



Pharmacokinetics, Pharmacodynamics and Drug Transport and Metabolism

The Application of Virtual Therapeutic Drug Monitoring to Assess the Pharmacokinetics of Imatinib in a Chinese Cancer Population Group



He Yu, Raj K. Singh Badhan*

Aston Pharmacy School, College of Health and Life Sciences, Aston University, Birmingham, B4 7ET, United Kingdom

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 16 May 2022

Revised 28 September 2022

Accepted 28 September 2022

Available online 4 October 2022

Keywords:

Cancer

Imatinib

Pharmacokinetics

Therapeutic drug monitoring

Chinese

ABSTRACT

Purpose: Imatinib is used in gastrointestinal stromal tumours (GIST) and chronic myeloid leukaemia (CML). Oncology patients demonstrate altered physiology compared to healthy adults, e.g. reduced haematocrit, increased α -1 acid glycoprotein, decreased albumin and reduced glomerular filtration rate (GFR), which may influence imatinib pharmacokinetics. Given that Chinese cancer patients often report raised imatinib plasma concentrations and wider inter-individual variability reported in trough concentration when compared to Caucasian cancer patients, therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM) has been advocated.

Method: This study utilised a previously validated Chinese cancer population and assessed the impact of imatinib virtual-TDM in Chinese and Caucasian cancer populations across a dosing range from 200–800 mg daily.

Results: Staged dose titration to 800 mg daily, resulted in recapitulation to within the target therapeutic range for 50 % (Chinese) and 42.1% (Caucasian) subjects possessing plasma concentration < 550 ng/mL when dosed at 400 mg daily. For subjects with plasma concentrations > 1500 ng/mL when dosed at 400 mg daily, a dose reduction to 200 mg once daily was able to recover 67 % (Chinese) and 87.4 % (Caucasian) patients to the target therapeutic range.

Conclusion: Virtual TDM highlights the benefit of pharmacokinetic modelling to optimising treatments in challenging oncology population groups.

© 2022 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Inc. on behalf of American Pharmacists Association. This is an open access article under the CC BY license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>)

Introduction

Tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) have revolutionised the treatment of several cancers,¹ but there still remains a need to consider optimising dosing to ensure personalised anticancer treatment in a range of patient groups.² Imatinib, which inhibits BCR-ABL activity, has gained attention as one candidate which would benefit from TDM approaches,^{3–5} particularly in gastrointestinal stromal tumours (GIST) and chronic myeloid leukaemia (CML).

Gastrointestinal stromal tumours (GIST) are one of the commonest types of mesenchymal tumour localised to the gastrointestinal tract, affecting approximately 7 people per million per year in Western countries,⁶ 16 people per million per year in Korea^{7,8} and approximately 4 people per million per year in China.⁹ Whilst surgical

resection is the mainstay treatment, only 70 % of patients attain a 5-year post-operative survival¹⁰ and the economic burden of therapeutic interventions is high, at over \$100,000 per patient per year.¹¹ Furthermore, a large study in Chinese patients identified a steep rise in cases after 50 years old, with males being more predisposed than females.⁹ Chronic myeloid leukaemia (CML) accounts for approximately 20 % of all cases on leukaemia within adults.¹² Approximately 33 % of patients with CML treated with imatinib demonstrate a lack of complete cytogenetic response (CCyR) or present with drug resistance/toxicity.^{13–15}

In both cases, a key in the paradigm of treatment is imatinib, which has revolutionised treatment outcomes and improved survival times.^{16,17} Imatinib is well absorbed with an absolute bioavailability of > 98 %, ^{18,19} which is not dose/dosage form^{20,21} dependant nor food/fed-state dependant.^{22,23} Its' half-life is approximately 18 hours, and multiple dosing often leads to target plasma concentrations in excess of the 0.5 μ M (~ 250 ng/mL) required for tyrosine kinase inhibition in-vitro.^{20,24} Furthermore, it is highly protein bound (>95 %) ²⁵

* Corresponding author at: Aston Pharmacy School, College of Health and Life Sciences, Aston University, Birmingham, B4 7ET, United Kingdom.

E-mail address: r.k.s.badhan@aston.ac.uk (R.K.S. Badhan).

and has a large volume of distribution (V_d) > 400 L.¹⁹ The elimination of imatinib is governed by CYP 2C8 (primary role)²⁶ and 3A4,^{27–29} with other CYP isozymes (CYP1A2, CYP2D6, CYP2C9 and CYP2C19) playing a minor role (< 3 % contribution in total).^{27–30} Furthermore, being a low extraction drug, the elimination of imatinib is highly sensitive to protein binding and intrinsic clearance. Confounding the pharmacokinetics of imatinib, is its wide inter-individual variability with steady-state trough concentrations varying by over 20-fold in CML patients.^{31,32} Furthermore, the intrinsic variability of CYP 3A4 is thought to also contribute to this inter-individual variability.^{33,34}

Oncology patients tend to demonstrate altered physiology which may influence a drugs pharmacokinetics, with key changes including reduced haematocrit, increased α -1 acid glycoprotein and decreased albumin and reduced glomerular filtration rate (GFR).^{35,36} Furthermore, racial and weight differences between Chinese and Caucasian patient demographics have a direct role in current Chinese guidelines for treatment. Furthermore, the tolerance of Chinese patients to higher doses (> 400 mg/day) is often lower than that of Caucasian patients, with the (United States) National Comprehensive Cancer Network (NCCN) guidelines recommending 800 mg/day^{37–39} for those who show limited improvement at the standard dose (400mg/day) (originating from Caucasian studies), whereas in Chinese studies doses are recommended at 600 mg/day.^{40,41}

Given the long-term use of imatinib, appropriate steady-state levels are critical in limited side effects and toxicity such as myelosuppression, nausea, diarrhoea, hypophosphatemia, musculoskeletal symptoms, rash, fatigue, and headaches.⁴² For both CML and GIST, a target trough concentration of 1000 ng/mL and 1100 ng/mL has been suggested, respectively.^{43,44} Whilst these are often driven around pharmacodynamic endpoints (e.g. hematologic, cytogenetic and molecular responses), some groups have advocated the use of such concentrations as pharmacokinetic predictors of response.^{45,46} Furthermore, given the wide inter-individual variability reported in trough concentration (50–100 %)⁴⁷ likely a result of the intrinsic variability in CYP 3A4 activity,^{33,34} sub- or supra- therapeutic dosing is possible.^{47,48}

In order to address the clinical consequences of this variability, Gotta *et al* (2014) coined the term “rescue TDM” to refer to ‘corrective’ dosing based on therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM) for specific cases to support optimal imatinib plasma concentrations.⁵ Recently, Buclin *et al* (2020)³ utilised the work by Gotta *et al*⁵ to reiterate the

need for TDM for imatinib, providing a structured approach to accomplish this. In the approach originally developed by Gotta *et al* (2014),⁵ dose adjustments were supported for subtherapeutic patients (500–800 mg once daily) and suprathreshold patients (200–400 mg once daily), to target an “acceptable” target concentration range (750–1500 ng/mL) surrounding the target trough concentration of 1000–1100 ng/mL.³

Higher plasma concentrations have been reported in Chinese cancer patients when compared to Caucasian cancer patients.^{49,50} Given the physiological difference between Chinese and Caucasian cancer patients, particularly changes in alpha-1-acid glycoprotein, the assessment of optimal doses to attain targeted plasma concentrations is warranted and can be pragmatically achieved through the use of mechanistic physiologically-based pharmacokinetic modelling approaches.⁵¹

In this study, we utilise previous work conducted by our group to assess the requirements and approaches towards dose titrations in Chinese cancer patients, with explicit account of the physiological differences encountered in Chinese cancer patients compared to Caucasian cancer patients.

Methods

In order to conduct virtual clinical trials simulations in subjects, the physiologically-based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) modelling tool Simcyp (Simcyp Ltd, a Certara company, Sheffield, UK, Version 19) was utilised. The algorithms and ordinary differential equation describing elements of the Simulator have been previously described.^{52,53} Furthermore, the concept of virtual populations incorporates subjects forming representatives from a specific population group and incorporates appropriate physiological and biochemical variances defined for each population.⁵⁴ Unless otherwise stated, all simulations utilised mixed genders (50:50). Further, we adopted a workflow model with four stages (Fig. 1).

