

Cover Page



Universiteit Leiden



The handle <http://hdl.handle.net/1887/33676> holds various files of this Leiden University dissertation.

Author: Huis-Tanja, Lieke Henriëtte van

Title: Pharmacogenetics of capecitabine and oxaliplatin in treatment of advanced colorectal cancer

Issue Date: 2015-06-23

5

Clinical validation study of genetic markers for capecitabine efficacy in metastatic colorectal cancer patients

L.H. van Huis – Tanja, E. Ewing, R.J.H.M. van der Straaten,
J.J. Swen, R.F.Baak-Pablo, C.J.A. Punt, A.J. Gelderblom,
H.J. Guchelaar

Pharmacogenet Genomics. 2015 Jun;25(6):279-88



Abstract

Background & aim: Pharmacogenetic studies continue to search for pretreatment predictors of chemotherapeutic efficacy and toxicity in metastatic colorectal cancer (mCRC). Both genome wide association (GWA) studies and candidate gene studies have yielded potential genetic markers for chemosensitivity. We conducted a clinical association study, validating the effect of specific genetic markers cited in recently published papers on the efficacy of the oral 5-FU pro-drug capecitabine.

Patients & methods: Germline DNA was collected for 268 mCRC patients from the CAIRO trial, a multicenter phase III trial, randomizing between combined or sequential first-line treatment with capecitabine, irinotecan and oxaliplatin. Genotyping was performed for eight single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), using high resolution melting curves. Four SNPs are located in the *MTRR* gene, and another four SNPs showed significant association with 5-FU cytotoxicity in a recent *in vitro* GWA study. Primary endpoint was progression free survival (PFS); secondary endpoints were objective response and overall survival (OS).

Results: In patients receiving capecitabine monotherapy, rs4702484, located in *ADCY2* and close to *MTRR*, was associated with slightly reduced PFS for homozygous wildtype patients (CC 6.2 vs. CT 8.0 months, $P = 0.018$). For the other selected genetic markers, we found no association with PFS, OS or radiologic response upon treatment with capecitabine, either in the total study population, or the capecitabine monotherapy subgroup.

Conclusion: With the exception of rs4702484, we found no evidence of an effect on capecitabine chemosensitivity of any of the studied SNPs. More specifically, variants in *MTRR* are not likely associated with capecitabine efficacy.

Background

Colorectal cancer is the third leading cause of cancer death worldwide.¹ Survival is strongly dependent on disease stage.² For patients presenting with distant irresectable metastases, systemic therapy is indicated with the objective of prolongation of survival and sometimes cure if downsizing permits secondary resection of metastases. Fluoropyrimidines, including the oral pro-drug capecitabine, remain the cornerstone of chemotherapeutic treatment, although treatment options have expanded and now include oxaliplatin and irinotecan, as well as the monoclonal vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) inhibitor bevacizumab and the endothelial growth factor receptor (EGFR) blockers panitumumab and cetuximab.³ Despite the fact that systemic therapy significantly improves median survival, a substantial portion of patients do not benefit from this. Chemotherapy is sometimes accompanied by severe adverse events, which can delay or even abrogate further treatment. There is an urgent need to preemptively identify patients who will both tolerate and benefit from a specific chemotherapeutic schedule. Up until now, no germline molecular markers have been identified that may predict for the efficacy of chemotherapy.⁴ Pharmacogenetics may provide such a tool, by identifying genetic predictors for both efficacy and toxicity.⁵

Up to now, most studies searching for pretreatment genetic markers in colorectal cancer have used a pathway-based approach. This has led to the identification of *UGT1A1**28 as a risk factor for increased toxicity (specifically neutropenia) after treatment with irinotecan⁶, and *DPYD**2A as a risk factor for severe and sometimes lethal toxicity in response to fluoropyrimidine therapy.⁷ However, this candidate gene approach is limited by our a priori knowledge of the genes involved in the pathway, and is therefore unable to identify novel markers in genes not previously associated with the drug under investigation. Recently, a genome wide association (GWA) study applying a hypothesis free approach was published, identifying single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) with putative influence on cytotoxicity of capecitabine in human lymphoblastoid cell lines (LCL).⁸ The most significant marker was located near the gene encoding for 5-methyltetrahydrofolate-homocysteine methyltransferase reductase (methionine synthase reductase, *MTRR*). As part of the methionine-folate pathway, *MTRR* is involved in fluoropyrimidine cytotoxicity. (Figure 1) Furthermore, variation in this gene has been implicated in colorectal carcinogenesis.⁹

The number of genes and polymorphisms that are being implicated as pretreatment biomarkers has expanded rapidly, necessitating validation of reported results.

In this study, we tested eight single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), selected for their location within the *MTRR*-gene or their significance in the recent GWA paper by O'Donnell and co-workers⁸, for their association with progression free survival (PFS) in a clinical trial population of 268 metastatic colorectal cancer (mCRC) patients who were treated with first-line capecitabine-based chemotherapy.

