

1 **Spironolactone is associated with reduced mitotane levels**  
2 **in adrenocortical carcinoma patients**

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## 30 **Abstract**

31 Adrenocortical carcinoma (ACC) is a rare endocrine malignancy with a poor  
32 prognosis. Mitotane, a derivative of the pesticide DDT, has been used successfully  
33 as first line chemotherapy since the 1960s, if maintained within a narrow therapeutic  
34 window. Spironolactone (SPL) is frequently used to treat glucocorticoid excess-  
35 associated adverse effects such as severe hypokalemia. Although data of a previous  
36 case report indicate a link, valid data regarding SPL use and mitotane plasma  
37 concentrations in a human cohort are lacking. This retrospective analysis includes  
38 data from 54 mitotane-receiving ACC patients (14 co-administered with SPL) treated  
39 between January 2005 and April 2020 (20 male, mean age  $54.1 \pm 2.2$  yrs.). All  
40 available mitotane concentrations, treatment doses, tumor stage and evidence of  
41 hormone activity were collected. Primary outcomes included mitotane levels and  
42 concentration/dose-ratios as well as time-in-range in patients with and without  
43 additional SPL treatment. The SPL group was characterized by higher glucocorticoid  
44 secretion. Other features such as tumor stage, size and anthropometrics were  
45 similar between groups. Interestingly, the SPL group had significantly lower mitotane  
46 levels despite higher doses. Mitotane time-in-range was significantly reduced in the  
47 SPL group, as was time-in-range to progression. These data provide first evidence in  
48 a human cohort for potential SPL-mitotane interactions (beyond mentioned case  
49 report), which affect dose response and may modulate treatment outcomes. This  
50 should caution clinicians to carefully adjust mitotane doses during SPL treatment in  
51 ACC patients or choose alternative therapeutic options.

52

53

## 54 Introduction

55 Adrenocortical carcinoma (ACC) is a rare endocrine tumor characterized by high  
56 recurrence rates and often-fatal prognosis. The overall 5-year survival of patients  
57 undergoing tumor surgery is believed to be less than 40 % (Bilimoria et al., 2008).  
58 Beside surgical removal of the tumor, mitotane is the most widely used treatment  
59 option until today (Terzolo et al., 2007). Mitotane is an isomer of 1-(o-chlorophenyl)-  
60 1-(p-chlorophenyl)-2,2-dichloroethane (DDD), the insecticide analogue of DDT which  
61 was first shown to induce adrenal atrophy in dogs in 1948 (Nelson and Woodard,  
62 1948). Its first use in humans as a chemotherapy of adrenocortical cancer was  
63 described by Bergenstal et al. (1960). Numerous publications have documented its  
64 use as a chemotherapeutic drug ever since (Luton et al., 1990, Barzon et al., Haak  
65 et al., 1994). Long-lasting treatment experience over many decades and its proven  
66 efficacy (compared to other treatment options) makes mitotane an important  
67 component in the management of ACC patients, although a high variability of the  
68 effect is reported (Fassnacht et al., 2018b). Mitotane yielded especially encouraging  
69 results in the prognostically poor subgroup of steroid secreting tumors (Abiven et al.,  
70 2006). However, due to gastrointestinal and specifically neurotoxic adverse effects,  
71 the therapeutic window for this drug is narrow (14-20 mg/l) and frequent monitoring  
72 of mitotane levels is mandatory (Allolio and Fassnacht, 2006, Kerkhofs et al., 2013,  
73 Kerkhofs et al., 2014, Terzolo et al., 2013). Its long half-life (18-159 days), the  
74 prolonged time to achieve effective plasma mitotane concentrations and enhanced  
75 glucocorticoid metabolism, which increases the required glucocorticoid replacement  
76 dosage, make mitotane treatment rather complex. Moreover, mitotane is a potent  
77 inductor of cytochrome P450 CYP3A4 activity causing numerous interactions with  
78 other drugs such as warfarin, midazolam or the thyrosine kinase inhibitor sunitinib

79 (van Erp et al., 2011, Baudin et al., 2001, Kroiss et al., 2011). However, literature on  
80 the metabolism of mitotane or other drugs that may affect mitotane levels is  
81 surprisingly scarce. Since not all ACC patients respond to mitotane therapy, it is  
82 important to define potential drug interactions that may affect mitotane efficacy  
83 (Hahner and Fassnacht, 2005).