Validation of Imatinib in Caucasian Subjects

We utilised a previously developed and validated model of imatinib,⁵⁵ with some modifications. The validation dataset utilised included 4 studies within Caucasian populations: (i) 12 healthy Caucasian volunteers (2 female) (40–58 years old) who received a single

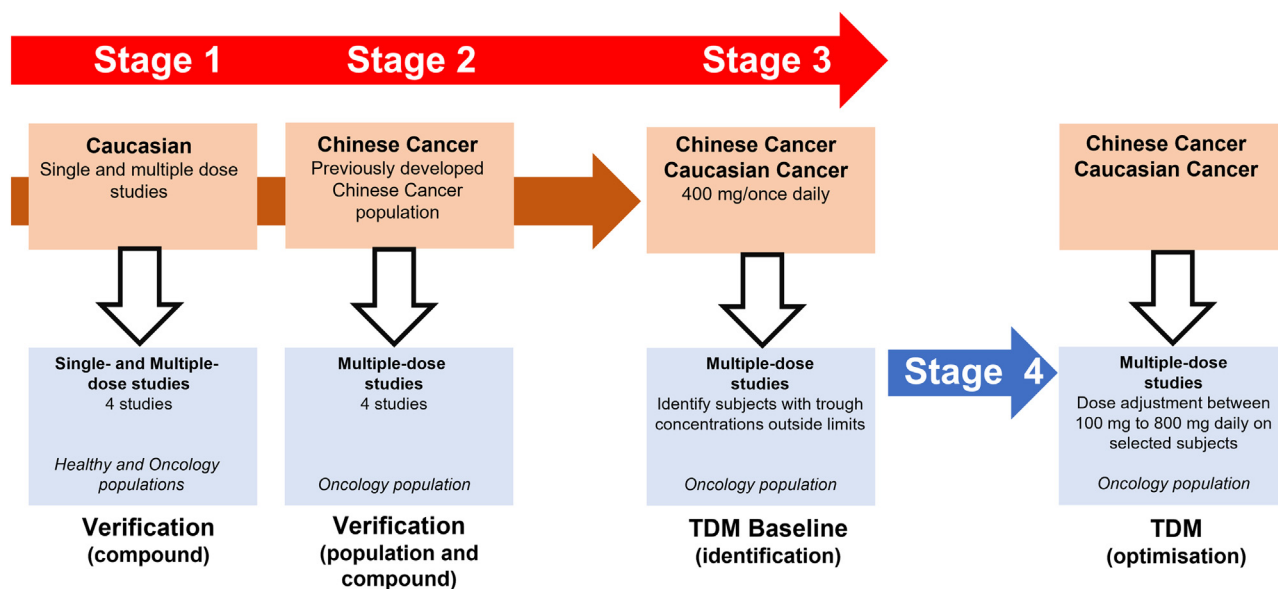


Fig. 1. The workflow model for model verification and TDM.

dose administration of imatinib 400 mg;¹⁹ (ii) 34 cancer patients (6 female) (28–84 years old) who received multiple doses of imatinib 400 mg with sampling on days 1 and 15;⁵⁶ (iii) 50 cancer patients (21 female) (39–82 years old) who received multiple doses of imatinib 400 mg/day for 15 days;⁵⁷ (iv) 103 patient (83 female) (18–77 years old) who received multiple doses of imatinib 400mg/day for 15 days.⁵⁸ The Simcyp Healthy Volunteer population⁵⁴ or Cancer populations⁵⁹ were utilised in trials.

Validation of Imatinib in a Virtual Chinese Cancer Population

In order to assess differences in pharmacokinetics of imatinib in Chinese and Caucasian cancer subjects, we utilised a previously developed virtual Chinese cancer population group⁶⁰ in a virtual trial to compare predicted trough imatinib plasma concentration to those reported at steady state for doses of (i) 100, 200, 250, 300, 400, 600 and 800 mg once daily (36 subjects aged 17–79 years);⁶¹ (ii) 190 GIST subjects dosed at 400 mg once daily (31–85 years) demarked for age/weight in addition to trough concentrations reported at doses of 300, 400, 500 and 600 mg once daily;⁶² (iii) 84 CML subjects dosed 300–600 mg once daily (18–76 years);⁶³ (iv) 129 GIST subjects dosed 200–600 mg once daily (29–75 years).⁶⁴ This virtual Chinese cancer population group incorporates physiological alterations previously reported³⁵ to occur within oncology populations includes reductions in haematocrit, increases α -1 acid glycoprotein and decreases in both albumin and GFR.³⁶

Imatinib TDM in a Virtual Chinese Cancer Population

Although there is no definitive guidance on the need for TDM for imatinib, previous studies have examined approaches to implementing TDM in clinical practice.^{3–5,65–68} Utilising the “rescue TDM” approach coined by Gotta *et al* (2014), we implemented the subsequent structured approach to TDM suggested by Buclin *et al* (2020)³ (Fig. 2), in order to assess the need for imatinib TDM in a virtual Chinese cancer population group.

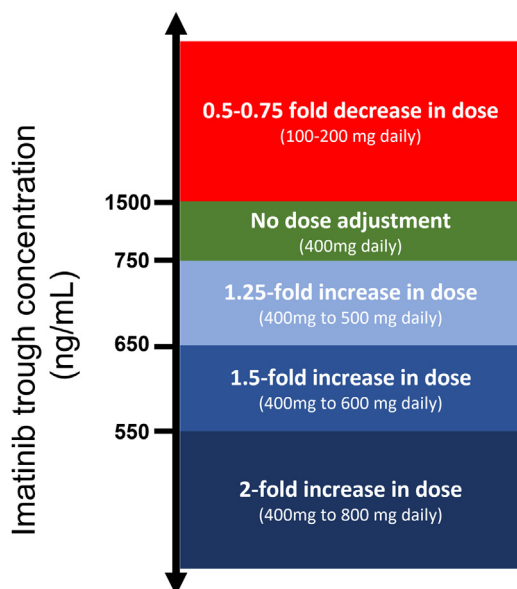


Fig. 2. TDM-guided dose titrations. Dose titrations were conducted based on approaches previously described³. Subjects with imatinib trough plasma concentration outside of the prescribed target trough window (750–1500 ng/mL), following a 400 mg once daily (to steady-state) dosing schedule, were identified and subjected to dose adjustment based on either a dose increase or decrease, dependent upon their trough plasma concentration.

A 10 × 10 trial design (100 subjects) was implemented (20–50 year olds, 50 % female) with a dose of 400 mg once daily for 28 days, followed by dose adjustments in 100 mg daily increments to the target dose and maintained for a further 28 days at each specific target dose. At day 28 (before adjustment) and day 56 (after adjustment), subjects were identified who demonstrated trough plasma concentrations below or above the target thresholds, and the impact of the dose adjustment was quantified in relation to ability to target the therapeutic concentration range (750–1500 ng/mL) identified by Buclin *et al* (2020).³ Subjects’ demographics were maintained for the TDM-applicable cohorts.

As a comparison, an identical trial design was implemented for the Simcyp Cancer (Caucasian) population group.

Predictive Performance

For the validation steps 1–3, predictive performance was determined within a 2–fold (0.5–2.0–fold) range of reported pharmacokinetic parameters.^{69–71} A visual predictive checking (VPC) strategy (U. S. Food and Drug Administration, 2012)^{72–74} was also adopted for predicting plasma concentration–time profiles. This checking strategy was performed visually when the predicted plasma–concentration profiles, including the predicted mean and 5th and 95th percentiles, was compared with the observed data which should overlap with the predicted data sets. Furthermore, the prediction accuracy of the simulation profiles was evaluated using average fold error (AFE) (Eq. (1)) and absolute average fold error (AAFE) (Eq. (2))^{75–77} were calculated to further validate provide a measure of precision and bias, as follows:

$$AFE = 10^{\frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum \log \left(\frac{pred_t}{obs_t} \right)} \quad (1)$$

$$AAFE = 10^{\frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum \left| \log \left(\frac{pred_t}{obs_t} \right) \right|} \quad (2)$$

where n represents the number of observations, $pred_t$ and obs_t are the predicted and observed concentrations at time t . Deviations from unity refer to over-prediction ($AFE > 1$) or under-prediction ($AFE < 1$) of the observed data. AAFE measures the absolute error from the true value and inherent determined bias of the profile. AAFE values of ≤ 2 were considered appropriate.⁷⁸

Mean predicted values (e.g. C_{max} or C_{min}) were compared with observed values and the standard deviation ratio (SDratio) calculated (Eq. (3))⁵¹ as follows:

$$SDratio = \sqrt{\left(\frac{SD \text{ observed}}{\text{Mean observed}} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{SD \text{ predicted}}{\text{Mean predicted}} \right)^2} \times \frac{\text{Mean predicted}}{\text{Mean observed}} \quad (3)$$

where SD observed and SD predicted are the SD of observed and predicted values; Mean observed and Mean predicted are the arithmetic mean of observed and predicted values. A criterion of < 2 -fold was deemed an acceptable prediction of values.^{69–71}

The observed clinical data used in verification studies were extract using WebPlotDigitizer v. 3.10 (<https://automeris.io/WebPlot-Digitizer/>). Statistical significance was confirmed as $p < 0.05$.

