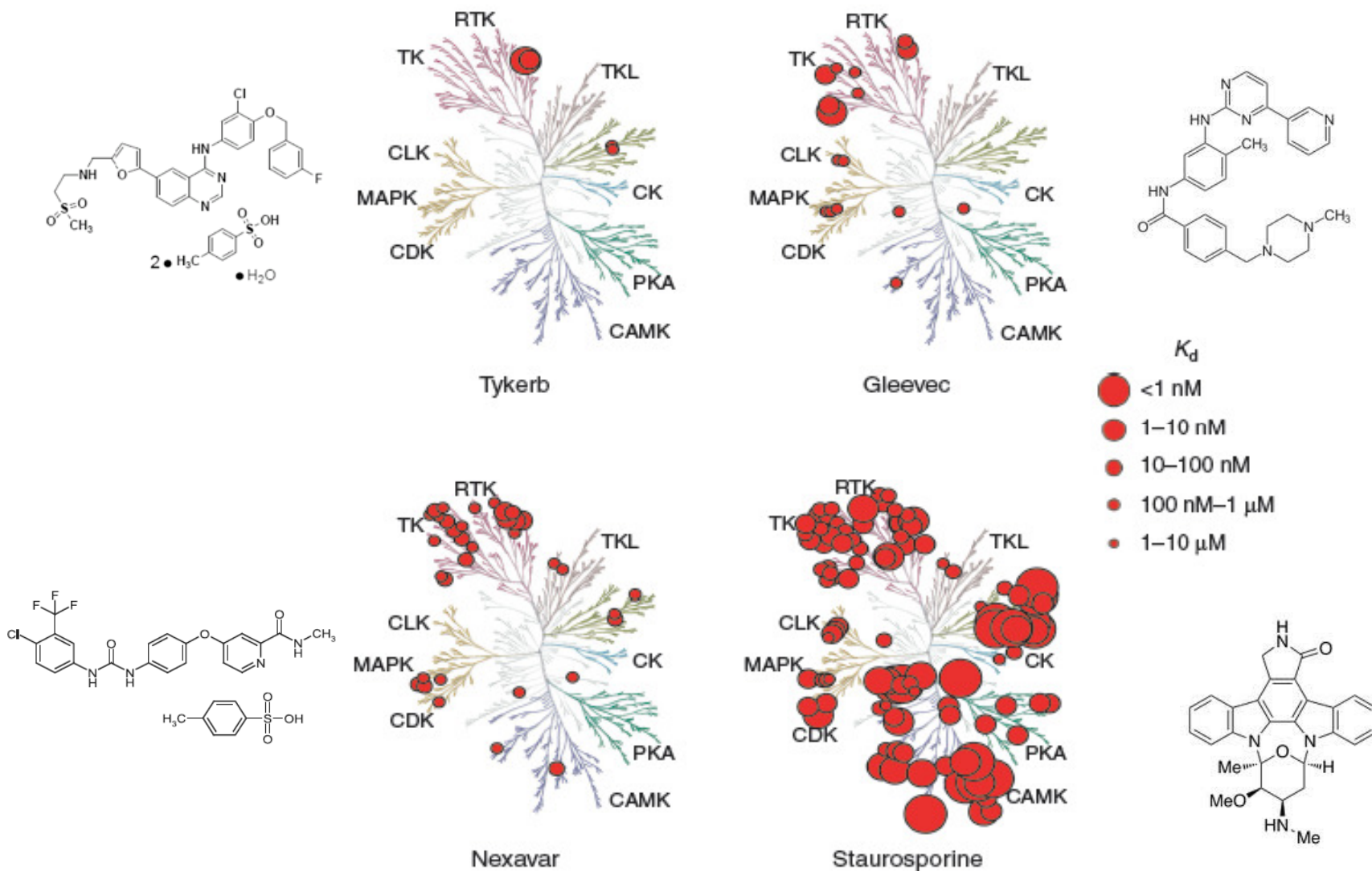
→ Biological HTS of 100.000 to 2.000.000 chemically diverse small compounds

Selected histories of lead generation and lead optimization

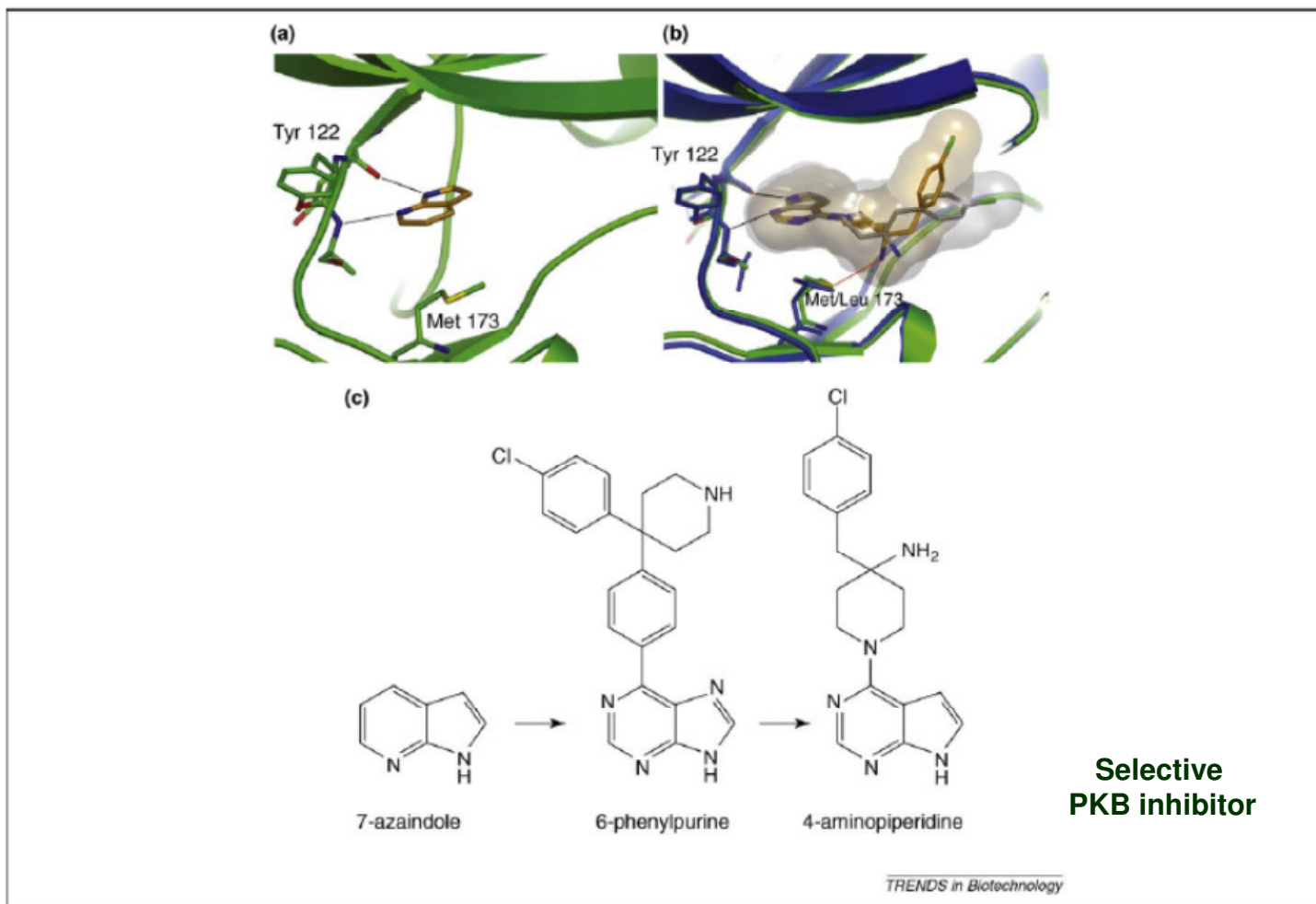


<http://www.nature.com/nchembio/journal/v2/n12/images/nchembio840-sc1.jpg>

Kinase binding selectivity for inhibitors using the human kinome



Fragment-based drug discovery



‘Rule of three’ for fragments:

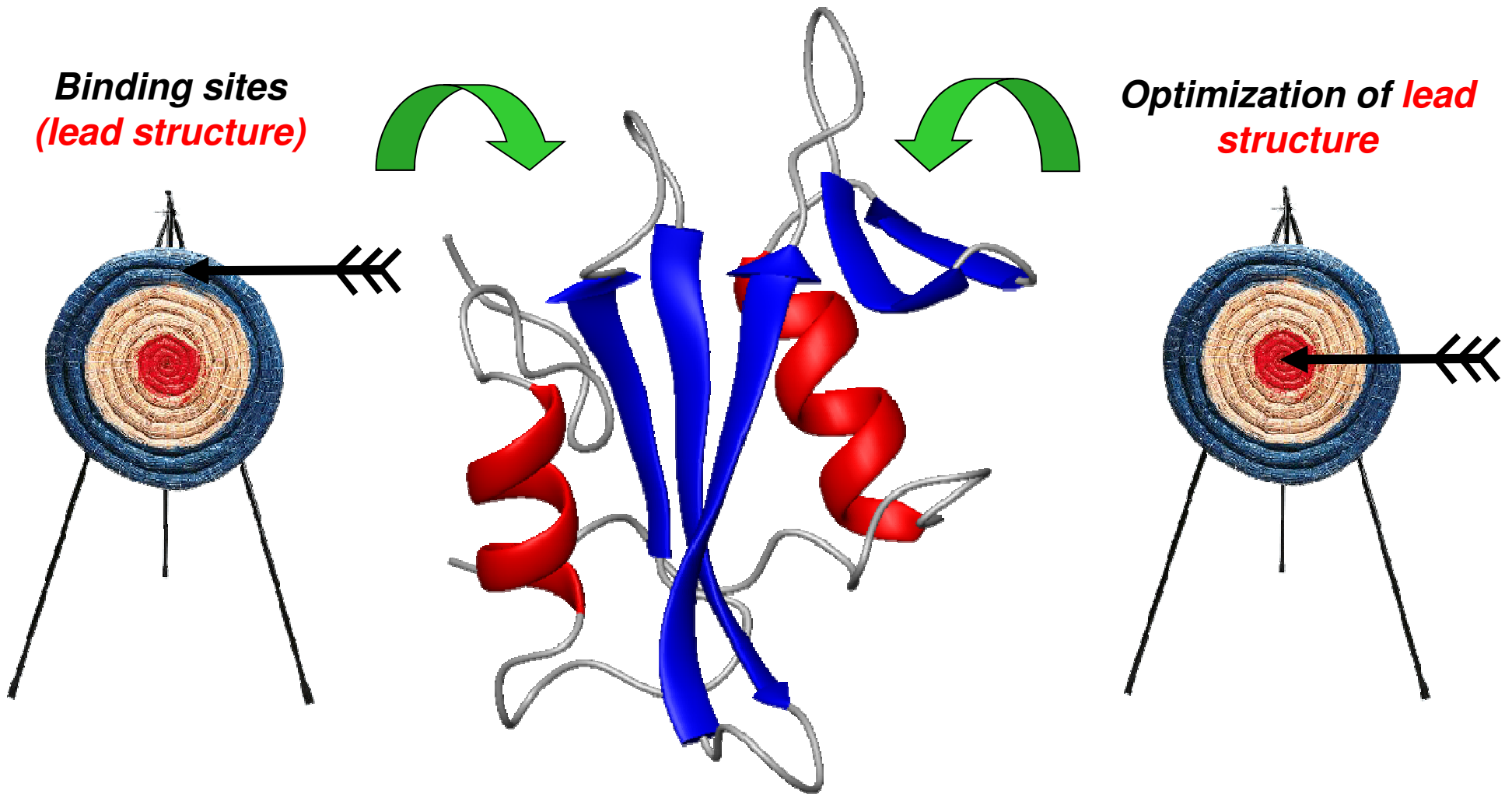
MW < 300, logP < 3, number of H-bond donors and acceptors each should be < 3

Typical physicochemical and biological properties

| Property | Fragment | Lead | Drug |
|--|--|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Molecular weight | <300 | <400-450 | <500 |
| Lipophilicity (logP) | <3 | <4 | <5 |
| H-bond donors | ≤3 | ≤4-5 | ≤5 |
| H-bond acceptors | ≤3 | ≤8-9 | ≤10 |
| Polar surface area | N/A | N/A | ≤140-150 Å ² |
| Chemically reactive groups | N/A | None present | None present |
| Target activity (IC ₅₀ ; K _i) | >>10 ⁻⁵ -10 ⁻⁶ M | 10 ⁻⁶ -10 ⁻⁶ M | 10 ⁻⁸ -10 ⁻⁹ M |
| Structure-Activity-Relationship (SAR) | NMR or X-ray | Useful SAR established | Full SAR understood |