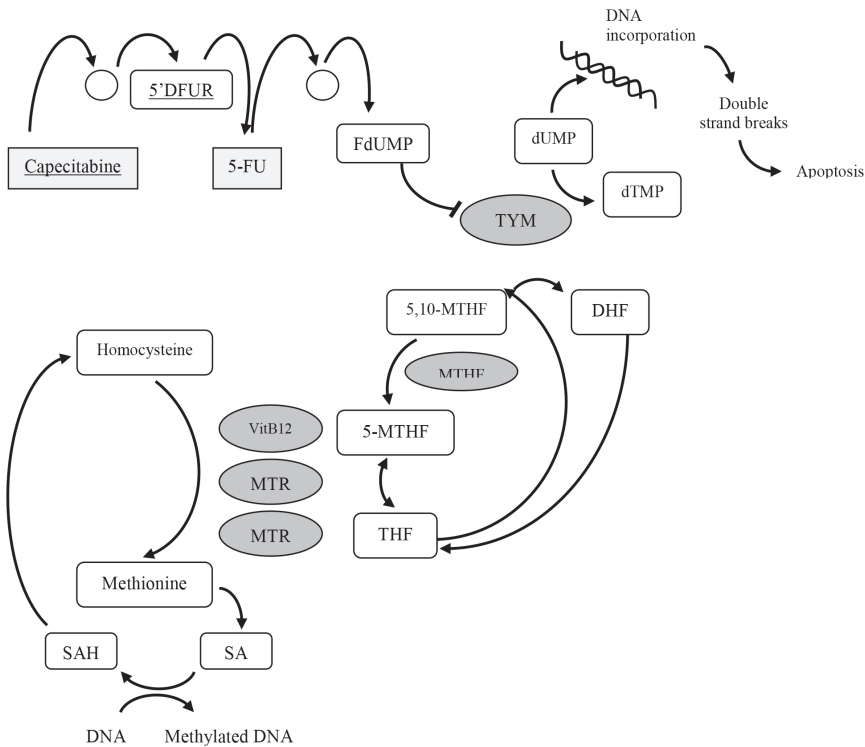


Figure 1. Schematic overview of pathways involved in cellular response of fluoropyrimidines

5-FU, 5-fluoro-uracil; DHF, dihydrofolate; dTMP, deoxythymidine monophosphate; dUMP, deoxyuridine monophosphate; FdUMP, fluoro-deoxyuridine monophosphate; MTHF, methylene tetrahydrofolate; MTHFR, methylene tetrahydrofolate reductase; MTR, methionine synthase; MTRR, methionine synthase reductase; SAH, S-adenosyl homocysteine; SAM S-adenosyl methionine; THF, tetrahydrofolate. Figure based on: M. Whirl-Carrillo, et al.³¹

Patients and methods

Clinical association study

Patients were recruited from the CAIRO trial, a multicenter open label randomized phase III clinical trial, comparing sequential versus combination chemotherapy with capecitabine, irinotecan, and oxaliplatin in a total of 803 mCRC patients.¹⁰ A total of 268 patients were included in this pharmacogenetic study, of whom 127 received first-line capecitabine monotherapy, and 141 patients received first-line capecitabine plus irinotecan combination therapy. Patients with mCRC were enrolled in the CAIRO study between January 2003 and December 2004, by the Dutch Colorectal Cancer Group (DCCG) in 74 hospitals in The Netherlands. Inclusion criteria were a WHO performance score of 0-2 and adequate renal, hepatic and bone marrow function. A history of previous adjuvant chemotherapy was allowed, only if the last administration was

given six months prior to randomization. Main exclusion criteria were: serious concomitant disease preventing the safe administration of chemotherapy and other malignancies in the past five years. Capecitabine (1250 mg/m², bid) was administered on day 1-14 in the monotherapy group, every three weeks. In the combination therapy group, capecitabine (1000 mg/m², bid) was given on day 1-14, and irinotecan (250 mg/m²) on day 1, in a three weekly cycle. Tumor response was assessed by computed tomography (CT)-scan, every nine weeks, using Response Evaluation Criteria for Solid Tumors (RECIST, version 1.0).

The CAIRO study was approved both by the Central Committee on Research involving Human Subjects (CCMO) and by the local ethics committees of all participating centers. As sample collection for this pharmacogenetic substudy was initiated later than the CAIRO clinical trial and not all study centers participated, the number of patients included in the pharmacogenetic analyses is limited to 268 patients. All included patients gave written informed consent before inclusion for the main study and the pharmacogenetic side study.

SNP selection and genotyping

Four SNPs were selected from the results of a recently published *in vitro* GWA study⁸ (rs4702484, rs8101143, rs576523 and rs11722476), based on their genome-wide significance levels in meta-analysis. A fifth SNP (rs361433) showed near genome-wide significance in this study. Unfortunately, no primers could be designed for this marker and it was therefore not included in our analyses. The GWA study suggested involvement of *MTRR* in capecitabine cytotoxicity. Although the *MTRR* gene has been suggested to be involved in colorectal carcinogenesis¹¹, current knowledge on the effect of *MTRR* polymorphisms on efficacy of fluoropyrimidine treatment in colorectal carcinoma is limited to one publication. In that study, no association of *MTRR* genotype with PFS was found.¹² To further investigate the predictive effect of *MTRR* polymorphisms in colorectal cancer treatment, four additional SNPs were selected based on their location in the this gene and citation in recent pharmacogenetic papers (rs1801394, rs10380, rs162036 and rs1532268). Variants in *MTHFR* (rs1801133 and rs1801131) and *TYMS* (rs34743033, rs11540151 and rs11280056) were also included as covariates, because an effect on capecitabine efficacy has been suggested for these polymorphisms.^{11;13;14} *DPYD**2A (IVS14+1G>A) was not included as a covariate in the model, because of the low estimated population frequency (minor allele frequency 0.003¹⁶). Furthermore, it was previously shown that individual SNPs in *DPYD*, including *DPYD**2A, did not influence treatment efficacy in our patient group.⁷

Peripheral EDTA-blood samples were collected and stored at -20°C before DNA isolation. Germline DNA was extracted with the Magnapure LC (Roche Diagnostics, Almere, The Netherlands) according to manufacturer's instructions.