84 Steroid excess, frequently seen in ACCs (Koschker et al., 2006), may cause  
85 hypertension and hypokalemia. Due to its antihypertensive and potassium retention  
86 effects, the mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist spironolactone (SPL) is therefore  
87 frequently used in those patients.

88 Interestingly, a potential inhibitory effect of SPL on mitotane-induced adrenal atrophy  
89 in dogs was presented at a scientific meeting in the 1970s (Menard et al., 1977).  
90 Human data suggesting such a potential interaction are limited to one case report in  
91 1977 (Wortsman and Soler), in which a patient with pituitary-dependent Cushing's  
92 syndrome was treated with 3 g of mitotane per day (no mitotane plasma  
93 concentrations were documented), however never experienced any known adverse  
94 effects of mitotane until the discontinuation of SPL. Given the sparsity of convincing  
95 data on clinically relevant interactions between SPL and mitotane, until today the use  
96 of SPL is warranted in the management of endocrine manifestations of ACC  
97 (Veytsman et al., 2009). Considering the frequent combination of mitotane and SPL,  
98 the dismal prognosis of patients with ACC and the toxicity of mitotane, it is pivotal to  
99 understand the effects of SPL on mitotane concentration and thereby efficacy which  
100 may have clinical consequences in ACC patients. We therefore conducted a  
101 retrospective data analysis of 54 ACC patients treated with mitotane in our center  
102 between January 2005 and April 2020 . We provide first evidence that additional SPL

103 treatment is associated with lower mitotane plasma concentrations despite higher  
104 dosage. Preliminary survival data support an association with clinical outcomes.

## 105 **Methods**

106 This retrospective data analysis was approved by the Ethics Committee of the  
107 Charité—Universitätsmedizin Berlin (“Ethikkommission der Charité—  
108 Universitätsmedizin Berlin”; EA2/021/20).

### 109 **Patients**

110 We included 54 ACC patients undergoing mitotane treatment with available data on  
111 mitotane concentrations in our center between January 1, 2005 and April 1, 2020.  
112 The inclusion criteria were age > 18, pathologically confirmed diagnosis of ACC and  
113 treatment with mitotane. The standard surgical therapy was adrenalectomy. Beside  
114 mitotane treatment, patients received adjuvant chemo-, radio-, and hormone  
115 replacement therapy. Patients’ charts were reviewed and the following information  
116 was retrieved for the study: sex, age, body mass index (BMI), hormone secretion  
117 status of the tumor, ACC stage at start of mitotane treatment, start date of mitotane  
118 therapy, first progression under therapy, loss to follow-up or death. Hormone  
119 secretion was determined by respectively elevated androgen precursors  
120 (dehydroepiandrosterone, 17-hydroxyprogesterone and/or androstenedione),  
121 aldosterone-to-renin ratio and/or a pathologic 1 mg dexamethasone suppression  
122 test. Tumor stage was assessed according to the ENSAT classification (Fassnacht  
123 et al., 2009).

124 Mitotane and SPL doses as well as mitotane concentrations were documented at  
125 monthly intervals (concurrent with clinical visits) if available. Plasma samples were  
126 collected and sent to Lysosafe (a free of charge testing service of Laboratoire HRA  
127 Pharma, Paris, France) for measurement of mitotane concentrations. For this,

128 plasma samples were extracted by precipitation with ethanol, and tested by a  
129 standardized gas chromatography/mass spectrometry method (Inouye et al., 1987).  
130 Mitotane plasma concentrations, a concentration/dose ratio, time in range (TR) and  
131 time in range to (first) progression (TRP) of mitotane (both defined as percentage of  
132 total time of mitotane treatment, starting one month after treatment start) were  
133 calculated. The concentration/dose ratio was calculated by dividing the serum  
134 mitotane concentration (in mg/l) by the total daily dose (in g) taken by the patient at  
135 that time, concordant with similar analyses in drug monitoring studies (Rudberg et  
136 al., 2006, Westin et al., 2008, Fukumoto et al., 2006, Thölking et al., 2016).