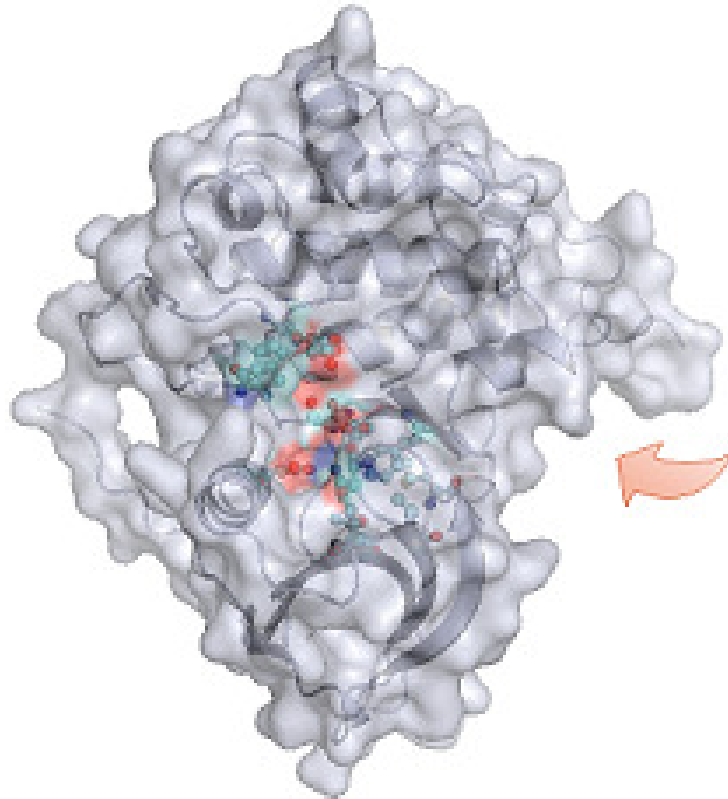
Hit to lead generation

„we do better with structure...“

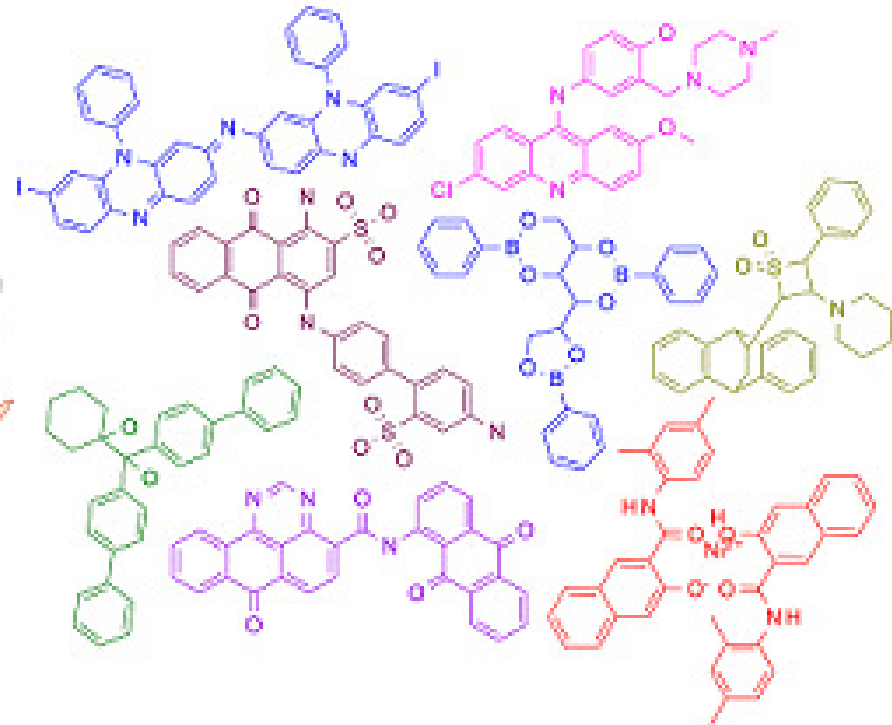


Hit to lead generation

„we do better with structure...“



EGFR-TK, ball & stick refers to binding residues



8 hits from NCI diversity database

Novel molecular cancer therapeutics

Summary – Conclusions:

➔ Shift of paradigm

Focus on mechanism-based drugs acting on drug targets involved in the molecular causation of cancer

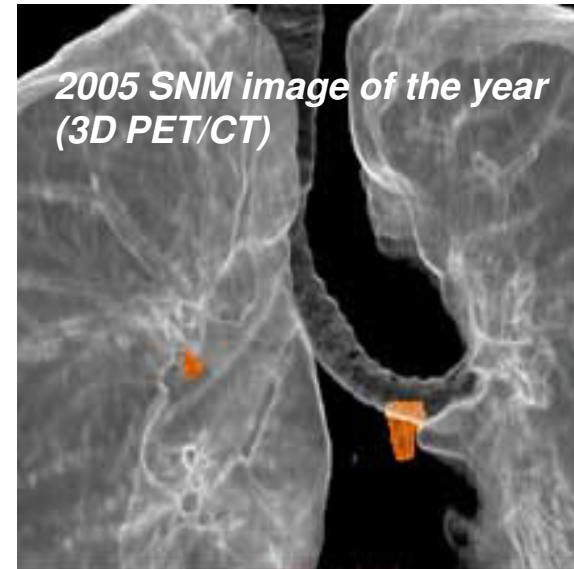
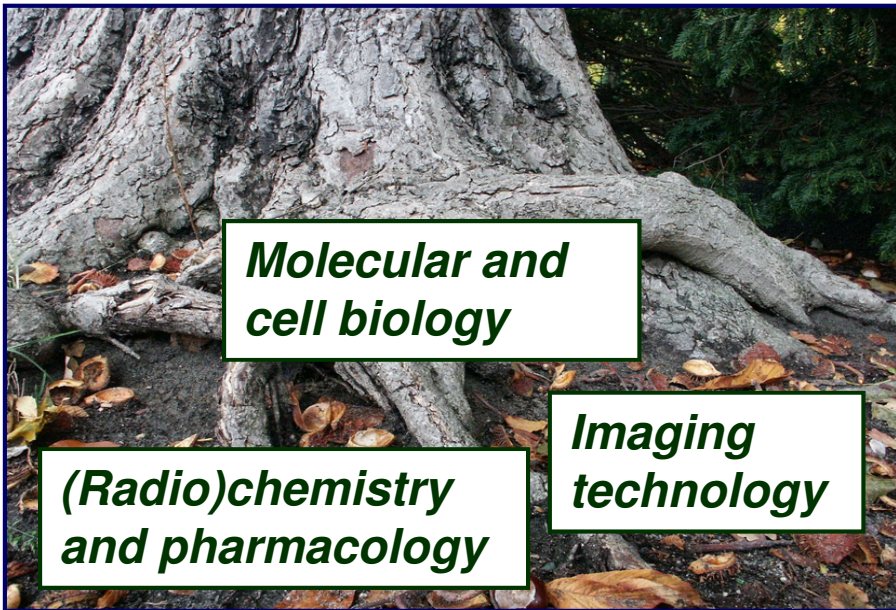
Careful selection of molecular target ("Druggable" cancer genome)

Interplay between chemical biology and structural biology (we do better with structure)

Complex hit to lead to drug developing process

Biomarkers and molecular imaging

Non-invasive assessment of dynamics of a given biological process at the cellular and molecular level in the physiological intact organism over time



Impact on:

- ➔ Diagnosing and staging of cancer
- ➔ Monitoring therapy
- ➔ Functional/anatomical imaging
- ➔ Drug development & evaluation

Molecular imaging ➔ Molecular medicine

Molecular imaging methodologies

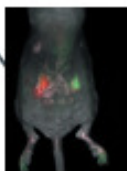
Optical imaging

Advantages:

- High-throughput screening for target confirmation and compound optimization
- High sensitivity

Disadvantages:

- Limited clinical translation
- Low depth penetration



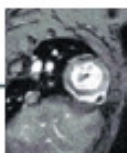
Magnetic resonance imaging

Advantages:

- Clinical translation
- High resolution and soft-tissue contrast

Disadvantages:

- Costs
- Imaging time



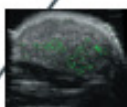
Ultrasound imaging

Advantages:

- Clinical translation
- High spatial and temporal resolution
- Low costs

Disadvantages:

- Operator dependency
- Targeted imaging limited to vascular compartment



PET imaging

Advantages:

- Clinical translation
- High sensitivity with unlimited depth penetration

Disadvantages:

- Cost



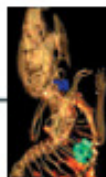
SPECT imaging

Advantages:

- Clinical translation
- Unlimited depth penetration

Disadvantages:

- Limited spatial resolution



CT imaging

Advantages:

- High spatial resolution (bone/lung)
- Clinical translation

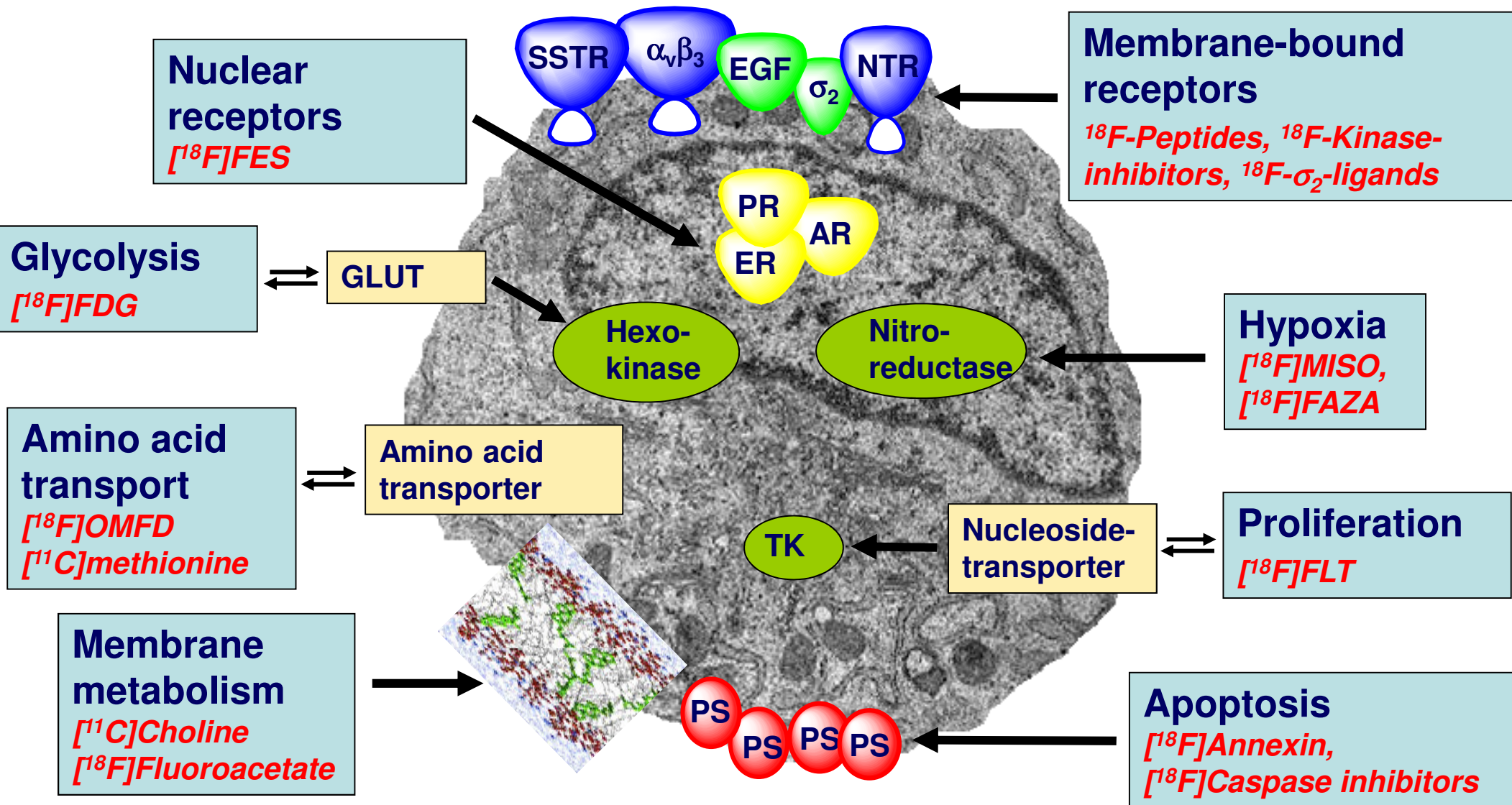
Disadvantages:

- No target-specific imaging
- Radiation
- Poor soft-tissue contrast



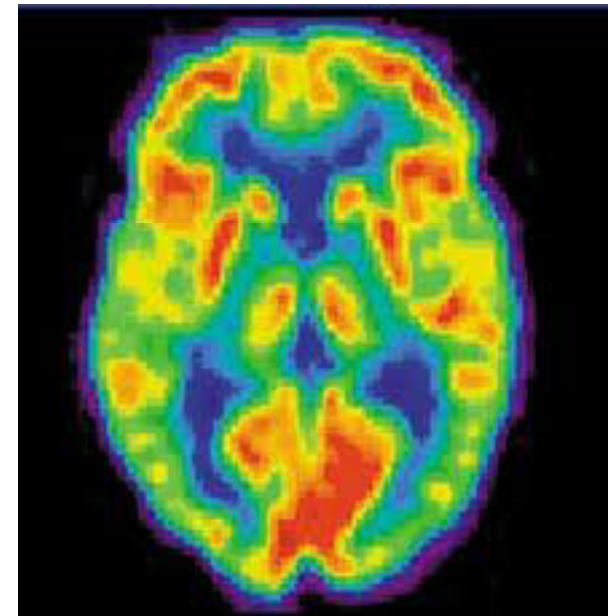
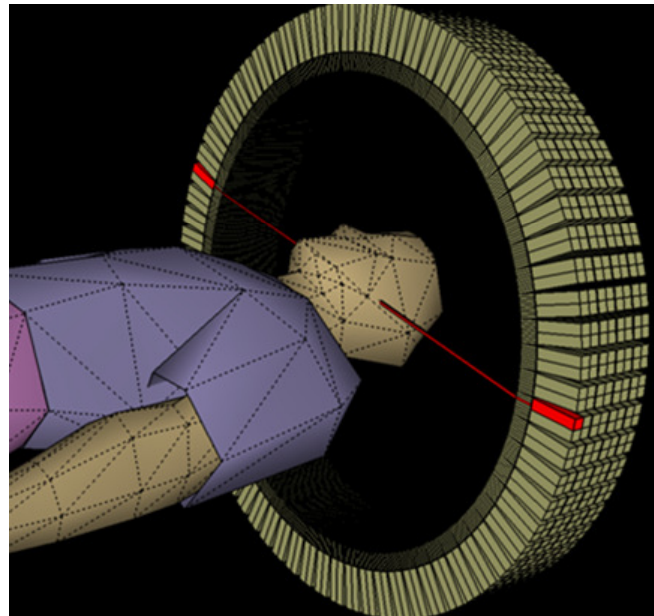
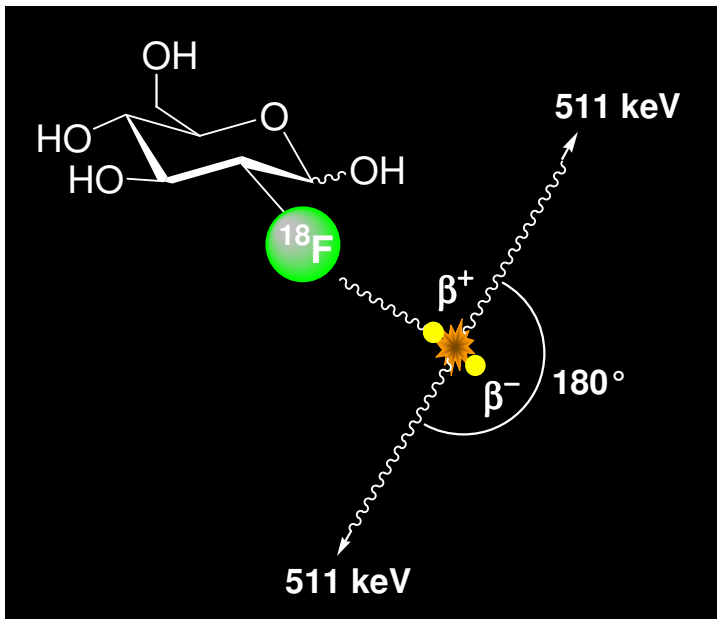
Willmann et al., Nature Drug Discovery. 2008.