A short amplicon high resolution melting (HRM) assay was designed for each SNP and genotype allocations were confirmed by conventional Sanger sequencing. Genotype calls were made using the Call-IT 2.0 software. Oligonucleotide sequences and annealing temperatures are available on request. As quality control, all HRM assays were validated on a panel of DNA

from 18 healthy individuals. In addition, negative controls (water) were included in each run. Samples failing initial genotyping were repeated and in this run samples with confirmed genotypes were included as positive controls. By repeating HRM and sequencing samples, more than 5% of samples were genotyped in duplicate. *MTHFR* rs1801133 (677C>T) and *MTHFR* rs1801131 (1298 A>C) genotypes were determined using commercially available Taqman genotyping assays and analyzed on 7500 realtime PCR system (Lifetechnologies, Bleiswijk, The Netherlands) according to manufacturer's protocol. The VNTR polymorphism in the *TYMS* 5'-untranslated region (TSER, rs34743033), including the additional G/C SNP in the second base pair for 3-repeat individuals (rs11540151), was determined by direct sequencing. The *TYMS* 1494del6bp polymorphism in the 3'-untranslated region (rs11280056) was also determined using a pre-designed Taqman genotyping assay.

Data and statistical analysis

The primary endpoint of this study was progression free survival (PFS), which was calculated from the date of randomization until the first observation of disease progression or death from any cause. Secondary endpoints were overall survival (OS), objective response and clinical benefit. OS was calculated as the interval from randomization until death from any cause or until the date of last follow-up. Response to chemotherapy was assessed in all patients who completed at least 3 cycles of treatment. Objective response was determined as either complete or partial response. Clinical benefit was determined as stable disease, complete or partial response.

We chose not to include analyses for SNP effects on treatment toxicity. *In vitro* experiments, such as performed by O'Donnell and co-workers⁸, are useful in examining cytotoxic effects of chemotherapeutic drugs, but do not take into account the multitude of patient-related factors that influence adverse events in clinical practice. We therefore believe that these *in vitro* results cannot be extrapolated to predict fluoropyrimidine-induced toxicity.

Differences in PFS and OS according to genotype were determined by Kaplan-Meier survival curves and log-rank testing. Multiple regression analysis was performed assessing the effect of genotype on PFS and OS by Cox regression analysis, treating gender, age, treatment arm and LDH at baseline as covariates. Variants in *MTHFR* (rs1801133 and rs1801131) and *TYMS* (rs34743033, rs11540151 and rs11280056) were also included as covariates, because these polymorphisms have been associated with efficacy of fluoropyrimidine therapy by others.^{11,13,14} Although we previously showed that these SNPs did not affect treatment efficacy in our patient group¹⁵, they were nonetheless included to minimize bias. Data are expressed as medians and 95 percent confidence intervals (95% CI). Additionally, the ten percent of all patients showing the longest PFS times and the ten percent of patients showing the shortest PFS times were selected and genotype distributions were compared between these groups by the Chi-squared test. The association of objective response and clinical benefit with genotypes was determined by cross tabulation and the Chi-squared test. All analyses were performed for the treatment population as a whole and for patients in the capecitabine monotherapy group separately. Conservative Bonferroni-correction for multiple testing would lead to the

adoption of a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05/8 = 0.00625$, if all genetic markers are assumed to be unrelated. Earlier research has shown that there is a moderate amount of linkage disequilibrium between MTRR polymorphisms¹¹, and these SNPs are therefore not completely independent. We confirmed the presence of linkage disequilibrium between these polymorphisms in our population, using Haploview. (Figure 2A and B) A more lenient correction was therefore adopted, with a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05/5 = 0.01$.

Genotype distributions were tested for agreement with those expected under Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium using the Chi-squared test, with a statistical cut-off value of $\chi^2 \geq 3.84$.

All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS software, version 20.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, New York, USA).

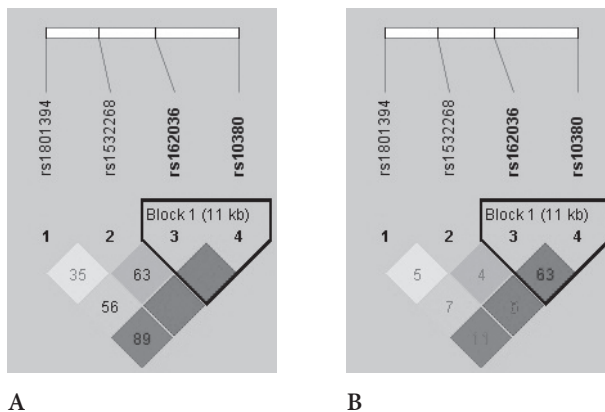


Figure 2. Linkage disequilibrium analyses for polymorphisms located in the gene encoding for 5-methyltetrahydrofolate-homocysteine methyltransferase reductase (MTRR)

A. Numbers in squares represent D' values between the respective SNPs. D' for rs10380 and rs162036, as well as for rs10380 and rs1532268 are 1. B. Numbers in squares represent hundredfold R-square values.

	Total N= 265	Capecitabine monotherapy N= 126	Combination therapy N= 139	P-value*
Age				0.60
Age at randomisation, median (range)	62 (27-81)	61 (27-78)	62 (37-81)	
Sex				0.90
Male	161 (61%)	76 (60%)	85 (61%)	
Female	104 (39%)	50 (40%)	54 (39%)	
Performance status				0.57
PS 0	153 (58%)	77 (61%)	76 (55%)	
PS 1	96 (36%)	42 (33%)	54 (39%)	
PS 2	16 (6%)	7 (6%)	9 (6%)	
LDH at randomisation				0.89
Normal	174 (66%)	82 (65%)	92 (66%)	
>Upper limit of normal	91 (34%)	44 (35%)	47 (34%)	
Previous adjuvant therapy				0.70
Yes	235 (89%)	113 (90%)	122 (88%)	
No	30 (11%)	13 (10%)	17 (12%)	

Table 1. Baseline characteristics

LDH, Lactate dehydrogenase

* Significance level for the difference in distribution between “Capecitabine monotherapy” and “Combination therapy”.