Results

Validation

The model was successfully validated against 5 adult imatinib single- and multiple-dosing regimen studies, with the majority of plasma concentrations falling within the 5th and 95th percentiles of

the predicted concentrations (Supplementary Materials Fig. S1). Further, in all cases the AFE and AAFE were between 0.85–1.21 and 0.98–1.14, indicating successful model predictions (Supplementary Materials Table S1).

Validation of Imatinib in a Virtual Chinese Cancer Population

Simulated median steady-state trough and peak imatinib plasma concentrations in Chinese cancer populations were broadly within 1.5-fold of those reported for a variety of doses from 100 mg – 800 mg (Fig. 3) with mean prediction ratio and SD-ratio within the 2-fold boundary (Table 1).

Imatinib TDM in a Virtual Chinese Cancer Population

In order to examine the requirement for TDM-based dose adjustment, simulations in Chinese and Caucasian cancer populations assessed the changes in trough imatinib plasma concentrations following dose adjustment from a baseline of 400 mg once daily across a range of 200–800 mg once daily. Trough plasma concentrations were higher for Chinese than Caucasian subjects (Fig. 4A) (Table 2) with a standard dose resulting in trough levels of 1816.2 ng/mL (52.85–8257.29 ng/mL) and 1216.6 ng/mL (121.23–4464.89 ng/mL) respectively (Table 2) (Fig. 4B).

In order to engage in virtual-TDM, we considered each simulated subject and sampled the steady-state trough plasma concentration (following 400 mg once daily dosing), prior to dose-titrations. At a 400 mg dose, fewer Chinese subjects possessed trough concentrations within the target range (750–1500 ng/mL) when compared to Caucasian subjects, 26 % and 43 % respectively (Table 3). However, a greater number of Chinese subjects possessed trough concentrations in excess of the upper limit of the target range (>1500 ng/mL), 51 %, when compared to Caucasian subjects, 25 % (Table 3).

In Chinese and Caucasian populations, 9 % and 13 % of subjects, respectively, possessed sub-therapeutic concentration in the range of 550–750 ng/mL, of which all were recapitulated to the target range, upon the application of the appropriate TMD method (Fig. 2) (Table 3). However, for those with a plasma concentration < 550 ng/mL, a dose increase to 800 mg was only able to recover 50 % (Chinese) and 42.1% (Caucasian) of those subject to within the target therapeutic range (Table 3). For subjects with plasma concentration >1500 ng/mL, a dose reduction to 200 mg once daily was able to recover 67 % (Chinese) and 84 % (Caucasian) of those patients of within the target therapeutic range (Table 3).

Discussion

The management and treatment of patients with CML and GIST have significantly improved since the first TKI, imatinib, was introduced, with similar survival rates to that of control subjects.⁷⁹ As a selective inhibitor of the protein tyrosine kinase Bcr-Abl, platelet-derived growth factor receptors (PDGFR α and PDGFR β) and KIT, imatinib has been demonstrated as part of the treatment of CML and GIST.^{80,81}

Monitoring the plasma concentration of imatinib may be beneficial in optimising treatment strategies,⁸² particularly given that all tyrosine kinase inhibitors are administered orally and, usually, as fixed doses regardless of the patient's weight, age, or gender, leading to inconsistent bioavailability and individual differences in plasma levels across a population.⁸³

For adult CML/GIST patients (irrespective of ethnicity), the current recommended dose is 400 or 600 mg once daily,⁸⁴ resulting in quite diverse plasma concentrations in different ethnic groups, with the average plasma imatinib concentration in 10 countries (Asia (China, South Korea, Japan, and India), Europe (France, Norway, the

Netherlands, Belgium, and Italy), and North America (United States)) ranging from 800–1500 ng/mL.⁸⁵

In this study, we utilised virtual-TDM to optimise imatinib therapy in virtual Chinese and Caucasian cancer subjects. The imatinib model was adapted and validated in single and multiple dose studies in Caucasian subjects^{19,56–58} in addition to a being validated using a previously developed virtual Chinese cancer population group⁶⁰ with CML/GIST multiple dose studies.^{61–64} In these validation studies, the predicted imatinib plasma concentrations were within the range reported in clinical studies (Fig. S1 and Fig. 3) and mean predicted pharmacokinetics parameters were all within 2-fold of those reported (Table 1). Some level of under/over-prediction was evident in Fig. 3F and G, when predicting trough (Fig. 3F) and peak (Fig. 3G) plasma concentrations with observed data from 129 GIST subjects dosed 200–600 mg once daily (29–75 years).⁶⁴ However, the observed data recruited a total of 129 patients in an observational phase 4 trial, with patients demarked for imatinib daily dose and hence the observed data for each dose reflect a smaller subset of the total patient number, and this may have contributed to the under/over-prediction at the higher doses. Nonetheless, median predictions were within 2-fold of those reported.

Failures in imatinib treatment can be attributed to the resistance mutations of imatinib in the kinase domain of BCRABL1.⁸⁶ In these cases, therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM) may provide clinicians with opportunities for informed dosage decisions. The European CML Treatment and Outcome Study (EUTOS),⁸⁷ offered guidance on approaches for TDM with imatinib in addition to identify the relationship between imatinib plasma concentration and response. Using centralised TDM and clinical outcome data including cytogenetic response (CyR) and molecular response (MR), the imatinib plasma concentrations of thousands of CML patients were collected in the registry, and the population PK modelling was used to analyse the data. This model describes pharmacokinetic parameters of imatinib in specific populations, quantifies the impact of patient characteristics on the behaviour of imatinib, and provides an individual estimate of C_{min}. Additionally, the observations suggest that due to the lower concentration of imatinib and the slower response rate, early dose optimisation of TDM may benefit some patients.⁸⁷ This study exemplifies the potential of TDM for different populations and provides theoretical evidence for individual variations. Critically, this study suggested at a defined therapeutic target concentration which was utilised as the basis for this work.

Having confirmed the ability of the model to recapitulate plasma concentrations within both Caucasian cancer and Chinese cancer populations, we subsequently applied TDM-based dose adjustment, using the approach developed by EUTOS,⁵ in simulations by assessing the changes in trough imatinib plasma concentrations following dose adjustment from a baseline of 400 mg once daily across a range of 200–800 mg once daily (Fig. 4).

For all doses studied, the trough imatinib plasma concentration was higher than that predicted within Caucasian Cancer subjects, concurring with previous reports which have highlighted that broadly lower doses may be required in Asian versus Caucasian subjects.^{49,88–93}

Notability, there was a wide interpatient variability in predicted plasma concentrations in both population groups (Fig. 4), a feature also reported by others.^{32,43,94} The cause of this may be attributed to both variability in the abundance of CYP metabolic pathways or transporter expression/function pathways. However, in the context of comparing Chinese and Caucasian cancer population, the differences in both body weight and body surface area may also contribute to this, with our virtual Chinese and Caucasian cancer populations possessed body weights of 62.21 kg \pm 9.45 kg and 74.3 kg \pm 14.8 kg and BSA of 1.69 m² \pm 0.16 m² 1.85 m² \pm 0.21 m². This difference is the often quoted reason for Chinese cancer population required lower

