

Cancer Chemotherapy and Biotherapy: Principles and Practice

SECOND EDITION

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Lippincott - Raven

P U B L I S H E R S

Philadelphia • New York

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Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publications Data

Cancer chemotherapy and biotherapy : principles and practice / edited
by Bruce A. Chabner, Dan L. Longo — 2nd ed.

p. cm.

Rev. ed. of: Cancer chemotherapy.

Includes bibliographical references and index.

ISBN 0-397-51418-2 (hard : alk. paper)

1. Cancer—Chemotherapy. 2. Cancer—Immunotherapy. I. Longo, Dan L.
(Dan Louis), 1949– . II. Cancer chemotherapy.

[DNLM: 1. Neoplasms—drug therapy. 2. Biological Products—therapeutic use.

3. Antineoplastic Agents—therapeutic use. 4. Chabner, Bruce. QZ 267 C21515 1996]

RC271.C5C32219 1996

616.99'4061—dc20

DNLM/DLC

for Library of Congress

95-38920

CIP

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CHAPTER	
6	Antifolates Edward Chu and Carmen J. Allegra

The folate-dependent enzymes represent attractive targets for antitumor chemotherapy because of their critical role in the synthesis of the nucleotide precursors of DNA (Fig. 6-1). In 1948, Farber et al.¹ were the first to show that aminopterin, a 4-amino acid analogue of folic acid, could inhibit the proliferation of leukemic cells and produce remissions in acute leukemia. Their findings ushered in the era of antimetabolite chemotherapy and generated great interest in the antifolate class of agents. Since then, the clinical value of antifolate compounds has been proven in the treatment of the leukemias, breast cancer, head and neck cancer, lymphomas, and choriocarcinoma.² Their clinical application also has been extended to the treatment of nonneoplastic disorders, including rheumatoid arthritis,³ graft-versus-host disease following bone marrow transplantation,⁴ psoriasis,⁵ bacterial and plasmodial infections,⁶ and opportunistic infections associated with the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS).⁷ It is fair to state that this class of agents is the best understood and most versatile of all the cancer chemotherapeutic drugs (Table 6-1).

MECHANISM OF ACTION

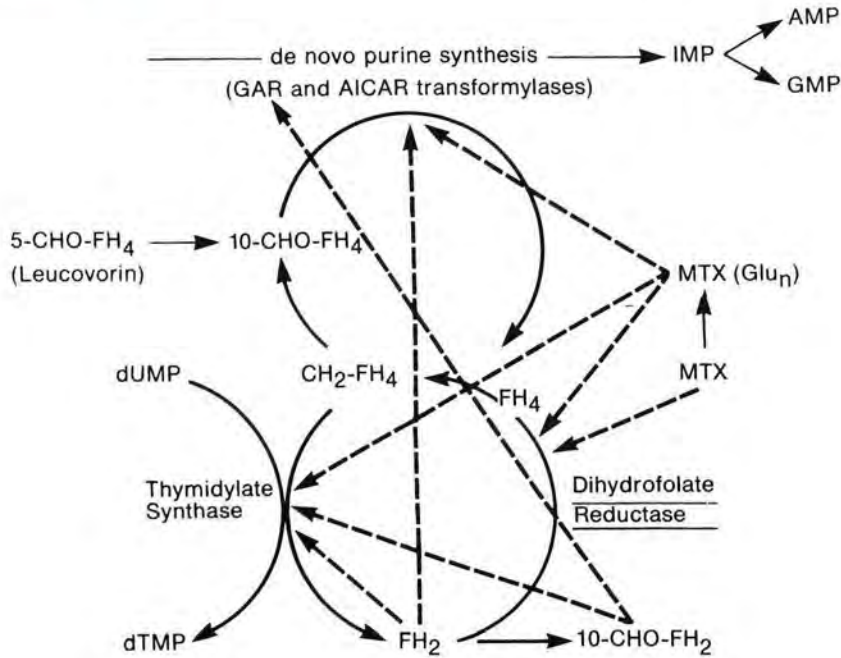
Substitution of an amino group for the hydroxyl at the 4-position of the pteridine ring is the critical change in the structure of antifolate compounds that leads to their antitumor activity (Fig. 6-2). This change transforms the molecule from a substrate to a tight-binding inhibitor of dihydrofolate reductase (DHFR), a key enzyme in intracellular folate homeostasis. The critical importance of DHFR stems from the fact that folic acid compounds are active as coenzymes only in their fully reduced tetrahydrofolate form. There are two specific tetrahydrofolates that play essential roles as one-carbon carriers involved in the synthesis of DNA precursors. 10-Formyltetrahydrofolate provides its one-carbon group for the de novo synthesis of purines in reactions mediated by glycineamide ribonucleotide (GAR) transformylase and aminoimidazole carboxamide ribonucleotide (AICAR) transformylase. A second cofactor, 5, 10-methylenetetrahydrofolate (CH_2FH_4),