Results

Clinical data

Baseline characteristics are shown in Table 1. Baseline characteristics were not significantly different between both treatment groups. The majority of patients (61%) were male and median age at randomization was 62 years (range 27-81 years). Baseline characteristics were evaluated for their relationship with SNP-genotypes, and no associations were found (data not shown).

Genotyping data

Genotyping was successful for all SNPs in 248 of 268 patients (93%). Three samples failed genotyping for three or more SNPs, and these were excluded from the statistical analysis. For individual SNPs, genotyping results ranged from 96% for rs1081394 to 100% for rs1532268.

Genotype frequencies are shown in Table 2. Genotype distributions were consistent with Hardy Weinberg equilibrium (HWE), except for rs11722476 ($\chi^2 = 4.38$) and rs4702484 ($\chi^2 = 4.86$). However, allele frequencies are consistent with those reported by others¹⁶ and HWE would have been met in both cases with the addition of even one homozygous variant-type sample.

SNP	Chrom	Position	Gene	Mutation	Observed / expected MAF*	Genotype frequencies [#]
rs576523	1q23.3	159012700	<i>intergenic</i>	A>G	0.01 / 0.07	98.9 – 1.1 – 0
rs11722476	4q22.3	95389862	<i>SMARCAD1</i>	G>A	0.40 / 0.45	33.0 – 54.2 – 12.9
rs4702484	5p15.31	7702860	<i>ADCY2</i>	C>T	0.12 / 0.15	76.1 – 23.9 – 0
rs1801394	5p15.31	7923973	<i>MTRR</i>	G>A	0.42 / 0.38	34.8 – 46.8 – 18.4
rs1532268	5p15.31	7931179	<i>MTRR</i>	G>A	0.38 / 0.26	37.7 – 48.0 – 14.3
rs162036	5p15.31	7938959	<i>MTRR</i>	A>G	0.14 / 0.23	74.8 – 21.8 – 3.4
rs10380	5p15.31	7950191	<i>MTRR</i>	C>T	0.09 / 0.19	81.7 – 18.3 – 0
rs8101143	19p12	21747976	<i>intergenic</i>	A>G	0.29 / 0.18	51.5 – 38.6 – 9.9

Table 2. Genotype frequencies

ADCY2, adenylate cyclase type 2; MAF, minor allele frequency; MTRR, 5-methyltetrahydrofolate-homocysteine methyltransferase reductase; SMARCAD1, SWI/SNF-related, matrix-associated actin-dependent regulator of chromatin, subfamily A, containing DEAD/H box 1; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism.

* Observed minor allele frequencies in our population. Expected minor allele frequencies, based on those reported in: Database of Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (dbSNP). Bethesda (MD): National Center for Biotechnology Information, National Library of Medicine.(dbSNP Build ID: 36.3). <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/SNP/>.

Genotype frequencies are displayed as percentages homozygous wildtype – heterozygous – homozygous variant type.

Association with capecitabine efficacy

Association with PFS

Updated PFS data were available for all but three patients. Updated OS data were available for 243 patients. In the remaining cases censored data were used for the analyses. Results for the association analyses are shown in Table 3.

Considering the total study population, we found no difference in PFS according to genotype for any of the SNPs. Also, when comparing genotypes between patients with the longest and those with the shortest PFS times, no significant differences in genotype distributions were found for any of the SNPs ($P = 0.183$ for rs1801394, to $P = 1.000$ for rs576523, data not shown).

For rs4702484, PFS for homozygous wildtype patients was 7.5 months (95% CI: 6.4-8.5 months), versus 7.8 months (95% CI: 5.9-9.6 months) for heterozygous patients ($P = 0.351$), with no patients carrying the rs4702484 homozygous variant genotype. However, when patients in the capecitabine monotherapy group were considered separately, a borderline significant effect of rs4702484 genotype was seen. (Table 4 and Figure 3A) PFS for patients with the homozygous wildtype genotype was 6.2 months (95% CI: 5.6-6.7), versus 8.0 months (95% CI: 6.2-9.8) for heterozygous patients (P univariate = 0.018). This result did not remain statistically significant in multivariate analysis (P multivariate = 0.029).