## 137 **Statistics**

138 All analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics, Version 19.0.0.1 (IBM,  
139 United States). Group comparisons with normally distributed variables were  
140 analyzed with t-tests. If normal distribution was not given, we used Mann-Whitney-U  
141 tests. Categorical variables were compared via Chi-squared tests or Fisher's exact  
142 test, depending on the number of categories. A correlation between mitotane dose  
143 and concomitant concentration was calculated via Spearman's rho.  $P < 0.05$  was  
144 considered statistically significant. Scatter plots were created in SPSS, Boxplots and  
145 jitter plots were created using GraphPad Prism version 7.02 for Windows (GraphPad  
146 Software, United States). All plots were colorized and arranged in Adobe Illustrator  
147 (Adobe Inc., United States).

## 148 **Results**

### 149 **Cohort Characteristics**



150 Out of the 54 ACC patients who met the inclusion criteria, 14 patients were treated  
151 with SPL at any time during the study interval. We found no significant differences  
152 between the SPL group and the no-SPL group regarding age, sex or BMI (**Table 1**).  
153 For the overall cohort (20 male, mean age  $54.1 \pm 2.2$ ), the most common ENSAT  
154 stage was IV (42.6%), with an average maximum tumor diameter of 10.5 cm ( $\pm 0.7$ )  
155 and an average Ki67-expression of 24.4% ( $\pm 3.0$ ). In two patients, we were not able  
156 to clearly differentiate the ENSAT stage at treatment start between stage 3 and  
157 stage 4 due to lacking or conflicting pathological data. Both patients were removed  
158 from all further analyses including ENSAT stage as a covariate. Of note, maximum  
159 tumor diameter and Ki67-expression were similar between groups, albeit the SPL-  
160 group contained more patients with ENSAT stage IV tumors. In the overall cohort,  
161 65% of carcinomas showed hormonal activity. While 13 of 14 tumors in the SPL  
162 group were hormone secreting, only 22 out of 40 in the control group were  
163 hormonally active. The complete cohort characteristics are provided in **Table 1**.  
164 We found no statistically significant differences regarding adjuvant therapies, albeit  
165 with a higher percentage of patients from the spironolactone group receiving  
166 etoposide, doxorubicin and cisplatin (EDP). The full list of additional therapies is  
167 provided in **Suppl. Table 1**.

### 168 **Mitotane concentrations**

169 We documented a total of 909 mitotane concentrations, with an average of 17 per  
170 patient (Median: 13, ranging from 2-80). Including all available mitotane  
171 concentrations, patients in the SPL treated group had significantly lower mitotane  
172 levels compared to non-SPL treated subjects ( $7.4 \pm 1.4$  vs.  $11.8 \pm 0.8$  mg/l,  $p < 0.001$ ;  
173 **Fig. 1A**), despite higher mitotane doses ( $3.7 \pm 0.4$  vs.  $2.4 \pm 0.2$  g/day,  $p < 0.001$ ; **Fig.**

174 **1B**). The mean concentration/dose ratio was  $2.3 (\pm 0.4)$  for the SPL group and  $6.2 (\pm$   
175  $0.7)$  for the no-SPL group (**Fig. 1C**).

176 To validate these findings and to exclude the possibility of these results only  
177 reflecting different starting regimen, we repeated this analysis after the exclusion of  
178 any data from the first 6 months of treatment, concordant with the expected time to  
179 reach therapeutic range (Puglisi et al., 2019, Terzolo et al., 2013, Terzolo et al.,  
180 2000). Although 11 patients were additionally excluded by this approach, the findings  
181 of significantly lower mitotane concentration ( $12.2 \pm 1.2$  vs.  $14.7 \pm 0.2$  mg/l,  $p =$   
182  $0.018$ ), higher mitotane doses ( $2.6 \pm 0.3$  vs.  $1.8 \pm 0.04$  g/day,  $p = 0.020$ ) and a lower  
183 concentration/dose ratio ( $5.8 \pm 0.9$  vs.  $9.5 \pm 0.2$ ) in the SPL group could be replicated  
184 (**Supplemental Figure 1**).

