

REVIEWS IN BASIC AND CLINICAL GASTROENTEROLOGY AND HEPATOLOGY

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New Hepatitis C Therapies: The Toolbox, Strategies, and Challenges

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Therapy for hepatitis C is undergoing a revolution. Several new drugs against the hepatitis C virus (HCV) have reached the market and many others, including direct-acting antivirals and host-targeted agents, are in phase II or III clinical development. All-oral, interferon-free combinations of drugs are expected to cure more than 90% of infections. A vast amount of data from clinical trials are presented regularly at international conferences or released to the press before peer-review, creating confusion in the viral hepatitis field. The goal of this review is to clarify the current stage of HCV therapy and drug development. This review describes the different classes of drugs and their mechanisms and properties, as well as treatment strategies in development, including those that are interferon-based and interferon-free. HCV treatment options that will be available in 2014–2015 are presented for each genotype. A number of unanswered questions and challenges remain, such as how to treat special populations, the role of ribavirin in interferon-free regimens, the role of HCV resistance in treatment failures, and how to best re-treat patients who failed on treatment. Strategic choices, cost issues, HCV screening, and improving access to care in resource-constrained areas also are discussed.

Keywords: Direct-Acting Antivirals; Interferon-Free Regimens; Sofosbuvir; Simeprevir; Daclatasvir.

Hepatitis C therapy is undergoing a revolution. After nearly 25 years of incremental improvements of interferon (IFN) α -based therapies, enormous research and development efforts have produced a large number of new antiviral drugs, including direct-acting antiviral (DAA) and host-targeted agents (HTAs). More than 90% of infections were reported to be cured in phase II and III trials, with or without pegylated IFN α and/or ribavirin. As we begin 2014, the toolbox (the number and diversity of available hepatitis C virus [HCV] drugs) is impressive. The strategies are clear and moving forward. However, a number of unresolved issues remain.

The Toolbox

Pegylated IFN α and Ribavirin

Pegylated IFN α will remain the backbone of some HCV treatment strategies in 2014 and 2015, before slowly but definitively disappearing from HCV treatment regimens—at

least in areas of the world that will be able to afford the high cost of IFN-free combinations. Ribavirin can be used to increase rates of sustained virologic response (SVR) (ie, rates of infection cure) or to shorten treatment duration without altering the rates of SVR with both pegylated IFN α and IFN-free regimens, because it prevents relapses through unknown mechanisms. It therefore could remain a useful adjunct in some IFN-free treatment strategies.

DAAs and HTAs

The HCV life cycle is now well understood.^{1–4} In theory, every step of the viral life cycle can be the target of specific inhibitory approaches through various mechanisms.⁵ However, antiviral drugs already on the market or in clinical development include only inhibitors of HCV polyprotein maturation (NS3-4A protease inhibitors) and inhibitors of HCV RNA synthesis (ie, viral replication; all the other DAAs or HTAs in development). Both antiviral approaches efficiently shutdown virus production in infected cells. Inhibition of viral protein maturation also inhibits replication because functional nonstructural viral proteins are no longer generated and thus cannot be used for the formation of replication complexes. Conversely, blocking HCV replication also blocks viral protein synthesis because the amount of HCV-RNA genomes that can be used as messenger RNAs dramatically decreases in the cells. Although a number of alternative mechanisms of antiviral inhibition have been explored, it is likely that no other classes of drugs will be needed in the future and that only improved generations of the current drug classes will be developed.

Table 1 shows the DAAs and HTAs in clinical development at the beginning of 2014. Their antiviral effectiveness is high and can be optimized by combining several drugs with additive or synergistic effects. These drugs differ in their activity against the different HCV genotypes⁶ and their barrier to resistance. Given as monotherapies, drugs with a low barrier to resistance rapidly select fit pre-existing viral

Abbreviations used in this paper: DAA, direct-acting antiviral; HCV, hepatitis C virus; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; HTA, host-targeted agent; IFN, interferon; RdRp, RNA-dependent RNA polymerase; SVR, sustained virologic response.