donates its one-carbon group to the reductive methylation reaction converting deoxyuridylylate (dUMP) to thymidylylate (dTMP) (see Fig. 6-1). In addition to yielding a one-carbon group, 5, 10-methylenetetrahydrofolate is oxidized to dihydrofolate, which must then be reduced to tetrahydrofolate by the enzyme DHFR in order for it to rejoin the pool of active reduced folate cofactors. In actively proliferating tumor cells, inhibition of DHFR by methotrexate (MTX) (see Fig. 6-2) or other 2,4-diamino folates may lead to an accumulation of folates in the inactive dihydrofolate form, with variable depletion of reduced folates.⁸⁻¹⁴ Folate depletion, however, does not fully account for the metabolic inhibition associated with antifolate treatment, since the critical reduced folate pools are relatively preserved even in the presence of cytotoxic concentrations of MTX. Additional factors may contribute to MTX-associated cytotoxicity, including metabolism of the parent compound to polyglutamated derivatives and the accumulation of dihydrofolate and 10-formyldihydrofolate polyglutamates as a consequence of DHFR inhibition.^{8,9,15-17} MTX polyglutamates, dihydrofolate polyglutamates, and 10-formyldihydrofolate metabolites represent potent direct inhibitors of the folate-dependent enzymes of thymidylylate and purine biosynthesis.¹⁸⁻²³ Thus inhibition of DNA biosynthesis by 2,4-diamino folates is a multifactorial process consisting of both partial depletion of reduced folate substrates and direct inhibition of folate-dependent enzymes. The relative role of each of these mechanisms in determining antifolate-associated metabolic inhibition may depend on specific cellular factors that vary among different cancer cell lines and tumors.

CHEMICAL STRUCTURE

Various heterocyclic compounds with the 2,4-diamino structural configuration have antifolate activity and include pyrimidine analogues such as pyrimethamine and trimethoprim²⁰⁻²⁹ (see Fig. 6-2), classic pteridines such as aminopterin and methotrexate,² and compounds with replacement of the nitrogen at either the 5, 8, or 10 position with a carbon atom, such as the quina-

Figure 6-1. Sites of action of MTX, its polyglutamated metabolites [MTX(Glu_n)], and folate by-products of the inhibition of DHFR, including dihydrofolate (FH₂) and 10-formyldihydrofolate (10-CHO-FH₂). Also shown are 5,10-methylenetetrahydrofolate (CH₂-FH₄), the folate cofactor required for thymidylate synthesis, and 10-formyltetrahydrofolate (10-CHO-FH₄), the required intermediate in the synthesis of purine precursors. (From Chabner et al. In: DeVita VT, Hellman S, Rosenberg SA, eds. *Cancer principles and practice of oncology*. Philadelphia: JB Lippincott, 1989:349.)



Compound	Inhibits
MTX	Dihydrofolate reductase
MTX (Glu _n)	{ Dihydrofolate reductase Thymidylate synthase AICAR transformylase GAR transformylase
FH ₂ (Glu _n)	{ Thymidylate synthase AICAR transformylase GAR transformylase
10-CHO-FH ₂ (Glu _n)	{ Thymidylate synthase GAR transformylase

zolines (trimetrexate, piritrexim)²⁴⁻²⁶ and 10-ethyl-10-deazaaminopterin (10-EDAM, Edatrexate).²⁷ Compounds with preservation of the benzoylglutamate terminal group are transported by a folate-specific system in the cell membrane, while those lacking a terminal glutamate do not require active transmembrane transport and have activity against MTX-resistant cells that lack the folate transporter.²⁸ Recently, investigators have designed antifolate analogues directed at targets other than DHFR, including those folate-dependent enzymes required for

the de novo synthesis of purines and thymidylate. A host of potent thymidylate synthase inhibitors such as 10-propargyl-5,8-dideazafolate (PDDE, CB3717)²⁹ and closely related compounds ZD1694,³⁰ LY231514,³¹ 1843U89,³² and 5,8-dideazatetrahydrofolic acid (DDATHF),³³ an inhibitor of GAR transformylase, have been developed recently. Although each of these analogues has unique structural features distinct from MTX with equal or greater potency for inhibiting DHFR or other folate-dependent enzymes, none has yet replaced MTX in the clinic. This is