What to image: Selected PET radiotracers in oncology



Positron emission tomography (PET)

PET: A multidisciplinary approach

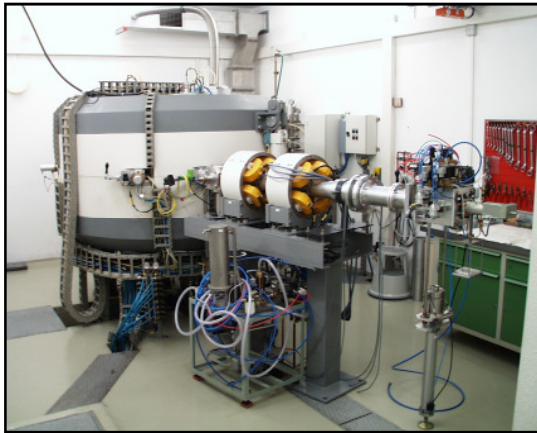


PET – A multidisciplinary approach

Radionuclide production

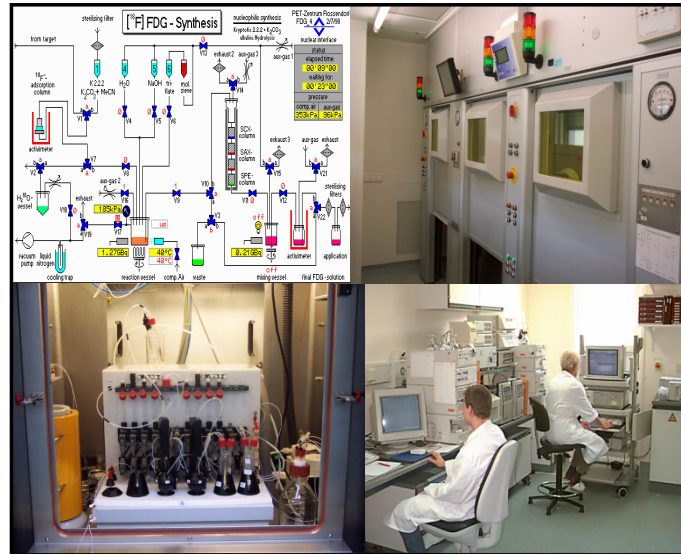
Radionuclide Half-life

| | |
|------------------|-----------|
| ¹¹ C | 20.4 min |
| ¹³ N | 9.96 min |
| ¹⁵ O | 2.03 min |
| ¹⁸ F | 109.8 min |
| ⁶⁴ Cu | 762 min |
| ⁶⁸ Ga | 68.3 min |
| ⁷⁶ Br | 966 min |
| ¹²⁰ I | 88 min |
| ¹²⁴ I | 4.15 d |

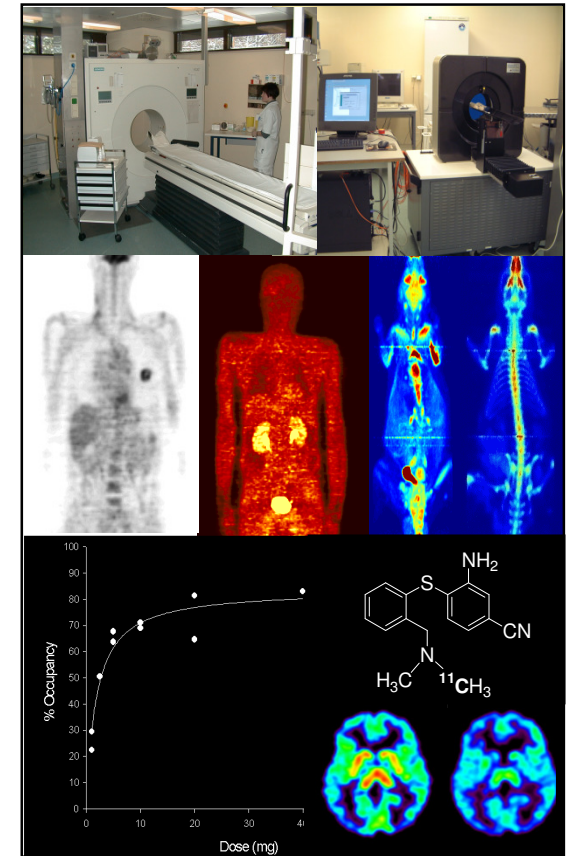


“Smart” radiotracers

Design
Synthesis (automation if possible)
Quality control



Nuclear medicine Drug research

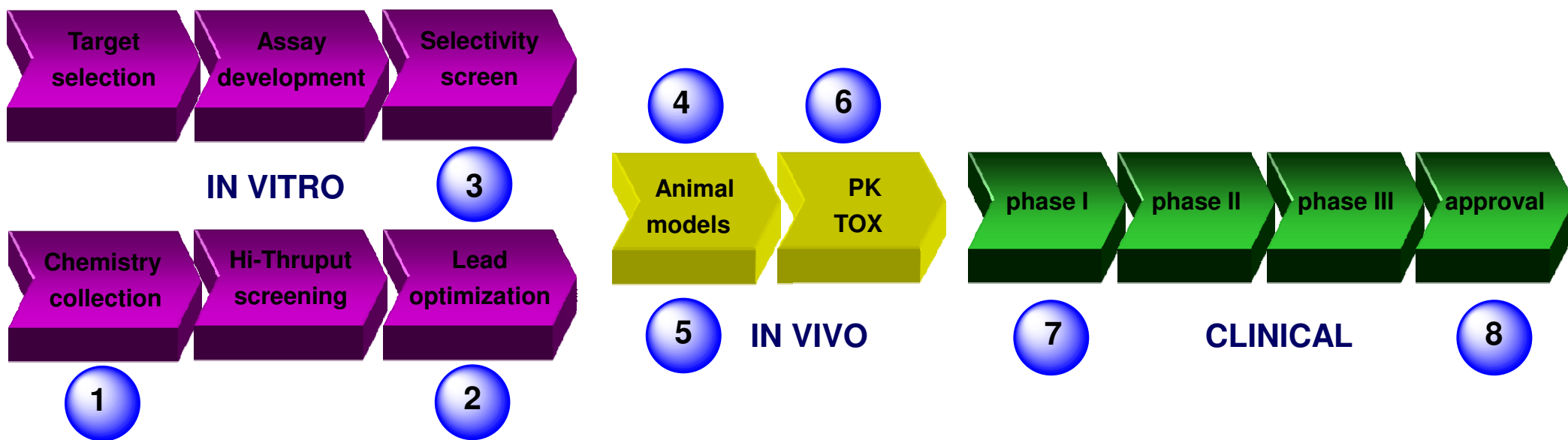


0

Time

max. $3 \times t_{1/2}$

PET in drug development



1. Optimization chemical collection using μ -PET data
2. Radiolabeled lead compounds (radiotracers) for in vivo studies
3. In vitro selectivity
4. Non-invasive disease surrogates
5. Early PK analysis
6. Complete PK (humans, μ -dosing?)
7. Human PK (dosing, receptor occupancy, metabolites...)
8. Patient selection, diagnosis, response. Images as marketing tools