Variant	Objective respon- s	P-value	Clinical benefit	P-value	PFS, median (95% CI)	HR (95% CI)	P-value univariate/ multivariate	OS median (95% CI)	HR (95% CI)	P-value univariate/ multivariate
rs576523 (<i>intergenic</i>)	34%		89%		7.6 (6.8-8.4)	<i>ref</i>		19.6 (17.5-21.8)	<i>ref</i>	
	67%		67%		8.9 (0-19.6)	2.04 (0.66-3.46)		14.8 (0.0-34.1)	1.19 (0.00-2.63)	
	NA	0.275	NA	0.292	NA	-	0.206/0.327	NA		0.604/0.812
rs11722476 (<i>SMARCA1</i>)	37%		89%		6.8 (5.4-8.3)	<i>ref</i>		17.7 (14.3-21.1)	<i>ref</i>	
	31%		90%		7.8 (7.0-8.6)	1.26 (0.82-1.70)		21.4 (18.3-24.5)	1.29 (0.83-1.74)	
	44%	0.317	88%	0.949	6.7 (4.2-9.3)	1.16 (0.74-1.58)	0.953/0.578	20.0 (17.0-23.1)	1.29 (0.79-1.77)	0.870/0.494
rs4702484 (<i>ADCY2</i>)	36%		89%		7.5 (6.4-8.5)	<i>ref</i>		19.5 (17.1-21.8)	<i>ref</i>	
	31%		90%		7.8 (5.9-9.6)	1.2 (0.89-1.55)		19.8 (14.0-25.5)	1.22 (0.87-1.57)	
	NA	0.539	NA	1.000	NA	NA	0.351/0.229	NA		0.759/0.271
rs1801394 (<i>MTRR</i>)	36%		90%		8.1 (6.8-9.4)	<i>ref</i>		21.6 (17.6-25.5)	<i>ref</i>	
	34%		91%		6.8 (5.9-7.8)	1.12 (0.71-1.53)		19.4 (17.2-21.7)	0.86 (0.42-1.30)	
	35%	0.953	81%	0.223	8.3 (6.7-9.9)	0.96 (0.57-1.34)	0.617/0.614	21.0 (16.7-25.3)	0.90 (0.50-1.30)	0.799/0.794
rs1532268 (<i>MTRR</i>)	37%		84%		6.8 (5.5-8.1)	<i>ref</i>		19.8 (16.6-22.9)	<i>ref</i>	
	31%		91%		8.0 (6.8-9.2)	0.85 (0.44-1.27)		18.9 (17.4-20.4)	1.17 (0.72-1.62)	
	39%	0.537	97%	0.054	7.0 (4.7-9.2)	0.78 (0.38-1.19)	0.134/0.493	21.6 (16.4-26.8)	1.35 (0.92-1.78)	0.961/0.352
rs162036 (<i>MTRR</i>)	35%		91%		7.9 (7.1-8.7)	<i>ref</i>		19.5 (17.0-22.0)	<i>ref</i>	
	32%		85%		6.5 (5.5-7.5)	1.21 (0.45-1.97)		18.7 (14.9-22.4)	1.20 (0.41-1.99)	
	33%	0.934	67%	0.039	6.6 (6.3-7.0)	1.51 (0.71-2.32)	0.498/0.380	26.0 (0.0-66.5)	1.39 (0.55-2.23)	0.653/0.619
rs10380 (<i>MTRR</i>)	36%		90%		7.8 (7.0-8.5)	<i>ref</i>		19.5 (17.3-21.6)	<i>ref</i>	
	28%		85%		6.2 (5.6-6.9)	0.85 (0.48-1.22)		21.0 (15.9-26.2)	0.88 (0.51-1.26)	
	NA	0.391	NA	0.300	NA	NA	0.339/0.402	NA	NA	0.837/0.532
rs8101143 (<i>intergenic</i>)	33%		89%		7.0 (5.9-8.1)	<i>ref</i>		21.9 (18.2-25.6)	<i>ref</i>	
	32%		88%		8.0 (6.7-9.3)	1.35 (0.87-1.84)		19.5 (18.2-20.7)	1.23 (0.69-1.77)	
	50%	0.242	92%	0.886	8.3 (5.7-11.0)	1.18 (0.68-1.67)	0.597/0.379	21.2 (2.7-39.8)	1.46 (0.91-2.01)	0.412/0.308

Table 3. Association between genetic variants and efficacy of capecitabine in the total population

CI, confidence interval; HR, Hazard ratio; NA, no patients carried this genotype; PFS, progression free survival; OS, overall survival.

Variant	Objective response	P-value	Clinical benefit	P-value	PFS, median (95% CI)	HR (95% CI)	P-value univariate/multivariate	OS, median (95% CI)	HR (95% CI)	P-value univariate/multivariate
rs576523 (intergenic)	20%		85%		6.3 (5.8-6.8)	ref		19.5 (16.7-22.2)	ref	
	100%	1.000	100%		8.9 (-)	2.98 (0.96-5.00)	0.083/0.290	14.8 (-)	2.19 (0.14-4.24)	0.201/0.454
	NA	0.044	NA		NA	NA		NA	NA	
rs11722476 (SMARCA1)	23%		86%		6.1 (5.5-6.8)	ref		14.7 (7.8-21.5)	ref	
	18%		85%		6.6 (3.7-9.5)	1.13 (0.51-1.76)	0.889/0.812	19.4 (15.0-23.8)	0.91 (0.22-1.59)	0.881/0.893
	29%	0.578	86%	0.991	6.3 (5.7-6.9)	0.98 (0.39-1.56)		21.6 (17.6-25.6)	1.02 (0.40-1.65)	
rs4702484 (ADCY2)	20%		84%		6.2 (5.6-6.7)	ref		19.2 (15.1-23.2)	ref	
	24%		90%		8.0 (6.2-9.8)	1.75 (1.25-2.25)	0.018/0.029	22.1 (15.6-28.6)	1.56 (1.04-2.08)	0.457/0.096
	NA	0.795	NA	0.559	NA	NA		NA	NA	
rs1801394 (MTRR)	22%		88%		6.6 (4.5-8.7)	ref		19.5 (11.9-27.0)	ref	
	17%		85%		6.1 (5.2-7.1)	1.20 (0.58-1.82)	0.616/0.729	18.9 (15.6-22.1)	1.42 (0.78-2.07)	0.816/0.516
	33%	0.259	80%	0.642	8.3 (7.9-8.7)	1.00 (0.44-1.56)		22.1 (14.3-29.9)	1.14 (0.56-1.71)	
rs1532268 (MTRR)	27%		82%		6.6 (4.7-8.5)	ref		21.4 (17.2-25.5)	ref	
	18%		86%		6.1 (5.4-6.8)	0.91 (0.21-1.61)	0.915/0.948	18.1 (13.7-22.5)	1.26 (0.51-2.02)	0.808/0.396
	21%	0.515	93%	0.612	6.1 (4.8-7.4)	0.97 (0.32-1.62)		19.8 (4.9-35.7)	1.56 (0.86-2.27)	
rs162036 (MTRR)	17%		86%		6.3 (5.4-7.1)	ref		18.1 (13.9-22.3)	ref	
	27%		85%		6.2 (5.4-6.9)	1.97 (0.87-3.08)	0.440/0.227	24.1 (18.1-30.1)	1.46 (0.39-2.53)	0.543/0.744
	40%	0.253	80%	0.943	6.6 (6.4-6.9)	2.59 (1.44-3.73)		26.0 (0-55.8)	1.56 (0.43-2.68)	
rs10380 (MTRR)	21%		85%		6.3 (5.7-7.0)	ref		18.9 (15.0-22.7)	ref	
	23%		87%		6.2 (5.5-6.9)	0.77 (0.25-1.29)	0.876/0.330	24.1 (18.3-30.0)	0.90 (0.36-1.43)	0.720/0.681
	NA	0.805	NA	1.000	NA	NA		NA	NA	
rs8101143 (intergenic)	20%		86%		6.1 (5.0-7.1)	ref		18.1 (10.5-25.6)	ref	
	21%		81%		6.6 (4.5-8.7)	1.38 (0.61-2.15)	0.560/0.690	19.5 (16.7-22.2)	1.00 (0.15-1.86)	0.649/0.799
	33%	0.582	92%	0.630S	6.8 (3.5-10.2)	1.23 (0.47-2.00)		29.0 (15.2-42.8)	1.17 (0.33-2.02)	