185 We then calculated non-parametric correlations between mitotane dose and  
186 concentration at each available timepoint via Spearman's rho. While we noted a  
187 significant, albeit weak correlation in the no-SPL group ( $r_s = 0.09$ ,  $p = 0.011$ ), we  
188 found no correlation in the SPL group ( $r_s = -0.28$ ,  $p = 0.773$ ) (**Supplemental Figure**  
189 **2**).

190 To further characterize these findings, we visualized mitotane concentrations and  
191 concentration/dose ratios in a scatter plot against time after the start of mitotane  
192 treatment (**Fig. 1D,E**). The concentration scatter decreases with time after the initial  
193 start of the therapy in both groups.

194 Finally, we calculated the overall time in range (defined as percent of mitotane  
195 concentration measurements in the therapeutic range per individual (Puglisi et al.,  
196 2020)) as well as the time in range to (first) progression. Time in range was overall  
197 low in the no-SPL treated group ( $29.3 \pm 3.5\%$ ), however even lower in the SPL-

198 treated group with only 7.9% ( $\pm$  0.3) of measurements per individual that were within  
199 the therapeutic range ( $p=0.001$  vs. no-SPL group). The same was true for time in  
200 range from mitotane treatment start to first progression (time in range to  
201 progression), with a mean value of 28.8% ( $\pm$  4.0) in the no-SPL group compared to  
202 4.7% ( $\pm$  2.5) in the SPL group ( $p=0.001$  for between-group comparison). The results  
203 are visualized in **Figure 1F**.

## 204 **Discussion**

205 While radical resection remains the first line therapy of ACC, adjuvant mitotane is  
206 recommended in high risk cases (ENSAT II/IV or Ki-67 > 10%) even after complete  
207 resection. In cases of Rx or R1 resection as well as ACCs not amenable to radical  
208 resection, mitotane therapy is started in addition to possible local therapies and/or  
209 chemotherapy. This includes several regimes like etoposide, doxorubicine and  
210 cisplatin (EDP) or streptozotocine or gemcitabine, all of moderate value (Fassnacht  
211 et al., 2018a). Small studies also indicate a potential impact of immunotherapy in  
212 some of those patients (Fassnacht et al., 2015, Raj et al., 2020, Carneiro et al.,  
213 2019, Le Tourneau et al., 2018, Habra et al., 2019).

214 While mitotane has been shown to significantly prolong recurrence-free survival in  
215 patients with advanced ACC (Terzolo et al., 2007), its plasma concentration must be  
216 closely monitored and managed to ensure treatment effectivity (Fassnacht et al.,  
217 2013) and avoid major adverse effects. In this retrospective analysis we provide first  
218 clinical evidence in a human cohort that SPL treatment in ACC patients receiving  
219 mitotane chemotherapy is closely linked with reduced mitotane concentrations,  
220 concentration/dose ratios and time in range. This aggravates the known clinical  
221 difficulties in adequately dosing ACC patients to achieve therapeutic concentrations  
222 over long intervals. Recently, a study in 110 ACC patients found time in target range  
223 of plasma mitotane to be a significant predictor of recurrence-free survival  
224 independent of the Ki67 index (Puglisi et al., 2019, Puglisi et al., 2020). This  
225 underscores the importance of stable and therapeutic mitotane concentrations in  
226 ACC patients, especially in those with steroid hypersecretion. In this context, effects  
227 of SPL on mitotane concentrations may have adverse effects on clinical outcomes in  
228 ACC patients who already bear a high mortality risk.

229 Albeit, adequately mitotane dosing is complicated by the low oral bioavailability and  
230 lipophilicity of mitotane, the latter leading to a large distribution volume and slow  
231 accumulation (Arshad et al., 2018, Corso et al., 2021). A further complicating factor  
232 is the complex and not fully understood metabolism of mitotane, leading to a  
233 considerable influence of individual pharmacogenetics (Yin et al., 2021, Altieri et al.,  
234 2020). Current integrative pharmacokinetic models strive towards predicting mitotane  
235 levels in individual patients, moving towards individualized mitotane dosing (Kerkhofs  
236 et al., 2015, Cazaubon et al., 2019).