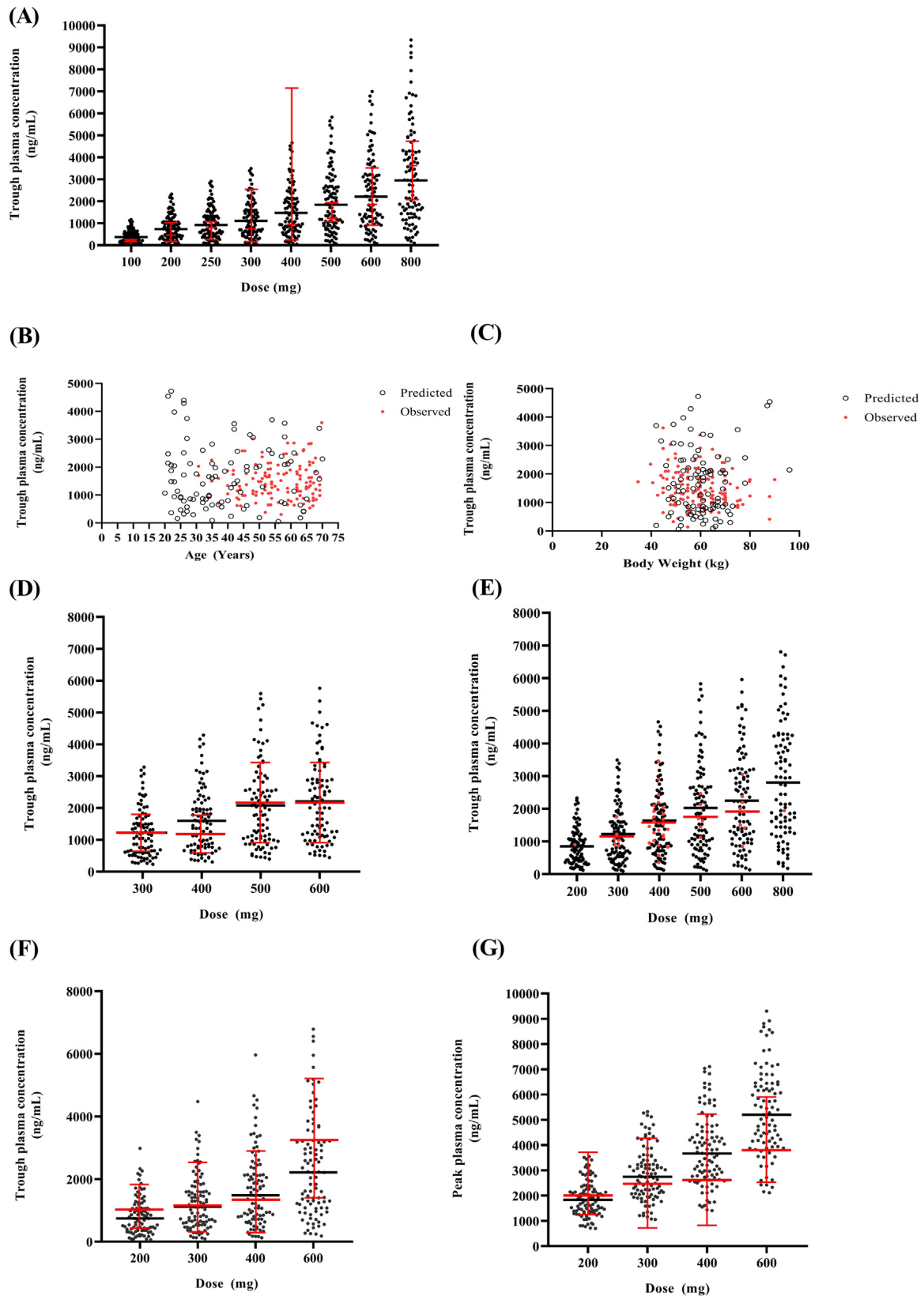


Fig. 3. Imatinib plasma concentration following oral dose administration in Chinese cancer subjects. Steady-state trough plasma concentration reported following (A) 100, 200, 250, 300, 400, 600, 600 and 800 mg once daily doses (36 subjects aged 17–79 years)⁶¹; 190 GIST subjects (31–85 years) demarked for age with a 400 mg once daily dose (B), body weight with a 400 mg once daily dose (C)⁶², trough plasma concentration dosed at 300, 400, 500 and 600 mg once daily (D)⁶²; (E) 84 CML subjects dosed 300–600 mg once daily (18–76 years)⁶³; (F and G) 129 GIST subjects dosed 200–600 mg once daily (29–75 years)⁶⁴. Circles indicate the predicted (black) or observed (red) individual data. Where individual concentration observed data was not reported, the reported observed mean and range were used and is represented by red horizontal lines (mean) and range (upper and lower horizontal lines). Predicted mean is represented by the horizontal black lines.

Table 1
Predicted and observed imatinib trough or peak plasma concentrations at in the Chinese cancer population group

	Dose (mg)	C_{\min} (ng/mL)		Comparison	
		Predicted	Observed	Mean ratio	SD Ratio ^a
<i>Xia et al (2020)</i>	100	369.11 (82.74-1162.87)	378 (140-334)	0.98	1.08
	200	738.015 (85.46-2327.15)	640 (346-1222)	1.15	1.12
	250	922.41 (111.8-2909.74)	986 (440-1265)	0.94	1.02
	300	1106.8 (138.2-3492.63)	940 (337-2781)	1.18	1.24
	400	1475.37 (150.8-4659.26)	1139 (421-7493)	1.32	1.42
	500	1843.795 (320.49-5827.25)	1422 (1283-2155)	1.31	1.38
	600	2212.075 (76.14-6996.38)	2076 (1103-3775)	1.07	1.08
	800	2948.395 (101.38-9336.94)	3879 (2303-5017)	0.76	1.05
<i>Wu et al (2018)</i>	300	1221.7 (756.7)	1564.65 (596.2)	0.80	1.24
	400	1593.4 (987.2)	1521.3 (610.3)	1.07	1.42
	500	2078.9 (1289.9)	2540.3 (1298.1) [#]	0.82	1.38
	600	2208 (1291.3)		0.87	1.08
<i>Zhong et al (2012)</i>	200	849.7 (541.2)	732.6	1.16	nd
	300	1227.2 (828.1)	996 (337.7)	1.23	1.45
	400	1635.8 (1105.6)	1446.2 (757.3)	1.13	1.52
	500	2024.5 (1388.5)	1631.9 (507.1)	1.23	1.24
	600	2246.9 (1440.2)	1802.3 (709.1)	1.24	1.13
	800	2802.7 (1724.1)	1832.7	1.56	nd
<i>Zhang et al (2018)</i>	200	738.3 (78.2-2981.1)	960.1 (367.2-1751.2)	0.73	1.26
	300	1107.6 (102.15-4471.9)	1087.5 (253.2-2452.1)	1.02	1.11
	400	1484.3 (143.2-5963.2)	1270.9 (224.7-2809.3)	1.17	1.23
	600	2215.3 (192.4-6788.9)	3162.6 (1327-5112.8)	0.73	1.42
		C_{\max} (ng/mL)			
	200	1832.2 (701.6-3548.2)	1988.5 (1232.2-3699.3)	0.93	1.23
	300	2748.3 (1053.6-5342.6)	2456.3 (701.8-4256.7)	1.11	1.15
	400	3665.7 (1406.2-7102.1)	2604.8 (802.6-5211.9)	1.43	1.33
	600	5205.7 (2113.6-9303.4)	3785.6 (2516.5-5897.3)	1.39	1.23

Data represents mean (range) or mean (SD). C_{\min} : trough plasma concentration; C_{\max} : peak plasma concentration; Mean ratio: ratio of predicted to observed concentration; nd: not determined.

^a SD ratio: ratio of predicted to observed SD ratio. Observed SD was obtained or calculated from original reference source.

[#] Observed data for 500 mg and 600 mg doses were reported as a single value.