Table 4. Association between genetic variants and efficacy of capecitabine in patients treated with capecitabine monotherapy

CI, confidence interval; HR, Hazard Ratio; NA, no patients carried this genotype; PFS, progression free survival; OS, overall survival.

Association with OS

None of the genetic markers showed interaction with OS in our data set. OS for rs4702484 was 19.5 months for homozygote wildtype (95% CI: 17.1-21.8 months) and 19.8 months (95% CI: 14.0-25.5 months) for heterozygotes ($P = 0.759$) in the total study population; and 19.2 (95% CI: 11.9-27.0) versus 22.1 months (95% CI: 15.6-28.6) for the capecitabine monotherapy group (P univariate = 0.457, P multivariate = 0.096; Figure 3B).

When the capecitabine monotherapy group was evaluated separately, results for PFS and OS remained similar.(Table 4)

Association with radiologic response

Regarding radiologic response to capecitabine, no association with genotype was found for any of the selected SNPs. No effect of genotype was present, whether objective response was used as the outcome measure, or clinical benefit.(Table 3)

A trend toward significant results was found for the association with clinical benefit of rs1533268 (GG vs. GA vs. AA: 84% vs. 91% vs. 97%; $P = 0.054$) and of rs162036 (AA vs. AG vs. GG: 91% vs. 85% vs. 67%; $P = 0.039$). When both treatment arms were evaluated separately, results remained statistically significant for patients receiving capecitabine-irinotecan combination treatment (rs1533268: GG vs. GA vs. AA: 85% vs. 97% vs. 100%; $P = 0.023$; and rs162036: AA vs. AG vs. GG: 96% vs. 85% vs. 50%; $P = 0.001$, data not shown), but not for patients receiving capecitabine monotherapy (rs1533268: GG vs. GA vs. AA: 82% vs. 86% vs. 93%; $P = 0.612$; and rs162036: AA vs. AG vs. GG: 86% vs. 85% vs. 80%; $P = 0.943$).

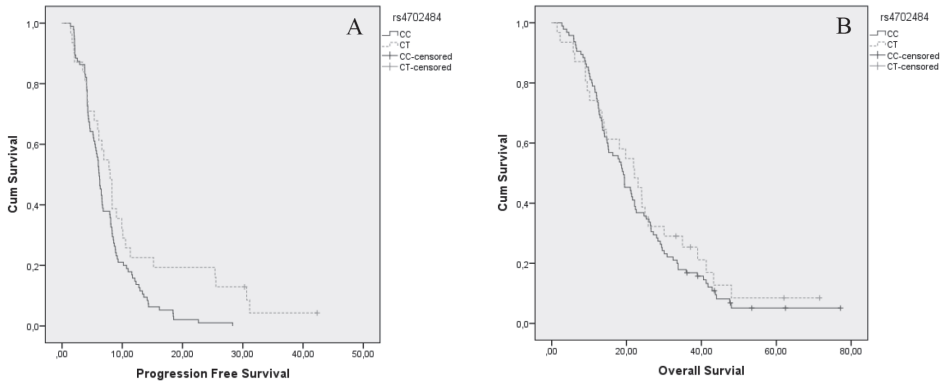


Figure 3. Kaplan-Meier survival curves for patients receiving capecitabine first-line monotherapy, according to genotype for rs4702484

A. Progression free survival; B. Overall survival.

Discussion

We designed this clinical pharmacogenetic association study to validate if a specific selection of SNPs implicated in recent pharmacogenetic papers was associated with efficacy of capecitabine in a large cohort of mCRC patients, treated with first-line capecitabine-based chemotherapy. The genetic markers were carefully chosen based on reports from previous studies.^{8;11} In our evaluation of eight selected SNPs, we found a small, borderline significant effect of rs4702484 on PFS in a subgroup of patients treated with capecitabine monotherapy. However, none of the other genetic variants showed significant association with capecitabine efficacy, neither in the total study population, nor in patients receiving capecitabine monotherapy.

Rs4702484, located *intronic* in the gene encoding for adenylate cyclase type 2 (*ADCY2*) and 200kbp upstream of *MTRR*, was first implicated in capecitabine chemosensitivity in a recent GWA report by O'Donnell and co-workers.⁸ Consistent with their results, we found PFS for patients carrying the rs4702484 heterozygous genotype was marginally better than for patients carrying the homozygous wildtype genotype, but only if they were treated with capecitabine monotherapy. As this did not translate, however, into a statistically significant overall survival benefit, the clinical implications of these findings remain uncertain.