237 Mitotane is itself a potent inhibitor of steroidogenesis and used for this specific effect  
238 as a treatment for Cushing's syndrome at lower doses (Daniel and Newell-Price,  
239 2015). But due to the aforementioned challenges, Mitotane treatment alone is often  
240 insufficient to rapidly control severe steroid hypersecretion and the resulting  
241 hypokalemia in a relevant percentage of ACC patients (Allolio and Fassnacht, 2006).  
242 This often necessitates additional anti-hormonal treatment, which can be initiated  
243 together with mitotane. Metyrapone, an  $11\beta$ -hydroxylase inhibitor, is the first  
244 therapeutic choice for the management advanced ACC patients with severe  
245 Cushing's syndrome, as it is well tolerated and has no reported interactions with  
246 mitotane (Fassnacht et al., 2018b). Recently, the similarly acting osilodrostat was  
247 approved as a therapeutic alternative. Ketoconazole blocks several enzymes of the  
248 adrenal steroidogenesis, but the hepatotoxicity often contraindicates the co-  
249 administration with mitotane, especially at start of the treatment. Levoketokonazole  
250 might improve on this, although clinical data is currently lacking (Castinetti et al.,  
251 2021). Mifepristone as a glucocorticoid receptor antagonist is also an option, but it is  
252 difficult to monitor and the high circulating cortisol levels induce mineralocorticoid  
253 effects, including hypertension and hypokalemia.

254 Nevertheless, a fraction of ACC patients, particularly with glucocorticoid- and  
255 mineralocorticoid secreting tumors, suffer from severe hypokalemia (Fassnacht et  
256 al., 2009) requiring specific treatment or replacement beyond hypercortisolism  
257 treatment (Allolio and Fassnacht, 2006). Therefore, supporting pharmacological  
258 therapy with either mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists (MRA, eplerenone, SPL)  
259 or epithelial sodium channel (ENaC) blockers (amiloride, triamterene) is frequently  
260 required.

261 The most commonly used and most ubiquitously available of all these  
262 pharmacological agents is SPL, now amassing over 60 years of clinical use (Kolkhof  
263 and Barfacker, 2017). Aside from the well-known adverse effects related to its affinity  
264 to the androgen receptor, a possible interaction with mitotane has been discussed  
265 for some time, with only anecdotal evidence amounting to only one published case  
266 report (Wortsman and Soler, 1977). Still, due to lack of evidence, the administration  
267 of SPL is recommended in educational articles, reviews and guidelines for the  
268 clinical management of patients with hormone-secreting adrenocortical cancer  
269 (Lacroix, 2010, Rao and Habra, 2016, Veytsman et al., 2009). Considering our  
270 observations indicating potential pharmacological interactions of SPL and mitotane  
271 treatment, which may lead to difficulties to achieve effective mitotane concentrations  
272 and may thereby have potential deleterious effects on clinical outcomes, we would  
273 like to caution clinicians regarding the use of SPL in mitotane receiving ACC  
274 patients. ENaC-blockers, with preferential use of amiloride, might be the favored first  
275 line treatment of hypokalemia in these patients (Fassnacht et al., 2018a, Quinkler  
276 and Stewart, 2010). At therapy failure or if MRAs are strongly indicated for other  
277 reasons, eplerenone rather than SPL should be used, although possibly higher  
278 doses of eplerenone are needed due to CYP3A4 interactions. If SPL is unavoidable,

279 close monitoring of mitotane levels is essential, and the patient will likely require  
280 higher doses than usually administered.