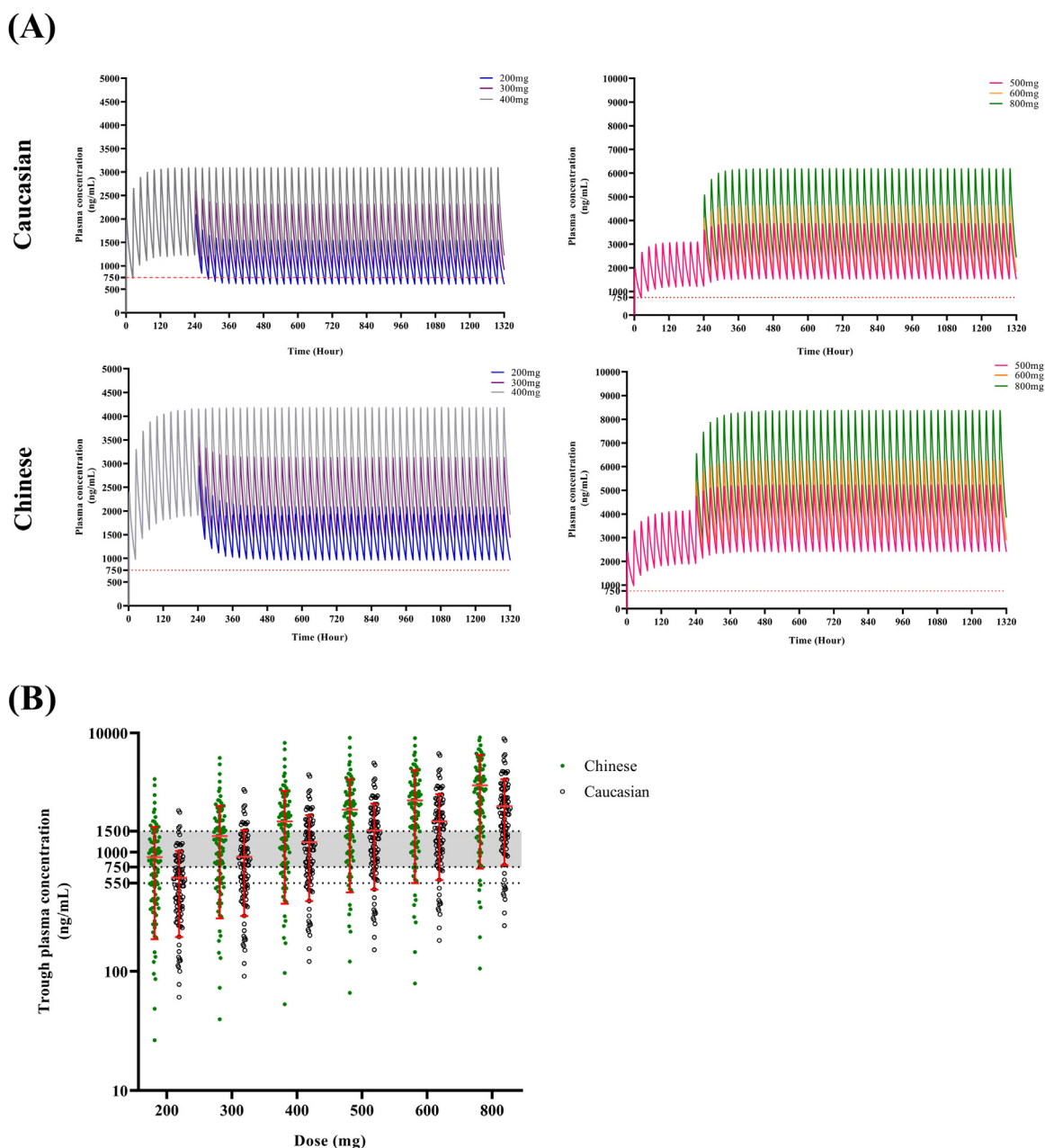


Fig. 4. Simulated imatinib plasma concentrations in Chinese and Caucasian cancer subjects at different doses. (A) Simulated plasma concentration in 100 Caucasian (upper panels) or Chinese (lower panels) cancer subjects (20-50 year olds) following an initial dose of 400 mg once daily to steady-state (10 days) and thereafter dose titrations to between 200-400 mg once daily (left panels) or 500-800 mg once daily (right panels). Horizontal dashed line indicates lower target trough plasma concentration (750 ng/mL). (B) Simulated plasma concentration in 100 Caucasian (open circles) or Chinese (solid green circles) cancer subjects (20-50 year olds) at steady-state doses of between 200-800 mg once daily. Horizontal shaded regions represents target trough plasma concentration (750-1500 ng/mL). Red lines indicate median and 5th- and 95th percentiles.

doses to support treatment outcomes broadly lower doses are required in Chinese versus Caucasian subjects.^{49,88-93}

For Chinese cancer subjects, at the standard dose of 400 mg once daily, only 26 % of subjects possessed trough concentrations within the expected therapeutic range, with 51 % exceeding 1500 ng/mL (Table 3). In applying TDM approaches, whilst a doubling of dose to 800 mg was only able to recapitulate 50 % (n=7) of the subtherapeutic subjects at 400 mg below 550 ng/mL, the equivalent 1.25-fold (500 mg) and 1.5-fold (600 mg) increase in dose was able to recover all subtherapeutic subjects between 550-750 ng/mL into the target range. For trough levels above 1500 ng/mL, a 50 % reduction in dose was able to recover 66% of subtherapeutic subjects into the target

window. Similar trends were identified for Caucasian cancer subjects, albeit with dose adjustment for subjects with trough levels above 1500 ng/mL resulting in an increase in the recovery to target concentrations. Drug included adverse effects are likely with high imatinib plasma concentrations, and include, nausea, vomiting, oedema and cutaneous reactions.⁹⁵ The latter occurs often at higher doses (400-800 mg/day), although most are mild in nature.⁹⁶ Although our study was limited to 200 mg/day as the lowest dose, case reports of 100-200 mg/day have demonstrated to result in improve clinical outcomes.^{97,98}

The case for TDM for imatinib has been widely made by many,^{2,3,5} and clear cost-effectiveness with TDM-guided therapy versus fixed

Table 2
Predicted imatinib trough plasma concentrations at difference doses in Chinese and Caucasian cancer subjects

Dose (mg)	Trough plasma concentration (ng/mL)							
	Chinese				Caucasian			
	Mean	Median	Range	SD	Mean	Median	Range	SD
200	907.79	772.01	26.46-4095.64	721.56	608.28	531.78	60.66-2231.98	413.81
300	1361.92	1157.52	39.66-6168.77	1083.7	912.44	797.51	90.96-3348.33	620.79
400	1816.2	1542.73	52.85-8257.29	1446.7	1216.6	1063.155	121.23-4464.89	827.82
500	2270.62	1927.69	66.02-10360.15	1810.49	1520.77	1328.77	151.48-5581.64	1034.9
600	2725.17	2312.42	79.17-12476.44	2175.04	1824.95	1594.335	181.71-6698.57	1242.03
800	3634.66	3081.33	105.42-16745.82	2906.26	2433.36	2125.32	242.1-8933.03	1656.426

n=100 subjects. Data represents arithmetic mean. SD: standard deviation.

Table 3
Predicted imatinib trough plasma concentrations at difference doses in cancer subjects following the application of TDM

Population	Trough level ^a	Mean trough concentration (ng/mL)	SD (ng/mL)	Subjects within trough range ^b	Dose Adjustment ^c	Adjusted Dose (mg)	Mean trough concentration (ng/mL)	SD (ng/mL)	Pre-adjustment subjects within target therapeutic range post-adjustment ^d
		Pre-Adjustment			Adjustment				
Chinese	<550	320.99	156.12	14	x2	800	640.61	311.36	50 % (n=7)
	550-650	611.67	16.77	3	x1.5	600	916.79	24.5	100 % (n=3)
	650-750	695.22	30.57	6	x1.25	500	868.64	38.15	100 % (n=6)
	750-1500	1102.7	216.96	26	None	400	1102.7	216.96	na
	>1500	2995.07	1909.81	51	x0.5	200	1496.31	950.81	66.7 % (n=34)
Caucasian	<550	336.97	136.91	19	x2	800	673.34	273.68	42.1 % (n=8)
	550-650	593.7	30.84	6	x1.5	600	890.39	46.66	100 % (n=6)
	650-750	683.21	25.01	7	x1.25	500	853.89	31.13	100 % (n=7)
	750-1500	1126.77	223.42	43	None	400	1126.77	223.42	na
	>1500	2338.47	779.16	25	x0.5	200	1169.04	389.53	84 % (n=21)
					x0.75	300	1753.71	584.33	44 % (n=11)

100 subjects (20-50 year olds) were initiated on an initial dose of 400 mg once daily to steady-state (10 days) ('Pre-Adjustment') and thereafter dose titrated to between 200-800 mg once daily ('Adjustment').

^a Trough levels were demarked for therapeutic range (750-1500 ng/mL) and regions above and below this.

^b Represents the percentage of subjects (n=100 in total) with trough levels within the range indicated.

^c Represents the adjustment made to the initial steady-state dose (400 mg once daily) and below this.

^d Represents the number of pre-adjustment subjects who have a concentration, following the revised dose adjustment, within the target trough range (750-1500 ng/mL). na: not applicable.

dose therapy has been demonstrated with improved in 'cost per quality-adjusted life year'.^{4,99} TDM has been applied with imatinib in a number of approaches. Lamkheet *et al* (2017),⁶⁶ demonstrated that under standard imatinib dosing, < 40 % of subjects had trough levels within the target range (calculated per individual) which with dose adjustment (400 mg to 800 mg) leading to > 90 % of subjects with adequate trough levels. Similarly, Yoon *et al* (2013),⁹⁸ considered dose titrations in toxicity cases in two GIST patients and demonstrated reduced intolerable adverse events through dose reductions to 100 mg/daily.