Despite the positive result for rs4702484, we could not confirm an effect on capecitabine chemosensitivity for the other SNPs from the GWA study in our patient population. Replication of GWA results is subject to statistical difficulty. Genome wide studies tend to overestimate the effect of the associated SNPs and these extreme results will be closer to the average when replicated in a second measurement.¹⁷ To replicate these inflated results, large population sizes are necessary. Our patient sample is relatively small and lack of power may explain our inability to replicate the results found by O'Donnell et al.⁸ For most SNPs, however, median values and confidence intervals are almost identical between genotype groups, without a trend towards an effect for the genetic markers. We therefore believe that increasing population size would not have led to substantially different results.

Furthermore, although the use of cell lines allows for analyses that would be unethical or infeasible in humans, it has certain disadvantages. Many pharmacokinetic influences, both genetic and non-genetic, are excluded. To partly circumvent this problem, the capecitabine metabolite 5'-deoxy-5-fluorouridine (5'DFUR) was used for the cited *in vitro* GWA study.⁸ Although the impact of genetic variation in carboxylesterase (CES) and cytidine deaminase (CDD), both involved in the conversion of capecitabine to 5'DFUR *in vivo*, is still unclear^{18;19}, this may also partly explain the lack of replication in our patient group. In addition, tissue specific and tumor specific characteristics are eliminated when non-malignant cell lines, such as LCLs, are used.

We also studied four SNPs within *MTRR*. This gene has been implicated in the development of colorectal cancer¹¹ and is located in proximity to rs4720484. In our population of mCRC patients, the selection of four *MTRR* polymorphisms was not associated with capecitabine efficacy, which is consistent with results of another study showing no relation to efficacy of

adjuvant treatment with 5-FU in colorectal cancer patients.²⁰ Although a trend towards a significant effect was found for the association of rs1532268 and rs162036 with clinical benefit of capecitabine in combination therapy, this is probably due to statistical error associated with the small number of patients carrying the minor allele and with bias induced by multiple testing. Furthermore, since the effect is only present in patients treated with capecitabine-irinotecan combination therapy, this would imply an effect of this SNP on irinotecan, rather than capecitabine efficacy.

In designing this study, we hypothesized that *MTRR* could be important in capecitabine efficacy for two reasons. Firstly, *MTRR* as part of the folate pathway is involved in fluoropyrimidine pharmacodynamics (see also Figure 1). However, the relationship of fluoropyrimidine sensitivity to genetic variation in other components of this pathway, such as methylene tetrahydrofolate reductase (*MTHFR*), has not been confirmed^{12;15;21}, making an effect of *MTRR* genetic variation questionable. Secondly, polymorphisms in *MTRR* have been associated with colorectal carcinogenesis and as such may also influence disease prognosis. Whereas some authors described that cancer susceptibility genes show prognostic or predictive value in colorectal cancer patients^{22;23}, most studies found no correlation between these genes and survival of colorectal cancer patients, whether they were treated with chemotherapy²⁴ or not.^{25;26} Furthermore, although two *MTRR* variants (*MTRR* A66G, rs1801394; and *MTRR* C1793T, rs10380) were associated with increased colorectal cancer risk in a case control study¹¹, these results were not replicated consistently in meta-analyses.^{9;27} Based on these considerations, we believe our results should be seen as evidence that variation in *MTRR* is not essential in capecitabine chemosensitivity.

Genetic effects on drug metabolism have been recognized for decades.²⁸ Nevertheless, in today's practice, only few genetic markers have been integrated in algorithms for therapeutic control. The Pharmacogenetics Working Group of the Royal Dutch Pharmacists Association has provided pharmacogenetics-based therapeutic recommendations for 53 drugs, related to eleven genes.^{29;30} Before implementation into clinical practice, extensive validation of genetic markers in varied patient groups is warranted. Validation studies like the present contribute to the conscientious transfer of basic research results into clinical practice. Although we believe the selected markers are not useful as pretreatment biomarkers of capecitabine efficacy in colorectal cancer, we cannot exclude an effect of some of these SNPs in other types of cancer and with other 5-FU derivatives. Further research therefore remains necessary.

Acknowledgments

We thank the following CAIRO investigators for participating in the pharmacogenetic side-study:

J van der Hoeven-Amstelveen; D Richel, B de Valk- Amsterdam; J Douma-Arnhem; P Nieboer-Assen; F Valster-Bergen op Zoom; G Ras, O. Loosveld-Breda; D Kehrer-Capelle a/d IJssel; M

Bos-Delft; H Sinnige, C Knibbeler-Den Bosch; W van Deijk, H Sleeboom-Den Haag; E Muller-Doetinchem; E Balk-Ede; G Creemers-Eindhoven; R de Jong-Groningen; P Zoon-Harderwijk; J Wals-Heerlen; M Polee-Leeuwarden; M Tesselaar-Leiden; R Brouwer-Leidschendam; P de Jong-Rotterdam; G Veldhuis-Sneek; D ten Bokkel Huinink-Utrecht; A van Bochove-Zaandam.