281 The mechanism of action behind this potential interaction remains unknown. One  
282 possible way of interaction is SPL interfering with mitotane metabolism via the  
283 cytochrome P450-system. Mitotane (o,p'-DDD) is primarily transformed and  
284 metabolized in adrenocortical mitochondria (Hahner and Fassnacht, 2005). The  
285 transformation requires  $\beta$ -hydroxylation followed by rapid dechlorination to a reactive  
286 acyl chloride thought to bind adrenocortical binucleophiles in target cells to exert an  
287 adrenolytic effect via enhanced oxygen activation (Waszut et al., 2017). The  
288 metabolic reaction is known to be inhibited by ketoconazole but not by  
289 aminoglutethimide, metyrapone, or other steroids (Veytsman et al., 2009). SPL, like  
290 ketoconazole, is a broad cytochrome P450-inhibitor and its metabolites canrenone  
291 and canrenoate-k have been shown to inhibit 11 $\beta$ - and 18-hydroxylation in human  
292 adrenal cortical mitochondria (Lund and Lund, 1995). Moreover, inhibition of 2 $\beta$ , 6 $\beta$ ,  
293 15 $\beta$  and 18-hydroxylation was also demonstrated by other metabolites in the rat  
294 model (Decker et al., 1989, Colby et al., 1991). Although, it seems not implausible  
295 that SPL could inhibit those initial hydroxylation steps, induction of microsomal  
296 elimination might also be involved. This is supported by animal studies hinting  
297 towards a faster elimination of DDT-metabolites when administered with  
298 pentobarbital (Fries et al., 1971), with a similar effect described for SPL (Solymoss et  
299 al., 1969). This may additionally contribute to lower mitotane concentrations during  
300 SPL treatment.

301 And while unchanged mitotane appears to be eliminated largely through biliary  
302 excretion (but can also undergo enterohepatic circulation) (Kroiss et al., 2011), its

303 less hydrophobic metabolite o,p'-DDA is subject to rapid renal elimination (Corso et  
304 al., 2021).

305 These data underscore the further need for exploring the metabolism of mitotane, as  
306 well as the interaction of mitotane and SPL, since other pharmacological agents may  
307 also interfere with the pharmacokinetics of this key drug for ACC therapy.

308 This study is limited by its retrospective character and thus does not provide direct  
309 proof that SPL treatment reduces mitotane concentrations. Considering ACC being a  
310 rare disease the cohort size seems well dimensioned, however the overall number of  
311 patients is rather low, which limits the analysis with further confounders. Additionally,  
312 the mechanism for the interaction of SPL and mitotane remains unknown and might  
313 include further mediators or moderators. Confirmatory studies are needed to  
314 adequately address confounders and analyze survival data in a larger cohort.

315 Still, considering these limitations, we find that this study contributes important first  
316 clinical evidence in a human cohort indicating potential deleterious SPL-mitotane  
317 interactions.

318 We believe that these data should caution clinicians to consider this potential  
319 interaction when treating hypokalemia in ACC patients, and to carefully adjust  
320 mitotane doses if spironolactone treatment is unavoidable or prefer alternative  
321 therapeutic agents such as amiloride. Future studies should address the mechanism  
322 of action behind this interaction and investigate other possible interaction candidates.

323

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326

## 327 **Conflicts of Interest**



328 We declare that there is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing  
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330

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531

## 532 **Figure Legends**

### 533 **Figure 1**

#### 534 *Mitotane Concentrations During Spironolactone Treatment*

535 Mitotane concentrations (A,D), mitotane dose (B), mitotane concentration/dose ratios  
536 (C, E) and time in range to progression (TRP) and time in range (TR) as mean % of  
537 measure mitotane concentrations per patient that were in the therapeutic range  
538 (plotted as boxplots with whiskers representing minimal and maximal values) (F).  
539 The grey area between the dotted lines in (A and D) represents the therapeutic  
540 range of 14-20 mg/l. Error bars represent interquartile range (A-C). \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$

### 541 **Supplemental Figure 1**

#### 542 *Mitotane Concentrations During Spironolactone Treatment After 6 Months*

543 Mitotane concentrations (A), mitotane dose (B) and mitotane concentration/dose  
544 ratios (C), excluding all data from 0-6 months after treatment start. The grey area  
545 between the dotted lines in (A) represents the therapeutic range of 14-20 mg/l. Error  
546 bars represent interquartile range (A-C). \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*  $p < 0.05$

### 547 **Supplemental Figure 2**

#### 548 *Correlation between Mitotane Doses and Concentrations*

549 Scatter plot of mitotane concentrations plotted against mitotane doses. Lines  
550 represent linear interpolations for each group.