However, challenges remain, ranging from throughput limitations of current analytic methods for the detection of imatinib, lack of specific anticancer TDM cost-effectiveness studies to support implementation, constrains of precise trough sampling, and ultimately the unwillingness of prescribers to modify established dosing approaches.³ Furthermore, although the impact of intra-subject variability in imatinib pharmacokinetics is low (~30 % on key pharmacokinetic metrics)^{100,101} virtual-TDM approaches should further consider addressing approaches to model this to fully capture the range of inter- and intra- subject variability associated with imatinib therapy.

In addition, our dose recommendations within other Asian populations, e.g. Japanese or Korean, may applicable but would require further validation with appropriate clinical studies, given the known interethnic differences in Asian populations for CYP 2C8 polymorphisms¹⁰² and CYP abundance.¹⁰³

Conclusion

This study demonstrates the application of physiologically-based pharmacokinetic modelling and virtual clinical trials, to engage in virtual-TDM of imatinib in a specific Chinese cancer population. Clear differences are evident between Caucasian and Chinese cancer patients, and this warrants further analysis to fully implement TDM in multiple ethnic groups.

Role of Funding source

This research received no specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors

Author Contributions

RB and HE devised the study; HE generated and analysed results; HE wrote the manuscript; RB reviewed the manuscript.

Data Availability

The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Declaration of Interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Acknowledgements

Certara UK (Simcyp Division) granted free access to the Simcyp Simulators through an academic licence (subject to conditions)

Supplementary Materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.xphs.2022.09.028.

References

- Pottier C, Fresnais M, Gilon M, Jérusalem G, Longuespée R, Sounni NE. Tyrosine kinase inhibitors in cancer: breakthrough and challenges of targeted therapy. *Cancers*. 2020;12(3):731.
- Clarke WA, Chatelut E, Fotoohi AK, et al. Therapeutic drug monitoring in oncology: International Association of Therapeutic Drug Monitoring and Clinical Toxicology consensus guidelines for imatinib therapy. *Eur J Cancer*. 2021;157:428–440.
- Buclin T, Thoma Y, Widmer N, et al. The steps to therapeutic drug monitoring: a structured approach illustrated with imatinib. *Front Pharmacol*. 2020;11:177.
- Zuidema S, Desai IM, van Erp NP, Kievit W. Optimizing the dose in patients treated with imatinib as first line treatment for gastrointestinal stromal tumours: a cost-effectiveness study. *Br J Clin Pharmacol*. 2019;85(9):1994–2001.
- Gotta V, Widmer N, Decosterd LA, et al. Clinical usefulness of therapeutic concentration monitoring for imatinib dosage individualization: results from a randomized controlled trial. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol*. 2014;74(6):1307–1319.
- Søreide K, Sandvik OM, Søreide JA, Giljaca V, Jureckova A, Bulusu VR. Global epidemiology of gastrointestinal stromal tumours (GIST): a systematic review of population-based cohort studies. *Cancer epidemiology*. 2016;40:39–46.
- Chiang N-J, Chen L-T, Tsai C-R, Chang J. The epidemiology of gastrointestinal stromal tumors in Taiwan, 1998–2008: a nation-wide cancer registry-based study. *BMC Cancer*. 2014;14(1):1–9.
- Nomura E, Ioka A, Tsukuma H. Incidence of soft tissue sarcoma focusing on gastrointestinal stromal sarcoma in Osaka, Japan, during 1978–2007. *Jpn J Clin Oncol*. 2013;43(8):841–845.
- Xu L, Ma Y, Wang S, et al. Incidence of gastrointestinal stromal tumor in Chinese urban population: a national population-based study. *Cancer Med*. 2021;10(2):737–744.
- Joensuu H, Vehtari A, Riihimäki J, et al. Risk of recurrence of gastrointestinal stromal tumour after surgery: an analysis of pooled population-based cohorts. *Lancet Oncol*. 2012;13(3):265–274.
- Guerin A, Sasane M, Gauthier G, Keir CH, Zhdavana M, We E. The economic burden of gastrointestinal stromal tumor (GIST) recurrence in patients who have received adjuvant imatinib therapy. *J Med Econ*. 2015;18(3):241–248.
- Soverini S, De Benedittis C, Mancini M, Martinelli G. Best practices in chronic myeloid leukemia monitoring and management. *Oncologist*. 2016;21(5):626–633.
- Hochhaus A, O'Brien SG, Guilhot F, et al. Six-year follow-up of patients receiving imatinib for the first-line treatment of chronic myeloid leukemia. *Leukemia*. 2009;23(6):1054–1061.
- Kantarjian HM, Hochhaus A, Saglio G, et al. Nilotinib versus imatinib for the treatment of patients with newly diagnosed chronic phase, Philadelphia chromosome-positive, chronic myeloid leukaemia: 24-month minimum follow-up of the phase 3 randomised ENESTnd trial. *Lancet Oncol*. 2011;12(9):841–851.
- Bixby D, Talpaz M. Mechanisms of resistance to tyrosine kinase inhibitors in chronic myeloid leukemia and recent therapeutic strategies to overcome resistance. *Hematology (Am Soc Hematol Educ Program)*. 2009:461–476.
- Demetri GD, von Mehren M, Blanke CD, et al. Efficacy and safety of imatinib mesylate in advanced gastrointestinal stromal tumors. *N Engl J Med*. 2002;347(7):472–480.
- Demetri G, Benjamin R, Blanke C, Blay J-Y, Casali P, Choi H. Management of patients with gastrointestinal stromal tumor (GIST)—update of the NCCN clinical practice guidelines. *J Natl Compr Canc Netw*. 2007;5(suppl 2):S1–29.
- Gschwind H, Pfaar U, Waldmeier F, et al. Metabolism and disposition of imatinib mesylate in healthy volunteers. *Drug Metab Dispos*. 2005;33(10):1503.
- Peng B, Dutreix C, Mehring G, Hayes MJ, Ben-Am M, Seiberling M, Pokorny R, Capdeville R, Lloyd P. Absolute bioavailability of imatinib (Glivec) orally versus intravenous infusion. *J Clin Pharmacol*. 2004;44(2):158–162.
- Peng B, Hayes M, Resta D, et al. Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of imatinib in a phase I trial with chronic myeloid leukemia patients. *J Clin Oncol*. 2004;22(5):935–942.
- Dagher R, Cohen M, Williams G, et al. Approval summary: imatinib mesylate in the treatment of metastatic and/or unresectable malignant gastrointestinal stromal tumors. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2002;8(10):3034–3038.
- Reckmann A, Fischer T, Peng B. *Proc Am Soc Clin Oncol*. 2001:307a.
- Peng B, Lloyd P, Schran H. Clinical pharmacokinetics of imatinib. *Clin Pharmacokinet*. 2005;44(9):879–894.
- Druker BJ, Tamura S, Buchdunger E, et al. Effects of a selective inhibitor of the Abl tyrosine kinase on the growth of Bcr–Abl positive cells. *Nature medicine*. 1996;2(5):561–566.
- Arellano C, Gandia P, Lafont T, Jongejan R, Chatelut E. Determination of unbound fraction of imatinib and N-desmethyl imatinib, validation of an UPLC-MS/MS assay and ultrafiltration method. *J Chromatogr B, Anal Technol Biomed Life Sci*. 2012;907:94–100.
- Khan MS, Barratt DT, Somogyi AA. Impact of CYP2C8*3 polymorphism on in vitro metabolism of imatinib to N-desmethyl imatinib. *Xenobiotica*. 2016;46(3):278–287.