Table 6-1. Key Features of Methotrexate

Mechanism of action:	Inhibition of dihydrofolate reductase leads to partial depletion of reduced folates. Polyglutamates of methotrexate and dihydrofolate inhibit purine and thymidylate biosynthesis.
Metabolism:	Converted to polyglutamates in normal and malignant tissues. 7-Hydroxylation in liver.
Pharmacokinetics:	$t_{1/2\alpha} = 2-3$ h; $t_{1/2\beta} = 8-10$ h
Elimination:	Primarily as intact drug in urine.
Drug interactions:	1. High dose toxicity to normal tissues rescue by leucovorin. 2. L-Asparaginase blocks toxicity and antitumor action. 3. Pretreatment with methotrexate increases 5-fluorouracil and araC nucleotide formation. 4. Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory agents decrease renal clearance and increase toxicity.
Toxicity:	1. Myelosuppression 2. Mucositis, gastrointestinal epithelial denudation 3. Renal tubular obstruction and injury 4. Hepatotoxicity 5. Pneumonitis 6. Hypersensitivity 7. Neurotoxicity
Precaution:	1. Reduce dose in proportion to decrease in creatinine clearance. 2. Do not administer high-dose methotrexate to patients with abnormal renal function. 3. Monitor plasma concentrations of drug and hydrate patients during high-dose therapy (see Tables 6-2 and 6-4).

primarily because of greater familiarity with both the cytotoxic activity and host toxicity patterns of MTX and the current lack of evidence that these analogue compounds with the possible exception of the thymidylate synthase inhibitors, have either improved therapeutic efficacy or a different spectrum of clinical activity.

CELLULAR PHARMACOLOGY AND MECHANISMS OF RESISTANCE

In this section the sequence of events that lead to the cytotoxic action of MTX will be considered, beginning with drug movement across the cell membrane, followed by its intracellular metabolism to the polyglutamate derivatives, binding to dihydrofolate reductase and other folate-dependent enzymes, effects on intracellular folates, and finally, inhibition of DNA synthesis. Each of these steps plays an essential role in determining the ultimate clinical efficacy and toxicity of MTX and other antifolate compounds.

Transmembrane Transport

The movement of MTX and other antifolates across cell membranes has received much attention because of the potential role of transport abnormalities in the development of clinical drug resistance (Fig. 6-3). MTX enters cells by an energy-dependent, temperature-sensitive, and concentrative process that likely depends on the function of specific intramembrane protein(s).³⁴⁻³⁹ This mechanism is anion-dependent and glucose-insensitive.⁴⁰⁻⁴³ For a comprehensive review of the cellular transport of folates, the reader is referred to the recent article by Antony.⁴⁴

The membrane carrier responsible for MTX transport in mammalian cells also transports the naturally occurring reduced folates, including the rescue agent 5-formyl-tetrahydrofolate (leucovorin).^{38,43-47} Thus MTX and physiologic folates compete for cellular entry. In addition, through a process known as *heteroexchange*, free intracellular MTX is forced to efflux from cells when high concentrations of extracellular reduced folate cross the cell membrane.⁴⁸

The influx carrier for MTX is comprised of at least two different systems which include (1) a carrier often referred to as the reduced-folate carrier with a higher affinity for reduced folates and MTX (affinity constant = 0.7 to 6 μM) when compared with folic acid (affinity constant = 200 μM) and (2) a hydrophobic membrane-associated folate-binding protein(s) (human folate receptor, hFR) that has a 10- to 30-fold higher affinity for folic acid and the reduced folates (nanomolar range) than for MTX.^{34-39,47,49-52} MTX polyglutamates demonstrate a 100-fold increased affinity for the folate-binding protein when compared with the monoglutamate form of MTX.⁵³ Whether these two transport systems are directly interrelated or function separately awaits the complete molecular characterization of each of these transport systems. Recently, a process referred to as *potocytosis*, a mechanism distinct from receptor-mediated endocytosis, was found to be associated with folate-binding proteins.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶ This mechanism has been used to describe the accumulation of binding proteins in distinct regions of the cell membrane known as *caveola* that form intracellular vesicles containing protein-bound folates. Presumably, folates are released from their hFRs through changes in pH that occur within the caveola. Once released from the hFRs in the caveola, the folates may then enter the intracellular space via a specific membrane carrier, perhaps representing the reduced-folate car-

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