Application of PET Imaging in Drug Development

Determination of the relation between administered dose and clinical outcome

GOAL: Understanding the events related with

- Drug administration
 - Drug adsorption
 - Drug distribution
 - Drug metabolism
 - Drug excretion
 - Drug response to target organs and biochemical effector systems
-

PET as a general *in vivo* tracer method allows:

- Performance of non-perturbed observations *in vivo* (research animals & man)
- Studies at very low concentrations ($< 10^{-9}$ M; tracer concept, *PET-microdosing*)

Application of PET Imaging in Therapeutic Drug Development

Drivers for change

Ability to make rational decisions in development
Go/No go decisions with confidence

Use clinical technologies to better understand
Proof of Target
Proof of Mechanism
Proof of Efficacy

Can we make these decisions sooner?
Impact of translational imaging

Longer term impact to human healthcare
Individualized medicine

Application of biomarkers in therapeutic drug development

Three definitions of biomarker (PET radiotracer) levels to describe the particular application of a biomarker

Rigor in Validation



Level 1

**Hit
Target?**

Proof of Target
Confirm pharmacological MOA

Level 2

**Affect
Mechanism?**

Proof of Mechanism
Predict biological MOA

Level 3

**Monitor disease
progression?**

Proof of Efficacy
Predict clinical outcome

Confidence in Efficacy

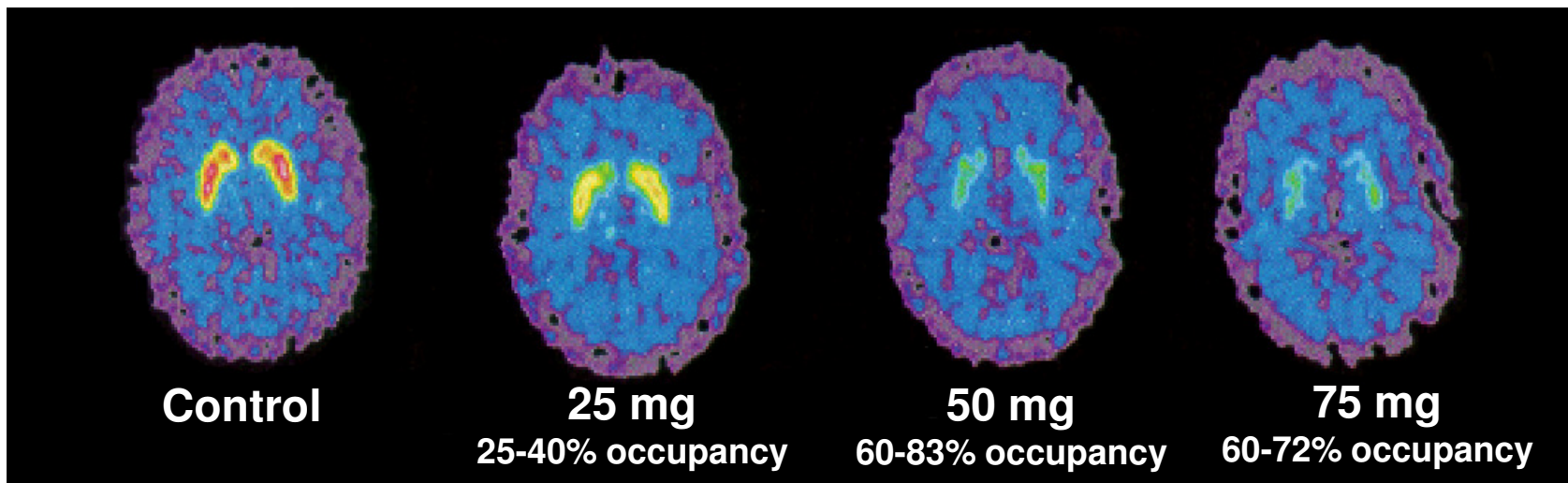


Level One Biomarkers -- Proof of Target

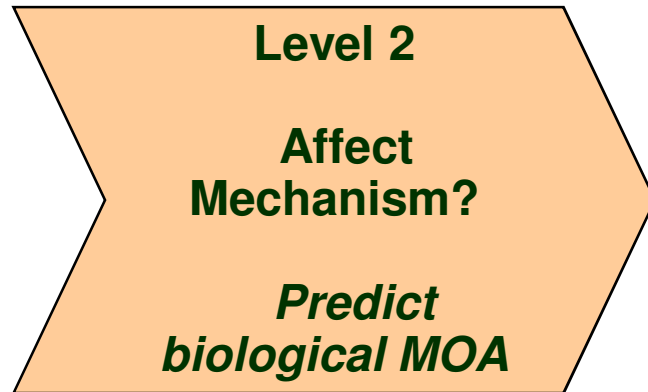


PET receptor occupancy to assist in a No/Go decision

→ **Very popular for neuroreceptor mapping**



Level Two Biomarkers -- Proof of Mechanism



**PET imaging in oncology
drug development**

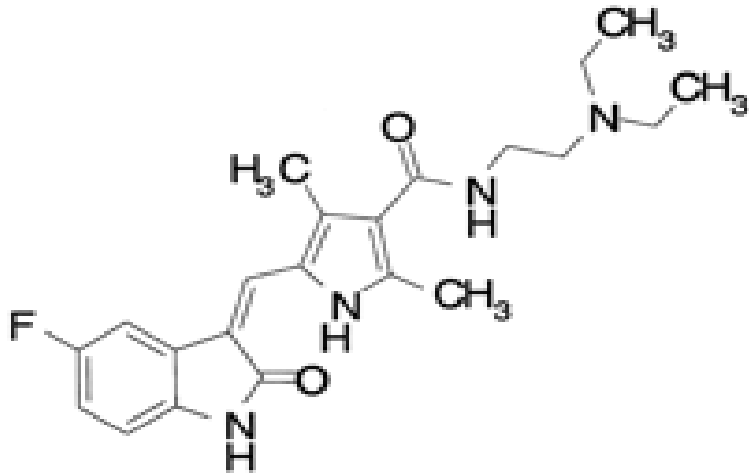
FDG *metabolism*

FLT *proliferation*

- **Early Response -- Faster than tumor shrinkage?**
- **Effective Response -- Affect mechanism?**

Predictive response of therapeutic or clinical benefit?