27. Filppula AM, Neuvonen M, Laitila J, Neuvonen PJ, Backman J. Autoinhibition of CYP3A4 leads to important role of CYP2C8 in imatinib metabolism: variability in CYP2C8 activity may alter plasma concentrations and response. *Drug Metab Dispos.* 2013;41(1):50–59.
28. Nebot N, Crettol S, d'Esposito F, Tattam B, Hibbs DE, Murray M. Participation of CYP2C8 and CYP3A4 in the N-demethylation of imatinib in human hepatic microsomes. *Br J Pharmacol.* 2010;161(5):1059–1069.
29. Filppula AM, Laitila J, Neuvonen PJ, Backman J. Potent mechanism-based inhibition of CYP3A4 by imatinib explains its liability to interact with CYP3A4 substrates. *Br J Pharmacol.* 2012;165(8):2787–2798.
30. Rochat B, Zoete V, Grosdidier A, von Grunigen S, Marull M, Michielin O. In vitro biotransformation of imatinib by the tumor expressed CYP1A1 and CYP1B1. *Biopharm Drug Dispos.* 2008;29(2):103–118.
31. Barratt DT, Cox HK, Menelaou A, et al. CYP2C8 genotype significantly alters imatinib metabolism in chronic myeloid leukaemia patients. *Clin Pharmacokinet.* 2017;56(8):977–985.
32. Larson RA, Druker BJ, Guilhot F, et al. Imatinib pharmacokinetics and its correlation with response and safety in chronic-phase chronic myeloid leukemia: a sub-analysis of the IRIS study. *Blood.* 2008;111(8):4022–4028.
33. Wilkinson GR. Cytochrome P4503A (CYP3A) metabolism: prediction of in vivo activity in humans. *J Pharmacokinet Biopharm.* 1996;24(5):475–490.
34. Wojnowski L. Genetics of the variable expression of CYP3A in humans. *Ther Drug Monit.* 2004;26(2):192–199.
35. Cheeti S, Budha NR, Rajan S, Dresser MJ, Jin JY. 2013. A physiologically based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) approach to evaluate pharmacokinetics in patients with cancer. 34(3):141–154.
36. Wright JG, Boddy AV, Highley M, Fenwick J, McGill A, Calvert AH. Estimation of glomerular filtration rate in cancer patients. *Br J Cancer.* 2001;84(4):452–459.
37. Li J, Ye Y, Wang J, et al. Chinese Society of Clinical Oncology CSCO Expert Committee On Gastrointestinal Stromal T. Chinese consensus guidelines for diagnosis and management of gastrointestinal stromal tumor. *Chin J Cancer Res.* 2017;29(4):281–293.
38. Zalcberg JR, Verweij J, Casali PG, et al. Outcome of patients with advanced gastrointestinal stromal tumours crossing over to a daily imatinib dose of 800 mg after progression on 400 mg. *Eur J Cancer.* 2005;41(12):1751–1757.
39. Blanke CD, Rankin C, Demetri GD, et al. Phase III randomized, intergroup trial assessing imatinib mesylate at two dose levels in patients with unresectable or metastatic gastrointestinal stromal tumors expressing the kit receptor tyrosine kinase. *J Clin Oncol.* 2008;26(4):626–632.
40. Li J, Shen L. The current status of and prospects in research regarding gastrointestinal stromal tumors in China. *Cancer.* 2020;126(S9):2048–2053.
41. Li J, Gong J-F, Li J, Gao J, Sun N-P, Shen L. Efficacy of imatinib dose escalation in Chinese gastrointestinal stromal tumor patients. *World J Gastroenterol.* 2012;18(7):698–703.
42. Joensuu H, Trent JC, Reichardt P. Practical management of tyrosine kinase inhibitor-associated side effects in GIST. *Cancer Treat Rev.* 2011;37(1):75–88.
43. Picard S, Titier K, Etienne G, et al. Trough imatinib plasma levels are associated with both cytogenetic and molecular responses to standard-dose imatinib in chronic myeloid leukemia. *Blood.* 2007;109(8):3496–3499.
44. Demetri GD, Wang Y, Wehrle E, et al. Imatinib plasma levels are correlated with clinical benefit in patients with unresectable/metastatic gastrointestinal stromal tumors. *J Clin Oncol.* 2009;27(19):3141–3147.
45. Cortes J, Egorin M, Guilhot F, Molimard M. Pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic correlation and blood-level testing in imatinib therapy for chronic myeloid leukemia. *Leukemia.* 2009;23(9):1537–1544.
46. Gao B, Yeap S, Clements A, Balakrishnar B, Wong M, Gurney H. Evidence for therapeutic drug monitoring of targeted anticancer therapies. *J Clin Oncol.* 2012;30(32):4017–4025.
47. Gotta V, Buclin T, Csajka C, Widmer N. Systematic review of population pharmacokinetic analyses of imatinib and relationships with treatment outcomes. *Ther Drug Monit.* 2013;35(2):150–167.
48. Roychowdhury S, Talpaz M. Managing resistance in chronic myeloid leukemia. *Blood Rev.* 2011;25(6):279–290.
49. Li Q-b, Chen C, Chen Z-c, et al. Imatinib plasma trough concentration and its correlation with characteristics and response in Chinese CML patients. *Acta Pharmacol Sin.* 2010;31(8):999–1004.
50. Zhu Y, Qian SX. Clinical efficacy and safety of imatinib in the management of Ph (+) chronic myeloid or acute lymphoblastic leukemia in Chinese patients. *Oncol Targets Ther.* 2014;7:395–404.
51. Yu H, Singh Badhan RK. The pharmacokinetics of gefitinib in a Chinese cancer population group: a virtual clinical trials population study. *J Pharm Sci.* 2021;110(10):3507–3519.
52. Jamei M, Marciniak S, Edwards D, et al. The simcyp population based simulator: architecture, implementation, and quality assurance. *In Silico Pharmacol.* 2013;1:9.
53. Rowland Yeo K, Jamei M, Yang J, Tucker GT, Rostami-Hodjegan A. Physiologically based mechanistic modelling to predict complex drug-drug interactions involving simultaneous competitive and time-dependent enzyme inhibition by parent compound and its metabolite in both liver and gut - the effect of diltiazem on the time-course of exposure to triazolam. *Eur J Pharm Sci.* 2010;39(5):298–309.
54. Jamei M, Dickinson GL, Rostami-Hodjegan A. A framework for assessing inter-individual variability in pharmacokinetics using virtual human populations and integrating general knowledge of physical chemistry, biology, anatomy, physiology and genetics: a tale of 'bottom-up' vs 'top-down' recognition of covariates. *Drug Metab Pharmacokinet.* 2009;24(1):53–75.
55. Adiwidjaja J, Boddy AV, McLachlan AJ. Implementation of a physiologically based pharmacokinetic modeling approach to guide optimal dosing regimens for imatinib and potential drug interactions in paediatrics. *Front Pharmacol.* 2019;10:1672.
56. Petain A, Kattynarath D, Azard J, et al. Innovative Therapies with Children with Cancer European c. Population pharmacokinetics and pharmacogenetics of imatinib in children and adults. *Clin Cancer Res.* 2008;14(21):7102–7109.
57. Eechoute K, Fransson MN, Reyners AK, et al. A long-term prospective population pharmacokinetic study on imatinib plasma concentrations in GIST patients. *Clin Cancer Res.* 2012;18(20):5780–5787.
58. Renard D, Bouillon T, Zhou P, Flesch G, Quinn D. Pharmacokinetic interactions among imatinib, bosentan and sildenafil, and their clinical implications in severe pulmonary arterial hypertension. *Br J Clin Pharmacol.* 2015;80(1):75–85.
59. Cheeti S, Budha NR, Rajan S, Dresser MJ, Jin JY. A physiologically based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) approach to evaluate pharmacokinetics in patients with cancer. *Biopharm Drug Dispos.* 2013;34(3):141–154.
60. Yu H, Singh Badhan RK. The pharmacokinetics of gefitinib in a Chinese cancer population group: a virtual clinical trials population study. *J Pharm Sci.* 2021.
61. Xia Y, Chen S, Luo M, et al. Correlations between imatinib plasma trough concentration and adverse reactions in Chinese patients with gastrointestinal stromal tumors. *Cancer.* 2020;126(S9):2054–2061. Suppl 9.
62. Wu X, Li J, Zhou Y, et al. Relative factors analysis of imatinib trough concentration in Chinese patients with gastrointestinal stromal tumor. *Chemotherapy.* 2018;63(6):301–307.
63. Zhong JS, Meng FY, Xu D, Zhou HS, Dai M. Correlation between imatinib trough concentration and efficacy in Chinese chronic myelocytic leukemia patients. *Acta Haematol.* 2012;127(4):221–227.
64. Zhang Q, Xu J, Qian Y, et al. Association of imatinib plasma concentration and single-nucleotide polymorphisms with adverse drug reactions in patients with gastrointestinal stromal tumors. *Mol Cancer Ther.* 2018;17(12):2780–2787.
65. Ijzerman NS, Groenland SL, Koenen AM, et al. Therapeutic drug monitoring of imatinib in patients with gastrointestinal stromal tumours – results from daily clinical practice. *Eur J Cancer.* 2020;136:140–148.
66. Lankheet NA, Desai IM, Mulder SF, et al. Optimizing the dose in cancer patients treated with imatinib, sunitinib and pazopanib. *Br J Clin Pharmacol.* 2017;83(10):2195–2204.
67. Lankheet NA, Knäpen LM, Schellens JH, Beijnen JH, Steeghs N, Huitema AD. Plasma concentrations of tyrosine kinase inhibitors imatinib, erlotinib, and sunitinib in routine clinical outpatient cancer care. *Ther Drug Monit.* 2014;36(3):326–334.
68. Farag S, Verheijen RB, Kerst JM, Cats A, Huitema AD, Steeghs N. Imatinib pharmacokinetics in a large observational cohort of gastrointestinal stromal tumour patients. *Clin Pharmacokinet.* 2017;56(3):287–292.
69. Edginton AN, Schmitt W, Willmann S. Development and evaluation of a generic physiologically based pharmacokinetic model for children. *Clin Pharmacokinet.* 2006;45(10):1013–1034.
70. Parrott N, Davies B, Hoffmann G, et al. Development of a physiologically based model for oseltamivir and simulation of pharmacokinetics in neonates and infants. *Clin Pharmacokinet.* 2011;50(9):613–623.
71. Ginsberg G, Hattis D, Russ A, Sonawane B. Physiologically based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) modeling of caffeine and theophylline in neonates and adults: implications for assessing children's risks from environmental agents. *J Toxicol Environ Health, Part A.* 2004;67(4):297–329.
72. Food U, Administration D. *Summary Minutes of the Advisory Committee for Pharmaceutical Science and Clinical Pharmacology.* Silver Spring, MD: FDA; 2012.
73. Olafuyi O, Badhan RK. Dose optimization of chloroquine by pharmacokinetic modeling during pregnancy for the treatment of Zika virus infection. *J Pharm Sci.* 2019;108(1):661–673.
74. Almurjan A, Macfarlane H, Badhan RKS. The application of precision dosing in the use of sertraline throughout pregnancy for poor and ultrarapid metabolizer CYP 2C19 subjects: A virtual clinical trial pharmacokinetics study. *Biopharmaceut Drug Disposition n/a(n/a).*
75. Poulin P, Theil FP. Development of a novel method for predicting human volume of distribution at steady-state of basic drugs and comparative assessment with existing methods. *J Pharm Sci.* 2009;98(12):4941–4961.
76. Obach RS, Baxter JG, Liston TE, et al. The prediction of human pharmacokinetic parameters from preclinical and in vitro metabolism data. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther.* 1997;283(1):46–58.
77. Sheiner LB, Beal SL. Some suggestions for measuring predictive performance. *J Pharmacokinetic Biopharm.* 1981;9(4):503–512.
78. Edginton AN, Schmitt W, Willmann S. Development and evaluation of a generic physiologically based pharmacokinetic model for children. *Clin Pharmacokinet.* 2006;45(10):1013–1034.
79. Gambacorti-Passerini C, Antolini L, Mahon F-X, et al. Multicenter independent assessment of outcomes in chronic myeloid leukemia patients treated with imatinib. *J Natl Cancer Inst.* 2011;103(7):553–561.
80. Liegl-Atzwanger B, Fletcher JA, Fletcher CDM. Gastrointestinal stromal tumors. *Virchows Arch.* 2010;456(2):111–127.
81. Sorour MA, Kassem MI, Ghazal Ael H, El-Riwini MT, Abu Nasr A. Gastrointestinal stromal tumors (GIST) related emergencies. *Int J Surg.* 2014;12(4):269–280.
82. Picard S, Titier K, Etienne G, et al. Trough imatinib plasma levels are associated with both cytogenetic and molecular responses to standard-dose imatinib in chronic myeloid leukemia. *Blood.* 2007;109(8):3496–3499.