References

1. Ferlay J, Shin HR, Bray F, Forman D, Mathers C, Parkin DM. GLOBOCAN 2008 v2.0, Cancer Incidence and Mortality Worldwide: IARC CancerBase No. 10 [Internet]. Lyon, France: International Agency for Research on Cancer; 2010. Available from: <http://globocan.iarc.fr>, accessed on 01-01-2014.
2. Lan YT, Yang SH, Chang SC et al. Analysis of the seventh edition of American Joint Committee on colon cancer staging. *Int J Colorectal Dis* 2012;27:657-663.
3. Tol J, Punt CJ. Monoclonal antibodies in the treatment of metastatic colorectal cancer: a review. *Clin Ther* 2010;32:437-453.
4. Koopman M, Venderbosch S, Nagtegaal ID, van Krieken JH, Punt CJ. A review on the use of molecular markers of cytotoxic therapy for colorectal cancer, what have we learned? *Eur J Cancer* 2009;45:1935-1949.
5. Pander J, Wessels JA, Gelderblom H, Van der Straaten T, Punt CJ, Guchelaar HJ. Pharmacogenetic interaction analysis for the efficacy of systemic treatment in metastatic colorectal cancer. *Ann Oncol* 2011;22:1147-1153.
6. Kweekel DM, Gelderblom H, Van der Straaten T, Antonini NF, Punt CJ, Guchelaar HJ. UGT1A1*28 genotype and irinotecan dosage in patients with metastatic colorectal cancer: a Dutch Colorectal Cancer Group study. *Br J Cancer* 2008;99:275-282.
7. Deenen MJ, Tol J, Burylo AM et al. Relationship between single nucleotide polymorphisms and haplotypes in DPYD and toxicity and efficacy of capecitabine in advanced colorectal cancer. *Clin Cancer Res* 2011;17:3455-3468.
8. O'Donnell PH, Stark AL, Gamazon ER et al. Identification of novel germline polymorphisms governing capecitabine sensitivity. *Cancer* 2012;118:4063-4073.
9. Zhou D, Mei Q, Luo H, Tang B, Yu P. The polymorphisms in methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase, methionine synthase, methionine synthase reductase, and the risk of colorectal cancer. *Int J Biol Sci* 2012;8:819-830.
10. Koopman M, Antonini NF, Douma J et al. Sequential versus combination chemotherapy with capecitabine, irinotecan, and oxaliplatin in advanced colorectal cancer (CAIRO): a phase III randomised controlled trial. *Lancet* 2007;370:135-142.
11. Pardini B, Kumar R, Naccarati A et al. MTHFR and MTRR genotype and haplotype analysis and colorectal cancer susceptibility in a case-control study from the Czech Republic. *Mutat Res* 2011;721:74-80.
12. Pardini B, Kumar R, Naccarati A et al. 5-Fluorouracil-based chemotherapy for colorectal cancer and MTHFR/MTRR genotypes. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 2011;72:162-163.
13. Etienne-Grimaldi MC, Milano G, Mairault-Goebel F et al. Methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase (MTHFR) gene polymorphisms and FOLFOX response in colorectal cancer patients. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 2010;69:58-66.
14. Jennings BA, Kwok CS, Willis G, Matthews V, Wawruch P, Loke YK. Functional polymorphisms of folate metabolism and response to chemotherapy for colorectal cancer, a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Pharmacogenet Genomics* 2012;22:290-304.
15. van Huis-Tanja LH, Gelderblom H, Punt CJ, Guchelaar HJ. MTHFR polymorphisms and capecitabine-induced toxicity in patients with metastatic colorectal cancer. *Pharmacogenet Genomics* 2013;23:208-218.
16. Database of Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (dbSNP). Bethesda (MD): National Center for Biotechnology Information, National Library of Medicine.(dbSNP Build ID: 36.3). <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/SNP/>.
17. Zhong H, Prentice RL. Bias-reduced estimators and confidence intervals for odds ratios in genome-wide association studies. *Biostatistics* 2008;9:621-634.
18. Caronia D, Martin M, Sastre J et al. A polymorphism in the cytidine deaminase promoter predicts severe capecitabine-induced hand-foot syndrome. *Clin Cancer Res* 2011;17:2006-2013.
19. Ribelles N, Lopez-Siles J, Sanchez A et al. A carboxylesterase 2 gene polymorphism as predictor of capecitabine on response and time to progression. *Curr Drug Metab* 2008;9:336-343.
20. Pardini B, Kumar R, Naccarati A et al. 5-Fluorouracil-based chemotherapy for colorectal cancer and MTHFR/MTRR genotypes. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 2011;72:162-163.
21. Afzal S, Gusella M, Vainer B et al. Combinations of polymorphisms in genes involved in the 5-Fluorouracil metabolism pathway are associated with gastrointestinal toxicity in chemotherapy-treated colorectal cancer patients. *Clin Cancer Res* 2011;17:3822-3829.
22. Dai J, Gu J, Huang M et al. GWAS-identified colorectal cancer susceptibility loci associated with clinical outcomes. *Carcinogenesis* 2012;33:1327-1331.
23. Xing J, Myers RE, He X et al. GWAS-identified colorectal cancer susceptibility locus associates with disease prognosis. *Eur J Cancer* 2011;47:1699-1707.
24. Cicek MS, Slager SL, Achenbach SJ et al. Functional and clinical significance of variants localized to 8q24 in colon cancer. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2009;18:2492-2500.
25. Hoskins JM, Ong PS, Keku TO et al. Association of eleven common, low-penetrance colorectal cancer susceptibility genetic variants at six risk loci with clinical outcome. *PLoS One* 2012;7:e41954.
26. Tenesa A, Theodoratou E, Din FV et al. Ten

- common genetic variants associated with colorectal cancer risk are not associated with survival after diagnosis. *Clin Cancer Res* 2010;16:3754-3759.
27. (Han D, Shen C, Meng X et al. Methionine synthase reductase A66G polymorphism contributes to tumor susceptibility: evidence from 35 case-control studies. *Mol Biol Rep* 2012;39:805-816.
 28. Vesell ES, Page JG. Genetic control of drug levels in man: phenylbutazone. *Science* 1968;159:1479-1480.
 29. Swen JJ, Wilting I, de Goede AL et al. Pharmacogenetics: from bench to byte. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2008;83:781-787.
 30. Swen JJ, Nijenhuis M, de BA et al. Pharmacogenetics: from bench to byte--an update of guidelines. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2011;89:662-673.
 31. Whirl-Carrillo M, McDonagh EM, Hebert JM, Gong L, Sangkuhl K, Thorn CF, et al. Pharmacogenomics knowledge for personalized medicine. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2012 Oct;92(4):414-7.