SU11248, sunitinib maleate (Sutent)



- Selective multi-target inhibition of:
 - PDGFR
 - VEGFR
 - cKIT
 - FLT3
- Antitumor and anti-angiogenic activity
- *What types of information can PET provide to the exploratory development phase of novel targeted cancer therapies?*

Two Phase 1 trials of SU11248 used PET Imaging

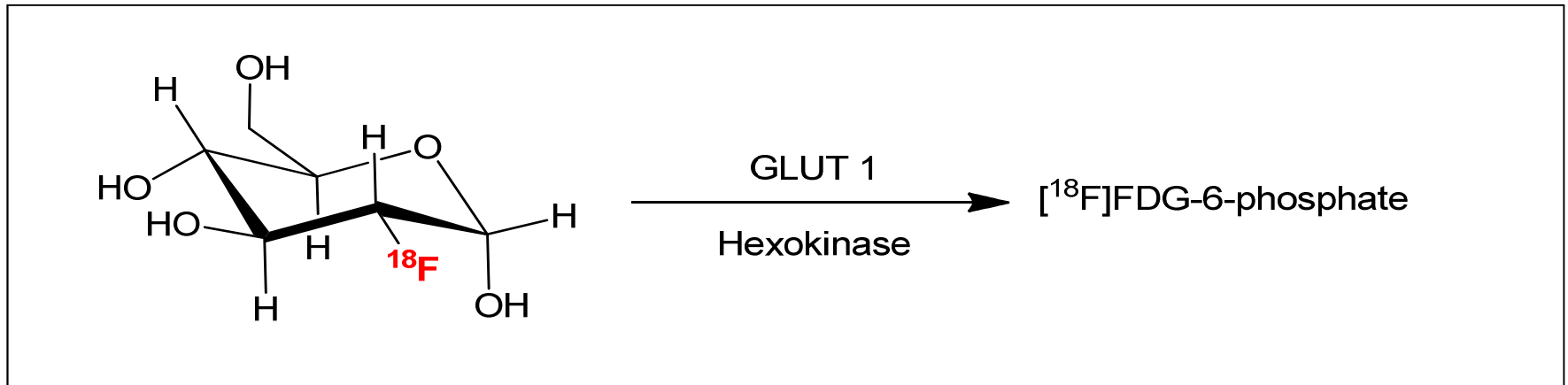
- **A Phase 1 study of SU011248 in the treatment of patients with malignant Gastrointestinal Stromal Tumor (GIST) who are intolerant of, or with disease progressing on imatinab mesylate (Gleevec)**

- **Pilot study of PET imaging to assess biological response to SU011248 L-malate salt**

A quick word about Phase 1 trails in oncology

- **Primary endpoint of any Phase 1 study is safety & tolerability**
 - **Dose escalate to target**
 - **Normal volunteers**
- **Oncology – patients with end stage disease**
- **In oncology Phase 1 studies**
 - **Clinical benefit is not expected**
 - **Not necessarily the target patient population**
 - **However tumor size assessment by CT is conducted**

[¹⁸F]FDG – marker of tumor metabolism



- **FDG reveals metabolic shutdown**
- **Widely available**
- **PET/CT has opened a new window on cancer imaging**

SU11248 (Sutent) in GIST

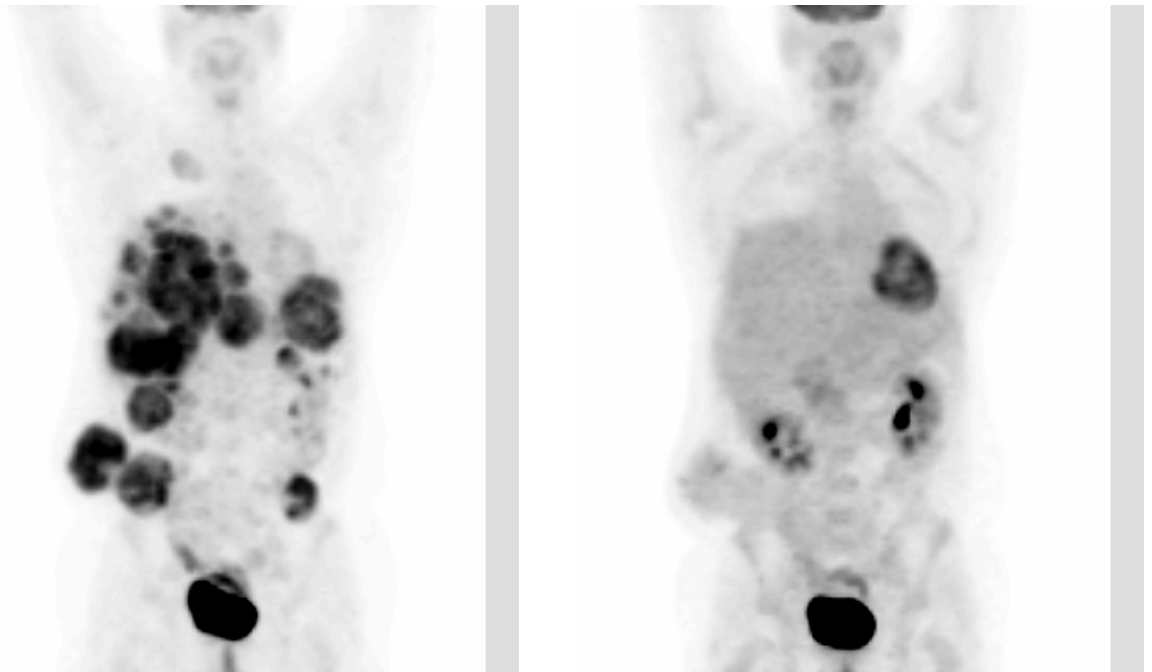
Metastatic GIST FDG-PET response to SU011248 in a patient resistant to Gleevec™

50 mg/day (2 wks on 2 wks off)

Link metabolic response to

- plasma levels (PK)
- serum and biopsy markers (PD)

ASCO 2003 Abstract #3273



Baseline

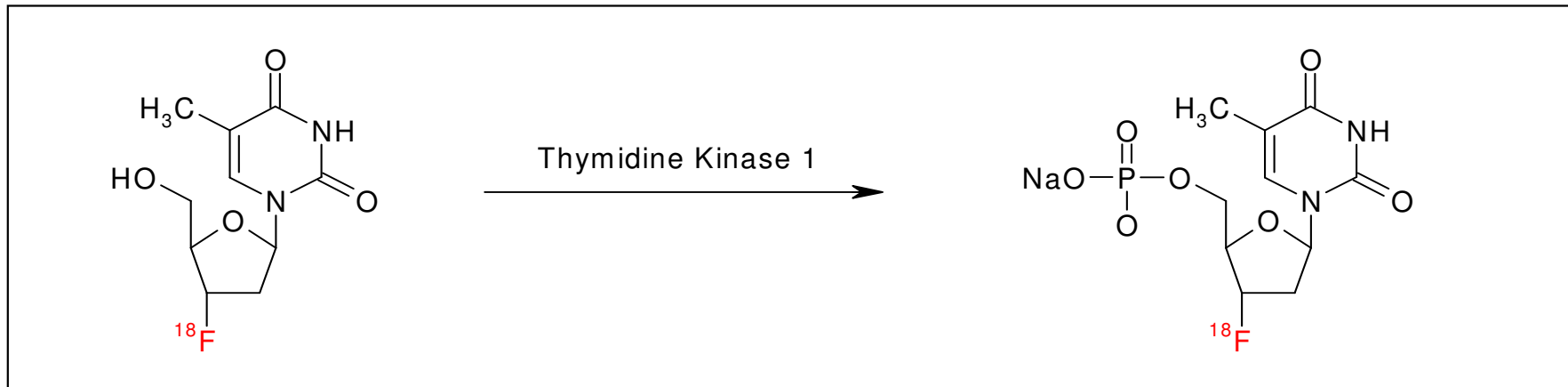
After treatment

Is the PET response predictive of clinical outcome?