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Table 1. DAAs and HTAs in Clinical Development at the Beginning of 2014

Agent class	Generation	Compound	Manufacturer	Phase of clinical development	
NS3-4A protease inhibitors	First-wave, first-generation	Telaprevir	Vertex, Janssen, Mitsubishi	Approved	
		Boceprevir	Merck	Approved	
	Second-wave, first-generation	Simeprevir	Janssen	Approved	
		Faldaprevir	Boehringer-Ingelheim	III	
		Asunaprevir	Bristol-Myers Squibb	III	
		ABT-450/r	Abbvie	III	
		Danoprevir/r	Roche	II	
		Sovaprevir	Achillion	II ^a	
		Vedoprevir	Gilead	II	
		IDX320	Idenix	II	
	Second-generation	Vaniprevir	Merck	III (Japan)	
		MK-5172	Merck	III	
		ACH-2684	Achillion	II	
Nucleoside/nucleotide analogues	Nucleotide analogues	Sofosbuvir	Gilead	Approved	
		VX-135	Vertex	II ^b	
Non-nucleoside inhibitors of the HCV RdRp	Nucleoside analogue	Mericitabine	Roche	II	
	Thumb domain I inhibitors	BMS-791325	Bristol-Myers Squibb	III	
		TMC647055	Janssen	II	
	Thumb domain II inhibitors	Lomibuvir	Vertex	II	
		GS-9669	Gilead	II	
	Palm domain I inhibitors	Dasabuvir	Abbvie	III	
		ABT-072	Abbvie	II	
NS5A inhibitors	First-generation	Setrobuvir	Roche	II	
		Daclatasvir	Bristol-Myers Squibb	III	
		Ledipasvir	Gilead	III	
		Ombitasvir	Abbvie	III	
		PPI-668	Presidio	II	
		PPI-461	Presidio	II	
		ACH-2928	Achillion	II	
		GSK2336805	GlaxoSmithKline	II	
		BMS824393	Bristol-Myers Squibb	II	
		Samatasvir	Idenix	II	
		Second-generation	MK-8742	Merck	II
			ACH-3102	Achillion	II
			GS-5816	Gilead	II
Cyclophilin inhibitors	First-generation	Alisporivir	Novartis	II ^c	
		SCY-635	Scynexis	II	
Antagonist of miRNA-122	First-generation	Miravirsen	Santaris	II	

NOTE. All data presented are based on those presented at international conferences or published.
/r, ritonavir-boosted.

^aOn clinical hold owing to alanine aminotransferase increases and high atazanavir concentrations in HIV-coinfected patients receiving this antiretroviral drug.

^bOn partial clinical hold at high doses owing to reversible alanine aminotransferase increases.

^cOn clinical hold in combination with IFN α , in development with DAAs.

variants bearing amino acid substitutions that confer resistance to their antiviral action.⁷ In contrast, drugs with a high barrier to resistance do not select such variants, either because they are unlikely to pre-exist naturally in infected patients (a high genetic barrier) or because they are not fit enough to replicate at clinically meaningful levels if selected.⁷ Drugs from the same class share cross-resistance, meaning that the same amino acid substitution(s) confer(s) reduced susceptibility to all drugs from the class, with minor qualitative and quantitative differences. As a result, combining drugs from different classes is mandatory to increase the barrier to resistance of the combination regimen.

NS3-4A protease inhibitors. NS3-4A protease inhibitors are peptidomimetic compounds. They bind into the

catalytic site of the enzyme and block post-translational processing of the viral polyprotein at the NS3/NS4A, NS4A/NS4B, NS4B/NS5A, and NS5A/NS5B cleavage sites, preventing the release of functional nonstructural proteins. Two first-wave, first-generation NS3-4A protease inhibitors, telaprevir (Vertex, Cambridge, MA; Janssen, Raritan, NJ; and Mitsubishi, Osaka, Japan) and boceprevir (Merck, Whitehouse Station, NJ) (Table 1), are approved for use in combination with pegylated IFN α and ribavirin in patients infected with HCV genotype 1.⁸⁻¹¹ These drugs are active against genotype 1 (telaprevir also is active against genotype 2) and have low barriers to resistance. They are given every 8 hours (telaprevir can be given every 12 hours).

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