



1 14 February 2013  
2 EMA/288890/2011  
3 Human Medicines Development and Evaluation

## 4 Standard acute myeloid leukaemia paediatric 5 investigation plan 6

Adopted by Paediatric Committee for release for consultation	8 February 2013
Start of public consultation	21 February 2013
End of consultation (deadline for comments)	5 May 2013

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8 Comments should be provided using this [template](#). The completed comments form should be sent to [paediatrics@ema.europa.eu](mailto:paediatrics@ema.europa.eu).

Keywords	<i>Child, medicine development, acute myeloid leukaemia, haematology, paediatric investigation plan</i>
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Note:

Comments are sought in particular on the clinical strategy and methodological aspects of clinical trials as well as on the following questions:

- How can the processes by which priorities are proposed for patient subsets, targets, pathways and mechanisms of action be made transparent and integrated with the objectives of this standard PIP?
- How to balance the unmet therapeutic needs of paediatric patients with newly-diagnosed acute myeloid leukaemia with those at first or subsequent relapse or a progression of acute myeloid leukaemia and those of specific subsets such as Down syndrome?

### 10 **1. Background**

11 The standard PIP for acute myeloid leukaemia (AML) was prepared by the Paediatric Committee with  
12 external experts in the Paediatric oncology task force of the EMA. The aim is to highlight the persistent  
13 unmet therapeutic needs for AML in children, to propose plausible targets / mechanisms of action that  
14 could address the needs, to set out the principal features of trials in children with AML as well as to  
15 make transparent the possible requirements for a PIP for AML. The standard paediatric investigation  
16 plan is a starting point for discussions on paediatric AML development. The intention is to support



17 pharmaceutical companies to propose a PIP that is scientifically adapted to the medicine. The  
18 document will be reviewed and updated as needed.

19 The annual incidence of AML in the paediatric population in the EU is about 700 patients, based on  
20 projections, accruals into trials and accruals into European registries; about 10 % of patients are under  
21 the age of 1 year at diagnosis; about 50 patients have Down's syndrome.

22 The underlying biology of AML overall and within its subtypes seems similar in children and young  
23 adults. However, not all biological characteristics are similar (e.g., NPM1 mutations). Moreover, the  
24 therapeutic settings and uses of medicines often cannot be compared across all ages (curative  
25 intention pursued with intensive front-line and first relapse treatment in young patients, in contrast to  
26 choices for palliation with low-toxicity treatment in the elderly), and the previous treatment exposure  
27 is largely different in advanced disease stages (relevant for medicines with late toxicities such as  
28 anthracyclines).

29 The overall prognosis declines with increasing age, even when looking only at children and young  
30 adults (5-year event free survival (EFS) 54% in young children, 43% children from 13 years to less  
31 than 21 years and 28% in young adults from 21 years to less than 30 years) (Creutzig et al. 2008) and  
32 this impacts options for clinical development; further prognostic factors include cytogenetics and gene  
33 mutations (Creutzig et al. 2012; Pui et al. 2011). Although the prognosis of AML in children has  
34 improved children over the last decades, it has remained much inferior to the prognosis in acute  
35 lymphoblastic leukaemia.

36 Relationship to other relevant diseases: Myelodysplastic syndrome (MDS) should be specifically  
37 addressed by collecting specific robust paediatric data, whether in separate paediatric studies or in  
38 stratified studies jointly recruiting MDS and AML, for medicines that are developed for AML and also  
39 MDS treatment.

## 40 **2. Priority medicines to be developed, and patient subsets** 41 **with high unmet needs**

42 Reference is made to the academic community's clinical priorities or inventories for medicines for this  
43 disease, including currently known "druggable" targets of relevance. Available references may not  
44 represent the latest information on priority medicines and targets / pathways:

- 45 • Arsenic trioxide (Vassal 2009), cladribine, clofarabine, liposomal daunorubicine, gemtuzumab  
46 ozogamicin, dasatinib, midostaurin, multityrosine kinase inhibitors (FLT3, KIT, VEGF),  
47 farnesyltransferase inhibitors (Kaspers and Zwaan 2007).

48 There are still unmet therapeutic needs in paediatric patients with newly-diagnosed AML (suboptimal  
49 prognosis with current best treatment) as well as in those with refractory or with recurrent disease  
50 (even worse prognosis, unchanged since long). All subsets of the paediatric population with AML should  
51 be discussed in the PIP documentation and the PIP indication should target 2 or 3 of the following  
52 subsets, selected based on a scientific rationale for the medicine and with the objective to improve the  
53 overall outcome in AML.