- ***For SU11248 (Sutent) it is too early to say, but...***
- ***For Gleevec in GIST***
 - **FDG PET response is highly correlated with cKIT genetic variants**
 - **Exon-11 (70%)** -- major effect
 - **Exon-9 (15%)** -- minor effect
 - **Wild-type** -- no effect (PDGFR- α drives disease)

Source: G. Demetri NCI FDG-PET Workshop Washington Jan 2005

[¹⁸F]FLT – a marker of tumor proliferation



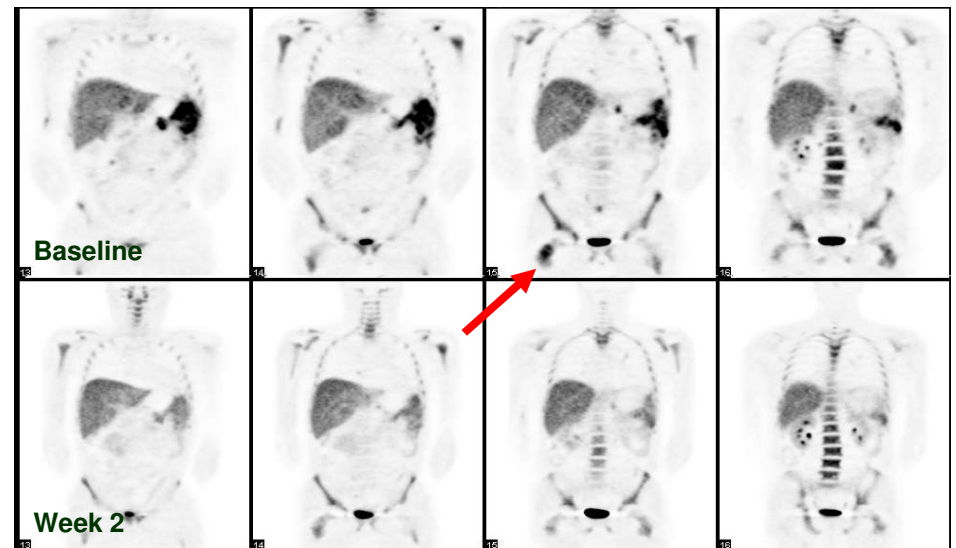
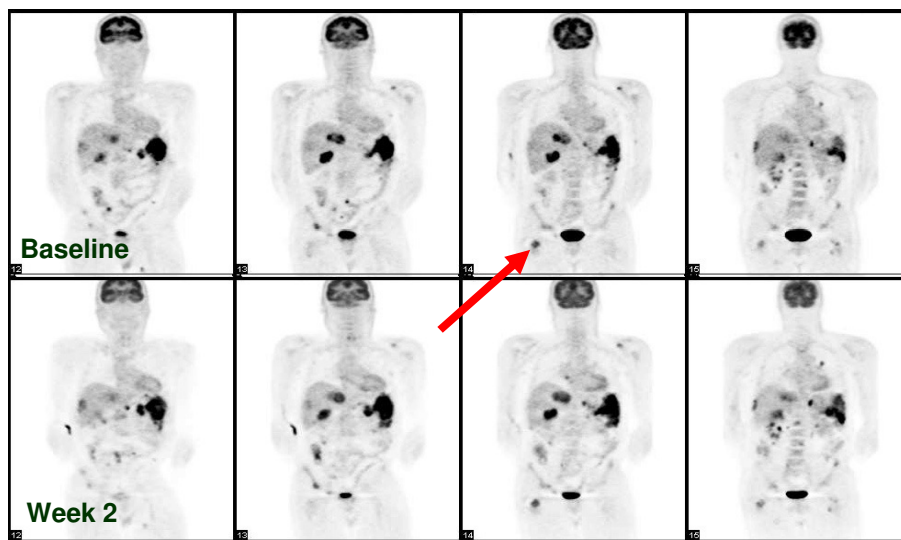
- **FLT reveals proliferative response**
 - **Cells are not dead, but cannot divide**
 - **Cells will still be metabolically active**
 - **Will it be an earlier response indicator than FDG?**

FDG/FLT PET after SU11248 (Sutent) treatment

Metastatic malignant melanoma

FDG

FLT



Ongoing lessons from Oncology

- PET provides rapid whole body assessment of tumor burden
 - Quickly identify heterogeneous responses
 - With PET/CT – guide tumor biopsy?
- FDG PET provides rapid feedback for early metabolic response
- FLT provides similar information on proliferation response
 - Combination of the two provides significant amounts of information within a subject
- For SU11248 (Sutent) -- *Value of PET is significant*
 - PET data increased the confidence around the biological activity
 - Allowed to make faster decisions around going into Phase II

Monitoring of metabolic changes after treatment

Other examples

| Targeted probe/drug | MRS observed metabolic alterations | PET observed metabolic alterations |
|---|--|---|
| HSP90 inhibitors (17-AAG, CCT018159) | (+)GPC, (+)PC, (+)PME, (+)PE (cells), (-)NTP (tumor xenografts) ^{48,49,88} | (-)FDG, (+) ¹¹ C-choline, (-) ¹¹ C-methionine uptake (cells) ⁸⁹ |
| BRAF-MEK1/2 inhibitors (U0126, PD0325901, PLX4032) | (-)PC (cells) ⁵² | (-) ¹⁸ F-choline uptake (tumor xenografts), ⁵³ (-)FDG uptake (tumor xenografts) ^{54,55} |
| PI3K-AKT-mTOR inhibitors (LY294002, wortmannin, PI-103, PX-866, everolimus) | (-)PC, (-)total choline (cells), ^{51,57,58} (-)pyruvate-lactate exchange (cells and tumor xenografts, DNP analysis) ⁵⁹ | (-)FDG uptake (tumor xenografts) ^{60,61} |
| HDAC inhibitors (LAQ824, SAHA) | (+)PC (cells and tumor xenografts), (+)PME, (+)PE, (+)choline, (-)GPC, (-)GPE, (-)PCr, (-)NTP, (+)Pi, (-)Glucose (tumor xenografts). ⁷² | (-)FDG uptake (patient tumors) ⁹⁰ |
| BCR-ABL, PDGFR inhibitor (imatinib) | (-)PC, (-)lactate, (-)glucose, (+)NTP (cells), ^{73,74} pyruvate-lactate exchange (tumor xenografts, DNP analysis) ⁷⁵ | (-)FDG uptake (patient tumors) ^{91,92} |

The signs (+) and (-) signify an increase and a decrease in metabolite levels, respectively.