83. Yu H, Steeghs N, Nijenhuis CM, Schellens JH, Beijnen JH, Huitema AD. Practical guidelines for therapeutic drug monitoring of anticancer tyrosine kinase inhibitors: focus on the pharmacokinetic targets. *Clin Pharmacokinet*. 2014;53(4):305–325.
84. Nikolova Z, Peng B, Hubert M, et al. Bioequivalence, safety, and tolerability of imatinib tablets compared with capsules. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol*. 2004;53(5):433–438.
85. Chen Y, Dong X, Wang Q, et al. Factors influencing the steady-state plasma concentration of imatinib mesylate in patients with gastrointestinal stromal tumors and chronic myeloid leukemia. *Front Pharmacol*. 2020;11: 569843.
86. O'hare T, Zabriskie MS, Eiring AM, Deininger MW. Pushing the limits of targeted therapy in chronic myeloid leukaemia. *Nat Rev Cancer*. 2012;12(8):513–526.
87. Gotta V, Bouchet S, Widmer N, et al. Large-scale imatinib dose–concentration–effect study in CML patients under routine care conditions. *Leuk Res*. 2014;38(7):764–772.
88. Kobayashi S, Kimura F, Kobayashi A, Sato K, Motoyoshi K. Efficacy of low-dose imatinib in chronic-phase chronic myelogenous leukemia patients. *Ann Hematol*. 2009;88(4):311–315.
89. Park SJ, Choi IK, Seo HY, Sung HJ, Park KH, Kim SJ, Oh SC, Seo JH, Choi CW, Kim BS, Shin SW, Kim YH, Kim JS. Reduced dose of imatinib for patients with chronic myeloid leukemia and low body surface area. *Acta Haematol*. 2007;118(4):219–221.
90. Horikoshi A, Takei K, Sawada S. Relationship between daily dose of imatinib per square meter and its plasma concentration in patients with chronic-phase chronic myeloid leukemia (CML). *Leuk Res*. 2006;31(4):574–575.
91. Horikoshi A, Takei K, Sawada S. Effects of lower dose of imatinib to CML patients. *Leuk Res*. 2003;27(12):1167.
92. Miyazawa K, Nishimaki J, Katagiri T, et al. Thrombocytopenia induced by imatinib mesylate (Glivec) in patients with chronic myelogenous leukemia: is 400 mg daily of imatinib mesylate an optimal starting dose for Japanese patients? *Int J Hematol*. 2003;77(1):93.
93. Wang Y, Zhou L, Dutreix C, et al. Effects of imatinib (Glivec) on the pharmacokinetics of metoprolol, a CYP2D6 substrate, in Chinese patients with chronic myelogenous leukaemia. *Br J Clin Pharmacol*. 2008;65(6):885–892.
94. Singh N, Kumar L, Meena R, Velpandian T. Drug monitoring of imatinib levels in patients undergoing therapy for chronic myeloid leukaemia: comparing plasma levels of responders and non-responders. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol*. 2009;65(6):545–549.
95. Lee WJ, Lee JH, Won CH, et al. Clinical and histopathologic analysis of 46 cases of cutaneous adverse reactions to imatinib. *Int J Dermatol*. 2016;55(5):e268–e274.
96. Pretel-Irazabal M, Tuneu-Valls A, Ormaechea-Pérez N. Adverse skin effects of imatinib, a tyrosine kinase inhibitor. *Actas Dermosifiliogr*. 2014;105(7):655–662.
97. Huang W, Li J, Qiu F, et al. Therapeutic drug monitoring-based dose optimization for imatinib-associated serious cutaneous reactions in a patient with gastrointestinal stromal tumours: a case report. *J Clin Pharm Ther*. 2020;45(4):856–862.
98. Yoon S, Ryu M-H, Yoo C, Beck MY, Ryoo B-Y, Kang YK. Imatinib plasma monitoring-guided dose modification for managing imatinib-related toxicities in gastrointestinal stromal tumor patients. *J Korean Med Sci*. 2013;28(8):1248–1252.
99. Conti RM, Padula WV, Becker RV, Salamone S. The cost-effectiveness of therapeutic drug monitoring for the prescription drug-based treatment of chronic myeloid leukemia. *J Manag Care Spec Pharm*. 2021;27(8):1077–1085.
100. Goswami D, Gurule S, Lahiry A, Anand A, Khuroo A, Monif T. Clinical development of imatinib: an anticancer drug. *Future Sci OA*. 2016;2(1):FSO92.
101. Golabchifar AA, Rezaee S, Dinan NM, Kebriaeezadeh A, Rouini MR. Population pharmacokinetic analysis of the oral absorption process and explaining intra-subject variability in plasma exposures of imatinib in healthy volunteers. *Eur J Drug Metab Pharmacokinet*. 2016;41(5):527–539.
102. Garcia-Martin E, Martinez C, Ladero JM, Agundez JA. Interethnic and intraethnic variability of CYP2C8 and CYP2C9 polymorphisms in healthy individuals. *Mol Diagn Ther*. 2006;10(1):29–40.
103. Kim K, Johnson JA, Derendorf H. Differences in drug pharmacokinetics between East Asians and Caucasians and the role of genetic polymorphisms. *J Clin Pharmacol*. 2004;44(10):1083–1105.