- 54 • Patients with newly-diagnosed high-risk AML: need for a more efficacious treatment as part of a  
55 first-line induction regimen, in particular when there is a good rationale for use during first-line  
56 treatment, such as the individual disease biology (e.g., FLT3 mutations with high allelic ratio etc.)  
57 or the potential for reduction of toxicity.

- 58 • Patients with AML that is resistant to first or to second line induction treatment: need for an  
59 efficacious treatment as part of a re-induction regimen.
- 60 • Patients at the time of diagnosis of relapse after HSCT / second or subsequent relapse: need for an  
61 efficacious treatment that is not overly toxic in this subset of patients who likely had high  
62 cumulative previous treatment exposure, likely including at least one prior transplant procedure.
- 63 • Patients with secondary AML: need for an efficacious treatment.
- 64 • Patients at the time of diagnosis of early first relapse: need for a more efficacious treatment as  
65 part of a treatment regimen.
- 66 • Patients at the time of diagnosis of first relapse (other than early): need for a more efficacious  
67 treatment as part of a treatment regimen.
- 68 • Patients with APL: need for safer treatment to be used during induction.
- 69 • Patients with AML in Down syndrome: Needs may exist, specifically for non-cytotoxic or “targeted”  
70 medicines to reduce treatment toxicity. Needs may be less in patients younger than one year of  
71 age and in those with FAB M6 or M7, compared to other patients with AML in Down syndrome.
- 72 • Congenital AML, extramedullary AML.

### 73 **3. Criteria for evaluation of PIP proposal**

74 The EMA with the PDCO want to address public health needs by addressing the highest unmet needs in  
75 a timely fashion and by generating robust data, recognising that acute myeloid leukaemia is  
76 malignancy that occurs in the paediatric and adult population, albeit some notable differences exist in  
77 terms of disease features and outcome. The Appendix 2 to the Guideline on the evaluation of  
78 Anticancer Medicinal Products in Man (CPMP/EWP/205/95 Rev. 3) on Confirmatory studies in  
79 Haematological Malignancies applies also to the paediatric population, in particular the general  
80 principles, as well as the Addendum on Paediatric Oncology (CPMP/EWP/569/02). In addition, the  
81 following aspects in a PIP proposal for acute myeloid leukaemia will be particularly evaluated by the  
82 EMA / PDCO:

- 83 • How exactly can data from literature, non-clinical and adult studies support and inform the  
84 paediatric development, decision on paediatric studies and conclusions for efficacy (and perhaps  
85 dose) in children, respectively? On the similarity of the medicine for treatment of AML in adults and  
86 children, which data are needed? How robust is the plan to search for and model any differences  
87 (e.g., age-related difference in response, different treatment regimens) in joint analyses of studies  
88 in children and in adults? Are possibilities explored to recruit paediatric and young adult patients  
89 together into clinical trials?
- 90 • Are paediatric patient subsets well defined and do they represent paediatric patients with AML and  
91 high unmet needs (see above)? A priori, it is equally important to prevent a relapse as to develop  
92 salvage treatments for AML. Do the paediatric studies progressively cover the relevant age range,  
93 generating some data in the youngest patients (infants)?
- 94 • Method and robustness of dose-finding and early trials, for example, optimum biological dose  
95 versus maximum tolerable dose, or a combination thereof, and how the choice is informed by data;  
96 how are pharmacokinetic assessments informed by predictions from models of Pk and / or Pk/PD to  
97 which then paediatric data are added; dose-finding in younger children; supportive  
98 pharmacodynamic data; establishing a relationship to adult data. Pharmacokinetic, safety and  
99 dose-escalating dose-finding studies with cytotoxic medicines should probably not define

100 haematological toxicity as dose-limiting (DLT) for AML, or should differentiate between  
101 haematological and non-haematological DLT.

- 102 • Does dose-finding appropriately reflect that single-agent studies may not be justified because  
103 therapeutic benefit cannot be expected to be sufficient for a treatment effect on AML?

## 104 **4. Non-clinical studies**

105 Currently few paediatric AML cell lines and xenografts seem to be available for non-clinical  
106 pharmacology (efficacy) studies (Kang et al. 2011; Drexler 2010); fresh material from children with  
107 AML could be used. Studies in a PIP should contribute to establishing more paediatric AML models for  
108 non-clinical pharmacology (efficacy) studies. Non-clinical data may be needed to investigate  
109 pharmacodynamic interactions and to analyse impacts on the activity of used and established  
110 medicines, for example anthracyclines and cytarabine.

## 111 **5. Clinical studies**

### 112 **5.1. Clinical study overview**

- 113 1. Dose-finding trial in paediatric (and possibly young adult) patients with AML, preferably including  
114 testing a rational combination, limited to identify unexpected paediatric toxicity and / or  
115 unexpected pharmacokinetic profile, allowing as soon as possible to progress with subsequent  
116 studies.
- 117 2. Therapeutic-exploratory trial in paediatric (and possibly young adult) patients at diagnosis of first  
118 relapse of AML, unless data show relevant activity in adults with AML so that this study is not  
119 necessary and the next study should be started.
- 120 3. Randomised trial in paediatric (and possibly young adult) patients with AML to evaluate safety and  
121 efficacy of the medicine, added to standard of care or active-controlled when used in rational  
122 combination, in target subset(s).

### 123 **5.2. Methodological aspects for studies**

124 Paediatric trials should be initiated not later than preliminary dosing, safety and activity data are  
125 available from a study(ies) in adults with AML or another malignant disease.

126 Trials may recruit both paediatric and young adult populations (e.g., up to 30 years of age, depending  
127 on trial objectives) provided that the trial is driven by the paediatric therapeutic use of the medicine.  
128 Trials with paediatric patients at first relapse should be stratified by time of relapse and by early  
129 treatment response. Patients with CNS involvement should be included.

130 Patients with Down syndrome should be studied separately from other paediatric patients with AML, or  
131 at least be analysed as a separate subset, if the safety profile of the medicine being studied suggests  
132 that they could be included alongside other paediatric patients.

133 Reporting of paediatric trial results to include sensitivity analyses by cytogenetics and by age as well as  
134 descriptive comparison of the results in paediatric and any adult patients.

135 Definitions accepted in internationally established paediatric oncology groups should be used for  
136 describing risk factors and endpoints. However, some variation in such definitions is recognised.  
137 Working definitions could be as follows:

- 138 • “High risk AML”: An example is, unfavourable cytogenetics or bone marrow blast proportion  
139 exceeds 15% on day 15 of induction therapy (or whatever other blast percentage and timing of  
140 this assessment is selected), but no favourable cytogenetics.
- 141 • Favourable cytogenetics: Examples are, t(15;17), t(8;21)(q22;q22)/RUNX1-CBFA2T1,  
142 inv(16)(p13q22)/t(16;16)(p13;q22)/CBFB-MYH11, and others to be included.
- 143 • “Resistance” to, “refractory to”, progression on front-line treatment: It may be possible to group  
144 patients with such AML disease together, if they have received appropriately intensive treatment.
- 145 • “APL”: acute promyelocytic leukaemia; for this and other AML subtypes refer to (Vardiman 2010);  
146 APL may need to be studied or analysed specifically.
- 147 • “Early relapse”: relapse when first complete remission duration is less than one year
- 148 • “Secondary AML”: encompasses AML developing after preceding myelodysplastic syndrome or as a  
149 second malignancy after previous malignancy and treatment.
- 150 • Endpoint definitions according to Creutzig and Kaspers (2004) for CRi and according to Cheson et  
151 al. (2003) for other endpoints, for example criteria for “phase I or II” trials.

### 152 **5.3. Extrapolation of efficacy**

153 Based on the data of similarities and dissimilarities, extrapolation of efficacy from adults may be  
154 justifiable, in well-defined subsets of adult and paediatric patients based on the similarity of risk  
155 factors, stage and previous treatment if any. The PIP should discuss strengths and weaknesses of this  
156 approach, based on the pharmacological rationale, non-clinical and clinical data, in order to explore  
157 opportunities for extrapolation of efficacy. The requirements for acceptability of extrapolation of  
158 efficacy include that relevant data are, or will be available from studies in similar adult AML populations  
159 exposed to similar treatments. Where extrapolation of efficacy is a relevant part of the proposed  
160 paediatric development, the extrapolation exercise should be systematically planned and described  
161 (see EMA templates).

## 162 **6. General requirements**

163 Pharmaceutical development (age-appropriate pharmaceutical form[s]), non-clinical studies  
164 (pharmacokinetics/ metabolism, toxicology and pharmacology) and issues for long-term follow-up of  
165 safety and / or efficacy (after completion of a PIP) need to be proposed as for any other paediatric  
166 anti-cancer medicine.

167 The number of patients to be evaluable should be proposed and put into context by providing: a  
168 tabulation of a range of patient numbers, treatment effect sizes and study power; a plan for synthesis  
169 / meta-analysis of all relevant data; a discussion of the trade-off between sample size and the quality  
170 of data-driven conclusions.

171 Plans for collecting data on long-term safety and efficacy including on other uses of the medicine being  
172 explored, after first authorisation, in controlled environments such as a clinical trial(s); plans for  
173 integrating with scientific communities for this data collection.

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